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THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATIONS OF SPATIAL DEVELOPMENT OF REGIONS

Annotation. The paper presents the results of a study of fundamental scientific works and scientific-analytical studies of foreign and domestic economic geographers and economists, revealing the theoretical and conceptual foundations of the spatial development of regions. The article shows the essence and features of the influence of the following theories and concepts on the spatial development of the region: the theory of central places; concepts for the development of problem (crisis, depressed, marginal) areas; theories of diffusion of innovations; concepts of poles and centers of growth ("polarized development"); theories of territorial production complexes; Japanese concept of technopolises; theories of geographical (territorial) industrial clusters; Russian concept of polarized development. Based on the considered theories and concepts, the goals and objectives of the spatial development of regions are formulated. It is concluded that these theories and concepts can contribute to the effective territorial organization of the economy and population, the spatial development of the regions of Kazakhstan based on the transformation and modernization of regional territorial socio-economic systems.

Keywords: spatial development; theory; concept; region; territorial socio-economic system; territory; socio-economic development; competitiveness; transformation.

Introduction

In modern market conditions, competition between countries is intensifying. The competitiveness of the state increasingly depends on the sustainable development of territorial socio-economic systems (TSES) at the regional level. In this regard, it becomes relevant to study the issues of scientifically grounded practical use of the theoretical and conceptual foundations of spatial development of regions for the purpose of effective territorial organization of the economy and population of Kazakhstan.

The theoretical and conceptual foundations of spatial development of regions is a set of theories that are characterized by constructiveness, contributing to the achievement of effective functioning, modernization, historically established and (or) emerging TSES, sustainable socio-economic development of the territory, and ensuring its competitive advantages.

Materials and research methods

The study of the theoretical and conceptual foundations of spatial development of regions was carried out on the basis of an analysis of 43 fundamental scientific works and scientific and analytical studies of foreign and domestic economic geographers and economists. The analyzed works comprehensively reveal theories and concepts aimed at increasing the competitiveness of the socio-economic systems of the territory through the involvement of territorial resources in the production process. The materials studied reflect the importance of taking into account the spatial factor when determining the directions of socio-economic development of the territory.

The study of materials was carried out using methodological approaches of literary and systemic analysis, generalization, induction, historical-geographical, analogy, deduction, analysis of expert assessments, comparative geographical, cartographic-analytical, descriptive, factor analysis and others. The listed methods made it possible to reveal the essence and features of a number of theories and concepts of spatial development of regions.

Research results

In general, this work does not pretend to consider and systematize all theories and concepts of spatial development of regions that have developed within the framework of geographical and economic sciences. In our opinion, the main theoretical and conceptual foundations of spatial development of regions include the following theories and concepts that have been and are actively used by economic geographers: the theory of central places by W. Christaller and A. Loesch; the concept of development of problem (crisis, depressed, marginal) areas; theory of diffusion of innovations; the concept of poles and centers of growth ("polarized development"); theory of territorial production complexes (TPC) N.N. Kolosovsky; Japanese concept of technopolises; M. Porter's theory of geographical (territorial) industrial clusters; Russian concept of polarized development.

The foundations of *the theory of central places* were laid by the German scientists W. Christaller ("Die zentralen Orte in Süddeutschland" (1933) [1]) and A. Loesch ("Geographical distribution of the economy" (1940)). "The foci, or cores, to which settlements gravitate and around which they are grouped, Christaller called central places. Each central place, according to his theory, is complemented by the surrounding territory with which it is functionally connected" [2, p. 581-582]. A central place is a settlement of any size, most often a city, acting as a center that provides goods and services to the population of other settlements in the area [3, p. 65]. The central places are not the same in importance. Higher-order centers have a wider range of goods and services than lower-order centers, which are partially provided by the higher-order center. The areas served by central locations are called complementary areas. Those of them that belong to centers of a higher order occupy a large area and overlap the small complementary areas of centers of lower orders [4, p. 416].

As the basis for his theory of central places, W. Christeller takes the smallest settlement cells that form regular hexagons with an even distribution of settlements in the sales zone, which are characterized by the smallest average distance for buyers to travel to the center. The hierarchy of settlements (places of residence of consumers of

goods and services) is such that any center always has under its control the same (denoted by the letter K) number of settlements that have a lower rank [5, p. 141-142]. Explaining the formation of different levels of services, he introduces the "radius for the sale of services and goods," which is different for market zones of different levels. At the same time, he comes to the conclusion that there is a lower limit, beyond which the influx of consumers is too small to justify the activity of the enterprise [6, p. 314].

