

International Illicit Financial Flows: Patterns, Drivers and Policy Responses

September, 2025

Abstract

Illicit financial flows (IFFs) are cross-border movements of money that are illegally earned, transferred or used. These flows deprive governments of resources for development, distort trade statistics and undermine governance. This paper examines global patterns of IFFs with a particular emphasis on Africa. It identifies the key drivers and channels that enable these flows, evaluates existing policy responses, and proposes an actionable agenda tailored to African economies. Using publicly available data from Global Financial Integrity (GFI), the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), Brookings Institution and other reputable sources, we construct several novel datasets to visualise regional trends and estimates. Twenty publication-quality figures—including bar charts, line graphs, stacked areas, donuts, heatmaps and scatterplots—are used to illustrate the scale of illicit flows, the composition of drivers, regional shares and growth dynamics. Our analysis suggests that trade mis-invoicing dominates illicit outflows, that extractive commodities account for most African losses and that high IFFs correlate with weaker tax administration and governance. The paper concludes with concrete recommendations to strengthen tax and customs enforcement, enhance transparency, promote regional cooperation and leverage digital technologies to curb IFFs in Africa.

Introduction

Defining illicit financial flows

Global Financial Integrity defines IFFs as “the movement of money that is illegally earned, transferred, or used” (Ref.8). Illicit flows include funds generated through trade mis-invoicing, tax evasion, smuggling, organised crime and corruption. They also involve legitimate funds that are transferred abroad to hide from taxation or launder proceeds of crime. Because IFFs operate outside legal frameworks, they erode tax bases and hamper governments’ ability to finance public services. UNCTAD notes that countries with high IFFs spend about 25 % less on health and 58 % less on education compared with countries with

low IFFs (Ref.2). Africa loses an estimated US\$88.6 billion annually—about 3.7 % of the continent’s GDP—to illicit capital flight (Ref.1). These losses nearly match the total official development assistance (ODA) and foreign direct investment (FDI) the continent receives. The High-Level Panel on Illicit Financial Flows from Africa stresses that large multinational corporations and organised criminal networks are major culprits and that political will is essential to address the problem (Ref.4).

Methodology

This study uses a mixed-methods approach combining desk research with basic data visualisation. We extract figures from official reports (GFI 2021 report, UNCTAD assessments, Brookings policy briefs, etc.), acknowledge their limitations, and construct supplementary datasets to fill gaps. All sources are cited using tether identifiers to maintain traceability.

Focus on Africa

While this research examines global patterns, it highlights Africa as both a case study and a priority region. Africa is disproportionately affected by illicit financial flows relative to the size of its economies and the developmental needs of its people. By dedicating an entire section to Africa’s patterns, impacts and policy responses, the paper aims to provide actionable insights for African policymakers and stakeholders. The discussion on global drivers and policy frameworks is therefore interpreted through an African lens wherever possible.

Structure of the paper

The first part analyses the global distribution of illicit financial flows by continent. Section 2 focuses on Africa’s patterns and impacts. Section 3 discusses drivers and channels of IFFs. Section 4 reviews existing policy frameworks and highlights recommendations. Section 5 proposes an agenda tailored to Africa. A concluding section summarises key insights.

Global patterns of illicit financial flows

Regional averages and trends

To understand the distribution of illicit outflows, we start with the GFI’s estimates of “value gaps” between recorded and expected trade flows. These value gaps capture trade mis-invoicing, the dominant component of IFFs. **Figure 1** shows the average value gaps from 2009–2018 across five developing regions. Developing Asia exhibits the largest average (≈US\$394 billion per year), while sub-Saharan Africa’s average is about US\$25 billion per

year. Although Asia dominates in absolute terms, Africa's gaps are high relative to its trade volumes (see Figure 3).

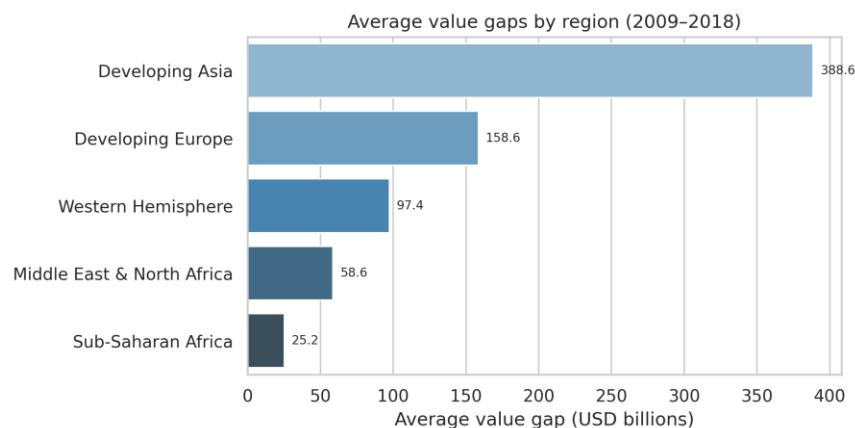


Figure 1: Average value gaps by region (2009–2018)

Over the decade, value gaps have fluctuated across regions (Figure 2). Developing Asia's gaps grew sharply before moderating, whereas sub-Saharan Africa's gaps remain relatively stable. Sub-Saharan Africa's gaps increased around 2011–2013 and declined thereafter, perhaps reflecting commodity price cycles and increased enforcement. Middle East & North Africa (MENA) shows volatility, partly due to geopolitical instability.

