

1 **Global Innovation Systems – A conceptual framework and typology from** 2 **various cleantech industries**

3 Truffer, Bernhard; Binz, Christian

4 Eawag, Switzerland

5 **Abstract**

6 This paper proposes a framework for the analysis of technological innovation processes in
7 transnational contexts. By drawing on existing innovation system concepts and recent elaborations
8 on the globalization of innovation, we develop a multi-scalar conceptualization of innovation systems.
9 Two key mechanisms are introduced and elaborated: the generation of resources in multi-locational
10 subsystems and the establishment of structural couplings among them in a global innovation system
11 (GIS). Based on this conceptualization, we introduce a typology of innovation modes in four GIS
12 configurations, building on the knowledge base and valuation system in different industries. The
13 analytical framework is illustrated with insights from four emerging clean-tech industries. We state
14 that a comprehensive perspective is instrumental for developing a more explanatory stance in the
15 innovation system literature and developing policy interventions that reflect the increasing spatial
16 complexity in the innovation process.

17 **Keywords:** innovation system; globalization; clean-tech industry; industry typology; innovation policy

18 **1. Introduction**

19 In a globalizing knowledge economy, the mobility and circulation of people, knowledge, and capital
20 increasingly interrelates innovation processes in distant places (Corpataux et al., 2009). The increased
21 spatial complexity of innovation processes raises the question whether a territorial (local, regional,
22 national) *system* perspective is still a valid one as system boundaries get increasingly blurry and
23 porous. More fundamentally, some argue that the innovation system (IS) perspective, on a more
24 general level, is no longer a promising line of research and should be left on the shelves of the history
25 of innovation studies, as concluded in a plenary debate at the 2013 DRUID conference.¹

26 In the present paper, we argue against this view and maintain that a systemic perspective still holds
27 considerable explanatory potential, not the least when adapted to increasingly internationalized
28 innovation processes. However, to realize this potential, a number of conceptual improvements are
29 required. The strong focus on actor networks and institutions that condition innovation in regional
30 and national systems needs to be combined with greater emphasis on the role of multi-scalar
31 networks and systematic differences between the innovation processes in various industries. This
32 calls for a more integrative view in which various innovation system perspectives and related
33 literatures on the globalization of innovation stop living parallel lives and start talking to each other
34 in more engaged and reciprocal ways (Martin, 2016; Weber and Truffer, 2017).

35 To elaborate on this proposition, we take a closer look at the challenge of international
36 interdependencies in the innovation process. Over the last decade, authors have argued the spatial
37 configuration of innovation systems is getting more complex, spanning actor networks and
38 institutional contexts from various places and across spatial scales (Bunnell and Coe, 2001; Carlsson
39 and Stankiewicz, 1991; Coe and Bunnell, 2003). While various analytical approaches have started to

¹ Available at <https://vimeo.com/155650827>

1 conceptualize the increasing importance of international linkages between regional and national
2 innovation systems (for an overview see e.g. Carlsson, 2006; Grillitsch and Trippl, 2013), a
3 comprehensive and operable analytical framework for global innovation systems is still missing. In
4 particular, existing concepts were criticized for remaining rather vague in their conceptualization of
5 interdependencies between various territorial subsystems at an international level (Binz et al., 2014;
6 Coenen et al., 2012; Grillitsch and Trippl, 2013; Wieczorek et al., 2015a).

7 The present paper aims to address this challenge by reinterpreting the overlaps between various
8 innovation system approaches. In particular, we aim at specifying how key system resources for
9 innovation get created and integrated at a global level. In this venture we build on existing multi-
10 scalar perspectives on innovation from various IS traditions, but elaborate two new conceptual
11 dimensions. First, we define subsystems of a GIS not based on pre-defined territorial boundaries, but
12 based on the actor networks and institutions that are involved in creating specific system resources
13 (knowledge, market access, financial investment and technology legitimacy (see Binz et al., 2016b)).
14 Whether or not the actor networks and institutions in each of these dimensions fall within territorial
15 boundaries, is treated as an empirical question. Second, we argue that the performance of a system
16 in developing and diffusing innovation depends not only on the existence of coherent subsystems,
17 but also on the availability of structural couplings between them. Structural coupling is attained if
18 specific actors, actor networks or institutions span across or overlap between various subsystems, be
19 this in a specific region or country, in a global non-governmental organization or a transnational
20 corporation.

21 Second, we draw on recent insights from the sectorial systems literature to explain differences in the
22 spatial configuration of GIS in various industry types. Our framework differentiates between an
23 industry's dominant innovation mode - STI (science-technology and innovation) vs. DUI (doing, using
24 and interacting) driven (Jensen et al., 2007) - and the economic system of valuation in which markets
25 for the innovation are constructed - standardized products for global mass markets vs. customized
26 products depending on symbolic valuation in local contexts (Huenteler et al., 2016a; Jeannerat and
27 Kebir, 2016). Based on empirical illustrations from recently emerging clean-tech sectors, we illustrate
28 how the spatial configuration of GIS differ between industries that produce standardized
29 commodities with an STI innovation mode (i.e. solar photovoltaic modules) and industries with a DUI
30 innovation mode that depend on a valuation process that is customized to specific territorial
31 contexts (i.e. wind power). This heuristic creates new hypotheses on why in some industries national
32 and regional innovation system boundaries remain relevant, while in others territorial boundaries are
33 increasingly transcended by international interdependencies. Policy interventions that target specific
34 national or regional subsystem will accordingly lead to different spatial spillovers depending on the
35 overall GIS configuration.

36 These arguments will be elaborated as follows. We first review existing IS literature relative to the
37 role of international linkages. Section 3 integrates these insights to a multi-scalar concept of global
38 innovation systems, focusing on subsystems and their structural couplings. Section 4 develops a
39 taxonomy of GIS configurations in different industry types and illustrates them based on recent case
40 studies from the wind power, solar power, carbon capture and storage, and electric car industries.
41 Section 5 discusses methodological challenges and outlines a broader research agenda in the field of
42 global innovation systems. We conclude with policy implications and the framework's contributions
43 to research at the interface of economic geography and innovation studies.

2. Existing perspectives on innovation systems in transnational contexts

2.1 *Earlier attempts to conceptualize global innovation systems*

Innovation system studies emphasize that innovation emerges from complex interactions between actors with complementary (technological, managerial, investment or regulatory) competencies, which operate under specific institutional settings (Lundvall, 1992). The use of a system metaphor emphasizes the distributed, yet more or less coordinated agency that underpins the innovation process; interaction between firms, universities, policy makers and various intermediaries creates positive externalities that are of key importance in the innovation process, but very difficult to be produced or controlled by any actor on its own (Nelson, 1993).

Over the years, different variants of IS have been formulated and applied empirically, including a national (Lundvall, 1988), regional (Cooke et al., 1997), sectoral (Malerba, 2002) and technological (Carlsson and Stankiewicz, 1991) approach. Superficially, the distinguishing feature of each framework lies in the way system boundaries are set, i.e. in determining which elements contribute to the generation of innovation-related positive externalities and which ones do not (Bergek et al., 2015). Yet, when comparing the approaches more deeply, one finds significant differences in each tradition's epistemology, research objectives, and methodological approach (Coenen and Díaz López, 2010). Given these differences, various streams of IS research lived largely parallel lives, without much cross-fertilization between their research networks (Coenen and Díaz López, 2010). The existing literature on 'global', 'international' or 'multi-scalar' IS (Archibugi and Michie, 1997; Binz et al., 2014; Bunnell and Coe, 2001; Carlsson, 2006; Dewald and Fromhold-Eisebith, 2015; Niosi and Bellon, 1994; Oinas and Malecki, 2002; Pietrobelli and Rabellotti, 2009; Sagar and Holdren, 2002; Spencer, 2003) generally reflects this lack of interaction between varying research traditions.

First and foremost, NIS and RIS scholars departed from a territorial perspective in emphasizing the importance of institutionally embedded face-to-face interaction in the innovation process (Lundvall, 1992). Capability accumulation, interactive learning and capacity building in national and regional contexts became the key focus of research. When conceptualizing the globalization of innovation, NIS and RIS scholars started from the customary assumption that regional/national contexts matter most for innovation and then moved to explain the links between territorially embedded innovation processes (for a comprehensive overview see Carlsson, 2006). Another illustrative example is the work by Oinas and Malecki (2002), who provide a comprehensive conceptual approach on how innovation processes in various RIS complement each other in a global division of labor.

This approach later got criticized for providing a rather static concept of innovation and employing 'spatial fetishism' (Moulaert and Sekia, 2003). By a priori setting national or regional borders as scalar envelopes, NIS and RIS concepts could not fully capture the activities of organizations, networks and institutions evolving at a supranational level and understanding how they influence territorially embedded innovation dynamics (Coenen et al., 2012). GIS concepts in the NIS and RIS tradition thus mostly showed that territorial subsystems still matter, even though they get increasingly interconnected at supranational levels. Yet, there is no shared understanding on how these interconnections emerge, how they matter, let alone whether they matter for all sectors and markets in the same way (Binz et al., 2014; Coenen et al., 2012).

Scholars in the SIS tradition complemented the spatial fetishism in the NIS and RIS concepts by arguing that industry- and technology-related rather than country-related or regional factors mostly affect the (spatial) organization of innovation (Breschi et al., 2000; Malerba, 2005; Spencer, 2003). Comparative empirical work in a broad range of sectors (such as semi-conductors, cars,

1 pharmaceuticals, telecommunications, machine tools, etc.) consistently showed similarities between
2 innovation processes of the same sector in different regions (Jung and Lee, 2010; Malerba, 2005;
3 Malerba and Nelson, 2011; Yu et al., 2016). The SIS literature developed elaborate sector taxonomies,
4 which were grounded in the technological regimes and trajectories that structure the innovation
5 process (Castellacci, 2008). Yet, while this approach developed rigorous and operable analytical
6 frameworks, it was also increasingly criticized for its technology bias which downplays the
7 importance of more distributed forms of agency, non-firm actors and the influence of informal
8 institutions on the innovation processes (Coenen and Díaz López, 2010). Also, given the concept's
9 roots in evolutionary economics and its reliance on standardized quantitative databases (e.g. NACE
10 codes), it tended to focus on long-term industrial dynamics in existing manufacturing sectors
11 (Castellacci, 2008), while lacking explanations for the emergence of new sectors and technologies
12 (Coenen and Díaz López, 2010).

13 This latter critique was taken up by TIS scholars who focused their empirical work almost exclusively
14 on the dynamics of system building and industry formation in emergent (clean-tech) sectors. To
15 cover these dynamics, the analytical focus was extended beyond system elements and structure to
16 core processes (or activities) as a means to assess system performance (Bergek et al., 2008; Hekkert
17 et al., 2007). Seven key system processes were identified from an extensive literature review and an
18 inductive aggregation of empirical studies, including knowledge production and diffusion,
19 entrepreneurial experimentation, resource mobilization, guidance of the search, market formation,
20 creation of legitimacy, and creation of positive externalities (Bergek et al., 2008; Hekkert et al., 2007).
21 Since, various empirical applications have validated and refined the use of this analytical framework
22 (Markard et al., 2015). Yet, most empirical work in the TIS tradition also set a priori system
23 boundaries at a national level and restricted the analysis to cleantech industries, arguing that this
24 was a coherent set of industries with similar technological trajectories. So, even though the TIS
25 framework offers explicit concept of system dynamics and in principle embraces an international
26 perspective, it recently also attracted criticism for spatial fetishism in its empirical application and a
27 neglect of differences in the innovation process between sectorial contexts (Bergek et al., 2015; Binz
28 et al., 2014; Coenen et al., 2012).

29 Summarizing this short discussion, existing attempts to internationalize the innovation system
30 concept did not take advantage of the ample complementarities that exist between different IS
31 perspectives. In our view, three key improvements are needed in a more integrative GIS perspective.
32 First, it should conceptualize the key system elements and the contexts in which positive externalities
33 (or system functions) emerge from a spatially open, multi-scalar perspective. The key question for IS
34 research is not whether the embedding of innovation processes in national or regional territorial
35 contexts still matter, but how it matters and whether it matters differently for different types of
36 technologies and industries. Secondly, the perspective should be dynamic and able to explain the
37 processes that lead to the creation (and decline) of new technologies and industries. Third and finally,
38 it should be able to account for systematic differences between various industries. In the remainder
39 we will address these issues by first reassessing the basic conceptual notions of the IS literature
40 (actors, networks and institutions) and introducing a process-based evaluation of resource formation
41 at a (global) system level. Second, inspiration is drawn from the work on the internationalization of
42 NIS and RIS to conceptualize the complex spatial interplay of circulation and anchoring of innovation-
43 related system resources in territorial and non-territorial contexts. Finally, we rely on recent
44 advances in the SIS literature to define a typology that distinguishes the GIS configuration of four
45 generic industry types.

