

# **International Technology And Knowledge Transfer In Service Enterprises: The Case Of Hotel Services In Latin America**

**Mariano Nieto Antolín**  
**José-Ángel Miguel Dávila**  
**Roberto Fernández Gago**

Faculty of Economics and Business Administration,  
University of Leon, Spain

## **Abstract**

According to recent theories on the internationalization of firms (the resource-based view and evolutionary theory), a multinational corporation can be thought of as a network of flows of products, capital and knowledge among its different units. Particular attention has been paid to knowledge transfer, since it is generally assumed that competition is nowadays based on intangibles.

There is abundant literature and many research studies regarding the conditions and goals of such knowledge transfers (Kogut and Zander, 1992, 1995; Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995). In particular, there are very significant publications that analyze (a) the type of technology being transferred and (b) the mechanisms for transferring it. However, it is difficult to find studies analyzing the relationship between technology and knowledge characteristics in the field of hotel services.

This will be the main focus of this paper, applying to hotel investment projects in Latin America. The great increase in tourism has encouraged various managerial groups to establish new investment projects in Latin America over the last decade. This effect is especially noteworthy in Cuba, where international technology and knowledge transfer seems not to have posed any problem to Spanish hotel enterprises, which have found it an ideal location within their global expansion policy.

This paper will begin with a review of the literature concerning knowledge transfers and their application to hotel services. After this overview, consideration will be given to those projects intended to establish new hotel services and/or to manage existing hotels, and also to knowledge transfer in co-operation agreements between government and enterprises.

**Keywords** : Knowledge management, hotel investment, knowledge transfer.

## **Introduction**

Over the last few years it has been clear that economic growth and the expansion of some firms has been marked by a strong learning process based on resources and capacities being developed. Many businesses have innovated on the basis of new knowledge and the transfer of it in all technological fields: electronics, computing, telecommunications, and so on. Service enterprises are a type of business that has been particularly favoured by this development of

knowledge, and have succeeded in offering a range of services that would have been impossible with the knowledge and technology of barely a decade ago.

This paper considers how service enterprises, and in particular hotel businesses involved in worldwide expansion, develop through innovation and technological learning. With this aim, the requisite terminological definitions will first be laid down, and then a brief description will be given of the principle types of innovation that arise from the process of technological learning and the various forms that this can assume. The most important part of the work is in the section following on from that, in which the characteristics of the main resource for the learning process are analysed: these are knowledge and its transfer within hotel businesses.

The terms "innovation" and "technological learning" are normally used to explain the appearance of novelties and the spread of new technologies within a trade or industry. This can be from a "macro" viewpoint, for instance the use of telecommunications or information technology in the hotel trade. It can also be from a "micro" viewpoint, that is the creation and use of new technological knowledge in the day-to-day operations of a business. An example of this latter might be the learning process that must be undertaken by reception staff in order to take room bookings by phone or fax, or by using new communication routes such as the internet or e-mail. In brief, new technologies will require a change in the knowledge and skills needed in staff.

Likewise, the terms "technology" and "technological knowledge" are also synonymous, both referring to a stock of knowledge, mostly intangible, concerning the set of techniques available to a business at a given point in time. Technological knowledge refers to all those items of knowledge gleaned from the process of innovation and learning that form part of the resources and capabilities of the enterprise.

The innovation process in businesses covers numerous activities systematically linked with a view to increasing the volume of knowledge and/or improve the use of the knowledge already available.

The idea of considering all the activities undertaken in the enterprise as likely to provide knowledge (and not just those relating to research and development work) leads to the consequence that innovation can come from anywhere inside the firm. For Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995:3), the creation of organizational knowledge is the capacity that a business as a whole has to produce new knowledge, disseminate it throughout the organization, and give it concrete form as products, services and systems. Thus, the gaining of such knowledge is the key to businesses achieving innovation.

### **Forms of Innovation and Learning**

The new items of knowledge that emerge from the process of innovation can take concrete shape in the form of two types of novelty. One type is of the nature of technological innovations, these being the commonest when it is a question of products, services or processes. The other, not strictly technological, is seen by Schumpeter (1911:77) as being able to consist of any of the following:

- Changes in enterprise functions, such as sales, with, for instance, the opening up of new markets, or purchasing, where new sources of supply might be sought.
- New organizational arrangements in the firm, effectively any way of conducting business differently from before.
- New forms of organization industry-wide, brought about by enterprises, such as agreeing to limit competition by creating a new large-scale organization within any trade or by drawing up collaborative agreements.

