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Cluster Policies in Bulgaria: European integration, post socialist dynamics, and local level initiatives.

Abstract

This paper investigates public policies aimed at developing industrial clusters in Bulgaria by looking at initiatives at supernational, national and local levels. It argues that cluster policies have been paths shaping actions in the postsocialist transformation of Bulgaria. In doing so, it explores answers to the following research questions: What are the connections between policy implementation, institutional changes, and economic transformation at the national and local levels in Bulgaria? What is the role of the European Union in shaping these changes? What is the role of local actors in shaping the policies and development trends within one specific cluster? Through the analysis of government policies, data, and empirical research, this paper shows how different groups (foreign consultants, local elites, and national administrators) have understood the concepts of 'clusters' and 'industrial districts' in different ways, then used these concepts as a tool to access foreign resources. In doing so, it highlights both similarities and differences in cluster policies at the three scale levels considered.

Keywords: Industrial clusters, Bulgaria, post-socialism, European Union.

1 Introduction

It is well known that ensuring 'regional competitiveness' has become a policy priority in both the developed and developing world, one of the most sought after ways to foster regional competiveness is the development of 'industrial clusters.' Policy makers have attempted to strengthen these "dense concentrations of interdependent small and medium enterprises in a single sector and in auxiliary industries and services" (Dunford: 2006, p. 27). In postsocialist Europe, cluster policies acquired a peculiar quality as instruments of transition from planned to market economy. Specifically, in Bulgaria policy makers and foreign donors have organized meetings and conferences on the development of industrial clusters, such as the *National Seminar on the Development of Clusters in Bulgaria* (National Seminar: *electronic document*). Furthermore, policy projects emerging from these meetings have received media coverage (*Sofia News Agency*, 11-12-2004). The increased attention led entrepreneurs to develop organizations aimed at strengthening clusters. For example,

Bulgarian ICT Cluster provides a "platform for open exchange of information and ideas equally accessible to both small and big companies, and young and experienced professionals" (Bulgarian ICT Cluster: *Electronic Document*).

This paper investigates the public policy dimension of clusters in Bulgaria, looking at policy initiatives at the transnational (EU), national and local levels. It analyzes the ways in which cluster policies are enacted in a particular context by real actors who both conceptualize and implement these policies. It argues that policies are paths shaping actions in the development of Bulgarian districts. In doing so, the authors suggest that the interactions between the decisions of firms and institutions (the government, but also entrepreneurial associations, NGOs and financial institutions) must be taken into account when analyzing the development of Bulgarian districts. Specifically, the paper explores answers to the following research questions: What are the connections between policy implementation, institutional changes, and economic transformation at the national and local levels in Bulgaria? What is the role of the European Union in shaping these changes? What is the role of local actors in shaping the policies and development trends within one specific cluster?

To provide answers, the paper draws on empirical research conducted in 2005-2006, consisting of twenty eight, semi-structured, elite interviews with government officials, opinion leaders, and business managers or owners. The research snowballed from an initial contact with an NGO to local firms in Rousse. First, the authors interviewed the Foundation for Entrepreneurship Development (FED), an NGO specialising in small business, local economic development and public administration development research, consultancy and training, monitoring and evaluation (FED *electronic document*). FED provided the initial

overview of cluster policies in Bulgaria and contacts with the national level government officials, who were working on cluster policies. These officials informed us that they developed some projects with foreign partners. The authors interviewed one of these partners – in the Italian embassy – to acquire independent information. FED also helped to choose Rousse as a case study: the city of Rousse had been the first cluster officially recognized by the Bulgarian government, and among the first quoted in the media (*Dnevnik a.m.* 04-29-2004). In Rousse the authors interviewed local officials and an NGO involved in the development of the cluster: the Business Support Center, BSC Rousse (BSC *electronic document*). BSC Rousse provided contacts for interviews with ten local entrepreneurs.

Building on information from the interviews, a three stage narrative is developed. First, the literature on industrial districts is reviewed, focusing on the innovation and policy dimension of the districts. Second, the interactions between supernational (EU) and national level policy initiatives on cluster development in Bulgaria are analyzed. Third, the initiatives of the local elite in one specific cluster in the textile and clothing sector – the city of Rousse in Northern Bulgaria - are considered. In the end, an argument emerges that cluster policies in Bulgaria are understood differently from the ones developed in Brussels. EU officials have been aiming primarily at fostering cutting edge innovation to compete with the US. Bulgarian officials have been using cluster policies primarily to attract resources from foreign donors, allowing them to use clusters as a tool for economic reconstruction. Such a shift of emphasis allows this paper to problematize the role of innovation in a postsocialist context.

2 Theoretical framework

The literature on clusters/industrial districts emerged in the 1980s, in the aftermath of a world-wide economic recession that led to the crisis of Fordism. While large firms, mass producing standard items, were struggling to stay competitive, networks of small firms were being increasingly successful, thanks to their ability to produce flexibly in small batches. Such networks were usually clustered in specific regions throughout the developed world. Therefore, scholars began to argue that that "there might be something fundamental that linked late 20th-century capitalism to regionalism and regionalization" (Storper 1997, p. 3). A whole literature developed to investigate the mechanisms of flexible production and to apply them to regions very different from one another.

Classic works on flexible production identified the following reasons for the success of clusters/industrial districts: the relation between firms and institutions, the containment of transaction costs, the combination of rivalry and cooperation among firms, and the shared territorial identity and cultural values of each district (Marshall 1919, Piore and Sabel 1984, Scott and Storper 1987, Porter 1990, Becattini 1979, Markusen 1996). Several lines of work developed from these classic explanations of clusters. Among them, two topics are particularly relevant to this paper: first, the focus on innovation and knowledge economies in the literature, and second the scholarly debate on whether or not, and how, policy interventions should attempt to develop industrial clusters.

