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Universidad Internacional del Ecuador  
Extensión Guayaquil

# El Entorno de los Negocios en Iberoamérica

- GIUSEPPE VANONI MARTÍNEZ
- JESÚS ALFONSO OMAÑA
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**Autores:**

GIUSEPPE VANONI MARTÍNEZ  
JESÚS ALFONSO OMAÑA  
FABRICIO VASCO MORA  
MARÍA PAULINA BRITO  
GIUSEPPE VANONI QUEZADA  
PHANOR RAMOS ROMERO  
ANA SUÁREZ DÍAZ

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## FILIACIONES ACADÉMICAS DE LOS AUTORES

- **Giuseppe Vanoni Martínez.** Doctorado Universidad del Rosario, Bogotá Colombia. Investigador del Grupo Orygem (Organización y Empresa), categoría A de Colciencias. Profesor de postgrado en el área de estrategia y empresas familiares del CEIPA Business School, Medellín. Ex profesor de la Universidad Espíritu Santo de Ecuador.
- **Jesús Alfonso Omaña Guerrero.** Doctorado Universidad de los Andes en Venezuela. Profesor visitante internacional, Kansas University en Estados Unidos. Profesor de la Universidad de los Andes, sede Táchira, Universidad Libre de Colombia y profesor de cátedra del CEIPA Business School de Medellín. Miembro del grupo de investigación Amihedure. Miembro del Instituto de Estudios Humanitarios de las Naciones Unidas.
- **Fabricio Vasco Mora.** Máster en investigación de gestión de la Universidad Pablo de Olavide de España. Profesor de la Universidad Internacional del Ecuador (UIDE).
- **María Paulina Brito Ochoa.** Máster en administración de empresas de la Espae Graduate School of Management. Profesora y especialista en innovación de la incubadora de empresa de la Universidad de Guayaquil.
- **Giuseppe Vanoni Quezada:** Joven investigador de Binghamton State University of New York, Harpur College of Arts and Science, Estados Unidos.
- **Phanor Ramos Romero.** Máster en administración de empresas. Profesor de la Universidad Estatal de la Península de Santa Elena, Ecuador.
- **Ana Suarez Díaz:** Licenciada en comunicación social y Máster en comunicación y marketing de la Universidad Espíritu Santo de Guayaquil, Ecuador.



## **Introduction**

The expansive process of globalization has influenced the modern businessmen to acquire managerial skills that are not only focused on selling products because the circumstances surrounding the current business situations demand many other abilities from the managers and they have to be applied when it's time to negotiate with the commercial partners of the border countries, regional, international and multinational companies. This implies, among many other things, to know the culture, consumer habits and social habits, without leaving aside the different ways of negotiating according the region or country where we're at.

Other very important abilities are the ones related to the day to day topics, this means that the global manager always has to be familiar with the situations of the daily life, along with the proficiency of foreign languages. Both competencies are essential and the universities are making all the efforts to prepare the best XXI century professionals.

This book was designed under these criteria, it's been written in english and spanish because they have been recognized as the business languages, and it covers the latest business topics such as the importance of the country brands in the international contexts; the importance of the wine industry and its growth strategies in high production countries analyzing the case of Spain; the economical, structural and institutional potential of Asia, and the cooperation among nations and regions for a mutual growth.

The goal of this book is to be useful for the university students of Ecuador, especially for the students of Universidad Internacional del Ecuador (UIDE), who are acquiring the necessary knowledge from the science in order to become, in a near future, the directors or managers that will run the destiny of the country.



# 1

## **Country brand Ecuador: A comparative analysis between Colombia, Perú and Chile.**

\*Giuseppe Vanoni Martinez

\*Ana Suarez Diaz

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## **Country brand Ecuador: A comparative analysis between Colombia, Perú and Chile.**

**\*Giuseppe Vanoni Martinez**

**\*Ana Suarez Diaz**

### **Abstract**

The states are very concerned about the image they portray to others; therefore, the “Country Brand” becomes the expression of their identity. To work on it in an integral way is a long-term action whose purpose is to strengthen the cultural presence, to attract investors, to promote both local and international tourism and to make competitiveness stronger. The current paper of literature review analyzes the country brand – Ecuador, its building process and the purposes of this strategy. It also analyzes strategic actions of countries such as Colombia, Peru and Chile, contrasting them with the Ecuadorian case. Concepts and contributions about the meaning, the foundations and elaboration of “Country Brand” were covered. The results show that, even though, the Ecuadorian plan has produced some results in the hospitality area and, as a tourist destination, in the business (investments) and cultural area the results are not significant. Therefore, it can be concluded that, although, the Ecuadorian government has made economical efforts to place the country as one that loves life, it is also true, that it hasn’t involved neither private nor public sectors, ONGs, the Church, producers, exporters, as part of a country project, which, as a consequence, hasn’t let Ecuadorians feel completely identified with the implemented strategy.

**Key words:** Business opportunities, country trademark, international competitiveness, international environments, globalization.

**JEL Classification:** M16, M31

## **Resumen**

Los Estados están tomando conciencia de cómo quieren ser vistos, por lo que, la marca país, se convierte en un reflejo de su identidad. Gestionarla integralmente es una labor de largo plazo, cuyo objetivo es la de afianzar la presencia cultural, atraer inversiones, fomentar el turismo local e internacional y fortalecer la competitividad. En el presente artículo, de revisión bibliográfica, se analizó la marca país Ecuador, cómo fue su proceso de construcción y lo que se intenta conseguir con esta estrategia. Asimismo, se analizaron las acciones estratégicas de países como Colombia Perú y Chile, contrastándolas con el caso ecuatoriano.

Para conseguir esto, se abordaron los conceptos y aportaciones expuestos por diferentes autores, sobre lo que significa la marca país, en qué radica y cómo se la elabora. Los resultados obtenidos, demuestran que, en Ecuador, los esfuerzos han dado sus frutos en el aspecto hotelero y, como destino turístico, pero aún son incipientes los resultados en el campo de negocios, nuevas inversiones, así como, en lo cultural. Por lo que, se concluye, que si bien el Gobierno Nacional, ha realizado esfuerzos económicos para posicionarse como un país que ama la vida, también es cierto, que no ha vinculado a sectores públicos, privados, ONG, iglesia, productores, exportadores, como parte de un proyecto de país, lo que ha propiciado, que no exista una verdadera identificación de la población con la estrategia implementada.

**Palabras clave:** Marca país, competitividad internacional, entornos internacionales, globalización, oportunidades de negocios.

**Clasificación JEL:** M16, M31

## Introduction

During the last decades and in an increasing way, the Latin American governments along with their public institutions, as well as with the private organizations, have been working on the creation of a brand for their countries, while doing it they have accomplished important goals on aspects such as the competitiveness and the images portrayed by their corresponding countries and cities (Martinez, 2007).

According to Porter (2013); Noboa, (2006); Restrepo, Rosker and Echeverry (2008), the stronger the country brand is the easier it's going to be to compete in a modern, internationalized and globalized world. Especially, if the theoretical and practical principles of branding can be applied not only in the managerial context (Aaker, 1996, 1999), but also in a specific region, city or country (Kotler, Bowen & Makens, 2003), although with some methodological differences at the moment of being applied (Marzano, 2014).

Despite what has happened in the neighboring states, which have obtained positive results in the construction of the country brand, Ecuador hasn't made enough efforts, either because the governments haven't been interested in doing so or because they haven't been aware of how important this is as a source of opportunities for internal growth and for reaching new markets. Even though, since 2014 there have been some results due to the efforts of the current government.

This means that the actions that have been applied or implemented are still too basic for the expected results and the benefits at short and long term; especially if they are focused as strategies of a particular government and not as a country vision (Marzano, 2014).

As the perceptions are so important for the decisions taken by the direct or indirect consumers, the construction of the brand tries to produce a precise, real and integral idea about a specific country; the goal of this is to attract investments, to sell their own products in foreign countries, to strengthen the exports and to promote tourism based on a proposal of value that produces differentiation (Valls, 1992).

In order to support what has been stated above, this paper analyzes the term country brand as a concept and its goal too. Some strategies implemented in Latin American countries such as Colombia, Peru and Chile, are evaluated and their historical<sup>1</sup>, geographical-climatic<sup>2</sup>, cultural<sup>3</sup>, ethnical<sup>4</sup> and political-social<sup>5</sup> similarities make it easier to compare experiences of the construction of the brand between them.

Likewise, and considering that the current image of a country might be seen as an obstacle (Llorente, 2011), this document will cover the factors that have influenced the creation of a brand and it will also explain the function of the brand on each one of us (Marzano 2014).

Therefore, and according to what has been mentioned the goal of the article will be: to analyze the strategy of the country brand of Ecuador, how it was designed and built, comparing it to the ones applied in Colombia, Peru and Chile. Through these steps it will

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1 The four countries that will be analyzed have similar historical origins related to their conqueror and their processes of independence and later republican life

2 The Andes' mountains go across those countries which give them similarities related to their coastal zones, mountains, deserts and the Amazon rainforest. They also share the same ocean.

3 In the four cases there's a rich origin in the Inca culture as the predominant one with its subdivisions that were created during all the Tahuantinsuyo Empire.

4 In these four countries, in a bigger or smaller quantity, black and white people, mulattos, mestizos (mixed race) and Amerindians inhabit their territories.

5 Problems like the colonialism, coup d'état, military governments, civilian and indigenous upheavals, guerrillas, the presence of paramilitary groups and drug cartels are still present today.

be possible to differentiate and explain how the strategy of Ecuador pretends to get a position that distinguishes it from the rest of the countries.

## **2. A review of the concept country brand**

The multiple and various experiences of application of the country brand have caused a wide multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary debate among the academics of social sciences and the professionals of the public area, who have agreed on the fact that the country brand is, nowadays, a relevant strategy of economic development (Seisdedos, 2006). To use just a specific country as a support to reinforce aspects related to political and economic interest is not a strategy of the new millennium (Saavedra, 2012). Even in the 16th century, countries such as Ireland and England made promotional efforts to fuel the economies of their nations (Borsay & Proudfoot, 2002).

As it's been said by Valls (1992), the concept of country brand is linked to the perceptions of the real – potential – direct- indirect consumers. The perceptions are the sum of all those elements that made up a country, besides the ones that communicate the characteristics of a nation. Even though the common elements are shared, each country is different.

For Occhipinti (2003, p.193) “it is the study and determination of the various differential values that belong to a country, region, or city, with the goal of positioning products, services, places, with the use of a strategy that is based on the relationship origin-product or service”.

As the country brand is a concept with a cognitive structure, it is linked to the consumers in the way they decode information,

according to what each country means by its own (Fan, 2006), therefore, they will keep different cognitive categories according to the country and the brand (Lucarelli & Berg, 2011). Thus, the image of a country becomes the base for building the brand, in that way, the actives and passives, related to the name and symbols of a country, add or detract the value provided by a product from that nation or to the tourist services offered in that country (Sánchez, Cubillo y Cerviño, 2005).

Iglesias & Molina (2008, pp.109) define the country brand as “the use of the typical characteristics of the nation’s life as a way of influencing the image and the country’s perception on the civil society, the public opinion, and the foreign media, increasing the international prestige of the State, improving its political position and its economic competitiveness in the global system”. Thus, a strategy is established with (intangible assets) the goal of creating and transmitting a country’s image, along with a country brand (logo and slogan), including the national sub-brands.

On the other hand, for Anholt (2009) the country brand is described as the competitive identity of a place, so that this criteria removes the dichotomy that exists between the concept that is the reason of study and the concept of the tourism brand of the country, which in many cases diminishes the efforts made in building a relevant country brand.

According to Barrientos (2014) in the country brand it’s necessary to take into consideration the effort the country has made as a whole, this means as an organization, without excluding or limiting anyone just for favoring others. This strategy is a process where offers of products and services are created, and the brand has as a challenge to create a series of long-term positive associations in the target market (Abo, 2010). As it is explained by Kotler (2006) and

Molina (2009) the products, packing and brands can be modified, the countries can't, the perception is what changes in this topic.

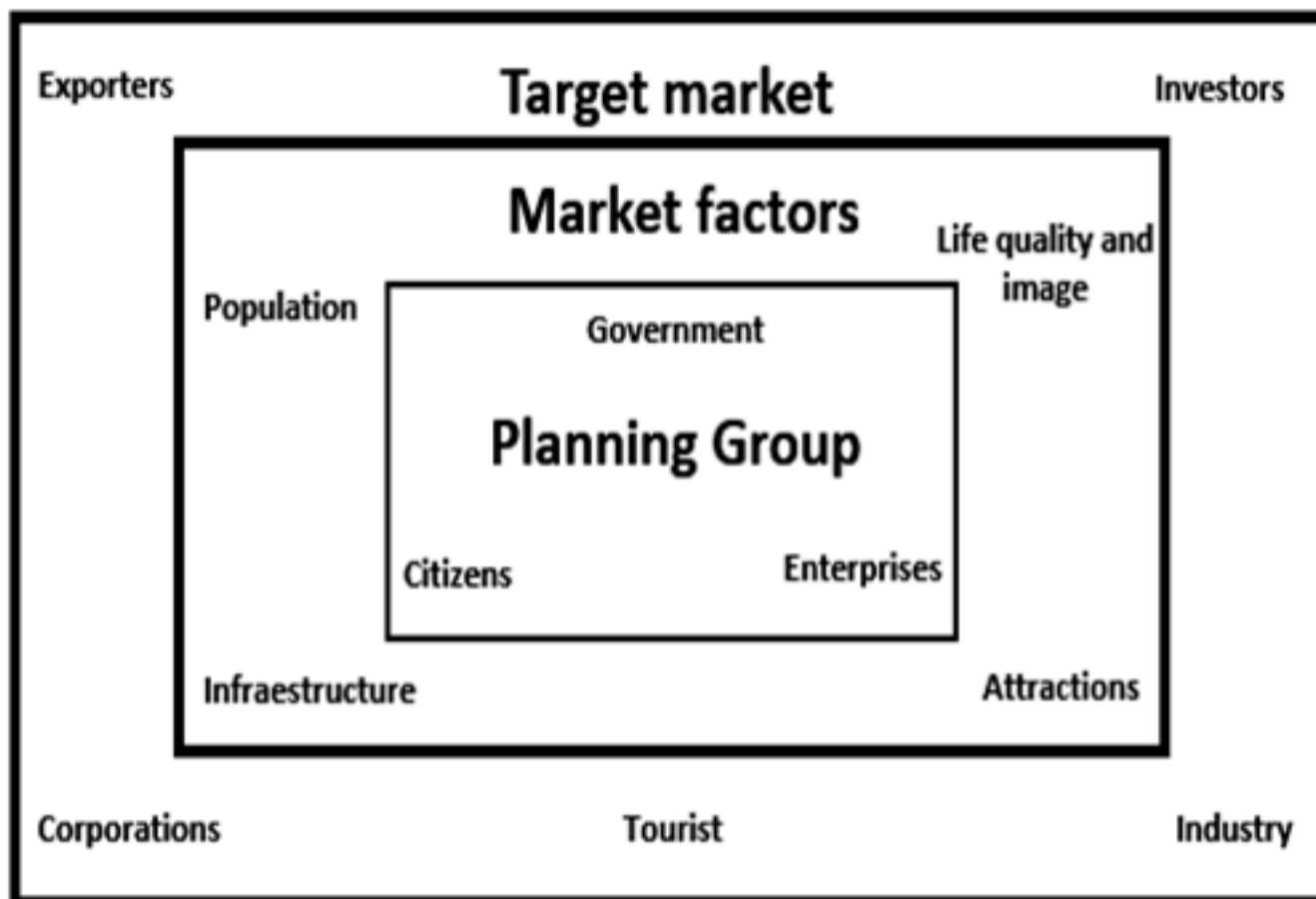
Summarizing and according to Echeverry, Rosker & Restrepo (2008) the most relevant objectives while building a country brand are:

- a) To produce just one integrating identity among all the productive activities of a country.
- b) To project an image that represents an international country within the productive- exporting area.
- c) To concentrate the communication with just one message before the international markets.
- d) To strengthen the culture of values and the national identity among the inhabitants.
- e) To publicize in order to portray a unified identity.

## **2.1. Process for building a country brand**

For the construction of a country brand and for reaching competitive advantages, Noboa (2006), Echeverry, Rosker & Restrepo (2008) mention that the countries must complement their planning strategies with the economic programs, along with the implementation of marketing strategies. In order to accomplish its construction, Mukoma (2008), recommends to work on three key points: 1) the governments, companies, media as well as the centers of education must participate, 2) to seek advice through the leaders of opinions in this area, and through common citizens, to identify both their perceptions and their opinions, and then, 3) to develop a clear and positive idea for a brand to get a solid position. In this way and according to what is expressed by De Elizagarate (2010) in the marketing of sites or places, there are three levels to consider while building a country brand (**see graphic 1**).

**Graphic 1.** Levels of marketing of places or sites.



**Source:** the author based on De Elizagarate (2010); Kotler, Haider & Rein (2007).

While interpreting the graphic 1, from inside to outside, the planning group is the first one in being covered, this is the space to define what a country can offer, where the community is diagnosed and the plan of action is developed. The level 2 would be the identification of the most relevant characteristics of the markets they're focusing on. And the third level will be those target markets to which the efforts will be directed (Kotler, Haider y Rein, 2007).

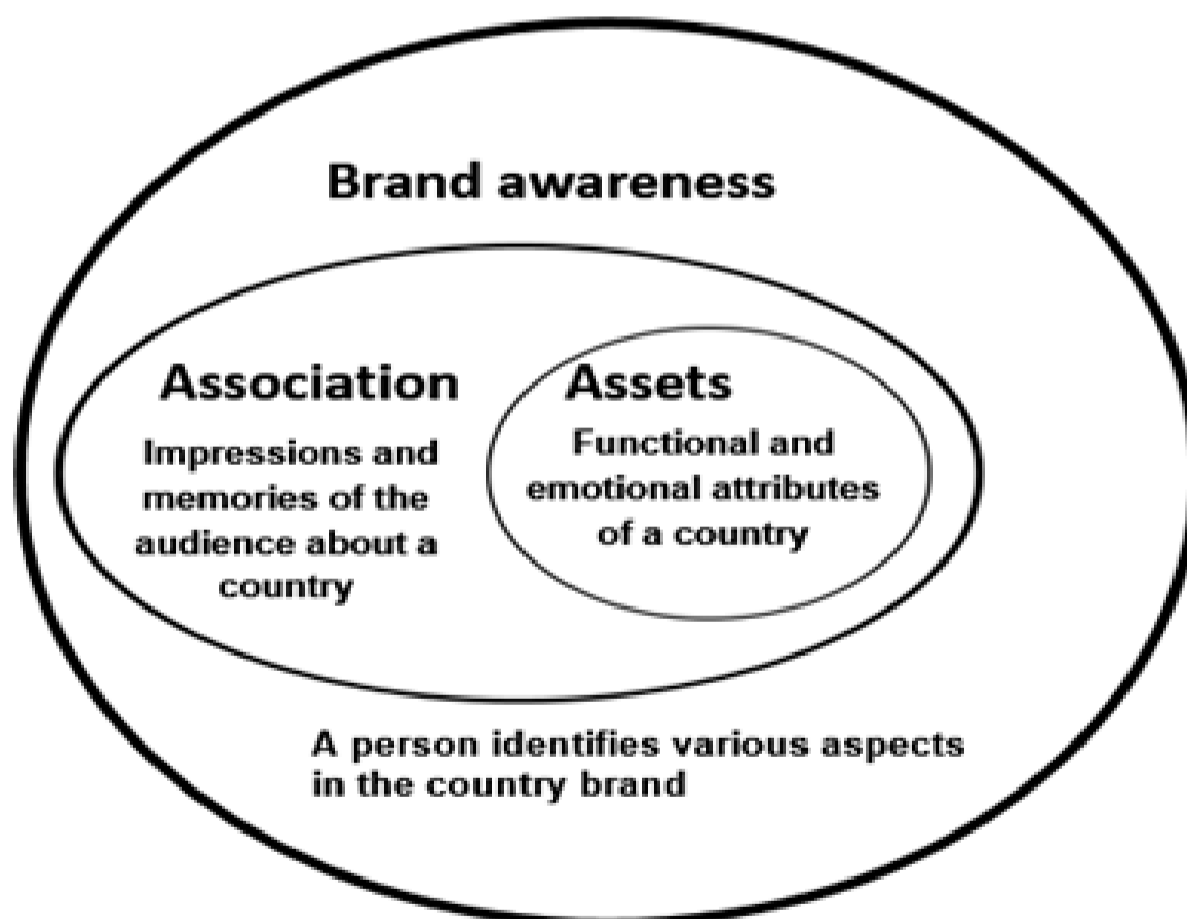
## 2.2. Phases for building a country brand

As it has been stated by Echeverry & Trujillo (2014) the process of building a country brand starts with a diagnostic phase, that



covers both the internal environment of the country and the external one, because these steps allow to identify how the image is being perceived and it also helps recognize the historical and cultural aspects, along with values that will be the foundations of the brand. But, as it's been recommended by Mukoma (2008), the preferences, needs, wishes and expectations of the actors involved in this practice, either they are internal or external players, can't be left behind. With the collected information, the following step is to evaluate the conditions of the perception and image of the brand in order to give a definition of the added value of a country (Echeverry, Niculcar & Parra, 2013). Echeverry & Trujillo (2014), explain that there are three elements that produce this value (**see graphic 2**).

**Graphic 2.** Elements that produce value to a country brand.



**Source:** the author based on Echeverry & Trujillo (2014, pp. 48-49).

The second step is about the identification and the definition of the groups of interest<sup>6</sup>, who are the target of the country marketing campaign (Marzano, 2008), these ones are the tourists, investors, business people, cultural organizations, exporters and residents.

Once the markets have been established, the marketing strategies along with their specific objectives are designed, these strategies will vary according to its uses: tourism, exports, either for business people or for any other well defined target market. Later, the tools of interaction with the market will be identified, which cover since the most traditional ones such as radio, television, newspapers, to the application of technology with the use of virtual communities, along with advertising events, without leaving aside the fact that the governments are the most involved ones in this process, with the purpose of not sending messages that might distort the real meaning of what really wants to be sent to the world (Echeverry & Trujillo, 2014). Finally, the proposal of value of the country brand must be defined and it has to include a series of characteristics that are detailed in the chart below **(see chart 1)**.

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<sup>6</sup> It's important to consider that the academia, the private and public sector must be involved, to define on a long term joint agenda what place of the competitive map should be assigned to the country.

**Chart 1.** Characteristics of a proposal of value of a country brand.

Characteristics	Author(s)	Year
A way of promoting and sharing culture abroad.	Young & Yongjun	2013
Behavior of economics & foreign policy.	Kemp & Williams	2012
Unions & associations to which the brand belongs.	Sartori, Mottironi & Corigliano	2012
Products that are exported.	Aitken & Campelo	2011
The way of competing with other countries in areas such as sports and entertainment.	Lubowiecky & Basinska	2011
The way of treating visitors and the behavior of citizens abroad.	Yang, Shin, Lee & Wrigley	2008

**Source:** the author based on Echeverry & Trujillo (2014).

In chart 1 it could be synthesized that each state decides how to design a strategy of country brand but, aside from the decision that might be taken, in order for the strategy to give results for the reality of a specific country it's important to include all the key persons, institutions, public or private organisms (Edmer, 2010).

### 2.3 Relation between country image and country brand

Approximately since the decade of the 60s, there's been an intense academic debate about the importance of the effect of the country of origin, over the international business and the competitiveness of the countries (Marzano 2010). This effect explains the acceptance or rejection from the consumers, when the barriers are intangible (Wang & Lamb, 1983), of a product from a specific country of origin (Nagashima 1970). And, although, the product is only one

variable of measurement, it can strengthen or minimize a country brand, and as it is a broader concept it might be affected negatively (Kotler, Bowen y Makens 2003).

As it is mentioned by Valls (1992), the country image is the perception their real, potential, direct or indirect consumers have about it, in other words, it's the alleged reputation of the country (Nagashima, 1970). It is important for each country to establish its own identity through the identification of their specific characteristics. As it is explained by Souiden, Pons & Mayrand (2011) the territory must communicate its competitive advantages according to its reality **(see chart 2)**.

**Chart 2.** Diverse conceptualizations of the country image.

Criteria	Author(s)	Year
Beliefs, myths, history and culture. Mental associations of a territory (real or fictitious).	Echeverry & Trujillo	(2014)
Built over its reality.	Jain & Winer	(2013)
Associated to perception such as touristic destinations, to invest and to purchase preferred brands.	Wang, Li, Barnes & Ahn	(2012)
With the perception and experimentation, they define the impressions and experiences that have marked a difference in their minds.	Martínez & Álvarez	(2010)

**Source:** the author.

For Madichie & Yamoah (2006) country brand is a concept that's been linked to the perceptions of the consumers about the attributes of origin of a country; in other words, the perceptions are considered as the way people conceive or interpret the stimuli (Arellano, 2002, 2008).

Therefore, the perceptions, as expressed by Echeverry & Trujillo (2014) are built from three sources: 1) the experience; 2) opinion and media leaders; 3) the reference groups. In that way, the consumers build a global perception of the country, based on experiences they've had, either positive or negative, before the commercialization of their products.

Because of this, a series of international studies have been conducted which show the importance of a country image and how it influences on its competitiveness in a positive or negative way, as it's been demonstrated by Schooler (1965); Nagashima (1970); Bailey & Pineres, (1995). Although other studies such as the ones of Peterson & Jolibert, (1995); Jaffe & Nebenzahl (2006), explain that their practical implications make it more complicated to understand. All these studies lead us to the importance of building a solid country brand, while working, first, over the erroneous perceptions the consumers make up in their minds.

