



GATORMUN XXIII

**Black Markets & Open Borders: The
Soviet Union, 1991
Background Guide**

Helena Brewer & Dylan Slye

The Soviet Union, 1991

Letter from the Director:

Dear Delegates,

Welcome to Black Markets & Broken Borders: The Collapse of the Soviet Union, 1991! Our names are Helena Brewer and Dylan Slye, and we cannot wait to see you in January. I (Helena) am a first-year pre-law student at the University of Florida studying International Studies. I (Dylan) am a first-year Optics and Photonics Engineering major at the University of Central Florida. Coming from the same high school, we both love MUN and have over 4 years of experience. We are looking forward to watching your debates and challenging your ideas on state power, underground economies, and post-Soviet identity. Don't hesitate to bring your research and policy ideas forward - we expect debates to get heated!

This specialized committee is set in early 1991, as the Soviet Union faces its breaking point. The economy is unraveling from the Cold War. Hyperinflation, food shortages, and a failing command system have pushed citizens to rely on underground markets just to survive, and as state power fades, the mafia and black market is taking on major roles in society. Organized crime networks continue to grow stronger, embedding themselves into politics, the economy, and daily life as foundational instability only grows. As republics begin calling for independence, and decades of centralized rule give way to uncertainty, this committee confronts this unstable and perilous foundation for reformation. As rising leaders - whether in criminal networks or government - delegates will need to navigate economic collapse, rising nationalism, and the influence of the black market to determine what the post-Soviet world will look like.

The first topic we will address in this committee (Topic A) is Mafia Influence and Political Power. Topic A centers on the growing political battle between criminal organizations and government leaders during the Soviet collapse. Our second topic (Topic B) is Black Markets and Cross-Border Smuggling. Topic B focuses on the economic side of the collapse, how illegal markets have become a powerful force challenging traditional economic controls and border security, while reshaping the region's trade and power dynamics. Together, these topics highlight the complex struggle between official authority and underground forces that shaped the Soviet Union's final days.

I encourage each of you to come prepared, stay open-minded, and be ready to collaborate with your fellow delegates. Your insights and solutions have the power to shape meaningful change and influence the future of the post-Soviet world.

I look forward to the spirited debates and innovative solutions that will undoubtedly emerge from our time together. If you have any questions or need guidance before the conference, please do not hesitate to reach out!

See you soon,

Helena Brewer and Dylan Slye

Committee Directors of Black Markets & Broken Borders

Rules of Procedure

Quorum

A majority of voting members answering to the roll at each session shall constitute a quorum for that session. This means that half plus one of all voting members are present. Quorum will be assumed consistent unless questioned through a Point of Order. Delegates may request to be noted as "Present" or "Present and Voting."

Motion to Suspend the Rules for the Purpose of a Moderated Caucus

This motion must include three specifications

- Length of the Caucus
- Speaking Time
- Reason for the Caucus

During a moderated caucus, delegates will be called on to speak by the Committee Director. Delegates will raise their placards to be recognized. Delegates must maintain the same degree of decorum throughout a Moderated Caucus as in formal debate. This motion requires a simple majority to pass.

Motion to Suspend the Rules for the Purpose of an Unmoderated Caucus

This motion must include the length of the Caucus. During an unmoderated caucus, delegates may get up from their seats and talk amongst themselves. This motion requires a simple majority to pass. The length of an unmoderated caucus in a Crisis committee should not exceed fifteen minutes.

Motion to Suspend the Meeting

This motion is in order if there is a scheduled break in debate to be observed. (ie. Lunch!) This motion requires a simple majority vote. The Committee Director may refuse to entertain this motion at their discretion.

Motion to Adjourn the Meeting

This motion is in order at the end of the last committee session. It signifies the closing of the committee until next year's conference.

Points of Order

Points of Order will only be recognized for the following items:

- To recognize errors in voting, tabulation, or procedure
- To question relevance of debate to the current Topic
- To question a quorum.

A Point of Order may interrupt a speaker if necessary and it is to be used sparingly.

The Soviet Union, 1991

Points of Inquiry

When there is no discussion on the floor, a delegate may direct a question to the Committee Director. Any question directed to another delegate may only be asked immediately after the delegate has finished speaking on a substantive matter. A delegate that declines to respond to a question after a formal speech forfeits any further questioning time.

Points of Personal Privilege

Points of personal privilege are used to request information or clarification and conduct all other business of the body except Motions or Points specifically mentioned in the Rules of Procedure. Please note: The Director may refuse to recognize Points of Order, Points of Inquiry or Points of Personal Privilege if the Committee Director believes the decorum and restraint inherent in the exercise has been violated, or if the point is deemed dilatory in nature.

Rights of Reply

At the Committee Director's discretion, any member nation or observer may be granted a Right of Reply to answer serious insults directed at the dignity of the delegate present. The Director has the ABSOLUTE AUTHORITY to accept or reject Rights of Reply, and the decision IS NOT SUBJECT TO APPEAL. Delegates who feel they are being treated unfairly may take their complaint to any member of the Secretariat.

Directives

Directives act as a replacement for Draft Resolutions when in Crisis committees, and are the actions that the body decides to take as a whole. Directives are not required to contain operative or preambulatory clauses. A directive should contain:

- The name(s) of the author(s)
- A title
- A number of signatories/sponsors signatures' necessary to
- introduce, determined by the Director

A simple majority vote is required to introduce a directive, and multiple directives may be introduced at once. Press releases produced on behalf of the body must also be voted on as Directives.

Friendly Amendments

Friendly Amendments are any changes to a formally introduced Directive that all Sponsors agree to in writing. The Committee Director must approve the Friendly Amendment and confirm each Sponsor's agreement both verbally and in writing.

Unfriendly Amendments

Unfriendly Amendments are any substantive changes to a formally introduced Directive that are not agreed to by all of the Sponsors of the Directive. In order to introduce an Unfriendly Amendment, the Unfriendly Amendment must be the number equivalent to 1/3 of Quorum confirmed signatories. The Committee Director has the authority to discern between substantive and non-substantive Unfriendly amendment proposals.

Plagiarism

GatorMUN maintains a zero-tolerance policy in regards to plagiarism. Delegates found to have used the ideas of others without properly citing those individuals, organizations, or documents will have their credentials revoked for the duration of the GatorMUN conference. This is a very serious offense.

Crisis Notes

A crisis note is an action taken by an individual in a Crisis committee. Crisis notes do not need to be introduced or voted on, and should be given to the Crisis Staff by sending the notes to a designated pickup point in each room. A crisis note should both be addressed to crisis and have the delegate's position on both the inside and outside of the note.

Motion to Enter Voting Procedure

Once this motion passes, and the committee enters Voting Procedure, no occupants of the committee room may exit the Committee Room, and no individual may enter the Committee Room from the outside. A member of the Dias will secure all doors.

- No talking, passing notes, or communicating of any kind will be tolerated during voting procedures.
- Each Directive will be read to the body and voted upon in the order which they were introduced. Any Proposed Unfriendly Amendments to each Directive will be read to the body and voted upon before the main body of the Directive as a whole is put to a vote.
- Delegates who requested to be noted as "Present and Voting" are unable to abstain during voting procedure. Abstentions will not be counted in the tallying of a majority. For example, 5 yes votes, 4 no votes, and 7 abstentions means that the Directive passes.
- The Committee will adopt Directives and Unfriendly Amendments to Directives if these documents pass with a simple majority. Specialized committees should refer to their background-guides or Committee Directors for information concerning specific voting procedures.

