

Research Article

Consumer Adoption of Location-Based Marketing in The Hospitality Industry: A Systematic Literature Review

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Abstract: Consumer is the king of market. Companies have revised their policies, products, processes keeping the changing demands of consumers in centre. The hospitality sector has shifted from being relatively slow to adopt technology to rapidly embracing digital, automated, and smart systems especially since COVID-19. Location-based technologies have been widely adopted to determine where a person is and then deliver marketing based on that location. While the hospitality industry has normalized location-based marketing (LBM), the evidence of why consumers actually adopt it is scattered across disconnected literatures on hotel technology, tourism applications, and food delivery platforms. This systematic literature review synthesizes the empirical evidence on consumer LBM adoption in hospitality sectors, maps the theoretical domain of the field and highlights the major drivers and barriers to adoption. A systematic search of the Web of Science Core Collection was conducted following PRISMA 2020 guidelines, yielding 1,301 records, of which 74 empirical studies published between 2015 and 2025 were retained and synthesised through thematic narrative analysis. The Technology Acceptance Model and its extensions (27%) and UTAUT2 (12%) are the most dominant theories, with perceived usefulness (41%) and perceived ease of use (34%) the most studied predictors. Trust (23 %), social influence (27 %), hedonic value (26 %), and privacy concern (16 %) are recurring in the literature. In hospitality, LBM implementation differs from generic technology acceptance in a triad of trust-personalisation-privacy where personalisation increases privacy concerns and engenders trust, and trust is the decisive mediator of the net effect on adoption. Methodologically, the field is heavily skewed to structural equation modelling (74%) and quantitative cross-sectional designs (91%), with evidence from the United States (23%) and China (16%), and hotels (31%) and tourism (27%) dominating sectoral coverage. Major gaps are in cross-sector comparison, non-Western geographic representation, longitudinal designs and post-adoption behaviour. The review distils theoretical and practical implications for researchers and for hospitality managers grappling with the trade-off between personalized relevance and location data privacy.

Keywords: Consumer Adoption, Hospitality, LBM, Location-Based Marketing, Mobile Marketing, PRISMA 2020, Systematic Literature Review, TAM, UTAUT2

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INTRODUCTION

The hospitality industry is evolved in due course of time due to globalization, hyper-competition and changing behavioural patterns of guests. Technology plays a crucial role in setting and meeting the changing expectations. GPS-enabled smartphones are now so ubiquitous that hospitality operators can, in principle, reach a consumer at the exact moment and place where purchase intent peaks. Location-based marketing geofencing, beacon-triggered push notifications, proximity couponing, GPS-driven search personalisation, location-sensitive mobile apps has moved well past the proof-of-concept stage. Hotels, restaurants, tourism destinations, food delivery platforms, and travel services all deploy some variant of it. Industry estimates put the global location-based services market in travel and hospitality above \$40 billion by 2026. Yet for all this deployment, what academia

knows about how and why hospitality consumers actually adopt LBM remains surprisingly piecemeal. Between 2015 and 2025, individual studies tackled mobile hotel booking [1-2], consumer attitudes toward location-based services in lodging and tourism [3-4], personalisation–privacy dynamics in hotel apps [5], food delivery app engagement [6-7], and restaurant LBM responsiveness [8]. These are useful contributions, but they sit in separate silos divided by sector, limited to single-country samples, and almost uniformly cross-sectional. No published review has stitched these threads together into a coherent, cross-sector picture. That gap matters in both directions. On the theory side, scholars working on hotel technology adoption, tourism apps, food delivery, and mobile marketing are largely unaware of parallel findings developing a few journals away. On the practice side, hospitality managers rolling out LBM strategies have no consolidated evidence base telling them which adoption levers to pull and which friction points to address. This review is an attempt to close that gap. It provides the first PRISMA-compliant, cross-sector synthesis of consumer LBM adoption in hospitality, drawing on 74 included studies.

Research Questions

- **RQ1:** What theoretical frameworks have been used to explain consumer LBM adoption in hospitality
- **RQ2:** What are the key enablers and barriers to consumer LBM adoption across hospitality sectors
- **RQ3:** What methodological approaches dominate LBM adoption research in hospitality
- **RQ4:** What research gaps exist and what future research directions are needed

Scope and Significance

The review covers consumer-facing LBM adoption research across all hospitality subsectors—hotels, restaurants, tourism, food delivery, airlines, ridesharing, and travel apps—without temporal or geographic restriction. One of the core questions we wanted to answer is whether theoretical patterns that have been identified in hotel LBM research hold up when tested in restaurant, food delivery, or tourism contexts. The timing matters, too. COVID-19 accelerated mobile-first behaviour and made contactless LBM interactions routine [9-10]. Meanwhile, growing regulatory scrutiny of location data GDPR in Europe, CCPA in California has pushed the privacy–adoption tradeoff to the top of both strategic and academic agendas.

