Final text approved by Board – 14 December 2011 and 18 April 2012

The Joint Money Laundering Steering Group

Prevention of money laundering/combating terrorist financing

2011 REVIEW VERSION

GUIDANCE FOR THE UK FINANCIAL SECTOR
PART II: SECTORAL GUIDANCE

Amended: December 2011 and April 2012
PART II: SECTORAL GUIDANCE

This sectoral guidance is incomplete on its own. It must be read in conjunction with the main guidance set out in Part I of the Guidance.

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1: Retail banking

Note: This sectoral guidance is incomplete on its own. It must be read in conjunction with the main guidance set out in Part I of the Guidance.

Overview of the sector

1.1 Retail banking is the provision of standard current account, loan and savings products to personal and business customers by banks and building societies. It covers the range of services from the provision of a basic bank account facility to complex money transmission business for a medium sized commercial business. In this guidance, retail banking does not cover credit cards, which are dealt with in sector 2. For many firms, retail banking is a mass consumer business and will generally not involve close relationship management by a named relationship manager.

1.2 This sectoral guidance refers primarily to business undertaken within the UK. Firms operating in markets outside the UK will need to take account of local market practice, while at the same time ensuring that equivalent CDD and record-keeping measures to those set out in the ML Regulations are applied by their branches and subsidiaries operating in these markets.

What are the money laundering and terrorist financing risks in retail banking?

1.3 There is a high risk that the proceeds of crime will pass through retail banking accounts at all stages of the money laundering process. However, many millions of retail banking transactions are conducted each week and the likelihood of a particular transaction involving the proceeds of crime is very low. A firm’s risk-based approach will be designed to ensure that it places an emphasis within its strategy on deterring, detecting and disclosing in the areas of greatest perceived vulnerability.

1.4 There is an increasing risk of fraudulent applications by identity thieves. However, such applications represent a very small percentage of overall applications for retail banking services.

1.5 The provision of services to cash-generating businesses is a particular area of risk associated with retail banking. Some businesses are legitimately cash based, including large parts of the retail sector, and so there will often be a high level of cash deposits associated with some accounts. The risk is in failing to identify such businesses where the level of cash activity is higher than the underlying business would justify, thus providing grounds for looking more closely at whether the account may be being used for money laundering or terrorist financing.

1.6 The feature of lending is generally that the initial monies advanced are paid into another bank or building society account. Consolidation loans may involve payment direct to the borrower’s creditor, and the amount borrowed in some unsecured lending arrangements may be taken in cash. Repayments are usually made from other bank or building society accounts by direct debit; in most cases, repayments in cash are not encouraged.

1.7 Given that a loan results in the borrower receiving funds from the lender, the initial transaction is not very susceptible of the placement stage of money laundering, although it could form part of the layering stage. The main money laundering risk arises through the acceleration of an agreed repayment schedule, either by means of lump sum repayments, or early termination.
1.8 Where loans are made in one jurisdiction, and collateral is held in another, this may indicate an increased money laundering risk.

Other relevant industry and regulatory guidance

1.9 Firms should make use of other existing guidance and leaflets etc in this area, as follows:

- See “Fighting Financial Crime” pages on www.fsa.gov.uk
- “International Students – opening a UK bank account” and “Banking for people who lack capacity to make decisions” – see www.bba.org.uk

1.10 See also paragraphs 1.38 – 1.41 on financial exclusion.

Customer due diligence

General

1.11 The AML/CTF checks carried out at account opening are very closely linked to anti-fraud measures and are one of the primary controls for preventing criminals opening accounts or obtaining services from banks. Firms should co-ordinate these processes, in order to provide as strong a gatekeeper control as possible.

1.12 For the majority of personal applicants, sole or joint, the standard identification evidence set out in Part I, Chapter 5 will be applicable, including, in the case of customers not met face to face, the additional precautions required under the ‘enhanced due diligence’ provisions of the ML Regulations as set out in paragraphs 5.5.10 – 5.5.17. See also 1.35 below.

1.13 Documents that are acceptable in different situations are summarised in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.70 – 5.3.75, together with the principles defining when reliance may be placed on a single document or where more than one is required. A current UK passport or photocard driving licence (containing an in-date photograph – see Part I, paragraph 5.3.77) issued in the UK is likely to be used in the majority of cases, other than in the context of financial exclusion, where a bespoke token may be accepted, as set out in Annex 1-I. Non-UK nationals entering the UK should present their national passports or national identity cards, other than in the context of financial exclusion, where bespoke tokens are referred to in Annex 1-I for refugees and asylum seekers.

1.14 The other documents cited in Part I, paragraph 5.3.74 may be used for UK residents where the standard documents are not available, whether singly or in conjunction, according to the principles set out in that paragraph. For non-UK residents, or persons who have recently entered the UK, firms may well require additional documentary evidence - not for AML/CTF purposes, but to offset fraud and credit risks which would normally be addressed through electronic checks for UK residents (see paragraphs 1.22-1.24).

1.15 Standard due diligence is not required in the following situations:

- Where the source of funds may be used as evidence of identity. See Part I, paragraphs 5.3.92 to 5.3.96.
- Where a variation from the standard is required to prevent a person from being financially excluded (see paragraphs 1.38 – 1.41 and Annex 1-I).
- Products which meet the criteria in Regulation 9(8) and (9) of the ML Regulations 2007, e.g., a Junior ISA
However, a firm should take care with customers whose identity is verified under a variation from the standard and who wish to migrate to other products in due course. The verification of identity undertaken for a basic bank account may not be sufficient for a customer migrating to a higher risk product. Firms should have processes defining what additional due diligence, including where appropriate further evidence of identification, is required in such circumstances.

Where the incentive to provide a false identity is greater, firms should consider deploying suitable fraud prevention tools and techniques to assist in alerting to false and forged identification. Where the case demands, a firm might require proof of identity additional to the standard evidence.

A customer with an existing account at the same firm

If the existing customer was taken on pre-1994, or it could not be established that the customer’s identity had previously been verified, an application would trigger standard identification procedures.

Most large firms have completed current customer review (CCR) checks. These could result in different levels of confidence in the identity of the person concerned, depending on the amount of information held on the existing holder. If the review had verified the customer’s identity at least to the standard required as part of the CCR exercise, a second account would normally be opened without further identification procedures, (provided the characteristics of the new account are not in a higher risk category than the existing account). Thus, a foreign currency account might require further identification procedures and/or additional customer enquiries but for a new savings account, where the applicant’s existing account had passed current customer review checks, most firms would not require further identification.

Customers with a bank account with one firm who wish to transfer it to another

Standard identification procedures will usually apply. In some cases, the firm holding the existing account may be willing to confirm the identity of the account holder to the new firm, and to provide evidence of the identification checks carried out. Care will need to be exercised by the receiving firm to be satisfied that the previous verification procedures provide an appropriate level of assurance for the new account, which may have different risk characteristics from the one held with the other firm.

Where different UK regulated firms in the same group share a customer and (before or after any current customer review) transfer a customer between them, either firm can rely on the other firm’s review checks in respect of that customer. Care will need to be exercised by the receiving part of the group to be satisfied that the previous verification procedures provide an appropriate level of assurance for the new account, which may have different risk characteristics from the one held with the other part of the group.

Non-resident, physically present in the UK, wishing to open a bank account

A non-resident, whether a non-UK national or a UK national who is returning to the UK after a considerable absence, who is physically present in the UK and who wishes to open an account should normally be able to provide standard identification documentation to open a Basic Bank Account (see Part I, paragraph 5.3.74 and Annex 1-I).

Non-resident, not physically present in the UK, wishing to open a bank account
1.23 Non-residents not physically present in the UK wishing to open an account in the UK are unlikely to wish to open a Basic Bank Account, with its limited facilities. The customer should be able to demonstrate a need for a bank account in the UK, or should fall within the firm’s criteria for wealth management clients, in which case the guidance in sector 5: Wealth Management will apply. Enhanced due diligence will apply where the customer is not met personally or where other high risk factors come into play (see paragraphs 5.19-24 and Part I, section 5.5).

Members of HM Diplomatic Service returning to the UK and wishing to open a bank account.

1.24 The standard identification evidence, as set out in Part I Chapter 5, should be able to be obtained in these cases. Members of HM Diplomatic Service are, however, reported to have experienced difficulties in opening a bank account because, for example, they have no recent electronic data history stored in the UK. Account opening procedures may be facilitated by a letter from the Foreign Office confirming that the person named was a member of the Diplomatic Service and was returning to the UK.

Lending

1.25 Many applications for advances are made through brokers, who may carry out some of the customer due diligence on behalf of the lender. In view of the generally low money laundering risk associated with mortgage business and related protection policies, and the fraud prevention controls in place within the mortgage market, use of confirmations from intermediaries introducing customers is, in principle, perfectly reasonable, where the introducer is carrying on appropriately regulated business (see Part I, paragraph 5.6.6) including appointed representatives of FSA authorised firms.

1.26 Firms should refer to the guidance on situations where customers are subject to identification by two or more financial services firms in relation to the same transaction, set out in Part I, section 5.6.

Business Banking

1.27 Business banking in the Retail sector is by nature a volume business, typically offering services for smaller UK businesses, ranging from sole traders and small family concerns to partnerships, professional firms and smaller private companies (i.e. turnover under £1 million pa). These businesses are often, but not always, UK-based in terms of ownership, location of premises and customers. As such, the risk profile may actually be lower than that of larger businesses with a more diverse customer base or product offering, which may include international business and customers. The profile may, however, often be higher than that of personal customers, where identification may be straightforward and the funds involved smaller.

1.28 Essentially, as set out in Part I, Chapter 5, identification should initially focus on ascertaining information about the business and its activities and verifying beneficial owners holding or controlling directly or indirectly, 25% or more of the shares or voting rights, and controllers, and where the business is a limited company, verifying the legal existence of the company.

1.29 Uncertainties may often arise with a business that is starting up and has not yet acquired any premises (e.g., X & Y trading as ABC Ltd, working from the director/principal’s home). A search of Companies House may not always produce relevant information if the company is newly formed.

1.30 In the case of newly-formed businesses, obtaining appropriate customer information is sometimes not easy. The lack of information relating to the business can be mitigated in part by making sufficient additional enquiries to understand fully the customer's expectations (nature
of proposed activities, anticipated cash flow through the accounts, frequency and nature of transactional activity, an understanding of the underlying ownership of the business) and personal identification of the owners/controllers of the business, as well as information on their previous history. Part I, Chapter 5, contains further guidance relating to identification standards.

1.31 Firms may encounter difficulties with validating the business entity, particularly where directorships may not have been registered or updated. It is recommended that where this arises (and firms still feel able to open an account on the basis of the evidence already seen) firms conduct or take additional steps to confirm the control and ownership of the business after the account has been opened, by checking to ensure directorships have been updated. Where mitigating steps have been taken to compensate for information not being easily available, firms should consider the probability that additional monitoring of the customer’s transactions and activity should be put in place.

1.32 A firm must be reasonably satisfied that the persons starting up the business are who they said they are, and are associated with the firm. Reasonable steps must be taken to verify the identity of the persons setting up a new business, as well as any beneficial owners, which may often be based on electronic checks. In the majority of cases, the individuals starting up a business are likely to be its beneficial owners. A check of the amount of capital invested in the business, whether it is in line with the firm’s knowledge of the individual(s) and whether it seems in line with their age/experience, etc, may be a pointer to whether further enquiries need to be made about other possible beneficial owners.

1.33 Wherever possible, documentation of the firm’s business address should be obtained. Where the firm can plausibly argue that this is not possible because it is in the early stages of start-up, the address of the firm should be verified later; in the interim, the bank may wish to obtain evidence of the address(es) of the person(s) starting up the business. In certain circumstances, a visit to the place of business may be helpful to confirm the existence and activities of the business.

1.34 In determining the identification appropriate for partnerships (see Part I, paragraphs 5.3.163 - 5.3.177), whose structure and business may vary considerably, and will include professional firms e.g. solicitors, accountants, as well as less regulated businesses, it will be important to ascertain where control of the business lies, and to take account of the risk inherent in the nature of the business.

**Enhanced due diligence**

1.35 Enhanced due diligence is required under Regulation 10 of the ML Regulations in the following situations:

- When the applicant is a PEP. See Part I, paragraphs 5.5.18 - 5.5.30.
- When there is no face-to-face contact with the applicant. An additional check is needed to offset the increased risk, notably that of impersonation fraud (see Part I, paragraph 5.3.82).
- When the business of the customer is considered to present a higher risk of money laundering or terrorist financing. Examples should be set out in the firm’s risk-based approach and should reflect the firm’s own experience and information produced by the authorities. See Part I, paragraphs 3.24 – 3.26 and section 5.5 for general guidance.
- When establishing a correspondent banking relationship with an institution in a non-EEA state, (although in practice most firms would not regard such relationships as forming part of their ‘retail’ business).

1.36 Firms will need to consider making more penetrating initial enquiries, over and above that usually carried out before taking on businesses whose turnover is likely to exceed certain thresholds, or where the nature of the business is higher risk, or involves large cash transactions,
or is conducted primarily on a non face-to-face basis. Recognising that there are a very large number of small businesses which are cash businesses, there will be constraints on the practicality of such enquiries; even so, firms should be alert to the increased vulnerability of such customers to laundering activity when evaluating whether particular transactions are suspicious. Examples of higher risk situations are:

- High cash turnover businesses: casinos, bars, clubs, taxi firms, launderettes, takeaway restaurants
- Money service businesses: cheque encashment agencies, bureaux de change, money transmitters
- Gaming and gambling businesses
- Computer/high technology/telecom/mobile phone sales and distribution, noting especially the high propensity of this sector to VAT ‘Carousel’ fraud
- Companies registered in one offshore jurisdiction as a non-resident company with no local operations but managed out of another, or where a company is registered in a high risk jurisdiction, or where beneficial owners with significant interests in the company are resident in a high risk jurisdiction
- Unregistered charities based or headquartered outside the UK, ‘foundations’, cultural associations and the like, particularly if centred on certain target groups, including specific ethnic communities, whether based in or outside the UK (see FATF Typologies Report 2003/4 under ‘Non-profit organisations’ – at www.fatf-gafi.org)

1.37 Firms should maintain and update customer information, and address any need for additional information, on a risk-sensitive basis, under a trigger event strategy (for example, where an existing customer applies for a further product or service) or by periodic file reviews.

*Financial exclusion*

1.38 Denying those who are financially excluded from access to the financial sector is an issue for deposit takers. Reference should be made to the guidance given in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.110 to 5.3.114, and Annex 1-I.

1.39 The “financially excluded” are not a homogeneous category of uniform risk. Some financially excluded persons may represent a higher risk of money laundering regardless of whether they provide standard or non standard tokens to confirm their identity, e.g., a passport holder who qualifies only for a basic account on credit grounds. Firms may wish to consider whether any additional customer information, or monitoring of the size and expected volume of transactions, would be useful in respect of some financially excluded categories, based on the firm’s own experience of their operation.

1.40 In other cases, where the available evidence of identity is limited, and the firm judges that the individual cannot reasonably be expected to provide more, but that the business relationship should nevertheless go ahead, it should consider instituting enhanced monitoring arrangements over the customer’s transactions and activity (see Part I, section 5.7). In addition, the firm should consider whether restrictions should be placed on the customer’s ability to migrate to other, higher risk products or services.

1.41 Where an applicant produces non-standard documentation, staff should be discouraged from citing the ML Regulations as an excuse for not opening an account before giving proper consideration to the evidence available, referring up the line for advice as necessary. It may be that at the conclusion of that process a considered judgement may properly be made that the evidence available does not provide a sufficient level of confidence that the applicant is who he claims to be, in which event a decision not to open the account would be fully justified. Staff should bear in mind that the ML Regulations are not explicit as to what is and is not acceptable evidence of identity.
Monitoring

1.42 Firms should note the guidance contained in Part I, section 5.7, and the examples of higher risk businesses in paragraph 1.36. It is likely that in significant retail banking operations, some form of automated monitoring of customer transactions and activity will be required. However, staff vigilance is also essential, in order to identify counter transactions in particular that may represent money laundering, and in order to ensure prompt reporting of initial suspicions, and application for consent where this is required.

1.43 Particular activities that should trigger further enquiry include lump sum repayments outside the agreed repayment pattern, and early repayment of a loan, particularly where this attracts an early redemption penalty.

1.44 Mortgage products linked to current accounts do not have a predictable account turnover, and effective rescheduling of the borrowing – which can be repaid and re-borrowed at the borrower’s initiative – does not require the agreement of the lender. This should lead to the activity on such accounts being more closely monitored.

1.45 In a volume business, compliance with the identification requirements set out in the firm’s policies and procedures should also be closely monitored. The percentage failure rate in such compliance should be low, probably not exceeding low single figures. Repeated failures in excess of this level by a firm over a period of time may point to a systemic weakness in its identification procedures which, if not corrected, would be a potential breach of FSA Rules and should be reported to senior management. This should be part of the standard management information that a firm collates and provides to MLRO and other senior management.

Training

1.46 Firms should note the guidance contained in Part I, Chapter 7. In the retail banking environment it is essential that training should ensure that branch counter staff are aware that they must report if they are suspicious. It should also provide them with examples of red flags to look out for.

Reporting

1.47 Firms should note the guidance contained in Part I, Chapter 6. As indicated in Part I, paragraphs 7.31 to 7.33, further reference material and typologies are available from the external sources cited, viz: JMLSG, FATF and SOCA websites. In addition, firms should be aware of the requirement under Section 331(4) of the Proceeds of Crime Act for reports to be submitted “as soon as practicable” to SOCA.

1.48 There is no formal definition of what “as soon as practicable” means, but firms should note the enforcement action taken by the FSA in respect of the anti money laundering procedures in place at a large UK firm. The FSA imposed a financial penalty on the firm due, in part, to finding that over half of the firm’s suspicious activity reports were submitted to SOCA more than 30 days after having been reported internally to the firm’s nominated officer. In view of the volumes of reports which may be generated in this sector, firms may wish to keep under review whether their nominated officer function is adequately resourced. It is reasonable to base the timescale not on the date that an alert is generated but rather the point in time at which, following internal investigation, a determination is made that it is suspicious and should be reported to SOCA. In all circumstances, however, firms should ensure that their end to end process is as efficient as it can be.
Interbank Agency Service

1.49 Staff in one firm (firm A) may become suspicious of a transaction undertaken over their counters by a customer of another firm (firm B), as might arise under the Interbank Agency Service, which permits participating banks to service other banks' customers. In such a case, a report should be made to the nominated officer of firm A, who may alert the nominated officer of firm B. In each case, the nominated officer will need to form their own judgement whether to disclose the circumstances to SOCA.
### Special Cases

Many customers in the categories below will be able to provide standard documents, and this will normally be a firm’s preferred option. This annex is a non-exhaustive and non-mandatory list of documents (see Notes) which are capable of evidencing identity for special cases who either cannot meet the standard verification requirement, or have experienced difficulties in the past when seeking to open accounts, and which will generally be appropriate for opening a Basic Bank Account. These include:

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<th>Customer</th>
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<tr>
<td>Benefit claimants</td>
<td>Entitlement letter issued by DWP, HMRC or local authority, or Identity Confirmation Letter issued by DWP or local authority</td>
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<tr>
<td>Those in care homes/sheltered accommodation/refuge</td>
<td>Letter from care home manager/warden of sheltered accommodation or refuge &lt;br&gt;Homeless persons who cannot provide standard identification documentation are likely to be in a particular socially excluded category. A letter from the warden of a homeless shelter, or from an employer if the customer is in work, will normally be sufficient evidence.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Those on probation</td>
<td>It may be possible to apply standard identification procedures. Otherwise, a letter from the customer’s probation officer, or a hostel manager, would normally be sufficient.</td>
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<td>International students</td>
<td>Passport or EEA National Identity Card AND Letter of Acceptance or Letter of Introduction from Institution on the UK Border Agency list (see <a href="http://www.bia.homeoffice.gov.uk/employers/points/sponsoringmigrants/registerofsponsors/">http://www.bia.homeoffice.gov.uk/employers/points/sponsoringmigrants/registerofsponsors/</a>). See the pro forma agreed for this purpose with UKCOSA: The Council for International Education, attached as Annex 1-II. See also Part I, paragraphs 5.3.107-108.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prisoners</td>
<td>It may be possible to apply standard identification procedures. Otherwise, a letter from the governor of the prison, or, if the applicant has been released, from a police or probation officer or hostel manager would normally be sufficient. See the pro forma agreed for this purpose with the National Offender Management Service and UNLOCK, attached as Annex 1-III</td>
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<tr>
<td>Economic migrants (here meaning those working temporarily in the UK)</td>
<td>National Passport, or National Identity Card (nationals of EEA and</td>
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UK, whose lack of banking or credit history precludes their being offered other than a basic bank account] Switzerland

Details of documents required by migrant workers are available at [www.employingmigrants.org.uk](http://www.employingmigrants.org.uk) and Home Office website [www.homeoffice.gov.uk](http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk). Firms are not required to establish whether an applicant is legally entitled to work in the UK but if, in the course of checking identity, it came to light that the applicant was not entitled to do so, the deposit of earnings from employment could constitute an arrangement under the Proceeds of Crime Act.

<table>
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<th>Refugees (those who are not on benefit)</th>
<th>Immigration Status Document with Residence Permit, or IND travel document (i.e., Blue Convention Travel doc, or Red Stateless Persons doc, or Brown Certificate of Identity doc)</th>
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<td>Refugees are unlikely to have their national passports and will have been issued by the Home Office with documents confirming their status. A refugee is normally entitled to work, to receive benefits and to remain in the UK.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Asylum seekers | IND Application Registration Card (ARC)  
|----------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|                | *NB This document shows the status of the individual, and does not confirm their identity*  
|                | Asylum seekers are issued by the Home Office with documents confirming their status. Unlike refugees, however, information provided by an asylum seeker will not have been checked by the Home Office. The asylum seeker’s Applicant Registration Card (ARC) will state whether the asylum seeker is entitled to take employment in the UK. Asylum seekers may apply to open an account if they are entitled to work, but also to deposit money brought from abroad, and in some cases to receive allowances paid by the Home Office. |
|                | Firms are not required to establish whether an applicant is legally entitled to work in the UK but if, in the course of checking identity, it came to light that the applicant was not entitled to do so, the deposit of earnings from employment could constitute an arrangement under the Proceeds of Crime Act. |

| Travellers | Travellers may be able to produce standard identification evidence; if not, they may be in a particular special case category. If verification of address is necessary, a check with the local authority, which has to register travellers’ sites, may sometimes be helpful. |

**Notes:**
1. Passports, national identity cards and travel documents must be current, i.e. unexpired. Letters should be of recent date, or, in the case of students, the course dates stated in the Letter of Acceptance should reasonably correspond with the date of the account application to the bank. All documents must be originals. In case of need, consideration should be given to verifying the authenticity of the document with its issuer.

2. As with all retail customers, firms should take reasonable care to check that documents offered are genuine (not obviously forged), and where these incorporate photographs, that these correspond to the presenter.

3. Whilst it is open to firms to impose additional verification requirements if they deem necessary under their risk based approach and to address the perceived commercial risks attaching to their own Basic Account products, they should not lose sight of the requirement under SYSC 6.3.7 (5) (G) “not unreasonably [to] deny access to its service to potential customers who cannot reasonably be expected to provide detailed evidence of identity.”
LETTER OF INTRODUCTION FOR UK BANKING FACILITIES

We confirm that……………………………… (Please insert Student’s FULL Name) is/will be studying at the above named education institution.

Course Details

Name of Course:
Type of Course:
Start Date:
Finish Date:

Address Details [if known]

The Student’s Overseas Residential Address is:
(Please insert the Student’s full Overseas Address)

We have/have not (please delete whichever is applicable) corresponded with the Student at their above overseas address.

The Student’s UK Address is: [if known]
(Please insert the Student’s UK Address)

This certificate is only valid if embossed with the education institution’s seal or stamp.

Signed…………………………………………
Name…………………………………………
Position……………………………………

Contact Telephone Number at education institution…………………………………………
PERSONAL IDENTIFICATION DOCUMENT

I am willing for this form to be passed to [insert name of bank] to help me to apply for a Basic bank account, and to notify the bank of the address I will be living at when I am released.

Name………………………………………………..

Nationality ………………………………………… Place of Birth………………

Signature………………………………………….. Date………………………

Upon my release I will be living at the following address. I understand that I must confirm my address to the bank within 7 days of my release from custody. \(\text{If the address is not known at time of completing the application this section must be completed when known, and confirmed at the Discharge Board (any changes must be communicated to the bank).}\)

Witnessed by

Position of witness \([\text{must be an employee of the prison}]\)

Signature of witness
The following sections must be signed by an authorised manager

Applicant’s Full Name

Applicant’s Date of Birth

Applicant’s Current Address (HMP/YOI)

Applicant’s Photograph (to be affixed here)

Expected Release Date

Address immediately prior to custody

Verification of name and address by HMP

I certify that the name and address details supplied above match those on the court/prison records related to the applicant shown above.
I confirm that the photograph is a true likeness of the applicant.

Name  Position

e-mail address  @hmps.gsi.gov.uk

Direct telephone line

Signature  Date
2: Credit cards, etc

Note: This sectoral guidance is incomplete on its own. It must be read in conjunction with the main guidance set out in Part I of the Guidance.

Overview of the sector

2.1 A credit card evidences an unsecured borrowing arrangement between an issuing entity and a cardholder, whereby the cardholder obtains goods and services through merchants approved by the Merchant Acquirer (see paragraph 2.9), up to an agreed credit limit on the card. Cards may also be used at ATMs to withdraw cash, which is then added to the balance owing on the card account. Withdrawals (charged to the card account) across a bank counter may be made, upon the presentation of sufficient evidence of identity.

2.2 The cardholder agrees to repay any borrowing, in full or in part, at the end of each statement period. There will be a minimum monthly repayment figure (typically between 2% and 3% of the outstanding balance, depending on the issuer). Interest is charged by the issuing entity, at an agreed rate, on any borrowing not repaid at the end of each period. Any interest or fees charged are added to the card balance.

2.3 Cards are issued by individual Card Issuers, each of whom is a member of one or more Card Schemes (e.g., Visa, MasterCard). Each credit card will be branded with the logo of one of the card schemes, and may be used at any merchant worldwide that displays that particular scheme logo. Cash may also be withdrawn through ATMs which bear the scheme logo.

2.4 Credit cards may be used through a number of channels. They may be used at merchants’ premises at the point of sale, or may be used remotely over the telephone, web or mail (referred to as ‘card not present’ use). In card not present use, additional security numbers shown on the card may or may not be required to be used, depending on the agreement between merchant and its acquiring bank. The Merchant Acquirer (see paragraph 2.9) will undertake its own assessment of the merchant, and decide what type of delivery channel(s) it will allow the merchant to use to accept card transactions.

Different types of credit card

2.5 A Card Issuer may have a direct relationship with the cardholder, in which case the card will clearly indicate the names of the Issuer and of the cardholder. Some Issuers also issue and manage cards branded in the name of other firms (referred to as ‘branded cards’), and/or which carry the name of another organisation (referred to as ‘affinity cards’). Each card scheme has strict rules about the names that must appear on the face of each card.

2.6 Store cards are similar to credit cards, but are issued in the name of a retail organisation, which is not a member of a card scheme. These cards may be issued
and operated by a regulated entity within the store group, or on their behalf by other firms that issue and operate other cards. Store cards may only be used in branches of the store, or in associated organisations, and not in other outlets. Generally, store cards cannot be used to obtain cash. They are therefore limited to the domestic market, and cannot be used internationally.

2.7 As well as issuing cards to individuals, an Issuer may provide cards to corporate organisations, where a number of separate cards are provided for use by nominated employees of that organisation. The corporate entity generally carries the liability for the borrowings accrued under their employees’ use of their cards, although in some cases the company places the primary liability for repayment on the employee (generally to encourage the employee to account for his expenses, and to claim reimbursement from the company, in a timely manner).

2.8 This sectoral guidance applies to all cards that entitle the holder to obtain unsecured borrowing, whether held by individuals or corporate entities, and whether these are straightforward credit cards, branded or affinity cards, or store cards. It is not intended to apply to pre-paid cards (although in terms of processing these would use the same infrastructure as credit and debit cards), which are dealt with in sector 3: Electronic money.

Merchant acquisition

2.9 Merchant Acquirers provide a payment card processing service, which facilitates acceptance of payment card transactions between cardholders and merchants. Payment cards that bear card scheme acceptance brands (e.g., MasterCard and Visa) are issued by banks and financial institutions which are members of the relevant card scheme. The Merchant Acquirer processes the card transaction on behalf of its merchant customer, including, in appropriate cases, seeking authorisation for the transaction from the card issuer.

2.10 Payment (settlement) is made by the Card Issuer through the Card Scheme – e.g., Visa. In turn the scheme will pass funds to the Merchant Acquirer through the merchant’s bank account. The merchant is therefore a customer of (i) the acquiring bank for the purposes of transaction processing, and (ii) the bank with which it maintains its primary banking relationship, which may or may not be the same as the acquirer. The merchant does not have a relationship with the Card Issuer. For further guidance on transactions through Merchant Acquirers, see Part III, sector 1: Transparency in electronic payments, paragraph 1.18.

2.11 At the outset of the relationship with the merchant, the Merchant Acquirer will gather information on such matters as the expected card turnover, and average ticket value. This information is assessed in respect to the type of business the merchant is undertaking and the size of such business.

What are the money laundering and terrorist financing risks in issuance of credit cards?

2.12 Credit cards are a way of obtaining unsecured borrowing. As such, the initial risks are more related to fraud than to ‘classic’ money laundering; but handling the criminal property arising as a result of fraud is also money laundering. Card Issuers will therefore generally carry out some degree of credit check before accepting applications.

2.13 The money laundering risk relates largely to the source and means by which repayment of the borrowing on the card is made. Payments may also be made by
third parties. Such third party payments, especially if they are in cash or by debit
cards from different locations or accounts, represent a higher level of money
laundering risk than when they come from the cardholder's bank account by means of
cheque or direct debit.

2.14 Balances on cards may move into credit, if cardholders repay too much, or where
merchants pass credits/refunds across an account. Customers may ask for a refund of
their credit balance. Issuance of a cheque by a Card Issuer can facilitate money
laundering, as a credit balance made up of illicit funds could thereby be passed off as
legitimate funds coming from a regulated firm.

2.15 Where a cardholder uses his card for gambling purposes (although the use of credit
cards is prohibited in casinos), a card balance can easily be in credit, as scheme rules
require that winnings are credited to the card used for the bet. It can be difficult in
such circumstances to identify an unusual pattern of activity, as a fluctuating balance
would be a legitimate profile for such a cardholder.

2.16 Cash may be withdrawn in another jurisdiction; thus a card can enable cash to be
moved cross-border in non-physical form. This is in any event the case in respect of
an amount up to the credit limit on the card. Where there is a credit balance, the
amount that may be moved is correspondingly greater; it is possible for a cardholder
to overpay substantially, and then to take the card abroad to be used. However, most
card issuers limit the amount of cash that may be withdrawn, either in absolute terms,
or to a percentage of the card’s credit limit.

2.17 Where several holders are able to use a card account, especially to draw cash, the
Card Issuer may open itself to a money laundering or terrorist financing risk in
providing a payment token to an individual in respect of whom it holds no
information. The issuer would not know to whom it is advancing money (even
though the legal liability to repay is clear), unless it has taken some steps in relation to
the identity of all those entitled to use the card. Such steps might include ascertaining:

- whether the primary or any secondary cardholder (including corporate
cardholders) is resident in a high-risk jurisdiction or, for example, a country
identified in relevant corruption or risk indices (such as Transparency
International’s Corruption Perception Index) as having a high level of corruption

- whether any primary or secondary cardholder is a politically exposed person

Managing the elements of risk

2.18 Measures that a firm might consider for mitigating the risk associated with a credit
card customer base include the following:

- deciding whether to disallow persons so identified in the above two categories, or
to subject them to enhanced due diligence, including full verification of identity
of any secondary cardholder

- requiring the application process to include a statement of the relationship of a
secondary cardholder to the primary cardholder based on defined alternatives (eg.
Family member, carer, none)

- deciding whether either to disallow as a secondary cardholder on a personal
account any relationship deemed unacceptable according to internal policy
parameters, or where the address of the secondary cardholder differs to that of the
primary cardholder, or to subject the application to additional enquiry, including
verification of the secondary cardholder
being a member of closed user groups sharing information to identify fraudulent applications, and checking both primary and secondary cardholder names and/or addresses against such databases

- deciding whether to decline to accept, or to undertake additional or enhanced due diligence on, corporate cardholders associated with an entity which is engaged in a high-risk activity, or is resident in a high-risk jurisdiction, or has been the subject of (responsible) negative publicity

- implementing ongoing transaction monitoring of accounts, periodic review and refinement of the parameters used for the purpose. Effective transaction monitoring is the key fraud and money laundering risk control in the credit card environment

- in the event that monitoring or suspicious reporting identifies that a secondary cardholder has provided significant funds for credit to the account, either regularly or on a one-off basis, giving consideration to verifying the identity of that secondary cardholder where it has not already been undertaken

- deciding whether the cardholder should be able to withdraw cash from his card account

- deciding whether the card may be used abroad (and monitoring whether it is used abroad)

**Who is the customer for AML purposes?**

2.19 Identification of the parties associated with a card account is not dependent on whether or not they have a contractual relationship with the Card Issuer. A Card Issuer’s contractual relationship is solely with the primary cardholder, whether that is a natural or legal person, and it is to the primary cardholder that the Issuer looks for repayment of the debt on the card. The primary cardholder is unquestionably the Issuer’s customer. However, a number of secondary persons may have authorised access to the account on the primary cardholder’s behalf, whether as additional cardholders on a personal account or as employees holding corporate cards, where the contractual liability lies with the corporate employer.

2.20 The question therefore arises as to the appropriate extent, if any, of due diligence to be undertaken in respect of such secondary cardholders. Hitherto, there have been marked variations in interpretation and practice between Card Issuers with regard to the amount of data collected on secondary cardholders and the extent to which it is verified.

2.21 In substance, an additional cardholder on a personal card account is arguably analogous to either a joint account holder of a bank account, but without joint and several liability attaching, or - perhaps more persuasively – to a third party mandate holder on a bank account. In the case of corporate cards, it is reasonable to take the position that verification of the company in accordance with the guidance in Part I does not routinely require verification of all the individuals associated therewith.

2.22 In both cases, the risk posed to a firm’s reputation in having insufficient data to identify a secondary cardholder featuring on a sanctions list or being a corrupt politically exposed person, and the potential liability arising from a breach of sanctions or a major money laundering or terrorist financing case, renders it prudent for the data collected to be full enough to mitigate that risk.

2.23 A merchant is a customer for AML/CTF purposes of the Merchant Acquirer.

**Customer due diligence**
2.24 In most cases, the Card Issuer would undertake the appropriate customer due diligence checks itself, or through the services of a credit reference agency, but there are some exceptions to this:

- where the Card Issuer is issuing a card on behalf of another regulated financial services firm, being a company or partner (in the case of affinity cards) that has already carried out the required customer due diligence

- introductions from other parts of the same group, or from other firms which are considered acceptable introducers (see Part I, section 5.6)

2.25 Although not an AML/CTF requirement, approval processes should have regard to the Card Issuer’s latest information on current sources of fraud in relation to credit card applications.

2.26 Card schemes carry out surveys and reviews of activities related to their members. For example, one scheme carried out a due diligence review of the AML/CTF standards of all its members domiciled in high risk countries. Card Issuers should be aware of such survey/review activity.

2.27 Where corporate cards are issued to employees, the identity of the employer should be verified in accordance with the guidance set out in Part I, paragraph 5.3.121.

2.28 The standard verification requirement set out in Part I, Chapter 5 should be applied, as appropriate, to credit card and store card holders, although ascertaining the purpose of the account, and the expected flow of funds, would not be appropriate for such cards.

2.29 A risk-based approach to verifying the identity of secondary cardholders should be carried out as follows:

- The standard information set out in Part I, paragraph 5.3.70 should be collected for all secondary cardholders and recorded in such a way that the data are readily searchable.

- Firms should assess the extent to which they should verify any of the data so obtained, in accordance with the guidance set out in Part I, paragraph 5.3.71, from independent documentary or electronic evidence, in the light of their aggregate controls designed to mitigate fraud and money laundering risks, and bearing in mind the extent to which the firm applies the risk controls set out in paragraph 2.18. However, there is a presumption that such verification will be carried out, other than in the following circumstances.

  - In the case of store cards, because of the restrictions on their use, see paragraph 2.6.

  - In the case of commercial cards, because of the restrictions on their issue, see paragraph 2.7, although a firm’s risk-based approach may deem it prudent to verify employee cardholders of their smaller commercial card customers.

Where a firm employs a low risk strategy of issuing additional cards only to close family members who reside at the same address as the primary cardholder, and the additional cardholder is a close family member whose employment, or continuing education, dictates that they are not permanently resident at the address, then for purposes of verification the primary cardholder's address shall be the main residential...
address. This will be acceptable as long as the mailing address for the additional cardholder remains the same as the primary cardholder’s address.

In all these situations, firms will still need to consider other types of due diligence check on additional cardholders, e.g., against sanctions lists.

2.30 In relation to branded and affinity cards, where another regulated firm has the primary relationship with the cardholder, the partner organisation would need to undertake that it holds information on the applicant, and that this information would be supplied to the card issuer if requested.

2.31 In respect of a merchant, the Merchant Acquirer should apply the standard verification requirement in Part I, Chapter 5, adjusted as necessary to take account of the activities in which the merchant is engaged, turnover levels, the sophistication of available monitoring tools to identify any fraudulent background history as well as transaction activity, and the location of the bank account over which transactions are settled.

2.32 Where functions in relation to card issuing, especially initial customer due diligence, is outsourced, the firm should have regard to the FSA’s guidance on outsourcing (www.fsahandbook.info/FSA/html/handbook/SYSC/8). In particular, Card Issuers should have criteria in place for assessing, initially and on an ongoing basis, the extent and robustness of the systems and procedures (of the firm to which the function is outsourced) for carrying out customer identification.

2.33 It would be unusual for a Card Issuer to revisit the information held in respect of a cardholder. Credit cards are primarily a distance transaction process. An account is opened (after due diligence checks are completed), a balance is acquired, a bill sent and payment received. This cycle is repeated until card closure and the majority of cardholders rarely, if ever, contact the Card Issuer.

Enhanced due diligence

2.34 An issuer should have criteria and procedures in place for identifying higher risk customers. Such customers must be subject to enhanced due diligence. This applies in the case of customers identified as being PEPs, or who are resident in, or nationals of, high-risk and/or non FATF jurisdictions.

2.35 Firms’ procedures should include how customers should be dealt with, depending on the risk identified. Where necessary and appropriate, reference to a senior member of staff should be made in unusual circumstances. This will include getting senior manager approval for relationships with PEPs, although the level of seniority will depend on the level of risk represented by the PEP concerned.

Monitoring

2.36 It is a requirement of the ML Regulations that firms monitor accounts for unusual transactions patterns. Controls should be put in place for accepting changes of name or address for processing.
The purpose of this sectoral guidance is to provide clarification to electronic money issuers on customer due diligence and related measures required by law. As AML/CTF guidance, this sectoral guidance is incomplete on its own and must be read in conjunction with the main guidance set out in Part I and the specialist guidance set out in Part III.

This guidance may be used by all electronic money issuers (as defined in Regulation 2(1) of the Electronic Money Regulations 2011), including authorised electronic money institutions, registered small electronic money institutions, and credit institutions with a Part IV permission under the Financial Services and Markets Act 2000 to issue electronic money. It may also be relevant for EEA authorised electronic money issuers who distribute their products in the UK.

Introduction

What is electronic money?

3.1. Under the Electronic Money Regulations 2011 (Reg. 2(1)), electronic money is defined as:

> electronically (including magnetically) stored monetary value as represented by a claim on the electronic money issuer which—
> (a) is issued on receipt of funds for the purpose of making payment transactions;
> (b) is accepted by a person other than the electronic money issuer; and
> (c) is not excluded by regulation 3.’

3.2. Regulation 3 of the Electronic Money Regulations 2011 states that electronic money does not include:

> (a) monetary value stored on instruments that can be used to acquire goods or services only—
> (i) in or on the electronic money issuer’s premises; or
> (ii) under a commercial agreement with the electronic money issuer, either within a limited network of service providers or for a limited range of goods or services;
> (b) monetary value that is used to make payment transactions executed by means of any telecommunication, digital or IT device, where the goods or services purchased are delivered to and are to be used through a telecommunication, digital or IT device, provided that the telecommunication, digital or IT operator does not act only as an intermediary between the payment service user and the supplier of the goods and services.’

3.3. Electronic money is therefore a prepaid means of payment that can be used to make payments to multiple persons, where the persons are distinct legal or natural entities. It may be card-based or an online account-based product.

3.4. The Electronic Money Regulations 2011 also provide for a number of exemptions (see paragraph 3.2 above). Where such products are exempted from financial services regulation, they are also likely to fall outside of the scope of the AML and CTF regulation. Issuers must, however, examine such products on a case-by-case basis to identify whether such regulation continues to apply.

3.5. Electronic money may be issued by banks or building societies with the requisite variation of permission from the FSA, or it may be issued by specialist electronic money institutions, who obtain an authorisation from the FSA under the Electronic Money Regulations 2011 (for other persons also permitted to issue electronic money, such as local authorities, see Regulation 2(1) of the Electronic Money Regulations 2011.) Where electronic money institutions meet the conditions set out in Regulation 13 of the Electronic Money Regulations 2011, they may register with the FSA as small electronic money institutions.
3.6. All issuers of electronic money are subject to the Money Laundering Regulations 2007, section 21A of the Terrorism Act, the EC Wire Transfer Regulation, Schedule 7 to the Counter-terrorism Act 2008 and the Proceeds of Crime Act 2002. They must also comply with the legislation implementing the UK’s financial sanctions regime. Issuers of electronic money that are FSMA-authorised persons (i.e. banks and building societies) must also comply with relevant provisions in the FSA’s handbook.

3.7. Electronic money may also be issued into the UK by EEA credit and financial institutions holding the appropriate passport from their home state competent authority under Art. 25 or 28 of the Banking Consolidation Directive (2006/48/EC), or Art. 25 of the Payment Services Directive (2007/64/EC) by virtue of Art. 3(1) of the Electronic Money Directive (2009/110/EC). Where such issuance, distribution or redemption is on a cross-border services basis, i.e. without an establishment in the UK, the issuer’s AML procedures are regulated by the home state authorities, but issuers must be aware that in some cases, UK legislation may extend to such providers of services. UK AML/CTF legislation will apply where the service is provided through an establishment in the UK.

Definitions

3.8. The following terms are used in this guidance:

- **Card-based products:**
  These are products that employ a card for authentication. The electronic money will usually reside in an account on a server and not on the card itself.

- **Complete information on the payer (CIP)**
  For the purposes of the Wire Transfer Regulation, CIP consists of the payer’s name, address and account number. The address may be substituted with the payer’s date and place of birth, his customer identification number or his national identity number. The account number may be substituted with a unique identifier. See Part III, Specialist guidance 1: Transparency in electronic payments (Wire transfers), paragraph 1.13 for details.

- **Electronic Money Association (EMA):**
  The EMA is the trade body representing electronic money issuers and payment service providers.

- **Merchant:**
  For the purposes of this guidance, a merchant is a natural or legal person that uses electronic money to transact in the course of business. Where an electronic money issuer is part of a four-party scheme, the issuer might not have a direct business relationship with all merchants.

- **Online account-based products:**
  These are products where the value held by a customer is held centrally on a server under the control of the issuer. Customers access their purses remotely.

- **Payment Service Provider (PSP):**
  A PSP is defined in Article 2(5) of the Wire Transfer Regulation as “a natural or legal person whose business includes the provision of transfer of funds services.”

- **Purse:**
  An electronic money purse is a store of electronic money, usually in the form of an account.

- **Redemption:**
This is the process whereby a customer presents electronic money to the issuer and receives its monetary value in exchange at par. (Note that the term is also sometimes used in the gift card industry to indicate the spending of value with merchants. This meaning is not intended here.)

- **Three- and four-party schemes:**
  An electronic money system can comprise a single issuer that contracts with both consumer and merchant, or it can be made up of a number of issuers and acquirers, each issuer having its own consumer base, each acquirer its own merchant base. The former is referred to as a three-party scheme, comprising issuer, consumer and merchant, whereas the latter is known as a four-party scheme, comprising issuer, acquirer, consumer and merchant.

- **Voucher products:**
  Some electronic money products are issued as electronic vouchers of a fixed value that can only be spent once. Any value that remains on the voucher can either be redeemed, or a new voucher issued. The value associated with a voucher is usually held centrally on a server.

- **Wire Transfer Regulation [also known as the Payer Regulation]:**
  Regulation (EC) 1781/2006 on information on the payer accompanying transfers of funds implements Special FATF Recommendation VII in EU member states. This guidance refers to it as the Wire Transfer Regulation, although this term has no formal standing. Supervision and enforcement provisions for this Regulation are implemented in the UK through the Transfer of Funds (Information on the Payer) Regulations 2007 (SI 2007/3298).

### Notes

3.9. The annual cumulative turnover limit of an electronic money purse is interpreted as the total amount of electronic money received by a purse, whether through the purchase of electronic money, the receipt of electronic money from other persons. ‘Annual’ refers to 12-month periods from the opening of the purse.

3.10. An approximate Sterling figure has been given for all Euro figures.

### Money laundering and terrorist financing risks related to electronic money

3.11. Electronic money is a retail payment product that is used predominantly for making small value payments. It is susceptible to the same risks of money laundering and terrorist financing as other retail payment products. In the absence of AML systems and controls, there is a significant risk of money laundering taking place. The implementation of AML systems and controls and certain product design features can contribute to mitigating this risk.

3.12. Furthermore, where electronic money is limited to small value payments, its use is less attractive to would-be launderers. For terrorist financing and other financial crime, electronic money offers a more accountable, and therefore less attractive means of transferring money compared to cash.

3.13. The electronic money products in commercial use today do not provide the privacy or anonymity of cash, nor its utility. This is due to a number of factors. Products may, for example, be funded by payments from bank accounts or credit cards and therefore reveal the identity of the customer at the outset. The use of most electronic money products leaves an electronic trail that can help locate, if not identify, the user of a particular product.

3.14. As issuers of electronic money usually occupy the position of intermediaries in the payment process, situated between two financial or credit institutions, they are often able to provide
additional transaction information to law enforcement that complements identity data provided by other financial institutions. This may be equally or more valuable evidence than a repetition of the verification of identity process.

3.15. Fraud prevention and consumer protection concerns lead to the placement of transaction, turnover and purse limits on products, limiting the risk to both issuer and consumer. These limits act to restrict the usefulness of the product for money laundering, and make unusual transactions more detectable.

3.16. A non-exhaustive list of risk factors that may apply to electronic money products is given in paragraph 3.19 below; risk mitigating factors are listed in paragraph 3.21 below. Issuers should in particular be alert to emerging information on financial crime risks specific to electronic money, such as those highlighted by typology reports from the EMA and the FATF, and update their risk assessment processes accordingly. Other risks set out in Part I of this guidance also affect issuers (e.g., customer profile or geographical location of activity, see Part I, chapter 4 for details), and issuers should consider these as part of the risk assessment that they undertake. Risk assessment should be an ongoing process and take into account information from transaction monitoring systems.

3.17. The overall ML/TF risk posed by an electronic money product is a function of its design, its use, and the issuer’s AML/CTF controls. The overall risk posed is the outcome of competing factors, not any single feature of the product.

3.18. Issuers will need to evidence that they deploy an adequate range of controls to mitigate the ML/TF risks they encounter.

Risk factors

3.19. The following factors will increase the risk of electronic money products being used for money laundering or terrorist financing (for ways in which this risk can be mitigated by applying controls or by other means, see paragraph 3.21 below):

- High, or no transaction or purse limits. The higher the value and frequency of transactions, and the higher the purse limit, the greater the risk, particularly where customers are permitted to hold multiple purses; the €15,000 (£12,500) threshold for occasional transactions provided in the Money Laundering Regulations 2007 may in this context provide a convenient comparator when assessing such risk;
- Frequent cross-border transactions, unless within a single scheme, can give rise to difficulties with information sharing. Dependence on counterparty systems increases the risk;
- Some merchant activity, such as betting and gaming, poses a higher risk of money laundering. This is because of the higher amounts of funds that are transacted and because of the opportunities presented within the merchant environment;
- Funding of purses by unverified parties presents a higher risk of money laundering, whether it is the customer who is unverified or a third party;
- Funding of purses using cash offers little or no audit trail of the source of the funds and hence presents a higher risk of money laundering;
- Funding of purses using electronic money products that have not been verified may present a higher risk of money laundering;
- The non face-to-face nature of many products gives rise to increased risk.

7 While FATF Recommendation 8 recognises that non-face-to-face business increases risks like identity fraud, impersonation fraud or the use of the product by third parties for illicit purposes, the FATF have recently commented...
• The ability of consumers to hold multiple purses (for example open multiple accounts or purchase a number of cards) without verification of identity increases the risk;

• Cash access, for example by way of ATMs, as well as an allowance for the payment of refunds in cash for purchases made using electronic money, will increase the risk;

• Increased product functionality may in some instances give rise to higher risk of money laundering (product functionality includes person-to-business, person-to-person, and business-to-business transfers);

• Products that feature multiple cards linked to the same account increase the utility provided to the user, but may also increase the risk of money laundering, particularly where the customer is able to pass on linked ‘partner’ cards to anonymous third parties;

• Segmentation of the business value chain, including use of multiple agents and outsourcing, in particular to overseas locations, may give rise to a higher risk;

• The technology adopted by the product may give rise to specific risks that should be assessed.

3.20. Absence of any of the above factors will decrease the risk.

**Risk mitigating factors**

3.21. Electronic money issuers address the risks that are inherent in payments in a similar manner to other retail payment products by putting in place systems and controls that prevent money laundering and terrorist financing by detecting unusual transactions and predetermined patterns of activity.

