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ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING AND QUALITY CULTURE IN KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT AND COMPETITIVENESS OF TOURISM BUSINESS ENTERPRISES IN KENYA

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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents background information, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research objectives and hypotheses, justification and significance of the study, scope and concludes by highlighting delimitations and limitations of the study.

1.1 Background to the Study

In today's fast-paced and highly competitive business world, enterprises across various industries, including the tourism sector, are actively seeking innovative approaches to maintain their competitiveness (Bouncken & Kraus, 2013; Sigala, 2015). The adoption of effective operations management practices has become a common strategy among tourism businesses to enhance efficiency and competitiveness (Maingi, 2007). Management science focuses on establishing "laws of behavior" that increase productivity and competitiveness, highlighting the critical role of managers in creating and managing knowledge and learning within the organisation to drive smart actions and enhance business competitiveness (Bremser & Bremser, 2011; Liao, Fei & Liu, 2019). In the current economy, the significance of financial capital and machinery as principal features of production has diminished, with knowledge and its management gaining increasing importance in driving competitiveness (Kianto, Sáenz & Aramburu, 2018). Organizations that intentionally foster dynamic processes to nurture, leverage, and motivate their employees have shown improved learning ability and, consequently, enhanced competitiveness (Makina & Brouder, 2019; Chen & Huang, 2021). This is particularly relevant in the highly competitive and rapidly evolving tourism industry, where possessing product knowledge and providing quality products and services are pivotal for long-term success (Kim, Kim & Han, 2012). Establishing and maintaining a "quality culture" is thus crucial to ensuring a continuous flow of quality offerings in the tourism sector, driving competitiveness among tourism businesses (Kapiki, 2012).

In line with Kenya's economic development plan, Vision 2030, which identifies tourism as a key pillar, tourism enterprises in the country need to focus on effective knowledge management strategies (Kenya Vision 2030, 2008; UNWTO, 2021). Additionally, project-based business strategies have gained acceptance among organizations, necessitating a commitment to effective knowledge management within this framework to establish and sustain competitive advantage (Prencipe & Tell, 2001; Bouncken & Fredrich, 2016). In the least, existing research has consistently highlighted the importance of knowledge management, organizational learning, and quality culture in improving business efficiency, performance, and competitiveness (Subrata & Anindya, 2009; Minjoon et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2012). Thus, it is essential for tourism businesses in Kenya and Africa to prioritize strategies that enhance knowledge management, organizational learning, and quality culture to remain competitive in the global market (Mosoti & Mesheka, 2010; Ogare & Othieno, 2010; Cheruiyot, Jagongo &

Owino, 2012). By doing so, these businesses can effectively navigate the challenges of the marketplace, meet the demands of customers, and achieve long-term success in the tourism industry.

1.1.1 Knowledge Management and Tourism Business Enterprises Competitiveness

In today's highly competitive business landscape, knowledge has emerged as a universally recognized critical asset, leading to an increased interest in knowledge management across companies (Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Foss & Pedersen, 2002; Grant, 1996; Spender & Grant, 1996). The recognition of knowledge as a valuable organizational resource that offers sustainable competitive advantage is particularly relevant in the context of a dynamic and fiercely competitive economy. The concept of knowledge management, rooted in management science, has proven successful in commercial organizations and is now gaining traction in development establishments, including multilateral and bilateral agencies (Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Gupta & Sushil, 2004). However, it is important to note that many knowledge management initiatives in companies primarily adopt a technical perspective, which overlooks the potential benefits derived from comprehensive knowledge management (Gupta & Sushil, 2004). This limited focus raises questions regarding the value and effectiveness of knowledge management initiatives. Managers increasingly recognize the need to measure the value and evaluate the performance of knowledge management systems (Gupta & Sushil, 2004). As knowledge management continues to play an instrumental role in upgrading business competition, the interest of managers in measuring and evaluating both the performance and benefits of knowledge management initiatives is not surprising. Consequently, a crucial research issue arises: How do firms that have initiated knowledge management develop appropriate metrics to gauge the effectiveness of their initiatives? The establishment of metrics to justify knowledge management initiatives is crucial in this regard (Gupta & Sushil, 2004).

Recent research has highlighted the significance of knowledge management in enhancing organizational competitiveness in the tourism industry. For example, a study by Li and Zhang (2017) found that effective knowledge management practices positively influence the competitiveness of tourism businesses. Another study by Chen et al. (2019) emphasized the role of knowledge management in improving the performance and innovation capabilities of tourism enterprises. In addition to focusing on staffing and training systems, businesses must prioritize the transfer of expertise and knowledge from experienced experts to novices within organizations (Brown & Duguid, 1991; Hinds, Patterson, & Pfeffer, 2001). This emphasizes the importance of leveraging existing knowledge-based resources within the enterprise to improve performance and sustain competitive advantage (Damodaran & Olphert, 2000; Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Spender & Grant, 1996). Recent studies have further supported this perspective. For instance, a study by Zhang et al. (2020) highlighted the significance of knowledge sharing and transfer within tourism organizations to enhance competitiveness and innovation.

In the context of the rapidly changing business environment, characterized by globalization and intense competition, businesses must efficiently exploit their knowledge assets to gain a competitive edge (PWC, 2023). It is no longer sufficient to focus solely on accessing internal and external information resources. Instead, businesses need to effectively utilize their knowledge to drive strategic decision-making and improve competitiveness (PWC, 2023). Recent studies have underscored the importance of knowledge management in achieving this objective. For example, a study by Zhang and Huang (2021) emphasized the role of knowledge management in promoting the competitiveness and sustainability of tourism businesses in the digital era. Moreover, the COVID-19 pandemic has further highlighted the importance of knowledge management in the tourism industry. A study by Sánchez et al. (2020) emphasized the role of knowledge management in facilitating the adaptation and resilience of tourism businesses in the face of crisis situations. The pandemic has necessitated the rapid acquisition, sharing, and application of knowledge to address new challenges, implement safety protocols, and develop innovative solutions. Organizations that effectively leverage their knowledge management practices have been better equipped to navigate the turbulent landscape and identify new opportunities for growth and recovery (Sánchez et al., 2020; Zhang & Huang, 2021).

In conclusion, knowledge management plays a crucial role in enhancing the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises. It involves measuring and evaluating the performance of knowledge management initiatives, leveraging existing knowledge resources, and effectively transferring knowledge within organizations. Recent research supports the view that effective knowledge management practices positively influence the competitiveness, performance, and innovation capabilities of tourism businesses. Furthermore, in the face of the COVID-19 pandemic, knowledge management has become even more vital for businesses to adapt, recover, and seize new opportunities. By embracing knowledge management strategies, tourism enterprises can position themselves for long-term success in an ever-changing and highly competitive industry.

1.1.2 Organisational learning and Tourism Business Enterprise Competitiveness

Arguably, on the same front, organizational learning (OL) plays a crucial role in creating, retaining, and transferring information within an organization (Levitt & March, 1996). It serves as a bridge between decision-making and action implementation. To effectively leverage organizational learning, it is essential to cultivate an ideal learning environment (Levitt & March, 1996). Knowledge management (KM) efforts in organizations focus on objectives such as improved performance, competitive advantage, sharing lessons learned, integration, and continuous improvement (Gupta & Sushil, 2004). KM acts as an enabler of organizational learning, enhancing its effectiveness (Gupta & Sushil, 2004). In the modern business landscape, customer expectations are constantly rising, and quality becomes a key differentiator for successful companies (Silva, n.d). Organizations that prioritize quality, value, and culture are more likely to delight customers, leading to sustained competitiveness (Silva, n.d). In the era

of globalization and knowledge-driven economies, competitive advantage is derived from firm-specific resources and capabilities that possess value, rarity, inimitability, and non-substitutability (Barney, 1991). Organizational learning, knowledge management, and innovation are considered intangible resources that contribute to achieving competitive advantage. However, there is limited empirical research exploring the relationships between these resources, particularly in developing countries.

Organizational learning is no longer a mere option but a necessity for successful competition in any industry or sector (Singh & Kant, 2008). Various studies have demonstrated the positive impact of learning on performance in different sectors, including the public sector (Ferguson et al., 2013), non-governmental organizations (Corfield et al., 2013), banking industry (Oluikpe, 2012), small- to medium-sized enterprises (Durst & Edvardsson, 2012), manufacturing organizations (Birasnav & Rangnekar, 2010), human service and professional service firms (Palte et al., 2011), and the life insurance business (Huang et al., 2011). These studies provide compelling evidence that learning is a crucial determinant of organizational success, leading to superior performance and competitive advantage. Despite the consensus on the relationship between organizational learning and competitive advantage, adoption of learning practices remains low. This can be attributed, in part, to past research inadequacies that have not provided managers with concrete prescriptions for becoming a learning organization. Additionally, previous studies have primarily focused on chief executives, neglecting departmental managers and non-managerial staff. However, a study conducted in Uganda revealed a positive relationship between organizational learning, competitive advantage, and the interactive influence of knowledge management and innovation (Kamya, Ntayi & Ahiauzu, 2011).

Recent research has highlighted the importance of organizational learning and its impact on competitive advantage. For example, Li and Zhang (2017) found a significant relationship between knowledge management and competitive advantage in Chinese tourism enterprises. Chen et al. (2019) demonstrated that knowledge management positively influences organizational performance and innovation capability in Chinese tourism enterprises. Moreover, Zhang et al. (2020) emphasized the role of knowledge sharing and transfer in enhancing competitiveness and innovation in tourism enterprises. Additionally, Sánchez et al. (2020) highlighted the importance of knowledge management in tourism SMEs, particularly during the COVID-19 crisis. These recent studies further underscore the significance of organizational learning and its relationship with competitive advantage in the context of the tourism industry. Therefore, this study aims to contribute to the existing literature by empirically investigating the significant relationship between organizational learning and competitive advantage, considering the interrelated influences of knowledge management and quality culture in Kenya, a developing country in Sub-Saharan Africa.

1.1.3 Quality Culture and Tourism Business Enterprise Competitiveness

The current era of global competition and economic liberalization, quality has become a crucial factor for gaining a competitive advantage (Obeidat et al., 2020). The tourism industry, being part of the service sector, is a fiercely competitive industry worldwide. Destinations and tourism businesses are under pressure to remain competitive and adopt strategies to gain an advantage in the world tourism market (Buhalis and Foerste, 2015). In this context, the issue of quality has become increasingly significant for tourism enterprises and businesses (Santana et al., 2018). Research has shown that quality is the outcome of cultural factors such as organizational values and practices, where leadership and employee working patterns are of paramount importance (Liu et al., 2018). Therefore, the development of a total quality culture is a strategic issue for the achievement of stakeholder satisfaction and business competitiveness in a highly demanding and uncertain business environment (García-Sánchez and Pérez-Mesa, 2013). Moreover, the ever-increasing demand for quality products and services in the tourism industry has forced organizations to invest substantial resources in quality to enhance competitive advantage. A strategic use of tangible and intangible resources such as quality, culture, knowledge management, and organizational learning is necessary to create a competitive advantage in tourism business enterprises (Kim et al., 2019). Consequently, this study proposes that quality is the total of features and characteristics of a product or service that bears on its ability to satisfy stated or implied needs (Woods, 1996). Culture is the shared beliefs, values, attitudes, institutions, and behavior patterns that control or characterize the members of a community or organization (Denison and Mishra, 1995). Therefore, the notion of quality culture in this study is the understanding of shared values, beliefs, expectations, and commitments toward quality that are supported by structural and managerial elements and processes that enhance quality and a growing, profitable competitive company (Rapp, 2011).

Studies have shown that a culture of quality, organizational learning, and knowledge management can support service firms to encourage a competitive and comparative advantage (Alavi and Leidner, 2001; Kurnia et al., 2019). However, there is a paucity of research that has analyzed the usage of organizational learning, knowledge management, and quality culture on competitiveness linked to tourism business enterprises in Kenya (Ogutu, 2022). Therefore, the present study aims to fill the knowledge gap identified above by examining the relationship between knowledge management, organizational learning, quality culture, and competitiveness in tourism business enterprises in Kenya. The study seeks to generate knowledge that can be used as a reference point for future researchers, policymakers, and practitioners to solve issues related to knowledge management, organizational learning, quality culture, and tourism business enterprise competitiveness. The results of the study will contribute to the existing literature by empirically examining the relationship between knowledge management, organizational learning, quality culture, and competitiveness in tourism business enterprises. The study will shed light on the relationship between organizational learning, knowledge

management, quality culture, and competitiveness in the tourism industry, particularly in the Kenyan context.

In supposition, quality culture is essential for tourism business enterprises to remain competitive in the global tourism market. By investing in quality, culture, knowledge management, and organizational learning, tourism businesses can gain a competitive advantage. Therefore, policymakers and practitioners should pay close attention to the relationship between knowledge management, organizational learning, quality culture, and competitiveness in tourism business enterprises to ensure their sustainability and growth in the future. This study is driven by the pressing need to address a significant knowledge gap that exists in the field. The aim is to delve into the following critical question: Can organizational learning and knowledge management foster a sense of enthusiasm and motivation within an organization, thereby nurturing a culture of quality and extending it to other functions to enhance competitiveness? By exploring this question, the study intends to generate valuable insights that can serve as a reference point for future researchers, policy makers, and practitioners in tackling the complex challenges related to Knowledge Management, Organizational Learning, Quality Culture, and the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises. The findings of this study hold immense potential in shaping the future of the industry. They can provide a roadmap for addressing the key issues surrounding knowledge management, organizational learning, quality culture, and competitiveness. As a result, they will contribute to the advancement of theory and practice in fields such as tourism, providing guidance for decision-makers, researchers, and industry professionals seeking effective strategies to promote excellence and drive success in tourism business enterprises. By shedding light on the intricate relationship between organizational learning, knowledge management, quality culture, and competitiveness, this study will pave the way for a more comprehensive understanding of the dynamics at play within the tourism industry. It will empower stakeholders to make informed decisions, develop targeted policies, and implement transformative practices that foster a culture of quality and enhance the competitiveness of tourism businesses.

1.1.4 Advancement of Theoretical, Practical, and Policy Perspectives

This study is significant for advancing theoretical, practical, and policy perspectives on tourism business enterprise competitiveness, particularly in the Kenyan context, while aligning with global sustainability agendas. It empirically examines the interrelationships between knowledge management (KM), organizational learning (OL), and quality culture (QC) as drivers of competitiveness, thus contributing to tourism performance and long-term sustainability (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Senge, 2006; Juran, 1998). The findings will provide actionable recommendations for tourism business managers, enabling more efficient resource allocation and improved operational performance (Porter, 1990; Barney, 1991), which is essential for fostering innovation and service excellence. Importantly, the study supports global sustainability efforts, particularly Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 8 on Decent Work and Economic Growth, by promoting tourism enterprises' competitiveness and productivity,

thereby strengthening their contribution to inclusive and sustainable economic development (UNWTO, 2020; OECD, 2021; UN, 2023). Furthermore, the research can inform policy frameworks on knowledge-sharing, quality assurance, and capacity-building within the Kenyan tourism sector, offering valuable implications for regional planning and competitiveness enhancement strategies.

Nonetheless, this research establishes a robust empirical foundation that future studies can build upon by expanding to other regions, sectors, and longitudinal analyses to capture evolving dynamics. By integrating KM, OL, and QC into a single analytical framework and situating the findings within the sustainable tourism discourse, the study contributes to strengthening Kenya's tourism sector resilience and competitiveness, aligning with SDG 12 on Responsible Consumption and Production and SDG 17 on Partnerships for the Goals (Gomezelj & Mihalič, 2008; Buhalis & Amaranggana, 2015). This dual focus on competitiveness and sustainability ensures that the research not only advances academic debates but also provides practical tools for policymakers and industry stakeholders to foster a more innovative, inclusive, and sustainable tourism economy.

In summary, this study takes on the vital task of bridging the knowledge gap by exploring the potential of organizational learning and knowledge management in cultivating a vibrant quality culture and extending it across various functions to fuel competitiveness. Its outcomes will serve as a crucial reference for future endeavors in the field of Knowledge Management, Organizational Learning, Quality Culture, and the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The competitiveness of tourism business enterprises (TBEs) is increasingly contingent upon their ability to strategically harness knowledge as a critical resource. In the face of intensifying globalization, rapid digital transformation, and evolving consumer demands, effective knowledge management (KM) has become indispensable for sustaining competitive advantage (Jeyaraj, Rottman, & Lacity, 2021; Inkinen, 2016). However, knowledge in isolation is not inherently valuable. Its potential is only realized when it is systematically acquired, shared, internalized, and converted into actionable insights, a process fundamentally enabled by organizational learning (OL) (Alavi & Leidner, 2001; Argyris & Schön, 1978; Senge, 1990). In the absence of structured learning mechanisms, knowledge within organizations risks becoming fragmented, underutilized, or lost due to high staff turnover commonly witnessed in the tourism industry, ineffective knowledge-sharing practices, and the inability to institutionalize best practices (Muli, 2017; The Standard Newspaper Kenya, 2017; Obura, 2017). This is especially critical in the tourism sector, where many enterprises lack robust OL systems to transform knowledge into performance-enhancing routines Kenya for instance (Ambula, 2015; Ndegwa, 2015). The challenge, therefore, is not merely the availability of knowledge, but the organizational capacity to learn from it in ways that improve adaptability,

service delivery, and long-term competitiveness (Garvin, Edmondson & Gino, 2008; Kim, Park & Kim, 2019).

Moreover, despite the theoretical and empirical recognition of the link between KM and competitiveness (Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Grant, 1996; Li & Zhang, 2017), much of the research has focused on manufacturing and technology sectors, with limited emphasis on the service-intensive tourism global industry as well as in Kenya (Mosoti & Masheka, 2010; Cheruiyot, Jagongo & Owino, 2012). This oversight is significant given that tourism enterprises operate in highly dynamic, experience-based markets where knowledge agility and innovation are critical (Faulkner & Tideswell, 2021; Zhang, Li & Wang, 2018). Besides, OL plays a pivotal role in contextualizing and embedding knowledge into organizational culture and operations, thereby enhancing innovation capability and responsiveness to market changes (Levitt & March, 1996; Holmqvist, 2003). Compounding this gap is the underexplored role of quality culture (QC) an organizational commitment to excellence, customer focus, and continuous improvement, as a moderating variable in the KM–Competitiveness relationship (Islam, Ahsan & Hossain, 2020; Denison & Mishra, 1995). A strong QC not only facilitates the internalization of learning but also ensures that knowledge processes align with organizational standards and strategic objectives (Nguyen, Lee & Nguyen, 2021; Santana, Moreira & Leitão, 2018). However, in many tourism enterprises, particularly small and medium-sized ones, quality culture is either inadequately institutionalized or inconsistently applied, undermining the performance benefits of KM and OL (Munizu, 2019; Kapiki, 2012). This raises a critical question: can KM and OL efforts achieve optimal impact in the absence of a reinforcing quality-oriented culture in tourism business enterprises?

While existing literature acknowledges the independent roles of KM, OL, and QC in driving firm performance, empirical research that explores their integrated influence on TBE competitiveness in the Kenyan context remains scarce (Jiang & Wang, 2020; Njoroge & Maina, 2021; Ogutu, 2023). This study posits that OL is the critical process through which KM becomes actionable, and that QC moderates this relationship by enhancing or constraining its impact. Drawing on the knowledge-based view and resource-based view of the firm (Grant, 1996; Barney, 1991), this study argues that the triadic interaction between KM, OL, and QC is not coincidental but strategically consequential for firms striving to compete in a knowledge-intensive, service-driven industry. Therefore, this study sought to address this significant research gap by empirically examining the mediating role of organizational learning and the moderating role of quality culture in the relationship between knowledge management and the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises in Kenya. The findings were to provide theoretical insights and practical guidance for scholars, policymakers, and industry practitioners, helping them formulate evidence-based interventions to strengthen KM systems, foster learning cultures, and institutionalize quality frameworks. Ultimately, this research contends that, KM when mediated by OL and moderated by QC is not just an academic construct (Ogutu et al., 2023; Zhang & Huang, 2021; Birasnav & Rangnekar, 2010) but a

practical imperative for tourism enterprises seeking sustainable competitive advantage in an increasingly volatile global market.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the study is to investigate the mediating and moderating role of organisational learning and quality culture on the association between knowledge management and competitiveness of tourism business enterprises in Kenya.

1.3.1 Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives of the study were:

i. To analyze the intellectual, conceptual, and social structures in the academic literature on knowledge management (KM), organizational learning (OL), quality culture (QC), and the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises (TBE) using bibliometric methods.
ii. To investigate the influence of knowledge management on competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya.
iii. To establish the influence of organisational learning on competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya.
iv. To assess the influence of quality culture on competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya.
v. To examine the moderating effect of organisational learning in the relationship between knowledge management and competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya.
vi. To determine the mediating effect of quality culture in the relationship between knowledge management and competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya.
vii. To explore the joint effect of knowledge management, organisational learning and quality culture on competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya.

1.3.2 Study Hypotheses

This study will be guided by the following null and alternate hypotheses:

H_{o1}: Knowledge management does not have a significant influence on competitiveness of tourism business enterprise in Kenya.
H_{o2}: Organisational learning has no significant influence on competitiveness of tourism business enterprise in Kenya.
H_{o3}: Quality culture has no significant influence on competitiveness of tourism business enterprise in Kenya.
H_{o4}: Organisational learning has no moderating effect on the relationship between knowledge management and competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya.
H_{o5}: Quality culture has no mediating effect on the relationship between knowledge management and competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya.

H_{O6}: Knowledge management, organisational learning and quality culture have no significant joint effect on competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya.

1.4 Justifications and Significance of the Study

This research holds significant implications for practice, academic knowledge, policy, and planning within the tourism industry. It aims to thoroughly investigate the relationship between knowledge management (KM), organizational learning (OL), quality culture (QC), and their impact on enhancing competitiveness among tourism business enterprises in Kenya. By conducting an empirical study, this research will contribute to the existing body of knowledge in the field and provide a solid foundation for future academic research.

From a practical standpoint, the findings of this study can be utilized to identify effective strategies and approaches for improving the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises. By understanding the relationship between KM, OL, QC, and competitiveness, managers will gain valuable insights on how to allocate resources more efficiently and effectively, resulting in a competitive advantage for the tourism business enterprise. Furthermore, this study aims to bridge the theoretical knowledge gap by investigating the association between organizational learning, knowledge management, quality culture, and competitiveness. By posing the research question of whether knowledge management and organizational learning can enhance competitiveness through a culture of quality, this study will empirically explore the field and provide concrete evidence to support or refute this relationship.

Therefore, this research endeavours to make significant contributions to various aspects of the tourism industry, including practical applications, academic knowledge, policy development, and planning. It aims to uncover the relationship between KM, OL, QC, and competitiveness, providing valuable insights for industry professionals and researchers alike. By filling the theoretical knowledge gap, this study will shed light on the intricate dynamics within tourism business enterprises and help pave the way for improved competitiveness and success in the industry.

1.5 Study Assumptions

This study is based on several assumptions to ensure high-quality and reliable research results, including having a representative sample, honest and accurate responses, consistent conditions during data collection, availability and accessibility of participants, and functional equipment. Acknowledging and addressing these assumptions and potential limitations can uphold the commitment to rigorous methodology and ensure the validity of the findings.

1.6 Scope/Delimitation of Study

This study will be limited to the tourism business enterprises Class C01 and C04 i.e. tour and travel companies operating in Nairobi according to the Tourism Regulatory Authority a subsidiary of the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife, Kenya. The study focuses on Knowledge

management, organisational learning and quality culture factors influence on competitiveness of tourism business enterprises. Other limitations of the study anticipated include: time and resources.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

These are factors that will have an impact on the outcome of the study but which have not been taken into account. They set boundaries on the application or interpretation of the results. Some of the limitations may include: Ability of the study to draw descriptive and/or inferential conclusions from the sample about a larger group; Inability of study to obtain a random sample.

1.8 Operational Definition of Terms

This section provides clear definitions of key concepts used in the study. The terms are defined as follows:

1.8.1 ***Knowledge***: Refers to what employees know about customers, products, processes, etc. It can be tacit (informal) or explicit (recorded). *Tacit knowledge*: Knowledge held in people's minds, not easily codified or documented. *Explicit knowledge*: Knowledge that is recorded and accessible through databases, books, etc.

1.8.2 ***Knowledge Management***: The process of identifying, growing, and applying an organization's knowledge to achieve goals.

1.8.3 ***Organizational Learning***: The creation, retention, and transfer of knowledge within an organization.

1.8.4 ***Quality Culture***: Shared values guiding improvements in working practices and outputs.

1.8.5 ***Competitiveness***: The ability to offer products aexnd services that meet quality standards and are economically viable.

1.8.6 ***Tourism Business Enterprise***: Tourism business enterprises are specific types of business ventures permitted within the National Constitution, operating within the tourism industry. These enterprises follow similar operational principles but on a large scale. In Kenya, they include tour and travel operations for the purpose of this study.

These definitions clarify the concepts used in the study and ensure a common understanding of key terms.

1.8.7 ***Mediating Variable:*** In this study, the mediating/intervening variable explains how or why the independent variable influences a dependent variable. It acts as a link or bridge that carries the effect of one variable to another. I.e. OL mediates the relationship between KM and TBE Competitiveness by transforming knowledge into improved performance (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Hayes, 2018).

1.8.8 *Moderating Variable:* A moderating variable identifies the conditions under which the relationship between two variables becomes stronger, weaker, or changes direction. It acts as a condition or control knob that influences the strength of a relationship. In this study, Quality Culture (QC) moderates the link between KM and competitiveness by strengthening or weakening how effectively knowledge is applied within tourism enterprises (Hayes, 2018; DiMaggio & Powell, 1983).

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

The content of this chapter is based on an empirical review that highlights the major concepts of literature pertaining to knowledge management (KM), organisational learning (OL), and quality culture (QC) in relation to the competitiveness of tourism business enterprise (TBE), which are significant to the study. The theoretical basis of the literature reviewed will contribute to the development of a conceptual framework. Which illustrates the relationship between the independent, moderating, mediating and dependent variables to address subjects and relationships pertaining to the study. The main goal of this chapter is to provide previous information on the concept of knowledge management, organisational learning, and quality culture in relation to competitiveness of tourism business enterprises and to explore possible solutions to questions related to these issues.

2.1 THE CONCEPT OF KNOWLEDGE

In order to start a discussion on KM, it is necessary to first understand the main features as highlighted and distinguished in the literature on KM: concepts such as data, information and knowledge. Thus, information is seen as accumulated data in some place, while knowledge resides in human brains and involves the experience of the person and his or her personal beliefs which influence the judgment process of this person (Corbin, Dunbar and Zhu, 2007). In unison, these three concepts are interrelated and dependent on each other as illustrated in (Figure 2.1). As defined by Gunnlaugsdottir (2003) 'data' are facts without context; when it is further organised and analysed, data becomes 'information' and only when information is put into a logical and understandable context can it become 'knowledge'.

Figure 2.1: Data–Information–Knowledge Hierarchy
(Corbin, Dunbar, and Zhu, 2007)

However, authors such as Braganza (2004) claimed that the data–information–knowledge hierarchy has limited practical use as organisations often find it difficult to distinguish boundaries among data, information and knowledge. And thus, suggested using a top-down approach of knowledge–information–data. However, in this upside-down hierarchy the term knowledge implies explicit knowledge that can be formulated and transferred.

For the purpose of this study, following the hierarchy data–information–knowledge will be adopted: knowledge is defined as, information that is understood by a person so that it can

be utilized. For example, tourism business reports, tourism enterprise blueprints. If businesses understand the reports or blueprints and are able to comment on/and reference to them, then these businesses possess knowledge of the issue or subject matter. Blueprints or reports that are not understood by businesses are not very valuable in creating common understanding within an enterprise which can be a hindrance for the general success of the business enterprise.

2.1.1 Explicit and Tacit (Implicit) Knowledge

Knowledge mainly falls in two basic forms: these are explicit and tacit knowledge that are broadly discussed in the literature (Nonaka, Toyama and Konno, 2000; Anand, Ward and Tatikonda, 2009; Koskinen, 2000; Koskinen, Pihlanto and Vanharanta, 2003; Nonaka, 1991). Explicit knowledge is knowledge which can be expressed in words, numbers, or figures and can be stored in media such as text-books, manuals and so forth. While tacit knowledge denotes to people's unconscious beliefs, individual perception, values, viewpoints and intuitions. According to the various definitions given in literature, explicit knowledge seems to be more structured and logical. Equally, tacit knowledge refers to the knowledge, skills, and abilities an individual gains through experience that is often difficult to put into words or otherwise communicate. Tacit knowledge is sometimes known by a few alternate terms, such as: ... "Know-how" knowledge. Tacit knowledge should thus be treated with the same respect (Nonaka, 1991). Koskinen (2000) also highlighted that, in spite the fact that explicit knowledge can be managed more easily since it is possible to express it in a hard copy, it is still for better achievements in a business enterprise environment where strong emphasis should be made on tacit knowledge as well.

Nevertheless, since knowledge is not static and/or cannot be isolated by itself, however it can be transformed from one type to another. Nonaka, Toyama and Konno (2000) discussed the so-called SECI model of knowledge conversion, which describes four modes of such transformation (Figure 2.2). Where by **S** stands for: **S**ocialisation – from tacit-to-tacit conversion. Socialisation in the SECI model implies the existence of a significant role of joint activities when people spend time together and share the same environment. During the socialisation process, transferring tacit knowledge becomes possible through observing the actions of colleagues, imitating and practicing; **E** stands for **E**xternalisation – from tacit to explicit conversion. During the externalisation process tacit knowledge becomes articulated and therefore transfers into explicit knowledge. Widespread techniques for this articulation are metaphors, analogies, mind-maps, etc. An example of such externalisation process, according to Nonaka, Toyama and Konno (2000), can be considered to be a process of formulating ideas for improvement of a business process via understanding of shortages of a current process; **C** stands for **C**ombination – from explicit-to-explicit conversion. In practice, the combination process can be considered as a financial report. In such a report the new explicit knowledge is created through collection and processing of different information from multiple sources in one place. Combination allows it (the report) to make initial explicit knowledge more systematic through different types of communication such as meetings, virtual networks, paper documents, among others; **I**nternalisation – from explicit to tacit conversion. The internalisation process can be considered as 'learning by doing'. A person internalises obtained explicit knowledge and embodies it according to their own perception and individual understanding of a contextual singularity.

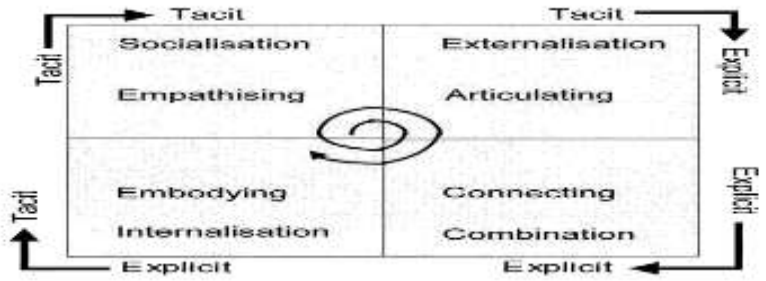

Figure: 2.2 *The SECI Process (Nonaka, Toyama, and Konno, 2000)*

Figure 2.2: The SECI Process

2.2 KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT

Knowledge management (KM) is the process of capturing, developing, sharing, and effectively using organizational knowledge. It refers to a multi-disciplinary approach to achieving organizational objectives by making the best use of knowledge (www.unc.edu). According to oxford dictionaries online (2018) Knowledge management can be defined as efficient handling of information and resources within a commercial organization. Furthermore, Alani and Leander (2001) defined knowledge management (KM), as the systematic process of acquiring, organising, and communicating the knowledge of organisational members so that others can make use of it to be more efficient and productive. Knowledge management efforts typically focus on organisational objectives such as improved performance, competitive advantage, innovation, the sharing of lessons learned, integration and continuous improvement of the organisation assert Gupta and Sushil, (2004).

KM is a discipline that is focused on systematic and innovative methods, practices and tools for managing the generation, acquisition, exchange, protection, distribution, utilization of knowledge, intellectual capital, and intangible assets (Montana, 2000). KM provides processes through which organizations create value from their intellectual and knowledge-based assets. This value involves capturing what employees, partners and customers know and sharing this knowledge among employees, departments and even with other companies in order to create best practices (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2007). In addition, the identification of critical knowledge, and the ability to exploit it, are particular challenges for project organisations (Kasvi et al., 2003). Because project teams are typically transient in nature, they lack a defined knowledge system and supporting culture to capture and retain knowledge as ‘‘corporate memory’’. As a result, critical knowledge assets can be easily lost once a project is completed and the team is disbanded. As Kotnour (2000) observed, this inevitably results in the destruction of organisational knowledge.

2.2.1 Knowledge Management Process

To better understand such processes as knowledge creation, knowledge storage, knowledge sharing and knowledge transfer, this study will use the concept of knowledge life cycle model developed by King, Chung and Haney (2008). The authors used the life cycle model as an entire process of knowledge conversion on the way to organisational performance. According to the model, a knowledge life cycle may start either from an inside-organisational

knowledge creation process or from knowledge acquisition process, which implies that organisation may also attain knowledge from outside sources. The full life cycle of knowledge conversion on the way to organisational performance, apart from knowledge creation, contains certain stages such as knowledge refinement; knowledge storage, knowledge sharing or transfer, and knowledge utilisation (see Figure 2.3). The life cycle model itself did not appear to be widely used in practice, but it provides the framework for better understanding the concepts of KM.

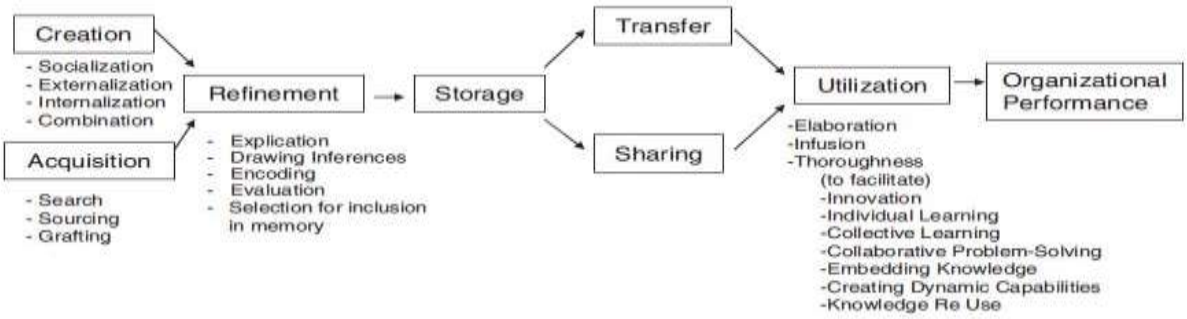

Figure 2.3: KM life cycle model

(King, Chung, and Haney, 2008, p. 168)

Knowledge management includes all necessary processes for all the parties in the project to possess all the needed knowledge at the right time. These processes refer to knowledge creation both at the individual level as well as the team level (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995), knowledge sharing (Liebowitz, 2005; Fong, 2005b), which may involve learning, and utilizing knowledge (see e.g. Fong, 2005b). These processes can be realized by organizing meetings, sharing some documents to different parties, etc. Also, different media, e.g., face-to-face meetings, e-mail, project databanks, and so on, can be used in knowledge management. Knowledge management is one of the most important activities that an organization has to adapt (Davidson & Voss, 2002). The following figure shows the knowledge management cycle.

Figure 2.4: Knowledge Management Cycle

(As cited in, McIntyre, Gauvin and Waruszynski, 2003)

As shown in the above figure 2.4, the knowledge management cycle has six steps. The six steps are discussed as follows: *Share and Learn*: The sharing of knowledge in order to facilitate learning is the first step in knowledge management life-cycle. *Sharing of knowledge* is one in which people exchange their views and ideas on a particular domain. *Create*: Knowledge is created by sharing of ideas by people working in an organization (Patriotta, 2004, p. 10). Better sharing leads to better ideas thereby creating a valuable knowledge repository. *Capture and Acquire*: Capture and acquisition of knowledge is one in which the knowledge created is collected in huge numbers and stored in a repository. *Organize*: Organizing is the next step to capturing of knowledge. The captured content is organized using a framework or knowledge model. The model reflects the elements of knowledge and flows that are embedded inherently in the specific processes and culture of organization. *Access, Search and Disseminate*: The organized knowledge is put in such a way that it could be accessed, searched and disseminated by the users working in the organization. Use and *Discover:* The last step is to make use of the knowledge acquired in solving problems in real time. From the aforementioned, sharing of knowledge is key in knowledge management. Since, sharing knowledge increases the innovation and improves the overall quality of work. Thus, proper knowledge management helps organizations in developing the skill set of employees and improving their overall efficiency at work.

2.2.1.1 Knowledge Creation & Innovation

Knowledge creation refers to the development of new insights, ideas, and innovations through individual and collective learning processes. It is a core component of knowledge management (KM) that allows organizations to generate novel solutions and enhance their competitive advantage (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). The knowledge creation process involves social interactions, experimentation, and problem-solving activities that facilitate the transformation of tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge (Choo, 1998). Nonaka's (1994). The SECI model: Socialization, Externalization, Combination, and Internalization, provides a structured framework for understanding how knowledge is created within organizations. Socialization involves the transfer of tacit knowledge through shared experiences, while externalization converts tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge using models, metaphors, or written documentation. Combination entails the organization and integration of explicit knowledge, and internalization occurs when explicit knowledge is internalized into individuals' tacit knowledge through learning and practice. Knowledge creation in tourism businesses is crucial for fostering innovation in service offerings, developing sustainable business models, and responding to dynamic market demands. By continuously generating and refining knowledge, tourism enterprises can enhance customer experiences, improve operational efficiencies, and maintain long-term competitiveness (Buhalis & Leung, 2018).

2.2.1.2 Knowledge Acquisition

Knowledge acquisition encompasses processes that enable organizations to identify, assimilate, and internalize valuable information from internal and external sources. Once acquired, knowledge must be effectively stored and retained to ensure its longevity and accessibility. Knowledge storage involves mechanisms that preserve knowledge in organizational systems, including employees' cognitive capacities, paper-based documents, electronic repositories, and structured knowledge bases (Newman & Conrad, 1999; Frappaola & Wilson, 2004, cited in Lahaie, 2005). However, knowledge retention is particularly challenging in sectors with high employee

turnover, such as tourism, where the loss of experienced personnel leads to corporate memory erosion (Lahaie, 2005). Given the seasonal nature of the tourism industry, businesses frequently experience knowledge attrition, which hampers their ability to maintain competitive advantage. To mitigate such losses, organizations must prioritize corporate memory retention through KM practices such as knowledge codification, formal documentation, and the transformation of tacit knowledge into explicit formats (Lahaie, 2005). While complete knowledge storage is unattainable due to the inherent tacit nature of human cognition, structured KM practices facilitate knowledge preservation and ensure organizational continuity. Additionally, leveraging advanced digital tools, such as AI-driven analytics and big data, can enhance knowledge retention and utilization, allowing tourism enterprises to optimize decision-making and improve service delivery.

2.2.1.3 Knowledge Transfer (and Refinement)

Knowledge transfer refers to the structured process through which knowledge flows from one entity to another, encompassing activities such as communication, translation, conversion, filtering, and rendering (Newman & Conrad, 1999). Despite variations in terminology, scholars generally distinguish between knowledge transfer and knowledge sharing. King, Chung, and Haney (2008) argue that knowledge transfer is a more structured and intentional process involving direct interaction between a sender and a recipient, whereas knowledge sharing is a broader dissemination process often mediated by indirect communication tools such as databases. Similarly, Liyanage et al. (2009) conceptualize knowledge transfer as a unidirectional process in which a knowledge possessor imparts information to a learner, whereas knowledge sharing is a bidirectional exchange where all parties contribute and acquire knowledge. Despite the differences in these conceptualizations, a common thread among definitions is that both processes are underpinned by the mutual intent of individuals or organizations to acquire and apply new knowledge. An essential aspect of knowledge transfer is the refinement of knowledge, which ensures that the transmitted knowledge is relevant, accessible, and usable. However, there are three preconditions for successful knowledge transfer to be met i.e. (i) A recipient of knowledge should have mutual intention for learning. (ii) A recipient of knowledge should have intellectual abilities for learning; and (iii) An appropriate technique for knowledge transfer or knowledge sharing should be selected (Figure, 2.5).

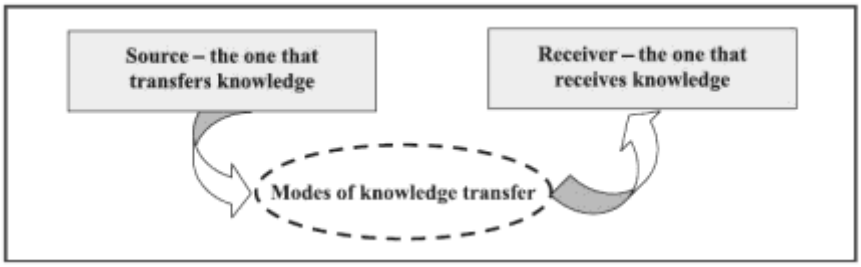

Figure 2.5: Knowledge Transfer "An Act of Communication"
Adapted from Liyanage *et al*., (2009)

Nonetheless, King, Chung, and Haney (2008) highlights that knowledge refinement serves as a filtration mechanism that optimizes knowledge for inclusion in various storage media. This process is critical for effective KM, as it enhances the quality and applicability of the knowledge being shared or transferred. Heist, Spek, and Kruizinga (1997) categorize refinement approaches into active and passive strategies. An active strategy involves dedicated personnel or specialists who

curate and disseminate critical knowledge, whereas a passive strategy relies on employees to identify and utilize knowledge autonomously.

2.2.1.4 Knowledge Sharing

Knowledge sharing, as a subset of knowledge transfer, is integral to knowledge application, innovation, and organizational competitiveness. It fosters collaboration among employees and across teams, allowing firms to capitalize on their knowledge-based assets (Jackson et al., 2006). Empirical studies demonstrate that effective knowledge sharing significantly enhances team performance, reduces production costs, accelerates product development cycles, and strengthens innovation capabilities (Arthur & Huntley, 2005; Collins & Smith, 2006; Cummings, 2004; Hansen, 2002; Lin, 2007; Mesmer-Magnus & DeChurch, 2009). Recognizing the strategic importance of knowledge sharing, many organizations invest in KM initiatives, including knowledge management systems (KMS), to facilitate systematic knowledge collection, storage, and dissemination (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2005; Damodaran & Olphert, 2000; Davenport & Prusak, 1998). Despite these investments, knowledge sharing remains a challenge due to organizational and interpersonal barriers, including lack of trust, inadequate leadership support, and resistance to change (Babcock, 2004; Carter & Scarbrough, 2001; Voelpel, Dous, & Davenport, 2005). Overcoming these obstacles necessitates fostering a culture of openness, incentivizing knowledge-sharing behaviors, and aligning KM strategies with organizational objectives.

2.2.2 Role of Knowledge Management in Tourism Business Competitiveness

KM plays a pivotal role in enhancing tourism business competitiveness by fostering innovation, improving decision-making, and optimizing operational performance. Unlike organizational learning, which focuses on adaptive processes over time, KM systematically integrates knowledge acquisition, organization, and application to achieve strategic objectives (Nonaka et al., 1994). In the tourism sector, KM is instrumental in enabling businesses to respond to market fluctuations, enhance customer experiences, and streamline operations. By leveraging customer data and stakeholder insights, firms can curate personalized services and differentiate themselves in a highly competitive industry (Marques et al., 2019).

Moreover, KM facilitates collaboration by breaking down departmental silos through knowledge-sharing platforms, thereby ensuring consistency in service quality and operational efficiency (Buhalis & Leung, 2018). This interconnectedness supports demand forecasting, resource optimization, and targeted marketing strategies, all of which are crucial for sustaining competitiveness. Additionally, KM fosters innovation by integrating historical insights with emerging trends, enabling tourism businesses to develop novel offerings. For instance, firms that effectively utilize KM can incorporate sustainability principles into their business models, aligning with evolving consumer expectations and regulatory frameworks (García-Morales et al., 2014).

However, a current pressing global issue is data overload. While tourism businesses collect large amounts of customer and market data, many struggle to process, refine and apply this information effectively, leading to missed opportunities (citations). Furthermore, management interruptions and insufficient commitment often result in KM being deprioritized or implemented superficially without alignment to organizational goals (García-Morales et al., 2014). Addressing these shortcomings requires prioritizing KM as a core strategic function. Tourism firms must invest in advanced digital tools, such as big data analytics and AI, while

cultivating a knowledge-sharing culture and strong management commitment. Such measures will ensure KM's integration into core business processes, enabling firms to proactively anticipate and adapt to market disruptions, optimize operations, and sustain innovation. Therefore, KM serves as a strategic enabler of competitiveness in the tourism sector by transforming knowledge into a tangible organizational asset. By addressing implementation barriers and fostering a culture of continuous learning and knowledge sharing, tourism businesses can harness the full potential of KM to remain adaptive, innovative, and resilient in a dynamic global landscape.

2.3 ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING

The capacity for continuous change and improvement has become indispensable in today's volatile and complex business environments, particularly in the tourism sector where consumer preferences, technologies, and market dynamics evolve rapidly (Kamya, Ntayi & Ahiauzu, 2011; Faulkner & Tideswell, 2021). In such settings, an organization's ability to redesign and adapt in real-time is often a prerequisite for long-term survival and relevance (Durst & Edvardsson, 2012; Ferguson et al., 2013). Central to this adaptive capacity is organizational learning (OL)—a strategic process that enables firms to transform experience into actionable knowledge, improve practices, and align operations with emerging environmental demands (Argyris & Schön, 1978; Senge, 1990; Birasnav & Rangnekar, 2010). In tourism, OL facilitates the development and refinement of services in response to uncertainties in customer preferences, competitive pressures, and shifting policy environments, thus contributing directly to organizational resilience and innovation (Chen et al., 2019; Jiang & Wang, 2020).

OL is increasingly recognized by scholars and practitioners alike as a determinant of competitive advantage, especially for service-oriented sectors like tourism where experiential quality, adaptability, and responsiveness are essential (Garvin, Edmondson & Gino, 2008; Singh & Kant, 2008). Theoretically, OL is defined in various ways across the literature. For example, Fiol and Lyles (1985) conceptualize it as "the process of improving actions through better knowledge and understanding," while Dodgson (1993) frames OL as a firm's ability to build, supplement, and organize knowledge and routines to enhance efficiency and performance. Robinson (2001) similarly notes that learning involves organizational feedback systems that enable adaptation through environmental sensing and progressive alignment with market realities. These conceptualizations converge around a central premise: learning is not incidental but foundational to innovation, efficiency, and sustained organizational success (Inkinen, 2016; Kim, Park & Kim, 2019).

Moreover, March's (1991) dual-framework of exploration and exploitation learning has proved particularly influential. Exploitation learning, which focuses on refining existing capabilities, aligns closely with incremental innovation a key strategy in tourism enterprises seeking to improve service delivery, streamline operations, and reinforce brand consistency (Holmqvist, 2003; Singh & Kant, 2008). Exploration learning, by contrast, focuses on radical innovation through experimentation, risk-taking, and the development of new products, markets, or operational paradigms an approach especially relevant for tourism firms aiming to differentiate in saturated or competitive environments (Barisic, 2020; Zhang et al., 2020). Effective OL strategies, therefore, combine both exploitation and exploration to strike a

dynamic balance between short-term operational efficiency and long-term innovation capability (Grant, 1996; Collins & Hill, 1998).

Despite its potential, many tourism organizations still struggle to institutionalize OL due to structural, cultural, or resource-related barriers (Anand, Joshi & Yadav, 2022; Ndegwa, 2015). Inadequate feedback loops, weak leadership commitment to learning, and limited staff training often hinder knowledge absorption and utilization (Durst & Edvardsson, 2012; Beitler & Mitlacher, 2007). To fully leverage OL, tourism businesses must create supportive learning climates characterized by psychological safety, team collaboration, and transparent knowledge sharing practices (Garvin et al., 2008; Foss & Pedersen, 2002). Doing so allows them to not only respond effectively to environmental turbulence but also to build enduring competitive advantage grounded in adaptive capability and continuous innovation (Faulkner & Tideswell, 2021; Kamya et al., 2011).

However, in today's rapidly evolving and complex tourism business environment, the capacity for continuous learning and adaptation is paramount for maintaining competitiveness and ensuring long-term sustainability (Nadler, Shaw, & Walton, 1994; Turban, Rainer, & Potter, 2003). Organizational learning (OL) is a foundational process through which firms enhance their adaptive capabilities by acquiring, interpreting, and responding to both internal and external stimuli (Fiol & Lyles, 1985; Easterby-Smith & Lyles, 2011). As a strategic imperative, OL enables organizations to refine their strategies, foster innovation, and sustain competitive advantages in dynamic market conditions (Dodgson, 1993; Garvin, 1993; Robinson, 2001). The significance of OL is underscored by its role in fostering innovation and agility, particularly in industries characterized by rapid technological advancements, shifting consumer preferences, and evolving market dynamics (March, 1991; Crossan, Lane, & White, 1999). March (1991) delineates OL into two principal approaches: exploitation and exploration. Exploitation emphasizes the refinement of existing competencies and incremental innovations, enhancing efficiency and operational effectiveness (Levinthal & March, 1993). Conversely, exploration focuses on identifying novel opportunities and driving radical innovations, enabling firms to develop breakthrough products and services (Collins & Hill, 1998; Gupta, Smith, & Shalley, 2006). The interplay between these learning mechanisms is crucial in shaping an organization's transformation strategies and long-term viability (Ni & Sun, 2009; Andriopoulos & Lewis, 2009).

2.3.1 Individual Learning

At the core of OL is individual learning, wherein employees acquire, refine, and apply knowledge through experience, training, and reflective practice (Argyris & Schön, 1978; Kolb, 1984). Organizations that cultivate a learning-oriented culture empower employees to engage in continuous skill development, knowledge exchange, and self-directed improvement (Senge, 1990; Marsick & Watkins, 2003). The effective transfer of individual learning to the organizational level enhances adaptability and fosters an innovation-driven corporate culture (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Crossan et al., 1999).