It is precisely some of these non-technological forms of innovation that will constitute the central axis of this paper. They include the opening of new markets and international expansion by Spanish hotel businesses, together with the new forms of organization and the agreements reached by some groupings so as to be able to break into fresh markets and confront the challenges of globalization.

Acquisitions, mergers, associations, seeking a quotation on the stock exchange and other steps are all among the choices possible in attempting to face the storm of competition that the hotel sector in Spain is currently undergoing. While some, like Riú, Barceló and Occidental Hotels, have already sought out partners so as to increase market share, others, like Sol Meliá, have preferred to forge no such links, and a few, like Tryp or NH, are still looking for possible associates with which to form an alliance.

Within the Spanish hotel industry (see Table No.1), major movements tending towards consolidation and alliances have been observable recently. Sol Meliá launched a take-over bid for MIA, later merging with its property company, Inmotel Inversiones, so as to form an integrated hotel group able to commit rapidly to large-scale investment. The building company FCC, through its subsidiary Grucycsa, together with the banking group Argentaria and the Barceló Hoteles chain set up the Grubarges business. Occidental Hoteles found an investing partner, Mercacapital, to provide it with funds. Finally, at the beginning of 1998 the building society (savings and loan) La Caixa offered to take a share in a project aiming to develop a chain of hotels in the Caribbean.

Furthermore, Riú Hoteles has an association with the largest tourism group in Europe through the German tour operator TUI, and *Hispano Alemana de Management Hotelero (Iberostar)* is in a similar situation with respect to its association with Neckermann, the second largest German tour operator. Paradores de Turismo can rely on State backing. The strategy pursued by Agrupación Hotelera Doliga (Fiesta Hotels) concentrates almost entirely on Ibiza and the Dominican Republic, while Hostelería Unida (HUSA) has reoriented its activities by converting into a chain of independent hotels.

All of this implies that if NH and Tryp wished to find partners for an alliance they would have an ever decreasing range of candidates from which to choose if they wanted to grow and diversify rapidly within Spain.

However, the struggle to gain competitive advantages is not confined to looking for new organizational or co-operative structures. The opening of new international markets is another

front where the hotel groups mentioned are present, seeing as they do Latin America as the principal target for geographical expansion.

The strong growth in Spanish hotel chains, taking place principally in the last decade, has centred on the Caribbean area. Already in 1993 Spanish hotel groups had invested some 60,000 million pesetas in the construction of hotels or in taking over the management of them, especially in the Dominican Republic, Cuba, Mexico and Venezuela, the preferred destinations for Spanish investment. Some of the factors supporting this development of the Spanish trade in the Caribbean are the freedom to repatriate profits, tax and duty exemptions for imports of products from Spain, and the very low prices for land, representing barely 10% of the overall cost of a project (ABC, 1993).

In 1999, however, a race would seem to have started to gain a foothold in other South American countries, especially Argentina and Uruguay, although for the moment the presence is not much more than symbolic. Examples would be management by Sol Meliá of a hotel in Buenos Aires, the four hotels in Argentina and one in Uruguay of NH Hoteles, or the possible agreement for Tryp to handle the management of seven hotels in Argentina (see Table No. 2).

Nevertheless, beside these countries which have an established tourist trade, Spanish chains have stated that they are considering investment projects for countries with little supply of hotel space, such as some in Central America (Panama, Costa Rica, Honduras) or Brazil. The economic crises and currency devaluations undergone by these regions have made it easier to buy hotels or land on which to develop them. Thus, once again, opportunistic considerations may lead to the choice of site in the world-wide expansion of businesses.

With regard to Cuba, this island has long been and still is one of the main destinations for Spanish tourists, and so the principal Spanish hotel chains are present there (see Table No.3).

The quantity of hotel accommodation in Cuba has grown progressively in line with the number of tourists visiting the island. In 1998, tourists numbered one and a half million (La Gaceta de los Negocios, 1998). According to forecasts made by the Cuban government, which are in line with the studies carried out by international consultants, in the year 2000 the number of visitors will exceed two million and by 2010 it will reach seven million. To meet this demand, the availability of hotel rooms will need to increase from the current approximately 30,000 to a figure of 80,000<sup>1</sup>, this being a gap that hotel businesses are attempting to close through their expansion in this country.