"Christaller establishes three possible options for determining the dimensions of K. 1. Sales orientation. If the source of supply for goods or services produced in central locations must be located at a minimum distance from dependent locations, then a hierarchy of K = 3 is appropriate, since in this case the number of central locations is maximized. In this case, connections exist only with the two closest points (the third is the center itself), which will lead to a symmetrical nested hierarchy. 2. Focus on transport. At high transport costs, a hierarchy with K equal to 4 is advisable, since the largest number of central places will be located on one highway connecting larger cities, which ensures the lowest costs for the construction and operation of roads. In this case, connections will be established with three of the six dependent sites, which will give a different nesting pattern. 3. Administrative orientation. To implement clear administrative control, according to Christaller, a hierarchy based on K = 7 is appropriate, in which the central place is connected with all six closest dependent places" [7, p. 149-150].

W. Christaller's constructions have strictly fixed values of K, at which the size and function of settlements located on the same level are the same. At the same time, central places of high rank have all the functions of smaller settlements. His model can only be extended to the service sector.

The theory of central places was further developed in the works of A. Lösch, where a more complex model of the location of settlements was given, as close as possible to reality. "First of all, he believed," writes W. Bunge, "that transport costs grow with increasing distances, which is why on the periphery of market zones prices for goods and services rise and demand falls" [5, p. 143]. As a result, a "cone of demand" is formed - the radius of the zone for selling goods and services of central places, the lower limit of which is determined by the threshold value of the market, and the upper limit is determined by the distance at which it is advisable to sell the product [7, p. 151]. Using the example of a brewery, A. Lösch shows the "cone of demand" in a formalized form: "Algebraically, this can be expressed using the following equation:

$$D = d \times \pi \int_0^R f(p+t) \times t \times dt$$

where D is total demand as a function of price fob p;

d is twice the population of a square in which transporting one unit of production along one side costs 1 mark;

π = 3.14...;

d=f (p+t) – individual demand as a function of price at the place of consumption;

p – FOB price (ex-factory transport vehicle);

t is the cost of transporting a unit of product from the brewery to the consumer;

R – maximum available transport costs..." [8, p. 116-117].

Based on mathematical calculations, he proves that with a complete division of the territory into market zones and a straight line of demand, the total volume of demand cones will be maximum when their bases are shaped like a hexagon. On this occasion, A. Lösch writes: "Economic regions are quite conceivable in the form of triangles or squares. But the hexagon has the advantage that it comes closest to the ideal shape of a circle. In accordance with this, of all three options for the shape of the area, the greatest demand per unit of area is provided in the hexagon" [8, p. 120]. He further writes: "...for an individual entrepreneur it makes no difference what shape his area has, and yet for all producers as a whole, the shape of the honeycomb cells is more profitable, since it allows the existence of the maximum number of independent enterprises" [8, p. 122].

A. Lösch understood that different goods and services would have different sizes of market zones. By rotating the superimposed market zones of various cities around a common center (where, in the author's opinion, the main city appears, which has all the advantages associated with broad local demand), he sought to reduce the maximum possible number of centers at K = 3, K = 4, K = 7, as a result of which the network system forms a "gear wheel" with 6 sectors with a large number of production points and 6 with a small number of them. The author proves: "With this arrangement, most of the production locations coincide; it becomes possible to purchase goods mainly locally, the sum of the minimum distances between production locations acquires the smallest value, and as a result, not only the volume of transportation decreases, but also the length of communication routes" [8, p. 132]. At the same time: "In the immediate vicinity of the main city, which resembles a cogwheel in shape, there will inevitably be few cities, since in the vicinity of a large point the production of only a few types of local goods can be profitable" [8, p. 133]. A. Lösch calls the system of market zones with an agglomeration effect an "economic landscape" and considers it the highest link in the hierarchy of economic location.

The model developed by A. Lösch has a more flexible structure than that of W. Christaller, and differs in that the values of K can be freely varied. This allows the formation of an almost continuous sequence of centers. In this case, settlements of a higher order do not necessarily perform all the functions that are available in settlements of a lower order. And settlements with the same number of functions cannot always perform the same functions. In addition, A. Lösch's constructions extend to the production sphere.

The works of W. Christaller and A. Lösch, although of an abstract nature, played a significant role in the formation of the spatial approach to the territorial organization of the population and economy. Yu.G. Saushkin notes: "The merits of W. Christaller and A. Lösch lie in the fact that they made an attempt to discover the law of mutual spatial distribution of settlements... and, having learned the objective law, accept it when designing settlements in newly developed territories. The works of W. Christaller and A. Lösch opened the way to the study of spatial systems, their calculation, and the widespread use of mathematical methods in economic geography" [9, p. 272-273].

Thus, the idea of the theory of central places is the mutual spatial location of settlements, industries of production and non-production spheres, in the zone of influence of central places of different hierarchical levels with minimal costs of

production and marketing of goods and services provided. Central places are aimed at ensuring optimal movement of consumers of different types of goods and services, improving and developing market, transport infrastructure and the administrative structure of the region.

Development at the turn of the 30s - 40s. XX century, *the concept of development of problem areas* is associated with the emergence of depressed areas in many countries of Europe and North America, mainly in the UK, Germany, France and the USA. The emergence of depressed areas is determined by the uncontrolled placement of production and its concentration in certain areas with more favorable conditions for the production of material goods, the decline of uncompetitive enterprises in old industrial areas, and the general crisis of the capitalist system of that time.