To this day, the focus on knowledge and innovation remains unchallenged. Scholars analyzed the development of high tech regions, highlighting the virtuous cycles of development between research institutions, companies and infrastructures (Perrin 1993). The two most investigated high tech regions were Silicon Valley and Route 128 in the USA

(Markusen 1986, Saxenian 1994). Even when the focus was on regions specializing in traditional sectors, innovation was considered one of the most important characteristics of the cluster. Works on Italian industrial districts fit into this category (Becattini 2003, Brusco 1986, Rabellotti et al. 2009). Michael Storper broadened the argument about innovation and regions, claiming face to face interactions shape innovation and development and are bred at the local level; therefore, specific regions are characterized by specific trajectories of development (1997). Similarly, Child and Faulkner analyzed the relations between firms from the prospective of interpersonal relationships, noting that firms decide where to locate based on the relations among key individuals (1998). Therefore, sustained social relationships are pivotal to both firms' agglomeration and innovation. A whole literature developed around the concept of social capital, or the "social structure that enable social actions" (Dolfisma 2008: 19), showing that social action happens at multiple levels Granovetter and Swedberg 2001, Bourdieu 1986, Putnam et al. 1993). Specifically, innovation systems depend on social structures encompassing nations, regions, and sectors (Freeman 1987, Nelson 1993, Cooke et al. 2004 Malerba 2004). More recently, evolutionary economics and economic geography have influenced works on innovative clusters in which learning and knowledge are key elements in the change of the economic system (Breschi and Malerba 2005: 3, Martin 2008).

The fascination with Silicon Valley and innovation, and the vision of self sustaining successful regional economies, generated countless initiatives of cluster development (Porter 2007, Wolfe and Gertler 2004). Government agencies at all scales implemented cluster projects: the World Bank, OECD, the EU, and national and regional governments (Lundequist and Power 2002, Wolfe and Gertler 2004, Fromhold-Eisebith and Eisebith

2005). Scholars responded in various ways to policy makers' interest in clusters, from direct involvement in policy making, to utter criticism, to more recent works aimed at improving cluster policies. The latter tested theoretical assumptions and refined methods of analyses.

Policy making and scholarly analyses have been inter-related at least since Michael Porter's work in the early 1990s (Porter 1990). His firm, Monitor Consulting, pioneered cluster studies, and his mapping exercises were important in raising the awareness of policy makers in North America and the European Union (Benneworth et al. 2003: 517, Cumbers and MacKinnon 2006: x, EU Clusters Observatory No date). Several papers were dedicated to 'putting Porter into practice' as scholars attempted to identify the characteristics of successful cluster policies and their dynamic nature (Porter 1998a, 1998b, Hofe and Chen 2006, Lundequist and Power 2002, Amin and Thrift 1994, 1995, Cooke and Morgan 1998). Proponents of cluster policies have highlighted their flexibility, showing that they can be implemented to revitalize old industrial regions, as well as to develop agricultural peripheries in the Global South (Altenberg and Maeyer-Stamer 1999, World Bank 2000). Many economic geographers have argued that their discipline should engage public policy, and especially regional policies (Brusco 1990, Henry et al. 2001, Markusen 2003, Martin, 1999, Peck 1999, Pollard et al. 2000).

Geographers, while engaging policy, have also been overtly critical of the vagueness of the cluster concept and the ambivalence of cluster policies. Analyzing the Welsh economy, John Lovering noticed that concepts such as clusters have become very influential in policy-making to the point of being a "misleading narrative of regional development" (1999: 381). Ann Markusen made similar critiques, labeling industrial districts and clusters "fuzzy concepts" (2003). Martin and Sunley have criticized the cluster approach, stating that

"rather than being a model or theory to be rigorously tested and evaluated, the cluster idea has instead become accepted largely on faith as a valid and meaningful 'way of thinking' about the national economy" (2003: 9). However, they also pointed out that vagueness is also one of the reasons why the idea of clusters is successful among policy makers, because they can "use the idea in different ways to suit their own purposes" (p. 10). Wolfe and Gertler distinguished two lines of cluster research, 'analytical' and 'prescriptive.' While the first aims at providing "insights into the forces that contribute effectively to cluster development," the second approach tends to "work cross-purposes, with the policy goals predetermining the analysis, rather than the other way around" (2004: 1072).

More recent works re-evaluated and improved cluster concepts and policies. Empirical work tested the cluster concept, trying to determine whether or not clustering had positive effects on firms' performances. Findings were not clear cut: Lubinski attributed weak advantages to clustering (2003). Others evaluated the cluster concept more positively (Boschma and Weterings 2005, Angel 2002, Scott 2002, Scott and Storper 2003). All together, these studies brought a broader perspective to the analysis of clusters. They highlighted that infrastructure development, sector level conditions, national policies, and transnational links influence clusters' firms (Keeble and Nachum 2002, Turok 2004, Parr et al. 2002). At the same time, they put less emphasis on the internal dynamics of clusters (Coe and Townsend 1998, Gordon and McCann 2005).

Policy oriented studies benefited from the broader perspective on the role of clusters in regional and national development. Clark, Palaska, Tracey and Tsampra argued that cluster policies should be part of a larger set of development policies tackling regional and national issues (Clark et al. 2004). In some cases, cluster policies proved to be successful;

those polices were structured as ongoing conversations among stakeholders. As a result, stakeholders developed a shared vision of the future of the cluster, while some kind of management implemented it (Lundenquist and Power 2002). Others argued that the most effective cluster policies target human resources and strengthen the pool of skilled knowledge workers (Wolfe and Gertler 2004), and in doing so increase someone's likelihood to become an entrepreneur (Feldman et al 2005: 132).

