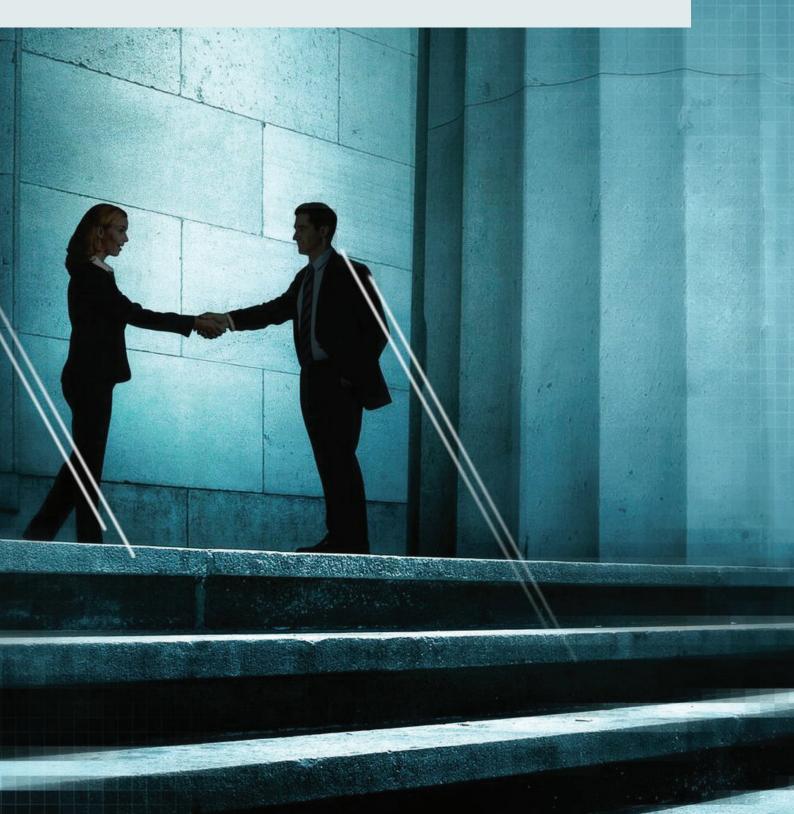




High-level Corruption: an Analysis of Schemes, Costs and of Policy Recommendations

Policy Brief of Project FALCON



High-level Corruption: an Analysis of Schemes, Costs and of Policy Recommendations

Policy Brief of Project FALCON

Authors (listed in alphabetical order per each organisation):

UCSC:

Giorgia Cascone Caterina Paternoster Michele Riccardi

GTI:*

Viktoriia Poltoratskaya Bence Tóth

BIG:

Claudia Baez-Camargo Jacopo Costa

Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore di Milano Transcrime – Joint Research Centre on Transnational Crime

Milan office (headquarters): Largo Gemelli 1 - 20123 Milan (Italy) Phone: +39 02 7234 3715/3716; Fax: +39 02 7234 3721 www.transcrime.it 2025

ISBN: 978-88-99719-48-7

Suggested citation: Cascone G., Paternoster C., Riccardi M., Poltoratskaya V., Tóth B., Baez-Camargo C., Costa J., (2025). High-level Corruption: an Analysis of Schemes, Costs and of Policy Recommendations. Policy Brief of Project FALCON. Milan: Transcrime – Joint Research Centre on Innovation and Crime.

 $^{{}^*\}text{We would like to thank Mihály Fazekas and Dániel Kofrán for their contributions.}$

Table of Contents

04

Introduction

05

1. Analysis of Corruption Schemes and Modi Operandi

Offence types in corruption cases Corruption money flows Transnationality of corruption

10

2. Corruption Risk Indicators

From raw data to risk indicators

15

3. Consequences and Impact of Corruption

17

4. Policy Recommendations

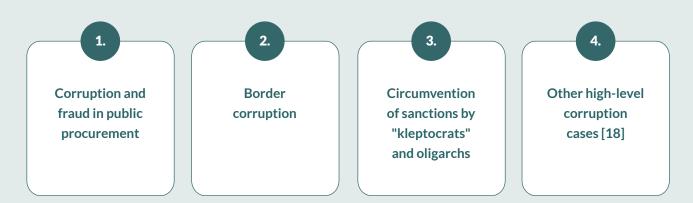
Improving data for anti-corruption
Strengthening the anti-corruption legal framework

21

References

Introduction

- Corruption is a complex and multifaced phenomenon, often defined broadly as "the misuse of public office for private gain" [1]. Despite the absence of consensus on its definition [2,3], scholars, practitioners, and policymakers acknowledge corruption as a longstanding issue heavily affecting nations around the world [3]. Its negative impacts are extensive, undermining civil, political, economic, social, and cultural rights [4].
- The FALCON Project is a three-year Horizon Europe research project which will develop new data-driven indicators and tools to strengthen the global fight against corruption by following an evidence-based, multi-actor and interdisciplinary approach.
- Specifically, FALCON covers four corruption domains:



• This Policy Brief summarizes the main results of the analysis carried out on these four corruption domains under Work Package 2 of the FALCON Project. The document is structured as follows:



<u>Section 1</u> provides the results of the analysis of corruption schemes and *modi operandi* (specifically related to FALCON Deliverables D2.1 and D2.4)



<u>Section 3</u> highlights examples of **costs and impact** of corruption behaviors (re. <u>Deliverable D2.3</u>)



<u>Section 2</u> presents a selection of corruption risk indicators across domains and assets (re. <u>Deliverable D2.2</u>)



<u>Section 4</u> provides policy recommendations to improve the detection and prevention of corruption cases (re. <u>Deliverable D2.5</u>)

1. Analysis of Corruption Schemes and Modi Operandi

- The analysis of corruption schemes and *modi operandi* employed a **mixed method approach** encompassing (i) desk review of scientific and grey literature, (ii) analysis of case studies, (iii) interviews with selected stakeholders.
- In particular, an analysis of **63 corruption case studies** was carried out based on a purposive sampling of online open-source judicial documents and media news, covering more than 40 countries across the five continents.
- The case study analysis focused on three main aspects:

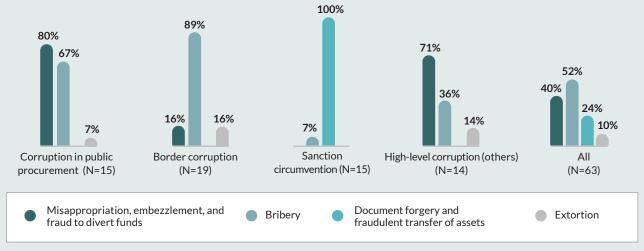


Offence types in corruption cases

Corruption takes place in a variety of forms, which often co-occur simultaneously.

- Bribery [19] emerges as the most prevalent offence across the domains, with high rates in border corruption (89%) and public procurement cases (67%).
- Misappropriation, embezzlement, and fraud to divert funds [20] are the prevalent offences in public procurement and other high-level corruption ones.
- **Document forgery and fraudulent transfer of assets** are the most common illicit practices in sanction circumvention cases.

Figure 1: Offence types, per corruption domain



Corruption money flows

Two main steams of money can be identified, which in corruption cases often overlap and employ the same channels and methods:



Money dirtying

aimed at moving the money from the corruptor to the beneficiary (e.g., the payment of a bribe to a public official).



Money laundering

related to the laundering of corruption proceeds (e.g., the laundering of a bribe by a public official).

Forms of utility



Cash

is the predominant form of exchange and facilitation payments in border corruption (84%).



Banking transactions

including checks and wire transfer, are the most prevalent in the other domains.

Methods to conceal beneficiaries



Legal businesses and corporate structures

including legal arrangements, are the most frequently employed concealment methods (59% of cases), in particular in public procurement (87%) and sanction circumvention (93%) cases. In the latter, front companies are used frequently.



Such methods are often combined with the use of highrisk or third jurisdictions (48% of total cases), offshore accounts (41% of total cases), and of professionals and facilitators networks, including family members and close associates (35% of total cases).

Figure 2: Forms of utility, per corruption domain

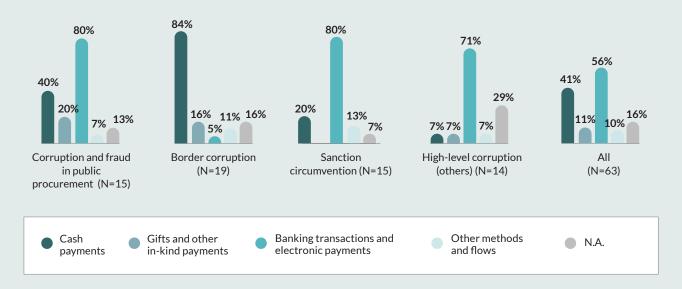
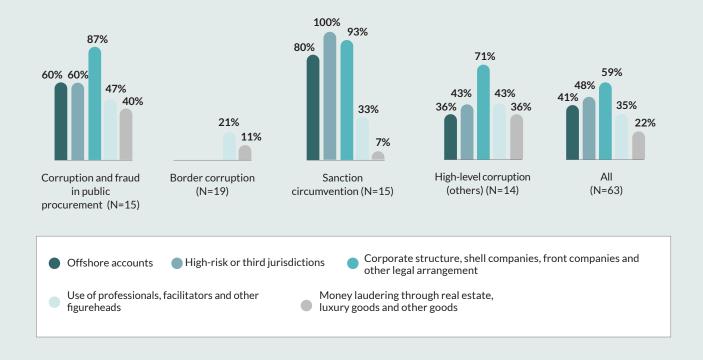