3.22. The systems and controls issuers put in place must be commensurate to the money laundering and terrorist financing risk they are exposed to. The detail of issuers’ systems and controls will therefore vary. Examples include those that:

• Place limits on purse storage values, cumulative turnover or amounts transacted;

• Can detect money laundering transaction patterns, including those described in the EMA or similar typologies document;

• Will detect anomalies to normal transaction patterns;

• Can identify multiple purses held by a single individual or group of individuals, such as the holding of multiple accounts or the ‘stockpiling’ of pre-paid cards;

• Can look for indicators of accounts being opened with different issuers as well as attempts to pool funds from different sources;

• Can identify discrepancies between submitted and detected information, for example, between country of origin submitted information and the electronically-detected IP address;

• Deploy sufficient resources to address money laundering risks, including, where necessary, specialist expertise for the detection of suspicious activity;

• Allow collaboration with merchants that accept electronic money to identify and prevent suspicious activity;

• Restrict funding of electronic money products to funds drawn on accounts held at credit and financial institutions in the UK, the EU or a comparable jurisdiction, and allow redemption of electronic money only into accounts held at such institutions.

that this does not automatically give rise to a high risk scenario in the sense of FATF Recommendation 5 and therefore does not preclude firms from applying simplified due diligence measures (see FATF report *Money Laundering Using New Payment Methods*, October 2010).
Customer Due Diligence

3.23. The Money Laundering Regulations 2007 require firms to apply customer due diligence measures on a risk-sensitive basis. Customer due diligence measures comprise the identification and verification of the customer’s (and, where applicable, the beneficial owner’s) identity and obtaining information on the purpose and intended nature of the business relationship. There is also a requirement for the ongoing monitoring of the business relationship. Part I, Chapter 5 sets out how firms can meet these requirements.

3.24. Detailed guidance for verifying the identity of customers who do not have access to a bank account, or who lack credit or financial history, is provided under the financial exclusion provisions of Part I, paragraphs 5.3.98 to 5.3.114.

3.25. Issuers will also need to satisfy themselves that they comply with sanctions legislation. Guidance on this is provided in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.41 to 5.3.64, and Part III, 4.

Verification of identity – consumers

3.26. Taking account of the risk mitigation features applied to electronic money systems, the approach to undertaking customer due diligence in the electronic money sector is predicated on the need to minimise barriers to take-up of the products, whilst addressing the risk of money laundering and meeting the obligations set out in the Money Laundering Regulations 2007.

3.27. In addition to normal customer due diligence, the Money Laundering Regulations 2007 specify circumstances where simplified due diligence can be applied. Simplified due diligence is an exemption for certain products from the requirement to apply customer due diligence measures. There is no exemption from the requirement to monitor the business relationship on an ongoing basis.

A purse must meet specific storage, turnover and redemption limits in order to qualify for simplified due diligence (see paragraphs 3.30 to 3.37 below), and issuers must have systems and controls in place to make sure these limits are not breached. The limits mitigate the risk arising from the non-identification of the customer, with the annual redemption limit reducing the risk by allowing funds to enter the system, but only allowing a relatively small amount (€1,000 (£800)) to exit without verification. Issuers should also comply with the requirements set out paragraphs 3.38 to 3.42 below if they want to benefit from the simplified due diligence provisions. Where the product no longer qualifies for simplified due diligence, or the issuer knows, suspects, or has reasonable grounds to suspect money laundering or terrorist financing, customer due diligence and, where appropriate, enhanced due diligence measures must be applied.

3.28. Above the simplified due diligence limits, verification of identity using funding instruments may be undertaken where the overall risk posed by the product is low (see paragraphs 3.44 to 3.50 below). In all other cases, normal customer due diligence must be applied.

3.29. Enhanced due diligence is required in circumstances giving rise to an overall higher risk. The extent of enhanced due diligence measures required will depend on the level of risk a situation presents (see paragraphs 3.51 to 3.54 below).

Simplified due diligence
3.30. The Money Laundering Regulations 2007 (Reg. 13(7)(d)) distinguish between reloadable and non-reloadable electronic money products and set different limits for simplified due diligence, above which customer due diligence measures must be applied:

'electronic money, within the meaning of Article 2(2) of the electronic money directive, where:—
(i) if the device cannot be recharged, the maximum amount stored in the device is no more than 250 euro or, in the case of electronic money used to carry out payment transactions within the United Kingdom, 500 euro; or
(ii) if the device can be recharged, a limit of 2,500 euro is imposed on the total amount transacted in a calendar year, except when an amount of 1,000 euro or more is redeemed in that same calendar year by the electronic money holder (within the meaning of Article 11 of the electronic money directive).’

Non-reloadable purses

3.31. Electronic money purses that cannot be recharged, and whose total purse limit does not exceed €250 [£200] or €500 [£400] for payment transactions within the United Kingdom, benefit from simplified due diligence.

3.32. Non-reloadable purses are often sold as gift cards. The purchase of multiple such products is sometimes expected, particularly during certain times of the year. Provided that the gift card does not allow for cash access, the risk of money laundering arising from multiple purchases is likely to remain low. Issuers should, however, adopt a maximum total value that they will allow single customers to purchase without carrying out customer due diligence measures. This total value can be determined on a risk weighted basis, but should not exceed €2,500 [£2,200].

Reloadable purses

3.33. Electronic money purses that can be recharged are required to apply customer due diligence measures only when the annual turnover limit of €2,500 [£2,200] is exceeded, or if the customer seeks to redeem the €1,000 [£800] annual allowance or more.

3.34. Where purses can both send and receive payments, such as, for example, in online account-based products that enable person-to-person payments, the €2,500 [£2,200] turnover limit is applied separately to sending and receiving transactions. In other words, the turnover limit is calculated separately for crediting and debiting transactions, and the verification requirement applied when either of the two is reached.

3.35. Additionally, and in order to address obligations arising from the Wire Transfer Regulation, issuers must verify the identity of customers seeking to undertake any single sending transaction that exceeds €1,000 [£800] in value, where verification has not already been undertaken (see paragraphs 3.62 to 66 below).

3.36. Issuers, in common with other financial services providers, are required to verify identity of the customer at the outset of a business relationship. Simplified due diligence enables issuers to postpone the verification of identity until the exemption limits have been reached/exceeded. Issuers of electronic money products benefitting from simplified due diligence should have in place systems to anticipate when a customer approaches the exemption limits. Where there is an obligation to undertake customer due diligence and this cannot be discharged, issuers must freeze the account pending the provision of the required information.

3.37. In summary, where purses qualify for simplified due diligence, customer due diligence measures must be applied to customers and, where appropriate, beneficial owners, before they:

- Exceed the cumulative annual turnover limit of €2,500 [£2,200]; or
- Reach the annual redemption limit of €1,000 [£800]; or
- Seek to undertake a single sending (debit) electronic money transaction which exceeds €1,000 [£800]; or
- Where the issuer suspects money laundering or terrorist financing.
Basic requirements under this guidance in relation to simplified due diligence

3.38. This guidance provides for additional measures in relation to the application of simplified due diligence. Issuers should adopt the following measures that relate to verification of identity and monitoring:

Verification of identity

3.39. Either the electronic money system is a 3-party scheme; or it is a 4-party scheme, in which case all other participating issuers should under this guidance meet the following requirements:

a) In all cases merchants must be subject to due diligence measures in accordance with Part I, Chapter 5 (but see paragraph 3.61 below for a limited exemption) or as required by an equivalent jurisdiction.

b) Where electronic money is accepted by merchants or other recipients belonging to a wider payment scheme (for example Visa or MasterCard), issuers must satisfy themselves that the verification of identity and other due diligence measures carried out by that scheme in relation to merchants are, in the UK, equivalent to those of this sectoral guidance; or for other jurisdictions, are subject to equivalent requirements.

c) Where redemption of electronic money is permitted by way of cash access, for example through withdrawal at ATMs or through a cash-back facility at retailers, and where controls cannot be implemented to prevent this reaching/exceeding the annual redemption limit of €1,000 (£800) or single transaction limit of €1,000 (£800), customer due diligence must be carried out at the point of issuance of the electronic money. Furthermore, issuers must, wherever possible, require all refunds made by merchants in the event of return of goods or services to be made back onto the electronic money purse from which payment was first made.

Monitoring

3.40. Issuers must establish and maintain appropriate and risk-sensitive policies and procedures to monitor business relationships on an ongoing basis. Part I Chapter 5 (see in particular section 5.7) sets out how this can be done.

3.41. If issuers wish to benefit from the simplified due diligence provisions under this guidance, they must, in addition to the processes set out in part I Chapter 5, deploy specific minimum transaction monitoring and/or on-chip purse controls that enable control of the systems and recognition of suspicious activity. Such controls may include:

- Transaction monitoring systems that detect anomalies or patterns of behaviour, or the unexpected use of the product, for example frequent cross-border transactions or withdrawals in products that were not designed for that purpose;

- Systems that identify discrepancies between submitted and detected information – for example, between submitted country of origin information and the electronically-detected IP address;

- Systems that cross-reference submitted data against existing data for other accounts, such as the use of the same credit card by several customers;

- Systems that interface with third party data sources to import information that may assist in detecting incidence of fraud or money laundering across a number of payment service providers;

- On-chip controls that impose purse rules, such as those specifying the POS terminals or other cards with which the purse may transact;

- On-chip controls that impose purse limits such as transaction or turnover limits;
• On-chip controls that disable the card when a given pattern of activity is detected, requiring interaction with the issuer before it can be re-enabled;
• Controls that are designed to detect and forestall the use of the electronic money product for money laundering or terrorist financing in accordance with the typologies identified for such a product.

3.42. Information obtained through monitoring must be reviewed as part of the ongoing risk assessment; issuers must apply customer due diligence measures and monitoring appropriate to the risks.

3.43. Issuers are reminded that in the event that potentially suspicious activity is detected by internal systems or procedures, they must comply with their obligations under POCA and the Terrorism Act 2000, as amended by the Anti-terrorism, Crime and Security Act 2001 (see Part I, Chapter 6) to report possible money laundering or terrorist financing.

**Basic means of verification of identity (above SDD thresholds)**

3.44. As stated in paragraph 3.23 above, the Money Laundering Regulations 2007 require that customer due diligence measures are carried out on a risk-based approach, as set out in Part I, Chapter 5. Electronic money is issued in a range of products, for a range of purposes covering a spectrum of risk – from the purchase of goods and services, to person-to-person payments. An issuer’s risk-based approach to customer due diligence measures will, as required by the Money Laundering Regulations 2007, be informed by a number of factors, including the type of product or transaction involved.

**Reliance on the funding instrument**

3.45. As part of a risk-based approach to verification of identity, the Money Laundering Regulations 2007 require that verification is carried out on the basis of ‘documents, data or information obtained from a reliable and independent source’. In some cases, where the risk associated with the business relationship is low, a customer’s funding instrument (such as a credit card or bank account) can constitute such data or information, subject to the following additional requirements:

   a) The issuer remains ultimately responsible for meeting its customer due diligence obligations;
   b) The issuer has in place systems and processes for identifying incidents of fraudulent use of credit/debit cards and bank accounts;
   c) The issuer has in place systems and processes that enable monitoring to identify increased risk for such products, even within the permitted turnover limits. If the risk profile can then no longer be regarded as low risk, additional verification steps must be undertaken;
   d) The issuer records and keeps records of relevant information, for example IP addresses, which assist in determining the electronic footprint of the customer, or where a POS terminal is used in a face-to-face environment, records the correct use of a PIN or other data;
   e) The funds to purchase electronic money are drawn from an account or credit card with, or issued by, a credit or financial institution in the UK, the EU or an equivalent jurisdiction, which is supervised for its AML controls;
   f) The issuer implements systems and controls to mitigate the risk of the funding card or account being itself subject to SDD;

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8 Other than a money service business, or a payment or electronic money institution providing mainly money remittance services.
g) The issuer has reasonable evidence to conclude that the customer is the rightful holder of the account on which the funds are drawn (which may be achieved using the processes described in paragraph 3.48 below);

h) The overall amount transacted by one customer does not exceed a maximum turnover limit of €15,000 (£12,500) from the commencement of the business relationship.

3.46. Where the above are not satisfied, further customer due diligence measures have to be applied.

3.47. A funding instrument on its own, however, is a weak form of verification of identity. The credit or financial institution whose evidence is being used may not have verified the customer to current standards, and there is a risk that the person using the account is not its rightful holder. This risk is even higher where an electronic money issuer has no evidence that the account is held in the same name as the customer, as is the case, for example, in relation to direct debits.

Establishing control over the funding instrument

3.48. Where payment is made electronically, it is usually not possible to verify the name of the account holder for the funding account. In this case, steps must be taken to establish that the customer is the rightful holder of the account from which the funds are drawn. These steps may include the following:

- Micro-deposit. Some issuers have developed a means of establishing control over a funding account using a process that is convenient and effective. A small random amount of money is credited to a customer’s funding account and the customer is then required to discover the amount and to enter it on the issuer’s website. By entering the correct value, the customer demonstrates access to the bank/card statement or accounting system of their bank or financial institution. This method, and its close variants (such as the use of unique reference numbers), provides an acceptable means of confirming that the customer has access to the account, and therefore has control over it. It also provides a means of guarding against identity theft, contributing therefore to the verification of identity process. If such an approach is not used, some other means of establishing control of the account is needed.

- Additional fraud checks. Issuers may also use additional fraud checks undertaken at the time of the transaction which seek to cross reference customer-submitted data against data held by the electronic money or card issuer or similar independent third party, and which gives the electronic money issuer the requisite level of confidence that the customer is the rightful holder of the card.

- Evidence of legitimate use. Seeking evidence of legitimate use is an alternative to establishing formal control over an account. An account that is used to fund an electronic money purse over a significant period of time is more likely to be used legitimately, as the passage of time gives the rightful owner the opportunity to discover fraudulent use of the product and to block its use, which would in turn become evident to the issuer. Thus, for some products, this may provide a means of establishing legitimate use of a funding instrument. However:
  - Such an approach is sensitive to the issuer’s ability to monitor, track and record use of a funding instrument associated with an account, and issuers wishing to adopt this approach must therefore have systems that are appropriate for this purpose.
  - A minimum period of four months must elapse, together with significant usage in terms of number and value of transactions over this time, to satisfy the issuer that the instrument is being legitimately used.\(^9\)

\(^9\) The four-month period should be completed before the limits associated with simplified due diligence (see paragraph 3.29) are exceeded.
3.49. Electronic money issuers must have processes in place to ensure that additional due diligence measures are applied if the money laundering and terrorist financing risk posed by the product or customer increases.

3.50. Complete Information on the Payer (CIP), received as part of the obligations under the Wire Transfer Regulation, may contribute to verifying a customer’s identity.

Enhanced due diligence

3.51. The Money Laundering Regulations 2007 require enhanced due diligence to be undertaken in all situations where the risk of money laundering is perceived to be high. These include instances where the customer is not physically present for identification purposes, as well as in respect of business relationships or occasional transactions with politically exposed persons (PEPs).

3.52. Where electronic money purses are purchased or accounts opened in a non-face-to-face environment, issuers must take specific and adequate measures to address the greater risk of money laundering or terrorist financing that is posed (Part I, paragraphs 5.5.10 to 5.5.17 provide guidance on enhanced due diligence for non-face-to-face transactions). Issuers may adopt means of verification other than those outlined in Part I, provided that these are commensurate to the risk associated with the business relationship.

3.53. The requirement for issuers to have systems and processes to detect PEPs will be proportionate to the risk posed by the business relationship, as will the degree of enhanced due diligence required for PEPs. Issuers should focus their resources in a risk sensitive manner on products and transactions where the risk of money laundering is high. Further guidance on the application of the risk-based approach to PEPs is provided in Part I, paragraphs 5.5.26 to 5.5.28.

3.54. In all other high risk scenarios, issuers should have regard to the guidance in Part I Chapter 5.

Multiple-card products

3.55. Issuers whose products enable two or more cards to be linked to a single account must establish whether they have entered into one or more business relationships, and must verify the identity of all customers with whom they have a business relationship.

3.56. Issuers should also consider whether the functionality of the second card may give rise to beneficial ownership.

3.57. Where additional card holders remain non-verified, issuers must implement controls effectively to mitigate the greater risk of money laundering and terrorist financing to which these products are exposed.

Verification of identity – merchants

3.58. The FSA expects electronic money issuers to understand who their merchants are in order to guard against the risk that their electronic money products might be used for money-laundering or terrorist financing.

3.59. Issuers must therefore apply ongoing due diligence to merchants on a risk-sensitive basis in accordance with Part I, Chapter 5. This includes the requirement to undertake adequate due diligence on the nature of the merchant’s business and to monitor the relationship.

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10 But note that if an electronic money purse meets the conditions for simplified due diligence, no identification of the customer is required, even though the customer may not have been physically present.
3.60. In person-to-person systems, the boundary between consumers and merchants may be blurred; consumers may not register as merchants, but may nevertheless carry on quasi-merchant activity. In this case issuers:

- Should have systems in place that provide a means of detecting such activity.
- When such activity has been detected, apply due diligence measures appropriate to merchants.

3.61. Issuers may allow merchants to benefit from the €2,500 (£2,200) turnover and €1,000 (£800) redemption allowance in order to enable the online recruitment of small merchants. This does not, however, alter the requirement to undertake adequate due diligence on the nature of the merchant’s business.

**Wire Transfer Regulation**

3.62. General provisions for compliance with the Wire Transfer Regulation (Regulation (EC) 1781/2006 on information on the payer accompanying transfers of funds) are provided in Part I, paragraphs 5.2.10ff *Electronic Transfer of funds*, and Part III, Specialist guidance 1: *Transparency in electronic payments (Wire transfers).*

3.63. Issuers are subject to the obligations of the Wire Transfer Regulation in their role as PSP of the payer, PSP of the payee and intermediary PSP. An overview of these requirements is provided schematically at Appendix I to this guidance.

3.64. Payments using electronic money and funding of purses:

(i) Transactions up to €1,000 (£800) in value do not require the collection or sending of Complete Information on the Payer (CIP), as these transactions are subject to the exemption provided by Article 3(3) of the Wire Transfer Regulation.

(ii) Transactions exceeding €1,000 (£800) in value require the collection, verification and sending of CIP on a risk-weighted basis 11 as set out elsewhere in this guidance or as set out at A1.9 to A1.19 of Part III, Specialist guidance 1: *Transparency in electronic payments (Wire transfers).*

(iii) Where an electronic money purse is funded through a card payment exceeding €1,000 (£800), it has been agreed that for practical purposes such a transaction constitutes payment for goods and services under Article 3(2) of the Regulation, and consequently the sending of the card PAN number satisfies the requirement for a unique identifier to accompany the transfer of funds. See Part III, Specialist guidance 1: *Transparency in electronic payments (Wire transfers)*, paragraph 1.17. However, subsequent payments from the electronic money purse must be in accordance with (i) and (ii) above.

(iv) When funding transactions exceeding €1,000 (£800) are made from a bank account or other financial institution account in the EU, CIP can be substituted with an account number or a unique identifier enabling the transaction to be traced back to the payer (see Article 6 of the Wire Transfer Regulation).

3.65. Redemption of electronic money:

(i) Payments made to customers in redemption of electronic money are usually made by bank transfer. Redemption comprises a payment by the issuer as principal (payer) to the electronic money account holder. Issuers may, however, attach customer (in addition to their own) CIP to the redemption transaction in the usual way – benefitting from the provisions for inter EU payments where applicable, and ensuring additional information is available to the payee PSP.

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(ii) Where redemption is made in cash, this benefits from the exemption from the Wire Transfer Regulation for cash withdrawals from a customer’s own account provided by Article 3(7)(a).

3.66. Verification of identity for CIP information should be undertaken on a risk-weighted basis as provided for elsewhere in this guidance or as set out in paragraphs A1.9 to A1.19 of Part III, Specialist guidance 1: Transparency in electronic payments (Wire transfers).

**Use of agents and distributors**

3.67. Issuers may distribute or redeem electronic money through an electronic money distributor or payment services agent. Payment services agents must be registered with the FSA. Issuers are ultimately responsible for compliance with AML-related obligations where these are outsourced to their distributors and payment services agents. Issuers must be aware of the risk of non-compliance by their outsourced service providers and must take measures to manage this risk effectively.

3.68. Issuers should apply the same customer due diligence measures to distributors as they do to merchants.

3.69. The FSA expects issuers to carry out fitness and propriety checks on payment services agents of electronic money issuers. These checks should include, among others, the assessment of the agents’ honesty, integrity and reputation in line with Chapter 3 of the FSA’s electronic money approach document.

3.70. Issuers are required to supply the FSA with a description of the internal control mechanisms their payment services agents have in place to comply with the Money Laundering Regulations 2007 and the Proceeds of Crime Act 2002. Where the payment services agent is established in another EEA jurisdiction, the issuer must ensure their AML systems and controls comply with local legislation and regulation that implements the 3rd Money Laundering Directive. Issuers must also take reasonable measures to satisfy themselves that their payment services agents’ AML/CTF controls remain appropriate throughout the agency relationship.
Appendix I
Scenario 1: Transfer of funds – Obligations on Payer PSP

Records of CIP that accompanies transfer of funds to be kept for 5 years

For transactions using e-money, the requirements only apply where the transaction value exceeds £500, or the transaction falls outside the annual turnover and redemption limits allowed under the 3MLD.
Scenario 2: Transfer of funds – Obligations on Payee PSP

Procedure:
- Detect whether appropriate type of information attached and whether fields complete
- If fields incomplete or information inappropriate:
  - Issue warning to payer PSP
  - If no improvement, reject any further transactions or restrict/terminate business relationship
  - Report to the relevant authority

Note: In practice, the procedures required to detect may be met by a combination of system (e.g., SWIFT validation and risk-based post event random sampling. See Part III, Specialist guidance 1: Transparency in electronic payments (wire transfers) 1.22 - 1.23

Records of CIP that accompanies transfer of funds to be kept for 5 years

For transactions using e-money, the requirements only apply where the transaction value exceeds £1000, or the transaction falls outside the annual turnover and redemption limits allowed under the 3MLD
Scenario 3: Transfer of funds – Obligations on Intermediary PSP

- Records of CIP that accompanies transfer of funds to be kept for 5 years
- For transactions using e-money, the requirements only apply where the transaction value exceeds £800, or the transaction falls outside the annual turnover and redemption limits allowed under the 3MLD

Keep information received with the transfer. Where technical limitations prevents this, see Part III, Specialist guidance 1: Transparency in electronic payments (wire transfers) 1.16
4: Credit unions

Note: This sectoral guidance is incomplete on its own. It must be read in conjunction with the main guidance set out in Part I of the Guidance. This guidance covers aspects of money laundering compliance that are unique to credit unions and an overview of the key compliance issues; credit unions must also take account of Part I of this guidance.

Credit unions will also need to be aware of CRED 4.3.37 G to 4.3.37J G.

This guidance applies only to FSA-regulated credit unions, not to credit unions in Northern Ireland.

Overview of the sector

4.1. The membership of a credit union is restricted to individuals who fulfil a specific qualification which is appropriate to a credit union (and as a consequence a common bond exists between members) - Credit Unions Act 1979, s1(2)(b). The common bond concept is central to the co-operative ethos of a credit union and is also fundamental to the regulatory regime for credit unions.

4.2. The FSA has produced additional common bond guidance outlining geographical and population limits regarding common bonds.

4.3. Credit unions therefore operate within a restricted, often localised market, providing services to members, not to the public at large.

What are the money laundering and terrorist financing risks in credit unions?

4.4. There are two types of credit union, Version 1 and Version 2. The majority of credit unions are Version 1, offering very basic savings and loan products. Version 2 credit unions have much more flexibility around the products they can provide and currently just 2% of credit unions have Version 2 status. However, although Version 2 credit unions have more flexibility, in terms of the wider financial services sector both Version 1 and Version 2 credit unions are restricted in terms of the range and complexity of the products they can offer and to whom they can offer them.

4.5. There are limits on the level of savings a credit union can hold on behalf of an individual member, which are set out in CRED 7A.2.1 R. The return on savings is linked to financial performance and is subject to a statutory cap, currently set at 8%. In addition, there are rules governing a credit union’s lending activity. Lending limits are set out in CRED 10.3.1 R to CRED 10.3.6 R.

4.6. Therefore credit union financial products, particularly those of Version 1 credit unions, do not deliver sufficient functionality or flexibility to be the first choice for money launderers, although these restrictions may not be such a deterrent to terrorist financiers.

4.7. The high levels of cash transactions going through credit unions may be one area where there is a higher risk of money laundering or terrorist financing, e.g., by ‘smurfing’.

12 Numerous small payments into an account, where the amount of each deposit is unremarkable but the total of all the credits is significant.
4.8. The number of staff and volunteers involved in the day to day operations of a credit union is relatively small and, even in larger credit unions, there are typically no more than a few individuals whose responsibility it is to manually process data. Therefore, where there is manual processing of all transactions, the ability to identify suspicious transactions is potentially much greater. In addition, the relatively small organisational structures mean that suspected money laundering or terrorist financing can be detected and reported much faster in smaller credit unions than it could in other financial services firms. The monitoring procedures for larger credit unions, that inevitably do not have such a close relationship with their members, will need to reflect the absence of those relationships, to ensure that potential problems, e.g., ‘smurfing’, can be detected.

4.9. This does not, of course, mean that there is no risk of money laundering or terrorist financing in credit unions and credit unions must in any case be aware of their responsibilities under the ML Regulations, the Proceeds of Crime Act (POCA) and the Terrorism Act. Credit unions must therefore establish appropriate procedures to monitor activities, with a particular scrutiny of those that carry a higher risk of money laundering or terrorist financing (see Part I, section 5.7). Examples of such activities include:

- money transfers to third parties;
- large one off transactions;
- third parties paying in cash on behalf of the member;
- unusual loan or saving transactions;
- reluctance to provide documentary evidence of identity when opening an account (even when taking into account financial exclusion issues).

Applying a risk-based approach

4.10. In accordance with the guidance in Part I, Chapter 4, a credit union’s risk-based approach will ensure that its strategies are focused on deterring, detecting and disclosing in the areas of greatest perceived vulnerability. The credit union needs to take a number of steps, documented in a formal policy statement which assesses the most effectual, cost effective and proportionate way to manage money laundering and terrorist financing risks. These steps are:

- identify the money laundering and terrorist financing risks that are relevant to the firm;
- assess the risks presented by the credit union’s particular
  - Members;
  - Products;
  - Delivery channels;
  - Geographical areas of operation;
- design and implement controls to manage and mitigate these assessed risks;
- monitor and improve the effective operation of these controls; and
- record appropriately what has been done and why.

4.11. Examples of risks are given at www.jmlsg.org.uk but a credit union will also need to take account of its own experience and knowledge of its members and their financial activities. Credit unions should also consult the Financial Action Task Force website at www.fatf-gafi.org in order to keep up-to-date with money laundering/terrorist financing typologies.

4.12. Following the establishment of a risk-based approach, it is the responsibility of the credit union’s senior management to keep this strategy under regular review. Credit unions may consider it appropriate to have a standing item covering money laundering on the agenda of their monthly meeting to ensure procedures are being regularly reviewed. Credit unions will also need to take into account CRED 4.3.37H G which reads, “SYSC 6.1.1 R requires a credit union to allocate to a director or senior manager (who may also be the money laundering reporting officer) overall
responsibility within the credit union for the establishment and maintenance of effective anti-
money laundering systems and controls”.

Customer due diligence

4.13. The anti-money laundering (AML)/combating the financing of terrorism (CTF) checks carried out during account opening are one of the primary controls for preventing criminals opening an account and are therefore an important element of AML/CTF procedures. Credit unions should be satisfied that the policies and procedures in place for verifying identity are effective in preventing and detecting money launderers and that they make provision for circumstances when increased evidence is required.

4.14. For the majority of members, the standard identification requirement set out in Part I, Chapter 5 (full name, residential address and date of birth) and, where relevant, additional customer information set out in Part I, section 5.5 will be applicable.

4.15. The identity information should be verified in accordance with the guidance set out in Part I (paragraphs 5.3.68–5.3.84), either from documents produced by the individual, or electronically, or through a combination of the two: these approaches are potentially equal options, depending on the circumstances in any given case.

Documentary verification

4.16. Examples of documents that are acceptable in different situations are summarised in Part I, paragraph 5.3.74, together with the principles defining when reliance may be placed on a single document or where more than one is required. A current UK passport or photocard driving licence issued in the UK should be the document used in the majority of cases, other than in individual cases of financial exclusion, where it is concluded that an individual cannot reasonably be expected to provide standard identification, (see paragraphs 4.18–4.20 for further information). For non-UK residents, a national passport or national identity card is likely to be used in the majority of cases. However, in circumstances where the individual cannot be expected to produce standard identification credit unions can follow the guidance on financial exclusion in paragraphs 4.18-4.20.

Electronic verification

4.17. In principle, electronic verification may be used to meet a firm’s customer identification obligations. However, a credit union should first consider whether electronic verification is suitable for its membership base, and should then have regard to the guidance in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.39-5.3.40 and 5.3.79–5.3.81. When using electronically-sourced evidence to verify identity, credit unions should ensure that they have an adequate understanding of the data sources relied on by the external agencies that supply the evidence. Credit unions should be satisfied that these sources provide enough cumulative evidence to provide reasonable certainty of a person’s identity, and conform with the guidance set out in Part I, Chapter 5. An electronic check that accesses a single database (e.g., Electoral Roll check) is normally not enough on its own to verify identity.

Financial exclusion

4.18. The FSA Rules adopt a broad view of financial exclusion, in terms of ensuring that, where people cannot reasonably be expected to produce standard evidence of identity, they are not unreasonably denied access to financial services. The term is sometimes used in a narrower sense; for example, HM Treasury refers to those who, for specific reasons, do not have access to mainstream banking or financial services – that is, those at the lower end of income distribution who are
socially/financially disadvantaged and in receipt of benefits, or those who chose not to seek access to financial products because they believe that they will be refused.

4.19. As a first step, before concluding that a member cannot produce evidence of identity, credit unions will have established that the guidance on initial identity checks for personal customers set out in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.68-5.3.76 cannot reasonably be applied. Where the credit union has concluded that a member cannot reasonably be expected to meet the standard identification requirements, the guidance in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.113–5.3.114 should be followed. Where the alternative evidence set out in sector 1: Retail banking, Annex 1-I cannot be applied, a letter or statement from an appropriate person\(^\text{13}\) who knows the individual, that indicates that the person is who he says he is, can be accepted as evidence of identity.

4.20. Where a credit union has concluded that it should treat a member as financially excluded, a record should be kept of the reasons for doing so.

**Employee credit unions**

4.21. Roughly ten percent of British credit unions are employee credit unions, but they represent a significant proportion of the overall assets and membership of the movement. All members of employee credit unions share the common bond of being associated with one particular employer or employer group, which must be large enough to provide enough members to sustain a viable credit union. The most common examples of employee credit unions are local authority, police and transport credit unions.

4.22. Employee credit unions should also have their own standard identity verification requirements to ensure that the member is indeed an employee (e.g., wage slip, employee identity card, other documented knowledge that the credit union has) and have therefore undertaken the appropriate identity checks. It should be noted that these checks are for the purpose of satisfying the common bond qualification for membership, as opposed to being for AML/CTF purposes.

4.23. To satisfy the requirements of AML/CTF legislation, additional identity verification checks should be sought, as described in paragraphs 4.15–4.17 of this chapter.

4.24. Employee credit unions whose common bond extends to family members of employees should seek the standard verification information from each family member. In these circumstances credit unions should follow the guidance in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.68–5.3.114.

**Live or work credit unions**

4.25. In addition to the employee common bond, increasing numbers of credit unions are adopting the common bond ‘live or work’. This means that the qualification for membership of a live or work credit union extends both to residents and to those in regular employment within a particular locality.

4.26. Live or work credit unions that extend their services to employees of local employers will, however, have similar AML/CTF issues to credit unions linked to just one sponsoring employer so should refer to paragraphs 4.21-4.24 above.

\(^{13}\) Someone in a position of responsibility, who knows, and is known by, the member, and may reasonably confirm the member’s identity. It is not possible to give a definitive list of such persons, but the following may assist in determining who is appropriate in any particular case: the Passport Office has published a list of those who may countersign a passport at www.direct.gov.uk/en/TravelAndTransport/Passports/Applicationinformation/DG_174151; and others might include members of a local authority, staff of a higher or further education establishment, or a hostel manager.
Credit union activity in schools

4.27. Many credit unions have established links with their local schools. For many credit unions, establishing partnerships with local schools is a key part of their long-term development strategy. Under a risk-based approach in terms of membership profile and level of activity undertaken by junior savers, credit unions can reasonably assume that children saving in a savings club set up through a school present a lower risk of the credit union being used for money laundering purposes. **Credit Unions must, however, monitor the junior accounts, inter alia to ensure that adults are not laundering through the account.**

4.28. Where any potential member cannot reasonably be expected to produce detailed evidence of identity, it should not be a consequence that they are denied access to financial services. If a credit union decides that a particular child cannot reasonably be expected to produce such evidence, the reasons for adopting the ‘financial exclusion’ approach should be clearly documented. In relation to a schoolchild, a credit union should follow the guidance in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.107 and 5.3.109. In cases where standard identification evidence is not available, it may accept a letter or statement from an appropriate person as evidence of identity. In such cases, a letter from the school should include the date of birth and permanent address of the pupil on the school’s letter headed paper to complete standard account opening procedures.

4.29. In cases where there is an adult signatory to the account and the adult has not previously been identified to the relevant standards because they do not already have an established relationship with the credit union, the identity of that adult must be verified, in addition to the identity of the child, see Part I, paragraph 5.3.109.

**Junior Savers**

4.30. In addition to offering a credit union service to minors through schools’ clubs, many credit unions offer children a savings facility direct with the credit union. In such cases, credit unions should seek identification evidence as set out in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.107–5.3.109. Where standard identification cannot be produced for the child, other evidence such as a letter from the school which includes the date of birth and permanent address of the pupil on the school’s letter headed paper, should be sought to complete standard account opening procedures.

4.31. Often, the junior account will be established by a family member or guardian. In cases where the adult opening the account has not previously been identified to the relevant standards because they do not already have an established relationship with the credit union, the identity of that adult must be verified, in addition to the identity of the child, see Part I, paragraph 5.3.109.

**Enhanced due diligence**

4.32. There will be certain occasions when enhanced due diligence will be required, for example:

- when there is no face-to-face contact with the customer
- where the customer is a PEP
- when the person is involved in a business that is considered to present a higher risk of money laundering; examples of high risk businesses can be found at [www.jmlsg.org.uk](http://www.jmlsg.org.uk) and paragraphs 1.35-1.37 of sector 1: Retail banking

**Additional customer information**

4.33. Credit unions will need to hold sufficient information about the circumstances of members in order to monitor their activity and transactions. Therefore ‘Knowing Your Customer’ is about building a relationship with the membership and knowing when to ask the appropriate questions at
the appropriate time. Reasonable enquiries of a member, conducted in a tactful manner, regarding the background to a transaction or activity that is inconsistent with the normal pattern of activity is prudent practice, forms an integral part of knowing the customer and monitoring, and should not give rise to tipping off. Although not a prescriptive list, examples of when additional customer information is needed include: a change in circumstances (name, address, employer), a lump sum payment or a change in transaction behaviour. Credit unions may detect significant changes in circumstances when, for example, carrying out a loan application, which may require the credit union to seek further information, and to update member profiles which are used as the basis of monitoring customer transactions.

4.34. Credit unions must also obtain information about the nature and purpose of the relationship with the member. In the majority of cases, this may be obvious from the service provided, but the credit union may also be providing loans to sole traders for business purposes and information on such relationships must be obtained.

4.35. The extent of information sought and of the monitoring carried out in respect of any particular member will depend on the money laundering and terrorist financing risk that they present to the credit union. Credit unions should also have regard to the guidance in Part I, section 5.5.

**Monitoring customer activity**

4.36. As mentioned in paragraphs 4.8–4.9, credit unions must establish a process for monitoring member transactions and activities which will highlight unusual transactions and those which need further investigation. It is important that appropriate account is taken of the frequency, volume and size of transactions. Although not a prescriptive list, an example of a simple approach for credit unions that deal mainly in small sum transactions may be: to investigate deposits over a certain amount, frequency of members’ deposits and members whose deposits may appear erratic. However, for larger credit unions that have more complex operational structures, a more sophisticated approach may be needed, e.g., asking who is making deposits in relation to a junior account.

4.37. The key elements to monitoring are having up-to-date customer information, on the basis of which it will be possible to spot the unusual, and to ask pertinent questions to elicit the reasons for unusual transactions.

4.38. Also key to a successful monitoring process is staff and volunteer alertness (see Part I, Chapter 7).

4.39. Credit unions must be aware that unusual does not always mean suspicious and therefore should not be the routine basis for making reports to SOCA. Identifying what is unusual is only the starting point – firms need to assess whether what is unusual gives rise to suspicion and report accordingly.

**Reporting**

4.40. General guidance on reporting is given in Part I, Chapter 6. All staff and volunteers need to know the identity of the nominated officer, so that they know to whom to report suspicious activity.

4.41. It is up to the nominated officer to investigate whether or not to report to SOCA. If he decides not to make a report to SOCA, the reasons for not doing so should be clearly documented and retained with the internal suspicion report. If the nominated officer decides to make a report to SOCA, this must be done promptly and as soon as is practicable. When a report is made to SOCA, the basis for the knowledge or suspicion of money laundering should be set out in a clear and concise manner (see Part I, paragraphs 6.37–6.38) with relevant identifying features for the main or associated subjects. Staff should also familiarise themselves with the consent provisions in POCA and the Terrorism Act (see Part I paragraphs 6.45-6.59) and act accordingly. Furthermore if,
under the Data Protection Act a member submits a subject access request, then the credit union should contact SOCA for advice (see Part I, paragraphs 6.90-6.99).

**Training**

4.42. General guidance on staff awareness, training and alertness is given in Part I, Chapter 7. In particular:

- Staff must be made aware of the risks of money laundering and terrorist financing, the relevant legislation and their obligations under that legislation
- Staff must be made aware of the identity and responsibilities of the firm’s nominated officer and MLRO
- Staff must be trained in the firm’s procedures and in how to recognise and deal with potential money laundering or terrorist financing transactions
- Staff training must be given at regular intervals, and details recorded
- The senior manager or director with ultimate responsibility for AML systems and controls, as required by CRED 4.3.37H G is responsible for ensuring that adequate arrangements for training are in place
- The MLRO is responsible for oversight of the firm’s compliance with its requirements in respect of staff training, including ensuring that adequate arrangements for awareness and training of employees are in place.

4.43. There is no single solution when determining how to deliver training; on-line learning can provide an adequate solution but for some staff and volunteers an on-line approach may not be suitable. Procedure manuals can raise staff and volunteer awareness but their main purpose is for reference. More direct forms of training will usually be more appropriate.

4.44. Whatever the approach to training, it is vital to establish comprehensive records to monitor who has been trained, when they received the training, the nature of training given and its effectiveness.

4.45. AML/CTF training and training on the responsibility of staff under the firm’s own AML/CTF arrangements must be provided to all relevant employees at appropriate intervals.

**Internal controls and record-keeping**

4.46. General guidance on internal controls is given in Part I, Chapter 2, and on record-keeping in Part I, Chapter 8. In particular, credit unions must retain:

- copies of, or references to, the evidence they obtained of a customer’s identity, until five years after the end of the customer relationship
- details of customer transactions for five years from the date of the transaction
- details of actions taken in respect of internal and external suspicion reports
- details of information considered by the nominated officer in respect of an internal report where no external report is made

4.47. Retention of records can be:

- by way of original documents
- photocopies of original documents, taken by credit union staff
- on microfilm
- in scanned form
- in computerised or electronic form
4.48. In circumstances where it is not reasonably practicable for a credit union to copy documents used to verify identity, in any format described above, (e.g. when at a collection point) a credit union will need to keep a record of the type of document, its number, date and place of issue, as proof of identity so that, if necessary, the document may be re-obtained from its source of issue.

4.49. In relation to internal suspicion reports, the following should be recorded:

- all suspicions reported to the nominated officer
- any written reports by the nominated officer, which should include full details of the customer who is the subject of concern and as full a statement as possible
- all internal enquiries made in relation to the report
5: Wealth management

Note: This sectoral guidance is incomplete on its own. It must be read in conjunction with the main guidance set out in Part I of the Guidance.

Overview of the sector

5.1 Wealth management is the provision of banking and investment services in a closely managed relationship to high net worth clients. Such services will include bespoke product features tailored to a client’s particular needs and may be provided from a wide range of facilities available to the client including:

- current account banking
- high value transactions
- use of sophisticated products
- non-standard investment solutions
- business conducted across different jurisdictions
- off-shore and overseas companies, trusts or personal investment vehicles

What are the money laundering risks in wealth management?

Inherent risks

5.2 Money launderers are attracted by the availability of complex products and services that operate internationally within a reputable and secure wealth management environment that is familiar with high value transactions. The following factors contribute to the increased vulnerability of wealth management:

- Wealthy and powerful clients – Such clients may be reluctant or unwilling to provide adequate documents, details and explanations. The situation is exacerbated where the client enjoys a high public profile, and where they wield or have recently wielded political or economic power or influence.

- Multiple and complex accounts – Clients often have many accounts in more than one jurisdiction, either within the same firm or group, or with different firms. In the latter situation it may be more difficult for an institution to accurately assess the true purpose and business rationale for individual transactions

- Cultures of confidentiality – Wealth management clients often seek reassurance that their need for confidential business will be conducted discreetly.

- Concealment – The misuse of services such as offshore trusts and the availability of structures such as shell companies helps to maintain an element of secrecy about beneficial ownership of funds.

- Countries with statutory banking secrecy – There is a culture of secrecy in certain jurisdictions, supported by local legislation, in which wealth management is available.

- Countries where corruption is known, or perceived, to be a common source of wealth
Movement of funds – The transmission of funds and other assets by private clients often involve high value transactions, requiring rapid transfers to be made across accounts in different countries and regions of the world.

The use of concentration accounts – i.e. multi-client pooled/omnibus type accounts - used to collect together funds from a variety of sources for onward transmission is seen as a potential major risk.

Credit – The extension of credit to clients who use their assets as collateral also poses a money laundering risk unless the lender is satisfied that the origin and source of the underlying asset is legitimate.

Commercial activity conducted through a personal account, or personal activity conducted through a business account, so as to deceive the firm or its staff.

Secured loans

5.3 Secured loans, where collateral is held in one jurisdiction and the loan is made from another, are common in wealth management. Such arrangements serve a legitimate business function and make possible certain transactions which may otherwise be unacceptable due to credit risk. Collateralised loans raise different legal issues depending on the jurisdiction of the loan. Foremost among these issues are the propriety and implications of guarantees from third parties (whose identity may not always be revealed) and other undisclosed security arrangements.

Assessment of the risk

5.4 The role of the relationship manager is particularly important to the firm in managing and controlling the money laundering or terrorist financing risks it faces. Relationship managers develop strong personal relationships with their clients, which can facilitate the collection of the necessary information to know the client’s business, including knowledge of the source(s) of the client’s wealth. However, wealthy clients often have business affairs and lifestyle that may make it difficult to establish what is “normal” and therefore what may constitute unusual behaviour.

5.5 Relationship managers must, however, at all times be alert to the risk of becoming too close to the client and to guard against the risks from:

- a false sense of security
- conflicts of interest – which may compromise the firm’s ability to meet its AML obligations and its wider financial crime responsibilities under SYSC
- undue influence by others

5.6 As in all firms, relationship managers and other client-facing staff should be alert to any developing risk to their personal safety. Criminals seeking to gain advantage from using a firm’s credibility are known to compromise, and sometimes threaten, the firm or its staff. Firms should have:

- suitable internal procedures requiring staff to report when they believe that they have been menaced
- a policy for reporting incidents to the police

Cash transactions
5.7 Relationship managers should neither accept cash nor deliver cash, nor other stores of value such as travellers’ cheques, to anyone. A client should be required to deposit or withdraw cash at the counter of a recognised bank that is at least subject to local supervision. In extremely rare circumstances where this is not possible, there should be a documented policy and procedures in relation to the handling of cash and other stores of value by relationship managers. Such transactions should be reported upwards within the firm’s UK structure and consideration given to informing the firm’s nominated officer.

Customer due diligence

5.8 Within the firm, the relationship manager will often be aware of any special sensitivity that may genuinely relate to the client’s legitimate commercial activities or need for personal security.

5.9 To control any risk of money laundering, the client’s justification for using financial institutions, businesses or addresses in different jurisdictions should always be subject to scrutiny before undertaking a transaction. To be able to view and manage the risk of money laundering across the whole of the firm or group’s business connections, they should consider nominating a manager to lead such client relationships. The lead relationship manager should have access to sufficient information to enable them to:

- know and understand the business structure
- determine whether or not there is cause to suspect the presence of money laundering

5.10 In common with the provision of other financial products or services in such countries, care should be exercised to ensure that use of banking and investment services does not lead to levels of obscurity that assists those with criminal intentions. At all times care should be exercised to ensure requests for confidentiality do not lead to unwarranted levels of secrecy that suit those with criminal intentions.

5.11 Particular care should be taken where the lender is relying upon the guarantee of a third party not otherwise in a direct business relationship, and where the collateral is not in the same jurisdiction as the firm.

5.12 Ordinarily, the level of diligence carried out in wealth management will be higher than that needed for normal retail banking (see sector 1: Retail banking) or investment management (see sector 9: Discretionary and advisory investment management) purposes. A client’s needs will often entail the use of complex products and fiduciary services, sometimes involving more than one jurisdiction, including trusts, private investment vehicles and other company structures. Where such legal vehicles and structures are used, it is important to establish that their use is genuine and to be able to follow any chain of title to know who the beneficial owner is.

5.13 In addition to the standard identification requirement in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.68 – 5.3.78, any wealth management service should have particular regard to the following:

- As a minimum requirement to counter the perceived and actual risks, the firm, and those acting in support of the business, must exercise a greater degree of diligence throughout the relationship which will be beyond that needed for normal retail banking purposes. The firm must endeavour to understand the nature of the client’s business and consider whether it is consistent and reasonable, including:
the origins of the client’s wealth
o Where possible and appropriate, documentary evidence relating to the economic activity that gave rise to the wealth
o the nature and type of transactions
o the client’s business and legitimate business structures
o for corporate and trust structures - the chain of title, authority or control leading to the ultimate beneficial owner, settler and beneficiaries, if relevant and known
o Where appropriate, the reasons a client is using complex structures
o the use made by the client of products and services
o the nature and level of business to be expected over the account

➢ The firm must be satisfied that a client’s use of complex business structures and/or the use of trust and private investment vehicles, has a genuine and legitimate purpose.

5.14 For some clients, fame is generally recognised as having a long continuing existence, and their photographs are commonly published in the public domain. In such cases, so long as the relationship manager has met the client face-to-face, firms may wish to introduce a controlled procedure, as part of the verification process, whereby the relationship manager may certify a published photograph as having a true likeness of the client. The certified photograph should be retained as a formal record of personal identification.

Recording of visits to the client’s premises

5.15 As mentioned in Part I, paragraph 5.3.76, visiting clients can be an important part of the overall customer due diligence process. In wealth management, relationship managers should generally visit their clients at their place of business in order to substantiate the type and volume of their business activity and income, or at their home if the business factor is not so relevant. The relationship manager who undertakes the visit should make a record by documenting:

➢ the date and time of the visit
➢ the address or addresses visited
➢ a summary of both the discussions and assessments
➢ any commitments or agreements
➢ any changes in client profile
➢ the expectations for product usage, volumes and turnover going forward
➢ any international dimension to the client’s activities and the risk status of the jurisdictions involved

and updating the client profile where appropriate.

Approval of new relationship

5.16 All new wealth management clients should be subject to independent review, and appropriate management approval and sign off.

References

5.17 Reputational searches should be undertaken as a normal part of customer due diligence, which will include checks for negative information. It will sometimes be
appropriate to obtain a satisfactory written reference or references from a reputable source or sources before opening an account for a client. The relationship manager should document the nature and length of the relationship between the referee and the client. References should only be accepted when they are:

- received direct – not from the client or third parties
- specifically addressed only to the firm
- verified as issued by the referee

**Review of client information**

5.18 The firm’s policies and procedures should require that the information held relating to wealth management clients be reviewed and updated on a periodic basis, or when a material change occurs in the risk profile of a client. Periodic review of particular clients will be made on a risk-based basis. Wealth management firms should consider reviewing their business with higher risk clients on at least an annual basis.

**Enhanced due diligence (EDD)**

5.19 Greater diligence should be exercised when considering business with customers who live in high-risk countries, or in unstable regions of the world known for the presence of corrupt practices. Firms must comply with the EDD requirements in the ML Regulations in respect of clients not physically present for identification purposes, and those who are PEPs, see Part I, section 5.5 and paragraph 5.21 below.

5.20 Those types of client that pose a greater money laundering or terrorist financing risk should be subject to a more stringent approval process. Their acceptance as a client or the significant development of new business with an existing higher risk client should be subject to an appropriate approval process. That process might involve the highest level of business management for the wealth management operation in the jurisdiction. Firms should consider restricting any necessary delegation of that role to a recognised risk control function.

5.21 In the case of higher risk relationships, appropriate senior personnel should undertake an independent review of the conduct and development of the relationship, at least annually.

**Politically exposed persons (PEPs)**

5.22 Firms offering a wealth management service should have particular regard to the guidance in relation to PEPs set out in Part I, paragraphs 5.5.18 to 5.5.30. Relationship managers should endeavour to keep up-to-date with any reports in the public domain that may relate to their client, the risk profile or the business relationship.

**Other clients**

5.23 Firms should consider conducting similar searches against the names of their prospects for business, including those that may only be known within the business development or marketing functions; and where practicable, third party beneficiaries to whom clients make payments.

5.24 It is recommended that in addition to the categories of client regarded as PEPs, clients connected with such businesses as gambling, armaments or money service businesses
should be considered for treatment as high risk. In determining whether to do business with such high risk interests, firms should carefully weigh their knowledge of the countries with which the client is associated as well as the nature of the business that has generated the wealth. Particular consideration should be given to the extent to which their AML/CTF legislation is comparable to the provisions of the relevant EU Directive.

**Transaction Monitoring**

5.25 General guidance on monitoring customer transactions and activity is given in Part I, section 5.7. In view of the risk associated with wealth management activities, it is appropriate that there should be a heightened ongoing review of account activity and the use made of the firm’s other products. In the case of wealth management, the triggers for alerts may be set at a different level, to reflect the appropriate level of control that is to be exercised.

5.26 An illustrative (but not exhaustive) list of matters firms should carefully examine includes:

- substantial initial deposits proposed by prospects for business;
- transactional activity - frequent or substantial activity that is inconsistent with the normal levels associated with the product or purpose - unusual patterns of activity may be evidence of money laundering;
- wire transfers - frequent or substantial transfers not in keeping with either normal usage for the product or the verified expectations of the client’s business requirement;
- cash or other transactions - which are not in line with either the normal usage for the product or the verified expectations of the client’s business requirement;
- significant increase or change in activity – increased values, volumes or new products required, which do not align with the firm’s profile of the client;
- accounts of financial institutions not subject to supervision in an equivalent jurisdiction; and
- any activity not commensurate with the nature of the business.

and firms should remain mindful of the possibility of clients using their legitimate resources to finance terrorism.