Therefore, for the Ecuadorian case, which is the object of this document, the Corporation of Promotion of Exports and Imports (CORPEI) recommends the creation of a country brand Ecuador, to add value to the exports of goods and services, which will bring, as a result, a creation of value for investors because it will help on a strategy of products that are commercialized with brand Ecuador, which would allow to manage the origin country, by using the strategy of a country brand that is being applied by the government (Estrada, 2002).

## 2.4. Positioning a country brand

The strategy of positioning a country brand has as a goal to give value to the origin of the products, organizations and persons in the international markets, and create a symbol of distinction and recognition that will let them develop tourism, investments and, as a consequence, their economy. This means that the construction of the differentiation and the way how it is applied for a specific country will bring, implicitly, the values, beliefs and characteristics that form one society and how the other ones can be identified (Passow, Fehlmann & Grahlow 2005).

As it's been mentioned by Harrison – Walker (2011) a country brand has as a goal to establish a unified, well defined and clear identity, avoiding regionalism and reinforcing the concept made in, producing major trust both in the internal and in the external performance of the country.

Tourism is very important nowadays, as a result, the government is focused on strengthening the country brand globally by rescuing the five factors that according to Moilanen & Rainsito (2009) are relevant for the tourist: heritage-culture, business skills, value system, quality of life and the tourism itself. These aspects enable people to make associations when they hear the name of a country or look at a picture that represents it, because they produce differentiation (Laxe & Palmero, 2009).

Nevertheless, as it is explained by Djurica & Djurica (2010), the constant changes in the environment of a country threat the conditions of the tourist market, they also promote new opportunities; therefore, in order to maintain a position or to reposition a country brand, it is necessary to adopt long-term marketing strategies that

present micro segmented offerings of tourist destinations which, along with strategies of direct communication, will reinforce the implemented strategies for a country.

### **3. Experiences of country brand in South America.**

The governments are formulating strategies that help improve their image before the world because the countries or regions have turned into strategic ones according to the point of view of the competitiveness (Akotia, Ebow Spio, Frimpong y Austin, 2011); especially in Latin America where they have image issues, not only because of their economic situations but principally because of the distrust that's been generated along the years from the corruption and insecurity in the state institutions, which has caused differences in the process of building the brands in these countries, some countries like Peru and Costa Rica have focused on tourism, others like Brazil, Colombia and Mexico have been characterized as emergent brands, and United States has been identified for its leadership (Echeverry & Trujillo 2014). As it had already been expressed and with the purpose of illustrating cases of South America, the principal characteristics in the construction of the brand in Chile, Colombia and Peru will be covered<sup>7</sup>. The chart 3 shows the ranking of their positions.

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<sup>7</sup> These countries have been taken as a reference because the periods of time working on country strategies are very similar. Unlike Brazil, to cite an example, where they have been working on the country brand for many years and it's already positioned, as well as the perceptions; that have been built through events of different types (sports have been a great influence) which have made it gain international recognition.

**Chart 3.** Positions of country brand in South America.

Position 2013-2014	Country
1	Brasil
2	Argentina
3	Chile
4	Perú
5	Uruguay
6	Colombia

**Source:** the author based on Country Brand Index (2013- 2014).

### 3.1 Country Brand Colombia.

After the phase of using the slogan “Colombia es pasión” (“Colombia is passion”), which was launched in 2005 (see graphic 3), the objectives were re-defined, trying to publicize the attributes abroad, emphasizing on the country’s advantages and comparing them with the other countries of the region with similar characteristics; the goal of this action was to improve the perception and to build trust and a wider knowledge about what Colombia really means, because as Echeverry, Stay-Niculcar & Parra (2013) have said, the foreigners had polarized perceptions about this country, it could have had a rich natural wealth, gastronomy and coffee culture, but there was also a negative image associated to violence acts, insecurity and drug dealing, this stigma was attached to it since the decade of 1980s.



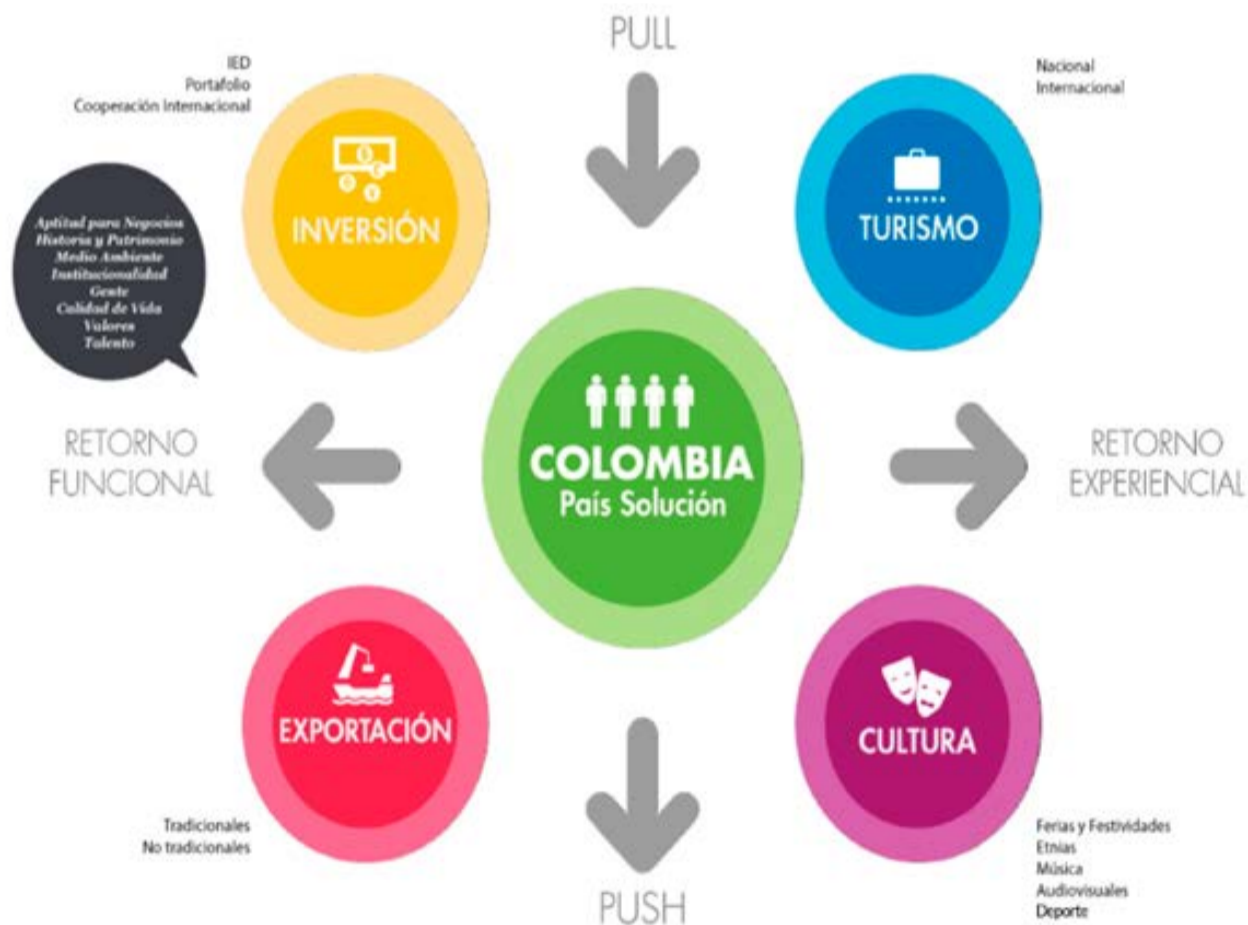
**Graphic 3.** Logo and slogan launched in 2005.



**Source:** Proexport Colombia (2005).

In 2011, after the first country brand concluded its lifecycle, President Juan Manuel Santos created the Organization Country Brand<sup>8</sup>, who defined four axes (**see graphic 4**) the culture, the tourism, foreign investment and exports.

**Graphic 4.** Model of Strategic Communication.



**Source:** Trujillo 2012.

<sup>8</sup> Linked to the Ministry of Industry and Tourism and the High Presidential Counseling for Communications.

The purposes were also redefined in order to capture opportunities in: a) to obtain foreign investment, b) to promote and increase tourism, c) to promote cultural identity, d) to increase exports, f) to gain environmental recognition, g) to prepare competent human capital, g) to develop modern, serious and honest institutions (Marca país Colombia, 2013). With this background the new logo was designed (**see graphic 5**), whose goal is to portray the mega diversity of the country, associating the regions to colors which will be given different meanings (Marca País Colombia, 2012).

**Graphic 5.** Current logo of country brand Colombia.



**Source:** Country Brand Colombia (2013).

- a) Yellow represents the sun and the minerals.
- b) Blue represents the richness of the rivers and the sea.
- c) Red is linked to the warmth, talent and passion of the people.
- d) Green is in its mountains, valleys and plains.

In the graphic design the CO was incorporated as an additional element that represents the synthesis of Colombia in the code International Standardization Organization (ISO) 3166-1alpha2,

established in 1974. Likewise, a song called “Colombia”<sup>9</sup> was created, which travels around the diverse musical genres of the country<sup>10</sup> (Marca País Colombia, 2012).

The country brand Colombia is in the introductory phase, it has been conceived as a government policy and not as a State policy, and according to Echeverry & Trujillo (2014), this is a challenging step because there might be people against it, although Futurebrand (2012) predicts a substantial improvement and this web organization places Colombia among the 15 brands that will lead the future.

### 3.2. Country brand Perú

The new country brand was launched in 2011, it is based on a strategy that wants to obtain investments from foreign companies, it also wants to be able to export their products and get more access to tourism; the logo (**see graphic 6**) wants to picture Peru as a multifaceted country that catches everyone’s attention for how special it is (PromoPerú, n.d.).

**Graphic 6.** Logo of country brand of Peru.



**Source:** Taken from PromoPerú (n.d.).

9 Written Miguel de Narváez

10 <http://www.colombia.co/videos/cancion-colombia.html>

The spiral used in the letter P, represents changes, evolutions and transformations, it gets prolonged without interruptions to form the word Peru. The difference from the logo used until 2010 along with the slogan “Perú el país de los Incas” (“Peru, the country of the Incas”) (see graphic 7), and the current one is that this one wants to communicate new and varied dimensions, focused specifically in the name of the country, without representing any Inca culture. As there’s not any verbal complement attached to it, each area can decide the communication approach that wants to give to it, although it goes with the song “Enamorado de estar aquí<sup>11</sup>” (“In love for being her”) which specifies what the country has, told by people from different cities<sup>12</sup> (PromoPerú, n.d.).

**Graphic 7.** Logo of the first country brand Peru.



**Source:** Taken from Historia Vive by Promoperú (n.d).

The strengthening of Peru country brand should lead this country into the pursuit of consensus around the different sectors (private, public and government) and to the investment in touristic infrastructure, because according to data from World Economic

11 Its author is Fahed Mitre

12 <https://www.youtube.com/user/marcaperu>

Forum (2013) it's ranked 61 in the competitiveness index, which gives this country a positive grade on macroeconomics, efficient on labour and good development in financial market; these characteristics along with the cultural, human and natural richness turn this country into a privileged one, and this is a guarantee of social and economic stability for the upcoming years (Centro Nacional de Planeamiento Estratégico, 2011).

### 3.3. Country brand Chile

As it's been said by the Committee of Foreign Investments of the Government of Chile, the country has a position associated to trust due to social and political stability and the achievements in public policies, which has caused credibility in the foreign investors (Gobierno de Chile, n.d.).

Because of this good performance, it is considered the most successful Latin American country in projecting its identity, it's been able to combine its resources and effort among the state and private institutions to strengthen the government and it also has a policy of open economy and free trade along with its exporting policy.

Chile got an assignment of USD. 25.000.000 in 2004 after a public invitation to tender, the process started with the design of a communication strategy of the country brand Chile. For the end of 2005, the campaign "Chile sorprende siempre" ("Chile always surprises") (**see graphic 8**) was launched with the purpose of promoting foreign investment, exports, tourism, and for integrating the country brand (Gobierno de Chile, n.d.).

**Graphic 8.** Logo of country brand Chile.



**Source:** Taken from the official site of Turismo de Chile.

The process of building the logo shows that Chile is a country that surprises, by using stars with color ochre it is shown that the surprise is abstract; modifications come out of the tips of a lonely star that is used in the flag to suggest diversity and humanity (Ponichianik 2012).

With the participation of the private and public areas, a concept for integration into the global market was designed, with strategies that involved technological-scientific exchanges, attraction of foreign investment and promotion of culture; the three axes of the brand were: 1) geographic diversity because it has glaciers, seas and deserts; 2) the stability of the country because of its democracy and solid economic conditions for foreign investment and, 3) its inhabitants because they're nice, kind and efficient at work (Chadwick, 2013).

For the period 2012-2020, the national strategy of tourism of Chile is to be recognized as a high quality – world class touristic place, an attractive, varied and sustainable country. The goal is to reach 5.4 million tourists that will double the incomes this area produces currently, along with the creation of 40 thousand direct job places and 160 thousand indirect ones, which will be obtained

with market intelligence, investment, competitiveness, quality tourism, advertising and sustainability (Gobierno de Chile, 2012).

### 3.4. Country brand Ecuador

The first attempt to position the country brand Ecuador was in 2001, with the campaign (“Life in pure state”) (Iglesias, 2009) but as this one didn’t cause any impression, it was removed as a country strategy (see graphic 9).

**Graphic 9.** First logo and slogan of country brand Ecuador.



**Source:** Taken from [www.wallikawsay.com](http://www.wallikawsay.com)

In 2010 a communication strategy was structured, it pretended to turn the country into a tourist power by using new elements such as the “Sumak Kawsay (Kichwa) (Good living), so the previous slogan was switched for “Ecuador loves life” (“Ecuador ama la vida”)<sup>13</sup> (see graphic 10). But, according to the words of President Rafael Correa: “Ecuador will not only be a tourist brand but also a country brand that can be identified as the synonym of life and love” (Andes, 2010).

<sup>13</sup> This represents the first phase of the strategy.

**Graphic 10.** Current logo of country brand Ecuador.



**Source:** ecuadoramalavida.com.ec

The process of communicative construction and the meaning of each element that is part of the new logo is explained in the following chart (**see chart 4**).

**Chart 4.** Elements of the logo.

Origin of the brand	Texture	Color
The start approach is the fact that Ecuador is the center of the world, as it is divided by the equator and it is the origin of the life, from here everything shines to the infinity. The equinox is the base axe that turns 6° ( <b>see graphic 11</b> ).	The logo is built by micro lines that develop movements and dynamism, this is based on the radial criterion or sinuous curves used by the ancestors ( <b>see graphic 12</b> ).	There are 20 tones that try to express the colorfulness of all the regions of the country, the inhabitants, the landscapes, the ethnics, crafts, gastronomy and cultural expressions of every type ( <b>see graphic 13</b> ).

**Source:** the author with information taken from ecuadoramalavida.com.ec



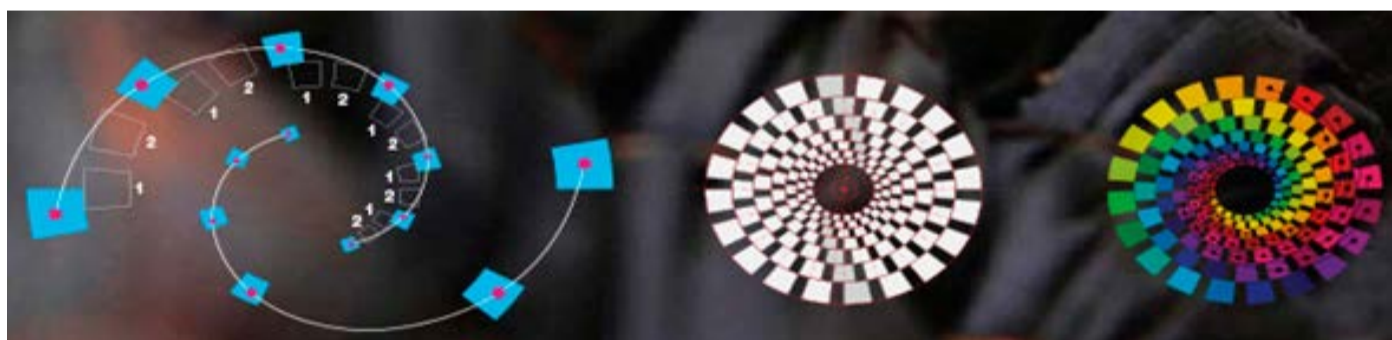
**Graphic 11.** Origin of country brand Ecuador.



**Graphic 12.** Texture of the brand.



**Graphic 13.** Color.



**Source:** taken from [ecuadoramalavida.com](http://ecuadoramalavida.com)

In 2014, with the official presentation of the popular song All You Need is Love<sup>14</sup>, from the British Band The Beatles, the National Government launched the second phase of the strategy of the country

14 The song was launched in 1967, was seen by 400 million people in 26 countries.

brand “All you need is Ecuador”, whose purpose is to promote tourism and to turn it into one of the principal income sources by placing the slogan in strategic places of America, Europa, and in Ecuador too. The copyrights of the song were \$ 1.3 million and it's estimated that by 2017 the investment will reach \$620 million (Veloz, 2014). Due to the big efforts that have been made, there are some good results in the tourist area, presented by international agencies (**see chart 5**).

**Chart 5.** Won Awards.

Category	Country/ Province/ City	Institution that gives the award
Leading Green destination in South America	Quito	World Travels Awards
Leading destination in South America)	Quito	World Travels Awards
Recommendation to be visited in 2014)	Ecuador	The New York Times
Destination N° 1 to visit)	Galápagos	USA Today Travel
Best city to get retired)	Cuenca	Revista International Living

**Source:** Veloz (2014).

Other distinctions that were obtained in 2014 were provided by World Travels Awards<sup>15</sup> in the category South America:

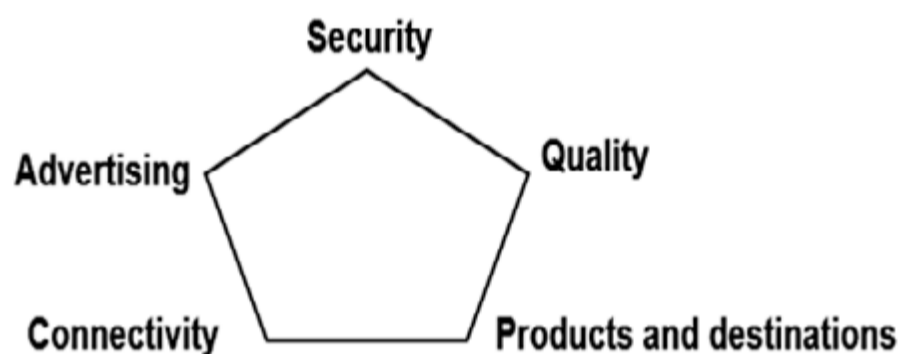
- Leader in category Airport of South America: Aeropuerto Mariscal Sucre.
- South American leader in resorts: Arasha Tropical Forest Resort Spa.

15 They're recognized by Wall Street Journal as the Oscars of Tourism.

- Leader in category Hotels for conferences in South America: Swissotel Quito.
- Green Hotel: Finch Bay Eco Hotel
- Luxury Leader Train: Tren Crucero

The process of building a new policy was based on five strategic aspects (**see graphic 14**), which has also been supported by an investment of 800 million dollars (Naranjo, 2014)<sup>16</sup>.

**Graphic 14.** Strategic pillars of tourism in Ecuador.



**Source:** the author based on [www.turismo.gob.ec](http://www.turismo.gob.ec)

Important alliances were also made with successful national companies such as Grupo Nobis and international hotel chains like Best Western, Swissotel and Grupo Accor. The efforts for positioning the country brand Ecuador have produced an increase of 14% of tourists compared to the period January - June 2014 and the hotel area has also won awards which means the strategy is to portray the country as a whole (**see chart 6**).

**Chart 6.** Hotel Awards 2014.

Hotel	Award
Plaza Grande	Leader in Hotel Boutique.
Swiss Hotel Quito	Leader in Business.
Mashpi Lodge	Leader in Green Hotel.
JW Marriott	Leader of Hotels in Ecuador.
Termas Papallacta	Leader in Spa and Resort.

**Source:** taken from [www.turismo.gob.ec](http://www.turismo.gob.ec)

Despite what has been mentioned, there are not clear and official statistics yet about the results from the two campaigns, which is normal because the establishment of numbers would be too premature, considering that the construction of a brand takes years in getting well established in the minds of the consumers.

In another topic, Marzano (2012, pp. 27) mentions that this new country brand is above the unnecessary proliferation of images that characterized Ecuador for many years. Although, in the previous country brand as much as in the current one no one from the private institutions or the citizens or from the academic area have been involved in the process of creation of the country brand. The same author indicates: “If the country brand Ecuador is our competitive identity, all Ecuadorians are stakeholders of it”, in other words, it is regrettable that with this procedure the National Government is implicitly sending out the message that the brand only belongs to the government, therefore, the future governments should consider the country brand Ecuador as a strategy to be positioned worldwide. The previous comments, according to Echeverri & Trujillo (2014) could be discarded if there were a greater freedom of expression and politics, and this would also help establish a solid country

brand.

#### **4. Analysis of the strategy country brand Ecuador in comparison with Colombia, Perú and Chile**

The strategy of Ecuador, as well as the ones elaborated by the other mentioned countries, has been centered on certain elements as the principal ones to take into consideration about the brand, the logo and the differentiation, in order to gain a position (Aaker, 1996; Passow, Fehlmann & Grahlow 2005; Valls, 1992; Laxe & Palmero 2009).

In the construction of the logo, it's obvious the use of nature elements along with a variety of colors that involve all the regions of the country, trying to differentiate it from other countries, where the use of colors is more restricted such as Peru and Chile, and even Colombia; although this last one gives a description of the meaning of each color, the explanation is limited to its regions but all of them in one way or the other have included the colors or symbols of their flags in their logos.

It's important to emphasize, as a different strategy, the use of the famous song "All you Need is Love", from the British band, The Beatles, which is seen as a song that survives the passing of time, and it's sung in business language, without knowing if the results will be positive or negative at medium and long time. This is different from what's been done both in Peru and Colombia, who have used songs with a more national approach and in Spanish. As a support for the strategy and for the logo, the axes of the brand used as foundations for the policies stand out. The chart 7 classifies in an objective way the three marketing pillars for the construction of the country brand Ecuador.

**Chart 7.** Summary of axes of marketing in brand Ecuador.

Country	Brand	Strategy	Logo
Ecuador	Axes of brand	High investment of economic resources	Change of logo
		Focused on good living	Use of the name of the country
		Focused on love and life	Use of a variety of colors
		Music from The Beatles	Use of nature elements
			Accompanied by words

**Source:** the author.

Among the four studied countries, it's important to highlight the stability of Chile concerning social aspects and state policies, the country brand Chile provides a sense of belonging for each one of the members of the population which strengthened by the presence of representative entities like public and private ones along with the academics who established and worked on the mentioned axes. In the Ecuadorian case, they're still not well established due to the government strategy. In the Colombian case, the situations of insecurity are still in the mind of the consumers and foreign investors, minimizing, to some extent, the potential of this multi diverse country, as it is represented by its logo (Echeverry, et al. 2013).

On the other hand, Peru tries to detach from a strong positioning, built upon the Inca Empire, therefore, its current logo in the shape of a spiral pretends to show that the country is flowing into a new

present, filled with challenges, and as it is not using any words it allows the tourist and the investors to imagine a country filled with opportunities and with a solid political-social-economic structure, because it has involved external entities in the making of the country brand.

## 5. Conclusions

This article has accomplished the goal of analyzing and finding the differences of the Ecuadorian strategy with the countries that were used to compare its brand strategy, having as an evidence that there's still a lot to do, especially, working with areas that are not part of the government, because in order to achieve a country brand that is recognized at world level it's important to let different organizations that are part of the national events (public and private ones, ONGs, church, produces, exporters, etc.) participate in the process. It's also important to get into strategic alliances and to establish as an only goal to make Ecuador visible, which is not an easy task because the country is facing a competitive South American environment of very high level, as it was analyzed with the Colombian, Chilean and Peruvian case. This means that the big economic investment made by Ecuador is not enough from a strategic point of view.

The purpose of applying different strategies is to give the country not only a tourist character but to turn it into a destination for business, gastronomy, culture, exports and investment; this goal has already been accomplished by Peru and Chile due to their stable strategies and the participation of areas that are not part of the government.

The decision taken in 2016 of making changes in the country brand represents a deep transformation towards a more dynamic strategic system that uses a variety of colors that represent Ecuador as a whole, as a bio-diverse country, as an attractive destination for tourists.

What is mentioned above is supported in the fact that the brand "Ecuador ama la vida" ("Ecuador loves life") transmits a bright,



clear and simple message, very easy to mention and that carries the essence of what the country represents, expecting at medium term to establish emotional links with the investors and tourists; therefore, it'll be necessary to give more strategic strength to the potential markets, without leaving aside the local work that allows to develop trust over the brand Ecuador by the use of massive messages and strategies focused on different areas of the population, encouraging the creation of a country brand in house.

And although at national level the results are not so evident, the studies conducted by Echeverri & Trujillo (2014) emphasize that at world level there have been positive benefits in the positioning of the image and in other aspects related to places, customs and gastronomy. But the government still needs to work harder and not only on isolated initiatives that are not, necessarily, focused on the evolution of the country.

It's still too soon to talk about a solid establishment of the country brand that shows final and highly satisfactory results, the only presentation of the country to the world is not everything, it's also necessary to get potential consumers as it happened in the Colombian case with its four strategic axes or in the Peruvian one that went beyond its Inca culture. This would allow us to be included into the list of the first places of the Country Brand Index.