The Soviet Union, 1991

Roll Call Voting

A counted placard vote will be considered sufficient unless any delegate to the committee motions for a Roll Call Vote. If a Roll Call Vote is requested, the committee must comply. All delegates must vote: "For," "Against," "Abstain," or "Pass." During a Roll Call vote, any delegate who answers, "Pass," reserves his/her vote until the Committee Director has exhausted the Roll. However, once the Committee Director returns to "Passing" Delegates, they must vote: "For" or "Against."

Accepting by Acclamation

This motion may be stated when the Committee Director asks for points or motions. If a Roll Call Vote is requested, the motion to Accept by Acclamation is voided. If a delegate believes a Directive will pass without opposition, he or she may move to accept the Directive by acclamation. The motion passes unless a single delegate shows opposition. An abstention is not considered opposition. Should the motion fail, the committee will move directly into a Roll Call Vote.

Tech Policy

Technology will not be allowed throughout the course of the committee. Delegates are prohibited from using their technology inside the committee room. However, they are encouraged to do research before and during assigned breaks.

Committee Mechanics

This committee will serve as a GA-Based specialized room, meaning it will function similarly to a general assembly with elements of crisis woven within it. It will be driven with the intention of having at least one crisis update per session. We want to try and keep ideas grounded in realism (remember the technology you have access to during this time period), so we would look fondly upon logically grounded arcs within the notes. We anticipate there will be a timed crisis during one of the later committee sessions.

SIDE NOTE: many of you are rather underground characters with underground networks, so if you can find feasible ways to "take out" other characters, have it be done through either a JPD (joint private directive), a directive, or as a final point within your arc. Being killed will NOT impact your placement, you will just be provided a new position.

Note Explanation

As this is a specialized committee, there will be crisis notes. We anticipate getting through two notes per session and we will be operating on a one pad system. For those of you unaware, a one pad system is one where you have a singular notepad through the duration of committee. Approximately every 45 minutes to an hour (you will be told in advance the exact time), you will have your note collected and then returned to you once the staffers have read and replied to all of them. You are also welcome to write JPDS, otherwise known as a joint private directives. JPDS are similar to a normal crisis note, except they are collaboratively written by two or more members of committee and do not need to be voted on or presented to go through. JPDS essentially take the place of a standard crisis note for BOTH parties. For example, if Position X and Position Y want to do something with their combined efforts, either X or Y hands in a singular note with BOTH their names on it. Only one party needs to submit a JPD; both parties are recognized for scoring purposes equally.

The Soviet Union, 1991

Background: Historical Context of 1991

This committee will progress through the year 1991, beginning in January.

1990 has just ended, and the Soviet Union stands on the brink of disintegration after more than seventy years of centralized communist rule. The unraveling began in 1985, when Mikhail Gorbachev rose to power and introduced reforms meant to modernize the Soviet system. His policies of perestroika, which aimed to restructure the stagnant, state-controlled economy by introducing limited market mechanisms and loosening central planning, and glasnost, which encouraged political openness, free expression, and public criticism of the government, sought to fix inefficiency and corruption – but by 1988, they had unintentionally weakened the government's control. Factories slowed production as state planning broke down, prices rose sharply, and the long-hidden failures of the command economy became impossible to ignore.

Revolutions began sweeping across Eastern Europe, tearing down Soviet-backed regimes and signaling to Soviet citizens that change was possible. In 1990, republics such as Lithuania, Georgia, and Ukraine declared moves toward sovereignty, openly challenging Moscow's authority. But with this came a dangerous vacuum of power: central institutions eroded faster than new systems could replace them, creating fertile ground for corruption, political fragmentation, and the rapid rise of criminal networks. Thus, subsequent food shortages, hyperinflation, and a collapsing ruble pushed millions to depend on black markets and organized crime just to survive.

As the calendar turns to 1991, the Soviet Union is no longer a cohesive superpower but a fragile collection of competing governments, economic interests, and underground forces struggling to define the future of a crumbling empire.

The Rise of Black Market Power

Hyperinflation, widespread shortages, and a crumbling public services system forced citizens to rely on alternative networks for survival. In this environment, both local and international black markets became critical to everyday life. Criminal networks, rooted in longstanding Russian, Georgian, Ukrainian, and Central Asian organized crime traditions, quickly capitalized on the state's weaknesses, extending their influence into political, economic, and social spheres. Their activities often spanned multiple republics, affecting regions as diverse as Moscow and St. Petersburg in Russia, Tbilisi in Georgia, Kyiv in Ukraine, and Almaty in Kazakhstan, illustrating that the challenge of mafia influence was not isolated but transnational within the collapsing Soviet space.

The Soviet Union, 1991

Russia Mafias

By 1991, the Russian criminal underworld had evolved from scattered black-market networks into vast, militarized organizations that rivaled the weakened Soviet state itself. Groups like the Solntsevskaya Bratva, led by Sergei Mikhailov ("Mikhas"), and the Orekhovskaya gang under Sergei Timofeev ("Sylvester"), emerged from Moscow's shadow economy during the late 1980s, feeding off collapsing state control and the privatization chaos that followed Gorbachev's reforms. These mafias thrived on their ability to fill gaps left by the disintegrating command economy, including supplying goods, protecting businesses, and laundering state assets. However, their growing power brought internal rivalries and turf wars, often spilling into open violence that exposed cracks in Soviet policing and governance. Figures like Vyacheslav Ivankov ("Yaponchik") acted as bridges between Russian and foreign syndicates, expanding operations into Europe and the United States. While their wealth and influence grew, the mafias' lack of unity and their dependence on corrupt political alliances left them vulnerable to both state crackdowns and betrayal. By early 1991, these groups stood as both a symptom and driver of the Soviet collapse—organized enough to dominate local economies, yet too fractured to consolidate lasting power.

Georgian Mafias

The Georgian mafia was one of the most disciplined and influential regional crime networks within the Soviet sphere, known for its tight internal hierarchy and deep social ties. Led by figures such as Otari Kvantrishvili, a former athlete turned political broker, and the transnational Vyacheslav Ivankov, Georgian syndicates gained prominence by controlling smuggling routes through the Caucasus and manipulating Soviet sports and trade unions for profit. Their networks blended traditional "thieves-in-law" codes with modern racketeering tactics, allowing them to maintain order where the state faltered. However, their growing political visibility in Moscow and Tbilisi drew suspicion from both local authorities and rival Slavic gangs. Georgian groups prided themselves on loyalty and organization, yet their influence often depended on fragile alliances with Russian and Chechen groups—alliances that frequently fractured over control of narcotics and arms routes. As nationalism surged in Georgia in 1990–1991, many mob leaders found themselves torn between emerging state independence and their trans-Soviet operations. This tension left the Georgian mafia both powerful and precarious, balancing between criminal success and political exposure.

Alternative Mafia Stakeholders

Outside the Russian and Georgian cores, a diverse set of regional and ethnic mafias rose to power amid the Soviet collapse, exploiting borders and instability. The Chechen syndicates, led by figures like Khozh-Ahmed Nukhaev, leveraged their reputation for discipline and brutality to dominate protection rackets and oil smuggling networks. In Ukraine, Semion Mogilevich built a vast Ukrainian-Jewish criminal empire that spanned from Kyiv to Budapest, specializing in arms trading and financial fraud that funneled billions out of the Soviet Union.

