

Analysing regional development and policy: a structural-realist approach

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CRITICAL SURVEYS

Analysing regional development and policy: A structural-realist approach

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Abstract

This paper gives an overview of theories and models which can be used to analyse regional development as well as to design policies and strategies for the future of regions and localities. It evaluates the analytical and policy relevance of these models, and as it moves towards analytical synthesis, makes some recommendations for a structural realist approach to spatial development analysis. It offers a methodological framework for contemporary spatial development analysis by combining regulationist, cultural political economy and network theoretical approaches, and taking full cognisance of the structural-institutional, scalar and cultural dimensions of development processes and strategies.

Keywords: Territorial Innovation Models – New Regionalism – regional development – path dependency – social structure, institutions and culture – Structural realism. JEL Classifications: B0, R0.

Analysier l'aménagement du territoire: une façon structuralo-réaliste.

Moulaert & Mehmood

Cet article fournit une vue d'ensemble des théories et des modèles à employer afin d'analyser l'aménagement du territoire aussi bien que de mettre au point des politiques et des stratégies en faveur de l'avenir des régions et des endroits. On évalue l'importance analytique et de politique de ces modèles et, au fur et à mesure que l'on commence à penser une synthèse analytique, on fait quelques recommandations en faveur d'une façon structuralo-réaliste pour analyser le développement géographique. On propose un cadre méthodologique pour analyser le développement géographique contemporain en associant des façons réglementaires, d'économie politique culturelle, et théoriques de réseaux, tout en tenant compte des aspects structuralo-institutionnels, scalaires et culturelles des processus et des stratégies de développement.

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3 Modèles d'innovation territoriale / Nouveau régionalisme / Aménagement du territoire /
4 Sentier de dépendance / Structure sociale, institutions et culture / Réalisme structurel
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8 Classement JEL: B0; R0
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10 **Analyse der Regionalentwicklung und Politik: ein strukturell-realistischer**
11 **Ansatz**
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14 FRANK MOULAERT and ABID MEHMOOD
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18 Abstract
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20 Dieser Artikel enthält eine Übersicht über die Theorien und Modelle, die
21 sich zur Analyse der regionalen Entwicklung sowie zur Gestaltung von
22 Politiken und Strategien für die Zukunft von Regionen und Orten
23 heranziehen lassen. Wir analysieren die analytische und politische
24 Relevanz dieser Modelle und machen beim Übergang zur analytischen
25 Synthese einige Empfehlungen für einen strukturierten, realistischen
26 Ansatz zur Analyse der räumlichen Entwicklung. Der Artikel bietet einen
27 methodologischen Rahmen zur Analyse der aktuellen räumlichen
28 Entwicklung, indem er die regulationistischen, kulturpolitisch-
29 wirtschaftlichen und netzwerktheoretischen Ansätze miteinander
30 kombiniert und zugleich die strukturell-institutionellen, skalaren und
31 kulturellen Dimensionen der Entwicklungsprozesse und -strategien
32 vollständig zur Kenntnis nimmt.
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38 Keywords:

39 Territoriale Innovationsmodelle
40 Neuer Regionalismus
41 Regionalentwicklung
42 Pfadabhängigkeit
43 Sozialstruktur, Institutionen und Kultur
44 Struktureller Realismus
45 JEL Classifications: B0, R0.
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48 **Análisis del desarrollo y la política regional: un enfoque realista estructural**

49 FRANK MOULAERT and ABID MEHMOOD
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51 Abstract
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54 Este artículo contiene un resumen de las teorías y los modelos que pueden servir para
55 analizar el desarrollo regional y diseñar las políticas y estrategias para el futuro de las
56 regiones y localidades. Evaluamos la relevancia analítica y política de estos modelos y
57 según se va desplazando hacia una síntesis analítica hacemos recomendaciones sobre un
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3 planteamiento realista y estructural para el análisis del desarrollo espacial. Aquí
4 ofrecemos una estructura metodológica para el análisis contemporáneo del desarrollo
5 espacial al combinar enfoques regulatorios, de la economía política cultural y
6 planteamientos teóricos de redes a la vez que intentamos reconocer completamente las
7 dimensiones institucionales-estructurales, escalares y culturales de los procesos y
8 estrategias del desarrollo.
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13 Keywords:

14 Modelos de innovación territorial

15 Nuevo regionalismo

16 Desarrollo regional

17 Dependencia de rutas

18 Estructura social

19 Instituciones y cultura

20 Realismo estructural

21 JEL Classifications: B0, R0.
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32 **1. Introduction**

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34 With the rise (or the ‘return’?) of ‘Regionalism’, the study of regional development and
35 policy has once again become a major focus in social science spatial analysis. To benefit
36 fully of the long tradition of research in this field (say starting with the German Historical
37 School in the 19th century), an equilibrated use of ‘old’ and ‘new’ epistemological stances
38 and of ‘back to basics’ regional analysis are needed – the latter being a plea by Lovering
39 (2001)ⁱ. We intend to situate our reading of the literature and search for a new synthesis
40 within a critical-realist approach to society and its spatiality (SAYER, 1992), because
41 such an approach offers a critical and open perspective on the factors and dynamics of
42 social reality, allowing for diversity and complementarity of explanation but still
43 recognising some ‘structures with power’ within society. The features of the critical-
44 realist approach, as summarised by Sayer (see endnote *ii*), stress that “the view of the
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3 world is differentiated and stratified consisting not only of events but objects, including
4 structures, which have powers and liabilities capable of generalising events”.ⁱⁱ Other
5 features we stress here refer to the independence of reality from our knowledge; the
6 fallibility and theory-based character of knowledge; the production of any other kind of
7 knowledge as a social practice – realism thus clearly requires a ‘sociology of knowledge
8 perspective’. Structural realism (SR) then, as a particular focus within realism recognises
9 a relative hierarchy among the objects of social reality and recognises structures in the
10 form of relatively durable social relations as being of a potentially higher causal order.
11 This does not mean that structures are pre-existing to social phenomena; in fact,
12 structures are institutionally mediated and historically as well spatially reproduced
13 through both collective and strategic individual action. Still the conceptual nature of
14 structures, institutions and agency is pre-informed by the theory that has analytically
15 conceived them. This means that within a critical-realist perspective several theories
16 referring to the same or cognate concepts should be confronted and brought into dialogue
17 with each other. A theory privileging the analysis of structures in social reality can also
18 serve as a meta-theoretical framework, which sets in a way the borderlines within which
19 particular objects and their relations can be analysed. Examples of such approaches are
20 well-known in critical geography and spatial development analysis, where the meta-
21 theoretical framework adopts the social structures analysed in political economy – and
22 often identifies them as a main feature of its social ontology - but, as in radical political
23 geography, attributes them a deep spatial character (STORPER and WALKER, 1983;
24 MOULAERT, 1987). The critical-realist perspective then requires that, within this
25 framework, theories with different highlights and causal foci will communicate with each
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3 other and shed light on the different social phenomena and structures that explain
4 regional development and policy. Certainly history plays a significant role in structural
5 realist analysis. Relations between objects, the meaning of cultural change, the conditions
6 and social relations of scientific activity and how it has affected progress or stalemate in
7 society can only historically be laid out.
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17 Having spelled out the epistemological premises of structural-realism, we shall now
18 move to applying these to the review of the regional development literature, starting with
19 the contemporary new regionalism models of territorial innovation, and subsequently
20 work toward a new meta-theoretical synthesis for regional development analysis at the
21 end of the article. Over the last twenty years regional development has been addressed
22 mainly through the bird's eye view of territorial and especially regional innovation
23 models, the spearheads of the so-called 'new regionalism' movement (MOULAERT and
24 MEHMOOD, 2008). These models, discussed in section 2 as Territorial Innovations
25 Models (a generic or family name for Industrial District, Milieu Innovateur, Learning
26 Region, among others; see section 2 for details), were a significant advance on
27 neoclassical regional growth analysis because they enabled the filling of the 'black box' –
28 the institutional dynamics of development – traditionally left untouched by neoclassical
29 economics (MOULAERT and SEKIA, 2003). However, territorial innovation models
30 (TIMs) go only half way in solving the methodological problems in regional development
31 and policy analysis.ⁱⁱⁱ
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3 This appears from the epistemological reductionism of TIM (a capitalist market
4 economic ontology; collapse of past and future perspectives, empirical and normative
5 stances, institutions and structure, cultural and economic norms) means a backwards step
6 compared to previous regional *development* theories. Therefore section 3 argues in favour
7 of a return to the ‘old’ institutionalist tradition of regional development analysis (German
8 Historical School, Gunnar Myrdal, François Perroux, the French school of disequibrated
9 spatial development, radical geographers of the 1970s, etc.), which by their particular
10 interest in institutions fill the gap between the structure and other objects of social reality.
11 These Schools and authors are more advanced in distinguishing the analytical features of
12 regional development from its design strategy; and by combining these analytical features
13 with recent insights from cultural political economy and relational economic geography;
14 their theories could be made useful relatively easily for contemporary analysis of regional
15 development and policy. The final section is devoted to methodological reflections about
16 the study of regional development. A brief exploration of contemporary attempts to
17 accomplish new syntheses (based on territorial embeddedness, relational complexity,
18 strategic coupling), leads to an explicit choice to connect Cultural Political Economy,
19 Regulationist and ‘empowered’ network approaches in order to underpin regional
20 development and policy analysis today. Such connection should indeed lead to the
21 definition of a structural-realist meta-theoretical framework within which more issue-
22 focused spatial theories can be brought into use.
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53 **2. Territorial Innovation Models: what are they telling us?**^{iv}

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3 'Territorial Innovation Model' (TIM) are models of regional innovation in which *local*
4 *institutional dynamics* play a significant role as catalysts (especially positive) in
5 innovative development strategies. TIMs, as the flagships of New Regionalism, embody
6 an institutional turn in regional development analysis which means a significant step in
7 elaborating a SR approach. Most of these models address the following features of
8 development and innovation as well as the relationships between them: the core of the
9 innovation dynamics, the role of institutions, the view of regional development, culture,
10 the types of relations among agents, and the types of relationships with the environment.
11
12 Mainly three families of TIM can be identified^v. The first contains the *Milieu Innovateur*
13 and the Industrial District model. The French model *Milieu Innovateur*, which was the
14 basis for the synthesis produced by GREMI (AYDALOT, 1986), stresses the role of
15 endogenous institutional potential in producing innovative dynamic firms. The same
16 basic idea is found in the Industrial District model, which focuses even more on the role
17 of co-operation and partnership within the innovation process (BECATTINI, 1987). The
18 second TIM family contains models belonging to the tradition of the Systems of
19 Innovation: a translation of institutional co-ordination principles found in sectoral and
20 national innovation systems onto the regional level (EDQUIST, 1997) or, more properly,
21 an evolutionist interpretation of the regional learning economy within the regional space
22 (COOKE, 1996; COOKE and MORGAN, 1998). The third TIM tradition stems from the
23 Californian School of Economic Geography: the New Industrial Spaces (STORPER and
24 SCOTT, 1988; SAXENIAN, 1994). In addition, there is a residual category,
25 encompassing 'spatial clusters of innovation', which is not really another TIM family, as
26 it has little affinity to regional analysis but lies close to Porter's clusters of innovation.
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3 All these models share a large number of key-concepts that have been used in regional
4 economics or analysis for a long time, or that have been borrowed from other disciplines,
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6 especially in social science.
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12 Table 1 summarizes the meaning of territorial innovation and its features in most of these
13 models^{vi}. The learning region model has not been included because it can be considered
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15 as an essential synthesis of the features of many of the other TIM models.
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27 Most TIM models stress the instrumentality of institutions in the economic restructuring
28 and enhanced competitiveness of regions and localities. But in none of these models is
29 reference made to improving non-economic dimensions and non-market led sections of
30 regional and local communities, unless such improvements could contribute in some way
31 to the competitiveness of the territory. According to the TIM, quality of life in local and
32 regional communities depends on growth of prosperity and will appear as a positive
33 externality of higher economic growth; no distinction is made between wellbeing and
34 growth, between community culture and business climate.
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48 There is no doubt that TIMs take a significant step forward when compared to orthodox
49 models of spatialised economic 'development' (e.g. neo-classical regional growth
50 models) in that they recognize the explicit role of institutions (including firms) and their
51 learning processes as key factors in economic development. In this way, they fill the
52 'black box' of the neo-classical model of the firm and its networks which disregards the
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3 institutional dynamics of innovative agents, and only considers the logic of rational
4 economic agency. TIMs are therefore more socially sophisticated than neoclassical
5 regional growth models, for they perceive institutional dynamics (culture, learning
6 organizations, networks) as improving the market-competitiveness of the local economy.
7
8 (In orthodox development discourse, one could say that they make ‘development’
9 functional to ‘growth’; the neo-classical adage turned upside down!). But at the same
10 time TIMs reflect a societal ontology with a restricted view of economic development:
11 innovation and learning will improve the market-economic performance of a region or a
12 locality, and in this way will contribute to the achievement of other developmental goals
13 (economic, social, political, cultural).
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29 In other words: implicitly, TIMs do not consider either the multi-functionality or the
30 allocative diversity of the ‘real’ economy – an economy that is in reality much broader
31 than the capitalist market economy – or the other existential (non-economic) spheres of
32 local and regional communities, such as the natural environment, the social-cultural
33 (artistic, educational, social services) and the socio-political sphere. Despite their
34 devotion to institutional dynamics, they are sworn to a market-based economic ontology
35 and technological view of development. They blatantly overlook the past and present role
36 of the structural mechanisms of growth and decline, even and uneven inter-regional
37 exchange and development mediated by these institutions and their strategic agencies
38 (HOLLAND, 1976). One could argue that in the TIM view of institutionalisation, the
39 ‘lightness of being’ of the rationalist behavioural perspective transforms the institutional
40 complexity of the real world and its development paths into self-evident path-breaking
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3 strategic behaviour – thus rationalising history as if it would be organically engineering
4 the innovative future!
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11 Contrary to a structural-realist perspective the connections between agency, rationality
12 and social relations have also been narrowed down to the latter's functionality for rational
13 economic behaviour pursuing improved competitiveness for the regional or local
14 economy. Another ontological aspect of the market-economist and instrumentalist view
15 of institutional dynamics inherent in TIM is the narrow view of regional economic
16 development policy. In tune with the TIM ontology, economic policy sectors are honed
17 by prioritising technological innovation and rationalist learning procedures, while other
18 sectors are geared towards market-led economic policy. Cultural, educational,
19 transportation, urban development policies, etc. all become more or less subjugated to
20 market competitiveness and lose the *raison d'être* and policy purpose specific to their
21 own logic in contributing to the cultural, educational, environmental emancipation of
22 human beings and their social groupings (MOULAERT and NUSSBAUMER, 2005).
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41 Finally TIMs suffer from what we could call a 'localist trap'. For a variety of reasons,
42 they regard regional and local development strategies using endogenous resources as the
43 appropriate answer to the uneven and unequal consequences of globalization and power
44 strategies of global players (see for a critical perspective DUNFORD and GRECO,
45 2006). This position waters down into a naïve misjudgement of the role of the latter and
46 into an unbalanced view of how realistic regional development strategies should take into
47 account both global players and especially their 'focal firms' (COE et al., 2004); at the
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3 same time this denial of the ‘evil of the global’, leads to an unrealistic understanding of
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5 the power of endogenous resources and how these have been managed. It would, for
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7 example, be interesting to apply this perspective to Hassink and Lagendijk’s (2001)
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9 observations on the ‘scant attention to interregional dimension of learning’ contrasting
10
11 with the strong focus on regional learning in regional development analysis. In its most
12
13 extreme reading the ‘localist trap’ also means that TIMs are defined in economic and
14
15 political isolation from the outside world. Old insights (see section 3) that TIMs can only
16
17 be successful thanks to economies of scale (and not only of scope as TIM do recognise)
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19 and high-value added trade networks, and that regions and localities are competitors
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21 within a wider economy and polity – with the risk that in absence of appropriate national
22
23 and supra-national development policies only a limited number among them will succeed
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25 – and that macroeconomic dynamics and policy affect the regional development potential
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27 seem to have been forgotten (AMIN, 1999). True, contemporary new regionalism
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29 analysis is more realistic about this and “places increased weight on extra-local dynamics
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31 shaping economic growth within regions” (COE et al., 2004, p. 469); but it remains an
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33 enigma why today, in order to bring ‘new regionalism’ back to this level of geographical
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35 complexity, established verities of the 1970s about path-dependency and the meaning of
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37 wider spatial scales for development had to be reinvented from scratch.
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48 These ontological positions of TIM have inspired at least two major epistemological
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50 miscarriages which affect these models’ utility for working towards a structural-realist
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52 methodology for regional development and policy analysis.
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3 First, TIMs do not manage to disentangle normative from analytical perspectives in
4 regional development research. In realism terms, they neither consider discourse and
5 norm systems as socially produced, nor do they distinguish the specificity of cultural
6 practices. The most significant consequence of this is that ‘intentionality of change in
7 agency’ (e.g. innovative strategies, improved organizational learning) is taken as the main
8 driving force of actual regional development. This leads recurrently to a situation in
9 which real-life strategies are analysed as ‘imagineered’ future behaviour, as if the past
10 and present of regional development can be explained only as the result of rational
11 innovative behaviour within effectively organised learning processes (MOULAERT and
12 SEKIA, 2003), or to a homogenised view of ‘best practice’ innovation strategies across
13 different types of regions, irrespective of their development path – as rightly criticised by
14 Tödting and Tripl (2005).
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34 Second, despite TIMs’ significant contribution to re-institutionalising the study of
35 territorial development, their analysis of institutional dynamics is framed by the
36 instrumental interpretation of ‘territorial institutions for market-led growth’ and by what
37 Hess (2004) calls an *over territorialized view of embeddedness*. This leads for example to
38 either an over deterministic explanation of the role of globalization or a naïve
39 understanding of the width of the manoeuvring space left to endogenous strategies within
40 the global economy and society (DICKEN, 1994).
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53 To overcome these epistemological flaws in the explanation of regional development and
54 policy, we turn in section 3 to ‘older’ and/or more ‘cultured’ theories that offer clearer
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3 explanations of the relationship between past, present and future; agency, structure and
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5 institutions; institutions and culture; and development and policy. These theories,
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7 therefore, hold potential for developing a structural-realist perspective to this explanation.
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12 More recent attempts to overcome the devotion to local endogeneity and the neglect of
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14 articulation between spatial scales have been made by the 'strategic coupling' approach
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16 (COE et al., 2004), the revisiting of 'relational economic geography' (YEUNG, 2005),
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18 the contextualisation of the territorial embeddedness approach (HESS, 2004) and the
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20 path-dependent definition of local development strategies (COX, 2004). These we deal
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22 with in the later section 4, as a spring-board for the presentation of our analytical
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24 synthesis.
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32 **3. Old-timers on regional development**