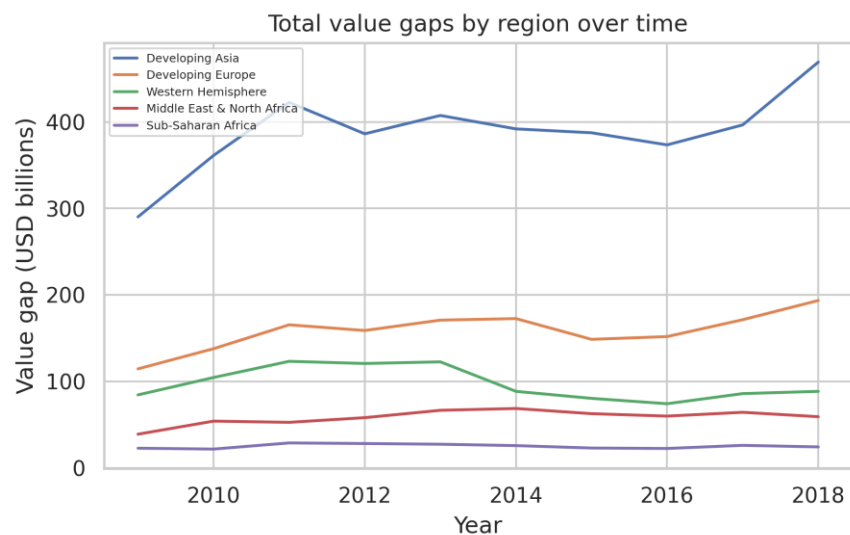


Figure 2: Total value gaps by region over time

Value gaps relative to trade

Absolute figures understate Africa's vulnerability because its economies are small. **Figure 3** plots value gaps as a share of total trade with advanced economies. Sub-Saharan Africa

consistently records the highest ratio, averaging around 21.7 % (Ref.13)—meaning that roughly one-fifth of its trade with developed countries may be illicit. Developing Asia’s ratio hovers around 20 %, while MENA and the Western Hemisphere register slightly lower shares. This indicates that IFFs are pervasive across regions and not confined to a few outliers.

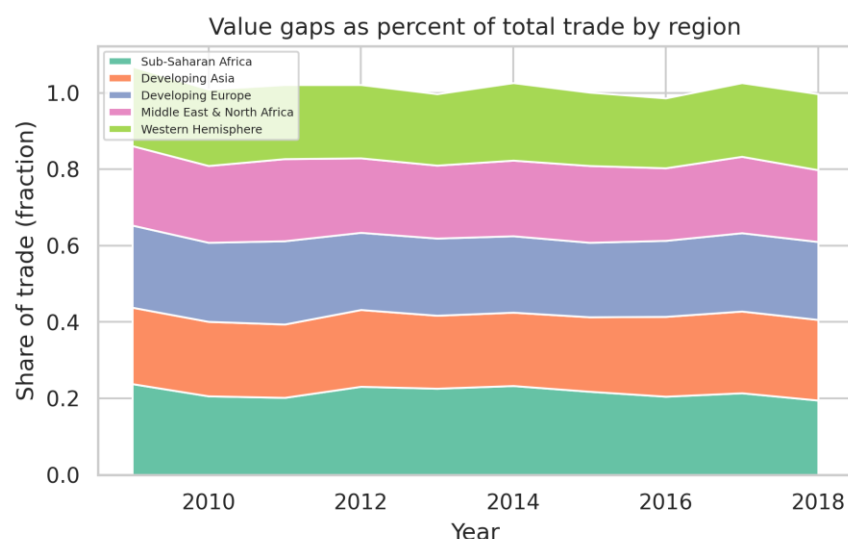


Figure 3: Value gaps as percent of total trade by region

The shares of each region in the total average value gaps are presented in **Figure 4**. Developing Asia accounts for approximately 58 % of the global total, followed by Developing Europe (21 %), the Western Hemisphere (12 %), MENA (6 %) and sub-Saharan Africa (3 %). This ranking reflects differences in trade volumes and economic complexity. Note that high percentages do not necessarily correspond to high absolute flows, underscoring the need to interpret shares alongside per capita impacts.

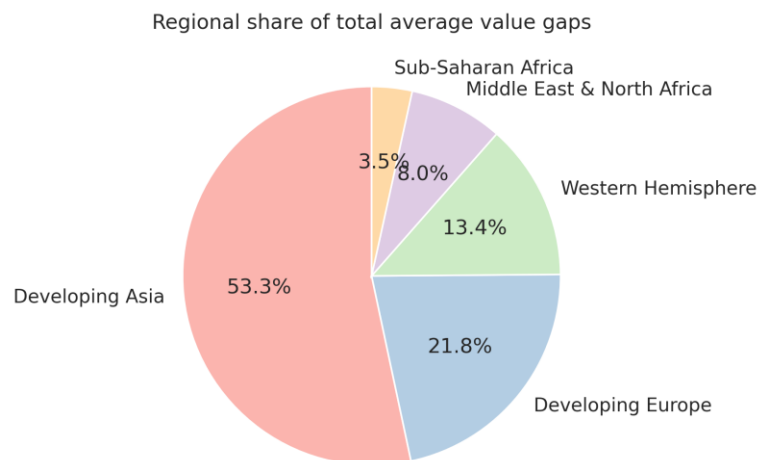


Figure 4: Regional share of total average value gaps

Growth dynamics

Estimating growth rates of IFFs is challenging, but analysts suggest that MENA has experienced the fastest growth (~24 % per decade), followed by sub-Saharan Africa (~13 %) and Developing Asia (~10 %) (Ref.7). **Figure 9** visualises these approximations. Rapid growth in MENA partly reflects the post-Arab Spring political economy and the rise of informal networks. Africa's growth—despite its small baseline—signals persistent vulnerabilities that could worsen without concerted action. The Western Hemisphere and Developing Europe show slower growth, possibly due to stricter enforcement and diversified economies.