The Soviet Union, 1991

Gafur Rakhimov's Central Asian bloc capitalized on Afghanistan's narcotics trade and Soviet military corruption to control smuggling routes across Uzbekistan and beyond. Meanwhile, Valerijs Kargins' Baltic consortium facilitated money laundering and black-market trade through Latvia and Lithuania, serving as a bridge between Soviet and Western economies. Finally, the Russian-American mob, represented by Evsei Agron in New York's Brighton Beach, became a powerful extension of the Soviet criminal diaspora. These networks shared adaptability and global reach, yet their fragmentation made cooperation rare and conflict frequent—especially as the Soviet center collapsed and every faction scrambled to claim control of resources, borders, and political protection.

Organized Crime and Political Factions

As 1991 begins, a range of alternative stakeholders beyond traditional political leaders and organized crime networks are shaping the fate of the collapsing Soviet Union. International figures such as U.S. President George H. W. Bush and U.K. Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher sought to guide the Soviet transition cautiously, balancing support for reform with deep concerns over nuclear security and regional instability. The International Monetary Fund, led by Michel Camdessus, explores ways to integrate post-Soviet economies into global markets—offering financial aid that some view as a stabilizing force and others as a form of Western influence. Inside the USSR, corrupt officials like Grigory Louchinski exploit privatization and economic chaos to amass personal fortunes, blurring the boundary between state power and criminal enterprise.

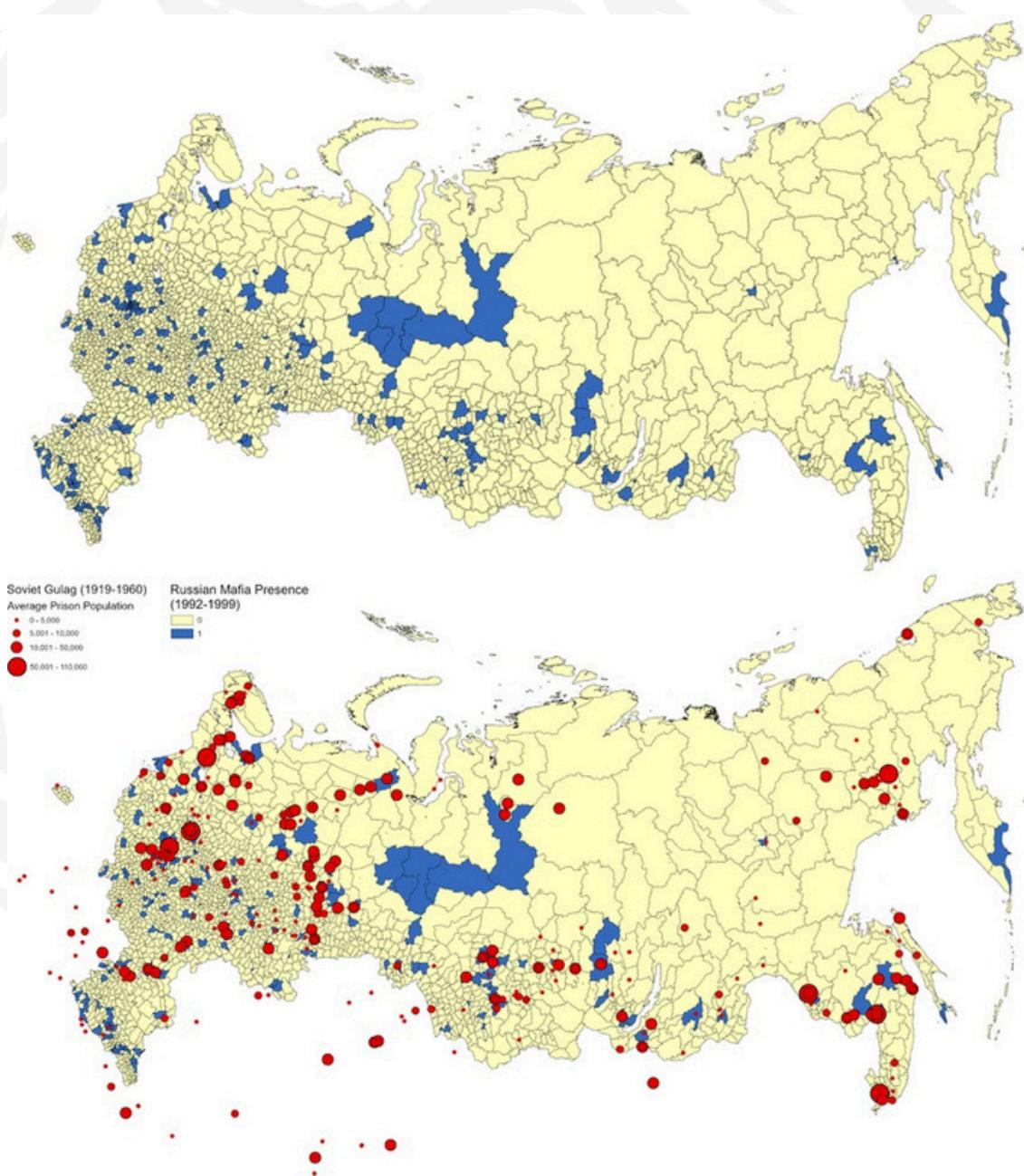
Beyond government circles, figures such as Stanley Ho, a Hong Kong businessman tied to underground Soviet trade, and Viktor Bout, a notorious arms dealer, profit from the collapse of regulation and the rise of global black markets. Meanwhile, journalists like Anna Politkovskaya struggle to uncover truth amid censorship, corruption, and political violence—symbolizing the fragile hope for accountability in a system built on secrecy. Together, these actors form the complex web of global and domestic forces competing to shape the post-Soviet world, where ambition, survival, and ideology intersect in unpredictable ways.

The collapse also created a dual perspective on authority: for the state, diminished control posed severe risks to legitimacy and social order, while for criminal organizations, the situation provided unprecedented opportunities to expand power, wealth, and social standing. For citizens, reliance on mafia-controlled goods and services offered survival and stability in an environment of scarcity, yet it entrenched illicit power structures that could challenge state authority long-term.

The Soviet Union, 1991

Political actors faced a difficult calculus: crackdowns on criminal networks risked violence and destabilization, while toleration or cooperation offered short-term stability but undermined long-term legitimacy. Conversely, mafia leaders benefitted from economic control and social influence but faced constant risks from law enforcement, rival groups, and political instability. This interplay of necessity, opportunity, and danger defined the broader struggle for power in the final days of the USSR.

These themes develop the main divide between actors within our committee's simulation: actors with underground influence, and government figures.