The term “depressed area” first appeared in England. “This is how “depressed areas” in England were called the areas most affected by unemployment in 1929 - 1933, for the recovery of the economy of which measures were required at the national level. In Germany, “disaster areas” are identified that show the lowest rates of economic growth and the highest level of unemployment, and are unable to solve their social and economic problems without government intervention. The West German economist E. Dietrich introduced a special term - “problem areas”. ...where, as a result of the anarchic distribution of productive forces, socio-economic contradictions have reached such severity that they began to pose a threat to the bourgeois system" [10, p. 76-77]. The emergence of problem areas in many European countries and the United States is due to many reasons. For example, Ya.G. Feigin writes that one of the main reasons for the progressive growth of unemployment in industries located in depressed areas of England is the closure of more enterprises and their relocation to other areas to obtain higher profits [11, p. 65-66].

To solve the problems of depressed areas, through the efforts of many scientists, with the support of the state, a concept for the development of problem areas is being developed. The goal of the concept is to stop economic and social contradictions associated with a crisis situation determined by stagnation or regression of the socio-economic development of the territory, which leads to increased unemployment and poverty of the population. The objective of this concept is: to create new jobs by placing new production and service facilities on preferential terms (for example: “In the UK, firms and enterprises located in backward areas with above-average unemployment rates receive government benefits known as free depreciation.” [10, p. 13]); improving the territorial-sectoral structure of the district's economy; creating a favorable investment and innovation climate; increasing the competitiveness of goods and services in the region.

The study, development and scientific substantiation of the theory of diffusion of innovations is associated with the names of J. Schumpeter (1912), T. Hegerstrand (1952) and R. Morill (1970). The term “innovation” was first introduced into economics by J. Schumpeter. “Economic changes are caused by innovations,” noted J. Schumpeter [12, p. 112]. Innovation is any new object, phenomenon or process for a given territory, and diffusion of innovation is the process of spreading innovations in geospace, which has certain reasons, patterns and consistency [13, p. 234-235]. “Innovations are understood as purposeful changes that introduce new, relatively stable elements of a

social, economic, political nature into the distribution environment" [6, p. 317]. Skopin A.Yu. writes: "The diffusion of economic innovations should be understood as the spread of new goods and services, new economic ideas and models of behavior, new technologies and labor organization, new factors of production in geospace" [13, p. 235].

In our opinion, the following components are distinguished in the process of dissemination of innovations: 1) investments in the innovation process; 2) sufficient scientific and technical base 3) generation; 4) implementation; 5) diffusion of innovations. According to B.N. Semevsky: "The whole process of "diffusion of innovations" takes place in two areas: a) production, among entrepreneurs - most often technological innovations; and b) in the sphere of consumption – a new type of goods or services" [14, p. 156].

For the emergence and spread of innovations in space, the creation of certain conditions is required. To form innovative generators, it is necessary to have in the territory of a large city where there are qualified scientific and production personnel, an appropriate base, a sufficient amount of financial capital, the presence of acceptors outside the center (i.e. people, institutions, enterprises that have accepted this innovation and are implementing it in their activity) etc.

The following types of diffusion of innovations are distinguished: diffusion of substitution, when old elements are replaced by new ones (in which the structure of the system remains stable), and diffusion of combination, when old elements coexist with new ones (the structure of the system becomes more complex). Diffusion of substitution and combination can be carried out in two ways - expansion and movement. The expansion method presupposes the existence of an innovation generator capable of producing the amount of innovation necessary to fill the entire space of the region, in which innovation, having arisen at some point in space, expands evenly in all directions, displacing or coexisting with old elements. With the method of movement, either there is no generator of innovation, or innovation is not capable of self-reproduction, or it encounters strong opposition from old elements and therefore can only move in space, temporarily displacing or coexisting with old elements. In turn, diffusion expansion is carried out in three ways: contact (from the innovative to the old element); cascade (from the innovation generator to the second, third and subsequent levels); hierarchical (top-down, bottom-up or horizontally according to the existing hierarchical structure). The minimum speed of innovation diffusion is characteristic of the contact method, the average - for the cascade method, the maximum - for the hierarchical one [13, p. 235-236].

Thus, the speed of expansion (which is not unimportant in modern market conditions, where economic advantage and competitiveness are determined by the speed of innovation implementation) and the degree of modernization and transformation of territorial socio-economic systems depend on the choice of types of diffusion of innovations and methods of their spatial distribution throughout the region. regional level.