Theoretical Background

Defining Location-Based Marketing: Location-based marketing, as we use the term here, refers to any marketing activity that exploits a consumer's current or recent geographic position to deliver targeted, contextually relevant content through digital or mobile channels [3,11]. The enabling technologies include GPS positioning, Wi-Fi triangulation, Bluetooth beacons, geofencing, and NFC. One challenge in reviewing this literature is terminological inconsistency: individual studies use 'location-based services' (LBS), 'proximity marketing', 'mobile marketing', and 'location-aware apps' to describe what are often overlapping phenomena. The study adopted a broad working definition that encompasses all location-triggered, hospitality-relevant mobile marketing activities.

Lbm in Hospitality Contexts

Hospitality is an inherently spatial industry, which makes it a natural fit for LBM. Consider a hotel guest's journey: it stretches from pre-arrival research and booking, through check-in and on-property service consumption, to local exploration and post-stay re-engagement [5]. Each stage presents a potential touchpoint for location-aware messaging. Restaurants use LBM differently—proximity-triggered coupons, real-time availability alerts, mobile ordering [12,8]. Food delivery platforms have developed some of the most sophisticated location-aware matching and geo-targeted promotion systems in the industry [6]. Tourism applications run the gamut from GPS-enabled tour guides to smart destination platforms and event discovery apps [13-14]. What ties all of these together is the same underlying value proposition: aligning spatial proximity, temporal timeliness, and personalised content.

Dominant Theoretical Frameworks

The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), proposed by Davis et al. remains the workhorse framework. Various studies included studies, spanning hotel apps [15-16], tourism LBS [17], and food delivery [18,10]. Perceived

usefulness (PU) and perceived ease of use (PEOU) come through as significant predictors in virtually every application. That said, the near-universal practice of extending TAM with additional constructs tells its own story: baseline TAM does not capture the full complexity of LBM adoption in context-rich hospitality settings [19]. UTAUT2 is the second most common framework, applied in tourism, restaurant, rail, and travel contexts. Performance expectancy and habit tend to be the strongest predictors; social influence frequently fails to reach significance. The S-O-R framework appears particularly where the research question involves how app design stimuli produce consumer responses mediated by psychological states [20-21]. Its growing prominence after 2019 reflects a shift in the field toward engagement and experiential outcomes rather than simple adoption decisions. Privacy calculus theory [22] frames disclosure decisions as a cost-benefit tradeoff. Only two studies apply it as the primary framework [2-3], but privacy constructs informed by the calculus logic appear in TAM extensions throughout the literature. This framework matters especially for LBM because location data is continuously generated and more intimately personal than standard transactional data a point the literature is increasingly recognising. After 2020, theoretical diversification accelerated noticeably. We see Service-Dominant Logic, Construal Level Theory, Self-Determination Theory, Status Quo Bias theory, and the Elaboration Likelihood Model all appearing for the first time. The field is maturing past the stage where a TAM regression is considered a sufficient contribution. The review followed PRISMA 2020 guidelines [23]. Meta-analysis was not appropriate here; the included studies differ too much in their constructs, operationalisations, and research settings for effect-size pooling to be meaningful, so thematic narrative synthesis [24] was used instead. Searching was conducted in the Web of Science (WoS) Core Collection, which covers the main peer-reviewed outlets in hospitality, tourism, business, and information systems. Eligibility was restricted to empirical studies on consumer-side adoption, acceptance, attitudes, or behavioural intentions toward LBM, LBS, or location-aware mobile applications in any hospitality sector. Only English-language articles from peer-reviewed journals or refereed conference proceedings were considered, and no publication date cut-off was applied. Studies were excluded if they were exclusively supply-side; purely conceptual or design-science in orientation without primary consumer data; set outside the hospitality context; reliant on methodologies that bypass consumer adoption measures, such as game-theoretic modelling or ML/text-mining work; or compromised by irrecoverable data extraction problems.