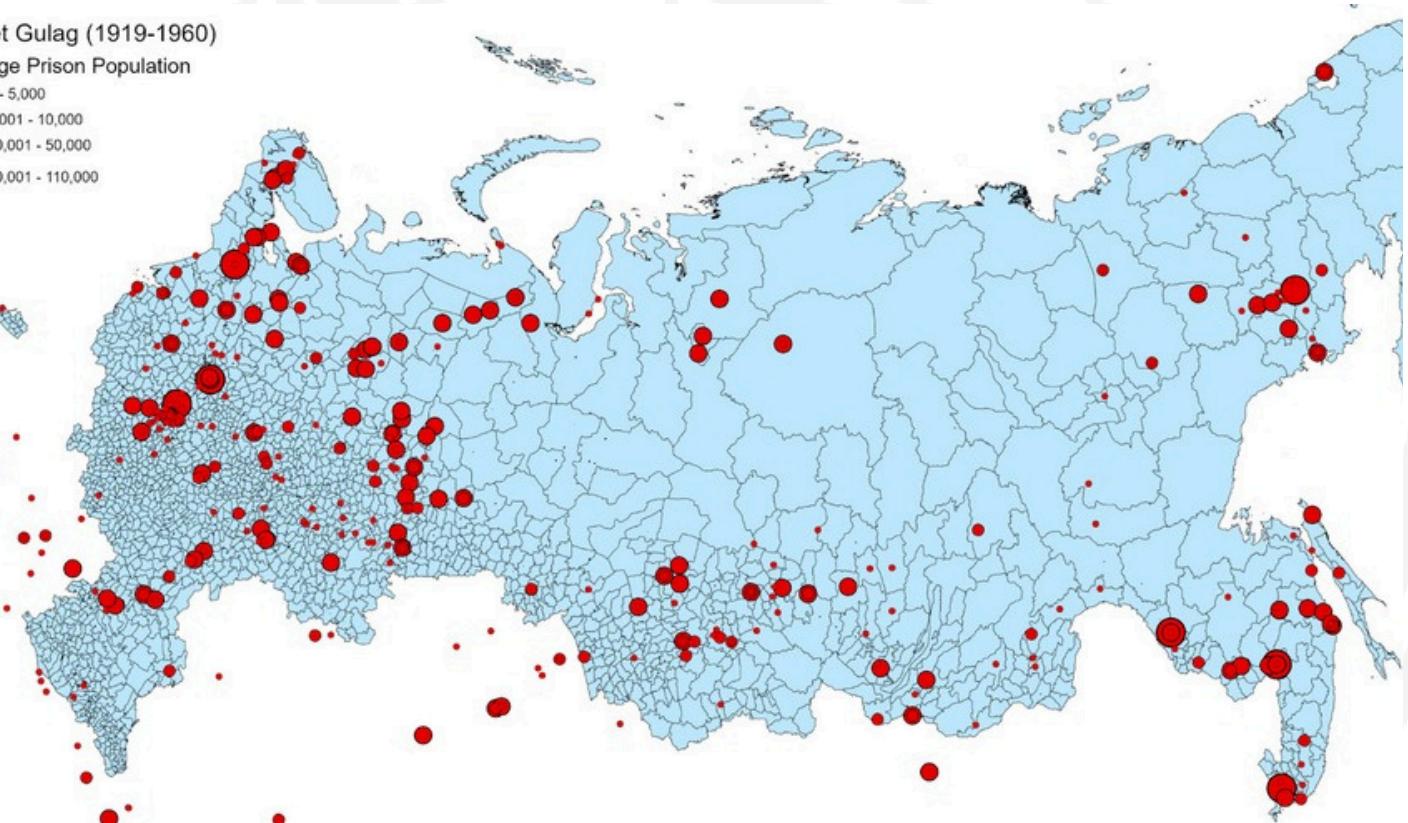


The Soviet Union, 1991

Soviet Gulag (1919-1960)

Average Prison Population

- 0 - 5,000
- 5,001 - 10,000
- 10,001 - 50,000
- 50,001 - 110,000



Topic 1: Mafia Influence & Political Power

By the beginning of 1991, conflicts between criminal networks and political authorities had escalated to an extent whereby they were clearly visible. The mafia groups in Russia, Ukraine, Georgia, and Central Asia were the competitors of government structures in the fight for control over markets, smuggling routes, and privatizing industries. Corruption became both a survival mechanism and a political weapon. Officials relied on illicit deals to maintain basic economic functions, while criminal networks used these alliances to legitimize their power. This erosion of centralized control under Gorbachev's reforms created fertile ground for organized crime to infiltrate state institutions, from local police forces to regional trade committees. Governments at the regional level found themselves in a difficult situation as they tried to exercise their power in areas where criminal actors were deeply entrenched. Competing interests emerged over control of privatizing industries, access to hard currency, and manipulation of foreign trade as the ruble collapsed.

Under this context, political leaders, particularly at the republic level, faced a dilemma: suppress the growing underground economy and risk public unrest, or tolerate it as an informal system of survival. In this fragile balance, many governments became dependent on mafia groups for goods, protection, and even political enforcement. By the end of 1990, the line between authority and criminality had become increasingly blurred, setting the stage for the open confrontations that would define 1991.

Mafia Perspective: Mafia Influence and Political Power

By early 1991, the power of organized crime across the Soviet republics had evolved beyond mere economic survival—many mafia groups were now political players in their own right. In Russia, the Solntsevskaya Bratva, led by Sergei Mikhailov ("Mikhas"), and rival groups such as the Orekhovskaya gang under Sergei Timofeev ("Sylvester"), fought to dominate the newly privatizing markets and secure influence over Moscow's local authorities. The Georgian mafia networks, led by figures like Otari Kvantrishvili, blended business and politics, exploiting nationalist movements and weakened border controls to expand regional smuggling routes. Meanwhile, in Ukraine, Semion Mogilevich's Jewish-Ukrainian network capitalized on collapsing currency controls, forging international ties that stretched from Budapest to Berlin. Across the Caucasus, Khozh-Ahmed Nukhaev's Chechen syndicate began asserting control over the oil smuggling trade, positioning itself as a de facto authority in regions where the Soviet government had lost reach. These organizations did not merely profit from chaos—they structured it, functioning as the logistical and financial systems that the failing state could no longer sustain.

The Soviet Union, 1991

However, the mafias' growing influence also brought instability and inter-group conflict. With no clear regulatory power, alliances constantly shifted and turf wars erupted as groups fought to protect their access to trade routes, arms deals, and corrupt officials. The Solntsevskaya and Orekhovskaya mafias, for example, frequently clashed in Moscow over transport hubs and protection rackets. In Central Asia, figures such as Gafur Rakhimov consolidated smuggling networks around narcotics and gold, fueling local corruption and undermining attempts at governance. Yet, despite violent rivalries, many groups shared a vested interest in preserving some level of economic continuity—they needed infrastructure, trade, and political tolerance to survive. By operating through intimidation and cooperation alike, the mafias positioned themselves not only as criminal actors but as parallel institutions capable of shaping post-Soviet power structures.

Political Perspective: Mafia Influence and Political Power

For political leaders across the crumbling Soviet Union, the rise of organized crime posed both a threat and a tool. Figures such as Mikhail Gorbachev and Vladimir Kryuchkov, Chairman of the KGB, recognized that economic liberalization and weakened central control had unleashed powerful criminal forces. Efforts to reassert authority through anti-corruption drives and limited crackdowns were largely ineffective, as many local and regional officials had already become entangled with underground networks. Some, like Boris Yeltsin, sought to distance themselves from Moscow's faltering institutions by appealing to reform and Russian sovereignty, inadvertently empowering local elites and mafias who filled the vacuum of state authority. Across the republics, leaders such as Zviad Gamsakhurdia in Georgia and Nursultan Nazarbayev in Kazakhstan faced the dilemma of balancing nationalist legitimacy with the economic realities of corruption and organized crime. The state's inability to provide basic goods and stability drove many politicians to tolerate, or even cooperate with, criminal groups that could maintain order and supply.

The tension between reform and survival defined the political landscape of 1991. While Gorbachev's government struggled to preserve the Union, the KGB under Kryuchkov attempted to reassert control through intelligence operations, surveillance, and alliances with compliant business interests. Yet even these institutions were riddled with internal corruption; officials accepted bribes, traded influence, and turned a blind eye to smuggling networks in exchange for loyalty. As regional parliaments declared independence and local leaders consolidated power, criminal organizations became indispensable brokers of resources and enforcement. This uneasy coexistence blurred the lines between governance and criminality, creating hybrid systems of power that persisted into the post-Soviet era. In the eyes of many politicians, survival in this collapsing order depended less on ideology and more on maintaining fragile networks of cooperation with the very forces undermining the state.

