

First Time Originator's Guide to Securitisation

Originators can use securitisation to achieve a lower cost of funding than from other debt products and to remove securitised assets from their balance sheet. Securitisation plays an important role in facilitating liquidity and risk management, allowing originators to diversify funding sources, mitigate balance sheet risks and optimise capital allocation. Through unlocking asset value, spreading risk and improving market liquidity, securitisation can contribute to economic growth, facilitate access to capital for businesses and support

Securitisation is a form of structured financing, whereby the credit risks associated with a specific pool of assets, which are used as the collateral for the financing, are segregated from the originator's own credit risks. This is typically achieved by establishing a special purpose vehicle ("SPV"), which purchases the asset receivables from the originator and subsequently issues securities secured against these asset receivables to investors. The SPV then makes principal and interest payments to investors using receipts generated by the underlying assets. By structuring the SPV to hold only the securitised assets, distinct from the originator's group, the originator's credit risks are isolated from those linked to the underlying assets. The originator will, however, maintain customer relationships (with customers not being notified, in the ordinary course, of the securitisation).

Why establish a securitisation

Originators tend to fund their initial lending activity through loans from relationship banks, or equity funding, and then progress to structures such as forward flow structures once origination processes are tried and tested such that the originator is producing a stable asset pool and has some historical performance data for its business. Securitisation is the common next step for originators that have consistently originated at volume and want to achieve lower funding costs, start relationships with a wider range of investors and optimise capital allocation and balance sheet management.

How to establish a securitisation

An originator's treasurer or CFO, when considering securitisation as a funding tool, may consult with debt advisors or relationship banks to obtain insights into the market and likely pricing/funding economics. An originator's first securitisation is usually established with a single bank as a private funding facility, giving the originator an opportunity to benefit from lower funding costs. A number of banks are willing to provide flexible variable funding that allows funding to be drawn over time, similar to a revolving credit facility.

Different banks provide funding on different terms, and originators must consider different banks' proposed offerings and agree a structure and term sheet that works for the business.

Originators will rely on their advisors to negotiate the structure, term sheet and underlying documentation – securitisations are almost never done on a bank's standard terms, and an originator needs to ensure the terms it agrees to are workable even as the business grows, and in both good and challenging times.

Every originator's assets are different, and putting together a securitisation requires work by both the originator and the funding bank in diligencing the assets, including by looking at historical data.

Securitisation investors regard asset performance data as very important, and as the originator's business matures (and origination volumes grow) and increasing data

becomes available, investors are typically willing to invest on more favourable terms.

Other points of focus in establishing a securitisation include the cash management and collection account arrangements used by the originator and the terms and conditions applicable to the securitised assets. Investors will also typically seek to assure themselves that the way in which the originator deals with underlying customers is consistent with law, regulation and general market standards.

Ultimately, originators may establish a securitisation structure whereby asset backed securities are offered to a range of institutional investors in the public markets, via a secured bond issuance. These structures can give originators the benefit of a very low cost of funding, but require more disclosure, a minimum transaction size and (almost invariably) credit ratings, and are typically only used after an originator has securitised its assets privately for a number of years.

Types of securitisation and the underlying assets involved

'Securitisation' encompasses a variety of structures tailored to the specific characteristics of the underlying assets and the preferences of originators and investors. These structures differ in their complexity, risk profiles and regulatory treatment. Some common structures include:

Traditional securitisation

Traditional securitisation – summarised in the introductory paragraph above - involves the transfer of a pool of asset receivables to an SPV. The SPV issues securities backed by these asset receivables to investors. Cash flows from the underlying assets, including principal and interest payments, are used to fund debt service on the securities. This structure allows originators to monetise illiquid assets and diversify funding sources.

Synthetic securitisation

Synthetic securitisation involves the transfer of credit risk associated with a pool of assets without transferring the underlying assets themselves. This could be by the use of credit derivatives or financial guarantees. Synthetic securitisation can be used for risk management, regulatory capital relief or to create bespoke investment products.