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34 We have seen in section 2 that in contemporary literature on regional development 'new
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36 regionalism' and TIMs are playing the first violin. But we noticed that these models
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38 suffer from ontological and epistemological reductionism: they use idealised categories
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40 of design strategies for future development also as key categories in the analysis of the
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42 structural and institutional dynamics of the past, hence short-cutting the causality
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44 relations between agency–institutions–structure; and they prototype regional
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46 development policy as almost exclusively targeting improved competitiveness. To this
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48 end they search for good or best practice combinations of technology and organization,
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50 supported by regional and local institutional catalysts. They also tend to overlook the
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52 effectiveness of non-economic factors and institutions in regional social and economic
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3 development (HADJIMICHALIS, 2006). Most TIMs refer to a path dependency of
4 regional development which is usually limited to the continuity of culture patterns and
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development (HADJIMICHALIS, 2006). Most TIMs refer to a path dependency of regional development which is usually limited to the continuity of culture patterns and modes of social association between innovative agents and which does not consider the constraining or incapacitating impact of the historical paths followed by the so-called 'abstract' structures of the capitalist economy (division of labour, wage labour relationship, competition between capitals and market structures).

In this section we briefly survey 'old timers' which in their days did not fall victim to institutional instrumentalism and selective a-historicism as we have observed in TIMs. We successively look at Historicism, the schools of disequibrated growth, and radical economic geography. In the latter part of the section, we also turn to recent contributions in Cultural Political Economy which can be considered as bringing a new dimension to regional development analysis, e.g. by distinguishing different dimensions of cultural practice, important to fulfilling a structural realist perspective.

3.1 *Historicism and territorial development*

The German Historical School has been the basis of the development of 20th century economic growth and development theory.^{vii} GHS contributions to a better understanding of the *Nazionalökonomie* and the various analyses of the stages of economic growth have had a major impact on later national and regional development theory and analysis. However, post WW II 'stages of growth' theory can only be indirectly connected to the German Historical School, mainly because the German literature was not well-known to Rostow and others, and also because of the influence of the British classical school on the

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3 rise of the 'stages of economic growth' analyses which transformed the reading of
4 historical development into a time-series record of economic growth performance
5 indicators (HOSELITZ, 1960). A significant difference between the GHS and the
6 Classical Economists is that the GHS already offered a real theory of economic dynamics
7 (e.g. the idea of cumulative causation) whereas the Classics only provided principles for
8 economic dynamics (such as the role of the changes in the division of labour following
9 Adam Smith) while maintaining the view of an organic tendency towards equilibrium
10 both of the economy and among its agents.^{viii} The GHS contributed to the making of
11 territorial development analysis in the following three ways:
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27 - *The recognition of the growing role of the state and the industrialisation*
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32 Nussbaumer (2002) demonstrates that significant numbers of ideas found in post Second
33 World War literature on local and regional development were already present to some
34 extent in the writings of the German Historical School. For example, the focus on the
35 social dynamics of development, connected to the building of the Nation State from the
36 different German states; social relations between the Nation-state and economic
37 development; and, the culturally embedded socio-economic organisation of economic
38 activities, have all been active features of discussion in the GHS literature.
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51 - *Space as a historical category*
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3 Gustav Schmoller's writings (1884; 1905) have applied historical embeddedness to
4 spatial analysis. Using an anthropological perspective, he showed how society
5 appropriated space through the development of institutions that organise it according to
6 the needs of the population. In other words: spatial institutions materialise the social
7 relations that are developed in a community. Therefore, the evolution of needs and the
8 economic system implies a transformation of the institutional configuration of space. The
9 relative importance of institutional levels varies according to their relevance for the
10 development of the (regional, local) community. However institutional evolution is not
11 uniformly harmonious but produces conflicts. Power relations, both within and between
12 institutions, form part of a dialectical movement. The interrelations between economic
13 actors illustrate the political dimension of development; for instance those who try to
14 influence policies by integrating town councils, and political powers that try to orient and
15 promote economic activities. Space, considered from the perspective of its appropriation
16 through (re)institutionalization, is embedded in the movement of history.
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39 - *Spatial and territorial approach*
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43 The GHS territorial approach to development was mainly developed by Gustav
44 Schmoller. He showed how competition and cooperation within and between institutions
45 are important in creating opportunities for political intervention and for interaction
46 between political action and the transformation of the economic system. This idea, linked
47 to the emphasis on the combination of development factors necessary to generate
48 development and the recognition that social relations within a group or community are
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3 part of the development process, leads to an analysis of development that links market
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5 mechanisms to social interaction.
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10 The contributions of the GHS have had a remarkable influence on the development of
11
12 later theories of regional endogenous development. Especially, its methodological
13
14 contributions such as the interactive analysis of causality and its significant impact on
15
16 methodological collectivism show its affinities with structural realism. And it has also
17
18 had an impact as one of the pillars of the Regulation Approach (VILLEVAL, 1995)
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20 which we deal with in section 3.3.2.
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24 25 26 27 *3.2 Embedded regional development and cumulative disequilibrium*

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29 In the 1960s (or late 1950s) the simultaneous discovery of the difficulties of development
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31 in the South and of regional and local problems of development in industrialised
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33 countries due to massive transformation of the industrial system (HIRSCHMAN, 1984),
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35 highlighted the significance of spatial scales of development and their diversified
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37 political and economic dynamics.
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43 However, it would be illusionary to think that a smooth inter-paradigmatic path of
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45 scientific progress led from the GHS scholars to the spatial development analysts of the
46
47 1960s. In the first half of the 20th century a rupture in the analysis of spatial development
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49 [and location] came with the rise of neoclassical location and central place theory. There
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51 were many reasons for this paradigmatic discontinuity, of which we cite only the few
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53 most important: (i) US scholars' (who until the Interbellum frequently trained at German
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3 universities) disapproval of German imperial policy – especially under the Nazi regime -
4 led to a loss of interest in the GHS that was strongly focused on the role of institutions in
5 general and the State *par excellence*; (ii) the euphoric spread of positivist scientific
6 methods in social science. Positivist methodology development was invigorated by the
7 rise of formal location analysis, already present at the end of the 19th century, especially
8 in Germany, which began to overrule the GHS approach by the second quarter of the 20th
9 century. We would have to wait till 1980s for a ‘mainstream’ critical realist answer to
10 the dominant positivist methodology in social science in general, and spatial development
11 analysis in particular.
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24 Gradually a growing separation occurred between pseudo-classical or neo-classical
25 location theory and regional growth theory on the one hand, and institutionalism-rooted
26 regional development theory on the other. The latter includes authors like Myrdal (1957),
27 Hirschman (1958) but also François Perroux (1955; 1983; 1988). Perroux is especially
28 remembered for his analysis of the relationships between economic agglomeration on the
29 one hand (growth poles within geographical space) and externalities (technological,
30 pecuniary) and power relations on the other; his growth pole and regional development
31 analysis adopts a strong institutional perspective and shows how unevenness in economic
32 relations is institutionally confirmed, with only well-established public policy being
33 capable of countering uneven development.
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48 An interesting novel presentation of Myrdal’s work on spatial socio-economic
49 development is given by Meardon (2001) who argues:
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3 “In sum, Myrdal’s theory of agglomeration was part of a holistic alternative
4 research program. Its main components were a critique of predominant
5 economic theory, the development and interdisciplinary application of the
6 concept of cumulative causation, and the proposal of public policies intended
7 to reduce international, interregional, and even interracial inequalities – all
8 founded upon explicitly stated value premises.” (p. 49).
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20 For our purpose the ‘application’ of Myrdal’s cumulative causation framework to
21 regional and interregional development is of particular interest. He discusses cumulative
22 causation in terms of a tension between backwash and spread effects. He explains how
23 agglomerations often originate as a consequence of either a single or a few economic
24 initiatives (historical accidents) but that their development and dominance over lesser
25 centres is a result of ever increasing internal and external economies in the growth
26 centres. Cultural and political processes play a significant part in this, and the increasing
27 inequality between growth and lesser centres can only be overcome by active and
28 sustained public initiative (MYRDAL, 1957).
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40 The confrontation between these institutionalist regional development analyses and the
41 new regionalism is instructive and shows how the latter has simplified the ‘regional
42 world’ into an agency space combining institutional and economic engineering – far
43 removed from the real spaces of cumulative causation of growth and development in
44 leading regions and localities, where political power-broking and unequal exchange
45 based trade and investment networks play a significant part. This analysis of Myrdal and
46 others also provides arguments explaining why worldwide maybe a thousand rather than
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3 a million TIMs will flourish within the real global world and how successful regions will
4 extort resources (human capital, innovative ideas, finance capital) from less successful or
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6 poorer regions.^{ix}
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10 11 12 *3.3 Political economy of regional development*^x 13

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15 The political economy of regional development examines the deployment of the relations
16 of production both within and as reproduced by the ‘systems of regions’. Two influential
17 analytical frameworks have been developed quasi simultaneously by Doreen Massey
18 (1984) and Lipietz (1977). Both look at the articulation between the (spatial) hierarchy of
19 the division of labour on the one hand and the reproduction of regional inequality on the
20 other. Later contributors such as Markusen (1983) and Hudson (2001) have broadened
21 the concept of social relations and its role in the analysis of the regionalization process
22 and thus attributed more value to non-reductionist interpretations of regional
23 development; and Sum (2006) has valorised the potential of a more culture-enhanced
24 approach to regional development. These and other authors have stressed the need for
25 better articulation of the different social processes through which space is constantly
26 reproduced – and thus de facto executing Lefèbvre’s concept (1974) in which he
27 distinguishes between perceived, conceived and lived space and paves the way for a more
28 counter-hegemonic, lived-diversity based approach to spatial development strategies.
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50 51 *3.3.1 The spatial division of labour* 52

53 In his book ‘Le capital et son espace’, Alain Lipietz (1977) develops a Marxist theory of
54 regional development. It combines an explanation of the regional inequality problem in
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3 terms of the condition of the rural economy in France with a spatial division of labour
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5 model of manufacturing and service activities across the space-economy. To do so
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8 Lipietz analyses 'interregionality' ("les rapports qui s'établissent entre régions
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10 inégalement développées au sein d'une zone d'intégration articulée en circuits de
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12 branches desservant un marché unique", p. 84) on the basis of the flows or circuits of the
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14 branches of production. For this purpose he examines the articulation between
15
16 'pre'capitalist relations of production – especially as materialised in traditional
17
18 agriculture – and the capitalist relations of production as expressed in manufacturing
19
20 [especially fordist] branches of production. Lipietz analyses explicitly both the
21
22 development of, and the articulation between, modes of production within the complexity
23
24 of state – capital relations (i.e. the complexity of national social formations, regional
25
26 armatures and the over-arching 'imperialist multinational bloc'). He establishes a
27
28 hierarchical typology of regions: central, intermediary and peripheral. His original
29
30 empirical basis for this work is the spatial development of industry in relation to
31
32 agriculture in France; later he completes his analysis using evidence from the regional
33
34 development of the service sector, which he considers as a further though partial
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36 expression of the permanent laws of capital accumulation (concentration, agglomeration
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38 of capital, deskilling of direct producers, etc.) and which he links to the deskilling
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40 industrialisation of metropolitan regions both internally and at their peripheries
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42 (LIPIETZ, 1980: 68).
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50 Doreen Massey's analysis of divisions of labour and the reproduction of uneven spatial
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52 development in the UK has strong parallels with Lipietz's in France. Massey (1984: 67):
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3 “If the social is inextricably spatial and the spatial impossible to divorce from
4 its social construction and content, it follows not only that social processes
5 should be analysed as taking place spatially but also that what have been
6 thought of as spatial patterns can be conceptualised in terms of social
7 processes. [...] The primary social process which the geography of jobs
8 reflects is production. The spatial distribution of employment, therefore, can be
9 interpreted as the outcome of the way in which production is organised over
10 space.”
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24 Then Massey develops the argument that the social relations of production are necessarily
25 deployed in space and in a variety of forms, which she calls spatial structures of
26 production. Such spatial structures, although often similar across social spaces, should
27 never be considered as archetypes, deterministically reproduced through the reproductive
28 dynamics of capitalism. Instead the geographical forms of the organisation of production
29 should be examined empirically. In capitalist production systems two distinct types of
30 hierarchies quite often overlap and reinforce each other: (i) the managerial hierarchy –
31 comparable to Hymer’s (1972) control structure linking headquarters to subsidiaries and
32 branch plants; (ii) the hierarchy of the production process itself with R&D (often)
33 separated from it; and the production process itself consisting of the production of
34 technically more complex components (engineering) as well as the final assembly of
35 commodities. Massey stresses that, in most cases, a country’s national economic
36 geography – perceived as the ensemble of geographical forms of the organisation of the
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3 economy – “reflects its position in the international political economy, the international
4 division of labour” (p. 82-83).
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8 Both Lipietz and Massey keep underlining that the reproduction of social space is not a
9 one-way causal outcome of the organisation and reproduction of the capitalist production
10 system. Massey: “Spatial structures are established, reinforced, combated and changed
11 through political and economic strategies and battles on the part of managers, workers
12 and political representatives” (p. 85) Political struggle will ultimately determine these
13 forms. However national territories and their spatial organization significantly reflect the
14 unevenness embedded in the corporate hierarchies, be it manufacturing firms (HUDSON,
15 2001) or service providers and their networks (MARTINELLI and MOULAERT, 1993).
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17 But the material outcome of this use of space will ultimately depend on capital-labour
18 relations within the regional system, the strength of the unions and the strength of the
19 class-balance of the State apparatus.
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36 37 *3.3.2 Cultural and socio-political dimensions of regional development*