2.2 *Re-thinking the structure and key processes of multi-scalar innovation systems*

The core structural element of innovation systems are the actors engaged in the development and diffusion of new technologies, the formal and informal networks they form as well as the institutional contexts that regulate these interactions (Bergek et al., 2008; Lundvall, 1992; Malerba, 2002). Actors include firms, research organizations, government departments, NGOs and other intermediary organizations that contribute to the development and diffusion of innovation. In IS approaches, actors have been conceptualized as internally homogenous entities with clearly defined interests and pursuing coherent strategies with respect to the innovation-related objectives (Morrison et al., 2008). When extending the analysis to international contexts, actors have to be conceptualized not as atomistic agents per se, but as a “constitutive part of the wider network through which emergent power and effects are realized over space” (Hess and Yeung, 2006: 1196). This point applies most directly to multinational companies, but is equally relevant for other actor groups such as research and education organizations, professional and industrial associations, (international) non-governmental organizations, citizens’ movements or even regulatory bodies with global reach (Boli and Thomas, 1997; Gosens et al., 2015; Meyer et al., 1997).

The conceptualization of actor networks has to be reconsidered accordingly. The seemingly obvious distinction between networks at the regional, national and international scale becomes increasingly blurred (Coe and Bunnell, 2003; Crevoisier and Jeannerat, 2009). Firms may coordinate activities in various intra-organizational or extra-organizational networks and along a continuum of governance forms ranging from market exchange, to network forms of inter-firm governance, to full integration and direct ownership (Gereffi et al., 2005). International networks are a materialization of different geographic and non-geographic proximities that can be institutionalized to different degrees ranging from the full integration in a formal organizational context (hierarchy) to loosely coupled virtual and epistemic communities as in the field of software development (computer games, Wikipedia). They can be long-living and continuous such as international professional associations or topical and ephemeral such as conferences of epistemic of practice-based communities (Maskell et al., 2006).

Also formal and informal institutions may have varying spatial reach (Drori et al., 2003; Fuenfschilling and Binz, under review; Meyer et al., 1997). Among the often-cited regulatory institutions in IS research are international policy regimes and treaties (Conca K. et al., 2006), as well as technology transfer mechanisms (for instance the clean development mechanism of the Kyoto protocol), that set boundary conditions for innovation processes (Gosens et al., 2015; Lema and Lema, 2016). Intellectual property rights (IPRs) are a specific form of an internationally valid institution that is crucial to the functioning of many innovation activities (Auerswald and Stefanotti, 2012). But also cognitive and normative institutions can develop validity beyond specific territorial contexts in the form of technological paradigms, professional cultures, or dominant rationalities of world culture (Boli and Thomas, 1997; Drori et al., 2014; Strang and Meyer, 1993).

Overall, in an internationalized perspective, innovation systems are constituted by multi-scalar actor networks and institutional contexts that jointly support (or hinder) the formation and diffusion of novelty. In some cases they may be reducible to specific territorial contexts, yet in others, they may depend on actor strategies, networks and institutional dynamics that co-evolve between different parts of the world. The combination of actors, networks and institutions that support or hinder innovation in GIS are thus almost countless and alternative configurations of the system structure can lead to similar performance characteristics (Bergek et al., 2008; Edquist, 1997). As the different system elements become more complexly structured in an international context, relating back to the key system functions from TIS literature seems promising. It allows structuring the externalities that

1 support industry formation and innovation into four generic types of system resources – knowledge,
2 market access, financial investment and technology legitimacy - which may evolve in their own
3 spatial configuration (Binz et al., 2016b). In this perspective, global innovation systems consist of sub-
4 systems which create these four system resources and which are linked by multi-scalar actor
5 networks and institutional contexts. This spatially open understanding of IS comes near to the core
6 ambition of global innovation networks formulated by Ernst (2002), namely to assess “how the
7 combinations of concentrated dispersion with systemic integration determines the emergence of
8 new opportunities for transnational knowledge diffusion and adoption”. Yet, the GIS approach goes
9 beyond this view by encompassing non-knowledge based activities like market formation,
10 investment mobilization or the creation of technology legitimacy.

11 **3. Layered structures and processes in Global Innovation Systems**

12 Two new conceptual elements thus have to be elaborated in more detail: 1) subsystems² of a GIS in
13 which system resources form and 2) structural couplings between subsystems. In the following, we
14 will elaborate these elements and then propose a heuristic for assessing their spatial configuration.

15 *3.1 Subsystems and structural couplings*

16 In NIS and RIS studies, positive externalities were assumed to emerge more or less uniformly within a
17 national or regional territory. Also work on international or global innovation systems argued that
18 regional or national levels remain the key scales for externality formation, but added an international
19 interaction layer. In a GIS perspective, this seems too simplified. Giuliani and Bell (2005) and Giuliani
20 (2007) used the global wine industry as a case to show that knowledge resources in RIS are available
21 in highly selective and uneven ways, also at the regional level. When adopting an internationalized
22 view and considering not only knowledge-based resources, this asymmetry gets further intensified.

23 The question of “where” system resources form and which actors can access them therefore moves
24 center stage. For this purpose, we propose introducing the concept of subsystems not in a spatially
25 pre-defined way, but as the actor networks and institutional contexts involved in the formation of
26 system resources (Binz et al., 2014; Coenen et al., 2012). Subsystem boundaries can correspond to
27 national or regional borders, but they may as well develop in networks that transcend national and
28 regional borders. An example of a subsystem developing in a multi-scalar network would be
29 legitimacy for an agricultural produce that stems from a fair trade label which is constructed
30 between globally active NGOs, a transnational company, and farmer’s collectives in developing
31 countries. Other examples of relational externality formation processes are those created by
32 dispersed communities of practice like in the open source software field. Here, actors are often not
33 spatially collocated, but still develop shared cultures, knowledge stocks and investment models that
34 are hard to copy and access for outsiders (Lakhani and Von Hippel, 2003). A similar example is
35 knowledge on membrane bioreactor technology, which initially emerged from a global innovation
36 network spanning engineers in French transnational water companies and research institutes in
37 various places around the world (Binz et al., 2014).

38 As innovation ultimately depends on how actors combine knowledge, investment, markets and
39 legitimacy to new configurations, the overall development of a GIS will depend on whether and how

² The RIS approach also draws on the notion of sub-systems (Asheim and Gertler, 2005) through a distinction between knowledge exploration and knowledge-exploitation. In our paper we extend this basic idea by incorporating additional dimensions like investment mobilization, market formation and technology legitimation.

1 the resource formation processes in various subsystems are coupled to each other. Such 'structural
2 coupling' relates to the foundational elements of an IS - actors, networks or institutions (see Bergek
3 et al., 2015). Examples of coupling domains could be an internationally active firm that is able to
4 connect knowledge resources from a regional innovation system to market segments in distant
5 places. An example of institutional couplings is given by professional cultures (e.g. of engineers or
6 technology consultants), which enable the formulation of globally shared technology standards and
7 by this enable economies of scale to be reaped in different markets. Network coupling might happen
8 at international conferences and trade fairs, where information from different subsystems of the GIS
9 get exchanged and recombined (Maskell et al., 2006).

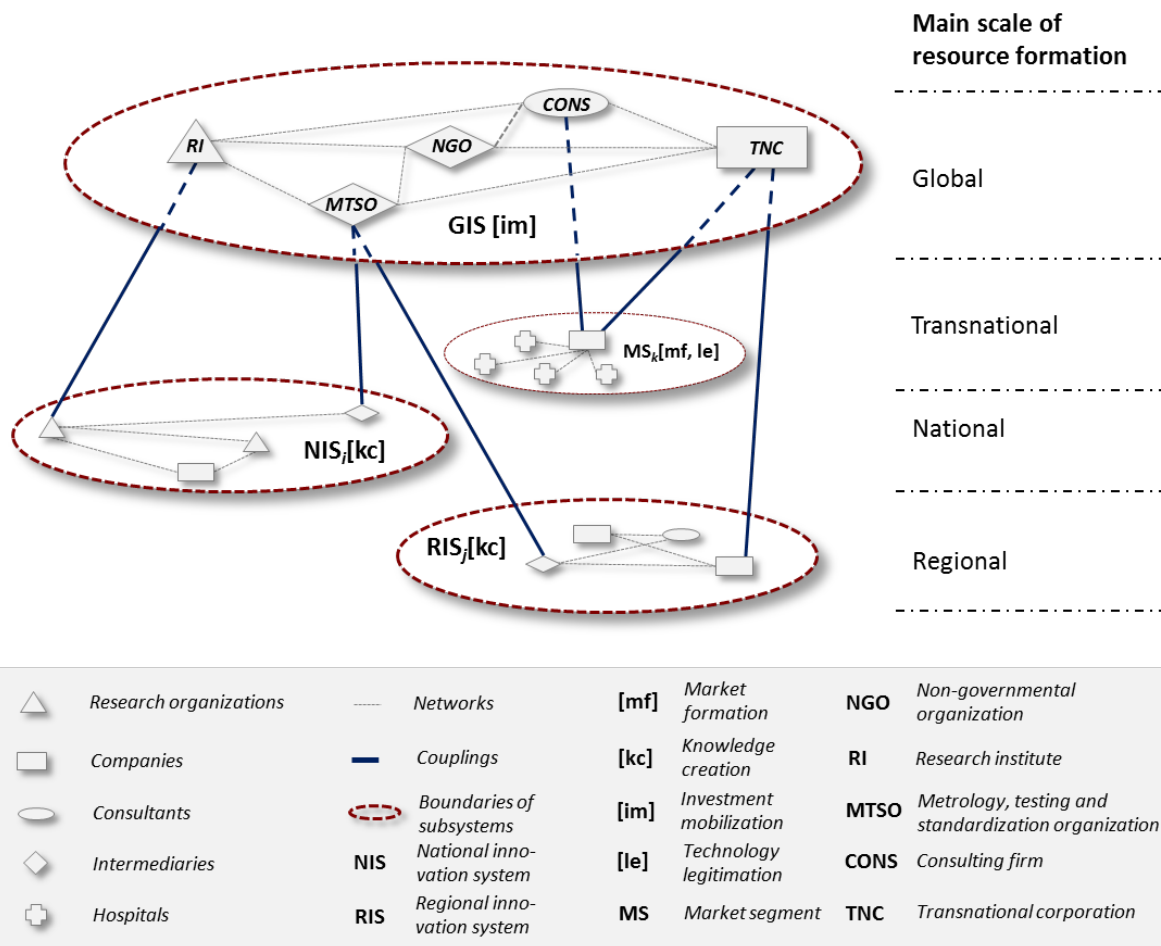
10 In GIS, resource formation and structural coupling are accordingly multi-polar, fluid and subject to
11 intensive contestation. As key system resources are emerging in subsystems with varying
12 geographies, actors in the GIS will in many cases not be able to directly appropriate a dominant share
13 of them in-house or inside a given region or country, but will have to create strategic alliances and
14 rely on non-geographic types of proximities to access and anchor a full resource portfolio in a given
15 place (Binz et al., 2016b; Boschma, 2005). Concentrations of innovative activity develop in hubs
16 where the actors involved in different subsystems meet and interact (Binz et al., 2014). In some cases,
17 these hubs may be territorially confined, in other cases they may develop temporarily at
18 international conferences and trade fairs (Bathelt et al., 2004), or emerge from the international
19 networks of TNCs or global NGOs (Dicken, 2015). Resourceful actors with a global reach (such as
20 TNCs, global donor organizations or professional and industry associations) are in a structurally
21 superior position to facilitate effective hubs, but they might as well emerge in a specific region with
22 very dense personal and inter-organizational networks, or even from a loosely coupled community of
23 traveling technology experts (Larner and Laurie, 2010).