A first time originator would be unlikely to enter into a synthetic securitisation, which is typically used by banks to free up regulatory capital, as synthetic securitisations typically do not provide funding. Accordingly, synthetic securitisation is not covered further in this briefing.

Whole business securitisation

Whole business securitisation involves the securitisation of cash flows generated by an entire business operation, rather than specific assets. This structure is often used by utilities and companies in industries such as hospitality, healthcare or franchising to monetise future revenue streams.

Underlying assets

A wide array of assets can be securitised, with the most typical being:

- residential and commercial mortgages or leases;
- personal loans and auto loans;
- commercial or trade receivables;
- corporate loan or bond portfolios;
- credit cards; and
- lease and rental receivables.

Other less common asset classes that have been securitised in the UK include, among others:

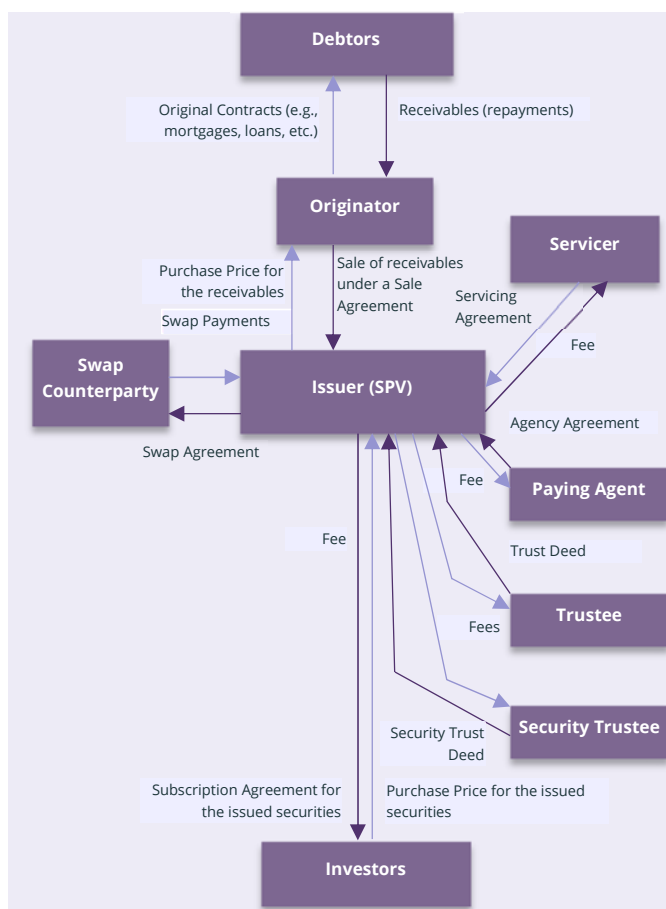
- IP royalty receivables;
- insurance premiums;
- healthcare receivables;
- ticket receivables;
- receivables from public utilities;
- mobile handset loan receivables; and
- student loan receivables.

Where the asset pool is limited to financial assets, such as mortgages, auto loans or credit card receivables, the securities issued by the SPV are commonly referred to as 'asset-backed securities' or 'ABS'. The securities are often structured with different tranches, each offering varying

levels of risk and return. ABS may be further classified based on the type of underlying assets, such as residential or commercial mortgage-backed securities ('RMBS' and 'CMBS', respectively), collateralised loan obligations ('CLOs') and collateralised debt (typically meaning, in this context, bonds) obligations ('CDOs').

Main parties to a securitisation and their roles

Securitisations involve a number of key parties. The following section provides an overview of the parties involved in a traditional securitisation structure.



Originators

The originator is the entity which originates or creates the underlying assets that will be securitised. Originators are typically financial institutions such as banks, specialist lenders, insurers or consumer finance companies, but can also be large corporates.

Debtors

Debtors are the counterparties of the originator in relation to the underlying assets, such as the borrower under a mortgage. The debtors will be obligated to periodically pay amounts to the originator on the terms of the underlying asset, which obligation constitutes a receivable. These

receivables form the pool of assets which are transferred to the SPV.