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39 Observe that these analyses of regional development, although attaching significant
40 importance to social relations and regulation (especially by the State), *still employ an*
41 *economic interpretation of social relations and their spatial forms.* Later work, often
42 influenced by Lefèbvre (1974), such as the regulationist analysis of spatial development
43 (LEBORGNE and LIPIETZ, 1990; MOULAERT, SWYNGEDOUW and WILSON,
44 1988; MOULAERT and SWYNGEDOUW, 1989; MOULAERT, 1995) and gender and
45 diversity literature (see e.g. BLUNT and WILLS, 2000) broadens the whole idea of social
46 relations in space, and shows how different conceptions of space lead to a better
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3 understanding of regional development, its potential opportunities and how these feed
4 into the development paths and visions of past and present.
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8 Lefèbvre's generic work on the production of (social) space has had a determining
9 influence on spatial analysis across most disciplines. In his Marxist approach to space,
10 Lefèbvre contrasts perceived, conceived and lived space and addresses the spatial
11 character of each of them by distinguishing spatial practices, representations of space,
12 and representational spaces. Although he stresses the relations of production and their
13 spatial deployment when applying these trialectics to capitalist society, his approach,
14 more than that of Lipietz and Massey, leaves all doors open to look beyond 'abstract'
15 space created by capitalist dynamics, and to include [other than production] social
16 relations, representations of space and representational spaces involved in the
17 reproduction of society and the interaction between hegemonic and counter-hegemonic
18 movements. However, Lefèbvre never breaks the links between production relations and
19 other social relations in society.
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39 In recent years several contributions to regional development analysis have used a
40 broader perspective on social relations, addressing their diversity and their cultural as
41 well as structural dimensions. We cite four contributions in particular:
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48 - Markusen's (1983) work on Regionalism and Regional Development: Markusen
49 explains how territorially defined regions are relevant to political economists when
50 conflicts in social relations of production are perceived as regional conflicts by the actors
51 involved. She calls this perception *regionalism*, "the espousal of a territorial claim by
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3 some social group”, or in the case of a political movement “the political claim of a
4 territorially identified group of people against one or several mechanisms of the State...”
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7 Although ‘regionalism’ for Markusen is clearly a subjective and experiential term, it can
8 also refer to objective social dynamics that cause territorial differences in social
9 formations. In this way it may refer to the different social relations and institutions which
10 embody or govern relationships within the human community: the household, the State,
11 and cultural institutions.
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14 Because the term *region*, warns Markusen, “connotes a territorial, not social, entity,” its
15 use can lead to a number of epistemological (including conceptual) errors. First, region
16 might be confused with all social relations that are territorially based. As such, a class
17 conflict or a conflict between cultural groups might be wrongly perceived as a conflict
18 between regions (Markusen gives a number of examples). Second, it is probable that the
19 existing territorially defined regions (state, cultural identity, natural habitat, etc.) are only
20 partially relevant to the spatiality of the social relations determining the dynamics of
21 social reality in the region.
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23
24 Although Markusen explains very well how territorially defined regions can be an issue
25 in political economy, a regional issue itself can only be fully understood if the spatial
26 expression of the social relations – that is, the spatial organization of which the region
27 forms a part – is fully understood also. Markusen’s framework recognises the diversity of
28 social relations – beyond strict confinement to (social) relations of production – and thus
29 is highly significant for the analysis of the spatial nature of social and economic
30 development within and across regions and localities.
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3 - Gender and Diversity. The inclusion of gender and diversity (using a multi-ethnic
4 perspective for example) together with the role of the wage-labour relationship in the
5 analysis of regional development have enriched the understanding of the role of female
6 and migrant labour in regional labour markets (MASSEY, 1984), the uneven
7 reproduction of patriarchal professional hierarchies (MULLINGS, 2005) and the design
8 of alternative emancipation and spatial development strategies (BLUNT and WILLS,
9 2000).

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12 - Regulation Approach and Local/ Regional Development: The 'territorialization' of the
13 regulationist approach has reinvigorated the debate on the analytical (and strategic)
14 weaknesses of regulation theory and contributed to overcoming them (LEBORGNE and
15 LIPIETZ, 1990; MOULAERT, SWYNGEDOUW and WILSON, 1988; MOULAERT
16 and SWYNGEDOUW, 1989; MOULAERT, 1995; PECK, 1996; PECK and TICKELL,
17 1992). Reformulating regulationism, after a refreshing territorial bath, is meant to enable
18 this at first National Social Formation oriented analytical framework to address regional
19 development. The revisited regulationist approach includes: (i) an articulated time-space
20 approach to subsequent modes of development and their concrete forms; (ii) a greater
21 focus on the impact of non-economic structural dynamics on regional and local
22 development; (iii) the broadening of the reading of regulatory dynamics from 'pure
23 economic' and 'state agency' to different types of formal and informal regulation; (iv)
24 redefining the role of agency and behavioural codes within the broader definition of
25 institutional dynamics; (v) a reading of social reproduction at the local and regional level
26 which is both extensive and respecting of diversity, and is in tune with recent insights on
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3 the role of culture, gender and diversity in spatial development strategies,
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5 institutionalization and structural transformations; (vi) the recognition of power relations
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7 together with social and political struggle as critical analytical categories in regulation
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9 theory (MOULAERT, 2000). These improvements to the Regulationist Approach within
10
11 the territorial regulationist approach resonate with most of the concerns about the one-
12
13 track approach of political economy, i.e. overemphasis on the determinist explanatory
14
15 power of the social relations of production, and how to overcome them, and also several
16
17 of the concerns of a structural-realist approach to regional development analysis. Not
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19 covered in this corrigendum, however, is the role of discourse both in reproducing culture
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21 and as a 'real' strategy, which has been a concern of the cultural political economy
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23 approach to socio-economic development, but also addresses the cultural concerns of the
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25 realist approach.
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34 - Cultural Political Economy and Discourse: Recent work on the relationships between
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36 Culture, Discourse, Identity and Hegemony (CDIH) has laid the foundations for an
37
38 improved integration of two analyses: the analysis of social and cultural embedding of
39
40 agency and the social construction of institutional change (the 'pure' cultural turn in
41
42 social science) as well as the more 'structural-materialist' social science analysis
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44 stressing the historical specificity and material effectivity of economic categories and
45
46 practices as applied by e.g. the Regulation Approach or the Strategic-Relational
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48 Approach (SUM, 2006; 2005; JESSOP, 2001; JESSOP and SUM, 2006; SUM and
49
50 JESSOP, 2007). According to Sum (2006) "The CDIH model [within the cultural
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52 political economy approach] seeks to develop a more balanced approach that pays due
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3 attention to the material-discursive nature of social relations, albeit based on a more open
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5 conception of social structure (SMART, 1986; FAIRCLOUGH, 1992; JESSOP, 1990;
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7 GIBSON-GRAHAM, 1996), as well as to the strategic-discursive moment that is
8
9 associated with the textual or semiotic aspects of social relations and their emergent
10
11 properties.” (p. 6). Over the last few years Cultural Political Economy (CPE) approaches
12
13 have enriched regional development analysis by focusing on the role of discourse and
14
15 identity-building in defining regional and urban policy and interpreting ‘histories’ of
16
17 regions and cities. The most promising of these applications are based on the integration
18
19 of critical discourse analysis into variants of the regulation approach that retain strong
20
21 residual elements of the Marxist critique of political economy. In this way, CPE takes the
22
23 cultural turn, with its emphasis on discursive-strategic questions, in the analysis of socio-
24
25 economic development without sacrificing the lessons of a materialist-structural analysis
26
27 of the historically specific socio-economic dynamics of capitalist economies. Following
28
29 Sum (2005) this integration examines the development of economic imaginaries and
30
31 associated *grand narratives* at various *interlocked spatial scales*; and also explores how
32
33 these imaginaries and narratives facilitate the emergence and consolidation of not only
34
35 hegemonic systems (of which they are also an important moment) but also of counter-
36
37 hegemonic movements. Economic imaginaries involve spatio-temporal horizons of action
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39 and are institutionalized in specific spatio-temporal matrices and, as such, have major
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41 implications for spatial development. In particular, they have a significant impact on how
42
43 regulation and strategic agency are reproduced at the regional and local level. Moreover,
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45 the modes by which grand discourses are reproduced via struggles at the *global and*
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47 *national scales* are highly relevant in coming to grips with the role of discourse in
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3 reproduction and accumulation at the local and regional level. Interesting illustrations of
4 this approach are Hajer (1995), Sum (2002) on Hong Kong, Gonzalez (2005 and 2006)
5 for the Basque Country and Bilbao (Northern Spain), Raco (2003) on Scotland, McGuirk
6 (2004) on Sydney, and Moulaert et al. (2007) in relation to urban redevelopment policy in
7 Milan, Antwerp, Vienna and Naples.
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18 One could summarize the discussion in section 3 by arguing that the 'objectivation' of
19 social relations, the broadening of their conceptualisation from economic to social and to
20 cultural dimensions as well as their historical and spatial embedding have made a major
21 contribution to the building of a structural-realist methodology for regional development
22 analysis. These analytical merits will be valorised in the next section, where we will work
23 toward a new synthesis in regional development analysis.
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34 **4. Methodological prospects: toward a structural realist synthesis for regional** 35 **development analysis** 36 37

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39 Over the last fifteen to twenty years the literature on regional development and regional
40 development policy has been dominated by the New Regionalism approach and its
41 Territorial Innovation Models, of which the most popular today is the Learning Region.
42
43 Although New Regionalism did reintroduce the role of institutional dynamics and path
44 dependency into regional development analysis, unfortunately, its analytical potential
45 soon became constrained by a contemporary reading of the historical and institutional
46 foundations of development, thus reducing path dependency to the reproduction of
47 specific assets and institutions within local and regional communities. At the same time,
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3 the scalar geography of this approach overlaid the role of the local and regional
4 territory at the expense of interdependencies with other spatial scales. By doing so, the
5 opportunities or constraints stemming from globalization were often miscalculated, and
6 the critical role of supra-regional governance – with still currently an important role for
7 the National state – overlooked. As a consequence, TIMs have become idealised icons of
8 development dreams instead of much needed models addressing the politics and policy of
9 the possible (on the latter, see NOVY and LEUBOLT, 2005; SWYNGEDOUW, 2005). It
10 is therefore of critical importance to move beyond new regionalism, and to develop an
11 alternative perspective to regional development that manages to find a solution to most of
12 the analytical shortcomings mentioned in the earlier sections of this paper. As explained
13 in the introduction, we have opted for a structural realist approach to establish this
14 perspective.

34 *4.1 Beyond New Regionalism*

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36 Before moving on to our methodological synthesis for regional development analysis, we
37 focus on some recent contributions to overcome some of the flaws of New Regionalism
38 models. We address consecutively the approaches of strategic coupling, of social
39 embeddedness and of relational geography.

40
41 Coe et al. (2004) explain how the *strategic coupling approach* offers a way out of the
42 localist trap overshadowing new regionalism theories and Territorial Innovation Models:

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53 “Drawing upon a global production networks (GPN) perspective and deriving
54 insights from both the new regionalist and GCC (Global Commodity Chain)
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2
3 and GVC (Global Value Chain) literatures, our approach focuses on the
4
5 dynamic ‘strategic coupling’ of global production networks and regional
6
7 assets, an interface mediated by a range of institutional activities across
8
9 different geographical and organizational scales. Our contention is that
10
11 regional development ultimately will depend on the ability of this coupling to
12
13 stimulate processes of value creation, enhancement and capture.” (p. 469)
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20 Notwithstanding the fact that the strategic coupling approach offers a major corrigendum
21
22 to the most localist among the TIMs, it is not really as successful as it pretends in
23
24 analysing regional development as a set of relational processes. Although we support a
25
26 process view of regional development, in our opinion processes involve more than
27
28 relational dynamics as they have been analysed in the relational geography approach.
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31 Two other recent contributions from (economic) geography have scrutinised ‘spatial’
32
33 relationships in development. The ‘*social embeddedness*’ approach attempts to bypass
34
35 the limits of territorial embeddedness – often implicitly assumed in many TIMs. Hess
36
37 (2004) seeks to do so by illuminating the concept of ‘embeddedness’; first by explaining
38
39 the evolution of embeddedness in Karl Polanyi’s work and then moving on to
40
41 Granovetter’s distinction between relational and structural embeddedness, with “the
42
43 former describing the nature or quality of dyadic relations between actors, while the latter
44
45 refers to the network structure of relationships between a number of actors” (p. 170-171).
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50 Two observations should be made on Hess’ synthesis of the ‘rescaled’ embeddedness
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52 approach: it overcomes the local scale bias of embeddedness in a positive way (social
53
54 embeddedness occurs at related spatial scales); but unfortunately it clings to an
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3 'interactive' interpretation of social structure – in fact it uses a definition of social
4 structure as 'interactively constructed', not historically and 'societally' reproduced.
5
6

7
8 A similar observation can be made about Yeung's (2005) critical survey article on
9 relational economic geography which is both illuminating and debate provoking. Yeung –
10 inspired by Jessop (2001) – rightly points out that the recent relational turn in economic
11 geography is mainly a thematic one and that an ontological-epistemological relational
12 turn is still to come. He connects the recent popularity of relational thought in economic
13 geography partially to the analytically limited (presumed) structural determinism of
14 Social Relations of Production (and Spatial Division of Labour; see section 3.3.1 above)
15 that leaves little room to analyse mid-range institutionalisation and micro-agency. He
16 compares three recent thematic turns in relational geography: (i) regional and local
17 development as a function of synergised relational assets; (ii) relational embeddedness in
18 networks; (iii) relational scales. (i) coincides largely with the theoretical approach used in
19 the New Regionalism/TIM approach while (ii) matches the 'social embeddedness' line of
20 analysis summarised and revisited by Hess. But (iii) in our opinion offers a
21 misunderstanding of the meaning of the scalar articulation approach. Swyngedouw, Peck,
22 Brenner etc. do not offer a relational geography approach – at least not in the interactive
23 interpretation of relationality which Yeung attributes to these authors – but make a
24 successful attempt to overcome the scale problem of the reproduction of social relations
25 in space (see especially SWYNGEDOUW, 1997). To do so, they improve mainly on the
26 territorialized version of the *Regulation Approach* which, although it provides the
27 analytical key to the spatial articulation approach, strangely enough is not mentioned in
28 Yeung's article. This observation is not just hair splitting, but points to a significant
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3 distinction between the meanings of 'relationality' in the different 'relational turns'
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5 examined by Yeung. Indeed, for the authors of the scalar articulation approach,
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7
8 relationality refers to social relations in the political economy meaning of the term, and
9
10 not to interactive dynamics as meant in both the new regionalism or social embeddedness
11
12 thematic turn. A real 'methodological' relational turn should clarify this distinction, as it
13
14 should also clarify the distinction in relationality between objects and as social processes.
15
16
17 In the Political Economy and the Regulation Approach for example, social relations are
18
19 not relations between objects but are social processes that are historically and spatially
20
21 articulated. In consequence, they cannot be changed as a rule through the action of
22
23 individual actors but through social forces such as (counter) hegemonic movements,
24
25 institutionalisation processes, cultural upturns,... And they are different ontologically and
26
27 epistemologically from the type of relationality studied in mainstream network analysis.
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30 More careful study is needed therefore of the types of relationality that are relevant to
31
32 economic geography.
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39 *4.2 Towards a meta-theory for regional development analysis*