The above mentioned English language literature on clusters is accompanied by recent developments within other scholarly traditions. In Bulgaria, interest in policies aimed at insuring firms' competitiveness plays an important role in the literature on clusters. In one of the earliest papers on clusters written in Bulgarian, Krasen Stanchev analyzed a World Bank funded project for the establishment of industrial clusters (1998). Later, a team of American and Bulgarian scholars published a paper in English in *Problemy na Geografiiata* - the leading Bulgarian geographical journal (Begg et al. 2005). They compared Haskovo in South Eastern Bulgaria with Emilia Romagna, Italy. They argued that cluster policies constituted too often an attempt to transfer a model that has developed spontaneously in a few key areas of Italy, the USA and Germany without taking into account local specificities and trajectories. However, the majority of literature in Bulgarian language focused on 'importing' the cluster model from abroad. Darina Paylova compared three clusters in the wine sector, two in Italy and one in Chile. In doing so, she aimed at improving the diffusion of know-how among Bulgarian producers (2007). Radeva and Naneva developed a three step model for the identification of industrial clusters, arguing that "identification is the first step in the development of clusters," in other words, identification is the first step for policy interventions (2007: 41). Along similar lines, Kanev and Khristova analyzed both the

processes of development of clusters in Bulgaria and the special features of clusters formally recognized and supported by the government (Kanev and Khristova 2006, Khristova 2006). Indeed, the role of government plays a key role in the Bulgarian literature.

In sum, the focus on innovation in the cluster literature gives strong reasons for practitioners and some academics to advocate for cluster policies. However, some scholars objected to the vagueness and ambivalence of cluster concepts. Thanks to those critiques, the understanding of clusters has changed. In the 1980s and 1990s scholars emphasized local knowledge and local institutional arrangements; more recent work has regarded clusters as open systems within the global economy, often resulting in more effective policies. Most recently, the European Union put in place a framework for cluster policies. The following sections analyze how policy makers in Bulgaria exploited the vagueness of the cluster concepts, reinterpreting and adapting the EU policies to their own local conditions.

3 The supernational level: cluster policies in the EU

Some EU member states have implemented cluster policies for a long time, for example, Italy's Emilia Romagna region had policies aimed at supporting its industrial districts since the 1980s (Brusco 1990). Since the late 1990s the EU itself funded individual clusters projects within the member states and the accession countries through its grant schemes (VICLI no date). However, an EU level cluster strategy was not adopted until 2006, when it became one of nine components of the Union-wide innovation policy (EU Commission 2006). The fascination with the Silicon Valley model of constant endogenous innovation is obvious in official statements of the EU such as the following: "while poorer countries can grow by investing in productive capacity and adopting technology developed

elsewhere, richer countries need to move the productivity frontier and introduce new products, services, or ways to serve customer needs to sustain their prosperity. To this end, clusters can be instrumental" (European Commission 2007: 7). Even more strongly, the EU Cluster memorandum stated that "in modern competition, all clusters must be innovation clusters (High Level Advisory Group on Clusters 2007).

International competition and globalization are explicitly mentioned as reasons why the EU innovation policy was adopted (European Commission 2008: 4). In this regard, the EU cluster strategy and policies are strongly motivated by the US experience. A report of the European Commission stated that "Overall the data analysed shows that Europe lags behind the United States in terms of cluster strength, both from a regional and industry perspective" (European Commission 2007: 12). EU officials lamented that the US had better statistical data on clusters (ibid.). Moreover, the EU decided to fund transnational links among clusters because "clusters in the EU cannot rely merely on the natural forces of agglomeration to attract talent and other assets in the same way, for instance, as US clusters can" (European Commission 2008: 7).

As a part of the effort to promote innovative and competitive clusters, the EU decided to fund the EU clusters observatory, a research center specifically dedicated to the development of statistical methods and mapping tools for clusters (EU Clusters observatory no date1). Mapping provides a tool for policy makers at all levels to identify both the clusters themselves and the needs of policy intervention. In doing so, the EU clusters observatory pushed further national initiatives, such as the pioneering work by Fabio Sforzi and ISTAT to map the Italian districts (Sforzi 1990). At the same time the exercise of mapping clusters has had a deeper significance. Geographers pointed out that mapping is a tool of modernity,

which provides a tangible and 'scientific' representation of space (Pickles 2004). Historically, mapping Europe coincided with claiming it as the space of a superior civilization (Biggs 1999, Wolff 1994). Similarly, today's exercise of mapping clusters makes them 'tangible,' and a legitimate object of policies, as shown by the EU level dynamic electronic maps of clusters now available on the web (EU Observatory no date2).

In sum, in recent years the European Union embraced clusters as a legitimate tool of economic policy by developing policy guidelines and analytical mapping tools. The goal of these policies and tools is straightforward: to promote innovation, to imitate the Silicon Valley across European regions, and to withstand economic competition from the US and other advanced economies.

4 The national level 1: clusters, postsocialism and economic re-development in Bulgaria

Bulgaria implemented cluster policies as a part of a broader effort to join the European Union in 2007. The EU accession criteria demanded democratic institutions and sound market economies; in Bulgaria, cluster policies were one of the tools to build a sound market economy after the collapse of state socialism. Therefore, cluster policies are part of the dramatic changes of post socialist transformation.

The experience of postsocialism makes Bulgaria profoundly different from the core of the European Union. Officials in Brussels conceive the EU as an economic superpower; therefore, they feel cluster policies should ideally imitate the Silicon Valley, promoting cutting edge innovation and helping EU members compete with the US. However, the Silicon Valley model was not the best option for Bulgaria. At the periphery of the European

Union, Bulgaria lost many high tech industries along with Communism. It rebuilt industrial production by importing technology and capital and often shifting towards lower tech manufacturing. Therefore, endogenous development of cutting edge innovation was clearly not the predominant technological regime needed in Bulgarian regions. Bulgarian officials and entrepreneurs had to use clusters differently from how they were understood in Brussels.