Figure 3: Methods to conceal beneficiaries, per corruption domain



Transnationality of corruption

- Corruption frequently **transcends national borders**, either due to its intrinsic nature, as in border corruption, or due to the complex money dirtying and money laundering schemes employed.
- Satellite jurisdictions [21] are frequently used in corruption money flows. Excluding border corruption, almost 3 satellite jurisdictions are employed on average per each case (Figure 4).
- These jurisdictions are primarily used for registering **corporate vehicles**, setting up **bank accounts**, and purchasing **real estate** and other **luxury goods**.
- Most frequently involved satellites among analyzed cases include Switzerland, the United States, the British Virgin Islands, United Arab Emirates, and the United Kingdom. United Arab Emirates, Turkey and Hong Kong also emerge in sanction circumvention cases.
- This list of countries is not necessarily representative of the universe of corruption cases, as it may be the result of sample selection biases.
- However, it already suggests the role of **developed countries** as key enablers in corruption schemes, providing politically stable, wealthy, low-corruption environments with often high corporate secrecy that facilitate the concealment and movement of corruption funds [5–7] (Figure 5).
- The choice of satellite countries also depends on the **proximity** to where the corrupt act takes place (Figure 5).

Figure 4: Average number of countries involved, by corruption domain

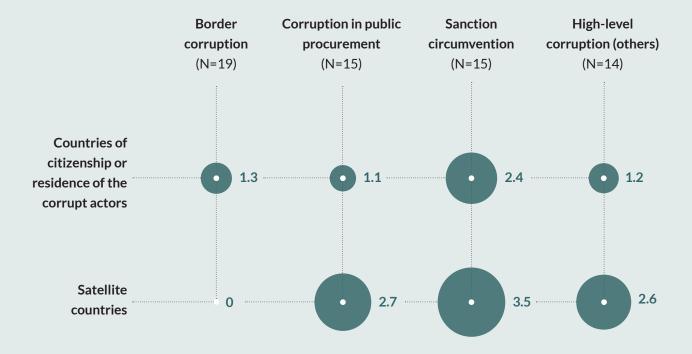
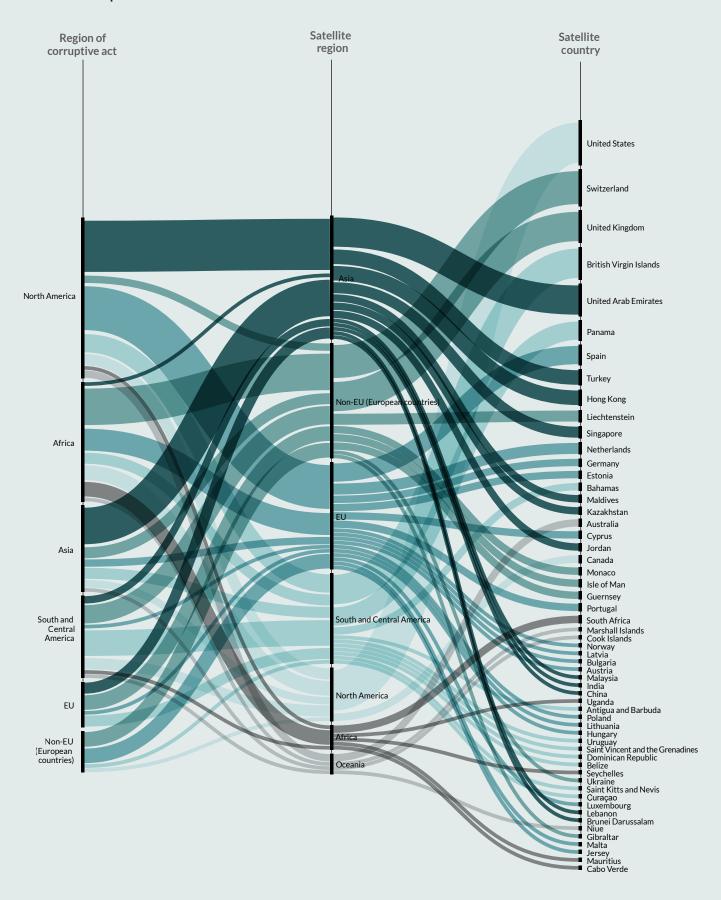


Figure 5: Countries in which the corrupt act occurred (continent level) and satellite jurisdictions - excluding border corruption

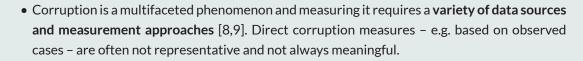


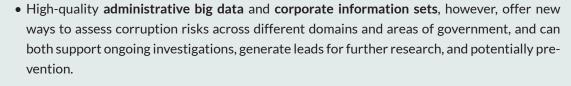
2. Corruption Risk Indicators

From raw data to risk indicators











- **Red-flags** help to **identify anomalies** across various governance areas and subjects e.g. public procurement, firms, territories which may suggest potential corruption.
 - In public procurement risks can be measured based on data describing different stages of the procurement process, such as tender design, evaluation, and delivery e.g. unusually short advertisement and award decision periods, unjustified price increase, etc. [10–12].
 - In the company space, risks can be detected by identifying anomalies in firms' characteristics e.g. opaque corporate ownership structures, links to secrecy jurisdictions, unjustified financial ratios [13–15].