5.27 Incoming and outgoing transfers, whether of cash, investments or other assets, should be reviewed by the relationship manager or their delegate as soon as is reasonably practicable after the transaction. To ensure the process is efficient, firms will wish to set a threshold figure that is in line with the business risk profile.

5.28 In view of the nature of wealth management services generally, it is appropriate that additional controls and procedures should be applied both to the acceptance and ongoing maintenance of wealth management relationships. These additional controls will also be appropriate when considering the further development of the business relationship with, say, the introduction of new funds or assets.
6: Financial advisers

Note: This sectoral guidance is incomplete on its own. It must be read in conjunction with the main guidance set out in Part I of the Guidance.

Overview of the sector

6.1. Financial advisers give customers advice on their investment needs (typically for long-term savings and pension provision) and selecting the appropriate products.

Typical customers

6.2. The typical customers of financial advisers are personal clients (including high net worth individuals), trusts, companies. Some firms also advise charities.

6.3. Financial advisers, whether they only give advice or whether they act on behalf of their customers in dealing with a product provider, are subject to the full provisions of UK law and regulation relating to the prevention of money laundering and terrorist financing. The guidance in Part I therefore applies to financial advisers.

6.4. Other sectoral guidance in Part II that is relevant to financial advisers includes:

- Sector 7: Life assurance, and life-related pensions and investment products
- Sector 8: Non-life providers of investment fund products
- Sector 9: Discretionary and advisory investment management

6.5. Generally, financial advisers do not hold permission from the FSA to handle client money, so in practice there is unlikely to be any involvement in the placement stage of money laundering. There is, however, considerable scope for financial advisers being drawn in to the layering and integration stages.

6.6. Whether or not financial advisers hold permission to handle client money, they should consider whether their relationship with their customers means that the guidance in sector 5: Wealth management or in sector 9: Discretionary and advisory investment management applies more directly to them.

What are the money laundering or terrorist financing risks for financial advisers?

6.7. The vast majority of financial advice business is conducted on a face-to-face basis, and investors generally have easy access to the funds involved.

6.8. Some criminals may seek to use financial advisers as the first step in integrating their criminal property into the financial system.
6.9. The offences of money laundering or terrorist financing include aiding and abetting those trying to carry out these primary offences, which include tax evasion. This is the main risk generally faced by financial advisers. In carrying out its assessment of the risk the firm faces of becoming involved in money laundering or terrorist financing, or entering into an arrangement to launder criminal property, the firm must consider the risk related to the product, as well as the risk related to the client.

6.10. Clearly, the risk of being involved in money laundering or terrorist financing will increase when dealing with certain types of customer, such as offshore trusts/companies, politically exposed persons and customers from higher risk or non-FATF countries or jurisdictions, and may also be affected by other service features that a firm offers to its customers. Customer activity, too, such as purchases in secondary markets – for example, traded endowments – can carry a higher money laundering risk.

**Customer due diligence**

6.11. Having sufficient information about customers and beneficial owners, and using that information, underpins all other anti-money laundering procedures. A firm must not enter into a business relationship until the identity of all the relevant parties to the relationship has been verified in accordance with the guidance in Part I, Chapter 5. Depending on the nature of their business, firms should also have regard to the requirements of product providers (see Part II sectors, 7, 8 and 9).

6.12. When a full advice service is offered, the process will involve information gathering, an understanding of the customer's needs and priorities and anticipated funds available for investment. The amount of information held about a client will build over time, as there will often be ongoing contact with the customer in order to review their circumstances. However, the level of information held about a customer will be limited if business is transacted on an execution-only or direct offer basis and financial advisers should have an increased regard to the monitoring of business undertaken in this way.

*Whose identity should be verified?*

6.13. Guidance on who the customer is, whose identity has to be verified, is given in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.2 to 5.3.7. Guidance on who the beneficial owner is, whose identity also has to be verified, is given in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.8 – 5.3.13 generally, and in Part II sector 7, paragraph 7.56(v), specifically for investment bonds.

*Private individuals*

6.14. Guidance on verifying the identity of private individuals is given in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.68 to 5.3.114. Guidance on circumstances where it may be possible to use the source of funds as evidence of identity is given in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.92 to 5.3.96.

6.15. The firm’s risk assessment procedures will take account of the money laundering and terrorist financing risks identified in the sectors in which the relevant product provider operates (see paragraph 6.4). Customers may be assessed as presenting a higher risk of money laundering, whether because he is identified as being a PEP, or because of some other aspect of the nature of the customer, or his business, or its location, or because of the product features available. In such cases, the firm must conduct enhanced due diligence measures (see Part I, section 5.5) and will need to decide whether it should require additional identity information to be provided, and/or whether to verify additional aspects of identity. For such customers, the financial adviser will need to consider whether to require additional customer information (see Part I, section 5.5) and/or whether to institute enhanced monitoring (see Part I, section 5.7).
6.16. Some persons cannot reasonably be expected to produce the standard evidence of identity. This would include persons such as individuals in care homes, who may not have a passport or driving licence, and whose name does not appear on utility bills. Where customers cannot produce the standard identification evidence, reference should be made to the guidance set out in sector 1: Retail banking, Annex 1-I.

Non-personal customers

6.17. Guidance on verifying the identity of non personal customers is given in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.115 to 5.3.277. Categories of non personal customers that are likely to be of particular relevance to financial advisers are:

- Private companies (paragraphs 5.3.149 to 5.3.160)
- Partnerships and unincorporated businesses (paragraphs 5.3.163 to 5.3.177)
- Pension schemes (paragraphs 5.3.216 to 5.3.225)
- Charities, church bodies and places of worship (paragraphs 5.3.226 to 5.3.245)
- Other trusts and foundations (paragraphs 5.3.246 to 5.3.269)
- Clubs and societies (paragraphs 5.3.270 to 5.3.278)

Non face-to-face

6.18. Non face-to-face transactions can present a greater money laundering or terrorist financing risk than those conducted in person because it is inherently more difficult to be sure that the person with whom the firm is dealing is the person that they claim to be. Enhanced due diligence is required in these circumstances, and verification of identity undertaken on a non face-to-face basis should be carried out in accordance with the guidance given in Part I, paragraphs 5.5.10 to 5.5.17.

Using verification work carried out by another firm

6.19. The responsibility to be satisfied that a customer’s identity has been verified rests with the firm entering into the transaction with the customer. However, where two or more financial services firms have an obligation to verify the identity of the same customer in respect of the same transaction, in certain circumstances one firm may use the verification carried out by another firm. Guidance on the circumstances in which such an approach is possible, and on the use of pro-forma confirmation documentation, is given in Part I, section 5.6.

6.20. Financial advisers should bear in mind that they are often the party which is carrying out the initial customer identification and verification process. As such, it is they who will be asked to confirm to a product or service provider that such verification has been carried out. Although not directly related to the sort of work that financial advisers typically carry out, the significance of issuing such confirmations is highlighted by the actions of the FSA in 2005 in fining a bond broker who gave such conformation when he was aware that he had not, in fact, carried out appropriate customer due diligence.

6.21. Product providers often rely on customer verification procedures carried out by financial advisers, which underlines the importance of their systems and procedures for risk assessment being effective.

6.22. Where the financial adviser has carried out verification of identity on behalf of a product provider, the adviser must be able to make available to the product provider, on request, copies of the identification and verification data and other relevant documents on the identity of the customer or beneficial owner obtained by the adviser (see paragraph 6.29).
obligation extends throughout the period for which the financial adviser has an obligation under the ML Regulations to retain these data, documents or other information.

**Suspicious transactions**

6.23. Financial advisers are ideally placed to identify activity which is abnormal, or which does not make economic sense, in relation to a person’s circumstances. Obtaining details on the source of a customer’s wealth, and identifying the purpose of an activity are all mandatory parts of the normal advice process. Financial advisers do not have to handle the transaction personally to have an obligation to report it.

6.24. Guidance on monitoring customer transactions and activity is set out in Part I, section 5.7. Guidance on internal reporting, reviewing internal reports and making appropriate external reports to SOCA, is given in Part I, Chapter 6. This includes guidance on when a firm needs to seek consent to proceed with a suspicious transaction, with which financial advisers need to be familiar.

**Staff awareness and training**

6.25. One of the most important controls over the prevention and detection of money laundering is to have staff who are alert to the risks of money laundering/terrorist financing and well trained in the identification of unusual activities or transactions, which may prove to be suspicious.

6.26. Guidance on staff awareness, training and alertness is given in Part I, Chapter 7. This guidance includes suggested questions that staff should be asking themselves, and circumstances that should cause them to ask further questions about particular transactions or customer activity.

**Record-keeping**

6.27. General guidance on record-keeping is given in Part I, Chapter 8. The position of financial advisers means that some of the guidance in Part I, Chapter 8 cannot easily be applied. Generally, financial advisers will verify customers’ identities by means of documentation, as they will often not have access to electronic sources of data. Where documents are used, it is preferable to make and retain copies.

6.28. In circumstances where a financial adviser is unable to take a record of documents used to verify identity, (e.g., when at a customer’s home) he/she should keep a record of the type of document, its number, date and place of issue, as proof of identity, so that, if necessary, the document may be re-obtained from its source of issue.

6.29. Financial advisers may, from time to time, be asked by product providers for copies of the identification evidence that they took in relation to a particular customer. Financial advisers’ record-keeping arrangements must therefore be capable of enabling such material to be provided in a timely manner (see Part I, paragraph 5.6.18).

6.30. Documents relating to customer identity must be retained for five years from the date the business relationship with the customer has ended (see Part I, paragraph 8.12).
7: Life assurance, and life-related protection, pension and investment products

Note: This sectoral guidance is incomplete on its own. It must be read in conjunction with the main guidance set out in Part I of the Guidance.

7.1 This sectoral guidance helps firms to interpret how the risk-based approach set out in Part I, Chapter 4 and the customer due diligence requirements set out in Part I, Chapter 5 might be applied to the specific circumstances of the protection, savings and pensions businesses of the insurance sector.

What are the money laundering risks in the protection, pension and investment business of the insurance sector?

7.2 The insurance sector provides a diverse range of products to customers via an equally diverse range of distribution channels. It has been noted that the majority of insurance products do not deliver sufficient functionality and flexibility to be the first choice of vehicle for the money launderer. However, it is also recognised that although the nature of these products helps reduce the money laundering risk, the funds used to purchase them could be the proceeds of crime. Where there are doubts as to the legitimacy of the transaction, verification of the customer’s identity remains important as part of the investigation into the transaction and the customer.

The key drivers of risk

7.3 Part I, Chapter 4 states that any risk-based approach to AML needs to start with the identification and assessment of the risk that has to be managed and identifies key elements (or drivers) of risk as follows:

a) The profile of the customer, including his geographical location and source of funds;

b) The delivery mechanism, or distribution channel, used to sell the product; and

c) The nature of the product being sold.

7.4 In addition to the risks identified above, the increasing volume of activities outsourced by insurers brings an additional dimension to the risks that the insurer faces, and this risk must be actively managed - see Part I (2.7 ff). Insurers that outsource activities should assess any possible AML/CTF risk associated with the outsourced functions, record the assessment and monitor the risk on an ongoing basis.

7.5 FSA regulated firms cannot contract out of their regulatory responsibilities, and they remain responsible for systems and controls in respect of the activities outsourced, whether within the UK or to another jurisdiction. In all instances of outsourcing, it is the delegating firm that bears the ultimate responsibility for the duties undertaken in its name. This includes ensuring that the provider of the outsourced activities has satisfactory AML/CTF systems, controls and procedures.

7.6 Based on the views of insurance firms, the majority of this guidance focuses on risks from a product-led perspective; however, there are circumstances in which a customer’s profile may add to the product risk. This is particularly the case with regard to Politically Exposed Persons – see Part I (5.5.18 ff). A firm must ensure that their own risk-based approach is appropriate to the particular circumstances they face.
Politically Exposed Persons (PEP)

7.7 Part I (5.5.18 ff) sets out general provisions for identifying, establishing business with, and monitoring PEPs. This sectoral guidance sets out the fundamental risks and business practices that insurers may wish to consider when developing a risk-based procedure. These risks and business practices may change, and it is therefore important that insurers monitor these developments and adjust their procedures accordingly.

7.8 When developing a procedure for identifying PEPs, insurers should target those areas of business that are at the greatest risk of having customers who meet the PEP criteria.

7.9 Based on the experience of a number of insurers, the insurance sector has a very low exposure to PEPs. The majority of products sold by insurers also do not lend themselves to storing or laundering the proceeds of crime, including corruption. It is likely therefore that the numbers of customers meeting the high-risk criteria are very low and those that are identified as PEPs are lower still.

7.10 Firms may consider using criteria such as accounts with non-UK residents and investment value to determine their risk-based approach to PEP identification.

7.11 It is expected that this risk-based procedure will make the volume checking of new customers unnecessary. However, adequate measures to check PEP status for those customers meeting the high risk criteria should be undertaken during the course of establishing the business relationship. If a PEP is identified at this stage, senior management approval is required for establishing a business relationship. In the case of identifying an existing customer as a PEP, senior management approval for continuing the business relationship must be obtained as soon as practicable upon identifying a PEP.

7.12 The identification of a customer as a PEP is not in itself cause for suspicion, but requires an enhanced level of due diligence in line with the guidance set out in Part I. In some cases, however, this enhanced due diligence may trigger suspicions that the client is attempting to store or launder the proceeds of crime, including corruption. In such cases, a SAR and consent request must be submitted to SOCA, following the guidance set out in Part I, chapter 6.

Distribution Risk

7.13 The distribution channel for products may alter the risk profile. For insurers the main issues will be non face-to-face sales, such as online, postal or telephone sales. Part I, paragraphs 5.5.10ff outline the process for managing non face-to-face sales.

7.14 For business sold through agencies, such as IFAs, agency acceptance and ongoing management procedures may already meet the requirements set out in Part I, paragraphs 5.6.27 and 5.6.28. The MLRO should ensure that he is comfortable with the vetting processes undertaken by the firms distribution arm, for advisers, prior to the issue of and throughout the agency agreement. This should include the ability of the intermediary to provide copies of the underlying documents or data on request. The MLRO should be aware and satisfied with the level of monitoring of any material breeches/financial difficulties, which might call into question the agent’s status as fit and proper.

7.15 Once a business relationship is established with an intermediary, the Confirmation of Verification of Identity is the record for the purpose of meeting the record keeping requirements (this is irrespective of any outsourced administrative arrangement) and should be retained in accordance with the guidance provided in Part I, paragraphs 5.6.4ff. If, in the course of normal business, the

14 For the purposes of this guidance, a non UK resident is a person defined as such for UK tax purposes.
intermediary’s standards are called into question, the insurer should review its status as a provider of CVIs. For higher risk business, such as non-UK, the MLRO will need to be satisfied that the level of customer due diligence carried out by the third party is commensurate with the risk and may wish to request copies of the underlying evidence obtained by the intermediary.

**Product Risk**

7.16 The remainder of this sectoral guidance concentrates on product risk. This is because, in the insurance sector, the nature of the product being sold is usually the primary driver of the risk assessment. This is because of the very different nature of each category of products (protection, pensions and investments) and the fact that each product’s features are defined and restricted; some will only pay out on a verifiable event such as death or illness, whilst others are accessible only after many years of contributions. As well as limiting the flexibility of these products as potential money laundering vehicles, the restrictions also enable firms to more readily profile the products for ‘standard’ (and conversely, ‘non standard’ or ‘suspicious’) use by customers.

7.17 A smaller number of products sold by firms in the insurance sector, including single premium investment bonds and certain pensions, do feature increased flexibility. This should be acknowledged in the application of the risk-based approach.

7.18 The following are features which may tend to increase the risk profile of a product:

- accept payments or receipts from third parties;
- accept very high value or unlimited value payments or large volumes of lower value payments;
- accept cash payments;
- accept frequent payments (outside of a normal regular premium policy);
- provide significant flexibility as to how investments are managed to be liquidated quickly (via surrender or partial withdrawal) and without prohibitive financial loss;
- be traded on a secondary market;
- be used as collateral for a loan and/or written in a discretionary or other increased risk trust;
- accept overpayments.

7.19 The following are features that may tend to reduce the risk profile of a product:

- restricted capacity to accept third party receipts or make third party payments;
- have total investment curtailed at a low value due to either the law or a firm’s policy;
- be relatively small value regular premium policies that can only be paid via direct debit;
- require the launderer to establish more than one relationship with a firm or another official body (e.g., certain types of pension products where the customer has to set up the product with the provider and to get HMRC approval and possibly appoint a Pensioner Trustee);
- have no investment value and only pay out against a certain event (death, illness etc) that can be checked by the product provider; and/or be linked to known legitimate employment.

7.20 The above are general lists of characteristics and are indicative only. Firms are strongly discouraged from using the lists in isolation for a mechanical ‘tick box’ style exercise. No characteristic acts of itself as a trigger. Not all products that may be used, say, as collateral for a loan, are automatically ‘increased risk’ by virtue of one characteristic alone. These general characteristics are given so that firms may weigh them up in overall balance for specific, branded products against their knowledge of the customer and their business.

7.21 In recent years there has been a growth in so called ‘platform’ or ‘wrapper’ product offerings from insurance firms, where a variety of products are offered to various target markets under an overarching ‘wrapper’ arrangement. These products may form, in effect, a portfolio arrangement for
underlying clients or members, sold via arrangements conducted between the product provider and a third party - typically a regulated introducer (IFA), Employer or similar. They may encompass a variety of risk factors that drive the level of customer due diligence (see paragraphs 7.2 to 7.28).

7.22 Firms may wish to consider whether they should apply a standard level of customer due diligence to the whole 'platform' or 'wrapper', or whether to graduate the level of customer due diligence dependent on the actual product occurrence and specific risk factors as/when they arise. The customer due diligence should be conducted as appropriate in accordance with paragraphs 7.1 to 7.58 and financial sanctions guidance in Part III, Section 4. Whichever approach is used, a firm should ensure that it documents its approach and is satisfied that the approach adequately addresses the money laundering and terrorist financing risks according to the combination of risk factors inherent in the 'platform' or 'wrapper' arrangement.

7.23 Where apparent inconsistencies exist, firms are expected to exercise judgement accordingly. For example certain pension products and platform based portfolio arrangements accept contributions from employers. Third party payments are normally indicative of increased risk according to the list in 7.18, however for such products, once appropriate due diligence has been enacted in respect of the employer; there is some risk reduction in respect of source of funds. Some of the other features of pension products (the restricted access to funds, the ability to take only a percentage of the fund as a lump sum on reaching retirement age, the involvement of HMRC), also reduce the product risk.

7.24 It is stressed that risk levels attributed to generic products in this document are intended to provide a starting point for a firm’s risk assessment. Firms should consider whether their own, branded versions of those generic products possess features (such as a facility for top up payments or prohibition from receiving/making third party payments) which raise or lower the risk level. Equally, taking account of other risk drivers which might be identified (for example, the geographical location of a customer) may lead a firm to ‘upgrade’ or downgrade the overall risk level of a product from that indicated in this guidance. Part I, section 5.5 discusses risk drivers that are not specific to insurance products. Also, where a proposition for business involving an intermediate or reduced risk product is exceptional due to the size, source of funds or for another reason that suggests risk of fraud, money laundering or other usage of proceeds of crime additional due diligence will be appropriate perhaps via existing anti-fraud or other business risk management procedures. In December 2008, the FSA imposed a fine on AON, in a Principle 3 action focused on risk assessment, in particular in relation to controls relating to bribery and corruption (see www.fsa.gov.uk/pubs/final/aon.pdf).

Three overall risk levels

7.25 Firms in the insurance sector have carried out risk profiling of their products, applying the risk assessment criteria detailed above. This guidance draws on that work and establishes three overall levels of risk for insurance products in an AML context. The risk level determines what work a firm needs to carry out to meet industry standards. The three levels are:

a) reduced risk;
b) intermediate risk; or
c) increased risk.

7.26 When attributing an appropriate risk level, it is important to keep insurance risk in its wider context. As already noted, the majority of insurance products do not deliver sufficient functionality and flexibility to be the first choice of vehicle for the money launderer.

7.27 The products identified as ‘increased risk’ are therefore categorised as such only in the context of
the insurance sector and are not intended to equate to references to ‘high risk’ in the wider context of
the financial services industry as a whole.

7.28 The risk level attributed should always be based on the underlying product, irrespective of how it is
described in the product provider’s literature (i.e., substance prevails over form). Firms should
expect to be in a position to justify the basis on which the risk assessment criteria have been applied.

7.29 Risk management is a continuous process (as noted in Part I, paragraph 4.30). The risk assessment
process is not a one-time exercise, and it must be revisited and reviewed on a regular basis.

7.30 Finally, there is a need to monitor the environment in which the firm operates. It should be
recognised that success in preventing money laundering in one area will tend to drive criminals to
migrate to another area, business, or product stream. Firms should be aware of current risk
assessments of money laundering/terrorist financing risk in the insurance sector and take them into
consideration, along with trends they experience themselves. If displacement is happening, or if
customer behaviour is changing, the firm should be considering what it should be doing differently
to take account of these changes. A firm's anti-fraud measures will also help it understand its
customers and mitigate the money laundering risks.

I - Reduced risk level

7.31 Some groups of products, due to their inherent features, are extremely unlikely to be used for money
laundering purposes. Some of these are recognised by the Money Laundering Regulations as
attracting Simplified Due Diligence [See Regulation 9(8)]. Others, such as Compulsory Purchase
Annuities are considered part of the pensions product. The table below shows these products in their
respective categories of protection and pensions. The table also shows a number of the typical
features (or restrictions) of each product, which serve to limit their potential as money laundering
vehicles and so qualify them for this risk level.

7.32 Risk levels attributed to generic products in this section are intended for guidance only. Firms
should consider whether their own branded versions of these generic products have features that
either reduce or increase this indicative risk level.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Protection</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
<th>Timing of verification for pure protection products (Part I: 5.2.3.) ML Regs 9 (4). Part II 7.31</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1 Term life assurance | **Typical features:**
  o Only pays out on death of assured
  o No surrender value
  o Small, regular premiums: additional payments by customer not possible
  o Large premiums will normally require medical evidence
  o No investment element
  o Once term of policy is finished no payout and policy ceases | **Timing of verification for pure protection products (Part I: 5.2.3.) ML Regs 9 (4). Part II 7.31** |
| 2 Income protection products related to long-term illness | **Typical features:**
  o Only pays out on medical evidence and proof required as to loss of income
  o No surrender value
  o Small, regular premiums: additional payments by customer not possible | **Timing of verification for pure protection products (Part I: 5.2.3.) ML Regs 9 (4). Part II 7.31** |
### Critical Illness Products

- Only pays out on medical evidence
- No surrender value
- Small, regular premiums: additional payments by customer not possible

**Timing of verification for pure protection products (Part I: 5.2.3), ML Regs 9 (4), Part II 7.31**

### Group Life Protection

- Only pays on medical evidence
- No surrender value
- Premiums paid by employer – no member funding
- Relatively small regular premiums

**Timing of verification for pure protection products (Part I: 5.2.3) ML Regs 9 (4). Part II 7.31**

### Pensions

#### 5 Pension, superannuation or similar schemes which provide retirement benefits to employees **(see footnote 8)**, where contributions are made by an employer or by way of deduction from an employee’s wages and the scheme rules do not permit the assignment of a member’s interest under the scheme **(see footnote 9)**

- Long term savings vehicle - No surrender value
- Product may not be used as collateral

**Qualifies for Simplified Due Diligence (Part I 5.4.5), ML Regs 13 (7)(c)**

#### 6 Pensions annuities, whether purchased with the company running the long-term savings vehicle or through an open market option.

- Product already subject to due diligence and ongoing monitoring from the pension provider

**Qualifies for Simplified Due Diligence. ML Regs 13(7)(b)**

#### 7 Rebate Only Personal Pension (“RPP”)

- Only funded by National Insurance Contribution rebates payable as a result of an individual being contracted out of SERPS or S2P

**Qualifies for Simplified Due Diligence**

#### 8 Immediate Vesting Personal Pension (“IVPP”). Purchased with the transfer from another pension for the purpose of exercising an open market annuity option.

- Product already subject to due diligence and ongoing monitoring from the pension provider

**Qualifies for Simplified Due Diligence. ML Regs 13(7)(b)**

---

8 This would cover Contracted in and out Group Money Purchase Schemes, Final Salary Schemes,
s32 Buy Out Plans from the latter types of schemes (if no further contributions are allowed) and Rebate-only schemes.

9 This qualification for Simplified Due Diligence is based on the Money Laundering Regulations 2007 13(7)(b), and is therefore not contingent on the monetary limits set out in 13(7)(a).

Customer due diligence

7.33 The recommended industry standard for protection products in this category is for due diligence on the customer and the beneficiary to be carried out at the point of claim. For most circumstances, the counter fraud checks at point of claim will satisfy these requirements.

7.34 For pensions annuities, it is sufficient for the insurer to satisfy itself that the pension scheme funding the annuity is HMRC-registered.

7.35 The recommended industry standard for reduced risk pension products is as follows:

- Apply Simplified due diligence. Therefore apart from monitoring, customer due diligence does not apply to either the customer or the scheme.

However, where a firm considers that there are features of the nature of the employer or the scheme that present an increased risk of money laundering, the following enhanced due diligence measures may be appropriate:

a. Obtaining details of the trustees and the entity (usually the employer), copy of the relevant trust deeds, and verifying the scheme’s HMRC/PSO number (this can be done, for example, by sight of the scheme's HMRC approval letter).

Note - HMRC does not now issue approval letters. However, if the firm has any concerns, on application and with the relevant authority, HMRC will provide documentary confirmation regarding the existence of the scheme.

b. Verifying the identity of the employer, or other corporate entity paying into the fund, in accordance with Part I, Chapter 5. Check that the firm is trading and appropriate to provide employees with a pension through a Companies House search or a visit to premises.

7.36 Firms are not required to assume that a payment from an unidentified source (e.g., by wire transfer from a UK bank or building society or a Bankers Draft or a UK Building Society counter cheque that does not identify the account from which it is made) is being made by a third party unless they are aware of some fact that suggests that this is, or may be the case.

7.37 Where an insurer decides to apply simplified due diligence to a particular product or type of business, there is no requirement to identify or verify the identity of beneficial owners and/or controllers. Ongoing monitoring, however, is still required.

7.38 In addition, the destination of funds at the time of redemption can be used as evidence of identity in cases where there has not previously been a requirement to verify, for example where the firm had been able to rely on an exemption. In these cases, depending on the firm's assessment of the risk presented by the situation, including the circumstances in which the customer acquired the investment, it may be possible to satisfy the standard identification requirement by means of a payment to an account with a UK or EU regulated credit institution in the sole or joint name of the customer. The old style IFA Certificates (confirmations of identity) had a tick box “Existing Customer Pre April 1994” – this exemption is not transferable to Insurers. The firm may, however, have completed a current customer review exercise to pick the verification of these customers up.
**Monitoring**

7.39 Companies must take a risk-based approach to monitoring reduced risk products. A company’s normal anti-fraud controls should provide a suitably robust system of monitoring. The high annual limits for pensions in the post A-day tax regime provide greater scope for these products to receive large lump sum payments; a risk that may be mitigated by monitoring.

**Frequently asked questions in relation to reduced risk**

7.40

(i).  *What if we identify that a third party is / has been paying into a reduced risk protection product?*

Firms should, in the course of their normal commercial business, be considering whether any suspicious or unusual circumstances apply, and should act accordingly, and this might involve verifying the identity of the third party. However, in the absence of such concerns, unless the third party is the beneficiary (who may be verified by counter-fraud checks at point of claim), there is no requirement to verify the identity of the third party premium payer for reduced risk protection products at any stage.

(ii)  *What if there is a change of beneficiary or if payout is made to a third party on one of these reduced risk products?*

Unless the amount of money to be paid out is small and financial crime is not suspected, the identity of the third party must be verified before payout can take place. A letter of instruction from the original beneficiary will not normally suffice.

(iii)  *What if payments into exempt occupational pension schemes begin to be received from the employee rather than from the employer?*

Firms should have adequate procedures and controls to identify where payments are not received directly from the employer but instead are received directly from the employee or another third party, whether by personal cheque or direct debit. Where such payments are received, and where the sums are considered material, standard identification and verification requirements set out in Part I, section 5.4 should be applied to the payer as soon as is reasonably practicable.

(iv)  *How does using the “source of funds” as evidence affect these reduced risk level products?*

a)  For reduced risk level products, firms may accept personal cheques and other payment instruments drawn on a customer’s account as satisfying the requirement to verify the customer’s identity.

b)  Where the funds are being paid into a reduced risk level product by direct debit from an account in the customer’s name, there is no additional requirement on firms to correlate the name on the direct debit instruction with the account details at the outset of the relationship. It is usual practice for firms to undertake further due diligence on the customer’s identity before any payment is made, as part of their fraud prevention procedures. If a firm’s procedures do not provide for further customer due diligence to be undertaken before any payment is made, it should confirm at the outset of the relationship that the payments made by direct debit are made from an account in the name of the client, in accordance with Part I, paragraph 5.3.92.

(v)  *What about verification on reduced risk level pension transfers?*
There is no requirement to verify identity if both of the following conditions are satisfied:

1. the transfer is from an Occupational Pension Scheme which is not a Executive Pension Plan ("EPP") or a Small Self Administered Scheme ("SSAS"); and

2. the transfer is to an Occupational Pension Scheme (which is not an EPP or a SSAS) or is to a S32 buy out plan with no additional funding.

(vi) What if a pension-sharing or pension-earmarking order (for example in the case of a divorce) is received for a reduced risk pension?

Firms may accept court documents as verification of identity of the existing customer, if this has not already been completed.

Subject(s) of such an order that are explicitly nominated to receive funds should be regarded as the beneficial owner(s), and their identity may also be verified by reference to the court document(s).

(vii) What if a payment on death is to be made direct to a beneficiary?

Payments to beneficiaries on the instructions of the executor or administrator may be made once the beneficiaries have been sanction screened. If there are no sanctioned parties involved, there is no need to verify the identity of beneficiary, if the payment is made to an account in their name. However, if a beneficiary wishes to transact any business in their own name, their identity will need to be verified, in line with the guidance in Part I, section 5.3, and paragraph 5.3.2.

II - Intermediate risk level

7.41 The intermediate risk level has been attributed to a group of products whose inherent features pose some risk of use for the purposes of money laundering or terrorist financing but they are significantly less than the risks posed by the "increased risk" grouping of insurance products. Some risk is acknowledged in the case, for example, of products with a facility for ‘top up’ payments, and therefore the standard level of due diligence is appropriate. The table below shows these products in their respective categories of protection, savings and pensions, together with some of their typical features or restrictions.

7.42 Risk levels attributed to generic products in this section are intended for guidance only. Firms should consider whether their own branded versions of these generic products have features that either reduce or increase this indicative risk level.

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### Whole of Life

**Typical features:**
- May accrue some surrender value
- Benefits usually payable on death or diagnosis of terminal illness
- Or, in some cases, critical illness of the policyholder
- Partial surrenders are normally allowed within specified limits
- Qualifying whole of life plans will comply with the rules applicable to qualifying life policies

### Savings and Investments

#### 2 Life assurance savings plan

**Typical features:**
- Long term savings plan often for retirement
- Requires at least 5 years to gain positive return on investment
- Often unable to be surrendered in first or second year, with penalties in years three to five
- Additional ‘top up’ payments may be permitted
- Sum assured/premium relationship broadly complying with HMRC Qualifying Rules

#### 3 Endowments

- Long term savings plan for a set term, were often linked to mortgages
- Sum assured/premium relationship broadly complying with HMRC Qualifying Rules
- Usually long term, 10-25 years

#### 4 Trustee Investment Plan (‘TIP’)

- The plans are governed by trustees
- The plans must be associated with a pension scheme
- All cash flows into and out of the Plan must be via the trustees

### Pensions

#### 5 Group Personal Pension (‘GPP’)

**Typical features:**
- Long term policy, usually up to 40 years
- No surrender value

#### 6 Group Stakeholder Plan

- Long term policy, usually up to 40 years
- No surrender value
- HMRC registered scheme
- Annual and lifetime limits apply

#### 7 Income Drawdown Flexible Pension Plan Phased Retirement Plan

**Typical features:**
- Policies only open to individuals between the ages 55 – 75, and people who have already accrued by a pension fund
- The level of income which may be ‘drawn down’ is subject to limits set by the Government

#### 8 Free Standing Additional Voluntary Contribution Plan (‘FSAVC’)

- Contributions cap set by pensions legislation and monitored by scheme administrator
- Transfers are only possible to another regulated entity
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<td>Provides a choice of allowable investments, including commercial property, i.e., can be used to buy business premises</td>
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<td>Executive Pension Plans (&quot;EPPs&quot;) (excludes CIMPs &amp; COMPs – see Minimal Risk section)</td>
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<td>Typical features:</td>
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<td>Contributions from company to tax exempt fund, normally</td>
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<td>Established by company directors for their benefit</td>
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<td>Single premium payments permitted</td>
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<td>Small Self Administered Schemes (&quot;SSASs&quot;)</td>
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<td>Small limited companies where directors are the main shareholders</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Flexibility of investment options</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Able to be used to raise loan capital</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Long term policy, usually up to 40 years</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No surrender value</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HMRC registered scheme. Transfers are possible, but only to another registered scheme.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Annual and lifetime limits apply.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pension provider is usually the trustee</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Immediate Vesting Personal Pension (&quot;IVPP&quot;). Purchased for purposes other than pursuing an open market annuity option.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Policies only open to individuals between the ages of 50 and 75.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Purchase not based on a transfer from another pension scheme.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Annuity usually purchased with one one-off payment to provide income for life.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Purchased Life Annuity (&quot;PLA&quot;) Hancock Annuity</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No return of cash lump sum at end of the term selected or when customer dies</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Once annuity purchased, purchaser cannot alter the arrangements or cash it in.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

7.43 As can be seen, the majority of intermediate risk level products are found in the pensions category,
which reflects the restricted access to funds in a pension arrangement; pensions cannot be encashed and payments out are limited to tax free cash lump sums (for example, up to 25% of the fund for stakeholder and personal pensions) and regular income. In addition, some schemes will have an independent pensioner trustee who polices the running of the scheme on behalf of HMRC.

**Customer due diligence**

7.44 The recommended industry standard for intermediate risk products is as follows: Verify the identity of the customer and/or the relevant parties, as per the guidance set out in Part I, Chapter 5, at the outset of the business relationship.

7.45 Firms are not required to assume that a payment from an unidentified source (e.g., by wire transfer from a UK bank or building society or a Bankers Draft or a UK Building Society counter cheque that does not identify the account from which it is made) is being made by a third party unless they are aware of some fact that suggests that this is, or may be the case.

7.46 In accordance with Part I, companies must identify the beneficial owner, following the guidance in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.11 and 5.3.12.

7.47 In addition, the destination of funds at the time of redemption can be used as evidence of identity in cases where there has not previously been a requirement to verify, for example where the firm had been able to rely on an exemption. In these cases, depending on the firm’s assessment of the risk presented by the situation, including the circumstances in which the customer acquired the investment, it may be possible to satisfy the standard identification requirement by means of a payment to an account with a UK or EU regulated credit institution in the sole or joint name of the customer. The old style IFA Certificates (confirmations of identity) had a tick box “Existing Customer Pre April 1994” – this exemption is not transferable to Insurers. The firm may however have completed a current customer review exercise to pick the verification of these customers up.

**Monitoring**

7.48 Insurance companies should have a programme of monitoring which reflects the intermediate risk status of the products mentioned above. A firm should ensure its employees are adequately trained to identify and report unusual business activity to the firm’s nominated officer. Within the post A-day pensions regime, highly atypical pensions contributions should attract higher levels of scrutiny from pensions providers.

7.49 Firms should undertake ongoing monitoring for patterns of unusual or suspicious activity to ensure that higher-risk activity can be scrutinised. For example, top-up payments when these are much larger than current holdings, or for EPPs & SSASs, are areas that should receive scrutiny, as well as loans taken out using product as collateral.

**Frequently asked questions in relation to intermediate risk**

7.50

(i) What constitutes the outset of the business relationship?

In most cases a business relationship begins with the acceptance of a fully completed application or proposal form.

However, the business relationship is only formally established after the end of the cooling off
period. This is important for the timing of customer due diligence.

(ii) What about cancellation during the “cooling-off period” leading to a refund of premium paid? In some cases, the customer has not yet been verified by that time.

Firms should seek to mitigate risk by refunding the premium to the customer by way of direct credit to the bank account from which the funds were paid or by an account payee crossed cheque in the customer's name. Firms should also consider whether the cancellation, taken into consideration with all other factors, raises suspicions about the transaction and if they do, consent must be sought from SOCA before paying out the sum. Where there is no such suspicion, firms should also verify the customer’s identity before making a refund where the premium is ‘large’ (the sectoral guidance purposely does not set a lower limit, as materiality thresholds of individual firms will differ with the different features of the product) and/or circumstances appear unusual. (Note: this requirement also applies to increased risk business).

(iii) What information do we need to obtain in respect of intermediate risk pensions to satisfy customer due diligence requirements?

Verification should be undertaken in line with the guidance in Part I paragraphs 5.3.216 to 5.3.225.

CDD can be fully satisfied with the pension scheme tax reference number, which shows the scheme is registered with HMRC. (This information should be held by product provider.)

Note - HMRC do not issue approval letters. However, if the firm has any concerns, on application and with the relevant authority, HMRC will provide documentary confirmation regarding the existence of the scheme.

If pension scheme members make direct contributions to the scheme (not via salary deduction), their identities should be verified accordingly.

If benefit payments are made to the trustees or a member of the pension scheme, additional verification will not be required if the payment is made to an account in their name at an UK or EU regulated financial institution.

If a member requests that their Tax Free Cash amount is paid to a third party, additional checks will be required, including verification of the third party.

Contributions from any third party not connected to the pension scheme will require the third party’s identity to be verified in accordance with Part I, chapter 5.

(iv) What if the product provider is the trustee of the pension scheme?

The individual members’ identities need to be verified e.g., for individual personal pensions.

(v) Who are the relevant parties whose identity should be verified for TIPs?

Trustees.

For UK regulated financial services company trustees, only confirmation of regulatory number is required, or if funds are from a HMRC regulated scheme, the pension scheme tax reference number is sufficient.
Note - HMRC do not issue approval letters. However, if the firm has any concerns, on application and with the relevant authority, HMRC will provide documentary confirmation regarding the existence of the scheme.

(vi) What about verification on intermediate risk level pension transfers?

A risk-based approach can be taken, as a firm's identification and verification obligations for the contract owner(s) may be met if the transfer is from a FSA-regulated financial services firm.

In addition to obtaining the pension scheme tax reference number (which shows the scheme is registered with HMRC), the source of funds should be identified by obtaining:

1. the previous pension provider’s name; and
2. the previous scheme or plan name, its reference or PSO/PSTR number where relevant and the type of plan

Taking a risk-based approach, consideration should be given to the jurisdiction from which a Qualifying Recognised Overseas Pensions Scheme originates, to determine whether any further verification of the relevant parties is required.

(vii) What about traded endowments?

The trading of an endowment policy increases exposure to money laundering. A policy can be bought and sold several times before a firm necessarily becomes aware of the reassignment, usually on payout. The insurer should verify the identity of the owner at payout usually in line with the standards set out in Part I, Chapter 5. Where the transfer/s have taken place though a ‘market maker’ in traded endowments, and that firm is regulated by the FSA, reliance may be sought from the market maker in accordance with Part I, section 5.5.

(viii) What about life assurance policies written in trust for intermediate risk products?

Life assurance policies are commonly written as simple life trusts, usually for inheritance tax planning reasons and not for the purpose of concealing the ultimate economic beneficiary of the policy. Therefore it is not appropriate to apply the identity requirements recommended in Part I (and in Part II, FAQs for Increased risk level e.g., Bonds) for trust vehicles that are used for other purposes and firms need only identify the Settlor in line with the standards in this section. However, firms should ensure that they have in place adequate procedures to identify where a trust poses a higher money laundering or terrorist financing risk and refer to the FAQs in increased risk section below.

(ix) What if a pension-sharing order or pension-earmarking order (for example, in the case of a divorce) is received for an intermediate risk pension?

Firms may accept court documents as verification of identity of the existing customer, if this has not already been completed.

Subject(s) of such an order that are explicitly nominated to receive funds should be regarded as the beneficial owner(s), and their identity may also be verified by reference to the court document(s).

(x) What if a payment on death is to be made direct to a beneficiary?
Payments to beneficiaries on the instructions of the executor or administrator may be made once the beneficiaries have been sanction screened. If there are no sanctioned parties involved, there is no need to verify the identity of beneficiary, if the payment is made to an account in their name. However, if a beneficiary wishes to transact any business their own name, their identity will need to be verified, in line with the guidance in Part I, section 5.3 and paragraph 5.3.2.

III Increased risk level

7.51 The increased risk level has been attributed to a product whose inherent features open the possibility to their being used for money laundering purposes. The product may have a facility for third party and/or ‘top up’ payments, or is perhaps negotiable, and therefore an enhanced level of due diligence by asking for more information is appropriate. It is to this risk level that the majority of a firm’s AML resource will normally be directed. The table below shows the product together with the features.

7.52 Risk levels attributed to the generic product in this section are intended for guidance only. Firms should consider whether their own branded versions of this generic product have features that either reduce or increase this indicative risk level. As stated before, the increased designation is used here to reflect the different average levels of investments in pensions, savings and other investment products experienced by firms and intermediaries across the sector.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Protection</th>
<th>None</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Savings and investments</td>
<td>Typical features:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I Single premium investment bonds, including:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• With profits</td>
<td>o Open ended investment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Guaranteed</td>
<td>o Usually a 5 year recommended minimum investment term but can be surrendered earlier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Income</td>
<td>o Additional ‘top up’ payments permitted by policy holder and by third parties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Investment</td>
<td>o May be segmented and individual segments may be assignable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Offshore international bonds</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pensions</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.53 As can be seen from the table above, the increased risk level product is in the investments category, which reflects the higher value premiums that can be paid into them, the relative ease of access to accumulated funds and the lack of involvement of external agencies such as the HMRC.

Customer due diligence

7.54 The recommended industry standard for increased risk products is as follows:

1. Verify the identity of the customer, and/or the relevant parties, as per the standard procedures set out in Part I, Chapter 5, at the outset of the business relationship

AND
2. Acquire prescribed information at the outset of the business relationship to satisfy the additional information requirements of Part I, Chapter 5:

a. source of funds for the transaction (e.g., a UK bank account in own name);
b. employment and salary details; and
c. source of wealth (e.g., inheritance, divorce settlement, property sale)

7.55 Firms are not required to assume that a payment from an unidentified source (e.g., by wire transfer from a UK bank or building society or a UK Building Society counter cheque that does not identify the account from which it is made) is being made by a third party unless they are aware of some fact that suggests that this is, or may be the case.

7.56 An insurer must, where appropriate, verify the identity of the beneficial owner for increased risk products in line with the provisions in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.11 and 5.3.12.

**Monitoring**

7.57 Firms should undertake ongoing monitoring for patterns of unusual or suspicious activity to ensure that higher risk activity can be scrutinised. A firm should ensure its employees are adequately trained to identify and report unusual business activity to the firm’s nominated officer.

**Frequently asked questions in relation to increased risk:**

7.58

(i) **Who are the relevant parties for these products in terms of verification of identity?**

The relevant parties are summarised in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Savings/Investments</th>
<th>Relevant parties to be identified</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bonds</td>
<td>o Policy holder or applicant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o All payers if different to policy holder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o All payees if different to policy holder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o Beneficial Owners (verification on higher risk cases – see FAQ v below)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Pensions            | None                                                  |

(ii) **What constitutes appropriate ongoing monitoring and controls?**

a) Firms should, as part of normal commercial procedure, be considering for each product what ‘trigger points’ occur between customer entry and customer exit which might serve to increase that product’s exposure to abuse. Examples of trigger points could be early surrender of a product (‘early’ in the context of a firm’s normal business pattern for that product) or a change in payer and/or beneficiary. Appropriate transaction monitoring can then be set up.

b) This guidance purposely avoids setting monetary thresholds for monitoring (e.g., all surrenders over a certain € amount) because materiality will differ significantly between firms. Firms should identify key indicators pertinent to their own business patterns, taking
into account, for example, average premium income size per customer and average
duration of the contract in force. With that qualification, suggested standard practice for
each increased risk product is summarised in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Savings/investments</th>
<th>Suggested practice for monitoring and control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Bonds               | • Cancellation (i.e., applications not proceeded with after funds received)  
|                     | • Early surrenders (i.e., within a certain time period, which is to be specified by individual firms) over a certain € threshold  
|                     | • Multiple partial surrenders, totalling up to (say) 75% of original investment, within the specified time period  
|                     | • Top up payments over a certain € threshold (dependent on individual firms’ assessment of materiality) and frequency  
|                     | • Third party payments of any value or Non UK residents  
| Pensions            | None |

(iii) Additional customer information is not always readily available when business has come through an intermediary. How should we go about obtaining it?

It is recognised that business transacted in a non face-to-face capacity, or through Financial Advisors, presents particular difficulties for insurance firms seeking to satisfy their additional information obligations under Part I, Chapter 5. Firms should, continue to obtain the limited information required via their own direct sales force (DSF) (where applicable) or, where business has come through an intermediary, should include a request for the information as part of their customer application or proposal form. Financial advisers and DSF should gather same level of data. It is suggested that the additional information required will be collected as part of an application form, and not part of the introduction certificate.

(iv) Do we need to obtain supporting documentation for the additional information requested from a customer?

Verification is limited to identity only. In most circumstances, additional customer information may be taken at face value. However, if the additional information provided appears incongruous or contradictory, this should serve to raise suspicions about the transaction and firms are then expected to make further enquiries which may in some circumstances involve seeking documentary support to the additional information.

(v) Who do we verify if a Bond is written in trust (Beneficial Owners)

Beneficial Owners need to be “identified”. Their identity needs to be “verified” in line with the guidance in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.11 and 5.3.12.

Beneficial Owners include the trustees and also beneficiaries who are entitled to 25% or more of the trust property, this may be named individuals or a class of beneficiary.

At the outset of the business relationship firms should always seek to verify the identity of trustees (at the very least those that it receives instructions from). Payment should never be made to an unverified trustee.
Beneficiaries should always be “identified”, for example this can be done by requesting a copy of the trust deed*

For lower risk cases, for example a UK customer that wishes to invest in a bond and for the firm to write this investment in trust, the identity of the customer (the settlor) and the trustees should be ‘verified’, and the beneficiaries or class of beneficiaries ‘identified’.

In higher risk cases the named beneficiaries aged 18 or over, entitled to 25% or more of the trust property should also have their identities verified, at outset.

In all cases, regardless risk, if payment is made direct to a beneficiary at the request of a trustee, the identity of the beneficiary should be verified prior to payment being made, if not already done so.

* We recommend firms liaise with their legal consultants, over whether or not to request a copy of the trust deed.

(vi) How does using the “source of funds” as evidence affect increased risk level products?

The source of funds should not be used as evidence of identity in respect of increased risk level products. However, where a firm’s own, branded version of these generic products have features which reduce the indicative risk, it may conclude that its own product falls within the “intermediate” category of risk and follow the guidance given in respect of intermediate risk products.

(vii) What about Power of Attorney arrangements for these products?

Where any party requiring verification is represented by an individual or firm appointed under a Power of Attorney, the identity of the Attorney should also be verified using the principles established in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.89-5.3.91.

(viii) What about cancellation during the “cooling-off period” leading to a refund of premium paid? In some cases, the customer has not yet been verified by that time.

Firms should seek to mitigate risk by refunding the premium to the customer by way of direct credit to the bank account from which the funds were paid or by an account payee crossed cheque in the customer’s name. Firms should also consider whether the cancellation, taken into consideration with all other factors, raises suspicions about the transaction and if they do, consent should be sought from SOCA before paying out the sum. Where there is no such suspicion, firms should also verify the customer’s identity before making a refund where the premium is ‘large’ (the sectoral guidance purposely does not set a lower limit, as materiality thresholds of individual firms will differ with the different features of the product) and/or circumstances appear unusual.

Where funds have derived from a building society cheque or bankers’ draft, the money cannot be returned to source. Firms may therefore wish to seek that the account to which the customer requests their funds are returned, is an established account in the firm’s customers name, with a regulated financial institution. For example a bank statement could be requested as evidence.

(ix) What if a payment on death is to be made direct to a beneficiary?

Should executors or administrators instruct payments to be made directly to the beneficiaries, the identity of the beneficiaries should be verified, if not already done so, in line with the guidance in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.11 and 5.3.12, prior to the payment being made. Sanction checks should also be undertaken. Refer to Part III.
7A: General insurers

Note: This sectoral guidance is incomplete on its own. It must be read in conjunction with the main guidance set out in Part I of the Guidance.

Introduction

7A.1 The intention of this guidance is to provide clarification for General Insurers as to their obligation to report suspicious activity under the Proceeds of Crime Act 2002 (POCA), comply with sanctions legislation and explain the new powers granted to H.M. Treasury under the Counter Terrorism Act 2008. General Insurers are not within the regulated sector, as defined under the Money Laundering Regulations 2007, but in certain circumstances they are required to report suspicious activity to the Serious and Organised Crime Agency (SOCA).

7A.2 Part 7 of POCA came into force on 24 February 2003. This sectoral guidance focuses on the obligations of general insurers and is designed to assist General Insurers in applying legislation consistently. The objective is to help general insurers refine their current practices and to identify whether they are complying with POCA.

7A.3 This guidance is not a replacement for detailed advice on specific activities and problems and it should not be regarded as a substitute for legal advice on any of the topics discussed. General insurers should, periodically, seek their own legal advice to ensure that their understanding of the legal framework is up to date.

Proceeds of Crime Act and the Terrorism Act

7A.4 The offences under POCA and the Terrorism Act relate to any activity involving criminal or terrorist property (including, sometimes, the criminal or terrorist act itself). This is a much broader definition than the commonly understood definition of money laundering (i.e., the movement, layering and concealment of criminal funds). A company, for example, can commit an offence under POCA by unwittingly facilitating an act of fraud.