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41 To re-equilibrate the framework of regional development analysis, a return is necessary
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43 to the 'old' interpretation of institutional dynamics and structural relations. But to lead a
44
45 comprehensive analysis of regional development these [rediscovered] structures as time-
46
47 and-place robust institutions and mediated social structures should be combined with an
48
49 interactionist view of relations between 'development' agents, the specificity of their
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51 agency and a cultural perspective on their agency and institutionalization. Keeping in
52
53 mind the concerns of the SR approach presented in section 1, this synthesis can best be
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4 achieved by starting from a meta-theoretical framework as suggested by Storper and
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6 Walker (1983) and Moulaert (1987). Such a framework is based on a social ontology that
7
8 includes 'empowered' structural relations in which the capitalist relations of production
9
10 are dominant, but where 'other' social relations are part and parcel of the social process.
11
12 This ontology comes quite close to that of the Regulation Approach – sometimes
13
14 designated as a meta-theory by itself. However, as pointed out in section 3.3.2, the
15
16 Regulation Approach misses several cultural dimensions and fails to recognise the
17
18 relative autonomy of social relations in space-and-place. In addition it is poor in dealing
19
20 with the social and cultural dynamics of agency and its micro-networks. We therefore
21
22 argue here that to achieve an appropriate framework for regional development analysis, a
23
24 number of 'open' theories fitting or fittable to the SR approach could be brought together.
25
26 Open theories, can be considered as theories that denominate a limited number of
27
28 structures, institutions or typical agencies, but do not provide specific theorisation of the
29
30 causalities or relations between the objects they host. They can be combined into a meta-
31
32 theoretical synthesis, with a shared social ontology. The synthesis we defend here
33
34 combines an Empowered Network Perspective (MOULAERT and CABARET, 2006)
35
36 with a 'Culturalised' Regulation Perspective – an integration of a Regulation Approach
37
38 with a Cultural Political Economy perspective (JESSOP and SUM, 2006; MOULAERT
39
40 et al., 2007). Together, these offer a meta-theoretical framework that could host various
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42 contributions from old and new institutional and political economy approaches to
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44 regional development.
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53 Our support for this meta-theoretical integration is based on our agreement with relational
54
55 (socio) economic geography that relationality has many dimensions: interaction,
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3 embeddedness and scalar articulation; at the same time our endeavour is a reaction
4
5 against the 'networkish' interpretation of relationality inherent in most relational
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7 geography applications, which stress the central role of agents as architects of networks
8
9 and their institutions while overlooking the role of structural relations – as processes – in
10
11 the reproduction of agency networks and their institutions. To calibrate this reaction, we
12
13 appeal to a Regulation Approach but one upgraded from a Cultural Political Economy
14
15 perspective, as argued in section 3. This allows us to bring structural relations and power
16
17 into the network metaphor, i.e. to empower network theory. Figure 1 here and the
18
19 subsequent discussion reflect how a meta-theoretical foundation can be established.
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28 INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE
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33 Starting from a detailed reading of network analysis in evolutionary economics and
34
35 organizational sociology, Moulaert and Cabaret (2006) argue that using the network
36
37 metaphor as a concept for analysing real-life situations as basically the interaction
38
39 between agents and the resulting outcomes, is a logical intellectual ambition:
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45 “Human life, organizations and agencies are based on interactions between human
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47 beings that are to a large extent networked amongst themselves. Agents
48
49 (individuals, organizations) develop and share cultures, modes of communication,
50
51 principles of (network) action and ways of building institutions. These institutions
52
53 will of course not just be the outcome of voluntary institutional engineering
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55 within the networks, but will also depend on the interaction between the network
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3 dynamics, the network environment and the development paths of the society and
4
5 communities to which the network belongs. Thus network theory is useful in
6
7 modelling strategies and policy actions in regional and local development.” (p.
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9 54).
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15 Better than ‘structural’ social theories, the network metaphor, by looking at cognitive
16
17 processes, the role of network culture and the production of discourse, offers a natural
18
19 link to cultural political economy. However, most current network theories defend
20
21 reductionist rational approaches to human behaviour (for a critique, see
22
23 HADJIMICHALIS and HUDSON, 2006), stress the role of procedures in information
24
25 gathering, exchange and institution building but deal very poorly with social structures,
26
27 power and power-relations. To overcome this weakness, Regulation Theory can step in.
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34 Although Regulation Theory, like Marxism, primarily looks at economic (strategic)
35
36 behaviour, its theorising of social and political structure as social relations focused on
37
38 power relations and institution building as a social process, is relevant to ‘empowering
39
40 networks’ within society. Similarly, property relations, labour-capital relations, finance
41
42 capital, the State as an extended logic of capital, etc. play a direct role in most networks
43
44 embedded in the socio-economic world. In network terminology, this means that
45
46 stakeholders hold significantly unequal stakes, the decision-making space is limited or
47
48 uneven, and, in extreme cases, the outcome of negotiation processes is known
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50 beforehand, because the structural-institutional impact of the logic of capital and politics
51
52 is so influential. By using the embeddedness approach of Polanyi and Granovetter, we
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3 could not only embed the network analysis of strategic behaviour and policy making by
4 leading regional and local agents within the Regulationist Approach of social relations,
5 but also use that approach to study the reproduction of the economic, political, social and
6 cultural structures of the region and its localities (MOULAERT and SWYNGEDOUW,
7 1989).

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18 These structures – together with the networks embodying their micro-dynamics – then
19 become ‘encultured’, under the Cultural Political Economy’s revisiting of social analysis
20 by looking at the role of culture, identity and discourse and how they affect social forces
21 and strategic agency. As indicated in section 3 the work of Sum (2005, 2006) in
22 particular has been bridge-building in this respect. Inspired by Jessop (1990) and Anglo-
23 Foucauldian theorists such as Rose and Miller (1992) and Dean (1999), Ngai-Ling Sum
24 has designed a heuristic device that links the macro and micro processes – especially
25 stressing the role of discourse - of hegemony and counter-hegemony making. In six inter-
26 related moments that highlight the discursive dimensions of social relations and
27 individual and collective agency, she provides the concepts necessary to analyse the
28 relationship between ‘real’ and ‘cultural’ articulation via the examination of struggles
29 involved in the material-discursive practices of everyday life. As shown in cited case-
30 studies (section 3) this adds real value to the understanding of culture and discourse in
31 regional and local development and policy.

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53 As explained before we label the integration tripod of network theory, regulation
54 approach and cultural political economy as a ‘meta theoretical framework’ because it
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3 provides a social ontology and epistemology for spatial development analysis, but does
4
5 not expand the specific theories that shed light on the various dimensions and questions
6
7 of regional and local development. To this end, we should return to the survey of theories
8
9 in sections 2 and 3 which offer specific intelligence on each of these dimensions: e.g.
10
11 Myrdal on economic and political factors and mechanisms of centre-periphery relations,
12
13 Hirschman on the significance of political processes in regional development, Lipietz on
14
15 the links between the reproduction of economic structure and the State apparatus,
16
17 Markusen on the role of social and political movements in the regionalization process;
18
19 and many others. Looking at these theories within this newly defined triangular field of
20
21 ‘social relations – networks of agents – cultural dynamics’ may offer a wind of change –
22
23 yet one redolent of the prickling dust of historical manuscripts that are badly needed
24
25 today but have rested for too long on library shelves – in addressing regional
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27 development and policy.
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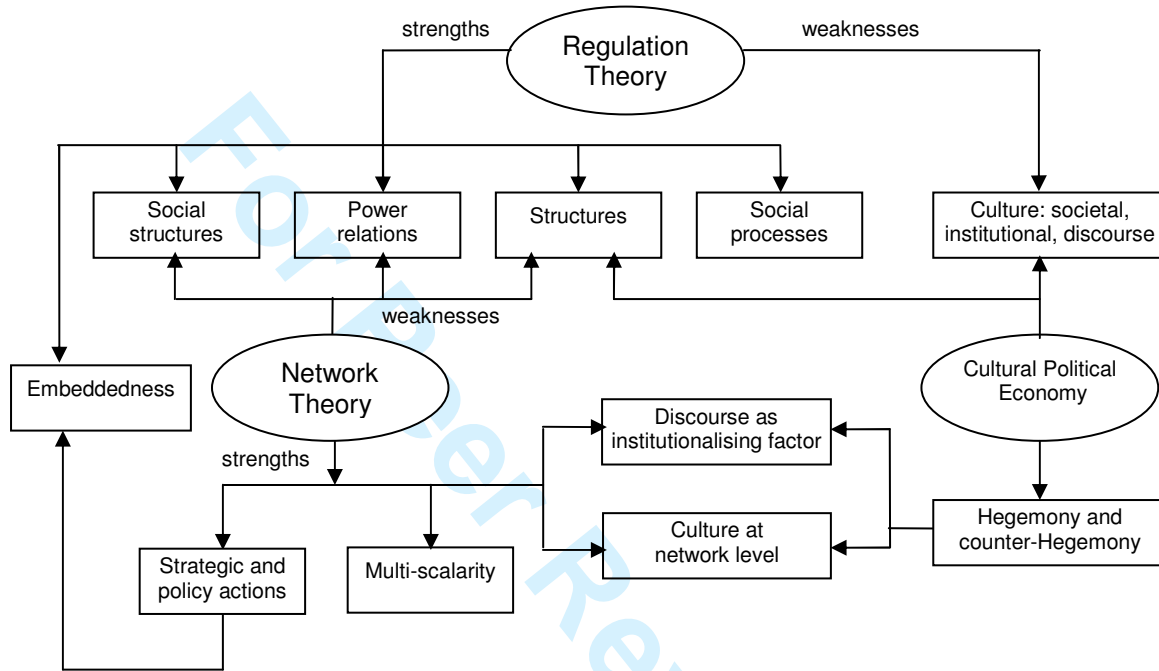
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Table 1 Views of innovation in territorial innovation models

Model	Milieu innovateur (Innovative milieu) (MI)	Industrial District (ID)	Regional Innovation Systems (RIS)	New Industrial Spaces
Features of innovation				
Core of innovation dynamics	Capacity of a firm to innovate through the relationships with other agents of the same milieu	Capacity of actors to implement innovation in a system of common values	Innovation as an interactive, cumulative and specific process of research and development (path dependency).	A result of R&D and its implementation; application of new production methods (JIT, etc.)
Role of institutions	Very important role of institutions in the research process (university, firms, public agencies, etc.)	Institutions are "agents" and enabling social regulation, fostering innovation and development	As in the NIS, the definitions vary according to authors. But they all agree that the institutions lead to a regulation of behaviour, both inside and outside organisations	Social regulation for the co-ordination of inter-firm transactions and the dynamics of entrepreneurial activity
Regional development	Territorial view based on " <i>milieux innovateurs</i> " and on agent's capacity of innovating in a co-operative atmosphere	Territorial view based on spatial solidarity and flexibility of districts. This flexibility is an element of this innovation	View of the region as a system of "learning by interacting/ and by steering regulation "	Interaction between social regulation and agglomerated production systems
Culture	Culture of trust and reciprocity links	Sharing values among ID agents - Trust and reciprocity	The source of "learning by interacting"	Culture of networking and social interaction
Types of relations among agents	The role of the support space: strategic relations between the firm, its partners, suppliers and clients	The network is a social regulation mode and a source of discipline. It enables a coexistence of both co-operation and competition	The network is an organisational mode of "interactive learning"	Inter-firm transactions
Types of relations with the environment	Capacity of agents in modifying their behaviour according to the changes in their environment. Very 'rich' relations: third dimension of support space	The relationships with the environment impose some constraints and new ideas. Must be able to react to changes in the environment. 'Rich' relations. Limited spatial view of environment	Balance between inside specific relations and environment constraints. 'Rich' relations	The dynamics of community formation and social reproduction

Figure 1 A meta-theoretical synthesis for regional development analysis: Regulation, Network and CPE approaches



Endnotes

ⁱ This paper does deal with regional development, not regional growth theories. Although there exist affinities between both analytical traditions, we have no space to deal with both and we prefer to address the more 'quality features' oriented development theories. As a consequence we will for example not present the debate on/between New Economic Geography and regional endogenous growth models (see e.g. FUJITA, KRUGMAN and VENABLES, 1999).

ⁱⁱ Andrew Sayer has summarised the realist scientific-philosophical approach as having the following features: (a) the world exists independently of our knowledge of it; (b) our knowledge of the world is pre-informed but also imperfect; (c) "Knowledge develops neither wholly continuously, as the steady accumulation of facts within a stable conceptual framework, nor wholly discontinuously, through simultaneous and universal changes in concepts." (p. 5) (d) objects (natural or social) have particular causal powers or ways of acting and particular susceptibilities; (e) "The world is differentiated and stratified, consisting not only of events, but objects, including structures, which have powers and liabilities capable of generating events." [...] (f) "Social phenomena such as actions, texts and institutions are concept dependent" (p. 6) [...] (g) "Science or the production of any other kind of knowledge is a social practice. For better or worse (not just worse) the conditions and social relations of the production of knowledge influence its content. Knowledge is also largely – though not exclusively – linguistic, and the nature of language and the way we communicate are not incidental to what is known as communicated. Awareness of these relationships is vital in evaluating knowledge."; (h) "Social science must be critical of its object" [...] (p. 6)

ⁱⁱⁱ Contemporary debates on New Regionalism take different directions, especially following criticisms of the neglect of articulation among spatial scales and their consequences for economic policy. We have reserved the term 'New Regionalism' for the original spatially disarticulated models, preferring to refer to the spatially articulated models as 'Beyond New Regionalism'. – see section 4.1. Neither do we address the political science literature on New Regionalism (see e.g. KEATING, 1998). Although we believe that Markusen's Regionalism concept (section 3.3.2) could play a significant role there.

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^{iv} This section has been reproduced and extended from Moulaert and Nussbaumer (2005). Copyright granted by SAGE Publications.

^v For details see Moulaert, Sekia and Boyabé (1999).

^{vi} For more details see Moulaert, Sekia and Boyabé, op. Cit. See also MacKinnon, Cumbers and Chapman (2002) who among other critical observations point out how the learning region model underemphasises the articulation among spatial scales in learning dynamics.

^{vii} The GHS also played a significant role in the genesis of location theory; this is not developed here. See Nussbaumer (2002).

^{viii} We should also keep in mind that the theory of stages of economic growth also had an influence on Lösch's theory of system of regions (LÖSCH 1938).

^{ix} See also Williams et al. (2004) on the relationship between migration flows and uneven development in contemporary Europe.