Swedish geographer T. Hegerstrand, studying the spatial diffusion of innovations, identified four stages of diffusion of innovations. As described by P. Huggett: "The first, or initial, stage is characterized by the beginning of the diffusion process and a sharp contrast between the centers from which innovations spread and the peripheral territories. In the second stage, true diffusion begins and powerful centrifugal

forces act. This leads to the formation of new rapidly developing centers in remote areas and to a reduction in the sharp regional contrasts typical of the first stage. In the third stage (condensation stage), equal expansion occurs in all three places. At the fourth stage (saturation stage) there is a general, but slow, asymptotic rise to the maximum possible under existing conditions" [15, p. 77].

The American geographer R. Morill introduced an additional time component into T. Hagerstrand's constructions and obtained a wave model of the diffusion of innovation, in which he discovered that the spread of innovation over time in different settlements (more central or less central) will have a different structure. For example, in the center of the spread of innovations, the number of acceptors will gradually increase with a weak peak in the fourth year after the start of the spread of innovations, and in the next locality the innovation will begin to spread later, but the peak will be very sharply expressed. In the third point, the beginning of the spread of innovations is shifted by more than a year compared to the initial point. The peak of propagation also shifts by a year, and the attenuation of the wave is not as sharp as in the previous paragraphs. And finally, in the fourth and fifth points, innovation begins to spread only when the peak of its spread in the center has already ended [13, p. 238-239].

The American scientist J. Friedman rightfully asserted: "Development... is a process of innovation leading to a structural restructuring of social systems." Norwegian researcher T. Hermansen noted: "The development process can be interpreted as the introduction of successive waves of innovations into the functional and geographical space" [12, p. 91].

Thus, the diffusion of innovations is a wave spatial distribution of new ideas, goods and services, new production technologies, etc., capable (if assimilated and implemented locally) to modernize or transform and optimize the economic and social structure of the territory. For the emergence and spread of innovations in space, the creation of certain conditions is required.

Innovations in space are concentrated around the leading industry and, subject to the multiplier effect, economic "growth poles" and development centers are formed [16].

Foundations of *the concept of growth poles and centers* in the 1950s. were founded by the French scientists F. Perroux and J. Boudville. F. Perroux was the first to propose the terms "growth poles" and "development centers." "By growth pole, he understood compactly located and dynamically developing industries and individual enterprises in which the "impulse of development" is concentrated, influencing the territorial structure of the economy and its dynamics. This occurs as a result of the concentration of innovations that cluster around the leading industry. If this industry is also propulsive, that is, capable of producing a positive multiplier effect, then it forms a growth pole. Thus, for Perroux the growth pole is a functional concept" [7, p. 160].

The merit of J. Boudville lies in the fact that he not only developed the ideas of F. Perroux, but also managed to transfer his theory to another area, managed to tie it to a specific geographical space and, what is especially important for regional science, gave a regional interpretation of the growth pole. J. Boudeville wrote this: "a regional growth pole is a set of developing and expanding industries located in an urbanized area and capable of causing further development of economic activity throughout the entire zone

of its influence." And further: "It is best to describe growth poles as geographic agglomerations of activity... In short, growth poles are cities with a complex of propulsive industries" [10, p. 61-62].

The spatial forms of influence of the growth pole are manifested through commodity flows, flows of services, capital; migration processes play an important role, largely depending on the dynamism of the pole, in which it closely interacts with the surrounding territory, and depending on its own characteristics, to one degree or another transforms her [12, p. 126].

It should be noted that the differences in the concepts of growth pole and growth center are that in the first case a set of industries is understood, and a growth (development) center is a geographical interpretation of the pole, i.e. a specific center, city. This differentiates the functional and geographical parts of the two indicated concepts [7, p. 161].

Spanish scientist H.R. Lasuen, who developed a theory of urbanization and development processes based on the theory of growth poles and diffusion of innovations, contributed to the development of the concept of growth poles and centers. "He, in particular, proposes the following provisions about growth poles: "1) a growth pole is a regional (and not national) node of enterprises (and not industries), associated with the export sector of the region (and not with the leading industry), located in one or several geographical clusters (concentrations) of the region; 2) the system of growth poles and each of them individually grow due to impulses generated by national demand, transmitted through the region's export sector and perceived in the process of competition between the poles; 3) the growth impulse is transmitted to peripheral secondary industries through market connections (and not through supply and consumption connections) between enterprises, and to the geographic periphery - in the same way, but taking into account the facts of location" [10, p. 62-63].

Thus, the ideology of the concept of growth poles and centers is to create a reference point (reference points) in the region around a dynamically developing industry under the influence of innovations, which are the "impulse of development" of the territory. As a result of the effective functioning and development of the growth pole and its intensive interaction with the servicing and new industries generated by it, a center of spatial development is formed. This development center has a great influence on the territorial structure of the economy. The creation of a growth pole(s) and a development center(s) in the region makes it possible to concentrate production, forming a regional hub of enterprises, and obtain maximum economic effect. The implementation of this concept stimulates the development and improvement of TSES by creating cores of spatial development.