In the early to mid 1990s, Bulgaria began a very difficult postsocialist transformation. During that time export markets were lost, prices on the internal market soared, and relations along the supply chains became unreliable (Pickles 1993 and 2002). The social consequences of transition were dramatic, especially in the rural areas, where Bulgarians experienced mass unemployment and disruption of social services and infrastructures (Pickles 1998). International financial institutions blamed slow reforms and persistent State interventionism in the economy for the lack of success of Bulgarian transition (EBRD 1999). However, true reforms came in the late 1990s that brought about a solid economic growth of 4% to 6% per year starting in 1998 (Table 1).

A combination of two issues led to such a shift. First, the prospect of EU membership played a major role. The European Union actively leveraged liberal democratic reforms after Bulgaria signed the pre-accession agreement in June 1995 (Vachudova 2005). In turn, liberal democratic reforms led to stability, improved transparency, and rule of law; those are the preconditions to the attraction of foreign direct investments (IMF 2003: 18; Henisz: 2000). Second, after experiencing a financial crisis, in 1997 a new Bulgarian government reached an agreement with the International Monetary Fund, and comprehensive economic reforms were launched (OECD 1999: 7). The reforms included drastic measures to cut state spending, contain inflation, peg the local currency to the Euro, and open up the economy to foreign

investments. Those reforms were successful, and from 1997 to the financial crisis of 2008 foreign direct investments in Bulgaria grew steadily (Bandelj 2008: 90).

As a consequence of transition, several communities experienced shrinking employment and output in high tech manufacturing, because foreign investments were initially more involved in low tech sectors. For example, the chairman of the Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Rousse told the following story:

There is a factory producing electronics. Until 1989 it employed one thousand people; now it employs only one hundred. There is another factory. ... From 1981 to 1991 they produced systems that control the movement of metal-cutting tools ... which requires a high level of technology. Now they produce a more limited quantity of electro-technical products: lamps, switches and the like. They went through a diminishment in the technological, employment and production levels (Interview Chairman, Rousse Chamber of Commerce and Industry: 2005-11-08).

His experience is related to stories told by foreign investors, such as Miroglio, one of the largest investments in the textile sector in South Eastern Europe:

In Bulgaria and Romania industrial production is developing where foreign capital and know how are coming, at least in the 90% of cases (interview Country Manager, 'Miroglio' 05-17-06).

Very often, the survival of industries depended upon foreign investments, and especially in the early phases of transition, foreign investors were more interested in low tech industries. Not only Bulgaria, but most of Central Eastern Europe received considerable investments in low tech and low wage sectors. The textile and clothing industries provide well researched examples in which foreign investors initially preferred to outsource to low end production and low tech jobs. Only in the late 1990s did they begin to outsource the higher end and more high tech activities (Pickles 2002, Pickles 2006, Pickles et al. 2006).

Indeed, a report of the World Bank argued that post Socialist Europe as a whole needed larger amounts of foreign direct investments in cutting edge sectors (Broadman 2006).

Notwithstanding the World Bank argument and the goals of Brussels, a technological regime based on import of technology is not incompatible with the development of clusters. Literature has analyzed several successful clusters throughout the developing world in which firms imported technology from their buyers: the jeans cluster in Torreon, Mexico, the footwear district of Sinos Valley, Brazil, and the electronics cluster in Taiwan (Bazan and Navas-Aleman 2004, Bair and Gereffi 2001, Guerrieri and Pietrobelli 2004). Therefore, even though Bulgaria was clearly not in the best condition to develop clusters modeled upon Silicon Valley, the Bulgarian government's attempt to strengthen them has not been necessarily misplaced.

<Table 1 here>

The national level **2**: policy processes

Cluster policies developed by the Bulgarian government are a blend of external inputs from the European Union with local experiences and cultural understandings. Specifically, the conceptualization and the resources depended upon the integration into the European Union, while the implementation was influenced by the post socialist experience of local officials. The concept of clusters was first introduced in Bulgaria in the late 1990s when think tanks implemented projects financed by foreign donors (Stanchev 1998). One of those think tanks, the Foundation for Entrepreneurship Development, was active in training state officials on the concept of clusters (Interview chairman of the executive board, FED: 10-26-05). By 2003, the then Minister of the Economy, Lidya Shulieva had begun to show support

for the cluster concept (Interview high level official, Ministry of the Economy and Energy: 05-23-06). Gradually, interest of the national government in cluster policies attracted the stronger involvement of large international donors, specifically the PHARE program from the European Union (now completed) and the United States Aid Agency, USAID. As a result, by 2006, the Ministry of Economy and Energy had established fourteen industrial clusters, and attracted funds from the PHARE program of the European Union to finance development initiatives within the clusters (see table 2 and map 1).

Within the Ministry of Economy and Energy, the Small and Medium Enterprises and Entrepreneurship Department took charge of the so called 'cluster initiatives.' These 'initiatives' consisted of a joint effort of the Ministry, NGOs, branch organizations and foreign donors. In practice, teams of consultants implemented 'cluster initiatives' consisting in two projects financed by the EU sponsored PHARE program: the first was aimed at identifying potential clusters, and the second at financing the clusters themselves (Murray 2005). Overall, this is a top down approach: the Ministry of the Economy and Energy actively promoted the idea of clusters to businesses, while attempting to organize clusters on a bureaucratic basis. A high level official of the Ministry of Economy and Energy described the government's effort as follows:

The topic [of the meetings between the ministry and business representatives] was always the idea of clusters - what are the advantages and requirements in the EU context - and presented the idea as one of the means to increase competitiveness of our firms in the context of the EUAt this point, 'constituted' clusters means that firms met and signed a memorandum of understanding to co-operate in the cluster initiative. 'Potential' cluster means that they are still thinking about it (Interview high level official, Ministry of the Economy: 11-14-05).