The search string combined three concept blocks applied to the WoS was - TS = ("location-based marketing" OR "location-based advertising" OR "location-based services" OR "proximity marketing" OR "geofencing" OR "beacon technology" OR "mobile marketing" OR "mobile advertising" OR "push notification*" OR "mobile application*" OR "location-aware" OR "GPS marketing" OR "geo-targeted" OR "geolocation") AND TS = ("consumer" OR "customer" OR "tourist" OR "traveller" OR "traveler" OR "guest" OR "user") AND TS = ("hospitality" OR "hotel*" OR "restaurant*" OR "tourism" OR "travel" OR "accommodation" OR "airline" OR "destination" OR "resort" OR "cafe" OR "food service") This initial search returned 1,301 records. Two non-English records were removed and document-type and research-area filters applied, which left 1,056 records. Title and scope screening brought the pool down to 119 articles for full-text review, of which 74 met every inclusion criterion and form the final synthesis sample. The eight full-text exclusions comprised two conceptual pieces without consumer data, two supply-side or non-hospitality analyses, one paper with an unresolvable data extraction error, one game-theoretic model, one ML/text-mining study, and one with a non-hospitality generic scope. The full selection flow is reported in Table 1. Data were extracted into a structured form capturing authors, year, journal, theoretical framework, study design, analytical approach, sample size, country, hospitality sector, constructs tested, reported enablers and barriers, the dependent variable, and stated limitations. Findings relevant to each research question were first coded line by line. These codes were grouped into descriptive themes, which were then developed into higher-order analytical themes interpretive patterns that cut across individual studies.

Data Extraction and Quality Assessment

We used a structured extraction form to capture: authors, year, journal, theoretical framework, study design, analytical approach, sample size, country, hospitality sector, specific constructs tested, key enablers and barriers, dependent variable, and stated limitations.

Synthesis Approach

Our thematic narrative synthesis [24] proceeded in three stages. First, we free-line coded findings relevant to each research question. Second, we grouped these codes into descriptive themes. Third, we developed analytical themes higher-order interpretive patterns that cut across individual studies.

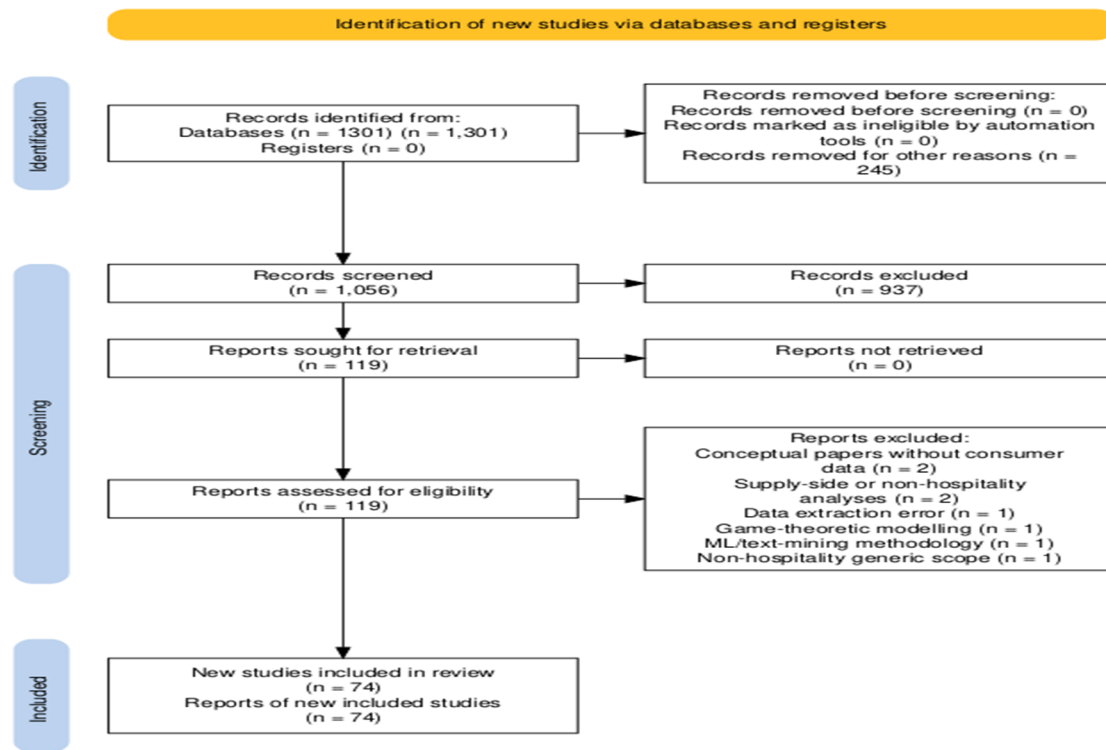


Figure 1: PRISMA 2020 Study Selection Flow

Table 1: Distribution of Included Studies by Publication Year

Year	n	Year	n	Year	n
2015	4	2019	15	2023	5
2016	6	2020	7	2024	4
2017	9	2021	9	2025	2
2018	6	2022	7	Total	74