The first germs of the theory of territorial production complexes (TPC) appeared in the 1920s. in the plans of GOELRO (G.M. Krzhizhanovsky, I.G. Aleksandrov). The fundamental principles of the theory of TPC are laid down in the works of N.N. Kolosovsky. The theory was further developed in the works of N.N. Baransky, N.N Nekrasov, A.E. Probsta, Yu.G. Saushkina, V.M. Chetyrkina, T.M. Kalashnikova, M.K. Bandman et al. The TPC theory was used in practice from 1971 to 1990.

Under TPC N.N. Kolosovsky (1948) understood: "... such an economic (interdependent) combination of enterprises in one industrial point or in an entire

region, in which a certain economic effect is achieved due to the successful (planned) selection of enterprises in accordance with the natural and economic conditions of the area, with its transport and economic and geographical location" [17, p. 138]. “This term should mean an interdependent (subordinate) combination of production enterprises and residential areas (populated areas) either in a limited territory (local complexes) or in the territory of an economic region or subdistrict (district complexes)” [18, p. 142].

E.B. Alaev defines TPK as “... a combination of enterprises (and institutions), for which the territorial community of its components is an additional factor in increasing economic efficiency due to: a) significant stability of mutual connections ... and the rhythm of the production process; b) reduction of transport costs; c) rational use of all types of local resources and more favorable conditions for maneuvering them; d) creating optimal conditions for combining sectoral (intersectoral) planning and management with territorial planning and management” [19, p. 212].

From the above definitions it follows that the main component of the industrial and industrial complex is a combination of enterprises in a certain territory that form stable production connections among themselves. N. N. Kolosovsky identifies the following connections in the TPC: “Vertical connections - cover the entire set of production connections, following upward from any “initial” production process sequentially to the “upper floors” of production that produce finished products...; Horizontal connections develop between neighboring branches of different vertical rows; Production cooperation arises from top to bottom and aims to ensure the complexity of manufactured products through the use of the capacities of several underlying links...; Service connections arise on the basis of the development of auxiliary and service industries, ensuring the uninterrupted flow of main processes” [18, p. 143].

It is precisely such stable ties in the industrial and industrial complex that provide additional economic benefits both through savings in production as a result of more complete use of raw materials during extraction and processing, combination and cooperation of industrial and agricultural enterprises, better use of fixed assets, working capital, savings in living labor of workers, and modern operation of common infrastructure by enterprises [20, p. 221]. Also, the concentration of industrial enterprises leads to savings in territory and all of the above economic advantages help reduce the cost of goods produced within the TPC.

When forming a TPC, it is necessary to take into account the influence of many factors. V.I. Chalov writes: “When forming a TPC, one has to deal with natural-climatic, socio-economic factors in the development of productive forces and production relations of society, with a political strategy that determines the relevance and priority of the development of a given TPK, and, finally, with social factors that determine the development of local the working population as part of the whole society" [21, p. 36].

To solve the problems of further development of the TPC, “an integrated approach is required, which would include issues of improving the management of the TPC in a combination of all its aspects: organizational, structural, functional, planning, economic, legal, etc.” [22, p. 201].

M.K. Bandman distinguishes two types of TPC: 1) classical (traditional) "TPC as a form of spatial organization of the material and technical base of any taxonomic unit of the economic or administrative-territorial division of the country..."; 2) program-targeted TPC "as a form of spatial organization of productive forces in the implementation of regional programs of a certain type and rank..." [23, p. 29-30].

In the works of T.M. Kalashnikova comes across the term "economic-territorial complex" (ETC) [24; 25], introduced into science by Yu.G. Saushkin (1973). "The economic-territorial complex is a combination of enterprises and institutions of the production and non-production spheres, which makes it possible to achieve the greatest socio-economic effect (from the perspective of the whole society). This goal is achieved through the expedient territorial organization of the economy, the rational use of natural and economic resources and conditions, as well as the advantages of the geographical location" [24, p. 44]. Thus, the concept of ETC is broader than the concept of TPC, which includes the territorial organization of the non-production sphere.

The presence of TPC and ETC in the region provides an additional economic effect due to the correct selection of enterprises and institutions that form stable relationships with each other, which will allow achieving optimal use of local natural and labor resources, minimizing transport costs, and the rhythm of the production process. TPC and ETC will also stimulate infrastructural development, both industrial and social, and the optimal development of the region's TSES.

The Japanese concept of technopolises was first published in 1980 by the Ministry of Foreign Trade and Industry of Japan. The concept of technopolises is aimed at improving the territorial distribution of productive forces and the territorial structure of the economy, creating conditions for the introduction of new technologies into the production of knowledge-intensive enterprises, small and medium-sized firms, on the basis of research centers. Analyzing the Technopolis program in the regional development of Japan, I.L. Romanova writes: "... in the "technopolis" the "high technology" industries and scientific research should develop in organic unity. At the same time, "technopolises" must have residential areas that are well-maintained in terms of the environment and the provision of public amenities" [26, p. 205]. In the technopolis, all favorable conditions are created for the integration of science and production, to stimulate regional industrial development.