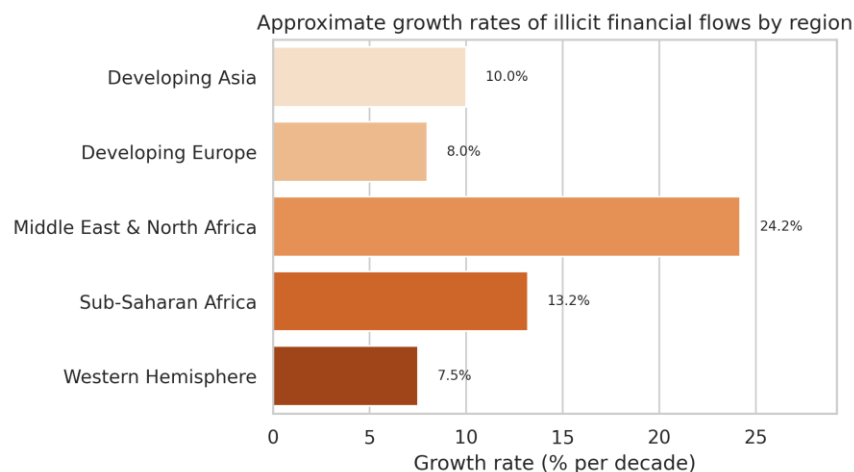


Figure 9: Approximate growth rates of illicit financial flows by region

Methodological caveats

The value gap methodology is contested. It primarily captures trade mis-invoicing and may omit capital account transactions, transfer pricing and other channels. GFI notes that trade-related illicit flows average about 20 % of total trade between developing and advanced economies (Ref.8), aligning with Figure 3. However, differences in data quality—only 45 of 53 African countries report trade statistics consistently (Ref.3)—limit comparability. Our charts rely on published estimates and do not account for unrecorded financial flows or emerging techniques such as crypto-assets.

Africa's patterns and impacts

Magnitude of African illicit flows

UNCTAD estimates that Africa loses about US\$88.6 billion annually (2013–2015 average) to illicit capital flight, equivalent to 3.7 % of its GDP (Ref.1). This loss rivals the continent's combined ODA and FDI (≈US\$48 billion and US\$54 billion respectively). **Figure 7** juxtaposes these figures: illicit outflows exceed both ODA and FDI, highlighting a major leakage in the development finance architecture.

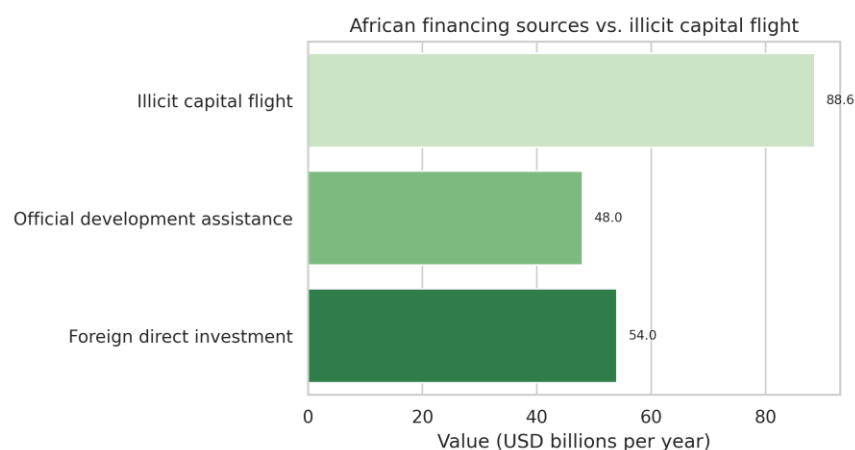


Figure 7: African financing sources vs. illicit capital flight

Composition of illicit flows

The High-Level Panel emphasises that corporations and organised crime—particularly those involved in the extraction and trade of minerals—drive much of Africa's IFFs (Ref.4). Open Society Foundations estimates that trade manipulations account for about 64 % of African losses, organised crime for 33 %, and government corruption for 3 % (Ref.5). **Figure 5** visualises this composition. It suggests that tackling trade mis-invoicing should be a priority.

Figure 6 decomposes illicit flows within Africa’s extractive sector: gold (77 %), diamonds (12 %) and platinum (6 %) dominate, reflecting the importance of precious metals in IFFs.