24 *3.2 A multi-scalar representation of GIS*

25 Resource formation in subsystems may accordingly give rise to a host of multi-scalar system
26 topologies, especially compared to the geographically rather flat representation of system structure
27 in the NIS and RIS tradition. Figure 1 provides an illustrative mapping of a hypothetical GIS structure
28 in the public health domain. On a first layer, actors with global reach (a TNC, as well as a consortium
29 of research institutes, standardization bodies, consultancies and international NGO's) interact to
30 ascertain the mobilization of financial investment (GIS [im]). An example could be an initiative by the
31 Bill and Melinda Gates foundation, which provides funding for R&D on a cure for AIDS. A second layer
32 is constituted around the process of knowledge creation, which is here happens in specialized
33 (biotechnology) research institutes and start-ups in a specific NIS (NIS_i[kc]). Structural couplings are
34 provided through international research programs and the integration of the national standard
35 setting bodies into the technology standardization committees of the World Health Organization. A
36 third layer is provided by a regional technology cluster which provides a supportive institutional
37 environment for specialized technology development (e.g. for advanced vaccination technology,
38 (RIS_j[kc])). Structural couplings are facilitated by a branch plant of a TNC located in the RIS that
39 actively contributes financial investment and knowledge to the local innovative milieu. The fourth
40 layer is provided in a new market segments (MS_k[mf]) which is established by a TNC and a consulting
41 company in well-renowned university hospitals in selected cities around the world. In this subsystem,
42 learning about market needs and user response take place and the initial legitimacy for the product
43 is established (MS_k[le]).

1 Success of the GIS will now not only depend on the quality of the resource formation processes in
 2 each subsystem, but on the ability of key actors to couple these dispersed activities into a coherent
 3 innovation trajectory at a global level. The global innovation system will perform well (here: develop
 4 a cure for AIDS) if different subsystems are well established and interconnected and thus able to
 5 mobilize and re-combine system resources for the development and diffusion of the innovation.

6 **Figure 1:** Generic structure of a hypothetical global innovation system in healthcare



7
 8 Source: Author's own elaborations

9 **4. Towards an industry-sensitive perspective on GIS evolution**

10 So far, our elaborations mostly focused on the interface of RIS/NIS and TIS studies, outlining how our
 11 framework captures the tension between territorial embedded and spatially dispersed externality
 12 formation. In the remainder we will connect these insights to research in the SIS tradition (Abernathy
 13 and Utterback, 1978; Dosi and Nelson, 2013; Malerba and Nelson, 2011; Schmidt and Huenteler,
 14 2016) in order to explore how the spatial configuration of GIS differs between sectors/industries and
 15 how it evolves over time.

16 Our framework starts from the basic tenet from SIS literature that differences in the properties of the
 17 knowledge base, technological opportunities, cumulateness and appropriability conditions
 18 influence the technological paradigms of an industry, which in turn influences the spatial contexts in
 19 which innovation takes place (Malerba, 2005). Yet, the perspective proposed here extends on the

1 conventional model with a more structured view on the ‘demand side’ of innovation. We follow
2 recent criticisms that SIS research is rather downplaying user-producer interaction as a constitutive
3 element of the innovation process (Coenen and Díaz López, 2010; Geels, 2004; Lundvall, 1988). As
4 Jeannerat and Kebir (2016: 277) put it, SIS scholars have “analyzed in ever more complex ways the
5 endogenous knowledge processes driving economic change in production, but have usually left aside
6 the question of how this change is endogenously valued in and related to market construction”. The
7 GIS framework addresses this criticism by emphasizing the co-evolution of a technology and its
8 institutional embedding not only for knowledge-based technological innovation, but also for three
9 complementary subsystem that spur market formation, resource mobilization and technology
10 legitimation. This basic idea can be further condensed into two principal components that shape
11 industry dynamics in an orthogonal way: (technological) innovation and (product) valuation.

12 *4.1 The technological innovation dimension*

13 In the technological innovation dimension, the RIS, NIS and SIS tradition provide well-established
14 arguments on the spatial configuration of knowledge production. At a most aggregate level, one can
15 distinguish industries dominated by a science and technology driven (STI) innovation mode from
16 industries where innovation relies more strongly on learning by doing, using and interacting (DUI)
17 (Jensen et al., 2007). The STI mode plays an important role in science-based industries with an
18 analytical knowledge base (i.e. biotechnology, pharma, solar PV), while the DUI mode characterizes
19 innovation in engineering-based industries with a synthetic knowledge base (car manufacturing,
20 machine tools, wind power) (Asheim et al., 2007; Herstad et al., 2014; Martin and Moodysson, 2013).
21 Innovation in STI-based industries depends on knowledge that develops from the application of
22 scientific principles and which can get codified in models, patents and reports. Formalized R&D inside
23 the company, tight industry-university linkages and repeated radical technology breakthroughs
24 characterize these industries (Huenteler et al., 2016a). As knowledge is codifiable into patents, rules,
25 blueprints etc., it can get disembodied to some degree - especially if compared to DUI-based
26 knowledge (Jensen et al., 2007). Knowledge exchange in internationalized networks, e.g. in scientific
27 communities or international professional networks, thus plays an important role in STI-based
28 innovation processes (Asheim and Coenen, 2005; Martin and Moodysson, 2013). This industry type
29 will accordingly depend on significant knowledge spillovers beyond regional and national borders
30 (Moodysson and Jonsson, 2007; Schmidt and Huenteler, 2016), so the innovation-related subsystems
31 of their GIS develop in complex, multi-scalar networks that transcend regions and countries.

32 In industries where the DUI-based innovation mode is more dominant (e.g. car manufacturing,
33 machine tools, wind power), in contrast, learning depends more strongly on novel recombination of
34 experience-based knowledge and competencies (Huenteler et al., 2016a; Jensen et al., 2007; Martin
35 and Moodysson, 2013). New knowledge is not predominantly developed through scientific
36 abstraction, but rather through on-the-job training, as well as by interaction between various firm
37 departments and outside actors. New combinations emerge not predominantly from formal R&D,
38 but from solution-oriented producer-user interaction (Huenteler et al., 2016a; Jensen et al., 2007). In
39 this more incremental way of learning, tacit knowledge embedded in craft and practical skills is of
40 high importance (Asheim and Coenen, 2005). Innovation processes in a DUI-based GIS accordingly
41 generate spatially ‘sticky’ externalities because spatial co-location facilitates tacit knowledge
42 circulation in continued face-to-face interaction (Martin and Moodysson, 2013; Schmidt and
43 Huenteler, 2016). Innovation processes in GIS with a DUI-based learning mode will thus be

1 characterized by subsystems which are more deeply rooted in specific region's historically grown
2 institutional contexts.

3 This first distinction is well aligned with existing conceptualizations in various IS traditions. Yet, it is
4 important to note that most industries will not be clearly attributable to either the DUI or STI-based
5 innovation mode alone. Innovation in many cases depends on some combination of both elements.
6 We thus posit that it is possible to roughly position industries on a continuum (the x-axis in Figure 2)
7 between being dominated by STI-based knowledge (e.g. biotechnology, semiconductors) or
8 alternatively a relatively strong reliance on DUI-based knowledge (e.g. machine tools, construction
9 and trade) (Jensen et al., 2007). Some industries such as car manufacturing or business software
10 programming may in turn depend on more equal mixes of both DUI and STI- based learning (ibid.).
11 The specific mixture might also change over the course of industry maturation where less mature
12 designs may need more synthetic knowledge, whereas more mature design will increasingly rely on
13 highly codified knowledge (cf. section 4.4).

14 *4.2 The product valuation dimension*

15 The second dimension assembles industry characteristics that are related to our other three system
16 resources, particularly to market access, financial investment and raising technology legitimacy. We
17 conceptualize these characteristics as different aspects of valuation processes. By valuation we mean
18 the processes by which a new technology becomes a valued product for a specific customer segment.
19 This process is first of all dependent on mechanisms of 'market formation' in a narrow sense, i.e. the
20 formation of preferences and use-patterns among users, the establishment of socially accepted
21 price-performance relationships and the reputational capital accumulated by suppliers in the form of
22 brands and labels (Dewald and Truffer, 2011; Fligstein, 2007). However, market formation is not
23 enough. Broader processes of technology legitimation come into play before actors may derive value
24 of existing technologies and products (Johnson et al., 2006; Suchman, 1995). Products have to be
25 aligned with pre-existing institutional structures in order to be accepted as valuable ways of
26 consumption (Bork et al., 2015; Markard et al., 2016). Well known examples are genetically modified
27 organisms in the food sector, which have shaped food markets in fundamentally different ways in
28 Europe compared to the US, for instance (Murphy et al., 2006). Finally also financial investment may
29 be characterized as an important dimension of valuation which has undergone increasing pressures
30 for globalization (Yeung and Coe, 2015). In general, investments can be raised for the promise of
31 future turnover generated by new products (Karlton, 2016). In that sense it can be understood as
32 the anticipation of future market formation and legitimation processes.

33 The different valuation processes play out differently in specific sectors. In some industries, they lead
34 to products that are very homogenous across different contexts. For instance, markets for
35 commodity goods like detergent, shampoo or even cellphones look similar all over the world.
36 Knowledge and financial channels to support valuation are rather standardized and markets and
37 technology legitimacy are well-established. However, in industries with more complex or radically
38 novel products, the valuation process requires a broad range of proactive social construction
39 processes that deal with (niche) market formation, attracting investment and legitimacy conditions
40 (Binz et al., 2016a; Jeannerat and Kebir, 2016). In these cases, technological knowledge may result to
41 be of less decisive importance for overall innovation success. In the extreme, we may think of
42 industries where the management of valuation processes is overwhelmingly important while
43 technological advances may almost be neglected - as in the case of luxury watch making or micro

1 beer brewing (Jeannerat and Crevoisier, 2013). The dichotomy of standardized and customized
2 valuation can be translated into a gradient (the y axis in Figure 2) that runs from industries with
3 predominantly standardized products and distribution channels (consumer goods, commodities,
4 solar PV) towards industries where new products and markets are co-produced between suppliers
5 and consumers in highly specific territorial contexts (construction, legal advice, biogas) (Abernathy
6 and Utterback, 1988; Davies, 1997; Huenteler et al., 2016a; Jeannerat and Kebir, 2016). In between
7 the two extremes are industries which depend on local value formation processes at the beginning of
8 a new product cycle, like in the case of new music styles, fashion or luxury items. Once established,
9 these valuation styles can be reproduced all over the world with little adaptation.

10 In the case of 'standardized valuation', consumption and legitimacy are stabilized around clearly
11 identified goods, services and producers. End-users have relatively undifferentiated preferences that
12 are uniform in various parts of the world and base their acquisition choices mainly on price signals
13 (Jeannerat and Kebir, 2016). Demand articulation, marketing, and sales are relayed through
14 specialized market research organizations, and user demand can be served by standardized
15 distribution channels (ibid.). As a consequence, financial investment can operate on rather
16 standardized assessment procedures that have been established by specialized investment banks or
17 large companies. Once a mass market has formed, it constitutes a system resource to which actors
18 from the whole GIS have access. They can supply it with standardized products without much need
19 for adaptation to specific regional contexts. Valuation processes in this industry type are accordingly
20 relatively footloose; globally valid dominant designs and quality standards will homogenize valuation
21 dynamics in various parts of the world.

22 In contrast, in industries that depend on 'customized valuation', products need to be tailored to the
23 needs of specialized user groups or depend on symbolic embedding in historically grown territorial
24 contexts (Jeannerat and Kebir, 2016). New market segments are constructed in a complex
25 negotiation process in which users and producers attach specific symbolic meaning to a new
26 technology or product (Dewald and Truffer, 2012). Design and branding get incrementally adapted to
27 shifting user needs, changes in the wider institutional context, or new technological opportunities.
28 Innovation, marketing and sales strategies accordingly rely on various types of institutional
29 entrepreneurship which aligns consumer's normative and cognitive associations with specific types
30 of technology (Binz et al., 2016a; Jeannerat and Kebir, 2016; Wirth et al., 2013). Financial investment
31 needs to build on this highly specific local knowledge in order to identify future winning products. We
32 would therefore expect financial investment to be mobilized by local banks or firm-internal financial
33 assets. Successful valuation in one specific region of the GIS does thus not automatically imply that a
34 system resource is created that is easily accessible for actors in other places. To access such markets,
35 outsiders would have to invest heavily in getting embedded into local networks and institutional
36 contexts. The valuation-related subsystems in GIS with customized valuation can thus be expected to
37 rely on actor networks that remain spatially sticky and concentrated in specific regional/national
38 contexts.

39 We may now construct a stylized typology of four distinct GIS configurations based on the two
40 dimensions of innovation and valuation (see Table 1 and Figure 2). The differences in the GIS
41 configuration between each quadrant in table 1 has far reaching consequences for the spatial
42 spillovers we expect in the innovation process and related policy implications (cf. section 5.3).