Technopolis is the most important element of the modern market system, an organizational form of merging firms, innovative companies, higher educational institutions, consulting, innovative and other service institutions, relevant departments of government bodies, creating a single mechanism [16].

The following criteria determine the formation of Japanese technopolises [26, p. 206, 209; 27, p. 188]:

- the area of the territory should not exceed 130 thousand hectares;
- population of candidate cities – no more than 150 thousand people;
- presence of an airport or high-speed railway station nearby;
- an integrated complex of industrial zones, research institutes and residential areas;
- improved information network;

- all production facilities, service establishments and residential areas should be located no more than 30 minutes away. drive from the city center;

- technologies of the 21st century must be developed, first of all, such as electronics, biotechnology, production of new industrial materials, special chemistry, development of the resources of the World Ocean, etc.

The advantage of technopolises is that the entire technological chain from fundamental research and implementation of results into production to the release and sale of new products is carried out within its boundaries. Technopolis acts as a generator of innovation in the territory, effectively influencing production and the social environment, determining the economic growth of the region.

Thus, a technopolis is a territorially localized research and production complex, where all elements of the production and social sphere interact and function effectively and organically, implementing a single technological chain that ensures maximum economic effect through the introduction of innovations and the sale of new goods and services.

Technopolises make it possible to create new industrial centers in the region with developed industrial and social infrastructure. It also makes it possible to unite enterprises, firms, research institutes, educational institutions, and innovative companies into a system, which has a great effect on the spatial economic and social development of the region.

The theory of geographical (territorial) industrial clusters is associated with the American economist M. Porter and has gained applied significance since the early 1990s. Research on industrial clusters was also carried out by S. Rosenfeld [28], E.J. Feser [29], M. Brennan, E.W. Hill [30], T. Andersson, E. Hansson, S.S. Serger, J. Sorvik [31] and other scientists.

M. Porter first introduced the concept of “cluster” (1990) and gives the following definition: “clusters, or industrial groups, are a group of geographically adjacent, interconnected companies and related organizations operating in a certain field, characterized by common activities and interacting with each other "[32, p. 258]. In M. Porter’s definition, three properties of a cluster can be distinguished, to which he draws attention: 1) territorial localization; 2) close relationship between enterprises and organizations; 3) technological interconnectedness of industries. It is these properties of the cluster that determine the competitive advantages of enterprises and organizations included in the cluster. Emphasizing the geographic proximity and concentration of enterprises in a cluster with stable relationships, S. Rosenfeld [28] (1997) writes about obtaining a synergistic effect [33, p. 10].

“The predominance of clusters in the economy,” writes M. Porter, “rather than isolated firms and industries, reveals the importance of understanding the nature of competition and the role of geographic location for competitive advantage” [32, p. 256]. “...the competitiveness of the country and regions is determined not so much by individual enterprises, but by the effectiveness of interaction between firms and organizations within a cluster within the boundaries of certain territories” [33, p. 9].

“Clusters are geographically concentrated groups of interconnected companies, specialized suppliers, service providers, firms in related industries, and related organizations (for example, universities, standardization agencies, trade associations) in

certain areas that compete, but leading joint work" [32, p. 256]. Competition between firms within a cluster stimulates innovation. It should be noted that competition between firms in a cluster is not direct. The introduction of innovations by all cluster participants determines a new "impulse" for development, increasing the competitiveness of manufactured products.

In terms of territorial coverage, clusters can be located within the same city, region or between regions and even between neighboring countries. As correctly noted by Yu.G. Lavrikova: "The formation of clusters in the region makes it possible to solve not only sectoral problems, but also contributes to the multipolar distribution of growth points throughout the region, and thereby ensures the uniformity and balance of spatial development" [34, p. 4]. V.A. Ermolaeva writes: "...in the zone of formation of regional clusters, it is possible to create optimal conditions for the formation of new firms associated with the availability of labor resources of the appropriate classification and special taxation regimes" [35].

Developing M. Porter's idea of industrial (territorial) clusters, M. Enright is developing the theory of a "regional cluster". M. Enright (1996) introduced the term "regional cluster" and defined it as "an industrial cluster in which member firms of the cluster are located in geographic proximity to each other," or: "A regional cluster is a geographic agglomeration of firms operating in the same or several related sectors of the economy" [36]. I.G. Menshikova defines a regional cluster as "...a group of interconnected companies and organizations localized in the region, interacting with each other in the process of production and sale of goods and services within a single value chain to achieve a specific economic effect and realizing the competitive advantages of a given territory" [33, p. 10].

The regional cluster concentrates: 1) small and medium-sized enterprises forming an industrial area; 2) high-tech firms connected through the development and use of common production methods; 3) a production system with representative offices of large TNCs and firms that separated in the process of "spin-off" [37].