^x We selected these two authors because their focus is regional compared to other authors from the 1970s working in radical political geography *and* their analysis fits best the trajectory leading to the structural-realist synthesis in regional development analysis, which we pursue. If we had to further extend this methodological exercise we would certainly make use of Dunford (1988) and Harvey (1982)

CRITICAL SURVEYS

Analysing regional development and policy: A structural-realist approach

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Abstract

This paper gives an overview of theories and models which can be used to analyse regional development as well as to design policies and strategies for the future of regions and localities. It evaluates the analytical and policy relevance of these models, and as it moves towards analytical synthesis, makes some recommendations for a structural realist approach to spatial development analysis. It offers a methodological framework for contemporary spatial development analysis by combining regulationist, cultural political economy and network theoretical approaches, and taking full cognisance of the structural-institutional, scalar and cultural dimensions of development processes and strategies.

Keywords: Territorial Innovation Models – New Regionalism – regional development – path dependency – social structure, institutions and culture – Structural realism. JEL Classifications: B0, R0.

Analysier l'aménagement du territoire: une façon structuralo-réaliste.

Moulaert & Mehmood

Cet article fournit une vue d'ensemble des théories et des modèles à employer afin d'analyser l'aménagement du territoire aussi bien que de mettre au point des politiques et des stratégies en faveur de l'avenir des régions et des endroits. On évalue l'importance analytique et de politique de ces modèles et, au fur et à mesure que l'on commence à penser une synthèse analytique, on fait quelques recommandations en faveur d'une façon structuralo-réaliste pour analyser le développement géographique. On propose un cadre méthodologique pour analyser le développement géographique contemporain en associant des façons réglementaires, d'économie politique culturelle, et théoriques de réseaux, tout en tenant compte des aspects structuralo-institutionnels, scalaires et culturelles des processus et des stratégies de développement.

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3 Modèles d'innovation territoriale / Nouveau régionalisme / Aménagement du territoire /
4 Sentier de dépendance / Structure sociale, institutions et culture / Réalisme structurel
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10 **Analyse der Regionalentwicklung und Politik: ein strukturell-realistischer**
11 **Ansatz**
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14 FRANK MOULAERT and ABID MEHMOOD
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17 Abstract
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20 Dieser Artikel enthält eine Übersicht über die Theorien und Modelle, die
21 sich zur Analyse der regionalen Entwicklung sowie zur Gestaltung von
22 Politiken und Strategien für die Zukunft von Regionen und Orten
23 heranziehen lassen. Wir analysieren die analytische und politische
24 Relevanz dieser Modelle und machen beim Übergang zur analytischen
25 Synthese einige Empfehlungen für einen strukturierten, realistischen
26 Ansatz zur Analyse der räumlichen Entwicklung. Der Artikel bietet einen
27 methodologischen Rahmen zur Analyse der aktuellen räumlichen
28 Entwicklung, indem er die regulationistischen, kulturpolitisch-
29 wirtschaftlichen und netzwerktheoretischen Ansätze miteinander
30 kombiniert und zugleich die strukturell-institutionellen, skalaren und
31 kulturellen Dimensionen der Entwicklungsprozesse und -strategien
32 vollständig zur Kenntnis nimmt.
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37 Keywords:
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39 Territoriale Innovationsmodelle
40 Neuer Regionalismus
41 Regionalentwicklung
42 Pfadabhängigkeit
43 Sozialstruktur, Institutionen und Kultur
44 Struktureller Realismus
45 JEL Classifications: B0, R0.
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48 **Análisis del desarrollo y la política regional: un enfoque realista estructural**

49 FRANK MOULAERT and ABID MEHMOOD
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51 Abstract
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54 Este artículo contiene un resumen de las teorías y los modelos que pueden servir para
55 analizar el desarrollo regional y diseñar las políticas y estrategias para el futuro de las
56 regiones y localidades. Evaluamos la relevancia analítica y política de estos modelos y
57 según se va desplazando hacia una síntesis analítica hacemos recomendaciones sobre un
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3 planteamiento realista y estructural para el análisis del desarrollo espacial. Aquí
4 ofrecemos una estructura metodológica para el análisis contemporáneo del desarrollo
5 espacial al combinar enfoques regulatorios, de la economía política cultural y
6 planteamientos teóricos de redes a la vez que intentamos reconocer completamente las
7 dimensiones institucionales-estructurales, escalares y culturales de los procesos y
8 estrategias del desarrollo.
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13 Keywords:

14 Modelos de innovación territorial

15 Nuevo regionalismo

16 Desarrollo regional

17 Dependencia de rutas

18 Estructura social

19 Instituciones y cultura

20 Realismo estructural

21 JEL Classifications: B0, R0.
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32 **1. Introduction**

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34 With the rise (or the ‘return’?) of ‘Regionalism’, the study of regional development and
35 policy has once again become a major focus in social science spatial analysis. To benefit
36 fully of the long tradition of research in this field (say starting with the German Historical
37 School in the 19th century), an equilibrated use of ‘old’ and ‘new’ epistemological stances
38 and of ‘back to basics’ regional analysis are needed – the latter being a plea by Lovering
39 (2001)ⁱ. We intend to situate our reading of the literature and search for a new synthesis
40 within a critical-realist approach to society and its spatiality (SAYER, 1992), because
41 such an approach offers a critical and open perspective on the factors and dynamics of
42 social reality, allowing for diversity and complementarity of explanation but still
43 recognising some ‘structures with power’ within society. The features of the critical-
44 realist approach, as summarised by Sayer (see endnote *ii*), stress that “the view of the
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3 world is differentiated and stratified consisting not only of events but objects, including
4 structures, which have powers and liabilities capable of generalising events”.ⁱⁱ Other
5 features we stress here refer to the independence of reality from our knowledge; the
6 fallibility and theory-based character of knowledge; the production of any other kind of
7 knowledge as a social practice – realism thus clearly requires a ‘sociology of knowledge
8 perspective’. Structural realism (SR) then, as a particular focus within realism recognises
9 a relative hierarchy among the objects of social reality and recognises structures in the
10 form of relatively durable social relations as being of a potentially higher causal order.
11 This does not mean that structures are pre-existing to social phenomena; in fact,
12 structures are institutionally mediated and historically as well spatially reproduced
13 through both collective and strategic individual action. Still the conceptual nature of
14 structures, institutions and agency is pre-informed by the theory that has analytically
15 conceived them. This means that within a critical-realist perspective several theories
16 referring to the same or cognate concepts should be confronted and brought into dialogue
17 with each other. A theory privileging the analysis of structures in social reality can also
18 serve as a meta-theoretical framework, which sets in a way the borderlines within which
19 particular objects and their relations can be analysed. Examples of such approaches are
20 well-known in critical geography and spatial development analysis, where the meta-
21 theoretical framework adopts the social structures analysed in political economy – and
22 often identifies them as a main feature of its social ontology - but, as in radical political
23 geography, attributes them a deep spatial character (STORPER and WALKER, 1983;
24 MOULAERT, 1987). The critical-realist perspective then requires that, within this
25 framework, theories with different highlights and causal foci will communicate with each
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3 other and shed light on the different social phenomena and structures that explain
4 regional development and policy. Certainly history plays a significant role in structural
5 realist analysis. Relations between objects, the meaning of cultural change, the conditions
6 and social relations of scientific activity and how it has affected progress or stalemate in
7 society can only historically be laid out.
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18 Having spelled out the epistemological premises of structural-realism, we shall now
19 move to applying these to the review of the regional development literature, starting with
20 the contemporary new regionalism models of territorial innovation, and subsequently
21 work toward a new meta-theoretical synthesis for regional development analysis at the
22 end of the article. Over the last twenty years regional development has been addressed
23 mainly through the bird's eye view of territorial and especially regional innovation
24 models, the spearheads of the so-called 'new regionalism' movement (MOULAERT and
25 MEHMOOD, 2008). These models, discussed in section 2 as Territorial Innovations
26 Models (a generic or family name for Industrial District, Milieu Innovateur, Learning
27 Region, among others; see section 2 for details), were a significant advance on
28 neoclassical regional growth analysis because they enabled the filling of the 'black box' –
29 the institutional dynamics of development – traditionally left untouched by neoclassical
30 economics (MOULAERT and SEKIA, 2003). However, territorial innovation models
31 (TIMs) go only half way in solving the methodological problems in regional development
32 and policy analysis.ⁱⁱⁱ
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3 This appears from the epistemological reductionism of TIM (a capitalist market
4 economic ontology; collapse of past and future perspectives, empirical and normative
5 stances, institutions and structure, cultural and economic norms) means a backwards step
6 compared to previous regional *development* theories. Therefore section 3 argues in favour
7 of a return to the ‘old’ institutionalist tradition of regional development analysis (German
8 Historical School, Gunnar Myrdal, François Perroux, the French school of disequibrated
9 spatial development, radical geographers of the 1970s, etc.), which by their particular
10 interest in institutions fill the gap between the structure and other objects of social reality.
11 These Schools and authors are more advanced in distinguishing the analytical features of
12 regional development from its design strategy; and by combining these analytical features
13 with recent insights from cultural political economy and relational economic geography;
14 their theories could be made useful relatively easily for contemporary analysis of regional
15 development and policy. The final section is devoted to methodological reflections about
16 the study of regional development. A brief exploration of contemporary attempts to
17 accomplish new syntheses (based on territorial embeddedness, relational complexity,
18 strategic coupling), leads to an explicit choice to connect Cultural Political Economy,
19 Regulationist and ‘empowered’ network approaches in order to underpin regional
20 development and policy analysis today. Such connection should indeed lead to the
21 definition of a structural-realist meta-theoretical framework within which more issue-
22 focused spatial theories can be brought into use.
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53 **2. Territorial Innovation Models: what are they telling us?**^{iv}

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3 'Territorial Innovation Model' (TIM) are models of regional innovation in which *local*
4 *institutional dynamics* play a significant role as catalysts (especially positive) in
5 innovative development strategies. TIMs, as the flagships of New Regionalism, embody
6 an institutional turn in regional development analysis which means a significant step in
7 elaborating a SR approach. Most of these models address the following features of
8 development and innovation as well as the relationships between them: the core of the
9 innovation dynamics, the role of institutions, the view of regional development, culture,
10 the types of relations among agents, and the types of relationships with the environment.
11
12 Mainly three families of TIM can be identified^v. The first contains the *Milieu Innovateur*
13 and the Industrial District model. The French model *Milieu Innovateur*, which was the
14 basis for the synthesis produced by GREMI (AYDALOT, 1986), stresses the role of
15 endogenous institutional potential in producing innovative dynamic firms. The same
16 basic idea is found in the Industrial District model, which focuses even more on the role
17 of co-operation and partnership within the innovation process (BECATTINI, 1987). The
18 second TIM family contains models belonging to the tradition of the Systems of
19 Innovation: a translation of institutional co-ordination principles found in sectoral and
20 national innovation systems onto the regional level (EDQUIST, 1997) or, more properly,
21 an evolutionist interpretation of the regional learning economy within the regional space
22 (COOKE, 1996; COOKE and MORGAN, 1998). The third TIM tradition stems from the
23 Californian School of Economic Geography: the New Industrial Spaces (STORPER and
24 SCOTT, 1988; SAXENIAN, 1994). In addition, there is a residual category,
25 encompassing 'spatial clusters of innovation', which is not really another TIM family, as
26 it has little affinity to regional analysis but lies close to Porter's clusters of innovation.
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3 All these models share a large number of key-concepts that have been used in regional
4 economics or analysis for a long time, or that have been borrowed from other disciplines,
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6 especially in social science.
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12 Table 1 summarizes the meaning of territorial innovation and its features in most of these
13 models^{vi}. The learning region model has not been included because it can be considered
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15 as an essential synthesis of the features of many of the other TIM models.
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27 Most TIM models stress the instrumentality of institutions in the economic restructuring
28 and enhanced competitiveness of regions and localities. But in none of these models is
29 reference made to improving non-economic dimensions and non-market led sections of
30 regional and local communities, unless such improvements could contribute in some way
31 to the competitiveness of the territory. According to the TIM, quality of life in local and
32 regional communities depends on growth of prosperity and will appear as a positive
33 externality of higher economic growth; no distinction is made between wellbeing and
34 growth, between community culture and business climate.
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48 There is no doubt that TIMs take a significant step forward when compared to orthodox
49 models of spatialised economic 'development' (e.g. neo-classical regional growth
50 models) in that they recognize the explicit role of institutions (including firms) and their
51 learning processes as key factors in economic development. In this way, they fill the
52 'black box' of the neo-classical model of the firm and its networks which disregards the
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3 institutional dynamics of innovative agents, and only considers the logic of rational
4 economic agency. TIMs are therefore more socially sophisticated than neoclassical
5 regional growth models, for they perceive institutional dynamics (culture, learning
6 organizations, networks) as improving the market-competitiveness of the local economy.
7
8 (In orthodox development discourse, one could say that they make ‘development’
9 functional to ‘growth’; the neo-classical adage turned upside down!). But at the same
10 time TIMs reflect a societal ontology with a restricted view of economic development:
11 innovation and learning will improve the market-economic performance of a region or a
12 locality, and in this way will contribute to the achievement of other developmental goals
13 (economic, social, political, cultural).
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29 In other words: implicitly, TIMs do not consider either the multi-functionality or the
30 allocative diversity of the ‘real’ economy – an economy that is in reality much broader
31 than the capitalist market economy – or the other existential (non-economic) spheres of
32 local and regional communities, such as the natural environment, the social-cultural
33 (artistic, educational, social services) and the socio-political sphere. Despite their
34 devotion to institutional dynamics, they are sworn to a market-based economic ontology
35 and technological view of development. They blatantly overlook the past and present role
36 of the structural mechanisms of growth and decline, even and uneven inter-regional
37 exchange and development mediated by these institutions and their strategic agencies
38 (HOLLAND, 1976). One could argue that in the TIM view of institutionalisation, the
39 ‘lightness of being’ of the rationalist behavioural perspective transforms the institutional
40 complexity of the real world and its development paths into self-evident path-breaking
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3 strategic behaviour – thus rationalising history as if it would be organically engineering
4 the innovative future!
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11 Contrary to a structural-realist perspective the connections between agency, rationality
12 and social relations have also been narrowed down to the latter's functionality for rational
13 economic behaviour pursuing improved competitiveness for the regional or local
14 economy. Another ontological aspect of the market-economist and instrumentalist view
15 of institutional dynamics inherent in TIM is the narrow view of regional economic
16 development policy. In tune with the TIM ontology, economic policy sectors are honed
17 by prioritising technological innovation and rationalist learning procedures, while other
18 sectors are geared towards market-led economic policy. Cultural, educational,
19 transportation, urban development policies, etc. all become more or less subjugated to
20 market competitiveness and lose the *raison d'être* and policy purpose specific to their
21 own logic in contributing to the cultural, educational, environmental emancipation of
22 human beings and their social groupings (MOULAERT and NUSSBAUMER, 2005).
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41 Finally TIMs suffer from what we could call a 'localist trap'. For a variety of reasons,
42 they regard regional and local development strategies using endogenous resources as the
43 appropriate answer to the uneven and unequal consequences of globalization and power
44 strategies of global players (see for a critical perspective DUNFORD and GRECO,
45 2006). This position waters down into a naïve misjudgement of the role of the latter and
46 into an unbalanced view of how realistic regional development strategies should take into
47 account both global players and especially their 'focal firms' (COE et al., 2004); at the
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3 same time this denial of the ‘evil of the global’, leads to an unrealistic understanding of
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5 the power of endogenous resources and how these have been managed. It would, for
6
7 example, be interesting to apply this perspective to Hassink and Lagendijk’s (2001)
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9 observations on the ‘scant attention to interregional dimension of learning’ contrasting
10
11 with the strong focus on regional learning in regional development analysis. In its most
12
13 extreme reading the ‘localist trap’ also means that TIMs are defined in economic and
14
15 political isolation from the outside world. Old insights (see section 3) that TIMs can only
16
17 be successful thanks to economies of scale (and not only of scope as TIM do recognise)
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19 and high-value added trade networks, and that regions and localities are competitors
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21 within a wider economy and polity – with the risk that in absence of appropriate national
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23 and supra-national development policies only a limited number among them will succeed
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25 – and that macroeconomic dynamics and policy affect the regional development potential
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27 seem to have been forgotten (AMIN, 1999). True, contemporary new regionalism
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29 analysis is more realistic about this and “places increased weight on extra-local dynamics
30
31 shaping economic growth within regions” (COE et al., 2004, p. 469); but it remains an
32
33 enigma why today, in order to bring ‘new regionalism’ back to this level of geographical
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35 complexity, established verities of the 1970s about path-dependency and the meaning of
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37 wider spatial scales for development had to be reinvented from scratch.
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48 These ontological positions of TIM have inspired at least two major epistemological
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50 miscarriages which affect these models’ utility for working towards a structural-realist
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52 methodology for regional development and policy analysis.
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3 First, TIMs do not manage to disentangle normative from analytical perspectives in
4 regional development research. In realism terms, they neither consider discourse and
5 norm systems as socially produced, nor do they distinguish the specificity of cultural
6 practices. The most significant consequence of this is that ‘intentionality of change in
7 agency’ (e.g. innovative strategies, improved organizational learning) is taken as the main
8 driving force of actual regional development. This leads recurrently to a situation in
9 which real-life strategies are analysed as ‘imagineered’ future behaviour, as if the past
10 and present of regional development can be explained only as the result of rational
11 innovative behaviour within effectively organised learning processes (MOULAERT and
12 SEKIA, 2003), or to a homogenised view of ‘best practice’ innovation strategies across
13 different types of regions, irrespective of their development path – as rightly criticised by
14 Tödting and Tripl (2005).
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34 Second, despite TIMs’ significant contribution to re-institutionalising the study of
35 territorial development, their analysis of institutional dynamics is framed by the
36 instrumental interpretation of ‘territorial institutions for market-led growth’ and by what
37 Hess (2004) calls an *over territorialized view of embeddedness*. This leads for example to
38 either an over deterministic explanation of the role of globalization or a naïve
39 understanding of the width of the manoeuvring space left to endogenous strategies within
40 the global economy and society (DICKEN, 1994).
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53 To overcome these epistemological flaws in the explanation of regional development and
54 policy, we turn in section 3 to ‘older’ and/or more ‘cultured’ theories that offer clearer
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3 explanations of the relationship between past, present and future; agency, structure and
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5 institutions; institutions and culture; and development and policy. These theories,
6
7 therefore, hold potential for developing a structural-realist perspective to this explanation.
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12 More recent attempts to overcome the devotion to local endogeneity and the neglect of
13
14 articulation between spatial scales have been made by the 'strategic coupling' approach
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16 (COE et al., 2004), the revisiting of 'relational economic geography' (YEUNG, 2005),
17
18 the contextualisation of the territorial embeddedness approach (HESS, 2004) and the
19
20 path-dependent definition of local development strategies (COX, 2004). These we deal
21
22 with in the later section 4, as a spring-board for the presentation of our analytical
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24 synthesis.
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32 **3. Old-timers on regional development**