2.3.2 Institutional Learning

Beyond individual and team learning, institutional learning encompasses an organization's ability to integrate acquired knowledge into its policies, structures, and strategic

frameworks (Levitt & March, 1988; Huber, 1991). Learning-driven institutions establish mechanisms to institutionalize best practices, ensuring knowledge retention and sustained competitive advantage (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Easterby-Smith & Lyles, 2011).

2.3.3 Group/Team Learning

In an increasingly complex global economy, organizations rely on teams as fundamental units of learning and adaptation (Shuffler, DiazGranados, & Salas, 2011; Edmondson, 1999). Team learning is a collective process of knowledge acquisition, sharing, and integration, leading to enhanced group performance and decision-making capabilities (Ellis et al., 2003; Sessa & London, 2015). Unlike individual learning, team learning is inherently interactive, involving continuous knowledge exchange and dynamic engagement among team members (van den Bossche, Gijselaers, Segers, & Kirschner, 2006). Effective team learning encompasses key behaviors such as critical inquiry, perspective-taking, and constructive conflict resolution, all of which contribute to refining ideas and strategies (Savelsbergh, van der Heijden, & Poel, 2009; Carmeli & Sheaffer, 2008). A conducive team environment is one that encourages open communication, collaborative problem-solving, and iterative reflection on processes and outcomes (Erhardt, Gibbs, Martin-Rios, & Sherblom, 2016; van der Haar, Segers, Jehn, & van den Bossche, 2015). Over time, these collective learning interactions shape team knowledge, fostering organizational agility and competitive responsiveness (Decuyper, Dochy, & van den Bossche, 2010; Edmondson, Dillon, & Roloff, 2007; Senge, 2006).

2.3.4 Systems Thinking

The growing complexity of business environments necessitates a shift from reductionist decision-making models to holistic, systems-oriented approaches (Senge, 1990; Flood, 1999). Systems thinking equips managers with the ability to recognize interdependencies, anticipate emerging challenges, and develop proactive strategic interventions (Dominici, 2012; Kim, 1999). Unlike traditional analytical frameworks that examine isolated variables, systems thinking conceptualizes organizations as interconnected entities wherein changes in one component have ripple effects across the entire system (Senge, 2010; Sterman, 2000). According to Flood (2010), systems thinking enhances organizational decision-making by integrating diverse viewpoints and synthesizing complex information streams. It enables managers to adopt a “big picture” perspective, thereby mitigating the risks associated with fragmented, siloed decision-making (Sweeney & Sterman, 2000). The adoption of computational tools, such as simulation modeling, further strengthens systems thinking by enabling dynamic analyses of intricate organizational interactions (Woodside, 2006; Morecroft, 2007). Ultimately, integrating systems thinking into corporate strategy fosters innovation, resilience, and sustained competitive advantage (Halecker & Hartmann, 2013; Bocken, Short, Rana, & Evans, 2014).

Nevertheless, systems’ thinking is more layered than the mere usage of “casual loop diagrams”. In fact, it instigates a model conceptualization. Managers can utilize systems thinking to be able to view a clearer, better “larger picture” without segregating the phenomenon based on functional orientation (Flood, 2010). Moreover, a vital tool for systems thinking is a computer software program which enable integration of learning pertaining complex team interactions and business interactions. Following is the diagrammatic representation of adoption of systems thinking in research prior to decision-making.

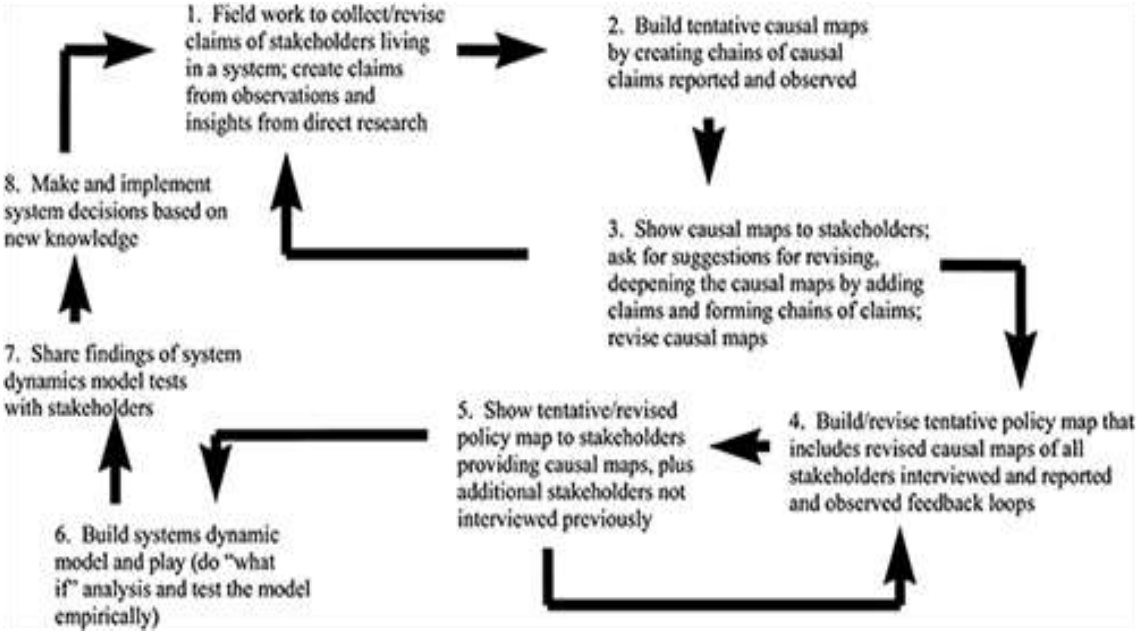

Figure 2.6: Adoption of Systems Thinking
Source: Woodside, (2006)

2.3.4.1 Approach to Systems Thinking

There are many approaches for systems thinking which help managers to take better researched and structured management decisions. Following is the tabular presentation of the various approaches.

Category	*Approach*	*Focus on*
Function oriented systems thinking	General systems theory	Function, structure, hierarchy
	Technological systems theory	Function, structure, hierarchy
Cybernetic oriented systems thinking	Cybernetic theory (first order)	Steering, communication & control
	Management cybernetic (second order)	Steering, dynamic, feedback, complexity
	Systems dynamics (SD)	Process, dynamics, feedback, environment
	Soft systems methodology (SSM)	Organizational process modelling, soft problems
	Critical systems heuristics (CSH)	Practical philosophy, boundaries
	System-oriented management science	Steering, strategies, management
Integrated systems thinking	Systems theory in innovation management	Function, structure, process, steering

Figure2.7: Systems Thinking Approaches
Adapted from: Halecker and Hartmann (2013)

In the present competitive business landscape, innovation is the key to sustainable competitiveness. Halecker and Hartmann (2013) advocate systems thinking for business model innovation as shown on Figure: 2.8.

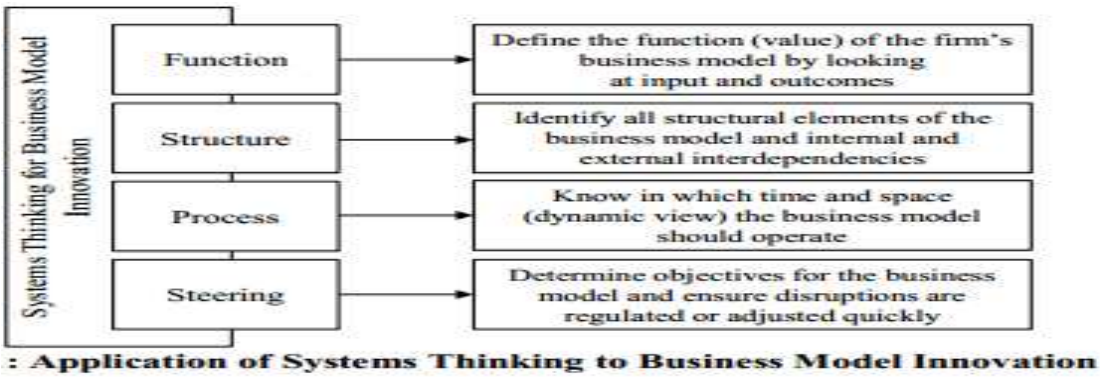

Figure 2.8: Impact of Systems Thinking
Source: Adapted from: Halecker and Hartmann (2013.)

Thus, it can be concluded that systems thinking is a formidable means of rational thinking, which can be invigorated in multiple economic endeavours to device newer ways of confronting challenges and strengthens the business understanding of the managers. This is possible through radical re-engineering initiatives and positive support of the top-level management decisions thus leading the business enterprises to a competitive position.

2.3.5 Organizational Learning and Tourism Business Enterprise Competitiveness

Within the tourism industry, OL serves as a pivotal enabler of innovation, adaptability, and long-term competitiveness (Garzón et al., 2020; Shaw & Williams, 2009). Rooted in Senge's Learning Organization Model, OL underscores the importance of systems thinking, shared vision, and continuous improvement, all of which are critical for navigating the sector's dynamic landscape (Tavitiyaman et al., 2011; Cegarra-Navarro et al., 2016). Given tourism's susceptibility to market shifts, technological disruptions, and sustainability challenges, OL emerges as an essential driver of business success (Hjalager, 2010; Cooper, 2006). Empirical studies indicate that OL enhances a firm's capability to anticipate and respond to evolving market trends, such as the growing demand for eco-tourism and sustainable travel experiences (Ruhanen, 2008; Scott, Hall, & Gössling, 2016). By leveraging market intelligence and consumer feedback, tourism enterprises can develop innovative offerings and optimize service delivery, fostering differentiation and customer loyalty (Buhalis & Law, 2008; Sigala, 2018). Additionally, OL promotes a knowledge-sharing culture that nurtures collaboration, creativity, and resilience—factors essential for mitigating industry-specific challenges such as seasonality, economic volatility, and regulatory constraints (Cegarra-Navarro et al., 2016; Weidenfeld, 2018).

However, the implementation of OL in tourism businesses is often hindered by resistance to change, fragmented communication channels, and technological limitations (Dodgson, 1993; Garvin, 1993). Addressing these challenges necessitates a commitment to fostering collaborative work environments, investing in digital transformation, and securing leadership support for sustained learning initiatives (Nonaka & von Krogh, 2009; Teece, 2007). By embedding OL into strategic frameworks, tourism enterprises can bolster their adaptability, drive industry innovation, and achieve sustainable competitive advantages in an increasingly complex global marketplace (Shaw & Williams, 2009).

2.4 QUALITY CULTURE

In comparison with industrial countries, (Mersha, 2000) the treatment of customers in Africa both in private and in public organizations has a lot to be desired. In Sub Saharan Africa (SSA), customers do not receive the attention that they deserve. For example, foreign importers of goods from developing countries reported that lack of responsiveness, inconsistent product quality, and unreliable delivery were the common problems they encountered in dealing with exporters from developing countries (Kessing and Singer, 1991). The successful introduction of quality improvement systems such as Total Quality Management in Sub Saharan Africa organizations will help create awareness about the importance of customer orientation and responsiveness to succeed in today's competitive global environment (Mersha, 2000). Quality has become a powerful strategic weapon in international competition and trade, further asserts Mersha, (2000). On the same, improved quality reduces waste and increases productivity. Further, improvements in quality and productivity enable firms to increase their market share and to charge higher prices for their products, which, in turn, results in higher profitability (Garvin, 1984). Hence, many world class firms use quality as a potent weapon for strengthening their competitive position (Mersha, 2000).

Research on quality based on the cultural perspective claims that, more than an implementation of tools and techniques, quality is the outcome of cultural factors, namely organisational values and practices among which leadership and employee working patterns are of paramount importance. The development of a total quality culture is a strategic issue for the achievement of stakeholder satisfaction and business competitiveness in a highly demanding and uncertain business environment. Bendermacher *et al.,* (2016) suggest that quality culture is an organisational culture in which all stakeholders, internal and external, through critical reflection contribute to the improvement of quality. Hence, it reflects a shift from control, accountability and regulation, to autonomy, credibility and educational enhancement based on an institution's experiences, expertise and values. Moreover, according to the European University Association (2006) with the first comprehensive definition of quality culture relating to the construct of organizational culture states that:

> *"Quality culture refers to an organizational culture that intends to enhance quality permanently and is characterized by two distinct elements: on the one hand, a cultural/psychological element of shared values, beliefs, expectations and commitment towards quality and, on the other hand, a structural/managerial element with defined processes that enhance quality and aim at coordinating individual efforts"* (European University Association, 2006).

Figure 2.9: Model for Assessing Quality Culture
Source: Adapted from Sattler *et al.*, (2016)

A culture of quality drives the policies, practices, and processes needed to accomplish an organization's work. Building a culture of quality begins with embodying core values, guiding philosophies, behaviours, and attitudes that, combined, contribute to day-to-day operations. This culture builds over the decades as one generation of employees passes to the next. This is why transitioning an organization's culture to embody quality requires commitment and deliberate management of the change process. It starts with quality process engagement across functions, which must be made a priority with top management.

The challenge before managers is to cultivate an organizational culture that supports improvement. In high-performing firms, organization culture is more associated with improvement (O'Regan *et al.*, 2006). Problems of small firms in developing a quality culture are resistance to change, lack of experience in quality management, lack of resources. Managing organizational culture effectively requires clarity in the minds of managers about the type of culture and specific norms and values that will help the organizations reach its strategic objectives. Support for taking risks, change and tolerance for mistakes stimulates creativity. It has been found that those employees with high-job satisfaction exhibited the highest creativity when commitment to company was high and when support for creativity was available from the organization and co-workers (Zhou and George, 2001).

Culture and cultural fit are more important in small and medium business enterprise's than other organizations because an small and medium business enterprise's is likely to be entirely enveloped in a culture, rather than large organizations, where several cultures may be present. It is easier to attain cultural change in SMEs than in larger organizations. However, it is probably more difficult for S Small and Medium business Enterprise's management to recognize the need for change (Ghobadian and Gallear, 1996). McAdam and McClelland (2002) have observed a strong correlation between the culture of continuous improvement and novelty in SMEs. Quality culture is a key enabler in the development of improvement management. The flat structure of SMEs in the tourism sector and fewer departmental interfaces normally result in a more flexible work environment.

2.4.1 Quality Standards

Quality standards refer to established criteria that organizations use to ensure high-quality products and services (Juran & Gryna, 1993; Schonenberg et al., 2020). In tourism business enterprises, quality standards are essential in maintaining competitiveness and enhancing service delivery. Process management, a core aspect of quality culture, is concerned with optimizing processes to enhance quality (Zu et al., 2010). Business process management (BPM) contributes to achieving quality standards by implementing structured techniques such as Just-in-Time and Lean methodologies. Despite the introduction of Lean tools, a systematic process perspective is still evolving within many enterprises. Standardization and clear documentation of processes reduce variations in performance, ensuring adherence to established quality benchmarks (Flynn et al., 1994). Effective process management results in increased final inspections passing without rework, reinforcing quality standards (Flynn et al., 1995).

2.4.2 Customer Focus

Customer focus is the commitment of an organization to meeting and exceeding customer expectations (Parasuraman et al., 1988; Chang et al., 2022). In highly competitive tourism markets, achieving customer satisfaction is not enough—organizations must strive to exceed expectations to ensure customer loyalty (Evans, 2011). A customer-oriented culture leads to improved organizational sustainability and effectiveness. Anderson et al. (1994) highlight that customer satisfaction is a critical performance outcome for industrial operations and significantly influences customer retention. Tourism businesses must continuously enhance service delivery by understanding evolving customer needs and integrating feedback mechanisms that drive quality improvements. Organizations that prioritize customer focus foster strong brand loyalty, enhance reputation, and maintain long-term competitive advantages.

2.4.3 Continuous Improvement

Continuous improvement involves ongoing efforts to enhance processes, products, and services (Deming, 1986; Carvalho et al., 2021). In tourism enterprises, continuous improvement is essential for maintaining service quality and operational efficiency. This process entails both incremental and breakthrough advancements, embedding a learning culture within organizations. Evans (2011) emphasizes that continuous improvement should be a fundamental part of management across all systems and processes. A review of the literature indicates that while process management is frequently discussed, its practical implementation remains limited. Small and medium-sized tourism enterprises often face constraints such as resource limitations and inadequate innovative capabilities (Singh, Garg, & Deshmukh, 2008). To sustain competitiveness, these enterprises must benchmark their processes against industry best practices and adopt a holistic improvement framework. Implementing systematic process improvement strategies, such as Six Sigma and root cause analysis, ensures long-term quality and efficiency. Encouraging employees to experiment with new ideas and fostering a culture of innovation enhances operational adaptability, leading to improved service quality and business resilience (Claver, 1998; Maher, 2014).

2.4.4 Quality Assurance

Quality assurance encompasses systems and procedures designed to ensure adherence to quality standards (ISO 9001, 2015; Iqbal et al., 2020). Effective quality assurance measures in tourism businesses involve preventive approaches to quality management, such as designing fool-proof processes and ensuring stable production schedules. BPM contributes to quality assurance by integrating preventive actions and mistake-proofing strategies, reducing variability and enhancing service consistency (Motschman & Moore, 1999; Cheah et al., 2011). Naor et al. (2008) emphasize the correlation between effective process management and early detection of defects, aligning with the philosophy of "doing things right the first time." Organizations that prioritize prevention over correction experience lower defect rates and improved productivity. Standardizing processes, thorough documentation, and continuous employee training are critical to maintaining high-quality assurance levels in tourism enterprises. Moreover, integrating robust quality control mechanisms within operational workflows ensures reliability, accuracy, and efficiency in service delivery (leanmanufacture.net, n.d).

2.4.5 Leadership

Leaders have an outstanding impact on organizational culture. Employees tend to follow leaders in professional and cultural ways leading to a broad impact on the organization, Leadership plays a pivotal role in shaping quality culture within organizations. Effective leaders establish a clear vision, communicate expectations, and resolve organizational challenges. Leadership is integral to fostering quality culture, as it influences organizational values such as integrity, respect, and accountability. Leaders drive quality improvements by motivating employees, reinforcing a commitment to quality, and setting clear performance expectations. Strong leadership ensures the implementation of quality initiatives, such as Total Quality Management (TQM) and Six Sigma, which are essential for continuous quality enhancement. Effective leaders promote a shared vision that aligns quality culture with organizational goals, fostering an environment conducive to high performance and innovation (Shiramizu & Singh, 2008).

Additionally, empowering employees through involvement in decision-making and quality initiatives enhances their sense of ownership and commitment to quality improvement (Juran, 1989). Organizations that encourage participation and innovation experience higher engagement levels and operational efficiency, leading to sustained competitiveness (Shoura & Singh, 1999). Since leadership is an aspect of management, it is necessary to establish that the management is well equipped with leadership skills. Effective leadership can influence the organizational values such as honesty, quality, respect, ethics and tolerance etc. by demonstrating an ideal attitude in the workplace, establishing a vision among the employees, reinforcing accountability, motivating the employees, making a vision plan for the culture and values and by coaching the co-workers.

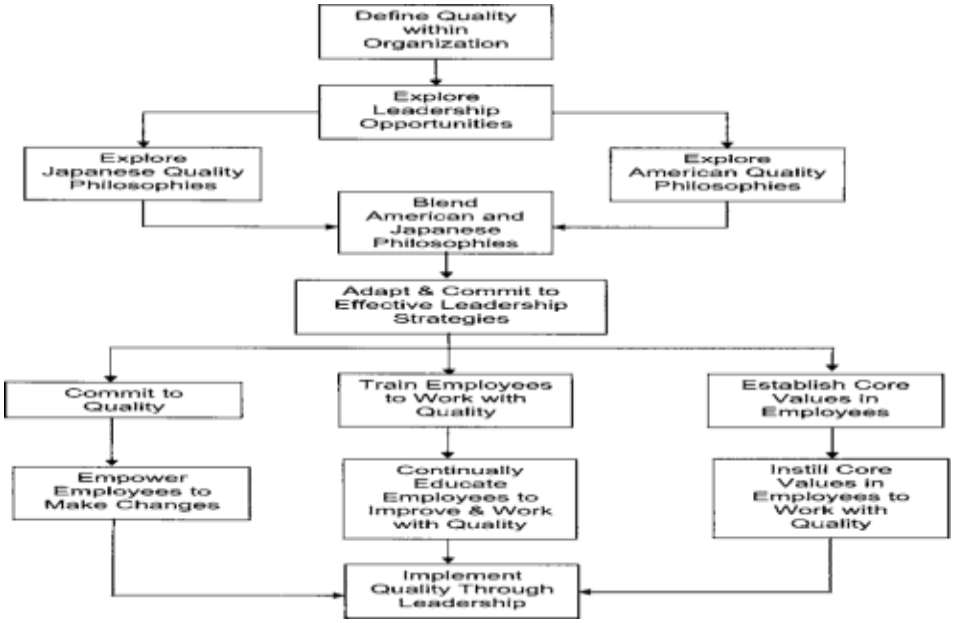

Figure 2.10: Flow Chart for Implementing Quality Through Leadership
Adapted from (Shiramizu & Singh, 2008)

2.4.6 Innovation

The link between quality organizational culture and innovation is particularly significant in the tourism industry, where service differentiation and responsiveness are key drivers of competitiveness (Alonso-Almeida, Rodríguez-Antón & Rubio-Andrada, 2012; Kim, Park & Kim, 2019). In tourism businesses with a strong quality culture, innovation thrives through structured processes, supported behaviors, and leadership practices that cultivate employee engagement, learning, and experimentation (Nguyen, Lee & Nguyen, 2021; Rapp, 2011). However, much of the existing research reflects a fragmented understanding of how cultural dimensions function as enablers of innovation, making it difficult for managers to identify which aspects of quality culture to institutionalize or assess its effectiveness in promoting innovative performance (Munizu, 2019; Islam, Ahsan & Hossain, 2020).

An innovation-oriented quality culture integrates core elements such as employee motivation, innovation competence, supportive leadership, and value-driven decision-making, which collectively shape the organizational climate necessary for innovation (Garvin, Edmondson & Gino, 2008; Zhang, Li & Wang, 2018). Within tourism settings, this culture manifests in collaborative behaviors, service creativity, and openness to change, which are vital for adapting to evolving consumer expectations and competitive pressures (Tavitiyaman, Qu & Tsang, 2020). Conversely, where quality culture is absent or underdeveloped, innovation is often stifled by rigid hierarchical structures, short-termism, and fear of failure, undermining employee initiative and organizational learning (Kapiki, 2012; Simović et al., 2023). Building a quality-driven culture that fosters innovation requires meeting several organizational conditions: risk-tolerant leadership, encouragement of idea generation, inclusive participation,

accountability, personal development, and a unifying organizational mission that employees can identify with (Claver, 1998; Denison & Mishra, 1995). These factors are especially crucial in the tourism and hospitality sectors, where service outcomes are directly influenced by the organizational environment and employee behavior. Yet, many tourism enterprises especially SMEs, lack the resources and frameworks to embed such a culture, leading to missed opportunities for service innovation and customer satisfaction (Taha & Espino-Rodríguez, 2020; Santana, Moreira & Leitão, 2018).

Frameworks such as Maher's seven dimensions of innovative culture provide tourism managers with tools to assess and strengthen quality culture across departments. In practice, this includes cultivating psychological safety, where employees feel encouraged to test new ideas without punitive repercussions (Garvin et al., 2008), and shifting leadership styles from control-oriented to learning-oriented, where mistakes are viewed as learning opportunities rather than failures (Faulkner & Tideswell, 2021). Ultimately, embedding a robust quality culture not only enhances innovation but also improves organizational resilience, service consistency, and long-term competitiveness in the tourism industry (Nguyen et al., 2021; Simović et al., 2023).Furthermore, a positive approach to innovation is greater when employees perceive strong managerial support and autonomy in developing innovative ideas, along with access to financial resources to drive innovation processes (Kim, Park & Kim, 2019; Munizu, 2019). In this regard, knowledge is recognized as the primary resource for innovation, with its strategic value linked to how well it is captured, shared, and applied within the organization (Grant, 1996; Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Alavi & Leidner, 2001).

Organizations that systematically collect, disseminate, and communicate information from both internal and external sources foster more conducive environments for innovation (Zhang et al., 2020; Inkinen, 2016). Moreover, research underscores that well-defined objectives and goal-setting can actively promote innovation, particularly when leadership signals its importance through the establishment of ambitious targets and empowered teams (Kamya, Ntayi & Ahiauzu, 2011; Chen et al., 2019). In addition to strategic intent, the cultural dimensions of innovation are equally critical. Symbols, rituals, and recognitions embedded in organizational culture reinforce desirable innovative behavior and serve as intrinsic motivators for employees (Denison & Mishra, 1995; Liu, Li & Li, 2018). These elements form part of a quality culture that supports continuous learning and improvement, which in turn enhances innovation capability and long-term competitiveness (Nguyen, Lee & Nguyen, 2021; Garvin, Edmondson & Gino, 2008).

Likewise, in organizations demonstrating high levels of innovation effectiveness, innovation emerges not from chance, but from the deliberate application of practical tools and structured innovation processes (Morris, Kuratiko & Covin, 2008; Zhang, Li & Wang, 2018). Leaders play a pivotal role in fostering innovation by building individual and collective capacities for creative thinking, idea management, and implementation (Chen et al., 2019;

Kamya, Ntayi & Ahiauzu, 2011). This requires investment not only in knowledge resources but also in developing cognitive and behavioral competencies that support the ideation-to-execution cycle (Garvin, Edmondson & Gino, 2008; Kim, Park & Kim, 2019). Moreover, innovation is increasingly recognized as a social and relational process. Rarely is it the result of solitary genius; instead, it is the outcome of collaborative work environments that value diversity of thought, open dialogue, and cross-functional cooperation (Argyris & Schön, 1978; Holmqvist, 2003).

The relational models within an organization on how individuals and teams interact have significant implications for innovation outcomes (Senge, 1990; Liu, Li & Li, 2018). An open organizational climate that encourages freedom of expression, psychological safety, and support for new ideas across departments is essential for innovation to flourish (Nguyen, Lee & Nguyen, 2021; Denison & Mishra, 1995). Such climates not only nurture ideation, but also foster organizational learning and agility, which are crucial for sustained competitiveness in dynamic environments (Faulkner & Tideswell, 2021; Davenport & Prusak, 1998).

Figure 2.11: Dimensions of Innovation Culture
Source: Maher (2014)

2.4.7 Quality Culture in Tourism Businesses Enterprises

With an anticipated influence on organizational performance, a strong quality culture is increasingly viewed as essential in tourism businesses, where service excellence is the core determinant of success (Alonso-Almeida, Rodríguez-Antón & Rubio-Andrada, 2012; Islam, Ahsan & Hossain, 2020). Quality culture functions as a strategic enabler, positively impacting performance through enhanced employee commitment, operational efficiency, and customer satisfaction (Nguyen, Lee & Nguyen, 2021; Denison & Mishra, 1995). Despite its critical role, its potential remains underutilized, particularly in tourism settings where short-term financial goals frequently take precedence over long-term quality-oriented strategies (Munizu, 2019; García-Sánchez & Pérez-Mesa, 2013). Beyond regulatory compliance, quality culture involves deep strategic integration embedding a quality-first mindset through shared values, leadership accountability, and employee engagement in continuous improvement (Crosby, 1979; Rapp, 2011; European University Association, 2006). Leadership emphasis on quality messaging, credibility, peer involvement, and employee ownership are repeatedly highlighted as foundational to fostering organizational success (Kumar et al., 2020).

Moreover, quality culture supports sustainability, an imperative in the modern tourism and hospitality industry. Empirical studies show that businesses adopting structured quality systems often realize improved ecological responsibility and economic performance, thereby enhancing their competitive advantage (Simović et al., 2023; Viada-Stenger, Balbastre-Benavent & Redondo-Cano, 2010). Quality-driven organizational environments empower staff through transparent leadership and participatory governance, aligning individual roles with institutional goals (Nguyen et al., 2021; Garvin, Edmondson & Gino, 2008). However, implementation often falls short due to vague quality objectives, insufficient employee training, and the resource constraints typical of small and medium-sized tourism enterprises (Tavitiyaman, Qu & Tsang, 2020; Islam et al., 2020).

Tourism enterprises often operate under volatile, competitive conditions that demand agility, innovation, and customer-centric service. A robust quality culture, when institutionalized as a non-negotiable pillar, enables resilience and adaptability, thereby supporting long-term sustainability and competitiveness (Simović et al., 2023; Zhang & Huang, 2021). In particular, consistent service delivery a direct output of a quality-focused culture is essential for customer retention and brand loyalty, outcomes that distinguish high-performing tourism and hospitality firms (Taha & Espino-Rodríguez, 2020). Nonetheless, the diffusion of quality culture remains inconsistent, especially in developing regions where institutional and infrastructural gaps pose significant implementation challenges (Kapiki, 2012; Santana, Moreira & Leitão, 2018).

To bridge this gap, policy interventions and industry-wide frameworks must emphasize quality as a strategic imperative rather than a peripheral concern. Incentive-based regulation, technical assistance, and sector-specific capacity-building programs are essential for mainstreaming quality culture across varying tourism contexts (Naveh & Marcus, 2005; Nair & Prajogo, 2009). Future stidies should critically explore how cultural and regional differences influence the operationalization of quality management frameworks to inform context-sensitive strategies for tourism enterprises globally (Tavitiyaman et al., 2020). Embedding a quality culture is not simply an operational adjustment, it is a long-term strategic commitment that

elevates employee performance, enhances customer experiences, and ensures enduring sustainability for tourism businesses.

2.5 TOURISM BUSINESS ENTERPRISE COMPETITIVENESS

Krugman (1991; 1996) argued that competitiveness is a largely meaningless concept and that economists in general do not use the word competitiveness. This dissenting voice features frequently in this study. Krugman's first contention, that competitiveness is a largely meaningless concept, refers to it's applicability to national economies. For firms within those economies competing in international export markets, the inability to sell goods and secure the bottom line is the difference between success and failure. Economists have also become increasingly engaged on competitiveness in the fifteen years since Krugman's paper, and an ever-burgeoning literature stands to refute his later assertion (Porter, 1990; Porter et al., 2008; Kinger, 2010; di Mauro and Forster, 2008; Arvis et al., 2010; Nsouli, 2001; Fukunishi, 2004; Bigsten and Soderbom, 2006; Clark et al., 2004; Eifert et al., 2005; Lall, 2000). Nonetheless, despite its apparent intuitive appeal, export competitiveness remains ill-defined, conceptually vague and, as Krugman argues, subject to abuse.

2.5.1 Competitiveness

Competitiveness is an abstract concept, not directly observable and with a multidimensional character resulting from the sum of variables, many of them compared to those of another tourist destination that is taken as a reference. Therefore, the measurement of competitiveness can be subjective and depend on factors such as the approach of the researcher, the aim of the research, etc. Therefore, competitiveness of a country derives from the performance of its enterprises (Barros, 2005), moreover, the competitiveness of industry and firms has been one of the most important themes of research in the fields of economics and business studies. As cited in Tsai, Song, and Wong (2012) "some researchers and practitioners define competitiveness through the assessment of national/firm productivity." Competitiveness is considered to involve a combination of assets and processes, where assets are either inherited or created and processes transform assets to achieve economic benefits through sales to customers (Department of Industry, Science and Resources, 2001). In addition, competitiveness is: according to Tefertiller and Ward (1995), related to productivity growth and entails quality differences, relative prices, production and distribution costs, the ability to market, and the efficiency of the supporting marketing and distribution system. In the same vein, Scott and Lodge defined competitiveness as ''a country's ability to create, produce, distribute and/or service products in international economy, while rising returns on its sources'' (1985, p. 3). Competitiveness is also ''about producing more and better-quality goods and services that are marketed successfully to consumers at home and abroad. (Newall, 1992, p. 94).

Creating a superior product of higher value than competitors aid an enterprise in gaining product advantage (Wickham, 2006). For those in the service sector this may be considered a service advantage. Cost advantage is gained if an enterprise cumulative operating costs' are lower than competitors asserts' Porter (1985). Further allowing the enterprise to offer products or services at a lower price, take control of its cost and capacity utilization, access unique and cheaper sources of input, gain economies of scale and advance experience curve economies (Kay, 1993). The environment in which it operates on which could be local, national, regional and/or international subject on the firm's scope of activities critically impacts a firm's conduct

and performance (Whitley, 1992). The potential or capability of a firm to survive and grow is represented by the competitiveness at firm level, considering the competition of other firms in the same market and for the same profits (Morris, Kuratiko, & Covin, 2008). The competition of firms for markets and resources is reflected in either market shares or in the creation and accumulation rate of comparative advantages, such as innovative products, processes among others dependent on both its performance as well as direct entrepreneurial environment in which it operates and acts. Competitive advantage is also dependent on entrepreneurial competencies exhibited facilitating the much-needed thrust. Enterprises must understand the sources of such advantages and utilize them effectively and efficiently so that competitive advantage can be developed and sustained (28 ibid)

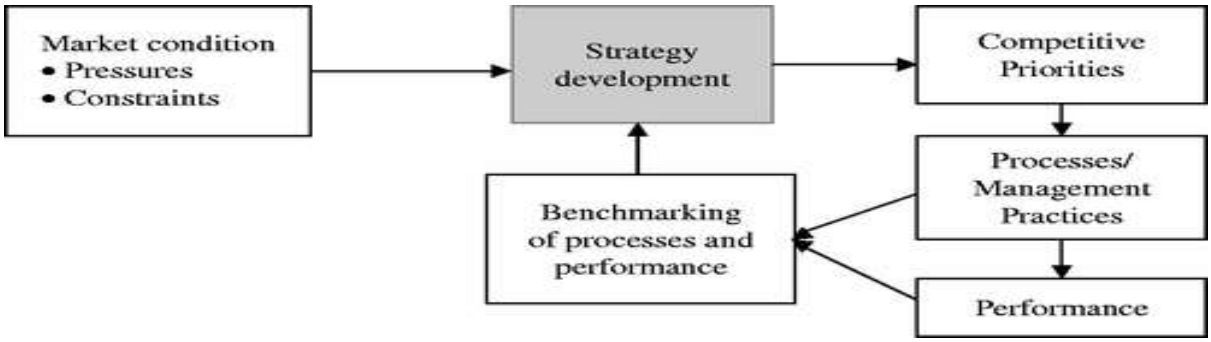

Figure 2.12: Framework for competitiveness analysis
Adapted from Singh, Garg & Deshmukh (2008)

Competitive advantage can be assessed by analyzing the sources of the advantage such as the firm's market position (Porter, 1980) and resources (Barney, 1991) or by measuring the outcome of competitive efforts through firm performance (e.g., profitability) or market share stability. While competition tends to revert corporate profitability towards the mean (Stigler, 1961; Healy, Serafeim, Srinivasan, & Yu, 2014), high profits can be sustained if firms have sustainable competitive advantages. In practice, the sustainability of a firm's competitive advantage, or franchise, can be measured by superior long-term performance (Porter, 1985; Wiggins & Ruefli, 2002; Dehning & Stratopoulos, 2003; Huang, Dyerson, Wu, & Harindranath, 2015).

2.5.2 Competitive Advantage

Competitive advantage means superior performance relative to other competitors in the same industry or superior performance relative to the industry average. (Barney, 1995). According to Porter (1985), competitive advantage is the ability to earn returns on investment consistently above the average for the industry. This therefore means that competitive advantage can be achieved if the firm implements a value-creating strategy that is not simultaneously being implemented by any current or potential competitors. Further, Barney (1991) pointed out that sustained competitive advantage results from strategic assets; which he regarded as those that are internally controlled and permit the firm to formulate and implement strategies that expand its efficiency and effectiveness. Competitive advantage is thus dependant not, as traditionally assumed, on such bases as natural resources, technology or economies of scale, since these are increasingly easy to imitate but rather on the valuable, rare, and hard-to-

imitate resources that reside within an organization (Stiles & Kulvisaechana, 2004). This group of assets can be said to be what Stewart (1997) referred to be “invisible assets” which in real sense is intellectual capital.

An organization's resources, including its assets and skills, represent the source of its foundation for sustainable competitive advantage. According to Pandza and Thorpe (2009) strategists should seek to shape, transform, and combine these resources into strategic capabilities, which in turn drive strategic success. Recent resource-based writings stress that the uniqueness of firm’s resources and capabilities are not sufficient to sustain competitive advantage. Fiol (2001, p. 69) further agrees and remarks “both the skills/resources and the way organizations use them must constantly change, leading to the creation of continuously changing temporary advantages”.

The competition strategy of a firm is to seek an advantageous competitive position in a particular industrial environment or to build up a profitable, consistent market position by drawing on various factors that are decisive to being competitive in an industrial sector (Porter, 1991). In other words, both industry type and competitive strategies are two central points to be considered by managers in a market economy. This therefore means that Porter's competition strategy explicitly relies on the pursuit of advantages, which are determined by a firm's exogenous variables that require analysis of the competitors and opportunities in the market. When a particular high-value strategy of a firm cannot be implemented, imitated or replicated successfully by a potential competitor, the strategy provides the firm with a source of sustainable competitive advantage (SCA). Oliver (1997) argues that both resources and institutional capital are indispensable to creating an SCA. The capability-based view of the firm also moves a step closer to understanding how enterprises develop and maintain their sources of competitive advantage. Hence for a firm to be assured of a sustainable development, it must identify its competitive advantage variables and harness the same to a maximum benefit.

2.5.3 Market Share and Visibility

Market share represents the percentage of an industry, or market's total sales, that is earned by a particular company over a specified time period. Taking the company’s sales over the period and dividing it by the total sales of the industry over the same period calculate market share. This metric is used to give a general idea of the size of a company in relation to its market and its competitors (Investopedia.com). Investors and analysts monitor increases and decreases in market share carefully as this can be a sign of the relative competitiveness of the company's products or services. As the total market for a product or service grows, a company that is maintaining its market share is growing revenues at the same rate as the total market. A company that is growing its market share will be growing its revenues faster than its competitors. Market share increases can allow a company to achieve greater scale with its operations and improve profitability. A company can try to expand its share of the market, either by lowering prices, using advertising or introducing new or different products. In addition, it can also grow the size of its market size by appealing to other audiences or demographics.

2.5.4 Productivity

Productivity growth is frequently lauded by the business community, media commentators and politicians as the solution to improving living standards, yet there is little agreement on what productivity actually is. To economists, productivity is the efficiency with which firms, organisations, industry, and the economy as a whole, convert inputs (labour, capital, and raw materials) into output. Productivity grows when output grows faster than inputs, which makes the existing inputs more productively efficient. Productivity does not reflect how much we value the outputs; it only measures how efficiently we use our resources to produce them. Productivity at the firm level: The generation and application of technological and organisational knowledge (innovation) are the main drivers of firm-level productivity growth. These determinants are broader than technology in an engineering sense. The choice of production technology and how production is organised, which are management decisions, play a crucial role in productivity performance. Firms can improve their productive efficiency in three ways: Improvements in technical efficiency: increases in output can be achieved, at a given level of input, from more efficient use of the existing technologies. Technological progress and organisational change; as firms adopt technologies or organisational structures that are new to the firm, or develop and apply new technologies or approaches, they can expand output by more than any additional inputs that might be required. Increasing returns to scale; as the size of the firm expands, its unit cost of production can fall as it becomes financially advantageous to adopt existing technologies.

2.5.5 Profitability

As Brigham EF, Gapenski LC, Ehrhardt, (1999) consider "profitability is the net result of various policies and managerial decisions, and the profitability rates represent the net operating result of the combined effects of liquidity, asset management and debt management. Gibson Ch. H. (1998:385) defines the profitability of a firm as "the ability of firms to generate earnings". Business conditions are changing rapidly and continuously. Markets are affected by diverse customer needs, which demand higher quality, shorter delivery time, higher customer service level and lower prices. At the same time, product life cycles are becoming shorter and shorter. Success in any competitive context depends on having either a cost advantage or a value advantage, or, ideally, both (Christopher, 1998). The survival of any business depends on its ability to compete effectively (Madu, 2000). Prior research shows that the profitability and growth in assets mean revert to economy-wide averages (Nissim & Penman, 2001). To measure profitability persistence, the model in Li, Lundholm, and Minnis (2013) in which the future change in profitability is regressed on the level of current profitability and changes in investments and the interactions of profitability and competitive advantage proxies. Competitive advantages and firm characteristics are measured by three sets of variables: traditional barriers-to-entry variables, other economic rent proxies, and control variables. Furthermore, the impact of past superior performance and sustained market share are considered as alternative summary measures of firms' proven competitive advantages both separately and in combination with other advantage proxies.

The profitability should be higher and the mean reversion of profits lower for firms that can protect themselves against competition. Competitive advantage can be defined as "a capability (or set of capabilities) or resource (or set of resources) that gives the firm an advantage over its rivals which ceteris paribus leads to higher relative profitability" (Wiggins

& Ruefli, 2002). with focus on two approaches to measure firm-level determinants of profitability persistence: (i) the sources of profitability measured by a set of proxies that reflect barriers-to-entry and economic rents and (ii) the outcome of competitive advantages measured by past long-term profitability and market share stability.

2.5.6 Resources

Across the global tourism landscape, the Resource-Based View (RBV) and its extension through dynamic capabilities provide the theoretical foundation for understanding what drives firm level competitiveness. From this vantage point, resources encompass both tangible assets, financial capital, physical infrastructure and intangibles such as firm-specific knowledge, brand equity, and innovative capacity (Barney, 1991; Teece, 2007). Yet, in an era marked by knowledge and rapid digital transformation, shifting consumer preferences, resources alone are insufficient. Only when firms cultivate dynamic capabilities the capacity to integrate, reconfigure, and redeploy resources in response to environmental turbulence can they secure sustainable advantage (Teece, Pisano, & Shuen, 1997). Consequently, the argument holds that TBEs must not only possess valuable and rare resources but also develop the organizational agility to adapt those resources to new market opportunities and threats (Eisenhardt & Martin, 2000).

In Europe's mature tourism markets, resource endowments have long been a necessary but no longer a sufficient condition for competitive success. Recent empirical work on Spanish boutique hotels demonstrates that embedding advanced technological systems reservation platforms, data analytics, and customer-relationship management tools into Global Value Chains reinforces a firm's RBV strengths only when managers possess the dynamic know-how to exploit them (Gómez & Ruiz, 2024). In effect, the mere presence of high-end digital infrastructure fails to generate lasting performance gains unless accompanied by continuous upskilling and strategic alliance-building. Thus, in Europe, an argumentative thread emerges: technological and human resources must be mobilized dynamically, or risk underutilization and obsolescence.

African TBEs operate under very different constraints—often weaker physical infrastructure, skill shortages, and limited capital inflows—yet many have turned natural and cultural endowments into powerful competitive differentiators. Studies of community-based conservancies in Namibia, for example, reveal that inclusive management of wildlife and land resources yields both ecological resilience and enhanced local incomes (Ndlovu, 2021). Similarly, Zimbabwean tour operators contend that cultural heritage and human capital are their most reliable assets for attracting visitors (Sarantinopoulos & Drakos, 2019). Importantly, these cases underscore those RBVderived resources when managed within supportive community and institutional frameworks, can be dynamically leveraged to compensate for other resource deficiencies.

Kenya provides a compelling small-scale version of how layered resource strategies can drive competitiveness such as Natural and Cultural Capital: The Maasai Mara conservancy model whereby Maasai landowners lease grazing areas to safari operators demonstrates that secure resource ownership correlates directly with higher wildlife densities, elevated visitor satisfaction, and greater community revenues (Mwangi & Otieno, 2022). Managerial Dynamic

Capabilities in coastal hubs such as Mombasa, research shows that tour firms with managers who possess strong human, social, and cognitive capabilities outperform peers in profitability and service innovation (Eshiwani, 2018). Moreover, a shift toward domestic tourismsaw the domestic market development, account for over half of hotel occupancy as of 2018, has buffered Kenyan TBEs against global shocks and illustrates how re-orienting existing market resources can fortify resilience (Kenya Tourism Board, 2020). Moreso, institutional support initiatives such as the recent visa-free reforms for intra-African travel and government-led homestay certification schemes, exemplify how institutional resources, policy levers and regulatory framework can catalyze firm-level innovation and market access (Kenya Ministry of Tourism, 2025).

In essence, this evidence encourages that resources are a foundational tenet of tourism enterprise competitiveness, but only when mobilized through dynamic capabilities and situated within enabling institutional and community contexts. At the global scale, RBV highlights the "what" of competitive assets; dynamic capabilities explain the "how" of resource deployment. In Europe, technology and human capital must be co-developed to remain salient; in Africa and particularly Kenya, natural endowments and cultural heritage assume outsized importance, nevertheless only if managed inclusively and bolstered by supportive policy frameworks. The central argument, therefore, is that sustainable competitiveness in tourism demands a layered resource strategy integrating RBV endowments, dynamic operationalization, and institutional facilitation to unlock enduring value across varied geographic landscapes.

2.6 Synergies Between Knowledge Management, Organizational Learning, Quality Culture, and Competitiveness Concepts

The integration of knowledge management (KM), organizational learning (OL), and quality culture (QC) creates a foundation for organizational competitiveness by aligning knowledge utilization, adaptive learning, and process excellence (Grant, 1996; Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Alavi & Leidner, 2001). This interconnected framework enables organizations to remain agile, innovative, and resilient in dynamic markets, such as the tourism industry (Kim, Park & Kim, 2019; Faulkner & Tideswell, 2021). KM can be seen as the strategic foundation, underpinning organizational success by facilitating the systematic acquisition, sharing, and application of knowledge (Chen et al., 2019; Jashapara, 2011; Zhang & Huang, 2021). Literature demonstrates that firms leveraging comprehensive KM processes achieve higher innovation rates and operational efficiency (Kordab et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020).

However, KM's potential is maximized when paired with OL, which ensures that knowledge is not static but dynamically embedded into the organization's practices and decision-making processes (Cegarra-Navarro et al., 2016; Jiang & Wang, 2020; Durst & Edvardsson, 2012). OL complements KM by enabling firms to adapt, innovate, and sustain competitive advantages (Argyris & Schön, 1978; Holmqvist, 2003; Senge, 1990). Through OL, organizations systematically transform individual and collective experiences into actionable strategies, enhancing responsiveness to environmental changes (Garzón et al., 2020; Birasnav & Rangnekar, 2010; Singh & Kant, 2008). These synergies are particularly impactful in knowledge-intensive and service-driven sectors like tourism, where learning and adaptation are essential for maintaining competitiveness (Li & Zhang, 2017; Barisic, 2020; Ogutu et al., 2023).

Subsequently, quality culture acts as the synergistic catalyst that ensures KM and OL are aligned with organizational goals, driving consistency, excellence, and customer value (European University Association, 2006; Rapp, 2011; Denison & Mishra, 1995). Studies indicate that organizations with strong quality cultures not only excel in operational performance but also foster environments conducive to learning and innovation (Simović et al., 2023; Nguyen, Lee & Nguyen, 2021; Munizu, 2019). By emphasizing customer satisfaction, process optimization, and employee involvement, quality culture bridges the gap between knowledge and practice, ensuring that learning translates into tangible competitive advantages (Islam, Ahsan & Hossain, 2020; Santana, Moreira & Leitão, 2018; Viada-Stenger et al., 2010). Therefore, the synergy among KM, OL, and QC creates a self-reinforcing cycle that drives long-term competitiveness. For instance, businesses that successfully integrate KM and OL within a quality-focused culture report enhanced productivity, customer loyalty, and market share (Tavitiyaman & Qu, 2013; Kamya, Ntayi & Ahiauzu, 2011; Simović et al., 2023). This integration is particularly critical in volatile sectors like tourism, where responsiveness to changing customer preferences, service expectations, and market trends determines success (Zhang, Li & Wang, 2018; Buhalis & Foerste, 2015).

Despite their proven benefits, the fragmented implementation of KM, OL, and QC remains a common challenge (Anand, Joshi & Yadav, 2022; Ndegwa, 2015). Organizations often focus on one element in isolation, missing the opportunities presented by their integration. Business leaders and policymakers must advocate for cohesive strategies that promote these synergies (Naveh & Marcus, 2005; Taha & Espino-Rodríguez, 2020). Such an approach not only enhances organizational adaptability and service quality but also secures sustained competitiveness in dynamic markets like tourism (Ogutu et al., 2023; Zhang & Huang, 2021). Consequently, the integration of KM, OL, and quality culture creates a transformative framework that enhances organizational competitiveness by fostering innovation, adaptability, and operational excellence. Future research should further explore sector-specific strategies for optimizing these synergies, tailoring implementation approaches to the diverse contexts and capacities of tourism enterprises (Mariani et al., 2021; Faulkner & Tideswell, 2021).

2.7 Mediating and Moderating Functions Organizational Learning and Quality Culture

In context to this study, organizational learning (OL) functions as a mediating variable, explaining how knowledge management (KM) impacts tourism business enterprises (TBE) competitiveness. OL represents the mechanism through which KM practices, such as knowledge acquisition, sharing, and transfer are absorbed and transformed into actionable strategies that enhance performance. For instance, effective OL ensures that insights derived from KM processes are institutionalized, enabling organizations to innovate, adapt to market changes, and improve service quality (Nonaka et al., 1994). Conversely, quality culture (QC) serves as a moderating variable, influencing the strength and consistency of the KM-TBEC relationship. A robust QC amplifies the effectiveness of KM by embedding an ethos of excellence and continuous improvement across the organization. Without a strong QC, even well-executed KM practices might fail to generate meaningful competitive advantages, as the organizational environment would lack the necessary discipline and focus to apply knowledge effectively.

This distinction is critical because OL and QC address different but complementary dimensions of how KM contributes to competitiveness. OL operates at the operational and transformational level, ensuring that knowledge is not only retained but also applied for long-term growth. In contrast, QC operates at a cultural level, ensuring that the outcomes of KM processes meet high standards and are aligned with the organization's competitive goals. Nonetheless, the variation between OL as a mediator and QC as a moderator reveals a layered complexity in how KM influences competitiveness. Arguably, the mediating role of OL is indispensable in translating KM into actionable outcomes. Without OL, the mere availability of knowledge does not guarantee its application, as organizations often lack the frameworks to learn from and act on insights. This aligns with Garvin's (1993) concept of a learning organization, where OL is seen as a central enabler of competitive advantage.