Servicer

The servicer is responsible for administering and servicing the underlying assets, which includes collecting payments from debtors, managing delinquencies and defaults, and distributing cash flows to investors. The servicer may be the originator or one of its affiliates or (less commonly) a third-party entity with expertise in asset servicing. Often a back-up servicer is also appointed to ensure a suitable experienced and creditworthy entity will continuously service the underlying assets throughout the life of the securitisation.

Servicers are paid a servicing fee, which is intended to be sufficient to attract a replacement servicer if necessary.

Issuer (SPV)

The issuer is the legal entity established specifically for the purpose of securitising the assets and issues the securities to be sold to external investors. The issuer will have limited activities and liabilities beyond the securitisation transaction and typically will also be isolated from the originator's group to ensure it is "bankruptcy remote" (such that it is unlikely to become insolvent merely because the originator has become insolvent and the originator's creditors will not have access to the issuer's assets in the event of the originator's insolvency).

Sponsors

Although not included in the diagram above, some securitisation structures may include a sponsor, which is commonly a highly rated affiliate of the originator. The sponsor acts as a key intermediary between the originator and the investors, by initiating the securitisation process and coordinating various aspects of the transaction (including legal and regulatory compliance, due diligence and disclosure). The sponsor may also provide credit enhancement to increase the marketability of the issued securities.

Investors

Investors are the main creditors under a securitisation, as they purchase the issued securities and thereby provide funding. In return, they will receive periodic payments of principal and interest on the securities, funded from cash flows generated by the securitised assets. Investors typically include sufficiently sophisticated persons such as

financial institutions, pension funds, insurance companies, asset managers, hedge funds, large corporates and (less commonly) high-net-worth individuals. The risk and return profile of the securities attract investors seeking predictable returns on investments with levels of credit risk and yield which vary with the seniority of the security and the nature of the underlying assets.

Note trustee

The note trustee is appointed on behalf of the investors and is usually a trust corporation or financial institution with a dedicated trustee department. In UK and European securitisations, a note trustee will generally only take an active role where modifications are required to the transaction documentation or to declare a default and accelerate the securities where directed by the investors.

Some securitisation transactions utilise alternatives to the traditional trustee structure, such as a fiscal agent arrangement or owner trust, which can offer different levels of oversight and control.

Security trustee or security agent

The security trustee or security agent holds the benefit of the security interests created in the securitisation on behalf of the secured parties (which includes the investors). They are typically an affiliated entity of the note trustee.

Swap counterparties

Swap counterparties are engaged to provide hedging to manage certain risks associated with the securitisation, such as interest rate or currency risks. Interest rate swaps (or caps) or currency swaps may be used to hedge against fluctuations in interest rates or foreign exchange rates, thereby mitigating potential adverse impacts on cash flows and investor returns. In the case of currency swaps in particular, they also allow for the securities to be issued in a different currency to the underlying assets (often US dollars, in order to attract US investors). Swap counterparties may include financial institutions, hedge funds or other entities with expertise in derivatives trading.

Legal counsel

Legal counsel play a critical role in structuring, negotiating and documenting the securitisation transaction, and will provide advice on compliance with applicable laws and regulations. Legal counsel also ensure that the transaction

is structured efficiently and is compliant with market standards and best practices.

Other parties and advisors

Various other parties and/or advisors may be appointed or involved in a securitisation transaction, depending on commercial need and the complexity of the structure. For example, other parties and advisors may include arrangers, investment managers, underwriters, clearing systems, accountants and rating agencies.

Key transaction documents

Securitisation transactions require a suite of core documents to provide for the rights, obligations and relationships among the various parties involved. These documents serve to define the structure of the transaction, establish the legal framework and govern the rights and responsibilities of each party. Key documents include:

Sale agreement

The sale agreement governs the transfer of the asset receivables from the originator to the issuer. It provides for the terms and conditions of the sale, including the purchase price, representations and warranties and any conditions precedent to closing.

