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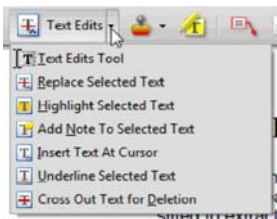
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Neoliberal Doctrine Meets the Eastern Bloc: Resistance, Appropriation and Purification in Post-Socialist Spaces

SONIA HIRT, CHRISTIAN SELLAR & CRAIG YOUNG

THIS COLLECTION EXPLORES HOW NEOLIBERAL IDEOLOGY—AND RELATED economic policies—have been implemented in the once-socialist countries of East Central Europe and the former Soviet Union. Specifically, it argues that this ideology undergoes deep modifications as it meets post-socialist conditions: sometimes it is creatively appropriated, sometimes resisted and sometimes ‘purified’ (in that it is implemented more thoroughly than in the Western nations where neoliberalism as an ideology was developed). Thus, the collection illustrates how ‘actually existing neoliberalism’, to use Brenner and Theodore’s (2002) terminology, occurs ‘on the ground’. It argues that the ‘actually existing neoliberalisms’, which have developed in a variety of post-socialist contexts, can differ profoundly from the theoretical constructs propagated by neoliberalism’s supporters, including the major international financial institutions such as the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank. As recent literature on policy mobility makes clear ‘It is already widely recognized that it is rarely possible to transfer policies directly, precisely because they emerge from and are responses to particular “local” sets of social and political conditions which are not replicated in the places to which they are transplanted’ (Cochrane & Ward 2012, p. 5).

Neoliberalism comprises the policy applications of neoclassical economic theory. Academic critiques such as that of Harvey (2003, 2005) highlight the connections between these policies, the reinstatement of class power and the emergence of the current phase of globalisation. The narrative of Harvey and others describes a revival of neoclassical ideology in the US and the UK in the midst of the 1970s crisis of the Fordist mode of production and the Keynesian political economy model (Lipietz 2001; Harvey 2010). In the 1980s, arguably in reaction to this crisis, the Reagan administration in the US and the Thatcher government in the UK adopted policies that curtailed welfare programmes and other redistributive policies; lifted barriers to trade, especially in the financial sector; reduced state intervention in the economy; and privatised many public assets. The vacuum created by the ‘rolling back of the welfare state’ was filled by an increasing reliance on unregulated capitalist enterprise and public–private partnerships (Harvey 2005, p. 113). Since the 1990s, the US government, along with the International Monetary Fund and the

World Bank, have exerted pressure on developing and developed countries alike to adopt similar reforms (often referred to collectively as ‘the Washington Consensus’). Simultaneously, the Chinese government adopted aspects of the free-market economy, marrying neoliberalism and Communist Party rule (Harvey 2005). The EU also contributed to this process, although many of its founding members have long social democratic traditions, thus leading EU institutions to promote a medley of neoliberal and Keynesian policies in their sphere of influence.¹

Building upon this story of the progressive transformation of the world economy in the image of Anglo-American neoliberalism, a vast literature has discussed the multi-scalar modifications of—and resistance to—the neoliberal project. The works of Pierre Bourdieu, Jean and John Comaroff, Jacques Derrida, Gustavo Esteva and others have examined the exploitative character and sharpening class warfare that were brought about by neoliberally minded globalisation (Derrida 1994; Esteva & Prakash 1998; Bourdieu 1999, 2003; Comaroff & Comaroff 2001). Scholarly criticism aside, however, from the early 1990s to the beginning of the 2000s, the influence of neoliberal ideology over policy makers increased globally, to the point that its most vocal supporters claimed that viable alternatives to Western liberalism have been exhausted and the world is witnessing the ‘end of history’ (Fukuyama 1992). Indeed, the demise of Soviet-style socialism, the crisis of Western Keynesianism, and the adoption of elements of a capitalist economy in China all seemed to lend support to this conclusion, even as citizens (and scholars) around the world struggled to find alternatives.