However, on the other hand the role of QC as a moderator has been underestimated. Organizations with a weak QC may fail to capitalize on the outputs of KM and OL. For instance, an enterprise that excels in knowledge acquisition but lacks a commitment to quality may struggle to deliver consistent customer satisfaction, which is a cornerstone of competitiveness in tourism. Thus, QC acts as a safeguard, ensuring that KM-driven initiatives maintain their strategic focus and operational effectiveness (Buhalis & Leung, 2018). Moreso, this interaction between OL and QC underscores the need for a dual approach to KM implementation. Tourism businesses must cultivate OL to ensure knowledge is utilized effectively, while simultaneously fostering a strong QC to maintain high standards of output. The synergy between these variables creates a robust framework through which KM can drive sustainable competitive advantages, making this model particularly relevant in the dynamic and customer-centric tourism industry.

2.8 Bibliometric Analysis and Knowledge Management, Organizational Learning, Quality Culture, and Competitiveness in Tourism Business

Recent bibliometric studies reveal the increasingly complex interplay between KM and OL, emphasizing their strategic importance for innovation and adaptability in tourism business enterprises (Chen, 2006; Tseng & Lien, 2014; Barisic, 2020). Bibliometric methods (Figure: 2.13) offer robust tools to map research trends, identify influential contributions, and trace intellectual structures underpinning knowledge dissemination in the tourism field (Chen, 2006; Grant, 1996; Aria & Cuccurullo, 2017). Systematic KM is integral to fostering continuous organizational learning, enhancing service quality, and sustaining competitive performance (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Chen et al., 2019). The convergence of these disciplines is forming an emerging paradigm that places knowledge flows and learning dynamics at the heart of strategic innovation in tourism (Grant, 1996; Zhang, Li & Wang, 2018; Anand, Joshi & Yadav, 2022). Parallel to these developments, the literature emphasizes the reinforcing role of quality culture in driving innovation and competitive advantage in tourism enterprises (Hsu, Chang & Chang, 2007; Chi & Gursoy, 2009; Simović et al., 2023).

Empirical findings show that a robust quality culture fosters organizational learning and enhances the integration of knowledge across processes, thereby enabling agility in volatile market conditions (Nguyen, Lee & Nguyen, 2021; Islam, Ahsan & Hossain, 2020). A quality-driven environment improves customer satisfaction, ensures process consistency, and catalyzes operational efficiency, key outcomes in competitive tourism markets (Denison & Mishra, 1995;

Viada-Stenger et al., 2010). Researchers advocate for a holistic approach that combines bibliometric insights, OL, QC and KM practices to forge resilient and adaptive tourism enterprises (Rapp, 2011; Simović et al., 2023; Zhang & Huang, 2021).

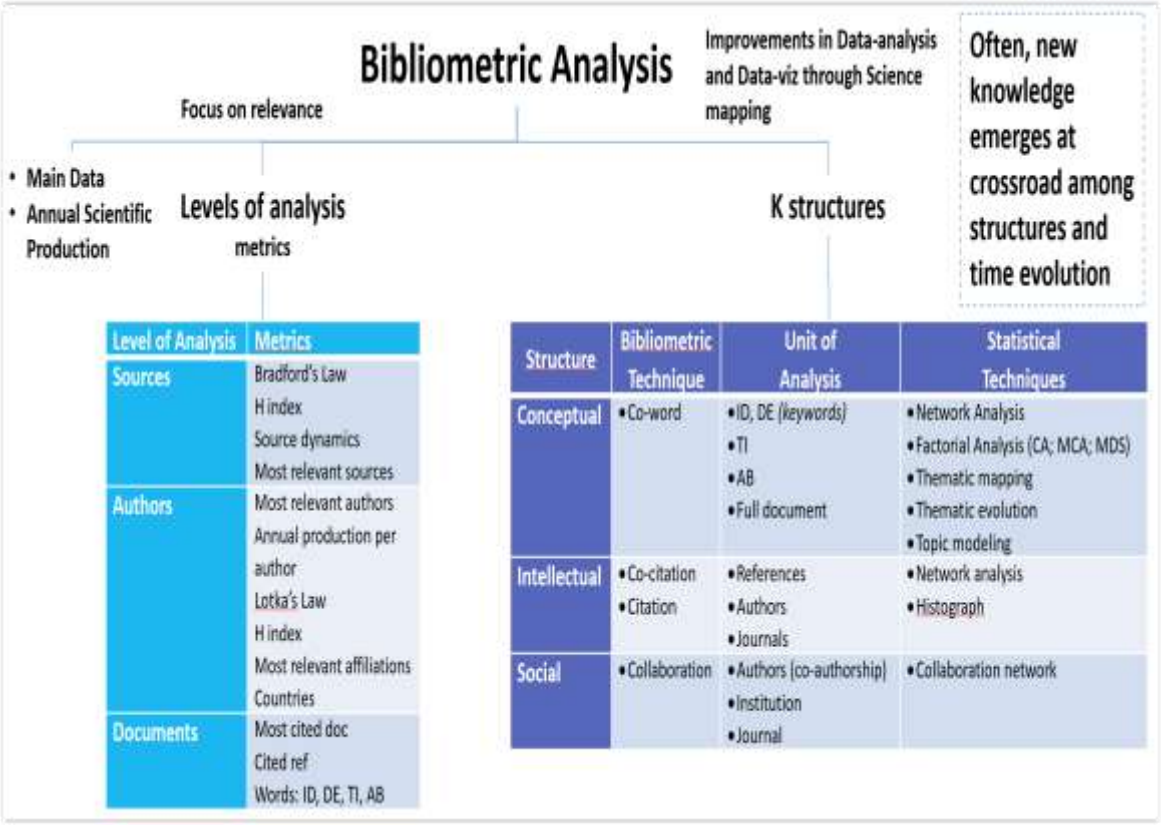

Figure 2.13: Bibliometrics Flowchart
Aria, M., & Cuccurullo, C. (2017)

Moreso, with the use of co-word analysis, the mapping of dominant themes, author collaborations, and citation patterns (Figure: 2.13), offers a detailed picture of scientific output and influence. Trends reveal increasing attention to KM-QC integration and its role in sustainability strategies (Mariani, Borghi & Kazemargi, 2021; Ogutu et al., 2023). Nevertheless, deeper investigation is needed into how quality culture operationalizes KM and OL frameworks in practice, particularly in SMEs and emerging markets (Kapiki, 2012; Tavitiyaman, Qu & Tsang, 2020). To this end, the study sought to explore the current empirical conceptual relationship, through the use of bibliometric Inquiry so as to identify what the current scientific situation is on how OL mediates and how QC moderates KM's influence on performance indicators, in tourism business enterprise competitiveness context and the intensity of this effect.

2.9 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This section reviews the literature on theories to identify the relevant practices comprising organisational learning, knowledge management, quality culture and competitiveness. Based on literature review, several theories assert to explain knowledge management, organisational learning, quality and competitiveness. Of these, the following theories were commonly used as a guide to research on the aspect mentioned previously. The Resource-based Theory (RBT) (Penrose,1959) holds that a firm's resources that are rare, valuable, inimitable and non-substitutable determine its sustainable success. The Resource-Based View (RBV) is a managerial framework used to determine the strategic resources with the potential to deliver comparative advantage to a firm. The firm can exploit these resources in order to achieve sustainable competitive advantage. Likewise, the Institutional theory was commonly used as a guide based on literature reviewed. This theory considers how best to apply the valuable resources of the firm to improve the firm's competitive advantage (Penrose, 1959; Grant, 1991). It suggests that social and environmental factors play an important role in creating an isomorphic effect, which influences the adoption of certain management practices (Meyer and Rowan, 1997), such as quality management standards (Nair and Prajogo, 2009; Heras-Saizarbitoria, 2011; HerasSaizarbitoria and Boiral, 2012). Consequently, if quality management is seen as a means of improving internal efficiency, the outcome is more likely to be a workable system to a culture of quality. Therefore, managers committed to internal drivers adopt quality culture with a proactive approach and then differences in success can appear depending on whether the drivers are internal or external.

2.9.1 Resource Based Theory

Resource Based Theory (RBT) holds that a firm's resources that are rare, valuable, inimitable and non-substitutable determine its sustainable success (Prahalad and Hamel, 1990). Resources include anything that is a strength or weakness of a given firm whether tangible physical capital and intangible resources embedded in human and organization capitals (Barney, 1991; Wenerfelt 1984). Successful firms are those that acquire and maintain rare, specialized and inimitable resources for competitive advantage, which in turn produces positive returns (Wernerfelt, 1984; Barney, 1991; Peteraf, 1993). The theory also holds that the choice of resources is guided by the motives of efficiency, effectiveness and profitability, which enable firms to generate competitive advantage (Conner, 1991). This study considered knowledge as a resource bundle and knowledge sharing as the strategy to obtain the positive returns of organizational learning and ultimately improved competitiveness in terms of performance. The study intends to add precision to resource-based theory by exploring the contribution of knowledge management, organizational learning and quality culture on business enterprise competitiveness.

Moreover, the theory provides a useful compliment to Porter's (1980) perspective of firms achieving competitive advantage and in understanding firm resources. However, the concept of resources remains vague in that it is rarely operationally defined and it does not clarify how to transform resources to customer value (Miller and Shamsie, 1996). Critics hold that resource-based theory needs to consider the contexts within which resources will have the best influence on performance by delineating external environment in which different kinds of resources would be most productive (Porter, 1991). He further argues that competitive value of resources can be enhanced or eliminated by changes in technology; competitor behaviour or

buyer needs which resource-based inward focus would overlook. This study, seeks to clarify how resources such as knowledge management, organisational learning and quality culture can contribute to better organizational and business enterprises competitiveness.

2.9.1.1 The Resource-Based View

The resource-based view (RBV), (Barney, 1991) is a managerial framework used to determine the strategic resources with the potential to deliver comparative advantage to a firm. The firm can exploit these resources in order to achieve sustainable competitive advantage. Barney's 1991 article "Firm Resources and Sustained Competitive Advantage" is widely cited as a pivotal work in the emergence of the resource-based view. However, some scholars argue that there was evidence for a fragmentary resource-based theory from the 1930s. RBV proposes that firms are heterogeneous because they possess heterogeneous resources, meaning firms can have different strategies because they have different resource mixes. The RBV focuses managerial attention on the firm's internal resources in an effort to identify those assets, capabilities and competencies with the potential to deliver superior competitive advantages (Wikipedia).

Achieving a sustainable competitive advantage lies at the heart of much of the literature in both strategic management and strategic marketing (Fahy & Smithee, 1999). The resource-based view offers strategists a means of evaluating potential factors that can be deployed to confer a competitive edge. A key insight arising from the resource-based view is that not all resources are of equal importance, nor possess the potential to become a source of sustainable competitive advantage (Fahy & Smithee, 1999). The sustainability of any competitive advantage depends on the extent to which resources can be imitated or substituted (Lowson, 2003). Barney and others point out that understanding the causal relationship between the sources of advantage and successful strategies can be very difficult in practice Barney, J. B., (1991). Thus, a great deal of managerial effort must be invested in identifying, understanding and classifying core competencies. In addition, management must invest in organisational learning to develop, nurture and maintain key resources and competencies. Barney uses the term "causally ambiguous" which he describes as a situation when "the link between the resources controlled by the firm and the firm's sustained competitive advantage is not understood or understood only very imperfectly."

In the resource-based view, strategists select the strategy or competitive position that best exploits the internal resources and capabilities relative to external opportunities. Given that strategic resources represent a complex network of inter-related assets and capabilities, organisations can adopt many possible competitive positions (Figure: 2.14). Although scholars debate the precise categories of competitive positions that are used, there is general agreement, within the literature, that the resource-based view is much more flexible than Porter's prescriptive approach to strategy formulation Day, & Wensley, (1988); Day, (1994) & Hooley, Greenley, Fahy, Cadogan, 2001). The model below elucidates RBV and highlights the key arguments:

Figure 2.14: Resource-Based View
Source: Strategic Management Insight (2013)

According to RBV proponents, it is much more feasible to exploit external opportunities using existing resources in a new way rather than trying to acquire new skills for each different opportunity. In RBV model, resources are given the major role in helping companies to achieve higher organizational performance. There are two types of resources: tangible and intangible.

***2.9.1.1.1 Tangible assets are physical things*:** Land, buildings, machinery, equipment and capital – all these assets are tangible. Physical resources can easily be bought in the market so they confer little advantage to the companies in the long run because rivals can soon acquire the identical assets.

2.9.1.1.2 Intangible assets: are everything else that has no physical presence but can still be owned by the company. Brand reputation, trademarks, intellectual property are all intangible assets. Unlike physical resources, brand reputation is built over a long time and is something that other companies cannot buy from the market. Intangible resources usually stay within a company and are the main source of sustainable competitive advantage. The two critical assumptions of RBV are that resources must also be heterogeneous and immobile.

2.9.1.1.3 Heterogeneous; The first assumption is that skills, capabilities and other resources that organizations possess differ from one company to another. If organizations would have the same amount and mix of resources, they could not employ different strategies to outcompete each other. What one company would do, the other could simply follow and no competitive advantage could be achieved. This is the scenario of perfect competition, yet real world markets are far from perfectly competitive and some companies, which are exposed to the same external and competitive forces (same external conditions), are able to implement different strategies and outperform each other. Therefore, RBV assumes that companies achieve competitive advantage by using their different bundles of resources.

2.9.1.1.4 Immobile*;* The second assumption of RBV is that resources are not mobile and do not move from company to company, at least in short-run. Due to this immobility, companies cannot replicate rivals' resources and implement the same strategies. Intangible

resources, such as brand equity, processes, knowledge or intellectual property is usually immobile.

2.9.2 The Institutional Theory

Further to the above-mentioned theories and approaches, this study will be guided by the Institutional theory(DiMaggio & Powell 1983; Scott 2008), which suggests that social and environmental factors play an important role in creating an isomorphic effect, which influences the adoption of certain management practices (Meyer and Rowan, 1997), such as quality management standards (Nair and Prajogo, 2009; Heras-Saizarbitoria, 2011; HerasSaizarbitoria and Boiral, 2012). If external pressures motive a company the organisation conforms only at an administrative or surface level (Martínez-Costa et al., 2008) and fewer improvements derive from the quality system (Brown *et al*., 1998) the lead to quality management. If the motives for quality culture are more internal (Garvin, 1993; Sadikoglu & Zehir, 2010) an organisation may create valuable resources, because the activities linked with the quality strategic management, which would be part of the technical core (Martínez-Costa et al., 2008). Consequently, if quality management is seen as a means of improving internal efficiency, the outcome is more likely to be a workable system. Therefore, managers committed to internal drivers adopt quality culture with a proactive approach and then differences in success can appear depending on whether the drivers are internal or external. This theory will used to examine how an individual uses social process to accustom oneself in an organization that has its own norms, practices, rules, and conventions by applying the Institutional Theoretical Lens.

2.9.3 Dynamic Capabilities Theory

Dynamic capabilities Theory (Teece, Pisano & Shuen,1997), is "the firm's ability to integrate, build, and reconfigure internal and external competences to address rapidly changing environments". Dynamic capabilities can be distinguished from operational capabilities, which pertain to the current operations of an organization (David J. Teece, Gary Pisano, and Amy Shuen, 2013). Dynamic capabilities, by contrast, refer to "the capacity of an organization to purposefully create, extend, or modify its resource base" (Helfat et al., 2007). The basic assumption of the dynamic capabilities' framework is that core competencies should be used to modify short-term competitive positions that can be used to build longer-term competitive advantage.

2.9.3.1 Processes

Three dynamic capabilities are necessary in order to meet new challenges. Organizations and their employees need the capability to learn quickly and to build strategic assets. New strategic assets such as capability, technology, and customer feedback have to be integrated within the company. Existing strategic assets have to be transformed or reconfigured. Teece's concept of dynamic capabilities essentially says that what matters for business is corporate agility: the capacity to (1) sense and shape opportunities and threats, (2) seize opportunities, and (3) maintain competitiveness through enhancing, combining, protecting, and, when necessary, reconfiguring the business enterprise's intangible and tangible assets.

2.9.3.2 Learning

Learning requires common codes of communication and coordinated search procedures. The organizational knowledge generated resides in new patterns of activity, in "routines," or a new logic of organization. Routines are patterns of interactions that represent successful solutions to particular problems. These patterns of interaction are resident in group behaviour, and certain sub-routines may be resident in individual behaviour. Collaborations and partnerships can be a source for new organizational learning, which helps firms to recognize dysfunctional routines and prevent strategic blind spots. Similar to learning, building strategic assets is another dynamic capability. For example, alliance and acquisition routines can enable firms to bring new strategic assets into the firm from external sources.

2.9.3.3 New Assets

The effective and efficient internal coordination or integration of strategic assets may also determine a firm's performance. According to Garvin (1988), quality performance is driven by special organizational routines for gathering and processing information, linking customer experiences with engineering design choices, and coordinating factories and component suppliers. Increasingly, competitive advantage also requires the integration of external activities and technologies: for example, in the form of alliances and the virtual corporation. Zahra and Nielsen (2002) show that internal and external human resources and technological resources are related to technology commercialization.

2.9.3.4 Transformation of Existing Assets

Fast-changing markets require the ability to reconfigure the firm's asset structure and accomplish the necessary internal and external transformation (Amit and Schoemaker, 1993). Change is costly, and so firms must develop processes to find high-payoff changes at low costs. The capability to change depends on the ability to scan the environment, evaluate markets, and quickly accomplish reconfiguration and transformation ahead of the competition. This can be supported by decentralization, local autonomy, and strategic alliances.

2.9.3.5 Co-specialization

Over time, a firm's assets may become co-specialized, meaning that they are uniquely valuable in combination. An example is where the physical assets (e.g., plants), human resources (e.g., researchers), and intellectual property (e.g., patents and tacit knowledge) of a company provide a synergistic combination of complementary assets. Such co-specialized assets are therefore more valuable in combination than in isolation. The combination gives a firm a more sustainable competitive advantage (Teece, 2009; Douma and Schreuder, 2013).

2.9.3.6 Asset Orchestration

If capabilities are dependent on co-specialized assets, it makes the coordination task of management particularly difficult. Managerial decisions should take the optimal configuration of assets into account. Asset orchestration refers to the managerial search, selection, and configuration of resources and capabilities. The term intends to convey that, in an optimal configuration of assets, the whole is more valuable than the sum of the parts. Capabilities are the capacities to coordinate and deploy resources to perform tasks (Teece, et al., 1997). Dynamic capabilities are an extension of the resource-based view but emphasizes on reconfiguration of resources (Helfat and Peteraf, 2003; Schilke, 2014). Dynamic Capabilities Theory (DCT) advances the view that capabilities are the antecedent organizational and

strategic routines by which managers alter their resource base, acquire and shed resources, integrate them together and recombine them to generate new value creating strategies (Grant, 1996). Organizational learning is a critical dynamic capability. A firm with dynamic capabilities can integrate and redeploy knowledge resources to create new products and processes and as a result obtain greater competitiveness (Chien and Tsai, 2012).

As stated by Prieto and Easterby-Smith (2006), learning is the process of using the knowledge resources, which facilitate the capacity of integrating and reconfiguring knowledge thereby gaining competitive advantage. Dynamic capabilities enable firms to integrate and redeploy knowledge resources and as a result obtain greater firm performance (Robert and Grover, 2011). Dynamic capability also enables firms to create new products and processes and to respond to changing market conditions (Helfat, 1997). DCT is useful in that it involves the organizational processes by which resources are utilized to create growth and adaptation within changing environments thus affecting competitiveness (Helfat and Peteraf, 2003; Peteraf *et al.,* 2013). However, the theory needs further theoretical work to show how firms get to improve (Teece, et.al., 1997). Organizational learning, a major dynamic capability clarifies how knowledge in form of ideas, insights, experiences and information are utilized to create improved performance. This was clarified through the direct and mediating role of organizational learning on organizational performance.

2.10 The Theoretical Nexus of KM, OL, OC and TBE Competitiveness

The association of knowledge management (KM) and tourism business enterprise (TBE) competitiveness has emerged as a focal point of scholarly inquiry amid increasing globalization, market liberalization, and sectoral volatility (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Teece, Pisano & Shuen, 1997; Ogutu et al., 2023). This literature review critically synthesizes the evolving theoretical discourse around knowledge management (KM), organizational learning (OL), organisational culture particularly quality culture (QC), and firm-level competitiveness by advancing a multi-theoretical framework rooted in microeconomic perspectives. At a macro level, global research underscores the necessity of adapting tourism business strategies to survive in uncertain and highly competitive environments (Barney, 1991; Dunning, 2000). A comprehensive understanding of competitiveness requires more than isolated theoretical lenses.

Consequently, this study integrates four dominant microeconomic theories Resource-Based View (RBV), Knowledge-Based View (KBV), Dynamic Capabilities View (DCBV), and Institutional-Based View (IBV) to construct a holistic explanatory model of how TBEs leverage knowledge for sustained performance (Teece, 2007; Scott, 2008; Grant, 1996; Ogutu et al., 2023). RBV posits that firms achieve competitive advantage by acquiring and deploying valuable, rare, inimitable, and non-substitutable resources (Barney, 1991). KBV builds on RBV by identifying knowledge as the most strategic organizational resource that can drive innovation, differentiation, and market leadership (Grant, 1996; Spender, 1996). DCBV extends these views by emphasizing how firms dynamically integrate, build, and reconfigure internal and external competencies to address rapidly changing environments (Teece et al., 1997). IBV, meanwhile, brings in the external context, underscoring the institutional pressures, industry norms, and policy frameworks that shape organizational behavior and competitiveness (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Scott, 2008). Integrating these theories offers a multi-dimensional understanding of how tourism enterprises generate and sustain competitive advantage.

Competitiveness, therefore, is not only a function of internal capabilities but also of adaptive alignment with institutional dynamics and external regulatory environments (Ogutu et al., 2023).

While the four theories independently contribute valuable insights, emerging literature identifies organizational learning and quality culture as crucial yet underexplored mediating and moderating variables in the KM–competitiveness relationship (Argyris & Schön, 1978; Senge, 1990; Sadikoglu & Zehir, 2010). Organizational learning facilitates continuous knowledge transformation, allowing firms to internalize best practices and adapt strategically, while quality culture promotes shared values, continuous improvement, and systemic thinking (Garvin, 1993; Alavi & Leidner, 2001). These constructs enhance the theoretical linkage between knowledge flows and sustained competitiveness. Within tourism, the challenge is compounded by inherent industry characteristics volatility, ambiguity, susceptibility to external shocks, and customer unpredictability which necessitate agile strategic management (Pforr, 2001; Buhalis & Law, 2008). Tourism enterprises are not homogenous; they vary by size, regional embeddedness, and market orientation, calling for flexible and context-sensitive competitiveness models (Scott & Laws, 2006). Therefore, KM practices in tourism must be contextualized within sector-specific institutional, cultural, and resource realities.

Recent studies increasingly emphasize that the competitiveness of TBEs is a function of RBV, KBV, DCBV, and IBV frameworks TBE = f(RBV, KBV, DCBV, IBV), especially when augmented by OL and QC processes (Ogutu et al., 2023). For instance, a tourism firm's dynamic capability its ability to reconfigure knowledge and resources in response to rapid change is integral to sustained innovation and market relevance (Teece, 2007; Zahra & George, 2002). Meanwhile, institutional alignment (e.g., with quality standards or tourism policy regulations) provides legitimacy and resilience. Despite this theoretical richness, a significant research gap persists concerning the empirical applicability of these integrated frameworks across diverse tourism contexts, particularly in developing regions such as Sub-Saharan Africa. Studies rarely address how firm-level characteristics (e.g., scale, ownership structure, governance) mediate the efficacy of KM strategies, OL mechanisms, or QC initiatives in promoting competitiveness under resource-constrained environments (Ndivo et al., 2012; Novelli, 2016). Moreover, existing research often underrepresents the institutional peculiarities and sociocultural contexts of African tourism businesses.

Moreover, a coherent reading of these theories shows that they do not simply accumulate but instead illuminate different dimensions of how firms build and sustain competitiveness. RBV and KBV converge in emphasizing the strategic role of internal resources, particularly knowledge, yet they diverge in their assumptions about how such resources generate advantage, with RBV tending toward a more static view (Barney, 1991) and KBV foregrounding knowledge as an active, evolving driver of value creation (Grant, 1996; Spender, 1996). DCBV complicates both positions by arguing that resources matter only when firms possess the agility to reconfigure them in response to environmental turbulence (Teece, Pisano & Shuen, 1997; Teece, 2007), thereby introducing a temporal and adaptive dimension that earlier perspectives understate. IBV, in contrast, shifts attention outward by demonstrating that firms operate within institutional landscapes that shape, constrain, and legitimate their strategic choices (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Scott, 2008). When organizational learning and

quality culture are integrated into this theoretical assemblage, they provide the connective tissue that explains how knowledge is interpreted, embedded, and enacted within firms. OL operationalizes the transformation of knowledge into adaptive capability (Argyris & Schön, 1978; Senge, 1990), while QC reinforces the norms and values that govern these learning processes (Garvin, 1993; Sadikoglu & Zehir, 2010). Together, these theoretical strands reveal that tourism enterprise competitiveness emerges not from a single causal mechanism but from the dynamic interplay between internal capabilities, learning-oriented cultures, and institutional environments, a relationship that becomes especially relevant in resource-constrained and volatile tourism contexts (Buhalis & Law, 2008; Ogutu et al., 2023).

By anchoring these global theories within a localized tourism management context, the study aims to advance a regionally responsive and theoretically integrated framework for understanding and enhancing TBE competitiveness. Bridging these theoretical domains not only enriches academic discourse but also offers actionable insights for tourism policymakers and enterprise managers seeking to achieve sustainable competitive advantage in volatile and complex markets, particularly in under-researched African contexts (Ogutu et al., 2023; Teece, 2007; Grant, 1996).

2.11 Knowledge Gaps in Previous Studies

Selected studies on knowledge management, organizational learning, quality culture and business enterprise competitiveness have been reviewed and synthesized. Various knowledge gaps have been identified from the review of literature and tabulated for ease of reference. These research gaps inform the statement of the problem and the conceptual framework of this study. The gaps of knowledge as related to this study are highlighted in Table 2.1 appended in Annex 5. Table 2.1 also provides suggestions of how the current study addressed the knowledge gaps. Subsequently, a conceptual model derived from literature will assist in addressing the implied gaps in knowledge.

2.12 Conceptual Framework

This study adopts an integrative perspective of different variables. It integrates knowledge management, organizational learning, quality culture and competitiveness into a single model. The conceptual framework is constructed on reviewed theoretical models and considerations presented in the literature review. It presents the researcher's schematization of the study variables and depicts how the variables relate, how they will be measured as well as tested. The study hypothesizes that tourism business enterprises can improve their competitiveness by managing knowledge within the organization. Further, it holds that the relationship between knowledge management and competitiveness can be moderated by organizational learning and mediated by a quality culture. Figure 2.14 depicts these relationships.

The schematic diagram presented in Figure 2.15 (The conceptual model) shows the relationship between four variables of the study: two exogenous variables and the other two

endogenous variables. Namely: Knowledge management (Exogenous which acts as the independent variable), Organisational learning (also exogenous and is the intervening variable) Quality culture (is endogenous acting as the moderating variable) and competitiveness (also endogenous and will be acting as the dependent variable in the study).

The framework also shows the indicators to be used to measure the variables. Knowledge management will be defined using knowledge creation & innovation, acquisition, transfer & refinement and sharing as indicators. While the extent to which, organization learning influences the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises will be mediated by the following elements: Individual Learning (the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and attitudes by individuals within the organization (Argote & Miron-Spektor, 2011; Riggio et al., 2022). Group/Team Learning: a collaborative learning processes that occurs within teams or departments (Edmondson & Nembhard, 2009; Fuchs et al., 2020). Institutional Learning/Organizational Memory: The ability to capture and retain knowledge at the organizational level (Walsh & Ungson, 1991; Badri et al., 2023). System Thinking: this can be understood as the capacity of viewing things holistically encompassing all types of different inter-relationships between the existing elements in a complex system (Senge, 2010; Flood, 2010; Dominici and Levanti, 2011).

On the other hand, quality culture is perceived to moderate the relationship between knowledge management and competitiveness of tourism business enterprises using the following parameters: Quality Standards: an established criteria for delivering high-quality products and services (Juran & Gryna, 1993; Schonenberg et al., 2020). Customer Focus: the organization's commitment to meeting customer expectations and satisfaction (Parasuraman et al., 1988; Chang et al., 2022). Continuous Improvement: being the ongoing efforts to enhance processes, products, and services (Deming, 1986; Carvalho et al., 2021). Quality Assurance: systems and procedures to ensure adherence to quality standards (ISO 9001, 2015; Iqbal et al., 2020).

Whilst Tourism business enterprises competitiveness was measured using the following parameters: Market Share: thus, understanding customer needs, market trends, and competitor strategies (Kotler et al., 2017; Uslay et al., 2022). Marketing Visibility: Promoting the business and its offerings to target customers effectively (Keller, 2003; Ratten, 2022). Profitability is the net result of various policies and managerial decisions (Brigham, Gapenski, Ehrhardt,1999). Productivity is the efficiency with which firms, organisations, industry, and the economy, convert inputs (labour, capital, and raw materials) into output. Resources, Customer Retention and Experience: the adequate utilisation of knowledge resources among others to create positive and memorable experiences for customers throughout their journey to retain them (Pine & Gilmore, 1998; Chen & Xie, 2021).

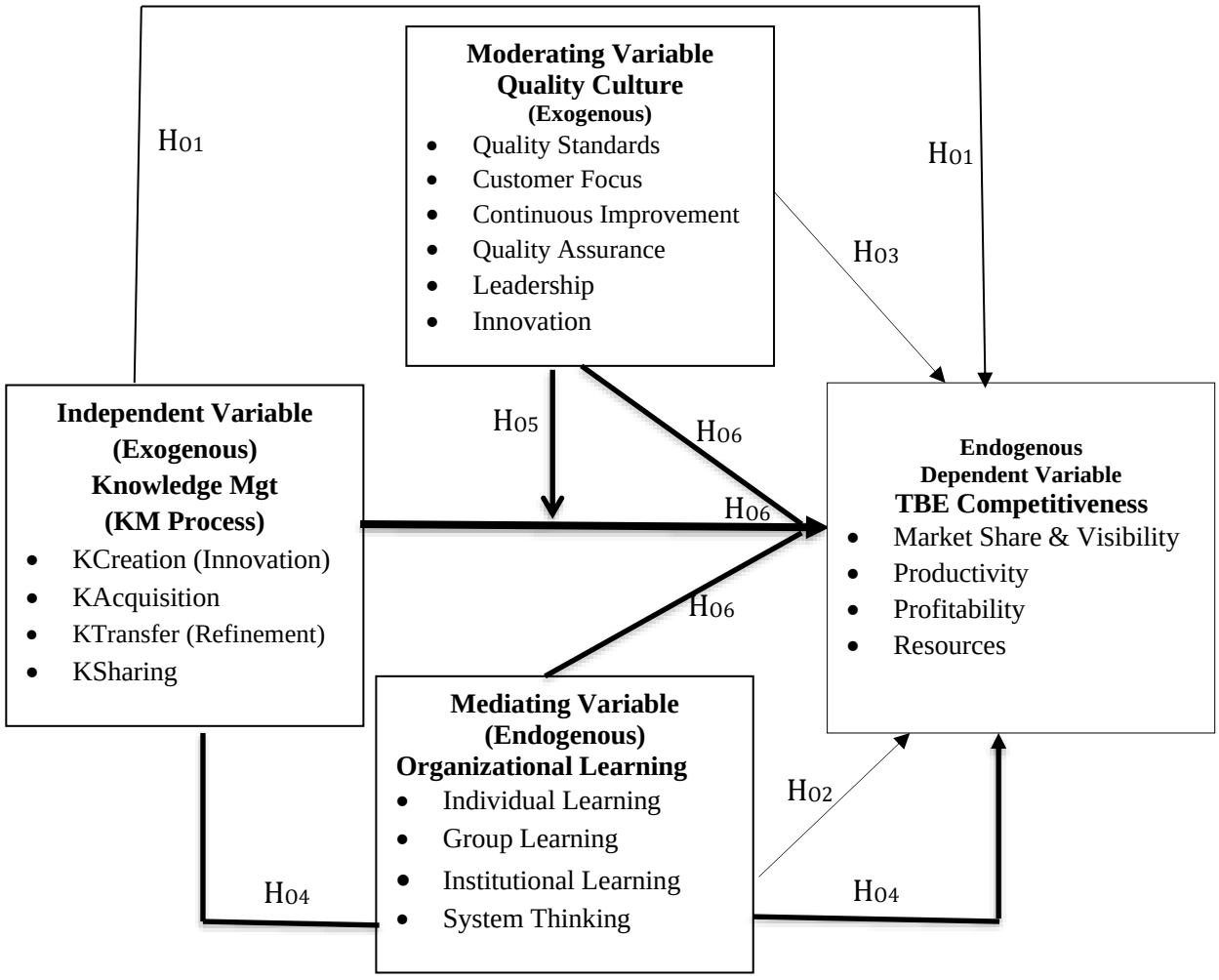

Figure 2.15: Conceptual Model
Researcher (2024)

The model posits that knowledge management influences tourism business enterprise competitiveness. The model further, suggests that there is a moderating effect of organisation learning in the relationship between knowledge management and tourism business competitiveness. Another linkage suggested is the mediating role of quality culture in the relationship between Knowledge management and tourism business enterprises performance. Lastly, the model sought to examine the joint effect of knowledge management, organization learning and quality culture on competition measured in both financial and non-financial facets. The study sought to discover to what extent does KM, OL, and QC influence the Competitiveness of TBEs. Focusing on the human aspect and building upon the pillars of knowledge management, organizational learning, quality culture, and their impact on tourism business enterprises competitiveness, the study's conceptual framework depicts, that effective

knowledge management practices enable organizations to facilitate the learning process, allowing for improved knowledge acquisition, sharing, and creation (Argote, 2013; Zheng et al., 2021; Kaur et al., 2022). By effectively managing knowledge, organizations can create an environment conducive to continuous learning and development.

Moreover, a robust knowledge management framework plays a vital role in fostering a quality culture within organizations. It provides access to relevant knowledge, enabling employees to make informed decisions and actively contribute to continuous improvement efforts (Alavi & Leidner, 2001; Deming, 1986; Marouf & Ezz, 2021; Carvalho et al., 2021). A culture that values quality becomes ingrained within the organization's practices and processes. Nonetheless, a learning culture within an organization nurtures a mindset focused on quality. It encourages employees to seek knowledge, embrace learning opportunities, and actively participate in continuous improvement initiatives (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008; Juran & Gryna, 1993; Fuchs et al., 2020; Schonenberg et al., 2020). This culture empowers individuals to develop their skills and contribute to the organization's overall quality performance. The integration of effective knowledge management, organizational learning, and a quality culture positively impacts tourism business competitiveness. Therefore, leveraging these resources, organizations can create innovative products/services, enhance customer satisfaction, and improve overall organizational performance (Kotler et al., 2017; Zheng et al., 2021; ISO 9001, 2015; Uslay et al., 2022). This holistic approach should enable tourism businesses to adapt to changing market demands and gain a competitive edge.

2.13 Chapter Summary

This chapter was looking at the theoretical foundation of the study. This includes theories such as: knowledge-based theory, resource-based theory, institutional theory and dynamic capabilities theory, which was focusing on their proposition, relevance to the study and critic of the theory. The literature reviewed in line with the study objectives was looking at the relationships between the study variables. A summary of knowledge gaps comprising of selected empirical and conceptual studies is provided. The studies reviewed provided insights on knowledge sharing, organizational learning, quality culture and tourism business competitiveness. Providing a conceptual model depicting the hypothesized relationships stated in null concludes the chapter.

CHAPTER THREE
MATERIALS, METHODS AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a description of the research methodology that will be used to conduct the study. This includes research design, target populations, sample size and sampling procedures/techniques, data collection instruments, data analysis techniques and ethical considerations.

3.2 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

Research philosophy is the underlying assumption upon which research and development in the field of inquiry is based. The principal philosophical paradigms in social sciences are positivism and phenomenology. Positivist paradigm is a research orientation that assumes that useful research is based on theory, hypotheses and quantitative data. A positivist researcher begins with an accurate description of observable events from which laws mathematically describing natural regularities may be extracted (Schrag, 1992). Positivist paradigm adopts a clear quantitative approach to investigating phenomena. The researcher focuses on facts, looks for causality and fundamental laws, reduces phenomena to simplest elements, formulates hypotheses and tests them (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2007). On the other hand, phenomenology assumes that to be objective a researcher must avoid prior assumptions about theory, hypotheses and quantification as these issues create bias by directing the researcher to focus on certain things at the expense of the total picture. Phenomenology focuses on immediate experience and relies more on case study, which is characterized by open and unstructured interviews (Zikmund, 2003).

As a method of inquiry, phenomenology describes things as they are, not as the researcher thinks they are. It is thus more thorough and more informed in its observation of experiential phenomena. The main limitation of phenomenology is that it leads to unclear conclusions characterized by less precision, rigor and credibility, which are likely to lead to distortions. This study will be guided by the pragmatic approach where the researcher can use both aspects of the two approaches. One reason being it is grounded on an existing body of knowledge, the researcher reviewed literature from previous related studies, a conceptual model was developed and hypotheses formulated which will be tested using statistical techniques leading to their acceptance or rejection. Then secondly, the qualitative quotes can be used to support statistical findings.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

This study adopts a mixed methods research design, integrating quantitative, qualitative, and bibliometric approaches to examine how Knowledge Management (KM), Organizational Learning (OL), and Quality Culture (QC) influence the competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises (TBEs) in Kenya. The selection of a mixed methods framework

is grounded in the recognition that complex social phenomena are best understood through the convergence of numerical trends and contextual meanings (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003; Greene, 2007). This design allows for triangulation, enhances the validity of findings, and provides a more holistic account of the research problem (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Bryman, 2006; Ivankova, Creswell, & Stick, 2006).

To operationalize the mixed methods approach, the study employs both descriptive and explanatory research designs. The descriptive design is appropriate for obtaining an accurate representation of the existing conditions of KM, OL, and QC across TBEs, enabling the systematic collection and presentation of data on their prevalence and distribution (Kothari, 2005; Babbie, 2010). As suggested by Mugenda and Mugenda (2013), descriptive research is effective in minimizing bias, maximizing data reliability, and offering insights into the nature and characteristics of specific variables. It is particularly useful in studies seeking to capture a snapshot of organizational practices and behaviors within a defined population (Orodho, 2003; Neuman, 2014). Complementing this, the explanatory research design facilitates the investigation of causal relationships and underlying mechanisms among the study variables (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2016; Yin, 2014). Explanatory research is essential in contexts where theoretical clarity is still developing and where empirical models must be constructed to test hypotheses or explore dynamic interdependencies (Zikmund et al., 2010; Robson & McCartan, 2016). It enables the researcher to build upon preliminary observations and refine understanding through deeper, theory-informed inquiry (Trochim & Donnelly, 2006; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Moreover, explanatory designs are instrumental in uncovering latent influences and mediating factors that descriptive designs alone may overlook (Bhattacherjee, 2012; Creswell, 2014).

The integration of these two designs within the mixed methods framework is not arbitrary but strategically aligned with the research purpose: to map patterns and understand causality in the interplay between KM, OL, QC, and competitiveness in TBEs. This approach ensures that both the “what” and the “why” of the research problem are addressed (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989; Venkatesh, Brown, & Bala, 2013), thereby improving both the external and internal validity of the study (Maxwell, 2013; Morse, 2010). Therefore, the use of a mixed methods design in this study is supported by descriptive and explanatory strategies which provided a rigorous and multidimensional framework for this study. It reflected the complexity of organizational behavior in tourism enterprises and aligns with the epistemological and methodological imperatives of contemporary social science research (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010; Creswell, 2009; Bazeley, 2013).

3.4 SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW AND BIBLIOMETRIC ANALYSIS

To build a robust conceptual and theoretical foundation, the study employed a **bibliometric scientific mapping** complemented by systematic literature review (SLR). The SLR followed a structured protocol in accordance with PRISMA guidelines (Moher et al., 2009, Aria and Cuccurullo, 2017) as shown in (figure 3.1), beginning with a focused research question that guided the inclusion and exclusion criteria.

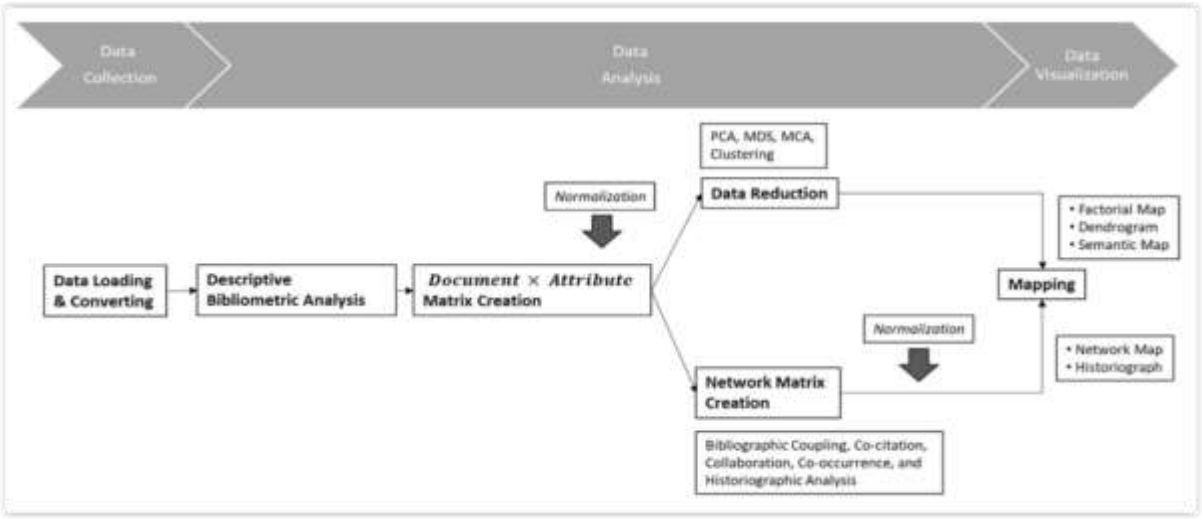

Figure 16 Workflow of Scientific Mapping
(Aria and Cuccurullo, 2017)

3.4.1 Screening and Inclusion Criteria

To ensure methodological rigor and relevance, a structured multi-stage screening protocol was adopted for the selection of studies included in the bibliometric analysis. The inclusion criteria were limited to peer-reviewed journal articles published between 1975 and 2022 that explicitly addressed constructs of Knowledge Management (KM), Organizational Learning (OL), Quality Culture (QC), or enterprise competitiveness in the context of tourism or hospitality. This temporal range was selected to capture the evolution of intellectual discourse over nearly five decades, acknowledging that foundational developments in KM and OL began in the late 20th century (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Barney, 1991).

Conversely, non-English publications, editorials, retracted publications, early access articles, data papers, and conference proceedings were excluded to ensure conceptual clarity and empirical consistency (Aria & Cuccurullo, 2017). The exclusion of grey literature was also motivated by the need to prioritize high-quality, peer-reviewed sources that meet scholarly standards of methodological transparency and theoretical contribution. The screening process followed a three-stage protocol: (1) title review, to eliminate clearly irrelevant records; (2)

abstract evaluation, to determine relevance to the KM–OL–QC–competitiveness nexus; and (3) full-text screening, to assess methodological appropriateness, empirical grounding, and thematic alignment. This process mirrors the PRISMA framework's emphasis on transparent and reproducible evidence selection (Moher et al., 2009), enhancing the validity of the bibliometric dataset.

3.5 TARGET POPULATION AND STUDY AREA

The research target population will comprise of 866 CLASS C tourism business enterprises in Kenya, licenced by the Tourism Regulatory Authority (TRA) as at 2024 under the Ministry to Tourism in Kenya. The study respondents will be the managers of tour and travel operating business enterprises. The manager respondents will include the Top executives, middle level Managers and junior managers, and in this research the term used to represent this category is "Managers".

3.6 SAMPLING PROCEDURES AND TECHNIQUES

The study adopted a pragmatic sampling approach that combined probability and purposive techniques to ensure representativeness and analytical depth (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2021). The target population comprised registered tour operators drawn from six major geographical tourism clusters in Kenya Nairobi, Coast, Rift Valley, Central, Western, and Nyanza identified based on their strategic contribution to the national tourism economy and concentration of tourism enterprises (Republic of Kenya, 2020). For primary data collection, probability sampling was used to select respondents from licensed tour operation companies listed by the Tourism Regulatory Authority (2024). Using the simple random sampling method, managers of these firms were selected to participate, giving all subjects equal chances of inclusion. Systematic random sampling was applied to quantify the subjects from the target population, with a lottery system used to determine the random start point. This ensured fairness and reduced selection bias.

In addition, purposive sampling was employed to identify key informants from government and regulatory agencies, industry associations, academic institutions, and research organizations involved in Kenya's tourism sector. These individuals were selected based on their expertise and experience in knowledge management, organizational learning, and quality culture within the tourism industry (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019). Data were collected through in-person interviews, with all ethical protocols, such as informed consent and confidentiality strictly observed. Moreover, this combined approach allowed the study to capture both sectoral diversity and contextual variations across regions while balancing representativeness with depth of insight (Bryman, 2016; Hair et al., 2019).

3.7 SAMPLE SIZE DETERMINATION

3.7.1 Bibliometric Sample Search Strategy

To capture and have a comprehensive clear picture of how knowledge management (KM), organizational learning (OL), and business enterprise competitiveness manifest within the tourism and hospitality sector, this study employed a rigorously structured bibliometric search strategy. Anchored in the Web of Science (WoS) Core Collection, renowned for its interdisciplinary reach and high-quality indexing the study explored literature spanning from 1975 to 2022. A highly detailed and inclusive search string was crafted to identify relevant studies that intersect KM, OL, quality culture (QC), and competitiveness in tourism enterprises (Ogutu, 2023).

The initial search yielded 86,742 records, based on the search string; TS=((((("knowledge management*") or ("knowledge capture*") or ("knowledge storage*") or ("knowledge sharing*") or ("knowledge creation*" or "knowledge use*" or "knowledge usage*" or "tacit knowledge*" or "explicit knowledge*"or "factual knowledge*" or "conceptual knowledge*" or "procedural knowledge*" or "metacognitive knowledge*" or "knowledge exchange*" or "knowledge generation*" or "conceptual knowledge*" or "factual knowledge*" or "procedural knowledge*" or "metacognitive knowledge*" or "knowledge integration*" or "knowledge retention*" or “know-how*” or “know-what*” or “know-who*” or ("knowledge creation*") or ("knowledge transfer*") or ("knowledge utilization*") and ("organizational learning*" or "learning organization*" or “workplace learning*” or “collective learning*") and ("firm competitiveness *" or "business competitive advantage*" or "enterprise absolute advantage*" or "business competitiveness*" or "enterprise competitiveness*") and ("tourism business enterprises*" or "tourism enterprise*"))))) from Web of Science Core Collection reflecting the vast and multidisciplinary nature of this research area. However, recognizing the importance of contextual relevance and academic rigor, the dataset was systematically refined with inclusion filters of specific citation topics, such as Management, Human Geography, and Hospitality. Document Types included article or review Article and Proceeding Paper or Early Access or Book Chapters. The exclusion of documents from 2023 as well as publication types that could dilute analytical precision such as retracted papers and data papers were excluded. This careful curation resulted in a focused and manageable sample of 267 articles. From this refined corpus, the study conducted a science mapping analysis to uncover the intellectual, conceptual, and social structures underpinning the field. This approach not only situates the research within a robust academic tradition but also humanizes it by revealing the networks of scholars, geographies, and knowledge flows shaping contemporary understandings of KM, OL, and competitiveness in tourism business enterprises (Ogutu, 2023).

3.7.2 Study Sample Size

The study adopted a pragmatic approach integrating both descriptive and explanatory elements (Morgan, 2014). The sample size was determined using Slovin’s formula, which is

computed as n = N / (1+Ne^2). It calculates sample size (*n*) given the population size (*N* = 866) and a margin of error (*e* = 0.05):

Where: n = 866/(1+866*0.05^2)

n = 273.617

n = 274 Respondents.

Thus, the final sample comprised **274 respondents**. This method was appropriate for the descriptive component of the study, offering a practical estimate where population parameters are not precisely known (Bartlett, Kotrlik, & Higgins, 2001). To address the explanatory (inferential) component multiple and hierarchical regression analyses – not full SEM was applied. Moreover, a post hoc sensitivity (power) analysis was performed using "G-Power" to assess statistical adequacy. According to Green's (1991) guidelines, a minimum of N = 50 + 8m is recommended for testing the overall multiple correlation, and N = 104 + m for evaluating individual predictors, where m is the number of predictors in the model. Cohen (1992) further recommends determining sample sufficiency through statistical power analysis using effect-size benchmarks of $f^2 = 0.02$ (small), 0.15 (medium), and 0.35 (large), with $\alpha = 0.05$ and power = 0.80. At a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$ and a desired power of 0.80, the achieved sample (n = 274) provided approximately 80% power to detect effect sizes of $f^2 \approx 0.03$, slightly above Cohen's small-effect benchmark (Cohen, 1988; Faul et al., 2009). This suggests the sample was sufficient for detecting medium and large effects, and reasonably sensitive to small effects, though not to very small ones ($f^2 \approx 0.02$). Accordingly, the study emphasizes reporting confidence intervals alongside *p*-values to enhance the robustness and interpretability of findings (Field, 2018; Hair et al., 2019). This approach aligns with the study's pragmatic design thus balancing statistical adequacy with research feasibility (Creswell, 2014).

3.7.2.1 Pilot Test Sample Size Determination

Similarly, for the pilot test respondents were sampled from the larger Nairobi Cluster after the main study sample selection. The sample size was also based on the Slovins' sample size (n) determination formula shown above arriving at n = *239 Respondents*.

3.8 DATA TYPE AND SOURCES

Two sources of data will be used in this study. They include primary and secondary data. Primary data shall be obtained from selected respondents through the administration of questionnaires and interview schedule. The respondents were requested to read and understand the questions thoroughly before filling and responding to them. They were given a maximum of a day to fill the questionnaires while the interviews were done face to face. Secondary data is to be obtained from published and unpublished: theses, books, magazines, journals, journal articles and the internet in general where applicable.