Principles of organization and functioning of regional clusters according to I.G. Menshina are as follows: 1) territorial localization; 2) intra-cluster competition and cooperation; 3) interdependence; 4) innovativeness; 5) dynamism; 6) multiplicity of participants; 7) community of joint activities; 8) unity of the information space; 9) common corporate culture; 10) structure [33, p. 11-12]. The above principles of organization and functioning of a regional cluster ensure sustainable development of both the cluster itself and the entire territory of the region.

The formation, territorial organization and functioning of clusters are influenced not only by many socio-economic and geographical factors, but also a large role is assigned to the state, requiring the government to develop a cluster policy. Yu.G. Lavrikova writes: "... cluster policy can be considered as a system of relations between government authorities of the region and economic entities regarding increasing their competitiveness based on the formation and development of clusters," and further: "The goal of cluster policy is to improve the quality of socio-economic growth in the region by the basis of creating conditions for strengthening the competitiveness of economic entities forming regional clusters" [34, p. 31]. "Government structures that have a significant impact on the cluster can be considered as part of it" [32, p. 258] - writes M.

Porter. "According to Enright," writes I. V. Pilipenko, "it is at the level of regional clusters that the competitive advantage of countries is created; it is regional clusters that need targeted support from government agencies and research organizations" [37].

Thus, regional clusters create conditions in the region for efficient production at low costs and will significantly increase the competitive advantages of companies and firms included in the cluster compared to firms located outside the cluster, with government support. Regional clusters are characterized by great competitive advantages that can increase the growth of gross regional product and stimulate the socio-economic spatial development of the region.

The Russian concept of polarized development "implies a special focus of financial, administrative, managerial, human and other resources in "supporting regions" ("poles", "locomotives" of growth), as well as the subsequent spread of innovative activity to other regions. Therefore, economic growth, entrepreneurial activity, and the innovation process in the "core regions" are most intense, influencing other territories that are not included in the "poles" [38].

To select regions ("locomotives" of growth), the following criteria have been established [38]:

"- there is a steady upward trend in passenger and cargo traffic in the region;

- presence in the region of a scientific and educational center of world or federal significance;

- in this region (urban agglomeration) a strategic initiative has been formed that is important for the entire country;

- this region must have high scientific, technical, intellectual, personnel and socio-economic potential,

- the region is already making a significant contribution to the country's GDP growth;

- in this region there is or may be a strategic partnership between government, civil society and business;

"In the next 10-12 years, this region can become a "developer" for neighboring territories."

According to the authors, it is "The concentration of efforts within individual regions makes it possible to obtain an effect of scale and an agglomeration effect, which creates the force of self-development in the "poles" ("locomotives") of growth, and the correct choice of these poles in the country ensures over time the rise of the surrounding regions... the totality of regions – "locomotives of growth" – should form a new frame structure of the spatial organization of Russia. This structure can be formed not only by the constituent entities of the Federation, but also by cities and urban agglomerations connected by a common economic and social life and having a common system of transport communications" [38].

The formation of regions of "growth locomotives" requires the creation or development of free economic zones (FEZ) and geographic (territorial) industrial clusters on their territory to attract investment, develop and implement innovations, effective interaction between enterprises and institutions, strengthen export potential, etc. which will increase the competitiveness of these regions in the global economic

space. As V. A. Dergachev writes: "...FEZ is a harbinger of regional economic growth" [39].

In the document of the Kyoto Convention of 1973, "a free zone is understood as a part of the country's territory in which goods are considered as objects located outside the national customs territory" [40, p. 265]. V.P. Maksakovsky in general terms defines FEZ as "... a part of the country's territory where the state establishes a special management regime that is most favorable for the activities of foreign and domestic entrepreneurs, to attract foreign and domestic investment [41, p. 350].

There are many types of FEZs. V.P. Maksakovsky identifies the following groups of FEZs [41, p. 350-351]: 1) trade; 2) industrial production; 3) scientific and technical (technical and implementation); 4) service; 5) complex; 6) international. In the formation of regions of "locomotives of growth", the "Concept of the Strategy for the Social and Economic Development of Regions of the Russian Federation" focuses on supporting regional programs for the creation of technology parks, innovation and technology centers, business incubators, etc., belonging to the group of scientific and technical (technical) implementation) FEZ. As an example of one of the effective forms of territorial organization of the economy, let us consider technology parks.

A technology park (science park) is a "research and production territorial complex, which includes a research center and an adjacent compact production zone, in which small high-tech firms are located on a lease basis" [42, p. eleven]. A.V. Lugovtsov understands a technology park as "...a territorially isolated research and production complex that creates a territorial innovation environment by promoting the production and commercial development of the achievements of world and domestic science and technology" [43, p. 9].

The technology park includes the following components: "territory and buildings; a research center with its potential, personnel and ideas; industrial firms that realize the potential of the research center into market products; administrative and management structure ensuring the functioning of the entire complex as a single whole; establishment of support infrastructure, industrial and household" [42, p. 13]. Firms and companies located in the technology park receive benefits from the state, which attracts investors. Technoparks contribute to the rapid implementation of innovations in production, and are also "able to quickly implement the strategic goal - to form "growth centers" in the region with maximum use of local resources" [43, p. 10] and increasing competitiveness.