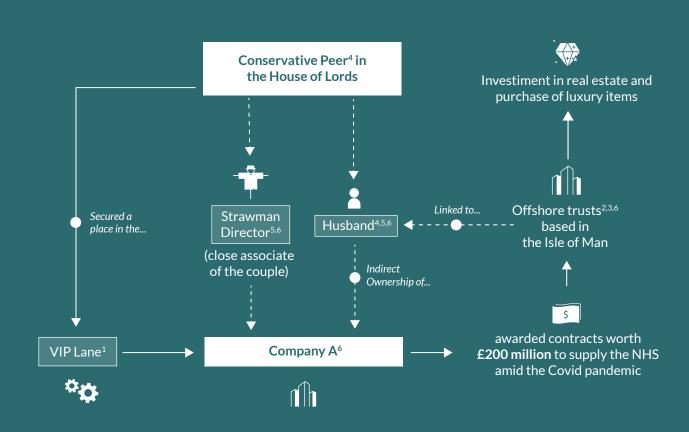
• Data and indicators can also be **analyzed jointly**. Combining procurement and company data revealed that contracts awarded without competition are more likely to be associated to the top 5% profitable firms in Bulgaria. Furthermore, companies with Politically Exposed Persons (PEPs) connections make it more likely that high-risk tenders are awarded at higher prices.



• The page below reports **real-life** (but anonymized) examples across three of the FALCON domains, highlighting risk factors and indicators for each of them.

Corruption in public procurement with the involvement of Politically Exposed Persons

During the Covid-19 pandemic, a **Conservative peer** in the House of Lords ensured that **Company A**, indirectly owned by her husband, secured a place in the "**VIP-lane**" – a special government mechanism designed to expedite the selection of suppliers recommended by ministers or government officials during the crisis. Throughout the summer of 2020, Company A was awarded **contracts worth £200 million** to supply the NHS amid the pandemic. Former Cabinet Office Ministers and former Health Secretaries played a role in securing contracts for Company A. To conceal the true ownership of Company A, a close associate of the couple was appointed as its **strawman director**, and the funds gained by the firm were then funnelled to **offshore trusts based in the Isle of Man**, linked to the Conservative peer and her children. The couple diverted some of the proceeds to **invest in real estate and purchase luxury items** such as a private jet and yacht for themselves and their family.

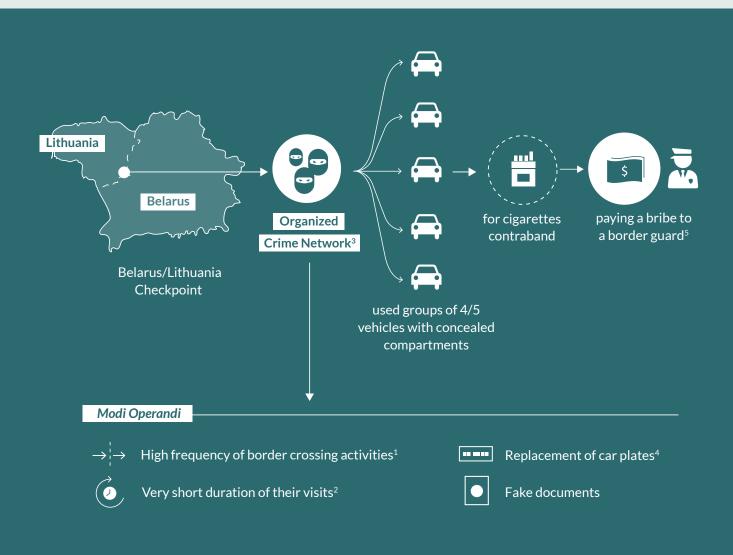


Risk Indicators

- 1. Emergency procedures in procurement
- 2. Legal arrangements and opaque vehicles
- 3. Offshore structures
- 4. Personal and political connections
- 5. Facilitators (family members and close associates)
- 6. Complex ownership structures

Border Corruption

A suspected **organized crime network** used vehicles with concealed compartments for the purpose of concealing **contraband cigarettes** across a custom **checkpoint from Belarus to Lithuania**. The network operated in groups of four to five vehicles, with each paying a **bribe to a border guard** officer or customs agent with whom they have interactions at border crossing clearance. Bribes were generally left on the seat or floor of a vehicle and then either directly taken by the officials or presented alongside the relevant documentation (passport, car registration, driving licence, etc.). Typical behaviors exhibited by these groups included the **high frequency of border crossing activities**, with members crossing the border several times within a single month, and the **very short duration of their visits**. Also, **replacement of car plates**, **fake passports** and **document forgery** are frequently employed. As a result, state border guard services face numerous challenges: the need to identify the most frequently used car models, to determine the duration of a vehicle's presence in the country, and to ascertain the frequency of border crossings by smugglers, whether individually or in groups.