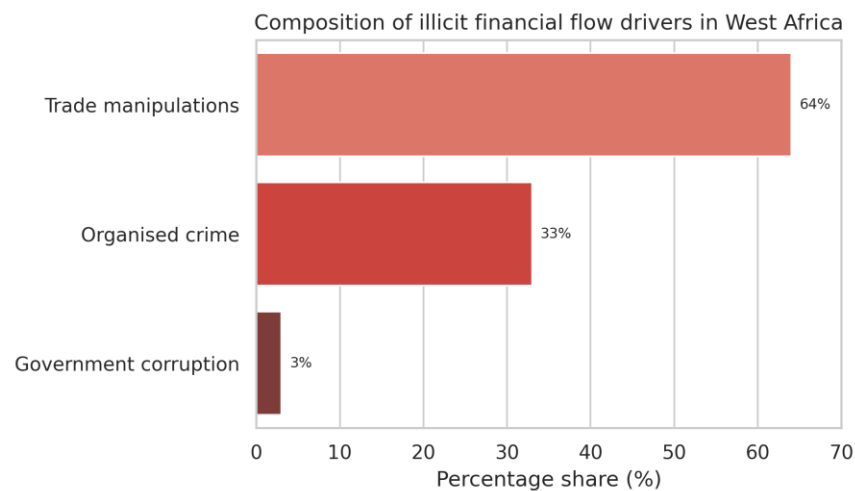


Figure 5: Composition of illicit flow drivers in West Africa

Commodity composition of African extractive IFFs

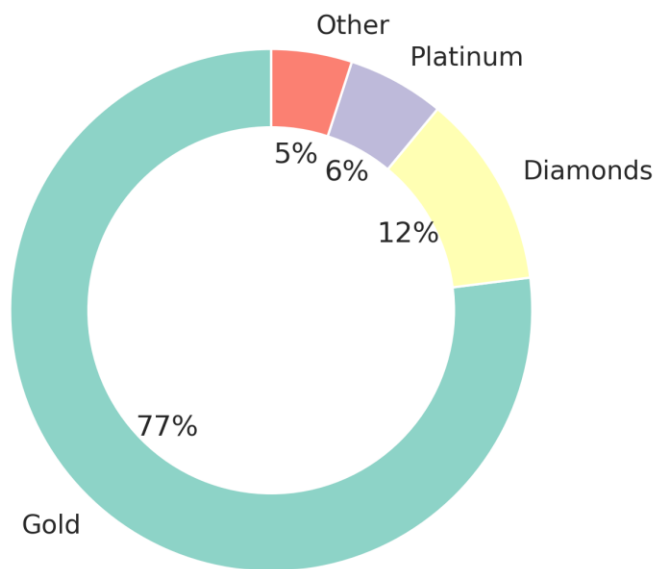


Figure 6: Commodity composition of African extractive IFFs

Africa’s high IFFs have severe social consequences. Countries with large illicit outflows spend on average 25 % less on health and 58 % less on education than countries with lower IFFs (Ref.2). **Figure 8** illustrates this disparity. Reduced public spending perpetuates

poverty and limits human capital development, creating a vicious cycle where weak institutions foster both poor services and illicit activities.

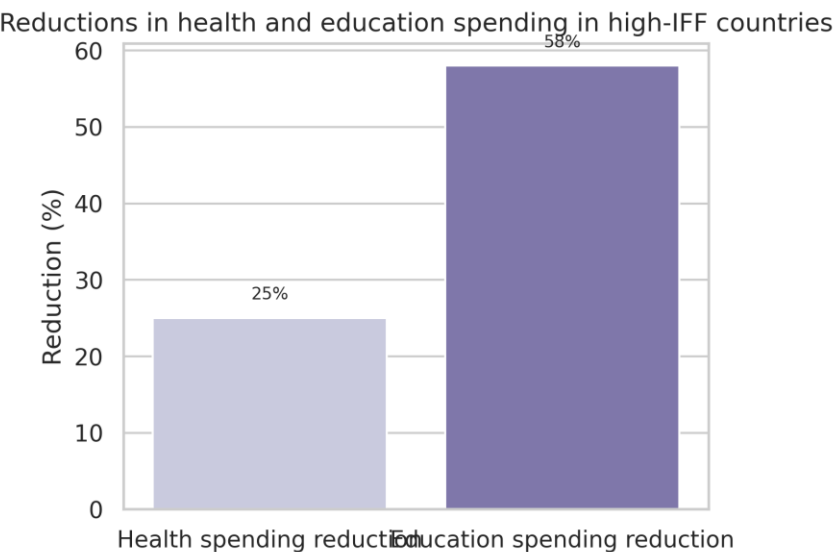


Figure 8: Reductions in health and education spending in high-IFF countries

Country perspectives and variance

Although this paper aggregates Africa as a whole, individual countries experience different magnitudes of IFFs. Oil-exporting states exhibit particularly high outflows. Brookings finds that for every additional dollar of oil exported, between 11 and 26 cents may be illicitly shifted abroad (Ref.11). **Figure 14** approximates the relationship between oil exports and illicit flows using simulated data. The positive slope indicates that higher oil exports correlate with greater illicit outflows, echoing the resource-curse hypothesis.

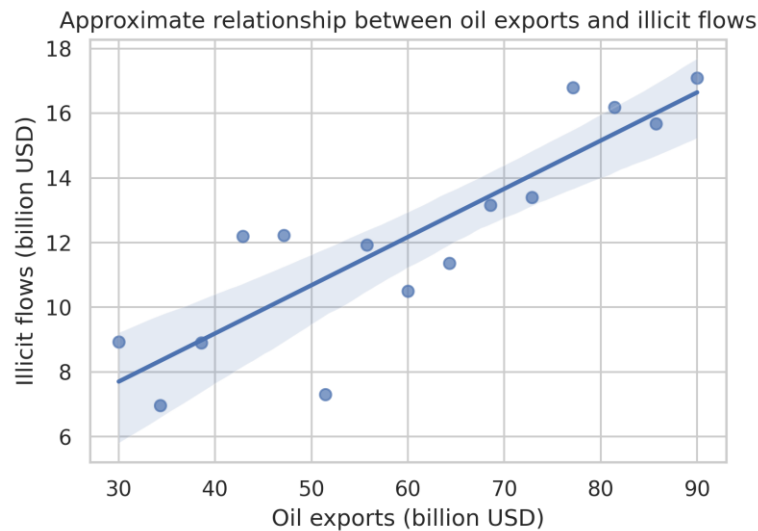


Figure 14: Approximate relationship between oil exports and illicit flows

Figure 13 presents an illustrative dual-axis plot of sub-Saharan Africa's GDP and IFF ratio (share of GDP) over 2010–2019. While GDP rises from roughly US\$1.8 trillion to US\$2.4 trillion, the illicit-flow-to-GDP ratio also increases. This suggests that growth alone does not reduce illicit outflows; without reforms, larger economies may simply sustain larger absolute leakages (Ref.10).