3.9 DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES

Data will be collected using semi-structured questionnaires as the survey instrument. Which will be self-administered by the researcher, and assistants to the respective subjects, which will include the managers of tourism business enterprises operating in Nairobi. Similarly, quantitative and qualitative data collection methods and analysis will be employed. The quantitative data collection methods will address the process and will entail the use of a questionnaire with closed ended questions will responses measured on a five-point-rating scale. Qualitative data collection involved the use of an interview schedule which addressed the outcomes through the use of qualitative quotes to support statistical results (Creswell 2009).

3.9.1 Bibliometric Data Collection

Bibliometric data for this study were extracted from the Web of Science (WoS) database, focusing on literature relevant to knowledge management (KM), organizational learning (OL), quality culture (QC), and business competitiveness in the tourism industry. The analysis employed key bibliometric indicators to evaluate the structure and evolution of scholarly contributions in this field. Co-citation analysis (Small, 1973), was used as an indicator which is instrumental in identifying theoretical convergence and mapping intellectual influence across the literature. Similarly, keyword co-occurrence analysis as another indicator, highlighted dominant research themes, conceptual linkages, and emerging trends in the KM–OL–QC–Competitiveness nexus. While, author and journal impact metrics (Aria & Cuccurullo, 2017), assessed scholarly productivity, influence, and dissemination patterns. Together, these techniques facilitated a comprehensive science mapping of the field. The resulting outputs allowed for the identification of underexplored research areas and informed the development of context-specific empirical research questions. This bibliometric foundation ensured that the study's subsequent empirical components were grounded in a robust understanding of the field's intellectual direction and the practical gaps in existing research (Zupic & Čater, 2015).

3.9.2 Traditional Data Collection Methods

To complement the bibliometric analysis and provide a richer empirical foundation, the study employed traditional data collection methods encompassing both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Quantitatively, structured survey questionnaires were administered to managers of tourism business enterprises. These instruments captured standardized data on the implementation of KM practices, organizational learning processes, and quality culture frameworks within their organizations. Whereas, qualitatively, semi-structured interviews were conducted with key informants being industry experts and senior practitioners in the tourism sector. These interviews offered practical, in-depth insights into how KM, OL, and QC are operationalized within real-world organizational contexts and how they contribute to the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises (TBEs). Moreso, the dual data collection strategy i.e. integrating bibliometric analysis with traditional field methods provided a triangulated and well-rounded understanding of the phenomena under investigation.

3.9.3 Analytical Tools and Techniques

This study employed a dual-tool strategy combining VOSviewer and R-Bibliometrix to analyze bibliometric data, taking advantage of their complementary strengths in scientific mapping and bibliometric profiling (van Eck & Waltman, 2010; Aria & Cuccurullo, 2017). VOSviewer was used to visualize co-citation networks, keyword co-occurrence maps, and author collaborations, which facilitated the identification of conceptual linkages, influential scholars, and thematic clusters in the fields of KM, OL, QC, and business competitiveness. Co-citation analysis was particularly valuable for revealing the intellectual structure of the field (Small, 1973; Chen, 2006). While R-Bibliometrix, operating within the R statistical environment, provided advanced functionalities such as thematic evolution analysis, clustering of research phases, author productivity tracking, and journal impact assessments. These capabilities enabled a deeper understanding of both foundational theories and emerging research trends. The analysis included peer-reviewed journal articles published between 1975 and 2022 that focused on KM, OL, QC, or business competitiveness in tourism and hospitality.

Exclusion criteria ruled out non-English publications, editorials, data papers, early access articles, and retracted works. A three-stage screening process title review, abstract evaluation, and full-text assessment ensured thematic and methodological relevance. The main bibliometric techniques included co-citation analysis to trace intellectual influence (Small, 1973), keyword co-occurrence analysis to detect dominant themes and terminology, and author/journal impact metrics to assess scholarly visibility (Aria & Cuccurullo, 2017). This integrated approach allowed for a systematic mapping of the research landscape, identification of knowledge gaps, and formulation of empirically grounded research questions, ensuring that subsequent investigations were both theoretically informed and methodologically rigorous.

3.10 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

3.10.1 Reliability the Research Instrument

This is the measure of the degree by which a research instrument yields consistent results or data after repeated trials. Reliability indicates the extent to which data are free from errors but capitulate consistent results (Ary et al., 2002; Harris & Ogbonna, 2001). In research reliability is influenced by random errors. As random errors increase, reliability decreases. Random error is the deviation from a true measurement due to factors that have not effectively been addressed by the researcher. Errors may occur and arise from inaccurate coding, ambiguous instructions to the subjects, fatigue from either or/ both the interviewer or interviewee as well as interviewer bias. Random error will always occur regardless of the procedures used (Mugenda, 2013).

In addressing the issue of consistency the study will use the internal consistency technique in which the consistency of the data is determined from the results obtained from a single test administered by the researcher to a sample of similar subjects through the running of a pilot test and thereafter assess the internal consistency using Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha

which is a general form of the Kunder-Richardson (K-R) 20 formula to compute and determine how items correlate among themselves (Mugenda, 2013). Mugenda (2013) continues to say that if there is a high coefficient that implies there is consistency among the items in measuring the concept of interest. The common measure of reliability is the Cronbach's alpha and the usual criterion is a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .70 (Harris & Ogbonna, 2001). A Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .70 and above indicates a high degree of internal consistency among the data collected (Harris & Ogbonna; Hsu et al., 2003). Cronbach's alpha will be applied on the instrument after the study, to identify if the alpha is within consistence of .70 and above as suggested by Harris & Ogbonna, (2001) that needs to be achieved. Which is a general form of the Kunder-Richardson (K-R) 20 formula used to compute and determine how items correlate among themselves (Mugenda, 2013).

3.10.2 Validity the Research Instrument

This is about whether the measuring instrument actually measures what it is intended to measure. Validity refers to the ability of a survey instrument (questionnaire) to measure what it claims to measure (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavieh, 2002). Validity is the accuracy and meaningfulness of inferences, which are based on the research results. In other words validity is the degree to which results obtained from the analysis of the data actually represent the phenomenon under study. Therefore, validity has to do with how accurately the data obtained in the study represents the variables of the study. If a study shows true reflection of the variables, then inferences based on such data will be accurate and meaningful. The instrument to be used for this study is a comprehensive construct that is based on two different types of validity, face validity and content validity (Robinson, 2006). The face validity indicates that the questionnaire is pleasing to the eye and applicable for its intended use (Ary et al. 2000). Content validity indicates that the items in questionnaire represent the objective of the instrument (Gall, Gall, & Borg 2003). Both face and content validity will be used as they indicate whether the items in questionnaire represent the objective of the instrument (Gall et al, 2003) through the running of a pilot test as well as the use of professionals to assess the content of the data collection instrument.

3.11 DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

3.11.1 Bibliometric Data and Science Mapping Analysis

The study applied Science Mapping Analysis, combining bibliometric and scientometric methods to investigate research trends in KM, OL, QC, and business competitiveness in tourism as shown in Figure: 3.1. Using data from the Web of Science (WoS) database, two analytical techniques performance analysis and science mapping were employed to assess research productivity, influence, and structural patterns (Durieux & Gevenois, 2010; Cobo et al., 2011). VOSviewer was used for visualizing co-citation networks, author collaborations, and keyword co-occurrence (van Eck & Waltman, 2010), while R-Bibliometrix supported thematic mapping and clustering (Aria & Cuccurullo, 2017). Key indicators such as co-citation (Small, 1973;

Chen, 2006) and keyword analysis enabled the identification of research gaps and thematic developments.

This methodological approach informed the formulation of empirically grounded hypotheses and provided a clearer understanding of the field's intellectual structure (Merigó et al., 2015). This combined approach allowed the researcher to identify research gaps, map the intellectual landscape, and guide the formulation of context-specific empirical questions.

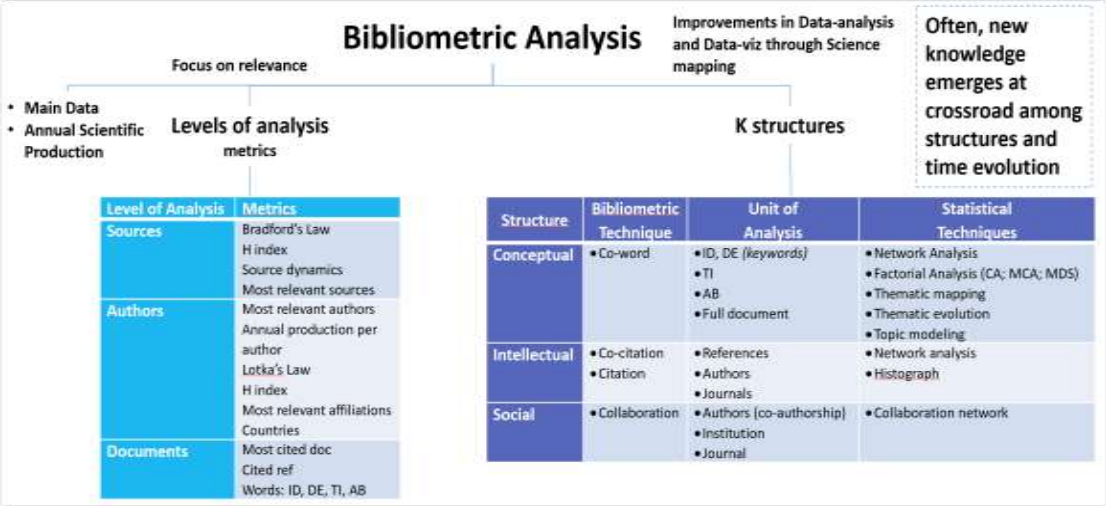

Figure 3.17: Bibliometrics Flowchat
Aria, M., & Cuccurullo, C. (2017)

3.11.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

Thematic analysis was employed to interpret interview transcripts and case narratives. Coding was conducted both deductively (guided by theoretical constructs from literature) and inductively (emerging from data) in line with Braun and Clarke's (2006) methodology. The aim was to surface patterns, contextual nuances, and relationships among KM, OL, QC, and competitiveness practices in tourism enterprises. (Methodology and citations missing.)

3.11.3 Quantitative Data Analysis

Data analysis was done using Qualitative analysis based on thematic and content analysis while multiple regression (Anova, factor analysis) for quantitative analysis. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse data. Whereby descriptive statistics was used to summarise data into percentages and frequencies. while regression model equations were used in theory testing to verify scale construction and operationalization. Hereafter, regression analysis will be used to test the hypotheses that allows for the examination of how multiple independent variables are related to the dependent variable. The study will use the subsequent regression model $\gamma=\alpha+\beta_1(X_1)+\ldots+\varepsilon$. Consequently, giving rise to the multiple regression equation as follows: $\gamma=\alpha+\beta_1X_1+\beta_2X_2+\beta_3X_3+\varepsilon$. The variables in the Regression Model equation

will be as follows: γ = competitiveness being the dependent variable; While α is the constant, β is a constant of proportionality and ε is the error term, as **X** are the independent variables being knowledge management **(X_1);** organizational learning **(X_2)** and quality culture **(X_3)** and the results will be presented using tables**.** The results will be limited within the sampled managers within the tour operation organisations. So, the results may be generalized, but the scale in the study can be used in other researches. This study can be evaluated as useful information and guide for tourism industry professionals, policy makers and practitioners regarding learning within organizations, knowledge management and quality culture vis-a-vie competitiveness.

The unit of observation for this study were managers of tour and travel business enterprises, likewise the unit of analysis tourism business enterprises. Data analysis involved data cleaning, editing and coding. The returned questionnaires will be checked to ensure completeness. Pretests were carried out to confirm whether the assumptions of regression, which was the major data analysis method, were met. Normality, multicollinearity, homoscedasticity and heteroscedasticity test was carried out. Normality tests were done using Shapiro-Wilks test and Q-Q plot, while multicollinearity tests were carried out using variance inflation factor. Similarly, homoscedasticity and heteroscedasticity were tested using Levene test. Further, correlation of the variables was tested using Pearson product moment correlation to measure the strength and nature of the relationship between variables.

Simple linear regression, multiple regressions and hierarchical regression were computed to test hypothesized relationships. Simple linear regression was used to test hypothesis 1, 2, and 3. While, the moderating effect of organizational learning and the mediating effect of quality culture on the relationship between knowledge management and organizational competitiveness was tested using hierarchical multiple regression. This will examine the relationship between the set of exogenous variable and the endogenous variable by successively adding a variable stepwise for assessment of actual value contributed by each variable. Joint effect will be tested using multiple regressions. To determine the joint effect of knowledge management, organizational learning and quality culture on organizational competitiveness all the exogenous variables will be regressed against each indicator of TBE competitiveness. Goodness of fit or the robustness of the model was tested using coefficient of determination. The overall robustness of the regression models was tested using the F-test and p-values. If p-value was less than or equal to 0.05 ($p \leq 0.05$) the null hypothesis was rejected, otherwise, fail to reject the null hypothesis.

Further, the study will use multiple linear regression equations and the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) method of estimation to develop a link between the influence factors and the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises. Ordinary least squares (OLS) is a statistical method of estimating the unknown parameters in a linear regression model by minimizing sum

of observed responses and the predicted responses, thus, providing minimum-variance mean-unbiased estimation (Silverman, 2010). The significance of the factors shall be tested at a confidence level of 95%. Correlation analysis will be used to describe the degree to which one variable was related to the other.

Levels of measurement will be used in the study include nominal and interval scales. The level of measurement refers to the relationship among the values that are assigned to the attributes for a variable. In addition, levels of measurement help on, how to interpret the data from the variables. Moreover, knowing the level of measurement assists on deciding what statistical analysis is appropriate on the values that are assigned to the variable. The study will use nominal and interval levels of measurement due to the continuous nature of the variables. This will be attained through closed ended questions for interval level of measurement, likewise the opened ended questions will serve to realise nominal level of measurement. Finally, data will be presented in tables, using frequencies and percentages indicating the findings of the study.

3.11.4 Summary of Objectives, Hypotheses, Analysis and Model Estimation

Table 3.1 shows the summary of Study Objectives, Hypotheses, Analysis, Model Estimation and the Explanation of the predicted Statistical Analysis Output demonstrating how the study operationalized the objectives, hypotheses illustrating how data was analyzed with given multiple regression estimation models.

Table 3.1 Objectives, Hypotheses, Analysis and Model Estimation

Research Objective	**Hypotheses**	**Statistical Analysis and Model Estimation**	**Interpretation of Statistical Analysis**
1. Investigate the influence of knowledge management on competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya	**H_{o1}:** Knowledge management does not have a significant influence on competitiveness of tourism business enterprise in Kenya	Simple linear Regression analysis $\gamma = \alpha+\beta_1X_1+\beta_2X_2+\beta_3X_3+\beta_4X_4+\varepsilon$ γ=Aggregate mean score of competitiveness, α =Constant, $\beta_1 ... \beta_4$=Regression coefficient, $X_1 ... X_4$= Individual Knowledge management indicators, ε= Error term	Coefficient of determination (R^2) shows the variation in competitiveness explained by knowledge management. - F-test and p-values will help to assess the overall robustness of the regression model t-test and p-values will help determine individual significance of the study variables
2. Establish the influence of organizational learning on competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya	**H_{o2}:** Organizational learning has no significant influence on competitiveness of tourism business enterprise in Kenya	Simple Regression analysis $\gamma = \alpha+\beta_1X_1+\beta_2X_2+\beta_3X_3+\varepsilon$ γ=Aggregate mean score of competitiveness, α =Constant, $\beta_1 ... \beta_3$=Regression coefficient, $X_1 ... X_3$= Individual indicators of Organisation learning, ε= Error term	- R^2 shows the variation in competitiveness explained by organizational learning - F test and p-values helped assess the overall robustness of the regression model t-test and p-values helped determine individual significance of the study variables
3. Assess the influence of quality culture on competitiveness of	**H_{o3}**: Quality culture has no significant influence on	Simple Regression analysis $\gamma = \alpha+\beta_1X_1+\beta_2X_2+\beta_3X_3+\beta_4X_4+\beta_5X_5+\beta_6X_6+\varepsilon$ γ=Aggregate mean score of competitiveness, α =Constant,	R^2 shows the variation in competitiveness explained by quality culture -F test and p-values helped assess the overall robustness of the regression model

Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya	competitiveness of tourism business enterprise in Kenya	$\beta_1...\beta_7$=Regression coefficient, $X_1...X_6$=Individual indicators of Quality Culture, ε= Error term	t-test and p-values helped determine individual significance of the study variables
4. Examine the moderating effect of organizational learning in the relationship between knowledge management and competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya	**H_{04}:** Organizational learning has no moderating effect on the relationship between knowledge management and competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya	Hierarchical Regression Analysis $\gamma = \alpha+\beta_1X_1+\beta_2X_2+\varepsilon$ γ= Aggregate Mean Score Of Competitiveness α = Constant B_1, B_2= Regression Coefficient X_1=Aggregate Mean Score Of Knowledge Management X_2= Aggregate Mean Score Of Organizational Learning ε= Error term	R^2 reveals the variation in tourism business competitiveness, which is due to the introduction of organizational learning - the moderation variable. - F test and p-values shall help assess the overall robustness of the model - T-test and p-values will help to determine individual significance of the study variables
5. Determine the mediating effect of quality culture in the relationship between knowledge management and competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya.	**H_{05}:** Quality culture has no mediating effect on the relationship between knowledge management and competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya	Hierarchical Regression Analysis $\gamma = \alpha+\beta_1X_1+\beta_2X_2+\beta_3(X_1 \cdot X_2) +\varepsilon$ γ= Aggregate Mean Score of Competitiveness α = Constant B_1, B_2= Regression Coefficient X_1=Aggregate Mean Score of Knowledge Management	R^2 reveals the variation in competitiveness, which is due to the introduction of quality culture as the mediator variable. - F-test and p-values helped assess the overall robustness of the model - T-test and p-values will help in determining individual significance of the study variables

		X_2= Aggregate Mean Score of Quality Culture ε= Error term	
6. Explore the joint effect of knowledge management, organizational learning and quality culture on competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya.	**H_{06}:** Knowledge sharing, organizational learning and firm-level institutions have no significant joint effect on business enterprise competitiveness	Multiple regression analysis $\gamma = \alpha+\beta_1X_1+\beta_2X_2+\beta_3X_3+\varepsilon$ γ=Aggregate mean score of competitiveness, α =Constant, $\beta_1 ... \beta_3$=Regression coefficients X_1= Aggregate mean score of Knowledge management X_2= Aggregate mean score of Organizational Learning X_3= Aggregate mean score of Quality Culture ε=Error term	R^2 shows the variation in competitiveness explained by the joint effect of knowledge management, organizational learning and quality culture on competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises. - F-test and p-values helped assess the overall robustness of the model - T-test and p-values will help in determining individual significance of the study variables

Source: Researcher, (2023)

3.11.5 Measures and Construct of Variables

The predictor variable in this study is knowledge management. Items will be developed to capture and measure the impact of each component of knowledge management. Items will be developed to measure the perceptions of the respondents on identified moderating and mediating variables: organizational learning, quality culture, likewise, for the endogenous variable organizational competitiveness. The study used both the ranking and the rating scale techniques in the questionnaires to get appropriate measures from the respondents as indicated in table 3.2. The ranking technique was used together with the likert scale to determine the organization's competitiveness. The rating scale was applied in structured questions to determine extent of knowledge management, organizational learning and quality culture (Kothari, 2004).

Table 3.2: Construct Measures

VARIABLES	MEASURE	SCALE
Gender	Dichotomous	Nominal
Ownership structure	Multitudinous	Nominal
Years of operation	Multitudinous	Ratio
No of years worked for the company	Multitudinous	Ratio
Company size (No. of employees)	Multitudinous	Interval
Work experience	Multitudinous	Ratio
Knowledge Management	Multitudinous/String (Monodichotonous)	Interval (rating scale)
Organizational Learning	Multitudinous/String (Monodichotonous)	Interval (rating scale)
Quality Culture	Multitudinous/String (Monodichotonous)	Interval (rating scale)
Organizational Competitiveness	Multitudinous/String (Monodichotonous)	Interval (rating scale)

3.12 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

During the planning and period in which the study is to be carried out, as well as reporting of the research findings, there are certain considerations and obligations that researchers ought to fulfill in their course of their work. The study is anticipated to be conducted in an ethical manner. The researcher shall explain to the respondents the purpose of the study and assure them that the information given will be treated in confidentiality, and their names will not be divulged. Informed consent shall be sought from all the participants that agree to participate in

the research. Further, the researcher will seek approval from all the stakeholders associated with the study.

During the data collection the respondents will be approached, in the course of obtaining data will be informed about the nature of the study, through a formal letter, to request for permission to carry out data collection in their division, stating the objectives of the study and any risks that the study might create by involving the respondents sampled. The researcher will maintain and assure the respondent's' confidentiality when it comes to sensitive information. The researcher will ensure that information to be collected did not encroach on the private life of the respondents. This study will adhere to the principles of research and the research findings will be solely for academic purposes. Utmost care will be taken and reliable research tools will be used in the course of research to ensure that data that will be collected will be true and hence conclusion.

3.13 EXPECTED RESULTS/OUTCOME

This research seeks to make a contribution to both practice and academic body of knowledge. It is anticipated that the study results will yield theoretical information generating knowledge that can facilitate further research in strategic tourism operations as a whole. It endeavours to find out how KM, OL, QC is exercised within tourism business enterprises in Kenya to create competitiveness. From the practical perspective this study could be utilised as a 'way and means to' improve the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises. Furthermore, the results of this study will act as a reference point to others who are interested in the respective field of study. Secondly, the relationship between KM, OL, QC and TBE competitiveness could be revealed. Whereby managers will get an opportunity to allocate the resources in a better way so that the tourism business enterprise may gain by it. Besides, the results will also help practitioners, planners and policy makers when formulating policies on tourism strategic operations.

3.14 OPERATIONALIZATION OF THE STUDY VARIABLES

A meaningful way to understand a construct is to consider how other researchers operationalized and measured the construct in their work (Yi, 2009). The study variables were operationalized and measured using multi-item/indicator anchored on a five-point rating type scale ranging from 1=Not at all to 5= to a very large extent. The advantage of this scale is that questions are easy to understand and as such lead to consistent answers. The operationalization of the study's four variables was validated previously since other researchers used similar methods. The study adopted operationalization of knowledge management from Yi (2009). Hence knowledge management will be conceptualized on how knowledge is managed through; knowledge creation (& innovation); knowledge acquisition; knowledge sharing; knowledge transfer (& refinement)

Similarly, operationalization of organizational learning was modified from a similar approach by Crossan et al. (1999) and Namada (2013) who conceptualized organizational learning on the levels of learning which are: Team learning (group learning), system thinking (institutional learning) and personal mastery (individual learning). In operationalizing quality culture, the study adopted a similar approach by Peters and Waterman (1982) and Machuki (2011). Quality culture will be operationalized based on batten (2004) components of total quality culture, among them: Process Management, Continuous Improvement, Leadership, Team Work, Empowerment, System control, Innovation. Finally, operationalization of competitiveness was modified from sustainable balanced scorecard by Hubbard (2009) measures of performance. The six modified indicators of performance according to the study will include: Market share; Productivity; Profitability; Visibility; Resources; Retention. Table 3.3 outlines the relevant measures and the corresponding operational definitions.

3.3: Operationalization of Study Variables						
OBJECTIVE	**VARIABLE TYPE**	**INDICATORS**	**MEASUREMENT SCALE**	**ANALYSIS OF DATA**	**STATISTICAL ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES (TOOL)**	**DATA COLLECTION METHOD**
1. Investigate the influence of knowledge management on competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya	**Exogenous variable:** Knowledge Management **Endogenous variable:** Organizational competitiveness of Tourism Business	Knowledge Creation (& Innovation); Knowledge Acquisition; Knowledge Sharing; Knowledge Transfer (& Refinement) Market Share; Visibility; Productivity; Profitability; Resources;	Interval (Rating Scale) Interval (Rating Scale)	Descriptive statistics Inferential statistics	Measures of central tendency; (Mean, Percentages, Frequencies). Linear and Multiple Regression Analysis (Pearson r correlation test; Coefficient of determinationR^2) F and T-tests.	Structured Questionnaire and Semi-structured Interview Schedule
2. Establish the influence of organizational learning on competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya	**Exogenous Variable:** Organizational Learning **Endogenous variable:** Organizational competitiveness	Individual Learning; Group Learning; Institutional Learning; System Thinking Market Share; Visibility; Productivity; Profitability; Resources;	Interval (Rating Scale) Interval (Rating Scale)	Descriptive statistics Inferential statistics	Measures of central tendency; (Mean, Percentages, Frequencies). Linear and Multiple Regression Analysis (Pearson r correlation test; Coefficient of determinationR^2)	Structured Questionnaire and Semi-structured Interview Schedule

	of Tourism Business				F and T-tests.	
3. Assess the influence of quality culture on competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya	**Endogenous variable:** Quality Culture **Endogenous variable:** TBE Competitiveness	Quality Standards; Customer Focus; Continuous Improvement; Quality Assurance; Leadership; Innovation Market Share; Visibility; Productivity; Profitability; Resources;	Interval (Rating Scale) Interval (Rating Scale)	Descriptive statistics Inferential statistics	Measures of central tendency; (Mean, Percentages, Frequencies). Linear and Multiple Regression Analysis (Pearson r correlation test; Coefficient of determinationR2) F and T-tests.	Structured Questionnaire and Semi-structured Interview Schedule
4. Examine the moderating effect of organizational learning in the relationship between knowledge management and competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya	**Exogenous variable:** Knowledge Management **Moderating variable:** Organizational Learning	Knowledge Creation (& Innovation); Knowledge Acquisition; Knowledge Sharing; Knowledge Transfer (& Refinement) Individual Learning; Group Learning; Institutional Learning; System Thinking	Interval (Rating Scale) Interval (Rating Scale)	Descriptive statistics Inferential statistics	Measures of central tendency; (Mean, Percentages, Frequencies). Hierarchical Regression Analysis (Pearson r correlation test; Coefficient of determination R^2)	Structured Questionnaire and Semi-structured Interview Schedule

	Dependent variable: TBE Competitiveness	Market Share; Visibility; Productivity; Profitability; Resources;	Interval (Rating Scale)		F and T-tests.	
5. Determine the mediating effect of quality culture in the relationship between and competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya.	**Exogenous variable:** Knowledge Management **Mediating variable:** Quality Culture **Dependent variable:** TBE Competitiveness	Knowledge Creation (& Innovation); Knowledge Acquisition; and Knowledge Sharing; Knowledge Transfer (& Refinement) Quality Standards; Customer Focus; Continuous Improvement; Quality Assurance; Leadership; Innovation Market Share; Visibility; Productivity; Profitability; Resources; and Retention	Interval (Rating Scale) Interval (Rating Scale) Interval (Rating Scale)	Descriptive statistics Inferential statistics	Measures of central tendency; (Mean, Percentages, Frequencies). Hierarchical Regression Analysis (Pearson r correlation test; Coefficient of determination R^2) F and T-tests.	Structured Questionnaire and Semi-structured Interview Schedule
6. Explore the joint effect of knowledge management,	**Exogenous variable:**	Knowledge Creation (& Innovation); Knowledge	Interval (Rating Scale)	Descriptive statistics	Measures of central tendency (Mean,	Structured Questionnaire and

organizational learning and quality culture on competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya.	Knowledge Management **Moderating variable:** Organizational Learning **Mediating variable:** Quality Culture **Dependent variable:** TBE Competitiveness	Acquisition; and Knowledge Sharing; Knowledge Transfer (& Refinement) Individual Learning; Group Learning; Institutional Learning; System Thinking Quality Standards; Customer Focus; Continuous Improvement; Quality Assurance; Leadership; Innovation Market Share; Visibility; Productivity; Profitability; Resources; and Retention	Interval (Rating Scale) Interval (Rating Scale) Interval (Rating Scale)	Inferential statistics	Percentages, Frequencies) Linear and Multiple Regression Analysis (Pearson r correlation test; Coefficient of determinationR^2) F and T-tests.	Semi-structured Interview Schedule

Source: Researcher, (2023)

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

INTRODUCTION

This chapter reports the results of the study highlighting on; the data collection instrument(s) reliability and validity assessment, bibliometric Analysis, descriptive and inferential analysis. The chapter underlines the response rate and presents preliminary tests which include tests of normality, multicollinearity and homogeneity of variance. The chapter is further arranged into sub-sections guided by the study objectives and the themes in the questionnaire also discusses and interprets the findings. The results are based on the questionnaire responses of the respondents. Of the 270 questionnaires issued to respondents only 260 were found to be duly completed and this yielded a 94% return response rate. Consequently, data from the 260 questionnaires was used in the final analysis. Bategeka (2012) had a response rate of 71% from small and medium manufacturing firms in Uganda. Namada (2013) had a response rate of 62.5% while Bagire (2012) had a response rate of 66% and Awino (2007) had a response rate of 65%. A 94% response rate was considered sufficient in light of prior studies (Bategeka, 2012; Namada, 2013; Bagire, 2012; Awino, 2007). Therefore, it was considered adequate for data analysis.

Bibliometric analysis represents the intellectual structure co-occurrences, conceptual structure a factorial approach and social structure collaboration. Descriptive analysis was used to analyse the data on biodata of the respondents and enterprises', which are presented using frequency tables, mean, standard deviation. The statistical assumptions together with the pre-tests and the results of the hypotheses tests are also presented. In order to test the respective hypothesis, simple, multiple and hierarchical multiple regression analysis were conducted at 95 percent confidence level ($p<0.05$). All hypotheses' tests were done on the null hypotheses.

4.1 INSTRUMENT RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY TESTING

Reliability is a critical measure of an instrument's consistency over time and across different conditions. The most widely used indicator of reliability for multi-item scales is the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient, which ranges from 0 to 1. A value of 0 indicates no consistency, while a value of 1 signifies perfect consistency. In this study, reliability and validity tests were performed to ensure the quality of the collected data. The scales used in this study were tailored to fit the research context and underwent expert review by specialists in tourism economics and management, strategic management, and human resource management. Based on their feedback, the instrument was refined to enhance clarity and relevance. The internal consistency of the scale items was assessed using the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient, ensuring the reliability of the measurement tool. A pilot study was also conducted to evaluate whether respondents could answer the questions without difficulty. Respondents reviewed the instrument for clarity, relevance, comprehension, and precision, further solidifying its validity and reliability.

While researchers generally agree on the necessity of reliability for an instrument to be valid, the acceptable threshold for Cronbach's Alpha varies across studies. Davis (1964) suggested a minimum threshold of 0.5 for predictive research with populations of 25–50. Nunnally (1967, 1978) initially recommended a range of 0.5 to 0.6, later revising it to 0.6 to 0.7. While Kaplan and Saccuzzo (1982) recommended 0.7 and 0.8 for basic applied research. Murphy and Davidshofer (1988) considered values below 0.6 as unacceptable. Later, George and Mallery (2003) provided further interpretive benchmarks for Cronbach's Alpha: >0.9: Excellent, >0.8: Good, >0.7: Acceptable, >0.6: Questionable, >0.5: Poor, <0.5: Unacceptable. For this study, a Cronbach's Alpha coefficient cut-off of 0.7 and above was adopted, aligning with widely accepted standards.

The reliability test results, as shown in Table 4.1, confirm that all items under this study achieved Alpha coefficient values exceeding the recommended threshold of 0.7, as advocated by Nunnally (1978); Kaplan and Saccuzzo (1982); George and Mallery (2003). This indicates strong internal consistency and supports the instrument's reliability. This underscores the robustness of the measurement scales and validates their application for the study. The reliability analysis demonstrates that the instrument used in this study meets the standards for consistency and dependability. By ensuring internal consistency and addressing expert and respondent feedback, the study has established a solid foundation for credible and reliable data collection.

Table 4.1: Reliability Test

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha coefficient	Number of Items	Interpretation
KM	0.754	15	Reliable
OL	0.748	15	Reliable
QC	0.764	16	Reliable
TBECOMPE	0.781	10	Reliable

Source: Research Data, (2024)

In this study, multiple and hierarchical regression were used alongside PROCESS macros rather than SEM, and the analysis relied on composite scores instead of latent variable modeling. A full CFA was therefore not required. Measurement quality was established through reliability testing (Cronbach's alpha) and validity checks based on established scales and inter-item correlations, which are appropriate for regression-based designs (Hair et al., 2019; Kline, 2016; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019).

4.2 ASSUMPTIONS PARAMETRIC DATA ANALYSIS: TESTS OF NORMALITY, MULTICOLLINEARITY AND HOMO/HETEROSCEDASTICITY

The study data was pretested for the major assumptions of parametric data analysis. Pretesting helped in confirming whether the assumptions of regression analysis were met which are normality, multicollinearity, homoscedasticity and heteroscedasticity. Normality tests were done using Shapiro-Wilk test and Q-Q plots; multicollinearity tests were done using variance

inflation factor (VIF) while homoscedasticity and heteroscedasticity were tested using Levene test. Checking the assumptions helped decide which statistical test was appropriate.

4.2.1 Normality Test

In this study, normality was tested using Shapiro-Wilk test since the population of the study comprised of 260 TBEs. Data is normally distributed if it is symmetrically around the centre of all scores (Field, 2009). For samples of 3 to 2,000, Shapiro-Wilk test should be used but if the sample size exceeds 2,000 then the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test applies (Field, 2009). The normality test results are presented in Table 4.2 (ANOVA) shows the overall model significance. The model coefficients show the beta coefficients of each independent factor and whether the factor has a positive or negative relationship with the dependent variable.

Table 4.2: Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
TBECompetitiveness2	0.223	260	0	0.803	260	0
KM2	0.221	260	0	0.839	260	0
OL2	0.218	260	0	0.887	260	0
QC2	0.227	260	0	0.887	260	0

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Source: Research Data, (2024)

In the preliminary analysis, the Shapiro–Wilk test was applied to assess the normality of individual variables to understand their distributional characteristics. However, since the normality assumption in regression analysis pertains to the residuals rather than the raw variables, the final diagnostics were conducted using the standardized residuals from the fitted model (Field, 2018; Hair et al., 2019; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). Normal Quantile-Quantile plot also known as Q-Q plot was used to test distribution standardized residuals (Figure: 4.1), which revealed that the data points closely followed the diagonal line of best fit, with only slight deviations at the tails. This visual pattern suggests that the residuals were approximately normally distributed, an outcome that supports the adequacy and robustness of the regression model. Consequently, the assumption of normality was considered reasonably satisfied for subsequent inferential analyses.

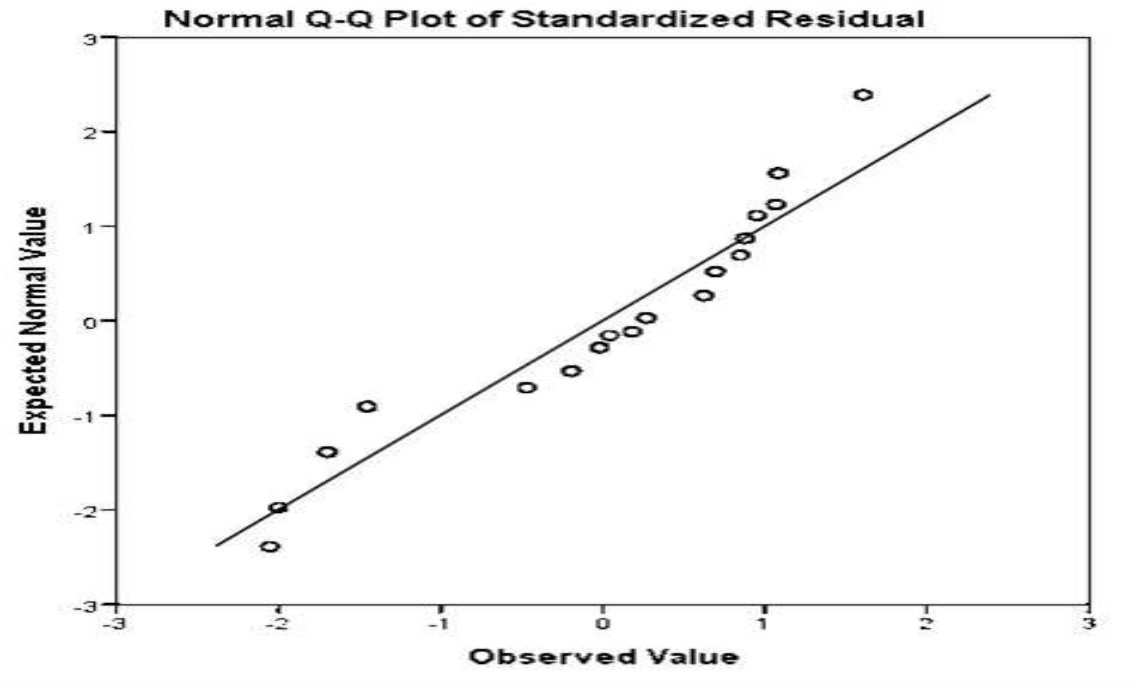

Figure 4.2: Normality Test Q-Q Plot
Research (2024)

4.2.2 Multicollinearity Test

Collinearity examines the relationships among independent variables, as described by Saunders (2009). Multicollinearity specifically refers to the degree of correlation among these independent variables (Hair et al., 2010). It occurs when two or more predictor variables are highly correlated, which can distort their individual impact on the dependent variable (Kothari, 2010). This phenomenon inflates the standard errors, weakens statistical inferences, and compromises the robustness of the analysis (Hair et al., 2010). Despite its potential to undermine the validity of regression analysis, moderate correlation between independent variables is inevitable and often desirable. Such correlations are expected, as these variables may measure similar dimensions within the study (Field, 2009). The presence of moderate relationships ensures that independent variables are conceptually aligned, but excessive multicollinearity must be mitigated to ensure meaningful results.

In this study, multicollinearity was evaluated using Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and tolerance values, which indicate the extent of collinearity among predictor variables. According to established guidelines, a VIF exceeding 5 signals potential multicollinearity issues (Dennis, 2011), while tolerance values below 0.2 correspond to VIF values above this threshold due to their reciprocal relationship (Hansen, 2013). The test results, presented in Table 4.3, show VIF values ranging from 1.00 to 1.59 and tolerance values from 0.63 to 1.00, all comfortably within acceptable limits.

Table 4.3 Collinearity **Statistics (Coefficients [a])**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.831	.114		42.372	.000	4.607	5.056		
	KM2	-.163	.028	-.340	-5.801	.000	-.219	-.108	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	3.759	.285		13.202	.000	3.199	4.320		
	KM2	-.102	.031	-.211	-3.250	.001	-.163	-.040	.766	1.306
	OL2	.213	.052	.265	4.085	.000	.110	.316	.766	1.306
3	(Constant)	2.957	.278		10.639	.000	2.410	3.504		
	KM2	-.129	.028	-.268	-4.526	.000	-.185	-.073	.754	1.327
	OL2	.047	.052	.058	.896	.371	-.056	.149	.631	1.585
	QC2	.389	.051	.435	7.651	.000	.289	.490	.816	1.225

a. Dependent Variable: TBECompetitiveness2

Source: Research Data, (2024)

The correlation matrix (Table 4.4) provides further evidence supporting the absence of multicollinearity. None of the Pearson correlation coefficients exceed the critical threshold of 0.7, and significant correlations at the 0.01 level (two-tailed) remain within permissible ranges. This confirms that the independent variables are sufficiently distinct to contribute uniquely to the regression model. These results affirm adherence to established thresholds and highlight the robustness of the regression framework used in this study.

Table 4.4 Correlations matrix

		TBECompetitiveness2	QC2	OL2	KM2
TBECompetitiveness2	Pearson Correlation	1	.486**	.368**	-.340**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	260	260	260	260
QC2	Pearson Correlation	.486**	1	.414**	-.100
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.106
	N	260	260	260	260
OL2	Pearson Correlation	.368**	.414**	1	-.484**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	N	260	260	260	260
KM2	Pearson Correlation	-.340**	-.100	-.484**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.106	.000	
	N	260	260	260	260

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Research Data, (2024)

4.2.3 Homoscedasticity and Heteroscedasticity Tests

Homoscedasticity refers to the assumption that the variances of the dependent and independent variables are constant across all levels of the predictors (Hair et al., 2010). When variances are unequal, heteroscedasticity occurs, which may bias the standard errors of regression coefficients, leading to unreliable significance tests and reduced statistical power. In this study, the Levene's Test for Equality of Variances was used as the primary method to

evaluate homoscedasticity. This test examines the null hypothesis that the error variances are equal across groups. As shown in Table 4.5, the Levene's test yielded a statistically significant result ($F = 20.400$, $df1 = 12$, $df2 = 247$, $p < .001$). The significance indicates potential deviations from homoscedasticity. However, in larger samples, even minor deviations in group variances can yield significant results, and the Levene's test is sensitive to such minor differences (Field, 2009).

Table 4.5: Homogeneity of Variances. **Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances**

Dependent Variable: TBECompetitiveness2

F	df1	df2	Sig.
20.400	12	247	.000

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance[a] of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + KNOWLEDGE2MGT + OL2 + QC2

Source: Research, (2024)

To supplement the Levene's test, a visual inspection of the residual scatterplot (Figure 4.6) was conducted. The scatterplot depicts the standardized residuals against the standardized predicted values. Ideally, homoscedasticity would be indicated by a random and uniform distribution of residuals without any discernible pattern. In Figure 4.6, the spread of the residuals appears random and evenly distributed, with no apparent funnel shape or systematic pattern. This visual evidence strongly supports the assumption of homoscedasticity, despite the significance of the Levene's test.

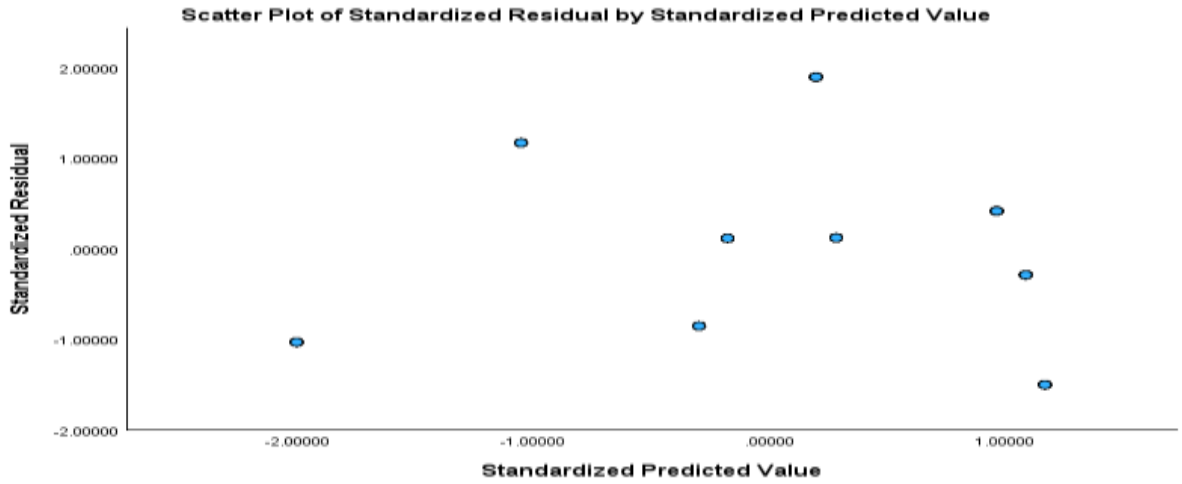

Figure 4.6: Residual Scatterplot Research (2024)

Although Levene's test result was statistically significant, the visual inspection of the residual scatterplot provides stronger evidence for homoscedasticity. The observed randomness and uniformity in the residuals affirm that the assumption of equal variances holds for this study. This ensures that the regression model is robust, and the results of the analysis can be

interpreted with confidence. The combination of statistical testing and visual diagnostics indicates that heteroscedasticity is not a concern in this study. Despite the sensitivity of Levene's test, the residual scatterplot confirms the validity of the homoscedasticity assumption, ensuring that the regression model results are reliable for further interpretation and inference.

4.3 SCIENCE MAPPING ANALYSIS

4.3.1 Tradition systematic literature review and Bibliometrics Analysis)

This study suggests empirical evidence on the integrated impact of knowledge management (KM), organizational learning (OL), and quality culture (QC) on the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises (TBEs). By situating its findings within the theoretical frameworks of four microeconomic perspectives knowledge-based theory, resource-based theory, dynamic capabilities theory, and institutional theory it provides a robust, multidimensional lens to analyze the factors driving competitiveness in TBEs (Ogutu et al., 2023).

The findings validate the central tenet of the resource-based theory (Barney, 1991) and knowledge-based theory (Grant, 1996): internal resources and knowledge assets are indispensable for achieving competitive advantage. However, the results challenge the notion that resources alone suffice. Instead, their strategic value is significantly enhanced when integrated with effective knowledge-sharing practices and dynamic learning mechanisms. This highlights that the synergy between resources and knowledge capabilities is the true driver of competitiveness (Ogutu et al., 2023).

The dynamic capabilities theory (Teece, Pisano, & Shuen, 1997) underscores the critical role of adaptability in sustaining competitiveness. The study demonstrates that TBEs achieve this by reconfiguring their internal resources and embracing innovation to respond to rapidly evolving market conditions. At the same time, the institutional theory (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983) reinforces the importance of aligning with external standards, policies, and quality systems. The study emphasizes that legitimacy and market positioning in the tourism sector depend on compliance with regulatory frameworks and adherence to quality benchmarks (Ogutu et al., 2023).

The relationship between these theoretical perspectives highlights that sustainable competitiveness is not the product of isolated factors but rather the outcome of integrated strategic capabilities. This relationship is captured in the equation:

$$\mathbf{TBE} = f\mathbf{(RBV, KBV, DCBV, IBV)}$$

This integrated approach demonstrates that competitiveness in tourism business enterprises stems from a dynamic balance of internal resource utilization, knowledge application, adaptive capabilities, and institutional compliance (Ogutu et al., 2023). By expanding on existing

theories, the study bridges the gap between theoretical constructions and practical application, offering a comprehensive framework for enhancing competitiveness in TBEs.

4.3.2 Science Mapping Bibliometrics Analys is KM, OL, QC and TBE Competitiveness

The analysis uses the Web of Science (WoS) database under the Hospitality, Leisure, Sport, and Tourism category. Bibliometric analysis a quantitative evaluation of bibliographic metadata, was employed to uncover research trajectories, key themes, and collaboration networks (Aria & Cuccurullo, 2017). The study found that KM, OL, QC, and competitiveness are central constructs in advancing sustainable business performance in tourism.

This section explored the structural and dynamic aspects of research in the fields of knowledge management (KM), organizational learning (OL), quality culture (QC) and tourism business enterprise (TBE) competitiveness. Utilizing science mapping analysis, the study examines co-occurrence networks, thematic maps, thematic evolution, and collaboration patterns to provide a comprehensive understanding of the intellectual, conceptual, and social structures (Aria & Cuccurullo, 2017). The analysis focuses on co-occurrence networks, thematic maps, thematic evolution, and collaboration patterns, offering insights into how these dimensions shape scholarly discourse and inform strategic decision-making in the tourism sector. The results are presented and discussed as follows.

4.3.2.1 Intellectual Conceptual Structure: Co-occurrence Network based on Keyword Plus

The co-occurrence network based on Keyword Plus as shown in (Figure 4.8), provides a conceptual structure for understanding the intellectual dimensions of research in tourism, particularly through the lens of Knowledge Management (KM), Organizational Learning (OL), Quality Culture (QC), and Tourism Business Effectiveness (TBE). The cluster analysis highlights distinct thematic groupings, each representing critical aspects of tourism management and their interrelations. The Green cluster centers on key terms such as "industry," "destination," "quality," "satisfaction," and "service." It underscores the pivotal role of KM in enhancing service quality and customer satisfaction across tourism destinations. By leveraging customer feedback and insights, KM helps create industry-wide standards, improving the competitiveness of destinations.

The Red Cluster emphasizes Behavioral Dynamics and Knowledge Transfer key terms in this cluster include "knowledge transfer," "hospitality," "behavior," "trust," and "governance." It highlights the behavioral and governance dimensions of tourism, with an emphasis on knowledge transfer among stakeholders. In the Blue Cluster With terms like "performance," "innovation," "framework," "model," and "determinants," this cluster emphasizes innovation-driven strategies and structured frameworks for improving organizational performance.

In the Orange Cluster Strategic Capabilities and Resource Optimization are highlighted and focuses on terms such as "resources," "strategy," and "capabilities." It highlights the importance of resource optimization and capability development for sustaining competitive advantage. Key terms such as "motivation," "engagement," "co-creation," and "city" shown in the yellow cluster, underline the importance of stakeholder collaboration in tourism. Businesses and stakeholders, including customers and local communities, engage in co-creation to enhance tourism experiences and effectiveness.

The clusters collectively demonstrate the intertwined roles of KM, OL, and QC in driving TBE whereby KM serves as the backbone, enabling innovation, governance, and strategic decision-making. It facilitates knowledge transfer and improves service quality. OL on the other hand is deeply linked to KM, driving adaptability, learning from customer feedback, and fostering resource optimization. While QC ensures consistency across performance, resource use, and stakeholder engagement, reinforcing trust and collaboration. As TBE emerges as the ultimate outcome, directly supported by the innovation frameworks (blue cluster) and strategic capabilities (orange cluster).