1 **Table 1:** Expected spatial configuration of various industries' global innovation system

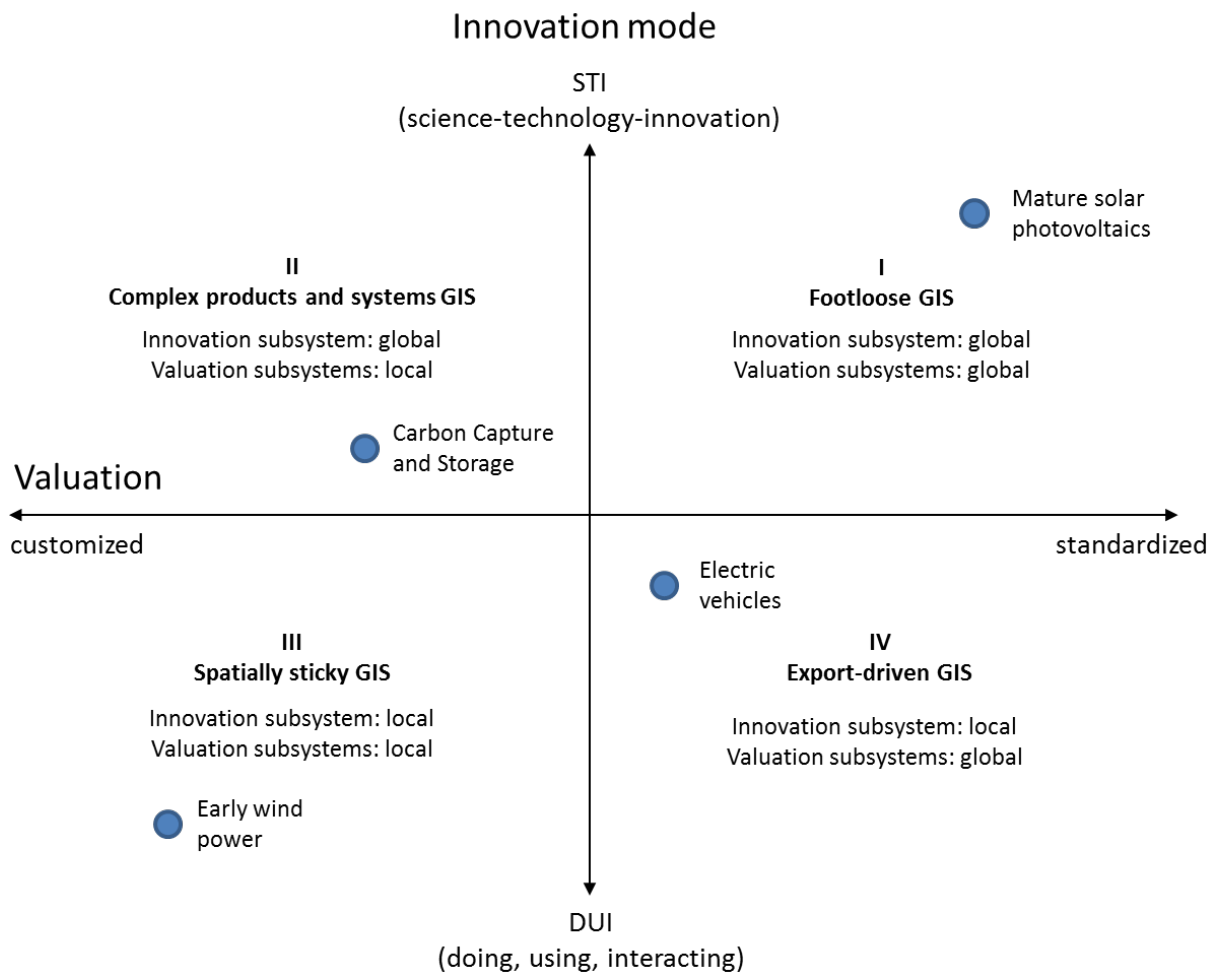
		Valuation	
		Customized	Standardized
Innovation	STI mode	<p>Complex products and systems GIS</p> <p><i>Knowledge:</i> Footloose. Strong role of international university-industry networks</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Financial Resources:</i> Rather footloose. Channeled through TNCs and large institutional investors - <i>Market formation:</i> Sticky. Adaptation of products to local contexts, subsidies for local niche markets - <i>Legitimation:</i> Sticky. Strong local embedding, but scope for global technology standards and codes <p><i>Structural couplings:</i> TNCs, academic networks, transnational demonstration projects, internat. NGOs</p> <p><i>Typical examples:</i> Carbon capture and storage, biomass power plants, utility services</p>	<p>Footloose GIS</p> <p><i>Knowledge:</i> Footloose. Strong role of international university-industry networks</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Financial Resources:</i> Footloose. Venture capital, investor-driven. Company listings at international stock exchanges - <i>Market formation:</i> Footloose. Mass markets to reap economies of scale, market-based price competition - <i>Legitimation:</i> Footloose. International standards and technology codes. New products conforming to established institutions <p><i>Structural couplings:</i> Equipment sales, patents/publications, international trade fairs, academic networks</p> <p><i>Typical examples:</i> Solar photovoltaics, semiconductors, biotechnology, telecommunications</p>
	DUI mode	<p>Spatially sticky GIS</p> <p><i>Knowledge:</i> Sticky. Regional milieus, local user-producer-intermediary interactions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Financial Resources:</i> Sticky. Focus on local funding sources, patient capital, seed funding from technology pioneers - <i>Market formation:</i> Sticky. One-of-a-type niche markets. 'Project' business models, customization to local conditions - <i>Legitimation:</i> Sticky. Embedding in (and adaptation of) local institutional contexts. <p><i>Structural couplings:</i> Long-established knowledge pipelines, mergers and acquisitions, mobility of technology experts</p> <p><i>Typical examples:</i> Wind power, biogas, aerospace technology</p>	<p>Export-oriented GIS</p> <p><i>Knowledge:</i> Sticky. Regional manufacturing clusters, specialized knowledge providers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Financial Resources:</i> Rather sticky. Local institutional investors, family ties, focus on brand value and reputation - <i>Market formation:</i> Footloose. Relying on regional cultural milieus from which symbolic meaning is up-scaled to global markets - <i>Legitimation:</i> Footloose. Local to global legitimacy transfer through standard marketing <p><i>Structural couplings:</i> TNCs, Joint ventures, global marketing & sales organizations, industry associations, international professional communities</p> <p><i>Typical examples:</i> Cars, apparel, furniture, financial services</p>

2 Source: Author's own elaboration

3 *4.3 Illustration: GIS configuration in four emerging cleantech industries*

4 To further substantiate this point, we will illustrate the heuristic with examples from the burgeoning
5 literature on innovation systems in clean-tech sectors. Figure 2 synthesizes the above discussion by
6 positioning four industries from the 'clean-tech' space in our four field table. As many industries are
7 characterized by complex combinations of DUI and STI-based learning as well as standardized and
8 customized valuation, the use of Cartesian coordinates in Figure 2 does not imply that industries can
9 be precisely positioned in the two dimensional graph with a numerical value, but rather that they can
10 be compared in a two-dimensional continuum relative to each other. Also, their position in the
11 coordinate system is in most cases not stable, but subject to considerable dynamics over time (sees
12 section 4.4).

1 **Figure 2:** Allocating clean-tech industries to the four GIS types



2

3 Source: Author's own elaborations

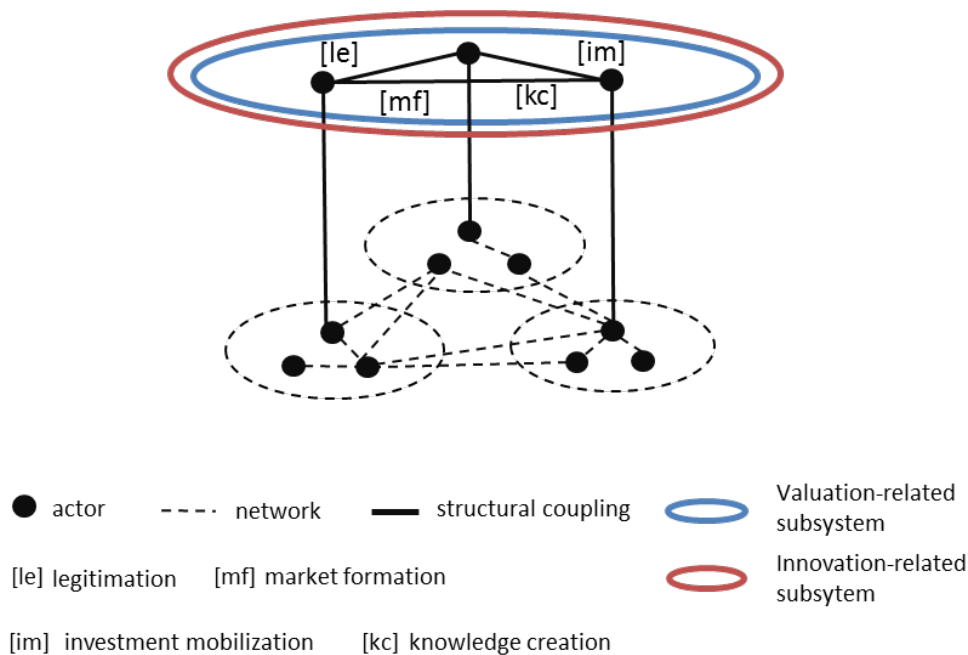
4 *Quadrant I) Footloose GIS: Solar photovoltaics*

5 The top-right quadrant exemplifies the GIS of industries that are subject to the highest possible level
 6 of global interdependencies: As the relevant knowledge bases, investment mechanisms, market
 7 conditions and quality specifications can easily be codified and standardized, international networks
 8 will play a key role at both the technological innovation and valuation side (Figure 3).

9 An industry that nicely illustrates this GIS-type is solar photovoltaics (PV) (for an in-depth discussion
 10 see Huenteler et al., 2016a; Schmidt and Huenteler, 2016). Innovation in PV depends on advances in
 11 analytical knowledge bases like material sciences or nanotechnology (Huenteler et al., 2016a; Peters
 12 et al., 2012), while economic valuation is organized in standardized, global mass markets (Dewald
 13 and Fromhold-Eisebith, 2015; Quitzow, 2015). System resource formation accordingly depended on
 14 specific territorial subsystems only in the earliest life-cycle phases, e.g. when the pioneering
 15 companies in the USA and Japan created initial knowledge and technology legitimacy in 1970-1990
 16 (Varadi, 2014), or when pioneering markets were constructed in Germany between 1990 and 2005
 17 (Dewald and Truffer, 2012). Yet, once these system resources had been created in one place,
 18 technology latecomers - most prominently from China - could mobilize and anchor them in their own
 19 industry formation process quite easily (Binz and Diaz Anadon, 2016; Quitzow, 2015). Nowadays, all

1 subsystems in the PV field depend on complex networks spanning several regions in developed and
 2 emerging economies (Binz and Diaz Anadon, 2016; de la Tour et al., 2011; Gallagher and Zhang, 2013;
 3 Quitzow, 2015) and it is hardly possible to identify specific places or regions that dominate the
 4 innovation process in this industry (Binz et al., 2017). Structural couplings at an international level are
 5 ubiquitous. Emblematic examples comprise US and European investment banks that organized IPOs
 6 for Chinese PV module manufacturers in the mid-2000s (de la Tour et al., 2011; Zhang and White,
 7 2016) or German suppliers of turnkey manufacturing lines that base their innovation activities on
 8 close interaction with Chinese manufacturing companies and Australian universities (Dewald and
 9 Fromhold-Eisebith, 2015; Quitzow, 2015). Also in the valuation dimension, the PV industry only
 10 initially relied on policy support in specific national contexts. Today, the valuation subsystems are
 11 complexly coupled at an international level, i.e. with the World Bank and the international
 12 electrochemical commission (IEC) developing globally harmonized quality standards and testing
 13 procedures for solar PV modules that essentially harmonize market entry barriers in various parts of
 14 the world (Cabraal, 2004; Varadi, 2014).

15 **Figure 3: GIS configuration in the solar photovoltaics industry**



16

17 Source: Author's own elaborations

18 *Quadrant III) Spatially sticky GIS: wind power*

19 The GIS configuration of industries in quadrant III of Figure 2 (i.e. the early wind power industry),
 20 directly contrast the case described above. The technological innovation side depends most strongly
 21 on subsystems and couplings in territorially delimited contexts (for a detailed discussion see
 22 Huenteler et al., 2016a; Lewis, 2011). Especially in the earlier industry lifecycle phases, the wind
 23 power GIS was dominated by complex 'bricolage' processes in which synthetic knowledge stocks
 24 interrelated with experience-based skills and crafts (see Garud and Karnoe, 2003). Also at the
 25 valuation side, markets were not globally homogenous, but showed strong geographic variation in
 26 terms of specialized user needs, regulation, and levels of technology legitimacy. In such a setting,

1 global couplings are achievable only if strong and sustained pipelines are established between
2 territorial subsystems of the GIS.