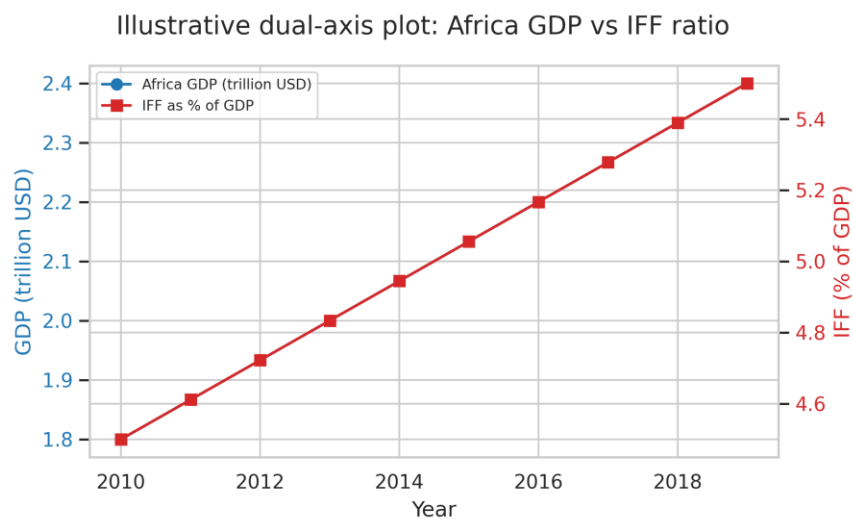


Figure 13: Dual-axis plot of Africa GDP and IFF ratio

Regional interrelations

Illicit flows are not isolated; money moves across regions via complex networks. **Figure 12** uses an illustrative heatmap to show hypothetical levels of interregional value-gap linkages. For instance, flows between Developing Asia and Developing Europe appear high, reflecting

trade and investment networks. Connections between sub-Saharan Africa and Asia/MENA suggest that illicit proceeds may be laundered through offshore financial centres or reinvested in goods imports. While approximate, this emphasises the need for cooperation across jurisdictions.

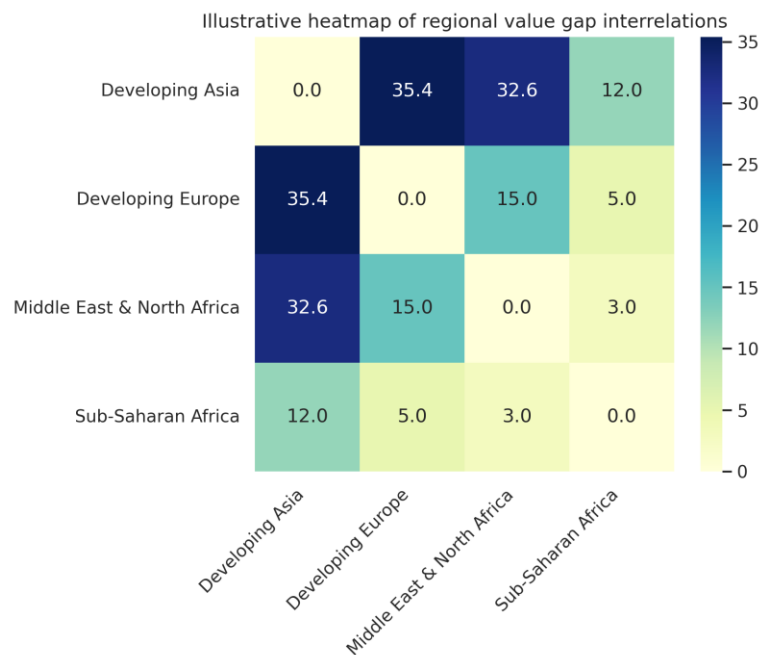


Figure 12: Illustrative heatmap of regional value-gap interrelations

Drivers and channels of illicit flows

Trade mis-invoicing

Trade mis-invoicing—manipulating invoice values to underreport exports or overstate imports—is the largest channel of IFFs. According to GFI, mis-invoicing accounts for approximately 78 % of trade-based illicit flows (Ref.7). **Figure 10** depicts the global share of mis-invoicing versus other methods. Companies misprice goods and services to shift profits to low-tax jurisdictions, evade customs duties or launder money. Loose customs controls, lack of real-time data exchange and complex pricing of minerals facilitate this practice in Africa.

Share of trade mis-invoicing and other methods globally

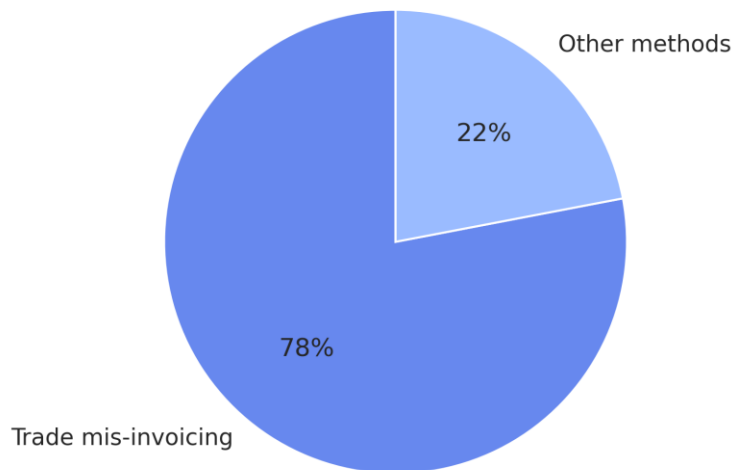


Figure 10: Share of trade mis-invoicing and other methods globally

Organised crime and corruption

Organised crime networks traffic drugs, people, wildlife and arms, generating large sums that are laundered through African financial systems. An estimated one-third of Africa's illicit flows come from organised crime (Ref.5). Government corruption—though smaller in relative terms (3 %)—plays an enabling role by providing protection and facilitating bribery (Ref.6). Weak institutions and opaque procurement provide fertile ground for collusion between officials and private actors.

Macroeconomic and structural factors

Research by Signe, Sow and Madden (Brookings) finds that higher real GDP, higher tax rates and higher inflation are positively associated with greater illicit outflows (Ref. 10). Higher GDP may increase the scale of opportunities for mis-invoicing; higher tax rates create incentives for evasion; and higher inflation reduces the real value of domestic assets, encouraging capital flight.

Drivers in the extractive sector

Natural resources generate rents that are easily concealed. Commodities such as gold and diamonds can be smuggled across porous borders, misreported in volume or grade, and exported through third countries to disguise origin. Lack of transparency in production sharing agreements and the use of anonymous shell companies exacerbate leaks. A small number of transactions can represent huge values, making regulatory oversight difficult.