7A.5 Obligations under POCA and the Terrorism Act, in practical terms, vary depending on which sector is seeking to apply them. General insurance is considered to be a low risk sector for both money laundering and the concealment or conversion of the proceeds of crime. General insurance is regarded as being at greater risk from fraudulent claims, rather than as a conduit for the proceeds of crime or money laundering. The majority of general insurance products do not, per se, offer obvious scope to be of use to money launderers. There is, however, scope for insurers to become unwittingly involved in criminal offences such as fraudulent claims or deliberately providing inaccurate information at inception, which may trigger provisions under POCA for suspicion reporting.

Risk-based approach

7A.6 The guidance on money laundering prevention in Part I, addressed to the wider financial sector is risk-based. It is recommended that general insurers also adopt a risk-based approach to their obligations under POCA and the Terrorism Act 2000.

7A.7 The implementation of risk management can be a simple process depending on the range of products on offer and should be linked to the profile of the customer. Insurers who also offer life products will already be aware of the requirement to carry out Customer Due Diligence (CDD). A general insurer
is not required to seek the equivalent level of information on their customers, but it is recommended that risk management be considered by non-life insurers at the earliest possible stage e.g., when a potential customer makes an approach or when a broker advises the insurer of a new customer, as well as when policies are renewed or claims are submitted, based on the information an insurer has. It requires the full commitment and support of senior management and the active co-operation across business units.

7A.8 General Insurers are advised to set a policy in relation to meeting their obligations under POCA and the Terrorism Act that is disseminated consistently across the company. Senior management needs to support internal policies, procedures and controls.

7A.9 General insurers should consider the following:

- Development of internal policies and procedures;
- Communication of those policies and procedures to all staff;
- Clear and written procedures in place to help staff identify the kinds of activities or customers that might arouse suspicion;
- Clear guidance to be given to all staff on the risk and implications of alerting potential or actual customers (or agents thereof) to the fact that a SAR has been submitted i.e. the “tipping off” provision of POCA;
- Clear guidance to be given to all staff on the risk and implications of failing to report their suspicions,
- Short reporting lines between front-line staff and a nominated officer;
- Record keeping: both of decisions made in the event of a suspicious claim being reported to evidence the making of the report and, in the event of a SAR not being made, the reasons why no notification was made;
- Screening procedures to ensure high standards on recruitment.
- Ongoing employee training to ensure employees recognise suspicious activities and understand the procedure in place internally to record suspicious activities;
- A system of testing compliance: this should be both independent and adequately resourced.

**Reporting Suspicious Activity**

7A.10 The main occasion when the requirements under the POCA will apply to general insurers is when processing claims. Nothing in POCA prevents the claims handler from properly challenging the information supplied by the customer. Information available to an insurer when processing a claim is limited, and the claimant usually controls access to this information. The job of a claims handler is in part to establish the facts of the claim.

7A.11 The offences in POCA relate to money laundering rather than attempted fraud. Paragraphs 6.43 – 6.47 in Part I of the JMLSG guidance specify when attempted frauds need to be reported to SOCA. Thus, the General insurer has to know or suspect, or have reasonable grounds to know or suspect, that there has been some benefit obtained by the fraudster, as the benefit represents criminal property.

7A.12 During the claims process there may be suspicion on the part of a member of the claims team that the customer may be embellishing their claim and there may be a number of challenges and procedures that will be followed until the claim is agreed or declined. Whilst this process is ongoing the customer may be attempting to commit a fraud, but this is not a reportable offence under POCA.

7A.13 However, if a claim has been accepted and agreed and the insurer has paid the claim and subsequently it is discovered that there are reasonable grounds to know or suspect that the claim was false, then the reporting provisions under POCA are met and the insurer must file a suspicious activity report (SAR) with SOCA as soon as practicable. This is because any payment made as a result of the claim is now classified as criminal property and must be reported to SOCA.
7A.14 General insurers do not have an obligation to appoint a nominated officer to deal with disclosures of SARs. However, POCA applies to both regulated and unregulated sectors and SARs can be made to SOCA by any industry representative. If insurance firms elect to appoint a single point of contact who would be regarded as a nominated officer, there are additional obligations in respect of reporting to SOCA and where consent may be required, after an internal report is made to him/her. In practice, this means an obligation to submit a SAR (see Part I, Chapter 6). Failure to do so may mean he/she will commit an offence under section 332 of POCA. From a practical perspective it is advisable for someone to coordinate a company’s anti-money laundering procedures as well as administer obligations under POCA. This would give staff a contact that they can approach if they have any suspicions.

7A.15 If there is no nominated officer, employees should make disclosures to SOCA by way of a SAR. SARs can be submitted electronically or by post though SOCA is actively encouraging the use of the SAR Online system which can be found at www.soca.gov.uk.

7A.16 General insurers should note that in December 2008, the FSA imposed a fine on AON, in a Principle 3 action focused on risk assessment, in particular in relation to controls relating to bribery and corruption (see www.fsa.gov.uk/pubs/final/aon.pdf).

Financial Sanctions

7A.17 Under the financial sanctions regime it is a criminal offence to make either funds or financial services available to the targets on the Financial Sanctions Consolidated List which are published and maintained by HM Treasury. Financial sanctions apply to all companies, irrespective of whether or not they are regulated. The guidance contained in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.41-64 should be followed.

7A.18 Financial sanctions apply to all forms of payment and services offered. In respect of General Insurers this applies not only to the contract of insurance but could also apply to third party payments and providing replacement vehicles and articles. In relation to proliferation financing, the provision of insurance cover to shipments of goods which contravene related export controls could cause the insurer (or broker) to breach relevant legal and/or regulatory obligations. See Part II, sector 15: Trade finance, especially paragraph 15.28 and Annex 15-IV.

7A.19 General Insurers will also have to consider how their partners and brokers, including outsourcers, are mitigating this risk and who is responsible for ensuring that some form of monitoring is being undertaken to prevent payment to any listed person or entity.

Counter Terrorism Act 2008

7A.20 The Counter Terrorism Act was enacted on the 26th November 2008 and introduces additional obligations on firms in the fight against money laundering, terrorist financing and the proliferation of nuclear, radiological, biological or chemical weapons. Directions under this act can only be given by HM Treasury.

7A.21 There are four specific instances where this Act may be used but only two of the directions may be given to General Insurers. These are the directions in respect of systematic reporting, where a direction may require a firm to provide such information and documents as may be specified in the direction relating to transactions and relationships with designated persons. The direction will specify to whom the information and documents are to be provided and the period within or the intervals at which they are to be provided.

7A.22 The second direction relates to limiting or ceasing business. Such a direction may require a firm not to enter into or continue to participate in a specified transaction or specified description of
transactions or business relationships with a designated person or any transaction or business relationship with a designated person.

7A.23 Part I, section 5.8 provides further guidance on meeting obligations imposed under these directions.
Note: This sectoral guidance is incomplete on its own. It must be read in conjunction with the main guidance set out in Part I of the Guidance.

Overview of the sector

8.1 The guidance contained within this section is directed at firms offering the following types of investment vehicle:

(a) Retail investment funds - authorised unit trusts and open-ended investment companies (oecs).

(b) Other investment fund-based products/services - which may comprise one, or a combination of, regular savings schemes (including those relating to investment trusts), regular withdrawal schemes, ISAs, personal pension schemes and fund supermarkets.

Typical investors using retail funds and associated products/services vary depending upon the product, but include private individuals, regulated firms investing as principal (eg. life companies); other regulated firms (including nominee company subsidiaries) acting on behalf of underlying customers, other corporates, personal and corporate pension schemes, charities and other trusts.

(c) Institutional funds - authorised and unauthorised collective investment schemes and unitised life assurance funds that are dedicated to investment by institutional investors.

Investment in such funds is often restricted to UK investors who are exempt from taxation on capital gains - principally HMRC approved pension schemes and charities.

8.2 For most firms, investors will be mainly, but not exclusively, UK resident.

8.3 This section does not aim to provide guidance to life assurance companies, other than for the purposes of providing institutional funds as described in paragraph 8.1(c). Nor does it cover the issue or trading of shares in closed-ended investment vehicles (eg. investment trusts). Guidance on other life assurance products can be found in sector 7: Life assurance and life-related pensions and investment products. The issue and trading of shares in investment trusts etc. fall within the scope of sector 14: Corporate finance and sector 10: Execution-only stockbroking, respectively.

8.4 Guidance for those involved in managing private equity funds is contained within sector 13: Private equity.
What are the money laundering risks relating to investment fund products?

Retail funds and products/services

8.5 The vast majority of investment fund business is conducted on a non-face-to-face basis (post, telephone, internet) and investors generally have easy access to the funds involved. At face value, therefore, investment fund products may appear attractive for money launderers who may wish to hide behind false or stolen identities and move their funds quickly. In addition, some firms accept payment by debit card, which exposes them to the risk of card fraud.

8.6 However, there are also factors that limit the attractiveness of these products for any money laundering process, which therefore mitigate the risks suggested above and elsewhere in this section. In particular, in order to mitigate the money laundering risk, firms invariably take steps to identify any third party subscribers or payees, and some firms refuse to accept or make third party payments. Furthermore, most retail investors use these products for medium and long-term savings, which makes short-term investment or high turnover unusual and often relatively straightforward to monitor.

8.7 The typical retail investor might place anything up to £50,000 in investment funds. Larger investments are not uncommon, however, especially for firms whose target market is higher net worth individuals.

8.8 Investors are rarely asked to provide additional customer information about the purpose of the relationship, which will be self-evident, or their background. However, their behaviour is better measured against that of other investors than against uncorroborated customer data, which any criminal could provide in support of their expected activity.

8.9 Holdings of investment fund units may be transferred freely between different parties. Such transfers will be recorded by the registrar of the fund (usually the product provider or a third party administrator acting on their behalf) who should have a mechanism in place to alert them to unusual transfer activity (see paragraph 8.40).

8.10 On balance, therefore, investment funds and products that involve the restrictions referred to in paragraph 8.6 may generally be considered to be low risk in terms of their use for money laundering purposes. Notwithstanding this, the firm’s risk-based approach will need to take account of the additional risk that would be associated with higher value (for example, the source of funds should not be used as evidence of identity for transactions of more than £50,000 - see paragraph 8.19(ii)). In any event, if the features of a product or service provide additional flexibility (for example, where some or all of the restrictions referred to in paragraph 8.6 are not applied), the firm should consider the potential increase in the money laundering risk given all the relevant factors and, where appropriate, take additional steps to mitigate that risk (for example, by undertaking further identity verification measures and/or obtaining additional customer information). Firms should also consider whether or not the nature of their distribution channels and the geographic location of their customers might suggest that their products are more likely to be used for the purposes of money laundering.

8.11 It is accepted that those who are able to provide convincing evidence of identity and behave in the same way as other investors will be very difficult to detect, in the absence of any other information to cause the firm to have doubts about the customer. Nevertheless, whilst investment fund products may generally be unattractive vehicles for the money laundering process, firms must be alert to the fact that career criminals will
almost certainly invest in their sector using the proceeds of crime, and should consider any unusual activity in that light.

**Institutional funds**

8.12 Many institutional funds are open only to tax-exempt investors, such as pension schemes and charities.

8.13 As with retail funds, investors are rarely asked to provide additional customer information. However, in many cases the investment will be made on behalf of a client by the firm itself, another group company or another regulated firm, who will have obtained such information in the context of their role as an investment manager.

8.14 Overall, many institutional funds may be considered to be of lower risk than their retail counterparts, albeit by virtue of the restricted types of investor, rather than the product features. The risk will increase, however, in the case of "non-exempt" funds or share classes, which may admit other types of UK and non-UK institutional investor that are not subject to HMRC approval for tax exemption purposes.

**Who is the customer for AML purposes?**

8.15 The Money Laundering Regulations 2007 introduce a much wider definition of "business relationship", which now includes any business, professional or commercial relationship between the firm and its customer, which is expected to have an element of duration. Essentially, this definition would apply to any open-ended product relationship (e.g., managing an ISA), irrespective of whether it was for the purposes of lump sum or regular investment. Furthermore, a fund manager's obligation to redeem units at the request of the holder at some future time provides the relationship and element of duration necessary for the definition to apply in the case of any registered holder of units, however their holding was acquired.

8.16 The handling of third party payments is an important feature of the typical risk profile of the fund management sector. Where the firm accepts payment from a third party at any point, that party should also be regarded as a customer and verified as such.

Exceptionally, where a donor to a charity makes an investment on behalf of a customer that is a charity, the firm does not need to verify the identity of the donor unless it has classified the charity as a higher risk customer or it has some reason to be suspicious about the payment concerned.

8.17 Should a firm wish to meet a request by the investor to pay redemption proceeds to a third party, that party should likewise be regarded as a customer (on whose behalf the registered investor may have been acting), and their identity should be verified before any funds are remitted.

8.18 Firms are not required to assume that payment from an unidentified source (e.g., by wire transfer from a UK bank or building society cheque that does not identify the account from which it is made) is being made by a third party unless they are aware of some fact that suggests that this is, or may be, the case.

**Customer Due Diligence**

*Identity verification measures*
8.19 Standard verification procedures for the type of customer concerned, and any beneficial owner or controller, as described in Part I, Chapter 5, should be followed. Subject to the restrictions that apply generally to their use, various exemptions and concessions are available. Typically, these would include:

(i) application of simplified due diligence in relation to qualifying customers or products as described in Part I, Chapter 5;

(ii) use of the source of funds as evidence of identity - see Part I, paragraphs 5.3.92 to 5.3.96 (firms should limit its use to lowest risk cases, and should not use it where the value exceeds £50,000).

(iii) application of the measures described in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.86 and 5.3.87 in relation to the administration of deceased investors and Court of Protection Orders.

8.20 In addition, the destination of funds at the time of redemption can be used as evidence of identity in cases where there has not previously been a requirement to verify, for example where the firm had been able to rely on an exemption. In these cases, depending on the firm's assessment of the risk presented by the situation, including the circumstances in which the customer acquired the investment, it may be possible to satisfy the standard identification requirement by means of a payment to an account with a UK or EU regulated credit institution in the sole or joint name of the customer.

8.21 Where the firm is required to verify the identity of a customer that is being introduced by an appropriately regulated intermediary (see Part I, paragraph 5.6.18), reliance may be placed on the intermediary, following the guidance in Part I, paragraphs 5.6.19ff.

8.22 In the case of beneficial owners or controllers, unless the circumstances of the relationship indicate that more stringent measures should be undertaken (by virtue of the services to be provided or the specific nature of the customer), the identity of beneficial owners and controllers may be confirmed by the customer themselves (see Part I, paragraphs 5.3.11 and 5.3.12).

8.23 Knowledge that the customer(s) is/are acting in a trustee capacity and identification of the beneficial owners does not mean that a firm has accepted or recorded notice of trust or otherwise make the firm a constructive trustee.

8.24 Various types of small occupational pension scheme may invest in retail funds - in cases where Simplified Due Diligence cannot be applied the verification procedures described in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.216 to 5.3.225 should be followed. Where the customer is a UK-based personal pension scheme (e.g., a SIPP), however, the firm should confirm that any third party trustee or administrator that may deal with the firm has been appointed by the regulated scheme operator. This will allow the firm to apply simplified due diligence to such customers.

8.25 As most business within this sector is conducted non-face-to-face, consideration needs to be given to the higher money laundering risk this may present compared with face-to-face business, and in particular whether or not the person with whom the firm is dealing may be impersonating someone else. Given the lower risk of this sector being used for money laundering purposes, the usual measure taken in this respect is to ensure that the confirmation of a transaction or acknowledgement letter is sent by post to the customer’s known address and is not returned or queried by the occupant.
Firms inevitably will have legacy customers whose identity has not been verified due to the circumstances under which they became investors, and the requirements and exemptions etc. that existed at that time. Firms are not expected to undertake specific exercises or projects to verify the identities of those customers retrospectively, but must do so upon future trigger events, as appropriate according to their risk-based approach.

Additional customer information

8.26 Additional customer information over and above that confirming identity, which is appropriate in many sectors, either for business purposes or because of the greater money laundering risks that their products and services entail, is of less relevance to this sector. From an AML/CTF perspective, the principal objective in obtaining such information is to understand the motive for establishing the relationship and to permit assessment of any subsequent activity. The motive for investing in funds is usually self-evident.

8.27 Very high value transactions from individuals should, however, be treated with caution. High net worth individuals are more likely to use the services of an investment manager, who would need to obtain considerably more customer information in order to service their needs properly - direct investment by such individuals may be an indicator that they are seeking to avoid having to provide that additional information.

8.28 Furthermore, firms will need to take a risk-based approach in deciding whether or not to consider a customer's potential status as a politically exposed person (PEP). Firms are required to take risk-based steps to determining PEP status, where the money laundering risk is higher - depending, for example, on the value of the investment and/or the location of the customer.

8.29 The nature of retail investment products means that the reasons for using them are limited and investment will reasonably be accepted from virtually anyone wishing to do so. Furthermore, activity monitoring in this area can be equally, if not more, effective by comparing the behaviour of one customer with that of others (see paragraphs 8.38 – 8.41).

8.30 Care should also be exercised when dealing with those claiming the reduced verification measures applicable to certain types of special cases (e.g., asylum seekers, those on low incomes), whose first priority would not be expected to be investment of their limited resources for the future.

Timing of verification

8.31 In this sector, the obligation to verify a customer arises at the point when it is clear that they wish to enter into an arrangement with the firm, either to buy or sell units in a fund or to establish some form of investment scheme or account. In addition, given the revised definition of "business relationship" (see paragraph 8.15) the transfer of units from an existing holder to a third party will also give rise to an obligation to verify the identity of the transferee.

8.32 Firms must verify a customer's identity as soon as practicable after first contact with the customer, but are not prevented from entering into the relationship or commencing the initial transaction before the checks are completed. Firms should take all reasonable steps to verify the customer's identity within a reasonable time. Where the firm is unable to verify the identity of the investor within that time it will cease proactive pursuit of evidence of identity and must, at that point, consider if the circumstances give any grounds to suspect money laundering or terrorist financing and act accordingly (see Part I, paragraph 5.2.8).
8.33 If, however, after such reasonable time the firm has no grounds to suspect and is satisfied that the risk of money laundering is minimal, subject to its terms of business or the status of a contract to purchase units in its funds directly, it may terminate the relationship and return any monies received to their source. Alternatively, and particularly in purchases of units where the contract has been completed, the firm should freeze any funds or assets pending eventual verification (see Part I, paragraph 5.2.9).

8.34 From the point at which the firm concludes it should freeze an investment:

(a) it must not accept further investments (ad hoc or regular savings) from the customer until they provide the evidence of identity required by the firm;

(b) subject to (c) below, it must permit the investor to withdraw, redeem or transfer their investment upon production of the evidence of identity required by the firm;

(c) it must terminate the relationship and return any funds to the investor should they insist upon withdrawal or redemption while still refusing to produce evidence of identity, subject to considering whether or not it should make a report to SOCA and seek consent;

(d) it should otherwise continue to act in accordance with any relevant terms of business and regulatory obligations until such time as the relationship may be terminated (this would include issuing periodic statements, making normal dividend/interest payments and administering the customer's investments according to their instructions where these do not involve the investment or withdrawal of capital); and

(e) it must take steps to remind customers (individually or generically, as appropriate according to their risk-based approach) that evidence of identity may still be required, noting the consequences of failure to comply with the firm's request.

8.35 A customer may wish to redeem their investment or exercise a right to cancel a purchase transaction before the firm has been able to verify their identity. In such circumstances, the firm should consider whether or not the circumstances might suggest grounds for suspicion of money laundering or terrorist financing and a need to seek consent from SOCA, before returning any funds to the customer (see also paragraph 8.40 below).

8.36 Firms should also exercise caution in the event that a holder seeks to transfer units to someone else before the firm has been able to verify their identity. This will either be soon after the units were acquired and while the firm is still attempting to verify the transferor, or where the firm has frozen the investment having been unable to complete satisfactory customer due diligence. In either situation, the firm should consider whether the circumstances are suspicious, such that consent from SOCA should be sought before registering the transfer.

8.37 Firms are recommended to include in their terms of business, or otherwise advise the customer at the outset, that they may return or freeze the customer's investments unless or until the necessary evidence of identity can be obtained.

**Monitoring**

8.38 As mentioned in paragraph 8.29, one of the most effective ways of monitoring the activity of an investor is to compare it with that of the “typical investor”. This may vary for different types of customer (e.g., private individual compared to a corporate investor).
8.39 Other than in the case of regular savings/withdrawal schemes, the use of investment funds and products is by its nature ad hoc. Even with regular savings and withdrawal schemes, however, there is nothing unusual in ad hoc additional, or top-up, subscriptions. However, whilst there may be various legitimate reasons for redeeming an investment after a relatively short period of time, most retail investment is made for the medium to long-term.

8.40 As such, firms in this sector will place some reliance upon the alertness and experience of its staff to spot unusual activity. However, firms may also consider the implementation of basic exception reporting to identify, for example, short-term investment by individuals. Disposals so identified might be reviewed in the context of the original purchase (e.g., is it within the charge-back period for a subscription by debit card?) against market conditions, or in the light of any specific information the firm has about the investor. The exercise of cancellation rights is relatively rare and should be considered in a similar way.

8.41 Transfers involving either a regulated firm (or a nominee company subsidiary) or arising from the distribution of assets from a trust or the estate of a deceased, give less cause for concern over a subsequent transfer of the holding by the recipient. However, the purchase of units by one individual and transfer to another, and then to a third, and so on, is unusual and may indicate that money or other consideration is changing hands in the background with the aim of avoiding verification of the identity of those in the middle of the chain. Firms should be alert to such activity and take appropriate steps to investigate the nature and purpose of any unusual patterns that emerge.
9: Discretionary and advisory investment management

Note: This sectoral guidance is incomplete on its own. It must be read in conjunction with the main guidance set out in Part I of the Guidance.

Overview of the sector

9.1 Investment management includes both discretionary and advisory management of segregated portfolios of assets (securities, derivatives, cash, property etc.) for the firm's customers. Where investment management is provided as part of a broader "wealth management" service, readers should refer instead to sector 5: Wealth Management.

9.2 Discretionary managers are given powers to decide upon stock selection and to undertake transactions within the portfolio as necessary, according to an investment mandate agreed between the firm and the customer.

9.3 Advisory relationships differ, in that, having determined the appropriate stock selection, the manager has no power to deal without the customer’s authority - in some cases the customer will execute their own transactions in light of the manager's advice. This should not be confused with "financial advice", which involves advising customers on their investment needs (typically for long-term savings and pension provision) and selecting the appropriate products. Financial advice is dealt with in sector 6: Financial advisers.

9.4 The activities referred to above may be carried out for private or institutional investors. Note that guidance on the operation of investment funds, including those that are solely for institutional investors, is given in sector 8: Non-life providers of investment fund products.

What are the money laundering risks relating to investment management?

9.5 In terms of money laundering risk, there is little difference between discretionary and advisory investment management. In both cases, the firm may itself physically handle incoming or outgoing funds, or it may be done entirely by the client's custodian.

9.6 In either case, the typical firm deals with low volumes of high value customers, for which there is likely to be a take-on process that involves a level of understanding of the customer's circumstances, needs and priorities and anticipated inflows and outflows of funds, in order to determine suitable investment parameters.

9.7 There is likely to be ongoing contact, often face-to-face, with the customer in order to review market developments and performance, and review the customer’s circumstances, etc. Unexpected inflows/outflows of funds are not common occurrences - ad hoc requirements and movements are usually the subject of discussion between the firm and the customer.

9.8 In most cases, all money and other assets within the portfolio are held under the control of a UK-regulated custodian, with money paid to or from the customer through their UK bank or building society account. Investment management is not a mechanism for the movement of assets from one person to another, although some third party payments may be made (eg. in the case of private customers, for the payment of school fees).
9.9 The risk of money laundering to the investment management sector, in the context of the "typical" circumstances described above, would be low. Clearly, however, the risk will increase when dealing with certain types of customer, such as offshore trusts/companies, PEPs and customers from higher risk non-FATF jurisdictions, and may also be affected by other service features that a firm offers to its customers. Note: Firms that provide investment management alongside banking facilities and other complex services should refer to Sector 5: Wealth Management.

Who is the customer for AML purposes?

9.10 The typical investors to whom investment managers provide services are high net worth individuals, trusts, companies, government bodies and other investing institutions such as pension schemes, charities and open/closed-ended pooled investment vehicles. In such cases, the firm's customer will be the individual or entity concerned. The firm must also consider whether there are any beneficial owners or controllers.

9.11 Firms may also be contracted to provide investment management services to other appropriately regulated UK and overseas firms in respect of their own investments (e.g., life companies) or assets they are managing for others - in either instance the investment manager's client will be the other regulated firm, in which case there will be no requirement to consider any underlying beneficial ownership or control.

Customer due diligence

Verification of identity

9.12 As noted above, investment management in itself as a service would be considered as low risk. Therefore, in the absence of any features regarding the customer or service provided that are adjudged to increase that risk, standard identity verification measures, as set out in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.68 to 5.3.278, may be applied. Where the relationship is intermediated through a regulated adviser (e.g., financial adviser or consulting actuary), confirmation of the customer's identity by the regulated intermediary, similar to that provided at Part I, Annex 5-II, may take place.

Private individuals

9.13 The standard verification requirements for private individuals would be adequate to establish their identity, as described in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.68 – 5.3.114. The source of funds may also be used as evidence of identity (see Part I, paragraphs 5.3.92 – 5.3.96), subject to the restrictions that apply generally to its use. However, the firm must also adopt enhanced measures, as necessary, in respect of higher-risk categories of customer (e.g., PEPs) and jurisdiction.

Customers other than private individuals

9.14 When dealing with other types of customer, firms would normally be able to rely on the standard verification measures, including simplified due diligence for qualifying customers, as described in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.115 – 5.3.278.

9.15 For overseas pension schemes and charities, additional verification steps may be required, depending upon the risk associated with the type of customer and their location (e.g., in a higher risk jurisdiction).
For most charities, the firm will be able to regard those that may benefit from the charity as a class of beneficiary. As such, they do not need to be identified and verified individually. The members of occupational pensions schemes that do not qualify for simplified due diligence may be treated similarly.

In instances where the identities of beneficial owners or controllers must be verified individually, this may be done in accordance with Part I, paragraphs 5.3.8 - 5.3.13. Unless the circumstances of the relationship indicate that more stringent measures should be undertaken (by virtue of the services to be provided or the specific nature of the customer), the identity of beneficial owners and controllers may be confirmed by the customer itself (see Part I, paragraphs 5.3.11 and 5.3.12).

Mandates relating to third party investment vehicles

Some investment managers provide services to third party investment vehicles (e.g., hedge funds), which may be open or closed ended. Those firms must consider whether or not there is a need for them to look at the underlying investors in such vehicles. This will depend upon the status of the vehicle and how it is operated in terms of dealing in its units/shares:

- Where such dealings are handled by an appropriately regulated entity (e.g., fund manager or transfer agent) or are traded on a regulated market or exchange, the investment manager does not need to be concerned with the underlying investors.

- If a vehicle operates under less stringent conditions than those described above, the firm may take a risk-based approach and ensure that it is satisfied, on an ongoing basis, with the checks that are carried out by whoever controls entry to the vehicle's register of holders, and the information that will be available to the firm if required. Otherwise the firm will need to undertake its own customer due diligence, as necessary.

In any event, the firm must carry out appropriate due diligence on third party investment vehicles to establish and verify their form, status, purpose, and the identity of any persons who are in positions of control.

In most cases, the investors in such funds would be regarded as a class of beneficiary and so would not need to be verified individually. However, where the vehicle is being operated for "private" use by a specific group of individuals, verification of their identities as beneficial owners/controllers should be undertaken in accordance with the guidance given in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.8 - 5.3.13.

Investment management firms which provide services to unregulated vehicles such as hedge funds will find it helpful also to refer to sector 20: Brokerage services to funds.

Custody and third party payments/transfers

Where, money or investments are to be received from or transferred to someone other than a person that has been verified as a customer or beneficial owner, the reasons behind the payment/transfer and the capacity of the third party will need to be understood, and consideration given to the extent to which their identity may need to be verified. Whether this is the responsibility of the firm itself or a separate custodian will depend up on how custody is provided and the firm's role with regard to the payment or transfer. The different likely scenarios are discussed in the following paragraphs.
Note that this issue concerns additions to and withdrawals from the customer's portfolio, as opposed to the settlement of transactions undertaken by the firm in the course of managing the portfolio.

9.23 Where the customer enters into an agreement directly with a custodian other than the firm, it is the custodian that should be concerned about third party payments and transfers. The firm should consider the issue itself, however, where it is involved in the transmission of funds or otherwise passes instructions to the custodian regarding a receipt or withdrawal of funds/investments.

9.24 The firm may provide custody notionally as part of its service to the customer, but outsource the safe-keeping function to a sub-custodian. In these circumstances, the firm will usually instruct the sub-custodian regarding receipts or withdrawals from the portfolio and should therefore take appropriate steps to verify the identity of any third party that may be involved. The firm should also ensure that the issue is addressed, either by itself or by the sub-custodian, where the customer is able to instruct the sub-custodian directly.

9.25 The firm may perform the custody function in-house, in which case it must take appropriate steps itself to verify the identity any third parties that may be involved.

9.26 In any event, where the firm is asked to receive, make or arrange payment to/from someone other than a person it has verified as a customer or beneficial owner, it should seek to understand the reasons behind the payment and the capacity of the third party and consider the extent to which the identity of that third party may need to be verified.

**Timing**

9.27 Firms must verify a customer's identity as soon as practicable after first contact with the customer, but are not prevented from entering into the relationship. Firms should take all reasonable steps to verify the customer's identity within a reasonable time. Where the firm is unable to verify the identity of the investor within that time it will cease proactive pursuit of evidence of identity and must, at that point, consider if the circumstances give any grounds to suspect money laundering or terrorist financing and act accordingly (see Part I, paragraph 5.2.8).

9.28 If, however, after such reasonable time, the firm has no grounds to suspect and is satisfied that the risk of money laundering is minimal, subject to its terms of business it may terminate the relationship and return any monies received to their source. Alternatively, the firm may freeze any funds or assets pending eventual verification (see Part I, paragraph 5.2.9).

9.29 From the point at which the firm concludes it should freeze an investment:

(a) it must not accept further investments from the customer until they provide the evidence of identity required by the firm;

(b) subject to (c) below, it must permit the investor to withdraw their investment upon production of the evidence of identity required by the firm;

(c) it must terminate the relationship and return any funds to the investor should they insist upon withdrawal while still refusing to produce evidence of identity, subject to considering whether or not it should make a report to SOCA and seek consent;
(d) it should otherwise continue to act in accordance with any relevant terms of business and regulatory obligations until such time as the relationship may be terminated (this would include issuing periodic statements and managing the customer's portfolio where this does not involve the investment or withdrawal of capital); and

(e) it must take steps to remind customers (individually or generically, as appropriate according to their risk-based approach) that evidence of identity may still be required, noting the consequences of failure to comply with the firm's request.

9.30 Firms are recommended to include in their terms of business that they may return or freeze the customer's investments unless or until the necessary evidence of identity can be obtained.

Additional customer information

9.31 The client take-on process for investment management customers usually involves gaining an understanding of the customer and their needs, and establishing at the outset the likely inflows and outflows of funds are likely. Developments in this area and updates to customer information should be sought periodically from the customer or his adviser.

9.32 The customer information, obtained for the purposes of agreeing the firm's mandate and the ongoing management of the client's portfolio, will usually comprise the additional information necessary to understand the nature and purpose of the relationship in a money laundering context, against which the customer's future activity should be considered.

Monitoring

9.33 Customer activity relates only to inflows and outflows of money that do not relate to the firm's own dealings in the portfolio of investments. Most movements into or out of the portfolio will usually be expected (e.g., pension scheme contributions or funding of pensions benefits). The firm should establish the rationale behind any unexpected ad hoc payments made or requested by the customer.

Real estate transactions

9.34 Some portfolios (usually in relation to property fund vehicles or very large segregated mandates) include direct holdings in real estate. Unlike securities, the counterparties involved in the purchase and sale of direct holdings in real estate may not be other regulated financial institutions. However, such transactions are generally conducted though solicitors, and the counterparty's solicitor will be obliged to verify its client's identity.

9.35 Furthermore, the counterparty would not normally be regarded as a customer of the investment firm and consequently the firm would not be obliged to verify the identity of the counterparty itself. However, in order to mitigate any reputational risk, firms may wish to seek appropriate assurances from their own solicitors that the identity of the counterparty will have been verified.
10: Execution-only stockbrokers

Note: This sectoral guidance is incomplete on its own. It must be read in conjunction with the main guidance set out in Part I of the Guidance.

Overview of the sector

10.1 Execution-only (ExO) stockbrokers carry out transactions in securities with regulated market counterparties, as agent for individual customers. ExO transactions are carried out only on the instructions of the customer.

10.2 The guidance contained in this section covers only the purchase and sale of securities, investments (including investment funds), gilts, warrants and associated cash management services. Firms that arrange for customers to invest through third party products or services (e.g., ISAs, fund supermarkets) may be asked to provide confirmation of the customer due diligence they have undertaken to the provider of that product/service (sector 8: Non-life providers of investment fund products). See sector 9: Discretionary and advisory investment management.

What are the money laundering risks relating to execution-only stockbroking?

10.3 Some ExO stockbrokers deal with high volumes of low value customer transactions, whereas others direct their services towards higher net worth customers, and thus have fewer customers. Stockbroking customers may adopt a variety of trading patterns; the firm is offering no advice and may have little or no knowledge of a particular customer's motives.

10.4 ExO customers are also free to spread their activities across a variety of brokers for perfectly valid reasons, and often do. Each broker may therefore actually have little in terms of transaction history from which to identify unusual behaviour. Many firms provide ExO stockbroking services on a non-face-to-face basis, including via the internet.

10.5 In view of the above, whilst stockbroking might be regarded as being of lower risk compared to many financial products and services, the risk is not as low as in providing investment management services to the same types of customer from similar jurisdictions.

Who is the customer for AML purposes?

10.6 The typical customers for ExO retail stockbroking are individuals. However, customers also include solicitors, accountants and IFAs, as well as trusts, companies, charities, etc. Much ExO business can comprise occasional, or linked, transactions of a value less than €15,000, which therefore fall within the exemption in Part I, paragraph 5.3.6.

Customer Due Diligence

Verification of identity

10.7 There is nothing about typical ExO business in particular that requires the firm to carry out enhanced identity checks as a result of the service offered. Verification of identity for particular types of customer should therefore be performed in accordance with the standard set out in Part I, section 5.3.
10.8 The risk level of execution only broking, however, depends on whether the services are offered and operated on a face-to-face or non face-to-face basis. The ML Regulations identify non-face-to-face business as a higher risk for money laundering than face-to-face business. In view of this, firms need to have in place additional measures to neutralise the higher risk when opening and operating accounts for non face-to-face business. This can take the form of additional due diligence at the point of account opening, appropriate ongoing monitoring of customer activity or both.

Timing

10.9 Verification of identity should be carried out as part of establishing the relationship, but before any services are provided. In the case of share transactions where this might interrupt the normal course of business, verification of identity should take place as soon as practicable after the transaction and in any event before final settlement with the customer. Further details on timing can be found in Part I, paragraphs 5.2.1 to 5.2.5.

Additional customer information

10.10 ExO business is driven by the customer and, as mentioned earlier, customer behaviour may vary widely, from the occasional transaction in a FTSE 100 share to day trading in a variety of instruments and markets. Given the reasonably narrow range of services provided by ExO stockbrokers, no additional information is likely to be required to establish the purpose and intended nature of the business relationship.

Monitoring

10.11 As mentioned above, customer behaviour may vary widely, therefore making it harder to pick up unusual or suspicious trading activity. Attention should, therefore, be focused on ensuring that payments to and from the customer as a result of trading activity are conducted through a bank or building society account in the UK, the EU or in an equivalent jurisdiction.

10.12 Where a firm is transacting business for a customer who has opened and operated an account on a non face-to-face basis, and the payment is proposed to be made into an overseas account, then the firm should mitigate the higher risk of the non face-to-face business by establishing that the overseas account is held in the customer’s own name. If the firm is not able to establish that the account is held in the customer’s own name, it should proceed with caution. The firm should consider review of the account and transaction history, and the reason for making the payment abroad, to determine whether the account, or any dealings on the account, are unusual, and therefore possibly suspicious. If the firm has doubts about the proposed transaction, then an external disclosure to SOCA should be made, and appropriate consent obtained, prior to making the overseas payment.

10.13 Where a firm’s product range allows a customer to make third party deposits or payments, for example through linked banking services, the firm must assess the higher risk presented by these transaction types and enhance its monitoring and staff training accordingly to mitigate.
11. Motor finance

Note: This sectoral guidance is incomplete on its own. It must be read in conjunction with the main guidance set out in Part I of the Guidance, and the guidance in sector 12: Asset finance.

Overview of the sector

11.1 Motor finance companies offer a number of products to fund the acquisition and use of a motor vehicle. Dependent upon the funding method used, the customer may or may not obtain legal title to the vehicle. Motor finance products generally fall into two categories – purchase agreements, and lease agreements.

Purchase agreements

11.2 Conditional sale is a contract between the finance company and the customer where the customer agrees to buy specific goods. It is normally a fixed cost, fixed term credit and the customer in practice exercises all the rights of the owner of the goods. However, in law, the ownership of the asset will not pass until certain conditions are met (normally that all payments under the contract have been made, but individual contracts may include other conditions).

11.3 Hire Purchase (HP) and Lease Purchase (LP). These are both agreements under which the customer will hire the vehicle for a fixed period of time. During this period the motor finance company will recover, through the instalments paid, the cost of the vehicle together with its charges. Once the agreement is paid in full, the customer has the option to purchase the vehicle for a nominal sum. Generally, the difference between the two agreements is that on HP the amount to be repaid is spread evenly throughout the agreement, whereas on LP a substantial sum is deferred to the final instalment.

11.4 Personal Contract Purchase (PCP) is in essence a purchase agreement (the definition would, therefore, be the same as HP and LP) with a Guaranteed Minimum Future Value (GMFV) placed on the goods by the finance company. The customer has the choice at the end of the agreement of either paying the GMFV and obtaining title to the vehicle or returning the vehicle (and not having to pay the GMFV).

11.5 Personal Loan is an agreement where the title passes immediately to the customer and an unsecured loan is provided to cover all or a proportion of the sale price.

Leasing agreements

11.6 These are agreements where the customer leases the vehicle for a fixed period of time, but does not have the ability to obtain title. The motor finance company will reclaim the VAT on the vehicle and claim writing down allowances for tax purposes, as owner of the asset. A business customer can, dependent upon its tax position, claim both tax relief and proportion of the VAT on rentals paid. There are two types of lease:

- A Finance Lease, where the customer takes the risk in the final value of the vehicle.
- An Operating Lease, where the motor finance company takes the risks and rewards in the final value of the vehicle.
11.7 This guidance applies to all dealer-introduced motor finance, unless otherwise stated (as in the case for operating leasing (see 11.8 below)) including, but not limited to, cars, light commercial vehicles, motorcycles and caravans. However, brokers are not covered by the money laundering regulations unless they provide finance leasing products on their own books.

11.8 Operating leases\textsuperscript{15} are \textbf{outside} the scope of the ML Regulations\textsuperscript{16}. However, in practice for some firms it may be difficult to separate out this type of activity from other forms of leases, such as finance leases. In these circumstances ‘best practice’ would suggest that firms may nevertheless wish to make a commercial decision to follow this guidance in respect of this type of lease.

\textit{What are the money laundering risks in motor finance?}

11.9 The features of all lending are generally that the initial monies advanced are paid into another bank account, in the case of motor finance in exchange for the use of a vehicle. Repayments are usually made from other bank or building society accounts by direct debit; in most, but not all, cases, repayments in cash are not, and should not be, encouraged.

11.10 Given that a loan results in the borrower not receiving funds from the lender, but the use of a vehicle, the initial transaction is not very susceptible to money laundering. The main money laundering risk arises through the acceleration of an agreed repayment schedule, either by means of lump sum repayments, or early termination. Early repayment can also be indicative of funds being used which have emanated from a criminal lifestyle.

11.11 Motor finance products therefore carry a low inherent money laundering risk. A motor finance company will normally only accept payment of instalments from the customer named on the agreement, and in the case of overpayment will only make repayment to the customer named on the agreement.

11.12 Should a motor finance company accept occasional payments from third parties, for example the settlement of the agreement by the dealer, and/or accept payment via payment books, it must be alert to the increased risk of receiving the proceeds of crime.

\textit{Assessment of the risk}

11.13 The lender’s knowledge of the customer only extends to information gleaned at the identification stage, and to a single monthly payment on the agreement; their occupation details and monthly income/expenditure are generally unknown.

11.14 The nature of motor finance business, however, is that the type of agreement entered into with the customer carries a low risk of money laundering.

11.15 Procedures and controls used for identifying potential money laundering are therefore normally transactional-based, to identify unusual transactional movements, unusual deposits, unusual advance payments or unusual repayment patterns.

\textsuperscript{15} Vehicle contract hire and vehicle rental products would, for the purpose of this guide and accounting purposes, be classified as being an operating lease and as such would fall \textbf{outside} the scope of this guide. Under Financial Reporting Standard 5 (“FRS5”) and Statement of Standard Accounting Practice 21 (“SSAP 21”) operating leases would be a lease where risk and rewards of ownership do not pass substantially to the lessee.

\textsuperscript{16} Whilst Operating leases fall outside the requirements of the Money Laundering Regulations, firms should be aware of the anti-money laundering reporting requirements of the Proceeds of Crime 2002 (POCA), which covers all types of business. See, for example, paragraphs 1.36-1.37 in Part I of the Guidance.
Who is the customer for AML purposes?

11.16 A customer may be a private individual or a business e.g., partnerships, companies, associations etc.

11.17 Customers may be introduced through dealers, or by direct lending over the internet, through the post, or by telephone. Motor dealers introduce their customers to lenders whenever finance is required to support a vehicle acquisition. The dealer/lender relationship will be formalised in terms of an agency contract, and the dealer staff conducts face-to-face negotiations. Direct lending motor products may also be obtained remotely without face-to-face contact; this is likely to carry a higher risk.

Customer due diligence

Dealer-introduced motor finance

11.18 In a move to reduce fraudulent credit applications, members of the Finance & Leasing Association (FLA) have subscribed to an industry standard with regard to acceptable proof of identity and the standardisation of credit application processing for face-to-face business. The procedure for customer verification involves face-to-face identity checks by the dealer, supported by subsequent validation of copy identity documents by the lender. The Industry Standard is set out in the attached Annex 11-I.

11.19 Compliance with the Industry Standard on proof of identity goes beyond the current money laundering requirements under simplified due diligence (SDD), which is directly relevant for low risk products such as hire purchase and leasing agreements. However, this industry standard should still be used in order to guard against fraud. On-going monitoring of the business relationship is still required under simplified due diligence (SDD).

11.20 Under the regulations dealers can be used as agents for customer due diligence purposes in those sectors that are currently subject to established systems of supervision for money laundering. In practice this means that credit and financial institutions authorised and supervised by the FSA for anti-money laundering compliance will be able to be relied upon, although in all cases the ‘relying’ firm retains ultimate responsibility for meeting the obligations under the Regulations.

11.21 The identification of non-personal customers e.g., partnerships, companies, associations etc. should be carried out in accordance with the guidance set out in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.115ff.

Non face-to-face applications

11.22 Negotiations in respect of non face-to-face applications are normally drawn out over a period, involving vehicle specification and part exchanges, and are normally conducted over the telephone. Documentation is usually sent out by post, and the vehicles may be delivered to the customer’s home. Firms should be aware that non face-to-face applications by their very nature pose a greater risk and should not, therefore, be treated as lower risk under simplified due diligence (SDD). They will therefore require identification, verification and ongoing monitoring under enhanced due diligence (refer to Part I, section 5.5), as opposed to just monitoring under simplified due diligence (SDD) rules within the current regulations.

11.23 Electronic verification may therefore be used, supported by postal communication to home address. Some lenders may seek copies of items in accordance with the procedures set out in Part I, Chapter 5.

Supervision
11.24 There are several different regulatory bodies taking responsibilities under the 2007 Money Laundering Regulations. In order to aid clarity about who supervises whom the FSA have published a flow chart that helps business to understand which regulator regulates which entities. The FSA’s Money Laundering regulations pages also contain other information FSA ML regulated firms may find to be of use, including their approach to registering and supervising the businesses that fall to their responsibility. Links to this information can be found at: http://www.fsa.gov.uk/mlr. Similar documentation for OFT registered firms can be found on the OFT’s website: http://www.oft.gov.uk/.
ANNEX 11-I

Industry Standard for Fraud Prevention in Credit Application Processing:

Standard Identification Evidence

It should be noted that some of the requirements set out in this industry standard exceed those now required for lower risk products, e.g. some leasing agreements, under the current money laundering regulations (under simplified due diligence (SDD) they no longer require identification and verification). However these standards should still be followed as they prevent fraud which is inherently tied into money laundering.

1. In credit application processing, there should be standard acceptable proofs for verification of identity and current permanent address in accordance with paragraphs 3 - 5 below. These apply in the case of:

   • new customers; and
   • current and previous customers where the proposal details show a material discrepancy from the existing account details in the records of the lender; and
   • previous customers whose last transaction expired over 12 months ago.

2. A ‘material discrepancy’ would include any of the following:

   • missing/wrongly spelt names;
   • change of name;
   • incorrect address information extending to post code, current or previous address;
   • incorrect time at address; and
   • conflicting employment details, bank details, date or place of birth.

3. There should be mandatory production of a full driving licence or a photo card driving licence, or a provisional driving licence with photo card, in every case bearing the customer’s current address. All photo cards should be accompanied by their relevant counterpart. Where the driving licence does not bear the customer’s current address, then additional proof of current permanent residence should be required (for example, by Electoral Roll confirmation).

4. In the rare circumstances where an individual cannot produce a current driving licence, the lender should verify the identity in accordance with the procedures set out in Part I, Chapter 5.

5. The driving licence should be supported, wherever possible, by at least one of the following:

   • electronic confirmation of the customer’s current residence via the Electoral Roll;
   • electronic confirmation of current credit data at the current address on existing lending;
   • electronic confirmation of identity in accordance with Part I, paragraph 5.3.79

6. The waiving or variation of any of the requirements in paragraphs 1 to 5 is permissible but at the lender’s own risk and discretion provided that, as a minimum, they comply with the requirements set out in Part I, Chapter 5.

Dealers

7. Payment may be made by the lender in advance of receiving copies of the evidence of identity and address, but there should be in place an arrangement to cancel the credit agreement and recover the
funds in the event that identity cannot be verified (such a payment is made by the lender at its own risk).

8. In accordance with the normal working practice of the lender concerned, identity should be satisfactorily verified in accordance with paragraphs 3 and 4 prior to authorisation being given to the dealer to release the vehicle to the customer or before settling the dealer’s invoice.

9. The dealer should have sight of original documents (not copies) and should scrutinize them for authenticity and check the signature against the credit agreement. Any photographic proof of identity should also be checked for reasonable likeness of the customer.

10. The dealer should take a copy of the original proofs and this copy of the original proofs, together with confirmation that it is a copy of the original, should be submitted to the lender for subsequent document validation checks. The lender should not accept a copy of a copy.

Scope of Industry Standard

11. This Standard applies to sole traders and individuals and should be applied, wherever practical, to the main driver of the particular vehicle for a partnership or SME.
12. Asset Finance

Note: This sectoral guidance is incomplete on its own. It must be read in conjunction with the main guidance set out in Part I of the Guidance and, where relevant, the guidance in sector 11: Motor finance.

Overview of the sector

12.1 Asset finance providers offer financial facilities that allow a business to use an asset over a fixed period, in return for regular payments. The business customer chooses the equipment it requires, and the finance company buys it on behalf of the business. There are a number of ways in which a business may finance an asset. These are described below.

Leasing

12.2 The fundamental characteristic of a lease is that ownership of the asset never passes to the business customer.

12.3 Under a finance lease, the leasing company recovers the full cost of the equipment, plus charges, over the period of the lease. It can claim written down allowances, whilst the customer can claim both tax relief and VAT on rentals paid.

12.4 An operating lease is often used where a business requires a piece of equipment for a shorter period of time, for example construction equipment. The leasing company will lease the equipment to the customer, expecting, at the end of the lease period, to sell it second-hand or to lease it to another customer. The business customer does not enter the operating leased item on its balance sheet as a capital item.

12.5 The most common form of operating lease is known as contract hire. Essentially, this gives the customer the use of the asset, together with additional services such as maintenance and repair of the asset. An example of an asset on contract hire would be a fleet of vehicles. In this instance, a proportion of the VAT is reclaimable by the customer.

12.6 Operating leases are outside the scope of the ML Regulations\(^1\). Best practice would, however, suggest that firms should nevertheless follow this guidance in respect of this type of lease. In any event, in practice it may often be difficult to separate out this type of activity from other forms of lease. For example, many asset finance businesses offer a mixture of operating and finance leases and it would therefore be unduly cumbersome to follow different procedures for different leasing products, as well as inconsistent with a risk based approach.

Purchase

12.7 Hire Purchase (HP) is a well-established method of financing the purchase of assets by businesses. Under a HP agreement, the customer will hire the asset(s) for a fixed period of time. During this period the asset finance company will recover, through the instalments paid, the cost of the asset(s) together with its charges. Once the agreement is paid in full, the customer has the option to purchase the asset(s) for a nominal sum.

\(^1\) Whilst Operating leases fall outside the requirements of the Money Laundering Regulations, firms should be aware of the anti-money laundering reporting requirements of the Proceeds of Crime 2002 (POCA), which covers all types of business. See, for example, paragraphs 1.36-1.37 in Part I of the Guidance.
12.8 A lease purchase is similar to HP, the main difference being in the terms and structure of repayments. Some finance companies differentiate lease purchase from HP by using lease purchase where the customer wishes to defer payment of a substantial part of the asset cost until the end of the agreement.

12.9 Joint ventures between asset finance providers are commonplace on high value transactions.

12.10 The above funding methods are a guide and include variations with or without maintenance e.g., recourse or non-recourse.

12.11 Structured or “big ticket” asset finance broadly covers very high value transactions. Products are highly visible and high profile, such as aircraft, ships and properties. Here, the lending tends to be higher in quality, generally being made to major reputable companies, be they public sector or at the top end of the private sector. Transactions are one-off and no deposits are generally taken. Most big-ticket financiers are subsidiaries of the major banks; business is often introduced from another part of the group and so information on the customer is contained within a group-wide database.

12.12 Middle market products include commercial vehicles, cars for business, plant machinery and IT equipment to a wide range of business customers.