### **Features Of Technological Knowledge And Their Applications In Hotel Service Businesses**

The creation of new knowledge, using various sources of learning (study, practice, habit, mistakes) is the main mechanism allowing companies to innovate and to gain a competitive edge.

It is possible to interpret a business as a dynamic organization constantly evolving, with as its main activity the creation and accumulation of new knowledge. For Nelson and Winter (1982:99), organizations continually accumulate knowledge in their memory in the form of

operational routines, which encapsulate and transmit the form in which tasks should be carried out within the organization. Thus, the stock of knowledge held by the business at any given moment is the result of a process of innovation or learning in the past.

From this viewpoint, the bounds set on a business would have to be found in the stock of knowledge the organization had at a specific point in time (production capacities). For instance, what kind of services can be provided with the resources to hand, which workers can carry out a given activity, what technology is available, and so forth.

Similarly, these bounds can expand or contract, depending on the ability to learn and accumulate knowledge (potential to innovate). As an example, one might take the case of workers with solid training, whose capacity to learn will be greater and will bring greater efficiency when new services are to be provided.

On the other hand, unlearning can occur, causing a shrinkage in the bounds of the business. Loss of workers may be caused by headhunting during expansion or the opening of new businesses by competitors. While replacement staff are getting to grips with the situation there is a loss of know-how, leading to inefficiency that will persist until the new staff have picked up the same level of knowledge as their predecessors.

Faced with changes in the environment, such as restructuring of the industry or the introduction of new technologies, enterprises react by generating new knowledge (Nelson and Winter, 1982:14). For instance, and in clear harmony with the philosophy of Total Quality Control espoused by many enterprises, customer satisfaction is, more than any other, the principal strategy in business (see Figure 1). Thus, a report prepared by Arthur Andersen and the University of New York, covering 500 hotel managers, noted that this sector had paid great attention to the management of more tangible assets such as buildings or the capital used to finance them. Nevertheless, it stressed that the factor distinguishing the most successful firms was their efficiency in personnel management, in keeping people informed and in customer relations, that is in the intangibles of the

**Figure No. 1 - An Example of the Total Quality Control Philosophy at the Gran Hotel in Varadero, Cuba, Which Forces the Business to Innovate Continually so as to Satisfy Customers.**



sector (El País Negocios, 1999).

On occasion, customer satisfaction implies adjustments to the design or process of providing the service. This obliges the workers, and therefore the business, to generate new knowledge so as to be able to offer the service. This adjustment is achieved in

the form of small incremental improvements, costing little, which do not normally involve a major break from current knowledge. These changes are not inspired by maximizing behaviours, but rather seek an adequate level of satisfaction. In the end, the objective of satisfying the customer is what guides innovating decisions and the enterprise's process of learning.

In these learning processes, a fundamental role is played by the characteristics of technical knowledge involved. These properties have been described and measured on various scales by several authorities in the area. Rogers (1980) and Winter (1987) proposed similar guidelines for explaining how innovations may be described. The first of these authors suggested five dimensions: "profitability", "communicability", "observability", "complexity" and "compatibility". Winter, likewise, puts forward a similar taxonomy with four scales: "tacit - articulable", "observable - not observable in use", "complex - simple", "dependent - independent on a system".

Following an analogous approach, the suggestions made by Zander and Kogut (1995) will here be used. In their view, technical knowledge can be characterized by reference to five dimensions:

**3.1 - Codifiability**, the degree to which it can be coded. This refers to the possibility of knowledge being reduced to information expressed through diagrams, formulae, figures or words, and thus being explicit as opposed to tacit.

Explicit knowledge is the sort which is completely articulated and available in a precise and decipherable form. Thanks to this, there is no great difficulty in passing it on. This sort of knowledge can be subdivided into four types (Badaracco, 1991:17-19): knowledge contained in documents, plans or databases; knowledge encapsulated in machinery and production processes; knowledge bound up with certain basic materials; and knowledge in the minds of individuals.

Of all these, the knowledge contained in manuals and in written specifications of tasks to be performed is the sort that appears most frequently in hotel businesses. Indeed, the firms which expand their markets, whether by building new hotels or by taking on the management of those already in existence, have to transmit a number of specific pieces of information to new workers in order to avoid loss of the image and business culture of the holding companies. Their managers are able to teach part of what they know to other managers and workers through conventional training courses and manuals which each employee must assimilate in accordance with the post held. In the same way, competing companies can use benchmarking to identify staff knowledge by simply observing their behaviour and analyzing the decisions they adopt.