The Soviet Union, 1991

Perspectives of Other Stakeholders

Outside the immediate Soviet power structure, global and domestic actors closely monitored, and often shaped, the growing entanglement between organized crime and politics. George H.W. Bush, concerned about nuclear security and regional instability, promoted cautious engagement with Gorbachev while preparing for the inevitable fragmentation of Soviet power. Meanwhile, Michel Camdessus and the International Monetary Fund began exploring options to stabilize the ruble and prepare for economic restructuring, but their proposed reforms risked deepening corruption by opening access to international capital for politically connected elites and mafias alike. In Western Europe, leaders such as Margaret Thatcher viewed the Soviet disintegration as both an opportunity and a risk—welcoming democratization but fearing the rise of uncontrolled markets, weapons smuggling, and cross-border crime.

Simultaneously, a new class of private and underground stakeholders emerged to exploit the shifting order. Figures like Stanley Ho, with links to Hong Kong's commercial underground, and Viktor Bout, an emerging arms dealer, profited from the dissolution of Soviet trade regulation and the global demand for illicit goods. Domestically, individuals such as Grigory Louchinski, a corrupt financial official, symbolized the merging of bureaucratic and criminal interests, turning public offices into engines of personal enrichment. Journalists like Anna Politkovskaya, though still early in their careers, began documenting this web of corruption, marking the first attempts to hold both politicians and mafias accountable. Together, these alternative actors reveal how the collapse of the Soviet system was not simply an internal crisis—it was a global reordering of power, where international finance, black-market enterprise, and information control all competed to shape the new post-Soviet reality.

Conclusion

What began as a fight for economic survival has transformed into a battle for legitimacy and control. Criminal organizations have stepped into the void left by a failing command economy, often providing the goods, services, and stability that the state can no longer guarantee. At the same time, many political leaders—faced with the dual pressures of reform and fragmentation—have turned to these same networks for financing, protection, or influence, blurring the line between governance and criminality. The competing visions of power—one rooted in ideology and the remnants of state authority, the other in profit and pragmatism—now collide in nearly every corner of the Union. As republics push for independence and Moscow's grip continues to weaken, the question is no longer whether the mafia will influence politics, but to what extent it will shape the foundation of the post-Soviet world. For both political and criminal actors, the year 1991 represents not just the end of an empire, but the birth of a new order—one defined by who can seize control amid chaos.

Guiding Questions

1. How can emerging political leaders restore legitimacy and public trust in governance when organized crime provides many of the services the state has failed to deliver?
2. To what extent should regional governments cooperate with or suppress mafia networks that currently sustain local economies?
3. How can the Soviet Union—or its successor states—balance rapid economic liberalization with measures to prevent criminal capture of industries and institutions?
4. What role should international actors (such as the IMF or Western governments) play in addressing corruption and organized crime without infringing on national sovereignty?
5. If political and criminal interests are now intertwined, is it possible to separate them, or must new political systems adapt to their existence?

Topic 2: Black Markets and Cross - Border Smuggling

By the end of 1990, as the Soviet Union teetered on the brink of collapse, its tightly controlled borders and centralized trade systems began to unravel. For decades, black markets had served as hidden arteries of exchange—supplying Western goods, restricted technologies, and luxury commodities that the planned economy could not provide. Smuggling networks linked Soviet republics to the Balkans, Turkey, Afghanistan, and even Western Europe, forming shadow economies that often paralleled official trade routes. With the weakening of the central state, these networks began to emerge from the shadows, operating openly in the chaos of reform and regional independence.

The sudden liberalization of prices, the collapse of the ruble, and the weakening of customs enforcement created a perfect environment for illicit commerce. As newly independent states struggled to form customs agencies and border guards, smuggling routes were redirected through porous frontiers and unregulated ports. Entire sectors of the economy—from consumer goods to raw materials—shifted into informal hands. For many, black markets became a survival mechanism; for others, they were tools of profit, power, and geopolitical leverage.

The breakdown of control also introduced new dangers. Weapons and narcotics now flowed alongside food and electronics, fueling both local conflict and transnational crime. What once functioned as a quiet undercurrent of necessity evolved into a defining feature of post-Soviet instability. Whether these networks would stabilize economies or tear them further apart depended on who controlled them—and how.

Mafia Perspective: Black Markets and Cross-Border Smuggling

For criminal organizations across the former Soviet space, the dissolution of state borders was less a crisis than an opportunity. Groups that once operated under the constant surveillance of the KGB now found themselves free to expand operations across newly independent republics. The Solntsevskaya Bratva in Russia quickly moved to dominate export channels through the Baltic ports, trafficking oil, metals, and contraband goods. In Ukraine, Odessa's port became a hub for arms shipments disguised as agricultural exports, while the Chechen networks under Khozh-Ahmed Nukhaev capitalized on smuggling routes through the Caucasus to Turkey and the Middle East.

The Soviet Union, 1991



These groups understood that control over movement—of goods, money, or people—meant control over power. The Georgian mafia, historically connected to underground trade during the Soviet period, began brokering deals in luxury goods and narcotics, often acting as intermediaries between Eastern suppliers and Western buyers. In Central Asia, networks led by figures such as Gafur Rakhimov exploited the collapse of border patrols to expand narcotics routes from Afghanistan, embedding themselves in local political and business structures.

Yet competition was fierce. Without a centralized state to enforce informal truces, smuggling routes became battlegrounds. Clashes erupted over rail hubs, border crossings, and access to ports, leaving hundreds dead and entire regions destabilized. Still, the black market remained indispensable—not only for criminal syndicates but also for governments desperate for revenue and supplies. In this new era, mafia organizations positioned themselves as the gatekeepers of an underground economy that no state could afford to ignore.

Political Perspective: Black Markets and Cross - Border Smuggling

For political leaders, black markets represented both a curse and a lifeline. As state institutions collapsed, official trade mechanisms failed to meet basic needs. Leaders such as Boris Yeltsin in Russia and Leonid Kravchuk in Ukraine faced a stark reality: without access to illicit or semi-legal trade, their populations could face starvation and economic ruin. Consequently, many governments turned a blind eye to smuggling, granting informal protection to traders and middlemen who could deliver fuel, food, and foreign currency.

However, the line between tolerance and complicity was thin. Regional officials and customs officers quickly learned that corruption was more profitable than enforcement. Bribes replaced tariffs, and entire bureaucracies became dependent on the revenues of the black market. Attempts to reassert control often failed, as enforcement agencies were undermanned, underpaid, and often infiltrated by the very criminal groups they were meant to suppress.

At the same time, the opening of borders created new geopolitical dilemmas. Smuggling routes through the Baltics and Central Asia drew international attention as Western governments feared the spread of nuclear materials and weapons. Leaders such as Nursultan Nazarbayev in Kazakhstan and Zviad Gamsakhurdia in Georgia struggled to balance the need for foreign investment with growing pressure to combat corruption and criminal trade. For many, maintaining political stability required a delicate balancing act: tolerating black markets enough to sustain the economy, while appearing reform-minded enough to attract Western aid.

The Soviet Union, 1991

Other Perspectives

Outside the Soviet sphere, international actors closely monitored the explosion of black-market activity. The United States and the European Community worried about arms proliferation, particularly the trafficking of surplus Soviet weapons. Intelligence agencies from Washington to London began tracking smuggling operations linked to both organized crime and ex-KGB operatives. Meanwhile, the IMF and World Bank proposed rapid economic liberalization as a path to recovery—unintentionally creating new avenues for corruption as elites used international loans to finance black-market ventures.