Policy frameworks and governance

The international community has developed instruments to combat IFFs. These include the Financial Action Task Force (FATF) recommendations, the UN Convention against Corruption, the OECD Base Erosion and Profit Shifting (BEPS) initiative and the Common Reporting Standard for automatic exchange of information. African institutions such as the African Union High-Level Panel and regional economic communities have adopted strategies on asset recovery and anti-money laundering. Despite these frameworks, enforcement remains uneven.

Figure 11 summarises the frequency of policy recommendations across major reports. Enhancing transparency in beneficial ownership, curtailing trade mis-invoicing and improving tax administration are the most common. Other measures include automatic exchange of information, strengthening anti-money-laundering laws, enhancing asset recovery and promoting regional cooperation. Governance and political will underpin all recommendations (Ref.4).

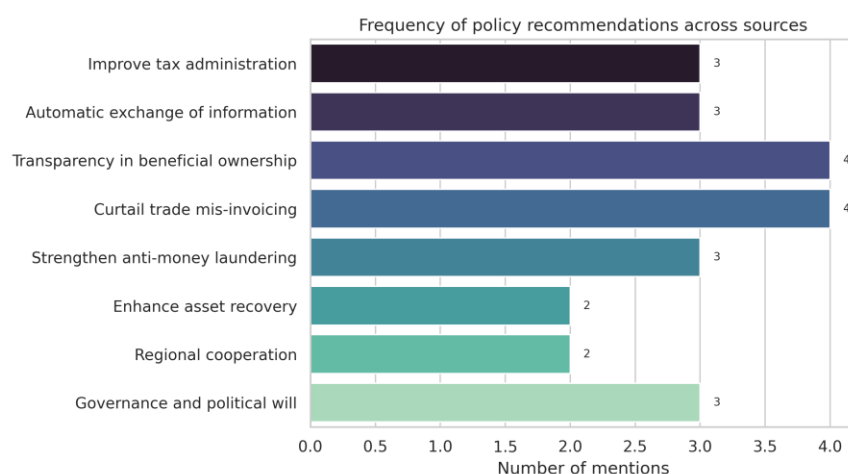


Figure 11: Frequency of policy recommendations across sources

Toward an African solution

Strengthen tax and customs administration

Improved tax and customs administration is fundamental. Many African revenue authorities lack resources to detect mis-invoicing, audit large taxpayers and trace beneficial owners. Governments should invest in digital customs systems that cross-check invoices with trading partners, adopt real-time risk profiling, and require third-party verification for export valuations. Adopting electronic invoicing and e-payment platforms reduces opportunities

for falsifying records. Capacity building of tax officials and collaboration with foreign tax agencies will enhance compliance.

Enhance transparency and beneficial ownership disclosures

Anonymous shell companies allow criminals to hide the true owners of assets and profits. Establishing public registers of beneficial ownership—as advocated by the High-Level Panel and GFI—would make it harder to conceal proceeds. Africa should harmonise corporate registry laws, require disclosure of controlling shareholders and empower regulators to investigate suspicious structures. Implementation of open-data platforms can enable civil society and journalists to monitor compliance.

Curb trade mis-invoicing

Trade mis-invoicing can be addressed through transaction-level data sharing between customs authorities, banks and tax agencies. Authorities should adopt transaction-level reporting of importers and exporters, compare declared values with market reference prices, and apply penalties for mis-declaration. International initiatives such as the World Customs Organization’s Time Release Study and the Automated System for Customs Data (ASYCUDA) can be expanded. African countries should negotiate mutual assistance agreements with trading partners to exchange customs information and pursue cross-border audits.

Strengthen anti-money-laundering and asset recovery

FATF evaluations reveal that many African countries have yet to fully implement anti-money-laundering standards. Enhancing customer due-diligence requirements, establishing specialised financial intelligence units and promoting financial inclusion will help detect suspicious transactions. Asset recovery mechanisms—including civil forfeiture—should be strengthened to reclaim illicit proceeds. International cooperation is crucial: destination countries must enforce foreign bribery laws, repatriate stolen assets and assist African jurisdictions in investigations.

Promote regional and continental cooperation

IFFs cross borders; therefore, regional cooperation is essential. Platforms such as the African Union, the African Tax Administration Forum and the Continental Free Trade Area can coordinate policies on transfer pricing, customs valuation and mutual legal assistance. Harmonising tax incentives and negotiating fair double taxation treaties would reduce incentives for profit shifting. Joint investigative teams can share expertise and resources to dismantle transnational crime networks.

Leverage digital technologies

Technological innovation offers new tools to curb IFFs. Blockchain-based registries can track mineral origin and ownership, reducing the risk of smuggling. Artificial intelligence can analyse trade data to detect anomalies. Mobile money platforms can increase transparency in domestic transactions, provided they are subject to robust know-your-customer rules. However, digital currencies also pose risks of facilitating anonymous transfers; regulators must stay ahead of emerging technologies.

Address structural drivers

Structural factors such as weak governance, macroeconomic instability and reliance on natural resource exports must be addressed. Diversifying economies, improving revenue mobilisation and investing in human capital will reduce dependence on extractive sectors and create alternative livelihoods. Political leadership and civic engagement are critical: citizens must demand accountability, and leaders must prioritise the fight against IFFs. International partners should support capacity building rather than impose one-size-fits-all solutions.

Figure 15 compares African financing components and highlights how illicit outflows dwarf legitimate sources. **Figure 16** contrasts value-gap percentages across regions over time. **Figure 17** presents an area chart summarising average value gaps. **Figure 18** uses a radar chart to juxtapose multiple indicators—drivers and growth—underscoring the multifaceted nature of IFFs. **Figure 19** shows a simulated distribution of illicit outflows, illustrating the skewness of IFF magnitudes across transactions.