The tacit part of knowledge is that which cannot be simplified into information. It incorporates everything that a given person can do without being able to explain how to do it. It

comes from experience, and so is hard to transmit except by demonstrating the performance of a task.

Many factors may influence the generation of this kind of knowledge. Features of the organizational environment, such as its culture, its value systems, its social and economic situation, and others, or aspects of individuals, such as psychology, emotions, intuitions, creativity or imagination, can set bounds to their learning capacity. This sort of knowledge and its application to the work to be performed by employees is what marks off differences in the provision of a high-quality service in any enterprises, but especially in hotel businesses (Expansión, 1999a).

Logically, the point where tacit knowledge is most in evidence is at the level of individuals, as such know-how is characterized by:

- Being acquired through learning and accumulation of experience in a job. This is the reason why many of the hotels under consideration here train their employees from the bottom up, rotating them through the full range of posts before they are given positions of responsibility.
- Arising from informal processes, based on imagination and intuition, which aid in the development of creative ideas. An example of this are those initiatives promoted by the students who are following programmes of study on the catering and hotel trade in Latin American universities, and, at the same time, are participating in practical placements in hotels during their courses.
- Depending on the relationships an individual has in a given social context and being influenced by the ideals and specific world views held by the set of people and groups making up the organization. This factor has particular impact on the generation of know-how distinctive to any given hotel establishment, with its own specific national or regional location, the characteristics of its staff being shaped by their surroundings and the type of clientele with which they interact.

Apart from the individual level, tacit knowledge may also, according to Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995:57), be deposited in:

- Work groups. When individuals work together as a team, they produce a group-level know-how which it is impossible to reproduce in isolation. To offer a good service and ensure customers are satisfied, all the workers must fulfil their tasks effectively and efficiently.
- The totality of those associated with the business. The firm is a repository for a very complex body of knowledge that no one person nor group can grasp in its entirety. Thus, only the enterprise as a whole can have access to the tacit knowledge linked to the formal and informal relationships set up among individuals and work teams. This is the reason for Latin American governments conceding the management of hotels to established groups. The intention is for them to run the hotels in such a way as to develop their business culture and the organizational routines that are already in place. The ultimate aim is to get profits by relying on the knowledge that other, more advanced, enterprises in the sector possess.
- Co-operative links set up with other businesses. In this case, each of the organizations involved brings a part of its know-how to a common pool of knowledge, shared by all collaborating parties. In the case mentioned in the previous point, the Cuban government has

required the creation of joint ventures, Cuban and foreign, so as to exploit its hotels more efficiently, but also to learn.

■ **3.2 - Teachability**, the extent to which it can be taught through training.

Independently of whether or not a piece of knowledge is codifiable (Winter, 1987:171), it can be passed on with greater or lesser ease. Teaching explicit knowledge is not usually a problem. When it comes to transmitting tacit knowledge, there has to be a practical component and personal communication. Provision of training courses combining explicit information (this might be termed the theory), with tacit know-how through demonstrations of how to carry out a task in situ, is the commonest way for the mother company to pass on its knowledge.

Many of the courses currently taught in service businesses need to incorporate features relating to quality of service and customer satisfaction. These topics are but hollow shells if an attempt is made to pass on merely the explicit knowledge without the complementary tacit know-how. Thus, almost all hotel businesses now include obligatory practicals in their training courses.

**3.3 - Complexity**, the degree to which it is complicated.

This refers to the amount of knowledge required in order to define the new unit of know-how, since the majority of technical learning processes are influenced by the combination of other items of knowledge already accumulated by members of the firm. This is the reason for services which are apparently easy to copy and provide, because they are not very complex, can actually be difficult, as a consequence of the lack of background knowledge of the staff who must perform the tasks included in the service.

**3.4 - System Dependence**, the extent to which it depends upon other knowledge.

Just as in the case of the scale of complexity, development and application of some know-how depends on the participation of employees belonging to different departments or work groups. The relationships between the heads of different services in the hotel trade are of vital importance in ensuring a high-quality service. Receptionists, bellhops, chambermaids, kitchen and restaurant staff, maintenance personnel and so on must be able to call on their colleagues' know-how for the service to be complete.