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34 We have seen in section 2 that in contemporary literature on regional development 'new
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36 regionalism' and TIMs are playing the first violin. But we noticed that these models
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38 suffer from ontological and epistemological reductionism: they use idealised categories
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40 of design strategies for future development also as key categories in the analysis of the
41
42 structural and institutional dynamics of the past, hence short-cutting the causality
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44 relations between agency–institutions–structure; and they prototype regional
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46 development policy as almost exclusively targeting improved competitiveness. To this
47
48 end they search for good or best practice combinations of technology and organization,
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50 supported by regional and local institutional catalysts. They also tend to overlook the
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52 effectiveness of non-economic factors and institutions in regional social and economic
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3 development (HADJIMICHALIS, 2006). Most TIMs refer to a path dependency of
4 regional development which is usually limited to the continuity of culture patterns and
5 modes of social association between innovative agents and which does not consider the
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development (HADJIMICHALIS, 2006). Most TIMs refer to a path dependency of regional development which is usually limited to the continuity of culture patterns and modes of social association between innovative agents and which does not consider the constraining or incapacitating impact of the historical paths followed by the so-called 'abstract' structures of the capitalist economy (division of labour, wage labour relationship, competition between capitals and market structures).

In this section we briefly survey 'old timers' which in their days did not fall victim to institutional instrumentalism and selective a-historicism as we have observed in TIMs. We successively look at Historicism, the schools of disequibrated growth, and radical economic geography. In the latter part of the section, we also turn to recent contributions in Cultural Political Economy which can be considered as bringing a new dimension to regional development analysis, e.g. by distinguishing different dimensions of cultural practice, important to fulfilling a structural realist perspective.

3.1 *Historicism and territorial development*

The German Historical School has been the basis of the development of 20th century economic growth and development theory.^{vii} GHS contributions to a better understanding of the *Nazionalökonomie* and the various analyses of the stages of economic growth have had a major impact on later national and regional development theory and analysis. However, post WW II 'stages of growth' theory can only be indirectly connected to the German Historical School, mainly because the German literature was not well-known to Rostow and others, and also because of the influence of the British classical school on the

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2
3 rise of the 'stages of economic growth' analyses which transformed the reading of
4 historical development into a time-series record of economic growth performance
5 indicators (HOSELITZ, 1960). A significant difference between the GHS and the
6 Classical Economists is that the GHS already offered a real theory of economic dynamics
7 (e.g. the idea of cumulative causation) whereas the Classics only provided principles for
8 economic dynamics (such as the role of the changes in the division of labour following
9 Adam Smith) while maintaining the view of an organic tendency towards equilibrium
10 both of the economy and among its agents.^{viii} The GHS contributed to the making of
11 territorial development analysis in the following three ways:
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27 - *The recognition of the growing role of the state and the industrialisation*
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32 Nussbaumer (2002) demonstrates that significant numbers of ideas found in post Second
33 World War literature on local and regional development were already present to some
34 extent in the writings of the German Historical School. For example, the focus on the
35 social dynamics of development, connected to the building of the Nation State from the
36 different German states; social relations between the Nation-state and economic
37 development; and, the culturally embedded socio-economic organisation of economic
38 activities, have all been active features of discussion in the GHS literature.
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51 - *Space as a historical category*
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3 Gustav Schmoller's writings (1884; 1905) have applied historical embeddedness to
4 spatial analysis. Using an anthropological perspective, he showed how society
5 appropriated space through the development of institutions that organise it according to
6 the needs of the population. In other words: spatial institutions materialise the social
7 relations that are developed in a community. Therefore, the evolution of needs and the
8 economic system implies a transformation of the institutional configuration of space. The
9 relative importance of institutional levels varies according to their relevance for the
10 development of the (regional, local) community. However institutional evolution is not
11 uniformly harmonious but produces conflicts. Power relations, both within and between
12 institutions, form part of a dialectical movement. The interrelations between economic
13 actors illustrate the political dimension of development; for instance those who try to
14 influence policies by integrating town councils, and political powers that try to orient and
15 promote economic activities. Space, considered from the perspective of its appropriation
16 through (re)institutionalization, is embedded in the movement of history.

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39 - *Spatial and territorial approach*
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43 The GHS territorial approach to development was mainly developed by Gustav
44 Schmoller. He showed how competition and cooperation within and between institutions
45 are important in creating opportunities for political intervention and for interaction
46 between political action and the transformation of the economic system. This idea, linked
47 to the emphasis on the combination of development factors necessary to generate
48 development and the recognition that social relations within a group or community are
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3 part of the development process, leads to an analysis of development that links market
4 mechanisms to social interaction.
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10 The contributions of the GHS have had a remarkable influence on the development of
11 later theories of regional endogenous development. Especially, its methodological
12 contributions such as the interactive analysis of causality and its significant impact on
13 methodological collectivism show its affinities with structural realism. And it has also
14 had an impact as one of the pillars of the Regulation Approach (VILLEVAL, 1995)
15 which we deal with in section 3.3.2.
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24 25 26 27 *3.2 Embedded regional development and cumulative disequilibrium*

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29 In the 1960s (or late 1950s) the simultaneous discovery of the difficulties of development
30 in the South and of regional and local problems of development in industrialised
31 countries due to massive transformation of the industrial system (HIRSCHMAN, 1984),
32 highlighted the significance of spatial scales of development and their diversified
33 political and economic dynamics.
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43 However, it would be illusionary to think that a smooth inter-paradigmatic path of
44 scientific progress led from the GHS scholars to the spatial development analysts of the
45 1960s. In the first half of the 20th century a rupture in the analysis of spatial development
46 [and location] came with the rise of neoclassical location and central place theory. There
47 were many reasons for this paradigmatic discontinuity, of which we cite only the few
48 most important: (i) US scholars' (who until the Interbellum frequently trained at German
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3 universities) disapproval of German imperial policy – especially under the Nazi regime -
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5 led to a loss of interest in the GHS that was strongly focused on the role of institutions in
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7 general and the State *par excellence*; (ii) the euphoric spread of positivist scientific
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9 methods in social science. Positivist methodology development was invigorated by the
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11 rise of formal location analysis, already present at the end of the 19th century, especially
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13 in Germany, which began to overrule the GHS approach by the second quarter of the 20th
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15 century. We would have to wait till 1980s for a ‘mainstream’ critical realist answer to
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17 the dominant positivist methodology in social science in general, and spatial development
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19 analysis in particular.
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25 Gradually a growing separation occurred between pseudo-classical or neo-classical
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27 location theory and regional growth theory on the one hand, and institutionalism-rooted
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29 regional development theory on the other. The latter includes authors like Myrdal (1957),
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31 Hirschman (1958) but also François Perroux (1955; 1983; 1988). Perroux is especially
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33 remembered for his analysis of the relationships between economic agglomeration on the
34
35 one hand (growth poles within geographical space) and externalities (technological,
36
37 pecuniary) and power relations on the other; his growth pole and regional development
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39 analysis adopts a strong institutional perspective and shows how unevenness in economic
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41 relations is institutionally confirmed, with only well-established public policy being
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43 capable of countering uneven development.
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49 An interesting novel presentation of Myrdal’s work on spatial socio-economic
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51 development is given by Meardon (2001) who argues:
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3 “In sum, Myrdal’s theory of agglomeration was part of a holistic alternative
4 research program. Its main components were a critique of predominant
5 economic theory, the development and interdisciplinary application of the
6 concept of cumulative causation, and the proposal of public policies intended
7 to reduce international, interregional, and even interracial inequalities – all
8 founded upon explicitly stated value premises.” (p. 49).
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20 For our purpose the ‘application’ of Myrdal’s cumulative causation framework to
21 regional and interregional development is of particular interest. He discusses cumulative
22 causation in terms of a tension between backwash and spread effects. He explains how
23 agglomerations often originate as a consequence of either a single or a few economic
24 initiatives (historical accidents) but that their development and dominance over lesser
25 centres is a result of ever increasing internal and external economies in the growth
26 centres. Cultural and political processes play a significant part in this, and the increasing
27 inequality between growth and lesser centres can only be overcome by active and
28 sustained public initiative (MYRDAL, 1957).
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40 The confrontation between these institutionalist regional development analyses and the
41 new regionalism is instructive and shows how the latter has simplified the ‘regional
42 world’ into an agency space combining institutional and economic engineering – far
43 removed from the real spaces of cumulative causation of growth and development in
44 leading regions and localities, where political power-broking and unequal exchange
45 based trade and investment networks play a significant part. This analysis of Myrdal and
46 others also provides arguments explaining why worldwide maybe a thousand rather than
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3 a million TIMs will flourish within the real global world and how successful regions will
4 extort resources (human capital, innovative ideas, finance capital) from less successful or
5
6 poorer regions.^{ix}
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10 11 12 *3.3 Political economy of regional development*^x 13

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15 The political economy of regional development examines the deployment of the relations
16 of production both within and as reproduced by the 'systems of regions'. Two influential
17 analytical frameworks have been developed quasi simultaneously by Doreen Massey
18 (1984) and Lipietz (1977). Both look at the articulation between the (spatial) hierarchy of
19 the division of labour on the one hand and the reproduction of regional inequality on the
20 other. Later contributors such as Markusen (1983) and Hudson (2001) have broadened
21 the concept of social relations and its role in the analysis of the regionalization process
22 and thus attributed more value to non-reductionist interpretations of regional
23 development; and Sum (2006) has valorised the potential of a more culture-enhanced
24 approach to regional development. These and other authors have stressed the need for
25 better articulation of the different social processes through which space is constantly
26 reproduced – and thus de facto executing Lefèbvre's concept (1974) in which he
27 distinguishes between perceived, conceived and lived space and paves the way for a more
28 counter-hegemonic, lived-diversity based approach to spatial development strategies.
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50 51 *3.3.1 The spatial division of labour* 52

53 In his book 'Le capital et son espace', Alain Lipietz (1977) develops a Marxist theory of
54 regional development. It combines an explanation of the regional inequality problem in
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3 terms of the condition of the rural economy in France with a spatial division of labour
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5 model of manufacturing and service activities across the space-economy. To do so
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8 Lipietz analyses 'interregionality' ("les rapports qui s'établissent entre régions
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10 inégalement développées au sein d'une zone d'intégration articulée en circuits de
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12 branches desservant un marché unique", p. 84) on the basis of the flows or circuits of the
13
14 branches of production. For this purpose he examines the articulation between
15
16 'pre'capitalist relations of production – especially as materialised in traditional
17
18 agriculture – and the capitalist relations of production as expressed in manufacturing
19
20 [especially fordist] branches of production. Lipietz analyses explicitly both the
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22 development of, and the articulation between, modes of production within the complexity
23
24 of state – capital relations (i.e. the complexity of national social formations, regional
25
26 armatures and the over-arching 'imperialist multinational bloc'). He establishes a
27
28 hierarchical typology of regions: central, intermediary and peripheral. His original
29
30 empirical basis for this work is the spatial development of industry in relation to
31
32 agriculture in France; later he completes his analysis using evidence from the regional
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34 development of the service sector, which he considers as a further though partial
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36 expression of the permanent laws of capital accumulation (concentration, agglomeration
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38 of capital, deskilling of direct producers, etc.) and which he links to the deskilling
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40 industrialisation of metropolitan regions both internally and at their peripheries
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42 (LIPIETZ, 1980: 68).
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50 Doreen Massey's analysis of divisions of labour and the reproduction of uneven spatial
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52 development in the UK has strong parallels with Lipietz's in France. Massey (1984: 67):
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3 “If the social is inextricably spatial and the spatial impossible to divorce from
4 its social construction and content, it follows not only that social processes
5 should be analysed as taking place spatially but also that what have been
6 thought of as spatial patterns can be conceptualised in terms of social
7 processes. [...] The primary social process which the geography of jobs
8 reflects is production. The spatial distribution of employment, therefore, can be
9 interpreted as the outcome of the way in which production is organised over
10 space.”
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24 Then Massey develops the argument that the social relations of production are necessarily
25 deployed in space and in a variety of forms, which she calls spatial structures of
26 production. Such spatial structures, although often similar across social spaces, should
27 never be considered as archetypes, deterministically reproduced through the reproductive
28 dynamics of capitalism. Instead the geographical forms of the organisation of production
29 should be examined empirically. In capitalist production systems two distinct types of
30 hierarchies quite often overlap and reinforce each other: (i) the managerial hierarchy –
31 comparable to Hymer’s (1972) control structure linking headquarters to subsidiaries and
32 branch plants; (ii) the hierarchy of the production process itself with R&D (often)
33 separated from it; and the production process itself consisting of the production of
34 technically more complex components (engineering) as well as the final assembly of
35 commodities. Massey stresses that, in most cases, a country’s national economic
36 geography – perceived as the ensemble of geographical forms of the organisation of the
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3 economy – “reflects its position in the international political economy, the international
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5 division of labour” (p. 82-83).
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8 Both Lipietz and Massey keep underlining that the reproduction of social space is not a
9
10 one-way causal outcome of the organisation and reproduction of the capitalist production
11
12 system. Massey: “Spatial structures are established, reinforced, combated and changed
13
14 through political and economic strategies and battles on the part of managers, workers
15
16 and political representatives” (p. 85) Political struggle will ultimately determine these
17
18 forms. However national territories and their spatial organization significantly reflect the
19
20 unevenness embedded in the corporate hierarchies, be it manufacturing firms (HUDSON,
21
22 2001) or service providers and their networks (MARTINELLI and MOULAERT, 1993).
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24 But the material outcome of this use of space will ultimately depend on capital-labour
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26 relations within the regional system, the strength of the unions and the strength of the
27
28 class-balance of the State apparatus.
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36 37 *3.3.2 Cultural and socio-political dimensions of regional development*