It should be interesting to elaborate research papers to evaluate in a quantitative and qualitative way the results of the application of the country brand Ecuador and who the new beneficiaries are; this will only be possible if there's access to quantitative information that reveals the income obtained from the application of the strategy.

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# 2

## The Joint Influence of Growth paths and company's size on how much Spanish wineries grow

\*Fabricio Vasco Mora

\*Paulina Brito Ochoa

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# **The Joint Influence of Growth paths and company's size on how much Spanish wineries grow**

**Fabricio Vasco Mora  
María Paulina Brito Ochoa**

## **Abstract**

The purpose of this study is to analyze the main modes of growth of small and medium (SMEs) Spanish wineries. In order to reach this aim, we study the joint influence of the “different growth paths” and “firms’ size” on “how much Spanish wineries grow”. Through an empirical study, we analyzed three growth forms: internal or organic growth (OG); external growth, (i.e., mergers and acquisitions (M&A)); and a combination of both OG and M&A known as hybrid models. Our results show that Spanish wineries grow mainly organically. However, as they increase in size organic growth rates start falling. These finding contribute to the literature showing that the only real way of growing for Spanish wineries is through internal development of their resources and capabilities. However, getting into mergers and acquisitions do not make companies bigger and, sometimes, it even make companies smaller.

## INTRODUCTION

Growth is a precondition for the life of company (Phillips and Kirchhoff, 1989), especially for SMEs. Phillips and Kirchhoff (1989) discuss that growing young firms are twice more likely to survive than companies that do not grow. Firm's growth is an important area of research on entrepreneurship, strategy and organizations (Pasanen, 2007). However, the development of research in this area has been remarkably slow, and the main cause of this behavior is the impatience of researchers to address the question of "How Much" before the "How" firms grow (McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010). Gilbert, McDougall and Audretsch (2006) argue that, addressing the "how" can be a more interesting research question because it allows us to understand the factors that are pushing the observed growth.

Over the past few years, there have been several studies on companies' growth using different parts of the growth literature, such as growth of new enterprises (Gilbert, McDougall, and Audretsch, 2006), knowledge learning and growth (Phelps, Adams and Bessant, 2007), and measuring the constructs of growth such as sales and employment levels (Shepherd and Wiklund, 2009). However, among these works, there are only a few studies that attempt to explain how companies grow (eg, Davidsson and Wiklund, 2000; McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010; Weinzimmer, Nystrom, and Freeman, 1998). On the other hand, there are different theories that the literature has used to explain growth rates (McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010). Among those, we highlight human resource practices in companies (Batt, 2002) and individual characteristics and motivations of workers (Baum, Locke and Smith, 2001). In addition, Penrose (1959) proposed the resource-based view (RBV) to explain the different modes of growth because for her, the company is more than an administrative unit; it is also a combination of available resources for different uses. As we will explain later, the RBV is the approach that this research is going to follow.

The different theories used to understand company's growth have viewed growth as a dependent, independent or intermediate variable. The current largest stream of research in the literature uses growth as the dependent variable and aims to explain different growth rates (McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010). However, McKelvie and Wiklund (2010) explain that it is not enough to analyze growth as a result because it does not cover all of the aspect needed to understand growth. Therefore, based on the gap identified by these authors, we will analyze growth as dependent variable and as a process, to better understand this organizational issue. Analyzing growth as dependent variable or outcome means to see if there are a set o independent variables that predict differences in growth rates across firms (McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010). Analyzing growth as a process means to examine the internal "how" aspects of growth (McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010). That is, in this research, we are going to see how much firms grow and how they do it. To analyze how firms, grow, we use the research developed by Penrose (1959), who identified two types of growth: first internal or organic growth (OG), second external growth in which we will focus on mergers and acquisitions (henceforth M&A). We are also going to add the work of McKelvie and Wiklund (2010), who explained that there is a third type of growth which is the hybrid model and which is a combination of both types of growth (OG and M&A).

Organic Growth (OG) involves the internal generation of resources, for example, employment and training of new staff (Lockett, Wiklund, Davidsson and Girma, 2009). Mergers are defined as the consolidation of two previously independent companies into one organization, while acquisitions, on the other hand, are defined as the purchase of one company by another where the buyer maintains control (Bertoncelj, 2009). The merger strategy among firms can reduce risk and produce greater value for shareholders (Hitt, Hoskisson and Ireland, 1990). An acquisition strategy can enable a company to take advantage of

growth opportunities through access to resources of the company that controls (Harrison, Hitt, Hoskisson and Ireland, 2001). Finally, the hybrid model is neither organic nor acquisitive but falls somewhere in between. Hybrid forms involve contractual organizational forms that, e.g., can allow firms to overcome issues related to limited managerial capacity (Shane, 1996). This type of mode can take a number of forms, including franchising, licensing, and joint ventures/strategic alliances (McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010). These growth strategies are different challenges for the management of the company and may have a differential impact on firm “how much growth” and performance (Delmar, Davidsson and Gartner, 2003). Penrose (1959) was one of the first to analyze the types of growth. For Penrose organic growth should be more associated with small and young firms, while growth through mergers and acquisitions is more likely in older and larger companies, or in mature industries. Based on these statements, this research will also take into account the effects of size on “how much wineries grow”.

According to the report of the Wine Institute (2010), Spain is one of the major wine producing countries worldwide and also has a high capacity to adapt to the increasingly international market and attract foreign investment (Castaldi, Cholette and Hussain, 2006). In 2005, the number of companies in the wine industry was in 3,991, which represents 12.40% of food companies and is in third place after the baking industry, confectionery and biscuits and the meat industry. In addition to the wine industry represents 1% of Spanish Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Wines of Spain, 2008). The large size of the wine industry in Spain, around 3,900 wineries, offers a large sample to test our hypotheses and to study the different modes of growth of SMEs. Also, given the impact of this industry on the Spanish GDP, we find that this is an important industry to be analyzed.

Using the RBV, this study attempts to answer the following research

question: How does the choice or combination of different growth paths and size influence how much SMEs wineries growth? This question is aiming to explain the joint influence of the “different growth paths” (how do companies growth: organic, acquisitions and/or hybrid and “firms’ size”) on “how much SMEs wineries from the most important Spanish Denominaciones de Origen (DO) grow”. The Resource-Based Theory highlights the unique characteristics of the firm and suggests that the key to profitability is not doing the same as competitors, rather to exploit the differences (Grant, 1991). This theory is closely related to the modes of growth, because if the company wants to achieve profitable growth, it should focus on the proper exploitation of its internal resources and be aware of the opportunities given by the changing environment, which create value and allow the company to grow (McKelvie, Wiklund and Davidsson, 2006).

To analyze these growth modes, we have developed an empirical study using secondary information (the Analysis System of Iberian balances database, SABI, and databases of companies belonging to each DO) to obtain objective information about Spanish SMEs wineries; and primary information obtained from the questionnaires that such wineries have answered.

Our main contribution is the analysis of the different growth strategies: internal, external and hybrid in the context of SMEs which was a little explored area. We think that we need to learn much more about the different strategies of growth mainly in smaller firms and analyze if they can apply other types of growth, which are rare in this sector as the growth of strategic alliances, franchising, joint ventures and licensing. According to the results, we can say that Spanish wineries grow mostly organically. Also, as companies increase their size, the organic growth rate decreases. We tested this, using different growth indicators such as sales and employees and the results do not changed, proving that these measures are consistent.

The paper proceeds as follows: Next, we present the theoretical background on SMEs' growth, sorting into the different growth modes (organic, acquisitions and hybrid) that lead us to propose our hypotheses. Second, we analyze the Spanish Wine industry. Third, we explain the research methods used in the study. Fourth, we analyze the results obtained from our sample. We finally present our main findings, conclusions, contributions, limitations and implications for future research on business growth.

## **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: SME GROWTH**

Pasanen (2006) argue that the research community broadly shares the view that the growth of SMEs is particularly important in the economy (eg Storey, 1994). Also, based to the work of Beck, Demirgüç and Levine (2005), we can say that SMEs have a strong relationship with Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita of an economy. SMEs can increase competition and entrepreneurship as they can be more productive than large firms and their expansion promotes greater employment growth and labor (Beck, Demirgüç and Levine, 2005). In a study of 45 countries with different characteristics, Beck, Demirgüç and Levine (2005) found that there is a positive relationship between the size of the SME sector and economic growth. SMEs are part of the engine of the European economy because they are a key source of employment, creation of entrepreneurial spirit and innovation, which are crucial to promote competitiveness (European Commission, 2005). For example, Bukvic and Bartlett (2003) argue that SMEs play an important role in the transition of businesses, which occurs with a reassignment of resources from the state sector to the private sector with a corporate restructuring.

According to Weitzel and McCarthy (2009), SMEs can be anything, but not insignificant. For example, in the European context, it is believed

that SMEs represent about 99% of all enterprises, employing about 75 million people to promote innovation and competition (Weitzel and McCarthy, 2009). Globally, SMEs may even be responsible for 40% to 50% of GDP in the world (European Commission, 2005). According to the European Commission (2005), the European Union has 23 million SMEs across 25 countries playing a central role in the economy, providing jobs, encouraging innovation and creating entrepreneurs. Another example of the importance of SMEs in European countries is the work of Serrasqueiro et al. (2010), where they empirically study the relationship between the growth of SMEs with the size, age, intangible assets (research and development), internal and external financing in countries like Portugal, Sweden, Italy, Spain and Japan. Serrasqueiro et al. (2010) argue that SMEs represent 75.6% of the workforce and 56.4% of the total sales of Portuguese industry. In Portugal and in most European countries, SMEs constitute almost the entire production system being the main engine of wealth creation and economic growth (Serrasqueiro et al, 2010). Today, we recognize the importance of SMEs in the economy, for example in UK small businesses that employed fewer than 20 people represented 98% of all firms (Deakins and Freel, 1998). Deakins and Freel (1998) argue that Europe has developed new policies in the European Union aimed at the benefit of SMEs, which shows that this sector is growing in importance in recent years. The growth of SMEs has been identified in most societies as one of the most significant components of economic strategies for job creation and wealth (Salojarvi, Furu and Sveiby, 2005). In New Zealand, small businesses represent a very important part of business, approximately 45% of the workforce and 97% of the private sector (Locke, 2004). In the Spanish case, according to the General Policy Directory of SMEs (2011), the 99.88% of companies are SMEs, excluding agriculture and fishing. In addition, SMEs in Spain contribute more than 65% of GDP and over 75% of private employment (Alvarez, Benamou, Fernández and Solé, 2011).

Salvato, Lassini and Wiklund (2007), using a comparative longitudinal study on growth of 18 Italian SMEs from different industries, argue that SMEs represent an ideal context for studying the development of merger and acquisition capabilities because in contrast of general market leaders, SMEs are much less likely to participate in acquisitions in order to reduce competition and see this only as a form of growth. For example, Wiklund (1998) argues that small firms are important for the renovation of a healthy economic system, so that old ideas are replaced by new ones where services and processes are more effective and these new ideas are created often for new and small firms that grow rapidly.

Based on the previous statements, it seems that is important to study the patterns of SMEs growth, because of the utility of SMEs for the economy and because research on this phenomenon is still low (Delmar, Davidsson and Gartner, 2003). According to Pasanen (2007), the literature on SMEs has focused primarily on new business, rather than on existing SMEs and the factors behind its survival and growth (for example, Olson and Bokor, 1995). Even though SMEs have received increased attention, little is known about their growth process (Deakins and Freel, 1998).

Growth is the second most important goal of a company and is a precondition for achieving the first objective that is the survival or continuance of business (Pasanen, 2007). Pasanen (2007) argues that growth can provide a company with new business opportunities that increase their size and market credibility. According to Davidsson and Wiklund (2000), growth can be analyzed through the levels of sales, employees and assets of a company because they reflect changes in the short and long term. Researchers believe that sales are one of the best measures of growth because they are easier to obtain and are a common indicator between entrepreneurs but also, there is great interest in the creation of new jobs, which makes this another important aspect to



study (Davidsson and Wiklund, 2000). Davidsson and Wiklund (2000) explain that growth can be captured by an increase of sales because it has a clearer connection with the market and its growth shows us the increase in the demand of products and services. In addition, Gilbert, McDougall and Audretsch (2006) argue that employment is an important measure of growth because it indicates a change in the organization composition which represents an increase of human capital better able to evaluate the external environment and be a better competitor.

The theories for understanding the company's progress vary substantially. Authors as McKelvie and Wiklund (2010) searched several ways to classify the growth literature and concluded that there are three streams of research: the growth as a result, the result of growth, and growth as a process. The purpose of this study is not to analyze the results of growth which examines the changes that occur in the organization as a result of growth since this current of research has been strongly criticized in the literature because it assumes that all companies have an organizational unit that grows only organically and does not leave space for other types of external growth as mergers and acquisitions (McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010). The largest current research is that uses growth as the dependent variable or as a result and aims to explain the different growth rates through several years because for businesses, the effects of time are important because their directors, objectives and expectations may change over the years (McKelvie and Willund, 2010). McKelvie and Wiklund (2010) mentioned that "growth as a process" is another very important current of research because it attempts to investigate the nature of the growth strategies of companies since the "how to grow" is not a process completely predictable because we have several growth forms for different companies. Our study is related to current research which examines the growth as a result and as a process (McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010). Therefore, we take the growth as the dependent variable and as a process and we explain the effects of

different modes of growth, organically, mergers and acquisitions and hybrid, over the growth rates.

In order to show the importance of SMEs, we create a table with some studies on this area. To create Table 1, we have reviewed several conceptual and empirical articles that have growth as the dependent variable or as a process and SMEs as the unit of analysis. In addition, some items related to the performance and success of SMEs was taken into account. To ensure that the analysis would focus on recent research, we seek as far as possible, for articles that have been published around the last 10 years in several parts of the world (see Table 1) to ensure a wide coverage of research on SMEs. Articles were identified through online databases (ABI Inform, Proquest, Science Direct, Emerald and Google scholar). We found 16 articles related to the growth of SMEs that meet the previous selection criteria (see Table 1). It is important to mention that although we are aware that there are more articles on SMEs, we have considered only those that best fulfill the previous selection criteria and those which analyze the variables that we are interested.

**Table 1:** Studies on SMEs Growth

Title	Author	Year (Country)	Journal	Dependent Variable	Independent variable
Entrepreneurial learning and the growth process in SMEs	David Deakins and Mark Freel	1998 (United Kingdom)	The Learning Organization	Formation of initiative and entrepreneurship in SMEs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Uncertainty</li> <li>• Dynamic decision making</li> </ul>
Financial barriers to SME growth in Slovenia	Vladimir Bukvic, Will Bartlett	2003 (Slovenia)	Economic and Business Review	SME Growth in Slovenia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Institutional barriers</li> <li>• Financial barriers</li> <li>• Internal organization</li> <li>• Size</li> </ul>
ICT Adoption and SME Growth in New Zealand	Stuart Locke	2004 (New Zealand)	Journal of American Academy of Business, Cambridge	Growth of small businesses in New Zealand	The adoption of information and communication technology (TIC)

<p>The New SME Definition: User Guide and Model Declaration</p>	<p>European Commission</p>	<p>2005 (European Union)</p>	<p>DG Enterprise and Industry Publications</p>	<p>Efficiency and effectiveness of SMEs</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Access to capital</li> <li>• Innovation and Access to (I+D)</li> <li>• Support measures for the European Commission</li> </ul>
<p>Knowledge management and growth in Finnish SMEs</p>	<p>Sari Salojarvi, Patrick Furu and Karl -Erik Sveiby</p>	<p>2005 (Finland)</p>	<p>Journal of knowledge management</p>	<p>Financial Success of SMEs</p>	<p>Knowledge Management</p>
<p>How SME Uniqueness Affects Capital Structure: Evidence from a 1994 –1998 Spanish Data Panel</p>	<p>Francisco Sogorb -Mira</p>	<p>2005 (Spain)</p>	<p>Small Business Economics</p>	<p>SME capital structure</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Size</li> <li>• Growth Options</li> <li>• Asset structure</li> </ul>

SMEs, Growth, and Poverty	Thorsten Beck, Asli Demirgüç - Kunt, and Ross Levine	2005 (45 countries)	Journal of Economic Growth	Economic growth Poverty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Size of the SME sector</li> <li>Institutional or governmental measures</li> </ul>
SME growth strategies: a comparison of young and long lived firms	Mika Pasanen	2006 (Finland)	Department of Business and Management, University of Kuopio	Growth and performance of SMEs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Growth Strategy</li> <li>The age of the company</li> </ul>
Team - managed growing SMEs: a distinct species?	Mika Pasanen and Tommi Laukkanen	2006 (Finland)	Management Research News	SMEs growth	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Team -managed SMEs</li> <li>Individually managed SMEs</li> </ul>
Title	Author	Year (Country)	Journal	Dependent Variable	Independent variable

SME internationalization and performance: Growth vs. profitability	Jane W. Lu and Paul W. Beamish	2006 (Japan)	Journal of International Entrepreneurship	Growth of SMEs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Internationalization</li> <li>• Foreign direct investment</li> <li>• Export</li> </ul>
Small - firm performance: modeling the role of product and process improvements	James Wolf and Timothy Pett	2006 (United States)	Journal of Small Business Management	Growth and Profitability of SMEs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Environmental Hostility</li> <li>• Firm size</li> <li>• Innovation capability</li> <li>• Internationalization</li> </ul>
SME growth strategies: organic or non -organic?	Mika Pasanen	2007 (Finland)	Journal of Enterprising Culture	SME performance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Organic growth</li> <li>• Acquisition growth</li> </ul>
Dynamics of external growth in SMEs: A process	Salvato, Lassini and Wiklund	2007 (Italy)	Schmalenbach Business Review	Entrepreneurial growth	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Acquisitions</li> <li>• Development of skills acquisition and</li> </ul>

model of acquisition capabilities emergence	accumulation, storage and use of knowledge of the organization					
SME development, economic growth, and government intervention in a developing country: The Indonesian story	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● GDP per capita</li> <li>● Government development costs</li> </ul>	Growth of SMEs	Journal of International Entrepreneurship	2008 (Indonesia)	Tulus Tambunan	
Theory and Evidence on mergers and Acquisitions by small and Medium Enterprises	Company size: micro, small medium or large	Value of the merger, total assets, sales and number of employees Percentage of shares, cash	Utrecht School of Economics (discussion paper)	2009 (USA and European Union)	Utz Weitzel, Killian J McCarthy	

<p>Are there Non - Linearities between SME Growth and their Determinants? A Quantile Approach</p>	<p>Zélia Serrasqueiro , Paulo Maças Nunes, João Leitão y Manuel José da Rocha Armada</p>	<p>2010 (European Union)</p>	<p>Industrial and Corporate Change</p>	<p>SMES Growth</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Size</li> <li>● Age</li> <li>● Intangible assets: R+D</li> <li>● Internal Finance</li> <li>● External Finance</li> </ul>
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The analysis of Table 1 shows that the main issue in our search is the growth of SMEs and the majority of studies that are taken into account were published in the 2005-2007 period by allowing us to analyze situations, relatively recent in literature. Selected studies were largely published in journals in economics and small business management, knowledge management, entrepreneurial culture and economic growth. An interesting and recurring issue in the analyzed studies is mostly examining the effects of firm size and different growth strategies on the growth of SMEs. These two variables are particularly relevant in our study because they play an important role in our hypotheses that we will see later at work.

## **The resource-based view as the framework to analyze SMEs growth**

Before getting into the analysis of growth, it is necessary to study the language that we'll use to establish the hypothesis to be tested. Among the studies about modes of growth, McKelvie, Wiklund and Davidsson (2006) showed that the size of the company and the quantity of resources are related to the choice between modes of growth. This paper, among others studies that we'll discuss next, show that the resource-based theory (RBV) may be an appropriate framework to study this phenomenon. The reason is that if the company wants to achieve profitable growth, it should exploit internal resources that are unique and inimitable (Barney, 1991) to create competitive advantages.

Penrose's theory (1959) is an important contribution in the field of management. The key to Penrose's theory on the growth of the company are resources such as brand names, knowledge of technology, employment of qualified personnel, machinery, efficient procedures (Wernerfelt, 1984; Coad, 2007) that can provide a competitive advantage if they are valuable, rare, inimitable and no substitutable (Eisenhardt and Martin, 2000). However, Coad (2007) argues that

a firm's competitive advantage in changing markets can be eroded if the firm relies too much on specific resources, and in these cases the performance of the company depends on its ability to create or release resources or to reconfigure portfolio of resources, which is known as dynamic capabilities (Teece, Pisano and Shuen, 1997; Eisenhardt and Martin, 2000). Penrose's intention was to empirically create a theory of growth, but this theory has an involuntary contribution to the RBV (McKelvie, Wiklund and Davidsson, 2006). The RBV has become a key issue in the literature because the firm's resources affect firm performance (Wernerfelt, 1984; Barney, 1991). The RBV of the firm can provide valuable information on the growth of the company (McKelvie, Wiklund and Davidsson, 2006). Grant (1991) also includes that resources can be combined in different ways so that they are difficult to imitate and be a key factor of competitive advantage. Barney (1991) also mentioned that to achieve a competitive advantage, the firm's resources must be valuable, rare, non-imitable and not substitutable. For example, Barney (1991) found that human capital resources, ie training, experience, judgment, intelligence, relationships and knowledge of managers and workers of a company are critical for achieving sustained competitive advantage. An administrator is important in the model of Barney (1991) because he is able to understand and describe the potential economic performance of the resource endowments of a firm, and without this analysis is unlikely to obtain a sustained competitive advantage.

According to McKelvie, Davidsson and Wiklund (2006), the work of Edith Penrose (1959) has been very important in future studies (eg Teece, Pisano and Shuen, 1997; Grant, 1991) because it takes into account the RBV to explain the different modes of growth. That is, for Penrose, the company is more than an administrative unit; it is also a combination of available resources for different uses. The RBV highlights the unique characteristics of the firm and suggests that the key to profitability is not doing the same as competitors, rather to exploit the differences (Grant, 1991). This theory is closely related

to the modes of growth, because if the company wants to achieve profitable growth, should focus on the proper exploitation of its internal resources and be aware of the opportunities given by the changing environment, which create value and allow the company to grow (McKelvie, Wiklund and Davidsson, 2006). We believe that the RBV approach can help us to answer the following research question: How does the choice or combination of different growth paths and SMEs wineries' size influence how much such company's growth?

Once we explained the RBV as our framework to analyze growth, we will discuss growth rates of SMEs.

### **How much SMEs grow? Growth Rates**

The review of the growth literature shows that most studies have analyzed growth as the dependent variable or as a result to explain the different growth rates or growth differences at the firm level (McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010). Although there are many studies that explain the growth of firms, researchers have not been able to identify the factors that have a consistent effect on growth, because models are able to explain only a limited part of the differences in growth of firms (McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010). For example, in a review of recent literature, Gilbert, McDougall and Audretsch (2006) concluded that the most important predictors of growth of new businesses are the characteristics of the entrepreneur, resources, strategy, industry, and the structure of organization and systems. The levels of sales and employment provide information to analyze what it is known as How Much business grow, but growth expectations can vary considerably over time affecting the desire to grow in large and small firms, so it is recommended study the growth through several years (McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010).

An important area of research is the growth of the firm (Penrose, 1959),

but the development of theories of firm growth has been slow (Davidsson and Wiklund, 2000). Davidsson and Wiklund (2000) proposed that the lack of theoretical progress is caused by the differences in results and the failure of comparability between studies, mainly caused by the use of different sizes and different population samples. According to McKelvie and Wiklund (2010), growth rates studies have failed mainly because they could not explain the fact that firms can and should choose different modes of growth.

Research on the “How Much” companies grow, analyze how a group of independent variables are used to predict differences in growth rates between firms, or what are the management problems that occur over time in the firm after growing up (McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010). McKelvie and Wiklund (2010) explain that the “How Much” refers to analyze what are the effects of a set of independent variables on growth, for example as we mentioned earlier, the investigation of Gilbert, McDougall and Audretsch (2006) discusses how certain factors such as characteristics of the entrepreneur, resources, human capital, financial capital, placement, strategy and industry context, affect the growth and performance of new firms or established and mature companies. Most of the literature having trying to explain the different growth rates and high quality studies have been published as the growth of new firms (Gilbert, McDougall, and Audretsch, 2006), knowledge learning and growth (Phelps, Adams and Bessant, 2007), and measurement of constructs such as sales growth and employment levels (Shepherd and Wiklund, 2009). However, among these works, there are only a few studies that attempt to explain how to grow of business (eg, Davidsson and Wiklund, 2000; McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010; Weinzimmer, Nystrom, and Freeman, 1998). On the other hand, there are different theories used in the literature to explain the growth rates (McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010) such as human resource practices in companies (Batt, 2002) and individual characteristics and motivations of workers (Baum, Locke and Smith, 2001). All these

papers have allowed a better analysis of business growth but have been criticized mostly because they see growth as a phenomenon too simplistic and usually these investigations have assumed only internal or organic growth while some companies do not grow organically only (Davidsson and Wiklund, 2000). In addition, Gilbert, McDougall and Audretsch (2006) explain that to evaluate if firms are achieving superior performance is not enough to see if companies are achieving the highest level of growth, it is necessary to understand the strategic decisions of firms while growth is occurring.

After analyzing the “How Much” companies grow, i.e. their growth rates, we will analyze the “How” that has been an issue little studied in the literature (McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010).