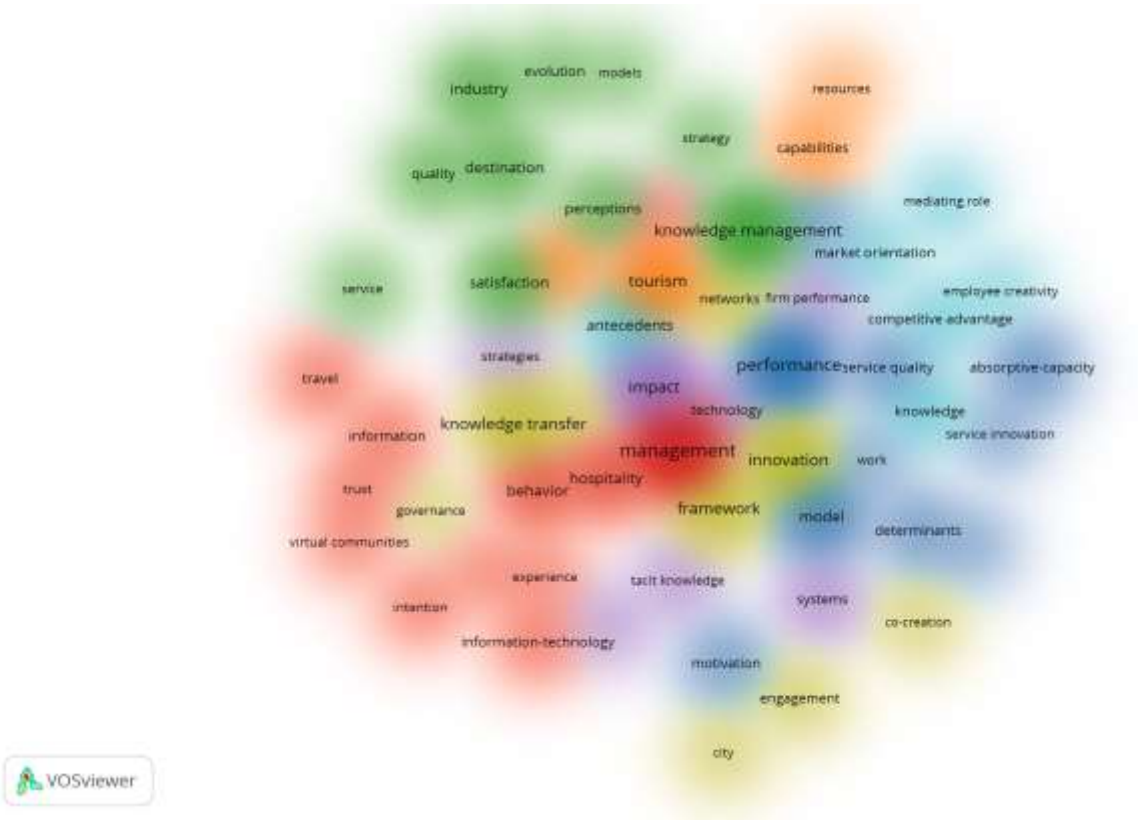

Figure 19: Cluster Density Co-occurrence Network based on Keyword Plus

Source: Derived from Vosviewer (2023)

Moreso, (Figure: 4.8) highlights prominent research areas, including management, performance, tourism, knowledge management, innovation, and knowledge transfer. These keywords indicate a strong emphasis on understanding how KM and OL contribute to enhancing innovation and performance in TBEs. The inclusion of tourism underscores the industry's centrality in KM and OL discourse, while keywords such as innovation and knowledge transfer suggest a focus on leveraging knowledge assets to drive organizational performance. This finding aligns with prior research emphasizing the pivotal role of KM and OL in fostering innovation and competitiveness (Cobo et al., 2011).

In addition the analysis of the bibliometric network features the pivotal role of Knowledge Management (KM) as a central driver of innovation and competitiveness within the tourism industry. KM enables organizations to acquire, transfer, and utilize knowledge effectively, fostering innovation and improving performance. This is consistent with Ogutu (2023), who emphasizes that KM equips tourism business enterprises (TBEs) with strategic tools to navigate dynamic markets and remain competitive. The centrality of KM in the network, demonstrated by its strong associations with performance, innovation, and competitive advantage, underscores its indispensability in achieving tourism business competitiveness (TBC). Additionally, Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) stress that effective KM is a cornerstone of organizational agility and resilience, a finding that aligns with the broader implications of the current analysis.

Moreover, Organizational Learning (OL) emerges as a complementary mechanism to KM, enabling organizations to internalize knowledge and adapt to changing environments. Although OL is not explicitly labeled in the network, its presence is inferred through concepts such as absorptive capacity, employee creativity, and innovation frameworks. Ogutu (2023) highlights the integral role of OL in transforming external knowledge into actionable strategies, a notion further supported by Zahra and George (2002), who argue that absorptive capacity enhances an organization’s ability to innovate and sustain competitive advantages. The findings suggest that OL processes are highly contingent on systematic KM practices, which aligns with Grant’s (1996) assertion that knowledge resources and learning capabilities must be strategically aligned to foster innovation and improve organizational performance.

The findings also revealed the critical role of Quality Culture (QC) in enhancing service delivery and customer satisfaction, which are essential for sustainable competitiveness in the tourism sector. Keywords such as service quality, satisfaction, and perceptions in (Figure 8) point to the importance of a strong QC in fostering continuous improvement and ensuring customer expectations are consistently exceeded. Ogutu et al (2023) emphasizes that a robust QC not only drives operational excellence but also stimulates employee creativity, thereby contributing to long-term competitiveness. Similarly, Parasuraman et al. (1988) argue that service quality is a primary determinant of customer loyalty and repeat visitation in tourism. The network’s linkages between QC, employee creativity, and management strategies reinforce

these perspectives, suggesting that cultivating a quality-driven organizational culture supports both innovation and differentiation.

Significantly, the integration of KM, OL, and QC culminates in enhanced Tourism Business Competitiveness (TBC). This is evidenced by the interconnectedness of terms such as competitive advantage, firm performance, and market orientation. Ogutu et al (2023) posits that businesses leveraging KM to facilitate OL processes and foster QC are better positioned to innovate and respond to market demands. This argument is supported by Barney (1991), who highlights the importance of leveraging internal resources and capabilities to create sustainable competitive advantages. Furthermore, the presence of strategy, resources, and capabilities in the network reinforces the notion that TBC is achieved through the effective mobilization of internal and external resources.

These interdependencies are further corroborated by the strong association between absorptive capacity and service innovation. Absorptive capacity acts as a mediator, linking KM to OL by enabling organizations to recognize, assimilate, and exploit external knowledge. Cohen and Levinthal (1990) assert that organizations with high absorptive capacity are better equipped to adapt to environmental changes and maintain competitiveness. Additionally, the co-occurrence of employee creativity and competitive advantage highlights the human dimension of competitiveness, emphasizing that innovation and adaptability are driven by empowered and knowledgeable employees (Amabile, 1996).

Therefore, the findings underscore the argument that the synergistic integration of KM, OL, and QC is essential for achieving TBC. As Ogutu (2023) Barisic, M. (2020). Zhang, D., Li, J., & Wang, Y. (2018), Anand, P., Joshi, P., & Yadav, R. (2022), Moingeon, B., & Edmondson, A. (1996). suggest, tourism businesses must adopt holistic approaches that prioritize knowledge acquisition and dissemination, foster learning at all organizational levels, and cultivate a culture of quality and innovation. These elements are not only interdependent but also mutually reinforcing, collectively driving sustainable competitive advantages in the tourism sector.

4.3.2.2 Thematic Mapping

Thematic mapping (Figure 4.9) categorizes research themes into four quadrants based on development and connectivity: Motor Themes (Upper-right quadrant): These include management, performance, knowledge, and grounded theory, representing well-developed areas with strong external linkages. Highly Developed but Isolated Themes (Upper-left quadrant): Themes such as tourism development and sharing economy show high internal development but limited connectivity, indicating a potential for interdisciplinary expansion. Basic and Emerging Themes (Lower-right quadrant): Topics like service quality, experience, and human resources are highly connected but underdeveloped, offering opportunities for future exploration. Emerging or Declining Themes (Lower-left quadrant): Themes such as

competence, self-determination, and internationalization exhibit low centrality and density, signaling areas requiring further research (Ogutu, 2023).

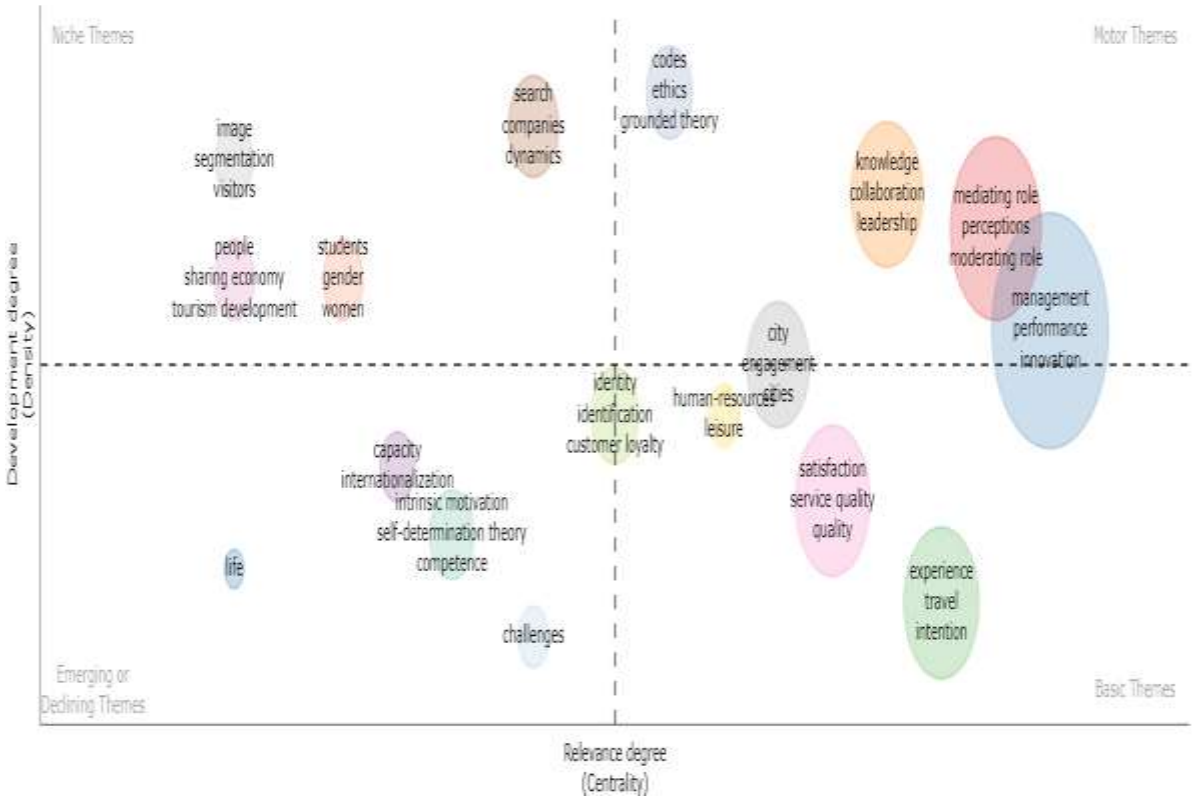

Figure 20: Thematic Map BASED ON KEYWORDS PLUS KM OL TBE KM OL TBE ***2001_22. Source: Ogutu, (2023)***

4.3.2.3 Thematic Evolution

The thematic evolution (Figure 10) reveals significant shifts in research focus. From 2001 to 2019, key themes included trust, behavior, and capacity systems, reflecting a focus on operational efficiency and relational dynamics in the hospitality industry. In contrast, the period from 2020 to 2023 saw an increased emphasis on perceived value, strategy, and engagement, indicating a shift toward customer-centric and strategic considerations. Despite these thematic transitions, management remains a consistent focus, highlighting its enduring significance in driving TBE innovation and competitiveness (Ogutu, 2023).

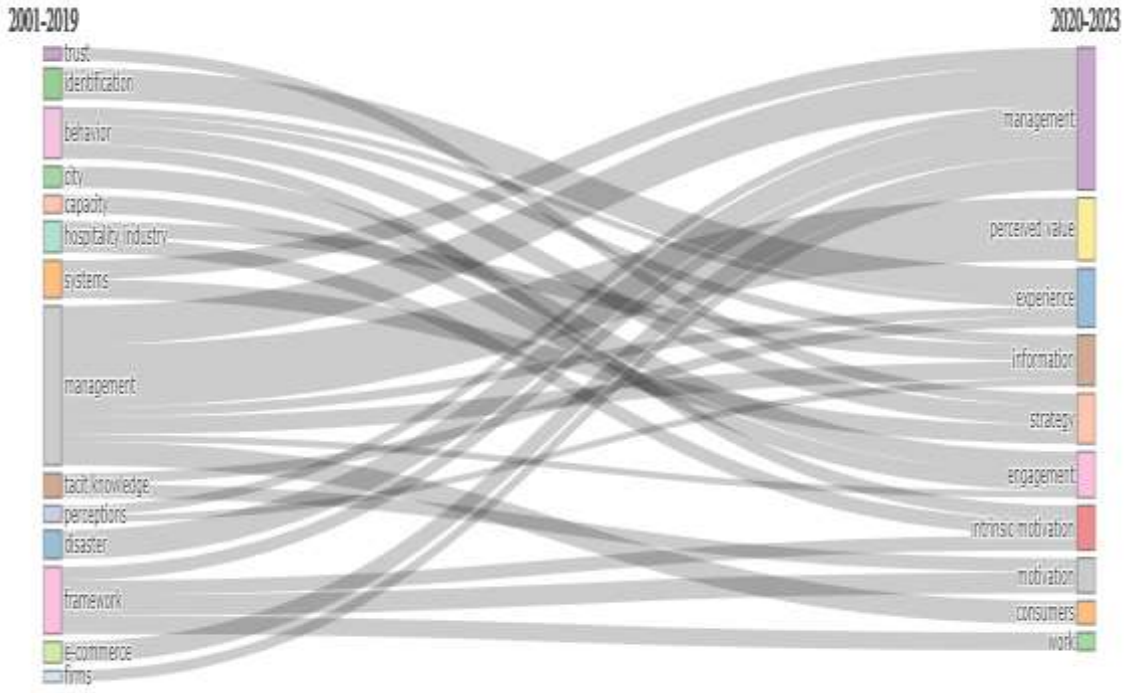

Figure 4.10: Thematic Evolution KM OL TBE 2001_22. Source: Ogutu, (2023)

4.3.2.4 Conceptual Structure of KM OL TBE a Factorial Approach

Using factorial analysis (Figure 4.11) identifies critical factors influencing TBE competitiveness, including resources, firm performance, quality knowledge, mediating and moderating roles, and capabilities. These findings corroborate theoretical perspectives such as the resource-based view (RBV) and dynamic capabilities theory, which emphasize the importance of leveraging internal resources and reconfiguring capabilities to achieve competitive advantage (Grant, 1996; Teece et al., 1997). The study further highlights the integrative role of KM and OL in amplifying these factors, providing a nuanced understanding of how TBEs can sustain competitiveness in dynamic environments (Ogutu, 2023).

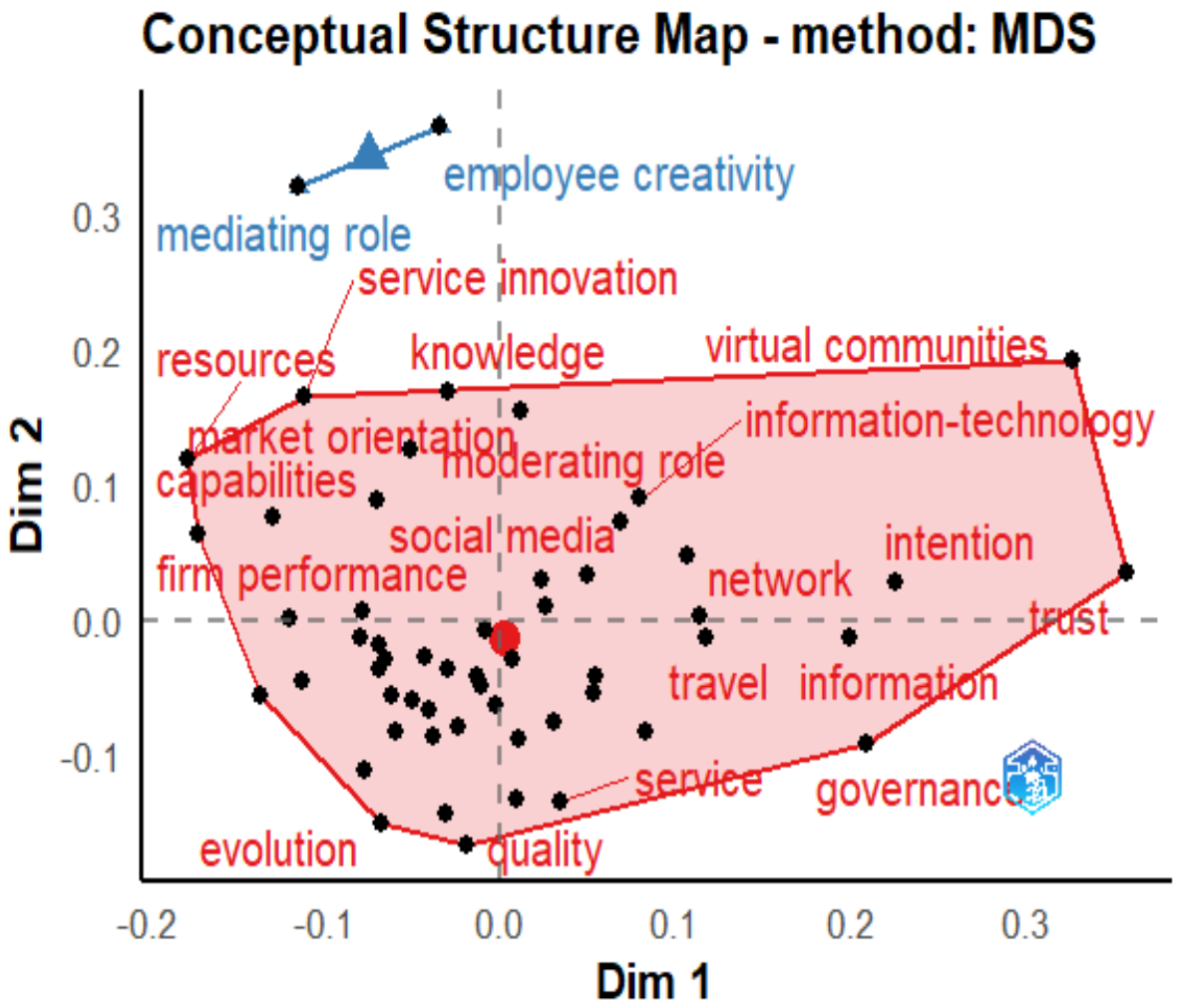

Figure 21: Conceptual Structure of KM OL TBE a Factorial Approach
Source: Ogutu, (2023)

4.3.2.5 Social Structure of KM OL TBE

The Social Structure was highlighted using a collaboration world map (Figure 4.12) which illustrates global research collaboration patterns, revealing clusters of activity in countries such as the USA, China, and Australia. These nations emerge as central nodes in the global research network, reflecting their dominance in KM, OL, and TBE knowledge. However, the map also highlights limited collaboration within the African continent, with only two African countries engaging in global networks and no evidence of intra-African collaboration. This underscores a critical gap in regional research integration and calls for targeted capacity-building initiatives to foster intra-continental and international partnerships (Cobo et al., 2011; Ogutu, 2023).

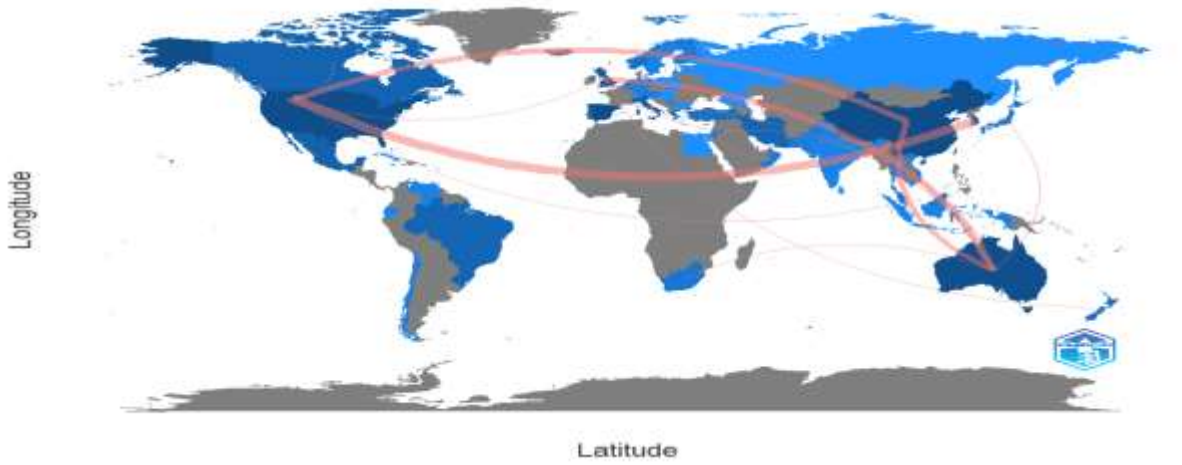

Figure 22: Collaboration World Map of KM OL TBE
Source: Researcher, (2023)

The deficit of African representation in global collaborations is particularly concerning given the continent's rich tourism potential and the pressing need for context-specific knowledge to address unique challenges in the industry. Strengthening research networks and fostering collaboration among African scholars could significantly enhance the region's contribution to global KM and OL discourse, while also providing actionable insights for local TBEs.

The results and discussion underscore the interconnectedness of KM, OL, and TBE in fostering innovation and competitiveness within the tourism industry. By analyzing intellectual, conceptual, and social structures, the study provides a multidimensional understanding of research trends, revealing opportunities for future exploration and collaboration. The findings advocate for a strategic focus on capacity building and partnerships, particularly in underrepresented regions such as Africa, to advance the global discourse on KM, OL, and TBE Competitiveness. This research is pivotal in addressing a critical gap in the literature regarding the integrated impact of knowledge management (KM), organizational learning (OL), and quality culture (QC) on the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises (TBEs), particularly within the African context.

4.3.3.1 Key Findings from the Literature

Key bibliometric findings include discussions on knowledge transfer, internalization, and institutional isomorphism in franchise and service networks (Acevedo et al., 2021; Alejandro et al., 2022). These studies underscore the challenges of embedding knowledge into recipient organizations, a process shaped by relational management, partner-specific variables, and institutional learning (Aquino & de Castro, 2017; Foss & Pedersen, 2002). Research on international hotel joint ventures also demonstrates how knowledge sharing and QC practices jointly foster strategic alignment and service innovation (Magnini, 2008; Mauri & Barbera,

2007). On the other hand, QC, when institutionalized, becomes a cultural mechanism for driving continuous improvement, especially in settings where service quality and heritage authenticity influence competitiveness (Scott & Ding, 2008; Santana, Moreira & Leitão, 2018). The literature further notes the growing integration of systemic approaches in tourism planning and innovation (Garcia-Almeida, 2019; Guimaraes et al., 2021), as well as the role of digital platforms and e-commerce in transforming knowledge-sharing practices (Huang et al., 2009; Larkin, 2020).

Moreover, the study further draws on four key microeconomic perspectives i.e. knowledge-based theory (KBV), resource-based theory (RBV), dynamic capabilities theory (DCT), and institutional theory (IBV) to provide a multidimensional framework that not only contributes to the theoretical understanding of TBE competitiveness but also offers practical implications for enhancing the performance of TBEs in Kenya. The equation TBE = f(RBV, KBV, DCBV, IBV) encapsulates the relationship between these theories, illustrating that sustainable competitiveness arises from the dynamic integration of internal resources, knowledge assets, adaptability, and alignment with external standards and quality frameworks. The research challenges the notion that resources alone drive competitiveness by highlighting that the strategic value of these resources is significantly enhanced when paired with effective knowledge-sharing practices and dynamic learning mechanisms. This insight is particularly relevant to Kenyan TBEs, where leveraging local resources through KM and OL can foster competitiveness in an increasingly globalized and rapidly evolving tourism industry. Additionally, the study emphasizes the importance of adapting to market changes and regulatory compliance, underscoring the role of dynamic capabilities and institutional alignment in sustaining long-term competitiveness.

This investigation is essential for bridging the gap between theoretical constructs and practical applications in Kenya's tourism sector. The study's findings will not only enrich the global discourse on KM, OL, and TBE competitiveness but will also provide actionable strategies for Kenyan TBEs to enhance their resilience and market positioning through integrated strategic capabilities. This research, therefore, addresses critical regional gaps while advancing global theoretical frameworks, making it a valuable addition to the thesis.

4.3.3.2 Identified Research Gaps

Despite a substantial body of work, there is a research gap concerning the integrated analysis of KM, OL, QC, and competitiveness within tourism management (Barisic, 2020; Moingeon & Edmondson, 1996). Most studies examine these elements in isolation, missing the synergistic potential of their interaction. For instance, Anand, Joshi, and Yadav (2022) emphasize the contribution of KM and OL to sustainability, while Zhang, Li, and Wang (2018) show how knowledge sharing enhances service innovation and competitive edge. These findings suggest that coordinated integration of these concepts can better support adaptive and

innovative capacities in tourism enterprises (Kamya, Ntayi & Ahiauzu, 2011; Faulkner & Tideswell, 2021).

4.4 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

4.4.1 General Information about the Organisational profile and Respondents Demographics

The analysis interpretation of each category Below provides a comprehensive understanding of the organizational profile and demographic characteristics of the respondents and firms in the study.

4.4.1.1 Gender Distribution

The findings indicate a higher representation of males (55%) compared to females (45%) among the respondents. This gender imbalance could reflect a persistent disparity in workforce composition within tourism business enterprises (TBEs). Studies highlight similar trends, emphasizing the need for gender equity initiatives in the workplace to ensure balanced representation and improved organizational outcomes (Baum, 2015; Janta et al., 2019). Given the increasing emphasis on gender equity, addressing this imbalance through inclusive recruitment and leadership development initiatives could enhance diversity and organizational performance in the tourism industry (Kusluvan et al., 2010).

4.4.1.2 Service Category

Tour/safari operators (37.3%) dominate the service category, followed by tourist service vehicle hire (28.8%), travel agencies (20.8%), and accommodation providers (8.5%). These findings align with previous research emphasizing the dominance of traditional services in tourism markets (Gössling & Hall, 2019). The limited representation of niche services such as water sports (1.2%), balloon operations (2.3%), and boat excursions (0.8%) suggests a heavy reliance on conventional offerings. Diversifying services by investing in underrepresented activities could enhance competitiveness and respond to emerging tourism trends (Dwyer et al., 2020).

4.4.1.3 Year of Incorporation

The majority of firms (47.7%) were established within the past 5–10 years, followed by those incorporated 10–20 years ago (24.6%). This indicates that a significant proportion of TBEs are relatively young enterprises, reflecting an active entrepreneurial landscape. However, the limited number of firms older than 20 years (5%) raises concerns about business sustainability and industry resilience over time, as noted in studies on firm longevity in tourism (Morrison et al., 2022; Hjalager, 2015).

4.4.1.4 Scope of Operation

Most firms operate nationally (61.9%), with fewer operating regionally (25.4%), continentally (10.8%), or globally (1.9%). These findings align with previous research on domestic tourism's dominance in emerging markets (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2021). Policies

encouraging cross-border partnerships and internationalization could help local firms compete on a broader scale, as demonstrated in global tourism market studies (UNWTO, 2020).

4.4.1.5 Ownership Structure

Sole proprietorships (37.3%) and partnerships (32.7%) dominate the sector, while private limited companies (26.9%) and foreign-owned enterprises (3.1%) form a smaller share. Similar findings in small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) highlight the reliance on locally owned businesses in tourism (Novelli et al., 2019). Strengthening the capacity of sole proprietors and partnerships through training, funding, and infrastructure support is crucial to enhancing their competitiveness and sustainability (Thomas et al., 2011).

4.4.1.6 Average Annual Sales Turnover

The majority of firms report annual sales turnovers in the 21–40M KES (45.8%) and 41–60M KES (39.2%) ranges, with only 2.7% generating over 100M KES annually. These findings align with studies on financial constraints and market limitations faced by tourism SMEs (Morrison et al., 2022). Strategies such as digital marketing, product diversification, and improved service quality could increase revenue streams (Chen & Soo, 2019).

4.4.1.7 Number of Full-Time Employees

A significant majority of firms (58.5%) employ fewer than 10 full-time staff, while 39.2% employ 10–50 staff. Only 2.3% have 50–99 employees, despite the labor-intensive nature of the sector. This distribution aligns with prior research on the challenges of scaling operations in tourism SMEs (Baum, 2018). Policies promoting job creation and workforce training are essential to support industry growth and mitigate labor shortages (WTTC, 2021).

4.4.1.8 Management Positions

Most respondents occupy middle (39.4%) or senior (37.8%) management roles, while directorships account for only 11.6%. Junior and supervisory roles are underrepresented at 9.3% and 1.9%, respectively. This top-heavy structure could hinder decision-making and mentorship opportunities, as noted in studies on organizational hierarchies in tourism (Mintzberg, 1989; Jafari, 2001). A more balanced structure could foster talent development and operational agility (Hjalager, 2015).

4.4.1.9 Years Worked in the Company

Most respondents have worked in their current organizations for 6–10 years (30.8%) or 11–15 years (32.7%). The longevity of employment suggests stable career opportunities in the sector. However, the low percentage of employees with more than 20 years of tenure (0.4%) may highlight challenges in retaining experienced staff, as noted by Baum (2015) and Kusluvan et al. (2010).

4.4.1.10 Educational Qualifications

The majority of respondents hold advanced qualifications, with 39.2% having a master's degree and 17.7% a PhD. Bachelor's degree holders make up 25.8%, and diploma holders 17.3%. These findings underscore the reliance on highly educated professionals in the industry (Chen et al., 2020). Continuous professional development is essential to translate these qualifications into enhanced organizational performance (WTTC, 2021).

4.4.2.11 Years of Experience

A significant portion of respondents (44.2%) have 11–15 years of experience, followed by 23.8% with 6–10 years. This wealth of experience positions employees well to contribute to organizational growth. However, the relatively small percentage with over 20 years of experience (16.2%) may highlight challenges in retaining senior professionals, which could limit institutional memory and leadership continuity (Hjalager, 2015; Baum, 2018). The findings therefore, provide critical insights into the organizational profiles and demographic characteristics of TBEs and their workforce. While the sector exhibits promising growth, challenges such as gender imbalances, limited-service diversification, and constrained market reach must be addressed. Policymakers and industry stakeholders should focus on promoting inclusivity, fostering innovation, and supporting small enterprises to create a more sustainable and globally competitive tourism sector (UNWTO, 2020; Gössling & Hall, 2019).

4.5 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS: KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT, ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING, QUALITY CULTURE AND COMPETITIVENESS TOURISM BUSINESS ENTERPRISE

This section reports on the descriptive statistical findings of the study variables, knowledge management, organizational learning, quality culture and tourism business enterprise competitiveness. These expressive numerical assessments afford a diversity of procedures that comprise methods of central tendency (mean and standard deviation) for compressing huge records collections into lesser as well as remarkable arithmetical tallies to define original observations. Respondents were obliged to reply to declarations on each of the concept on a Likert scale gauge of 5-1. Measures of central tendency were employed in this research to abridge features of the concepts of the study centered on answers provided by respondents from a 5-point Likert scale research instrument. Each concept outcome is discussed below.

4.5.1 Knowledge Management (KM)

Knowledge management (KM) practices within tourism business enterprises were assessed using the following four key indicators: Knowledge Sharing (KS), Knowledge Creation (KC), Knowledge Retention (KR), and Knowledge Utilization (KU). The descriptive data for each of these aspects are displayed in table 4.7. These indicators were evaluated through a Likert scale, with responses ranging from "Not at all (NA)" to "To a great extent (GE)," representing the lowest and highest levels of agreement, respectively. Metrics analyzed included frequency distribution percentages, mean scores, standard deviations (SD), and deductions to determine the level of KM implementation. The results reveal a weighted average

mean of 4.04, suggesting that KM practices are implemented to a high degree overall. A detailed exploration of each indicator provides deeper insights into the organization's KM strengths and areas for improvement.

4.5.1.1 Knowledge Creation (KC)

Knowledge creation emerged as an area with significant strengths, particularly in fostering creativity and collaboration. Statements such as *"The organization fosters a culture that motivates employees to explore new ideas"* (Mean = 4.45, SD = 0.671) and *"Cross-functional collaboration is encouraged to enhance tourist experiences"* (Mean = 4.23, SD = 0.919) received the highest ratings. However, certain aspects of formal knowledge creation mechanisms were rated lower. For instance, *"Formal mechanisms to support knowledge creation"* scored a mean of 3.58 (SD = 0.823), and *"Debate and analysis during meetings for knowledge creation"* received a relatively moderate mean score of 3.99 (SD = 1.058). These findings indicate that while organizations excel in promoting a creative and collaborative culture, there is a need to strengthen structured approaches, such as formal mechanisms and in-depth discussions during meetings, to enhance knowledge creation.

4.5.1.2 Knowledge Acquisition (KA)

Another area where the TBEs show a strong performance is knowledge acquisition. High-scoring statements include *"Consultations on tourism-related issues significantly contribute to knowledge transfer"* (Mean = 4.32, SD = 0.466) and *"Online platforms for sharing ideas are encouraged"* (Mean = 4.22, SD = 0.798). Conversely, *"Online discussions fostering knowledge acquisition"* scored a mean of 3.65 (SD = 0.654), and *"Brainstorming sessions for solving challenges"* received a moderate mean of 3.78 (SD = 0.798). These results suggest that while consultations and online platforms are effectively utilized, there is room to enhance participation in online discussions and brainstorming activities to improve knowledge acquisition further.

4.5.1.3 Knowledge Transfer (KT)

Knowledge transfer was found to be particularly effective in structured and inter-organizational contexts. Statements such as *"Written reports for transferring knowledge about tourists' preferences"* (Mean = 4.57, SD = 0.824) and *"Inter-organizational review meetings for tourism methodologies"* (Mean = 4.43, SD = 0.696) received the highest scores. However, the statement *"Meetings to promote knowledge transfer and excellence in services"* scored the lowest with a mean of 2.92 (SD = 0.736). This indicates a significant gap in internal meetings focused on service excellence and comprehensive knowledge transfer. Addressing this gap could enhance overall knowledge sharing and operational excellence.

4.5.1.4 Knowledge Sharing (KS)

The TBEs demonstrates a strong culture of knowledge sharing, particularly through the use of online platforms and organizational strategies. Statements such as *"Online platforms*

effectively foster knowledge sharing and collaboration" (Mean = 4.14, SD = 0.992) and *"Organizational strategies for knowledge sharing during meetings"* (Mean = 4.09, SD = 0.738) highlight the effectiveness of these approaches. Key observations from the overall analysis reveals that knowledge management practices are implemented to a high degree, as indicated by the overall weighted average score of 4.04. The TBEs excel in leveraging written reports, fostering collaboration, and using online platforms effectively for knowledge management. Nevertheless, there is room for Improvement in areas such as formal mechanisms for knowledge creation, participation in brainstorming sessions, and internal meetings focused on service excellence require significant enhancement.

The findings highlight some implications for Tourism Enterprises which include strategic focus in which TBEs should prioritize strengthening formal processes for knowledge creation and encourage active brainstorming to enhance problem-solving capabilities. Digital transformation to building on the successful use of online platforms, thus the need for further investments in digital tools can amplify knowledge sharing and transfer, ensuring broader organizational benefits. Another inference is internal collaboration whereby more structured and frequent internal meetings focused on knowledge transfer and service excellence could bridge existing gaps and enhance organizational effectiveness and service delivery paving way to competitive advantage. Therefore, the analysis underscores the importance of leveraging current strengths while addressing identified weaknesses to optimize knowledge management practices. By adopting a balanced approach, tourism enterprises can enhance their competitive advantage and foster sustainable growth.

4.5.2 Organizational Learning (OL) Practices in Tourism Enterprises

Organizational Learning (OL) was measured using following dimensions: Individual learning (Personal Mastery), Group Learning; institutional learning, and System Thinking. The implementation of organizational learning (OL) practices across tourism business enterprises reveals a moderate level of effectiveness, as reflected by a weighted average mean of 3.65. This score signifies areas of strength and opportunities for growth in individual, group, and institutional learning, as well as systems thinking. While some indicators demonstrate commendable performance, significant gaps remain, requiring strategic interventions to foster a robust learning culture within the sector**.**

4.5.2.1 Individual Learning (Personal Mastery)

Employees within tourism enterprises exhibit strong personal mastery, evidenced by their motivation to complete assigned tasks (Mean = 3.95, SD = 0.925) and recognition as vital sources of organizational knowledge (Mean = 4.00, SD = 0.817). These findings align with research emphasizing the critical role of individual learning in building organizational capabilities (Senge, 2006; Garvin, 1993). However, the relatively lower mean score for awareness of organizational challenges (Mean = 3.57, SD = 0.824) highlights a gap in employees' understanding of broader strategic issues, potentially undermining their ability to contribute to systemic problem-solving. Targeted training programs that improve strategic

awareness could enhance the alignment between individual learning efforts and organizational goals.

4.5.2.2 Group Learning

Group learning demonstrates considerable strength, with high mean scores for valuing group work (Mean = 3.98, SD = 0.672) and encouraging diverse perspectives within teams (Mean = 3.88, SD = 0.731). These findings underscore the importance of collaborative efforts in fostering innovation and problem-solving (Edmondson, 1999; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). However, lower scores for cross-group learning (Mean = 3.63, SD = 0.939) and aligning individual goals within teams (Mean = 3.55, SD = 0.825) point to deficiencies in sharing lessons learned and achieving cohesion in team objectives. Addressing these gaps could enhance knowledge transfer and optimize group learning initiatives.

4.5.2.3 Institutional Learning

At the institutional level, organizations demonstrate notable strengths, particularly in aligning systems with critical service delivery issues (Mean = 4.13, SD = 0.869) and implementing policies that guide innovation and technological advancement (Mean = 4.03, SD = 0.931). These achievements support the view that institutional learning fosters adaptability and competitiveness (Garvin, 1993; Teece, 2007). Nonetheless, weaknesses in mechanisms for capturing and sharing best practices (Mean = 3.42, SD = 1.049) and managing intellectual property (Mean = 2.88, SD = 0.735) could impede the retention and dissemination of organizational knowledge, limiting long-term strategic gains.

4.5.2.4 Systems Thinking

Systems thinking is recognized as an important competency, with a high mean score indicating its role in enhancing competitiveness (Mean = 4.12, SD = 0.551). However, its integration into practical processes, such as managing travel operations, is inadequate, as evidenced by the lower mean score (Mean = 2.77, SD = 0.910). This “disconnect” between theoretical acknowledgment and practical application could undermine the potential benefits of systems thinking in tourism enterprises (Sterman, 2000; Senge, 2006).

4.5.2.5 Implications for Tourism Enterprises

The analysis underscores the moderate implementation of OL practices, with a weighted average mean of 3.65. Strengths include the emphasis on systems compatibility, innovation policies, and group work, as well as the motivation of individuals and recognition of systems thinking. However, significant weaknesses are evident in capturing and sharing best practices, managing intellectual property, and aligning goals across teams. To address gaps in personal mastery, training programs should be expanded to improve employees’ awareness of organizational challenges and align individual goals with team objectives (Senge, 2006). This approach could foster a more cohesive and purpose-driven workforce.

Structured platforms for sharing lessons learned across groups can enhance knowledge transfer and collaboration. Additionally, strengthening policies for protecting intellectual property and sharing best practices will bolster institutional learning efforts and ensure the retention of valuable organizational knowledge (Garvin, 1993; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Organizations must move beyond theoretical acknowledgment of systems thinking and integrate it into operational processes. By embedding systems thinking into travel and service delivery management, tourism enterprises can unlock its full potential as a tool for enhancing competitiveness and innovation (Sterman, 2000; Teece, 2007).

Therefore, a balanced approach that addresses individual, group, and institutional learning, as well as systems thinking, is essential for fostering a learning-oriented culture within tourism enterprises. By leveraging existing strengths and addressing identified weaknesses, organizations can position themselves for sustainable growth and long-term competitiveness in the dynamic tourism industry.

4.5.3 Quality Culture

The following indicators were used to measure Quality Culture: Process Management; Continuous Improvement; Leadership; Teamwork; Empowerment; System control and Innovation. The analysis of quality culture within the TBEs reveals moderate implementation, with a weighted average mean of 3.63. This finding reflects a reasonable commitment to the principles of quality management but highlights significant areas for improvement. Quality culture was assessed through six critical indicators: process management, continuous improvement, leadership, teamwork, empowerment, and system control and innovation. Each of these dimensions offers unique insights into the organization's quality practices and their overall effectiveness.

4.5.3.1 Process Management

The organization demonstrates notable strength in revising and updating quality standards systematically (Mean = 3.75, SD = 0.923). This aligns with the findings of ISO 9001:2015 standards, which emphasize the importance of continual revision in quality management systems (ISO, 2023). However, the relatively low score for the definition and communication of quality measures at all levels (Mean = 3.35, SD = 0.945) indicates significant weaknesses in internal communication processes. This gap could undermine employee understanding and engagement, as clear communication is a cornerstone of effective process management (Evans & Lindsay, 2023).

4.5.3.2 Continuous Improvement

Continuous improvement emerges as another moderately effective area. The organization excels in obtaining customer feedback (Mean = 3.78, SD = 0.897) and training employees to address customer needs (Mean = 3.67, SD = 0.958). These practices align with the principles of customer-centric quality management outlined by Juran (2022). However,

translating this feedback into actionable, customer-focused initiatives remains a challenge, as reflected in the lower mean score for this indicator (Mean = 3.56, SD = 1.029). This gap suggests that while data collection is robust, its application to foster innovation is lacking, a shortfall also identified in contemporary studies on continuous improvement practices (Oakland, 2023).

4.5.3.3 Leadership

Leadership plays a critical role in ensuring adherence to quality standards, as evidenced by high scores for quality assurance teams (Mean = 3.83, SD = 0.934) and regular audits (Mean = 3.78, SD = 0.635). These findings support Deming's (2022) argument that strong leadership is essential for maintaining quality control. Nonetheless, the relatively low score for systems to address quality deviations (Mean = 3.44, SD = 0.998) reveals a lack of responsiveness, which could jeopardize the organization's ability to adapt swiftly to quality issues. Addressing this shortcoming is crucial for maintaining service excellence in dynamic environments.

4.5.3.4 Teamwork

Teamwork within the organization is another area of relative strength, with employees demonstrating a clear understanding of quality benchmarks relevant to their roles (Mean = 3.92, SD = 0.987). This reflects the value of teamwork in achieving quality goals, as highlighted by Katzenbach and Smith (2023). However, broader team-focused initiatives, such as aligning benchmarks across all organizational levels, scored moderately, indicating room for improvement. Enhancing team cohesion and alignment could foster a more unified approach to quality culture.

4.5.3.5 Empowerment

Employee empowerment shows mixed results. Training initiatives are prioritized to enhance customer-focused expertise (Mean = 3.67, SD = 0.958), consistent with the emphasis on employee development in contemporary quality management literature (Goetsch & Davis, 2023). However, empowerment to address quality deviations effectively remains weak (Mean = 3.55, SD = 1.006). This gap suggests that while employees are equipped with skills, they lack the authority or tools to act decisively when quality issues arise.

4.5.3.6 System Control and Innovation

The organizations show strong adherence to quality assurance processes, with regular audits receiving a high mean score (Mean = 3.78, SD = 0.635). However, the lack of formal documentation outlining quality assurance responsibilities (Mean = 3.54, SD = 0.956) reflects a significant gap in system control. Studies have shown that well-documented processes are essential for maintaining accountability and fostering innovation (ISO, 2023).

4.5.3.7 Key Observations and Implications for Tourism Enterprises

With a Weighted Average mean score of 3.63, the moderate adoption of quality culture practices among tourism business enterprises (TBEs) reveals both progress and critical shortcomings that must be urgently addressed to enhance competitiveness. Strengths in monitoring, employee training, standard revision, and the utilization of customer feedback highlight an awareness of quality management principles. However, persistent weaknesses in internal communication, sluggish responsiveness to quality deviations, and the underutilization of customer feedback for driving innovation expose significant gaps in the integration of quality culture across organizational processes. These shortcomings hinder TBEs from fully capitalizing on their quality initiatives, limiting their ability to adapt to evolving market demands and achieve sustainable growth.

To address these gaps, TBEs must prioritize process management by establishing robust communication channels that ensure quality standards are clearly defined, disseminated, and understood at all organizational levels (Evans & Lindsay, 2023). Without clear communication, even well-designed quality measures fail to translate into consistent practice. Additionally, fostering a culture of continuous improvement is imperative. Strengthening the connection between customer feedback and actionable strategies will enable TBEs to remain responsive and agile in a competitive market landscape (Oakland, 2023). Ignoring customer insights not only stifles innovation but also risks alienating key market segments.

Effective leadership is also crucial in reinforcing quality culture. Implementing responsive systems to promptly identify and address quality deviations will significantly enhance organizational adaptability and resilience in the face of emerging challenges (Deming, 2022). Leaders must champion a proactive approach to quality management, transforming potential setbacks into opportunities for improvement. Moreover, **system control and innovation** require the formalization of comprehensive quality assurance plans with clearly defined processes, responsibilities, and accountability measures. This structured approach not only ensures consistent quality standards but also fosters an environment where innovation thrives (ISO, 2023).

In general, TBEs must move beyond fragmented quality practices and adopt a more integrated, strategic approach to quality culture. By addressing weaknesses in communication, responsiveness, and innovation, and reinforcing these areas through process management, continuous improvement, leadership, and system control, TBEs can significantly enhance their competitiveness and long-term sustainability in the dynamic tourism industry.
Therefore**,** this analysis underscores the importance of fostering a transparent and integrated quality culture. By addressing identified weaknesses while building on existing strengths, tourism enterprises can achieve a more resilient and customer-focused organizational framework, ultimately enhancing their competitive advantage in a dynamic market.

4.5.4 Tourism Business Enterprise (TBE) Competitiveness

The indicators used to assess Tourism Business Enterprise (TBE) Competitiveness included market share, productivity, profitability, visibility, resources, and retention. The weighted average mean for these indicators is 4.11, suggesting that the surveyed tourism enterprises exhibit a relatively high level of competitiveness. However, while certain aspects demonstrate significant strength, areas for improvement remain, underscoring opportunities for strategic improvements.

4.5.4.1 Market Share and Visibility

The data reveal that collaborative partnerships with suppliers play a pivotal role in strengthening business reputation and ensuring resource availability (Mean = 4.45, SD = 0.825). Similarly, actively recruiting new talent enhances customer service and overall competitiveness (Mean = 4.31, SD = 0.674). These findings underscore the criticality of external collaborations and talent acquisition in maintaining a competitive market position. Conversely, knowledge-sharing sessions and training programs, though beneficial for decision-making and continuous learning, lag behind with a lower mean score (Mean = 3.75, SD = 0.922). This gap suggests that while businesses capitalize on external relationships and workforce capabilities, internal learning systems require substantial reinforcement to sustain long-term competitiveness (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Strengthening knowledge-sharing initiatives could help enterprises enhance their adaptability and strategic agility.

4.5.4.2 Productivity and Profitability

Employee retention through fair compensation, career growth opportunities, and fostering a positive work environment emerged as strong contributors to productivity and profitability (Mean = 4.31, SD = 0.828). Well-trained employees also directly influence customer satisfaction and the overall strength of the business (Mean = 4.11, SD = 0.735). However, lower scores in quality emphasis (Mean = 4.03, SD = 0.660) and resource management efficiency (Mean = 3.97, SD = 1.063) point to untapped potential in these areas. Efficient management of financial, human, and technological resources is essential for optimizing service delivery and achieving cost-effectiveness. Addressing these deficiencies could provide a critical boost to productivity and profitability, aligning with strategic imperatives for sustained growth (Teece, 2007).

4.5.4.3 Resources

The analysis highlights the importance of collaborative supplier partnerships in enhancing resource availability and overall competitiveness (Mean = 4.45, SD = 0.825). A positive workplace culture also emerged as a significant factor, contributing to teamwork, employee morale, and customer satisfaction (Mean = 3.92, SD = 1.006). Nonetheless, the comparatively lower score for resource management efficiency (Mean = 3.97, SD = 1.063)

signals an area for improvement. Effective integration of financial, human, and technological resources is vital to maximizing service delivery and ensuring operational success. Tourism enterprises must prioritize resource optimization to strengthen their competitive edge.

4.5.4.4 Retention

Retention strategies such as effective planning for employee transitions (Mean = 4.42, SD = 0.690) and maintaining skilled employees through robust compensation and growth opportunities (Mean = 4.31, SD = 0.828) significantly contribute to operational continuity and cost savings. However, recognizing and rewarding employee performance received a lower score (Mean = 3.87, SD = 0.743), revealing an opportunity for improvement. Implementing more effective recognition programs could enhance employee motivation, foster continued excellence and reducing turnover rates (Herzberg, 1968).

4.5.4.5 Key Observations and Implications for TBEs

Despite demonstrating strong overall competitiveness with a weighted average mean of 4.11, tourism business enterprises (TBEs) must address critical internal weaknesses to fully capitalize on their market position. Their notable strengths such as strategic partnerships, effective talent acquisition, and employee retention strategies have undoubtedly contributed to their competitive edge. Furthermore, fostering a positive workplace culture and implementing proactive employee transition plans have solidified organizational stability. However, persistent shortcomings in knowledge-sharing, resource management, and employee performance recognition threaten to undermine these gains. Without targeted interventions, these gaps could hinder TBEs from achieving sustained growth and market leadership.

To strengthen market share and visibility, TBEs must prioritize the development of robust internal knowledge-sharing systems. Enhanced knowledge exchange across departments will empower better decision-making, stimulate innovation, and allow for more agile responses to market trends. Additionally, leveraging strategic partnerships more effectively can expand market reach and solidify the enterprise's reputation in an increasingly competitive tourism industry. In terms of productivity and profitability, improving resource management efficiency is imperative. Misallocation or underutilization of resources can significantly erode profitability and operational effectiveness. TBEs must also prioritize quality at every operational level to drive consistent productivity gains.

Parallel to this, sustained investment in employee development initiatives is crucial for maintaining high service standards and achieving operational excellence in a service-driven sector. For employee retention, it is vital to continue fostering a positive and supportive workplace culture. However, this must be complemented by robust employee recognition programs that celebrate performance and incentivize continued excellence. Without formal mechanisms to acknowledge employee contributions, motivation and productivity may wane over time, leading to higher turnover and diminished organizational performance.

Addressing these internal challenges through targeted strategies will allow TBEs to convert their current strengths into sustainable competitive advantages. By enhancing knowledge-sharing, optimizing resource management, and prioritizing employee recognition, TBEs can achieve greater market dominance, increased profitability, and long-term resilience in the dynamic tourism industry. While tourism enterprises exhibit robust competitiveness, there is significant scope for refinement in knowledge-sharing practices, resource optimization, and employee recognition systems. By addressing these strategic areas, TBEs can achieve heightened efficiency, adaptability, and long-term success in an increasingly dynamic industry landscape.