38 Observe that these analyses of regional development, although attaching significant
39
40 importance to social relations and regulation (especially by the State), *still employ an*
41
42 *economic interpretation of social relations and their spatial forms.* Later work, often
43
44 influenced by Lefèbvre (1974), such as the regulationist analysis of spatial development
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46 (LEBORGNE and LIPIETZ, 1990; MOULAERT, SWYNGEDOUW and WILSON,
47
48 1988; MOULAERT and SWYNGEDOUW, 1989; MOULAERT, 1995) and gender and
49
50 diversity literature (see e.g. BLUNT and WILLS, 2000) broadens the whole idea of social
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52 relations in space, and shows how different conceptions of space lead to a better
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3 understanding of regional development, its potential opportunities and how these feed
4 into the development paths and visions of past and present.
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8 Lefèbvre's generic work on the production of (social) space has had a determining
9 influence on spatial analysis across most disciplines. In his Marxist approach to space,
10 Lefèbvre contrasts perceived, conceived and lived space and addresses the spatial
11 character of each of them by distinguishing spatial practices, representations of space,
12 and representational spaces. Although he stresses the relations of production and their
13 spatial deployment when applying these trialectics to capitalist society, his approach,
14 more than that of Lipietz and Massey, leaves all doors open to look beyond 'abstract'
15 space created by capitalist dynamics, and to include [other than production] social
16 relations, representations of space and representational spaces involved in the
17 reproduction of society and the interaction between hegemonic and counter-hegemonic
18 movements. However, Lefèbvre never breaks the links between production relations and
19 other social relations in society.
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39 In recent years several contributions to regional development analysis have used a
40 broader perspective on social relations, addressing their diversity and their cultural as
41 well as structural dimensions. We cite four contributions in particular:
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48 - Markusen's (1983) work on Regionalism and Regional Development: Markusen
49 explains how territorially defined regions are relevant to political economists when
50 conflicts in social relations of production are perceived as regional conflicts by the actors
51 involved. She calls this perception *regionalism*, "the espousal of a territorial claim by
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3 some social group”, or in the case of a political movement “the political claim of a
4 territorially identified group of people against one or several mechanisms of the State...”
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7 Although ‘regionalism’ for Markusen is clearly a subjective and experiential term, it can
8 also refer to objective social dynamics that cause territorial differences in social
9 formations. In this way it may refer to the different social relations and institutions which
10 embody or govern relationships within the human community: the household, the State,
11 and cultural institutions.
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14 Because the term *region*, warns Markusen, “connotes a territorial, not social, entity,” its
15 use can lead to a number of epistemological (including conceptual) errors. First, region
16 might be confused with all social relations that are territorially based. As such, a class
17 conflict or a conflict between cultural groups might be wrongly perceived as a conflict
18 between regions (Markusen gives a number of examples). Second, it is probable that the
19 existing territorially defined regions (state, cultural identity, natural habitat, etc.) are only
20 partially relevant to the spatiality of the social relations determining the dynamics of
21 social reality in the region.
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23
24 Although Markusen explains very well how territorially defined regions can be an issue
25 in political economy, a regional issue itself can only be fully understood if the spatial
26 expression of the social relations – that is, the spatial organization of which the region
27 forms a part – is fully understood also. Markusen’s framework recognises the diversity of
28 social relations – beyond strict confinement to (social) relations of production – and thus
29 is highly significant for the analysis of the spatial nature of social and economic
30 development within and across regions and localities.
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3 - Gender and Diversity. The inclusion of gender and diversity (using a multi-ethnic
4 perspective for example) together with the role of the wage-labour relationship in the
5 analysis of regional development have enriched the understanding of the role of female
6 and migrant labour in regional labour markets (MASSEY, 1984), the uneven
7 reproduction of patriarchal professional hierarchies (MULLINGS, 2005) and the design
8 of alternative emancipation and spatial development strategies (BLUNT and WILLS,
9 2000).

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22 - Regulation Approach and Local/ Regional Development: The 'territorialization' of the
23 regulationist approach has reinvigorated the debate on the analytical (and strategic)
24 weaknesses of regulation theory and contributed to overcoming them (LEBORGNE and
25 LIPIETZ, 1990; MOULAERT, SWYNGEDOUW and WILSON, 1988; MOULAERT
26 and SWYNGEDOUW, 1989; MOULAERT, 1995; PECK, 1996; PECK and TICKELL,
27 1992). Reformulating regulationism, after a refreshing territorial bath, is meant to enable
28 this at first National Social Formation oriented analytical framework to address regional
29 development. The revisited regulationist approach includes: (i) an articulated time-space
30 approach to subsequent modes of development and their concrete forms; (ii) a greater
31 focus on the impact of non-economic structural dynamics on regional and local
32 development; (iii) the broadening of the reading of regulatory dynamics from 'pure
33 economic' and 'state agency' to different types of formal and informal regulation; (iv)
34 redefining the role of agency and behavioural codes within the broader definition of
35 institutional dynamics; (v) a reading of social reproduction at the local and regional level
36 which is both extensive and respecting of diversity, and is in tune with recent insights on
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3 the role of culture, gender and diversity in spatial development strategies,
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5 institutionalization and structural transformations; (vi) the recognition of power relations
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7 together with social and political struggle as critical analytical categories in regulation
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9 theory (MOULAERT, 2000). These improvements to the Regulationist Approach within
10
11 the territorial regulationist approach resonate with most of the concerns about the one-
12
13 track approach of political economy, i.e. overemphasis on the determinist explanatory
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15 power of the social relations of production, and how to overcome them, and also several
16
17 of the concerns of a structural-realist approach to regional development analysis. Not
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19 covered in this corrigendum, however, is the role of discourse both in reproducing culture
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21 and as a 'real' strategy, which has been a concern of the cultural political economy
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23 approach to socio-economic development, but also addresses the cultural concerns of the
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25 realist approach.
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34 - Cultural Political Economy and Discourse: Recent work on the relationships between
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36 Culture, Discourse, Identity and Hegemony (CDIH) has laid the foundations for an
37
38 improved integration of two analyses: the analysis of social and cultural embedding of
39
40 agency and the social construction of institutional change (the 'pure' cultural turn in
41
42 social science) as well as the more 'structural-materialist' social science analysis
43
44 stressing the historical specificity and material effectivity of economic categories and
45
46 practices as applied by e.g. the Regulation Approach or the Strategic-Relational
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48 Approach (SUM, 2006; 2005; JESSOP, 2001; JESSOP and SUM, 2006; SUM and
49
50 JESSOP, 2007). According to Sum (2006) "The CDIH model [within the cultural
51
52 political economy approach] seeks to develop a more balanced approach that pays due
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3 attention to the material-discursive nature of social relations, albeit based on a more open
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5 conception of social structure (SMART, 1986; FAIRCLOUGH, 1992; JESSOP, 1990;
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7 GIBSON-GRAHAM, 1996), as well as to the strategic-discursive moment that is
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9 associated with the textual or semiotic aspects of social relations and their emergent
10
11 properties.” (p. 6). Over the last few years Cultural Political Economy (CPE) approaches
12
13 have enriched regional development analysis by focusing on the role of discourse and
14
15 identity-building in defining regional and urban policy and interpreting ‘histories’ of
16
17 regions and cities. The most promising of these applications are based on the integration
18
19 of critical discourse analysis into variants of the regulation approach that retain strong
20
21 residual elements of the Marxist critique of political economy. In this way, CPE takes the
22
23 cultural turn, with its emphasis on discursive-strategic questions, in the analysis of socio-
24
25 economic development without sacrificing the lessons of a materialist-structural analysis
26
27 of the historically specific socio-economic dynamics of capitalist economies. Following
28
29 Sum (2005) this integration examines the development of economic imaginaries and
30
31 associated *grand narratives* at various *interlocked spatial scales*; and also explores how
32
33 these imaginaries and narratives facilitate the emergence and consolidation of not only
34
35 hegemonic systems (of which they are also an important moment) but also of counter-
36
37 hegemonic movements. Economic imaginaries involve spatio-temporal horizons of action
38
39 and are institutionalized in specific spatio-temporal matrices and, as such, have major
40
41 implications for spatial development. In particular, they have a significant impact on how
42
43 regulation and strategic agency are reproduced at the regional and local level. Moreover,
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45 the modes by which grand discourses are reproduced via struggles at the *global and*
46
47 *national scales* are highly relevant in coming to grips with the role of discourse in
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3 reproduction and accumulation at the local and regional level. Interesting illustrations of
4 this approach are Hajer (1995), Sum (2002) on Hong Kong, Gonzalez (2005 and 2006)
5 for the Basque Country and Bilbao (Northern Spain), Raco (2003) on Scotland, McGuirk
6 (2004) on Sydney, and Moulaert et al. (2007) in relation to urban redevelopment policy in
7 Milan, Antwerp, Vienna and Naples.
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18 One could summarize the discussion in section 3 by arguing that the 'objectivation' of
19 social relations, the broadening of their conceptualisation from economic to social and to
20 cultural dimensions as well as their historical and spatial embedding have made a major
21 contribution to the building of a structural-realist methodology for regional development
22 analysis. These analytical merits will be valorised in the next section, where we will work
23 toward a new synthesis in regional development analysis.
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34 **4. Methodological prospects: toward a structural realist synthesis for regional** 35 **development analysis** 36 37

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39 Over the last fifteen to twenty years the literature on regional development and regional
40 development policy has been dominated by the New Regionalism approach and its
41 Territorial Innovation Models, of which the most popular today is the Learning Region.
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43 Although New Regionalism did reintroduce the role of institutional dynamics and path
44 dependency into regional development analysis, unfortunately, its analytical potential
45 soon became constrained by a contemporary reading of the historical and institutional
46 foundations of development, thus reducing path dependency to the reproduction of
47 specific assets and institutions within local and regional communities. At the same time,
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3 the scalar geography of this approach overlaid the role of the local and regional
4 territory at the expense of interdependencies with other spatial scales. By doing so, the
5 opportunities or constraints stemming from globalization were often miscalculated, and
6 the critical role of supra-regional governance – with still currently an important role for
7 the National state – overlooked. As a consequence, TIMs have become idealised icons of
8 development dreams instead of much needed models addressing the politics and policy of
9 the possible (on the latter, see NOVY and LEUBOLT, 2005; SWYNGEDOUW, 2005). It
10 is therefore of critical importance to move beyond new regionalism, and to develop an
11 alternative perspective to regional development that manages to find a solution to most of
12 the analytical shortcomings mentioned in the earlier sections of this paper. As explained
13 in the introduction, we have opted for a structural realist approach to establish this
14 perspective.

34 *4.1 Beyond New Regionalism*

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36 Before moving on to our methodological synthesis for regional development analysis, we
37 focus on some recent contributions to overcome some of the flaws of New Regionalism
38 models. We address consecutively the approaches of strategic coupling, of social
39 embeddedness and of relational geography.

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41 Coe et al. (2004) explain how the *strategic coupling approach* offers a way out of the
42 localist trap overshadowing new regionalism theories and Territorial Innovation Models:

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53 “Drawing upon a global production networks (GPN) perspective and deriving
54 insights from both the new regionalist and GCC (Global Commodity Chain)
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3 and GVC (Global Value Chain) literatures, our approach focuses on the
4
5 dynamic ‘strategic coupling’ of global production networks and regional
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7 assets, an interface mediated by a range of institutional activities across
8
9 different geographical and organizational scales. Our contention is that
10
11 regional development ultimately will depend on the ability of this coupling to
12
13 stimulate processes of value creation, enhancement and capture.” (p. 469)
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20 Notwithstanding the fact that the strategic coupling approach offers a major corrigendum
21
22 to the most localist among the TIMs, it is not really as successful as it pretends in
23
24 analysing regional development as a set of relational processes. Although we support a
25
26 process view of regional development, in our opinion processes involve more than
27
28 relational dynamics as they have been analysed in the relational geography approach.
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31 Two other recent contributions from (economic) geography have scrutinised ‘spatial’
32
33 relationships in development. The ‘*social embeddedness*’ approach attempts to bypass
34
35 the limits of territorial embeddedness – often implicitly assumed in many TIMs. Hess
36
37 (2004) seeks to do so by illuminating the concept of ‘embeddedness’; first by explaining
38
39 the evolution of embeddedness in Karl Polanyi’s work and then moving on to
40
41 Granovetter’s distinction between relational and structural embeddedness, with “the
42
43 former describing the nature or quality of dyadic relations between actors, while the latter
44
45 refers to the network structure of relationships between a number of actors” (p. 170-171).
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50 Two observations should be made on Hess’ synthesis of the ‘rescaled’ embeddedness
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52 approach: it overcomes the local scale bias of embeddedness in a positive way (social
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54 embeddedness occurs at related spatial scales); but unfortunately it clings to an
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‘interactive’ interpretation of social structure – in fact it uses a definition of social structure as ‘interactively constructed’, not historically and ‘societally’ reproduced.