3 In the early wind power industry, turbine manufacturers strongly drew on a DUI innovation mode
4 (Garud and Karnoe, 2003; Huenteler et al., 2016a), while market deployment depended on
5 institutional embedding and regional technology legitimation (Garud and Karnoe, 2003).³ As
6 expected by our framework, empirical case studies confirm that innovation in spatially clearly
7 distinguishable subsystem - e.g. in the USA, the EU, and in particular Denmark – played a key role in
8 steering the wind industry from a long era of ferment to a dominant product architecture (Karnøe
9 and Garud, 2012; McDowall et al., 2013; Simmie et al., 2014; Wieczorek et al., 2015a). Territorially
10 embedded learning by doing and interacting and co-located actor networks with complementary
11 knowledge in manufacturing and application (turbine manufacturers, farmer’s collectives, research
12 and testing organizations, governmental intermediaries) initially constructed the relevant system
13 resources in only two countries: Denmark and the US (Garud and Karnoe, 2003; Karnøe and Garud,
14 2012; Simmie, 2012). Later on, activities emerged also in Germany as well as India and China (Lewis,
15 2011). Structural couplings started playing a role only after a dominant turbine architecture had
16 stabilized in the late 1990ies, and were constrained to the build-up of stable knowledge pipelines, e.g.
17 through M&A and long-term technology licensing agreements between European and
18 Chinese/Indian firms (Lema and Lema, 2012; Lewis, 2011). Nowadays, innovative turbine designs are
19 still predominantly developed in the few countries that were involved in early industry formation and
20 market deployment (in particular Denmark, Germany and the USA). Territorial subsystems thus
21 retained considerable first mover advantages through later industry life cycle phases (Huenteler et al.,
22 2016b; Lewis, 2011; McDowall et al., 2013). This stands in contrast to the solar PV case, where
23 various coupling at an international level made the technology pioneers from the USA and Japan lose
24 their initial supply and market dominance over a relatively short period of time (Binz et al., 2017;
25 Nahm and Steinfeld, 2014).

26

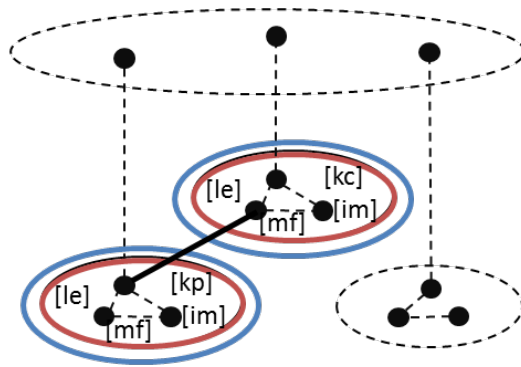
27

28

29

30 **Figure 4:** GIS configuration in the early wind power industry

³ A possible reading of the seminal paper by Garud and Karnoe (2003) would suggest that the Danish DUI mode won out against the STI mode predominant in the United States for gaining leadership in the wind industry.



- actor - - - - network — structural coupling ○ Valuation-related subsystem
- [le] legitimization [mf] market formation ○ Innovation-related subsystem
- [im] investment mobilization [kc] knowledge creation

1

2 Source: Author's own elaborations

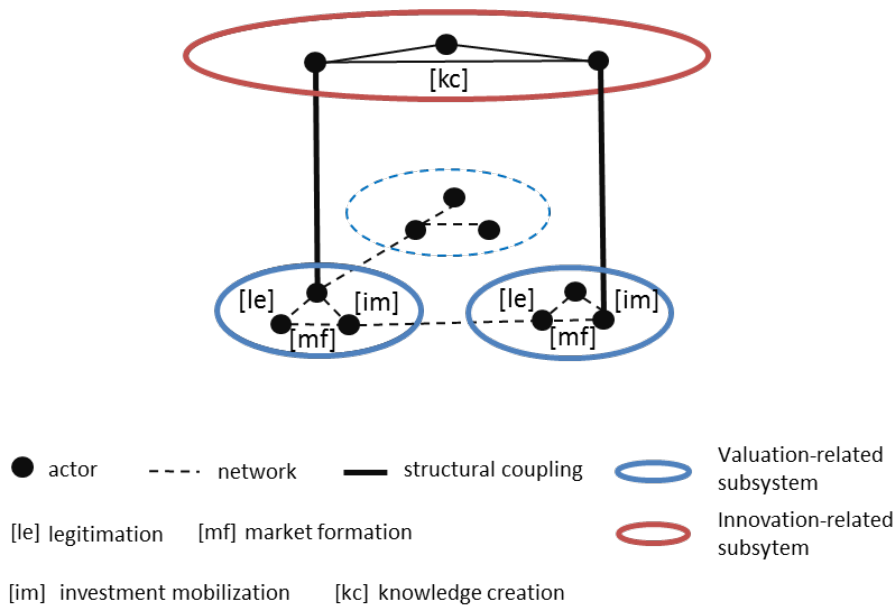
3 *Quadrant II) Complex products and systems GIS: Carbon capture and storage (CCS)*

4 The other two GIS types in quadrant II and IV are variations of the two extreme cases just presented.
 5 Industries with an STI innovation mode and customized valuation system will depend on GIS in which
 6 knowledge-related subsystems transcend territorial boundaries, while product valuation is
 7 embedded in specific territorial contexts (see Figure 5). CCS technologies⁴ are a telling illustrative
 8 example here. Technology innovation in this industry draws on basic science in STI-based knowledge
 9 fields such as geology or analytical chemistry (Markusson and Chalmers, 2013; van Alphen et al.,
 10 2010). Considerable technological progress was recently reported in this field, with significant
 11 structural couplings at an international level achieved through international research consortia and
 12 intermediaries like the International Energy Agency (IEA) or the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate
 13 Change (IPCC) (Markusson and Chalmers, 2013; Nykvist, 2013; Pickard and Foxon, 2013). Still,
 14 considerable knowledge dynamics are confronted with persistent (and spatially highly variegated)
 15 challenges in the valuation dimension. High-profile CCS programs in the US, the Netherlands, Norway
 16 or China all struggle with funding problems that are related to public debates about the technology's
 17 legitimacy, market prospects and other incompatibilities with the relevant regulative, normative and
 18 cognitive institutional contexts (Haarstad and Rusten, 2016; Nykvist, 2013; van Alphen et al., 2010).
 19 Even though technology proponents are continuously exploring ways to better embed CCS in specific
 20 regional contexts, pilot projects still fail in spectacular and often highly context-specific political
 21 struggles (Haarstad and Rusten, 2016).

22

⁴ Technologies to filter CO₂ from the exhaust of fossil fueled power or production plants and store it in underground geological formations or in the ocean.

1 **Figure 5: GIS configuration in the carbon capture and storage industry**



2

3 Source: Author's own elaborations

4

5 *Quadrant IV) Export-driven GIS: Electric cars*

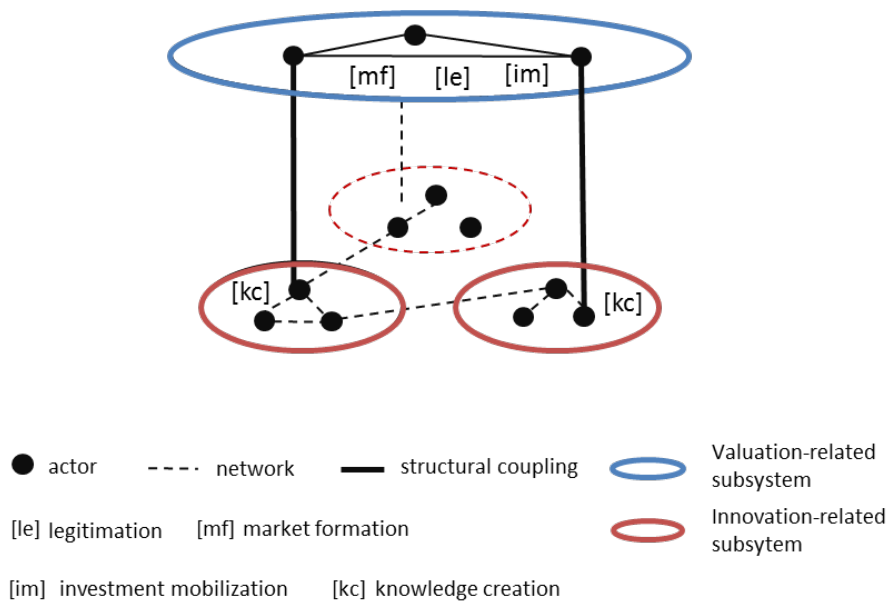
6 The GIS type that depends on DUI-based learning and standardized valuation (i.e. electric vehicles),
 7 finally, is characterized by territorially embedded subsystems at the innovation side, while new
 8 product valuation can be organized in international mass markets with well-developed supply
 9 channels. The car industry has for several decades depended on a GIS configuration in which US,
 10 European, and Asian clusters with cumulative synthetic knowledge bases in engineering, research
 11 and design played a key role in driving innovation (Dicken, 2015). At the same time, the industry's
 12 markets, distribution channels and quality criteria got strongly homogenized globally, with user
 13 tastes gravitating around a few standardized product categories (Hård and Knie, 2001). The
 14 increasing introduction of electronics into the car and the emergence of electric cars now threatens
 15 to shake this well-aligned global GIS configuration (Dicken, 2015): New entrants like Tesla or Google
 16 use IT technology and new media applications to value electric cars as a customizable and luxurious
 17 high-tech gadget (Jeannerat and Kebir, 2016; Wesseling et al., 2015). With the introduction of
 18 analytical (and increasingly symbolic) knowledge bases, we would expect the global GIS to be deeply
 19 transformed over the next decades. Our framework would predict a situation in which newcomers
 20 can suddenly enter STI-driven market niches and cater for user needs that are highly embedded in
 21 specific local institutional contexts. Even though incumbent car manufacturers are still successfully
 22 protecting the status quo, disruptive change and a deep reconfiguration of the car GIS may already
 23 be under way (Dijk et al., 2016; Truffer et al., forthcoming; Wesseling et al., 2014).

24

25

26

1 **Figure 6:** GIS configuration in the car industry



2

3 Source: Author's own elaborations

4 **4.4 Dynamics in GIS configuration**

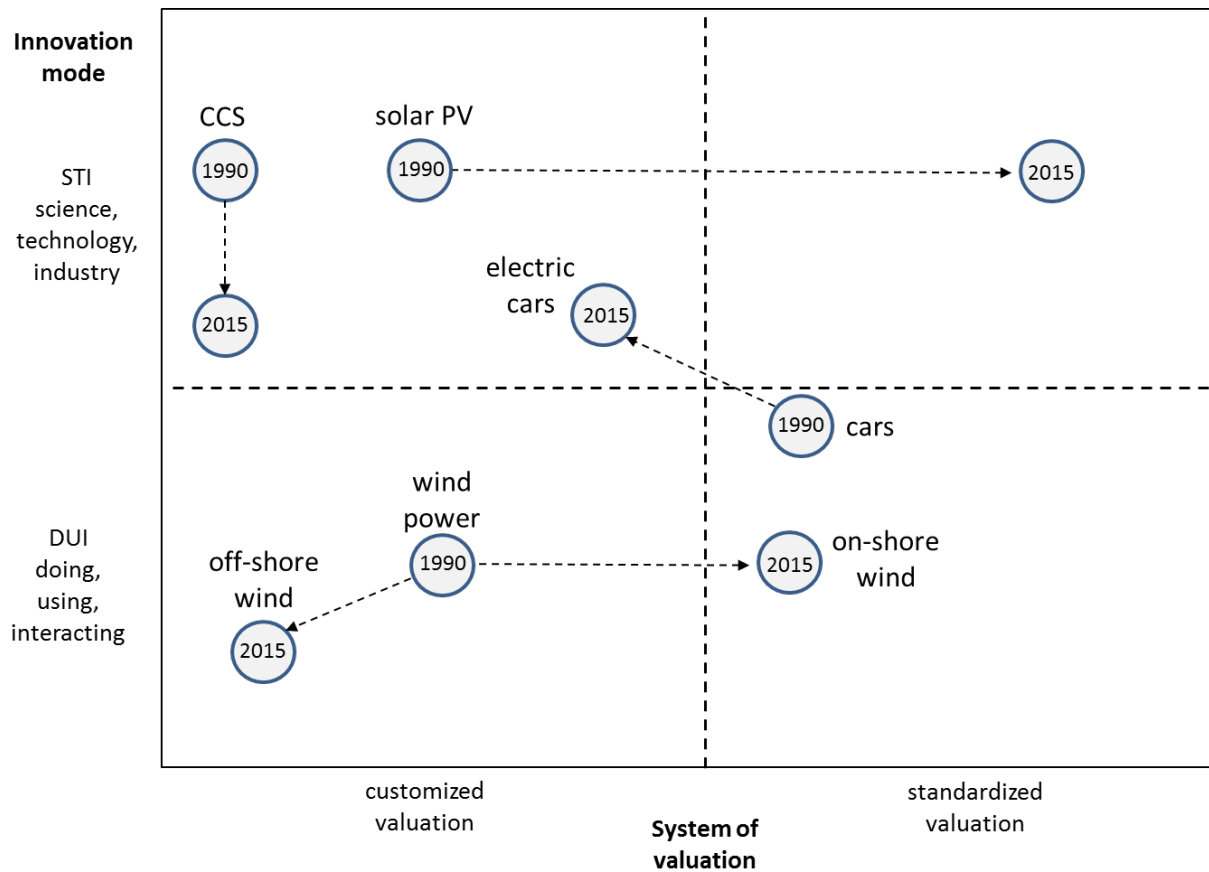
5 As repeatedly alluded to above, the spatial GIS configurations cannot be expected to remain stable
 6 for a specific industry over time. Industries may be allocated to one of the four quadrants at any
 7 specific moment in time, yet in a dynamic perspective, both the knowledge base and the valuation
 8 system may shift, e.g. when initially complex engineered products get standardized around a
 9 dominant design and develop into uniform products for global mass markets, as in the case of the
 10 solar PV around 2008 (Dewald and Fromhold-Eisebith, 2015).