### **How Firms Grow: Growth Modes**

Evaluating if firms are achieving superior performance is not enough to observe growth rates, it is also necessary to understand the factors that are pushing this growth (Gilbert, McDougall and Audretsch, 2006). McKelvie and Wiklund (2010) identify three different research streams of growth: organic growth (OG), growing by mergers and acquisitions (M&A) and hybrid models, which include franchising, licensing, alliances and Joint Ventures. Generally, studies have assumed organic growth but there are companies that do not grow organically, for example Delmar, Davidsson and Gartner (2003), in a study about growth patterns of Swedish companies through cluster analysis, found that 10% of the sample companies grew mainly by acquisitions. Moreover, McKelvie, Wiklund and Davidsson (2006) founded that growth of almost all small businesses comes from organic growth, while a growth by acquisition occurs mostly in large companies. Put another way, large companies mostly grow through acquisitions while small businesses grow organically.

Gilbert, McDougall and Audretsch (2006) establish that, it is clear that the resulting growth of the internal or organic and external or growth by mergers and acquisitions, affect the growth performance of the company. In addition, Penrose (1959) argue that the resulting growth of an internal mode may be more consistent, but slower than the external growth. Penrose mentioned, as an example, that the introduction of new products can immediately increase sales of the company but does not immediately affect the company stock on the market.

Based on available literature on modes of growth of SMEs, the next section is going to analyze the effects of internal, external and hybrid modes of growth (How) over growth rates of the company (How Much). Even more, taking into account the importance that the company's size seems to have in this relationship, we are also going analyze its influence.

## **Organic Growth**

McKelvie, Wiklund and Davidsson (2006) suggest that, the role of managers in the firm is to use available resources to maximize profits of the company and they must be alert of market opportunities which are based on internal resources and environmental changes. This is the logic behind organic growth within the field of resource-based theory (RBV) and is what allows companies growth (McKelvie, Wiklund and Davidsson, 2006). McKelvie, Wiklund and Davidsson (2006) proposed that all resources controlled by one firm are not fully utilized because there is always a bit of slack resources, which creates a potential for expansion of the firm and for these resources can be used to produce and be combined with other available resources. We agree with McKelvie, Wiklund and Davidsson (2006) in that firms with greater ability to combine resources and perceived market opportunities are more likely to have higher rates of organic growth. Lockett, Wiklund,

Davidsson and Girma (2009) established that organic growth involves the internal generation of resources such as employment and training of new staff while growth by acquisitions is where a company buys a majority stake in another company. Organic growth leads to internal generation of resources that involve tacit knowledge, i.e. they are specific to the company (Lockett, Wiklund, Davidsson and Girma, 2009).

Lockett et al. (2009) assure that the rigidity created by the repeated use of resources (Miller, 1994) potentially obstruct the future organic growth rate of the company and also the development of new resources through organic growth will be limited in the short term. Serrasqueiro et al. (2010) explain that in its early years, the company grows to achieve a minimum level of efficiency that allows survival but in later stages the growth rate decreases. This is why the company wants achieve economies of scale, ie, reducing unit costs with increasing production is the main motivation behind the growth of smaller firms (Audretsch et al., 2004). In addition, Serrasqueiro et al. (2010), based on the work of Fariñas and Moreno (1997) also highlight the fact that younger firms have higher growth rates in their early years but once ensures their survival, they show lower growth rates, and that is why they conclude that the growth of the company is not related to age.

Bukvic and Bartlett (2003) argue that most of economic theory on the growth of small firms has been involved in the relationship between growth and firm size and generally argues that because of economies of scale, the growth of the firms is positively related to size. However, to the surprise of many researchers, recent literature showed a negative relationship between firm size and growth. Bukvic and Bartlett (2003) cite several examples, the work of Hart and Oulton (1996), with a sample of 29,230 companies where they found a negative relationship between growth and firm size in a period between 1989 and 1993. In the Spanish context, Fariñas and Moreno (2000) confirmed this

negative relationship between size and growth with a sample of 2,000 companies in which they found that small firms grow faster than large firms possibly because of the flexibility and adaptability of small businesses.

The company's managers are finding increasingly difficult to maintain high organic growth rate from one period to another because the companies, over time, reap all the opportunities for organic growth and need other strategies for growth like mergers and acquisitions (Lockett, Wiklund, Davidsson and Girma, 2009). One reason for the company to increase its size is the accumulation of resources; therefore, the resource-based theory can help provide a clearer picture of this phenomenon (McKelvie, Wiklund and Davidsson, 2006). McKelvie, Wiklund and Davidsson (2006) argue that organic growth decreases with increase of the size of the company because when the firm grows has more access to financial capital and more choices between different modes of growth like mergers and acquisitions. Lockett, Wiklund, Davidsson and Girma (2009) explain that over time, organic growth will lead to the repeated exploitation of existing resources, which can cause firms to become simple or inert firms (Vermeulen and Barkema, 2001). Thus we proceed to state our first hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 1: The positive relationship between organic growth and growth rates is negatively moderated by firm size.*

## **Mergers and Acquisitions (M&A)**

Mergers are usually defined as the consolidation of two previously independent companies into one organization, while acquisitions, on the other hand, are defined as the purchase of one company by another where the buyer maintain the control (Bertoncelj, 2009). Salvato, Lassini and Wiklund (2007) suggest that acquisitions can revitalize a company and improve their ability to anticipate or respond adequately



to changing external conditions, ie, employers can revitalize their organizations and promote their long-term durability by administration of relatively controlled shocks produced by acquisitions.

It is very important to emphasize the relationship of this work with two dominant literatures in management and economics (Lockett, Wiklund, Davidsson and Girma, 2009): M&A based on the central ideas of the RBV (Lockett and Thompson, 2001). In the RBV, the attention focuses on the company as a collection of resources and activities to do base on these resources (Davidsson and Wiklund, 2000). With M&A, only the right combination of resources such as capital, equipment and employee skills can generate a competitive advantage (Bertoncelj, 2009).

M&A have been extensively investigated in finance, business and economics (Weitzel and McCarthy, 2009). However, Weitzel and McCarthy (2009) argue that it has paid little attention to M&A of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) and probably the most important reason for this is because most SMEs are not publicly quoted, so that is difficult to obtain reliable data on their activity in general, and worse evaluate its progress and performance records. This is one of the reasons why, the empirical contexts of this work are the small and medium-sized Spanish companies, better known as SMEs.

McKelvie, Wiklund and Davidsson (2006) expose that is more likely that growth by acquisitions occur in large firms for various reasons such as access to financial capital and the ability of managers to integrate the two firms because small companies generally have a shortage of management resources. McKelvie, Wiklund and Davidsson (2006) put the work of Tsang (1998) as an example, which argues that small businesses often have limited resources compared to larger firms; therefore, given the difficulty for small businesses to acquire financial capital, the acquisition of another company is an unrealistic situation

for them. In addition, McKelvie, Wiklund and Davidsson (2006) argue that the effectiveness of an acquisition depends on the ability of managers to integrate the two companies (Cartwright and Cooper, 1993) where small businesses usually have limited management resources available (Aldrich and Auster, 1986). The resource-based theory can provide valuable information on the growth of the company, for example the fact that small companies grow mainly organically while growth by acquisition usually predominates in large enterprises (McKelvie, Wiklund and Davidsson, 2006). Although growth through acquisition occurs mostly in large firms (Penrose, 1959), is an option that may also occur in SMEs but apparently few studies focus on this (Pasanen, 2007). The results of Pasanen (2007) confirm that growth by acquisition is rare in young SMEs since they cannot afford to buy other companies. Based on previous statements, our hypothesis is that the poor relationship between mergers and acquisitions with the firm's growth be favored by a larger size of SMEs, thus we propose the second hypothesis of the study.

*Hypothesis 2: The positive relationship between growing by mergers and acquisitions (M&A) and growth rates is positively moderated by the size of the company.*

## **Hybrid Models of growth**

The first distinction between organic growth and acquisition growth was proposed by Penrose (1959). Some years later, the work of McKelvie and Wiklund (2010) added hybrid models of growth as an intermediate point between the organic and acquisitive growth. Hybrid modes of growth are often used by companies because they help to avoid problems on management capacity and the absence of resources (McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010). McKelvie and Wiklund (2010) establish that hybrid modes provide the company with growth methods which have not been investigated in the literature (eg,

alliances, franchising, licensing and Joint Ventures), in a way in which the nature of resources is important to understand the growth of firms. We are going to analyze three hybrid models of growth next.

Franchising involves a legal agreement where the franchisor allows the use of its intellectual property and the franchisee must follow a series of requirements, the franchisor must also provide a compensation for using this asset (McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010). The franchisee must respect some requirements such as maintaining quality standards, operational procedures and product mix (Combs, Ketchen and Hoover, 2004). McKelvie and Wiklund (2010) argue that franchising is an important mode of growth for many companies because it allows managers to save time in making hiring qualified employees, and may be the mode of choice for many industries such as restaurants, housing, and tax preparation, printing and copying centers. However, this growth mode has disadvantages such as: Franchisees are almost independent, so that the franchisor must give up some level of control over the company and its growth, and a second problem is that this mode of growth involves there must be a legal contract where franchisees remain committed to act according to the interests of the franchise and not their own personal interests (McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010). Spain is one of the European countries where the importance of franchising has grown considerably since there are 968 franchise systems and represent 15.2% of the volume of total retail sales (Bordonaba, Lucia and Polo, 2010). McKelvie and Wiklund (2010) establish that an important benefit of franchising is that it helps large companies to grow without a high outlay of resources (Combs and Ketchen, 2003), because the franchisees are who invest in their own points sales, therefore, franchisors only receive capital instead of diverting those resources to the new outlet. Based on the previous arguments we believe that franchises are a growth strategy implemented primarily by large companies. Therefore, we propose the third hypothesis of our study:

*Hypothesis 3: The positive relationship between growing through franchisees and growth rates is positively moderated by firm size.*

Licensing consist of selling rights for a license to use a piece of intellectual property by providing an additional revenue stream to the licensor through royalties (McKlevie and Wiklund, 2010). Moreover, McKelvie and Wiklund (2010) argue that, like franchising, licensing intellectual property allows companies to overcome the deficiencies of resources and allows companies to grow faster than the internal modes of growth. According to Fonsfuri (2006) this mode of growth allows companies to overcome the differences in the manufacturing, marketing or distribution because the license holder is responsible for all costs involved in the sale or use of intellectual property. According to Mckelvie and Wiklund (2010) this strategy is useful for creating new companies so they can quickly acquire the necessary cash flow (Arora, Fosfuri and Gambardella, 2001) and also serves to established companies that have experience and knowledge on the market and customer needs (Gans, Hsu and Stern, 2002). McKlevie and Wiklund (2010) argue that large companies like IBM that are innovative, generate growth through licensing of their technologies (Kline, 2003).

Motohashi (2006) argues in his work on Japanese companies, small firms have a higher propensity to acquire licenses or patents since large companies have a broader patent pool that can be used for cross-licensing, which is when two companies exchange licenses to exploit some patents that are owned by the other and requires that firms have a well-protected patent portfolio. Motohashi (2006) explain that there is a negative nonlinear relationship between firm size and licensing propensity of a company. Nagaoka and Ug (2006) support the previous statement and prove that the probability of unilateral licensing is higher in small and medium enterprises while cross-licensing occur mostly in large companies. Based on the previous statements we propose the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 4: The positive relationship between growing through licenses and growth rates is negatively moderated by firm size.*

Strategic alliances and joint ventures are hybrid forms of growth that involve collaboration between two or more companies with the purpose of use the resources and capabilities of other firms that have not been able to develop themselves (McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010).

Alliances allow firms to grow faster and lower costs based on the mobilization of resources, and are given mostly in technology companies (Sarkar, Echambadi, and Harrison, 2001). According to McKelvie and Wiklund (2010), joint ventures offer companies the opportunity to grow by the distribution of risks and resources associated with another company and is a method used mostly to enter new foreign markets (Zahra, Ireland and Hitt, 2000) where one partner in the joint venture is a local company that has valuable knowledge and a presence in the market. McKelvie and Wiklund (2010) argue that in general these two methods of growth are less risky and less expensive than organic growth or by acquisition (Pearce and Hatfield, 2002) and used to overcome the lack of knowledge of international and local market (Lu and Beamish, 2006).

Small businesses received a great interest lately because they can be more agile, more flexible and can make together the same or higher level of production that a large company with fewer employees (Chung, Luo and Wagner, 2006). In order to compensate the benefits that large companies have for their size, coverage and economies of scale and scope, small businesses create strategic alliances to achieve strengthen its competitiveness (Chung, Luo and Wagner, 2006), so that the main advantages of this strategy are that small firms can face larger competitors and they can have easier access to new markets and resources. Based on the previous arguments we propose the following

hypothesis:

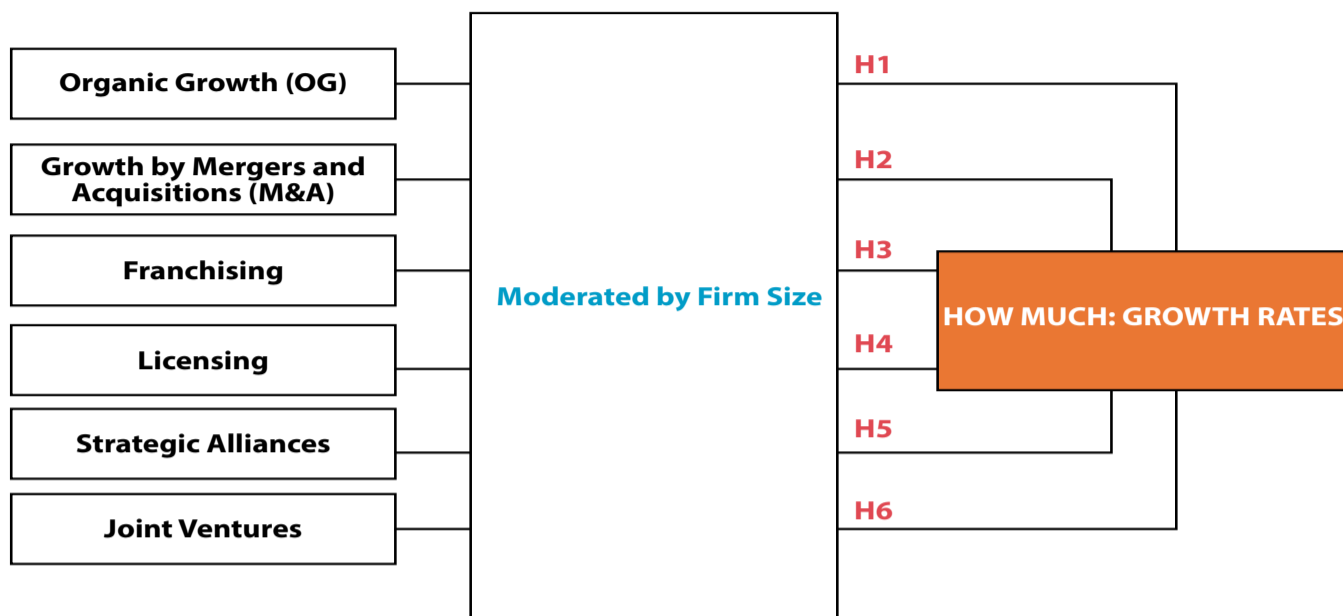
*Hypothesis 5: The positive relationship between growing through strategic alliances and growth rates is negatively moderated by firm size.*

On the other hand, joint ventures are another hybrid growth mode in which two or more businesses pool their resources to achieve a goal, under the joint leadership of both parent companies and occur mostly when two companies established an agreement to share technological knowledge (McConnell y Nantell, 1985). Joint ventures are business combinations that involve an investment of capital and financial structure of decision-making by participating companies (Denning, Hulburt and Ferris, 2006) that usually seek synergistic benefits that may emerge through the acquisition of human capital, research and development of new products or processes, and exploitation of existing products or processes through licensing (McConnell y Nantell, 1985). Denning, Hulburt and Ferris (2006) indicate that larger firms are more likely to develop joint ventures for their resources because if they do not succeed, a large company is better able to survive the financial losses. Therefore, we think there may be a positive relationship between firm size and growth through joint ventures:

*Hypothesis 6: The positive relationship between growing through joint ventures and growth rates is positively moderated by firm size.*

Once we have analyzed the different modes of growth presented by McKelvie and Wiklund (2010), we propose a perspective in which the relationship between different modes of growth and growth rates are moderated by the size of the company. We have six individual growth paths that may have a different effect on growth rates of SMEs. Next, Figure 1 is a conceptual model that summarizes the proposals presented earlier with each of the growth modes.

Figure # 1: Research Model Illustration (All Hypotheses relationships)



## WINE INDUSTRY IN SPAIN

This study has been based on the Spain's wine industry because, according to Delacroix and Swaminathan (1991), we can take advantage of natural variations within the industry. We are aware that the advantage of generalizing the results of a single industry may be limited (Delacroix and Swaminathan, 1991), but Spain's wine industry is common in many aspects. Their average size ranges from 35 to 50 employees in larger firms so according to the European Commission (2005), these companies may be classified as SMEs and comparable to the number of employees of SMEs in other sectors. In addition, this research is based on a single industry because, according to Brannon (2011), one of the problems of having a large sample is unobserved heterogeneity or unobserved bias, and therefore he proposes to focus on the investigation of a specific industry to adequately deal with these possible problems. Consequently, the investigation was restricted to one sector that is the wine industry in Spain, because according Brannon (2011), researchers observed that the results may be misinterpreted by the addition of several industries.

The wine industry is not characterized by high technology because it is quite slow to change, and technological advances are not common in wine production or related activities especially for cultural limitations within the industry that promote an archaic model of quality (Delacroix and Swaminathan, 1991). The technology is relatively constant over time so there are no major organizational changes in this industry (Delacroix and Swaminathan, 1991). Delacroix and Swaminathan (1991) argue that the wine industry is well regulated and there are specific rules on storage, bottling, labeling and product purity but most of the rules are less demanding compared to industry standards of the alcohol, snuff, food and pharmaceutical products so that we can say that this industry enjoys a free market despite strong competition. The findings related to the wine industry are also important for many



other industries, but this study is limited to Spain's wine industry to make it comparable with other studies of the wine industry such as Delacroix and Swaminathan (1991).

This research is focused on Spanish SMEs wineries belonging to the most important Spanish DO. Wineries can be a good source of information for their simplicity of operation, their small size, their simple internal structure, their better capability adapt to changes and their ability to distribute their products through well-established channels such as restaurants and supermarkets (Delacroix and Swaminathan, 1991). Although this industry may face certain limitations in terms of cost, technical knowledge and a challenging regulatory environment, are more easily able to put their products on the market (Delacroix and Swaminathan, 1991). Therefore, we think that this sector may be appropriate for our analysis of growth strategies because it is an industry where decisions enjoy, at least in part, greater strategic freedom compared to other industries. The large size of the wine industry in Spain with around 3,900 wineries (Vinos de España, 2008) offers a large sample to test our hypotheses and to study the different modes of growth in SMEs.

On the other hand, according to Castaldi, Cholette and Hussain (2006), the impact that wine producers are suffering are the result of globalization and a broader and more intense competition which is aggravated by: an oversupply of grapes in the world, for the constant changes in consumer behavior patterns and the reduction of prices in the competition. These price pressures can reduce the profitability of those companies that choose to participate in this price war, so that the unpleasant alternative is not to compete and lose market share (Castaldi, Cholette and Hussain, 2006).

The report of the Wine Institute (2010) mentioned that Spain is one

of the major wine producing countries worldwide and also has a high capacity to adapt to the increasingly international market and attract foreign investment (Castaldi, Cholette and Hussain, 2006). Castaldi, Cholette and Hussain (2006) argue that some of the wine producing countries of the Old World are in Europe and have a long history of wine production, so that France, Italy, Spain and Germany, representing almost 55% of world production and 40% of consumption in 2004. The report of Wines of Spain (2008) by the year 2006 says that the industry employed 22.863 people or 5.98% of total employed by the food industry and the value of sales of industrial enterprises in the same year amounted to 5,319 million euros, representing 6.76% of total food industry sales. In 2005, the latest year available, the number of companies in the wine sector was 3,991, which represents 12.40% of food companies in third place after the baking industry, confectionery, biscuits and meat industry, plus the wine industry accounts for 1% of Spanish GDP (Wines of Spain, 2008).

Next we have more recent data on the 10 major wine producers in the world:

**Table 2: World Wine Production by Country 2006 - 2009 and % Change 2009 / 2006 (Liters)**

#	Country	2006	2007	2008	2009	% of liters 2009	% change 2006/2009
	<b>World Total</b>	<b>28,729,000</b>	<b>27,128,800</b>	<b>27,173,900</b>	<b>26,759,900</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>(6.85%)</b>
1	<b>France</b>	5,302,500	4,654,700	4,280,600	4,700,000	17.56%	(11.36%)
2	<b>Italy</b>	5,460,000	4,918,100	5,047,000	4,650,000	17.38%	(14.84%)
3	<b>Spain</b>	<b>4,367,900</b>	<b>4,207,000</b>	<b>4,190,900</b>	<b>3,800,000</b>	<b>14.20%</b>	<b>(13.00%)</b>
4	<b>United States</b>	2,438,300	2,510,800	2,431,500	2,777,200	10.38%	13.90%
5	<b>Argentina</b>	1,539,600	1,504,600	1,470,000	1,210,000	4.52%	(21.41%)
6	<b>Australia</b>	1,325,000	955,000	1,237,000	1,171,000	4.38%	(11.62%)
7	<b>Chile</b>	844,800	828,000	869,000	987,000	3.69%	16.83%
8	<b>Germany</b>	899,500	1,036,300	999,100	928,000	3.47%	3.17%
9	<b>South Africa</b>	939,800	851,600	763,300	780,700	2.92%	(16.93%)
10	<b>Portugal</b>	754,200	604,900	562,000	600,000	2.24%	(20.45%)

Source: Wine Institute (2010)

Spain is the third largest wine producer in the world (see table 2), representing 3.800 million liters of wine (Wine Institute, 2010). Most of the wine is produced in small wineries (Castaldi, Cholette and Hussain, 2006). According to the Wine Institute (2010), Spain is the eighth largest wine consumer worldwide (see table 3):

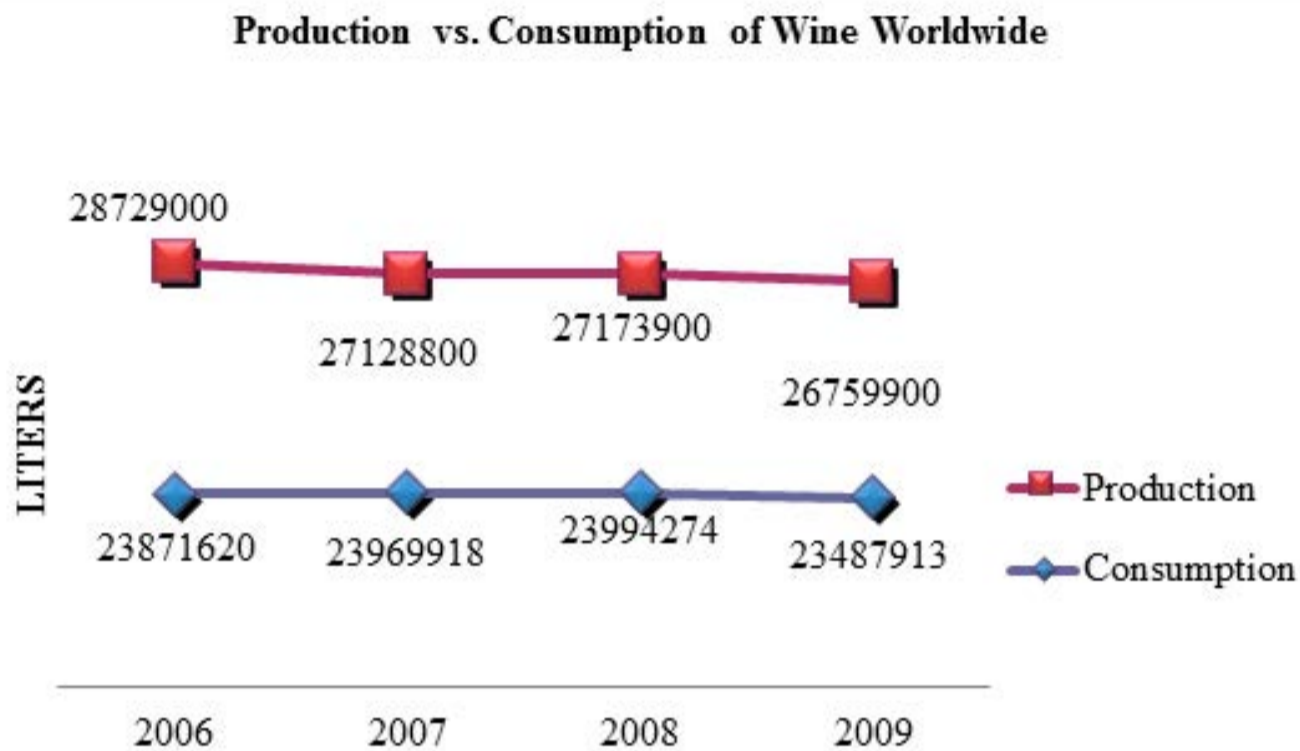
**Table 3: World Wide consumption of Wine 2006 - 2009, % change 2009-2006 and % of world consumption**

#	Country	2006	2007	2008	2009	% of liters 2009	% change 2006/2009
	<b>World Total</b>	<b>28,729,000</b>	<b>27,128,800</b>	<b>27,173,900</b>	<b>26,759,900</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>(6.85%)</b>
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Source: Wine Institute (2010)

A problem for the wine industry worldwide and specifically Spain is that in recent years, production and consumption of wine has decreased and according to Castaldi, Cholette and Hussain (2006), the excess between production and consumption vary between 15 and 20% of the total. As we can see in Figure 2, the production and consumption of wine have been a decline in recent years according to the most recent data we have.