In a nutshell, this interview points to an attempt by the ministry to develop a cooperative attitude of some sort within the private sector, which needed to be formalized through

memorandums of understanding in order to access the money provided by the European Union. It also pointed to the EU as the real driver of cluster policies. The grants from EU sponsored programs were presented as much needed resources to allow the Bulgarian economy to prosper in the competitive EU market.

The consequences of the projects were threefold. First, following the objectives of the European Union, clusters were mapped and formally established through memoranda of understanding between the Bulgarian government and the shareholders of each cluster (Table 2 and Map 1). Second, funds from foreign sources were injected in the local economies, aimed at changing both the public and the private sectors in the recipient 'clusters.' Third, the actors involved reworked the very concept of 'cluster' according to their needs and the framework of the post socialist experience.

The injection of funds in the Bulgarian economy achieved more than supporting specific agencies and business associations (see Figure 1 and PHARE 2003 for lists of beneficiaries). Indeed, the implementation of these cluster projects has been part of a broader transformation of local governments. Specifically, the grant writing process seems to be an important agent of change, due to the fact that all these funds are dispersed through grants. The need to make successful applications for these grants has been forcing the recipient agencies in Bulgaria and elsewhere to develop a new kind of profession, namely project managers. Along with these changes, new power relations have emerged within the institutions. A high level State official described these changes as follows:

I worked in this region since 1998. In this period there have been two important changes in the attitude of the administration. First, administrators had to learn that whatever they do with public funds they have to follow the procedures, while in the old days the mayor used to have the final word on the use of public funds, which is not possible anymore, since there are strict procedures to get EU funds. Second, most of the regional authorities understood the need of

having at least one person to manage EU projects (interview Directorate for Technical Cooperation and Management of Regional Plans and Programs of the North Central Region, head, 11-05-2005)

This interview excerpt points to a systematic role of EU funds throughout Eastern Europe that goes way beyond the implementation of single projects. By attaching conditions to the disbursement of the grants, and by forcing the heads of the recipient agencies to be transparent and accountable for the use of their budgets, EU programs are changing the nature of State institutions. In doing so, cluster policies are a small component of a broader trend of post-socialist transformation. While in the 1990s the most visible structures of socialism (namely, the party states and the high level politics) were dismantled, in the 2000s EU funds are changing the less visible, but deeply engrained in society, structure of state bureaucracies.

The reworking of the concept of 'clusters' depended upon cultural understandings developed during the Socialist experience. Particularly many entrepreneurs and state officials involved in cluster policies have drawn a parallel between the old socialist *stopanski obedineniia* (production unions) and the new, capitalist clusters (Interview chairman, Chamber of Commerce of Rousse: 11-18-2005 and Interview high level official, Ministry of the Economy1: 11-14-05). Production unions were administrative structures aimed at guaranteeing interfirm relations in absence of a market economy. Because cluster policies stress the importance of inter-firm co-operation among firms belonging to the same sector and links with the local administration, clusters themselves are perceived by some as production unions without a director (ibid). However, the perceived similarity between 'industrial districts' and '*stopanski obedineniia*' has been identified as an obstacle to the diffusion of cluster policies. Both local and foreign policy makers pointed out clusters are

resisted because of their 'savoir of communism' (Interview Representative of Emilia Romagna in Bulgaria: 05-26-06).

Those differences in cultural understandings and policy applications between the EU core and the new Eastern European member states are not limited to clusters policies in Bulgaria. The geographical literature has provided several cases of policies and underlying concepts that were transformed when 'imported' from the West by post socialist elites. For example, Sonia Hirt argued that Bulgarian authorities managed to shift the meaning of 'regionalism' quite significantly from the original agenda established in Brussels (Hirt 2007). 'Civil society' was similarly transformed (Staddon and Cellarius 2002). Unfortunately, scholars have not yet attempted to theorize the re-articulation of 'Western' modernizing concepts in the postsocialist context. While inviting the scholarly community to further research this topic, we suggest that the cluster concept has changed because of: path dependency and the legacy of socialism, relations among policy stakeholders, and contextual aspects such as macroeconomic policies.

In sum, there is both continuity and friction between the ways in which clusters are perceived at the EU level and in Bulgaria. The most important elements of continuity are the effort of mapping clusters, and the general structure of cluster policies. The most important differences are due to the conditions of the local economy and to the legacy of socialism. All these instances contributed to frame a grassroot 'cluster initiative' in Rousse, a medium sized city in Northern Bulgaria, where a far sighted local leadership was able to effectively boost the local economy.

<Table 2 here>

<Table 3 here>

<Figure 1 here. Title: Clusters in Bulgaria

4 The local level: a cluster initiative in the textile district of Rousse

At a first glance, Rousse is a typical example of the postsocialist transformation of

Bulgarian communities: Since 1989, it experienced the loss of some high tech industries, a

shift from industrial production to services, a drastic reduction in size of the industrial firms

and a shift from heavy to light industry (table 3). However, since the early years of the

introduction of the cluster concept in Bulgaria, the media has identified Rousse as a textile

'cluster' (*Dnevnik*, 04-29-2004). In 2006, the Fashion Mercury – the annual prize for fashion

business awarded by the academy of fashion - was held in Rousse, acknowledging that

"Rousse is the pearl in the crown of the Bulgarian fashion industry" (Almanac of Bulgarian

Fashion: electronic document). Notwithstanding that the textile and clothing industry

accounts for only 6% of the GDP and 12% of employment in Rousse, it is the only industrial

branch that has expanded its employment share since socialist times (source: Rousse

Chamber of Commerce and Industry).

<Figure 2 here. Title: Rousse region: Unemployment Rate by Municipality>

<Table 4 here>

Foreign buyers have been very influential in establishing a textile cluster in Rousse,

because they encourage both innovation and inter-firm cooperation (source: BSC Rousse).