Critics of neoliberalism have challenged many of its fundamental philosophical assumptions, including notions concerning the rationality of markets and their ability to distribute resources in an optimal manner (Comaroff & Comaroff 2001). Some scholars advocate the reorganisation of the state against the marketisation of society (Bourdieu 1999, 2003) and argue that there is still vitality in the communist utopia (Derrida 1994). Others directly engage with social movements and anti-globalisation groups, and produce more accessible, programme-oriented writings that aim to provide a basis from which to challenge the neoliberal process from the ‘bottom up’ (Esteva & Prakash 1998; Klein 2000; Bircham & Charlton 2001; Danaher 2001; George 2004). The neoliberal project has been challenged not only by bottom-up social movements but also by local and transnational elites, albeit in very different ways. The literature has shown that elites have extensive powers to mould neoliberal ideology to fit their own agenda. For example, Aihwa Ong investigated the ‘revisiting’ of neoliberalism by mainland Chinese elites, while Henry Yeung and Katherine Mitchell showed how the Chinese diaspora skilfully reinterpreted pre-modern social linkages and family networks to thrive in the relatively open-border, free-trade environments of the Pacific Rim since the 1990s (Ong 1999, 2006; Yeung 2002; Mitchell 2004).

In the former Eastern Bloc, the appropriation of neoliberal ideology by new elites has also been documented, starting with the work of Anders Aslund and Jeffrey Sachs—authors of academic work and top-level consultants who influenced how governments in Russia, Poland, Ukraine and other nations managed their transition (Blanchard *et al.* 1994; Aslund

¹For example, the EU Regional and Cohesion policies backed by the EU Regional Development Funds on occasion push for competitiveness and spreading neoliberal ‘best practices’; yet at other times they aim to respect differences and overcome inequalities between nations and between regions (McEwen 2011; Sellar & McEwen 2011).

2002). Later, Merje Kuus developed a more nuanced understanding of the ways in which ‘Western’ consulting and ideas were shaped, directed and manipulated by ‘Eastern’ elites (Kuus 2004, 2008). Through a ‘ritual of listening to foreigners’, these elites skilfully directed Western aid, thus influencing both the implementation and the design of aid programmes:

Western officials relied heavily on a handful of local partners, whom they depicted as particularly competent and reformist, largely because of these partners’ Western experience, ‘Western’ dress code and mannerisms ... [these] local officials swayed not only the administration of Western aid in the recipient states but also influenced the design of aid programs in the donor states. (Kuus 2004, pp. 478–79)

Furthermore, Adam Swain (2006) showed how the interplay between Western academics, consultants and donors, and local political elites led to the emergence of a network of institutions, dedicated to the neoliberalisation of post-socialist Europe and Eurasia. He termed this alliance the ‘transition industry’.²

The persistent conflict between popular scepticism and resistance towards (neoliberal) globalisation and what may be described as elites’ manipulation of neoliberal ideology to fit their own interests raises a series of questions regarding the very nature of neoliberalism. What is neoliberalism after all? What does it mean in different parts of the world? How do its conceptual building blocks, like ‘property’ or ‘market’, translate into different contexts? Is neoliberalism truly an Anglo-American model exported abroad? How does it ‘travel’ around the world? Why do different groups, different citizen organisations and different elites see it, practise it or adapt to it differently? Whereas there is consensus on neoliberalism’s main components, evidence for its locally specific manifestations have led scholars to propose that there is no single, ‘one-size-fits-all’ neoliberalism (Larner 2003; Cochrane & Ward 2012); rather, there is a myriad of ‘actually existing neoliberalisms’ (Brenner & Theodore 2002) or a process of ‘neoliberalisation’ (Peck & Tickell 2002; Gibson & Klocker 2005) or a ‘variegated neoliberalisation’ (Brenner *et al.* 2010).

These terms highlight that neoliberalism does not ‘trickle down’ to the local context and then, ‘once it hits the ground’, work following a clearly pre-determined pathway. Rather, its specific trajectory depends on a rich variety of national and local responses, which modify the mainstream theory and convert it into ‘actually existing’, context-dependent realities. These realities are produced by the intersection of the neoliberal credo with local, inherited and path-dependent institutional structures, regulatory regimes and cultures (Brenner *et al.* 2010; McCann & Ward 2011). Cochrane and Ward (2012, p. 6) highlight this intersection of the local and the global, stating that ‘policy networks with extensive geographical reach are central to the construction of apparently local responses, while at the same time apparently global phenomena ... are capable of realization only in particular, grounded and localized ways’.