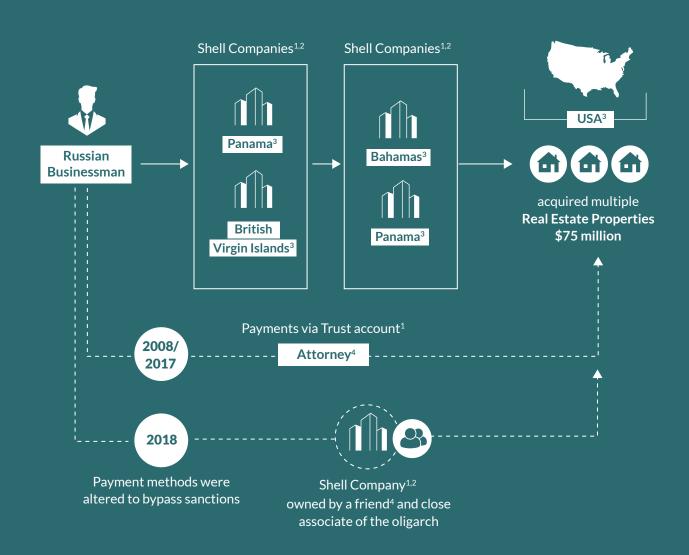


Risk Indicators

- 1. Frequent crossing
- 2. Short visit to the country
- 3. Collaborative crossing
- 4. Same car, different plates
- 5. Border Crossing Point clearance through a single Border Guard

Sanction Circumvention

Between 2008 and 2017, a Russian businessman acquired multiple real estate properties in the United States valued at approximately \$75 million through two shell companies registered in Panama and the Bahamas. These shell companies were indirectly owned by the oligarch via additional shell companies based in Panama and in the British Virgin Islands. To manage these properties, the businessman employed an attorney who handled related payments via a trust account. Following the oligarch's designation by the US Office of Foreign Assets Control (OFAC) in 2018, payment methods were altered to bypass sanctions and maintain access to his assets. Instead of coming from the original shell companies, funds were rerouted through a Bahamian bank account linked to a shell company owned by a friend and close associate of the oligarch, and a Russian bank account held by a family member of this associate. Additionally, the businessman made unauthorized attempts to sell two properties, disregarding sanctions and regulatory requirements to continue deriving financial benefits from the assets.

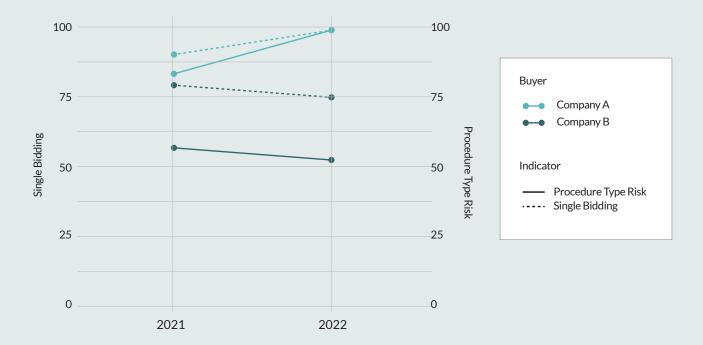


Risk Indicators

- 1. Complex ownership structures
- 2. Shell companies
- 3. Links with high-risk jurisdictions
- 4. Professionals and facilitators (close associates and family members)

Figure 6: Comparison of risk indicators in tendering practices between two Italian hospitals

Risk indicators provide an easy way to assess buyers' tendering practices and outcomes. Buyers seeking to favor certain companies often rely on risky procedures, which typically lead to limited competition—such as a high rate of single bidding (contracts awarded without competition). For example, in the comparison of two Italian hospitals below, one (Company A) saw an increase in both the share of risky procedures and contracts awarded through single bidding, while the other (Company B) experienced a decline in both indicators.



3. Consequences and Impact of Corruption

- Corruption impacts the core principles of public administration by undermining the quality, fairness, and efficiency of governance.
- One of its core effects is the **distortion of public resource allocation**. Corruption can divert resources from critical needs (e.g. healthcare, education) to politically motivated or rent-seeking projects (e.g. unuseful public works).
- Indirectly, it also erodes trust in **public institutions**, **decreases civic participation** and diminishes the perceived legitimacy of governments.
- As a result, corruption reduces **foreign direct investment** and **economic growth**, as investors perceive corrupt environments as unstable and risky.