Thus, the essence of the Russian concept of polarized development lies in the formation of regions of "growth locomotives" (where financial, innovative, and production power is concentrated) capable of influencing the socio-economic development of other regions and forming a supporting frame for the spatial organization of Russia.

Conclusion

The ideology of all the concepts and theories discussed above is to take into account the spatial factor in the socio-economic development of the region.

Thus, it can be determined that the goal of spatial development of regions is the optimal placement of productive forces, the organic spatial combination and functioning

of production and social facilities, the organization of regional TSES that are competitive in modern market conditions.

The tasks of spatial development of regions are:

– creating conditions for the formation and development of spatial interaction between competitive companies and firms;

– spatial distribution of innovations and active implementation and use of new technologies in production;

– creation of territorial development centers with a powerful and competitive production, scientific, personnel, financial and infrastructural base;

– improving the investment and innovation climate;

– spatial expansion of markets for competitive goods and services;

– spatial infrastructural development;

– modernization and transformation of TSES elements;

– formation of a competitive TSES at the regional level and creation of conditions for the integration of the region into the socio-economic space of the country and the world.

All of the above aspects of spatial development are relevant for the regions of Kazakhstan. The scientifically based use of the considered theories and concepts of spatial development of regions in territorial planning and government programs contributes to the transformation of the territorial organization of the economy and population of the regions of Kazakhstan, which will ensure sustainable spatial socio-economic development of the country.

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АЙМАҚТАРДЫҢ КЕҢІСТІКТІК ДАМУЫНЫҢ ТЕОРИЯЛЫҚ-ТҰЖЫРЫМДАМАЛЫҚ НЕГІЗДЕРІ

Аңдатпа. Бұл жұмыста өңірлердің кеңістіктік дамуының теориялық-тұжырымдамалық негіздерін ашатын шетелдік және отандық эконом-географтар мен экономистердің іргелі ғылыми еңбектері мен ғылыми-аналитикалық зерттеулерінің зерделеу нәтижелері келтірілген. Мақалада келесі теориялар мен тұжырымдамалардың аймақтық кеңістіктік дамуына әсер етуінің мәні мен ерекшеліктері көрсетілген: орталық орындар теориясы; проблемалық (дағдарыстық, депрессиялық, маргиналды) аудандардың даму тұжырымдамасы; инновациялардың диффузия теориясы; полюстер мен өсу орталықтарының тұжырымдамасы («поляризацияланған даму»); аумақтық өндірістік кешендер теориясы; жапондық технополис тұжырымдамасы; географиялық (аумақтық) өнеркәсіптік кластерлер теориясы; поляризацияланған дамудың ресейлік тұжырымдамасы. Қарастырылған теориялар мен тұжырымдамалар негізінде

аймақтардың кеңістіктік дамуының мақсаты мен міндеттері тұжырымдалды. Бұл теориялар мен тұжырымдамалар шаруашылық пен халықты тиімді аумақтық ұйымдастыруға, өңірлік аумақтық әлеуметтік-экономикалық жүйелерді трансформациялау және жаңғырту негізінде Қазақстан өңірлерінің кеңістіктік дамуына ықпал етуі мүмкін деген қорытындыға келдік.

Кілт сөздер: кеңістіктік даму; теория; тұжырымдама; аймақ; аумақтық әлеуметтік-экономикалық жүйе; аумақ; әлеуметтік-экономикалық даму; бәсекеге қабілеттілік; трансформация.

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ТЕОРЕТИКО-КОНЦЕПТУАЛЬНЫЕ ОСНОВЫ ПРОСТРАНСТВЕННОГО РАЗВИТИЯ РЕГИОНОВ

Аннотация. В работе представлены результаты изучения фундаментальных научных трудов и научно-аналитических исследований зарубежных и отечественных экономико-географов и экономистов, раскрывающих теоретико-концептуальные основы пространственного развития регионов. В статье показаны сущность и особенности влияния на пространственное развитие региона следующих теорий и концепций: теории центральных мест; концепции развития проблемных (кризисных, депрессивных, маргинальных) районов; теории диффузии нововведений; концепции полюсов и центров роста («поляризованного развития»); теории территориальных производственных комплексов; японской концепции технополисов; теории географических (территориальных) промышленных кластеров; российской концепции поляризованного развития. На основе рассмотренных теорий и концепций сформулированы цель и задачи пространственного развития регионов. Сделан вывод, что эти теории и концепции могут способствовать эффективной территориальной организации хозяйства и населения, пространственному развитию регионов Казахстана на основе трансформации и модернизации региональных территориальных социально-экономических систем.

Ключевые слова: пространственное развитие; теория; концепция; регион; территориальная социально-экономическая система; территория; социально-экономическое развитие; конкурентоспособность; трансформация.