In a special issue of *Geographical Research* on Antipodean neoliberalism, Donald McNeill warned against ‘the power of this theory to travel unruffled’ (McNeill 2005, p. 113). Policy ‘travels’ globally in complex ways during which its core meanings can be altered through the mundane actions of those implementing it (Brenner *et al.* 2010;

²Swain specifically described the transformation of a whole array of institutional structures emerging from the interactions between foreign consultants and local leaders in the restructuring of Ukraine’s energy sector.

140 Cook & Ward 2011; McCann 2011; McCann & Ward 2011; Peck 2011; Cochrane & Ward
 2012). As Peck and Theodore (2001, p. 427) suggest, policy is rarely literally transferred in a
 uniform manner, rather ‘the form and function of . . . policies is prone to change as they are
 translated and re-embedded within and between different institutional, economic and
 political contexts’. O’Neill and Argent (2005) argue that Australia, for example, has
 145 experienced neoliberalism in multiple ways in different domains: in some cases, there have
 been tendencies towards embracing neoliberal doctrine, and in others, towards either
 resisting it or actively constructing or reconstructing it. In her study of Sydney’s
 metropolitan planning, McGuirk (2005, p. 67) argues that the planning agenda shows a
 willingness to ‘engage state agency in a complex and hybrid manner that is neither
 predetermined by any neoliberalist prescription nor unequivocally neoliberalist. . . . [As a
 150 result] [s]omething more complex, partial and hybrid has been enacted’. Of particular
 relevance to the study of how neoliberalism ‘touches down’ in the Central Asian republics, a
 number of studies have highlighted the locally contingent nature of neoliberalisation in a
 variety of rural developing-world contexts (Igoe 2007; Büscher & Dressler 2012; Duffy &
 Moore 2010).

155 Besides highlighting the local specificities, the term ‘actually existing neoliberalisms’
 indicates the tension between the ideology and the actual practices, partially because
 ‘neoliberal ideology systematically misrepresents the real effects of such policies upon
 macro-institutional structures’ and omits the extraordinary variety of local responses
 (Brenner & Theodore 2002, p. 353). This variety warrants investigation not so much of
 160 some imaginary single, global evolutionary history of neoliberalism but, rather, an analysis
 of the complex, varied geographies of neoliberalisms (Brenner *et al.* 2010).

It can be argued that neoliberalism is far from a unifying factor in the socioeconomic
 and institutional make-up of the world, regardless of the claims of Fukuyama and
 Friedman (Fukuyama 1992; Friedman 2005). Rather, the multiplicity of ‘actually existing
 165 neoliberalisms’ have territorial specificities, partially because by nominally embracing
 neoliberal ideology, elites and other social groups with different access to power have
 modified existing institutional arrangements at multiple scales and reconstructed them to
 suit their own purposes (Peck & Tickell 2002). Transformations in the relationship
 between power and territory (territoriality) are among the most visible changes in
 170 contemporary political geographies. In particular, the new institutions which are emerging
 as a consequence of neoliberalisation have changed the ways in which states use
 territories as a source of control and management (Cox 2003; Agnew 2005a; Bialasiewicz
et al. 2005; Gilbert 2007; Jessop *et al.* 2008). In doing so, they have brought about
 processes of de-territorialisation and re-territorialisation, or the reorganisation of
 175 territories under new structures conceptualised and dominated by non-state (whether
 sub-national or supra-national) actors (Toal & Luke 1994; Shore 2000; Sparke 2006;
 Jones 2008). Simultaneously, (neoliberal) globalisation has transformed sovereignty
 resulting in the ‘unlimited and indivisible rule by state over a territory and the people in
 it’ (Agnew 2005b), including the ways in which sovereignty is territorialised (Murphy
 180 1996; Sidaway 2003; Agnew 2005b; Antonsich 2009). These changes shape the trajectory
 of neoliberalisms in multiple ways. To begin with, without a redefinition of territoriality
 and sovereignty, a single ideology such as neoliberalism could not have become so
 globally influential. At the same time, however, robust challenges to this ideology are
 now becoming possible partially because of the formation of social movements and

185 capital alliances that could not exist under traditional notions of territoriality and
sovereignty.