Servicing agreement

The servicing agreement governs the servicing of the underlying assets by the servicer. It sets out the rights and obligations of the servicer, including the collection of payments in relation to, and administration of, the receivables, the management of delinquent and defaulted accounts and the provision of information relating to the underlying assets to the issuer and investors.

Offering memorandum / prospectus / transaction summary

The offering memorandum or prospectus (which is essential in a public transaction, but not required for a private transaction) is a regulatory and marketing document that provides potential investors with detailed information about the transaction, including details about the originator and the other transaction parties, the characteristics of the underlying assets, the structure of the securities being offered, the risks associated with the investment and the terms and conditions of the securities.

In private securitisations in the UK and the EU, in the absence of a prospectus, a transaction summary is required to be produced (containing an overview of the main features of the transaction) and is made available to investors, the relevant authorities and, upon request, to potential investors.

Subscription agreement

The subscription agreement (which is typically a feature of public transactions, where one or more arrangers or managers (which are typically banks) identify the end investors in the deal, rather than in private transactions) governs the purchase of securities by the initial investors (who will often be the financial institutions which arrange the transaction). It sets out the terms and conditions of the investment, including the purchase price, the number and type of securities being acquired and any representations and warranties made by the investor.

Trust deed

The trust deed governs the relationship between the issuer, the note trustee and the investors. It provides for the obligations of the issuer and the rights of the investors, including the payment of principal and interest under the securities, the allocation of cash flows from underlying assets and the procedures for default and enforcement.

Security agreement

Under the security agreement, the issuer grants security over the asset receivables and their proceeds in favour of the secured parties (which includes the investors).

Swap agreements

Swap arrangements, such as interest rate swaps (or caps) or currency swaps, may be used to hedge against interest rate or currency risks associated with the securitisation transaction. These arrangements are governed by separate agreements that outline the terms and conditions of the swap, including payment obligations and termination provisions.

Legal opinions / due diligence

Legal opinions may be provided by legal counsel to opine on the validity, enforceability and legality of the transaction

¹ Regulation (EU) No 596/2014 as it forms part of the domestic law of the UK by virtue of the European Union (Withdrawal) Act 2018 (the "EUWA"). Relevant for issuers of UK-listed securities.

documents and the securitisation structure as a whole, the incorporation and capacity of the transaction parties, the transaction's compliance with applicable regulatory requirements (discussed further below), the tax treatment of the transaction and certain key structural features such as "bankruptcy remoteness".

Some investors may also require a due diligence report produced by a legal adviser on the underlying assets, to check that the originator's standard documents comply with applicable law or regulation, and/or a due diligence report produced by an audit or specialist due diligence firm to check that loans are completed on the form of the standard documents, and/or that the originator keeps appropriate files and records for each debtor.

Overview of the legal and regulatory framework and key legal points

Securitisation transactions in the UK are subject to a comprehensive regulatory framework governing various aspects of securitisation transactions, including structuring, disclosure, risk management and investor communication. Such framework is derived from, and therefore very similar to, the regulatory regime in the EU. Key pieces of regulation from a UK perspective include:

- the Securitisation Regulations 2024 (SI 2024/102) (as amended)
- the securitisation part ("PRASR") of the Prudential Regulatory Authority ("PRA") Rulebook (for PRA-regulated entities)
- the securitisation sourcebook ("SECN") of the Financial Conduct Authority ("FCA") Handbook (for non-PRA regulated entities)
- the Financial Services and Markets Act 2000 and the Financial Services and Markets Act 2023
- the UK Market Abuse Regulation¹
- the UK POATRs²
- the UK Capital Requirements Regulation³ (for banks)

² Public Offers and Admissions to Trading Regulations 2024.

³ Regulation (EU) No 575/2013 as it forms part of the domestic law of the UK by virtue of the EUWA.