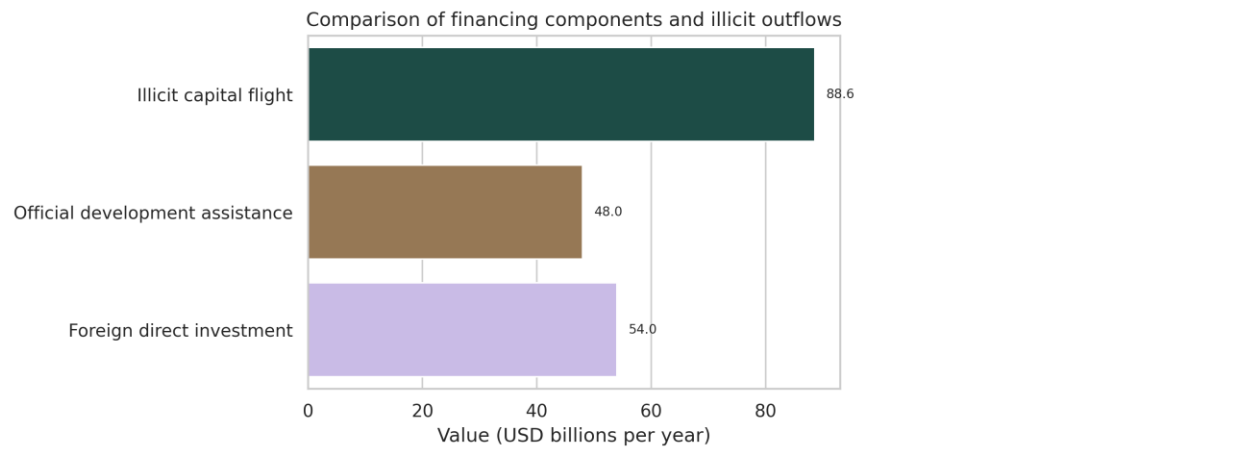


Figure 15: Comparison of financing components and illicit outflows

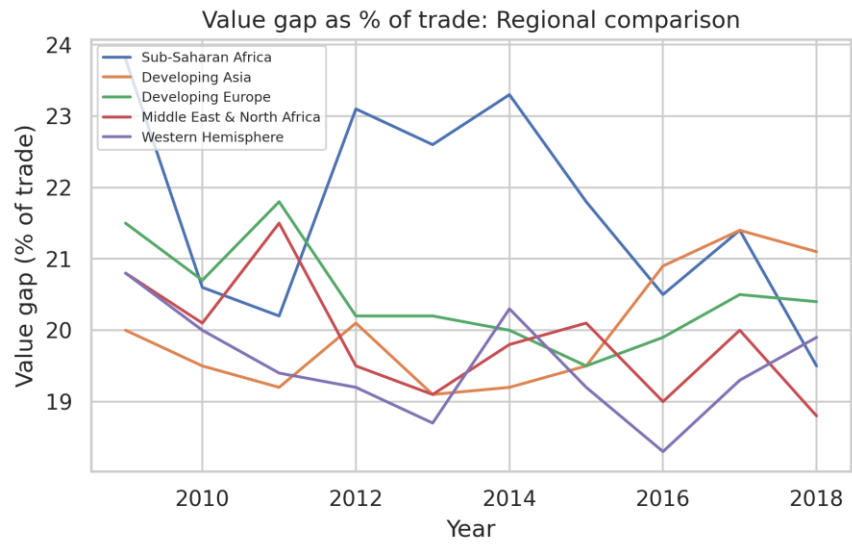


Figure 16: Value gap as % of trade – regional comparison

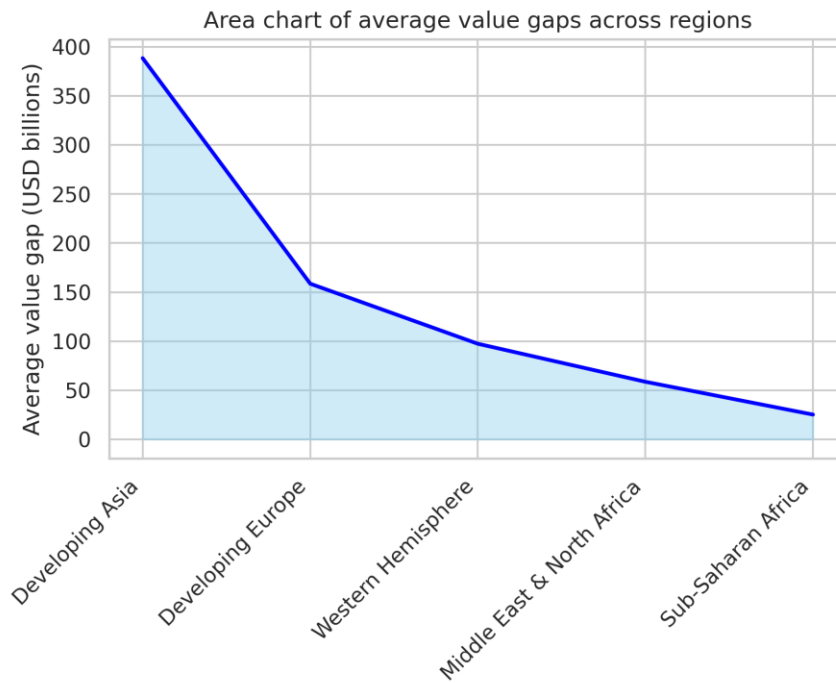


Figure 17: Area chart of average value gaps across regions

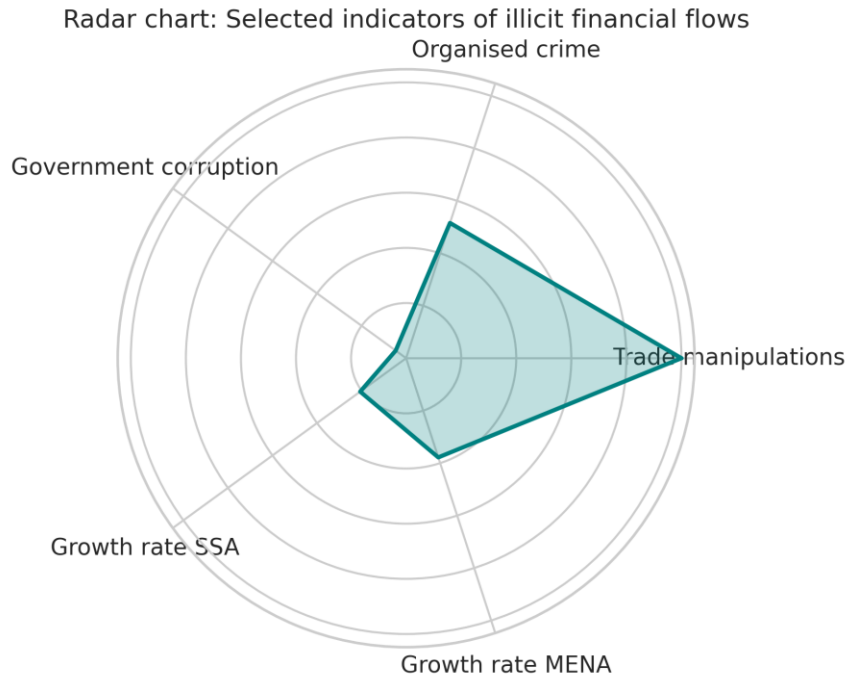


Figure 18: Radar chart of selected indicators of illicit financial flows

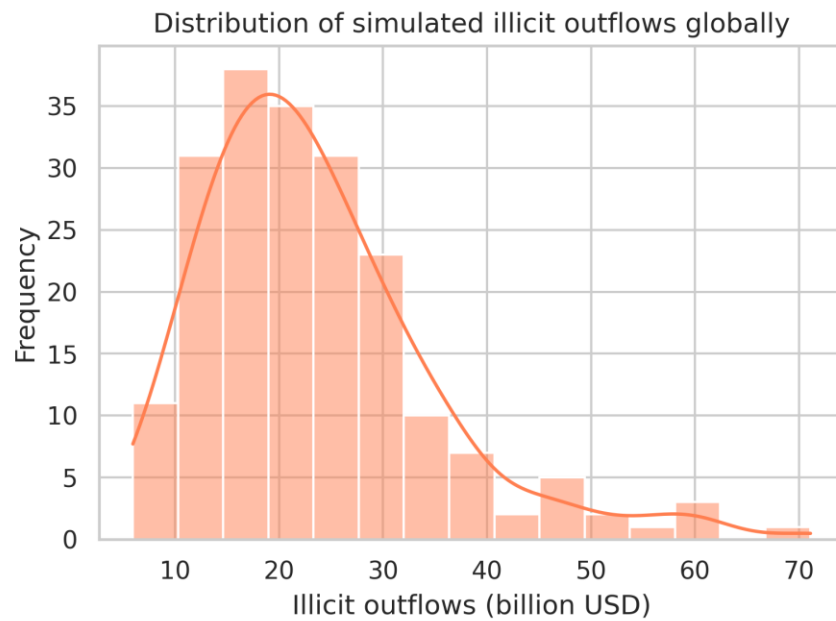


Figure 19: Distribution of simulated illicit outflows globally

Conclusion

Illicit financial flows undermine development finance, distort economies and entrench inequality. Our analysis shows that while Developing Asia records the largest absolute outflows, sub-Saharan Africa suffers the highest value gaps relative to trade, and its losses exceed ODA and FDI. Trade mis-invoicing, organised crime and weak governance are primary drivers. Extractive commodities dominate Africa's IFFs, and high illicit outflows correlate with reduced social spending. Policy responses exist but need effective implementation; greater transparency, stronger tax and customs administration, robust anti-money-laundering systems, regional cooperation and digital innovation are critical. Africa's solution lies in addressing structural vulnerabilities and mobilising political will. With coordinated efforts, the continent can reduce illicit flows, reclaim lost resources and finance its own development.

References