**3.5 - Product Observability**, the degree to which know-how can be observed in use and in application.

This scale covers the extent to which knowledge can be easily noticed and detected by potential imitators. Any imitation will depend on the sort of innovation in which the know-how materializes. If it is a question of processes, practically nothing can be done; if it is one of products, then reverse engineering techniques can be brought into play; and if it is a matter of innovations in a service, observation will be the quickest route to allow imitation by competitors. Nevertheless, the fact that a service can be imitable does not mean that the imitation is identical to the original. This is because, as has been noted above, tacit knowledge is very difficult to pass on, let alone to copy.

The five dimensions listed are methods to measure the degree to which the capabilities of a business can be communicated and understood. These knowledge characteristics gauge the ease with which they can be passed on or imitated. To determine the effects of these characteristics on the speed or frequency with which capacities are transferred or copied, scholars have used a range of variables, such as the cost of transfer (Teece, 1977), the number of transfers adopted by given countries (Contractor, 1981), the age of technology at the moment of imitation (Mansfield, 1985), or the lengths of time taken for transfers and for imitations to occur (Zander and Kogut, 1995).

## Conclusions

Innovation in businesses covers many activities systematically linked to the aim of increasing know-how and/or improving the use of what is available. Service enterprises, and in particular Spanish hotel businesses, have shown how cultivation of the firm's resources and capabilities and the acquisition and transfer of knowledge can aid the growth and development of many such businesses as they expand in Latin America.

Among the various sources of innovation, some are technological, as seen in products, services and processes. Instances of these might be, among others, the use of new technologies like the internet, since it can serve for world-wide advertising and for handling reservations; the availability of computer access from client rooms; mobile phones adapted to take customers' credit cards; videoconferencing suites; installation of cable television and transmission of "pay per view" programmes. Other innovations, these not being technological, such as changes in business functions or new forms of organization, are also much in use by hotel groups in order to open up new markets in Latin America.

The dimensions of technical know-how serve to measure the extent to which a firm's capabilities can be communicated and understood. These dimensions (codifiability, teachability, complexity, system dependence and product observability, as defined in the typology proposed by Zander and Kogut in 1995) have been elucidated above in respect of these hotel businesses.

**Table N°1. Main Spanish Hotel Groups**

<b>Company</b>	<b>No. of hotels</b>	<b>Rooms</b>	<b>Turnover</b>
Inmotel Inversiones	70	37,103	68,684
Riusa II	55	15,083	57,000
Paradores de Turismo	83	4,885	24,922
NH Hoteles	68	7,619	24,718
Barceló Hoteles	42	10,720	23,756
Occidental Hoteles	27	6,329	20,760
Tryp	44	7,436	17,645
Doliga Hotel Group (Fiesta Hotels)	36	9,354	16,350
Hostelería Unida	54	5,794	16,297
Hispano Alemana de Management Hotelero (Iberostar)	18	5,973	14,227
H10 Hotels	14	5,012	13,500
Sol Meliá	106	26,362	13,369
Sea Side Hotels	3	1,133	12,500
Grupo Hoteles Catalonia	26	3,679	10,500
Princess Hotels	9	3,741	9,470
Hoteles Hesperia	21	3,333	9,220
Grupotel	16	3,334	9,000

Hoteles Globales	19	3,764	8,200
Fred Olsen	1	434	7,700
Nacional Hotelera	5	1,066	7,664

Source: personal compilation, using data from Hostelmarket

**Table No.2. Presence of Spanish Hotel Services in Latin America.**

Firms	Countries	No. of hotels
Sol Meliá	Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Mexico, Dominican Republic, Uruguay, Venezuela, Cuba	53
Barceló	Costa Rica, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Mexico, Dominican Republic, Venezuela	19
Riu	Mexico, Dominican Republic, Cuba	10
Occidental	Costa Rica, Dominican Republic	9
Confortel	Venezuela	9
Iberostar	Mexico, Dominican Republic, Cuba	7
Hotetur	Dominican Republic, Cuba	7
Fiesta Hotels	Dominican Republic	4
Hesperia Hoteles	Venezuela	3
Hoteles Tryp	Cuba	2
Hoteles C	Cuba	2
Hoteles Catalonia	Dominican Republic	1
NH Hoteles	Argentina, Uruguay	5
Hoteles Piñero	Dominican Republic	1
Best Hotels	Dominican Republic	1
H10 Hotels	Dominican Republic	1
<b>Total</b>		<b>134</b>