While generally negative, the impact of corruption is diverse depending on the specific corruption domain (Figure 7).

Figure 7: Impact, challenges and costs of corruption by domain



Impact of Corruption in Public Procurement

- Inflated prices of public contracts
- Reduced quality of goods and services
- Inefficient resource allocation
- Eroded trust in public institutions
- Reduced foreign investments



Challenges with Sanctions Enforcement

- Assets concealment
- Illicit trade channels maintenance
- Use of intermediary countries
- Lack of international coordination

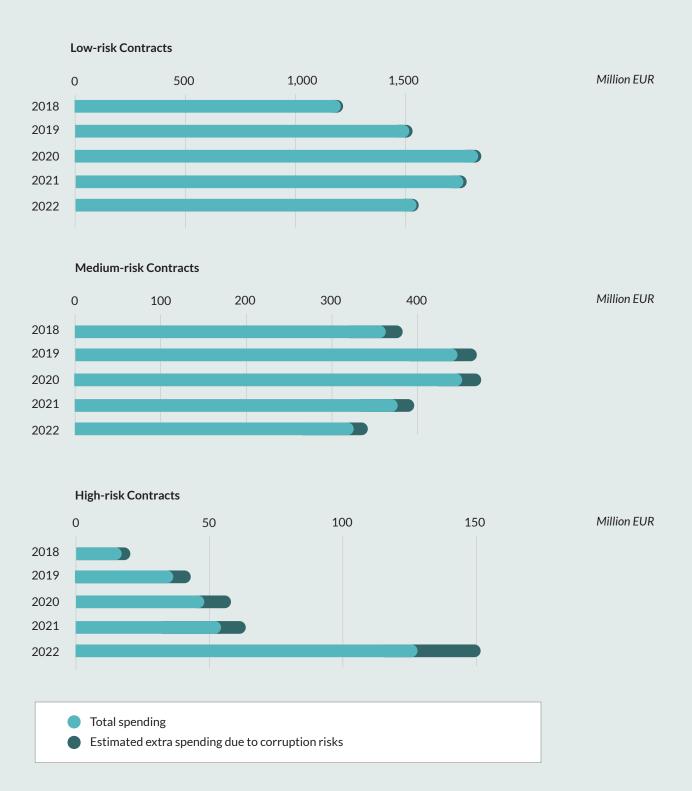


Economic and Societal Costs of Border Corruption

- Financial losses
- Tax losses
- Inefficiences and inflated costs for legitimate trade
- Indirect costs: broader societal impacts
 (e.g. on healthcare systems from drug trafficking)

FALCON research highlighted that, in Croatia, high-risk contracts are awarded at around 14% higher prices compared to those without any risks (see Figure 8 below). This translates to around 54 million EUR extra spending between 2018 and 2022.

Figure 8: Extra spending due to corruption risks



4. Policy Recommendations

Corruption is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon which can be prevented only by employing a variety of policies and countermeasures. The results of the FALCON analyses highlight two key areas for intervention.

Improving data for anti-corruption

The lack of standardized, high-quality, and interoperable datasets across key domains of governance such as **public procurement, company ownership, and asset declarations** hinders the monitoring of public spending and the development of corruption risk indicators.



 Data quality: Governments should improve data collection to ensure it is topically relevant, accurate, up-to-date and reliable. For example, public procurement data should include digitalized tender specifications, contract modifications and payments, that are often not collected in a systemic way. In other areas, such as border spaces, video surveillance, car recognition tools, and artificial intelligence solutions are key to produce reliable data for risk assessment.



Data interoperability: Administrative datasets should be easy to link together. For example, conflict of interest is nearly impossible to assess, if data on public contracts, companies, political administrators and interest declarations are not interconnected. Identifiers that are unique across different administrative datasets – such as tax IDs, tender IDs, product codes, and addresses should be standardized.



• Data standardization: Datasets should be presented in machine-readable formats to enable automated analysis and integration with advanced statistical tools. Training and capacity-building initiatives for users, including public officials and non-governmental stakeholders, can further improve the effective use of these datasets.



• Data accessibility: Data without confidential information and personal data should be easily accessible to civil society, journalists and researchers. Data sharing protocols should ensure access by law enforcement agencies (including foreign ones) to those datasets containing sensitive and personal data – e.g. real estate and company registries, beneficial ownership registers, asset declarations. Anonymization and encryption mechanisms should be developed to allow data processing while protecting sensitive information. To support international cooperation, the EU must promote agreements between its member states to develop data sharing mechanisms and regulations for anonymization and data protection.