'Actually existing neoliberalisms' under post-socialism

190 The aim of this collection is to advance understanding of 'actually existing neoliberalisms'
by focusing on the meanings, implementations and modifications of neoliberal doctrine in
the context of the formerly communist-ruled Eastern Europe and Soviet Union. This is done
through a series of essays analysing the reception of the key elements of neoliberalism in
two East Central European nations and five countries in the former Soviet Union. The post-
195 socialist world of Eurasia represents a particularly intriguing locus for investigating the
'travels' of neoliberalism. For several decades, of course, this vast region was the home of
neoliberalism's arch-enemy—'actually existing socialism'. This Brezhnev-era term was
meant to distinguish the 'real' socialist countries from the ideal communist society of the
future but also, more subtly perhaps, from the 'fake' social democracies of 1970s Western
200 Europe such as those in Scandinavia. The collapse of 'actually existing' socialist regimes in
1989–1991 put this region into prolonged economic and political turmoil. Arguably, the
region may be described as undergoing systemic transformation along three chief
socioeconomic and ideological axes: neoliberal globalisation, post-socialism and
Europeanisation (although the latter term loses relevance as we move closer to Central
205 Asia (Tsenkova & Nedovic-Budic 2006)). Because of the real and perceived failures of
'actually existing socialism' (which included the economic stagnation of the 1980s and the
economic meltdown of the early 1990s), the former Eastern Bloc became viewed as an
especially ripe recipient of neoliberal 'shock therapy' meant to 'transfuse the spirit of
[neo-liberal] capitalism' (Andrusz *et al.* 1996, p. 11) to East European and Eurasian soil.
210 These strategies, inspired by the International Monetary Fund and World Bank, aimed to
quickly establish or reinstitute private property regimes, remove barriers to multinational
trade, eliminate state dominance over the economy and dismantle existing social safety
nets—all in order to 'jump-start' this particular form of capitalism regardless of its many
negative side effects such as sharply increased poverty and social stratification (Elliott & Hall
215 1999; Hirt & Stanilov 2009). It would, however, be a mistake to see these efforts as exercises
in the straightforward adoption of Western neoliberalism. As the essays in this volume
suggest, the neoliberal credo has made a rather complex rendezvous with post-socialism.

The very term 'post-socialism' is a complex construct. It typically indicates the multiple
social, economic and political changes experienced in East Central Europe and the former
220 Soviet Union after the collapse of communist regimes in 1989–1991. The term was
developed to challenge the assumption, implicit in the work of neoliberal scholars and in the
publications of international financial institutions, of a linear transition from an ideal-type
command economy to an ideal-type market economy, from state socialism to neoliberal
capitalism (Lipton & Sachs 1990; EBRD 1997). Neoliberal policies, comprising
225 privatisation, liberalisation and stabilisation, were to be achieved by immediate and
comprehensive reforms—'shock therapy' (Lipton & Sachs 1990). However, not all
countries adopted this approach and even in those which nominally did, the institutional and
cultural legacies of the past prevented a straightforward substitution of one model with
another. Scholars performing microanalyses of property and inter-firm networks, for
230 instance, found that personal and group relations that were built during the socialist period

prevented the simplistic imposition of a capitalist society comprising profit-maximising ‘rational’ market actors operating within a ‘pure’ property regime (Pickles & Smith 1998; Stark & Bruszt 1998; Bandelj 2008). In one of the earliest challenges to the conventional view of transition, Stark (1990) defined post-socialism not as a shift ‘from plan to market’ (World Bank 1996) but from ‘plan to clan’. On their way to becoming ‘properly’ capitalist, post-socialist elites creatively embraced and manipulated both capitalism and, in some cases ‘Europeanness’, to suit their own agendas (Bakić-Hayden 1995; Kuus 2004; Sellar *et al.* 2009a, 2009b). Whereas international institutions such as the European Commission were busy ‘teaching’ their own mix of Keynesian and neoliberal policies to the new EU member states via the Structural and Cohesion funds (Sellar & McEwen 2011), post-socialist political and business leaders, positioned as ‘learners’, had other ideas of what these policies meant. Furthermore, the policies themselves have not been widely popular. In fact, there is evidence across the region that free-market scepticism and socialist nostalgia are common among many segments of European and Eurasian post-socialist society (Ghodsee & Henry 2010), feeding into subtle and not-so-subtle ways of resisting and, in some cases, transforming the basic neoliberal credo.