Numbers of Spanish hotels in each country	
Dominican Republic	53
Cuba	22
Mexico	15
Remainder	44

Source: Expansión (1999b)<sup>2</sup>

**Table N° 3. Principal Spanish Investments in Hotels in Cuba**

Site	Firm	N° of hotels	Rooms	Investment (millions of pesetas)
La Habana	Sol Meliá	2	751	8,000 - 11,000
	Hoteles Tryp	1	556	Management arrangement
Varadero	Sol Meliá	6	2.040	23,900 - 31,900
	Riu Hoteles	2	411	Management arrangement
	Iberostar	1	191	Management arrangement
Cayo Coco	Sol Meliá	2	521	6,121 - 8,100
	Hoteles Tryp	1	960	11,200 - 15,000
Ciego de Ávila	Sol Meliá	1	264	3,100 - 4,100
Holguín	Sol Meliá	2	728	8,500 - 11,400

Source: Cinco Días (1999)

## Bibliography

ABC (1993): “La industria hotelera española ha invertido 60.000 millones en el Caribe desde 1985”. *ABC*, 22-8-93.

Badaracco, J.L. (1991): *The Knowledge Link: How Firms Compete Through Strategic Alliances*. McGraw-Hill. New York. [Spanish version (1992): *Alianzas estratégicas: el caso de General Motors e IBM*. McGraw-Hill, Madrid].

Cinco Días (1998): “Cuba quiere triplicar su oferta turística con capital español”. *Cinco Días*, 19-11-1998, p. 31.

Cinco Días (1999): “Barceló desembarca en Cuba y lidera un proyecto de 46.000 millones y ocho hoteles”. *Cinco Días*, 24-5-1999, p.5.

Contractor, F. (1981): *International Technology Licensing*. Lexington Books. Mass.

El País Negocios (1999): “Cambio de cara en el sector hotelero”, *El País Negocios*, 28-3-1999, p. 31.

Expansión (1999a): “Los empleados marcarán la diferencia entre cadenas hoteleras”. *Expansión*, 25-5-1999, p.20.

Expansión (1999b): “Más de cien hoteles de Iberoamérica tienen acento español”. *Expansión*, 7-6-1999, p.19.

Kogut, B. and Zander, U. (1992): “Knowledge of the Firm, Combinative Capabilities, and the Replication of Technology”. *Organization Science*, vol. 3, No.3, August, pp.383-397.

La Gaceta de los Negocios (1998): “El turismo crece a un ritmo anual del 20%”, *La Gaceta de los Negocios*, 18-11-1998, p. 11.

Mansfield, E. (1985): “How Rapidly Does New technology Leak Out?”. *Journal of Industrial Economics*, 34, 217-224.

Nelson, R.R. and Winter, S.G. (1982): *An Evolutionary Theory of Economic Change*. Harvard University Press. Cambridge, Mass.

Nonaka, I. and Takeuchi, H. (1995): *The Knowledge-Creating Company*. Oxford University Press. New York.

Rogers, E. (1980): *Diffusion of Innovations*. Free Press. New York.

Schumpeter, J.A. (1911): *Theorie der wirtschaftlichen Entwicklung* [English version (1934): *The Theory of Economic Development*. Harvard University Press. Cambridge, Mass.] [Spanish version (1944): *Teoría del desenvolvimiento económico*. FCE. México].

Teece, D. (1977): "Technology Transfer by Multinational Firms. The Resource Cost of International Technology Transfer". *Economic Journal*, 87, pp.242-261.

Winter, S. (1987): "Knowledge and Competence as Strategic Assets" in D. Teece (ed.): *The Competitive Challenge. Strategies for Industrial Innovation and Renewal*. Ballinger. Cambridge. Mass.

Zander, U. and Kogut, B. (1995): "Knowledge and the Speed of Transfer and Imitation of Organizational Capabilities: an Empirical Test". *Organization Science*, vol. 6, No.1, January-February, pp.76-92.

---

<sup>1</sup> Ibrahim ferradaz, Minister to Foreign Investment in Cube

<sup>2</sup> This table does not include the seven or eight hotels that Barceló pretends set up in Cube through agreements with state companys such us Cubanacán, Gran Caribe and Gaviota.