Bank and social media

Despite being essential for detecting suspicious mechanisms of illicit enrichment, and despite some regulatory developments (see e.g. Centralized Bank Account Register – CBAR – Directive) banking data are often not easily accessible by LEAs and other criminal justice actors, who must obtain judicial authorization before accessing them. Similarly, data from social media (such as Facebook, Instagram, Tik Tok, LinkedIn) like contact lists, posts, videos and pictures are hard to extract even for public authorities due to the opposition of social media companies. The regulator should:

- (i) define agreements with private actors, including banks, financial sector associations, and social media corporations to regulate access to these data under precise conditions;
- (ii) introduce forms of public-private partnership which can facilitate data collection and extraction and generate a cooperative environment between firms and investigative authorities.

Strengthening the anti-corruption legal framework

Procedures and legal frameworks prone to corruption

- Some administrative procedures and legislative solutions are vulnerable by design to corruption, and should be limited in scope.
- For example, **negotiated procedures** without publication in **public procurement** are exposed to the discretionary powers of public officials. These processes should be limited only to emergency situations, and the latter should also be strictly defined and regulated.
- In border corruption, procedures requiring face-to-face interaction during customs procedures and border guards' inspections should be minimized. Procedures should be digitalized by introducing national single window systems and electronic declarations, which will guarantee higher neutrality between customs authorities and business players.
- **Crime-proofing** of the regulation can also help preventing opportunities of corruption by identifying in advance and eliminating those vulnerabilities that could be exploited by criminals and corrupt offenders.

Existing discrepancies and loopholes across EU member states

Discrepancies and loopholes between laws, regulations, and procedures across EU member states can be exploited across several **corruption domains**:

Public Procurement

- The EU Public Procurement Directive only applies to tenders above a certain value threshold, leaving space for business players to adopt circumvention strategies.
- For example, bigger projects can be split into smaller tenders to avoid transparency and apply potentially more lenient national legislation.

Conflict of Interest

- Exceptions and differences exist in the application of Conflict of Interest (COI) rules.
- Firstly, cross-border differences exist in terms of what constitutes a conflict of interest.
- Secondly, COI rules often apply to senior public officials, but in other instances they treat senior and junior officials differently.
- Asset declaration duties, which are essential for identifying COI, are inconsistent across countries.
 Countries vary in terms of data coverage, requirements for declaration of interests, and data publication protocols.
- E-governance mechanisms should be introduced, e.g. as it allows public officials to complete their declarations online, with prioritization mechanisms based on an evidence-based risk approach.

Sanction Circumvention

- Discrepancies across EU countries in terms of their legislation on sanction circumvention are exploited by individuals and companies to avoid sanctions.
- Systems of exemptions should be streamlined across EU MS by the European Commission.
- The management of travel bans and restrictions on bank accounts for individuals from sanctioned countries residing in an EU country should also be harmonized and made more consistent.
- Public awareness campaigns should recognize and foster the role of civil society actors, including investigative journalists, in identifying and reporting sanctions evasion.

Border Corruption

- Border technologies should be harmonized across EU countries and improved in terms of quality of controls and automatization.
- For example, some borders lack the digitalization of customs procedures or the installation of high-quality scanners or video surveillance systems.
- In other instances, border guards and customs officials are not equipped with the necessary technological devices and skills needed for technologically advanced inspection.

Challenges with the implementation of legal frameworks

- Challenges in implementation further weaken the effectiveness of legal frameworks. These are often due to a
 lack of financial and human resources to carry out tasks properly, and to an unclear division of responsibilities
 between public bodies and authorities. At the same time, the lack of coordination between public actors can
 lead to increased confusion, duplication and waste of resources, which can be detrimental to the effective
 implementation of the legal framework.
- For instance, while the EU's **legal framework for sanctions** appears robust on paper, its enforcement is often undermined by limited financial and human resources allocated to competent national authorities, which prevent a prompt investigation on mechanisms and strategies aimed at circumventing sanctions.
- Similarly, an effective implementation of the **legal frameworks for the management of border corruption** is prevented by the lack of systematic cooperation between border guards and customs agents, making it difficult to conduct thorough inspections and controls on individuals, vehicles, and goods.
- To address these issues, it is crucial to invest in **strengthening institutional capacity** and **ensuring adequate resources** for **enforcement mechanisms**.