Specifically, foreign contractors encourage local producers to work together to meet buyers'

demand; as a consequence, the approximately one hundred and fifty small to medium clothing enterprises in Rousse have to establish thick relations to exchange technology and expertise. The owner of a large firm summarized this process as follows:

Very often, one buyer works with two or three firms, and these firms have contacts with each other to meet the requests of the buyer, and they exchange orders very often. The buyer knows about these exchanges, and he encourages them. Usually these good relationships are long term (Interview Elf Super Co/Ltd, entrepreneur, 11-10-2005).

This interview highlights that the role of foreign buyers in the economy of Rousse goes well beyond providing a stable market (but low profit margins) to local producers, because these buyers affect the structure of inter-firms relations within the Rousse region.

Overall, multiple conditions have co-occurred in Rousse to enable the start up of firms as well as the horizontal linkages that give Rousse its district character. For example, the owner of Sunset Fashion, a firm employing twenty five to thirty people (active since the mid 1990s) highlighted that a) foreign buyers are a key component of her business, because they guarantee stability and larger volumes than the internal market and because they introduce new techniques; b) intermediaries are important in establishing connections with foreign buyers, while wholesalers allow her business access to the international market; c) the presence of the Business Support Center has allowed both an access to cheap rent in the incubator and the opportunity to lease contracts for new machines. Among these conditions, the establishment of the 'Business Support Center for Small and Medium Sized Enterprises – Rousse' has been a key element in developing the cluster. It did so by introducing a more systematic form of inter-firm cooperation that has been directly inspired by one of the best known examples of clusters - the so called 'industrial districts' of the Italian region Emilia

Romagna. Ms. Katia Goranova, founder and executive director of BSC-Rousse, described the use of the Italian model and its adaptation to the local conditions as follows:

To develop our cluster, we started with very little information, then we made several visits to Italy to see how clusters work there. Then, after the visit of Mr. Nimish, an American consultant expert in logistics, we understood that we were close to our goal. Particularly, we do not want to take the idea of clusters wholesale, we want to adapt it to our reality. In concrete terms, here technology centers are very important, because our companies cannot afford the cost of introducing the new equipment. To develop a center for management, logistics and design is similarly important, for the same reason (Interview BSC-Rousse, executive director, 11-07-2005)

In practice, Ms. Goranova pointed out that the Italian model has been imitated in very practical ways in Rousse; however, the experience of Emilia Romagna is just one of the elements shaping Rousse's cluster initiative, together with inputs from foreign consultants and the experience of local entrepreneurs. Figure 3 schematizes the 'cluster' strategy for the support of firms and inter-firm co-operation as developed by BSC-Rousse:

<Figure 3 here>

The strategy of BSC-Rousse is based on pooling and sharing technical resources among firms; it has purchased specialized machinery that has to be shared among the firms in the cluster, acquired some buildings to use as business incubators, and instituted a fund to provide financial support to local firms. The center has also implemented new initiatives, including a center for marketing, management and logistics and a common structure for the correction of imperfections in the products. International donors have played a key role in the establishment of this 'cluster initiative.' Ms. Goranova was able to present to foreign consultants the initiatives of the BSC as coincident with the mission of promoting a sound

market economy, and in doing so she has guaranteed support from foreign consultants in both grant writing and in presenting BSC initiatives to the potential donors:

The Business Support Center began to work in 1994. In 1996 the BSC won the first PHARE project, thanks to the co-operation with a British consultant who understood very well what we wanted to achieve here, and we started to do real things. We started the first business incubator in Bulgaria, and went to the US for two conferences. After this we were able to convince two Austrian consultants to support a further request of funding, and we got one additional million of dollars. With this money, we organized the second business incubator and the first scheme for leasing of machinery. Later we obtained \$50 thousand from the US government for a fund for support of SMEs, that we used to create a guaranteed fund to finance agricultural businesses (Interview BSC-Rousse, executive director, 11-07-2005).

This interview excerpt shows that the bottom up 'cluster initiative' implemented by BSC-Rousse draws upon the Italian experience of industrial districts in two inter-related ways. In practice, BSC has organized several visits to Emilia Romagna to understand the Italian experience. In rhetoric, BSC representatives have successfully used the language of the clusters literature to 'sell' their projects to foreign donors.

The coexistence of this 'bottom up' policy initiative in Rousse with much more recent nation-level 'cluster' policies opens up possibilities of synergy, but also of conflicts. Looking at the cluster policies in Bulgaria as a whole, three main categories of actors are involved: foreign consultants, local elites, and national administrators. These categories have overlapping but not necessarily coincident interests. There are potential conflicts over the use of resources. Specifically, EU-funded projects must be co-financed by local agencies and/or firms, thus raising questions about whose resources should be pooled in the projects. Also, the role of foreign consultants is very important and at the same time contested. Although vital in importing new ideas and creating liaisons with other agencies within the EU, these consultants often 'consume' an excessive amount of the funds intended for the projects:

Projects financed with these EU funds have to be co-financed at 50%, and require the presence of foreign consultants. These foreigners do not know the reality of the Bulgarian market, and for firms to pay around a quarter million of euros for useless advice is not convenient. We are working and hoping to get EU money at more convenient conditions (Interview BSC-Rousse, executive director, 11-07-2005).

Even though there are interactions between the local cluster initiatives supporting the production of clothing and the more bureaucratic, nation level cluster policies, they are not alike. In particular, the Bulgarian government has established a 'cluster' in Rousse to revitalize the production of silk. The difference between the official establishment of a 'cluster' by the government and the bottom up initiative by local leaders is apparent in this interview excerpt:

The first registered cluster in Bulgaria was in Rousse in 2004, it is the cluster of silk production, but it hasn't developed yet.

There is an EU program to develop cluster, so EU people will give money and consulting about clusters. ... So there is cluster on silk production, which have been signed, but it is not working, and there is a cluster in clothing production which hadn't been signed, but it is working... 50% of the money should be put by businesses, 50% by PHARE (Interview BSC-Rousse, executive director, 11-07-2005).