11 In general, we would expect customized valuation strategies to be more important in early phases of
 12 industry emergence whereas more mature products will increasingly be characterized by
 13 standardized valuation. The solar PV and wind power GIS both support this general pattern; They
 14 both initially emerged in institutionally embedded niche markets and over time developed into
 15 standardized products for global mass markets. In the PV GIS, standardization is now highly advanced
 16 in both the innovation and valuation dimension (Dewald and Fromhold-Eisebith, 2015; Quitzow,
 17 2015). In the wind case, institutional embedding still plays a key role for technological innovation in
 18 specialized market segments like off-shore wind turbines, while standard on-shore wind turbines
 19 developed into a standardized product with price-driven global market competition. In both cases, a
 20 significant transition in the GIS's spatial configuration was thus observable after a dominant design or
 21 product architecture emerged (Huenteler et al., 2016b).

22 However, considerable shifts are conceivable also in more mature industries, for instance as in the
 23 watch industry where a highly standardized mass market product got more and more attached to
 24 symbolic meanings (Jeannerat and Kebir, 2016). Also the car GIS seems to experience significant
 25 shifts at both the innovation and valuation side. Especially with the recent move from traditional
 26 synthetic knowledge to more analytical knowledge bases, a shift from spatially sticky territorial
 27 production subsystems and standardized mass products toward more internationalized couplings in

1 production and regional variation of valuation strategies can be expected. Shifts from old regions
 2 with synthetic knowledge bases (i.e. Detroit) to regions with strengths in analytical knowledge (i.e.
 3 Silicon Valley) are accordingly already visible and likely to continue in the future. Innovation in CCS
 4 technologies, finally, has so far developed in a relative stable GIS configuration over time.

5 **Figure 7: Evolution of the GIS configuration in four industries**



6

7 **5. Outlines of a research agenda and key methodological challenges**

8 The conceptual discussion and empirical illustrations above show that operationalizing the global
 9 innovation system framework raises novel hypotheses on how systemic innovation processes in
 10 various regions, nations, and internationalized arenas interrelate. These feed into a novel research
 11 agenda with potentially highly relevant policy implications if a variety of further conceptual and
 12 methodological challenges can be solved.

13 *5.1 GIS – Foundations for a new research agenda*

14 Overall, we argue that our framework provides a rich meso-level heuristic for more empirically
 15 informed comparative analyses. In particular, it is intended to provide a framework that allows re-
 16 interpreting the plentiful single-industry case studies from various IS traditions in a theoretically
 17 more informed, comparative perspective. Its value and quality may thus ultimately be judged on
 18 whether it is able to generate new interesting research questions and hypotheses at the interface of
 19 various IS approaches. For the time being we can outline a – necessarily partial and incomplete – list
 20 of promising research fields that could be informed by this framework.

1 First, one can explore in more depth for each GIS type how and where subsystems emerge, how
2 subsystem formation differ between regions and what type of system resources get created where
3 and how. Ultimately, a GIS view provides new perspectives on the *conditions for the emergence of*
4 *positive externalities* in an innovation system. Future work would have to discern in detail how
5 interdependencies between heterogeneous actor groups lead to externality formation at and beyond
6 territorial boundaries and how access to the resulting system resources is organized and governed in
7 different industries. Ideally, this work would go beyond the manufacturing industries in focus of most
8 SIS literature and this contribution and include service sectors and various creative industries
9 (Castellacci, 2008; Martin and Moodysson, 2011). More work is needed on the question how spatially
10 dispersed communities of practice or temporary clusters support and sustain the generation of
11 system resources like knowledge, markets, financial investment, or legitimacy.

12 Second, *structural coupling* as a key process in innovation system formation should be further
13 explored. How exactly does structural coupling work, what types of actors are important, and how do
14 more informal mechanisms (i.e. at a cognitive institutional level) connect the activities in various
15 subsystems of a GIS? One key set of research questions can be related to the *role of system builders*
16 *and intermediaries* (Hughes, 1979; van Lente et al., 2003): GIS need a minimum of system
17 coordination. As discussed above, our concept emphasizes that not only transnational corporations,
18 but also industry and professional associations, international NGOs, city networks, international
19 donors, consultancy firms, etc. can play an important integrative role. Yet, how exactly they connect
20 subsystems of a complex GIS is largely uncharted terrain. Another stream of research could be
21 related to the *anchoring of external system resources* in specific regions and countries: How do
22 system externalities that developed in international networks get anchored to specific local contexts
23 and how does contextualized knowledge get up-scaled to global technology and market standards?
24 And how does this process differ between industries? A delicate balance of external structural
25 couplings and embedding in regional institutional contexts will be needed to connect innovation
26 process at various spatial scales (Crevoisier and Jeannerat, 2009).

27 Third and finally, an agenda that was downplayed in the above discussion relates to *issues of power*.
28 GIS will likely not develop through harmonious cooperation, but rather be subject to permanent
29 contestation and power struggles among interested actors (Zeller, 2000). An improved understanding
30 has to be developed on how specific actors attain a structural superior position to influence
31 innovation beyond regional contexts. How do power asymmetries in global network architecture
32 influence how and where novelty is developed and diffused (or not)? Connecting IS approaches more
33 explicitly to concepts such as network governance in GPN/GVC literature (Gereffi et al., 2005) or the
34 socio-technical regime concept (Fuenfschilling and Binz, under review) appears very promising here.
35 An initial hypothesis derived from our framework is that industries which generate hard-to-control
36 spatial spillovers (e.g. solar PV) will be less likely to develop captive value chain governance modes
37 than industries in which territorial embedding provides early movers with sustained competitive
38 advantages (e.g. wind power).

39 Also, the *role of powerful actors* may be scrutinized in more detail: Structural couplings may on the
40 one hand limit the room for maneuver in subsystems (due to actors having to accommodate
41 different rationalities at the same time) but they are also essential for the mobilization of resources.
42 This is especially important when incumbents enter an innovation system and try to influence the
43 course of development. While resourceful actors like TNCs might be particularly apt to manage

1 structural couplings, they might also induce tradeoffs between innovation and the potential for lock-
2 in into well-established cognitive frames. As a consequence, the relative role of incumbents in GIS
3 may be indirectly proportional to the disruptiveness of the innovation in focus. Various connections
4 to recent work in sustainability transitions literature and organization studies could be explored here
5 (Fligstein and McAdam, 2011; Geels, 2014; Lavie, 2006; Wesseling et al., 2015).

6 *5.2 Methodological challenges*

7 The multi-layered topology of GIS implies a set of formidable methodological challenges. Analyzing
8 the activities of all actors that participate in a GIS and considering all the relevant networks and
9 institutional contexts can quickly prove to be an overwhelming task. However, if the goal is to adapt
10 the IS concept to ongoing economic globalization, this challenge will have to be confronted.
11 Innovative methodological proposals have recently been formulated on how specific resource
12 formation processes like knowledge creation (Binz et al., 2014), legitimation (Markard et al., 2016),
13 or financial investment (Karlton, 2016) can be analyzed beyond pre-set spatial boundaries. At the
14 same time, the increasing quality of global databases on patents, publications, trade statistics or pilot
15 plant experimentation creates opportunities to define system boundaries in an empirically more
16 informed way (Binz et al., 2014; Wiczorek et al., 2015b). Finally, recent advances in social network
17 analysis and stochastic actor-based modeling might open new inroads to empirically delimiting and
18 analyzing GIS subsystems and their dynamic international coupling patterns.

19 Ultimately, the choice of methodology should relate to the needs of the conceptual focus chosen and
20 the case analyzed. The sector typology developed in section 4 might further inform system boundary
21 setting as it provides theoretical hypotheses on the geographic configuration of GIS in various
22 industries. A global innovation system perspective may thus provide an encompassing heuristic for
23 positioning partial IS analysis in specific countries or regions in broader sectorial and spatial contexts.
24 It may also allow for a more causal understanding on how innovation processes in various industries
25 develop over time and in space and on how policy making can influence the process.

26 *5.3 Policy implications*

27 Last but not least, our considerations show that conventional innovation and industrial policies often
28 fail to reflect an industry's GIS configuration. What sort of new governance approaches and
29 institutions are needed to get to grips with dynamically evolving global innovation systems? We
30 argue that industries with a footloose GIS like solar PV are quite challenging to govern with
31 conventional industry and innovation policies as their system resources emerge in international
32 networks that are hard to control in any national or regional context. The experience with the
33 national feed-in tariff for solar PV in Germany in the early 2000s illustrates this challenge. When
34 Germany implemented an ambitious national market deployment subsidy in 2002, it aimed – among
35 others - at creating a mass market that would provide the German PV manufacturers with a first-
36 mover advantage (Hoppmann et al., 2014; Peters et al., 2012). Yet, given the ubiquitous international
37 structural couplings in this GIS type, the policy did not create sustained first mover advantages for
38 the German panel manufacturers, but induced substantial spillovers to various other subsystems, in
39 particular to China, Korea, Taiwan or the USA (Binz and Diaz Anadon, 2016; Dewald and Fromhold-
40 Eisebith, 2015; Quitzow, 2015). The high spatial fluidity of this industry (which came as a surprise to
41 German policy makers (Hoppmann et al., 2014)) could have been explained and anticipated to some
42 degree based on our analytical framework.

1 Our framework also hints at a need for better international policy coordination and/or global
2 governance schemes in footloose (and to a lesser degree in export-oriented and complex product
3 and systems) GIS. In industries like solar photovoltaics, international NGOs or industry associations
4 could in principle integrate and coordinate innovation dynamics in various parts of the world in order
5 to create a common pool global knowledge platform that is accessible to firms and policy makers
6 around the world. Such a global governance structure could also be used to mitigate trade disputes
7 and reduce overcapacities while speeding up policy learning and transition dynamics in various parts
8 of the world. Overall, while GIS are emergent phenomena that cannot be actively designed or
9 governed in a top-down manner, our framework provides new hints on how policy could provide the
10 basic support structures that are adapted to an industry's specific needs.

11 Innovation and industrial policies at a national or regional level should accordingly more closely
12 reflect the targeted industry's GIS configuration. This may help to avoid unintended spatial spillovers
13 as in the solar PV case. It might also be used for identifying and eliminating system failures that
14 inhibit the development of an innovation both in specific subsystems and the structural coupling
15 patterns of a GIS. Based on our framework we would add a 'global policy coordination failure' which
16 extends on Weber and Rohracher's (2012) national policy coordination failure. E.g. in the solar PV
17 case, uncoordinated national policy interventions resulted in global overcapacities and trade disputes
18 which significantly lowered the efficiency of the GIS in diffusing the innovation. Finally, GIS-based
19 global governance systems could be designed that reflect a sector's specific innovation and valuation
20 characteristics and thus constructs more level playing field for all involved actors around the world
21 (Schmidt and Huenteler, 2016).