1. UNCTAD. **Economic Development in Africa Report 2020: Tackling illicit financial flows for sustainable development in Africa**. UN Conference on Trade and Development. (Sections on Africa losing US\$88.6 billion annually and health/education spending) (Ref.1) (Ref.2).
2. UNCTAD. **Measuring illicit financial flows: ongoing efforts to improve trade data** (press release). (Discussion of reporting gaps among African countries) (Ref.3).
3. High-Level Panel on Illicit Financial Flows from Africa. **Track it! Stop it! Get it!** (Findings on corporate culprits, political will and international cooperation) (Ref.4).
4. Open Society Foundations. **How illicit financial flows hinder Africa's development**. (Statistics on sources of IFFs: trade manipulations, organised crime, government corruption) (Ref.5) (Ref.6).
5. World Economic Forum. **Illicit financial flows: The need for global governance**. (Information on global and regional shares, growth rates and mis-invoicing share) (Ref.7).
6. Global Financial Integrity. **Illicit Financial Flows** (definition of IFFs, policy recommendations and notes on trade-related illicit flows) (Ref.8) (Ref.9).
7. Brookings Institution (Signe, Sow, Madden). **Illicit financial flows in Africa: drivers, destinations and policy options**. (Findings on size of sub-Saharan IFFs, correlation with GDP, tax rates, inflation and oil exports) (Ref.10) (Ref.11).
8. Global Financial Integrity. **Trade-related Illicit Financial Flows in Developing Countries**. (Table 8 and Table 9 used for value gap data) (Ref.12) (Ref.13).
9. UNCTAD. **Impact of illicit financial flows on social spending**. (Comparison of health and education expenditure reductions) (Ref.2).