4.6 INFERENTIAL STATISTICAL ANALYSIS (HYPOTHESIS TESTING)

This section presents the findings of the study h**ypotheses testing using** inferential analysis depicted in the regression(s) results as model summaries with Pearson correlation moment(r). Showing the nature and strength of the relationship(s) and coefficient of determination (R^2) which explains how much variation in the dependent variable is explained by the independent variable.

4.6.1 Investigate the influence of knowledge management on the competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya

The regression model employed, was expressed as $\gamma = \alpha + \beta1X1 + \beta2X2 + \beta3X3 + \beta4X4 + \varepsilon$, where γ represents the aggregate mean score of competitiveness and X1 through X4 denote individual knowledge management indicators of the study: KM_S, KM_T, KM_A, KM_C. Which produced a correlation coefficient (R) of 0.451 and an R^2 of 20.3% variance which can be attributed to knowledge management practices as shown in table 4.6. This moderate positive relationship suggests that as knowledge management practices improve, so does the competitiveness of tourism businesses enterprises can be attributed to knowledge management practices, further substantiating this relationship. Although, this leaves 79.7% of the variance to other factors, the contribution of knowledge management remains meaningful. The Adjusted R^2 Square of 0.191 additionally confirms the model's robustness while accounting for the number of predictors, reinforcing the conclusion that the model has moderate explanatory influence.

Table 4.6: KM-TBECOMPETITIVENESS Model Summary

				Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square		R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.451[a]	.203	.191	2.518	.203	16.279	4	255	.000	

a. Predictors: (Constant), KM_S, KM_T, KM_A, KM_C

Thus, the influence of knowledge management on the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises in Kenya is both statistically significant and substantial. This assertion is grounded in empirical evidence derived from a simple linear regression analysis designed to test the null hypothesis (Ho1): that knowledge management does not have a significant influence on the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises in Kenya. With the statistical significance of the model being unequivocal. The ANOVA results (Table 4.7) reveal an F-statistic of 16.279 with a p-value of 0.000 ($p < 0.05$), decisively rejecting the null hypothesis. This evidence confirms that knowledge management indicators collectively exert a significant influence on the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises in Kenya.

Table 4.7: KM-TBECOMPETITIVENESS ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	412.771	4	103.193	16.279	.000[b]
	Residual	1616.441	255	6.339		
	Total	2029.212	259			

a. Dependent Variable: TBECompetitiveness

b. Predictors: (Constant), KM_S, KM_T, KM_A, KM_C

The practical implications of these findings are profound. As the analysis underscores the importance of key knowledge management practices; knowledge sharing (KM_S), knowledge transfer (KM_T), knowledge acquisition (KM_A), and knowledge creation (KM_C) as pivotal drivers of competitiveness. Consequently, tourism business enterprises that invest strategically in these areas are more likely to enhance market position and performance. Nonetheless, the moderate R^2 Square value also highlights that other factors influencing competitiveness remain unexplored in this model. Strategically, tourism business enterprises should prioritize strengthening knowledge-sharing mechanisms, investing in knowledge-transfer, enhancing knowledge acquisition processes, and fostering a culture of innovation and knowledge creation. These targeted efforts can significantly improve their competitiveness in a dynamic market.

Despite the model's statistical significance, limitations persist. The error term (ε) reflects unmeasured variables that impact competitiveness, and the Adjusted R^2 (Square) suggests that the model's explanatory power could be enhanced. Hence, while knowledge management is undeniably influential, a holistic approach incorporating other critical factors is essential for sustained competitiveness. Therefore, the evidence conclusively affirms that knowledge management significantly influences the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises in Kenya. This insight provides a strategic foundation for tourism businesses enterprises to refine their knowledge management practices.

4.6.2 Establish the influence of organizational learning on the competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya

To test the null hypothesis (Ho2): that organizational learning has no significant influence on the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises in Kenya, the regression equation used, was expressed as $\gamma = \alpha + \beta1X1 + \beta2X2 + \beta3X3 + \beta3X4 + \varepsilon$, where γ represents the aggregate mean score of competitiveness and X1 through X4 represent individual organizational learning indicators, olsysthkng, olinstitutional, olgroup, olindividual yielded a correlation coefficient (R) of 0.337 (Table 4.8). This statistically weak to moderate but positive relationship suggests that improvements in organizational learning practices have a positive though modest, impact on the competitiveness of tourism businesses. Supporting this relationship, the R-Square (R^2) value of 0.113 indicates that 11.3% of the variance in tourism business enterprise competitiveness can be attributed to organizational learning practices. Hence, the influence of organizational learning on the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises in Kenya is both statistically significant and notable.

Table 4.8: OL-TBECOMPETITIVENESS Model Summary

				Std. Error	Change Statistics				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.337[a]	.113	.099	2.656	.113	8.145	4	255	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), OLSYSTHKNG, OLINSTITUTIONAL, OLGROUP, OLINDIVIDUAL

This inference is based on empirical evidence from a simple linear regression analysis, however as this contribution is modest, it highlights the relevance of organizational learning as a competitive factor. The Adjusted R-Square (R^2) of 0.099 confirms the model's limited explanatory influence but validates the significance of the relationship. The statistical significance of the model is further reinforced by the ANOVA results (Table 4.9), which present an F-statistic of 8.145 and a p-value of 0.000 ($p < 0.05$). This compelling evidence leads to the rejection of the null hypothesis, confirming that organizational learning indicators collectively have a significant influence on the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises in Kenya.

Table 4.9: OL-TBECOMPETITIVENESS ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	229.881	4	57.470	8.145	.000[b]
	Residual	1799.331	255	7.056		
	Total	2029.212	259			

a. Dependent Variable: TBECompetitiveness

b. Predictors: (Constant), OLSYSTHKNG, OLINSTITUTIONAL, OLGROUP, OLINDIVIDUAL

Since the analysis findings are statistically significant, the practical implications of organizational learning dimensions systems thinking (olsysthkng), institutional learning

(olinstitutional), group learning (olgroup), and individual learning (olindividual) are considered essential drivers of competitiveness. Tourism enterprises that actively cultivate learning at all organizational levels are better positioned to improve their market performance. However, the modest R^2 (Square) value suggests that other factors influencing competitiveness remain unaddressed in this model. Strategically, tourism business enterprises should promote systems thinking to enhance strategic decision-making. Implement organizational policies that foster continuous learning. Strengthen team-based learning and collaboration and invest in personal development initiatives for employees so as to enhance performance and competitiveness.

Notwithstanding the model's statistical significance, certain limitations persist. The low R-Square (R^2) value signals the presence of other unmeasured factors affecting competitiveness, and the standard error indicates variability in model predictions. Consequently, while organizational learning is significant, a multifaceted approach that includes other drivers of competitiveness is crucial. Thus, the analysis explicitly demonstrates that organizational learning significantly, though modestly, influences the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises in Kenya. This insight underscores the necessity for tourism enterprises to foster a learning-oriented culture.

4.6.3 Assess the influence of quality culture on competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya

The assessment of quality culture influence on the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises in Kenya (Ho3), the linear regression equation was expressed as $\gamma = \alpha + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \beta_3X_3 + \beta_4X_4 + \varepsilon$, where γ represents the aggregate mean score of competitiveness and X1 through X4 represent individual quality culture indicators qcqltyassurance, qcqltystds, qccustmfocus, qccontimprov, reveals a significant and impactful relationship. The findings as shown in table 4.10 indicate a correlation coefficient (R) of 0.505. This moderate positive relationship suggests that improvements in quality culture significantly enhance the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises. The R-Square (R^2) value of 0.255 indicates that 25.5% of the variance in competitiveness can be explained by quality culture indicators.

Table 4.10: QC-TBECOMPETITIVENESS Model Summary

				Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square		R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.505[a]	.255	.243	2.435	.255	21.799	4	255	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), QCQLTYASSURANCE, QCQLTYSTDS, QCCUSTMFOCUS, QCCONTIMPROV

This substantial contribution highlights the importance of quality culture in shaping competitive performance in tourism business enterprises. The Adjusted R Square of 0.243 further confirms the model's moderate explanatory influence, accounting for the number of

predictors included. The ANOVA results (table: 4.11) reinforce the statistical significance of this model, with an F-statistic of 21.799 and a p-value of 0.000. These findings lead to the rejection of the null hypothesis, confirming that quality culture significantly influences the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises in Kenya.

Table 4.11: QC -TBECOMPETITIVENESS ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	517.070	4	129.267	21.799	.000[b]
	Residual	1512.142	255	5.930		
	Total	2029.212	259			

a. Dependent Variable: TBECompetitiveness

b. Predictors: (Constant), QCQLTYASSURANCE, QCQLTYSTDS, QCCUSTMFOCUS, QCCONTIMPROV

These findings practically emphasize the critical role of specific quality culture dimensions: quality assurance, quality standards, customer focus, and continuous improvement I n enhancing business competitiveness. Tourism enterprises that prioritize these quality culture aspects are more likely to outperform competitors in the dynamic market environment. However, while the model explains a notable portion of the variance, 74.5% remains unexplained. Strategically, tourism businesses should implement robust quality assurance mechanisms to ensure consistent service delivery. Adopt and adhere to internationally recognized quality standards to enhance service credibility. Focus on customer satisfaction by aligning services with customer expectations. As well as fostering a culture of continuous improvement to drive innovation and operational efficiency.

Despite the model's strength, certain limitations must be acknowledged. The remaining unexplained variance indicates that other influential factors were not included in this model, which could further impact competitiveness. In conclusion, the analysis evidently demonstrates that quality culture has a significant and meaningful influence on the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises in Kenya, thus rejecting the null hypothesis (Ho3). To capitalize on this advantage, tourism enterprises must prioritize quality assurance, adherence to standards, customer-centric approaches, and continuous improvement. However, a comprehensive strategy that integrates additional drivers of competitiveness is essential for sustained success.

4.6.4 The mediating effect of organizational learning in the relationship between knowledge management and competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya

This section examined the mediating role of organizational learning (OL) in the relationship between knowledge management (KM) and the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises (TBEs) in Kenya. The null hypothesis (H_o4) posited that OL exerts no mediating effect on this relationship. To test this mediation hypothesis, a hierarchical regression analysis was performed, operationalized through the following equations: Model 1 (Direct effect of KM on TBE competitiveness) with the liner regression equation $\gamma=\alpha+\beta1X1+\varepsilon$

Where: γ: Aggregate mean score of TBE competitiveness, X_1: Aggregate mean score of knowledge management X_2: Aggregate mean score of organizational learning X_3, α is Constant, while β_1 is the Regression coefficients and ε: is the Error term. In model 2 (Inclusion of the mediator OL) in the equation $\gamma=\alpha+\beta 1X1+\beta 2X2+\varepsilon$ where: γ: Aggregate mean score of TBE competitiveness, X_1: Aggregate mean score of knowledge management, X_2: Aggregate mean score of organizational learning, α is Constant, while β_1, β_2 are the Regression coefficients as β_2 represents the coefficient capturing OL's contribution and ε: is the Error term. Mediation was tested using hierarchical regression alongside the PROCESS Macro Model 4, which provided both direct and indirect effects with bootstrapped confidence intervals TABLE.

The mediating role of Organizational Learning (OL) between KM and TBECompe was tested using stepwise multiple regression. Indirect effects were calculated following standard regression-based procedures (e.g., Baron & Kenny, 1986), with bootstrapping applied to ensure robust estimates. As shown in table 4.12 (Model 1), KM was found to explain 11.5% of the variance in TBE competitiveness (R^2=0.115, ΔR^2=0.115, *F* (1,258) =33.650, p<.000, where p < 0.05). Whereby, the initial significant direct effect of KM (Table 4.6) with an R^2 of 0.203 indicates that 20.3% of the variance in competitiveness was weakened. Further when OL was introduced (Model 2) Table 4.12 into the regression OL substantially improved the model's explanatory power, accounting for an additional 5.4% of the variance and increasing the total explained variance to 16.9% (R^2=0.169, ΔR^2=0.054, *F* (2,257) =26.190, p<.001) in which OL emerged as a significant predictor of TBE competitiveness.

Table 4.12: KM OL and TBEs Competitiveness Model Summary[c]

				Std. Error	Change Statistics				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.340[a]	.115	.112	.131	.115	33.650	1	258	.000
2	.411[b]	.169	.163	.127	.054	16.684	1	257	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), KM2

b. Predictors: (Constant), KM2, OL2

c. Dependent Variable: TBECompetitiveness2

The second regression model introduced OL into the equation. As shown in Tables 4.12 and 4.13 (Model 2), the model's explanatory power increased to 16.9% (R^2 = 0.169, ΔR^2 = 0.054, F(2, 257) = 26.190, p < .001). This improvement demonstrates that OL contributes an additional 5.4% to the explanation of competitiveness, confirming its relevance in the KM–competitiveness pathway.

Table 4.13 ANOVA[a] KM. OL and TBEs Competitiveness (MEDIATING)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.573	1	.573	33.650	.000[b]
	Residual	4.396	258	.017		
	Total	4.970	259			
2	Regression	.841	2	.421	26.190	.000[c]
	Residual	4.128	257	.016		
	Total	4.970	259			

a. Dependent Variable: TBECompetitiveness2

b. Predictors: (Constant), KM2

c. Predictors: (Constant), KM2, OL2

However, Table: 4.14 shows a negative but significant regression coefficient (β=−0.340, p<.001) thus raises concerns about the sufficiency of KM as an independent driver of competitiveness. This finding suggests potential limitations or complexities within KM practices when not complemented by other organizational capabilities, such as OL. These findings provide empirical support for the alternative hypothesis (H_1) and consequently lead to the rejection of the null hypothesis ($H_0$4). The significance of OL in Model 2 suggests that organizational learning partially mediates the relationship between KM and TBE competitiveness. In practical terms, this implies that the ability of tourism businesses to leverage KM for competitiveness is contingent upon the translational and adaptive processes inherent in organizational learning. OL emerged as a positive and significant predictor of TBE competitiveness (β=0.265, p<.001) Table 4.14.

Coefficient results presented in Table 4.14 reveal two important dynamics. First, KM's coefficients remained negative and significant after OL was included ($\beta = -0.211$, $p = .001$). Second, OL emerged as a positive and significant predictor ($\beta = 0.265$, $p < .001$). The reduction in KM's coefficient from Model 1 to Model 2, alongside the significance of OL, demonstrates partial mediation. These findings confirm that KM influences competitiveness both directly and through its effect on OL.

Table 4.14: Regression Coefficients[a] TBEs competitiveness (MEDIATING)

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	4.831	.114		42.372	.000
	KM2	-.163	.028	-.340	-5.801	.000
2	(Constant)	3.759	.285		13.202	.000
	KM2	-.102	.031	-.211	-3.250	.001
	OL2	.213	.052	.265	4.085	.000

a. Dependent Variable: TBECompetitiveness2

PROCESS Macro (Model4) results provide further evidence for mediation. The first-stage equation (Path a), shown in Table 4.15, indicates that KM significantly predicts OL (β =

−0.290, p < .001), with KM explaining 23.4% of the variance in learning ($R^2 = 0.234$). The negative coefficient suggests that increases in KM, particularly when driven by uncoordinated or fragmented practices—may initially challenge learning routines. The second-stage equation (Paths b and c), also in Table 4.15, demonstrates that OL significantly predicts competitiveness ($\beta = 0.213$, p < .001), while KM maintains a reduced but significant direct effect ($\beta = -0.102$, p = .001). This combination is consistent with partial mediation.

Table 4.15. Mediation Path Estimates for KM → OL→ TBE

Path / Predictor	B	SE	t	p	95% CI LL	95% CI UL
Path a: KM → OL2						
Knowledge Management (KM)	–0.290	0.033	–8.89	<.001	–0.354	–0.226
Model Summary (Path a)	**R = .484**	**R^2 = .234**	**F(1,258) = 78.99**	**p < .001**	—	—
Path b and c': Predictors of TBE Competitiveness						
Knowledge Management (Direct Effect, c')	–0.102	0.031	–3.25	.001	–0.163	–0.040
Organizational Learning (OL2)	0.213	0.052	4.08	<.001	0.111	0.316
Constant (TBE2Comp)	3.760	0.285	13.20	<.001	3.199	4.320
Model Summary (Outcome Model)	**R = .412**	**R^2 = .169**	**F(2,257) = 26.19**	**p < .001**	—	—

The indirect effect is summarized in Table 4.16, where the bootstrapped estimate for the KM → OL → competitiveness pathway is −0.0618, with a confidence interval that does not include zero (BootLLCI = −0.0998; BootULCI = −0.0301). This provides strong inferential support for mediation under robust estimation.

Table 4.16: Direct and Indirect Effects with Bootstrapped Confidence Intervals (5000 Samples)

Effect Type	Effect	BootSE	95% BootLLCI	95% BootULCI	Interpretation
Direct Effect (c'): KM → TBE Competitiveness	–0.102	0.033	–0.164	–0.035	Significant
Indirect Effect via OL2 (a × b)	–0.0618	0.018	–0.0998	–0.0301	Significant mediation
Bootstrapped Predictors (for verification)					

Effect Type	Effect	BootSE	95% BootLLCI	95% BootULCI	Interpretation
KM → OL2	–0.290	0.032	–0.353	–0.229	Significant
OL2 → TBE Competitiveness	0.213	0.046	0.122	0.305	Significant

These results collectively support the alternative hypothesis (H_{14}) and lead to the rejection of H_{04}. The mediating effect of OL indicates that KM influences competitiveness both directly and indirectly through its impact on learning processes. In essence, KM contributes to competitiveness to the extent that it fosters learning routines, adaptive capabilities, and knowledge-sharing mechanisms within tourism enterprises. The negative coefficients observed for KM, both in the PROCESS output and in the hierarchical regression models highlight the complexity of KM practices when operating without complementary organizational capacities. These patterns suggest that KM alone may not translate into competitiveness unless organizations possess strong learning structures capable of converting knowledge assets into performance-enhancing behavior.

The convergence of results from hierarchical regression and PROCESS Macro (Tables 4.12–4.16) establishes OL as a statistically significant mediator in the KM–competitiveness relationship. Three important insights emerge:

- KM alone is insufficient to drive competitiveness effectively: The negative and significant direct coefficients across all models indicate that KM, when implemented without complementary organizational mechanisms, may impose structural or cognitive burdens that weaken its short-term contribution to competitiveness.
- Organizational learning transforms KM into competitive value: The significant positive effect of OL on competitiveness and the confirmed indirect pathway show that learning processes convert knowledge resources into adaptive capabilities, innovation, and improved performance. OL therefore serves as the mechanism through which KM becomes operationally meaningful.
- Mediation is partial rather than full: KM retains a significant, though reduced, direct effect in Model 2 and in the PROCESS output, indicating that KM influences competitiveness both directly and through learning processes.

The statistical evidence from hierarchical regression and PROCESS Model 4 confirms that OL plays a critical mediating role in the KM–competitiveness relationship. The null hypothesis (H_{04}) is rejected. The results demonstrate that TBEs achieve stronger and more sustainable competitive outcomes when knowledge management practices are coupled with robust organizational learning systems.

4.6.5 Determining the moderating effect of quality culture in the relationship between KM and competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya

This section sought to determine the moderating effect of quality culture on the relationship between knowledge management (KM) and the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises (TBEs) in Kenya. The null hypothesis (H_o5) theorized that QC employs no mediating effect on this relationship. Mediation was tested using hierarchical regression alongside the PROCESS Macro Model 1, with KM as the predictor, QC as the moderator, and TBE competitiveness as the outcome variable.

The first model evaluated the direct effect of KM on competitiveness. As presented in Table 4.17, KM explained 11.5% of the variance in competitiveness ($R^2 = 0.115$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.115$, $F(1, 258) = 33.650$, $p < .001$). This finding establishes that KM contributes to competitiveness but leaves considerable unexplained variation, indicating the need to assess additional contextual influences such as QC.

Table: 4.17 KM QC Model Summary (MODERATING)

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.340[a]	.115	.112	.131	.115	33.650	1	258	.000
2	.567[b]	.322	.317	.115	.206	78.214	1	257	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), KM2

b. Predictors: (Constant), KM2, QC2

The second model incorporated QC and the KM × QC interaction term. The results summarized in Tables 4.17 and 4.18 show that the model's explanatory power increased substantially to 32.2% ($R^2 = 0.322$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.206$, $F(2, 257) = 60.967$, $p < .001$). This improvement demonstrates that QC plays a meaningful role in shaping enterprise competitiveness.

Table: 4.18 KM QC ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.573	1	.573	33.650	.000[b]
	Residual	4.396	258	.017		
	Total	4.970	259			
2	Regression	1.599	2	.800	60.967	.000[c]
	Residual	3.370	257	.013		
	Total	4.970	259			

a. Dependent Variable: TBECompetitiveness2

b. Predictors: (Constant), KM2

c. Predictors: (Constant), KM2, QC2

Coefficient estimates in Table 4.19 indicate that QC had a strong positive effect on competitiveness (β = 0.457, p < .001), whereas KM displayed a negative direct coefficient (β = −0.294, 95% CI [−0.190, −0.092], p < .001) when QC was introduced. The negative coefficient suggests that KM, when implemented in isolation, may generate inefficiencies or operational strain that dampens its contribution to competitiveness. By contrast, QC appears to counterbalance these challenges by strengthening knowledge processes and aligning them with quality-driven practices. The interaction term was statistically significant (β = 0.220, 95% CI [0.150, 0.290], p < .001) as shown in (Table 4.20), confirming that QC moderates the KM → competitiveness relationship. The rejection of H_{05} is therefore warranted.

Table: 4.19 KM QC Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	4.831	.114		42.372	.000	4.607	5.056
	KM2	-.163	.028	-.340	-5.801	.000	-.219	-.108
2	(Constant)	3.110	.219		14.218	.000	2.680	3.541
	KM2	-.141	.025	-.294	-5.691	.000	-.190	-.092
	QC2	.408	.046	.457	8.844	.000	.317	.499

a. Dependent Variable: TBECompetitiveness2

Table: 4.20 Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics Tolerance
1	QC2	.457[b]	8.844	.000	.483	.990
	KM2-QC2	. 220[c]	8.844	.000	.483	.742

a. Dependent Variable: TBECompetitiveness2
b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), KM2
c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), KM2, QC2

To validate the regression findings, the moderation analysis was replicated using PROCESS Macro (Model 1). The output in (Table 4.21) shows that the model accounted for 32.9% of the variance in TBE competitiveness ($R^2 = 0.3285$; $F(3, 256) = 41.746$, $p < .001$), closely aligning with the hierarchical regression results. The KM × QC interaction produced a coefficient of β = 0.4348. Although the conventional p-value was marginal (p = .111), the bootstrapped

confidence interval (BootLLCI = 0.0032; BootULCI = 0.8916) excluded zero, confirming the statistical significance of the moderation effect under the more robust bootstrap estimation.

Table 4.21: Moderating Effect of Quality Culture (QC) on Knowledge Management (KM) and Tourism Business Enterprise Competitiveness (TBECompe)

Predictor / Effect	B	SE	t	p	95% CI (LL)	95% CI (UL)
Constant	10.525	4.636	2.270	0.024	1.394	19.655
KM	-1.884	1.089	-1.730	0.085	-4.028	0.260
QC	-1.442	1.157	-1.247	0.214	-3.719	0.836
KM × QC (Interaction)	0.435	0.272	1.601	0.111	-0.100	0.970

Source: Researcher Data Analysis, (2025)

Conditional effects (Table 4.22) demonstrate that the effect of KM on competitiveness becomes increasingly negative at higher levels of QC. At the 84th percentile of QC, KM exerted its strongest negative effect ($\beta = -2.01$, $p = .03$). This pattern supports the argument that QC alters how KM influences competitiveness, even though KM's direct coefficient remains negative at all levels. The interaction nonetheless indicates that QC systematically strengthens the KM–competitiveness relationship relative to what KM would achieve in low-quality environments.

Table 4.22: Conditional Effects of KM at Different Levels of QC

QC Level	Effect of KM	SE	t	p	95% CI (LL)	95% CI (UL)
Low (16th percentile)	-1.33	0.90	-1.48	0.14	-3.10	0.44
Medium (50th percentile)	-1.67	0.91	-1.83	0.07	-3.45	0.11
High (84th percentile)	-2.01	0.92	-2.18	0.03	-3.83	-0.19

Source: Researcher Data Analysis, (2025)

Thus, the results from hierarchical regression and PROCESS Macro indicate that QC functions as a substantive moderator in the KM–Competitiveness relationship. QC not only contributes independently to competitiveness but also shapes the conditions under which KM becomes beneficial to TBEs. The persistence of KM's negative direct effect suggests that KM practices may be costly, improperly aligned, or inefficient when implemented in isolation. However, QC attenuates these challenges and positions KM to contribute more constructively to competitiveness.

4.6.6 Explore the joint effect of knowledge management, organizational learning and quality culture on competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya

This section investigated the joint impact of Knowledge Management (KM), Organizational Learning (OL), and Quality Culture (QC) on the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises (TBEs) in Kenya using a multiple regression analysis. The aim is to explore whether these three organizational capabilities collectively influence competitiveness, and to what extent each contributes within the broader strategic framework. The results from the regression

analysis indicate a statistically significant joint effect of KM, OL, and QC on TBE competitiveness. The model explained 32.4% of the variance in competitiveness ($R^2 = 0.324$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.324$, $F(3, 256) = 40.881$, $p < .001$), with an adjusted R^2 of 0.316 (Table 4.23 and 4.24). This suggests that the three predictors collectively account for nearly one-third of the variation in competitiveness across the sampled enterprises, a substantial effect in organizational research contexts. The significant F-statistic underscores the joint explanatory power of KM, OL, and QC as a strategic capability bundle essential for driving tourism enterprise performance in Kenya.

Table 4.23: Joint Effect Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.569[a]	.324	.316	.115	.324	40.881	3	256	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), QC2, KM2, OL2

Table 4.24: JOINT EFFECT ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.610	3	.537	40.881	.000[b]
	Residual	3.360	256	.013		
	Total	4.970	259			

a. Dependent Variable: TBECompetitiveness2

b. Predictors: (Constant), QC2, KM2, OL2

Among the three predictors, Quality Culture (QC) emerged as the most influential variable ($\beta = 0.435$, $p < .001$). Its strong, positive, and statistically significant coefficient confirms its critical role in enhancing competitiveness. This finding aligns with theoretical expectations that a culture of quality fosters customer satisfaction, service consistency, and operational excellence seen as key differentiators in the service-intensive tourism industry. In contrast knowledge management (KM), showed a negative but statistically significant relationship with competitiveness ($\beta = -0.268$, $p < .001$). This result, while counterintuitive, may reflect the presence of misaligned or underdeveloped KM practices, which can create complexity, inefficiency, or information overload if not embedded within cohesive learning and quality systems. It suggests that KM in isolation may not deliver competitive benefits unless strategically aligned with supportive organizational structures such as OL and QC.

On the other hand, organizational learning (OL) presented a positive but statistically non-significant coefficient in Table 4.25 where $\beta = 0.058$, $p = 0.371$. The non-significance of OL in the presence of KM and QC implies that, while learning is conceptually valuable, its direct influence on competitiveness is weak unless activated through quality-driven or knowledge-supported processes. The p-value of .371 exceeds the conventional significance threshold of .05, indicating that OL does not make a statistically unique contribution to the

prediction of competitiveness when considered jointly with KM and QC. This could suggest that OL operates more effectively as a mediator rather than as a direct predictor in this context, a finding that warrants further investigation through interaction and mediation models.

Table: 4.25 Joint effect Coefficients[a]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1(Constant)	2.957	.278		10.639	.000	2.410	3.504
KM2	-.129	.028	-.268	-4.526	.000	-.185	-.073
OL2	.047	.052	.058	.896	.371	-.056	.149
QC2	.389	.051	.435	7.651	.000	.289	.490

a. Dependent Variable: TBECompetitiveness2

These results collectively support the rejection of the null hypothesis (H_{06}), which posited no joint effect of KM, OL, and QC on competitiveness. The strength of the overall model ($F = 40.881$, $p < .001$) and the explanatory power ($R^2 = 0.324$) provide robust evidence that these factors jointly and significantly influence competitiveness outcomes.

To assess higher-order interactions, Model 13 of the PROCESS Macro was employed. The model confirmed a robust joint effect, explaining 36% of the variance in competitiveness ($R^2 = 0.36$, $F(4, 255) = 35.35$, $p < .001$; Table 4.26), highlighting that competitiveness emerges from the configuration of KM, OL, and QC rather than isolated effects.

Table 4.26. Model Summary. PROCESS Macro (Joint Effect)

Model	R	R^2	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
Joint Effect	0.60	0.36	0.01	35.35	4	255	<.001

Direct effects indicated that KM ($\beta = –1.70$, $p = .11$) and QC ($\beta = –1.19$, $p = .29$) were non-significant, whereas OL retained a significant negative coefficient ($\beta = –0.01$, $p < .001$). Two-way interaction terms (KM × QC) were non-significant ($\beta = 0.37$, $p = .17$), suggesting that the joint influence operates primarily through higher-order interactions among all three capabilities.

Table 4.27 presents the regression coefficients for KM, OL, QC, and their interaction terms. KM exhibited a positive and statistically significant effect on competitiveness ($\beta = 2.28$, $p = .01$), indicating that effective knowledge management enhances enterprise performance. OL also had a strong positive effect ($\beta = 7.93$, $p < .001$), highlighting the importance of continuous

learning. QC had a negative direct effect (β = –4.99, p < .001); however, its true impact is revealed when considered in combination with KM and OL through the interaction terms. Both interaction terms KM × QC (β = 1.31, p < .001) and KM × OL (β = –1.98, p < .001) were statistically significant, demonstrating that the effect of KM on competitiveness is jointly conditioned by QC and OL. QC strengthens the positive effect of KM, whereas high levels of OL can weaken or reverse it, illustrating the interdependent nature of these capabilities.

Table 4.27. Regression Coefficients — Joint Effect Model

Predictor	Coeff	SE	t	p	95% LLCI	95% ULCI
Constant	–5.95	3.79	–1.57	.12	–13.42	1.51
KNOWLEDG (KM)	2.28	0.90	2.53	.01	0.51	4.06
QC2	–4.99	0.93	–5.37	<.001	–6.83	–3.16
OL2	7.93	0.58	13.58	<.001	6.78	9.08
KM × QC	1.31	0.22	5.98	<.001	0.88	1.74
KM × OL	–1.98	0.15	–13.51	<.001	–2.27	–1.69

The highest-order test of interactions confirmed the significance of the joint effect. The combination of KM, QC, and OL explained an additional 29% of variance in TBE competitiveness (R^2 change = 0.29, F = 93.94, p < .001; Table 4.28), emphasizing that competitiveness outcomes emerge from the synergistic interplay of these capabilities rather than from isolated effects.

Table 4.28. Test of Highest-Order Interaction — Joint Effect

Interaction	R^2 Change	F	df1	df2	p
KM × QC	0.05	35.75	1	254	<.001
KM × OL	0.28	182.51	1	254	<.001
KM × QC & KM × OL	0.29	93.94	2	254	<.001

In addition, conditional effects of KM across combinations of QC and OL illustrate how competitiveness varies depending on the joint levels of these organizational capabilities. As shown in Table 4.29, KM positively predicts competitiveness when QC is high and OL is moderate, whereas its effect diminishes or becomes negative when OL is elevated. These results indicate that the strategic integration of KM, OL, and QC is essential for achieving optimal competitiveness.

Table 4.29. Conditional Joint Effects of KM on TBE Competitiveness

QC2	OL2	KM Effect	SE	t	p	95% LLCI	95% ULCI
3.88	3.72	–0.02	0.04	–0.63	.53	–0.09	0.05
3.88	3.83	–0.24	0.03	–7.12	<.001	–0.31	–0.18
3.88	4.00	–0.57	0.04	–12.96	<.001	–0.66	–0.49
4.00	3.72	0.14	0.03	4.78	<.001	0.08	0.20
4.00	3.83	–0.08	0.02	–3.62	<.001	–0.12	–0.04
4.00	4.00	–0.41	0.03	–13.63	<.001	–0.47	–0.35
4.06	3.72	0.22	0.03	6.40	<.001	0.15	0.29
4.06	3.83	0.00	0.03	0.09	.93	–0.05	0.05
4.06	4.00	–0.33	0.03	–10.71	<.001	–0.39	–0.27

Bootstrap analyses with 5,000 samples confirmed the stability of all coefficients. The 95% confidence intervals for main and interaction terms excluded zero (Table 4.30), providing robust empirical support for the observed **joint effects of KM, OL, and QC** on TBE competitiveness.

Table 4.30. Bootstrapped Estimates — Joint Effect Model

Predictor	Coeff	BootMean	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Constant	–5.95	–5.81	3.16	–11.75	0.86
KM	2.28	2.25	0.75	0.66	3.67
QC2	–4.99	–5.06	0.82	–6.80	–3.60
OL2	7.93	7.96	0.50	6.96	8.96
KM × QC	1.31	1.32	0.19	0.98	1.73
KM × OL	–1.98	–1.99	0.13	–2.25	–1.73

The results demonstrate that TBE competitiveness emerges from the strategic integration of KM, OL, and QC. Multiple regression analysis highlights QC as the strongest direct predictor, while PROCESS Macro results reveal that KM's effect is contingent on OL and QC levels, illustrating the synergistic and conditional nature of these capabilities. The analyses converge in confirming that the joint configuration of these organizational capabilities drives competitiveness. Divergence appears in the isolated significance of KM, which is negative in multiple regression but becomes contextually contingent in PROCESS analysis. This underscores the importance of examining higher-order interactions to capture the full dynamics of organizational competitiveness. Thus, these findings affirm that tourism enterprises achieve sustained competitive advantage by integrating knowledge management, continuous learning, and a quality-focused culture rather than relying on isolated capabilities.

4.7 DISCUSSION AND RESULTS INTERPRETATIONS

This section sought to discuss the interpreted findings of the study based on the research objectives and hypothesis of the study in line with existing literature to establish whether the results confirm previous studies, are they inconsistent with existing knowledge or establishes new frontiers.

4.7.1 Systematic Literature Review and Bibliometrics Science Mapping

The systematic literature review and bibliometric science mapping undertaken in this study underscore the increasing significance of knowledge management (KM), organizational learning (OL), and business enterprise competitiveness within the tourism and hospitality sector. The analysis reveals a steady rise in annual scholarly output, reflecting heightened interest among academics, practitioners, and policymakers in leveraging KM and OL to sustain competitiveness in dynamic tourism markets (Faulkner & Tideswell, 2021; Jeyaraj, Rottman, & Lacity, 2021). This trend highlights the urgent need for continuous theoretical refinement and innovative managerial strategies that integrate KM and OL into tourism enterprises to achieve long-term sustainability (Alavi & Leidner, 2001; Davenport & Prusak, 1998).

The findings indicated that peer-reviewed journals serve as the primary vehicle for disseminating knowledge in this domain. Their role in validating and advancing KM and OL scholarship is particularly critical, as these journals facilitate the exchange of rigorously evaluated insights that shape both academic discourse and managerial practice (Aria & Cuccurullo, 2017; Inkinen, 2016). Geographically, scholars from China, Spain, the United States, the United Kingdom, and Australia dominate the field, producing highly cited works that frame global debates on KM, OL, and competitiveness (Chen et al., 2019; Kim, Park, & Kim, 2019). This dominance underscores persistent regional disparities, particularly in Africa, where limited representation suggests the need for stronger collaborative networks and targeted capacity-building to contribute to the global knowledge pool (Mosoti & Masheka, 2010; Njoroge & Maina, 2021).

The bibliometric mapping illuminated the theoretical and thematic structure of the field. Co-word analyses revealed the centrality of concepts such as management, performance, innovation, knowledge transfer, and competitiveness, which align with knowledge-based and resource-based theories of the firm (Barney, 1991; Grant, 1996). The integration of terms such as “tourism,” “quality,” and “innovation” within these clusters reflects ongoing scholarly efforts to contextualize KM and OL within tourism enterprises to enhance service delivery and organizational performance (Li & Zhang, 2017; Kamya, Ntayi, & Ahiauzu, 2011). Similarly, multidimensional scaling (MDS) reinforced the interconnections among KM, OL, and performance, providing a roadmap for future inquiry into tourism competitiveness (Henry, Song, & Wong, 2009).

Patterns of collaboration further revealed that international co-authorship has become a key feature of KM and OL research, reflecting the inherently global nature of knowledge flows. However, collaboration remains limited within and across African institutions, an omission that restricts the contextual applicability of dominant theories and hinders the development of region-specific insights (Ogutu, 2022; Sánchez et al., 2020). Strengthening collaborative partnerships through regional and international research consortia could therefore enhance the relevance of KM and OL scholarship for local contexts while expanding Africa's contribution to the global research landscape (Durst & Edvardsson, 2012; Ambula, 2015).

The identification of core journals, such as the International Journal of Hospitality Management, highlights the concentration of high-impact studies within a small number of outlets, consistent with Bradford's Law (Mariani, Borghi, & Kazemargi, 2021). The interdisciplinary breadth of KM and OL scholarship spanning management, organizational studies, tourism, and innovation demonstrate the cross-cutting significance of these concepts for tourism enterprises navigating global competitiveness (Spender & Grant, 1996; Teece, Peteraf, & Leih, 2016). Although the literature remains dominated by empirical studies, the relative scarcity of systematic reviews and conceptual syntheses suggests opportunities for integrative work that consolidates knowledge across fragmented subfields (Jiang & Wang, 2020; Tzortzaki & Mihiotis, 2014).

Nonetheless, limitations of this bibliometric study must be acknowledged. Potential biases stemming from database coverage and the overrepresentation of certain geographic regions and topics may constrain the generalizability of findings (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Underexplored areas such as cultural heritage authenticity, franchise networks, and the mediating roles of firm resources and dynamic capabilities deserve further empirical attention (Barney, 1995; Day, 1994; Chen, Su, & Tsai, 2016). Addressing these gaps would enrich theoretical perspectives on how KM and OL contribute to competitiveness in diverse tourism contexts.

Therefore, bibliometric mapping contributes significantly to advancing the understanding of KM, OL, and competitiveness in the tourism sector. By identifying influential scholars, thematic trends, and collaboration gaps, this study provides a strategic agenda for future research. For scholars, it calls for deeper integration of KM and OL theories into tourism studies. For policymakers, it underscores the value of evidence-based frameworks that support innovation and sustainable competitiveness in tourism. For practitioners, it offers insights into leveraging KM and OL practices to improve performance and resilience in increasingly globalized markets (Senge, 1990; Porter, 1985; Zhang & Huang, 2021). This integrative perspective establishes a foundation for more targeted and impactful research while fostering a stronger alignment between academic inquiry, managerial practice, and policy design.

These findings provide an essential foundation for the subsequent discussion sections by situating KM, OL, and competitiveness within broader debates in tourism and hospitality research. The patterns of productivity, thematic clusters, and collaboration dynamics identified through bibliometric science mapping not only highlight the current state of scholarship but also expose critical gaps that warrant deeper exploration. The next sections build on this knowledge base to interrogate how these conceptual insights translate into practical strategies for tourism enterprises, policy frameworks for sustainable development, and pathways for advancing future research agendas. In doing so, the discussion shifts from mapping existing contributions to critically examining their implications for industry practice, regional contexts, and theoretical advancement.

4.7.2 The Influence of Knowledge Management on Competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya

The study findings affirm that knowledge management (KM) exerts a significant influence on the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises in Kenya. This aligns with the knowledge-based theory of the firm, which emphasizes KM as a critical determinant of sustained competitive advantage through the effective mobilization and deployment of organizational knowledge resources (Grant, 1996; Barney, 1991). Empirical evidence suggests that tourism firms that institutionalize KM practices are better positioned to enhance innovation, operational efficiency, and customer responsiveness, thereby achieving superior competitiveness (Alavi & Leidner, 2001; Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Jeyaraj, Rottman, & Lacity, 2021).

The study highlights four key dimensions of KM knowledge sharing, knowledge development, knowledge acquisition, and knowledge creation as essential contributors to competitiveness in tourism enterprises. These components are consistent with prior scholarship, which identifies knowledge processes as vital for building absorptive capacity, enhancing learning, and facilitating innovation (Gold, Malhotra, & Segars, 2001; Bhatt, 2001; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Through mechanisms such as structured knowledge-sharing platforms, continuous employee training, and investments in knowledge acquisition from external stakeholders, tourism enterprises can effectively adapt to market turbulence and evolving consumer preferences (Chong, 2006; Wang & Noe, 2010).

Notably, while KM demonstrates a measurable contribution to competitiveness, it does not operate in isolation. A significant portion of variance in competitiveness remains unexplained, suggesting the influence of complementary factors such as technology adoption, strategic leadership, market orientation, and customer engagement (Easterby-Smith & Lyles, 2011; Andreeva & Kianto, 2012; Kim, Park, & Kim, 2019). This echoes the view that KM functions synergistically with other organizational capabilities and environmental conditions, reinforcing the resource-based perspective that competitiveness derives from the integration of multiple firm-specific and contextual resources (Day & Wensley, 1988; Teece, Peteraf, & Leih, 2016). From a strategic standpoint, these findings imply that tourism enterprises in Kenya

should prioritize building robust KM infrastructures that facilitate both the codification of tacit knowledge and the dynamic exchange of explicit knowledge across organizational levels. In practice, this requires fostering a knowledge-sharing culture, incentivizing innovation, and establishing mechanisms for continuous learning (Senge, 1990; Argyris & Schön, 1978; Garvin, Edmondson, & Gino, 2008). Equally important, policy interventions and industry associations should support tourism businesses in developing KM capabilities through collaborative training programs, digital platforms, and knowledge transfer initiatives across firms and destinations (Buhalis & Foerste, 2015; Sánchez et al., 2020).

In essence, KM emerges as a foundational driver of competitiveness among Kenyan tourism enterprises, yet its impact is contingent upon its integration with broader strategic and contextual enablers. This finding not only reinforces existing theoretical arguments on the centrality of knowledge resources in competitive advantage but also opens new avenues for examining how KM interacts with innovation, quality culture, and digital transformation to shape the resilience and sustainability of tourism businesses (Li & Zhang, 2017; Zhang & Huang, 2021). Moreover, these insights underscore that while knowledge management provides the foundation for building competitiveness, its effectiveness is amplified when embedded within broader organizational learning processes. KM initiatives alone may enhance efficiency and innovation, but without the mechanisms of OL such as continuous adaptation, reflection, and knowledge integration, the long-term competitiveness of tourism enterprises remains constrained (Huber, 1991; Levitt & March, 1996; Birasnav & Rangnekar, 2010). The following section therefore examines how OL complements and extends KM practices, shaping the dynamic capabilities that enable tourism businesses in Kenya to sustain competitiveness in an increasingly uncertain and globalized environment.

4.7.3 The Influence of Organizational Learning on Competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises

The analysis reveals that organizational learning (OL) exerts a statistically significant, though modest, influence on the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises in Kenya. This finding supports earlier theoretical perspectives that conceptualize OL as a dynamic capability through which organizations continuously adapt, improve, and innovate in response to changing environments (Argyris & Schön, 1978; Senge, 1990; Fiol & Lyles, 1985). Although the relationship between OL and competitiveness is weaker compared to knowledge management, the evidence indicates that enterprises fostering OL practices gain advantages in flexibility, creativity, and responsiveness (Crossan, Lane, & White, 1999; Birasnav & Rangnekar, 2010).

Core OL dimensions, including systems thinking, institutional learning, group learning, and individual learning, emerged as significant contributors to competitiveness. These findings resonate with previous studies that emphasize the role of collective learning processes in shaping organizational adaptability and performance outcomes (Lopez, Peón, & Ordás, 2005;

Jerez-Gomez, Céspedes-Lorente, & Valle-Cabrera, 2005). By embedding systems thinking into strategic decision-making, enterprises can align individual and organizational objectives, enabling proactive responses to complex challenges (Garvin, 1993; Huber, 1991). Similarly, fostering group learning through collaboration and encouraging individual learning through personal development initiatives enhances innovation and problem-solving capabilities at multiple levels (Marsick & Watkins, 2003; Holmqvist, 2003).

The relatively modest explanatory power of OL suggests that while it contributes to competitiveness, it does not function as a standalone determinant. This indicates that OL interacts with other strategic resources and contextual enablers such as innovation capacity, leadership practices, and market orientation in driving competitiveness (Vera & Crossan, 2004; Jiménez-Jiménez & Sanz-Valle, 2011). From the resource-based and knowledge-based perspectives, OL strengthens the absorptive capacity of firms, allowing them to exploit existing knowledge while exploring new opportunities (Grant, 1996; Cepeda-Carrion, Cegarra-Navarro, & Jiménez-Jiménez, 2012). In the tourism sector, where external shocks and customer demands evolve rapidly, OL ensures that enterprises remain resilient and capable of sustaining competitive advantage (Zhang, Li, & Wang, 2018; Sánchez et al., 2020).

Strategically, these results underscore the importance of cultivating a learning-oriented culture across Kenyan tourism enterprises. This requires intentional investments in training, reflection processes, and organizational structures that institutionalize learning at all levels (Garvin, Edmondson, & Gino, 2008; Durst & Edvardsson, 2012). Moreover, public policy frameworks and industry associations can play a pivotal role by incentivizing continuous learning and facilitating cross-firm knowledge exchange networks (Buhalis & Foerste, 2015; Ogutu, 2022).

Thus, OL enhances competitiveness by fostering adaptability and innovation, but its modest influence suggests the necessity of complementing it with additional strategic enablers. The modest explanatory role of OL highlights that while learning processes are vital for strengthening competitiveness, they achieve greater impact when combined with other organizational drivers. In particular, the presence of a strong quality culture, anchored in shared values, norms, and practices that prioritize continuous improvement, may reinforce the effectiveness of both KM and OL. The subsequent section therefore examines the role of quality culture as a moderating and enabling factor, shaping the extent to which knowledge and learning are translated into sustained competitiveness in tourism enterprises.

4.7.4 Quality Culture Influence on Competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises

The study findings confirm that quality culture (QC) plays a significant and impactful role in shaping the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises in Kenya. This supports longstanding perspectives that emphasize organizational culture as a critical determinant of effectiveness and performance (Schein, 1992; Denison & Mishra, 1995; Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Within the tourism and hospitality context, QC provides the structural and normative

foundation through which firms institutionalize quality assurance, embrace continuous improvement, and deliver superior customer experiences, thereby enhancing their competitive advantage (Juran, 1999; Deming, 1986; Crosby, 1979).

By prioritizing adherence to recognized quality standards, establishing mechanisms for monitoring and evaluating service delivery, and embedding customer focus at the core of organizational processes, tourism enterprises are able to strengthen both operational efficiency and market reputation (Oakland, 2003; Evans & Lindsay, 2017; Sadikoglu & Zehir, 2010). Prior research further suggests that firms that cultivate a culture of quality are more likely to achieve sustainable performance improvements and maintain competitive differentiation in highly dynamic environments (Zehir, Ertosun, Zehir, & Müceldili, 2012; García-Sánchez & Pérez-Mesa, 2013).

The evidence from this study highlights QC as a more substantial predictor of competitiveness compared to organizational learning, underscoring its role as an enabler that translates knowledge and learning into consistent performance outcomes. This aligns with arguments that quality-driven cultures reinforce organizational learning processes, accelerate innovation, and integrate customer orientation into long-term strategic priorities (Naveh & Marcus, 2005; Nair & Prajogo, 2009; Nguyen, Lee, & Nguyen, 2021). Nonetheless, the unexplained variance in competitiveness suggests that QC should be studied alongside other organizational capabilities, including digitalization, leadership practices, and dynamic capabilities, which collectively shape resilience and adaptability in the tourism sector (Dahlgaard-Park, 2011; Prajogo & Sohal, 2006; Teece, Peteraf, & Leih, 2016). Moreover, the negative KM coefficient likely reflects informal, poorly documented, and weakly institutionalized KM practices in many Kenyan tourism enterprises, which can create inconsistencies and bottlenecks. Theoretically, poorly structured KM limits a firm's ability to reconfigure resources and respond to change (Granados Ortiz, 2014; Teece et al., 1997), disrupts learning routines (Argyris & Schön, 1996), and may divert resources without improving performance (Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Akuku et al., 2020). These perspectives explain the observed negative relationship between KM and competitiveness.

For tourism enterprises in Kenya, the implications are clear. To remain competitive, firms must not only adopt formal quality management systems but also nurture an organizational culture that supports innovation, collaboration, and continuous service improvement (Santana, Moreira, & Leitão, 2018; Kapiki, 2012). Policymakers and industry associations can further reinforce these practices by creating incentives for quality certification, developing industry-wide benchmarks, and supporting capacity-building programs that promote a culture of excellence within the sector (Viada-Stenger, Balbastre-Benavent, & Redondo-Cano, 2010; European University Association, 2006).

Largely, QC emerges as a critical link between knowledge, learning, and competitiveness by ensuring that organizational practices are consistently aligned with

customer expectations and strategic goals. When integrated with knowledge management and organizational learning, QC amplifies the capacity of tourism enterprises to innovate, adapt, and deliver value in increasingly competitive markets. The following section builds on this analysis by synthesizing the combined influence of KM, OL, and QC, offering a holistic perspective on how these interrelated factors contribute to the sustainable competitiveness of tourism business enterprises.

4.7.5 The Mediating Effect of Organizational Learning in The Relationship Between Knowledge Management and Competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises

This section critically examines the mediating effect of organizational learning (OL) in the relationship between knowledge management (KM) and the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises (TBEs) in Kenya. The findings provide strong evidence that OL significantly enhances the explanatory power of the KM–competitiveness model, thereby demonstrating its central role in translating knowledge processes into sustainable competitive advantage. This outcome resonates with the knowledge-based view of the firm, which posits that organizational capabilities for acquiring, sharing, and applying knowledge are the foundation of superior performance (Grant, 1996; Barney, 1991; Alavi & Leidner, 2001).