22 **References**

- 23 Abernathy, W.J., Utterback, J.M., 1988. Innovation over time and in historical context. In: Tushman,
24 M.L., Moore, W.L. (Eds.), *Readings in Management Innovation*. Harper Collins Publishers, New York,
25 pp. 25-36.
- 26 Abernathy, W.J., Utterback, J.M., 1978. Patterns of Industrial Innovation. *Technology Review* 80 (7),
27 40-47.
- 28 Archibugi, D., Michie, J., 1997. Technological globalisation and national systems of innovation: an
29 introduction. In: Archibugi, D., Michie, J. (Eds.), *Technology, Globalisation and Economic Performance*.
30 Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, pp. 1-23.
- 31 Asheim, B.T., Gertler, M.S., 2005. The Geography of Innovation: Regional Innovation Systems. In:
32 Fagerberg, J., Mowery, D., Nelson, R. (Eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of Innovation*. Oxford University
33 Press, Oxford, pp. 291-317.
- 34 Asheim, B.T., Coenen, L., Vang, J., 2007. Face-to-face, buzz, and knowledge bases: Sociospatial
35 implications for learning, innovation, and innovation policy. *Environment and Planning C:
36 Government and Policy* 25 (5), 655-670.
- 37 Asheim, B.T., Coenen, L., 2005. Knowledge bases and regional innovation systems: Comparing Nordic
38 clusters. *Research Policy*, 34 (8), 1173-1190.

- 1 Auerswald, P., Stefanotti, J., 2012. Integrating Technology and Institutional Change: Toward the
2 Design and Deployment of 21st Century Digital Property Rights Institutions. *Innovations* 7 (4), 113-
3 123.
- 4 Bathelt, H., Malmberg, A., Maskell, P., 2004. Clusters and knowledge: local buzz, global pipelines and
5 the process of knowledge creation. *Progress in Human Geography* 28 (1), 31-56.
- 6 Bell, M., Giuliani, E., 2007. Catching up in the global wine industry: Innovation systems, cluster
7 knowledge networks and firm-level capabilities in Italy and Chile. *International Journal of Technology*
8 *and Globalisation* 3 (2-3), 197-223.
- 9 Bergek, A., Hekkert, M., Jacobsson, S., Markard, J., Sanden, B., Truffer, B., 2015. Technological
10 innovation systems in contexts: Conceptualizing contextual structures and interaction dynamics.
11 *Environmental Innovation and Societal Transitions* 16, 51-64.
- 12 Bergek, A., Jacobsson, S., Carlsson, B., Lindmark, S., Rickne, A., 2008. Analyzing the functional
13 dynamics of technological innovation systems: A scheme of analysis. *Research Policy* 37 (3), 407-429.
- 14 Binz, C., Tang, T., Huenteler, J., 2017. Spatial Lifecycles of Cleantech Industries - the Global
15 Development History of Solar Photovoltaics. *Energy Policy* 101, 386-402.
- 16 Binz, C., Diaz Anadon, L., 2016. Transplanting clean-tech paths from elsewhere - The emergence of
17 the Chinese solar PV industry. *Circle Working Paper Series 2016/29* (available online at
18 http://swopec.hhs.se/lucirc/abs/lucirc2016_029.htm).
- 19 Binz, C., Sedlak, D., Harris-Lovett, S., Kiparsky, M., Truffer, B., 2016a. The thorny road to technology
20 legitimation – Institutional work for potable water reuse in California. *Technological Forecasting &*
21 *Social Change* 103, 249-263.
- 22 Binz, C., Truffer, B., Coenen, L., 2016b. Path creation as a process of resource alignment and
23 anchoring – Industry formation for on-site water recycling in Beijing. *Economic Geography* 92 (2),
24 172-200.
- 25 Binz, C., Truffer, B., Coenen, L., 2014. Why space matters in technological innovation systems – The
26 global knowledge dynamics of membrane bioreactor technology. *Research Policy* 43 (1), 138-155.
- 27 Boli, J., Thomas, G.M., 1997. World Culture in the World Polity: A Century of International Non-
28 Governmental Organization. *American Sociological Review* 62 (2), 171-190.
- 29 Bork, S., Schoormans, J.P.L., Silvester, S., Joore, P., 2015. How actors can influence the legitimation of
30 new consumer product categories: A theoretical framework. *Environmental Innovation and Societal*
31 *Transitions* 16, 38-50.
- 32 Boschma, R., 2005. Proximity and innovation: a critical assessment. *Regional Studies* 39 (1), 61-74.
- 33 Breschi, S., Malerba, F., Orsenigo, L., 2000. Technological Regimes and Schumpeterian Patterns of
34 Innovation. *The Economic Journal* 110 (463), 388-410.
- 35 Bunnell, T.G., Coe, N.M., 2001. Spaces and scales of innovation. *Progress in Human Geography* 25 (4),
36 569-589.

- 1 Cabraal, A., 2004. Strengthening PV businesses in China - A World Bank renewable energy
2 development project. *Renewable Energy World* (May-June), 126-139.
- 3 Carlsson, B., 2006. Internationalization of innovation systems: A survey of the literature. *Research*
4 *Policy* 35 (1), 56-67.
- 5 Carlsson, B., Stankiewicz, R., 1991. On the nature, function and composition of technological systems.
6 *Journal of Evolutionary Economics* 1 (2), 93-118.
- 7 Castellacci, F., 2008. Technological paradigms, regimes and trajectories: Manufacturing and service
8 industries in a new taxonomy of sectoral patterns of innovation. *Research Policy* 37 (6-7), 978-994.
- 9 Coe, N.M., Bunnell, T.G., 2003. 'Spatializing' knowledge communities: towards a conceptualization of
10 transnational innovation networks. *Global Networks* 3 (4), 437-456.
- 11 Coenen, L., Benneworth, P., Truffer, B., 2012. Toward a spatial perspective on sustainability
12 transitions. *Research Policy* 41 (6), 968-979.
- 13 Coenen, L., Díaz López, F.J., 2010. Comparing systems approaches to innovation and technological
14 change for sustainable and competitive economies: an explorative study into conceptual
15 commonalities, differences and complementarities. *Journal of Cleaner Production* 18 (12), 1149-1160.
- 16 Conca K., Wu F., Mei C., 2006. Global regime formation or complex institution building? The
17 principled content of international river agreements. *International Studies Quarterly* 50 (2), 263-285.
- 18 Cooke, P., Gomez Uranga, M., Etxebarria, G., 1997. Regional innovation systems: Institutional and
19 organisational dimensions. *Research Policy* 26 (4-5), 475-491.
- 20 Corpataux, J., Crevoisier, O., Theurillat, T., 2009. The expansion of the finance industry and its impact
21 on the economy: a territorial approach based on Swiss pension funds. *Economic Geography* 85 (3),
22 313-334.
- 23 Crevoisier, O., Jeannerat, H., 2009. Territorial knowledge dynamics: From the proximity paradigm to
24 multi-location milieus. *European Planning Studies* 17 (8), 1223-1241.
- 25 Davies, A., 1997. The life cycle of a complex product system. *International Journal of Innovation*
26 *Management* 1 (03), 229-256.
- 27 de la Tour, A., Glachant, M., Ménière, Y., 2011. Innovation and international technology transfer: The
28 case of the Chinese photovoltaic industry. *Energy Policy* 39 (2), 761-770.
- 29 Dewald, U., Truffer, B., 2012. The Local Sources of Market Formation: explaining regional growth
30 differentials in German photovoltaic markets. *European Planning Studies* (3), 397-420.
- 31 Dewald, U., Truffer, B., 2011. Market Formation in Technological Innovation Systems - Diffusion of
32 Photovoltaic Applications in Germany. *Industry and Innovation* 18 (3), 285-300.
- 33 Dewald, U., Fromhold-Eisebith, M., 2015. Trajectories of sustainability transitions in scale-
34 transcending innovation systems: The case of photovoltaics. *Environmental Innovation and Societal*
35 *Transitions* 17, 110-125.

- 1 Dicken, P., 2015. Global shift: mapping the changing contours of the world economy - 7th edition.
2 (7th edition), The Guilford Press, New York.
- 3 Dijk, M., Wells, P., Kemp, R., 2016. Will the momentum of the electric car last? Testing an hypothesis
4 on disruptive innovation. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change* 105, 77-88.
- 5 Dosi, G., Nelson, R.R., 2013. The evolution of technologies: an assessment of the state-of-the-art.
6 *Eurasian Business Review* 3 (1), 3-46.
- 7 Drori G., Hoellerer M. and Walgenbach P. (Editors), 2014. *Global Themes and Local Variations in
8 Organization and Management: Perspectives on Glocalization*. Routledge.
- 9 Drori, G.S., Meyer, J.W., Ramirez, F.O., Schofer, E., 2003. *Science in the Modern World Polity.
10 Institutionalization and Globalization*. Stanford University Press, Stanford, CA.
- 11 Edquist, C., 1997. Systems of innovation approaches - Their emergence and characteristics. *Systems
12 of Innovation: Technologies, Institutions and Organizations*, 1-35.
- 13 Ernst, D., 2002. Global Production Networks and the Changing Geography of Innovation Systems.
14 Implications for Developing Countries. *Economics of Innovation and New Technology* 11 (6), 497-523.
- 15 Fligstein, N., 2007. The Sociology of Markets. *Annual Review of Sociology* 33, 105-128.
- 16 Fligstein, N., McAdam, D., 2011. Toward a General Theory of Strategic Action Fields. *Sociological
17 Theory* 29 (1), 1-26.
- 18 Fuenfschilling, L., Binz, C., under review. Global socio-technical regimes. paper under review at
19 Research Policy.
- 20 Gallagher, K.S., Zhang, F., 2013. Innovation and Technology Transfer Across Global Value Chains:
21 Evidence from China's PV Industry. *Climate & Development Knowledge Network*, Tufts University.
- 22 Garud, R., Karnoe, P., 2003. Bricolage versus breakthrough: distributed and embedded agency in
23 technology entrepreneurship. *Research Policy* 32 (2), 277-300.
- 24 Geels, F.W., 2014. Reconceptualising the co-evolution of firms-in-industries and their environments:
25 Developing an inter-disciplinary Triple Embeddedness Framework. *Research Policy* 43 (2), 261-277.
- 26 Geels, F.W., 2004. From sectoral systems of innovation to socio-technical systems: Insights about
27 dynamics and change from sociology and institutional theory. *Research Policy* 33 (6-7), 897-920.
- 28 Gereffi, G., Humphrey, J., Sturgeon, T., 2005. The governance of global value chains. *Review of
29 international political economy* 12 (1), 78-104.
- 30 Giuliani, E., Bell, M., 2005. The micro-determinants of meso-level learning and innovation: Evidence
31 from a Chilean wine cluster. *Research Policy* 34 (1), 47-68.
- 32 Gosens, J., Lu, Y., Coenen, L., 2015. The role of transnational dimensions in emerging economy
33 'Technological Innovation Systems' for clean-tech. *Journal of Cleaner Production* 86 (1), 378-388.

- 1 Grillitsch, M., Tripl, M., 2013. Combining Knowledge from Different Sources, Channels and
2 Geographical Scales. *European Planning Studies* 22 (11), 2305-2325.
- 3 Haarstad, H., Rusten, G., 2016. The challenges of greening energy: policy/industry dissonance at the
4 Mongstad refinery, Norway. *Environment and Planning C: Government and Policy* 34 (2), 340-355.
- 5 Hård, M., Knie, A., 2001. The Cultural Dimension of Technology Management: Lessons from the
6 History of the Automobile. *Technology Analysis & Strategic Management* 13 (1), 91-103.
- 7 Hekkert, M., Suurs, R., Negro, S., Kuhlmann, S., Smits, R., 2007. Functions of innovation systems: A
8 new approach for analysing technological change. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change* 74 (4),
9 413-432.
- 10 Herstad, S.J., Aslesen, H.W., Ebersberger, B., 2014. On industrial knowledge bases, commercial
11 opportunities and global innovation network linkages. *Research Policy* 43 (3), 495-504.
- 12 Hess, M., Yeung, H.W., 2006. Whither global production networks in economic geography? past,
13 present and future. *Environment and Planning A* 38 (7), 1193-1204.
- 14 Hoppmann, J., Huenteler, J., Girod, B., 2014. Compulsive policy-making—The evolution of the
15 German feed-in tariff system for solar photovoltaic power. *Research Policy* 43 (8), 1422-1441.
- 16 Huenteler, J., Schmidt, T., Ossenbrink, J., Hoffmann, V., 2016a. Technology Life-Cycles in the Energy
17 Sector – Technological Characteristics and the Role of Deployment for Innovation. *Technological
18 Forecasting & Social Change* 104, 102-121.
- 19 Huenteler, J., Ossenbrink, J., Schmidt, T.S., Hoffmann, V.H., 2016b. How a product's design hierarchy
20 shapes the evolution of technological knowledge - Evidence from patent-citation networks in wind
21 power. *Research Policy* 45 (6), 1195-1217.
- 22 Hughes, T.P., 1979. The Electrification of America: The System Builders. *Technology and Culture* 20,
23 124-161.
- 24 Jeannerat, H., Crevoisier, O., 2013. Cultural activities in territorial development - The case of cultural
25 and creative enterprises in the Swiss watchmaking industry. In: Lazzeretti, L. (Ed.), *Creative Industries
26 and Innovation in Europe. Concepts, Measures and Comparative Case Studies*. Routledge, New York,
27 NY, pp. 232-250.
- 28 Jeannerat, H., Kebir, L., 2016. Knowledge, Resources and Markets: What Economic System of
29 Valuation? *Regional Studies* 50 (2), 274-288.
- 30 Jensen, M.B., Johnson, B., Lorenz, E., Lundvall, B.Å., 2007. Forms of knowledge and modes of
31 innovation. *Research Policy* 36 (5), 680-693.
- 32 Johnson, C., Dowd, T.J., Ridgeway, C.L., 2006. Legitimacy as a social process. *Annual Review of
33 Sociology* 32, 53-78.
- 34 Jung, M., Lee, K., 2010. Sectoral systems of innovation and productivity catch-up: determinants of
35 the productivity gap between Korean and Japanese firms. *Industrial and Corporate Change* 19 (4),
36 1037-1069.