Private traders and multinational corporations also entered the fray, exploiting the blurred lines between legality and profit. Oil companies sought “unofficial” deals with local actors to secure energy supplies, while Western technology firms sold equipment through intermediaries who often operated in the shadows. NGOs and journalists attempted to document these operations, exposing the growing nexus between business, crime, and politics.

In this fluid environment, even intelligence agencies and former Soviet military officers joined the trade. Viktor Bout, for instance, began building the logistics empire that would later make him one of the world’s most notorious arms dealers. The boundaries between state policy, private enterprise, and criminality were dissolving, leaving a new, hybrid form of power in their wake.

Conclusion

The disintegration of the Soviet Union did not simply create new borders—it unleashed a marketplace without rules. Smuggling and black markets became the arteries of survival and competition, connecting the fragments of a fallen empire through commerce, corruption, and conflict. Whether used for profit, politics, or basic sustenance, these underground systems became integral to the post-Soviet transition.

For many actors, legitimacy mattered less than access: to ports, to railways, to the flow of hard currency. In this world, the question was not whether one participated in the black market, but how. Some used it to rebuild; others to exploit. And as states struggled to assert sovereignty, they often found themselves reliant on the very networks that undermined them. The struggle over these invisible borders—between regulation and freedom, between crime and necessity—would shape the economic and political order of the post-Soviet world for decades to come.

Guiding Questions

How can emerging states secure or exploit new smuggling routes without losing control of their sovereignty?

As borders reopen and enforcement remains weak, newly independent republics must decide whether to suppress illicit trade through fragile institutions or to co-opt it for short-term economic stability. Should governments prioritize control, cooperation, or pragmatism in managing these underground flows?

What risks and benefits do black markets pose for political, criminal, and civilian actors?

While black markets can provide essential goods and revenue in times of collapse, they also erode state legitimacy and empower organized crime. How can factions balance survival with the long-term dangers of dependency on illicit trade?

When is cooperation with rival factions preferable to confrontation?

As smuggling networks intertwine across borders, alliances may prove more beneficial than open conflict. Should competing powers collaborate to stabilize trade and share profits, or risk escalation by attempting unilateral control?

How should factions navigate new borders and emerging security systems?

With new customs posts, currency zones, and shifting alliances, how can groups adapt to rapidly changing political geographies? Is infiltration, manipulation, or partnership with border authorities the most effective path forward?

What long-term impacts will different strategies toward black markets create?

Choices made now—whether to integrate, regulate, or eliminate illicit trade—will shape the political and economic architecture of the post-Soviet order. Will the black market remain a shadow institution, or evolve into a legitimized pillar of new economies?

Dossier

Sergei Mikhailov "Mikhas"

Sergei Mikhailov "Mikhas" is the leader of the Solntsevskaya Bratva, one of Russia's largest and most powerful organized crime groups. Born in Moscow in 1958, he began his career as a waiter before turning to criminal activity in the 1980s, rising to prominence during the chaos following the collapse of the Soviet Union. Mikhailov's network is involved in racketeering, extortion, arms and drug trafficking, and money laundering, and he has been known to infiltrate legitimate business and political circles to protect and expand his operations. Despite multiple arrests, he has avoided long-term imprisonment and continues to wield influence over both criminal and semi-legitimate enterprises in Russia and abroad, making him a central figure in the post-Soviet underworld.

Vyacheslav Ivankov "Yaponchik"

Vyacheslav Ivankov, known as "Yaponchik," was a Georgian-born thief-in-law who became a prominent figure in both the Russian and Georgian mafias during the late 1980s and early 1990s. Operating primarily in Moscow, he built networks that connected post-Soviet criminal enterprises with émigré communities abroad. Known for combining strategic cunning with ruthless enforcement, Ivankov expanded his influence through extortion, money laundering, and coordination of transnational criminal operations. By leveraging the instability of the Soviet collapse, he positioned himself as a key intermediary between rival gangs and emerging black market opportunities, earning a reputation as one of the most formidable figures in the early post-Soviet underworld.

Semion Mogilevich

Semion Mogilevich is a Ukrainian-born Jewish mobster who rose to prominence in the late 1980s as a key figure in multiple Russian and Ukrainian organized crime networks. Specializing in fraud, money laundering, and smuggling operations, he leveraged the collapse of the Soviet Union to expand his influence across Eastern Europe. Known for his intelligence and careful, businesslike approach to crime, Mogilevich built a reputation as a strategist who preferred financial manipulation and international connections over violence. By 1992, he was already regarded as a central figure in the post-Soviet criminal underworld, coordinating networks that spanned Moscow, Kyiv, and other major cities, while establishing links with both political and business elites to protect and expand his operations.

Dossier

Otari Kvantrishvili

Otari Kvantrishvili was a Georgian-born figure who became a prominent player in Moscow's organized crime scene during the late Soviet and early post-Soviet periods. He was known for his connections to several major criminal groups, including factions of the Solntsevskaya Bratva and other emerging Russian mafia networks. Using his charisma and influence, he acted as both a mediator and a power broker, coordinating between rival gangs, overseeing smuggling operations, and managing protection rackets. Kvantrishvili cultivated loyalty and respect within the criminal ecosystem, establishing himself as a central and stabilizing figure amid the often violent struggles for control in Moscow's underworld.

Sergei Timofeev "Sylvester"

Sergei Timofeev, nicknamed "Sylvester," was the leader of the Orehovskaya gang, one of Moscow's most notorious organized crime groups during the late Soviet and early post-Soviet periods. His gang was involved in extortion, racketeering, and control of Moscow's lucrative car and oil markets. Known for his ruthlessness and reliance on violence to maintain authority, Timofeev was a key rival to other major criminal figures, including the Solntsevskaya Bratva led by Sergei Mikhailov. Despite the brutal competition in the Moscow underworld, Timofeev's strategic approach allowed the Orehovskaya gang to maintain significant influence, positioning him as a central figure in the early post-Soviet black market economy.

Khonz-Ahmed Nukhaev

Khonz-Ahmed Nukhaev, also spelled Noukhayev, was a Chechen-born figure who emerged as a leader within Chechen organized crime during the late Soviet and early post-Soviet periods. He combined criminal enterprise with Chechen nationalist ambitions, using black market operations to fund political and separatist efforts in the Caucasus. Nukhaev maintained connections with Moscow-based criminal groups, including networks linked to the Solntsevskaya Bratva and other Russian mafias, often serving as a mediator or partner in smuggling and protection rackets. Known for blending ideology with profit, he positioned himself as both a gangster and a political influencer, making him a key figure in the Chechen underworld during the early 1990s.

Dossier

Gafur Rakhimov

Gafur Rakhimov is an Uzbek-born figure who rose to prominence in Central Asian organized crime during the late Soviet and early post-Soviet periods. He was heavily involved in smuggling, narcotics trafficking, and money laundering, capitalizing on the instability of the post-Soviet transition. Rakhimov maintained connections with several Russian mafia networks, including factions of the Solntsevskaya Bratva and Orekhovskaya gang, facilitating cross-border operations and sharing intelligence on smuggling routes. He also collaborated with other Central Asian crime syndicates, particularly in Kazakhstan and Tajikistan, to control regional drug and arms trade networks. His reputation as a financially shrewd and discreet operator allowed him to build a widely connected syndicate, making him a key figure in early 1990s post-Soviet black market activity.