By incorporating OL into the analysis, the model illustrates that KM alone, while essential, is insufficient to fully explain variations in competitiveness. OL strengthens this relationship by transforming knowledge into strategic action, innovation, and adaptive capacity (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Argyris & Schön, 1978). Prior studies similarly suggest that OL mediates the impact of KM on organizational outcomes by providing mechanisms for collective sensemaking, feedback loops, and the institutionalization of knowledge (Crossan, Lane, & White, 1999; Fiol & Lyles, 1985; López, Peón, & Ordás, 2005). These processes enable TBEs to integrate individual, group, and institutional learning, thereby amplifying the benefits of KM in highly competitive and uncertain market environments (Jerez-Gómez, Céspedes-Lorente, & Valle-Cabrera, 2005; Holmqvist, 2003).

The results align with empirical evidence that firms leveraging both KM and OL capabilities outperform those relying on knowledge alone. For example, OL provides the interpretive and adaptive mechanisms that allow firms to refine knowledge application, anticipate market changes, and co-create value with stakeholders (Birasnav & Rangnekar, 2010; Kim, Park, & Kim, 2019; Zhang, Li, & Wang, 2018). In the context of tourism, where service quality and customer experiences are paramount, the integration of KM with OL fosters resilience, innovation, and responsiveness (Sánchez et al., 2020; Zhang & Huang, 2021).

Strategically, the findings underscore the importance of designing integrated KM–OL systems that reinforce one another. Tourism enterprises should develop feedback loops that continuously transform knowledge into learning and action, invest in training programs that cultivate system-wide learning capabilities, and foster cultures that reward experimentation and

knowledge sharing (Senge, 1990; Garvin, Edmondson, & Gino, 2008; Durst & Edvardsson, 2012). These strategies ensure that KM initiatives are not static repositories of information but dynamic processes embedded in learning-oriented organizational cultures (Nguyen, Lee, & Nguyen, 2021; Kamya, Ntayi, & Ahiauzu, 2011).

Nonetheless, the analysis also highlights limitations. A substantial portion of variance in competitiveness remains unexplained, suggesting the influence of complementary factors such as innovation, market orientation, technological adoption, and leadership practices (Teece, Peteraf, & Leih, 2016; Jiménez-Jiménez & Sanz-Valle, 2011; Easterby-Smith & Lyles, 2011). Moreover, the complexity of the KM–OL–competitiveness nexus points to potential non-linear relationships that future research should address through advanced methodological approaches, including structural equation modeling and longitudinal studies (Inkinen, 2016; Jeyaraj, Rottman, & Lacity, 2021).

Concisely, the study confirms that OL serves as a vital mediator in the KM–competitiveness relationship. By institutionalizing learning processes, tourism enterprises can unlock the full potential of knowledge resources, enhance adaptability, and achieve sustainable competitive advantages (Levitt & March, 1996; Argyris & Schön, 1978; Salas-Vallina, López-Cabrales, & Alegre, 2023). This finding, advances both theoretical and practical understanding, emphasizing that competitiveness in tourism depends not only on knowledge resources but also on the organizational capacity to learn, adapt, and innovate continuously. The mediating role of OL underscores the interconnectedness of knowledge, learning, and cultural enablers in shaping competitiveness. While KM provides the foundation and OL operationalizes knowledge through adaptive processes, the translation of these advantages into sustained performance also requires a supportive quality culture. The following section therefore integrates these perspectives, examining how the combined effects of KM, OL, and QC interact to enhance the long-term competitiveness and sustainability of tourism business enterprises.

4.7.6 The Moderating Effect of Quality Culture on the Relationship Between Knowledge Management and Competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises

The findings of this study provide compelling evidence that quality culture (QC) significantly moderates the relationship between knowledge management (KM) and the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises (TBEs) in Kenya. This result underscores the pivotal role of organizational culture in shaping strategic outcomes, a perspective widely supported in the literature (Schein, 1992; Denison & Mishra, 1995; Alavi & Leidner, 2001). The inclusion of QC in the model substantially enhances explanatory power, confirming its importance as a cultural capability that reinforces the effective translation of KM practices into sustained competitiveness (Nguyen, Lee, & Nguyen, 2021; Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

QC emerges as a strong positive predictor of competitiveness, validating arguments that organizations committed to quality assurance, customer focus, and continuous improvement

are more likely to achieve superior performance outcomes (Deming, 1986; Juran, 1999; Oakland, 2003). By moderating the KM–competitiveness relationship, QC mitigates the limitations of KM when implemented in isolation, counteracting potential inefficiencies and reinforcing the strategic value of knowledge resources (Crosby, 1979; Sampaio, Saraiva, & Guimarães Rodrigues, 2012). This supports the resource-based view (RBV), which emphasizes the role of internal intangible resources, such as organizational culture, in generating sustainable competitive advantage (Barney, 1991; Wernerfelt, 1984). As a strategic moderator, QC amplifies the positive contributions of KM by embedding knowledge processes within a culture of excellence. This integration ensures that knowledge is not only accumulated and shared but also aligned with organizational values that prioritize service quality, innovation, and customer satisfaction (Naveh & Marcus, 2005; Nair & Prajogo, 2009). Tourism enterprises that cultivate QC through employee training, customer engagement, and adherence to international quality standards are better positioned to convert KM initiatives into tangible performance improvements (Evans & Lindsay, 2017; Sadikoglu & Zehir, 2010; Santana, Moreira, & Leitão, 2018).

Nonetheless, the persistence of KM's negative coefficient, even in the presence of QC, suggests challenges in its isolated implementation. QC amplifies the potential benefits of KM while mitigating its direct challenges, suggesting that a robust quality culture can optimize the outcomes of KM practices. This moderation highlights the strategic importance of integrating KM with well-established quality initiatives to strengthen their combined positive influence on competitiveness. Hence, QC acts as a critical moderator in the relationship between KM and TBE competitiveness in Kenya. Tourism enterprises must leverage QC not only as a standalone competitive factor but also as a mechanism to enhance the value derived from KM practices. By strategically aligning these components, organizations can drive sustainable competitiveness in the dynamic tourism industry. Despite its strong moderating influence, the persistence of a negative coefficient for KM suggests unresolved complexities. Structural constraints such as organizational rigidity, limited technological integration, or regulatory barriers may inhibit the full realization of KM’s potential (Jashapara, 2011; Davenport & Prusak, 1998). These findings highlight the need for further research to explore how contextual factors, including leadership practices and digital transformation, interact with QC to shape KM’s effectiveness (Teece, Peteraf, & Leih, 2016; Inkinen, 2016).

However, the analysis confirms that embedding QC within KM frameworks is strategically necessary for sustaining competitiveness in the tourism sector. QC acts as a cultural enabler that translates knowledge into consistent quality outcomes, fosters resilience, and enables enterprises to thrive in dynamic market environments (Nguyen et al., 2021; Zehir et al., 2012). By institutionalizing continuous improvement and service excellence, QC ensures that KM practices are not merely technical processes but integral components of organizational identity and strategy (Rapp, 2011; García-Sánchez & Pérez-Mesa, 2013).

Essentially, the moderating role of QC demonstrates that competitiveness in tourism enterprises is not derived solely from knowledge resources or learning capabilities, but from the integration of these with a strong cultural foundation that prioritizes quality and continuous improvement. When KM provides the knowledge base, OL facilitates adaptive learning, and QC ensures alignment with service excellence, their combined effect creates a powerful framework for achieving sustainable competitiveness. The final section synthesizes these findings to present an integrated model of KM, OL, and QC, offering theoretical, managerial, and policy implications for the tourism industry in Kenya and beyond. Moreso, the evidence confirms that QC moderates the KM–Competitiveness relationship in a meaningful and statistically reliable manner. The effect of KM on competitiveness therefore unfolds through a dual mechanism: it is process-dependent when mediated through organizational learning and context-dependent when moderated by quality culture. Through this integrated pathway, TBEs can leverage KM more effectively to enhance long-term competitiveness.

4.7.7 The Joint Effect of Knowledge Management, Organizational Learning and Quality Culture on Competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises

This section critically examined the joint influence of knowledge management (KM), organizational learning (OL), and quality culture (QC) on the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises (TBEs) in Kenya. The results provide strong evidence that competitiveness in dynamic service environments depends not on isolated capabilities but on the synergistic integration of intangible resources. This finding is consistent with the Resource-Based View (RBV), which posits that sustainable advantage is derived from the strategic deployment of valuable, rare, inimitable, and non-substitutable (VRIN) resources (Barney, 1991; Wernerfelt, 1984), and with the knowledge-based theory of the firm that highlights knowledge as the most critical strategic resource (Grant, 1996; Spender & Grant, 1996). Moreover, the results align with the dynamic capabilities framework, which stresses the integration, reconfiguration, and renewal of organizational competencies in response to turbulent environments (Teece, 2007; Eisenhardt & Martin, 2000; Teece, Peteraf, & Leih, 2016).

Within the joint model, QC emerged as the most influential predictor of competitiveness, confirming that embedding a culture of quality across systems, processes, and people generates sustainable performance outcomes. By institutionalizing continuous improvement, customer focus, and service excellence, QC not only drives competitiveness directly but also reinforces the effectiveness of KM and OL (Deming, 1986; Crosby, 1979; Sampaio, Saraiva, & Guimarães Rodrigues, 2012; Munizu, 2019). These findings support prior research that emphasizes the strategic role of quality culture in enabling organizations to maintain resilience, consistency, and customer trust in service-driven sectors such as tourism (Oakland, 2003; Sadikoglu & Zehir, 2010; Santana, Moreira, & Leitão, 2018).

Conversely, KM displayed a negative yet statistically significant association with competitiveness, a counterintuitive finding that highlights potential implementation challenges.

While KM is widely acknowledged as a strategic enabler (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Inkinen, 2016), ineffective codification systems, poor sharing mechanisms, or misaligned utilization practices can transform KM into a bureaucratic burden rather than a source of competitive strength (Jashapara, 2011; Andreeva & Kianto, 2016; Mariani, Borghi, & Kazemargi, 2021). This underscores the managerial imperative of aligning KM initiatives with learning routines and quality-oriented strategies to unlock their intended benefits (Kim, Park, & Kim, 2019; Li & Zhang, 2017; Zhang & Huang, 2021).

OL, although theoretically central to adaptability and innovation (Argyris & Schön, 1978; Senge, 1990), demonstrated a non-significant direct effect on competitiveness. This result suggests that OL may exert its influence indirectly, operating through mediating mechanisms such as quality enhancement, innovation capability, and customer value creation (Jerez-Gómez, Céspedes-Lorente, & Valle-Cabrera, 2005; Cepeda-Carrion, Cegarra-Navarro, & Jiménez-Jiménez, 2012). Weak learning cultures, insufficient reflection mechanisms, or the absence of feedback loops may also account for OL's limited direct statistical impact, despite its strong theoretical relevance as a dynamic capability (Garvin, 1993; Holmqvist, 2003; Durst & Edvardsson, 2012).

Fundamentally, the joint effect of KM, OL, and QC confirms that competitiveness in Kenyan TBEs is both statistically and strategically significant when internal capabilities are orchestrated in complementary ways. QC emerges as the dominant driver, amplifying the latent potential of OL and mitigating the weaknesses associated with KM. OL, while not directly significant, functions as a catalytic enabler that strengthens quality-driven transformation, while KM requires careful alignment to avoid counterproductive effects. This evidence affirms that competitiveness in the tourism sector is not derived from standalone resources but from the synergistic orchestration of intangible capabilities, embedded within a culture of quality and continuous improvement (Barney, 1991; Teece, 2007; Sánchez et al., 2020).

The results of the joint analysis advance both theory and practice. Theoretically, they demonstrate the importance of integrating RBV and dynamic capabilities perspectives with cultural and learning-based approaches to competitiveness in tourism. Practically, they highlight the strategic imperative for TBEs in Kenya to pursue holistic capability development, where KM is systematically aligned with OL and reinforced by QC. This integrated framework provides a roadmap for managers and policymakers seeking to strengthen tourism enterprise resilience, adaptability, and sustainable performance in increasingly competitive and uncertain global markets.

CHAPTER FIVE
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter focus mainly on the conclusion based on the study findings and how they compare with existing knowledge, theoretical contribution and the knowledge gap filled by the study. This study has demonstrated that Knowledge Management (KM), Organizational Learning (OL) and Quality Culture (QC) do not operate in isolation but has rather emerged as a decisive mechanism shaping the competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises (TBEs) in Kenya. As these three elements operate in a tightly interlinked fashion, each exerting distinct yet mutually reinforcing effects on competitiveness. The following sections give a conclusion of findings in light of existing theory and practical imperatives.

5.1 Systematic Literature Review and Bibliometric Science Mapping

The systematic literature review and bibliometric mapping reveal that research on knowledge management (KM), organizational learning (OL), and competitiveness in tourism is expanding in both scope and scholarly influence (Faulkner & Tideswell, 2021; Jeyaraj, Rottman, & Lacity, 2021). The growing number of publications, thematic clusters, and international collaborations reflects the increasing recognition of KM and OL as strategic levers for achieving competitiveness in tourism enterprises (Aria & Cuccurullo, 2017; Inkinen, 2016). Persistent regional disparities, however, particularly the limited contribution from African scholars, point to the need for enhanced capacity-building and regional collaboration to contextualize dominant theories within local realities (Mosoti & Masheka, 2010; Njoroge & Maina, 2021). Although the field benefits from diverse empirical approaches, future research should emphasize integrative frameworks linking KM and OL with emerging concepts such as quality culture, innovation, and digital transformation (Jiang & Wang, 2020; Tzortzaki & Mihiotis, 2014). Overall, the mapping establishes a foundational understanding of global knowledge dynamics and provides a roadmap for advancing KM and OL research in tourism toward more inclusive, contextually grounded, and sustainable directions (Durst & Edvardsson, 2012; Zhang & Huang, 2021).

5.2 The Influence of Knowledge Management on Competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises in Kenya

The findings affirm that KM plays a decisive role in strengthening the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises in Kenya (Grant, 1996; Barney, 1991). The systematic

acquisition, sharing, and utilization of knowledge enable firms to innovate, respond swiftly to market changes, and enhance customer satisfaction (Alavi & Leidner, 2001; Davenport & Prusak, 1998). KM's effect on competitiveness is most potent when supported by complementary strategic enablers such as leadership, technology, and OL (Easterby-Smith & Lyles, 2011; Kim, Park, & Kim, 2019). This supports the knowledge-based view of the firm, which argues that competitiveness arises not from mere possession of knowledge but from the ability to transform it into actionable capabilities (Day & Wensley, 1988; Teece, Peteraf, & Leih, 2016). For Kenya's tourism sector, embedding KM practices into daily operations, underpinned by enabling policy frameworks and collaborative industry networks, is vital for achieving long-term sustainability and resilience (Buhalis & Foerste, 2015; Sánchez et al., 2020). KM thus serves as a strategic foundation upon which learning, innovation, and quality culture can be developed to sustain competitive advantage (Li & Zhang, 2017; Zhang & Huang, 2021).

5.3 The Influence of Organizational Learning on Competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises

OL contributes significantly to the competitiveness of tourism enterprises by fostering adaptability, reflection, and knowledge-driven innovation (Fiol & Lyles, 1985; Argyris & Schön, 1978). Firms that institutionalize learning through systems thinking, collaboration, and continuous improvement gain resilience in dynamic environments (Crossan, Lane, & White, 1999; Garvin, Edmondson, & Gino, 2008). However, OL's influence is amplified when integrated with other capabilities, particularly KM and innovation (Vera & Crossan, 2004; Jiménez-Jiménez & Sanz-Valle, 2011). The study underscores OL as a dynamic capability that transforms knowledge into actionable strategies, promoting sustainable competitiveness through renewal and innovation (Grant, 1996; Cepeda-Carrion, Cegarra-Navarro, & Jiménez-Jiménez, 2012). Cultivating a continuous learning culture within tourism enterprises and across the industry enhances strategic agility and innovation potential (Marsick & Watkins, 2003; Durst & Edvardsson, 2012). The integration of OL with KM and QC is therefore critical to developing learning-driven, strategically responsive, and resilient organizations (Zhang, Li, & Wang, 2018; Sánchez et al., 2020).

5.4 Quality Culture Influence on Competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises

Quality culture (QC) stands out as a critical determinant of competitiveness in Kenya's tourism enterprises, reinforcing the interconnectedness between knowledge, learning, and performance (Schein, 1992; Denison & Mishra, 1995). By embedding principles of quality, customer orientation, and continuous improvement into organizational routines, firms strengthen operational efficiency and market reputation (Juran, 1999; Deming, 1986; Evans & Lindsay, 2017). QC acts as an enabling mechanism that converts KM and OL into tangible performance outcomes, fostering innovation and sustainable service excellence (Nair & Prajogo, 2009; Nguyen, Lee, & Nguyen, 2021). Achieving lasting competitiveness requires that QC be integrated with organizational strategies emphasizing digitalization, leadership

development, and stakeholder collaboration (Prajogo & Sohal, 2006; Teece, Peteraf, & Leih, 2016). Policymakers and industry associations can strengthen sector-wide competitiveness by promoting quality certification standards and fostering a culture of excellence (Viada-Stenger, Balbastre-Benavent, & Redondo-Cano, 2010; European University Association, 2006). QC thus completes the triad of competitiveness drivers; KM, OL, and QC, by aligning organizational values with strategic objectives to ensure that learning and knowledge consistently translate into high-quality, sustainable performance (Santana, Moreira, & Leitão, 2018; Kapiki, 2012).

5.5 The Mediating Effect of Organizational Learning

The analysis confirms that organizational learning (OL) functions as a pivotal mediator in the relationship between knowledge management (KM) and the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises (TBEs) in Kenya. KM alone, while essential, is insufficient to drive superior performance; its value is realized when transformed into actionable knowledge through OL, enabling firms to innovate, adapt, and respond effectively to dynamic market conditions. This finding emphasizes that competitiveness emerges not merely from knowledge possession but from the systematic integration of learning processes that operationalize and institutionalize knowledge. Consequently, tourism enterprises that cultivate continuous learning, embed knowledge-sharing routines, and develop adaptive organizational structures can fully leverage KM to achieve sustained competitive advantage. The results also highlight the strategic importance of aligning KM and OL with supporting organizational capabilities, such as quality culture, to maximize their collective impact on long-term performance and resilience in the tourism sector.

5.6 The Moderating Effect of Quality Culture

This study confirms that quality culture (QC) significantly moderates the relationship between knowledge management (KM) and the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises (TBEs) in Kenya. While KM provides the foundation of knowledge, its effectiveness in enhancing competitiveness depends on embedding it within a culture that prioritizes quality, continuous improvement, and customer focus. QC not only strengthens the impact of KM but also ensures knowledge is translated into tangible performance outcomes, reinforcing service excellence and innovation. Moreover, the findings highlight sustainable competitiveness arises from the integration of KM, organizational learning, and QC, rather than from KM alone. QC acts as both a strategic enabler and cultural anchor, mitigating limitations of isolated KM practices and aligning knowledge processes with organizational objectives. For tourism enterprises, this underscores the necessity of cultivating quality-oriented practices alongside knowledge initiatives to achieve resilience and long-term performance. These insights provide actionable implications for managers and policymakers aiming to foster competitive, knowledge-driven tourism organizations.

5.7 The Joint Mediating and Moderating Effect of KM, OL and QC on TBE Competitiveness

The combined operation of KM, OL and QC accounts for a substantial proportion of the variation in TBE competitiveness. A finding that validates a holistic framework rooted in dynamic capabilities theory. Nonetheless, the demonstrated joint effect confirms that competitiveness is best understood as the emergent asset of an integrated management system rather than a collection of independent practices.

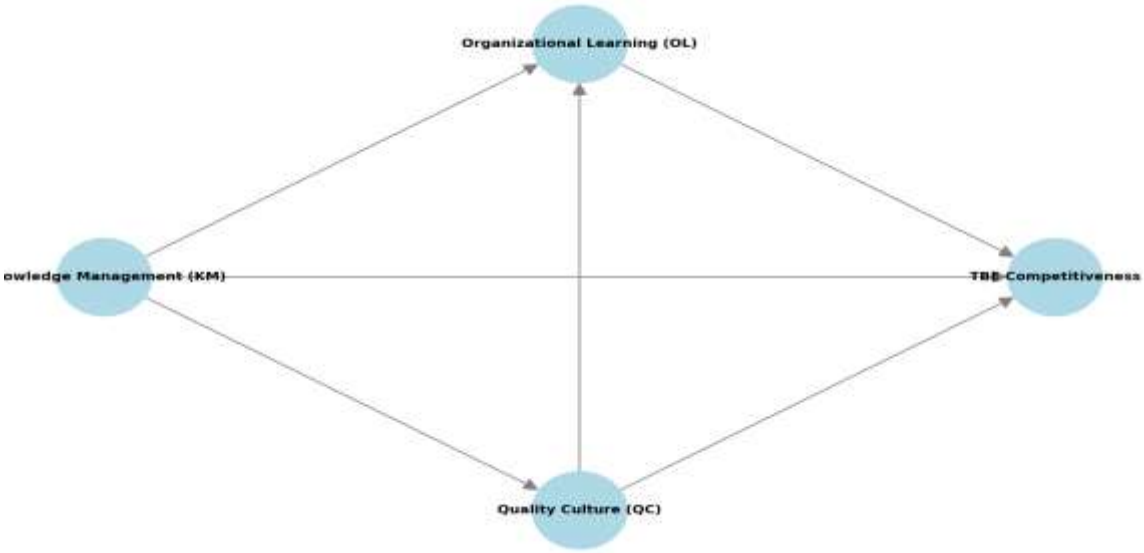

Figure: 5.1: Visualization of the mediating and moderating effects of Organizational Learning (OL) and Quality Culture (QC) on the relationship between Knowledge Management (KM) and TBE Competitiveness. Model Derived from Research findings, Researcher (2025)

Thus, the isolation of Knowledge Management undermines its potential. Consequently, effective KM requires deliberate scaffolding through organizational learning mechanisms and quality-assurance processes. Organizational Learning constitutes the engine of adaptation. Embedding knowledge into routines, training and reflective practices transforms information into actionable capability. On the other hand, Quality Culture is both enabler and enforcer. As QC frameworks provide the necessary balance between experimentation and standardization, safeguarding the integrity of innovation. Thus, the synergistic relationship drives competitiveness. Moreover, the triadic interaction of KM, OL and QC delivers a cohesive system capable of generating sustained competitive advantage in complex, resource-constrained settings in tourism business enterprises.

Model/Figure 5.1: illustrates and captures the complex and distinct relationship between Knowledge Management (KM) and Tourism Business Enterprise (TBE) Competitiveness. The model posits that KM does not influence competitiveness in isolation; rather, its impact is channeled through and conditioned by two critical organizational processes Organizational Learning (OL) and Quality Culture (QC). OL plays a mediating role, suggesting that KM only leads to competitiveness when it is internalized, interpreted, and applied within the organization through adaptive learning. Meanwhile, QC performs both a mediating and

moderating function. It mediates by shaping the organizational norms and routines that transform learning into sustained service quality. It also moderates the KM–TBE Competitiveness link by enhancing or constraining how knowledge is enacted based on the prevailing quality standards and cultural commitment to excellence. This dual-layered mechanism highlights the importance of aligning knowledge processes with learning and cultural systems to achieve sustainable competitiveness in dynamic and customer-centric environments like tourism.

5.8 Study Propositions for Theory, Practice, and Policy

The empirical findings of this study reveal that competitiveness in Tourism Business Enterprises (TBEs) emerges not from the independent operation of Knowledge Management (KM), Organizational Learning (OL), or Quality Culture (QC), but from their strategic alignment and interactive deployment. This integrated perspective carries substantial implications for theory, organizational practice, and policy design, particularly within the context of tourism business enterprises.

5.8.1 Theoretical Contributions and Implications

The results contribute meaningfully to the advancement of strategic management and organizational theory, particularly through the lens of the Dynamic Capabilities Theory (Teece et al., 1997). By empirically validating that KM, OL, and QC jointly enhance competitiveness, this study reinforces the argument that sustainable advantage stems not from static resources, but from an organization's capacity to dynamically reconfigure, integrate, and operationalize internal competencies in response to environmental volatility. The negative direct effect of KM observed in isolation further challenges the long-standing assumption that knowledge creation and dissemination alone are sufficient for strategic success. Instead, the findings suggest that KM must be embedded within learning cultures and disciplined by robust quality frameworks to produce desirable outcomes. This argument advances the Knowledge-Based View (Grant, 1996) by demonstrating that knowledge becomes a strategic asset only when complemented by institutional learning and continuous quality enhancement mechanisms. Furthermore, the study integrates perspectives from the Resource-Based View (Barney, 1991) and the Institutional-Based View (Peng et al., 2009), showing that internal capabilities must be not only dynamic and synergistic but also institutionally reinforced to drive firm-level competitiveness. In doing so, the study contributes a multidimensional theoretical framework that bridges gaps in existing literature, particularly in the under-researched tourism sector in developing economies.

5.8.2 Practical Inferences for TBEs

From a managerial standpoint, the evidence calls for an immediate departure from fragmented and siloed management practices. TBEs must prioritize the strategic integration of KM, OL, and QC as a unified system rather than discrete initiatives. In practical terms, knowledge systems should focus on the development of context-relevant, actionable insights

that are systematically linked to ongoing quality assurance processes. Learning mechanisms particularly those supporting reflective, adaptive, and double-loop learning (Argyris & Schön, 1978) must be institutionalized to transform individual and group experiences into strategic organizational capabilities. The promotion of Quality Culture should move beyond procedural compliance, evolving into an enterprise-wide philosophy that informs product development, customer engagement, and innovation strategies. When pursued collectively, these practices form a feedback-rich ecosystem where knowledge, learning, and quality reinforce one another, producing measurable improvements in service delivery, customer satisfaction, and long-term strategic agility. This integrated approach is not only a managerial imperative but also a risk-mitigation strategy in volatile tourism markets, where firms must continuously adapt to shifting consumer expectations, regulatory demands, and resource constraints.

Translated into daily practice and strengthen competitiveness, managers can:

1. **Introduce structured knowledge-sharing routines**, such as weekly operational huddles, peer-led briefings, and shared digital repositories that document lessons learned and service innovations.
2. **Implement continuous learning activities** through cross-functional workshops, job-rotation schemes, and after-action reviews that help employees internalize experiential insights and build adaptive thinking.
3. **Integrate quality goals into strategic planning**, using customer-journey mapping, quality-audit simulations, and evidence-based service reviews to ensure quality drives market positioning.
4. **Cultivate trust-based collaboration**, encouraging employees to question procedures constructively, propose improvements, and engage in problem-solving without fear of penalties.
5. **Use data-driven feedback loops**, including performance dashboards, customer-feedback analyses, and knowledge-capture tools, to identify and address service gaps in real time.
6. **Demonstrate leadership commitment** by modeling curiosity, openness to learning, and accountability for continuous improvement, thereby signaling that KM, OL, and QC are core organizational values.
7. **Embed experiential and problem-based learning in staff development**, such as scenario simulations, service-quality role-plays, and small-scale innovation challenges that help employees practice applying knowledge and learning in realistic settings.

When enacted consistently, these activities help TBEs strengthen competitiveness by nurturing service excellence, supporting employee engagement, and building the resilience required for sustained performance in a dynamic tourism environment.

5.8.3 Policy Implications

At the policy level, these findings underscore the urgent need for governments and industry regulators to develop institutional frameworks that incentivize integrated competitiveness strategies among TBEs. Rather than adopting a fragmented support structure

that targets KM, OL, or QC independently, policymakers should focus on fostering ecosystems that reward synergies between these dimensions. Incentive structures such as financial grants for quality certification, tax relief for KM–OL integration programs, and public recognition for continuous improvement can significantly lower the cost and risk of adoption for smaller and medium-sized enterprises. Moreover, regulatory frameworks should be reconfigured to move beyond compliance enforcement toward capability development, encouraging TBEs to internalize long-term strategic thinking around knowledge, learning, and quality. By embedding these principles into national tourism development plans, policymakers can catalyze systemic improvement, ensuring that competitiveness is not concentrated among a few elite firms but diffused across the entire industry. Such alignment will be instrumental in driving inclusive growth, resilience, and global positioning of the Kenyan tourism sector.

5.9 RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

5.9.1 Study Recommendations

Subsequent investigations should probe additional mediators and moderators that may refine understanding of the KM-Competitiveness nexus. Leadership styles, innovation orientation and organizational culture stand out as promising variables capable of elucidating the conditions under which KM generates positive returns. Sector-specific analyses examining segments such as eco-tourism, cultural heritage tourism or adventure travel could surface contextual nuances that inform tailored management approaches. Longitudinal research designs will be particularly valuable, as they can trace the evolution of KM, OL and QC integration over time, revealing the sustainability of competitive gains. Finally, a focus on behavioral dynamics and resource-optimization strategies promises to yield practical insights for the deployment of scarce resources, thereby guiding TBEs toward both heightened competitiveness and long-term viability. Hence, expanding the empirical lens to encompass these areas, future research can build upon the integrated framework presented here and deepen the strategic guidance available to both practitioners and policymakers in the tourism industry.

5.9.2 Limitations

The proposed model accounts for a substantial share of variance in TBE competitiveness, yet its explanatory scope remains bounded by the exclusion of external contingencies, such as volatile market conditions, shifting regulatory regimes and macroeconomic shocks, that undoubtedly shape performance outcomes. Furthermore, the persistent negative coefficient associated with standalone KM suggests the presence of unexamined dynamics. Perhaps demonstrating a cognitive overload or misaligned incentives, that warrant targeted qualitative inquiry to uncover their root causes.

Despite the model's robust explanation of competitiveness, it does not account for external influences such as market volatility, economic shifts, or regulatory constraints. knowledge management, organizational learning and quality culture, all play significant roles in enhancing the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises in Kenya. However, their combined

influence does not fully explain competitiveness, highlighting the need for a more comprehensive approach that includes other strategic variables. Future studies should explore additional drivers of competitiveness and how these elements interact to create sustainable business success (Barney, 1991; Porter, 1990; Teece, 2007).

5.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter demonstrates that competitiveness in Kenyan Tourism Business Enterprises (TBEs) emerges not from isolated Knowledge Management (KM) practices but from their strategic integration with Organizational Learning (OL) and Quality Culture (QC). KM alone may be counterproductive unless transformed through OL and aligned with QC, forming a synergistic system that drives agility, innovation, and sustained performance. The study contributes theoretically by merging Resource-Based, Knowledge-Based, and Dynamic Capabilities perspectives into the TBECapFrame, conceptualizing competitiveness as the outcome of internal capability alignment and institutional responsiveness. Practically, the findings highlight the need for TBEs to embed KM, OL, and QC as interconnected processes, supported by leadership and performance cultures. The framework aligns with multiple SDGs (4, 5, 8, 9, 12, 13) and informs policy by advocating integrated support mechanisms for holistic capability development. Limitations include external contingencies and unmeasured factors, suggesting future research should examine additional mediators like leadership and innovation, and employ longitudinal or sector-specific designs. Overall, sustainable competitiveness is best achieved through a systemic, capability-aligned, and SDG-informed strategy.

CHAPTER SIX
SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH NOVELTY FINDINGS

This chapter focus mainly on the novelty of the research, based on the study findings and how they compare with existing knowledge, theoretical contribution of the study and the knowledge gap filled. This study has demonstrated that Knowledge Management (KM), Organizational Learning (OL) and Quality Culture (QC) do not operate in isolation but has rather emerged as a decisive mechanism shaping the competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises (TBEs) in Kenya. By empirically testing the study proposes a mediated–moderated model, the research uncovered how rather than each construct functioning in isolation, contribute distinctively and synergistically to performance outcomes. As these three elements operate in a tightly interlinked fashion, each exerting distinct yet mutually reinforcing effects on competitiveness.

6.1 RESEARCH NOVELTY

The novelty of this research lies in its integrated approach to examining the interaction between Knowledge Management (KM), Organizational Learning (OL), and Quality Culture (QC) in driving competitiveness among Tourism Business Enterprises (TBEs) in Kenya. Unlike previous studies that have often treated these constructs in isolation, sometimes even reporting a negative direct effect of KM on competitiveness (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Choi & Lee, 2003). his study demonstrates that the negative impact of KM can be effectively mitigated when it is strategically integrated with OL and QC. This finding is particularly significant as it challenges the conventional notion that KM alone is sufficient for competitive advantage, instead arguing that its true potential is realized only when complemented by robust organizational learning processes and a strong culture of quality (Andreeva & Kianto, 2016; Ogutu et al., 2023).

Moreover, this research advances the theoretical discourse by synthesizing perspectives from the Resource-Based View (RBV), the Knowledge-Based View (KBV), Dynamic Capabilities Theory (DCBV), and the Institutional-Based View (IBV). By doing so, it offers a comprehensive framework that explains 32.4% of the variance in TBE competitiveness, highlighting that sustainable competitive advantage is the result of a dynamic balance between internal resource utilization, effective knowledge application, adaptive capabilities, and external institutional compliance (Barney, 1991; Teece et al., 2016; Grant, 1996). This multidimensional approach not only bridges existing theoretical gaps but also provides actionable insights for practitioners aiming to enhance competitive performance in a volatile market environment.

In essence, the research contributes a novel understanding by revealing that Quality Culture acts as a critical moderator that transforms the impact of KM and OL on competitiveness. This integrated model underscores the necessity for TBEs to adopt a holistic strategy one that aligns knowledge initiatives, continuous learning, and quality assurance to

achieve sustained growth and market leadership. Given the rapidly evolving challenges in the global tourism industry (Mariani et al., 2021), this study's insights are both timely and essential for shaping future research and policy in the field.

6.1.1 The Integrated Tourism Business Enterprise Capability Framework (TBECapFrame) Conceptual Model

This study proposes the Integrated Tourism Business Enterprise Capability Framework (Figure: 6.1) (TBECapFrame) to conceptualize how competitiveness in tourism businesses arises not from the isolated deployment of Knowledge Management (KM), Organizational Learning (OL), and Quality Culture (QC), but from their strategic and systemic alignment. These three dimensions represent intangible capabilities that must be activated, coordinated, and sustained through what this study refers to as Capability Alignment Mechanisms internal enablers such as leadership, learning routines, and strategic integration processes. These mechanisms perform both mediating and moderating functions, influencing how capabilities translate into competitive advantage across organizational levels (Barney, 1991; Grant, 1996; Denison & Mishra, 1995).

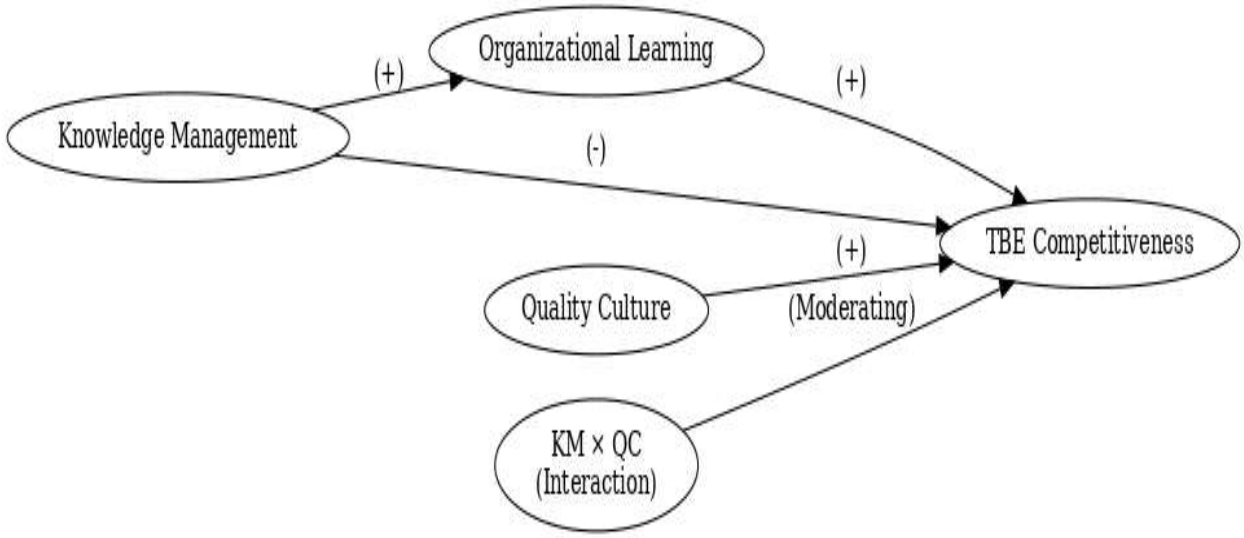

Figure: 6.1: Visual Representation of the Integrated Tourism Business Enterprise Capability Framework (TBECapFrame), Model Derived from Research findings, Researcher (2025)

6.1.2 Theoretical Grounding of the Model

6.1.2.1 Resource-Based Theory (RBT)

According to RBT, firms derive sustainable competitive advantage from owning or controlling valuable, rare, inimitable, and non-substitutable (VRIN) resources (Barney, 1991; Ovidijus, 2013). In the TBECapFrame Model, KM, OL, and QC are treated as such resources—intangible yet deeply embedded in organizational routines and culture (Grant, 1996). However, findings from this study underscore that possessing these resources alone is insufficient. Their value is only realized when strategically aligned and integrated through internal coordination

mechanisms. This supports the argument by Fahy and Smithee (1999) that resource value is conditional on organizational context, strategic fit, and execution.

6.1.2.2 Dynamic Capabilities Theory (DCT)

Building on RBT, DCT emphasizes that firms must not only possess but also reconfigure and renew their capabilities to survive in dynamic environments (Teece, 2007). In this model, KM supports the sensing of change through information acquisition and dissemination (Davenport & Prusak, 1998), OL enables seizing by interpreting and applying knowledge (Argyris & Schön, 1978; Garvin et al., 2008), and QC facilitates transformation by embedding standards, feedback, and continuous improvement mechanisms (Nguyen et al., 2021; Crosby, 1979). The interaction between these capabilities and the Capability Alignment Mechanisms allows tourism enterprises to respond with agility to environmental shifts, validating the central claims of DCT (Zollo & Winter, 2002; Kamya et al., 2011).

6.1.2.3 Institutional Theory (IT)

Institutional theory posits that organizations are influenced by social norms, cultural expectations, and regulatory structures (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). In the tourism context, the qualitative data showed that practices such as quality certification, benchmarking, and leadership commitment were not only internally motivated but externally shaped by industry expectations, customer norms, and policy frameworks (Alonso-Almeida et al., 2012; Mariani et al., 2021). These findings suggest that Capability Alignment Mechanisms are institutionally embedded, functioning both as responses to and instruments of legitimacy. The integration of KM, OL, and QC is thus shaped by both internal strategy and external institutional pressures, reaffirming ITs relevance in explaining organizational behavior and strategic conformity. Consequently, TBEs must view KM, OL, and QC not as separate technical systems, but as interdependent and institutionally anchored capabilities. Strategic leadership, quality assurance cultures, and learning systems should be cultivated to bridge internal strengths and external legitimacy requirements (European University Association, 2006; Munizu, 2019; Li & Zhang, 2017). The TBECapFrame thus advances existing theory by demonstrating that competitiveness in tourism is not merely resource-based but contingent on capability alignment and institutional fit.

6.2 PRACTICAL APPLICATION AND GLOBAL RELEVANCE OF THE INTEGRATED TOURISM BUSINESS ENTERPRISE CAPABILITY FRAMEWORK (TBECAPFRAME)

The tourism industry is increasingly characterized by rapid transformation, environmental turbulence, and high service intensity, particularly in the post-pandemic era (Buhalis & Foerste, 2015; Faulkner & Tideswell, 2021). In this dynamic landscape, sustained competitiveness requires more than resource accumulation as it necessitates the strategic orchestration of internal capabilities. The TBECapFrame provides a coherent approach for aligning intangible assets KM, OL, and QC with the strategic imperative of competitiveness.

Practically, this model enables firms to: Diagnose Capability Gaps: identifying whether performance issues stem from weak knowledge flows, ineffective learning routines, or underdeveloped quality culture (Inkinen, 2016; Chen et al., 2019). Strategically Align Operations: through leadership, performance routines, and interdepartmental coordination mechanisms (Obeidat et al., 2020; Garvin et al., 2008). Institutionalize Agility: embedding continuous improvement and learning in response to customer and regulatory feedback (Nair & Prajogo, 2009; Islam et al., 2020).

Globally, the TBECapFrame is scalable across tourism contexts from small rural guesthouses to multinational hotel chains due to its focus on universal enablers such as knowledge sharing, leadership, and quality management (Kim et al., 2019; Njoroge & Maina, 2021). It offers a globally relevant and context-responsive strategy that aligns internal competencies with industry expectations, affirming its cross-sectoral utility in tourism systems worldwide. The TBECapFrame thus represents a novel conceptual contribution, integrating theoretical strands from RBT, DCT, and IT to demonstrate that strategic integration and institutional responsiveness not just resource possession drive sustainable competitiveness in the tourism sector (Grant, 1996; Teece, 2007; DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Ogutu et al., 2023).

6.3 STRATEGIC IMPLICATIONS FOR GLOBAL TOURISM ENTERPRISES

Tourism firms operating across borders must reconcile the demand for local responsiveness with the pursuit of global efficiency. The TBECapFrame (Figure: 6.2) supports this strategic objective in three keyways:

1. It provides a unified internal structure that can be replicated across branches, ensuring consistent capability development.
2. It enables glocalization, allowing firms to adapt global best practices within local institutional and cultural contexts (Robertson, 1995).
3. It reinforces long-term competitiveness by shifting focus from short-term market reactions to systemic capability development, thereby transforming reactive adaptation into proactive advantage.

The Tourism Business Enterprise Capability Framework (TBECapFrame) redefines how tourism organizations conceptualize and operationalize competitiveness. By integrating KM, OL, and QC through enabling mechanisms, the model transcends traditional strategic frameworks to offer a dynamic, resilient, and scalable approach. Its real strength lies in its practical adaptability and theoretical robustness, making it an indispensable tool for tourism enterprises operating in a globally interconnected, service-intensive, and volatile industry landscape.

6.3.1 Value Addition to the EU, Africa, and Kenya

The strategic implications of the TBECapFrame extend beyond firm-level competitiveness to regional and international policy domains. For the European Union, the framework aligns with the EU's agenda for innovation-driven and sustainable tourism

by promoting knowledge diffusion, digital transformation, and quality assurance across member states (European Commission, 2020). It complements EU priorities under the Green Deal and Digital Europe programmes by embedding organizational learning and sustinability principles into enterprise management practices (European Commission, 2022).

For **Africa**, the TBECapFrame provides a contextualised pathway to build institutional capacity and bridge competitiveness gaps in the tourism sector. It supports the African Union's *Agenda 2063*, which emphasises inclusive growth, structural transformation, and sustainable development (African Union, 2015). By strengthening intra-African collaboration and fostering knowledge-based and quality-oriented practices, the framework enhances the resilience and adaptability of tourism enterprises in a rapidly changing global market (Novelli, 2016; Rogerson and Baum, 2020).

In **Kenya**, the framework offers actionable insights for tourism policymakers and enterprises seeking to improve competitiveness within the national tourism strategy. It facilitates the translation of *Kenya Vision 2030* objectives into operational capabilities through improved knowledge sharing, continuous learning, and a strengthened quality culture within tourism enterprises (Government of Kenya, 2007; Republic of Kenya, 2022). By encouraging evidence-based decision-making and adaptive innovation, the TBECapFrame positions Kenyan tourism businesses to compete effectively in both regional and global markets (Akama and Kieti, 2007; Ondimu, 2020).

Overall, the TBECapFrame provides a coherent strategic lens for linking global efficiency with local responsiveness. Its integration of KM, OL, and QC creates a sustainable foundation for competitiveness that resonates across different policy environments. By aligning enterprise-level practices with regional and international development goals, the framework not only enhances firm performance but also contributes to shared prosperity across the EU, Africa, and Kenya (Teece, 2018; UNWTO, 2024).

6.4 ALIGNMENT TBECAPFRAME WITH THE SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS (SDGS)

The TBECapFrame offers more than a pathway to organizational competitiveness; it presents a strategic mechanism for operationalizing the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development within the tourism sector. Through its focus on the alignment of Knowledge Management (KM), Organizational Learning (OL), and Quality Culture (QC), the framework reinforces core sustainability principles including innovation, inclusion, productivity, and environmental responsibility. The following analysis situates the TBECapFrame within the context of six key SDGs to demonstrate its practical relevance to global development goals.

6.4.1 Decent Work and Economic Growth (SDG 8)

The TBECapFrame directly contributes to SDG 8 by embedding the practices necessary to foster resilience and inclusive growth in tourism enterprises. Its emphasis on KM and OL

enhances employee access to relevant information, tools, and developmental pathways, thereby improving individual performance and organizational agility. QC, in turn, enforces consistency and fairness in service delivery, promoting professional standards across tourism functions. As such, the framework strengthens human capital, supports employment stability, and fosters an environment where decent work thrives in tandem with enterprise competitiveness.

6.4.2 Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure (SDG 9)

Tourism's service-oriented infrastructure increasingly depends on innovation and intelligent systems. The TBECapFrame enables enterprises to modernize internal operations by linking KM and OL to organizational adaptability. KM mechanisms help systematize innovation practices, while OL facilitates the absorption and dissemination of new technologies and service methods. This systematic integration contributes to a knowledge-based innovation ecosystem, supporting both enterprise transformation and broader industrial modernization in the tourism sector.

6.4.3 Responsible Consumption and Production (SDG 12)

In response to the growing demand for sustainable tourism, the TBECapFrame facilitates responsible business conduct by embedding QC principles across operational systems. These quality frameworks ensure that resource usage whether energy, materials, or customer time—is managed efficiently and ethically. KM supports data-driven monitoring of consumption trends, while OL instils a culture of learning from sustainability outcomes. This dual capability enables tourism firms to internalize sustainable production and service patterns, thus aligning with the principles of SDG 12.

6.4.4 Quality Education (SDG 4)

By institutionalizing Organizational Learning, the TBECapFrame addresses the urgent need for continual professional development in tourism, a sector characterized by high labor turnover and variable skill levels. OL mechanisms—such as peer mentoring, post-season evaluations, and scenario-based learning—function as both formal and informal educational platforms. These initiatives ensure staff access to ongoing learning opportunities, promote equity in upskilling, and extend the reach of quality education into the workplace, thus fulfilling the objectives of SDG 4 within enterprise settings.

6.4.5 Gender Equality (SDG 5)

The inclusive implementation of KM and OL within the TBECapFrame also advances the agenda of SDG 5. By democratizing access to organizational knowledge and learning, the framework facilitates the meaningful participation of women at all operational and decision-making levels. Moreover, a robust quality culture reinforces fairness and transparency in hiring, training, and promotion processes. This gender-sensitive design promotes equitable representation and leadership, especially in service-based roles where women are often overrepresented but under-recognized.

6.4.6 Climate Action (SDG 13)

While the TBECapFrame does not directly target climate mitigation, its influence on adaptive capacity is substantial. Through KM, firms can collect, evaluate, and respond to environmental data relevant to their operations. OL, in turn, helps internalize climate-aware practices through reflection and adaptive decision-making. QC supports the operationalization of these decisions by integrating environmental standards into service delivery routines. Collectively, these mechanisms enhance an enterprise's responsiveness to ecological challenges, making the TBECapFrame an important contributor to SDG 13.

Therefore, the TBECapFrame not only advances the internal efficiency and strategic alignment of tourism enterprises but also reinforces their capacity to contribute meaningfully to sustainable development. By embedding learning, knowledge sharing, and quality assurance into core business processes, the framework supports the realization of multiple SDGs. Its design accommodates diverse organizational contexts and is adaptable to varying levels of resource availability, making it globally relevant. In doing so, it positions tourism enterprises as both beneficiaries and enablers of sustainable development in a rapidly evolving global service economy. The Integrated Capability Alignment Framework transcends the traditional boundaries of strategic planning by offering a dynamic, adaptable model for service excellence. It empowers tourism enterprises to convert internal knowledge and learning into quality service and competitive differentiation. Moreover, its design accommodates variability in scale, context, and maturity, making it both practical and globally relevant.

6.5 RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION(S)

This PhD research introduces the ***Integrated Tourism Business Enterprise Capability Framework*** **(TBECapFrame)**, a novel and theoretically robust model that reconceptualizes competitiveness in tourism business enterprises (TBEs). The research makes the case that competitiveness is not a product of isolated practices, but an emergent property of **systemic alignment** among Knowledge Management (KM), Organizational Learning (OL), and Quality Culture (QC). By demonstrating empirically that KM alone may exert negative effects on competitiveness unless strategically integrated with OL and QC, the study challenges conventional wisdom and provides a new pathway for advancing both theory and practice in tourism management. Below is a summary of the core findings and novel contributions of the study.

6.5.1 Theoretical Innovation

This study makes a significant theoretical leap by reframing the conceptualization of competitiveness in TBEs.

- **Reconceptualizing Competitiveness:** The research challenges the dominant assumption that KM alone is a sufficient driver of competitiveness (cf. Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Choi & Lee, 2003). Instead, it demonstrates that KM must be mediated

by OL transforming knowledge into adaptive routines and moderated by QC ensuring strategic alignment and quality assurance to generate sustainable competitive outcomes.

- **Collaborative Capability System:** TBECapFrame positions KM, OL, and QC as a **synergistic triad** rather than independent variables. Their integration enhances organizational agility, innovation, and performance outcomes beyond the sum of their individual contributions, advancing the literature on capability interdependence in dynamic service environments.
- **Original Conceptual Models:** The study proposes and validates two novel models:
    1. **Mediated–Moderated Competitiveness Model** – conceptualizing OL as mediator and QC as moderator in the KM–competitiveness nexus.
    2. **TBECapFrame** – positioning competitiveness as an emergent property of internal capability alignment and institutional responsiveness.
- **Multi-Theoretical Synthesis:** By integrating **Resource-Based View (RBV)** (Barney, 1991), **Knowledge-Based View (KBV)** (Grant, 1996), **Dynamic Capabilities Theory (DCT)** (Teece, 2007), and **Institutional Theory (IT)** (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983), the research provides a multi-dimensional explanatory model of competitiveness that captures how capabilities are activated, embedded, and reconfigured within complex organizational and institutional environments.

6.5.2 Methodological Advancement

Methodologically, the study contributes a **mixed-methods, multi-phase design** that sets a precedent for future research in tourism enterprise capability studies.