In sum, in Rousse, the bottom up development of an industrial district/cluster, in which local firms and local leaders developed their own vision for the future of their region coexist with the top down State led cluster policies, in an equilibrium in which the nature and the objectives of each 'initiative' has to be negotiated among the actors involved: some key large firms, BSC-Rousse and the government.

5 Conclusion. Cluster policies in post-socialist context

This paper has investigated the articulation of cluster policies at the European Union level, national level in Bulgaria, and local level in the city of Rousse. In doing so, it

problematized the emphasis of cluster policies on cutting edge innovation - the Silicon Valley model embraced by the EU - when implemented in Bulgaria. The authors pointed out that, indeed, the European Union considers cluster policies as a part of its innovation strategy and a tool to compete with the United States in the generation of new knowledge. However, the national government of Bulgaria offers a different picture: Sofia sees cluster policies as a tool for economic reconstruction. Bulgaria lost many of its high tech industries in the collapse of State socialism, but it achieved industrial re-development through highly conservative economic policies and the import of technology and capital from foreign investors. In the Bulgarian context, two priorities outweighed the fostering of cutting-edge innovation: the injection of capital in a cash poor economy and the substantial reforms of the public sector - including smoother relations between the public and private sectors. Cluster policies contributed to both goals. At the local level, in the city of Rousse foreign investors played a key role in both developing technological capabilities and encouraging strong horizontal ties among local firms. Furthermore, the local elite used the concept of 'clusters' creatively in designing an ambitious plan of local development. In doing so, they built upon the experience of Italian industrial districts, inputs of foreign consultants, and the experience of local entrepreneurs. The skilful use of cluster policy rhetoric helped them to acquire resources from foreign donors to implement their plan.

Besides highlighting the shifts, this paper pointed to the continuities in the cluster concept among the three scales. The Bulgarian government is mapping its clusters and adopting the general blueprint of cluster policies as 'suggested' by Brussels. Elites in Rousse constantly negotiate inputs from foreigners and from the national government in a complex game of cooperation and friction. Indeed, the sharpest critiques of the cluster literature

argued that the success of these ideas in policy circles was due to the vagueness of the underlying concepts (Markusen 2003, Martin and Sunley 2003). This paper suggests that there are limits to the 'vagueness' of the cluster concept among policy makers. Specifically, cluster policies are shaped by the interaction of a transnational service class – such as Michael Porter's consultancy – with supernational, national and local bureaucracies. In the cases considered here, the funds from the European Union and other sources provide conditionalities and opportunities that pose at least some constraints on policy makers' understanding of clusters.

Overall, this paper highlighted the importance of the post socialist experience in the formation and implementation of cluster policies in Bulgaria. The collapse of state socialism generated the context in which policies are created and implemented; at the same time, the memory of socialism created resistance against cluster policies, because some thought that they 'savoir of communism.' Therefore, clusters are among many vague Western modernizing concepts that local elites in postsocialist countries appropriate and transform according to their own agenda. This paper invites the scholarly community to further research the cultural, economic and social geographies of those 'appropriations' in the postsocialist context. At the same time, it argues that the shifts in meaning from West to East are sometimes leading to positive concrete outcomes, such as the cluster initiative of Rousse.

Finally, we would like to conclude this paper with some reflections on Wolfe and Gertler's distinction of 'analytical' vs. 'prescriptive' cluster research (2004: 72). It seems to us that both approaches regard cluster research and cluster policies as interventions from external actors onto well defined 'cluster' entities. Instead, throughout this paper we argue that cluster policies are paths shaping actions that influence trajectories of development

beyond each single cluster. Therefore, we suggest that scholars should ask new kinds of questions. Besides enquiring whether or not 'cluster/industrial districts' are good theories (Markusen, Martin and Sunley) or what constitutes successful cluster policies (Lundequist and Power), we would also ask how cluster policies alter development patterns in specific regions and how they affect post-socialist changes throughout Eastern Europe. Specifically, this paper has shown that the grant system under which 'cluster policies' are financed has consequences on the recipient institutions. The disbursement of funds from foreign donors depends on meeting certain conditions, including rules on accounting and transparency in the use of resources, and also the restructuring of the recipient institutions and the establishment of links with local governments and firms abroad. These conditions are objectives outside the objective, forcing local governments and firms to change along lines drawn in Brussels. In so doing, the disbursement of resources from the EU and other donors contributed to the institutional and economic restructuring of Bulgaria from socialism into capitalism and EU membership. Therefore, cluster policies already contributed to the postsocialist transformation of Bulgaria, even though their concrete impact on Bulgarian clusters is still unfolding.

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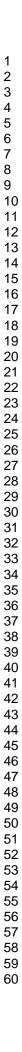
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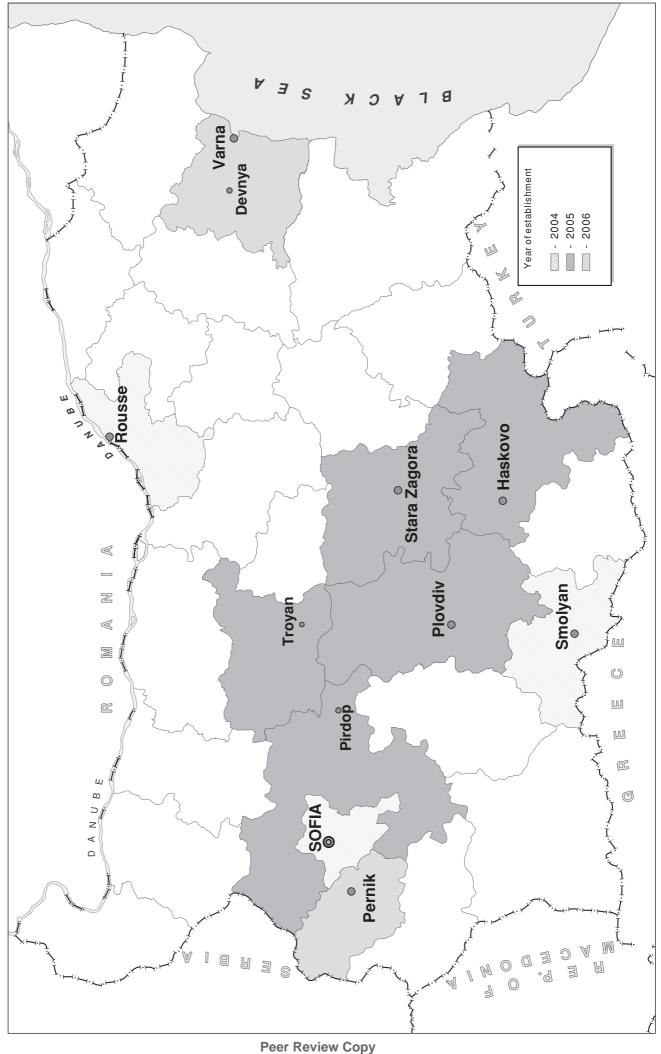
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Endnotes