12.13 At the “small ticket” end of the market, products such as photocopiers, PCs and telephone systems depreciate very quickly and offer little incentive for money laundering. Given that the asset provider owns title to the assets, there is little the end user can do with the assets.

What are the money laundering risks in asset finance?

12.14 The features of asset finance are generally that no monies are advanced to the customer, but are paid into a supplier’s bank account to fund the purchase of an asset which is made available under contract to the customer. Repayments by the customer are usually made from other bank accounts by direct debit; in most, but not all, cases. Repayments in cash are not, and should not be, encouraged. Risk is also associated with hire purchase and lease products as they could be used for layering.

12.15 Given that a loan does not result in the borrower receiving funds from the lender, but the use of assets, the initial transaction is not very susceptible of money laundering. The main money laundering risk arises through the acceleration of an agreed repayment schedule, either by means of lump sum repayments, or early termination. Early repayment can also be indicative of funds being used which have emanated from a criminal lifestyle.

12.16 Asset finance products therefore generally carry a low inherent money laundering risk. An asset finance company will normally only accept payment of instalments from the customer named on the agreement, and in the case of overpayment will only make repayment to the customer named on the agreement.

12.17 In summary, the business of asset financing can be considered as carrying a low money laundering risk because:

- under a pure leasing agreement, lessees cannot acquire ownership of the asset during the term of the lease;

- payments are usually collected from other bank accounts by direct debit; and cash payments are not accepted in the normal course of business.

Assessment of the risk
12.18 In assessing customer risk, reference should be made to the risk-based approaches referred to in Part I, sections 5.4 and 5.5. These sections look at both simplified due diligence (SDD) and enhanced due diligence (EDD).

Customer due diligence

12.19 All asset finance providers should carry out full credit searches on the businesses they transact with. Additional steps to verify identity will vary across the three markets, as set out below. Note that this may well go beyond what is required by the current money laundering regulations, certainly in relation to low risk areas which can now rely on simplified due diligence (SDD). However, these additional measures will still be important for fraud purposes.

12.20 Under the regulations third parties can be used as agents for customer due diligence purposes in those sectors that are currently subject to established systems of supervision for money laundering. In practice this means that credit and financial institutions authorised and supervised by the FSA for anti-money laundering compliance will be able to be relied upon, although in all cases the ‘relying’ firm retains ultimate responsibility for meeting the obligations under the Regulations.

12.21 Big-ticket lenders – Traditionally as part of the credit underwriting process, the lender will check that the lessee is listed on a recognised market or exchange, or is a subsidiary of such a company. The lender should also check whether the lessee is a local authority. Where the customer is not listed, the standard verification requirement set out in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.149 – 5.3.153 is usually followed, including appropriate verification of the identity of the beneficial owners. Where appropriate, verification of the identity of the directors in principal control, and company searches, will be undertaken as part of normal underwriting procedures.

12.22 Prior to agreeing to finance an asset, the lessor will sometimes visit the lessee. There should be an understanding of the client’s business; for example, that the nature of the asset for which funding is sought is consistent with the business.

12.23 Middle market asset financiers also follow the procedures set out in Part I, section 5.3, making full use of data held by credit reference agencies. This will verify key parties/directors, including beneficial owners. As with providers of structured asset finance, prior to agreeing to finance an asset, the lessor will usually visit the lessee and have an understanding of the client’s business. However, in applying a risk-based approach, middle market asset financiers may take appropriate account of the guidance on using the source of funds as evidence of identity given in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.92- 5.3.96. There will be variations, depending on whether a company is listed on a regulated market or exchange, and other exceptions which may be relevant as set out in Part I, Chapter 5.

12.24 Small ticket lenders may be able to rely on simplified due diligence (SDD) as set out in Part I, section 5.4 and are, therefore, no longer required to verify identity in accordance with the standard requirements set out in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.115 - 5.3.278. This is because this is a particularly low risk area. However, for fraud purposes lenders should still carry out identity verification in accordance with standard practice.

12.25 There may be variations, depending on whether a company is listed on a regulated market or exchange, and other exceptions which may be relevant as set out in Part I, Chapter 5.

12.26 Where identity is still required for a transaction which may be seen as higher risk the Asset finance business would be able to use the source of funds as evidence of identity (see Part I, paragraphs 5.3.92 – 5.3.96), provided that repayment is to be made by direct debit from an account that can be confirmed at the outset as being in the borrower’s name. However, where the
sum being lent is to be paid direct to the customer’s supplier, sufficient due diligence must be
carried out to ensure that the supplier is genuine.

12.27 For sole traders or small partnerships, the standard identification requirement set out in Part 1,
paragraphs 5.3.163 - 5.3.166 should be followed. Where the risks are considered at their lowest,
firms may be able to carry out simplified due diligence as set out in Part I, section 5.4.
13 Private equity

Note: This sectoral guidance is incomplete on its own. It must be read in conjunction with the main guidance set out in Part I of the Guidance.

Overview of the sector

13.1 The ML Regulations define who is covered by those regulations by close reference to the Third Money Laundering Directive (“the Directive”). Private equity firms in the UK are generally authorised and regulated by the FSA and are considered to be covered by the Directive and ML Regulations because they will carry on one or more of the Banking Coordination Directive activities listed in Schedule 1 to the ML Regulations. Such firms may also be covered by the Directive and the ML Regulations because, in practice, they perform the functions of a collective investment scheme when marketing its units or shares. Private equity firms are therefore “financial institutions” within the meaning of the Directive and the ML Regulations, and reliance may be placed on them under the ML Regulations by other private equity firms and others subject to the Directive, such as banks, lawyers, accountants, etc.

13.2 Private equity business (for the purposes of this guidance) means activities relating to:

- The marketing, raising and acceptance of moneys into private equity funds (usually from institutional investors);

- The investing of these funds by providing long term finance to a range of businesses, from early stage to large established companies. Usually the investee companies are unquoted but transactions include quoted companies from time to time (for example, public to private transactions);

- The management of these investments (often involving active board participation) and exercise of negotiated equity holder rights; and

- The subsequent realisation of the investment.

13.3 Investors in private equity funds tend to have long established relationships with the private equity firm, normally resulting in a very well known investor base. Prior to making any investment in a business, the private equity firm will conduct extensive due diligence on the business and its owners, identifying areas of risk, including money laundering considerations.

13.4 Once invested, ongoing monitoring of the investment through active board participation and regular involvement allows the firm to assess whether the investee’s activities are consistent with the financial performance of the company, and also enables the firm to observe the conduct of the key managers of the business at first hand. In connection with investee companies, this will satisfy a firm’s obligation to conduct ongoing monitoring of the business relationship under the ML Regulations.
13.5 There will always be an obligation for a firm to carry out such investigative work as it feels necessary where any circumstances exist which may lead it to suspect money laundering or terrorist financing is a risk, and the following guidance should be read in that context.

13.6 For AML/CTF purposes, in a private equity context there are two distinct groups:

- Investors in fund vehicles operated, managed or administered by private equity firms – paragraphs 13.7-13.27 (investors)

- Persons involved with the private equity firm (“counterparties”) when investing and divesting (e.g. investee companies when investing and purchasers on exit) – paragraphs 13.28-13.50 (transactions)

Persons falling into the categories identified above may be classified by a private equity firm as its “venture capital contacts” for the purposes of other aspects of FSA regulation, as opposed to being classified as the firm’s regulatory clients.

**Investors**

**(i) Product risk**

13.7 Investors typically invest in a fund as limited partners in a limited partnership. The limited partnership will usually be collectively managed or advised by the private equity firm. Investors invest for the long term and the timing of any return of capital is unpredictable. This form of investment is very illiquid, with no ready market. Transfers of interest in the partnerships can take place, but only after strict due diligence (and in some funds only after a minimum initial investment period) and usually only with the specific approval of the General Partner or Manager. Payments/repayments would also only tend to be made to the investor itself (any payment to a third party would usually only be made with the express consent of the General Partner and/or Manager of the fund).

13.8 This type of product would normally be considered to be a lower risk.

**(ii) Customer risk**

*General*

13.9 Investors in a fund are mostly institutional, such as insurance companies, pension funds of large corporates or state organisations (including Sovereign Wealth Funds), other financial services companies, charitable organisations and some funds of funds. There may also be a small number of high net worth individuals.

13.10 The acceptance of investors into a fund is a relatively long process with significant levels of due diligence performed by the firm and the prospective investor(s). Key representatives of the investors will often meet face to face with senior executives of the firm.

13.11 The relationship between the firm and investor is such that a high proportion of investors will often commit over a number of years to consecutive funds of the firm; thus the relationship continues over a long period and the source of funding remains relatively constant.
13.12 For the reasons set out in paragraphs 13.9 to 13.11 these investors would generally be considered to be low risk, although high net worth individuals may require extra consideration in any risk evaluation.

13.13 Firms seeking to raise funds for the first time, or from a significantly larger investor base, may be considering accepting funds from potentially higher risk investors, and the extent of the due diligence should be adapted accordingly.

**Timing**

13.14 Identification checks in respect of investors in a fund should be completed and the firm satisfied as to the source of funds before the contractual commitment to accept the investor into the fund is made. Where there is any assignment of an interest in a fund, any identification checks should be completed before the assignment is approved and executed.

**Identification**

13.15 In relation to each investor a private equity firm should obtain at least the standard evidence for that type of investor in accordance with Part 1, chapter 5. In most cases (see paragraph 13.16, for example), the key piece of standard evidence will be to identify whether there is any natural person beneficial owner holding an interest of 25% or more and (where there is) to take risk-based and adequate measures to verify the individual’s identity (see paragraphs 13.18 to 13.27 below).

13.16 In the case of institutional investors, it may be appropriate to conduct only simplified due diligence (see Part 1, section 5.4) because the investor will itself be regulated.

13.17 Where a corporate investor is not well-known to the private equity firm and is quoted on a regulated market or exchange which is not located in the UK, the EU or in an equivalent jurisdiction, it may not be practical for the firm to obtain reliable evidence as to the quality of the regulation in that market or exchange. In addition to the standard identification requirements set out in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.138 to 5.3.141, the firm should seek to establish, where possible, who the corporate investor’s external accountants, lawyers and brokers are, and their reputation in the market, before making a decision on what, if any, further verification of identity is required. Similar considerations should be made when it appears necessary to go beyond the standard evidence of identity.

**Identifying the Beneficial Owner**

13.18 Where the investor is a natural person or a wholly-owned investment vehicle of a natural person, it will be straightforward to identify the beneficial owner.

13.19 Where the investor is a “family office”, the money will usually be provided by one or more trusts. The firm should look through the investment structure to identify the relevant trusts, and verify the trusts’ identities in accordance with Part 1, paragraphs 5.3.246 – 5.3.269. A private equity firm may have to take a decision as to whether it can rely on a representation from the administrator of the family office (or equivalent) concerning the beneficial owners, or in appropriate cases confirmation from reputable professional services firms.

13.20 Where the investor is a pension fund or endowment, the firm must first understand the structure of the pension fund or endowment in order to determine its approach to identification. The firm should identify both the source of the funding, for example the sponsoring employer, and the
person who controls the investment decision, for example the trustee or an investment committee, although the exercise of investment discretion may have been delegated to a regulated firm acting as agent. In identifying the beneficial owner, there will either be identified beneficiaries, in which case it is unlikely that any one individual will have an entitlement to 25% of the property (and a representation from the trustee to this effect should be sufficient).

Identifying the Beneficial Owner – Funds of Funds

13.21 It may be more complicated to identify a beneficial owner where the investor is itself a fund vehicle, including a private equity fund of funds.

13.22 The requirement to identify the beneficial owner and to understand the ownership and control structure in accordance with the ML Regulations would normally be confined to (a) the fund of funds general manager or partner (as the true “controller” of the fund of funds) (hereafter, the “manager”) and (b) the fund of funds itself. The assessment should not normally need to go beyond that level of the structure. In particular, it should not normally be necessary to keep looking “up” the structure until one or more natural persons is identified.

13.23 Where the manager is regulated and subject to supervision in the UK, the EU or an equivalent jurisdiction, no further identification work would normally be required because the regulated Manager will usually deal as agent on behalf of the fund of funds.

13.24 Where the manager is not from an equivalent jurisdiction, even though it may be regulated, or where the manager is unregulated but operates in an equivalent jurisdiction (as is often the case in the US private equity industry, for example) the firm needs to exercise its judgement as to the likely risk presented by investors in the fund. Factors to take into consideration include:

- the profile of the Manager in the market place;
- its track record in the private equity industry; and
- its willingness to explain its identification procedures and provide confirmation that all underlying investors in the fund have been identified and are known to the manager.

13.25 There will often be legitimate confidentiality concerns on the part of the manager in respect of the beneficial owners of the fund. However, funds of funds are often widely held and it is unlikely that there will in fact be any investor which is a beneficial owner with an interest of more than 25%. Subject to the considerations in 13.24 in order to establish this, a private equity firm is entitled to rely on a representation from the manager (whether or not regulated or supervised) that, to its actual knowledge, there is no natural person beneficial owner of more than 25% of the shares, limited partnership interests or voting rights (as appropriate) in the fund of funds. Where such a natural person beneficial owner is encountered, the private equity firm must identify them and take risk-based measures to verify their identity.

13.26 In addition, the private equity firm should obtain the other items of standard evidence in relation to the manager and the fund of funds vehicle. Depending on the results of the risk evaluation, it may be appropriate to obtain documents (for example basic constitutional documents), or a combination of documents and representations, from the manager.

13.27 Possible examples of the sort of representations referred to in paragraphs 13.25 are set out below. These representations do not represent evidence of identity in the way that the pro forma
confirmations in Part 1, Annex 5 do, but they should be used as part of the firm’s risk-based approach and adapted accordingly.

Example of representation provided by a fund of funds manager or general partner of a fund of funds

“We [NAME] [regulated by [NAME OF REGULATOR AND FIRM REFERENCE NUMBER IF APPROPRIATE]] hereby certify the following in respect of [state name of fund(s) vehicles e.g. limited partnership(s)] (the “Funds”), for whom we act as agent.

1. [In accordance with the laws of our jurisdiction, and the procedures under which we operate, designed to combat money laundering] [we confirm that]:
   • we have identified the underlying beneficial investors in respect of the Funds and carried out customer due diligence on all of the investors in the Funds;
   • we confirm that to our actual knowledge [(having made [reasonable] enquiries)] there are no undisclosed or anonymous principals; and
   • we are not aware of any activities on the part of those investors which lead us to suspect that the investor is or has been involved in money laundering or other criminal conduct.

2. Should we become suspicious of any such activity then, subject to any legal constraints, we shall inform [you/the relevant regulatory authorities] promptly.

3. To our actual knowledge [(having made reasonable enquiries)] there is no natural person who is the beneficial owner of more than 25% of the [shares/limited partnership interests/voting rights] in any of the Funds.

4. We will retain, until further notice, all documentation required to identify the underlying beneficial investors in the Funds [and which we have obtained for the purposes of our due diligence]. [We will provide such documentation [to you]to your Compliance Officer][direct to any regulatory authority] [on request][where you are required to disclose it to such regulatory authority]].”

Transactions

(i) Product risk

13.28 The product is the provision of funds by the firm in a number of different structures predominantly to unquoted companies. The funding is usually provided for the long term, after the company and its management have been subject to detailed due diligence and review. The firm has an ongoing obligation to monitor its investee companies and their management teams, often involving representation on the board of the company and receipt of regular financial and operational information.

13.29 The shareholding is highly visible and any failings on the part of the company would be closely aligned to the reputation of the private equity firm.

13.30 If all these factors are present it is considered unlikely the provision of funding will be used for illegal purposes and that therefore the product will be a lower risk. The absence of one of these
factors, such as the non availability of detailed due diligence work or the reliance on a third party, may require the firm to obtain more detailed verification to satisfy itself that the funds are being provided for legitimate purposes.

(ii) Customer risk

13.31 There are a number of parties involved in a private equity transaction, and the level of identification required in respect of each will vary.

**Investee company (Company into which funds are being paid) and its directors**

13.32 All directors should be identified and the identity of key directors should be verified in accordance with Part I, paragraph 5.3.155.

13.33 This company will either have been the subject of extensive due diligence, or will be an “off the shelf” vehicle, especially established by the firm for the purpose of acquiring the investee company. Where the firm or the fund it manages, is acquiring securities in the investee company direct from a shareholder, the guidance in paragraphs 13.49 and 13.50 is relevant.

13.34 The jurisdiction of the vehicle may cause the risk profile of the investee company to increase, but provided that the company has been properly established and that the reason for the selection of jurisdiction is understood and appropriate, there should be no need to obtain additional verification.

13.35 Whilst the legal obligation relates to identifying the investee company into which funds are being paid, where that vehicle is itself undertaking a linked transaction there must be a clear understanding of the ultimate recipient of the funds and the flow of financing, particularly with the increasing complexity of deal structures.

**Relevant Co-investor**

13.36 Where the firm acts as lead investor in the round of financing where it has arranged co-investors’ involvement in the deal, and where the co-investors are relying on the firm, it must identify the co-investors.

13.37 Following the firm’s assessment of the overall risk presented by those co-investors, it may decide to verify their identity and the underlying source of their funds.

13.38 The identification requirements exist not only at the initial investment stage but also at any follow-on financing, to the extent that any new relevant co-investors are taking part. The firm should understand the business of a new co-investor and the reasons for it wanting to invest, particularly when the target of the financing is not performing well.

**Timing**

13.39 Customer due diligence checks should usually be completed when it is reasonably certain that the deal will complete, and in all cases before completion of the investment. Where there are subsequent changes to the board of directors, consideration should be given to the need to verify the identity of the new directors, particularly if they are co-investing, in light of the guidance in paragraph 13.32.
Purchaser on exit

13.40 The realisation of a private equity transaction will typically be made either by means of a listing, sale to a trade buyer, sale to existing management or a ‘secondary sale’ to another private equity fund. If the sale is to a member of existing management who has been known to the private equity firm in the context of the investment concerned (or of another investment), the firm should consider the relevance of any verification given its existing relationship with, and knowledge about, the management.

13.41 The pressures of achieving a successful exit may heighten the risk of limiting the amount of due diligence performed on any potential purchaser on exit. In these circumstances the firm needs to ensure that its controls for proper verification of identity and source of funding remain robust. Where the purchaser is a private equity fund, consideration should be given to a risk based approach of the kind described in relation to fund of fund investors into a private equity fund (see 13.21 to 13.27 above). This will often be appropriate.

Timing

13.42 Identification checks should usually be completed on purchasers of an existing investment as soon as practicable when a deal looks reasonably likely to proceed and in all cases before completion of the sale.

(iii) Market risk

13.43 The range of companies invested in is determined by the stated parameters of the fund as agreed with the investors and the level of regulation and standard of controls in which each operates will vary enormously. The strength of the firm’s due diligence process serves to identify where any risk exists within the investee companies and the firm should develop its AML/CTF approach accordingly.

13.44 Providing funding to a company which operates across a number of unregulated territories, even if the parent is incorporated or registered in a well-regulated territory, may present a higher risk than an equivalent business which operates out of one well-regulated territory, and appropriate levels of verification should be considered.

13.45 An assessment may be required as to whether the type of business being invested in is likely to be a target for money launderers, and the approach to due diligence adapted accordingly. Businesses which involve high volumes of cash or near cash transactions, for example, casinos, hotels, are likely to be at greater risk than, for example, an early stage biotech company.

(iv) Other issues

Representations issued by private equity firms to third parties

13.46 In respect of their Funds, firms should be prepared to confirm whether in their actual knowledge there is any natural person who is the beneficial owners with an interest exceeding 25% of that fund. When disclosing information about investors in accordance with relevant confidentiality provisions, firms should consider agreeing to disclose the information to a certain department within the third party, such as the Compliance Officer only.

Use of verification carried out by others
Private equity firms make extensive use of professional advisers, especially where the required knowledge does not exist in the firm itself. The investee companies themselves and any co-investors will usually appoint professional advisers to ensure that their own interests are represented in any negotiation. In some cases, these advisers are themselves under an obligation under the ML Regulations, or under similar legislation in the EU or in an equivalent jurisdiction, to verify the identity of their clients. Depending on the circumstances, and the firm’s knowledge of/relationship with the investee company, the firm may consider it appropriate to take account of information or written assurances provided to the firm by these third parties, as part of the overall risk-based approach.

The requirement to appear before a notary in certain jurisdictions when signing documents such as the sales and purchase agreement, shareholder’s agreement etc, can provide adequate verification. However the notary’s certificate should only be considered as adequate if it states the full names and identity card numbers (or equivalent) of the individuals appearing before the notary, plus details of the evidence provided for their authority to act as representatives of the parties involved.

Vendor (Beneficiary of funding decision)

The decision to invest by the private equity firm will usually result in one or more individuals benefiting financially. In some instances these individuals will continue to be shareholders in the company, with the benefit being represented by the potential of significant future gains. In other cases, the beneficiary(ies) may be the original founders of the business who no longer participate.

The private equity firm will not wish to damage its reputation by becoming associated with inappropriate individuals. Whilst vendors of an investee company are not customers of the firm under the ML Regulations unless they are selling securities in the investee company directly to the firm or to its fund(s), the firm should be aware of who the vendors are. The nature of the due diligence work performed is such that the origins of the business and the individuals involved will have been the subject of extensive review and investigation. The private equity firm should ensure that it has sufficient information about the vendors (this may or may not require obtaining verification of identity) so as to be able to demonstrate that the firm had no knowledge or reasonable grounds for suspicion of money laundering on the part of any vendors in relation to the transaction.
14: Corporate finance

Note: This sectoral guidance is incomplete on its own. It must be read in conjunction with the main guidance set out in Part I of the Guidance.

This sectoral guidance considers specific issues over and above the more general guidance set out in Part I, Chapters 4, 5 and 7, which firms engaged in corporate finance activity may want to take into account when considering applying a risk-based approach to that sector. Firms may also find the following sectors useful:

- Sector 13: Private Equity, which covers the private financing of companies.
- Sector 18: Wholesale Markets, which covers the trading of securities in a primary or secondary market.

Overview of the sector

14.1. “Corporate finance” is activity relating to:

(i) The issue of securities. These activities might be conducted with an issuer in respect to itself, or with a holder or owner of securities. Examples include: arranging an initial public offering (IPO), a sale of new shares, or a rights issue for a company, as well as making arrangements with owners of securities concerning the repurchase, exchange or redemption of those securities;

(ii) The financing, structuring and management of a body corporate, partnership or other organisation. Examples include: advice about the restructuring of a business and its management, and advising on, or facilitating, financing operations including securitisations;

(iii) Changes in the ownership of a business. Examples include: advising on mergers and takeovers, or working with a company to find a strategic investor;

(iv) Business carried on by a firm for its own account where that business arises in the course of activities covered by (i), (ii) or (iii) above, including cases where the firm itself becomes a strategic investor in an enterprise.

What are the money laundering risks in corporate finance?

14.2. As with any financial service activity, corporate finance business can be used to launder money.

14.3. The money laundering activity through corporate finance will not usually involve the placement stage of money laundering, as the transaction will involve funds or assets already within the financial system. However, corporate finance could be involved in the layering or integration stages of money laundering. It could also involve the concealment, use and possession of criminal property and arrangements to do so, or terrorist funding.

14.4. The money laundering risks associated with corporate finance relate to the transfer of assets between parties, in exchange for cash or other assets. The assets can take the form of securities or other corporate instruments.
**How to assess the elements of risk in this sector**

14.5. In order to forestall financial crime, including money laundering and terrorist financing, it is important to obtain background knowledge about all the participants in a corporate finance transaction, and not just those who are customers, who must be subject to customer due diligence. This background gathering exercise should include measures to understand the ownership and control structure of the customer as well as looking at the beneficial ownership and any possible involvement of politically exposed persons and establishing the purpose and intended nature of the business relationship and whether this is consistent with the transaction being undertaken.

14.6. In its assessment of the financial crime risk of a particular corporate finance transaction, a firm should use - where possible and appropriate - the information it has obtained as a result of the intensive due diligence it normally undertakes in any corporate finance transaction. This may include, but not be limited to, firms assessing the probity of directors, shareholders, and any others with significant involvement in the customer’s business and the corporate finance transaction.

14.7. The money laundering risks associated with corporate finance activity can be mitigated if a firm understands or obtains assurances from appropriate third parties as to the source and nature of the funds or assets involved in the transaction.

14.8. In addition, a firm should assess whether the financial performance of an enterprise is in line with the nature and scale of its business, and whether the corporate finance services it seeks appear legitimate in the context of those activities. The outcome of this assessment should be consistent with the purpose and intended nature of the business relationship.

**Who is the customer for AML purposes?**

*Issuer of securities*

14.9. Where a firm is facilitating the issue or offer of securities by an entity, that entity is the firm’s customer.

*Purchaser of securities*

14.10. Whether purchasers of the securities issued are customers for AML purposes will depend upon the relationship the firm has with them, and in particular whether or not a firm has behaved in a way that would lead the purchaser to believe that he is a customer. Therefore:

- A direct approach by a firm to a potential purchaser will create a customer relationship for the firm.
- Purchasers of securities in new issues arranged by a firm will not be customers of the firm so long as their decision to purchase is based on offering documentation alone, or on advice they receive from another firm (which will have a customer relationship for AML purposes with the purchaser).

14.11. To protect its own reputation and that of the issuer, a firm that is acting as arranger in the issue of securities may wish to ensure that appropriate investor identification measures are adopted in the offering and that the entity administering the subscription arrangements understands the legal and regulatory AML requirements and confirms to the firm that it will undertake appropriate customer due diligence on its customers participating in the purchase of securities.

*Owners of securities*
14.12. Where a firm advises the owners of securities, in respect of the repurchase, exchange or redemption by an issuer of those securities, the owners will be customers of the firm for AML purposes.

14.13. However, other than in exceptional cases, a firm may be precluded by other regulatory requirements from acting for both the issuer and the owners of the investments concerned. In the circumstances where a firm does act for the owners of the securities, the issuer will not generally be a customer of the firm for AML purposes.

*Financing, structuring and management of a body corporate, partnership or other organisation*

14.14. The entity with which a firm is doing investment business, whether by way of advice provided to the entity, or through engaging in transactions on its behalf, will be a customer of the firm for AML purposes.

14.15. The activity undertaken by a firm may entail the firm dealing in some way with other entities/parties on behalf of the customer entity, for example, through the sale of part of its customer’s business to another entity or party. In these circumstances, the other entity or party whom the firm deals with on behalf of the customer will not also become the firm’s customer as a result of the firm’s contact with them during the sale. (For *Securitisations transactions* see paragraphs 14.30 – 14.36.)

*Changes in the ownership of a business*

14.16. The entity with which a firm is mandated to undertake investment business, whether by way of advice or through engaging in transactions, will be the customer of the firm for AML purposes.

14.17. Other entities or parties affected by changes in ownership, for example a takeover or merger target, will not become the firm’s customers, unless a firm provides advice or other investment business services to that entity or party. Similarly, an approach by a firm to a potential investor on behalf of a customer does not require the firm to treat the potential investor as its customer for AML purposes, unless the firm provides advice or other investment business services to that investor.

*Business carried on by a firm for its own account*

14.18. Where a firm makes a principal investment in an entity, that entity will not be a customer of the firm. A principal investment in this context means an investment utilising the firm's capital and one that would not involve the firm entering into a business relationship within the meaning of the ML Regulations. If, as well as making a principal investment in an entity, a firm enters into a business relationship with that entity, for example, by providing investment services or financing to the entity, the firm must apply the measures referred to in Part I, Chapter 5 as appropriate. When a firm has determined that the investment is not subject to the requirements of the ML Regulations, it may nevertheless wish to consider, in a risk-sensitive way, whether there are any money laundering implications in the investment it is making and may decide to apply appropriate due diligence measures.

*Involvement of other regulated firms*

14.19. A regulated firm (X) may be involved in a corporate finance transaction in which another regulated firm (Y) from an equivalent jurisdiction, is also involved. The relationship between X and Y may take a number of different forms:
(a) X may be providing investment services to Y, for example, by facilitating an IPO for Y. In this case Y is the customer of X. X is not the customer of Y.
(b) X and Y may both be providing investment services to a customer Z, for example by underwriting a private placement of shares for Z. In this case, Z is the customer of X and of Y. There is no customer relationship between X and Y.
(c) X may be acting for an offeror (Z) in a takeover, and Y may be acting for the offeree (ZZ). Z is the customer of X and ZZ is the customer of Y. There is no customer relationship between X and Y.

14.20. A firm should establish at the outset whether it has a customer relationship with another regulated firm and, if so, should follow the guidance in Part I, Chapter 5 in verifying the identity of that firm.

Customer due diligence

14.21. Corporate finance activity may be undertaken with a wide range of customers, but is predominantly carried on with listed and unlisted companies or their owners. The guidance contained in Part I, Chapter 5 indicates the customer due diligence procedures that should be followed in these cases. However, the following is intended to amplify aspects of the Part I, Chapter 5 procedures, with particular reference to the business practices and money laundering risks inherent in a corporate finance relationship.

Background information

14.22. It is necessary to look more closely than the procedures set out in Part I, Chapter 5 for acceptance of the customer. It is important to check the history of the customer and to carry out reputational checks about its business and representatives and shareholders.

Timing

14.23. In corporate finance transactions, when a mandate is issued or an engagement letter is signed is the point at which the firm enters into a formal relationship with the customer. However, it is common for a firm to begin discussions with a customer before a mandate or engagement letter has been signed.

14.24. A firm should determine when it is appropriate to undertake customer due diligence on a prospective customer and where applicable any beneficial owners, but this must be before the establishment of a business relationship. In all cases, however, the firm must ensure that it has completed appropriate customer due diligence prior to entering into a legally binding agreement with the customer to undertake the corporate finance activity.

14.25. Where, having completed customer due diligence, a mandate or engagement letter is not entered into until some time after the commencement of the relationship, a firm is not required to obtain another form of evidence confirming the customer’s agreement to the relationship with the firm prior to the signing of the mandate, provided it is satisfied that those individuals with whom it is dealing have authority to represent the customer.

14.26. Whilst not an AML requirement, if the relationship is conducted, either initially or subsequently, with non-board members, the firm should satisfy itself at an early stage that the board has approved the relationship by seeking formal notification of the non-board members’ authority to act on behalf of the company they represent.

Other evidence for customer due diligence
14.27. Where there is less transparency over the ownership of the customer, for example, where ownership or control is vested in other entities such as trusts or special purpose vehicles (SPV’s), or less of an industry profile or less independent means of verification of the customer, a firm should consider how this affects the ML/TF risk presented. It will, in certain circumstances, be appropriate to conduct additional due diligence, over and above the firm’s standard evidence. Firms have an obligation to verify the identity of all beneficial owners (see Part I, Chapter 5). It should also know and understand any associations the customer may have with other jurisdictions. It may also consider whether it should verify the identity of other owners or controllers. A firm may, subject to application of its risk-based approach, use other forms of evidence to confirm these matters. Consideration should be given as to whether or not the lack of transparency appears to be for reasonable business purposes. Firms will need to assess overall risk in deciding whether the “alternative” evidence, which is not documentary evidence as specified in Part I, Chapter 5, is sufficient to demonstrate ownership and the structure as represented by the customer.

14.28. Firms should maintain file notes setting out the basis on which they are able to confirm the structure and the identity of the customer, and individuals concerned, without obtaining the documentary evidence set out in Part I, Chapter 5. Such notes should take account of:

- Social and business connections
- Meetings at which others are present who can be relied upon to know the individuals in question
- The reliance which is being placed on banks, auditors and legal advisers

Subsequent activity for a customer

14.29. Some corporate finance activity involves a single transaction rather than an ongoing relationship with the customer. Where the activity is limited to a particular transaction or activity, and the customer subsequently engages the firm for other activity, the firm should ensure that the information and customer due diligence it holds are up to date and accurate at the time the subsequent activity is undertaken.

Securitisation transactions

14.30. Securitisation is the process of creating new financial instruments by pooling and combining existing financial assets, which are then marketed to investors. A firm may be involved in these transactions in one of three main ways in the context of corporate finance business:

(i) as advisor and facilitator in relation to a customer securitising assets such as future receivables. The firm will be responsible for advising the customer about the transaction and for setting up the special purpose vehicle (SPV), which will issue the asset-backed instruments. The firm may also be a counterparty to the SPV in any transactions subsequently undertaken by the SPV;

(ii) as the owner of assets which it wants to securitise;

(iii) as counterparty to an SPV established by another firm for its own customer or for itself - that is, solely as a counterparty in a transaction originated by an unconnected party.

14.31. As a general rule, the firm should be more concerned with the identity of those who provide the assets for the SPV, as this is the key money laundering risk. So long as the firm demonstrates the link between the customer and the SPV, the SPV is not subject to the full requirements of
14.32. Whether a purchaser of the instruments issued by the SPV will be treated as customers will depend upon the relationship the firm has with them. Purchasers of instruments issued by the SPV arranged by a firm will not be customers of the firm so long as their decision to purchase is based on offering documentation alone, or on advice they receive from another firm, who will have a customer relationship with them. However, as part of a firm’s risk-based approach, and for reputational reasons, it may also feel it appropriate to undertake due diligence on those who are purchasers of the instruments issued by the SPV.

14.33. In addition to verifying the identity of the customer in line with normal practice for the type of customer concerned, the firm should satisfy itself that the securitisation has a legitimate economic purpose. Where existing internal documents cannot be used for this purpose, file notes should be made to record the background to the transaction.

14.34. The firm needs to follow standard identity procedures as set out in Part I, paragraphs 5.3.68 to 5.3.278 with regard to the other customers of the firm to which it sells the new instruments issued by the SPV it has established.

14.35. If the firm is dealing with a regulated agent acting on behalf of the SPV, it should follow normal procedures for dealing with regulated firms.

14.36. If the firm is dealing with an unregulated agent of the SPV, both the agent and the SPV should be identified in accordance with the guidance in Part I, paragraph 5.3.70. Background information, obtainable in many cases from rating agencies, should be used to record the purpose of the transaction and to assess the money laundering risk.

**Monitoring**

14.37. The money laundering risks for firms operating within the corporate finance sector can be mitigated by the implementation of appropriate, documented, monitoring procedures. General guidance on monitoring is set out in Part I, section 5.7.

14.38. Monitoring of corporate finance activity will generally, due to the relationship-based, rather than transaction-based (in the wholesale markets sense), nature of corporate finance, be undertaken by the staff engaged in the activity, rather than through the use of electronic systems.

14.39. The essence of monitoring corporate finance activity involves understanding the rationale for the customer undertaking the transaction or activity, and staff using their knowledge of the customer, and what would be normal in the given set of circumstances, to be able to spot the unusual or potentially suspicious.

14.40. The firm will need to have a means of assessing that its risk mitigation procedures and controls are working effectively. In particular the firm will need to consider:

- Reviewing ways in which different services may be used for ML/TF purposes, and how these ways may change, supported by typologies/law enforcement feedback, etc;
- Adequacy of staff training and awareness;
- Capturing appropriate management information;
- Upward reporting and accountability; and
- Effectiveness of liaison with regulatory and law enforcement agencies.

The responses to these matters need to be documented in order to demonstrate how it monitors and improves the effectiveness of its systems and procedures.
14.41 The firm will have ongoing relationships with many of its customers where it must ensure that the documents, data or information held are kept up to date. Where, as is likely in some cases with corporate finance activities, the customers may not have an ongoing relationship with the firm, it is important that the firm’s procedures to deal with new business from these customers is clearly understood and practised by the relevant staff. It is a key element of any system that up to date customer information is available as it is on the basis of this information that the unusual is spotted, questions asked and judgements made about whether something is suspicious.

Staff awareness, training and alertness

14.42 The firm must train staff on how corporate finance transactions may be used for ML/TF and in the firm’s procedures for managing this risk. This training should be directed specifically at those staff directly involved in corporate finance transactions and should be tailored around the specific risks that this type of business represents. Whilst there is no single solution when determining how to deliver training, training of relationship management staff via workshops may well prove to be more successful than on-line learning or videos/CDs.
15: Trade finance

Note: This sectoral guidance is incomplete on its own. It must be read in conjunction with the main guidance set out in Part I of the Guidance Notes.

Firms addressing the money laundering/terrorist financing risks in trade finance should also have regard to the guidance in sector 16: Correspondent banking.

Overview of the sector

15.1 'Trade Finance' is used to describe various operations, including the financing — usually but not exclusively by financial institutions - undertaken to facilitate trade or commerce, which generally involves the movement of goods and services between two points — it can therefore be domestic or international. The trade finance element may only be part of the overall financial component and may have multiple variations, e.g., a domestic trade finance transaction could support an international movement of goods, or on occasion only services may be involved (see paragraph 15.9: Funds transmission/payments). Such operations comprise a mix of money transmission instruments, default undertakings and provision of finance, which are described in more detail below. A glossary of trade finance terms used in this guidance is set out in Annex 15-I.

15.2 In the context of this guidance, the term ‘Trade Finance’ is used to refer to the financial component of an international trade transaction, i.e., managing the payment for goods and/or related services being imported or exported. Trade finance activities may include issuing letters of credit, standby letters of credit, bills for collection or guarantees. Trade Finance operations are often considered in a cross-border context but can also relate to domestic trade.

15.3 Past estimates suggest that approximately only a fifth of world trade is conducted by means of trade finance products and services; the rest is conducted on “Open Account” terms, whereby a ‘clean’ payment is made by the buyer of the goods or services direct to the seller, i.e., not requiring presentation of the supporting trade documentation to the banks through which the payment is effected. It follows that whenever credit and liquidity are scarce or trust between the transacting parties has not been established, sellers in particular will be inclined to revert to Trade Finance.

15.4 In Open Account transactions, unlike transactions where trade finance instruments are used, the bank is only aware of the payment and will not be aware of the reason for the payment, unless the relevant details are included in the associated SWIFT messages. Banks will therefore be able to carry out sanctions screening only on the payment, with anti money laundering checks achieved to the extent practicable by its risk-based transaction monitoring. Where credit is being provided, however, the bank may have more information to enable it to understand the reasons for the transaction and the financial movements. Banks are not required to investigate commercial transactions outside their knowledge, although if documentation they see as part of the banking transaction gives rise to suspicion, they should submit a SAR to SOCA, and seek consent, as appropriate.

15.5 The focus of this guidance is on those standard products used for the finance of the movement of goods or services across international boundaries. The products are:

- Documentary Letters of Credit (LCs) and
- Documentary Bills for Collection (BCs).
These standard products have trade related documents (invoices, transport documents etc) that are sent through financial institutions and are examined by documentary checkers within the financial institution for consistency with the terms of the trade transaction. Such operations are illustrated (in simple terms) in Annex 15-II, and are described in more detail below.

15.6 These products are governed internationally by sets of rules of practice issued by of the International Chamber of Commerce (ICC). The ICC rules governing BCs are fundamentally different from the ICC rules governing LCs. The checks, which have to be made within limited timeframes by the financial institution (Collecting or Presenting bank, see below), on BCs are limited to determining that the documents received appear to be as listed in the collection instruction.

15.7 International trade finance transactions will usually involve financial institutions in different locations, acting in a variety of capacities. For the purpose of LCs these may include an Issuing Bank, an Advising Bank, Nominated Bank, Confirming Bank or Reimbursing Bank. For BCs there will be a Remitting, Collecting or Presenting Bank. The nature of the capacity in which a financial institution may be involved is important, as this will dictate the nature and level of information available to the financial institution in relation to the underlying exporter/importer, the nature of trade arrangements and transactions. The fragmented nature of this process, in which a particular financial institution may of necessity have access only to limited information about a transaction, means that it may not be possible for any one financial institution to devise hard coded rules or scenarios, or any patterning techniques in order to implement a meaningful transaction monitoring system for the whole transaction chain.

15.8 The main types of trade finance operations are described in more detail below. Whilst they are addressed separately, they are not necessarily mutually exclusive and these operations may be combined in relation to a single transaction, series of transactions or, on occasion, in relation to a particular project. In terms of assessing risk, it is important to understand the detailed workings of individual operations/financial instruments, rather than automatically assuming that they fit into a particular category simply because of the name that they may have been given.

Funds Transmission/Payments

15.9 Trade finance operations often involve transmission of funds where the payment is subject to presentation of document(s) and/or compliance with specified condition(s). Financing may on occasion be provided either specifically related to the instrument itself, or as part of a general line of credit.

Default Undertakings

15.10 As the term implies, such undertakings normally only involve payment if some form of default has occurred. Typical undertakings in this category are bonds, guarantees, indemnities and standby letters of credit. Provision of finance is less common than with funds transmission/payment instruments, but could also occur.

Structured Financing

15.11 This category comprises a variety of financing techniques, but with the common aim of facilitating trade and commerce, where financing is the primary operation, with any associated Trade Finance instrument and/or undertaking being subsidiary. On occasion, such financing may be highly complex e.g., involving special purpose vehicles (SPVs). Finance may be provided against evidence of performance under a trade contract, often on a staged basis that represents progress in that contract.
What are the financial crime risks in Trade Finance?

General

15.12 A key risk around trade finance business is that seemingly legitimate transactions and associated documents can be constructed simply to justify the movement of funds between parties, or to show a paper trail for non-existent or fraudulent goods. In particular, the level and type of documentation received by a firm is dictated principally by the applicant or instructing party, and, because of the diversity of documentation, firms may not be expert in many types of the documents received as a result of trade finance business (although experienced trade finance staff should have a good understanding of the most commonly used types of document). Such a risk is probably greatest where the parties to an underlying commercial trade transaction are in league to disguise the true nature of a transaction. In such instances, methods used by criminals to transfer funds illegally range from over and under invoicing, to the presentation of false documents or spurious calls under default instruments. In more complex situations, for example where asset securitisation is used, trade receivables can be generated from fictitious parties or fabricated transactions (albeit the use of asset securitisation in trade finance is a very limited activity). The use of copy documents, particularly documents of title, should be discouraged, and should raise a due diligence query, except where the location of the original documents (of title) and the reasons for their absence is disclosed to and acceptable by the banks in the transaction.

15.13 A form of trade finance is generally used instead of clean payments and generic lending to provide additional protection for the commercial parties and independent and impartial comfort when parties require some level of performance and payment security or when documentation is required for other purposes e.g., to comply with Customs, other regulatory requirements, control of goods and/or possible financial institution requirements. The key money laundering/terrorism risks arise when such documentation is adapted to facilitate non-genuine transactions, normally involving movement of funds at some point.

15.14 The Financial Action Task Force (FATF), regulators and others have identified misuse of the trade system as one of the methods by which criminal organisations and terrorist financiers move money for the purpose of disguising its origins and integrating it into the legitimate economy. FATF typologies’ studies indicate that criminal organisations and terrorist groups exploit vulnerabilities in the international trade system to move value for illegal purposes. Cases identified included: illicit trafficking in narcotic drugs; illicit trafficking in stolen or other goods; corruption and bribery; fraud; counterfeiting/piracy of products; and smuggling. More complicated schemes integrate these fraudulent practices into a complex web of transactions and movements of goods and money.

Money laundering risk

15.15 Given the nature of the business, there is little likelihood that trade finance will be used by money launderers in the placement stage of money laundering. However, trade finance can be used in the layering and integration stages of money laundering as the enormous volume of trade flows obscure individual transactions and the complexities associated with the use of multiple foreign exchange transactions and diverse trade financing arrangements permit the commingling of legitimate and illicit funds.

15.16 FATF's June 2006 study of Trade Based Money Laundering defined trade-based money laundering as "the process of disguising the proceeds of crime and moving value through the use of trade transactions in an attempt to legitimise their illicit origins. In practice, this can be achieved through the misrepresentation of the price, quantity or quality of imports or exports.

Moreover, trade-based money laundering techniques vary in complexity and are frequently used in combination with other money laundering techniques to further obscure the money trail. The study concludes that "trade-based money laundering represents an important channel of criminal activity and, given the growth in world trade, an increasingly important money laundering and terrorist financing vulnerability. Moreover, as the standards applied to other money laundering techniques become increasingly effective, the use of trade-based money laundering can be expected to become increasingly attractive". The term 'trade transactions' as used by the FATF is wider than the trade transactions described in this sectoral guidance.

15.17 FATF's June 2006 study notes that the basic techniques of trade-based money laundering include:

- **Over Invoicing**: by misrepresenting the price of the goods in the invoice and other documentation (stating it at above the true value) the seller gains excess value as a result of the payment.

- **Under invoicing**: by misrepresenting the price of the goods in the invoice and other documentation (stating it at below the true value) the buyer gains excess value when the payment is made.

- **Multiple invoicing**: by issuing more than one invoice for the same goods a seller can justify the receipt of multiple payments. This will be harder to detect if the colluding parties use more than one financial institution to facilitate the payments/transactions.

- **Short shipping**: the seller ships less than the invoiced quantity or quality of goods thereby misrepresenting the true value of goods in the documents. The effect is similar to over invoicing.

- **Over shipping**: the seller ships more than the invoiced quantity or quality of goods thereby misrepresenting the true value of goods in the documents. The effect is similar to under invoicing.

- **Deliberate obfuscation of the type of goods**: parties may structure a transaction in a way to avoid alerting any suspicion to financial institutions or to other third parties which become involved. This may simply involve omitting information from the relevant documentation or deliberately disguising or falsifying it. This activity may or may not involve a degree of collusion between the parties involved and may be for a variety of reasons or purposes.

- **Phantom Shipping**: no goods are shipped and all documentation is completely falsified.

15.18 Generally, these techniques involve fraud by one party against another, but may also depend upon collusion between the seller and buyer, since the intended outcome of the trade is to obtain value in excess of what would be expected from an arms’ length transaction, or to move funds from point A to point B without being detected or accounted for by the authorities. The collusion may arise, for example, because the parties are controlled by the same persons, or because the parties are attempting to evade taxes on some part of the transaction.

15.19 Some countries require that for the importation of certain types of goods, independent inspection agents certify that the goods meet the specified quality standards and that the prices charged are appropriate. The buyer and seller may also agree to use inspection agents, who will issue a certificate confirming the quality and/or price. Trade Finance staff should understand the circumstances where inspection certificates are required.

Sanctions/proliferation financing

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19 A report by Global Financial Integrity showed there was an estimated average of $725 billion to $810 billion per annum in illicit financial flows from Developing Countries between 2000 and 2009. Of these amounts, 55% was due to trade mispricing. See http://iff-update.gfip.org/.
15.20 There is at present no agreed definition of proliferation or proliferation financing. FATF’s Working Group on Terrorist Financing and Money Laundering has proposed the following definition of proliferation financing for the purposes of its work:

>[Proliferation financing is] the act of providing funds or financial services which are used, in whole or in part, for the manufacture, acquisition, possession, development, export, trans-shipment, brokering, transport, transfer, stockpiling or use of nuclear, chemical or biological weapons and their means of delivery and related materials (including both technologies and dual-use goods used for non-legitimate purposes), in contravention of national laws or, where applicable, international obligations.²⁰


15.21 Dual-use goods are items that have both commercial and military or proliferation applications. This can include goods that are components of a weapon, or those that would be used in the manufacture of a weapon (e.g., certain machine tools that are used for repairing automobiles can also be used to manufacture certain component parts of missiles).

15.22 Dual-use goods destined for proliferation use are difficult to identify, even when detailed information on a particular good is available. Regardless of the amount of information provided for a particular good, highly specialised knowledge and experience is often needed to determine if a good may be used for proliferation. Dual-use items can be described in common terms with many uses – such as “pumps” – or in very specific terms with more specific proliferation uses – such as metals with certain characteristics. Further, many goods are only regarded as dual-use if they measure-up to very precise performance specifications.

15.23 Proliferation differs from money laundering in several respects. The fact that proliferators may derive funds from both criminal activity and/or legitimately sourced funds means that transactions related to proliferation financing may not exhibit the same characteristics as conventional money laundering. Furthermore, the number of customers or transactions related to proliferation activities is likely to be markedly smaller than those involved in other types of criminal activity such as money-laundering.

15.24 There are a variety of United Nations (UN) and national and regional sanctions in place. These include:

- Country-based financial sanctions that target specific individuals and entities
- Trade-based sanctions, e.g., embargos on the provision of certain goods, services or expertise to certain countries

In recent years there has also been a series of UN Security Council Resolutions which have, inter alia, introduced targeted financial sanctions and/or activity-based financial prohibitions in respect of certain countries which relate to the prevention of WMD proliferation.

15.25 Compliance with the sanctions in force within jurisdictions is relevant to all the products and services offered by firms. Sanctions that require the embargo of certain goods and services have particular relevance in relation to the provision and facilitation of trade finance products.

²⁰ The definition of an act of proliferation financing need not involve knowledge. However, when considering the responsibilities of financial institutions or a possible criminal basis of proliferation financing, a subjective element will be indispensable.

A summary of the legal and regulatory obligations in relation to proliferation financing is set out in Annex 15-III. Guidance on sanctions screening is given in Part III, section 4: *Compliance with the UK financial sanctions regime*.

The use of trade finance to breach sanctions and/or for the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction (WMD) could potentially take advantage of the complex and fragmented nature of existing global finance activity where multiple parties (in many cases with limited knowledge of one another) become involved in the handling of trade finance.

In June 2008, FATF published a Proliferation Financing Report which assessed these risks. Annex 15-IV reproduces that report's discussion of how various types of entity in the financial sector might become involved in proliferation activities.

In April 2010 the FATF published a February 2010 report from their Working Group on Terrorist Financing and Money Laundering 'Combating Proliferation Financing: A Status Report on Policy Development and Consultation' which further analysed the risks and possible policy responses.

Assessing the trade-based financial crime risk

A firm's risk-based approach should be designed to ensure that it places an emphasis on deterring, detecting and disclosing in the areas of greatest perceived vulnerability, in order to counter to the extent practicable the above trade-based money laundering, terrorist financing and proliferation financing techniques.

Money laundering/terrorist financing

The ability of a firm to assess the money laundering/terrorist financing risks posed by a particular transaction will depend on the amount of information that it has about that transaction and the parties to it. This will be determined by the firm's role in the Trade Finance operation. The amount of information available to a firm may vary depending on the size/type of the firm and the volume of business that it is handling. Where possible when assessing risk, firms may take into consideration the parties involved in the transaction and the countries where they are based, as well as the nature of any goods forming the basis of an underlying commercial transaction.