- **Science Mapping and Bibliometric Analysis:** Mapped the intellectual structure and global research trends surrounding KM, OL, QC, and competitiveness, thus providing a rigorous foundation for theory building.
- **Qualitative Analysis:** Conducted semi-structured interviews with managers of Kenyan TBEs to refine construct validity, identify culturally relevant capability alignment mechanisms, and ground the framework in practical realities.
- **Quantitative Analysis:** Employed **multiple regression and hierarchical regression analysis** to test direct, mediating, and moderating effects, producing robust empirical validation of TBECapFrame.
- **Capability Alignment Mechanisms:** Introduced leadership, learning routines, and integration processes as **mediating and moderating pathways** linking intangible resources to performance offering a systemic, alignment-based lens for studying organizational capabilities.

6.5.3 Empirical Contribution

The study provides **original evidence** from TBEs in Kenya, addressing the glaring underrepresentation of Sub-Saharan Africa in competitiveness and capability research.

- **Statistical Significance:** TBECapFrame explains a significant proportion of variance in competitiveness, empirically confirming the strength of the integrated approach.

- **Negative KM Coefficient:** The persistent negative coefficient for KM, unless coupled with OL and QC, constitutes a new empirical puzzle that invites future inquiry into the risks of misaligned KM practices.
- **Context-Specific Insights:** The findings illuminate how capability development in resource-constrained and institutionally volatile settings depends on alignment mechanisms such as leadership commitment, coordinated learning, and quality-driven routines, offering guidance for firms beyond the Global North.

6.5.4 Practical and Policy Relevance

Beyond theoretical and empirical contributions, the study offers **actionable insights** for managers, policymakers, and development stakeholders.

- **Global Scalability:** TBECapFrame is adaptable across enterprise scales, from small guesthouses to multinational hotel chains, enabling tailored competitiveness strategies.
- **Alignment with SDGs:** The framework operationalizes six **Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs 4, 5, 8, 9, 12, 13)**, bridging firm-level capability building with global sustainability imperatives.
- **Policy Guidelines:** Provides evidence-based recommendations for embedding TBECapFrame into national and regional tourism strategies, promoting inclusive growth and resilience.

6.5.5 Conceptual Reframing

TBECapFrame reframes competitiveness as a capability alignment challenge rather than a resource possession issue. By linking internal coordination to institutional fit, the study contributes a robust, context-sensitive, and globally relevant framework that advances tourism management research, supports sustainable development, and equips TBEs with a roadmap for achieving long-term competitive advantage.

Essentially, these findings mark a significant advancement in the understanding of how intangible resources drive competitiveness in tourism enterprises. By bridging theory, method, and practice, the study not only challenges prevailing assumptions but also delivers a validated, scalable, and sustainability-oriented model that can guide managers, researchers, and policymakers alike. The TBECapFrame stands as both a scholarly contribution and a practical tool, offering a transformative lens through which tourism enterprises especially in emerging economies, can achieve resilience, innovation, and sustained competitive performance in a rapidly evolving global market.

6.6 NEW SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH FINDINGS

1. ***Introduced the TBECapFrame Model***: Developed the Integrated Tourism Business Enterprise Capability Framework (TBECapFrame), redefining competitiveness in tourism as a product of systemic alignment among Knowledge Management (KM), Organizational Learning (OL), and Quality Culture (QC), rather than isolated practices.

2. ***Theoretical Innovation***: derived a ***Mediated–Moderated Competitiveness Model*** challenging the traditional view that KM alone drives competitiveness, showing instead that OL mediates and QC moderates the KM–competitiveness relationship.
3. ***Synergistic Capability Triad***: Positioned KM, OL, and QC as interdependent capabilities forming a synergistic triad that enhances agility, innovation, and sustainable performance outcomes.
4. ***Cross-Theoretical Insight*:** Combined Resource-Based View, Knowledge-Based View, Dynamic Capabilities Theory, and Institutional Theory to explain how capabilities interact and evolve within complex organizational contexts.
5. ***Methodological Advancement***: Used a mixed-methods approach bibliometric analysis, qualitative interviews, and quantitative regression modelling to validate the framework and reveal alignment mechanisms such as leadership, learning routines, and integration processes.
6. ***Empirical Contribution with Contextual Evidence from Kenya:*** Found that KM alone can negatively affect competitiveness in resource-limited tourism enterprises unless integrated with OL and QC.
7. ***Actionable, Policy-Relevant Model:*** Offered a scalable model aligned with six SDGs, providing actionable guidance for managers and policymakers to embed capability alignment into tourism strategies that foster inclusive, resilient, and sustainable competitiveness.

SUMMARY

In the competitive and knowledge-driven tourism industry, the strategic management of intangible resources namely Knowledge Management (KM), Organizational Learning (OL), and Quality Culture (QC) has become a vital determinant of sustained competitiveness. Moreover, the prevailing mindset among individuals is to safeguard their knowledge, recognizing its role in bolstering their value within an organization, which often leads to the isolation of professional expertise. However, it is crucial for professional organizations to go beyond mere retention and actively manage and nurture professional intellect through a culture of quality. This is vital for achieving and sustaining competitive performance. Unfortunately, many organizations heavily rely on individuals and ad hoc processes, creating a vulnerability where the departure of key personnel results in the loss of invaluable organizational assets and resources. This, in turn, can potentially undermine an organization's competitive edge. Drawing on the Resource-Based View, Dynamic Capabilities Theory, and Institutional Theory, this study critically examines the mediating role of OL and the moderating influence of QC in the relationship between KM and the competitiveness of Tourism Business Enterprises (TBEC). Employing a combination of descriptive and explanatory research designs and using a mixed-methods approach, the study integrates bibliometric science mapping, quantitative descriptive and inferential analysis, and qualitative interviews to provide a multidimensional understanding of the phenomena under investigation. Quantitative data was collected from 274 TBE managers, Category C of the Kenyan Tourism Regulatory Authority using structured questionnaires, while purposive sampling identified expert informants from government agencies, tourism associations, academia, and research institutions for in-depth interviews. Inferential statistical analysis using multiple, hierarchical regressions and Process revealed that KM has a significant and negative standardized influence on TBEC ($\beta = –0.340$, $R^2 = 0.244$, $p < .001$), suggesting that without supportive contextual variables, KM alone may be insufficient. OL, in contrast, demonstrated a strong positive direct effect ($\beta = 0.227$, $R^2 = 0.113$, $p < .001$) and significantly mediated the KM–TBEC relationship (KM: $\beta = –0.211$, $p = .001$; OL: $\beta = 0.265$, $p < .001$), underscoring its pivotal role in transforming knowledge into strategic capability. QC also exerted a strong and significant direct effect on competitiveness ($\beta = 0.435$, $R^2 = 0.273$, $p < .001$) and moderated the KM–TBEC relationship through a statistically significant interaction ($\beta = 0.220$, $p < .001$). The combined effect of KM, OL, and QC was substantial and statistically robust ($F = 60.967$, $p < .001$), affirming their synergistic contribution to competitive performance. The qualitative findings corroborated these results, highlighting the importance of leadership, learning systems, and cultural alignment. Based on these findings, the Integrated Tourism Business Enterprise Capability Framework (TBECapFrame) was developed, aligning with six UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs): 4, 5, 8, 9, 12, and 13. The framework offers strategic guidance for enhancing innovation, resilience, and sustainability in tourism enterprises. This study advances the theoretical discourse and contributes to practice by empirically validating the KM–OL–QC–Competitiveness nexus. It offers policy-relevant insights and strategic imperatives for tourism stakeholders aiming to build resilient, knowledge-intensive, and quality-driven enterprises in Kenya and comparable service economies. Future research should extend to other regions and sectors, explore digital learning systems, and examine long-term impacts of intangible capabilities on tourism competitiveness.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

Appendix 1.1: Questionnaire for Management

This questionnaire is designed to collect data for the purpose to evaluate***: The moderating and mediating effect of organizational learning and quality culture on the association between knowledge management and competitiveness of tourism business enterprises (TBE) in Kenya.*** The data will be used for academic purposes only and will be treated with strict confidence. Your support is highly appreciated.

Part A: Organizational and Respondent Profile

Organizational Profile

1. Service Category:
   a. Tour/Safari operators [ ] b. Tourist Service Vehicle Hire c. Local Air Charter [ ] d. Travel Agency [ ] e. Water Sports [ ] f. Balloon Operators [ ] g. Boat Excursions [ ] h. Accommodation [ ]
2. Year of Incorporation:
   a. Less than 5 years ago [ ] b. 5-10 years ago c. 10-20 years ago [ ] d. 20-30 years ago [ ] e. More than 30 years ago [ ] f. Other (specify)_____
3. Scope of Operation (please tick (√) as appropriate)
   a. National (Kenya) [ ] b. Regional (East Africa) [ ] c. Continental (Africa)[ ] d. Global [ ]
4. Ownership Structure (please tick (√) as appropriate)
   a. Sole proprietorship [ ] b. Partnership [ ] c. Private Limited Company [ ] d. Foreign Ownership [ ]
5. Please indicate the Average Annual Sales Turnover in Millions (KES).
   a. 1-20M [ ] b. 21-40M [ ] c. 41-60M [ ] d. 61-80M [ ] e. 81-100 [ ] f. above 100M [ ]
6. Number of full-time Employees: a. 0-9 [ ] b. 10-50 [ ] c. 50-99 [ ] d. above 100 [ ]

Respondent Profile

7. Job Title/Position: a. CEO [ ] b. General Manager [ ] c. Operations /Logistics Manager [ ] d. Tour/Travel Consultant [ ] e. Tour/Travel Agent [ ] f. Other specify)_____
8. Number of Years Worked in the company: a. 0-5 [ ] b. 6-10 [ ] c. 11-15 [ ] d. 16-20 [ ] e. 20 years and above [ ]
9. Gender: a. Female [ ] b. Male [ ]
10. Educational Qualification:
    a. Certificate [ ] b. Diploma [ ] c. Degree [ ] d. Masters [ ] e. PhD [ ]
11. Years of Experience attained:
    a. 0-5 [ ] b. 16-10 [ ] c. 11-15 [ ] d. 6-20 [ ] e. above 20 [ ]

Part B: Knowledge Management

Please indicate with a tick (√) the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

Key: 5= To a very large extent; 4= To a large extent; 3= To a moderate extent; 2= To a small extent; 1=Not at all;

SN	STATEMENT	5	4	3	2	1
	a) Knowledge Creation/Innovation					
1.	The organization fosters a culture that motivates employees to explore and experiment with new ideas, leading to the continuous creation of innovative solutions for tourist experiences.					
2.	Formal mechanisms and processes are in place to support the creation of novel concepts and approaches within the organization, nurturing a culture of ongoing knowledge creation.					
3.	The organization has established formal mechanisms to encourage and facilitate the creation of innovative tour packages.					
4.	The organization actively encourages and supports cross-functional collaboration aimed at generating innovative ideas to enhance the tourist experience.					
5.	At firm meetings, questions are posed to provoke debate and analysis on topics related to tourist experiences, enhancing knowledge sharing among employees.					
	b) Knowledge Acquisition	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
6.	Online discussions serve as a platform for employees to contribute ideas and thoughts, fostering knowledge acquisition within the organization.					
7.	The use of online platforms is encouraged to share new ideas for enhancing tourist experiences, fostering knowledge acquisition.					
8.	Employees actively participate in brainstorming sessions to find solutions for challenges within their roles, contributing to knowledge acquisition.					
9.	Consultations where experiences and practices on specific tourism-related issues of common interest are shared contribute to knowledge transfer and acquisition.					
	c) Knowledge Transfer	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
10.	The organization effectively uses written reports to transfer knowledge about tourists' preferences and expectations.					
11.	During meetings, experiences and knowledge about managing tourist interactions are shared to facilitate knowledge transfer and acquisition.					
12.	Inter-organizational review meetings create opportunities for discussing tourism methodologies and fostering knowledge sharing with industry partners.					

13.	Meetings are organized to promote excellence in tourist services consider aspects of knowledge transfer, sharing, retention, and acquisition.					
	d) Knowledge Sharing	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
14.	Strategies employed by the organization actively promote and facilitate knowledge sharing among employees during meetings, particularly when discussing experiences and practices related to managing tourist interactions.					
15.	Online platforms are utilized to encourage employees to share new ideas for enhancing tourist experiences, fostering a culture of knowledge sharing and collaboration within the organization.					

Part III: Organizational Learning

Please indicate with a tick (√) the extent to which you agree with the following statements

Key: 5= To a very large extent; 4= To a large extent; 3= To a moderate extent; 2= To a small extent; 1=Not at all.

SN	**STATEMENT**					
	a) Individual Learning	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
16.	Employees strive for excellence in service delivery.					
17.	Individual employees innovate through experimentation.					
18.	Employees actively seek assistance and share knowledge for personal development.					
19.	Targeted training prepares employees for immediate application.					
20.	Employees contribute innovative ideas for continuous learning.					
	b) Group Learning	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
21.	Teams engage in constructive discussions and decision-making.					
22.	Group resolutions enhance production and service delivery.					
23.	Employee groups promote cohesion and shared goals.					
24.	Team discussions focus on improving service quality.					
25.	Teams support colleagues in taking calculated risks.					
	c) Institutional Learnings	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
26.	Lessons learned drive changes in work methods.					
27.	Institutional learning fosters new program development.					
28.	Institutional learning enhances production efficiency.					
29.	New leadership styles emerge from institutional learning.					
30.	Institutional learning boosts organizational capacity.					
31.	Organizational structures evolve based on insights.					
	d) Systems Thinking	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
32.	Continuous learning and systems thinking enhance competitiveness.					
33.	Priority is given to integrating systems thinking in managing tourist activities and processes.					
34.	Effective mechanisms capture and share best practices.					

35.	Utilizing information and feedback is crucial for adaptation.					

Part IV: Quality Culture (Organization)

The term quality culture here refers to the goal of an organization and its members to permanently ensure and sustainably develop quality.

Please indicate with a tick (√) the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

Key: 5= To a very large extent; 4= To a large extent; 3= To a moderate extent; 2= To a small extent; 1=Not at all.

SN	STATEMENT					
	a) Quality Standards	5	4	3	2	1
36.	Our organization has clearly defined and communicated quality measures at all levels.					
37.	Adherence to quality standards is regularly monitored and assessed within the organization.					
38.	Employees have a clear understanding of the established quality benchmarks relevant to their roles.					
39.	We have a systematic process for updating and revising quality standards as needed.					
	b) Customer Focus	5	4	3	2	1
40.	Customer needs guide product/service development, emphasizing a customer-focused culture.					
41.	There is a formal mechanism for obtaining customer feedback and measuring satisfaction levels.					
42.	Employees are trained to address customer needs effectively, nurturing customer-focused expertise.					
43.	Customer-centric initiatives are regularly implemented based on feedback and market trends.					
	c) Continuous Improvement	5	4	3	2	1
44.	There is a structured process for identifying opportunities for continuous improvement and innovation within the organization.					
45.	Employees are encouraged and empowered by the leadership to suggest improvements in their work processes.					
46.	There is a system for tracking and implementing improvements identified through employee and consumer suggestions.					
47.	Regular reviews are conducted by the leadership to assess the effectiveness of continuous improvement initiatives.					
	d) Quality Assurance	5	4	3	2	1
48.	Our organization has a dedicated quality assurance team responsible for monitoring and ensuring adherence to quality standards.					
49.	Regular audits are conducted to assess compliance with established quality assurance processes.					
50.	There is a system for promptly addressing and rectifying quality deviations or issues.					

51.	We have a documented quality assurance plan outlining key processes and responsibilities.					

Part V: Tourism Business Enterprises *(TBE)* Competitiveness

Please indicate with a tick (√) the extent to which you agree with the following statements

Key: 5= To a very large extent; 4= To a large extent; 3= To a moderate extent; 2= To a small extent; 1=Not at all.

SN	STATEMENT	5	4	3	2	1
52.	The organization actively fosters learning to boost tourism competitiveness, focusing on market share and productivity improvement.					
53.	Knowledge dissemination positively influences decision-making for tourism competitiveness, including profitability and market presence.					
54.	Organizational learning is seamlessly integrated into strategic planning, emphasizing efficient resource management and adaptive strategies.					
55.	The organization's strong quality culture aligns with enhancing tourism competitiveness, emphasizing market share and visibility.					
56.	Quality assurance practices significantly contribute to maintaining and enhancing tourism competitiveness, addressing resource management and market visibility.					
57.	A quality culture drives continuous improvement efforts, ensuring sustained tourism competitiveness in productivity and market visibility.					
58.	The organization perceives its tourism competitiveness positively, considering factors like market share, productivity, and profitability.					
59.	Recognition and leveraging of competitive advantages in the marketplace are essential for the organization, focusing on market share, productivity, and profitability.					

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY

Annex 1.2: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

The Mediation of Organizational Learning as the Bridge and the Moderation Quality Culture as the Catalyst in the Relationship between KM-TBE Competitiveness

Introduction (5–7 minutes)

This study seeks to investigate how organizational learning (OL) acts as a bridge connecting knowledge management (KM) to tourism competitiveness, while quality culture (QC) shapes or accelerates this relationship. Your insights will help towards understand these dynamics in Kenya's tourism sector. Thank you for taking part."

Key Points: Confidentiality, consent, duration (45–60 minutes).

1. Role Clarification:

Could you briefly describe your role in Kenya's tourism sector and how it connects to KM, OL, or QC practices?

Core Questions (30–40 minutes)

Focus: Explicit probe of mediation (OL) and moderation (QC) dynamics.

I. KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT (KM) IN THE SECTOR

Question 1:

How are knowledge creation, sharing, and application currently practiced across Kenya's tourism businesses? What systemic enablers or barriers exist?

o Probes:

How do TBEs leverage tools like workshops or digital platforms to share knowledge?

What gaps prevent KM from translating into actionable improvements?

II. ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING (OL) AS THE MEDIATOR

Question 2:

How does the sector's capacity to learn and adapt (OL) help translate KM practices into competitive outcomes like market growth or tourist satisfaction?"

o Probes:

Can you share an example where lessons from KM (e.g., new ideas) were institutionalized into improved services?

How do training programs or feedback loops ensure KM leads to learning?

Question 3:

In your view, what would happen to the sector's competitiveness if KM initiatives existed, but organizational learning (OL) was inadequate?

III. QUALITY CULTURE (QC) AS THE MODERATOR

Question 4:

How do QC standards (e.g., certifications, service benchmarks) influence the way KM practices impact competitiveness? Do they accelerate, limit, or redirect outcomes?

- Probes:

Could you possibly recall a case where strong QC amplified the benefits of KM? Or where weak QC undermined it?"

How do QC priorities (e.g., sustainability, customer focus) shape which KM ideas get prioritized?

Question 5:

Are there tensions between QC's emphasis on consistency and KM's focus on innovation? How are these resolved?

Question 6:

How do OL and QC work together to shape the relationship between KM and competitiveness? For instance, does strong QC make OL more effective?

- Probes:

Could you describe a success story where KM, OL, and QC synergized to boost competitiveness?

What happens when one element (e.g., QC) is misaligned with the others?

Question 7:

What systemic changes for example policies, partnerships, training would strengthen OL's role as a bridge and QC's role as a catalyst for KM-driven competitiveness?

Conclusion (5–10 minutes)

Final Thoughts:

Is there anything critical to understanding how OL mediates, and QC moderates the KM-competitiveness relationship that wasn't discussed?

Your insights are invaluable to mapping how Kenya's tourism sector can harness KM, OL, and QC for sustained competitiveness. Thank you for your time!

APPENDIX 2: TABLES OF DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS FINDINGS

Appendix 2.1: Table 4.6 Descriptive statistics for Organization Profile and Demographic Data

Table 4.6: Organization Profile and Demographic Data

Category		**Frequency (F)**	**Percentage (%)**
Gender	Female	117	55
	Male	143	45
	Total	260	**100.0**
Service Category	Tour/Safari operators	97	37.3
	Tourist Service Vehicle Hire	75	28.8
	Local Air Charter	1	0.4
	Travel Agency	54	20.8
	Water Sports	3	1.2
	Balloon Operators	6	2.3
	Boat Excursions	2	0.8
	Accommodation	22	8.5
	Total	**260**	**100**
Year of Incorporation	Less than 5 years ago	59	22.7
	5-10 years	124	47.7
	10-20 years	64	24.6
	20-30 years	13	5.0
	Total	260	100
Scope of Operation	National (Kenya)	161	61.9
	Regional (East Africa)	66	25.4
	Continental (Africa)	28	10.8
	Global	5	1.9
	Total	260	**100**
Ownership Structure	Sole proprietorship	97	37.3
	Partnership	85	32.7
	Private Limited Company	70	26.9
	Foreign Ownership	8	3.1
	Total	260	**100**
Average Annual Sales Turnover (KES)	21-40M	119	45.8
	41-60M	102	39.2
	61-80M	15	5.8
	81-100M	17	6.5
	Above 100M	7	2.7
	Total	260	100.0
	0-9	152	58.5

Number of full-time Employees	10-50	102	39.2
	50-99	6	2.3
	Total	260	100.0
Management Position	**Directorship**	30	11.6
	Senior	98	37.8
	Middle	102	39.4
	Junior	24	9.3
	Supervision	5	1.9
	Total	260	39.6
Number of Years Worked in the Company	0-5years	60	23.1
	6-10years	80	30.8
	11-15years	85	32.7
	16-20years	34	13.1
	above20years	1	.4
	Total	260	100.0
Educational Qualification	Diploma	45	17.3
	Degree	67	25.8
	Masters	102	39.2
	PhD	46	17.7
	Total	260	100.0
Years of Experience attained	16-10years	41	15.8
	11-15 years	115	44.2
	6-20years	62	23.8
	above20years]	42	16.2
	Total	260	100.0

Appendix 2.2: Table 4.7 Descriptive statistics for KM

Table 4.7 KM Descriptive Analysis Findings

Frequency (*f*) Statements	GE (%)	LE (%)	ME (%)	SE (%)	NA (%)	Mean	SD (±)	Deduction
kc1 The organization fosters a culture that motivates employees to explore and experiment with new ideas, leading to the continuous creation of innovative solutions for tourist experiences.	144 (40.4)	90 (25.3)	26 (7.3)	0	0	4.45	.671	High
kc2 Formal mechanisms and processes are in place to support the creation of novel concepts and approaches within the organization, nurturing a culture of ongoing knowledge creation.	30 (8.4)	117 (32.9)	87 (24.4)	26 (7.3)	0	3.58	.823	Low
kc3 The organization has established formal mechanisms to encourage and facilitate the creation of innovative tour packages.	87 (24.4)	87 (24.4)	86 (24.2)	0	0	4.00	.817	Low

kc4 The organization actively encourages and supports cross-functional collaboration aimed at generating innovative ideas to enhance the tourist experience.	147 (41.3)	27 (7.6)	86 (24.4)	0	0	4.23	.919	High
kc5 At firm meetings, questions are posed to provoke debate and analysis on topics related to tourist experiences, enhancing knowledge sharing among employees.	114 (30)	60 (16.9)	56 (15.7)	30 (8.4)	0	3.99	1.058	Low
ka1Online discussions serve as a platform for employees to contribute ideas and thoughts, fostering knowledge acquisition within the organization.	26 (7.3)	118 (33.1)	116 (32.6)	0	0	3.65	.654	Low
ka2 The use of online platforms is encouraged to share new ideas for enhancing tourist experiences, fostering knowledge acquisition.	144 (40.4)	90 (25.3)	26 (7.3)	0	0	4.22	.798	High
ka3 Employees actively participate in brainstorming sessions to find solutions for challenges within their roles, contributing to knowledge acquisition.	60 (23.1)	82 (31.5)	118 (45.4)	0	0	3.78	.798	Low
ka4 Consultations where experiences and practices on specific tourism-related issues of common interest are shared contribute to knowledge transfer and acquisition.	82 (31.5)	178 (68.5)	0	0	0	4.32	.466	High
kt1 The organization effectively uses written reports to transfer knowledge about tourists' preferences and expectations.	0	204 (78.5)	56 (21.5)	0	0	4.57	.824	High
kt2 During meetings, experiences and knowledge about managing tourist interactions are shared to facilitate knowledge transfer and acquisition.	114 (43.8)	116 (44.6)	0	30 (11.5)	0	4.21	.927	High
kt3 Inter-organizational review meetings create opportunities for discussing tourism methodologies and fostering knowledge sharing with industry partners.	142 (54.6)	87 (33.5)	31 (11.9)	0	0	4.43	.696	High
kt4 Meetings are organized to promote excellence in tourist services consider aspects of knowledge transfer, sharing, retention, and acquisition.	0	60 (23.1)	118 (44.5)	82 (31.5)	0	2.92	.736	Low
ks1 Strategies employed by the organization actively promote and facilitate knowledge sharing among employees during meetings, particularly when discussing experiences and practices related to managing tourist interactions.	83 (31.9)	117 (45.0)	60 (23.1)	0	0	4.09	.738	High
ks2 Online platforms are utilized to encourage employees to share new ideas for enhancing tourist	148 (56.9)	112 (43.1)	0	0	0	4.14	.992	High

experiences, fostering a culture of knowledge sharing and collaboration within the organization.								
Group mean (Weighted average)						4.04		

Key: 5= To a great extent (GE); 4= To a large extent (LE); 3= To a moderate extent (ME); 2= To a small extent (SE); 1=Not at all (NA); Weighted Average= 4.04

Appendix 2.3: Table 4.8 Descriptive statistics for OL

Table 4.3 Organizational Learning

Frequency (f) Statements	GE (%)	LE (%)	ME (%)	SE (%)	NA (%)	Mean	SD (±)	Deductions
OL(i) Individuals are motivated to carry out the tasks which are assigned to them.	88 (33.8)	89 (34.2)	66 (25.4)	17 (6.5)	0	3.95	.925	High
(ii) Individuals are aware of the major challenges of the organization.	30 (11.5)	116 (44.6)	88 (33.8)	26 (10.0)	0	3.57	.824	Low
(iii) Individuals are an important source of information and knowledge.	86 (33.1)	87 (33.5)	87 (33.5)	0	0	4.00	.817	High
(iv) Individual goals conflict with the individual goals of members of my team.	78 (30.0)	96 (36.9)	86 (33.1)	0	0	3.97	.795	High
(v) Individuals have to work closely with colleagues within the team to work appropriately.	55 (21.2)	90 (34.6)	85 (32.7)	30 (11.5)	0	3.65	.940	High
(vi) The institution values group work.	56 (21.5)	143 (55.0)	61 (23.5)	0	0	3.98	.672	High
(vii) One group shares lessons' learned with other groups.	54 (20.8)	87 (33.5)	89 (34.2)	30 (11.5)	0	3.63	.939	Low
(viii) The individual goals of members of my team are well aligned.	26 (10.0)	121 (46.5)	83 (31.9)	30 (11.5)	0	3.55	.825	Low
(ix) Our organizational structure is a result of what we learn as employees.	26 (10.0)	90 (34.6)	87 (33.5)	57 (21.9)	0	3.33	.928	Low
(x) We have an effective conflict resolution system which guides our work groups.	67 (25.8)	81 (31.2)	85 (32.7)	27 (10.4)	0	3.72	.963	High
(xi) Our cultural values are shaped by our different ideas.	30 (11.5)	83 (31.9)	116 (44.6)	31	0	3.43	.847	Low
(xii) Different points of view are encouraged in group work.	56 (21.5)	118 (45.4)	86 (33.1)	0	0	3.88	.731	High
(xiii) Group resolutions are used to improve service delivery and product development.	52 (20.0)	94 (36.2)	95 (36.5)	19 (7.3)	0	3.88	.731	High
(iv) The establishments systems are compatible with critical issues facing service delivery.	48 (18.5)	69 (26.5)	107 (41.2)	31 (11.9)	5 (1.9)	4.13	.869	High

(xv) The establishment has developed policies that guide innovation and technological advancements.	18 (6.9)	56 (21.5)	99 (38.1)	87 (33.5)	0	4.03	.931	High
(xvi) The organization has an intellectual property Management mechanism protect knowledge created and acquired within the organization.	18 (6.9)	56 (21.5)	99 (38.1)	87 (33.5)	0	2.88	.735	Low
OLd1: Systems thinking is embedded in continuous learning so as to enhance competitiveness.	56 (21.5)	178 (68.5)	26 (10.0)	0	0	4.12	.551	Low
Precedence is set on integrating systems thinking in managing travel processes within the organization.	0	54 (20.8)	121 (46.5)	55 (21.2)	30 (11.5)	2.77	.910	Low
The organization has set up effective mechanisms to capture and share best practices.	54 (20.8)	57 (21.9)	92 (35.4)	57 (21.9)	()	3.42	1.049	Low
Utilizing information and feedback is crucial for adaptation in the dynamics of the tourism industry.	51 (19.6)	54 (20.8)	73 (28.1)	54 (20.8)	28 (10.8)	3.18	1.267	Low
Group mean (Weighted average)						**3.65**		

Key: 5= To a great extent (GE); 4= To a large extent (LE); 3= To a moderate extent (ME); 2= To a small extent (SE); 1=Not at all (NA); Weighted Average= 3.65

Appendix 2.4: Table 4.9 Descriptive statistics for QC

Table 4.4 Quality Culture

Frequency (f) Statements	GE (%)	LE (%)	ME (%)	SE (%)	NA (%)	Mean	SD (±)	Deductions
qca1 Our organization has clearly defined and communicated quality measures at all levels.	30 (11.5)	87 (33.5)	87 (33.5)	56 (21.5)	0	3.35	.945	Low
Adherence to quality standards is regularly monitored and assessed within the organization.	57 (21.9)	82 (31.5)	90 (34.6)	31 (11.9)	0	3.63	.955	High
Employees have a clear understanding of the established quality benchmarks relevant to their roles.	90 (34.6)	87 (33.5)	56 (21.5)	27 (10.4)	()	3.92	.987	High
qca4 We have a systematic process for updating and revising quality standards as needed.	56 (21.5)	113 (43.5)	61 (23.5)	30 (11.5)	0	3.75	.923	High

qcb1 Customer needs guide product/service development, emphasizing a customer-focused culture.	53 (20.4)	87 (33.5)	83 (31.9)	37 (14.2)	0	3.60	.967	Low
There is a formal mechanism for obtaining customer feedback and measuring satisfaction levels.	56 (21.5)	117 (45.0)	61 (23.5)	26 (10.0)	0	3.78	.897	High
Employees are trained to address customer needs effectively, nurturing customer-focused expertise.	60 (23.1)	83 (31.9)	87 (33.5)	30 (11.5)	0	3.67	.958	High
qcb4 Customer-centric initiatives are regularly implemented based on feedback and market trends.	53 (20.4)	92 (35.4)	63 (24.2)	52 (20.0)	0	3.56	1.029	Low
qcc1 Our organization has a dedicated quality assurance team responsible for monitoring and ensuring adherence to quality standards.	69 (26.5)	105 (40.4)	60 (23.1)	26 (10.0)	0	3.83	.934	High
Regular audits are conducted to assess compliance with established quality assurance processes.	30 (11.5)	143 (55.0)	87 (33.5)	0	0	3.78	.635	High
There is a system for promptly addressing and rectifying quality deviations or issues.	43 (16.5)	82 (31.5)	81 (31.2)	54 (20.8)	0	3.44	.998	Low
qcc4 We have a documented quality assurance plan outlining key processes and responsibilities.	57 (21.9)	55 (21.2)	119 (45.8)	29 (11.2)	0	3.54	.956	Low
Our organization has a dedicated quality assurance team responsible for monitoring and ensuring adherence to quality standards.	60 (23.1)	106 (40.8)	56 (21.5)	38 (14.6)	0	3.72	.979	High
Regular audits are conducted to assess compliance with established quality assurance processes.	42 (16.2)	86 (33.1)	92 (35.4)	33 (12.7)	7 (2.7)	3.47	.996	Low
There is a system for promptly addressing and rectifying quality deviations or issues.	53 (20.4)	84 (32.3)	77 (29.6)	46 (17.7)	0	3.55	1.006	Low
We have a documented quality assurance plan	54 (20.8)	88 (33.8)	81 (31.2)	37 (14.2)	0	3.61	.970	Low

outlining key processes and responsibilities.								
Group mean (Weighted average)						**3.63**		

Key: 5= To a great extent (GE); 4= To a large extent (LE); 3= To a moderate extent (ME); 2= To a small extent (SE); 1=Not at all (NA); Weighted Average= 3.63

Appendix 2.5: Table 4.10 Descriptive statistics for TBECOMPE

Table 4.5 TBE Competitiveness

Frequency (f) Statements	GE (%)	LE (%)	ME (%)	SE (%)	NA (%)	Mean	SD (±)	Deductions
1. Knowledge-sharing sessions and training programs greatly aid in decision-making and continuous learning.	56 (21.5)	86 (33.1)	88 (33.8)	30 (11.5)	0	3.75	.922	Low
2. Emphasizing quality significantly improves resource management, increases market share, and enhances visibility.	56 (21.5)	91 (35.0)	81 (31.2)	32 (12.3)	0	4.03	.660	Low
3. Efficient management of financial, human, and technological resources improves service delivery and cost-effectiveness.	59 (22.7)	88 (33.8)	84 (32.3)	29 (11.2)	0	3.97	1.063	Low
4.Collaborative partnerships with suppliers are crucial in ensuring resource availability, meeting customer needs, and enhancing reputation.	39 (15.0)	82 (31.5)	84 (32.3)	55 (21.2)	0	4.45	.825	High
5. Active search for new talent enhances customer service and competitiveness.	112 (43.1)	117 (45.0)	31 (11.9)	0	0	4.31	.674	High
6. Fostering a positive workplace culture greatly contributes to teamwork, employee morale, and customer satisfaction.	60 (23.1)	86 (33.1)	84 (32.3)	30 (11.5)	0	3.92	1.006	Low
7. Effective planning for key employee transitions ensures smooth operations and continuity.	79 (30.4)	91 (35.0)	58 (22.3)	32 (12.3)	0	4.42	.690	High
8. Retaining skilled employees through fair compensation, growth opportunities, and a	51 (19.6)	61 (23.5)	106 (40.8)	42 (16.2)	0	4.31	.828	High

positive work environment reduces costs and maintains operational efficiency.								
9. Well-trained employees contribute to better customer satisfaction and overall business strength, enhancing competitiveness.	86 (33.1)	117 (45.0)	57 (21.9)	0	0	4.11	.735	High
10. Recognizing and rewarding employee performance motivates continued excellence, fostering customer loyalty and business competitiveness.	33.1 (21.9)	45.0 (43.5)	21.9 (34.6)	0	0	3.87	.743	Low
Group mean (Weighted average)						**4.11**		

Key: 5= To a great extent (GE); 4= To a large extent (LE); 3= To a moderate extent (ME); 2= To a small extent (SE); 1=Not at all (NA); Weighted Average= 4.11

APPENDIX 3: Knowledge Gaps in Previous Studies

Table 2.1: Knowledge Gaps in Previous Studies

Study	Focus	Methodology and Context	Findings	Knowledge Gaps	Focus of the Current Study
Anand, A; Kringelum, LB; (...); Selivanovskikh, L. (2021) Learning Organization 28 (2), pp.111-136	Inter-organizational learning: a bibliometric review and research agenda	These researchers employed "evaluative bibliometric techniques" to analyze and assess the quality and quantity indicators of research on inter-organizational learning (IOL). Additionally, they utilize "relational bibliometric techniques" to identify the structural indicators of the IOL field, including the intellectual foundations and emerging research themes within the field of organizational learning. By employing these methods, the authors synthesize the findings and provide insights into the	By conducting an analysis of 208 journal publications sourced from the Scopus database, the researchers identify the prominent authors, countries, highly cited papers, and their contributions to the field of organizational learning (IOL). This analysis allows the authors to discern the key hotspots, intellectual foundations, and emerging trends within the realm of IOL. The findings of this study offer valuable insights and suggest promising avenues for future research in the field of organizational learning.	The researchers employ "evaluative bibliometric techniques" to analyze the findings, allowing for the identification of quality and quantity indicators in the field of organizational learning (IOL) research. Additionally, "relational bibliometric techniques" are utilized to explore the structural indicators of the IOL field, including its intellectual foundations and emerging research themes. By applying these methodologies, the authors gain valuable insights into the characteristics and trends within IOL research, shedding light on its overall quality, quantity,	OL and QC as mediators and moderators in KM-TBE Competitiveness

		characteristics and trends of IOL research.		and intellectual landscape.	
Arefin, M. S; Hoque, M. R and Rasul, T. (2021)	An examination on the impact of business intelligence systems (BIS) on the relationship between learning culture and performance in healthcare.	A quantitative study conducted using survey data from 217 mid- and top-level managers in healthcare organizations in Bangladesh. Structural equation modeling was employed for data analysis.	The results demonstrate the impactful mediation of BIS in the relationship between organizational learning culture and organizational performance in healthcare organizations.	Exploring the relationship between organizational learning culture and business intelligence systems in healthcare organizations within an emerging economy reveals a gap in the understanding of how organizational learning culture influences the adoption and utilization of BIS in the healthcare context.	Examining the influence of organizational learning (OL) and quality culture (QC) on the relationship between knowledge management (KM) and tourism business enterprise (TBE) competitiveness.
Obitade, OP (2021)	The mediating role of knowledge management and	Through a cross-sectional survey of 523 IT professionals from the	It was found that the information systems selection process,	This study draws on organizational learning and strategic decision-	The moderating and mediating role of OL and QC on the

JOURNAL OF DECISION SYSTEMS	information systems selection management capability on Big Data Analytics (BDA) quality and firm performance	US, UK, and India, using path analysis and structural equation modeling.	enhanced by knowledge management capabilities, is positively related to the BDA system quality and firms' performance. However, inconsistent with prior studies on transactional systems, we found no support for the hypothesis that software vendor criteria influence BDA quality. Also, in selecting systems and external facilitators, organizations appear to be pivoting towards parameters that are considered "emerging", such as cloud computing, DevOps, and agile experiences, as they increase the likelihood of unlocking business value from BDA.	making theory to develop a conceptual framework to explore how the selection measures of BDA systems and external support partners are linked to BDA system quality, and how these influence firms' competitive position.	association between KM and TBE Competitiveness.
Stojanovic, S; Sedlak, O; (...);	Organizational Learning for Learning Organization with A	An analysis of the efficiency and effectiveness of their	Key elements of the modern concept of development are	In today's competitive business context, knowledge is a critical	The moderating and mediating role of OL and QC on the

Bobera, D (2020) 14th International Technology, Education and Development Conference (INTED)	High Degree of Innovation	organizations with descriptive statistical analysis and DEA method with an overview of a "learning" organization concept that is used as a starting point for further conceptual development by the authors.	knowledge, creativity and timely access to information. New scientific knowledge is necessary for the development of an organization in today's turbulent business environment, and innovation and scientific research by competent researchers is essential to acquire new scientific knowledge, which can be applied in practice.	factor for the success of any organization. Organizational learning as a strategic tool has been proposed in the field of modern management in order to gain a competitive advantage in the market	association between KM and TBE Competitiveness
Im, S; Kim, SK and Bond, EU (2020) JOURNAL OF MARKETING THEORY AND PRACTICE 28 (2), pp.196-212	The effect of channel innovation knowledge management on competitive advantage: a dual-path model	Structural equation modeling using a sample of 205 product managers in U.S. high-technology manufacturing firms illustrates organizational ambidexterity that yields competitive advantage through an exploratory route from product novelty and new market accessibility to market	Developed new measures of channel innovation knowledge acquisition capabilities, channel innovation knowledge application capabilities, and market pioneering.	Drawing on organizational learning theory, with integrated channels and NPD perspectives to address whether NPD teams can acquire innovation knowledge from channel partners and apply it to gain competitive advantage.	The moderating and mediating role of OL and QC on the association between KM and TBE Competitiveness anchored on RBV, KBV and dynamic capabilities.

		pioneering and an exploitative route from product meaningfulness and channel operation efficiency to product quality superiority.			
Liu, CH; Horng, JS; (...); Chang, AY (2018) ASIA PACIFIC JOURNAL OF TOURISM RESEARCH 23 (8), pp.747-764	How To Create Competitive Advantage: The Moderate Role of Organizational Learning as A Link Between Shared Value, Dynamic Capability, Differential Strategy, And Social Capital	Based on the organizational strategy and capability perspective, we theorized a serial mediation-moderation analysis that links critical beneficial attributes of dynamic capabilities, differential strategies, social capital, shared goals, and organizational learning to creating competitive advantage.	Results from a survey of 328 travel agencies were analysed to support our hypotheses. Travel agencies' shared goals may influence competitive advantage through the characteristics of dynamic capability development, differential strategy implications, and social capital accumulation.	Improving the relationships between shared goals, dynamic capabilities, and social capital to achieve competitive advantage.	The moderating and mediating role of OL and QC on the association between KM and Competitiveness.

Guixian Tian, Huan Cai, Yong Jiang (2018)	Effects of Organizational Support on Organizational Learning based on Knowledge Management	Nurses in a hospital are like employees in an enterprise, and doctors are the senior supervisors in the organization. Supervisors in medical units must have the employees understand the attention from the hospitals so as to have nurses devote themselves to executing the organizational objectives. Aiming at hospitals in Shanghai, physicians and medical personnel in Shanghai Huashan Hospital were distributed with 420 copies of a questionnaire. A total 352 valid copies were retrieved, with the retrieval rate at 84%.	Significant positive effects of organizational support on knowledge management, knowledge management on organizational learning, and organizational support on organizational learning.	The influence of KM and OL on competitiveness	The interaction of KM, OL, and competitiveness in tourism business enterprises
Orga, J. I., Nnadi, C. S. and Chioma, E. N. (2018)	To ascertain the extent to which collaborative learning improves employees‘ knowledge	Systematic random technique and Random sampling technique were used for the study.	It was found that enhanced collaboration had significant effect on employees‘empowerment	Focused on KM;OL and competitive advantages in terms of organizational sales growth	Will focus on the mediating role of quality culture in KM, and OL influence on organizational comtetitiveness

	empowerment for organizational sales growth.	Crobanch‘s formula was adopted in the determination of the sample size of 553. A structured 5 Likert-scale questionnaire was designed based on: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Disagreed (D) and strongly Disagree (SD). 502 of the 553 respondents of the staff of food and beverage firms were randomly selected. Test and re-test method was used to establish the reliability of the instrument. Data collected from the field, were presented using descriptive statistics such as tables, frequencies and simple percentage. The hypothesis was tested using Z-test statistical tool and SPSS	that increased sales growth in the firm.		

Castaneda, D. I., Manrique, L. F. and Cuellar, S. (2018)	focus on research regarding organizational learning (OL) and knowledge management (KM), and to specifically investigate whether OL has been conceptually absorbed by KM.	This study is based on 16,185 articles from the Scopus and ISI Web of Science databases, using VantagePoint 10.0 software. The method used in this study is a systematic literature review covering KM and OL publications from the 1970s, when the OL field started to grow, up to 2016.	Nuclear processes of OL, creation and acquisition of knowledge have been conceptually absorbed by KM literature in the past years.	Focus the study was only on KM and OL	The current study will look at the moderating role of OL on the interactive influence of KM on Competitiveness
Mtawali, B. C. & Kiiru, D. (2018).	The study assessed the effect of knowledge management on the organizational performance of Microfinance institutions in Kenya.	the research adopted a descriptive research design where a questionnaire will be used to get responses from 87 Uwezo Micro-Finance bank employees sampled through simple random technique from a total of 111 targeted respondents.	The study made a conclusion that knowledge management practices positively impacted the organizational performance of Micro-Finance institutions in Kenya. The study concluded that knowledge management had a statistically significant positive	Did not look at competitiveness of tourism business enterprises	The study seeks to assess the effect of knowledge management on the competitiveness of tourism business enterprises in Kenya.

			influence on the organizational performance of Micro-Finance institutions in Kenya.		
Ambula (2015)	Determine the influence of learning organization on performance with the mediating effect of employee outcomes and moderating effect of KM.	Descriptive survey design, structured questionnaire based on a 5-point Likeart Scale. Theories included: Resource based view, knowledge-based view and dynamic capabilities and human capital theory and was anchored on a Positivist paradigm.	The combined effect of learning organization, employee outcomes and knowledge management on financial performance was not statistically significant.	Did not look at the mediating effect of quality culture on performance	The study will seek to establish if quality culture has a mediating role on organizational competitiveness.
Ndegwa (2015)	Determine the effect of organizational learning and firm-level institutions on the relationship between knowledge sharing and performance.	Combination of descriptive and inferential statistics (mean, percentages and frequencies and one sample t-test, regression (simple, multiple, hierarchical) to test hypothesis. Cross sectional research design was adopted	OL has no direct or mediating effect on the relationship between knowledge sharing and organizational performance.	Focused on knowledge sharing	The study seeks to access the moderating effect of OL on the relationship between KM and organizational competitiveness

Jyoti, et, al., (2015)	Knowledge Management and Competitive Advantage: Mediating Role of Innovation Capacity	The research sample comprised employees (N=331) of private telecommunication organizations. Two step procedure of Structural equation modeling has been followed. In the first step confirmatory factor analysis was conducted for scale validation and the second step included structural model for investigating the relationship between these three processes.	innovative capacity fully mediates the relationship of knowledge management and competitive advantage.	the impact of organization quality culture in between knowledge management and competitiveness	Mediating function of quality culture between knowledge management and competitiveness
Gilaninia, S., Ganjinia, H. and Karimi, K. (2013)	to evaluate the relationship between organizational learning and competitive strategies and its impact on performance of customer and business.	a descriptive - analytical method with emphasis on the causal and in terms of data collection is the field. Research tool is also a questionnaire. Small and medium enterprises in Guilan province is considered as statistical population that are 589 units and the	Result obtained show that organization learning has relationship with cost leadership strategy, the development of strategic flexibility and also strategic flexibility has relationship with differentiation strategy and cost leadership strategy. There is	Didn't focused on the influence of KM and OL on competitiveness	Will examine the influence of KM and OL on competitiveness

		number of samples can be analyzed 236 enterprises. Sampling method is convenience non-probability. To test the hypotheses is used structural equation model by LISREL software.	relationship between differentiation strategy with performance of customer and business and cost leadership strategy with customer performance.		
Gilaninia, S., Ganjinia, H. and Karimi, K. (2013)	to evaluate the relationship between organizational learning and competitive strategies and its impact on performance of customer and business.	a descriptive - analytical method with emphasis on the causal and in terms of data collection is the field. Research tool is also a questionnaire. Small and medium enterprises in Guilan province is considered as statistical population that are 589 units and the number of samples can be analyzed 236 enterprises. Sampling method is convenience non-probability. To test the hypotheses is used structural equation model by LISREL software.	Result obtained show that organization learning has relationship with cost leadership strategy, the development of strategic flexibility and also strategic flexibility has relationship with differentiation strategy and cost leadership strategy. There is relationship between differentiation strategy with performance of customer and business and cost leadership strategy with customer performance.	Didn't focused on the influence of KM and OL on competitiveness	Will examine the influence of KM and OL on competitiveness

Huang Hui et. al, (2013)	The main objective of this paper is to find out the impact of organizational learning (OL) and organizational innovation (OI) on organizational performance (OP) in Asia manufacturing food industries.	This study explores those linkages using structural equation modelling (SEM) with data from 172 companies in food manufacturing companies was selected from Taiwan, China, and Malaysia. The research model includes three latent variables including OL, OI, and OP.	The results showed that OL and OI have positive effect on OP.	Didn't focus on knowledge management, competitiveness	Will focus on KM, competitiveness and the moderating role of OL
Namada, (2013)	Effect of OL on performance of EPZ firms in Kenya	Cross sectional survey - Kenya	Positive relationship between OL and non-financial performance	Did not look at competitiveness	Operationalized competitiveness along KM, OL, & QC
Manaf (2012)	The influence of KS on Performance	Survey Malaysia	KS influence Performance	Focused on individual performance	Looking at enterprise competitiveness
Chien and Tsai, (2012)	Dynamic capability, knowledge, learning and performance	Survey Taiwan	Dynamic capabilities increase store performance	The study is limited in using firms in a specific region	Shall examine the effect of KM, OL and QC on competitiveness in a Kenyan context
Chang, Gong & Peng (2012)	Expatriate knowledge transfer and subsidiary performance	Survey Taiwanese MNCs	Expatriate competence in KS enhanced performance	Intervening effect of OL was not investigated	Examine the intervening effect of OL
Gardner, Gino and Staats (2012)	Dynamically integrating knowledge in teams	Survey -Professional services sector	There is a relationship between knowledge integration capability and performance	Did not look at the role of KM yet they impact on OL	Examine how KM influence the relationship between OL and business enterprise competitiveness

Guyo (2012)	The role of HRM in intra- firm sharing of tacit knowledge	Exploratory research - Kenyan state Corporations	Rewards, Mentoring and role modeling influence KS	Did not look at firm KM and OL effect on competitiveness	Examine the effect of both tacit and explicit knowledge on competitiveness
Kumaras wamy &Chitale (2012)	Collaborative KS strategy to enhance OL	Survey	Collaborative KS enhance OL	Did not look at how the two influence firm competitiveness	Look at the influence of KM and OL on competitiveness
Cheruiyot et al (2012)	The study examined factors influencing institutionalization of knowledge management in manufacturing firms in Kenya	Data was collected from 60 senior managers using a structured questionnaire from three selected manufacturing enterprises	Two critical factors influence institutionalization of knowledge management namely organizational practices and technological infrastructure	Three companies were purposively selected to participate in the study. Use of a homogeneous population makes generalization of the results questionable	The target population for this study will be randomly selected.
Kamya, M.T., Ntayi, J.M. and Ahiauzu, A. (2011)	to empirically explore in a single model the relationships between organisational learning and competitive advantage with the interacting influence of knowledge management and innovation	A cross-sectional survey design was used to generate data to test the research hypotheses. A questionnaire was developed on the four study constructs measurement scales derived from previous empirical studies which were modified to suite the study location. Resource-	The findings indicate that there is a positive relationship between organizational learning and competitive advantage and that the interactive influence of knowledge management and innovation increases the predictive power of the relationship.	the relationships between knowledge management, organizational learning and competitiveness, and the interactive influence quality culture	Will focus on knowledge management, organizational learning and quality culture and the interactive influence of on competitive advantage

		based theory guided the study, a pilot study conducted to evaluate the reliability and validity of the measurement scales. Questionnaire content was validated by subjecting it to practitioners and professionals, item scales were anchored on a four-point scale			

Source: Literature Review (2023)