Figure 2: Production vs. Consumption of wine Worldwide



Source: Adapted from Wine Institute (2010)

As we mentioned earlier, one of the causes of the fall in consumption and production of wine in Spain is given by a broader and stronger competition that is aggravated by an oversupply of grapes in the world.

## METHODOLOGY

### Definition of SMEs and growth indicators

Lately there is no consensus on the definition of small, medium and large firms (Weitzel and McCarthy, 2009). However, the European Commission (2005) illustrates the current definitions in Europe, for example ranks companies with fewer than 10 employees as “micro enterprises”, those under 50 as “small” and those with fewer than 250 as “medium”.

Today, several authors have achieved a consensus that sales are the

best measure of growth because it reflects changes in the company in the short and long term and it is easy to obtain (Davidsson and Wiklund, 2000). Also Davidson and Wiklund (2000) argue that the sales growth is the most common performance indicator among the same managers. According to Gilbert, McDougall and Audretsch (2006) the growth in sales provides an indication of the acceptance of products or services of the company. When a sales growth occurs, a company reinvests its earnings in expanding resources for skill development (Gilbert, McDougall and Audretsch, 2006). Moreover, the sales growth depends that the company have a product or service to sell and some industries may spend years developing their products to the market, so a more relevant indicator of growth results can be growth of employment which purpose is to equip new human capital to the company to execute its objectives (Gilbert, McDougall and Audretsch, 2006). Sales are not a perfect indicator of growth because they are sensitive to exchange rates and currency inflation, while employment is not (Delmar, Davidsson and Gartner, 2003). Another way of measuring growth is through assets but is considered a problem especially in the services sector (Weinzimmer, Nystrom and Freeman, 1998). The problem is that intangible assets such as staff education are not reflected in the balance of the company, so there is more a problem of difficulty in collecting data (Davidsson and Wiklund, 2000).

The following table shows clearly the definitions of the European Commission on SMEs:

**Table 4: Definitions of SMEs according to European Commission**

#	Country	2006	2007	2008	2009	% of liters 2009	% change 2006/2009
	<b>World Total</b>	<b>28,729,000</b>	<b>27,128,800</b>	<b>27,173,900</b>	<b>26,759,900</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>(6.85%)</b>
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10	<b>Portugal</b>	754,200	604,900	562,000	600,000	2.24%	(20.45%)

Source: Wine Institute (2010)

\* At least one of these conditions has to be satisfied.

All monetary values in current Euros (also for U.S. bidders).

\*\* The detailed conditions for Independence are more complex (see source above)

**Source: Weitzel and McCarthy. Utrecht School of Economics, 2009**

## Sample

In order to test our hypothesis, we need a sample consisting of small and medium-sized Spanish wineries. Therefore, the Regulatory Councils of each of the Denominations of origin gave us a database of 913 Spanish wineries of the most important wine regions of Spain as La Rioja, Ribera Del Duero and Jerez de la Frontera. Then we investigate which of these companies had information published in the SABI database and we find information such as date of incorporation, net sales, results of

operations and the number of employees from 547 companies.

We obtained the most recent data published to date, so we chose the period 2005-2009. Once obtained the list of companies that had information posted on SABI, we made phone calls to each one in the months of August and September of 2011 and we contacted 504 companies. From these 504 companies, only 81 participated in the study and answered the electronic questionnaire sent to them to complement the information obtained in SABI with growth strategies implemented by each company. In turn 27 of these 81 companies responded to the survey by telephone. Based on talks with those companies who did not participate in the study, the main reason for the low rate of response is that our research period coincided with summer vacations and companies Harvest festivals in Spain, making it difficult that managers or administrators can answer the questionnaire. Even 171 companies agreed that we send the questionnaire by mail but did not get a reply while on the other hand, 255 companies told us they did not want to participate. In summary, 252 companies agreed that we send the electronic questionnaire but only 54 sent their responses, 27 answered us by phone while 256 companies declined to participate. Only 16% of companies answered us the questionnaire or survey. Data were collected from 81 Spanish wineries; six of these firms had acquired other companies in the last 5 years.

## **Variables**

Since the questionnaire had mostly yes or no questions, i.e. dichotomous responses, we assigned those numbers 0 or 1. Based on the study of Pasanen (2007), the sampled companies share the following characteristics: (1) Age: over four years (2) Size: SMEs, ie, employing fewer than 250 employees, (3) Results: The growth of sales volume company and number of employees, (4) ownership: if they are family firms, or not.



## Dependent variables

The dependent variable is the *rate of growth* of SMEs Spanish wineries that reflects the growth of companies as a result of its growth strategy or combination of several growth paths with the size of the company.

## Independent Variables

*Organic Growth:* Growth is measured as a change between two time points (Delmar, Davidsson and Gartner, 2003). Organic growth is measured by total employment in the period (t) minus the total employment in the period (t-1).

*Growth by Mergers and Acquisitions:* Growth by acquisition is measured as the incorporation of employees through the acquisition in the same period t. Changes in employment in the years after the acquisition is part of organic growth rather than growth by acquisition (Lockett, Wiklund, Davidsson and Girma, 2009).

*Growth by hybrid modes:* These are growths by franchising, licensing, alliances or joint ventures, and we collect this information asking each of the wineries if they had applied these forms of growth over the past 5 years, and what was the percentage increase of the product sales of that activity (Wiklund, 1998). All these questions were dichotomous (0 or 1).

*Firm Size:* we take it as moderator variable that affected differently in the relationship between each of the forms of growth with growth rates of the wineries. It's calculated by the number of employees from each company (McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010). Due to their dispersion, the variable was transformed logarithmically.

*Control Variables:* We controlled denomination of origin of the wineries in the sample, age and type of business: familiar or unfamiliar. The denomination of origin of each company was provided by the Regulating Councils of each denominations of origin DO, ages were extracted from the database SABI and the type of business was obtained through the electronic questionnaire.

## RESULTS

Descriptive statistics and correlations for relevant variables are shown in Table 5. The companies have grown organically on average 0.46 times a year, while mergers and acquisitions have done 0.07 times, ie the sample companies grew 6.6 times more organically than by mergers and acquisitions. In addition, we see that 90% of our sample of Spanish wineries are family businesses. As regards correlations, we note that organic growth, the firm size and age are negatively related to growth. Growth through mergers and acquisitions, franchising, licensing, alliances and joint ventures, on the other hand, are not related to growth. The studied firms have shown organic growth in most cases, although six companies said they have also grown through acquisitions of other companies. The choice of external or hybrid mode of growth is rare among companies in the wine industry. According to our research propositions, we found that wineries mostly grow organically or internally, and only 7% of our sample mentioned that he had grown through acquisitions. Based on the classification of the European Commission (2005) we have 88% of small businesses and only 12% of medium-sized companies in our sample, which could have affected the results.

**Table 5: Descriptive statistics and correlations**

	Mean	S.D.	1		2		3	4		5	6	7	8
<b>1. Growth</b>	-370,65	3687,42	1										
<b>2. Size</b>	2,36	1,35	-0,24	*	1								
<b>3. Organic</b>	0,46	0,50	0,36	**	-0,26	*	1						
<b>4. M&amp;A</b>	0,07	0,26	-0,12		0,40	**	0,02	1					
<b>5. Alliances</b>	0,02	0,16	-0,20		0,12		0,01	0,26	*	1			
<b>6. J. V</b>	0,01	0,11	-0,01		-0,02		-0,10	-0,03		-0,02	1		
<b>7. Family Firm</b>	0,90	0,30	0,03		-0,12		0,05	-0,06		0,05	0,04	1	
<b>8. Age</b>	24,74	18,19	-0,26	*	0,50	**	-0,16	0,19		-0,05	-0,01	0,02	1

†  $p < 0.1$ ; \*  $p < 0.05$ . \*\*  $p < 0.01$ . \*\*\*  $p < 0.00$ .

We tested the hypotheses related to growth rates and size of the company. These results are shown in Table 6. Examining the control variables introduced in the base model, we find a negative association between age and growth rates, and between the Jerez DO and growth rates. In the next step, the main variables were entered, which leads to a statistically significant improvement in the model fit (Adjusted R<sup>2</sup>=0.17,  $p < 0.01$ ). Finally, we introduced the interactions in the contingent model, which led to a statistically significant improvement in the fit model (Adjusted R<sup>2</sup>=0.32,  $p < 0.001$ ).

**Table 6: Regression for growth rates with sales levels**

Dependent variables	Base model		Independent model		Contingent model	
	Coefficient		Coefficient		Coefficient	
<b>Control variables</b>						
Jerez	-2.809,90	*	-2.637,91	*	-3.636,11	**
Ribera del Duero	-570,21		-849,06		-999,68	
Age	-46,81	*	-44,98	*	-27,44	
Family Firm	647,60		548,22		194,15	
<b>Main effect variables</b>						
Size			97,21		-1.258,07	*
Organic Grow			2.494,68	***	-3.106,08	*
Grow through M&A			227,89		1.011,83	
Alliances			-4.737,90	+	-1.039,35	
Joint Ventures			812,67		165,87	
<b>Interactions</b>						
Organic Grow x size					2.391,82	***
M&A x Size					-191,72	
<b>Model</b>						
R <sup>2</sup>	0,35		0,51		0,64	
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0,007*		0,17**		0,32***	
F statistic	2,59		2,81		4,41	
Change in R <sup>2</sup>	0,12		0,26		0,41	
Change in F	76*		71*		69***	
+ $p < 0.10$ . * $p < 0.05$ . ** $p < 0.01$ . *** $p < 0.001$						

We observe a strong relationship between the interaction of organic growth and size on growth rates. This result supports H1. This finding is consistent with the statement made by Penrose (1959) which states that organic growth occurs mainly in small companies. Our analysis does not support the hypothesis of mergers and acquisitions (H2), probably because the companies suffer losses from the first years after mergers and acquisitions. On the other hand, we could not support the hypotheses related to the franchise (H3), licenses (H4), alliances (H5) and joint ventures (H6), ie they are not related to growth rates

of Spanish wineries and are not moderated by firm size. This may be because the cases of Spanish wineries that implement these types of growth are very few, making it impossible to draw a better conclusion.

These results were obtained for the sales growth. We have also tested the analysis for number of employees' growth and we found the same results. That is, we find support for Hypothesis 1. The firm size negatively moderates the relationship between organic growth and growth rates. It shows the tendency of, to major size of the firm, its organic growth rates decrease.

## **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

This research has analyzed growth in SMEs in the Spanish wine industry. Most of the previous literature has focuses on growth rates. Therefore, we believe that analyzing the “how” has been a little forgotten aspect. The largest current research, which examines the growth of companies has assumed only organic growth and excluded other forms of growth such as mergers and acquisitions, franchising, licensing, strategic alliances and joint ventures. The work of McKelvie and Wiklund (2010) argues that there is another current of research that involves analyzing growth as a process and aims to investigate which are the main ways that push growth firms.

Our results have shown that organic growth influences how much a company grows and has also shown that this relationship is negatively moderated by firm size. Therefore, we have found support for one of our hypothesis. This results show that companies grow mainly organically or internally but, as the company increases its size, organic growth rates begin to decline. Based on the low significance of external and hybrid forms of growth, we conclude that Spanish wineries mainly grow organically. Mergers and acquisitions were not to be important strategies in wineries, probably because when they acquire

other companies, initially they suffer losses, i.e. the early years of the acquisition represent losses for the company. On the other hand, hybrid modes of growth were not important for wineries, but we cannot say that this happens in all SMEs because they may be given only in this context. One observation is that of the 504 companies in our database, only 81 participated in the project, from which only 7.4% growth applied another strategy such as mergers and acquisitions. The 90% of the wineries studied were family businesses and 88% were small enterprises according to the classification of the European Commission (2005), that is, most companies in the sample were small, which did not allow us to analyze the behavior of midsize companies. These findings suggest the need to review more information about medium-sized businesses, possibly in another area because the wine industry is composed mostly of small businesses. According to our results, there is a tendency that, while companies grow, their organic growth rates are falling.

From a RBV perspective, small businesses have limited financial resources, restricting their options at different growth alternatives such as mergers and acquisitions. This takes time to integrate the acquired company in addition to financial costs (McKelvie, Wiklund and Davidsson, 2006). Overall, the model we have developed on organic growth in small businesses is consistent with the work of Penrose (1959) while models on external growth forms or hybrid failed, probably because the sample was made mostly small businesses and these growth rates tend to occur in medium and large enterprises.

## **LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

According to Wiklund (1998) most small companies do not grow at all, some grow a little, and very few companies show significant growth, however, given that the population of small businesses is very large, its aggregate effect becomes increasingly important in the labor market.

Many companies die during their first years of life or at least fight to survive because the number of small companies that achieved great economic benefits to their owners and substantially grow is limited (Wiklund, 1998).

The survey method has some disadvantages because it provides an instant image of the companies investigated at one time but not to study the process of change of the company and this requires a study of the company over time, ie a longitudinal study (Wiklund, 1998). According to Wiklund (1998), another problem of surveys is the degree that the concepts of the research model can be measured in surveys, or the possibility of achieving measurement validity of the chosen research design. We believe that in future research is advisable to apply a longitudinal study, which in our case it was not possible for the short period of time for research that we had. We are also aware that this may have missed several articles on SMEs and their modes of growth that could have helped better understand the behavior of growth in this sector.

We could only support the hypothesis 1 of our model and we think is attributable principally to the selection of the sector that may not have been appropriate to investigate all these issues, especially the hybrid models of growth, so we recommend choosing other sectors or industries, and choose a sample with more medium-sized businesses since in our case, the wine industry is made up of mostly small wineries and this may limit our view of the growth of SMEs to small businesses.

Growth through mergers and acquisitions proved to be no significant Spanish wineries probably because companies that apply this strategy suffered early losses, therefore, in future studies this can be solved allowing more time once the company has done a merger or acquisition. Hybrid modes of growth are strategies that have not been extensively studied, especially in SMEs and proved to be not significant in wineries,

thus we believe that future research can be better by choosing another sector of the economy. This sector showed very few cases applying hybrid modes of growth. The only strategy that some companies mentioned were the alliances, therefore we believe that future research need to choose a hybrid model of alliances in the Spanish wineries because they sometimes work in groups and establish strategic alliances among themselves.



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## ANNEXES

### 1. Survey for SMEs of the wine sector

Buenos días/tardes, estamos realizando una encuesta para analizar el crecimiento de pequeñas y medianas empresas. Le agradeceremos brindarnos un minuto de su tiempo y responder las siguientes preguntas. Marque con una X y llene los espacios donde corresponda:

1. Nombre de la empresa: \_\_\_\_\_

2. ¿Es otra empresa dueña de esta empresa?

1. No (siguiente pregunta)	
2. Si	a) ¿Desde cuándo? Año
	b) Nombre de la otra empresa

3. ¿Es su empresa dueña de otra empresa?

1. No (siguiente pregunta)			
2. Si	a) ¿De cuántas empresas es dueña su empresa?		
	b) ¿Cuántas de estas empresas fueron fundadas por su empresa?		
	c) ¿Estas empresas fueron fundadas en los últimos 5 años?	Si	
		No	
	d) ¿Su empresa ha adquirido otra empresa que ya estaba constituida en los últimos 5 años?	Si	
		No	
e) ¿Qué tan grande estima o cree que van a ser las ventas de estas empresas este año?			
f) ¿Aproximadamente cuan grandes fueron las ventas de estas empresas los últimos 3 o 5 años?			

4. ¿Han **adquirido** alguna empresa durante los últimos 5 años que se haya integrado a sus operaciones, es decir, que no ha sido fundada por su empresa?

1. No (Siguiete pregunta)	
2. Si	¿Cuál es el incremento de las ventas estimado (%), resultado de la adquisición?

5. ¿Dirige usted personalmente y es el dueño de otras empresas?

1. No (Siguiete pregunta)			
2. Si		a) ¿Cuántas otras empresas dirige?	
		b) ¿Fundo usted alguna de esas empresas?	Si
			No

6. ¿Qué porcentaje de su capital está dentro de una misma familia?

\_\_\_\_\_

7. ¿El director de su empresa forma parte de dicha familia?

1. No (siguiete pregunta)	
2. Si	

8. ¿Su empresa ha optado por un crecimiento a través de **franquicias** en los últimos 5 años?

1.No (Siguiete pregunta)		
2.Si		¿Cuál es el incremento de las ventas estimado (%), resultado de la franquicia?

9. ¿Su empresa ha optado por un crecimiento a través de adquisición de licencias **tecnológicas** en los últimos 5 años?

1.No (siguiete pregunta)		
2.Si		¿Cuál es el incremento de las ventas estimado (%), resultado de la licencia?

10. ¿Su empresa ha optado por un crecimiento a través de **alianzas** con otra empresa?

1.No (Termina la encuesta)		
2.Si		¿Cuál es el incremento de las ventas estimado (%), resultado de la alianza?

11. ¿Su empresa ha optado por un crecimiento a través de **Joint Ventures**?

1.No (Termina la encuesta)		
2.Si		¿Cuál es el incremento de las ventas estimado (%), resultado de la Joint Ventures?

La encuesta ha concluido, muchas gracias por su colaboración.

# 3

## Asia, ¿la amenaza silenciosa?

\*Jesús Alfonso Omaña  
\*Phanor Ramos Romero

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## Asia, ¿la amenaza silente?

\*Jesús Alfonso Omaña  
\*Phanor Ramos Romero

### Resumen

El crecimiento en la dinámica económica y comercial del continente más poblado y extenso del mundo, responde a factores estructurales favorables y a un marco económico e institucional con una clara visión de cada país y su contribución al crecimiento de la región (Calderón, 2013). Con 45 millones de kilómetros cuadrados y 4.140 millones de habitantes, Asia representa el 30% de la superficie terrestre y el 61% de la población mundial, convirtiéndolo en atractivo para inversionistas que ven en su población potenciales consumidores y en sus empresas potenciales socios comerciales. El propósito del artículo es evidenciar, con cifras, la importancia del continente asiático desde la perspectiva del Producto Interno Bruto (PIB) y el flujo de comercio en una muestra de 8 de sus países, su comportamiento con relación al mundo y dos potencias como Estados Unidos (EEUU) y la Unión Europea (UE), además de la posición de Colombia. Las bases de datos utilizadas corresponden a los años 2010 y 2013, registrados en las páginas web del Fondo Monetario Internacional (FMI), las estadísticas del comercio para el desarrollo internacional de las empresas registradas en Trade Map y la Comisión Europea Eurostat.

## Abstract

The growth of the economic and commercial factors in Asia as the most populous and widespread continent in the world, responding to favorable structural factors and economic and institutional framework with a clear view of each country and its contribution to growth in the region (Calderon, 2013). With 45 million square kilometers and 4,140 million, Asia accounts for 30% of the land area and 61% of the global population, making it attractive to investors who see its population potential consumers and potential business partners. The purpose of this article is to demonstrate, with figures, the importance of the Asian continent from the perspective of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and trade flows in a sample of 8 of their countries, their behavior in relation to the two world powers like the United States (US) and European Union (EU) as well as the position of Colombia. The databases used for the years 2010 and 2013, registered on the websites of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) trade statistics for international development companies registered Trade Map and the European Commission Eurostat

## 1. El PIB asiático y las potencias mundiales

Para conocer cuál es la posición de los 8 países asiáticos estudiados en este artículo frente a la economía mundial, se hace necesario establecer una analogía con potencias como Estados Unidos y la Unión Europea considerando sus aportes al PIB mundial, la población con la cual contribuye y su valor per cápita.

Si bien para el año 2010 el PIB asiático superó en 2,5% a UE y 13% a EEUU, para el año 2013 esta brecha se amplió a 11,5% y 14,7% respectivamente. Este crecimiento ha hecho que tanto EEUU como la UE fijen su atención en el fortalecimiento de las relaciones con países asiáticos fundamentado en su participación en la población mundial y, que en algunos casos puntuales como Singapur, tienen productos per cápita superiores a las primeras economías del mundo y crecientes.

Los países asiáticos en estudio registran un mayor aporte porcentual a la población mundial que al PIB global, contrastando con la UE que aporta al PIB más de tres veces su aporte a la población mundial y EEUU que lo quintuplica. Este comportamiento de los países asiáticos evidencian inequidades en la eficiencia en la mano de obra que pueden ser contrarrestadas con los avances en integración económica de las naciones del sudeste asiático (ASEAN) que permitirá acelerar el crecimiento de países menos desarrollados de la región con la transferencia de conocimientos y la aplicación de las mejores prácticas de los países emergentes con mayor desarrollado como Singapur y Malasia (International Labour Organization and Asian Development Bank, 2014).

La tabla 1 muestra la relación existente entre el PIB y la población mundial para los países asiáticos en estudio, la UE, los EEUU y el mundo.

**Tabla 1.** El PIB y la Población Mundial

País	Años	PIB (Billones US\$)	% PIB Mundial	Población (Millones de habitantes)	% Población Mundial	PIB per Cápita (US\$)
Países de Asia en estudio	2010	16.900	24,60	3.008	43,60	18.500
	2013	19.500	26,20	3.090	43,52	20.400
UE	2010	16.500	25,60	503	7,30	32.600
	2013	17.500	23,50	505	7,10	34.800
Estados Unidos	2010	15.000	23,30	310	4,50	48.300
	2013	17.000	22,80	316	4,45	53.000
Mundo	2010	64.500		6.900		9
	2013	74.700		7.100		11

**Elaboración:** Omaña (2015)

**Fuentes:** Fondo Monetario Internacional. World Economic Outlook Database

<http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/weo/2014/02/weodata/weoselgr.aspx>

EUROSTAT (2015). Tabla de población.

<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/tgm/table>.

## 2.1. EL PIB de países asiáticos, Colombia y el Mundo

De la figura 2 se infiere que los ocho países que representan a Asia en la Investigación tuvieron un crecimiento del PIB de 32% entre 2010 y 2013 teniendo mayor impacto el incremento de 59% de China y el 26% de Malasia y Singapur. Para el caso colombiano, el PIB creció 27% superando en crecimiento solo a la India e Indonesia y en valor del PIB a Singapur y Malasia.

Países como Japón, Corea, Singapur y Taiwán son considerados

eficientes al tener aportes al PIB mundial mayores que su proporción de la población mundial. Este comportamiento evidencia una alta competitividad en sus procesos productivos y mano de obra eficiente. Para Colombia esta relación es negativa siendo mayor el aporte a la población mundial que su contribución al PIB global como consecuencia de la baja productividad de su mano de obra.

El PIB per cápita de Singapur para 2013 creció 19% respecto al año 2010, superando en 4,2% a EEUU y en 59% UE, siendo considerado el país asiático de mayor crecimiento con una población de 5,4 millones de habitantes, distante de los 316 millones de EEUU y los 505 millones de la UE. En el caso de China, el PIB per cápita creció 57% entre 2010 y 2013, mientras que para Malasia se incrementó en 21%, Singapur 19%, Indonesia 18% y Corea 17%. Por su parte Taiwán registra un PIB per cápita que representa el 40% de este valor para EEUU y el 60% de UE con menos del 8% de población total de EEUU y del 5% de la población total de UE. En la comparación entre Colombia y los países asiáticos en estudio, el PIB per cápita de 2013 lo ubica en séptimo lugar, superando a China, India e Indonesia, países cuya población es mayor considerando los 47. millones de habitantes al año 2013.

El éxito del crecimiento asiático de Singapur y Malasia, se debe a un marco económico-institucional que ha acelerado el desarrollo, apoyado en: a) el diseño de estrategias políticas y económicas a largo plazo y su comunicación a la población, b) la agilización de los trámites para la apertura de negocios comprendiendo que el crecimiento económico y la prosperidad se sostiene desde el sector privado, y c) esquemas tributarios razonables y estables como incentivo a la iniciativa privada (Calderón, 2013).



**Tabla 2.** PIB de países asiáticos, Colombia y el Mundo

País	Años	PIB (Billones US\$)	% PIB Mundial	Población (Millones de habitantes)	% Población Mundial	PIB per Cápita (US\$)
China	2010	5.950	9,20	1.341	19,43	4.438
	2013	9.469	12,70	1.361	19,17	6.960
India	2010	1.708	2,65	1.195	17,32	1.430
	2013	1.877	2,50	1.244	17,52	1.510
Indonesia	2010	709	1,10	238	3,45	2.985
	2013	870	1,16	248	3,49	3.510
Japón	2010	5.495	8,55	128	1,86	42.920
	2013	4.900	6,55	127	1,80	38.470
Corea	2010	1.094	1,70	49	0,71	22.150
	2013	1.305	1,75	51	0,72	25.980
Malaysia	2010	248	0,38	29	0,42	8.660
	2013	313	0,42	30	0,42	10.460
Singapur	2010	237	0,37	5	0,07	46.570
	2013	298	0,40	5	0,08	55.200
Taiwán	2010	428	0,66	23	0,34	18.490
	2013	489	0,65	23	0,33	21.000
Totales	2010	15.869	24,60	3.008	43,60	18.455
	2013	19.521	26,20	3.090	43,50	20.386
Colombia	2010	287	0,44	46	0,66	6.306
	2013	379	0,51	47	0,66	8.030
Mundo	2010	64.525		6.900		9
	2013	74.700		7.100		11

**Elaboración:** Omaña (2015)

**Fuente:** Fondo Monetario Internacional. World Economic Outlook Database <http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/weo/2014/02/weodata/weoselgr.aspx>  
 PIB expresado en dólares corriente

## 2.2. El comercio asiático

Para analizar el alcance del flujo comercial de los países asiáticos en estudio es necesario visualizar su posición ante EEUU y UE. En la figura 3 se presentan las exportaciones e importaciones de Asia, EEUU y EU para los años 2010 y 2013.

El flujo comercial positivo de los países estudiados es un indicador del potencial exportador de la región y su capacidad de satisfacer los mercados locales, además de su capacidad de influir en los precios internacionales.