Apart from direct information, firms should have regard to public sources of information that are available at no or minimal direct cost, such as those available on the internet. For example, firms may validate bills of lading by reference to the websites of shipping lines, most of whom offer a free facility to track movements of containers. By using the unique container reference number, firms may be able to confirm that the container was loaded on a designated vessel and that vessel is undertaking the claimed voyage. The websites of many shipping lines provide details of the current and future voyages being undertaken by their ships and up to date information regarding their precise location. For example, see the website [http://www.marinetraffic.com/ais/default.aspx?centerx=30&centery=25&zoom=2&level1=140](http://www.marinetraffic.com/ais/default.aspx?centerx=30&centery=25&zoom=2&level1=140). Firms would not be expected to investigate commercial transactions outside their knowledge, although naturally if documentation they see as part of the banking transaction gives rise to suspicion, this should be reported.

When developing a risk-based strategy firms should consider, but not restrict their consideration to, factors such as the size of the transaction, nature of the transaction, geographical location of the parties and the customer’s business mix.

22 [http://www.fatf-gafi.org/dataoecd/14/21/41146580.pdf](http://www.fatf-gafi.org/dataoecd/14/21/41146580.pdf)

15.34 Firms need to be aware of trade-based money laundering techniques when developing their risk-based strategy and consider how best to mitigate the risks to themselves. The FATF has listed some red flag indicators in its June 2006 report, which are reproduced in Annex 15-V.

15.35 In certain specific, highly structured transactions firms should exercise reasonable judgement and consider whether additional investigation should be undertaken. Such investigation may include determining whether over-invoicing or under-invoicing, or any other misrepresentation of value, may be involved, which cannot usually be based solely on the trade documentation itself. Nor can the use of external data bases alone be relied upon as most products are not traded in public markets and have no publicly available prices. Even where such prices are available, such as those for commodities, firms will not be aware of the terms of trade, discounts involved or quality of the goods etc, so making a determination of the unit pricing will always be difficult. However, where the unit price of goods is materially different from the current market value, firms should consider whether they have a suspicion and whether they should accordingly submit an SAR to SOCA.

_Proliferation financing_

15.36 Particular issues arise in relation to possible proliferation financing risks presented by customers and products, and these are discussed in Annex 15-VI.

_General_

15.37 It is recommended that firms create a risk policy (including the risk of financial crime abuse) and controls appropriate to their business which they may be required to justify to their regulators.

15.38 Whilst it is recognised that firms will not be familiar with all types of documentation they see, they should pay particular attention to transactions which their own analysis and risk policy have identified as high risk and be on enquiry for anything unusual.

15.39 In addition to this Guidance, firms may also find some useful information in the private sector Wolfsberg Group guidance - Trade Finance Principles 2008 (January 2009) - (see www.wolfsberg-principles.com/standards and then go to Wolfsberg Standards – Wolfsberg AML Principles).

_Customer due diligence_

_General_

15.40 With the partial exception of Collections (see below), the required due diligence must be undertaken on the customer who is the instructing party for the purpose of the transaction (see below). Due diligence on other parties to the transaction, including other customers, should be undertaken where required by a firm's risk policy. Reference to Part I, Chapter 5 should be made as appropriate. Additional due diligence on other parties, and possibly on the transaction itself, should be undertaken where required by the firm's internal risk policy and where the firm is specifically on enquiry.

15.41 It should be noted that the instructing party will normally be an existing customer of the firm but, if not, due diligence must be undertaken on the instructing party before proceeding with the transaction (see Part I, Chapter 5).

15.42 The following list of instructing parties is not exhaustive and where necessary firms will need to decide in each case who the instructing party is (these enquiries are in addition to the standard due diligence undertaken by the firm as a condition of its account relationship):
Import (Outward) Letters of Credit - the instructing party for the issuing bank is the applicant. Questions from the issuing bank that should arise during the initial due diligence process where LC facilities are required would be such as to establish from the applicant:

- The countries in relation to which the applicant trades, and the trading routes utilised
- The goods traded
- The type and nature of parties with whom the applicant does business (e.g., customers, suppliers, etc)
- The role and location of agents and other third parties used by the applicant in relation to the business (where this information is provided by the applicant).

Export (Inward) Letters of Credit - the instructing party for the advising/confirming bank is the issuing bank.

- The advising/confirming bank should undertake appropriate due diligence on the issuing bank (as set out in Part II, sector 16: Correspondent banking). The due diligence may support an ongoing relationship with the issuing bank which will be subject to a relevant risk based review cycle. Due diligence on the issuing bank is not therefore required in relation to each subsequent transaction.

- In other circumstances, the advising bank may not have an ongoing relationship with the issuing bank and may simply act to process the transaction, in which case due diligence may be conducted on a different basis. As a minimum the advising bank will need to ensure that there is a means of authenticating any LC received from the issuing bank.

- Although there is no requirement to carry out customer due diligence on the LC beneficiary, firms may decide to carry out some checks e.g., check existence at Companies House (or equivalent foreign registry), with on-line trade directories, professional advisers or availability of financial statements – subject to their own risk based approach – to confirm the validity of the transaction if the LC is issued by a bank in a country that is considered high risk and if the nature of the transaction (goods, shipment from/to, payment terms etc) warrants further investigation. Financial statements are a useful source of information, as they usually provide a description of the company’s main activities, as well as giving information about the size of its financial operations.

Outward Collections - the instructing party is the customer/applicant.

- Firms should carry out due diligence on the instructing party (exporter) who in many cases will be their customer, on whom they have already carried out due diligence.

Inward Collections - due diligence should be carried out on the drawee, who will normally be the importer or party acting on behalf of the importer. In most cases the drawee will be an existing customer of the bank receiving the collection, on whom standard due diligence for AML purposes will already have been carried out. Depending on the nature of the transaction and whether it is consistent with the known trading activity of the customer and normal scale thereof, further enquiry may be prudent on a case by case basis.

Bonds/Guarantees - the instructing party may be either a customer, correspondent bank or other third party.

Sanctions/proliferation financing – CDD and screening
15.43 The ability of firms to implement *activity-based controls* against proliferation is limited, due to the lack of technical expertise of firms, the limited information available as a basis for such controls and firms’ inability to examine whether such information is correct; the structural differences between money laundering and proliferation financing and the lack of clear financial patterns uniquely associated with proliferation financing; and the fragmented nature of the trade cycle, which limits each firm’s visibility of the whole transaction.

15.44 *Targeted financial sanctions*\(^\text{24}\) provide firms with proliferation-related information on which they can take action. Targeted financial sanctions are considered to be most effective when they are implemented globally *i.e.* by the UN, since a designated entity cannot as easily turn to third-country firms to evade sanctions.

15.45 Some jurisdictions have established their own capability to impose targeted financial sanctions on individuals and entities they deem involved in WMD proliferation, independent of sanctions agreed by the UN Security Council. The European Union (EU) has also adopted such sanctions based on specific legislation relating to certain countries of specific proliferation concern.

15.46 Targeted financial sanctions may also prompt a proliferation-related entity to conceal its involvement in a transaction. This may involve the use of unusual financial mechanisms which may arouse suspicion among legitimate exporters, or patterns of activity which may generate suspicion of money laundering.

15.47 Where lists of entities are available, firms should consider whether undertaking real-time screening of transactions is appropriate. Lists of entities in this context could potentially include both entities subject to targeted financial sanctions e.g., UNSCR 1737, under which transactions with named entities are prohibited; as well as (if such lists are made available), entities of proliferation concern, which have been identified as high-risk by competent authorities and which could be subject to enhanced due diligence and/or suspicious activity reporting. Firms should be careful not unintentionally to treat all types of lists as financial sanctions lists, thus running the risk of prohibiting business with these entities and jurisdictions altogether. Real-time screening against listed entity-names has limitations, however, and may be evaded if the listed entity changes its name or operates through a non-listed front company.

15.48 Alternative approaches would be required to identify and prevent proliferation financing activity conducted by non-listed entities. These could include both manual systems – enhanced due diligence, increased monitoring, and enhanced frequency of relationship reviews – and automatic systems such as post-event monitoring of account activity.

15.49 Post event monitoring, using multiple risk indicators, may in any event have the potential to identify proliferation financing activity.

15.50 *Goods based screening*; evaluation of the goods involved in a transaction very often requires a large amount of technical knowledge only available to export controls experts and/or exporters. Goods lists pose a tremendous challenge even for export control enforcement and certainly a greater one for real time screening than entity lists. Furthermore, firms in general lack the expertise to discriminate between legitimate and proliferation-sensitive goods. Goods lists, in themselves, should not be used as a basis for transaction screening, as their limited effectiveness, and greater difficulty, make them an inefficient safeguard.

*Forfaiting*

15.51 The diverse nature of forfaiting business is such that the exact nature of the transaction needs to be

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\(^{24}\) For the purposes of this guidance, “targeted financial sanctions” includes not only asset freezing, but also prohibitions to prevent funds from being made available to “designated” or “listed” persons and entities.
considered. For example, the need to ensure authenticity may lead to enquiries being made of the importer's management, and it may be necessary to examine the commercial parts of documents, dependent on the nature of the underlying commercial transaction.

15.52 In the primary Forfaiting, or origination, market, a firm will usually be dealing directly with an exporter, who will be its customer and on whom it should carry out due diligence in accordance with Part I, Chapter 5. In addition, as part of its risk-based approach, a firm, where appropriate, should scrutinise the other party to the underlying commercial transaction, as well as the transaction itself, to satisfy itself of the validity of the transaction. The amount and depth of scrutiny will depend on the firm's risk assessment of the client and transaction.

15.53 In the secondary Forfaiting market, the firm's customer will be the person from whom it buys the evidence of debt. However if it holds a Forfait asset to maturity it will be receiving funds from the guarantor bank and thus it should as a matter of course perform due diligence on this entity as well. Using a risk-based approach, firms should also consider whether they should conduct some form of due diligence on the underlying parties to the transaction, as well as on the transaction itself. This will depend on a risk assessment of the countries and the types of clients or products and services involved. It may be necessary to examine documentation on the underlying commercial transaction. However, it should be borne in mind that the further away from the original transaction the purchaser of a Forfait asset is, the harder it will be to undertake meaningful due diligence.

Structured Financing

15.54 As stated above, structured finance transactions are diverse in nature. Due diligence should be undertaken on all relevant parties in accordance with the firm's own risk policy/assessment.

Enhanced due diligence

15.55 Where the nature of a transaction displays higher risk characteristics than normal business undertaken for the customer (instructing party), for example, the buyer falls into a higher risk category then the firm should consider undertaking additional due diligence in line with its risk policies. Some of the checks firms could undertake (not all of which may be applicable or available in each case) include:

- make enquiries as appropriate into the ownership and background of the other parties to the transaction e.g., the beneficiary(ies), agents, shipping lines, taking further steps to verify information or the identity of key individuals as the case demands;
- seek information from the instructing party about the frequency of trade and the quality of the business relationships existing between the parties to the transaction. This should be documented to assist future due diligence;
- check the transaction against warning notices from external public sources, for example the ICC's International Maritime Bureau;
- refer the transaction to external agencies specialising in search and validation services in respect of bills of lading, shipping services and commodity prices, for example the ICC Commercial Crime Services;
- check details of the source of goods;
- check public source information for prices of goods such as commodities – where the contract price is significantly different from the market [say 25%] then consider further investigation;
- attend and record relationship meetings with the instructing party, visit them by arrangement;
- for export letters of credit, refer details to other Group resources on the ground in the country of origin, to seek corroboration.
- checks into the verification of shipments after the UCP operation is over, drawn at random from a sample of transactions, across a cross section of the bank’s trade finance clients. This
may help to identify spurious transactions where buyers and sellers act in collusion.

15.56 The enhanced due diligence should be designed to understand the nature of the transaction, the related trade cycle for the goods involved, the appropriateness of the transaction structure, the legitimacy of the payment flows and what control mechanisms exist.

15.57 The nature of business and the anticipated transactions as described and disclosed in the initial due diligence stage may not necessarily suggest a higher risk category but if, during the course of any transaction any high risk factors become apparent, this may warrant additional due diligence. For example – although these may in some cases be used legitimately - where third party middlemen or traders use back to back or transferable LCs to conclude offshore deals, or where the buyer is itself a middleman or trader.

Monitoring

15.58 Firms should have regard to the general guidance set out in Part I, section 5.7 on monitoring and in Chapter 6, on reporting suspicious transactions, and requesting consent where appropriate. The depth and frequency of monitoring to be undertaken will be determined by a firm's risk analysis of the business and/or the parties involved. Firms should, however, implement such controls and procedures appropriate to their business, but in any event must comply with any applicable legal or regulatory requirements.

15.59 Firms may refer to sources of information that may be relevant to assessing the risk that particular goods may be ‘dual-use’, or otherwise subject to restrictions on their movement. For example, there are public resources (such as the EC’s TARIC database) that can indicate which restrictions might apply to exports from the EU with specific tariff codes: it will show where trade in some types of good under that category might be licensable or prohibited. Exporters must already provide tariff codes to the customs authorities (who use them to calculate the tax levied on the trade), so should be able to provide them to their banks, insurers and their agents. These can be used to identify transactions that might present higher risk or require further due diligence checks, particularly in situations where the risks are perceived to be higher). For example, have issuing banks, applicants or beneficiaries of letters of credit, or freight companies and shipping lines moving the goods, been highlighted by national authorities as being of concern? (This information will often be recorded on commercially-available due diligence tools). Does the trade involve jurisdictions previously implicated in proliferation activity?

15.60 Techniques dependent on a firm's risk analysis/policy could range from random, after the event, monitoring to checking receivables in any form of securitisation transaction to seek to determine if they are legitimate.

15.61 In the automatic monitoring of transactions the drivers that flag ‘unusual transactions’ tend to be built around:

- payment values
- volume of payments
- countries of payment
- originator/beneficiary names
- patterns in relation to a country or entity name
- volume of shipments (e.g., tonnes)

However, the exact configuration of monitoring systems will differ between firms.

15.62 Alerts generated from these automatic systems are usually subject to some type of human intervention. Therefore, the effective application of a risk-based approach to monitoring is only
possible if based on intelligence-based risk indicators, such as geographical combinations or geographical patterns of high-risk payment flows.

15.63 Depending on the screening tool that it employs, a bank may be able to screen SWIFT messages for indications of prohibited or licensed goods, such as armaments.

15.64 The ability of a firm to detect suspicious activity will often be constrained. For instance, in the case of fragmented trade finance arrangements the availability of information will be a particularly limiting factor in enabling firm to understand who the ultimate buyer (or seller) of a product is, or what the ultimate end use of product may be. Whilst all firms are expected to have a form of financial transaction monitoring in place, the information presented to a firm will clearly vary according to its role in a particular transaction and the type of payment system used. For instance in the case of letters of credit, the firm will have some – albeit often limited – information on the underlying transaction if it is the issuing bank and less information if it is the advising bank. The extent to which available information will need to be verified will also vary depending on this role.

Staff awareness, training and alertness

15.65 The firm must train staff on how trade finance transactions may be used for ML/TF and in the firm's procedures for managing this risk. This training should be directed specifically at those staff directly involved in trade finance transactions, including those in relevant back office functions, and should be tailored around the specific risks that this type of business represents.

15.66 Trade Finance staff need to have a high level understanding of export licence regimes and of the importance of seeking evidence from relevant parties to the transaction that an export licence has been obtained for appropriate transactions.

15.67 The FATF's red flag indicators set out in Annex 15-V, although directed primarily at governmental agencies, nevertheless should be a useful aid to those devising firms' training programmes. In addition the several case studies set out in the study may also provide good training material. This study is available at www.fatf-gafi.org/dataoecd/60/25/37038272.pdf.
ANNEX 15-I

Glossary of trade finance terms used in this guidance

**Bills of Exchange.** A signed written unconditional order by which one party (drawer or trade creditor) requires another party (drawee or trade debtor) to pay a specified sum to the drawer or a third party (payee or trade creditor) or order, on demand or at a fixed or determinable future time. In the UK, the relevant legislation is the Bills of Exchange Act 1882, as amended. In cross-border transactions, equivalent laws may also apply. In many other European jurisdictions, transactions will be subject to the Geneva Conventions on Bills of Exchange 1932. Bills of Exchange can be payable at sight or at a future date, and if either accepted and/or avalised, represent a commitment by the accepting or Avalising party to pay funds, thus making them the primary obligor.

**Acceptances/Deferred Payment Undertakings.** Where the drawee of a bill of exchange signs the bill with or without the word "accepted" on it, the drawee becomes the acceptor and is responsible for payment on maturity. Where banks become the acceptor these are known as "bankers' acceptances" and are sometimes used to effect payment for merchandise sold in import-export transactions. Avalisation that occurs in forfaiting and some other transactions is similar to acceptance but does not have legal standing under English law. Banks may also agree to pay documents presented under a documentary credit payable at a future date that does not include a bill of exchange. In such instances the bank incurs a deferred payment undertaking.

**Promissory Notes.** These are a written promise committing the issuer to pay the payee or to order, (often a trade creditor) a specified sum either on demand or on a specified date in the future. (This is similar to a bill of exchange).

**Guarantees and Indemnities.** Sometimes called Bonds, these are issued when a contractual agreement between a buyer and a seller requires some form of financial security in the event that the seller fails to perform under the contract terms, and are normally issued against a backing "Counter Indemnity" in favour of the issuing firm. There are many variations, but a common theme is that these are default instruments which are only triggered in the event of failure to perform under the underlying commercial contract.

**Documentary Credits.** Historically, these were one of the most commonly used instruments in Trade Finance transactions and although their usage has declined in recent years, particularly in intra-Western European trade, unfavourable credit conditions could reverse this trend, especially in developing markets (at least in the short term). They remain in extensive use in trade involving deep sea transport and in certain geographical areas e.g., South East Asia. In its simplest form a Documentary Credit is normally issued by a bank on behalf of a purchaser of merchandise or a recipient of services (a trade debtor), in favour of a beneficiary, usually the seller of the merchandise or provider of services (a trade creditor). The issuer (usually a bank) irrevocably promises to pay the seller/provider at sight, or at a future date if presented with documents which comply with the terms and conditions of the Documentary Credit. Effectively, the Documentary Credit substitutes the Issuing Bank's credit for that of the applicant subject to the terms and conditions being complied with. When a Documentary Credit is confirmed by another bank, the Confirming Bank adds its own undertaking as principal to that of the Issuing Bank i.e. the Confirming Bank becomes a primary obligor in its own right. There are many more complex variations than this simple example, but almost all Documentary Credits worldwide are issued and handled subject to the applicable International Chamber of Commerce (ICC) Uniform Customs & Practice for Documentary Credits in force (currently UCP 600).

**Collections.** A typical documentary collection involves documents forwarded by an exporter's bank to an importer's bank to be released in accordance with the accompanying instructions. These instructions could require release of documents against payment or acceptance of a bill of
exchange. As with Documentary Credits, there are a number of possible variations and the term collection is also used in other contexts. However, Collections of the type described above are normally but not always handled subject to the applicable ICC Uniform Rules for Collections - URC in force (currently ICC Publication 522).

**Standby Letters of Credit.** Unlike Documentary Credits, Standby Letters of Credit are default instruments which are sometimes issued instead of a guarantee. They may be issued subject to the applicable ICC rules in force, currently either UCP 600 or International Standby Practices (ISP 98), but may also contain specific exemption wording.

**Discounting.** A bank may discount a bill of exchange or a deferred payment undertaking, paying less than the face value of the bill/documents to the payee or trade creditor for the privilege of receiving the funds prior to the specified date. The trade debtor may not be informed of the sale and the trade creditor may continue to be responsible for collecting the debt on behalf of the discounter.

**Negotiation.** This term has a variety of meanings dependent on the jurisdiction/territory in which it is being used but for the purposes of UCP 600 means "the purchase by the nominated bank of drafts (drawn on a bank other than the nominated bank) and/or documents under a complying presentation, by advancing or agreeing to advance funds to the beneficiary on or before the banking day on which reimbursement is due to the nominated bank".

**Forfaiting.** This is a financing mechanism traditionally designed for use by trade creditors who export goods. Forfaiting, however, may also involve the direct provision of finance to importers and the provision of working capital by credit institutions for the purposes of funding trade transactions in their countries. The trade creditor or exporter sells evidence of a debt, usually a promissory note issued by the importer or a bill of exchange accepted by the importer or proceeds due under a Letter of Credit such proceeds being assigned by the exporter. The sale is normally made without recourse to the trade creditor/exporter in which case the person buying the debt will usually require the importer's payment obligations to be guaranteed by a bank (avalised).
ANNEX 15-II

The Process for a Confirmed Documentary Credit payable at sight at the counters of the nominated bank

Stage 1

Basic Documentary Credit Procedure

The documentary credit procedure involves the step-by-step exchange of documents required by the credit, for either cash or a contracted promise to pay at a later time. There are four basic groupings of steps in the procedure: (a) Issuance; (b) Amendment, if any; (c) Utilisation; and (d) Settlement. A simplified example follows:

(a) Issuance

Issuance describes the process of the buyer's applying for and the issuing bank opening a documentary credit and the issuing bank's formal notification of the seller either directly or through an advising bank.

(1) Contract – The Buyer and Seller agree on the terms of sale: (a) specifying a documentary credit as the means of payment, (b) naming an advising bank (usually the Seller's bank), and (c) listing required documents. The naming of an Advising Bank may be done by the buyer or may be chosen by the issuing bank based on its correspondent network.

(2) Issue Credit – The Buyer applies to his bank (Issuing Bank) and the issuing bank opens a documentary credit naming the Seller as beneficiary based on specific terms and conditions that are listed in the credit.

(3) Documentary Credit – The Issuing Bank sends the documentary credit either directly or through an advising bank named in the credit. An advising bank may act as a bank nominated to pay or negotiate (nominated bank) under the credit or act as a confirming bank where it adds its undertaking to the credit in addition to that of the issuing bank. Only in those cases where an advising bank is not nominated to negotiate or confirm the credit is the role of that bank simply an advising bank.

(4) Credit Advice - The advising, nominating or confirming bank informs (advises) the seller of the documentary credit.
(b) Amendment

Amendment describes the process whereby the terms and conditions of a documentary credit may be modified after the credit has been issued.

When the seller receives the documentary credit, it may disagree with the terms and conditions (e.g. the transaction price listed in the credit may be lower than the originally agreed upon price) or may be unable to meet specific requirements of the credit (e.g. the time may be too short to effect shipment).

If the seller wants to amend the terms prior to transacting, the seller can request these from the buyer. It is at the discretion of the buyer to adopt the proposed amendments and request an amendment to be issued by the issuing bank. An amended letter of credit would be issued by the issuing bank to the seller through the same channel as the original documentary letter of credit.

Amendments to a letter of credit require the agreement of the issuing bank, confirming bank (if any), and the beneficiary to become effective.

(c) Utilisation

Utilisation describes the procedure for the seller's shipping of the goods, the transfer of documents from the seller to the buyer through the banks (presentation), and the transfer of the payment from the buyer to the seller through the banks (settlement). For example:

(5) Seller ships goods – The seller (beneficiary) ships the goods to the buyer and obtains the documents required by the letter of credit.

(6) Seller presents documents to Advising or Confirming Bank or directly to the Issuing Bank – The seller prepares and presents a document package to his bank (the advising or confirming bank) consisting of (a) the transport document if required by the credit, and (b) other documents (e.g. commercial invoice, insurance document, certificate of origin, inspection certificate, etc.) as required by the documentary credit.
(7) Nominated or Confirming Bank reviews documents and pays Seller - The nominating or confirming bank (a) reviews the documents making certain the documents are in conformity with the terms of the credit and (b) pays the seller (based upon the terms of the credit) which may mean that payment does not occur until after (5). An advising bank does not normally examine the documents, but simply forwards them on to the confirming or issuing bank for their examination.

(8) Advising, Nominated or Confirming Bank transfers documents to Issuing Bank – The Advising, Nominated or Confirming bank sends the documentation by mail or courier to the issuing bank.

(9) Issuing Bank reviews documents and reimburses the Nominated or Confirming Bank or makes payment to the beneficiary through the Advising Bank – The Issuing Bank (a) reviews the documents making certain the documents are in conformity with the terms of the credit, under advice to the Buyer that the documents have arrived, and (b) pays the beneficiary through the advising bank or reimburses the nominated or confirming bank (based upon the terms of the credit) and,

(10) Buyer reimburses the Issuing Bank – The Buyer immediately reimburses the amount paid by the issuing bank or is granted a credit by the issuing bank allowing it to reimburse the issuing bank at a later date.

(11) Buyer receives documents and access to goods – The Issuing Bank sends the documents by mail or courier to the buyer who then takes possession of the shipment.

(d) Settlement

The form of payment is specified in the original credit, and must therefore be accepted by the seller. The following are common settlement methods:

- The Sight Credit (Settlement by Payment) – In a sight credit, the value of the credit is available to the exporter as soon as the terms and conditions of the credit have been met (as soon as the prescribed document package has been presented to and checked by the issuing, nominated or confirming bank and found to be conforming to the terms and conditions of the credit) or once the advising bank has received the funds from the issuing bank (unconfirmed). Payment may be affected (sic) directly by the nominated bank or confirming bank upon their examination of the documents and they are reimbursed for that payment by the issuing bank.

- The Usance Credit (Settlement by Acceptance) – In a Usance Credit, the beneficiary presents the required document package to the bank along with a time draft drawn on the issuing, nominated or confirming bank, or a third bank for the value of the credit. Once the documents have been found to be in order, the draft is accepted by the bank upon which it is drawn (the draft is now called an acceptance) and it may be returned to the seller who holds it until maturity.

- The Deferred Payment Credit - In a deferred payment credit the issuing bank and/or the nominated or confirming bank accepts the documents and pays the beneficiary after a set period of time. The issuing, nominated or confirming bank makes the payment at the specified time, when the terms and conditions of the credit have been met.

- Negotiation is the term used where a bank other than the issuing bank agrees to advance funds or discount drafts to the exporter before the issuing bank has paid. Discounting an accepted draft has the same effect.

A letter of credit will normally require the presentation of several documents including a Draft, Commercial Invoice, Transport Document, Insurance Document, Certificates of Origin and Inspection, Packing and Weight Lists.
The documentary collection procedure involves the step-by-step exchange of documents giving title to goods for either cash or a contracted promise to pay at a later time.

Contract for the purchase and sale of goods – The Buyer and Seller agree on the terms of sale of goods: (a) specifying a documentary collection as the means of payment, (b) naming a Collecting Bank (usually the buyer's bank), and (c) listing required documents.

1. **Seller ships the goods** – The Seller ships the goods to the Buyer and obtains a transport document from the shipping firm/agent. Various types of transport documents (which may or may not be negotiable) are used in international trade and only where required by the underlying transaction is a negotiable document used.

2. **Seller presents documents to Remitting Bank** – The Seller prepares and presents a document package to his bank (the Remitting Bank) consisting of: (a) a collection order specifying the terms and conditions under which the bank is to hand over documents to the Buyer and receive payment, and (b) other documents (e.g. transport document, insurance document, certificate of origin, inspection certificate, etc.) as required by the buyer.

3. **Remitting Bank sends documents to Collecting Bank** – The Remitting Bank sends the documentation package by mail or by courier to the Collecting Bank in the Buyer's country with instructions to present them to the Buyer and collect payment.

4. **The Collecting Bank reviews and provides documents to Buyer** – The Collecting Bank (a) reviews the documents making sure they appear to be as described in the collection order, (b) notifies the Buyer about the terms and conditions of the collection order, and (c) releases the documents once the payment or acceptance conditions have been met. Acceptances under documentary collections are known as “Trade Acceptances” which, when accepted (by the Buyer), only carry the obligation of the buyer as opposed to a “Bankers Acceptance” commonly used under a letter of credit which carries the obligation of a bank.
(5) **Buyer provides payment to Collecting Bank** – The Buyer (a) makes a cash payment, or if the collection order allows, signs an acceptance (promise of the Buyer to pay at a future date) and (b) receives the documents and takes possession of the shipment.

(6) **Collecting Bank provides payment to Remitting Bank** – The Collecting Bank pays the Remitting Bank either with an immediate payment or, at the maturity date of the accepted bill of exchange if it receives payment from the Buyer.

(7) **The Remitting Bank pays the Seller.**
Proliferation financing - the relevant legal and regulatory obligations

1. The system of international and national counter-proliferation controls includes a framework of treaties and United Nations (UN) Resolutions, in particular UNSCR 1540 (2004), which ‘universalised’ export controls that were previously implemented mainly on a voluntary and national basis.

Extract from Security Council Resolution 1540:

3 Decides also that all States shall take and enforce effective measures to establish domestic controls to prevent the proliferation of nuclear, chemical, or biological weapons and their means of delivery, including by establishing appropriate controls over related materials and to this end shall: ...

(d) Establish, develop, review and maintain ... ... controls on providing funds and services related to such export and trans-shipment such as financing, ... ...

General obligations: export controls versus financial controls

2. The general obligation on member states is to prevent the activities that UNSCR 1540 describes. Although UNSCR 1540 primarily requires implementation of export controls and does not specifically require states to establish an asset freezing regime, some jurisdictions have implemented national targeted financial sanctions as a route to meet finance-related obligations under UNSCR 1540.

3. Export controls are the primary counter-proliferation safeguard because:

- International regimes determine the nature of controlled goods - including dual-use goods
- Controlled goods require export licences from national authorities
- Licences are issued for specific end-users

4. The FATF has studied the specificities and functioning of export controls and the characteristics of international finance. It concluded that financial measures can supplement, but are not a substitute for effective export controls. This is in line with their Proliferation Financing Report, which concluded that financial measures could help in overall counter-proliferation efforts, but the benefit of these measures will be very limited if traditional counter-proliferation measures are not effectively implemented and enforced. Export controls are focused on preventing the illegal transfer of proliferation-sensitive goods and may affect financial activity as a secondary effect. Financial measures can reinforce export controls by addressing aspects of an illegal transfer of proliferation-sensitive goods that take place outside the jurisdiction of the country where the illegal export has occurred, such as the financial activities of the associated front company or end-user located in a second jurisdiction.

5. The FATF Proliferation Financing Report sets out the key features and organisations involved in export control.

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25 Proliferation Financing Report, paragraph 160.
26 Proliferation Financing Report, paragraphs 115-122 and Annexes 4, 5 and 6.
Obligations in relation to financial controls

UNSCR

6. UN Security Council resolutions are addressed to member states, requiring them to take specific actions as regards the subject matter. They therefore do not in themselves directly impose obligations on firms. Member states are required to introduce domestic controls to prevent proliferation [1540(2004)] and specifically to take actions in relation to Iran [1737(2006), 1747(2007), 1803(2008) and 1929(2010)] and North Korea [1874(2009)].

EU

7. The EU has adopted a number of Regulations that have direct effect in the UK. For example:

- 961/2010 on Iran (which repealed 423/2007)
- 1283/2009 on North Korea

8. Regulation 423/2007 implemented the vigilance requirements in UNSCR 1803 in the European Union. UNSCR 1803 was adopted on 3 March 2008 because of the international community’s serious ongoing concerns about Iran’s nuclear development programme.

9. UNSCR 1803 calls upon all states to exercise vigilance over the activities of financial institutions in their territories with all banks domiciled in Iran and their branches and subsidiaries abroad, in particular with Bank Melli and Bank Saderat, in order to avoid such activities contributing to the proliferation-sensitive nuclear activities or the development of nuclear-weapon delivery systems referred to in UNSCR 1737.


11. Regulation 961/2010 sets out restrictions on the transfers of funds to and from an Iranian person, entity or body, and how transfers shall be processed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transfer value</th>
<th>Requirements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>€10,000 or less</td>
<td>No requirements. These can be made as normal unless there are a series of transactions below €10,000 that appear to be linked. If this is the case, they should be notified to a competent authority.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than €10,000 but less than €40,000</td>
<td>Must be notified in advance to a competent authority, whatever the transaction is for.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>€40,000 or above</td>
<td>If they relate to foodstuffs, healthcare, medical equipment or humanitarian purposes, they must be notified in advance to a competent authority. They do not require prior authorisation from a competent authority.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
If they are for any other purpose, they must be **submitted to a competent authority in advance for authorisation**. They cannot be undertaken without prior authorisation.

12. Article 23 of Regulation 961/2010 requires credit and financial institutions, in their activities with listed entities, to:

   a) exercise continuous vigilance over account activity particularly through their programmes on customer due diligence and under their obligations relating to money-laundering and financing of terrorism;

   b) require that in payment instructions all information fields which relate to the originator and beneficiary of the transaction in question be completed; and if that information is not supplied, refuse the transaction;

   c) maintain all records of transactions for a period of five years and make them available to national authorities on request; and

   d) if they suspect or have reasonable grounds to suspect that funds are related to proliferation financing, promptly submit a proliferation finance report to SOCA using the SAR format and process (see Part I, Chapter 6). In relation to the practical implementation of (b) above, Article 11a (1) (b) applies only to the payment remitting financial institution and the paying financial institution; it does not apply to intermediary financial institutions.


14. Regulation 961/2010 further widened the scope of the restrictive measures imposed under previous UN Security Council Resolutions, and introduced additional restrictive measures against Iran. Regulation 961/2010 extends the obligation to freeze funds of certain specified Iranian banks to include the funds of a range of persons, entities and bodies identified as involved in nuclear or ballistic missiles activity. These lists, at Annexes VII and VIII to Regulation 961/2010, includes all Iranian banks established in the UK.


   **UK**

16. The Iran (Financial Sanctions) Order 2007 (SI 2007/281) gives effect in the UK to the provisions of UNSCR 1737(2006). Under the Resolution, various persons are designated in an Annex and the Security Council and a committee of the Security Council (the “Committee”) can designate further persons. Member states are required to take measures in respect of any designated person and any person or entity acting on his behalf or at his direction, or by entities owned or controlled by him. The measures include the freezing of funds, financial assets and economic resources of such persons and ensuring that any funds, financial assets and economic resources are not made available to them or for their benefit. The Security Council and the Committee can designate persons who are engaged in, directly associated with or providing support for Iran’s proliferation-sensitive nuclear activities or the development of nuclear weapons delivery systems. The 2007 Order provides that the persons designated in the Annex to the Resolution, by the Security
Council, the Committee or the Treasury are designated persons for the purposes of the 2007 Order. The 2007 Order prohibits any dealing with funds, financial assets and economic resources of designated persons, or making funds, financial assets or economic resources available to designated persons. The 2007 Order makes it a criminal offence to contravene this prohibition.

17. In a similar way, the Iran (European Communities Financial Sanctions) Regulations 2007 (SI 2007/1374) provide for breaches of prohibitions which relate to certain financial sanctions set out in EU Regulation 423/2007 (as amended), and certain other acts and omissions, to be criminal offences. The UK Regulations also give HM Treasury the power to designate persons in addition to those listed under the EU Regulation.

18. In addition, the Counter-Terrorism Act 2008 gives HM Treasury powers, in response to terrorist or proliferation finance threats; to direct firms to carry out

- Enhanced due diligence
- Systematic reporting
- Limit or cease business

19. The Financial Restrictions (Iran) Order 2009 (SI 2009/2725), made under the Counter-Terrorism Act 2008, contains a direction requiring the UK financial services sector to cease all business with the Iranian Bank Mellat and the Islamic Republic of Iran Shipping Lines. The Treasury is satisfied, as required by the Act, that activity in Iran that facilitates the development or production of nuclear weapons poses a significant risk to the national interests of the UK. This means that from 12 October 2009, financial and credit institutions are no longer able to enter into new transactions or business relationships with these entities, nor to continue with existing transactions or business relationships, unless they are licensed by HM Treasury.

20. Guidance on complying with directions issued under the CTA is given in Part III, section 5.
Proliferators abuse typical trade structures to facilitate their activities, which include supporters, financiers, logistical support, front companies, assets, shippers and facilitators. Entities that are knowingly engaged in proliferation, such as a front company, may also be involved in legitimate business. Other actors used by a network may knowingly support proliferation, be “wilfully blind” that they are being used for illicit purposes, or are truly unwitting actors. When an entity is engaged in both legitimate and illicit trade it may be less likely for financial institutions to suspect illegal activity.

**Front and Other Companies**

In individual cases, proliferation networks have employed companies to conceal the true end-use or end-user of traded goods. Most front companies are sensitive to public exposure and disruption of legitimate activities.

Front companies established by proliferators conduct transactions similar to those of companies engaged in legitimate business. Front companies used by proliferators may be similar to those established by money launderers. As is the practice of other criminal organisations, proliferators create companies for a seemingly legitimate commercial purpose and commingle illegal funds with funds generated by legal commercial activity. In some cases, front companies established by proliferators do not engage in any legal activity at all. Front companies may use fraudulent accounting practices and establish various offshore entities in jurisdictions with lax controls to disguise illegal operations. Proliferators are also known to change the names of front companies, or to use multiple names for the same front company, to prevent the detection of the companies’ association with proliferation – or other illicit activity.

Front companies used by proliferators are often located in a major trading hub of a foreign jurisdiction with lax export controls, but may also be found in jurisdictions with more established controls. They can be shell corporations with a fictitious business and physical location or can have normal commercial and industrial operations.

Front companies can arrange shipping services, routing or re-routing goods acquired by the importer or its intermediary. The same and/or additional companies can also be located in jurisdictions with weak financial controls, enabling related financial transactions to settle the underlying trade without detection.

In exceptional cases, front companies may seek complicity within a particular jurisdiction’s government for signoff by national authorities, by production of false cargo manifests to misdirect customs, law enforcement, and intelligence as to the true nature of the goods being exported and their end-use.

**Brokers**

Brokers are involved in the negotiation or arrangement of transactions that may involve the transfer of items (often between third countries) or who buy, sell or arrange the transfer of such items that are in their ownership. In addition they may also become involved in ancillary activities that facilitate the movement of items such as, but not limited to: i) providing insurance; ii) marketing; iii) financing; and iv) transportation / logistics. Illicit brokers illegally participate in proliferation by circumventing existing controls and obfuscating trade activities.

Brokers used by proliferation networks are often individuals relying on simple commercial structures, who are very mobile (financially and geographically) so that they can operate from any jurisdiction.
Other Intermediaries

Intermediaries may include companies and individuals that purchase or sell sensitive goods for further manufacture or redistribution. Intermediaries may have a particular knowledge of a jurisdiction’s commercial infrastructure. Intermediaries that are knowingly engaged in proliferation will use this knowledge to exploit vulnerabilities in export control systems to the advantage of the proliferator.

Financial Institutions

Proliferation networks may use financial institutions to hold and transfer funds, settle trade and pay for services. Proliferation networks may use both private and public financial institutions for international transactions. States seeking to acquire WMDs may also use foreign branches and subsidiaries of state-owned banks for proliferation finance-related activities, giving these institutions the responsibility of managing funds and making and receiving payments associated with proliferation-related procurement or other transactions. These subsidiaries may be engaged in both legitimate and illegitimate transactions.
ANNEX 15-V

FATF's Trade-Based Money Laundering "Red Flag" Indicators

The respondents to the FATF project team's questionnaire reported a number of red flag indicators that are routinely used to identify trade-based money laundering activities. These include situations in which:

- Significant discrepancies appear between the description of the commodity on the bill of lading and the invoice.
- Significant discrepancies appear between the description of the goods on the bill of lading (or invoice) and the actual goods shipped.
- The size of the shipment appears inconsistent with the scale of the exporter's or importer's regular business activities.
- The type of commodity being shipped is designated as "high risk" for money laundering.*
- The type of commodity being shipped appears inconsistent with the exporter's or importer's regular business activities.
- The shipment does not make economic sense,**
- The commodity is shipped to (or from) a jurisdiction designated as "high risk" for money laundering activities.
- The commodity is transhipped through one or more jurisdictions for no apparent economic reason.
- The method of payment appears inconsistent with the risk characteristics of the transaction.***
- The transaction involves the receipt of cash (or other payments) from third party entities that have no apparent connection with the transaction.
- The transaction involves the use of repeatedly amended or frequently extended letters of credit; and
- The transaction involves the use of front (or shell) companies.

[Customs agencies make use of more targeted information that relates to specific exporting, importing or shipping companies. In addition, red flag indicators that are used to detect other methods of money laundering could be useful in identifying potential trade-based money laundering cases.]

* For example, high-value, low volume goods (e.g. consumer electronics), which have high turnover rates and present valuation difficulties.
** For example, the use of a forty-foot container to transport a small amount of relatively low-value goods.
*** For example, the use of an advance payment for a shipment from a new supplier in a high-risk country.
ANNEX 15-VI

Proliferation financing - Risk assessment of customers and products

1. The purpose of a risk-based approach is not the elimination of risk but rather that firms involved in high risk activity understand the risks they face and have the appropriate policies, procedures and processes in place to manage such risk. Equally, even reasonably applied controls will not identify and detect all instances of proliferation.

2. It would be impractical for firms to be expected to develop a dedicated risk-assessment framework for assessing proliferation financing risks alone. It would be more proportionate to include proliferation considerations alongside the wider determination of risks factors. Moreover, established mechanisms to conduct risk assessment and to identify suspicious activity of wider criminal activity are, in many cases, likely to be applicable to proliferation considerations.

3. The application of a risk-based approach to proliferation financing has both similarities to, and differences from, money laundering. They both require a process for identifying and assessing risk, but the characteristics of proliferation financing – including the limited availability of accessible information to determine risk – result in a more restricted scope for the application of risk-based measures. In acknowledgement of such limitations this guidance seeks to identify potential areas where risk-based decisions could be applied in the area of proliferation financing.

4. Clearly, in some circumstances a risk-based approach will not apply, will be limited, or will be determined by the parameters set by international obligations, national law or regulation. Where particular individuals, organisations or countries are subject to proliferation sanctions, the obligations on firms to comply with certain actions are determined exclusively by national authorities and are therefore not a function of risk. A risk-based approach may, however, be appropriate for the purpose of identifying evasion of sanctions, for example, by directing resources to those areas identified as higher risk.

5. The inclusion of proliferation financing within current risk assessment practices should be proportionate to the overall proliferation risk associated with the activities undertaken by the firm. For example, a firm operating internationally and/or with an international client base will generally be expected to assess a wider range of risks, including proliferation, than a smaller, domestically-focused one.

6. In the application of a risk-based approach, measures and controls implemented by firms may often address more than one identified risk, and it is not necessary that a firm introduce specific controls for each risk. For instance, risks associated with proliferation financing are likely to sit alongside other country, customer and product risks. Additional information that may be useful could include further information on the parties to a transaction, source of funds, beneficial ownership of the counterparty and purpose of the transactions or payment.

Country/geographic risk

7. The most immediate indicator in determining risk will be whether a country is subject to a relevant UN sanction (i.e. Democratic People's Republic of Korea (DPRK), Iran); in these instances some element of mandatory legal obligation will be present, along with risks related to sanctions evasion by sanctioned entities, and proliferation financing by unsanctioned entities. Depending on the extent of risk assessment and business conducted, other factors that may be considered could include:

- Countries with weak or non-existent export controls (the FATF Proliferation Financing report noted that only 80 jurisdictions have any exports controls related to WMD). Individual country...
compliance with export control obligations are not, however, currently published. In the absence of such information, firms will not be in a position to make an informed assessment and therefore will not be in a position to utilise this indicator. If, however, such information became forthcoming – either at an international or individual government level – it could provide an additional factor that could potentially inform country risk assessment.

**Customer risk**

8. Any assessment of the risks that a customer may pose will be underpinned by customer take-on procedures and developed further by ongoing monitoring. Specific categories of customer whose activities may indicate a higher proliferation financing risk could include:

- Those on national lists concerning high-risk entities. For example, the UK’s Iran End Users list identifies over 100 entities that may potentially pose a proliferation concern. Importantly, such types of lists are not embargo lists, but rather they highlight entities which pose an elevated concern.

- Whether the customer is a military or research body connected with a high-risk jurisdiction of proliferation concern.

- Whether the customer is involved in the supply, purchase or sale of dual-use and sensitive goods. Firms rely on export control regimes and customs authorities to police the activities of exporters who are their customers. Among others, export control authorities and customs authorities ensure that licensing requirements for dual-use goods have been met. Therefore, the fact that a customer is involved in the supply, purchase or sale of dual-use goods is, of itself, not an indicator for a firm; this would result in a disproportionately large number of trading companies falling into this category. However, a wide range of industrial items and materials can assist WMD programmes and would-be proliferators. The most critical items normally appear on national strategic export control lists, although screening against controlled goods lists is not a practical solution for firms. The involvement in the supply, purchase or sale of dual-use goods may therefore be of some relevance if other risk factors have first been identified.

9. Mitigating factors should also be considered, for example whether the customer is itself aware of proliferation risks and has systems and processes to ensure its compliance with export control obligations.

**Product and Service Risks**

10. Determining the risk of products and services may include a consideration of factors such as:

- Delivery of services to certain entities i.e. correspondent banking to Iranian institutions identified in EU Regulation 1110/2008 or correspondent banking to countries subject to relevant UN Sanctions.

- Project financing of sensitive industries in high-risk jurisdictions.

- Trade finance services and transactions involving high-risk jurisdictions.

11. As is the case with anti-money laundering, any assessment of risk will need to take account of a number of variables specific to a particular customer or transaction. This will include duration of relationship, purpose of relationship and overall transparency of relationship and/or corporate structure. It would be disproportionate to assess a stable, known customer who has been identified

as involved in the supply, purchase or sale of dual-use and sensitive goods as either moderate or high-risk for that reason alone. However, the overall assessment of risk may increase with the presence of other factors i.e., delivering high volumes of dual-use or sensitive goods to a high-risk country/complicated corporate structures/the type and nature of principal parties engaged in the transaction. Consideration of these risks, including customer-specific information, and mitigating factors, will enable a firm to reach a graduated understanding of the degree of proliferation finance risk a particular customer poses.

12. Interpretation of “dual-use” requires a degree of technical knowledge that letter of credit document checkers cannot be expected to possess. In addition, the description of the goods may appear in the documents using a wording which does not allow the identification of such goods as “dual-use”. Regardless of the details in the information sources, however, without the necessary technical qualifications and knowledge across a wide range of products and goods, the ability of a firm to understand the varying applications of dual-use goods will be virtually impossible. It would be impracticable for firms to employ departments of specialists for this purpose.

13. Firms may nevertheless refer to sources of information that may be relevant to assessing the risk that particular goods may be ‘dual-use’, or otherwise subject to restrictions on their movement. For example, there are public resources (such as the EC’s TARIC database) that can indicate which restrictions might apply to exports from the EU with specific tariff codes: it will show where trade in some types of good under that category might be licensable or prohibited. Exporters must already provide tariff codes to the customs authorities (who use them to calculate the tax levied on the trade), so should be able to provide them to their banks, insurers and their agents. These can be used to identify transactions that might present higher risk or require further due diligence checks, particularly in situations where the risks are perceived to be higher). For example, have issuing banks, applicants or beneficiaries of letters of credit, or freight companies and shipping lines moving the goods, been highlighted by national authorities as being of concern? (This information will often be recorded on commercially-available due diligence tools). Does the trade involve jurisdictions previously implicated in proliferation activity?

14. UK exporters seeking to send goods to countries subject to trade restrictions may also be in contact with the Export Control Organisation of the Department for Business Innovation and Skills to clarify whether their shipments will be affected. A firm financing trade with such countries may inquire whether such correspondence has been entered into, particularly if it appears that the goods in question may require an export licence.

15. The Export Control Organisation provided additional guidance in a letter addressed to the British Bankers’ Association in June 2011. An extract from the guidance received is as follows:

The basic rules

As of 6th June 2011, we are no longer offering the 'Rating Enquiry Service'. Instead, we are now providing two new distinct advice services, namely

- the 'Control List Classification Advice Service' and
- the 'End User Advice Service', now extended beyond Iran to cover all countries except EU Members States, Australia, Iceland, Norway, Japan and United States of America.

The logic of this is primarily to ensure that the many exporters who are fully aware that their goods do not feature on any control lists (and will therefore only be prevented from export on the basis of WMD concerns) can swiftly obtain the WMD end user advice they need rather than having to go through the full technical rating process every time. Under the new system, an exporter on making a new ‘Control List Classification’ enquiry about their goods, software or
technology, will either be told that their goods are controlled and a licence needed, or will receive a ‘Not Listed’ outcome letter; advice which they can retain to avoid having to make repeat enquiries. Exporters with “Not Listed” advice can then ask us about the end user(s) of any future exports by making an ‘End User Advice’ enquiry and will either be told that they need to apply for a licence on the basis of WMD concerns, or receive a ‘No concerns’ outcome letter. Please see the enclosed ‘Notice to Exporters’ from our website for more information:-


Implications for banks

ECO will deal with any Rating Enquiries that were submitted before 31st May 2011 and will be finalising a backlog of Rating Enquiries over the coming weeks. So whilst some of the traditional Rating letters will continue to be issued, they will increasingly be superseded by the new advice. As a result, where banks see a need to confirm that exports do not cause governmental concern, they can, under the new system, reasonably ask exporters to provide either:

i. a valid export licence; or

ii. a ‘Not Listed’ letter from the Control List Classification Advice Service accompanied by a ‘No concerns’ letter from the End User Advice Service confirming that there are no WMD concerns relating to the proposed recipient of the export

If exporters are not able initially to provide either of the above, then banks should first ask them to confirm that they have taken appropriate steps to confirm that their goods are ‘not listed’. If exporters are unclear about whether their goods are listed, they will need to first ascertain this before approaching the End User Advice Service. They can do this by consulting the ECO website as above, using an outside consultant, or by making a Control List Classification enquiry. All these methods are equally valid and exporters should not be encouraged to make a Control List Classification enquiry on the basis that it is more authoritative. When exporters have established that their goods are not listed, they should then apply for advice under the End User Advice Service as above and furnish the positive response to the bank when they receive it.

It is of course entirely understandable that banks should seek reassurance about the business they are supporting when it involves high risk destinations where WMD issues come into play. ECO fully supports you in that endeavour, our concern is simply to ensure that you seek the right evidence to reflect the new systems and thus gain that reassurance in the most appropriate and effective way.

The ECO’s Helpline contact details are 020 7215 4594 or eco.help@bis.gsi.gov.uk

For more information on export controls, see http://www.businesslink.gov.uk/exportcontrol or http://www.bis.gov.uk/exportcontrol.
16: Correspondent banking

**Overview of the sector**

16.1 For the purposes of this guidance, correspondent banking is defined as the provision of banking-related services by one bank (Correspondent) to an overseas bank (Respondent) to enable the Respondent to provide its own customers with cross-border products and services that it cannot provide them with itself, typically due to a lack of an international network.

16.2 Correspondent banking activity can include establishing accounts, exchanging methods of authentication of instructions (e.g. by exchanging SWIFT or telex test keys and/or authorised signatures) and providing payment or other clearing-related services. A correspondent relationship can be based solely on the exchange of test keys, with cover for direct payment instructions being arranged through a third bank for credit to the Correspondent’s/Respondent’s own account in another jurisdiction. Activity can also encompass trade-related business and treasury/money market activities, for which the transactions can be settled through the correspondent relationship. The scope of a relationship and extent of products and services supplied will vary according to the needs of the Respondent, and the Correspondent’s ability and willingness to supply them. Credit, operational and reputational risks also need to be considered.