- 1 Karltorp, K., 2016. Challenges in mobilising financial resources for renewable energy—The cases of
2 biomass gasification and offshore wind power. *Environmental Innovation and Societal Transitions* 19,
3 96-110.
- 4 Karnøe, P., Garud, R., 2012. Path Creation: Co-creation of Heterogeneous Resources in the
5 Emergence of the Danish Wind Turbine Cluster. *European Planning Studies* 20 (5), 733-752.
- 6 Lakhani, K.R., Von Hippel, E., 2003. How open source software works: "free" user-to-user assistance.
7 *Research Policy* 32 (6), 923-943.
- 8 Larner, W., Laurie, N., 2010. Travelling technocrats, embodied knowledges: Globalising privatisation
9 in telecoms and water. *Geoforum* 41 (2), 218-226.
- 10 Lavie, D., 2006. Capability reconfiguration: An analysis of incumbent responses to technological
11 change. *Academy of Management Review* 31 (1), 153-174.
- 12 Lema, A., Lema, R., 2016. Low-carbon innovation and technology transfer in latecomer countries:
13 Insights from solar PV in the clean development mechanism. *Technological Forecasting and Social
14 Change* 104, 223-236.
- 15 Lema, R., Lema, A., 2012. Technology transfer? The rise of China and India in green technology
16 sectors. *Innovation and Development* 2 (1), 23-44.
- 17 Lewis, J.I., 2011. Building a national wind turbine industry: Experiences from China, India and South
18 Korea. *International Journal of Technology and Globalisation* 5 (3-4), 281-305.
- 19 Lundvall, B., 1992. *National Systems of Innovation - toward a Theory of Innovation and Interactive
20 Learning*. Pinter, London.
- 21 Lundvall, B., 1988. Innovation as an interactive process: from user-producer interaction to the
22 national system of innovation. In: Dosi, G., Freeman, C., Nelson, R., Silverberg, G., Soete, L. (Eds.),
23 *Technical Change and Economic Theory*. Pinter, London, pp. 349-369.
- 24 Malerba, F., Nelson, R., 2011. Learning and catching up in different sectoral systems: evidence from
25 six industries. *Industrial and Corporate Change* 20 (6), 1645-1675.
- 26 Malerba, F., 2005. Sectoral systems of innovation: a framework for linking innovation to the
27 knowledge base, structure and dynamics of sectors. *Economics of innovation and New Technology* 14
28 (1-2), 63-82.
- 29 Malerba, F., 2002. Sectoral systems of innovation and production. *Research Policy* 31 (2), 247-264.
- 30 Markard, J., Wirth, S., Truffer, B., 2016. Institutional dynamics and technology legitimacy - A
31 framework and a case study on biogas technology. *Research Policy* 45 (1), 330-344.
- 32 Markard, J., Hekkert, M., Jacobsson, S., 2015. The technological innovation systems framework:
33 Response to six criticisms. *Environmental Innovation and Societal Transitions* 16, 76-86.
- 34 Markusson, N., Chalmers, H., 2013. Characterising CCS learning: The role of quantitative methods and
35 alternative approaches. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change* 80 (7), 1409-1417.

- 1 Martin, B.R., 2016. Twenty challenges for innovation studies. *Science and Public Policy* 43 (3), 432-
2 450.
- 3 Martin, R., Moodysson, J., 2013. Comparing knowledge bases: On the geography and organization of
4 knowledge sourcing in the regional innovation system of Scania, Sweden. *European Urban and*
5 *Regional Studies* 20 (2), 170-187.
- 6 Martin, R., Moodysson, J., 2011. Innovation in symbolic industries: The geography and organization
7 of knowledge sourcing. *European Planning Studies* 19 (7), 1183-1203.
- 8 Maskell, P., Bathelt, H., Malmberg, A., 2006. Building Global Knowledge Pipelines: The Role of
9 Temporary Clusters. *European Planning Studies* 14, 997-1013.
- 10 McDowall, W., Ekins, P., Radošević, S., Zhang, L., 2013. The development of wind power in China,
11 Europe and the USA: how have policies and innovation system activities co-evolved? *Technology*
12 *Analysis & Strategic Management* 25 (2), 163-185.
- 13 Meyer, J.W., Boli, J., Thomas, G.M., Ramirez, F.O., 1997. World society and the nation-state.
14 *American Journal of sociology* 103 (1), 144-181.
- 15 Moodysson, J., Jonsson, O., 2007. Knowledge collaboration and proximity: The spatial organization of
16 biotech innovation projects. *European Urban and Regional Studies* 14 (2), 115-131.
- 17 Morrison, A., Pietrobelli, C., Rabellotti, R., 2008. Global value chains and technological capabilities: a
18 framework to study learning and innovation in developing countries. *Oxford development studies* 36
19 (1), 39-58.
- 20 Moulaert, F., Sekia, F., 2003. Territorial Innovation models: A critical survey. *Regional Studies* 37 (3),
21 289-302.
- 22 Murphy, J., Levidow, L., Carr, S., 2006. Regulatory standards for environmental risks: Understanding
23 the US-European union conflict over genetically modified crops. *Social Studies of Science* 36 (1), 133-
24 160.
- 25 Nahm, J., Steinfeld, E.S., 2014. Scale-up Nation: China's Specialization in Innovative Manufacturing.
26 *World Development* 54, 288-300.
- 27 Nelson, R., 1993. *National Innovation Systems: A Comparative Analysis*. Oxford University Press, New
28 York.
- 29 Niosi, J., Bellon, B., 1994. The global interdependence of national innovation systems: Evidence,
30 limits, and implications. *Technology in Society* 16 (2), 173-197.
- 31 Nykvist, B., 2013. Ten times more difficult: Quantifying the carbon capture and storage challenge.
32 *Energy Policy* 55, 683-689.
- 33 Oinas, P., Malecki, E.J., 2002. The Evolution of Technologies in Time and Space: From National and
34 Regional to Spatial Innovation Systems. *Int. Reg. Sci. Rev.* 25 (1), 102-131.

- 1 Peters, M., Schneider, M., Griesshaber, T., Hoffmann, V.H., 2012. The impact of technology-push and
2 demand-pull policies on technical change—Does the locus of policies matter? *Research Policy* 41 (8),
3 1296-1308.
- 4 Pickard, S., Foxon, T.J., 2013. The state of development of the UK CCS industry: An expert
5 questionnaire and systems-based approach. *Energy Procedia*, 37, 7613-7621.
- 6 Pietrobelli, C., Rabellotti, R., 2009. The global dimension of innovation systems: linking innovation
7 systems and global value chains. In: Lundvall, B., Joseph, K.J., Chaminade, C., Vang, J. (Eds.),
8 *Handbook of Innovation Systems and Developing Countries*. Edward Elgar, Cheltenham, UK, pp. 214-
9 238.
- 10 Quitzow, R., 2015. Dynamics of a policy-driven market: The co-evolution of technological innovation
11 systems for solar photovoltaics in China and Germany. *Environmental Innovation and Societal*
12 *Transitions* 17, 126-148.
- 13 Sagar, A.D., Holdren, J.P., 2002. Assessing the global energy innovation system: some key issues.
14 *Energy Policy* 30 (6), 465-469.
- 15 Schmidt, T.S., Huenteler, J., 2016. Anticipating industry localization effects of clean technology
16 deployment policies in developing countries. *Global Environmental Change* 38, 8-20.
- 17 Simmie, J., 2012. Path Dependence and New Technological Path Creation in the Danish Wind Power
18 Industry. *European Planning Studies* 20 (5), 753-772.
- 19 Simmie, J., Sternberg, R., Carpenter, J., 2014. New technological path creation: evidence from the
20 British and German wind energy industries. *Journal of Evolutionary Economics* 24 (4), 875-904.
- 21 Spencer, J.W., 2003. Firms' knowledge-sharing strategies in the global innovation system: Empirical
22 evidence from the flat panel display industry. *Strategic Management Journal* 24 (3), 217-233.
- 23 Strang, D., Meyer, J.W., 1993. Institutional conditions for diffusion. *Theory and society* 22 (4), 487-
24 511.
- 25 Suchman, M.C., 1995. Managing legitimacy: Strategic and Institutional Approaches. *Academy of*
26 *Management Review* 20 (3), 571-610.
- 27 Truffer, B., Schippl, J., Fleischer, T., forthcoming. Decentering Technology in Technology Assessment:
28 Prospects for socio-technical transitions in electric mobility in Germany. *Technological Forecasting*
29 *and Social Change*.
- 30 van Alphen, K., Hekkert, M.P., Turkenburg, W.C., 2010. Accelerating the deployment of carbon
31 capture and storage technologies by strengthening the innovation system. *International Journal of*
32 *Greenhouse Gas Control* 4 (2), 396-409.
- 33 van Lente, H., Hekkert, M., Smits, R., van Waveren, B., 2003. Roles of Systemic Intermediaries in
34 Transition Processes. *International Journal of Innovation Management* 7 (3), 247-279.
- 35 Varadi, P., 2014. *Sun Above the Horizon: Meteoric Rise of the Solar Industry*. Pan Stanford Publishing,
36 Singapore.

- 1 Weber, M., Truffer, B., 2017. Moving innovation systems research to the next level: towards an
2 integrative agenda. *Oxford Review of Economic Policy* 33 (1).
- 3 Weber, K.M., Rohracher, H., 2012. Legitimizing research, technology and innovation policies for
4 transformative change: Combining insights from innovation systems and multi-level perspective in a
5 comprehensive 'failures' framework. *Research Policy* 41 (6), 1037-1047.
- 6 Wesseling, J., Niesten, E., Faber, J., Hekkert, M., 2015. Business strategies of incumbents in the
7 market for electric vehicles: Opportunities and incentives for sustainable innovation. *Business
8 Strategy and the Environment* 24 (6), 518-531.
- 9 Wesseling, J., Faber, J., Hekkert, M., 2014. How competitive forces sustain electric vehicle
10 development. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change* 81, 154-164.
- 11 Wieczorek, A.J., Hekkert, M.P., Coenen, L., Harmsen, R., 2015a. Broadening the national focus in
12 technological innovation system analysis: The case of offshore wind. *Environmental Innovation and
13 Societal Transitions* 14, 128-148.
- 14 Wieczorek, A.J., Raven, R., Berkhout, F., 2015b. Transnational linkages in sustainability experiments:
15 A typology and the case of solar photovoltaic energy in India. *Environmental Innovation and Societal
16 Transitions* 17, 149-165.
- 17 Wirth, S., Markard, J., Truffer, B., Rohracher, H., 2013. Informal institutions matter: Professional
18 culture and the development of biogas technology. *Environmental Innovation and Societal
19 Transitions* 8, 20-41.
- 20 Yeung, H.W., Coe, N.M., 2015. Toward a dynamic theory of global production networks. *Economic
21 Geography* 91 (1), 29-58.
- 22 Yu, J., Malerba, F., Adams, P., Zhang, Y., 2016. Related yet diverging sectoral systems:
23 telecommunications equipment and semiconductors in China. *Industry and Innovation*, 1-23.
- 24 Zeller, C., 2000. Rescaling power relations between trade unions and corporate management in a
25 globalising pharmaceutical industry: The case of the acquisition of Boehringer Mannheim by Hoffman
26 - La Roche. *Environment and Planning A* 32 (9), 1545-1567.
- 27 Zhang, W., White, S., 2016. Overcoming the liability of newness: Entrepreneurial action and the
28 emergence of China's private solar photovoltaic firms. *Research Policy* 45 (3), 604-617.
- 29