Valerijs Kargins

Valerijs Kargins is a Latvian-born banker and businessman who served as the president of Parex Bank, one of Latvia's largest financial institutions during the late Soviet and early post-Soviet period. While his professional background is primarily in legitimate finance, some reports suggest that his bank became involved, knowingly or unknowingly, in money-laundering operations and the facilitation of black market transactions in the Baltic region, including interactions with Russian and other post-Soviet organized crime networks. Kargins' position allowed him to serve as a financial intermediary, connecting criminal enterprises with formal banking systems and helping launder illicit proceeds through Latvia. Due to limited verified documentation on his criminal ties, much of his role in post-Soviet black market operations is inferred from regional financial investigations and media reports.

Evsei Agron Evsei Agron was a Russian-American mobster who became a prominent figure in the post- Soviet criminal diaspora in the United States. Originally from the Soviet Union, he established himself in New York City and became the leader of a Russian émigré organized crime group. Agron's operations included extortion, loan sharking, and control over nightclubs and gambling establishments, and he maintained ties with criminal networks in Moscow and other parts of Russia, particularly factions of the Solntsevskaya Bratva. By coordinating between American and Russian criminal enterprises, Agron acted as a transnational link in the early 1990s, helping facilitate the flow of illicit goods, money, and influence between the U.S. and post-Soviet criminal networks.

The Soviet Union, 1991

Dossier

Vladimir Kryuchkov

Vladimir Kryuchkov was the Chairman of the KGB during the final years of the Soviet Union and a key figure in the country's hardline political establishment. Known for his staunch defense of Soviet authority, he played a central role in attempting to suppress reformist movements and maintain centralized control during the period of glasnost and perestroika. Kryuchkov was one of the architects of the August 1991 coup against Mikhail Gorbachev, seeking to preserve the Soviet system and limit the influence of emerging nationalist and reformist forces. His position gave him access to intelligence networks, political connections, and security apparatuses, making him a critical power broker in the late Soviet political and economic landscape.

Mikhail Gorbachev

Mikhail Gorbachev was the General Secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union and the country's head of state during its final years. He is best known for his policies of glasnost (openness) and perestroika (restructuring), which aimed to reform the Soviet political and economic system but ultimately contributed to the weakening of central authority and the collapse of the USSR. Gorbachev sought to reduce Cold War tensions, liberalize the economy, and introduce limited political freedoms, but faced resistance from hardliners and rising nationalist movements within the republics. His leadership during this transitional period made him a pivotal figure in shaping the post-Soviet geopolitical landscape, influencing both domestic power struggles and the rise of black market activity as state controls eroded.

Valentin Pavlov

Valentin Pavlov was the Prime Minister of the Soviet Union during its final months and also served as Minister of Finance. He played a key role in the USSR's economic management during a period of severe financial instability, overseeing attempts to stabilize the economy through currency reforms and credit controls. Pavlov was involved in the August 1991 coup attempt against Mikhail Gorbachev, aligning with hardline officials who sought to preserve centralized control and suppress reformist and nationalist movements. His position gave him influence over the state's financial institutions and industrial enterprises, making him a significant actor in both the political and economic dynamics of the late Soviet period, including the emerging black market and informal networks that arose as state authority weakened.

Dossier

Boris Yeltsin

Boris Yeltsin was the President of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic (RSFSR) during the final years of the Soviet Union and played a pivotal role in its dissolution. Emerging as a reformist leader, he opposed hardline attempts to maintain centralized control, most notably resisting the August 1991 coup orchestrated by figures like Vladimir Kryuchkov and Valentin Pavlov. Yeltsin championed political and economic reforms, including market liberalization, which contributed to the rapid emergence of privatization and black market activity in Russia. His leadership positioned him as a central figure in the transition from the Soviet system to the Russian Federation, shaping both the political landscape and the environment in which organized crime and informal networks expanded in the early 1990s.

Zviad Gamsakhurdia Zviad Gamsakhurdia was the first President of independent Georgia and a leading figure in the country's nationalist movement during the late Soviet and early post-Soviet period. A former dissident and intellectual, he championed Georgian independence and sought to consolidate political authority in Tbilisi while navigating tensions with ethnic minorities and regional power brokers. Gamsakhurdia's presidency coincided with economic instability and the rise of informal networks, including connections to criminal elements, as state institutions struggled to maintain control. His leadership made him a central figure in Georgia's transition from Soviet republic to independent state, influencing both political developments and the early formation of post-Soviet black market activity within the country.

Nursultan Nazarbayev

Nursultan Nazarbayev was the leader of the Kazakh SSR during the late Soviet period and played a key role in guiding Kazakhstan through the transition to independence. He focused on maintaining political stability and managing the republic's significant natural resources, particularly oil and gas, while navigating rising nationalist sentiments and economic uncertainty. Nazarbayev's policies emphasized control over emerging markets and industrial enterprises, indirectly influencing the development of informal networks and black market activity as state oversight weakened. By consolidating power and fostering strategic alliances, he positioned himself as a central figure in Kazakhstan's early post-Soviet political and economic landscape.

Dossier

Vytautas Landsbergis Vytautas Landsbergis was the Chairman of the Supreme Council of Lithuania and a leading figure in the country's independence movement during the late Soviet and early post-Soviet period. A scholar and politician, he played a central role in declaring Lithuania's independence and resisting Soviet attempts to reassert control. Landsbergis focused on establishing democratic institutions and navigating the economic transition, which included managing the challenges posed by informal networks and the early emergence of black market activity. His leadership made him a key actor in shaping Lithuania's post-Soviet political framework and in asserting the country's sovereignty amidst the disintegration of the USSR.

Anatoly Lukyanov

Anatoly Lukyanov was the Chairman of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR and a prominent Soviet politician during the final years of the Soviet Union. Known as a conservative and hardliner, he opposed many of the reformist policies of Mikhail Gorbachev and worked to maintain centralized control over the Soviet republics. Lukyanov played a role in the political maneuverings surrounding the August 1991 coup attempt, aligning with other officials who sought to preserve the Soviet system. His position gave him significant influence over legislative processes, state institutions, and the security apparatus, making him a key figure in the late Soviet political landscape and indirectly connected to the shifts in power and informal networks that emerged as the USSR collapsed.

Konstantin Ivanovich Kobets

Konstantin Ivanovich Kobets was a high-ranking officer in the Russian military and played a significant role in the late Soviet period, particularly during the political and institutional turmoil surrounding the USSR's collapse. As a commander, he was responsible for key military units and was involved in coordinating responses to both internal unrest and the increasing instability among the Soviet republics. While not directly tied to organized crime, Kobets' position gave him influence over the use of force and security in a period when informal networks and black market activity were expanding, making him a crucial figure in maintaining or negotiating power amid the crumbling central authority of the Soviet state.

Dossier

Leonid Kravchuk

Leonid Kravchuk was the first President of independent Ukraine and the Chairman of the Supreme Soviet of the Ukrainian SSR during the late Soviet period. Initially a high-ranking Communist Party official, he navigated the political transition as Ukraine moved toward independence, balancing reformist pressures with residual Soviet structures. Kravchuk played a central role in managing the economic and political instability that followed the USSR's collapse, including the rise of informal networks and black market activity in Ukraine. His leadership helped establish the foundations of Ukraine's post-Soviet state, shaping both its governance and the environment in which organized crime and emerging financial networks could operate.