16.3 A Correspondent is effectively an agent (intermediary) for the Respondent and executes/processes payments or other transactions for customers of the Respondent. The underlying customers may be individuals, corporates or even other financial services firms. Beneficiaries of transactions can be customers of the Correspondent, the Respondent itself or, in many cases, customers of other banks.

**What are the money laundering risks in correspondent banking?**

16.4 The Correspondent often has no direct relationship with the underlying parties to a transaction and is therefore not in a position to verify their identities. Correspondents often have limited information regarding the nature or purpose of the underlying transactions, particularly when processing electronic payments (wire transfers – see Part 1, paragraph 5.2.10 - 5.2.13) or clearing cheques. For these reasons, correspondent banking is in the main non face-to-face business and must be regarded as high risk from a money laundering and/or terrorist financing perspective. Firms undertaking such business are required by the ML Regulations (Regulation 10) “to apply on a risk-sensitive basis enhanced customer due diligence measures”. These requirements are addressed in this guidance.

16.5 Correspondent banking relationships, if poorly controlled, can allow other financial services firms with inadequate AML/CTF systems and controls, and customers of those firms, direct access to international banking systems.
16.6 A Correspondent handling transactions which represent the proceeds of criminal activity or terrorist financing risks regulatory fines and/or damage to its reputation.

**How to assess the elements of risk in correspondent banking**

16.7 For any Correspondent, the highest risk Respondents are those that:

- are offshore banks that are limited to conducting business with non residents or in non local currency, and are not subject to robust supervision of their AML/CTF controls; or
- are domiciled in jurisdictions with weak regulatory/AML/CTF controls or other significant reputational risk factors e.g., corruption.

16.8 Correspondents must not maintain relationships with Respondents that are shell banks (see Part I, paragraphs 5.3.65 – 5.3.67) nor any Respondent which provides banking services to shell banks.

16.9 Enhanced customer due diligence (see Part I, section 5.5) must be undertaken on Respondents (and/or third parties authorised exceptionally to provide instructions to the Correspondent e.g., other entities within a Respondent group) using a risk-based approach. The following risk indicators should be considered both when initiating a relationship, and on a continuing basis thereafter, to determine the levels of risk-based due diligence that should be undertaken:

**The Respondent’s domicile.** The jurisdiction where the Respondent is based and/or where its ultimate parent is headquartered may present greater risk (or may mitigate the risk, depending on the circumstances). Certain jurisdictions are recognised internationally as having inadequate anti-money laundering standards, insufficient regulatory supervision, or presenting greater risk for crime, corruption or terrorist financing. Other jurisdictions, however, such as many members of the Financial Action Task Force (FATF), have more robust regulatory environments, representing lower risks. Correspondents should review pronouncements from regulatory agencies and international bodies such as the FATF, to evaluate the degree of risk presented by the jurisdiction in which the Respondent and/or its parent are based.

**The Respondent's ownership and management structures.** The location of owners, their corporate legal form and/or a lack of transparency of the ultimate beneficial ownership are indicative of the risk the Respondent presents. Account should be taken of whether the Respondent is publicly or privately owned; if publicly held, whether its shares are traded on a recognised market or exchange in a jurisdiction with a satisfactory regulatory regime, or, if privately owned, the identity of any beneficial owners and controllers. Similarly, the location and experience of management may indicate additional concerns, as would unduly frequent management turnover. The involvement of PEPs in the management or ownership of certain Respondents may also increase the risk.

**The Respondent’s business and customer base.** The type of business the Respondent engages in, as well as the type of markets it serves, is indicative of the risk the Respondent presents. Involvement in certain business segments that are recognised internationally as particularly vulnerable to money laundering, corruption or terrorist financing, may present additional concern. Consequently, a Respondent that derives a substantial part of its business income from higher risk customers may present greater risk. Higher risk customers are those customers that may be involved in activities, or are connected to jurisdictions, that are identified by credible sources as
activities or countries being especially susceptible of money laundering/terrorist financing or corruption.

- **Downstream Correspondent Clearing.** A Downstream Correspondent Clearer is a Respondent that receives correspondent banking services from a Correspondent and itself provides correspondent banking services to other financial institutions in the same currency as the account it maintains with its Correspondent. When these services are offered to a Respondent that is itself a Downstream Correspondent Clearer, a Correspondent should, on a risk-based approach, take reasonable steps to understand the types and risks of financial institutions to whom the Respondent offers such services, especial care being taken to ensure there are no shell bank customers, and consider the degree to which the Respondent examines the anti-money laundering/terrorist financing controls of those financial institutions.

**Customer due diligence**

16.10 All correspondent banking relationships with Respondents from non-EEA states must be subject to an appropriate level of due diligence which as a minimum meets the requirements laid down in Regulation 14 (3) of the ML Regulations and additionally will ensure that a Correspondent is comfortable conducting business with/for a particular Respondent (and hence its underlying customers) given the Respondent’s risk profile. It may be appropriate for a Correspondent to take some comfort from the fact that a Respondent domiciled in or operating in a regulatory environment that is recognised internationally as adequate in the fight against money laundering/terrorist financing and corruption. In these instances, a Correspondent may choose to rely on publicly available information obtained either from the Respondent itself, another reputable existing Respondent, from other credible sources (e.g., regulators, exchanges), or from reputable information sources, to satisfy its due diligence requirements.

16.11 The extent of the correspondent relationship should be factored into the level of due diligence undertaken. A Correspondent, subject to its risk-based approach, may decide not to undertake more than the minimum level of due diligence set out in Regulation 14 (3) for limited correspondent relationships, such as the exchange of test keys.

16.12 The verification of identity of Respondents should be undertaken in accordance with Part I, Chapter 5. Their ownership structures should be ascertained and understood and, for those privately-owned Respondents where it is appropriate to identify significant owners and/or controllers (beneficial owners), the form of evidence and information gathered on such owners and controllers must be sufficient, on a cumulative basis, to confirm identity with reasonable certainty.

16.13 A Correspondent’s policies and procedures should require that the information, including due diligence, held relating to a Respondent is periodically reviewed and updated. The frequency of review should be tailored to the perceived risks, and updating should be undertaken as a result of trigger events e.g. an extension to the service/product range provided; a material change to the nature/scope of business undertaken by the Respondent; or as a result of significant changes to its legal constitution, or its owners or controllers or negative regulatory pronouncements and/or press coverage.

16.14 The level and scope of due diligence undertaken should take account of the relationship between the Respondent and its ultimate parent (if any). In general, for relationships maintained with branches, subsidiaries or affiliates, the status, reputation and controls of the parent entity should be considered in determining the extent of due diligence required on the Respondent. Where the Respondent is located in a high-risk jurisdiction, Correspondents may consider it appropriate to conduct additional due diligence on the Respondent as well.
as the parent. In instances when the Respondent is an affiliate that is not substantively and effectively controlled by the parent, then the quality of the affiliate’s AML/CTF controls should always be established.

16.15 The Correspondent in assessing the level of due diligence to be carried out in respect of a particular Respondent, (in addition to the issues raised in paragraph 16.9) must consider:

- **Regulatory status and history.** The primary regulatory body responsible for overseeing or supervising the Respondent and the quality of that supervision. If circumstances warrant, a Correspondent should also consider publicly available materials to ascertain whether the Respondent has been the subject of any criminal case or adverse regulatory action in the recent past.

- **AML/CTF controls.** A Correspondent should establish whether the Respondent is itself regulated for money laundering/terrorist financing prevention and, if so, whether the Respondent is required to verify the identity of its customers and apply other AML/CTF controls to FATF standards/equivalent to those laid down in the money laundering directive. Where this is not the case, additional due diligence should be undertaken to ascertain and assess the effectiveness of the Respondent’s internal policy on money laundering/terrorist financing prevention and its know your customer and activity monitoring controls and procedures. Where undertaking due diligence on a branch, subsidiary or affiliate, consideration may be given to the parent having robust group-wide controls, and whether the parent is regulated for money laundering/terrorist financing to FATF standards/equivalent to those laid down in the money laundering directive. If not, the extent to which the parent’s controls meet FATF standards/equivalent to those laid down in the money laundering directive and whether these are communicated and enforced ‘effectively’ throughout its network of international offices, should be ascertained.

- **Shell banks.** Whether the Respondent has confirmed that it will not provide banking services to or engage in business with, shell banks.

16.16 Prior to establishing a new correspondent relationship a person from senior management and independent from, the officer sponsoring the relationship must approve the setting up of the Respondent’s account. For higher risk relationships, the Correspondent’s compliance (or MLRO) function should also satisfy itself that the risks are acceptable.

**Enhanced due diligence**

16.17 Correspondents are required by Regulation 14(3) of the ML Regulations to subject Respondents from non-EEA States to enhanced customer due diligence, but should consider doing so whenever the Respondent has been considered to present a greater money laundering/terrorist financing risk. The enhanced due diligence process should involve further consideration of the following elements designed to ensure that the Correspondent has secured a greater level of understanding:

- **Respondent’s ownership and management.** For all beneficial owners and controllers, the sources of wealth and background, including their reputation in the market place, as well as recent material ownership changes (e.g. in the last three years). Similarly, a more detailed understanding of the experience of each member of executive management as well as recent material changes in the executive management structure (e.g., within the last three years).
• **Respondent’s business.** Gather sufficient information about the Respondent to understand fully the nature of its business. In addition, determine from publicly-available information the reputation of the Respondent and the quality of its supervision.

• **PEP involvement.** If a PEP (see Part I, paragraphs 5.5.18-5.5.30) appears to have a material interest or management role in a Respondent then the Correspondent should ensure it has an understanding of that person’s role in the Respondent.

• **Respondent’s anti-money laundering/terrorist financing controls.** An assessment of the quality of the Respondent’s AML/CTF and customer identification controls, including whether these controls meet internationally recognised standards. The extent to which a Correspondent should enquire will depend upon the perceived risks. Additionally, the Correspondent may wish to speak with representatives of the Respondent to obtain comfort that the Respondent’s senior management recognise the importance of anti-money laundering/terrorist financing controls.

• **Document the relationship.** Document the respective responsibilities of the Respondent and Correspondent.

• **Customers with direct access to accounts of the Correspondent.** Be satisfied that, in respect of these customers, the Respondent:
  (i) has verified the identity of, and performs ongoing due diligence on, such customers; and
  (ii) is able upon request to provide relevant customer due diligence data to the Correspondent.

### Monitoring

16.18 Implementing appropriate documented monitoring procedures can help mitigate the money laundering risks for firms undertaking correspondent banking activities. General guidance on monitoring is set out in Part 1, section 5.7.

16.19 The level of monitoring activity undertaken by a Correspondent on its Respondent’s activity through it should be commensurate with the risks posed by the Respondent. Due to the significant volumes that correspondent banking activity can entail, together with the need to work within prescribed scheme settlement deadlines, electronic and/or post-execution monitoring processes are often the norm.

16.20 The following possible techniques of monitoring activity combine to represent electronic monitoring good practice in the area of correspondent banking relationships:

- **Anomalies in behaviour**
  - Monitoring for sudden and/or significant changes in transaction activity by value or volume.

- **Hidden relationships**
  - Monitor for activity between accounts, customers (including Respondents and their underlying customers). Identify common beneficiaries and remitters or both amongst apparently unconnected accounts/Respondents. This is commonly known as link analysis.
High risk geographies and entities
- Monitoring for significant increases of activity or consistently high levels of activity with (to or from) higher risk geographies and/or entities.

Other money laundering behaviours
- Monitoring for activity that may, in the absence of other explanation, indicate possible money laundering, such as the structuring of transactions under reporting thresholds, or transactions in round amounts.

Other considerations
- In addition to the monitoring techniques above, the monitoring system employed to monitor correspondent banking for AML/CTF purposes should facilitate the ability to apply different thresholds against customers that are appropriate to their particular risk category.

Other monitoring activity

16.21 In addition to monitoring account/transaction activity, a Correspondent should monitor a Respondent for changes in its nature and status. As such, information about the Respondent collected during the customer acceptance and due diligence processes must be:

- Reviewed and updated on a periodic basis. (Periodic review of customers will occur on a risk-assessed basis), or
- Reviewed on an ad hoc basis as a result of changes to the customers information identified during normal business practices, or
- Reviewed when external factors result in a material change in the risk profile of the customer.

16.22 Where such changes are identified, the Respondent should be subject to a revised risk assessment, and a revision of their risk categorisation, as appropriate. Where, as a result of the review, the risk categorisation is altered (either up or down) a firm should ensure that the due diligence standards for the Respondent’s new risk categorisation are complied with, by updating the due diligence already held. In addition, the level of monitoring undertaken should be adjusted to that appropriate for the new risk category.

16.23 Firms should consider terminating the accounts of Respondents, and consider their obligation to report suspicious activity, for Respondents who fail to provide satisfactory answers to reasonable questions regarding transactions/activity passing through the correspondent relationship, including, where appropriate, the identity of their customers featuring in unusual or suspicious transactions or activities.

16.24 The firm will need to have a means of assessing that its risk mitigation procedures and controls are working effectively. In particular the firm will need to consider:

- Reviewing ways in which different services may be used for ML/TF purposes, and how these ways may change, supported by typologies/law enforcement feedback, etc;
- Adequacy of staff training and awareness;
- Capturing appropriate management information;
- Upward reporting and accountability; and
- Effectiveness of liaison with regulatory and law enforcement agencies.
Staff awareness, training and alertness

16.25 The firm must train staff on how correspondent banking transactions may be used for ML/TF and in the firm’s procedures for managing this risk. This training should be directed specifically at those staff directly involved in correspondent banking transactions and dealing with correspondent banking clients and should be tailored around the greater risks that this type of business represents. Whilst there is no single solution when determining how to deliver training, training of relationship management staff via workshops may well prove to be more successful than on-line learning or videos/CDs.
This sectoral guidance considers specific issues over and above the more general guidance set out in Part 1, Chapters 4, 5, and 7 which firms engaged in syndicated lending may want to take into account when considering applying a risk-based approach.

Overview of the sector

17.1 The syndicated loan market is an organised professional market, international in nature, providing much of the capital used by some of the largest companies in the world for a variety of purposes, ranging from working capital to acquisition financing. Banks and other financial institutions agree to make term loans and revolving credit loans to companies and may syndicate (offer on), or sell off, parts of their commitments to other banks, financial institutions or other entities. (In the case of structured trade finance transactions which may operate on a bilateral or syndicated basis, reference to Part II, Sector 15: Trade Finance should be made).

17.2 The following sets out the relationships that exist in loan syndications:

- **Borrower.** A corporate or other legal entity who seeks to borrow funds and/or arrange credit facilities through the international capital markets.

- **Mandated Lead Manager/Arranger/Bookrunner.** A mandated Lead Manager/Arranger/Bookrunner enters into an agreement to provide credit facilities to a borrower. By the very nature of this appointment, it is likely that the mandated Lead Manager/Arranger/Bookrunner will be a lender with which the Borrower already has an established relationship. A syndicated loan transaction typically may have one to four mandated Lead Managers/Arrangers/Bookrunners and many lenders. The Mandated Lead Manager/Arranger/Bookrunner normally is responsible for advising the Borrower as to the type of facilities it requires, negotiating the broad terms of those facilities and advising on roles, timetable and approach to the market. In some instances it will also underwrite the transaction.

- **Lenders.** The financial institutions that provide the funds that have been arranged for the Borrower by the Mandated Lead Manager/Arranger/Bookrunner.

- **Agent.** To facilitate the process of administering the loan an Agent is appointed. The Agent acts as the agent of the Lenders not of the Borrower, although it is the Borrower that pays the Agent's fees and charges. The Agent acts as an intermediary between the Borrower and the Lenders, undertaking administrative functions, such as preparing documentation, servicing and acting as a channel for information between the Lenders and Borrower. One of the Lenders from the syndicate is normally appointed as the Agent. The Agent has a number of important functions:
  - Point of contact (maintaining contact with the Borrower and representing the views of the syndicate);
  - Monitor (monitoring the compliance of the Borrower with certain terms of the facility);
  - Postman and record-keeper (it is the Agent to whom the Borrower is usually required to give notices); and
  - Paying agent (the Borrower makes all payments of interest and repayments of principal and any other payments under the loan agreement to the Agent).
Agent passes these monies back to the Lenders to whom they are due. Similarly, the Lenders advance funds to the Borrower through the Agent.

- **Guarantor.** As part of the loan agreement, the Borrower may provide guarantors, who will guarantee repayment of the loan if the Borrower defaults on the loan, on a joint and several basis.

17.3 The cash flows arising from these arrangements are between the syndicate participants (lenders) and the Agent, and then on to the Borrower. Similarly, payments made by the Borrower to the Lenders take place via the Agent. The Lenders do not usually have any direct contact with the Borrower in respect of cash flows.

17.4 A secondary market also exists where banks and others buy and sell interests in these loans. The treatment of parties within the secondary market is set out in paragraphs 17.16 – 17.23.

**What are the money laundering risks in syndicated lending?**

17.5 Syndicated loans tend to be made to large, often multi-national companies, many of which will have their securities listed, or are parts of corporate groups whose securities are listed, on EU regulated or comparable regulated markets. As such, the money laundering risk relating to syndicated loans for this type of customer should be regarded as low.

17.6 The features of all lending are generally that the initial monies advanced are paid into a bank account. In syndicated lending the monies are usually handled by the Agent making it unlikely that the transaction would be used by money launderers in the placement stage of money laundering. Syndicated facilities could, however, be used to layer and integrate criminal proceeds. Repayments are usually made from the Borrower's bank account to the Agent who administers the repayment from its bank accounts to the Lenders. Repayments in cash are unlikely.

17.7 Given that a syndicated loan results in the Borrower receiving funds from the Lender, the initial transaction is not very susceptible of money laundering. The main money laundering risk arises through variations in the loan arrangements such as the acceleration of an agreed repayment schedule, either by means of lump sum repayments, or early termination without good commercial rationale. When these circumstances occur they should be considered carefully and consideration must be given to the source of the money used to accelerate the repayment schedule, or terminate the loan early.

**Primary market for syndicated loans**

**Who is the customer for AML purposes?**

17.8 The obligation on each party to a syndicated lending arrangement to verify the identity of the customer is as follows:

- **Mandated Lead Manager/Arranger/Bookrunner:** The Borrower is the mandated Lead Manager/Arranger/Bookrunner’s customer, as is the Agent.
- **Lenders:** The Borrower is also a customer of the syndicate participants.
- **Agent:** The Agent's customers are the Borrower and the Lenders.
**Customer due diligence**

17.9 The mandated Lead Manager/Arranger/Bookrunner should apply the guidance set out in Part I, Chapter 5, and in particular, the guidance on multipartite relationships in Part I, section 5.5, in line with the firm’s risk-based approach, to the Borrower and to the Agent.

17.10 The Agent should apply the guidance set out in Part I, Chapter 5, in line with the firm’s risk-based approach, to the Borrower and the Lenders. The Agent, where as part of its risk-based approach it feels it is appropriate to do so, may take account of the due diligence carried out by the mandated Lead Manager/Arranger/Bookrunner on the Borrower. It is often the case that the lenders have pre-existing relationships with the mandated Lead Manager/Arranger/Bookrunner and/or the Agent so that, in practice, little, if any, additional due diligence will need to be undertaken.

17.11 The Lender also has a responsibility to apply the guidance set out in Part I, Chapter 5, subject to the firm’s risk-based approach, to the Borrower, including where the Lender feels it is appropriate to do so, taking account of the due diligence carried out by the mandated Lead Manager/Arranger/Bookrunner on the Borrower.

17.12 As the mandated Lead Manager/Arranger/Bookrunner and Agent also have an obligation to verify the identity of the Borrower, the Lender may, where as part of its risk-based approach it feels it is appropriate to do so, take account of the due diligence carried out by the mandated Lead Manager/Arranger/Bookrunner and/or Agent on the borrower where they are in a comparable jurisdiction. In such instances it may be appropriate for the reliance arrangements to be confirmed in a certificate to the Lenders stating that the CDD has been undertaken and documentation is available on request. This may be facilitated by the Borrower undertaking to provide all relevant CDD documentation as set out in Part I, Chapter 5 of this guidance.

17.13 Where the Borrower has provided a guarantor as part of the loan agreement, all parties who have an obligation to identify the Borrower - mandated Lead Manager/Arranger/Bookrunner, Lenders and Agent - should consider whether it is necessary, based upon their risk-based approach, to apply to the guarantor the verification procedures they are applying to the Borrower.

17.14 The money laundering risk associated with a guarantor only becomes real if a borrower defaults on a loan, and the guarantor is called upon to repay the loan. A firm may consider, subject to its risk-based approach, whether it should verify the identity of the guarantor at the same time as the Borrower, or only to identify the guarantor as and when the guarantor is called upon to fulfil its obligations under the loan agreement.

17.15 When considering the extent of verification appropriate for a particular borrower, any normal commercial credit analysis and reputational risk assessment and background checks that have been undertaken on the Borrower should be taken into account, and should be factored into a firm’s risk-based approach.

**Secondary market in syndicated loans**

17.16 A Lender under a syndicated loan may decide to sell its participation in order to: realise capital; for risk management purposes, for example to re-weight its loan portfolio; meet regulatory capital requirements; or to crystallise a loss. The methods of transfer are usually specified in the Syndicated Loan Agreement.

17.17 The most common forms of transfer to enable a Lender to sell its loan commitment are: novation (the most common method used in transfer certificates to loan agreements); legal assignment; equitable assignment; fund participation and risk participation. Novation and
legal assignment result in the Lender disposing of its loan commitment, with the new lender assuming a direct contractual relationship with the Borrower, whilst the other methods result in the Lender retaining a contractual relationship with the Borrower and standing between the purchaser in the secondary market and the Borrower. The transfer method should be taken into account by the purchasing firm when considering its customer due diligence requirements.

**Customer due diligence**

17.18 A firm selling a participation in a loan should apply the guidance set out in Part I, Chapter 5, in line with its risk-based approach, when identifying, and if necessary verifying the identity of, the purchaser.

17.19 A firm purchasing a participation in a loan should apply the guidance set out in Part I, Chapter 5, in line with its risk-based approach, when identifying, and if necessary verifying the identity of, the seller.

17.20 The money flows are between the purchaser and seller of the loan. However, if a firm purchases a participation in an existing loan from another participant by way of novation or legal assignment, it will have a direct contractual relationship with the Borrower. As such the purchaser has an obligation to identity, and if appropriate as part of its risk-based approach verify the identity of the Borrower, in accordance with the guidance set out in Part I, Chapter 5.

17.21 Where a firm purchases a participation in an existing loan from another participant (the Lender) by way of equitable assignment, fund participation or risk participation the seller acts as intermediary between the purchaser and the Borrower for the life of the loan. Depending on the status of the Lender (seller), the purchaser should decide as part of its risk-based approach whether it has an obligation to identify, and verify the identity of, the Borrower, in accordance with the guidance set out in Part I, Chapter 5.

17.22 In addition, a firm purchasing a loan in the secondary market must check the underlying Borrower against HM Treasury’s Consolidated List.

17.23 Whether the Agent is required to undertake customer due diligence on a secondary purchaser of a loan participation will depend upon how the transfer between the seller and the purchaser in the secondary market is made:

- Where the sale is by way of novation or legal assignment the Agent should, as part of its risk-based approach, identify, and verify the identity of, the purchaser, in accordance with the guidance set out in Part I, Chapter 5.

- Where the sale is by way of equitable assignment, the Agent may not have a direct relationship with the purchaser, even though funds may flow through the Agent from or to the purchaser (via the Lender), and therefore the Agent may not have an obligation to identify and/or verify the purchaser. However, the Agent should consider, as part of its risk-based approach, whether it should identify, or verify the identity of, the purchaser in accordance with the guidance set out in Part I, Chapter 5 and check them against HM Treasury’s Consolidated List.

- Where the sale is by fund participation or risk participation, the Agent will not necessarily be aware of the transaction and therefore has no obligation to identify and/or verify the purchaser or check them against HM Treasury’s Consolidated List.
18: Wholesale markets

Note: This sectoral guidance is incomplete on its own. It must be read in conjunction with the main guidance set out in Part I of the Guidance.

This sectoral guidance considers specific issues over and above the more general guidance set out in Part 1, Chapters 4, 5, and 7, which firms operating in the wholesale markets may want to take into account when considering applying a risk-based approach. Firms may also find the guidance for the following sectors useful:

- Sector 8: Non-life providers of investment fund products, which deals with exchange-traded products where the firm acts as agent for private customers, (e.g. where a fund provider that is not an exchange member buys securities for its private customers).
- Sector 9: Discretionary and advisory investment management, which covers how investment managers may interact with wholesale markets.
- Sector 10: Execution-only stockbrokers, which will be more relevant for firms dealing in wholesale market products as agent or principal for retail customers.
- Sector 14: Corporate finance, which deals with the issuance of traded products or instruments, which are traded in a ‘secondary’ wholesale market, allowing investors in the primary market to realise their investment.
- Sector 19: Name Passing Brokers, which is directed at those firms who deal with wholesale market brokers in the inter-professional markets.
- Sector 20: Servicing higher risk funds, which is intended for firms who are involved in multipartite relationships in respect of, and/or provide services, including the execution and clearing of transaction in wholesale market products to, unregulated funds.

Overview of the sector

18.1 The wholesale markets comprise exchanges and dealing arrangements that facilitate the trading (buying and selling) of wholesale investment products, and hedging instruments (“traded products”), including, but not limited to:

- Securities: equities, fixed income, warrants and investment funds (Exchange Traded Funds – ETFs);
- Money market instruments: FX, interest rate products, term deposits;
- Financial derivatives: options, futures, swaps and warrants;
- Commodities: physical commodities and commodity derivatives, including exotic derivatives (e.g., weather derivatives);
- Structured products (e.g., equity linked notes); and
- Syndicated loans traded on the secondary market

18.2 Traded products confer ‘rights’ or ‘obligations’; either between an investor and the issuer, or between parties engaged in the trading of the instruments. Traded product instruments can be bought, sold, borrowed or lent; as such, they facilitate the transfer of property or assets and usually represent an intrinsic value, which may be attractive to money launderers. Traded products can be bought or sold either on an exchange (“exchange traded products”), or between parties ‘over-the-counter’ (OTC).

18.3 Some traded products or instruments, such as equities, are issued in a ‘primary’ market, and are traded in a ‘secondary’ market, allowing investors in the primary market to realise their
investment. Other traded products are created to enable investors to manage assets and liabilities, exchange risks and exposure to particular assets, commodities or securities.

Exchange-traded products

18.4 Exchange-traded products are financial products that are traded on exchanges, which have standardised terms (e.g. amounts, delivery dates and terms) and settlement procedures and transparent pricing. Firms may deal in exchange-traded products as principal or as agent for their customers. In the financial and commodity derivatives markets, firms will typically deal as principal, and on certain exchanges (e.g. Euronext.LIFFE, ICE Futures, LME) must do so when dealing as a clearing member in relation to their customers’ transactions. In the securities markets, firms can deal as either principal (for their own account) or as agent for the firms’ underlying customers.

18.5 The London Stock Exchange recognises different types of relationships between a settlement agent and its customers, which it denotes as Model A and Model B (see paragraphs 18.72ff). Similar relationships may be recognised on other exchanges and different terminology used to denote these relationships.

18.6 Most exchanges have a central counterparty (CCP) which stands between the exchange members that are buying and selling a product (becoming the buyer to the seller and the seller to the buyer). Where an exchange or trading platform does not have a CCP, the members contract with each other.

OTC products

18.7 OTC products are bilateral agreements between two parties, or multilateral, depending on the settlement process, that are not traded or executed on an exchange. The terms of the agreement are tailored to meet the needs of the parties, i.e., there are not necessarily standardised terms, contract sizes or delivery dates. Where firms deal OTC, they usually deal as principal. Some OTC dealing is facilitated by brokers and while settlement is normally effected directly between the parties, it is becoming increasingly common for exchanges and clearers to provide clearing facilities i.e., the trades are executed as OTC but are then given up for clearing by a CCP.

What are the money laundering risks in the wholesale markets sector?

18.8 Traded products are usually traded on regulated markets, or between regulated parties, or with regulated parties involved acting as agent or principal.

18.9 However: the characteristics of products, which facilitate the rapid and sometimes opaque transfer of ownership; the ability to change the nature of an asset and market mechanisms that potentially extend the audit trail; together with, a diverse international customer base, have specific money laundering risks that need to be addressed and managed appropriately.

18.10 One of the most significant risks associated with the wholesale markets and traded products, is where a transaction involves payment in cash and/or third party payments.

18.11 Given the global flows of funds in the wholesale financial markets, it is important to recognise that although customers may remit funds from credit institutions, a firm could still be used to launder money. Traded products might, for example, be used as a means of changing assets rapidly into different form, possibly using multiple brokers to disguise total wealth and ultimate origin of the funds or assets, or as savings and investment vehicles for money launderers and other criminals.
18.12 Firms dealing in traded products in the wholesale markets do not generally accept cash deposits or provide personal accounts that facilitate money transmission and/or third party funding that is not related to specific underlying investment transactions. In the money markets, however, customers may request payments to third parties (e.g., FX payments to suppliers) and the associated AML risks need to be considered by the firm (see paragraph 18.16ff). There may also be third party funding of the transactions in the commodities markets. Also, where a bank is lending funds to a customer to purchase a physical commodity and the customer hedges the risks associated with the transaction in the derivatives market through a broker, the bank may guarantee the payment of margin to that broker; this results in a flow of money between the broker and bank on the customer’s behalf. However, both the party making the payment on behalf of the customer, and the party receiving the funds, will be regulated financial institutions.

18.13 The extent to which certain products are subject to margin or option premium payment arrangements will affect the level of risk. The nature and form of any margin will need to be taken into account by the firm, through their risk-based approach, when identifying the customer and determining appropriate payment procedures.

18.14 OTC and exchange-based trading can also present very different money laundering risk profiles. Exchanges that are regulated in equivalent jurisdictions, are transparent and have a central counterparty to clear trades, can largely be seen as carrying a lower generic money laundering risk. OTC business may, generally, be less well regulated and it is not possible to make the same generalisations concerning the money laundering risk as with exchange-traded products. For example, trades that are executed as OTC but then are centrally cleared, have a different risk profile to trades that are executed and settled OTC. Hence, when dealing in the OTC markets firms will need to take a more considered risk-based approach and undertake more detailed risk-based assessment.

18.15 For example, exchanges often impose specific requirements on position transfers, which have the effect of reducing the level of money laundering risk. These procedures will not apply in the OTC markets, where firms will need to consider the approach they would adopt in relation to any such requests in respect of customers dealing OTC.

How to assess the elements of risk in the wholesale markets sector

Generic risk elements

18.16 The main factors to consider when assessing the risk when undertaking business in the wholesale markets are: the nature of the customer (including their source of funds), the market participants, the products involved; and, whether the products are exchange traded or OTC.

18.17 When implementing a risk-based approach, and producing or reviewing risk assessments or the risk profile of a prospective customer, there are a number of areas which firms might want to take into account in addition to the more general matters set out in Part I, Chapters 4 and 5. The wholesale markets are populated by customers with a wide range of different business interests.

- The types of participants present might typically include, but not be limited to:
  - Sovereign governments;
  - Local authorities (municipal bodies);
- Regulated financial firms (e.g., banks, brokers, investment managers and funds);
- Unregulated financial entities (e.g., off-shore funds);
- Corporations (e.g., listed companies, private companies);
- Trust and partnerships.

- A customer’s nature, status, and the degree of independent oversight it is subject to, will affect the firm’s assessment of risk for a particular customer or the firm’s business as a whole.

- The instruments traded in the wholesale markets can allow for long-term investment, speculative trading, hedging and physical delivery of certain financial instruments and commodities. Understanding the role of a prospective customer in the market, and his reasons for trading, will help inform decisions on the risk profile they present.

- The way that a firm addresses the jurisdictional risk posed by a customer will depend on many factors. The jurisdictional risk may, however, be mitigated by the rationale for the customer being located or operating in a particular jurisdiction. Customers located in potentially higher-risk jurisdictions may have legitimate commercial interests, which can mitigate the perceived risk. For example, an oil producer in a higher-risk territory may seek to use derivative instruments to hedge price risks and this does not necessarily present a high money laundering risk. For discussion of other factors firms may need to take into account, such as corruption risk, see paragraph 18.20.

- Firms should ensure that any factors mitigating the jurisdictional or other risks of a customer are adequately documented and periodically reviewed in the light of international findings or developments.

18.18 When dealing on an exchange or trading platform, a firm needs to identify its counterparty and any associated risks:

- Where there is a CCP, a firm must assess the risks associated with the exchange e.g., what value can be placed on the exchange’s admission procedure, does the exchange carry out due diligence on potential members, are private individuals members?

- If there is no CCP, a firm will need to perform due diligence on the party with whom they deal - even if their name is not known until after the trade - before the trade is settled.

- As a result of trading on an exchange or trading platform, a firm may execute a trade with a member who does not have an account with the firm. A firm should consider obtaining, from the exchange or trading platform, a list of members and either identify and verify them upfront (to avoid possible delays in settlement) or on case by case basis. In some cases platforms operators provide credit management functionality which has the effect of restricting execution of trades to certain counterparties only.

**Specific risk elements**

18.19 Paragraphs 18.31ff below discuss specific risks associated with particular sub-sectors within the wholesale markets.

**Other risk factors to consider**
While assessing AML risks, firms will also wish to assess other factors such as reputational risk, bribery and corruption risks. New customers and payments on behalf of clients to third parties also need to be screened for sanctions purposes and newly sanctioned entities run against existing clients.

Firms may also wish to carry out due diligence in respect of any introducing brokers who introduce new customers or other intermediaries and consider whether there are any red flags in relation to corruption risks.

Who is the customer for AML purposes?

It is very important to distinguish the relationship that exists between the various parties associated with a transaction. In particular, the firm should be clear whether it is acting as agent or principal on behalf of the customer and whether the firm has a responsibility to verify the identity of any underlying customers involved in transactions.

Where the firm’s customer qualifies for the treatment of simplified due diligence (see Part I, section 5.4), no customer due diligence is required. This would be true even where the firm is aware that its customer is acting on behalf of an underlying customer who would not itself qualify for simplified due diligence; no question of reliance under Regulation 17 will arise.

Therefore, from an AML/CTF perspective, as a rule of thumb (although see Part I, Chapter 5, section 5.3.4):

- If the firm is acting as principal with another exchange member, the exchange member is the firm’s customer.
- As discussed in paragraph 18.18 above, where an exchange-based trade is randomly and automatically matched with an equal and opposite exchange-based trade, it is recognised that, due to market mechanisms, the name of the other exchange member(s) may not be known. In these situations, where all the parties are members of the exchange and there is a CCP to match and settle the trades, the firm cannot know and therefore does not need to verify the identity of the other exchange member. Firms should, however, include the money laundering risk involved in the participation in any exchange or centralised clearing, as part of their overall risk-based approach. Participation in any exchange or centralised clearing system does not remove the need to adequately verify its own customer if the firm is dealing as agent for a customer.
- Where a firm is acting as principal with a non-exchange member, the non-exchange member is the firm’s customer.
- Where a firm is acting as agent for another party, the party for whom the firm is acting will be the firm’s customer (but see Part I, Chapter 5, section 5.3.4).
- Where the firm is acting for another party who is an intermediary for underlying third parties, the intermediary will be the customer of the firm provided simplified due diligence can be applied. See Part I, Chapter 5, section 5.6.37 ff, which considers whether/when underlying third parties will also be customers of the firm.

An introducing broker may “introduce”, or a Receiver and Transmitter of orders may pass orders from, his customers to a firm to execute trades and, possibly, to perform related requirements in connection with the customers’ trades and bookkeeping and record keeping functions. A fee is paid by the firm to the introducing broker, usually based on the transactions undertaken. A customer often has no say in which firm the introducing broker
selects to execute a particular trade. As such, the customer being introduced is a customer of both the introducing broker and the firm.

**General clearing and non-clearing members of exchanges**

18.26 A non-clearing member may maintain one or several accounts with a clearing member. Where a non-clearing member deals as agent for a customer, this may be through an omnibus account with the clearing member on behalf of all the non-clearing member’s underlying customers who often have no say in the non-clearing member’s selection of a clearing member.

18.27 Where a non-clearing member deals on a proprietary basis as principal, it will generally operate a separate account for such business. In that case the non-clearing member will be the customer of the clearing member.

18.28 The clearing member may, based upon his risk-based approach and/or the status of the non-clearing member, consider that the non-clearing member’s underlying customer or customers are also his customers. For further guidance refer to Part I, sections 5.3 and 5.4.

**Other considerations**

18.29 In certain markets there are other types of relationship associated with a transaction that are not covered under an agent or principal relationship, and these should be subject to other considerations by a firm when considering what is appropriate customer due diligence.

18.30 In some cases, other parties, who are not customers under the AML Regulations, may be linked to a transaction. A firm may, however, still wish to assess them as part of its own commercial due diligence and to guard against reputation and bribery and corruption risks (e.g., introducing brokers in higher risk jurisdictions).

**Wholesale market sector specific risks and issues**

18.31 The following sections look at particular risks and issues associated with other sub-sectors within the wholesale markets.

**A. Foreign exchange**

18.32 To the extent that firms dealing in foreign exchange (FX) in the wholesale market tend to be regulated financial institutions and large corporates, the money laundering risk may be viewed as generally lower. However, this risk may be increased by the nature of the customer, or where, for example

- high risk clients (including PEPs) undertake speculative trading; and/or
- requests are made for payments to be made to third parties: for example, customers, particularly corporates, that need to make FX payments to suppliers and overseas affiliates.

18.33 When assessing the money laundering risk in such circumstances, a firm may want to take into account the nature of the customer’s business and the frequency and type of third party payments that are likely to result from such business.

18.34 FX (as well as many other traded products) is commonly traded on electronic trading systems. Such systems may be set up by brokers or independent providers. When a firm executes a
transaction on these systems the counterparty’s identity is not usually known until the transaction is executed. The counterparty could be any one of the members who have signed up to the system. Firms should examine the admission policy of the platform before signing up to the system, to ensure that the platform only admits regulated financial institutions as members, or that the rules of the electronic trading system mean that all members are subject to satisfactory AML checks and identify its counterparty and any associated risks (see paragraph 18.18).

B. Exchange traded derivatives

(a) Financial derivatives

18.35 Financial products are utilised for a wide range of reasons, and market participants can be located anywhere within the world; firms will need to consider these issues when developing an appropriate risk-based approach. The nature, volume and frequency of trading, and whether these make sense in the context of the customer’s and firm’s corporate and financial status, will be key relevant factors that a firm will need to consider when developing an appropriate risk-based approach.

18.36 The risks between exchange-traded derivatives and OTC derivative products in the financial derivative markets are the same as those set out in paragraphs 18.8 – 18.15.

(b) Commodities

18.37 Where a customer deals purely in physical commodities for commercial purposes, the activity is not captured by the ML Regulations (although the sanctions regime still applies to such business). Regulated firms that, in addition to physical commodity activity, undertake any business with a customer which amounts to a regulated activity, including business associated with physical commodities will, however, be subject to the ML Regulations, including due diligence requirements with regard to that customer.

18.38 Where business does not fall within the scope of the AML Regulations, e.g., shipping and chartering, it is entirely a matter for firms to decide what commercial due diligence they perform on their counterparties. Firms are reminded, however, that sanctions regimes will apply to such business.

18.39 When implementing a risk-based approach and producing or reviewing risk assessments or the risk profile of a prospective customer, there are a number of areas which commodity market firms might want to take into account in addition to the more general matters set out in Part I, Chapters 4 and 5. These will include, but not be limited to:

- The wide range of different business interests which populate the commodity markets. The types of participants may typically include:
  - Producers (e.g., oil producers and mining firms);
  - Users (e.g., refiners and smelters);
  - Wholesalers (e.g., utility firms);
  - Commercial merchants, traders and agents;
  - Financial firms (e.g., banks and funds).

- These types of firm are illustrative and widely drawn and firms can be present in more than one category (for example, a refiner will be both a user of crude oil and a producer of oil products).
The instruments traded in the wholesale commodity markets can allow for the speculative trading, hedging and physical delivery of commodities.

The risks should be taken in the round, with one risk possibly mitigating another. The global nature of the commodity markets means that firms from potentially higher risk jurisdictions with a perceived higher money laundering risk are likely to have legitimate commercial interests. Understanding the role of a prospective customer in the market, and their reasons for trading, will help inform decisions on the risk profile they present.

(c) ‘Give-up business’

Customers wishing to execute transactions on certain regulated markets may do so through a “give-up agreement” whereby the customer elects to execute transactions through one or more executing brokers and to clear the transaction through a separate clearing broker. Once the transaction is executed, the executing broker will then “give-up” that transaction to the clearing broker for it to be cleared through the relevant exchange or clearing house.

Both the executing broker and the clearing broker have a relationship with the customer (e.g. both may be agents), for whom they perform separate functions.

It is usually (but not always) the customer that elects to execute transactions through one or more brokers and to clear such transactions through another broker and, to that end, selects both the clearing broker and executing broker(s).

Where a firm acts as executing broker, the party placing the order is the customer for AML/CTF purposes. Where the party placing the order is acting as agent for underlying customers, they, too, may be customers for AML/CTF purposes (see paragraphs 18.32 – 18.34). It is important to note that when acting as an executing broker, a firm executes customer orders only and does not receive or hold their funds. Transactions are settled by the customers’ clearing broker, who also pays brokerage commission to the executing broker.

Where a firm acts as clearing broker, the customer on whose behalf the transaction is cleared is the customer for AML/CTF purposes. A clearing broker typically has a more extensive relationship with the customer as a result of holding their funds.

A customer may choose to use one or more executing brokers because:

- the customer may prefer, for reasons of functionality or cost, the executing broker’s front-end electronic order routing;
- certain brokers develop a reputation for being able to execute transactions very efficiently in certain contracts, while the clearing broker provides superior post-trade clearing and settlement services;
- the customer may feel more comfortable with the credit risk of the clearing broker;
- the executing broker may provide access to certain value-added services linked to the execution of the customer’s transactions; or
- the customer does not wish to disclose its trading strategy to other market participants; or for other reasons relevant to the customer’s business.

In all give-up arrangements the customer, the executing broker, and the clearing broker are participants. Although this type of tri-partite arrangement is most common, give-up arrangements can extend to cover many types of relationships, and may extend through a number of parties with differing roles and responsibilities including advising, managing,
clearing or executing, for or on behalf of the underlying customer, before the trade reaches the ultimate clearing broker.

18.48 A common additional participant in a give-up arrangement is the customer’s investment adviser or manager, who in the give-up agreement is usually referred to as a trader, to whom the customer has granted discretionary trading authority, including the authority to enter into give-up arrangements on the customer’s behalf.

18.49 Typically, an adviser or manager acting for a client may only wish to disclose a reference code, rather than their client's name, to the executing broker, particularly where the adviser or manager has multiple underlying accounts over which they exercise discretionary authority; hence, the clearing broker is likely to be the only party that knows the underlying customer's identity. Where a give-up agreement includes such an arrangement, firms should ensure that their risk-based approach addresses the risks posed, which may include the risk associated with the investment manager as appropriate, the type of fund and possibly the underlying investors. Hence, where a firm is acting as executing broker and there is an adviser or manager acting for an underlying customer, the customer due diligence performed, and whether there is an obligation to identify the underlying customer, will depend upon the regulatory status and location of the adviser or manager. For further guidance, see Part I, section 5.3.

18.50 Where simplified due diligence cannot be applied to the adviser or manager and there is an obligation to verify the identity of the adviser or manager and their underlying customers, the firm should take a risk-based approach (see Part I, Chapter 5, section 5.3), which may include consideration of whether it is appropriate, subject to satisfying the ML Regulations, to take into account any verification evidence obtained by, a clearing broker in the UK, EU or an equivalent jurisdiction or the involvement of the clearing broker in the transaction.

18.51 To avoid unnecessary duplication, where an executing broker and a clearing broker are undertaking elements of the same exchange transaction on behalf of the same customer (which is not itself a regulated firm from an equivalent jurisdiction), subject to a give-up arrangement, the executing broker may, where as part of its risk-based assessment it feels it is appropriate to do so:

- place reliance on the clearing broker, provided the clearing broker is regulated in the UK, another EU Member State or an equivalent jurisdiction and the requirements for third party reliance in the ML Regulations are satisfied. Guidance on reliance on third parties and on the factors to consider, as part of a firm’s risk-based approach, when seeking to rely on another firm to apply the CDD measures (but not monitoring or sanction checking) is given in Part I, Chapter 5, paragraphs 5.6.4ff.; or

- take account of the fact, in its risk-based approach to customer identification and verification (see Part I, Chapter 5, paragraph 5.3.28), that there is another regulated firm from the UK/EU or an equivalent jurisdiction acting as the customer’s clearing broker in respect of the transaction, which will handle all flows of funds. This may reduce the identity information or evidence requested from the client and what the firm verifies.

18.52 It is important to recognise that even if a clearing broker can, in principle, be relied upon under the ML Regulations, there are a number of exceptions that relate to the type of CDD carried out by the clearing broker in respect of the customer (see Part I, Chapter 5, paragraph 5.6.16ff). Firms also need to satisfy themselves (and evidence) that the clearing broker has given consent to be relied upon (see Part I, Chapter 5, paragraph 5.6.8ff).

18.53 In addition, as firms cannot delegate their responsibility to satisfy their legal obligations in respect of sanctions and the FSA’s requirements to have in place effective systems and
controls to prevent the firm being used for financial crime, executing brokers wishing to place reliance should take steps to satisfy themselves re the clearing broker’s procedures for screening clients against relevant sanctions lists.

18.54 Thus, firms considering placing reliance on clearing brokers to identify give-up customers should also ensure that they can satisfy other legal and regulatory requirements such as sanction list screening, which cannot be delegated. Whether a firm wishes to place reliance on the clearing broker will be part of its risk-based assessment but as firms cannot delegate their responsibilities for CDD, the assessment should include due diligence in respect of the clearing broker (Part I, Chapter 5, paragraph 5.6.13).

18.55 Given the risks and issues outlined above, most firms now take the relationship with the clearing broker into account in their own CDD on customers, rather than place reliance on the clearing broker.

18.56 Where an executing broker also provides other services to its ‘give-up’ customers, it should, check - where it has placed reliance on a clearing broker or has assessed a give-up relationship to be lower risk - that it can ‘ring fence’ the accounts of give-up customers (or has over controls in place), such that their relationships with the firm cannot be extended (e.g. dealing in different product types, receiving collateral) without triggering additional CDD requirements. Firms that are not able to ring-fence services provided to such customers should carry out CDD to the highest standard.

18.57 Finally, given the information asymmetries likely to exist between an executing broker and clearing broker, when a firm is acting as clearing broker, it would not be appropriate, from a risk-based perspective, to rely on an executing broker, even if this would be permitted under the ML Regulations. Clearing firms should undertake the CDD measures as set out in Part I, Chapter 5.

C. Structured products

18.58 Structured products are financial instruments specifically constructed to suit the needs of a particular customer or a group of customers. They are generally more complex than securities and are traded predominantly OTC, although some structured notes are also listed on exchanges (usually the Luxembourg or Irish Stock Exchanges).

18.59 There is a wide range of users of structured products. Typically they will include:

- Corporates,
- Private banks,
- Government agencies,
- Financial institutions

18.60 Transactions are normally undertaken on a principal basis between the provider (normally a financial institution) and the customer. Some structured products are also sold through banks and third party distributors (introducers). In the latter circumstances, it is important to clarify where the customer relationships and responsibilities lie (e.g. are the third parties introducing clients to the firm or distributing products on behalf the name of the firm) and to set out each party’s responsibilities in relation to AML. Where a firm wishes to contract out its customer identification and verification obligation to a distributor, it should establish whose procedures are to be used (e.g., those of the firm’s or the distributor), satisfy the reliance requirements and establish monitoring procedures.
18.61 Because of the sometimes complex nature of the products, they may generally be more difficult to value than cash securities. The lack of transparency may make it easier for money launderers, for example, to disguise the true value of their investments.

18.62 The complexity of the structure can also obscure the actual cash flows in the transaction, enabling customers to carry out circular transactions. Understanding the reason behind a customer’s request for a particular product will help to determine the money laundering risk inherent in the structures.

18.63 The cash movements associated with structured products may present an increased money laundering risk, although this risk may be mitigated by the nature and status of the customer and the depth of the relationship the customer has with the firm. For example, if the use of structured products is part of a wider business relationship, and is compatible with other activity between the firm and the customer, the risk may be reduced.

18.64 In one scenario, an introducer (who may also be described as an “arranger” or “retrocession agent”) may approach a firm to request, on behalf of an undisclosed client, a quote for a structured product with a particular set of features (e.g., reference assets/indices, capital guarantee, maximum upside, etc). If this quote is acceptable, the introducer will then recommend the structured product to his/her client. The introducer’s client will typically contact their custodian bank to instruct the bank to purchase the structured product from the firm. The custodian bank will purchase, on an execution-only basis, the structured product as principal, settling directly with the firm. The firm then pays the introducer a fee, which is non-standardised and negotiated on a transaction by transaction basis. Alternatively, the firm may approach the introducer with a structured product that the introducer’s clients may be interested in (although transaction flows remain the same as above).

18.65 In some cases, the introducer may act with a power of attorney from their client and thus have authority to purchase the structured product on behalf of the client. The firm should ascertain whether the introducer is acting under a power of attorney or not. Settlement of the transaction will be effected, by the firm, with the custodian bank of the undisclosed client, as outlined above.

18.66 Depending on local legislation, an introducer may or may not be required to be regulated in the country of his domicile or the countries of his/her main operation, which may be different. In Switzerland, for example, introducers who act exclusively in an advisory capacity do not need to be regulated but where the client gives an introducer power of attorney to transact on his behalf with the custodian bank, the introducer has to be regulated for AML purposes, but not conduct of business purposes, with one of the local Self Regulatory Organisations.

18.67 In each of the scenarios outlined in 18.64 and 18.65, the introducer should be subject to CDD; as part of which, a firm should check that the introducer satisfies the authorisation requirements (if any) of the introducer’s country of domicile and main countries of operation. The firm should also consider obtaining details of the career in the financial services industry of each of the main employees or principals of the introducer.