Representado Asia, la UE y EEUU el 70% del comercio mundial considerando las cifras de sus exportaciones e importaciones que se muestra en la Tabla 3, los países asiáticos representan el 28% del comercio global y el 40% de lo aportado por este tridente. Esta participación evidencia el papel preponderante de Asia en el mercado internacional, apalancado sobre fortalezas como: a) la demografía: población con edad media menor a 30 años, b) la adopción de criterios de austeridad para gestionar su endeudamiento, y c) programas de cobertura social limitados permitiendo déficit moderados con capacidad de reacción a potenciales crisis económicas (Calderón, 2013) (International Labour Organization and Asian Development Bank, 2014)

**Tabla 3.** Comercio asiático, EEUU y UE

País	Años	Exportaciones (billones US\$)	Importaciones (billones US\$)	Balanza (billones US\$)
Países de Asia en estudio	2010	4.016	3.728	288
	2013	4.945	4.800	145
UE	2010	5.070	5250	-180
	2013	5.990	5830	160
Estados Unidos	2010	1.280	1970	-690
	2013	1.580	2330	-750
Mundo	2010	15.050	15.290	-240
	2013	17.970	18.700	-730

**Elaboración:** Omaña (2015)

**Fuente:** Trade Map. Trade Indicators. [http://www.trademap.org/Country\\_SelProduct\\_TS.aspx](http://www.trademap.org/Country_SelProduct_TS.aspx)  
Expresado en dólares corrientes

### 2.3 El comercio de países asiáticos, Colombia y el mundo

De acuerdo con los datos suministrados por Trade Map y resumidos en la figura 4, los países asiáticos objeto de estudio evidencian brechas en su flujo comercial con respecto a China como líder quien en sus exportaciones e importaciones duplica al Japón y es 12 veces mayor que Indonesia.

Considerando la variación entre 2010 y 2013, India fue el país que mayor variación positiva en sus exportaciones con 53% seguido por China con 40% y Singapur con 17%. Colombia tuvo un desempeño superior a los países asiáticos incrementando sus exportaciones en 48%, siendo más del doble del registrado a nivel global.

Con respecto a la variación en las importaciones entre 2010 y 2013,

Taiwán con 7% es el país con valor más bajo seguido por Corea 21%. Colombia tuvo un incremento en las importaciones de 46% mientras que los países del mundo incrementaron su valor en 22%.

Cabe destacar que la balanza de los países estudiados es positiva a excepción de la India y Colombia. Este superávit en la balanza comercial demuestra que los países de Asia tienen capacidad para producir excedentes que colocan en el mercado internacional además de satisfacer la demanda local (ver tabla, 4).

País	Años	Exportaciones (billones US\$)	Importaciones (billones US\$)	Balanza (billones US\$)
China	2.010	1.578	1.396	182
	2.013	2.209	1.950	259
India	2.010	220	350	-130
	2.013	337	466	-129
Indonesia	2.010	158	136	22
	2.013	183	187	-4
Japón	2.010	770	694	76
	2.013	715	833	-118
Corea	2.010	466	425	41
	2.013	560	516	44
Malaysia	2.010	199	165	34
	2.013	229	206	22
Singapur	2.010	352	311	41
	2.013	410	373	37
Taiwán	2.010	274	251	22
	2.013	304	269	34
Totales	2.010	4.016	3.728	289
	2.013	4.945	4.800	145
Colombia	2.010	40	41	-0,9
	2.013	59	59	-0,6
Mundo	2.010	15.050	15.290	-240
	2.013	17.790	18.700	-730

**Elaboración:** Omaña (2015)

**Fuente:** Trade Map. Trade Indicators. [http://www.trademap.org/Country\\_SelProduct\\_TS.aspx](http://www.trademap.org/Country_SelProduct_TS.aspx)

### 3. Conclusiones

Las contribuciones al PIB mundial de los países asiáticos emergentes como Malasia, Corea, Singapur y Taiwán, son superiores a sus aportes a la población global, siendo un reflejo de eficiencia en su mano de obra.

Países asiáticos con menor población han generado mayores crecimientos en su PIB mejorando las expectativas de crecimiento económico de la región.

Colombia, a pesar de haber incrementado su PIB entre 2010 y 2013, aporta mayor proporción a la población mundial que PIB evidenciando ineficiencia en su mano de obra.

Los EEUU y la UE tienen aportes al PIB global mayores que su contribución a la población como resultado de procesos y mano de obra eficientes. A pesar del crecimiento en el PIB global de los países asiáticos en estudio, la relación porcentual de aportes al PIB y población mundial siguen evidenciando ineficiencia en la mano de obra de algunos países tales como China, India e Indonesia quienes representan el 40,18% de la población mundial.

La balanza positiva global de los países asiáticos evidencia su para atender el mercado local e internacional. EEUU, la UE y Colombia presentan balanzas negativas con lo cual se deben diversificar los mercados hacia Asia capitalizando su entrada en un mercado de 4.140 millones de habitantes.

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# 4

## **ESTRATEGIA, COOPERACIÓN Y DESARROLLO DE LAS REGIONES.**

*\*Jesús Alfonso Omaña Guerrero*

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## **ESTRATEGIA, COOPERACIÓN Y DESARROLLO DE LAS REGIONES.**

**\*Jesús Alfonso Omaña Guerrero**

### **Resumen**

Las organizaciones en su propósito evolucionista de nacer, crecer, permanecer y perdurar en el tiempo están sujetas diariamente a constantes desafíos para lo cual el desarrollo de actividades que las conviertan en referentes del sector y/o de la industria es fundamental. Estos desafíos hacen que las organizaciones se encuentren en el monitoreo constante de los factores que conlleven a decisiones acertadas lo cual incide directamente en su éxito siendo las estrategias la herramienta primordial en la búsqueda de tal fin. El presente artículo tiene como propósito en su primera fase hacer una revisión literaria acerca de la definición de estrategia, su evolución cronológica y desarrollo hasta el surgimiento de la cooperación y sus aplicaciones al campo de la administración; como segunda fase se plantea el estudio de investigaciones empíricas que evidencien la aplicación de las estrategias de cooperación en el desarrollo de las regiones.

**Palabras claves:** Estrategia, Estrategias de Cooperación, Desarrollo de Regiones.

## Abstract

Organizations in their evolutionary purpose of birth, growth, stay and endure over time are subject to constant daily challenges for which the development of activities that become industry benchmark and / or industry is essential. These challenges make organizations are in constant monitoring of the factors that lead to good decisions which directly affects their success strategies being the primary tool in the pursuit of that goal. This paper aims to make its first phase a literature review on the definition of strategy, its chronological evolution and development to the emergence of cooperation and its applications to the field of management, as a second phase focuses on the study of research empirical evidence the implementation of cooperation strategies in developing regions.

**Key Words:** Strategy, Cooperation Strategy, Developing Regions

## 1. DESDE LA ESTRATEGIA

Las organizaciones sin distinción de razón social o propósito se encuentran en la búsqueda constante de acciones planificadas que conlleven al crecimiento sostenible de sus instituciones en términos de perdurabilidad. Diversos autores definen a la estrategia considerando su perspectiva del mundo empresarial, así como el contexto en tiempo y espacio en el cual se hace referencia a esta. La estrategia tiene su origen del griego *Stratos* (ejército) y *Agein* (conductor, guía) siendo aplicada en la actualidad tanto en los ámbitos organizacionales como en el diario acontecer del ser humano, guardando las distancias en cuanto a su alcance e impacto. En los procesos de indagación en la revisión literaria, se ha encontrado que los autores contemporáneos más importantes tienen puntos de coincidencia en aspectos fundamentales en el cómo se concibe la estrategia. Es así como la determinación conjunta de los objetivos y las metas de largo plazo en las empresas y la adopción de líneas de acción para alcanzar dichos objetivos condicionada a los recursos disponibles, constituye una de las primeras definiciones de la estrategia enmarcada en el ámbito empresarial, evolucionando posteriormente hacia el desarrollo de aplicaciones específicas en el campo de la mercadotecnia como lo son las estrategias de penetración de mercado, el desarrollo del producto y el desarrollo de mercado, con énfasis en la diversificación, la integración vertical y la integración horizontal (Chandler, 1962) (Ansoff, 1965). En el proceso de evolución de la definición de estrategia y como alternativa para responder a situaciones cada vez más complejas tanto al interior de la organización como en el entorno empresarial, algunos autores coinciden en la necesidad del estudio de las relaciones entre los factores internos y externos de las organizaciones dando origen a la primera aproximación hacia la matriz DOFA (Selznick, 1957) (Kenneth, Learned, Christensen, Andrews, & Guth, 1965). Con el desarrollo de la definición de la estrategia y su aplicación al campo de la administración, surgen numerosas publicaciones que permiten la

diversificación de sus prácticas y el empleo en áreas específicas de la organización destacándose entre ellas la administración por objetivos, la diferenciación y el liderazgo por costos (Ducker, 1954) (Porter M., 1985) siendo éstas consideradas una contribución sin precedentes para futuras investigaciones dentro de las cuales sobresalen el enfoque de los altos crecimientos y beneficios organizacionales como resultado de la diferenciación y el bajo costo en mercados de alta competencia presentado en la Estrategia de los Océanos Azules (Kim & Mauborgne, 2005).

En los años 60 surge la necesidad de comprender el Impacto de los Beneficios del Marketing Estratégico (PIMS -Profit Impact of Marketing Strategies-, por sus siglas en inglés) principalmente con el surgimiento de los mercados compartidos que generaban ventajas relativas a partir de la aplicación de estrategias tales como la integración vertical u horizontal, la diversificación, las franquicias, las fusiones y adquisiciones, cuyo propósito era promover las economías a escala con el beneficio de las curvas de experiencia de cada organización que hacia parte de la negociación, lográndose con ello importantes incrementos en las utilidades y beneficios de las organizaciones (Buzzel & Gale, 1987). Estas estrategias tenían como valor agregado la minimización de los efectos del entorno en la interdependencia y la incertidumbre a partir de las relaciones interorganizacionales como herramienta de control externo a las organizaciones, fundamentado en la Teoría de Recursos de Dependencia (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978) (Hillman, Withers, & Collins, 2009).

Autores de más reciente publicación consideran la estrategia como un proceso que facilita la obtención de ventajas sostenibles sobre los competidores, teniendo un patrón de comportamiento evidenciado en la construcción de una posición competitiva a largo plazo, poco imitable, fundamentado en el liderazgo en costos, la diferenciación y la alta segmentación (Ohmae & Kenichi, 1983) (Mintzberg, 1993)

(Porter M. , 1996). La consolidación de esta tendencia se robustece en la necesidad de complementación de las organizaciones siendo las motivaciones más comunes en este acercamiento el logro de economías a escala y el aprendizaje entre uno o más socios, el riesgo compartido en términos de requerimiento de capital e investigación y desarrollo, el acceso a beneficios de los activos de otras firmas por ejemplo tecnología, el acceso a nuevos mercados, el capital, la capacidad de producción, la mano de obra, entre otros (Porter & Fuller, 1986) (Faulker & Campbell, 2006). Posteriormente surge la disyuntiva entre cooperar o competir teniendo esta última antecedentes en experiencias consideradas como oportunismo minimizando esta amenaza con el individualismo, en el entendido que el aprendizaje desde esta perspectiva favorece al desarrollo de nuevas capacidades y enriquece las ideas propias fomentando el deseo de aprender de sí mismos y de la experiencia de otros lo cual es considerado una transición entre el competir y el cooperar (Ojeda, 2010). Es así como surgen diversos enfoques que tienen su coexistencia en las definiciones de Saber Cómo (Know How), Saber Qué (Know What) y Saber Quién (Know Who) siendo estas una de las formas de cooperación cuya base esta cimentada en la transferencia de conocimiento y el conocimiento compartido teniendo como propósito de aplicación la minimización de la emergencia de las crisis específicas surgidas desde el interior de la organización centrando sus esfuerzos en la capacitación del personal de la alianza o en la divulgación de la experiencia laboral desde las áreas más específicas hasta las más complejizantes (Prahalad & Hamel, 1990) (Garud & Kumaraswamy, 1993) (Cohen, 1994) (Nkosi, 2012) (Restrepo Puerta, 2004). Los elementos de gestión del conocimiento identificados por los autores como parte de la cooperación interorganizacional son: los transaccionales, los analíticos, los basados en los procesos y gestión de bienes, el desarrollo del conocimiento, la innovación y la creación de conocimiento. (Binney, 2001).

## 2. HACIA LA COOPERACIÓN

De manera formal o informal hoy día las organizaciones se encuentran en la búsqueda permanente de la cooperación como mecanismo de consolidación de los objetivos propios de la organización, identificando e implementando las estrategias colectivas que permitan resolver los problemas conjuntos manteniendo su autonomía como ente organizacional (Grueso, Gomez, & Garay, 2009). Las estrategias de cooperación se fundamentan en el compromiso de las características y habilidades del personal de la firma involucrando acuerdos con terceros que permitan el desarrollo, permanencia y gerencia de las relaciones que promuevan actividades propias, con las cuales se logren objetivos individuales y comunes a través de sus miembros (Wilkinson & Young, 2002), así como mejorar la posiciones de mercado sin competir entre sí, permitiendo una estructura de empresa más fortalecida y competitiva, garantizando minimizar barreras para su participación y generar nuevas barreras para sus competidores (Belderbos, Carree, & Lokshin, 2006), creando una posición relativa más activa e interactiva que el “Sillón de Planificación” promovido hasta el momento (Hammel & Prahalad, 1989).

El origen de la cooperación se encuentra en los enfoques relacionados con competencia, siendo necesario comprender su evolución y la íntima relación que subyace en cooperar para competir asumiendo el compromiso contractual o moral de compartir los beneficios derivados de la relación y al mismo tiempo crear valor (Ojeda, 2010). En el año 1980 surge la Estrategia Competitiva como modelo que permite analizar en primer lugar el atractivo de los sectores industriales desde la perspectiva de la rentabilidad, así como de los factores de los cuales depende y en segundo lugar los factores de la posición competitiva que se ocupa dentro de este sector (Porter M. , 1980). A mediados de los años 80 surge el concepto de Ventaja Competitiva (Porter, 1985) proviniendo fundamentalmente del valor que una empresa logra crear

para sus clientes, enfocado en la afirmación que tanto el Estado como las empresas deben aplicar políticas para la creación de productos de alta calidad para ser comercializados al máximo valor posible basado en la heterogeneidad de la oferta y la condición de poca imitabilidad de los productos como resultado de la aplicación de economías a escala en los bienes y servicios que direccionan el mercado hacia los precios Premium a cambio de un beneficio superior que compensa las diferencias con precios inferiores (Warf & Stutz, 2007) (Porter M. , 1987). La entrada de este enfoque al campo de la estrategia implica la descomposición de actividades individuales de la empresa en la búsqueda del liderazgo de bajo costo y la diferenciación conducente a la identificación de grupos estratégicamente relevantes para comprender los comportamientos de la organización y su entorno para lo cual propone el análisis de las 5 fuerzas para el logro de las ventajas competitivas sostenibles –poder de negociación de los compradores, poder de negociación de los proveedores, amenaza de los nuevos entrantes, amenaza de productos sustitutivos y rivalidad entre competidores-, las estrategias genéricas, la cadena de valor, los grupos estratégicos y los clústers.

Posterior a la propuesta de Porter acerca de las ventajas competitivas surge una contraposición considerando que los retornos excepcionales se dan especialmente como producto de la pertenencia de las empresas a una industria con características estructurales favorables conociéndose como el enfoque de Perspectiva Relacional bajo el cual una forma de obtener ventajas competitivas es a través de las relaciones que se establecen entre las organizaciones pudiendo extenderse más allá de los límites de la empresa lo cual se traduce en ventajas competitivas interorganizacionales (Dyer & Singh, 1998). El reconocimiento de la importancia de las relaciones entorno a la organización lleva a rescatar algunos estudios previos que enmarcaban el cómo las organizaciones son efectivas en su entorno, así como los factores a considerar en los procesos organizacionales para mejorar la efectividad bajo la perspectiva biológica de la supervivencia del más fuerte, surgiendo el enfoque

de red como respuesta a estos planteamientos con la propuesta de tres supuestos: la interdependencia que se da entre las empresas que conforman la red, la heterogeneidad de los recursos y la co-evolución que se da como producto de las interdependencias (Hakansson & Snehota, 1995) representando esta perspectiva la primera aproximación en la identificación de la necesidad de conformar redes de cooperación para mejorar su propio desempeño mediante los procesos de transferencia de conocimiento y compartir conocimiento.

Comprender que las organizaciones funcionan como organismos que siguen patrones de adaptación de comunidades humanas es la concepción de la Perspectiva Ecológica<sup>17</sup> planteando que dichos procesos de adaptación se encuentran determinados por cuestiones sociales, culturales y técnicas que son comunes en el entorno al momento de la creación de la cohorte (Hannan & Freeman, 2009). De igual forma la perspectiva ecológica reconoce el rol que tienen las poblaciones y comunidades de poblaciones en el comportamiento general de la organización como subunidades que conforman la empresa dando origen a la ecología organizacional (Hannan & Freeman, 1977).

Posterior a la Perspectiva Ecológica surge la Perspectiva de Dependencia de los Recursos en la cual se retoma la importancia que tienen las estrategias de cooperación para las organizaciones, siendo el interés particular el estudio de la necesidad que tienen las organizaciones de establecer transacciones y relaciones con elementos del entorno que, debido a la escasez de recursos adquieren un poder significativo, presionando a la masa productiva a apalancarse en la cooperación como medio para garantizar la perdurabilidad empresarial, adjudicándole a la organización su carácter de organismo adaptativo con capacidad para cambiar y ajustarse al entorno. La perspectiva de dependencia

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17 Si bien la Perspectiva Ecológica considera la empresa en función de su pertenencia a una comunidad, no tiene como fundamento la cooperación como fuente de ventaja, siendo referenciada para el presente artículo solo de manera tangencial como parte de la cronología de la revisión bibliográfica y para mantener la homogeneidad en la presentación secuencial de las diversas perspectivas.



de los recursos se estructura en 5 acciones que permiten minimizar la dicha dependencia: la fusión e integración vertical, joint venture y otras relaciones interorganizacionales-consorcios de investigación, acuerdos de marketing conjunto, relaciones comprador vendedor-, consejos o mesas de administración, acciones políticas y sucesiones ejecutivas. (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978) (Hillman, Withers, & Collins, 2009).

En la cooperación entre empresas se pueden evidenciar procesos interorganizacionales tales como la formación de clústeres, distritos industriales, alianzas y/o redes empresariales mediante las cuales las organizaciones se re-estructuran continuamente para mejorar su posición en el mercado sin competir entre ellos (Porter M. , 1998) (Boisier, 2005) permitiéndoles una conformación que les permita una mayor competitividad e incrementos en la rentabilidad en la búsqueda permanente de una mayor participación hacia el desarrollo sostenible, impactando favorablemente en la competitividad, la innovación y la productividad de las empresas en un territorio o región (Porter M. , 2003) (Albuquerque, 2004) (Enríquez, 2008) (Méndez, 2001) (Verschoore, 2003).

### **3. DESDE LA COOPERACIÓN IN SITU**

En la actualidad, las formas de hacer negocios basados en la cooperación han presentado un crecimiento importante en la participación de empresas de diversa índole, sin importar su tamaño ni el sector industrial al cual pertenecen, influenciando de manera significativa las relaciones comerciales entre países o grupos de países fundamentados en los acuerdos y tratados internacionales complejizando cada día más las relaciones entre ellos. Las actividades de cooperación entre empresas vienen incrementándose exponencialmente alrededor del mundo empresarial esto debido a la necesidad de compensar las limitaciones propias de la firma desde la perspectiva individual, como estrategia para responder de manera adecuada a la amenaza constante

de una demanda creciente y cada vez más compleja, siendo los cambios tecnológicos y la contracción del acceso a los fondos para inversión los factores de mayor influencia en un escenario económico caracterizado por la incertidumbre y la turbulencia (Faulker & Campbell, 2006).

Las estrategias de cooperación suelen ser de diversos tipos de acuerdo al fin que persiguen, al tipo de relación que se establezca y al propósito de la misma (Ver tabla 1). Esta caracterización se corresponde con la singularidad de la cooperación resaltando factores que justifican la vinculación fundamentados en: los tipos de industria y/o sector, la creación y desarrollo de conocimiento, las transacciones a realizar, los procesos compartidos y gestión de bienes, la forma de vinculación, la duración de la alianza, los aspectos legales que los comprometen, el ámbito geográfico en el cual se ubican, entre otros.

**Tabla 1.** Enfoques de las Estrategias de Cooperación.

Enfoque	Tipos	Autores
Fin perseguido	Para el aprendizaje Para la sustitución- complemento-de habilidades	(Faulker & Campbell, 2006)
Propósito	Objetivos de mercado Transferencia de tecnología Investigación y Desarrollo Internacionalización Crecimiento de la Empresa	(Faulker & Campbell, 2006)
Al instrumento jurídico	Sin Participación de Capital Con Participación de Capital	(Johanson & Mattsson, 1991)
Al entorno económico	Financieros Organizacionales De comercialización	(Johanson & Mattsson, 1991)
A la actividad a desarrollar	Comerciales Tecnológicos Productivos Financieros	(Coyne, 1991)

Por tamaño de Intervinientes	Pequeñas y Medianas Empresas Grandes Empresa Empresas Mixtas	(Menguzzato, 1992) (Fernandez Da Silva, 2005)
Vinculación de participantes / Estructura y ámbito industrial	Horizontal Vertical Simbiótica Comensalista	(Menguzzato, 1992) (Fernandez Da Silva, 2005)
Constitución	Formal Informal	(Hagedoorn, 1993) (Sebastian, 2000)
Recursos compartidos	Estructurada No estructurada	(Menguzzato, 1992)
Ámbito geográfico	Local Regional Nacional Internacional	(Faulker & Campbell, 2006)
Mercado	Sector Público Sector Privado	(Hagedoorn, 1993)
Conexión	Directa Indirecta	(Casanueva, 2003)
Fortaleza del vínculo	Sólido Débil	(Casanueva, 2003)
Duración	Permanente Temporal	(Sebastian, 2000)
Recursos de red y continuidad	Agregación Heurísticas Transaccionales Orquestación	(Briones, Laborda, & López, 2007) (Fernandez Da Silva, 2005)
En función del aprendizaje	Comerciales Híbridas De aprendizaje	(Briones, Laborda, & López, 2007)

**Fuente:** Omaña, J. (2012)

## 4. HACIA EL DESARROLLO DE LAS REGIONES

### Antecedentes.

El desarrollo de las regiones es el resultado directo de su desempeño en términos de salario, crecimiento salarial, incremento del empleo y la tasa de patentes registradas (Porter M. , 2003). Para otros autores el desarrollo está determinado por la capacidad de las organizaciones que conforman una región para fomentar la generación de empleo y la dinamización de la economía ampliando la capacidad de afrontar dificultades y limitaciones utilizando como medio para lograrlo la flexibilidad, la capacidad de reacción y la articulación en el ámbito de los sistemas complejos como el entorno local, las comunidades y el medio ambiente (Sbragia, 2002). La definición de los factores que marcan el desarrollo local orientado desde la cooperación, promueve el mejoramiento de las condiciones de las regiones, así como la optimización de los procesos de su tejido industrial, de manera que los beneficios representen un beneficio tangible y/o intangible para sus habitantes (Michalus, Hernández, & Sarache, 2009). Los estudios acerca de la competitividad y el desarrollo económico de las naciones han permitido el surgimiento de investigaciones empíricas en las cuales los científicos regionales y economistas han identificado diferencias sustanciales en el rendimiento económico regional y nacional debido a la especialización económica de las regiones y la diversidad (Glaeser, Kallai, Scheinkman, & Shleifer, 1992) (Henderson, Kuncoro, & Turner, 1995) (Henderson, 1999), (Harrison, Kelley, & Gant, 1996), (Baptista, 1998), (Feldman & Audretsch, 1999) (Ketelhöhn, 2002) infiriendo que los determinantes esenciales de desarrollo se encuentran en el nivel regional al evidenciar que factores fundamentales como el salario, la especialización en el trabajo, la composición de las industrias y su concentración determinan la capacidad adquisitiva de sus habitantes y las oportunidades para incentivar la cooperación lo cual repercute en el desempeño empresarial y la calidad de vida

(Porter M. , 2003). Otros estudios plantean que el desarrollo local es la concertación entre los actores –sectores y fuerzas- que interactúan en un territorio determinado, para impulsar un proyecto común que combine la generación de crecimiento económico, equidad, cambio social y cultural, sustentabilidad ecológica, enfoque de género, calidad y equilibrio espacial y territorial, con el fin de elevar la calidad de vida de cada familia y ciudadano que viven en ese territorio y contribuir al desarrollo de país y a una mejor inserción de éste a la economía internacional (Barreto & García, 2005). Estudios desde la variedad de las perspectivas disciplinarias acerca de las regiones de fronteras entre México y Estados Unidos incluyen aspectos económicos, geográficos, zonas urbanas-rurales, así como factores relacionados con la sociología y la cultura (Stoddard, 1978) (Stoddard, 1983) (Herzog, 1990) (Schafer & Pick, 2000).