Dzhokhar Dudayev Dzhokhar Dudayev was a Chechen nationalist and former Soviet Air Force general who became the first President of the Chechen Republic. He played a leading role in Chechnya's push for independence from the Soviet Union, navigating the complex political and military challenges of the region. Dudayev's leadership coincided with the rise of informal networks and criminal enterprises in Chechnya, as the weakening of central Soviet authority allowed smuggling, protection rackets, and black market activity to flourish. While primarily a political and military leader, Dudayev's presidency intersected with these emerging networks, making him a key figure in shaping both the political and economic landscape of early 1990s Chechnya.

Stanislav Shushkevich Stanislav Shushkevich was the Chairman of the Supreme Soviet of Belarus and a central political figure during the late Soviet and early post-Soviet period. He played a pivotal role in the dissolution of the USSR, including signing the Belavezha Accords that formally ended the Soviet Union alongside the leaders of Russia and Ukraine. Shushkevich focused on establishing Belarusian sovereignty while navigating economic instability, which included the emergence of informal networks and black market activity as centralized control weakened. His leadership helped shape the early political and economic framework of independent Belarus, balancing the challenges of state-building with the realities of a transitioning post-Soviet society.

The Soviet Union, 1991

Dossier

Suharto

Suharto was the President of Indonesia during the late 20th century and a long-serving authoritarian leader. While not directly involved in the post-Soviet collapse, his government maintained significant economic and political influence in Southeast Asia and had indirect connections to international trade networks, some of which intersected with the movement of goods and capital from the former USSR. Suharto's regime was known for its centralized control over commerce, industry, and foreign relations, and he occasionally facilitated or regulated the flow of resources and commodities in ways that intersected with emerging black market activity. His position made him an external stakeholder whose policies and international relationships could impact the global post-Soviet trade and smuggling environment.

George H.W. Bush

George H.W. Bush was the President of the United States during the final years of the Soviet Union and the early post-Soviet period. His administration navigated the geopolitical implications of the USSR's collapse, focusing on maintaining stability in Eastern Europe, managing the spread of nuclear materials, and engaging with emerging post-Soviet states economically and diplomatically. Bush's policies influenced the environment in which informal markets and black market activities developed, as U.S. support for economic and political transitions affected trade, investment, and the flow of resources in the former Soviet space. His role positioned him as a key external stakeholder observing and responding to the rapid changes in the region.

Michel Camdessus Michel Camdessus was the Managing Director of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) during the early 1990s and played a significant role in the post-Soviet economic transition. He oversaw financial assistance programs and advised newly independent states on monetary policy, fiscal reform, and structural adjustments. Camdessus' policies influenced the stabilization of economies where black market activity and informal networks were rapidly expanding due to the collapse of centralized Soviet control. By facilitating loans, currency support, and economic guidance, he became a key external actor impacting how post-Soviet states navigated the chaotic economic landscape.

Dossier

Grigory Louchinski

Grigory Louchinski was a Soviet financial official whose career involved significant engagement with the USSR's banking and economic systems. While specific details about his actions are limited, he is reported to have been involved in corrupt financial practices that contributed to the diversion of state resources and the facilitation of black market activities during the late Soviet and early post-Soviet period. Louchinski's position allowed him access to state-controlled funds and the ability to influence the flow of capital, making him a potentially pivotal figure in the emergence of informal economic networks and post-Soviet illicit trade.

Margaret Thatcher

Margaret Thatcher was the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom during the final years of the Soviet Union. Known for her firm stance against communism, she played a key role in shaping Western policies toward the USSR, advocating for economic and political reforms and supporting initiatives that encouraged liberalization in Eastern Europe. Thatcher's government engaged with emerging post-Soviet states, influencing trade, investment, and diplomatic relations, which indirectly affected the environment in which black market activity and informal networks developed. Her role made her an important external stakeholder observing and responding to the rapid political and economic changes following the Soviet collapse.

Stanley Ho

Stanley Ho was a Hong Kong-based businessman known for his control over Macau's gambling industry and his extensive international business dealings. During the late Soviet and early post-Soviet period, he was reportedly involved in facilitating underground trade with the USSR, leveraging his network to move goods and resources across borders. Ho's operations connected post-Soviet black market activities with broader East Asian commercial networks, including smuggling, import-export schemes, and discreet financial transactions. His influence in the region made him a key external figure interacting with emerging illicit markets stemming from the collapse of centralized Soviet control.

The Soviet Union, 1991

Dossier

Viktor Bout

Viktor Bout was a Soviet-born arms dealer who became infamous for supplying weapons to conflict zones around the world. During the late Soviet and early post-Soviet period, he capitalized on the chaos and the collapse of state control to acquire and distribute surplus Soviet military equipment. Bout's operations often intersected with black market networks and organized crime, providing arms to both legitimate and illicit actors in various regions. His ability to navigate the post-Soviet logistical and political landscape made him a central figure in the emerging global arms trade, linking former Soviet military stockpiles with international criminal and paramilitary networks.

Anna Politkovskaya

Anna Politkovskaya was a Russian journalist and human rights advocate known for her reporting on political and social issues in the late Soviet and early post-Soviet period. While her most famous work came later, during the early 1990s she was beginning to cover stories related to corruption, organized crime, and abuses of power in Russia and the former Soviet republics. Her investigative work highlighted the growing influence of black market networks, criminal enterprises, and political corruption as state control weakened. Politkovskaya's reporting made her an important observer and chronicler of the social and economic transformations of the post-Soviet landscape.

Works Cited

Alexandre Kukhianidze. "Mafia Style Government as a Path to Political Dictatorship." *Environment and Society*, vol. 12, no. 12, 2024, www.es.tsu.ge/index.php/es/article/view/188. Accessed 23 Oct. 2025.

Alexandre Kukhianidze, and Nino Kukhianidze. "Crime and Corruption in Soviet and Post-Soviet Russia." *Environment and Society*, vol. 14, no. 14, 2024, www.es.tsu.ge/index.php/es/article/view/225.

"Cross-Border Crime and the Former Soviet Union." Google Books, 2025, books.google.com/books?hl=en&lr=&id=4JQE84EWmw8C&oi=fnd&pg=PA1&dq=soviet+mafia&ots=1CoFtScg79&sig=loAcmk0Tfvm_jIZL_v_kk8hDoHsl#v=onepage&q=soviet%20mafia&f=false. Accessed 23 Oct. 2025.

Lonsky, Jakub. "Gulags, Crime, and Elite Violence: Origins and Consequences of the Russian Mafia." *Journal of Public Economics*, vol. 246, 5 May 2025, p. 105361, www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0047272725000593, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpubeco.2025.105361>.

Quigley, John. "Government Corruption in the Soviet Union." Heinonline.org, 1991, heinonline.org/HOL/Page?handle=hein.journals/crimlfm4&div=36&g_sent=1&casa_token=&collection=journals. Accessed 23 Oct. 2025.

Rogovin, Vladimir S. "Problems of Corruption in Soviet Society: The Experience of Sociological and Historical Analysis." *Innovation: The European Journal of Social Science Research*, vol. 2, no. 4, Dec. 1989, pp. 463-478, <https://doi.org/10.1080/13511610.1989.9968184>.

"Soviet Mafia | Office of Justice Programs." www.ojp.gov, 1990, www.ojp.gov/ncjrs/virtual-library/abstracts/soviet-mafia.

Yale Press. "How Do You Talk to a Russian Gangster? - Yale University Press." Yale University Press, 27 July 2018, yalebooks.yale.edu/2018/07/27/how-do-you-talk-to-a-russian-gangster/. Accessed 23 Oct. 2025.