Scholars have provided several examples of key neoliberal policies and their underlying concepts that were manipulated by local elites when imported from the West. The ambiguity of the concept of ‘property’ in post-socialist Romania, for example, has been convincingly demonstrated by Verdery (2003). From neighbouring Bulgaria, we have several examples that challenge the straightforward meaning and seamless importation of apparently fundamental concepts such as civil society (Staddon & Cellarius 2002), industry and development (Creed 1997), and regionalism and public participation (Hirt 2005, 2007). Sellar *et al.* (2011) analysed the implementation of specific industrial policies—the so-called ‘cluster policies’—and showed that the legacy of socialism, relations among policy stakeholders and contextual aspects such as macroeconomic policies, fundamentally transformed the intent of the EU policies when they were implemented in Bulgaria.

These studies suggest that ‘actually existing neoliberalisms’ are deeply embedded into local contexts in which the meanings of basic neoliberal terms can become ‘lost in translation’ (though not necessarily for the worse). This collection explores these processes in the post-socialist context, analysing how exactly neoliberal ideology becomes integrated into and modulated by existing belief systems and economic and institutional traditions. How do the abstract concepts of neoliberalism become intertwined with local practices and how are they modified in the process? We propose several overlapping modulations of neoliberalism in the Eurasian post-socialist region, including resistance, appropriation and purification. Below, we introduce how these themes are explored in the individual essays.

Implementing neoliberalism in the former Eastern Bloc

The essays in this collection explore how various social groups, state institutions, enterprises and individuals use neoliberal constructs—concepts, ideals and models—‘on the ground’ in the post-socialist context. Local responses include scepticism towards and resistance to these neoliberal constructs. In other cases, the constructs are embraced, exaggerated and even mythologised in locally contingent ways in order to support specific policies and actions. Powerful groups clearly have greater capacity to mould and appropriate these constructs for their own ends, whereas weaker ones may be forced to adapt to them in their

daily lives, though this does not necessarily make them simply the ‘victims’ of an imposed neoliberalism. How various groups use or modify neoliberal constructs depends as much on social status as on national and cultural context. Neoliberalism’s perceived ‘Westernness’ provides legitimacy in some cases (as we observe in the East Central European countries discussed below) but in others it only contributes toward scepticism and rejection (as we observe in Russia and Central Asia). Finally, the very idea of neoliberalism as a Western ideology that is being ‘taught’ to the ‘East’ may need some rethinking.

The first essay, by Grigory Ioffe, describes the outright scepticism of post-Soviet elites toward the importation of neoliberalism under the guise of US-driven (and, to a lesser extent, EU-driven) democracy promotion. The piece sets up the provocative tone of the collection by examining how a concept which is central to neoliberalism—democracy—is in fact constructed and mobilised in very different ways by both Western and post-socialist elites. By carefully exposing the US government’s ‘doublespeak’ on ‘democracy’, a term used selectively to endorse its geopolitical allies and penalise its enemies, Ioffe posits that Western constructs are bound to meet resistance if injected so hypocritically. This type of selective democracy exportation is, of course, not limited to the post-socialist world and there are many examples from Latin America and the Middle East of cases where political ‘realism’ rather than democracy-promotion has been the backbone of US policies. In a similar vein, Ioffe argues that the American vision of Belarus and the Ukraine changed over time (without a substantive regime change in either country) in response to whether they were seen as US allies or enemies in the struggle to constrain Russia’s dominance in the region. Along similar lines, it also argues that, while the West (the US and the EU) actively condemned actions by the Belarusian regime, it ‘busily embraced’ similarly authoritarian governments in Central Asia ‘because of new and exciting natural gas agreements’ (Ioffe, in this collection). One way of thinking about Ioffe’s contribution is to consider it as a call for an ‘actually existing geopolitical realism’, a geopolitical realism that is not perpetually trying to sell itself under the cover of democracy, whatever this elusive term may mean.

