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Consider interpretations of a pivotal event in modern Russia: the arrest of Mikhail Khodorkovsky as he boarded a private jet in Siberia in 2003. At the time of his arrest, Khodorkovsky was the richest man in Russia thanks to the hugely unpopular privatizations of the 1990s and some savvy business decisions on his part. He was also beginning to play an increasing role in politics by funding opposition parties and think tanks much to the ire of the Kremlin. Authorities accused the forty-one-year-old Khodorkovsky of tax evasion and violating privatization laws. After two trials, he served more than ten years in jail and lost control of the oil giant Yukos to a state-owned rival. While observers agree that the arrest of Khodorkovsky epitomized the reassertion of state control over the economy and curbed the political power of big business, they disagree about the motivations behind it.

One account emphasizes Putin's personal role in the affair. As a former KGB agent, Putin had little interest in building markets and democracy, and sought to lead a revanche by his cronies in the security services that would reassert state power over society. The nationalization of Yukos and its transfer to a company controlled by President Putin's close associate was just one step in this plan. This explanation is part of a broader line of argument that treats Russian politics as an extension of Putin's worldview and stresses his seeming omnipotence over society. If we want to understand Russian politics, we need to begin with Vladimir Vladimirovich Putin.

Another account points to Russia's exceptional history and culture. This view depicts the nationalization of Yukos as Russia reverting to its historical type. Russia's long tradition of fusing state and private property as well as the lack of public support for markets and democracy, doomed efforts to build private companies that could provide a check on state power. As one commentator noted, "What's remarkable about the uproar over President Vladimir Putin's battle with mega-oligarch Mikhail Khodorkovsky, who announced his resignation as head of Yukos Oil from his jail cell last week, is how eerily it strengthens the impression that Russian history is a continuum—no matter how dramatic the break between one era and the next." The "exceptional Russia" argument underscores the gravitational pull of Russia's authoritarian past and culturally

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ingrained habits that (supposedly) make Russia and Russians distinct as the key to grasping its current politics.

Yet for all the emphasis on the seemingly unique characteristics of Putin and the distinctive aspects of Russia's history and culture, similar expropriations of energy companies via forced sales or contract renegotiations took place in countries as diverse as Algeria, Bolivia, Chad, Dubai, Ecuador, Senegal, and Venezuela in the mid-2000s. Looking more broadly, two researchers who examined all oil-rich countries between 1945 and 2006 found that when oil prices are high in autocracies, nationalizations are much more likely. This pattern indicates that the expropriation of Yukos was driven less by Putin's personality or Russia's historical patterns than by factors common to modern autocracies. As is often the case, events treated as specific to Russia are mirrored in autocracies around the world. To understand Russian politics, we need to recognize the general forces at play in autocracies.

Academics like me are partly to blame for the poor state of our national discussion on Russia. Much of our research appears only in academic journals, and we have not done the hard work of getting these findings out to a broader audience. While there is much great reporting and commentary on Russia, unraveling Russia's increasingly insular politics also requires the kinds of careful counting, focused comparisons, and deep country knowledge that academics can provide.

Academic research brings different strengths than much popular writing on Russia. Journalists have better access to the movers and shakers, and can publish quickly. They are frequently joined by think tankers, politicians, and political activists who have a strong interest in shaping the debate on Russia in one direction or another. Academic research is less timely, but it is more reflective and less partisan than much popular writing on Russia.

There's a reason that popular writing on Russia is indeed popular, and it is easy to argue that much of the popular writing on Russia is better than on many other countries. ²⁰ Masterful writers on Russia employ telling anecdotes, bold investigations, and compelling personal stories that provide richness and detail most social scientists can only envy. ²¹ These are tremendously powerful tools—sometimes too powerful, as they can

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be persuasive even when they mislead. Summing up a range of research on "narrative bias," sociologist Duncan Watts writes, "So powerful is the appeal of a good story that even when we are trying to evaluate an explanation scientifically—that is, on the basis of how well it accounts for the data—we can't help judging it in terms of its narrative attributes." We often deem simple explanations and arguments with informative details to be accurate even when they are not. The question is whether these anecdotes, investigations, and personal histories reflect more general developments within Russian society. This is where academic research can help.

One strength of academic research is the ability to gather large data sets that are subject to empirical testing that allow us to grasp broader trends. Arguments that come up short on evidence or logic, or are too partisan, will struggle to make it through peer review. Academic research serves as a necessary complement to, rather than as a substitute for, much of the kinds of deep reporting that dominates the best popular writing on Russia. We need both to get a full picture of what's happening in Russia.

Russia as a Personalist Autocracy

In this book, I pull together much of this exciting new research to offer a different lens for interpreting Russian politics. Rather than viewing Russian politics as driven by an exceptional ruler governing an exceptional country, I highlight common patterns that Russia shares with other autocratic regimes ruled by a single individual. Rulers in these so-called personalist autocracies face a host of common challenges and constraints that differ from their counterparts in democracies and autocracies led by a single party or the military.