- UK Solvency II⁴ (for insurers)

The UK Securitisation Regulations, PRASR and SECN (together, the “**UK Securitisation Framework**”⁵), the relevant sections of the Financial Services and Markets Act 2000 and the UK Market Abuse Regulation (as well as the UK Capital Requirements Regulation and UK Solvency II in respect of relevant entities), as enforced by the FCA and PRA, aim to protect investors by promoting investor due diligence, transparency and risk retention.

On 17 February 2026, the FCA and PRA jointly published consultation papers, each proposing significant reforms to the UK Securitisation Framework. The consultation deadline for both papers was 18 May 2026, with implementation targeted for Q2 2027, and with no transitional or grandfathering provisions. Please see our separate briefing on the key proposals and their impact from a UK originator’s perspective⁶.

Risk retention

The UK Securitisation Framework requires originators to retain a 5% minimum net economic interest in securitisations to ensure the alignment of interests and proper risk management. This retention can be achieved through various permitted methods (such as retention of a vertical slice of exposures, a first loss tranche or a random selection of unsecuritised assets which are similar to the securitised assets).

Disclosure and periodic reporting

There are regulatory requirements governing prospectuses and offering memoranda under the POATRs (applicable to public securitisations), and the originator will need to work closely with their legal advisers and financial advisers to draft sections of the prospectus (and other marketing materials) describing the assets and the originator’s business and business practices. As a prospectus is a public document, this often requires input from various senior stakeholders in the originator’s business and may

⁴ Directive 2009/138/EC and Commission Delegated Regulation (EU) 2015/35) as they form part of the domestic law of the UK by virtue of the EUWA.

⁵ The components of the UK Securitisation Framework re-enact, in slightly modified form, the requirements of Regulation (EU) 2017/2402 as it formed part of the domestic law of the UK by virtue of the EUWA.

be fairly involved if the originator does not have similar existing public disclosure to base this on.

In addition, the UK Securitisation Framework mandates specific disclosure requirements for all (public and private) securitisation transactions. These include disclosure of asset-level performance data, transaction documents and investor reports. Originators and issuers are jointly responsible for providing this information, with the originator often designated to fulfil the requirements in practice. For public securitisations (where a prospectus is required), the information must be made available through an authorised securitisation repository, which can then be accessed by investors, potential investors and relevant authorities. For private securitisations, this information is made generally accessible to investors and relevant authorities.

EU Regulation

As noted above at present, the EU Securitisation Regulation⁷ contains very similar risk retention and disclosure requirements for originators. Some originators may in practice need to comply with both UK and EU regimes in order to attract funding from a wider range of providers and, in these cases, originators will need to consider carefully and take more detailed legal advice as to the risk of future divergence between the UK and EU regimes, particularly in light of the European Commission’s, the European Council’s and the European Parliament’s proposed positions in respect of the EU regime.

Changes to originator business practices

A first-time originator may have to alter its business practices to facilitate a securitisation.

Collections and enforcement proceeds from the underlying debtors will likely need to be paid into a designated account in the name of the originator which is subject to a trust for the benefit of the securitisation issuer, until such amounts are paid over to the structure. This is to ensure the cashflows on the assets are separated from the originator’s cashflow. Such account establishment may

⁶ <https://www.slaughterandmay.com/insights/new-insights/the-pra-s-and-fca-s-proposals-to-reform-the-uk-securitisation-framework-key-changes-from-the-uk-originator-s-perspective/>

⁷ Regulation (EU) 2017/2402 and associated technical standards and regulatory guidance.

have a long lead time and require careful discussion with the proposed account bank to ensure it is fit for purpose.

An originator may also need to update its standard lending terms and conditions facing debtors to ensure that the assets are freely assignable to the issuer SPV and do not, for example, require any underlying debtor consent to assign the relevant receivable.