Peter Lindner’s essay provides an anthropological account of how former workers in five Soviet collective farms (*kolhozy*) adjusted their daily lives—and their selfhoods—to the introduction of notions of ‘private property’. Lindner explores the dominant nature of such concepts as ‘property’ and ‘market’ while questioning their universality, much as Ioffe questions the implementation of notions of ‘democracy’. This essay investigates the political goals of establishing property rights, the resulting policy outcomes and their impacts on everyday life. It focuses on the mechanisms leading to the divergence between the formal adoption of property rights and their actual implementation, which results in hybrid forms of private and collective property. This divergence is produced partially by the fact that some aspects of neoliberal notions of ‘pure’ private property are completely foreign to the local population.

In a similar vein to Lindner’s essay, Marianna Pavlovskaya explores the establishment of private property in Russia in two contrasting locations: central Moscow and the Russian Far East, where the local economy is based on Arctic reindeer herding. Pavlovskaya’s cases (as with Lindner’s) demonstrate that neoliberal concepts such as private property regimes undergo significant modifications when they meet the ground. In downtown Moscow, the author shows how Russian capitalist enterprises appeared to take off precisely in the urban spaces which were inhabited by socialist-era mega-institutions like the *Komsomol* (the organisation of the Soviet communist youth). This example illustrates how attempts to

start capitalism from scratch through rapid urban land and real-estate privatisation actually led to quite unexpected outcomes. Burgeoning small private businesses quickly found that obtaining office space in Moscow in the early 1990s was logistically difficult and prohibitively expensive. There were similar problems with acquiring qualified staff and other resources. The ‘market’ was skewed in favour of the various Soviet-era agencies, whose leaders quickly learned to become entrepreneurs combining their state and private roles (much as they were combining state and private office space). Russia’s capitalism was thus incubated on the state’s grounds—that is, not according to neoliberal prescription. *Privatizatsiya* was the word of the day, but it did not take place the way neoliberal advocates suggested: state resources were not sold to private parties but were used to generate private profits. Pavlovskaya’s story of the Far East is both different and complementary. There, private property did not exist (thus making both Soviet collectivisation and post-Soviet privatisation seem nonsensical, practically and symbolically). Under the threat of the giant Russian and multinational oil and other resource-extraction private mega-industries, indigenous communities have struggled to establish communal ownership in order to resist post-Soviet privatisation.

The next essay, by Martin Sokol on economic policies in Eastern Slovakia, shows the far-reaching consequences of neoliberal model making and its impact on regional governance. The author demonstrates how neoliberal myths are made, glorified and appropriated. He tells the story of Slovakia’s Košice region, where various local public and private agencies have established cooperative relationships, thus changing the way they manage their territory, in an attempt to imitate the development model of the famous Silicon Valley, California—a model which has long served as an inspiration for capitalism’s proponents. Sokol argues that contrary to the commonly held view of Silicon Valley as competitive capitalism at its best, its emergence and long-term success were to a great extent the product of US federal intervention, especially heavy military investment during the Cold War. The author points to the irony that Silicon Valley holds such an ideological appeal for free-market advocates even though it was not the result of the successful operation of the free market. Paradoxically, the advent of neoliberalism in Slovakia constrained the possibility of a local Silicon Valley, because state resources became severely limited. Importantly for the purposes of this collection, however, the essay shows how neoliberal models or, more specifically, representations of idealised types of neoliberalism, can be appropriated and used as legitimisation tools in order to initiate specific forms of action. Echoing Pavlovskaya’s analysis, Sokol’s essay reminds us that thriving capitalism requires serious state investment, something which post-socialist Slovakia seems to lack.