#### **4.1. Algunas Experiencias Aplicadas**

Desde la investigación empírica diversos investigadores han abordado el tema de cooperación y desarrollo local en múltiples aplicaciones y en diversas áreas. La experiencia de veintinueve micros, pequeñas y medianas empresas productoras de bienes o prestadores de servicios relacionados con el campo ambiental (Ojeda, 2009) involucra de manera directa e indirecta empresas prestadoras de servicios básicos (agua, residuos) como protectoras del ambiente (aire, suelo, energía). Para el desarrollo de la investigación se consideró aplicar cuestionarios a empresarios con particular interés en identificar lo que hace que estos elijan alternativas de cooperación hacia la preservación del medio ambiente encontrándose tendencias, discrepancias, nuevos factores e interrelaciones utilizando como medio de análisis el contraste, la triangulación y la búsqueda de complementariedades. La investigación evidencia la preocupación de los empresarios por el entorno a la empresa y el reconocimiento del ambiente como cooperante en sus procesos productivos y/o de prestación de servicios conformando grupos de

capacitación a partir del compartir conocimiento considerando que esta estrategia favorece el desarrollo de nuevas capacidades y enriquece las ideas propias.

Otra experiencia de la cooperación y el desarrollo está representada por la investigación empírica acerca del desarrollo de sistemas productivos locales en pequeñas empresas como estrategia para el desarrollo local en Dinamarca, Emilia-Rogmana y la comunidad Valenciana (España) (Pezzini, 2010) teniendo como hallazgos destacables el reconocimiento de las capacidades de los actores locales para acelerar el proceso de policy making<sup>18</sup> en los sistemas productivos locales, en los cuales los profesionales locales se preguntan cómo es posible extender el empleo y el desarrollo industrial y fortalecer la competitividad y la habilidad para innovar, en lugares donde las economías locales se basan en simples aglomeraciones de pequeñas empresas con unos resultados económicos poco satisfactorios, evidenciado en los bajos niveles de relaciones entre empresas y las dificultades para forjar intereses comunes entre los grupos de interés y los empresarios. Estos profesionales locales promueven la interrelación de las empresas como paso previo a la cooperación en la búsqueda del desarrollo local buscando medidas para estimular la transformación de grupos de pequeñas empresas en sistemas de pequeñas empresas, compartiendo sus conocimientos, minimizando las dificultades y maximizando los resultados económicos causando impacto sobre el empleo, los salarios y el desarrollo común basado en casos exitoso de distritos industriales que desean emular.

El Programa de Naciones Unidas para el Desarrollo (PNUD) y el Instituto para la Integración de América Latina (INTAL) suscribieron un convenio para realizar de manera conjunta un estudio sobre los procesos de integración y de cooperación en América Latina

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18 Se define según (Lindblom, 1959) como el proceso de aproximaciones sucesivas a un objetivo deseado, donde incluso éste se halla sometido a continuas consideraciones.

identificándose los elementos para la integración y otras formas de cooperación (Tomassini, 1977) fundamentando su investigación en el análisis de las tendencias globales y las perspectivas de los procesos de integración de la región identificándose las oportunidades de cooperación existentes en sectores tales como agricultura, comercio y producción de materias primas teniendo como eje fundamental el apoyo tecnológico, la minimización de las barreras arancelarias y la búsqueda del crecimiento industrial hacia adentro basado en modelos de desarrollo cooperativo con la combinación e intercambio de recursos productivos de que disponen los países, minimizando la influencia de tendencias restrictivas al capital, el financiamiento externo, la devaluación de las monedas locales y las limitaciones impuestas por la coyuntura internacional a la capacidad de importar de sus pares latinoamericanos teniendo como beneficio el crecimiento con la cooperación de los gobiernos de la región con modelos de desarrollo que dependan, cada vez en mayor medida, de la movilización de recursos internos y de la cooperación económica recíproca. Este enfoque da origen, posteriormente a investigaciones acerca de América Latina y el Consenso de Washington (Casilda Béjar, 2004) en el cual se considera que las amplias reformas económicas derivadas del consenso advierten una sensación generalizada de insatisfacción debido a las decisiones asumidas durante los años 90, presionando a la búsqueda de opciones que garanticen un mayor crecimiento, sustentable y con equidad, debido a la desigual distribución de los ingresos y la pérdida de oportunidades generando inestabilidad y una profunda crisis. Las firmas de convenios de cooperación mutua se convirtieron en escenarios de competencia indiscriminada dejando a los países de Latinoamérica en el rol de proveedores de materias primas y consumidores de productos resultado de su transformación. Los países afectados se vieron en la obligación de crear nuevas organizaciones de cooperación bilateral y posteriormente multilateral para diseñar reformas estructurales y políticas económicas para minimizar el efecto de los errores vividos consiguiendo en estos nuevos escenarios los medios para el progreso

para el desarrollo con equidad acortando distancias con sus vecinos más favorecidos y consolidando su participación en mercados regionales sin la participación de los grupos intermediarios que causaron efectos catastróficos en el pasado reciente.

El desarrollo hacia adentro permitió que la competitividad llegará a las regiones en el interior del país con lo cual surge la definición de ciudades competitivas-ciudades cooperativas (Cabrero, Orihuela, & Ziccardi, 2003) considerando que estos grupos de ciudades logran participar en el mercado internacional y nacional, atraer inversión, generar empleo, así como ofrecer mayor desarrollo demostrado en el incremento de la calidad de vida de quienes habitan e incluso logrando una mayor cohesión social. De la investigación surgen además definiciones como competitividad urbana y estrategias de competitividad de las ciudades, regiones o sistemas locales a partir de la cooperación interempresarial e intraempresarial, a partir de las cuales se hace un diagnóstico determinándose que las condiciones bajo las cuales se desarrolla la competitividad y el cooperativismo tienen que ver con la localización geográfica de las empresas, la dotación de un conjunto de condiciones de producción y de intercambio de bienes y servicios además del desarrollo de las habilidades propias de la organización que fomenten la transferencia de conocimiento o el compartir conocimiento como metas comunes definidas de manera explícita o implícita en contratos de cooperación, dando origen a los sistemas locales positivos definidos como la formación de empresas en un territorio como respuesta a una menor discriminación contra los agentes de menor tamaño relativo considerando que el sistema local funciona apalancado en las competencias técnicas de las firmas más que en su tamaño.

La Agenda 21 relaciona la Subsidiariedad y Cooperación a favor del Desarrollo Territorial Sostenible (Brunet, Almeida, & Coll, 2005) siendo una iniciativa que, bajo liderazgo de la administración local y el impulso



de la participación ciudadana, permite identificar, desde la cooperación, los problemas y establecer propuestas de intervención de abajo hacia arriba, aplicando criterios e indicadores de desarrollo sostenible. La estrategia de cooperación se demuestra en la participación de agentes sociales, políticos y económicos para determinar desde diversas metodologías cuáles son los procesos de intervención, planificación e implantación de alternativas de solución que promuevan el desarrollo sostenible de las comunidades, sus empresas y su entorno, significando un punto de partida para la profundización del sistema democrático en la toma de decisiones relacionadas con el medio ambiente y la sostenibilidad, interviniendo de forma significativa en las dinámicas de las estructuras políticas y administrativas de las comunidades. Desde el punto de vista metodológico el procedimiento consiste en la elección de indicadores que permitan conocer la situación actual de las comunidades intervenidas, proceso en el cual participan empresarios, trabajadores, miembros de la comunidad y los grupos de interés, esto con el propósito de crear conciencia y compromiso de cambio en cada uno de ellos desde la perspectiva de los sistemas blandos de toma de decisiones (Checkland, 2000).

Con relación a la cooperación, el conocimiento y la innovación como políticas y agentes regionales de investigación y desarrollo (Olazaran, Lavía, & Otero, 2006), se pone de manifiesto la importancia del capital social, entendido como cooperación entre agentes que componen el sistema de innovación, la generación de conocimiento y los procesos. En esta investigación se destaca la importancia de las estrategias autónomas de especialización para la profundización del conocimiento que ha de ser compartido o transferido, resaltando la importancia del desarrollo de planes de capacitación hacia el interior de las organizaciones ratificando la importancia de cooperar con un profundo conocimiento en el área de desarrollo con el objetivo de cooperar para minimizar las dificultades que generan los entornos cambiantes y promover el autoaprendizaje, ampliando el abanico de

objetivos de los participantes. El caso Vasco de desarrollo regional desarrollado durante la investigación es considerado un modelo exitoso en la creación de estructuras regionales de investigación y desarrollo, siendo el proceso central la creación de la estructura de centros tecnológicos de capacitación en campos considerados como fundamentales en la región tales como los proyectos de cooperación tecnológica, la formación de clústeres tecnológicos, el diseño de programas estratégicos de desarrollo local y los centros de capacitación.

Desde la perspectiva de la frontera colombo-venezolana, el estudio de la cooperación y el desarrollo binacional plantea la creación de un ámbito fronterizo de cooperación en la micro región formada por el Estado Táchira y el Departamento de Norte de Santander (Rodríguez, 1998). Esta investigación plantea la constitución de un espacio fronterizo apropiado para la implementación de políticas integracionistas, de cooperación económica, ambiental, socio-cultural, entre otras, enmarcado en el impacto de las políticas de seguridad y defensa necesarias para el desarrollo de las actividades de cooperación. Para ello el estudio plantea la necesidad de crear normas jurídicas especiales al interior de la región binacional para crear un soporte legal al comercio fronterizo, el uso de los recursos compartidos, el tránsito de personal y mercancías, el empleo de capitales, la movilidad laboral y el desarrollo de actividades comunes en capacitación como mecanismos de consolidación de los objetivos propios y colectivos en la búsqueda de las alternativas de solución a problemas de índole fronterizo con autonomía propia de la región respecto a los gobiernos nacionales.

Para estas actividades, los territorios de Colombia y Venezuela son considerados subregiones con sus propias características e idiosincrasia, espacio en los cuales la integración y la cooperación han sido considerados hechos espontáneos y dinámicos afectados sólo por las contradicciones derivadas de un modelo de regionalización

inadecuado, en ausencia de políticas coherentes de fronteras. La investigación reconoce que los departamentos-estados fronterizos representan regiones periféricas a los centros de desarrollos de sus respectivos países, evidenciándose una situación de marginamiento respecto a los planes de desarrollo nacional, a pesar de contar con importantes recursos naturales no explotados.

## 5. CONCLUSIONES

- A lo largo del recorrido por la revisión teórica de la definición de estrategia se resalta el papel preponderante de la cooperación como alternativa para afrontar los cambios en un mundo cada vez más complejizante, con entornos que exigen cada vez mayor presencia de las organizaciones tanto a lo interno como a lo externo, propiciando en ellas la búsqueda de la interrelación empresarial con el propósito de desarrollar el individualismo como principio fundamental al momento de iniciar los procesos de negociación para la transferencia de conocimiento o el compartir conocimiento.
- Las estrategias de cooperación, desde la perspectiva de las vivencias de las organizaciones a nivel mundial han generado importantes aportes al desarrollo regional evidenciándose en la conformación de regiones especializadas en áreas particulares de la producción de bienes y servicios destacándose entre ellas la capacitación como eje fundamental para iniciar los procesos de cooperación y desarrollo.
- La revisión de Algunas Experiencias Aplicadas, tanto a nivel regional como global, no evidencia el progreso de investigaciones que impliquen de manera particular las estrategias de cooperación para el desarrollo de las regiones de frontera, encontrándose de manera puntual una dispersa la intención del Centro de Estudios de Fronteras e Integración de la Universidad de Los Andes, el cual promueve la creación de mesas de trabajo para generar políticas de Estado dirigidas a tal fin, estableciendo algunos acercamiento entre los gobiernos y privilegiando los temas de Seguridad y Defensa

por encima de la integración cooperativista en la conformación de alianzas que conlleven al desarrollo de la región como potencial subregional y global.

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# 5

## Realidad en Cifras. Caso: Venezuela 1980-2014

\*Jesús Alfonso Omaña Guerrero

\*Giuseppe Vanoni Quezada

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### Resumen

El propósito del presente capítulo es presentar, desde la perspectiva de los indicadores macroeconómicos, el comportamiento de Venezuela y su comercio internacional durante los periodos presidenciales previos y posteriores a Hugo Chávez, incluyendo su gestión. Esta visión de la realidad venezolana, evidenciada en cifras desde una perspectiva macro-contextual del entorno, permite conocer cómo las cifras responden a fenómenos cualitativos presentes en el contexto sociopolítico. Se consideran como variables de estudio el Producto Interno Bruto (PIB) y la Balanza Comercial, además de otras variables que permiten conocer el contexto venezolano en gasto público, precio del barril de petróleo y las tasas de cambio, inflación y desempleo. Para el análisis del Comercio de Venezuela se presentan datos de socios comerciales estratégicos como Colombia, los Estados Unidos de Norteamérica, China y Cuba, además de la Asociación Latinoamericana de Integración (ALADI) y la Comunidad Andina de Naciones (CAN). Adicionalmente se presenta el Comercio de Venezuela en el Sector Petrolero y No Petrolero, una breve reseña de su vinculación a la CAN y Mercosur, además de los convenios petroleros de integración comercial. El estudio se apoya en la revisión de bases de datos del Fondo Monetario Internacional (FMI), Organización de Países Exportadores de Petróleo (OPEP), Trade Statistics for International Business Development (Trade Map), United States Census Bureau, Banco Mundial (BM), Population Reference Bureau (PRB), Banco Central de Venezuela (BCV) y el Instituto Nacional de Estadística (INE), haciendo énfasis en tres periodos de tiempo: 1980-1998, 1999-2012, 2013-2014.

**Palabras clave:** comercio internacional, macroeconomía, PIB.

## Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to show, from the perspective of macroeconomic indicators, the behavior of Venezuela and international trades during the previous and subsequent presidencies of Hugo Chavez, including its period. This vision of the Venezuelan reality, evidenced in numbers from a macro-contextual environmental perspective, let's show how these numbers respond to qualitative phenomena present in the sociopolitical context. Its study variables are the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and the Trade Balance, in addition to other variables that provide insight into the Venezuelan context in public spending, price per barrel of oil and exchange rates, inflation and unemployment. For the Venezuelan trade analysis consider the strategic partners such as Colombia, United States of America, China and Cuba, in addition to the Latin American Integration Association (ALADI) and the Andean Community of Nations (CAN). Furthermore, shown the Venezuelan Trade in the Oil and Non-Oil field, a brief overview of the relation to the CAN and Mercosur, and the Conventions Oilers inside the trade integration. The database used are International Monetary Fund (IMF), Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC), Trade Statistics for International Business Development (Trade Map), United States Census Bureau, World Bank (WB), Population Reference Bureau (PRB), Banco Central de Venezuela (BCV) and the National Institute of Statistics (INE), emphasizing three time periods: 1980-1998, 1999-2012, 2013-2014.

**Key words:** International trade, macroeconomy, PIB

## Introducción

La realidad, como construcción social plantea la necesidad de comprender los resultados de las relaciones entre organizaciones, públicas y/o privadas, considerando la influencia del entorno en su desempeño y su impacto en el contexto sectorial, gubernamental, societal y natural (Lumijärvi, 2011) (Universidad del Rosario, 2012). El estudio de las naciones debe ser parte de los programas y proyectos vinculados a los contextos, ecosistemas, y la internacionalización. El primero estudia las organizaciones en su macro-contexto como sistema abierto en interacción con el entorno, afectándose a lo interno (Negandhi, 1975), el segundo vincula la realidad con fenómenos emergentes como la globalización, la regionalización y la integración a mercados, gobiernos y comunidades internacionales (Wood, Logsdon, Llewellyn, y Davenport, 2006; Narulla y Duning, 2010; Guogis, Bileisis, Kacevicius, 2010).

El tema de contextos e internacionalización para el caso venezolano se puede analizar vinculando algunas variables que evidencian el comportamiento desde la perspectiva económica y social.

## Evolución Económica de Venezuela 1980-2014

Para conocer cuál ha sido la evolución de la economía venezolana antes, durante y después del presidente Hugo Chávez, la tabla 1 muestra al PIB como indicador económico de Venezuela y su posición en el mundo, para cada periodo presidencial.

**Tabla 1.** PIB por periodo presidencial en comparación con el mundo

Años	Presidentes	PIB (BILLONES US\$)	% PIB MUNDIAL	% POBLACIÓN MUNDIAL	PROM PIB PER CÁPITA (US\$)
1979-1983	LUIS HERRERA	304	0,68%	0,35%	4.920,50
1984-1988	JAIME LUSINCHI	283	0,39%	0,36%	3.264,14
1989-1993	CARLOS ANDRÉS PÉREZ	263	0,23%	0,38%	2.680,27
1994-1998	RAFAÉL CALDERA	377	0,25%	0,39%	3.445,57
1999-2012	HUGO CHÁVEZ	2.592	0,37%	0,41%	6.758,56
2013-2014	NICOLÁS MADURO	624	0,41%	0,43%	10.274,59

**Fuentes:** los autores con base a FMI (2014); World Economic Outlook Database; World Bank (2015) Data Population; Trade Map (2015) Trade indicators.

De la tabla 1 se puede inferir que durante los periodos presidenciales de Herrera y Lusinchi, el aporte de la población venezolana al PIB mundial era superior a su participación porcentual, evidenciando una mano de obra eficiente. A partir de la presidencia de Pérez se presenta una caída de la participación en el PIB mundial siendo mayor la ponderación de la población que su aporte, demostrándose ineficiencia en la mano de obra como consecuencia de medidas económicas que llevaron a una inflación del 187% en 1989, la reducción de puestos de trabajo en las empresas, el crecimiento en el desempleo y la proliferación de la informalidad. A pesar del crecimiento en la participación en el PIB mundial resultado de la bonanza petrolera desde el año 2008 al año 2013, este comportamiento se ha mantenido siendo evidenciable desde el comportamiento del consumidor venezolano ante los escasos

y el crecimiento del mercado informal considerado como ocupado, y no desempleado, desde el año 2005 por modificaciones en la Ley del Trabajo. Adicionalmente se muestra el comportamiento del PIB per cápita registrando crecimientos históricos, dentro de los periodos en estudio, de 184% en el periodo de Chávez y 75% para el periodo de Maduro. A pesar de este crecimiento, la mano de obra sigue siendo ineficiente explicada desde la ponderación de la población mundial que supera al aporte del PIB global. La tabla 2 registra los periodos presidenciales considerando variables específicas del contexto venezolano.

**Tabla 2.** PIB por periodo presidencial y otras variables.

Años	Presidentes	PROM GASTO PÚBLICO (%PIB)	PROM PIB (BILLONES US\$)	PROM PIB PER CÁPITA (US\$)	PROM PRECIO BARRIL (US\$)	PROMEDIO TASA DE CAMBIO (BsF/US\$)	PROM INFLACIÓN (%)	INFLACIÓN ACUMULADA %	PROM DESEMPLEO <sup>1</sup>
1979-1983	LUIS HERRERA	SD	76	4.920,50		0,01	13,36%	53,45%	7,30%
1984-1988	JAIMELUSINCHI	SD	57	3.264,14	16,74	0,02	18,56%	92,78%	10,72%
1989-1993	CARLOS ANDRÉS PÉREZ	31%	53	2.680,27	20,94	0,07	45,77%	228,87%	8,82%
1994-1998	RAFAÉL CALDERA	33%	75	3.445,57	18,55	0,40	61,29%	306,44%	10,65%
1999-2012	HUGO CHÁVEZ	34%	185	6.758,56	57,11	4,743	22,05%	308,72%	11,53%
2013-2014	NICOLÁS MADURO	41%	312	10.274,59	95,58	119,05	51,45%	102,90%	7,73%

**Fuente:** elaboración autores con base a FMI (21014) World Economic Outlook Database; INE (2015) base de datos socioeconómicos; BCV (2015) Indicadores económicos; United States Census Bureau (2015) Foreign Trade; OPEP (2015) Database Countries

Subíndices El INE indica que a partir de 2005 se mide la tasa de desocupación y no el desempleo. Cf. Venezonomía, industria y comercio Vol 23, 4, 2009.

SD: No se conocen datos.



En la tabla 2 se observa que el crecimiento del porcentaje del PIB dirigido al gasto público permanece constante hasta el periodo de Maduro en el cual se incrementa en un 22,31% en un intento por aumentar su popularidad. Considerando el precio del barril de petróleo y la condición de Venezuela como país monoprodutor, el incremento del precio del barril fue de 179,14% entre los periodos previos a Chávez y su gestión, mientras que entre la presidencia de Chávez y Maduro el incremento del precio ha sido de 76,13%. Este incremento en los ingresos extraordinarios, tanto en la presidencia de Chávez como en el periodo de Maduro, generaron un comportamiento inverso en la tasa de cambio y la inflación resultado de la ausencia de políticas que promuevan la inversión privada con la asignación de divisas y la apertura de mercados que permitan la libre competencia y un incremento en la oferta de productos para minimizar el impacto en la inflación.

Este comportamiento de la tasa de cambio en el caso venezolano es muy particular y requiere de una explicación más detallada. Tomando como referencia la tasa de cambio del dólar respecto al Bolívar registrada en páginas no oficiales, se tiene que la tasa promedio en el periodo previo a Chávez (1980-1997) fue de 107,00 bolívares por dólar a pesar de las devaluaciones para el año 1983, conocido como viernes negro, de 188% y 1995 de 71%.

Para el periodo correspondiente a la presidencia de Chávez, con la conversión monetaria a bolívares fuertes en el año 2007, la tasa promedio fue 4.465,00 bolívares por dólar (BsF 4,47) teniendo como máxima variación en 2002 el 79% al pasar de 773 bolívares por dólar (BsF 0,77) a 1.383,50 bolívares por dólar (BsF 1,38) y en 2012 el 83% al incrementarse de 9.450,00 bolívares por dólar (BsF 9,45) a 17.320,00 bolívares por dólar (BsF 17,32). Para los años 2013-2014 correspondientes a Maduro, la tasa promedio fue 119,05 bolívares fuertes por dólar destacando los incrementos de 2013 por 276% con

el incremento de 17,32 bolívares fuertes por dólar a 65,1 bolívares fuertes por dólar y 2014 por 166% pasando de 65,1 bolívares fuertes por dólar a 173 bolívares fuertes por dólar; para este último periodo el dólar oficial regido por el control cambiario es de 6,30 bolívares fuertes por dólar, el segundo tipo de cambio Cadivi-Cencoex es de 12,00 bolívares fuertes por dólar, el cambio abierto SICAD II y III es cercano a los 52,00 bolívares fuertes por dólar mientras que el dólar SIMADI correspondiente a febrero de 2015 alcanzó los 185 bolívares fuertes por dólar.

Con respecto a la inflación, considerada a nivel mundial como un caso particular para un país con ingresos de 312 billones de dólares anuales en promedio 2013-2014, se tiene que en el primer periodo de estudio correspondiente a 17 años (1980-1997) la tasa promedio fue 35,88% siendo la acumulada es 645,75%, registrando valores máximos de variación 1987 con 144% y 1989 con 187%.

Para el periodo de 14 años (1998-2012) del presidente Chávez la tasa promedio de inflación fue de 22,97% con un valor acumulado de 344,51% resaltando 1999 como el año de variación mayor con 29,64% además de las regulaciones de precios de la cesta básica de 2005 y el decreto de la Ley de Costos y Precios Justos de junio de 2011; para los dos años (2013-2014) correspondientes al periodo de Maduro la tasa promedio es 51,45% con un acumulado de 102,90% siendo para este periodo los valores de variación de inflación máximos 93% y 53%, destacando la Reforma de la Ley Orgánica de Precios Justos en diciembre de 2014.

La tasa de desempleo, modificado en 2005 como tasa de ocupación, registra para 1980-1997 un valor promedio de 9,39% teniendo como valor máximo 1983 con 10,10% con un incremento de 42,25% con respecto a 1982; durante la presidencia de Hugo Chávez el desempleo tuvo como promedio 11,51% teniendo como valor máximo 18,05%

para el año 2003 resaltando la promulgación de la inamovilidad laboral en 2002 ratificada anualmente hasta febrero 2015; para los años 2013-2014 la tasa de desocupación registro en promedio 7,73%.

Conocido el comportamiento de las variables para los periodos de estudio señalados, es necesario presentar su vinculación en el macro-contexto valorando las posibles interrelaciones con agentes externos. Con la aplicación de la prueba estadística de correlación de Spearman se infieren comportamientos de correlación perfecta entre las variables PIB versus precio del barril (0,997) y estas dos variables versus desempleo (-0,973). Esta prueba evidencia que, para los periodos objeto de estudio, el PIB venezolano tiene una alta dependencia de la industria petrolera y que sus efectos sobre el desempleo son inversamente proporcionales y estadísticamente significativos.

La figura 3 registra el resumen del comportamiento de las variables expresado en promedios para los periodos presidenciales antes, durante y después de Chávez, siendo la base para el siguiente análisis:

- **Periodo previo a Hugo Chávez (1980-1998):** para analizar este periodo se deben considerar una breve explicación del comportamiento de las variables al cierre de 1987. Si bien el periodo de 1980-1998 tuvo un precio del petróleo promedio de 19,20 dólares americanos por barril, un PIB de 61 billones de dólares y su valor per cápita de 2.994,86 dólares, el gobierno de Carlos Andrés Pérez (1989-1992 antejuicio de mérito) recibía como herencia del quinquenio de Jaime Lusinchi (1984-1988) y de su antecesor Luis Herrera Campins (1979-1983) los efectos de las devaluaciones de 1983 (188%) y 1986-1988 (113%). Estos eventos, además de una disminución del PIB de 27,78%, hicieron que durante el primer año de gobierno de Carlos Andrés Pérez la inflación llegara a 187%, el desempleo a 26% y la devaluación de la moneda en 18%. Al finalizar el quinquenio de 1989-1993, con la ausencia de Pérez desde 1992

por el antejuicio de mérito, Venezuela en cifras evidenciaba en el PIB una disminución de 7,15% al pasar de 57 a 53 billones de dólares; a pesar del incremento del barril de 25,09% por una variación de 16,74 a 20,94 dólares por barril; la tasa de cambio aumentó en 184% desde 237,64 bolívares por dólar (BsF. 0,24) a 676,60 bolívares por dólar (BsF.0,68), mientras que la inflación subía 184,72% al pasar de 45,77% a 61,29% y la 10,65% incrementándose un 20,75%. Durante el periodo 1994-1998, previo al inicio del gobierno de Chávez, Rafael Caldera asume la presidencia con un PIB de 58 billones de dólares en descenso desde el periodo anterior por 3,47% considerando los 60 billones de dólares del año 1992 y los 59 billones de dólares del año 1993.