The investor reports to be produced on both public and private securitisations are required to be in the form of specified templates, that contain specific data fields. Some originators may need to alter their existing internal database reporting capabilities to ensure all such data fields are reflected, and then either produce the reports themselves on the prescribed templates or instruct another entity such as a cash manager to produce the reports on the prescribed templates using the raw data provided by the originator. Such changes to the internal asset database reporting can have long lead times and originators should familiarise themselves early on with the prescribed templates and other reporting requirements, and how that information will be made available to investors, competent authorities and, upon request, to potential investors.

Some originators find they need to hire new people or advisers to lead on the establishment of a new structure and ensure ongoing reporting and other requirements are complied with.

Advantages and challenges associated with securitisations

Securitisation offers unique advantages to originators, and the opportunity to obtain a lower cost of funding than through other debt products. Securitisation allows for the isolation of the originator's credit risks from those linked to the underlying assets. This separation ensures that investors primarily bear the credit risks associated with the underlying assets (rather than the originator's business generally). In addition, through the tranching of the

securities issued into different classes of varying seniority through the securitisation process (and particularly where credit enhancement is utilised), the risks associated with the underlying assets are mitigated, making the securities (particularly the more senior classes of securities) attractive to more risk-averse investors and thereby lowering funding costs for the originator.

Furthermore, by transferring the asset receivables to an SPV, an originator can (subject to satisfaction of certain accounting requirements) effectively remove the securitised pool of assets from its balance sheet; reducing gearing and freeing up capital for additional investment. Another advantage of securitisation is its ability to unlock liquidity in respect of illiquid assets.

However, while securitisation offers potential advantages to originators, navigating its complexities poses challenges. Establishing and maintaining a securitisation structure is inherently a document-heavy process, and requires the gathering and analysis of historical asset-level data and the ongoing disclosure of asset-level performance information on prescribed templates, which can be expensive and time-consuming. In addition, the originator, its business practices and its assets come under a high level of scrutiny (from investors, rating agencies, lawyers, accountants and other advisers), and the process may involve changes to long-standing practices (albeit often for the better). The complex legal and regulatory framework creates further obstacles, particularly where a transaction is structured with multinational components.

Ultimately, the decision to pursue securitisation will depend on individual business needs, with the benefits of the mechanism weighed against the associated costs and completion timelines. Despite the challenges, securitisation remains a valuable tool in structured finance, offering unique advantages for originators

Contact



Guy O'Keefe

Partner

T: +44(0)20 7090 3299

E: Guy.Keefe@slaughterandmay.com



Richard Jones

Partner

T: +44(0)20 7090 4733

E: Richard.Jones@slaughterandmay.com



Caroline Phillips

Partner

T: +44(0)20 7090 3884

E: Caroline.Phillips@slaughterandmay.com



Robert Byk

Partner

T: +44(0)20 7090 3435

E: Robert.Byk@slaughterandmay.com



Charlie McGarel-Groves

Partner

T: +44(0)20 7090 3579

E: Charlie.Mcgarel-Groves@slaughterandmay.com



David Hay

Partner

T: +44(0)20 7090 5083

E: David.Hay@slaughterandmay.com



Jennifer Nice

Associate

T: +44(0)20 7090 3879

E: Jennifer.Nice@slaughterandmay.com



Rebecca Cheung

Associate

T: +44(0)20 7090 3285

E: Rebecca.Cheung@slaughterandmay.com



Beatriz Costa

Associate

T: +44(0)20 7090 3457

E: Beatriz.Costa@slaughterandmay.com



Yasemin Sar

Associate

T: +44(0)20 7090 5265

E: Yasemin.Sar@slaughterandmay.com



Tommie Grant

Associate

T: +44(0)20 7090 3863

E: Tommie.Grant@slaughterandmay.com



Kate Patane

Knowledge Lawyer

T: +44(0)20 7090 4549

E: Kate.Patane@SlaughterandMay.com

London

T +44 (0)20 7600 1200
F +44 (0)20 7090 5000

Brussels

T +32 (0)2 737 94 00
F +32 (0)2 737 94 01

Hong Kong

T +852 2521 0551
F +852 2845 2125

Beijing

T +86 10 5965 0600
F +86 10 5965 0650

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