Ulrich Ermann’s essay on the fashion industry in Bulgaria demonstrates both a different type of appropriation and the development of alternative (but hybrid) strategies. Building on Bulgarians’ long-standing sense of being backward and thus permanently struggling to become ‘European’ (Todorova 1997), the emerging Bulgarian fashion enterprises appropriated Western names, images and styles in order to present themselves as desirable by those Bulgarians who aspired to be Europeans. These names, images and styles were also used as means of disassociation from the backward, ‘unfashionable’, ostensibly ‘non-European’ socialist past. However, the business strategies developed by these firms also demonstrate alternative and more nuanced approaches to marketing. One of the most successful fashion firms is owned by the grand-daughter of the last Bulgarian socialist dictator, Todor Zhivkov. Proudly using her grandfather’s name, the firm’s energetic owner,

Zheni Zhivkova, has managed to capitalise not only on Western style, nomenclature and imagery but also on the socialist nostalgia that exists among a sizable portion of the Bulgarian population. Success in the new market economy has thus been based on combining Western approaches to marketing with local memories and perceptions of the socialist past, a development which would not have been foreseen by orthodox neoliberal theorists.

The collection ends with a thought-provoking piece on corruption in Russia by Irina Olimpieva and Oleg Pachenkov. The authors refute some of the most popular axioms behind neoliberally minded globalisation: that corruption is a sign of an imperfect free-market system and that the phenomenon is common in post-socialist societies because they have not yet developed in a satisfactory neoliberal manner. Olimpieva and Pachenkov build on the work of Holmes, among others, in providing a detailed examination of the causes of corruption in post-socialist societies. Holmes (2006) argues that with its lack of transparency and power structures which distributed access to resources based on clan-like connections, the socialist system set up the stage for corruption. Furthermore, the collapse of communist ideology contributed to a legitimacy crisis of the state which in turn made it socially acceptable to see public assets as a source of private gain. (In Venelin Ganey's (2007, p. 168) words, the post-socialist state became viewed by its subjects as an 'object of extraction'.) However, this is more than another example of post-socialist path-dependency. The neoliberal transformation of East European and Eurasian societies (the mass privatisation of public resources) created exceptional opportunities for corruption, especially in an environment where public employees at all levels lived in an environment of heightened job insecurity and reduced incomes. Expanding on this line of thought, Olimpieva and Pachenkov argue that 'real' neoliberal transformation is not incompatible with corruption but is in fact conducive to it. 'Corruption' does not happen in Russia, the authors note 'because Russia is not "neoliberal enough"'; rather, it happens 'because Russia is more "neoliberal" than the countries where neoliberal ideas originated—because in these countries (in the "West") neoliberalism is tempered by other traditions' (Olimpieva & Pachenkov, in this collection). These traditions include transparency and long-term social-democratic institutions. The authors suggest that if corruption is the use of public resources for private gain, then corruption does not necessarily clash with neoliberalism but may be a legitimate neoliberal business practice. In advancing this thesis of post-socialism as neoliberalism's 'purification',³ Olimpieva and Pachenkov implicitly propose what was simply unthinkable on either side of the Iron Curtain: that what was once the land of 'actually existing socialism' has become the land of 'actually existing neoliberalism', neoliberalism in its purest, cleanest, most unmediated form.

The collection, thus, explores various instances of how the 'rolling-out' of neoliberalism is being modified into differing forms of 'neoliberalisation' or 'actually existing neoliberalisms' as it encounters the post-socialist context. The essays reveal a complex geography to this process. It highlights that rather than a single, monolithic 'neoliberalism' imposing itself upon these localities, the processes of neoliberalisation are inflected by local contingencies combining the legacies inherited from the socialist and Soviet (or even pre-socialist and Soviet) era with the forces of globalisation and, in some cases,

³A related thesis of post-socialism as the purified version of 'post-modern' neoliberalism has been advanced in cultural anthropology by Kharkhordin (1995, 1997) and in cultural geography by Hirt (2008).

415 Europeanisation. The result is the emergence of a highly differentiated set of ‘varieties of
capitalism’ in which many of the basic tenets of neoliberalism are resisted, challenged,
mutated or adopted in a purified form as a part of post-socialist transformation. Through
exploring these emerging ‘varieties of neoliberalisation’ we hope that this collection
420 demonstrates how post-socialist Europe, Russia and Central Asia contribute further
important insights into the impacts of the Anglo-American neoliberal project.

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