In studying personalist autocracies like Russia, it is tempting to focus on the personal quirks and characteristics of the leader—but in doing so, we lose sight of the features these types of autocracies share. While all countries have their own peculiarities, we can learn a good deal about Russia by viewing it alongside other states with similar types of governance: Recep Tayyip Erdoğan's Turkey, Hugo Chávez's Venezuela, Viktor Orban's Hungary, Alberto Fujimori's Peru, and Nursultan Nazarbayev's Kazakhstan among others. Understanding the inherent tensions

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and constraints of modern autocracies is essential for grasping Russian politics.

Comparing Russia to other countries can help us identify when Russia's politics and economics are driven by factors common to personalist autocracies, and when they are shaped primarily by factors unique to Russia. Where we see commonalities between Russia and other personalist autocracies, we can often attribute them to the political logic of this type of regime, but where we see differences that Russia has with other governments of this type, we can look for other explanations.

As we will see in more detail in chapter 3, three features common to personalist autocracies are especially helpful for understanding Putin's Russia, and each provides a useful counterpoint to conventional narratives on Russia.

First, while commentators focus on the seeming stability of Putin's rule, political life in Russia is inherently uncertain because Russia lacks strong institutions like the rule of law as well as free and fair elections to resolve political disputes that inevitability arise. Absent an electoral calendar and strong institutions to structure political competition, rulers can be removed at any time and typically without agreement on how to choose a successor. These weak institutions do not protect the autocrat after they leave office, making the stakes of losing power in politics in personalist autocracies like Russia much higher than in other types of governments.

Second, autocrats face difficult policy trade-offs. Rulers in a democracy can be removed via the ballot box; autocratic rulers can be removed via an elite coup or mass revolt. Because the dual threats of elite coup and mass revolt can rarely be reduced at the same time, personalist autocrats face inherent policy trade-offs that constrain their power. Policies that enrich cronies frequently come at the expense of the mass public and vice versa. Autocrats face hard choices about rewarding narrow interest groups or pursuing policies with broader benefits, using repression or persuasion against political opponents, and choosing how much to censor the media, cheat in elections, and violate human rights in order to stay in power. Rather than flowing directly from Putin's worldview or Russia's historical legacy, policy choices in Russia are

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often the result of difficult trade-offs among and between political elites and the mass public.

Third, personalist autocracies have a range of tools—all rather blunt—for managing a modern society. Much popular commentary revolves around Putin as a master of repression to keep society in check. And it is true that crackdowns on free media, intimidation of political opponents, and arrests of human rights activists are part and parcel of political life in Russia. But repression is costly, not always effective, and rarely a first choice. Influential elites and the mass public do not automatically follow the leader but instead need to be convinced to do so, sometimes via fear, yet also via persuasion or self-interest. Autocrats like Putin prefer to rely on personal popularity, economic performance, manipulated elections, and foreign policy successes to stave off elite coups and popular revolts, but these commodities are usually fleeting and beyond the control of the ruler.

From this perspective, a view of Russia emerges that is less focused on President Putin's personality and seeming omnipotence, and less centered on Russia's unique history and culture. Rooting Russia's politics in common patterns of autocratic rule produces a picture of Russia that helps us see the constraints on Putin's power, recognize the difficult policy choices before him, and better understand Russia's politics.

That's not to say that all the research I will present introduces novel findings. Some elements of the common wisdom on Russia are upheld, and others are undermined. The point of social science is not to prove conventional wisdom wrong; it is to examine and test arguments. Because many common assertions about Russia are in tension—Russia's state is bumbling and inefficient, but conducts exquisitely sophisticated cyberattacks; Putin is popular, yet needs to cheat to win elections—these tests are badly needed to untangle these competing claims.

A comparative perspective that draws on academic research can tell us a lot about Russia—but it can't tell us everything. No single approach can. As we will see, this comparative approach sheds more light on Russia's domestic politics than on its foreign policy (although it is helpful there as well) and must be paired with deep knowledge of Russia.

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And while it's much easier to do social science work in Russia than in other autocracies, this work still brings great challenges. Many top-flight Russian academics have left for greener and freer pastures. Those who remain in Russia must constantly assess what types of investigations are permissible and what types are not. Studying Russia is a contact sport, and like American football, it has a high rate of injury. Many Russians have paid dearly for their politics, and some academics too have suffered directly for their work. This is a far less dangerous task than being an investigative journalist in Russia, but still one must take care. Studying Russia has become much more difficult in recent years, and current trends—which I'll examine much more in the chapters to come—provide little optimism that the situation will improve in the short run.

In the next chapter, I present two approaches to studying Russia that generate much of the conventional wisdom. In chapter 3, I discuss recent research on authoritarian governments that provides an alternative. In successive chapters, I then explore what we know about Putin's popularity, elections, the economy, repression, media manipulation, foreign policy, and cyber campaigns abroad. The final chapter looks at what recent academic research tells us about Russia's future and offers some guidance about how we can improve our national discussion on Russia.

In the pages that follow, you will read about scholarly research that offers some of the best evidence available on many basic questions about Russia. How popular is Putin? Is corruption as high as they say? Why are relations with the United States so bad? Is Russian propaganda effective? Did Russian cyberwarriors swing the 2016 US presidential election? Do elections matter in Russia? These questions are not easily answered, but academics writing on Russia have given them careful consideration. Understanding Russia is more important than ever, and the solid evidence, clear logic, and transparency of academic research can help us cut through the disinformation, misinformation, and simple misperceptions about Russia that cloud our vision. So let's begin.

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