A similar observation can be made about Yeung’s (2005) critical survey article on relational economic geography which is both illuminating and debate provoking. Yeung – inspired by Jessop (2001) – rightly points out that the recent relational turn in economic geography is mainly a thematic one and that an ontological-epistemological relational turn is still to come. He connects the recent popularity of relational thought in economic geography partially to the analytically limited (presumed) structural determinism of Social Relations of Production (and Spatial Division of Labour; see section 3.3.1 above) that leaves little room to analyse mid-range institutionalisation and micro-agency. He compares three recent thematic turns in relational geography: (i) regional and local development as a function of synergised relational assets; (ii) relational embeddedness in networks; (iii) relational scales. (i) coincides largely with the theoretical approach used in the New Regionalism/TIM approach while (ii) matches the ‘social embeddedness’ line of analysis summarised and revisited by Hess. But (iii) in our opinion offers a misunderstanding of the meaning of the scalar articulation approach. Swyngedouw, Peck, Brenner etc. do not offer a relational geography approach – at least not in the interactive interpretation of relationality which Yeung attributes to these authors – but make a successful attempt to overcome the scale problem of the reproduction of social relations in space (see especially SWYNGEDOUW, 1997). To do so, they improve mainly on the territorialized version of the *Regulation Approach* which, although it provides the analytical key to the spatial articulation approach, strangely enough is not mentioned in Yeung’s article. This observation is not just hair splitting, but points to a significant

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3 distinction between the meanings of 'relationality' in the different 'relational turns'
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5 examined by Yeung. Indeed, for the authors of the scalar articulation approach,
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8 relationality refers to social relations in the political economy meaning of the term, and
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10 not to interactive dynamics as meant in both the new regionalism or social embeddedness
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12 thematic turn. A real 'methodological' relational turn should clarify this distinction, as it
13
14 should also clarify the distinction in relationality between objects and as social processes.
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17 In the Political Economy and the Regulation Approach for example, social relations are
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19 not relations between objects but are social processes that are historically and spatially
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21 articulated. In consequence, they cannot be changed as a rule through the action of
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23 individual actors but through social forces such as (counter) hegemonic movements,
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25 institutionalisation processes, cultural upturns,... And they are different ontologically and
26
27 epistemologically from the type of relationality studied in mainstream network analysis.
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30 More careful study is needed therefore of the types of relationality that are relevant to
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32 economic geography.
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39 *4.2 Towards a meta-theory for regional development analysis*

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41 To re-equilibrate the framework of regional development analysis, a return is necessary
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43 to the 'old' interpretation of institutional dynamics and structural relations. But to lead a
44
45 comprehensive analysis of regional development these [rediscovered] structures as time-
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47 and-place robust institutions and mediated social structures should be combined with an
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49 interactionist view of relations between 'development' agents, the specificity of their
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51 agency and a cultural perspective on their agency and institutionalization. Keeping in
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53 mind the concerns of the SR approach presented in section 1, this synthesis can best be
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3 achieved by starting from a meta-theoretical framework as suggested by Storper and
4 Walker (1983) and Moulaert (1987). Such a framework is based on a social ontology that
5 includes 'empowered' structural relations in which the capitalist relations of production
6 are dominant, but where 'other' social relations are part and parcel of the social process.
7
8 This ontology comes quite close to that of the Regulation Approach – sometimes
9 designated as a meta-theory by itself. However, as pointed out in section 3.3.2, the
10 Regulation Approach misses several cultural dimensions and fails to recognise the
11 relative autonomy of social relations in space-and-place. In addition it is poor in dealing
12 with the social and cultural dynamics of agency and its micro-networks. We therefore
13 argue here that to achieve an appropriate framework for regional development analysis, a
14 number of 'open' theories fitting or fittable to the SR approach could be brought together.
15
16 Open theories, can be considered as theories that denominate a limited number of
17 structures, institutions or typical agencies, but do not provide specific theorisation of the
18 causalities or relations between the objects they host. They can be combined into a meta-
19 theoretical synthesis, with a shared social ontology. The synthesis we defend here
20 combines an Empowered Network Perspective (MOULAERT and CABARET, 2006)
21 with a 'Culturalised' Regulation Perspective – an integration of a Regulation Approach
22 with a Cultural Political Economy perspective (JESSOP and SUM, 2006; MOULAERT
23 et al., 2007). Together, these offer a meta-theoretical framework that could host various
24 contributions from old and new institutional and political economy approaches to
25 regional development.
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30 Our support for this meta-theoretical integration is based on our agreement with relational
31 (socio) economic geography that relationality has many dimensions: interaction,
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3 embeddedness and scalar articulation; at the same time our endeavour is a reaction
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5 against the ‘networkish’ interpretation of relationality inherent in most relational
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7 geography applications, which stress the central role of agents as architects of networks
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9 and their institutions while overlooking the role of structural relations – as processes – in
10
11 the reproduction of agency networks and their institutions. To calibrate this reaction, we
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13 appeal to a Regulation Approach but one upgraded from a Cultural Political Economy
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15 perspective, as argued in section 3. This allows us to bring structural relations and power
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17 into the network metaphor, i.e. to empower network theory. Figure 1 here and the
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19 subsequent discussion reflect how a meta-theoretical foundation can be established.
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28 INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE
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33 Starting from a detailed reading of network analysis in evolutionary economics and
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35 organizational sociology, Moulaert and Cabaret (2006) argue that using the network
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37 metaphor as a concept for analysing real-life situations as basically the interaction
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39 between agents and the resulting outcomes, is a logical intellectual ambition:
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45 “Human life, organizations and agencies are based on interactions between human
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47 beings that are to a large extent networked amongst themselves. Agents
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49 (individuals, organizations) develop and share cultures, modes of communication,
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51 principles of (network) action and ways of building institutions. These institutions
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53 will of course not just be the outcome of voluntary institutional engineering
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55 within the networks, but will also depend on the interaction between the network
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3 dynamics, the network environment and the development paths of the society and
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5 communities to which the network belongs. Thus network theory is useful in
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7 modelling strategies and policy actions in regional and local development.” (p.
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9 54).
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15 Better than ‘structural’ social theories, the network metaphor, by looking at cognitive
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17 processes, the role of network culture and the production of discourse, offers a natural
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19 link to cultural political economy. However, most current network theories defend
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21 reductionist rational approaches to human behaviour (for a critique, see
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23 HADJIMICHALIS and HUDSON, 2006), stress the role of procedures in information
24
25 gathering, exchange and institution building but deal very poorly with social structures,
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27 power and power-relations. To overcome this weakness, Regulation Theory can step in.
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34 Although Regulation Theory, like Marxism, primarily looks at economic (strategic)
35
36 behaviour, its theorising of social and political structure as social relations focused on
37
38 power relations and institution building as a social process, is relevant to ‘empowering
39
40 networks’ within society. Similarly, property relations, labour-capital relations, finance
41
42 capital, the State as an extended logic of capital, etc. play a direct role in most networks
43
44 embedded in the socio-economic world. In network terminology, this means that
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46 stakeholders hold significantly unequal stakes, the decision-making space is limited or
47
48 uneven, and, in extreme cases, the outcome of negotiation processes is known
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50 beforehand, because the structural-institutional impact of the logic of capital and politics
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52 is so influential. By using the embeddedness approach of Polanyi and Granovetter, we
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3 could not only embed the network analysis of strategic behaviour and policy making by
4 leading regional and local agents within the Regulationist Approach of social relations,
5 but also use that approach to study the reproduction of the economic, political, social and
6 cultural structures of the region and its localities (MOULAERT and SWYNGEDOUW,
7 1989).

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18 These structures – together with the networks embodying their micro-dynamics – then
19 become ‘encultured’, under the Cultural Political Economy’s revisiting of social analysis
20 by looking at the role of culture, identity and discourse and how they affect social forces
21 and strategic agency. As indicated in section 3 the work of Sum (2005, 2006) in
22 particular has been bridge-building in this respect. Inspired by Jessop (1990) and Anglo-
23 Foucauldian theorists such as Rose and Miller (1992) and Dean (1999), Ngai-Ling Sum
24 has designed a heuristic device that links the macro and micro processes – especially
25 stressing the role of discourse - of hegemony and counter-hegemony making. In six inter-
26 related moments that highlight the discursive dimensions of social relations and
27 individual and collective agency, she provides the concepts necessary to analyse the
28 relationship between ‘real’ and ‘cultural’ articulation via the examination of struggles
29 involved in the material-discursive practices of everyday life. As shown in cited case-
30 studies (section 3) this adds real value to the understanding of culture and discourse in
31 regional and local development and policy.

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53 As explained before we label the integration tripod of network theory, regulation
54 approach and cultural political economy as a ‘meta theoretical framework’ because it
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3 provides a social ontology and epistemology for spatial development analysis, but does
4
5 not expand the specific theories that shed light on the various dimensions and questions
6
7 of regional and local development. To this end, we should return to the survey of theories
8
9 in sections 2 and 3 which offer specific intelligence on each of these dimensions: e.g.
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11 Myrdal on economic and political factors and mechanisms of centre-periphery relations,
12
13 Hirschman on the significance of political processes in regional development, Lipietz on
14
15 the links between the reproduction of economic structure and the State apparatus,
16
17 Markusen on the role of social and political movements in the regionalization process;
18
19 and many others. Looking at these theories within this newly defined triangular field of
20
21 ‘social relations – networks of agents – cultural dynamics’ may offer a wind of change –
22
23 yet one redolent of the prickling dust of historical manuscripts that are badly needed
24
25 today but have rested for too long on library shelves – in addressing regional
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27 development and policy.
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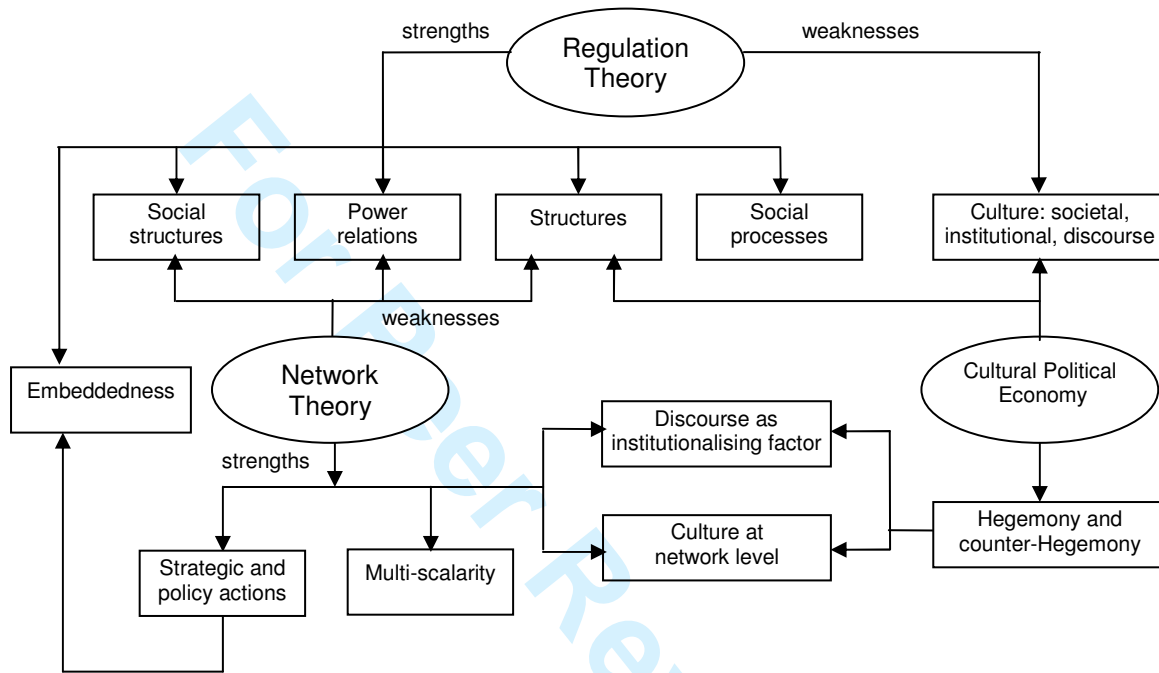
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Table 1 Views of innovation in territorial innovation models

Model	Milieu innovateur (Innovative milieu) (MI)	Industrial District (ID)	Regional Innovation Systems (RIS)	New Industrial Spaces
Features of innovation				
Core of innovation dynamics	Capacity of a firm to innovate through the relationships with other agents of the same milieu	Capacity of actors to implement innovation in a system of common values	Innovation as an interactive, cumulative and specific process of research and development (path dependency).	A result of R&D and its implementation; application of new production methods (JIT, etc.)
Role of institutions	Very important role of institutions in the research process (university, firms, public agencies, etc.)	Institutions are "agents" and enabling social regulation, fostering innovation and development	As in the NIS, the definitions vary according to authors. But they all agree that the institutions lead to a regulation of behaviour, both inside and outside organisations	Social regulation for the co-ordination of inter-firm transactions and the dynamics of entrepreneurial activity
Regional development	Territorial view based on " <i>milieux innovateurs</i> " and on agent's capacity of innovating in a co-operative atmosphere	Territorial view based on spatial solidarity and flexibility of districts. This flexibility is an element of this innovation	View of the region as a system of "learning by interacting/ and by steering regulation "	Interaction between social regulation and agglomerated production systems
Culture	Culture of trust and reciprocity links	Sharing values among ID agents - Trust and reciprocity	The source of "learning by interacting"	Culture of networking and social interaction
Types of relations among agents	The role of the support space: strategic relations between the firm, its partners, suppliers and clients	The network is a social regulation mode and a source of discipline. It enables a coexistence of both co-operation and competition	The network is an organisational mode of "interactive learning"	Inter-firm transactions
Types of relations with the environment	Capacity of agents in modifying their behaviour according to the changes in their environment. Very 'rich' relations: third dimension of support space	The relationships with the environment impose some constraints and new ideas. Must be able to react to changes in the environment. 'Rich' relations. Limited spatial view of environment	Balance between inside specific relations and environment constraints. 'Rich' relations	The dynamics of community formation and social reproduction

Figure 1 A meta-theoretical synthesis for regional development analysis: Regulation, Network and CPE approaches



Endnotes

ⁱ This paper does deal with regional development, not regional growth theories. Although there exist affinities between both analytical traditions, we have no space to deal with both and we prefer to address the more ‘quality features’ oriented development theories. As a consequence we will for example not present the debate on/between New Economic Geography and regional endogenous growth models (see e.g. FUJITA, KRUGMAN and VENABLES, 1999).

ⁱⁱ Andrew Sayer has summarised the realist scientific-philosophical approach as having the following features: (a) the world exists independently of our knowledge of it; (b) our knowledge of the world is pre-informed but also imperfect; (c) “Knowledge develops neither wholly continuously, as the steady accumulation of facts within a stable conceptual framework, nor wholly discontinuously, through simultaneous and universal changes in concepts.” (p. 5) (d) objects (natural or social) have particular causal powers or ways of acting and particular susceptibilities; (e) “The world is differentiated and stratified, consisting not only of events, but objects, including structures, which have powers and liabilities capable of generating events.” [...] (f) “Social phenomena such as actions, texts and institutions are concept dependent” (p. 6) [...] (g) “Science or the production of any other kind of knowledge is a social practice. For better or worse (not just worse) the conditions and social relations of the production of knowledge influence its content. Knowledge is also largely – though not exclusively – linguistic, and the nature of language and the way we communicate are not incidental to what is known as communicated. Awareness of these relationships is vital in evaluating knowledge.”; (h) “Social science must be critical of its object” [...] (p. 6)

ⁱⁱⁱ Contemporary debates on New Regionalism take different directions, especially following criticisms of the neglect of articulation among spatial scales and their consequences for economic policy. We have reserved the term ‘New Regionalism’ for the original spatially disarticulated models, preferring to refer to the spatially articulated models as ‘Beyond New Regionalism’. – see section 4.1. Neither do we address the political science literature on New Regionalism (see e.g. KEATING, 1998). Although we believe that Markusen’s Regionalism concept (section 3.3.2) could play a significant role there.

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^{iv} This section has been reproduced and extended from Moulaert and Nussbaumer (2005). Copyright granted by SAGE Publications.

^v For details see Moulaert, Sekia and Boyabé (1999).

^{vi} For more details see Moulaert, Sekia and Boyabé, op. Cit. See also MacKinnon, Cumbers and Chapman (2002) who among other critical observations point out how the learning region model underemphasises the articulation among spatial scales in learning dynamics.

^{vii} The GHS also played a significant role in the genesis of location theory; this is not developed here. See Nussbaumer (2002).

^{viii} We should also keep in mind that the theory of stages of economic growth also had an influence on Lösch's theory of system of regions (LÖSCH 1938).

^{ix} See also Williams et al. (2004) on the relationship between migration flows and uneven development in contemporary Europe.

^x We selected these two authors because their focus is regional compared to other authors from the 1970s working in radical political geography *and* their analysis fits best the trajectory leading to the structural-realist synthesis in regional development analysis, which we pursue. If we had to further extend this methodological exercise we would certainly make use of Dunford (1988) and Harvey (1982)