References

- 1. Rose-Ackerman S. Democracy and 'grand' corruption. Int Soc Sci J. 1996;48(149):365–80.
- 2. Miller S. Corruption. In: Zalta EN, Nodelman U, editors. The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy [Internet]. Winter 2023. Metaphysics Research Lab, Stanford University; 2023 [cited 2024 Mar 11]. Available from: https://plato.stanford.edu/archives/win2023/entries/corruption/
- 3. UNODC. Module 1. What is corruption and why should we care? [Internet]. Vienna, Austria: United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC); 2022 [cited 2024 Mar 11]. (Module Series on Anti-Corruption). Available from: https://grace.unodc.org/grace/uploads/documents/academics/Anti-Corruption_Module_1_What_Is_Corruption_and_Why_Should_We_Care.pdf
- 4. UNODC. The COVID-19 Pandemic: Exacerbating the Threat of Corruption to Human Rights and Sustainable Development in Pacific Island Countries [Internet]. United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) UN-PRAC; 2021 Oct [cited 2024 Mar 11]. Available from: https://www.unodc.org/roseap/uploads/documents/pacific/2021/UN-PRAC_Paper_-_COVID-19-Exacerbating_the_Threat_of_Corruption_to_Human_Rights_and_Sustainable_Development_in_PICs.pdf
- 5. van der Does de Willebois E, Halter E M, Harrison RobertA, Park JW, Sharman JC. The Puppet Masters: How the Corrupt Use Legal Structures to Hide Stolen Assets and What to Do About It [Internet]. The World Bank; 2011 [cited 2014 Oct 29]. 267 p. Available from: http://elibrary.worldbank.org/doi/book/10.1596/978-0-8213-8894-5
- 6. Cooley A, Heathershaw J, Sharman JC. The Rise of Kleptocracy: Laundering Cash, White Washing Reputations. J Democr. 2018;29(1):39–53.
- 7. Riccardi M. Money Laundering Blacklists [Internet]. London: Routledge; 2022. 186 p. Available from: https://www.routledge.com/Money-Laundering-Blacklists/Riccardi/p/book/9781032080871
- 8. Mugellini G, Villeneuve JP, Heide M. Monitoring sustainable development goals and the quest for high-quality indicators: Learning from a practical evaluation of data on corruption. Sustainable Development [Internet]. ERP Environment and John Wiley&Sons Ltd. 2021; Available from: https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1002/sd.2223
- 9. Mungiu-Pippidi A, Fazekas M. Chapter 2: How to define and measure corruption. In: A Research Agenda for Studies of Corruption [Internet]. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing; 2020. Available from: https://www.elgaronline.com/edcollchap/edcoll/9781789904994/9781789904994.00008.xml
- 10. Fazekas M, János T, King L. An Objective Corruption Risk Index Using Public Procurement Data. Eur J Crim Policy Res. 2016 Sep 1;22.
- 11. Gnaldi M, Del Sarto S. Measuring Corruption Risk in Public Procurement over Emergency Periods. Social Indicators Research [Internet]. Springer Netherlands. 2024; Available from: https://scholar.google.it/citations?view_op=view_citation&hl=it&user=dt9dijYAAAAJ&sortby=pubdate&citation_for_view=dt-9dijYAAAAJ:tS2w5q8j5-wC
- 12. Golden MA, Picci L. Proposal for a new measure of corruption, illustrated with Italian data. Economics and Policy. Blackwell Publishing. 2005;
- 13. Jofre M, Bosisio A, Riccardi M. Financial crime risk assessment: machine learning insights into ownership structures in secrecy firms. Global Crime. 2024; Available from: https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/1 0.1080/17440572.2024.2402848
- 14. Aziani A, Ferwerda J, Riccardi M. Who are our owners? Exploring the ownership links of businesses to identify illicit financial flows. Eur J Criminol [Internet]. 2021 [cited 2021 Jan 28]; Available from: https://doi.org/10.1177/1477370820980368

- 15. Cariello P, De Simoni M, lezzi S. Quaderni dell'antiriciclaggio [Internet]. 2024. Available from: https://uif. bancaditalia.it/pubblicazioni/quaderni/2024/quaderno-22-2024/quaderno-22-2024.pdf
- 16. United Nations. United Nations Convention Against Corruption. resolution 58/4 2003.
- 17. United Nations. The Global Programme Against Corruption. Anti-corruption Toolkit [Internet]. United Nations; 2004 [cited 2024 Mar 27]. Available from: https://www.unodc.org/documents/treaties/corruption/toolkit/toolkit/5_foreword.pdf
- 18. "Other high-level corruption" encompasses cases of corruption involving high-level officials from public administration (but not involving public procurement, already covered by another category) and corporate organizations. The four categories under analysis slightly differ from the use cases adopted by the FALCON Project (for more details, see https://www.falcon-horizon.eu/).
- 19. Bribery is interpreted here as the act of offering or accepting money or valuable items to corruptly influence a public official or private entity in performing their official duties [16].
- 20. Misappropriation is interpreted here as the improper diversion or theft of funds, assets, or properties designated for a public purpose. Embezzlement refers to the same unauthorised use of funds but conducted by an individual who was directly entrusted with management [17]. To take place, misappropriation of funds and embezzlement often leverage a variety of fraudulent means (e.g. false provision of services or tax frauds).
- 21. Satellite jurisdictions are interpreted here as countries distinct from where the corrupt act occurs or the citizenship or residence of the actors involved.