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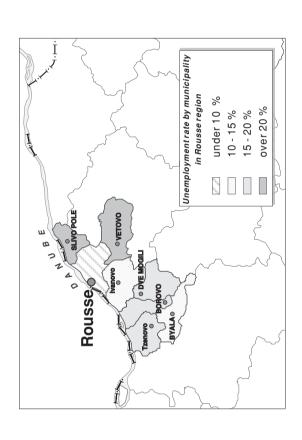
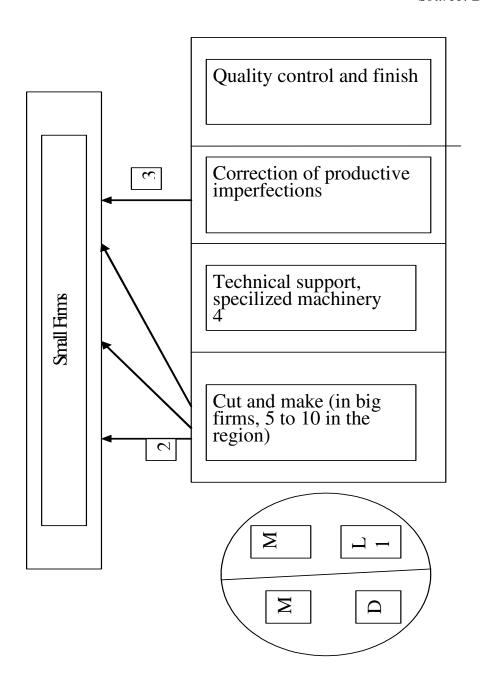


Figure 3: Firms support in Rousse

Source: BSC-Rousse



- 1: Marketing, Management, Design and Logistics: It has been planned, but not yet developed.
- 2: Large firms provide the cloth and cut it, and outsource to small firms in the area the sewing.
- 3: the correction of productive imperfections in the future will be moved closet o the small firms, for better efficiency.
- 4: currently, the technical support is made through public private partnership with large firms: the BSC buy for them specialized machinery, at condition that this machinery is made available for other firms. However, there are plans to implement an independent center for technical support

Table 1. Bulgaria: Gross Domestic Product by Final Expenditures.

Previous year = 100%

Source: National Institute of Statistics

Year	Gross Domestic Product
1996	90.60
1997	94.42
1998	104.01
1999	102.30
2000	105.39
2001	104.07
2002	104.48
2003	105.01
2004	106.64
2005	106.25
2006	106.32
2007	106.17

Table 2: Counterparts in the VEGA ProgramSource: adapted from USAID

Name of Counterpart Institution	Leadership/		
	Ownership of the project		
	Grade range: 1 to 5 (max)		
Business Center Serdon	5		
VOCA Consult	5		
ELC	5		
Bulgarian Assn for Alternative Tourism (BAAT)	4		
eFlag	5		
Business Incubator Gotse Delchev	5		
CEE Securities	3		
Bulgarian Association of Management Consulting	4		
Organizations (BAMCO)			
Center for Entrepreneurship and Executive Development	5		
(CEED)			
Flag-Apex	4		
ICT Cluster	5		
Regional Science and Technology Unions (RSTU)	5		

Table 3 Establishment of clusters in Bulgaria in the period June 2004 – April 2006 Source: Ministry of Economy and Energy of Bulgaria

Denomination/sector	Region	Year of	
		establishment	
Textile cluster 'Bulgarian Silk'	Rousse	2004	
ICT Cluster	Sofia	2004	
Cluster 'Tourism Rhodopi – BG'	Smolyan 20		
Industrial cluster 'Varna Port West'	Denya	2004	
Industrial cluster 'Srednogorie Med'	Pirdop	2005	
Cluster 'Furniture made in Troian'	Troyan	2005	
Industrial cluster 'Energy Heart of Bulgaria'	Stara Zagora	2005	
Tourism cluster 'Northern Black Sea Region'	Varna	2005	
Cluster 'Laser & Optics'	Plovdiv	2005	
Textile cluster 'Apparel & Textile'	Haskovo	2005	
Food processing cluster 'Traditional Bulgarian	Stara Zagora	2006	
Products on European Table'			
Cluster 'Production of Agricultural Equipment'	Rousse	2006	
Eco-industrial cluster	Pernik	2006	
Cluster 'Bulgarian Media & Printing'	Plovdiv	2006	

Table 4: post socialist economic transformation of the City of Rousse: GDP *Source*: Rousse Chamber of Commerce and Industry

		1989		2005
Industry	Machinery and electro	28%	Industry (other than	24%
	technical industry		textile and clothing)	
	Chemical industry	17%		
	Light industry	21%	Textile and clothing	6%
Agriculture and food		24%		15%
processing				
Services		10%		55%