18.68 In addition, if the custodian bank cannot be subject to simplified due diligence, the firm will also have to look through to the custodian’s underlying clients (the beneficial owners). Firms may also wish to refer to the ‘Retailed Structured Products: Principles for managing the provider-distributor relationship’ guidance, that was published in July 2007 by the European Securitisation Forum (ESF), International Capital Market Association (ICMA), International Swaps and Derivatives Association (ISDA), London Investment Banking Association (LIBA) and Securities Industry and Financial Markets Association (SIFMA). A copy of this guidance is available from the website of any of the above organisations. Firms may also wish to refer to this guidance to assist them in understanding the types of underlying clients that are linked...
to an individual introducer, together with the particular type of products and tenor of the products that the underlying clients are interested in. Such information may assist firms to understand the expected type and level of business that an introducer may bring to a firm.

18.69 Firms should also be mindful of the issues in respect of payments to third parties raised by the FSA enforcement action, in January 2009, against Aon Limited. For example, the FSA expects that payments to third parties, such as introducers, should be subject to due diligence before they are made and payments and the relationship in general reviewed and monitored regularly. Factors firms should consider as part of their due diligence include whether the payments are reasonable for the benefit provided, whether the funds are being remitted, electronically, to a bank account in the introducer’s name, in the country in which the introducer is domiciled/operates.

18.70 Firms should consider, if an introducer requests that his fee be paid to a bank account held in the name of an apparently unrelated third party or to an account at a bank in a country with no obvious connection to his country of domicile or his countries of main operation, whether such requests give rise to suspicions of bribery, corruption or tax evasion. Firms may wish to consider introducing a policy of paying fees only to a bank account in the name of the introducer that is held at a bank in the country of the introducer’s domicile or a country of main operation. Firms may also wish to confirm that there is full disclosure of any fees on relevant documentation for each transaction.

18.71 Firms should also be alert to the risk that an introducer who is an individual may be carrying on their own personal business whilst still employed by, and managing the affairs of clients of, another firm such as a bank, asset manager or wealth manager. The introducer may be acting in his/her own name or via a corporate which he/she controls. If, as a result of its CDD, a firm has suspicions that an introducer may be currently employed by a financial institution, the firm should contact the financial institution concerned to ascertain whether the individual is employed by them and, if so, that they are content with the proposed relationship between the firm and their employee. Similar suspicions may also arise where all of an introducers clients use the same custodian bank.

**D. Securities**

18.72 There are fundamentally two types of arrangements that can exist in relation to the outsourcing of clearing and settlement processes in the securities markets. These are generally known as “Model A” and “Model B” clearing relationships. The specific characteristics of these relationships are outlined below.

“**Model A**” Clearing

18.73 Model A clearing usually involves the outsourcing of the settlement processing of transactions executed by a firm to a service provider. All transactions are executed and settled in the name of the executing firm, who retains full responsibility, including financial liability, for the transaction in relation to both the underlying customer and the market counterparty. The underlying customer remains solely a customer of the executing firm, which retains AML/CTF responsibility, and does not enter into a relationship with the settlement services provider.

18.74 The settlement services provider maintains a relationship solely with the executing firm, and acts as an agent on behalf of the executing firm. As such, the settlement services provider has no obligation to undertake the identification and verification requirements set out in Part I, Chapter 5, other than in relation to its customer, the firm.
18.75 In the securities markets, the executing broker/clearing firm arrangements are commonly referred to as “Model B” clearing arrangements.

18.76 The executing broker will usually open an account (or sub-accounts) with the clearing firm, in the name of his underlying customer, and will fulfill all verification and due diligence requirements on the underlying customer. A tri-partite relationship between the underlying customer, the executing broker and the clearing firm (the ‘tripartite relationship’) is created, by virtue of the fact that the executing broker has entered into a Model B clearing relationship with the clearing firm on his own behalf, and, acting as the agent of the customer.

18.77 Usually, the customer does not establish a relationship direct with the clearing firm, but rather will enter into the tri-partite relationship via the executing broker, which has a Model B clearing relationship with the clearing firm. There is little or no contact between the underlying customer and the clearing firm. The customer is generally unable to terminate his relationship with the executing broker whilst retaining a relationship with the clearing firm in isolation.

18.78 Should the executing broker terminate its relationship with the clearing firm, the underlying customer will move with the executing broker. If the clearing firm has provided custody services as part of the services being supplied to the executing broker, consent to transfer the assets is required, with any residual transfer of assets for non-responding customers usually being subject to a rule waiver from the FSA upon fulfilment of certain conditions.

18.79 Whilst, under a Model B relationship, the transaction is 'given up' to the clearing firm for settlement with the market, if the underlying customer fails to deliver funds or assets to fulfil settlement, the clearing broker may look to the executing broker to offset any outstanding liabilities through a secondary deposit or other funds held by the clearing firm on behalf of the executing broker. In turn, the executing broker would have to pursue the underlying customer for fulfilment of settlement/debt recovery.

18.80 Because the relationship with the underlying customer is always focused through the executing broker, the executing broker remains an integral part of the relationship and transaction process at all times. This is by virtue of the tri-partite relationship, rather than separate relationships between the executing broker and the underlying customer, and the underlying customer and the clearing firm. Therefore, the CDD measures set out in Part I, Chapter 5, are generally undertaken by the executing broker while the clearing firm may, if it considers it appropriate to do so under its risk-based approach, rely upon the executing broker provide that broker is a ‘third party’ as defined in the ML Regulations (see Part I, Chapter 5, paragraph 5.6.4ff).

E. Delivery versus payment (DVP)

18.81 Customers wishing to transact Securities on a DVP basis may do so through an executing broker that will generally settle with the customer’s settlement agent/custodian. Under this arrangement, the customer elects to execute transactions through an executing broker and to clear the transaction through a separate settlement agent/custodian. The orders can either be placed directly by the customer or by an agent on behalf of the customer. Once the transaction is executed, the executing broker will settle with the settlement agent/custodian simultaneously once payment is received.

18.81 Both the executing broker and the settlement agent/custodian will have a relationship with the customer.
18.82 It is usually (but not always) the customer that elects to execute transactions through one or more brokers and to clear such transactions through a settlement agent/custodian and, to that end, selects both parties.

18.83 Where a firm acts as executing broker, the party placing the order is the customer for AML/CTF purposes. Where the party placing the order is acting as agent for underlying customers, they, too, may be customers for AML/CTF purposes (see paragraphs 18.32 – 18.34).

18.84 Where a firm acts as settlement agent/custodian, the customer on whose behalf the transaction is executed is the customer for AML/CTF purposes.

18.85 A common additional participant in a DVP arrangement is the customer’s investment adviser or manager, to whom the customer has granted discretionary trading authority. Where a firm is acting as executing broker and there is an adviser or manager acting for an underlying customer, the customer due diligence performed, and whether there is an obligation to identify the underlying customer, will depend upon the regulatory status and location of the adviser or manager. For further guidance, see Part I, section 5.3.

18.8 Where the underlying customer is to be considered the client by the executing broker, a risk based approach to CDD can be taken into account on the basis of the Investment Manager and/or the Settlement Agent’s equivalent regulatory status, pursuant with Part I, paragraph 5.6.4. This may reduce the identity information or evidence requested from the client and what the firm verifies. Firms should take the relationship with the IM and settlement agent/custodian into account in their own CDD on customers, rather than place full reliance on the settlement agent/custodian.

18.87 Where simplified due diligence cannot be applied to the adviser or manager there is an obligation to verify the identity of the adviser or manager and their underlying customers, the firm should undertake CDD on both parties (Part I, paragraph 5.3.1).

18.88 Finally, given the information asymmetries likely to exist between an executing broker and settlement agent/Custodian, when a firm is acting as settlement agent/Custodian, it would not be appropriate, from a risk-based perspective, to rely on an executing broker, even if this would be permitted under the ML Regulations. Settlement agents/custodians should undertake the CDD measures as set out in Part I, Chapter 5.

F. Syndicated loans

18.89 Guidance on syndicated loans is set out in Part II, sector 17: Syndicated lending.

Customer due diligence

18.90 Product risk alone should not be the determining factor in a firm assessing whether an enhanced level of due diligence is appropriate, therefore there are no enhanced due diligence requirements specific to the wholesale markets sector, over and above those set out in Part I, section 5.5, which take into account other risk factors such as client type and jurisdictional risk.

Monitoring

18.91 Guidance on general monitoring requirements is set out in Part I, section 5.7.
18.92 Monitoring in wholesale firms will be affected by the fact that firms may only have access to a part of the overall picture of their customer’s trading activities. The fact that many customers spread their activities over a number of firms will mean that many firms will have a limited view of a customer’s trading activities and it may be difficult to assess the commercial rationale of certain transactions. Extreme market conditions may also impact on a customer’s trading strategy. There are, however, specific characteristics of the wholesale market sector which will impact a firm involved in the wholesale markets monitoring activity. These include:

- **Scale of activity**

  The wholesale markets involve very high volumes of transactions being executed by large numbers of customers. The monitoring activity undertaken should therefore be adequate to handle the volumes undertaken by the firm.

- **Use of multiple brokers**

  Customers may choose to split execution and clearing services between different firms and many customers may use more than one execution broker on the same market. The customer’s reasons for this include ensuring that they obtain best execution, competitive rates, or to gain access to a particular specialism within one firm. This will restrict a firm’s ability to monitor a customer, as they may not be aware of all activity or even contingent activity associated with the transactions they are undertaking.

- **Electronic execution**

  There is an increasing use of electronic order routing where customers access markets directly and there is little or no personal contact between the firm and the customer in the day to day execution of the customer’s business. This means that the rationale for particular transactions may not be known by the firm.

18.93 The nature and extent of any monitoring activity will therefore need to be determined by a firm based on an assessment of their particular business profile. This will be different for each firm and may include an assessment of the following matters:

- extent of execution vs clearing business undertaken;
- nature of customer base (geographic location, regulated or unregulated);
- number of customers and volume of transactions;
- types of products traded and complexity of those products;
- payment processes (including payments to third parties, if permitted).

18.94 Firms should ensure that any relevant factors taken into account in determining their monitoring activities, that the programme is adequately documented and subject to periodic review. Given the bespoke nature of some wholesale market products and the difficulties in developing meaningful rules for electronic monitoring (e.g., a lack of typologies for the sector), it may well be appropriate for a firm to monitor manually. Firms should, however, be able to demonstrate the rationale for their monitoring strategy.

18.95 Firms relying on third parties under the ML Regulations to apply CDD measures cannot rely on the third party in respect of monitoring.
19: Name-passing brokers in inter-professional markets

Note: This sectoral guidance is incomplete on its own. It must be read in conjunction with the main guidance set out in Part I of the Guidance.

Overview of the sector

19.1 In the inter-professional markets, wholesale market brokers pass the names of customers from one principal to another, either by the traditional voice broking method or via an electronic platform owned by the broker. The broker passing the names takes no part in any transaction or trade between the two counterparties.

19.2 The activity enables the broker to use his wide range of contacts across the wholesale markets to provide liquidity to the market, by putting in touch principals with a wish to transact, but who may not have the broker’s depth of information about willing counterparties. The use of a broker also allows pre-trade anonymity for those counterparties who do not wish their position to be made known to the wider market.

19.3 Wholesale market brokers can arrange transactions in any product permitted under the Regulated Activities Order, or which is covered by the Non Investment Products code, published by the Bank of England.

Different types of relationship

19.4 The names which may be passed by the broker are generally limited to entities subject to financial regulation, to corporates and to Local Authorities. Regulated entities may be subject to regulation by the FSA or by an overseas regulator; corporates may likewise be UK domiciled or based abroad; Local Authorities are generally UK-based.

19.5 In principle, transactions of all types may take place between any of these parties. There is no difference in how the name-passing takes place, although there is an awareness that standards of regulation and corporate governance will vary across jurisdictions.

What are the money laundering risks in name passing?

19.6 Across all wholesale markets, the vast majority of participants are known to the other market counterparties. Many participants are subject to financial regulation, and most corporates who are dealt with are listed, and subject to public accountability. In principle, therefore, the money laundering risk in name-passing is very low. The risk associated with name-passing relates to the resultant transactions and business relationships, which are covered by other parts of the sectoral guidance.

Who is the customer for AML purposes?

19.7 Wholesale market brokers are arrangers in the sense of a financial intermediary. The principals introduced by name-passing brokers, who subsequently enter into trades or transactions with one another, are each other’s customer if the principal is subject to the ML Regulations.
19.8 The name-passing brokers themselves play no part in any transaction.

**Customer due diligence**

19.9 Wholesale market brokers must identify, and verify the identity of, the principals they pass to other market participants.

19.10 Principals that are required to comply with the requirements of Part I, Chapter 5, due to their being subject to the ML Regulations, cannot look to name-passing brokers to undertake identity verification procedures on their behalf.

19.11 The principals must therefore take steps to obtain, appropriately verify, and record the identity of counterparties (and any underlying beneficiaries) “introduced” to them by name-passing brokers.

19.12 Where a counterparty “introduced” by a name-passing broker fails to satisfy a principal’s AML identity verification checks, the principal is responsible for informing the name-passing broker that the prospective counterparty cannot be accepted.
20: Brokerage services to funds

Note: This sectoral guidance is incomplete on its own. It must be read in conjunction with the main guidance set out in Part I of the Guidance.

This sectoral guidance is intended for firms such as prime brokers, executing brokers and clearing brokers providing brokerage services funds, which may be regulated or regulated and based in equivalent or non-equivalent jurisdictions (“funds”). The guidance considers specific issues over and above the more general guidance set out in Part I, Chapters 4, 5, and 7, which such firms will need to take into account when considering applying a risk-based approach.

A firm’s business activities with such funds may also fall within the scope of other sectoral guidance, for example, sector 18: Wholesale Markets and sector 9: Discretionary and advisory investment management (c.f. paragraphs 9.20 to 9.22). As such, this sectoral guidance should be read together with other applicable parts of the guidance.

Overview of the sector

20.1 A fund is a vehicle established to hold and manage investments and assets. A fund usually has a stated purpose and/or set of investment objectives. It is important to draw a distinction between funds that are personal investment vehicles (set up by private wealth management) and those for a commercial purpose with, usually unrelated, investors (e.g. hedge funds). However, as both types of fund can use the same structures, the line between the two may sometimes be hard to distinguish.

20.2 Funds will normally be separate legal entities, formed as limited companies, limited partnerships and trusts (or the equivalent in civil law jurisdictions), so that the assets and liabilities may be restricted to the fund itself. Sub-funds typically take the form of different classes of shares, fund allocations to separately incorporated trading vehicles or legally ring-fenced portfolios. The investors in the funds are the beneficial owners and the source of funds.

20.3 Funds may also operate a “master/feeder” arrangement, whereby investors, from different tax jurisdictions, invest via separate feeder funds that hold shares only in the master fund. Feeder funds may also on occasion invest/deal directly and therefore a firm may provide services to a fund that is acting in its own right while at the same time being a feeder fund of another, master, fund.

20.4 Dependent upon the structure, a fund is controlled by its directors, partners or trustees. However, in most instances the powers of the directors, partners or trustees will be delegated to the investment manager. It is not unusual to find that the key personnel of a fund are also the key personnel of the investment manager.

20.5 The complexity of the structures and multiple relationships associated with funds can often give rise to particular difficulties/uncertainties. It is, therefore, important that a firm knows who it is dealing with (an Executing/Clearing broker should not focus on the prime broker) and is clear about what it needs to achieve: who are the principal controllers (e.g. who has the
day-today decision making functions?) and the owners of the assets (who is investing into the fund(s)?).

Once these questions are answered, the precise steps to identify and verify the relevant parties will vary in each case.

20.6 The following diagram illustrates some of the key players in a fund, specifically a master feeder fund structure.

Note that the precise structure in each case will vary.

Note: both the Administrator and Investment Manager will usually act for the underlying feeder funds.

- **Ultimate Controllers**
  The ultimate controller is someone who controls the funds/assets in the fund (e.g. the person who gives the orders). The ultimate controller may be a different person/entity in different fund set-ups but is usually not the beneficial owner. Sometimes it can be the investment manager, the adviser, or directors of other related parties, who may delegate this responsibility. Whilst the controller is not necessarily the owner, in personal investment vehicles it may be the voting shareholders, directors, holders of founding shares, who can sell or change the assets. The place to look for those who are the ultimate controllers is usually the fund’s offering memorandum (although the documents provided at the account opening stage may not be final – see 20.18 below). Firms should also consider the legal agreements and ask who has control; ambiguity suggests more due diligence is needed.

- **Investment Manager**
  Funds are managed by an investment manager, which is a separate legal entity to the fund, and which is given authority to act as agent and manage the funds and investments held by the fund vehicle. It is often the investment manager that will make investment decisions and place transactions with a firm as agent of the fund.
The investment manager plays a pivotal role within a fund structure, as it establishes and maintains the relationships with the Prime broker and the Clearing and Executing brokers and will, in most cases, be the direct contact with a firm on behalf of the fund. A firm may also act as investment manager to a fund in addition to providing other services (see section 9: Discretionary and advisory investment management).

Investment managers will usually be regulated but, depending upon the jurisdiction they are registered in or operate from, they may be subject to varying degrees of regulatory oversight. Firms should, therefore, satisfy themselves of the regulatory status and responsibilities of investment managers, in particular with respect to AML.

The relationship the investment manager has with investment advisers and ultimate controllers of the fund will vary depending upon the degree of control the investment manager has over the:

a) selection of investors;
b) investment strategy of the fund; and
c) placement of orders.

A fund may have more than one investment manager, known as sub-managers. Sub-managers are responsible for managing/investing part of the fund, and, depending on the structure of the fund, there may be more than one sub-manager. Where investment management making decisions are delegated to sub-manager(s), CDD measures should be applied accordingly.

- **Investment Adviser**

Some funds appoint separate investment advisers who will advise the fund with regard to investment decisions undertaken on behalf of the fund, and on occasion, depending on the structure of the funds, may place orders with a firm. Where investment management making decisions are delegated to the investment adviser and/or where the firm is taking orders from the investment adviser, CDD measures should be applied accordingly.

- **Administrator**

Administrative services such as the day to day operation of the fund (e.g. valuations) and routine tasks associated with managing investments on behalf of investors (e.g. managing subscriptions and redemptions) will ordinarily be undertaken by a separate entity known as the fund administrator. An administrator may be responsible for identifying and verifying the investors for AML purposes. In certain circumstances it might be appropriate to rely on the activities of the administrator in respect of the source of funds.

Fund administrators are often regulated/licensed (e.g., in Ireland) but their responsibilities may vary (e.g. depending on the domicile of the fund). Firms should, therefore, satisfy themselves of the regulatory status and responsibilities of administrators, in particular with respect to AML. The responsibilities of the Administrator are normally outlined in the Offering Memorandum/Prospectus.

For some fund structures there may be different administrators for different feeder funds. It is important to identify all administrators whose responsibility it is to source investors and to apply due diligence measures accordingly.

- **Other Relationships**

In addition to the above-mentioned entities, who are involved with the operation and management of the fund, other parties may also be involved, such as auditors, law firms,
trustees, and custodians. These parties may be less relevant to a firm meeting its AML obligations, but they may give a more complete picture of the fund set-up.

20.7 The following diagram sets out the likely services a firm in the capital markets may provide to a fund (although, as discussed above, the firm could deal with the fund via a number of entities).

- **Transaction Execution**
  Transactions or trading are undertaken for a fund by a firm commonly known as an executing broker. A fund may elect to execute transactions through one or more firms. The executing broker takes instructions from the fund or its appointed agent (usually the investment manager), but passes the transactions/trades to a clearing broker for clearing and settlement.

  - An executing broker may give up a transaction to a clearing broker for settlement (see section 18: Wholesale Markets).
  - In transactions that involve delivery vs payment (DVP) cash or securities are swapped between the executing broker and settlement/clearing agent or, on occasion, the custodian.

An executing broker should be clear to whom they are speaking (i.e. who gives order) to and in what capacity, in order to determine whom they are facing.

The executing broker typically provides execution-only services to the investment manager and settles with a regulated prime broker(s).

- **Clearing/Settlement**
  A fund may elect to execute transactions through one or more firms and elect to settle or clear such transactions through another firm known as the clearing broker. The clearing broker will settle the transaction/trades on behalf of the fund, and as such will handle the movement of funds or assets from the fund in settlement of the fund’s transactions and liabilities.
• **Prime Brokerage Services**

Prime brokerage is the provision of brokerage products and services to a fund. Prime brokerage is a portal to a suite of products and services offered by a prime broker such as custody, reporting, securities lending, cash lending and pricing (i.e. valuation services). Some prime brokers provide capital introduction, start-up services, credit intermediation, straight-through processing, futures and options clearing, research, contracts for difference and credit default swaps. Some funds may appoint more than one prime broker. The precise relationships will depend on the products and circumstances. However, it is important to recognise that although a prime broker takes equitable title to assets, where an executing broker is giving-up to a prime broker the credit risk to the executing broker is with the prime broker and the AML risk to the executing broker will be with the fund, investment manager etc.

• **Multiple function brokers**

A firm may undertake more than one of the prime, clearing and executing broker functions set out above, depending upon the structure set up for the fund by the investment manager.

**What are the money laundering risks associated with funds?**

20.8 Funds are perceived as attractive vehicles for money launderers. There are seven primary factors giving rise to this perception:

- The identity of those who invest into the funds will, in most cases, not be known to the firm providing services to the fund;
- An unregulated or possibly lightly regulated fund may make it more difficult to ensure that the AML requirements applied to investors are of the appropriate standard;
- A fund can have complex structures and consequently may appear to lack transparency of ownership and control;
- A fund offers a private agreement between investors and the fund, and has traditionally been subjected to limited, or no, regulatory oversight or control;
- Money flows in and out of a fund in the form of new subscriptions and redemptions of investors’ interests (subject to the fund’s subscription and redemption terms) and the bank accounts of the fund may be held offshore, sometimes in jurisdictions with banking secrecy;
- The volume and size of fund trading activity and the complexity of underlying trading strategies; and
- The fund may accept nominee investments.

**How to assess the elements of risk**

20.9 The level of risk actually posed by the fund will depend upon the nature of the fund and its transparency. The risks can be determined through undertaking appropriate customer due diligence, and in particular through understanding to whom the fund is marketed and its structure and objectives, as well as the track record and reputation/standing of the investment manager and/or other relevant parties in control of the fund.
20.10 The status and reputation of other service providers, such as executing, clearing or prime brokers, the administrator, auditors and law firms may be a factor in determining the risks associated with a fund.

20.11 Where a firm agrees to undertake third party payments on behalf of a fund, the risks of money laundering and fraud is increased. A firm should therefore ensure it has adequate procedures and systems-controls to manage the risk associated with those types of payments and receipts. A firm may wish to consider monitoring and/or undertaking periodic reviews of these types of payments and receipts, as well as ensuring appropriate levels of sign-off with the firm.

Understanding the Business for Risk Purposes

20.12 A firm should also consider, as part of its wider obligations in respect of financial crime and to mitigate reputational risk, whether there are any red flags that warrant further investigation. Some of the questions firms may wish to consider include, where relevant, whether the size and reputation of the service providers (administrator, investment manager, auditor, lawyers etc) match the funds profile and whether the due diligence procedures for investors into the fund appropriate?

Whilst structures associated with funds are often complex and involve a number of jurisdictions, an important question is: does it make sense? For example, why is a fund regulated and listed in different jurisdictions? Also, where, an administrator is located in non-equivalent jurisdiction or specific concerns have been identified, closer inspection of the administrator’s due diligence activities and background should be considered.

Who is a firm’s customer for AML purposes?

20.13 Where the firm’s customer qualifies for the treatment of simplified due diligence (see Part I, section 5.4), no customer due diligence is required. This would be true even where the firm is aware that its customer is acting on behalf of an underlying customer who would not itself qualify for simplified due diligence; no question of reliance under Regulation 17 will arise.

Who a firm should view as its customer, and who the firm should therefore subject to identification and verification procedures, may vary according to the business undertaken for funds. It is also important to recognise the answer to the question who is the customer may vary for FSA Conduct of Business and AML purposes. The following sets out examples of who may be viewed as the customer for AML purposes, and therefore should be subject to customer due diligence. Customer due diligence scenarios are also set out in Annex 20-I.

- Where the firm is acting as the investment manager or investment adviser for a fund, see sector 9: Discretionary and advisory investment management.

- Where the firm is acting as an executing broker, the customer for AML purposes may be the fund, the investment manager, or both of them, depending upon the fund structure, the regulatory status of the parties and where appropriate the firm’s risk-based approach and policies.

References to Investment Manager in this section also refer to Investment Adviser
In particular, where the firm is acting for another party, for example, the investment manager, who is itself acting as agent for the underlying fund, the following should apply:

- Where the agent is appropriately regulated (or equivalent), they will be the customer for AML purposes, and there is no requirement to look to the underlying fund as a customer, unless otherwise agreed by the parties. The investors into the fund are the beneficial owners.

- Where the agent is unregulated, or regulated within a non-equivalent jurisdiction, both the agent and the underlying fund will be considered to be the customer for AML purposes.

- Where the firm is acting as clearing broker and/or settlement agent the customer for AML purposes will be the fund. However, where a firm is taking instructions from the investment manager, the investment manager will also be a customer.

- Where the firm is providing prime broker services, the customer for AML purposes will be the fund. However, where a firm is taking instructions from the investment manager, the investment manager will also be a customer.

20.14 Information collected by other departments in a firm, such as risk, operations, legal or credit may be helpful in ascertaining the risk. However, as discussed, above, different entities may be considered to be the counterparty for the purposes of, for example, credit risk, FSA Conduct of Business rules, AML.

**Customer due diligence**

20.15 Due to the characteristics of funds outlined above, in addition to applying CDD measures to the customer and (where simplified due diligence cannot be applied to the customer) the beneficial owners, it is appropriate to identify, depending on the risk, other parties involved such as the fund itself, its managers/advisers, and the fund’s ultimate controllers and understand their relationships and roles.

20.16 On occasion, practical aspects of fund management are conducted onshore as a result of the delegation of responsibility for certain activities to onshore entities that may be subject to regulatory oversight. The interplay of these relationships needs to be assessed when determining the extent of due diligence necessary.

20.17 Depending on the services the firm is offering or providing to the fund, a firm should have particular regard to:

- Whether the firm is to have the Master Fund as its customer.
  
  In such cases, firms will wish to obtain information from the Feeder Fund’s offering memoranda/prospectuses and, in some instances, information on the fund’s investors.

- Who places orders and transactions on behalf of the fund or makes the investment decisions for the fund(s).
  
  Often, this will be the investment manager, and the firm should review the investment management agreement to understand the scope of the manager’s authority/control.

- Whether there are any regulated or other reputable servicing entities in the fund set up.
Whether a fund’s ownership/control structure comprises numerous layers of entities and/or is transparent and understandable, and ensuring that the firm has a good understanding of the structure rather than focusing on the strict legal form alone.

20.18 The fund’s prospectus, offering memorandum or other documents will set out details of the fund structure, appointed service providers - the investment manager, administrator, prime broker, lawyers and auditors - together with a summary of the material contracts such as the administration, investment management and prime brokerage agreements. If any documents are not final at the account opening stage, confirmation could be sought from an independent and reliable source attesting that key information will not change in the final version i.e. details of administrators, investment managers, or in the event they may change, the firm will be informed as soon as reasonably practicable. In this situation, a firm might decide, on a risk sensitive basis, to accept such confirmation. Final versions of the documentation should, however, be obtained and reviewed before the account is finally approved.

20.19 Where the fund has a number of layers of entities in its ownership/control structure (e.g. linked feeder and/or intermediate funds), to the extent practical and on the basis of a firm’s risk-based approach, this chain and the inter-relationships between the parties, whilst not necessarily subject to the guidance set out in Part I, Chapter 5, should be established and documented.

20.20 Where the fund is the customer, the requirements for identification and verification of corporate structures, trusts, and individuals etc, which are set out in Part I, Chapter 5 should be applied to the fund.

20.21 A firm should also identify the entities involved with the fund on which it is required to carry out due diligence e.g. customers, beneficial owners. A firm may also wish to carry out commercial due diligence on other parties.

Investment manager

20.22 The identity of the investment manager that has direct contact with the firm, or which instructs the firm on behalf of the fund must be verified, in accordance with the guidance relevant to their entity type, set out in Part I, Chapter 5. Where simplified due diligence can be applied to the investment manager (see Part I, Chapter 5, section 5.4) there is no duty to identify the underlying customer (i.e., the fund or its relevant investors) provided the firm has no relationship with the fund (if it has, the firm will need to perform CDD on the fund and its relevant investors, but may wish to consider reliance (c.f. Part I, paragraphs 5.6.4ff). As discussed above, though, under its risk-based assessment a firm may consider it appropriate to identify other parties involved.

20.23 Where, however, an investment manager is unregulated or not regulated in an equivalent jurisdiction, the firm must undertake CDD on the investment manager (even if the firm has a customer relationship with the fund). A firm may also consider additional checks, which could include considering requesting or obtaining proof of exempt status where the investment manager is operating from a jurisdiction where similar entities are usually regulated.

Investors and relevant investors

20.24 Shares or units in funds may be open to general subscription, or to purchase by any qualifying investors. Alternatively, funds may be established for the exclusive use of a closed group of private investors. Whereas the Investment Manager usually ‘controls’ a fund, investors in a fund should be viewed as representing the ultimate source of funds of the customer. Firms
should, therefore, consider whether or not there is a need for them to look at the underlying investors in such vehicles. This will depend on the status of the fund (e.g. publically traded or private) and how it is operated in terms of dealing in its units/shares e.g. where such dealings are traded on a regulated market or exchange.

20.25 Where the fund is publicly traded, the underlying investors would be regarded as a class of beneficiary and so would not need to be verified individually. However, where the vehicle is being operated for private use by a specific group of individuals, those that have a 25% or more interest fund would be "relevant investors", on whom CDD should be undertaken as beneficial owners (see Part I, Chapter 5, paragraph 5.3.8ff).

20.26 Although it will often be the administrators to the fund, it is important to establish who in the fund structure is responsible for the CDD process. If the party responsible for verifying the identity of the Relevant Investors is regulated in an equivalent jurisdiction and satisfies the definition of 'third party' in the ML Regulations, the firm may, in line with its own risk-based approach, be able to rely upon the third party to apply appropriate CDD measures (except monitoring) in respect of any Relevant Investors (see Part I, paragraph 5.6.4ff).

20.27 However, where the party responsible for the CDD process is not regulated in an equivalent jurisdiction, the firm should, as part of the determination as to the level of assurance necessary, also satisfy itself with regard the AML procedures of the responsible party.

20.28 Whether a firm has to identify and take risk-based and adequate measure to verify the identity of relevant investors, will, however, depend on a number of factors. In general terms, two scenarios can be distinguished depending on whether the firm has a business relationship with the investment manager and/or the fund:

(a) Customer relationship with the investment manager (no relationship with the fund)

   (i) Investment manager regulated in an equivalent jurisdiction

   ➢ Where the investment manager is the firm’s customer and simplified due diligence (SDD) can be applied to the investment manager (see Part I, Chapter 5, section 5.4) there is no duty to identify the underlying customer (i.e., the fund and its relevant investors (if any)) although, as discussed above, under its risk-based assessment a firm may consider it appropriate to identify other parties involved.

   Diagram 1
The firm does not have a customer relationship with the Fund and receives instructions only from the investment manager. The firm is able to perform simplified due diligence (SDD) on the investment manager, subject to which it is not under any obligation to undertake CDD on the fund.

(ii) Investment manager not subject to regulation in an equivalent jurisdiction

Diagram 2

The firm does not have a customer relationship with the fund and receives instructions only from the investment manager. It is, however, required to undertake CDD on both the investment manager and the fund on the behalf of which the investment manager is acting (i.e. simplified due diligence is not available).

The investment manager may or may not be subject to adequate customer due diligence obligations and cannot be relied upon under Regulation 17. Nonetheless, if the firm is able to satisfy itself on an ongoing basis that the CDD performed by the investment manager is adequate and available to the firm on request, it may elect to re-use the due diligence work carried out by the investment manager. Otherwise the firm will need to undertake its own due diligence measures (including on any relevant investors).

(b) Customer relationship with fund

➢ Where the fund is the firm’s customer, then the firm may, if it considers it appropriate to do so under its risk-based approach, place reliance on a third party, which satisfies the definition in the ML Regulations, to perform CDD measures, including identification of beneficial owners (see Part I, Chapter 5, paragraph 5.6.19ff).

(i) Investment manager, administrator or investment adviser regulated in an equivalent jurisdiction
Subject to the firm’s risk-based approach, a firm may take steps to establish that reasonable measures are in place within the fund structure for verifying the identity of Relevant Investors in the fund; obtaining assurances from that party that there are:

- Relevant Investors whose identity will be disclosed to enable the firm to take appropriate measures to verify their identity, or
- no Relevant Investors.

Where a firm accepts such a representation, this should be documented, retained, and subject to periodic review.

Diagram 3

The firm has a customer relationship with the fund, which has been introduced by the investment manager (investment adviser etc). The firm is required to undertake CDD on both the investment manager (investment adviser etc) and the fund.

However, the firm is able to apply simplified due diligence (SDD) on the investment manager and can, subject to consent by the investment manager, place reliance upon it for the purposes of CDD on the fund under Regulation 17. Similarly, a firm may be able to place reliance on a regulated administrator for CDD on the fund, provided the requirements of Regulation 17 are satisfied.
(ii) Investment manager (administrator or investment adviser etc) not subject to regulation in an equivalent jurisdiction

Diagram 4

The firm has a customer relationship with the fund, which has been introduced by the investment manager (or investment adviser etc). The firm is required to undertake CDD on both the investment manager (investment adviser etc) and the fund.

The investment manager may or may not be subject to adequate customer due diligence obligations, but cannot be relied upon under Regulation 17 of the Money Laundering Regulations 2007 ("Regulation 17"). The firm will need to undertake its own due diligence measures (including on any relevant investors).

20.29 Where a firm is required to carry out its own due diligence on relevant investors - and/or following its assessment of the money laundering risk presented by the fund it feels it is not appropriate to place reliance on a third party - the firm must identify and verify the identity of Relevant Investors in accordance with the relevant guidance set out in Part I, Chapter 5, paragraph 5.3.8ff.

Start-up funds

20.30 On occasion, a firm may offer services to, or establish a relationship with, a fund that is a start-up. Start-up funds are funds that are in the pre-investor phase, and as such it is not appropriate to consider undertaking due diligence on the Relevant Investors; until the start-up phase is complete, the investors and their status as relevant or not, may change, depending on who else invests in the fund. In these circumstances, a firm should review the Relevant Investor situation and undertake, where appropriate, due diligence on Relevant Investors.

Feeder funds

20.31 At a minimum, the Feeder funds within a Master/Feeder structure should be identified in accordance with the guidance in Part I, Chapter 5. The entity responsible for AML/CTF due diligence at the Feeder Funds (ordinarily the Administrator, Registrar or Transfer Agent) should also be identified, as a firm may consider it necessary to place reliance on this entity pursuant with paragraph 20.26.
20.32 Feeder funds will own the assets/money held by the master fund. As the feeder funds will be investors in the fund, a firm should consider whether, under the ML Regulations or based upon its risk-based approach, the identity of the investors in the feeder funds needs to be verified, as Relevant Investors/beneficial owners.

**Variations on Customer Due Diligence**

**Enhanced Due Diligence**

20.33 In addition to the situations outlined in Part I, section 5.5, as part of a firm’s risk-based approach it may feel it necessary to undertake Enhanced Due Diligence on its customer and/or related parties e.g. a firm may consider obtaining independent validation from appropriate third parties.

**Ultimate Controllers**

20.34 Ultimate control may be exercised through a chain of entities between the fund and the ultimate controller. This relationship should be established and documented.

20.35 Where, because of the risk profile of the fund, a firm feels it appropriate to undertake Enhanced Due Diligence, the identity of the fund’s ultimate controller should be obtained and verified. Standard identity information in respect of the fund’s ultimate controller(s) where they are not the investment manager should be obtained, and the identity of the ultimate controller(s) should as appropriate be verified in accordance with the guidance for their entity type set out in Part I, section 5.3.

**Feeder Funds**

20.36 Where, because of the risk profile of the fund, a firm feels it appropriate to undertake Enhanced Due Diligence, the identity of the feeder fund should be verified in accordance with the guidance in Part I, Chapter 5, ensuring that the relevant investors of the feeder funds are subjected to the guidance set out in paragraphs 20.21ff.

**Reliance on third parties**

20.37 To avoid unnecessary duplication where an executing broker and a clearing broker are undertaking elements of the same exchange transaction on behalf of the same customer, which is not a regulated firm in an equivalent jurisdiction, the executing broker may be able to rely upon the clearing broker under the ML Regulations (see Part I, paragraphs 5.6.4ff) or otherwise take account of the fact that there is another regulated firm from an equivalent jurisdiction acting as clearing agent or providing other services in relation to the transaction.

20.38 Where a firm is acting as clearing broker or prime broker, from a risk-based perspective the firm should not rely upon a third party and should undertake full customer due diligence, including where relevant on beneficial owners, as set out in Part I, Chapter 5.

**Monitoring**

20.39 The money laundering risks to firms offering services to funds can be mitigated by the implementation of monitoring procedures. Guidance on the general monitoring requirements is set out in Part I, section 5.7. However, there are specific characteristics of funds which will be relevant, in particular the use of multiple brokers.
20.40 Customers may choose to allocate execution, clearing and prime brokerage between different firms and many customers may use more than one execution broker. The reasons for this include ensuring that they obtain best execution, competitive rates, or to gain access to a particular specialism within one firm. This will restrict a firm’s ability to monitor a customer, as they may not be aware of all activity or even contingent activity associated with the transactions they are undertaking.

20.41 Monitoring funds’ activity will be affected by the fact that firms may only have access to a part of the overall picture of their customer’s trading activities. The fact that many customers spread their activities over a number of financial firms will mean that many firms will have a limited view of a customer’s trading activities and it may be difficult to assess the commercial rationale of certain transactions.

20.42 The nature and extent of any monitoring activity will therefore need be determined by a firm based on a risk-based assessment of the firm’s business profile. This will be different for each firm and may include an assessment of the following matters:

- Extent of business undertaken (executing, clearing, prime brokerage or a mixture of all three);
- Nature of funds who are customers (e.g. geographic location);
- Number of customers and volume of transactions;
- Types of products traded and complexity of those products; and
- Payment procedures.

20.43 Firms should ensure that any relevant factors taken into account in determining their monitoring activities are adequately documented, and are subject to appropriate periodic review.

20.44 Firms relying on third parties under the ML Regulations to apply CDD measures cannot rely on the third party in respect of monitoring.
21 Invoice finance

Note: This sectoral guidance is incomplete on its own. It must be read in conjunction with the main guidance set out in Part I of the Guidance.

Products

21.1 Invoice finance companies offer a number of products to fund the working capital requirements of their clients; these generally fall into two categories – Factoring agreements and Invoice Discounting agreements. These can be operated on a Recourse or Non Recourse basis, and with or without disclosure of the assignment of the sales invoice to the client’s customers, the debtors.

Factoring Agreements

21.2 Factoring is a contract between an invoice finance company and their client where revolving finance is provided against the value of the client’s sales ledger that is sold to the invoice financier. The invoice finance company will manage the client’s sales ledger and will normally provide the credit control and collection services. The client assigns all their invoices, as usually a whole turnover contract is used, after the goods or service has been delivered or performed. The invoice finance company will then typically advance up to 85% of the invoiced amount – the gross amount including VAT. The balance, less charges, is then paid to the client once the debtor makes full payment to the invoice finance company. The assignment is usually disclosed to the debtor, (although some contracts are operated on an agency basis, via the client, without disclosure of the assignment to the debtors and on occasions the management of the sales ledger can remain with the client as well).

Invoice Discounting Agreements

21.3 Invoice Discounting is a contract between the invoice finance company and their client where revolving finance is provided against the value of the client’s sales ledger. The client will manage the sales ledger and will normally continue to provide the credit control and collection services. The client assigns all invoices, as usually a whole turnover contract is used, after the goods or service have been delivered or performed. The invoice finance company records and monitors this on a bulk sales ledger basis rather than retaining the individual invoice detail. The invoice finance company will then typically advance up to 85% of the invoiced amount. The balance, less any charges, is then paid to the client once the debtor makes full payment to the invoice finance company. The client undertakes the collection of the debt under an agency agreement within the contract. The client is obligated to ensure that the payments from debtors are passed to the invoice finance company. Where there is an agreement that the assignment is not disclosed, the colloquial title of Confidential Invoice Discounting is used to describe the undisclosed product, but confidentiality only exists at the discretion of the invoice finance company (whilst they are prepared to operate the agency arrangement).

Asset-Based Lending

21.4 Asset-Based Lending in the Invoice Finance industry would usually have the client’s sales ledger at the core of the facility. It is a contract between the invoice finance company and their client
where revolving finance and/or fixed amortising finance is provided against a ‘basket’ of assets – accounts receivables, inventory, plant machinery, property, etc.

**Recourse Agreements**

21.5 *Recourse agreements* can apply to factoring or invoice discounting agreements. If the customer fails to pay the amount due to the client, then the invoice finance company will look to the client for reimbursement of any money they have advanced against that invoice.

**Non Recourse Agreements**

21.6 *Non-Recourse agreements* can apply to factoring or invoice discounting facilities. The invoice finance company effectively offers a bad debt protection service to the client. If the customer fails to pay the amount due to the client, due to insolvency, the invoice finance company stands the credit loss up to the protected amount, which is the value of the credit limit provided against the particular customer, less any agreed first loss amount.

**Affiliated Factoring Companies**

21.7 Assigned sales invoices may include overseas sales which require international credit control and collection services. Where the invoice finance company is not able to undertake this cross border activity, typically due to the lack of its own international network, it may enter into an arrangement with an Affiliated Factoring Company [AFC] in the appropriate country. This is often known as Export Factoring.

21.8 Affiliated Factoring Companies, operating in their own countries, will frequently have sales invoices with sales that require credit control and collection services to be performed in the United Kingdom. Where the AFC is not able to undertake this cross border activity, typically due to the lack of its own international network, it may enter into an arrangement with an invoice finance company in the United Kingdom. This is often known as Import Factoring.

21.9 The activities and associated risks are considered to be similar to correspondent banking* albeit are considered to be a lower risk, the financier being fully aware of the underlying transaction and the purpose of payment. For export facilities, the use of an approved AFC, in the country in which the debtor is domiciled also assists in reducing the risk associated with the transaction.

*See Part II, sector 16: *Correspondent banking* for specific guidance on the risks and controls applicable to this type of activity.

**What are the money laundering risks in invoice finance?**

21.10 As with any financial service activity, invoice finance products are susceptible to use by criminals to launder money. Both Factoring and Invoice Discounting products facilitate third party payments and may therefore be used by criminals for money laundering activity. The different invoice finance products available vary greatly and the degree of risk is directly related to the product offering.

21.11 The level of physical cash receipts directly received within the invoice finance sector is extremely low, as the vast majority of debtors settle outstanding invoices by way of cheque or electronic payment methods. Therefore the susceptibility of the invoice finance sector at the traditional placement stage is very low. The risk within the invoice finance industry is at the layering and integration stages of money laundering.

21.12 The main money laundering risks within the invoice finance sector are payments against invoices where there is no actual movement of goods or services provided, or the value of goods is overstated to facilitate the laundering of funds. As stated, the level of risk will depend upon the
nature of the product and the level of involvement by the finance company. Factoring should be considered to be a lower risk than invoice discounting, in view of the fact that direct contact is maintained with the debtor. Invoice discounting would represent an increased risk of money laundering due to the ‘hands off’ nature of the product.

21.13 The following factors will generally increase the risk of money laundering for invoice finance products:

- Cross border transactions
- Products with reduced paper trails
- Products where the invoice financier allows the client to collect the debt
- Confidential products
- Bulk products

21.14 The following factors will generally decrease the risk of money laundering for invoice finance products:

- Individual items (invoices, customers, receipts) being recorded and managed by the invoice financier
- Collections activity being undertaken by the invoice financier
- Non-recourse facilities
- Regular ongoing due diligence and monitoring including on-site inspections and verification of balances
- Regular statistical monitoring
- For export facilities, the use of an approved AFC, in the country in which the debtor is domiciled

(NB moved, see 21.18)

21.15 Frequent occurrences, within the Invoice Finance sector, are short-term breaches of the underlying agreements by the clients. These are often due to client error or the clients’ need for short term funding to cover a temporary deficiency. The vast majority of these short term breaches are not material in nature and the intelligence value of many of these occurrences, e.g., where invoices have been assigned prior to the actual delivery date by a matter of days, is extremely limited. However, the invoice financier should be aware that such instances could be one of the first indicators of the presence of money laundering and that a period of increased vigilance may be appropriate to ensure there is no reason to suspect money laundering.

21.16 The risks associated with short term breaches should be documented within the invoice finance company’s risk assessment and appropriate controls established to ensure that, where there is a suspicion of the presence of money laundering, an appropriate report is filed with SOCA.

21.17 Invoice finance companies should recognise within their risk assessment that even though they may appear to be the only party affected by the client’s, (or the client’s customer’s) action, the action in itself may represent an offence under POCA and as such the invoice finance company is obligated to file an appropriate report with SOCA.

Assessment of risk

21.18 It is important that each invoice finance company within its risk assessment has developed robust procedures to monitor the money laundering risks. Many of these procedures will overlap with those that are routinely used to manage credit risks within the sector, however other checks may need to be implemented, such as improved knowledge of the source of funds, that are different to the usual credit risk checks.
21.19 With extremely low levels of cash being transacted the susceptibility of the invoice finance sector at the traditional placement stage is very low.

21.20 Invoice finance products may be used to launder money at the layering and integration stages. However there are a number of factors that make the invoice finance facility less attractive to the money launderer, they are:

- The high levels of contact between the financier and the client, in terms of physical audits and visits, and of statistical monitoring
- The sophisticated IT monitoring techniques used to detect issues with the quality of the underlying security, consisting of the quality of the goods and the customers (debtors),
- In the case of factoring the item by item accounting and the regular direct contact with the debtors
- The focus on the debtors in terms of creditworthiness and assessment of risk
- The double scrutiny of payments, by the receiving bank and by the invoice financier

21.21 An invoice finance company operating a full factoring agreement, with regular contact, monitoring and review of the third party transactions, may determine that the risk level of Factoring Agreements, due to the level and frequency of the mitigating controls is low.

21.22 Invoice Discounting facilities, while generally considered higher risk than factoring facilities may also be characterised by regular due diligence by the Invoice Financier. The nature of these controls and the rationale for any reduction in risk assessment should be documented within the invoice finance company’s overall risk assessment, which should be updated and reviewed on a regular basis.

21.23 Cross border transactions represent an increased risk of the presence of money laundering. The nature of the agreement will lead to these transactions being managed in different ways. This risk is reduced when the credit control procedures are managed by an approved AFC in the country in which the debtor is domiciled.

21.24 In general, the normally low to medium risk of money laundering will increase with the reduction of the levels of intervention by the financier and the increase in the size of foreign transactions through the account.

**Who is the customer for AML purposes?**

21.25 In the invoice finance sector the party with whom the factoring company holds a contract to provide finance is usually referred to as a ‘client’ and the client’s customers as either ‘debtors’ or ‘customers’. Therefore references in Part I of the Guidance to ‘customer’ refer to the client within the invoice finance sector.

21.26 The identification requirements on which guidance is given in Part I, Chapter 5 will only apply to an invoice finance company’s clients – the parties with whom they have a contractual relationship. The client will be a business entity; a public limited company, private limited company, partnership or sole trader.

21.27 Whilst customers [the client’s debtors] may be identified for routine credit risk or collection purposes by the invoice finance company, the requirement to identify, or verify the identity, of these customers does not apply.
21.28 Where invoice finance companies are involved in syndicated arrangements, the customer is as defined within Part II, sector 17: Syndicated lending. In such cases, the guidance in sector 17 should be read in addition to the guidance in this part of the Guidance.

21.29 Where invoice finance companies are involved in arrangements with Affiliated Factoring Companies (AFC) the AFC becomes the customer in an export relationship and the client in an import relationship.

Customer Due Diligence

21.30 The CDD measures carried out at the commencement of the facility and the ongoing due diligence are very closely linked to anti-fraud measures and are one of the primary controls for preventing criminals using invoice finance facilities. Invoice finance companies should ensure that they coordinate both the identification and ongoing customer due diligence processes for clients in order to provide as strong a gatekeeper control as possible.

21.31 Invoice finance companies should carry out detailed initial CDD measures to gain a full understanding of the client and their business before opening a facility. This should be at a level to provide identification and establish expected activity patterns of their clients and their activities to meet the requirements set out in Part I, Chapter 5.

21.32 The identity of the client’s debtors will normally only be obtained from the client, as part of the understanding of that client, without verification being required. The invoice finance company’s risk assessment could determine that verification of the identity of some of the client’s debtors will also be required under appropriate circumstances.

21.33 In terms of money laundering, some invoice finance products are considered higher risk than others; in these cases, enhanced due diligence measures are required.

21.34 Enhanced due diligence is appropriate in the following, but not exhaustive, list of situations:

- Where any party connected to the client is a PEP. See Part I, paragraphs 5.5.18-5.5.25.
- When the client is involved in a business that is considered to present a higher risk of money laundering. Examples should be set out in the firm’s risk-based approach and should reflect the firm’s own experience and information produced by the authorities. See Part I, paragraphs 5.7.1-5.7.8 for guidance. These are likely to include the following, although this list should not be construed as exhaustive;
  - A client with any party associated with a country either on a residential or business activity basis that is deemed to have a relatively high risk of money laundering, or inadequate levels of supervision (see Part I, paragraphs 3.24-3.26). Examples of these countries can be found listed within the country assessments made by the International Monetary Fund or the Financial Action Task Force. Another source of information can be found within the Transparency International Corruption Perception Indexes that are published on an annual basis.
  - A client who carries a higher risk of money laundering by virtue of their business or occupation. Examples of which could be;
    - A business with a high level of cash sales.
    - A business with a high level of cross border sales, including Import-Export companies.
    - A business selling small high value goods that are easily disposed of.
- Where transactions or activity do not meet expected or historic expectations, it is likely they will include the following:
  - Size – monetary, frequency, etc.
  - Pattern – cyclical, logical, frequency, amount, etc
21.35 Monitoring aspects of enhanced due diligence should be set out in the invoice finance company’s risk-based approach. It is likely they will include the following:

- More frequent and detailed on-site inspections of the client’s books and records, frequently called an ‘Audit’, with appropriate management oversight and action of any significant deficiencies.
- More frequent and extensive verification, usually by telephone contact with the debtor, of the validity of the sale and invoice values.
- Greater management oversight of these facilities.
- Extended KYC