Durante su primer año de gobierno se incrementa la inflación en 60% pasando de 38,12% a 60,82%, registrando como valor máximo 99,98% en el año 1996. Durante el gobierno de Caldera el gasto público fue de 32,52% del PIB siendo su máximo valor en el primer año de gestión con 42,22%. Entre 1994-1998 el PIB se incrementó en 57,53% de 58 billones de dólares en 1994 a 91 billones de dólares en 1998 incrementándose la tasa de cambio en 233,20% de 169,57 bolívares por dólar (BsF. 0,17) a 565,00 bolívares fuertes por dólar (BsF. 0,57).

Venezuela en cifras promedio para el quinquenio de caldera fue: gasto público 32,52%, PIB en crecimiento a excepción del año 1996 con un valor de 75.420 millones de dólares, precio de barril de 18,55 dólares, tasa de cambio en 400,56 bolívares por dólar (BsF. 0,40) e inflación del 61,29% la más alta de los seis periodos presidenciales estudiados.

- **Periodo Hugo Chávez (1999-2012):** Asume la presidencia con PIB de 91 billones de dólares, precio del barril de petróleo de 14,42 dólares, tasa de cambio de 565 bolívares por dólar (BsF. 0,57), inflación de 35,78% y tasa de desempleo de 11,20%. Dentro de los aspectos más resaltantes de su gobierno se tiene que el precio del

barril llegó a su máximo histórico en 2008, año para el cual el precio promedio estuvo en 99,67 dólares y PIB de 294 billones de dólares, con tasa de cambio de 5700 bolívares por dólar (5,7 bolívares fuertes) e inflación de 30,37% incrementándose con respecto al año anterior en 62% siendo la mayor variación de su mandato.

Venezuela en cifras durante los 14 años de Chávez registra promedios de 33,52% de gasto público siendo el mayor valor 40,01% en 2012, PIB 185 billones de dólares con valor máximo 405 billones de dólares en 2012 y PIB per cápita de 10.265,24 dólares, precio de barril promedio de 57,11 dólares, tasa de cambio de 4.743 bolívares por dólar (4,74 bolívares fuertes) siendo su máximo valor en 2012 de 17.320 bolívares por dólar (17,32 bolívares fuertes) con devaluación de la moneda respecto al año anterior de 83%, e inflación promedio de 22,05% sujeta por la regulación de precios de la cesta básica que considera alquileres, servicios de electricidad, agua, luz, gas y televisión por cable, además de los productos de la cesta alimentaria. La tasa de desempleo promedio fue de 11,53% con dos factores a resaltar: 1) cambio de la denominación y 2) cálculo del desempleo por tasa de ocupación en 2005 y decreto de inamovilidad laboral desde 2002.

- **Periodo posterior a Hugo Chávez:** Nicolás Maduro Moros asume la presidencia en 2013 con PIB de 310 billones de dólares incrementándose en 2014 a 315 billones de dólares siendo estas cifras el máximo alcanzado para el periodo de estudio 1980-2014. Con relación al gasto público también alcanzó sus máximos históricos con 38% del PIB en 2013 y 42,23% en 2014.

El precio promedio del barril para la gestión de Maduro fue de 95,58 dólares y una tasa de cambio promedio de 119 bolívares fuertes por dólar considerando la emisión de Sicad II y Sicad III que mantuvieron el dólar con un precio cercano a los 100 bolívares hasta mayo de 2014. La inflación promedio fue de 51,45% teniendo un incremento

de 67,36% respecto al 57,11% promedio de la gestión de Chávez. En dos años de gobierno de Nicolás Maduro la inflación acumulada es de 102,90%, considerablemente alta respecto a los 14 años de mandato de Chávez durante el cual registró 308,72% y los 17 años previos a Chávez con 681,54%. A pesar que el promedio anual de inflación previo al mandato de Chávez fue de 40,09%, su gestión tuvo el promedio menor con 22,05% apoyado en el control de precios de la cesta básica desde 2005 y el decreto de la Ley de Precios Justos de 2011, lo cual es distante al 51,45% de promedio de la gestión de Maduro considerando el 40,70% de 2013 y el 62,20% de 2014 (tabla 3).

**Tabla 3.** Resumen PIB y otras variables. Periodos antes, durante y después de Chávez.

Años	Presidentes	PROM GASTO PÚBLICO (%PIB)	PIB ACUM (BILLONES US\$)	PROM PIB PER CÁPITA (US\$)	PROM PRECIO BARRIL (US\$)	PROMEDIO TASA DE CAMBIO (BsF/US\$)	PROM INFLACIÓN (%)	INFLACIÓN ACUMULADA %	PROM DESEMPLEO <sup>1</sup>
1980-1998	Campins, Lusinchi, Pérez, Caldera	32,04%	1.226	3.506,94	19,05	0,131	35,87%	681,54%	9,48%
1999-2012	Chávez	33,52%	2.592	6.758,56	57,11	4,743	22,05%	308,72%	11,53%
2013-2014	Maduro	40,62%	624	10.274,59	95,58	119,05	51,45%	102,90%	7,73%

ELABORACIÓN. OMAÑA (2015)

Fuentes: FMI (2014). World Economic Outlook Database  
INE (2105) Base de datos socioeconómicos  
BCV (2015) Indicadores económicos  
United States Census Bureau (2015) Foreign Trade  
OPEP (2015) Database. Countries.

SUBINDICES: <sup>1</sup>El Ine indica que a partir de 2005 se mide la tasa de desocupación y no el desempleo. Ver Venezonoma, industria y Comercio. Vol 23, No. 4, Enero 2009.

## El Comercio con Colombia y el mundo, 1984-2013.

Para el análisis del comercio exterior de Venezuela durante los periodos planteados para el estudio, se han considerado tanto la posición mundial como el comercio con países e integraciones comerciales que han generado mayor impacto por sus intercambios.

El estudio hace énfasis en la participación de Venezuela en el comercio mundial presentando la evolución por cada periodo presidencial. Posteriormente presenta, de manera más específica, las relaciones con socios comerciales como Estados Unidos de Norteamérica, Colombia, China y Cuba, además de los socios agrupados en organismos como la Asociación Latinoamericana de Integración (ALADI), conformado por Argentina, Brasil, Chile, México, Paraguay, Uruguay y Venezuela; y la Comunidad Andina de Naciones (CAN), conformada por Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Perú y Venezuela.

La posición de Venezuela ante el mundo se muestra en la tabla 4, registrándose un decrecimiento progresivo en la participación del comercio mundial de exportación e importación, siendo su punto crítico los periodos de la presidencia de Chávez y Maduro. A pesar de ser un país exportador de crudo, evidenciado en un crecimiento en el PIB durante la bonanza petrolera en la presidencia de Chávez y Maduro, los volúmenes de exportación de crudo se han visto disminuidos por la caída en la producción como consecuencia de la sustitución de mano de obra calificada en el año 2002 durante el paro petrolero. La balanza comercial, previa al gobierno de Chávez, se mantuvo en positivo y creciendo como resultado de la inversión privada y las políticas de promoción a la exportación, revirtiendo su comportamiento a partir de 1999.

Las prácticas de nacionalización de la empresa privada, por la vía de negociación o expropiación, genera además de la huida de capitales, las limitaciones en producción por el control cambiario que estrangula la capacidad de importación de materias primas por parte de las empresas locales y transnacionales comprometiendo la sostenibilidad de la producción. Esta decisión del gobierno de Chávez, posterior al paro petrolero de 2002, obliga a las empresas a negociar su participación en el mercado nacional o a salir del país, afectando no solo la capacidad

de exportación de las empresas sino su perdurabilidad. Con la pérdida de la participación de la empresa privada en el mercado nacional, la sustitución por importaciones se refleja en números negativos, tabla 4 para los periodos de Chávez y Maduro.

**Tabla 4.** Comercio de Venezuela en el Mundo. 1984-2013.

Años	Presidentes	COMERCIO VENEZUELA			COMERCIO MUNDIAL
		Exportaciones	Importaciones	BALANZA COMERCIAL	% COMERCIO MUNDIAL
1984-1988	JAIME LUSINCHI	Exportaciones	59	16	0,52%
		Importaciones	44		0,37%
1989-1993	CARLOS ANDRÉS PÉREZ	Exportaciones	74	26	0,42%
		Importaciones	48		0,27%
1994-1998	RAFAÉL CALDERA	Exportaciones	99	40	0,38%
		Importaciones	59		0,22%
1999-2012	HUGO CHÁVEZ	Exportaciones	132	-277	0,08%
		Importaciones	409		0,25%
2013	NICOLÁS MADURO	Exportaciones	13	-19	0,07%
		Importaciones	32		0,17%

ELABORACIÓN. OMAÑA (2015)

Fuentes: INE (2015)  
BCV (2015)  
UNITED NATIONS (2015). Trade Conference and Development  
UNITED STATES CENSUS BUREAU (2015). Foreign Trade  
Trade Map (2015). Trade indicators

La tabla 5 muestra que siendo Estados Unidos el primer socio comercial de Venezuela en importaciones, durante el gobierno de Chávez y Maduro las exportaciones han caído de su promedio habitual de 47% a 6%. Esta disminución en las exportaciones está asociada al cierre sistemático de empresas privadas o la nacionalización de estas evidenciando la baja productividad y competitividad de la nueva empresa pública-social. Colombia también se ha favorecido de esta situación a incrementar su participación en las importaciones venezolanas creciendo el flujo de comercio, en menor cuantía, con las exportaciones.

Solo durante el año 2006, las importaciones provenientes de Colombia cayeron de 6 billones de dólares a 3 billones de dólares como consecuencia de la firma del tratado de libre comercio con Estados



Unidos, razón que llevo a Chávez a iniciar el retiro de Venezuela de la CAN.

Con respecto a China, previo a la presidencia de Chávez las relaciones comerciales eran inexistentes, activándose a partir de 1999 pasando a ser, durante este gobierno el segundo socio comercial en importaciones, tendencia que se mantiene con Maduro. Con relación a Cuba, el flujo comercial se inicia en el año 2000 presentando balanza negativa de 1 billón dólares hasta la actualidad. Con respecto al ALADI y la CAN, los periodos previos a Hugo Chávez mantenían una balanza positiva, privilegiándose las importaciones a partir de 1999 por las múltiples razones de orden empresarial y político que llevaron a la disminución de las exportaciones y al incremento de las importaciones. Es destacable que, a pesar que Hugo Chávez retira a Venezuela de la CAN en 2006, el INE continúa registrando flujos comerciales a través del organismo hasta la actualidad.

**Tabla 5.** Comercio de Venezuela con socios comerciales por periodo presidencial

Años	Presidentes	Colombia			Estados Unidos			China			CUBA			ALADI			Pacto Andino		
		B US\$	%	BAL	B US\$	%	BAL	B US\$	%	BAL	B US\$	%	BAL	B US\$	%	BAL	B US\$	%	BAL
1980-1998	Exportaciones	10	4,42%		111	47,94%		0,14	0,06%		0,02	0,01%		25	10,70%		14	5,90%	
	Importaciones	6	3,79%	5	66	43,83%	45	0,81	0,54%	-1	0,002	0,00%	0	21	13,87%	4	7	4,78%	6
1999-2012	Exportaciones	11	8,00%		20	15,38%		10	7,50%		1	0,55%		11	8,16%		15	11,08%	
	Importaciones	34	8,38%	-24	28	6,78%	-7	91	22,19%	-81	2	0,42%	-1	69	16,96%	-59	49	11,86%	-34
2013-2014	Exportaciones	1	2,22%		1	6,05%		0,48	1,94%		0	0,05%		1	2,91%		1	2,42%	
	Importaciones	4	6,13%	-3	19	30,05%	-17	4	6,13%	-3	1	1,07%	-1	18	29,67%	-18	7	10,92%	-6

ELABORACIÓN: OMIÑA (2015)

Fuentes: INE (2005) Base de datos socioeconómicos

BCV (2015) Indicadores económicos

UNITED STATES CENSUS BUREAU (2015). Foreign Trade

Trade Map (2015). Trade Indicators

## **Comercio de Venezuela. Sector Petrolero y No Petrolero.**

Siendo reconocido el petróleo como el rubro de exportación venezolano de mayor importancia, el estudio plantea la comparación de los periodos presidenciales antes, durante y después de Hugo Chávez, considerando el total de exportaciones petroleras y no petroleras por periodos y el promedio de estas:

Considerando los periodos previos a Chávez y su gestión, las exportaciones se incrementaron en 255,80% mientras que para este mismo periodo y la presidencia de Maduro ascendió a 470,25%. Este incremento corresponde al monto de exportaciones en billones de dólares, pero no se corresponde con un incremento en la producción o el volumen de barriles negociados.

La dependencia del petróleo en las exportaciones tuvo un incremento de 18,84% comparando periodos previos a Chávez y de 34,88% considerando su periodo y el de Nicolás Maduro.

Las tablas 6 y 7 registran los datos relacionados con las exportaciones totales expresadas en billones de dólares y clasificadas en periodos presidenciales previos a Hugo Chávez, durante su gestión y en la reciente presidencia de Nicolás Maduro Moros, además de su vinculación con el sector petrolero y no petrolero.

**Tabla 6.** Total de exportaciones: petroleras y no petroleras.

**TOTAL EXPORTACIONES POR RUBRO.**

Años	Presidentes		M US\$	%	TOTAL POR PERIODO
1984-1998	Jaime Lusinchi, Carlos Andres Pérez y Rafael Caldera	Petrolero	182.453,00	72,21%	252.668,00
		No Petrolero	53.899,00	21,33%	
1999-2012	HRCF	Petrolero	714.605,00	91,05%	784.810,00
		No Petrolero	70.205,00	8,95%	
2013-2014	NMM	Petrolero	175.036,00	97,40%	179.709,00
		No Petrolero	4.673,00	2,60%	

ELABORACIÓN. OMAÑA (2015)

Fuentes: INE (2015)  
BCV (2015)  
BCV (2015)  
OPEC (2015)

**Tabla 7.** Promedio de exportaciones: petroleras y no petroleras.

**EXPORTACIONES POR RUBRO. PROMEDIO ANUAL**

Años	Presidentes		M US\$ x AÑO	%	PROMEDIO POR PERIODO
1984-1999	Jaime Lusinchi, Carlos Andres Pérez y Rafael Caldera	Petrolero	12.163,53	77,20%	15.756,80
		No Petrolero	3.593,27	22,80%	
1999-2013	HRCF	Petrolero	51.043,21	91,05%	56.057,86
		No Petrolero	5.014,64	8,95%	
2013-2015	NMM	Petrolero	87.518,00	97,40%	89.854,50
		No Petrolero	2.336,50	2,60%	

ELABORACIÓN. OMAÑA (2015)

Fuentes: INE (2015)  
BCV (2015)  
BCV (2015)  
OPEC (2015)

## Venezuela y la CAN

El ingreso a la CAN, Pacto Andino hasta 1996, se da en 1974 durante la primera presidencia de Rafael Caldera, siendo miembro en pleno en 1996 y retirándose en 2006 por discrepar de la intención de firma del Tratado de Libre Comercio (TLC) de dos Estados miembros: Colombia y Perú.

El Pacto Andino surge en 1966 como alternativa frente a la Asociación Latinoamericana de Comercio (ALALC). Se conforma, inicialmente, por Colombia, Chile, Ecuador, Bolivia y Perú, siendo su propósito impulsar el progreso de los países de menor desarrollo económico apoyado sobre un mercado regional que permita mejorar la calidad de vida de sus habitantes, el desarrollo integral equilibrado y autónomo, minimizando los obstáculos para el comercio y facilitando la circulación fronteriza de bienes y servicios (Corpoandes, 1982) (Comunidad Andina, 2015).

La vinculación de Venezuela no se consolidó hasta 1974 durante el Consenso de Lima, siendo miembro pleno hasta las prácticas que en 1999, durante el gobierno de Chávez crearon fisura en las relaciones. El cierre de fronteras y la prohibición de circulación de transporte pesado colombiano en territorio venezolano fueron algunas de las causas que contribuyeron al enrarecimiento de las relaciones. Este hecho comprometió la continuidad de Venezuela en la CAN, iniciándose en abril de 2006 el proceso de desincorporación (Colina, 2004).

El gobierno de Chávez argumenta la salida de la CAN con la introducción de la denuncia, alegando que las recientes negociaciones y firma de TLC por parte de Colombia y Perú con los Estados Unidos de Norteamérica, han conformado un cuerpo legal que pretende asimilar la normativa de los TLC a la CAN, cambiando de facto su naturaleza y principios originales reiterando que “los TLC privilegian los intereses particulares

sobre los intereses de los pueblos” además de “propulsar una injusta de la distribución de la riqueza” teniendo la misma concepción neoliberal que el Área de Libre Comercio de las Américas (ALCA).

La salida de la CAN constituye la desincorporación del proceso de integración de mayor éxito emprendido por los gobiernos de Venezuela que durante tres décadas facilitaron los programas de convergencia y articulación de procesos de integración del continente (Sainz, 2007).

## **Venezuela y Mercosur**

En un proceso caracterizado por los temas políticos, Venezuela ingresa en 2006 con la polémica de la suspensión del Paraguay por problemas internos que llevaron a la destitución del presidente Fernando Lugo (Arellano, 2013). Este mercado común, con propósitos comerciales, ofrece una apertura para las exportaciones venezolanas, caracterizada por la baja capacidad de producir y por su salida de la CAN y el G3 (Arellano, 2013).

La participación de Venezuela en Mercosur se ve comprometida por medidas económicas a lo interno dentro de las cuales se destacan: el control de cambio, la asignación irregular de divisas a las empresas, la centralización de los flujos comerciales por parte del gobierno, los controles de producción y distribución de productos de primera necesidad, la inseguridad jurídica, la legislación laboral proteccionista, los convenios petroleros con mecanismos favorables de abastecimiento, intercambio y pago. Estos factores no solo comprometen la participación de Venezuela en Mercosur, sino que afectan la perdurabilidad de los acuerdos y de las empresas.

Otras limitaciones que se destacan en la participación de Venezuela en Mercosur son las brechas en competitividad y productividad resultante de la intervención, expropiación y nacionalización de empresas

privadas, además de la rigidez de las normas de origen en la zona de libre comercio (Arellano, 2013)

## **Convenios Petroleros.**

El potencial de la industria petrolera venezolana y las reservas probadas por 297 billones de barriles han sido considerados factores de importancia para otros países quienes buscan participar en modelos de negocios e intercambios energéticos (Petróleos de Venezuela, S.A. 2015).

Durante la primera presidencia de Carlos Andrés Pérez (1976) se firma un convenio con la Unión Soviética para el suministro de crudo a Cuba, compensado con la entrega de volúmenes similares a clientes de PDVSA en Europa. En 1980 con Luis Herrera Campins como presidente se firma un convenio con México para la ampliación del abastecimiento de crudo a los países de América Central y el Caribe, ratificado por el Ministro de Energía y Minas, Humberto Calderón Berti.

Entre 1989 y 1994 se firman convenios que favorezcan el aumento de la producción de petróleo y gas con financiamiento de empresas transnacionales lo cual permite a Venezuela ingresar al mercado internacional de refinación u distribución de productos refinados además de la promoción internacional de la Orimulsión como cuota fuera del convenio de la OPEP. Estos convenios permitieron a PDVSA la compra de refinerías en Estados Unidos, Rusia y México, permitiendo ampliar su capacidad de procesamiento de crudo y permitiendo el acceso a nuevos mercados.

Los convenios nombrados hasta ahora, además de la apertura petrolera del año 1997 permitieron al país un crecimiento sin precedentes en su capacidad operativa apoyado en convenios de riesgo y producción compartidas, además de la exploración y producción de áreas

convencionales mediante Convenios Operacionales y Asociaciones Estratégicas en la Faja Petrolífera del Orinoco donde se localizan cerca de 100 billones de barriles en reservas.

En 1998 con la elección de Hugo Chávez como presidente de Venezuela se inicia la firma de acuerdos de cooperación internacional con el intercambio de crudo por productos y servicios permitiendo a países del Caribe, América Central y América del Sur recibir petróleo en términos financieros favorables.

Algunos de estos acuerdos y sus términos de intercambio se describen brevemente a continuación:

- **Convenio con Cuba:** Se inicia en el año 2000 con el envío de 96.300 barriles por día siendo su contraprestación los servicios médicos y la asesoría en el sector público, minería, electricidad y deporte. Además de la modernización de la Refinería de Cienfuegos en la Isla, Venezuela adeuda a Cuba la asesoría a institutos oficiales y programas sociales conocidos como Misiones.
- **Petrocaribe:** Creado en 2005 como alternativa para la adquisición de crudo por parte de las naciones de Centroamérica y el Caribe con términos de periodos de gracia de dos años y financiamiento a largo plazo con intereses de 1% anual. En 2008 y 2012 ante el incumplimiento de los compromisos, Nicaragua y Haití recibieron una condonación de la deuda recibiendo como parte de pago de la deuda restante diversos productos y servicios. En 2011 los países miembros recibieron en promedio 95.000 barriles por día a cambio de bienes de intercambio por 493 millones de dólares.
- **Acuerdo Energético de Caracas:** firmado en 2000 y activado en 2010, consiste en el envío de crudo a Uruguay, Paraguay y Bolivia, además de 32.000 barriles por día a Centroamérica y el Caribe bajo flexibles condiciones de financiamiento, a cambio de diversos bienes y servicios producidos en los países beneficiarios tales como ganado,



alimentos y servicios tecnológicos.

- **Fondo Chino:** En 2007 el Banco de Desarrollo Chino y Bandes de Venezuela acuerdan la creación de un fondo rotatorio para financiar obras de infraestructura vial aportando China 4.000 millones de dólares y Venezuela 2.000 millones de dólares, debiendo cancelar el gobierno local a su contraparte con el suministro de crudo y fuel oil. En 2010, además de llevar este fondo a 16.000 millones de dólares, el gobierno venezolano acuerda una línea de crédito por 20.000 millones de dólares pagaderos en crudo. En 2014 Venezuela habría despachado a China el equivalente en crudo a 41.554 millones de dólares, sin contar con términos de intercambio no oficiales donde el petróleo vendido a futuro debería ser ajustado al precio actual y suministrar su diferencia. PDVSA despacha a China cerca de 600.000 barriles diarios de crudo de los cuales el 50% son parte del pago de los fondos y los financiamientos.
- **Convenios con Argentina:** Con el propósito de aliviar la crisis económica de principios de los dos mil, se suministran 25.000 barriles diarios de diésel dirigido a la operación del sistema eléctrico recibiendo a cambio alimentos.
- **Convenios con Ecuador:** En 2007 ambos gobiernos acordaron el intercambio de crudo ecuatoriano por derivados venezolanos recibiendo 60.000 barriles por día. Adicionalmente Venezuela paga con crudo al Ecuador la asesoría en tecnología de Pesca y Educación.
- **Convenio con Bielorusia:** En una cuota de 80.000 barriles por día, Venezuela firma el convenio en 2010 para el intercambio por tecnología para la extracción de crudo además de la venta conjunta de sus refinados a Europa. Bielorusia aporta adicionalmente la asesoría tecnológica para la conversión del transporte público a gas y la instalación de plantas de producción de materiales para construcción.
- **Convenio con Vietnam:** En 2015 se firma el acuerdo en materia petrolera, agrícola y energética. Con el propósito de aumentar la producción de crudo en la Faja Petrolífera del Orinoco, el gobierno

venezolano acuerda la creación de empresas mixtas para ensamblar plantas de asfalto, material textil y un centro de ingeniería además de la instalación de estructuras fotovoltaicas en comunidades indígenas y calentadores solares para la Gran Misión Vivienda Venezuela. Creación de la empresa mixta Vietven Iluminaciones para la fabricación de bombillos ahorradores de energía.

- **Convenio con Irán:** Intercambio en tecnologías para la exploración y producción de gas y petróleo.

Otras alianzas en proceso de consolidación:

- Argelia: cuatro memorandos de entendimiento en el sector petrolero.
- Bielorusia: cuatro acuerdos dentro de los cuales está la producción y almacenamiento de hidrógeno a partir de hidrocarburos.
- Bolivia: seis pactos que incluyen el apoyo técnico, exploración y explotación de hidrocarburos.
- Chile: memorando de entendimiento en materia energética.
- Colombia: diez mecanismos de integración energética incluyendo la interconexión gasífera entre los dos países.
- Ecuador: catorce convenios dentro de los cuales está la construcción de una refinería en el Pacífico.
- India: cuatro proyectos de participación en la Faja Petrolífera del Orinoco.
- Uruguay: seis convenios para la consolidación del sector eléctrico y la elaboración de un estudio para producir energía con el uso del coque.

Durante los periodos previos a la presidencia de Hugo Chávez la industria petrolera consideraba como prioridad en sus convenios la consolidación de la tecnología para la exploración, explotación y producción de crudo a nivel internacional llegando a ser PDVSA considerada como una empresa de calidad mundial. Durante la gestión de Chávez y posterior a esta los convenios han concentrado su atención

en la cooperación a los países con necesidades de desarrollo llegando a promover el intercambio de productos y servicios de menor valía que el crudo, además de la venta a futuro del petróleo lo cual compromete la perdurabilidad de PDVSA y de la economía nacional por ser un país mono productor evidenciable en el cuadro 3 y 4 relacionados con el porcentaje de exportaciones petroleras y no petroleras.

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# **El Entorno de los Negocios en Iberoamérica**

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