Table 2: Country-Wise Distribution of Included Studies

Country	n	%	Country	n	%
USA	17	23%	Taiwan	3	4%
China	12	16%	Turkey	3	4%
Spain	4	5%	Thailand	3	4%
India	4	5%	South Korea	3	4%
Malaysia	3	4%	Others (18 countries)	19	26%

Table 3: Industry-Wise Classification of Included Studies

Hospitality Sector	No. of Papers	%
Hotels and Accommodation	23	31%
Tourism and Destinations	20	27%
Travel Apps and Platforms	8	11%
Food Delivery	8	11%
Ridesharing and Rail	5	7%
Restaurants and Food Service	4	5%
Airlines	2	3%
Broader Hospitality	4	5%
Total	74	100%

Descriptive Analysis

Publication Trends: The 74 studies span 2015 to 2025. Publication volume climbed from four studies in 2015 to a peak of 15 in 2019 a period that coincided with LBM technology reaching commercial maturity and wider academic attention.

Table 4: Theoretical Frameworks Employed in Included Studies (n = 74)

Theory / Framework	n (%)	Key Application
TAM and extensions	20 (27%)	Most prevalent; extended with trust, enjoyment, WOM, experience economy
UTAUT2	9 (12%)	Tourism, restaurant, rail; habit and performance expectancy strongest
S-O-R	5 (7%)	App design stimuli and engagement; growing post-2019
SCT	3 (4%)	Self-efficacy and perceived value in ridesharing, smart tourism
Privacy Calculus / Trust-Risk	2 (3%)	Hotel mobile booking; location data tradeoffs
TPB	2 (3%)	Tourist LBS and permission marketing
UGT	2 (3%)	Hotel apps and food delivery gratifications
IDT/DOI	2 (3%)	Travel and ridesharing app innovation adoption
ECM, TRAM, ELM, CLT, SDL, SDT	7 (9%)	Diverse single-use frameworks reflecting post-2020 diversification
Other named frameworks	19 (26%)	Personalisation-Privacy, IS Success, Gamification, Complexity, etc.
Not theory-driven	3 (4%)	Descriptive or segment-focused studies

Table 5: Distribution of Research Design and Data Analysis Techniques

Research Design	No. of Papers	%
Quantitative (CB-SEM)	30	41%
Quantitative (PLS-SEM)	25	34%
Quantitative (Regression/Other)	14	18%
Mixed Methods	5	7%
Qualitative	4	5%

Table 6: Key Construct Frequencies and Evidence Patterns (n = 74)

Construct	Frequency	Evidence Pattern
Perceived Usefulness (PU)	30/74 (41%)	Positive in virtually all studies; decomposed into time-saving, convenience, money-saving
Perceived Ease of Use (PEOU)	25/74 (34%)	Consistently positive; effect smaller than PU in post-adoption contexts
Social Influence (WOM, eWOM)	20/74 (27%)	WOM and eWOM powerful in hotel and tourism app adoption
Hedonic Value / Enjoyment	19/74 (26%)	Significant in tourism, food delivery, gamification; less prominent in hotel booking
Trust	17/74 (23%)	Critical mediator between personalisation and loyalty; offline brand trust spills over
Privacy Concern	12/74 (16%)	Significant negative in hotel and smart tourism; non-significant in leisure tourism and food delivery
Personalisation	7/74 (9%)	Paradoxical: simultaneously raises privacy concerns and increases trust

The five years from 2020 to 2025 contribute 36 studies (49%), reflecting a research surge driven by COVID-19’s impact on mobile-first behaviour, the explosion of food delivery platforms, and post-pandemic recovery dynamics. Table 1 shows the annual distribution.

Geographic Distribution

The USA leads with 17 studies (23%), followed by China with 12 (16%), then Spain and India with four each (5%). Western nations account for 29 studies (39%); East and Southeast Asian nations contribute 27 (37%). Africa, Latin America, and the Middle East are conspicuously underrepresented. Table 2 gives the full breakdown.

Sectoral Distribution

Hotels and accommodation make up the largest segment (n = 23, 31%), followed by tourism and destinations (n = 20, 27%), travel apps (n = 8, 11%), and food delivery (n = 8, 11%). Ridesharing and rail account for five studies (7%), restaurants for just four (5%) a surprisingly thin evidence base given the restaurant sector’s economic weight. Airlines contribute only two studies (3%). Worth noting: food delivery barely existed as a research context before 2019. Table 3 shows the full sectoral profile.

Theoretical Profile

TAM and its extensions (27%) combined with UTAUT2 (12%) account for nearly four in ten studies. There is a visible generational shift in the literature: pre-2018 studies tend to apply baseline TAM with minimal modification, while those from 2019 onwards increasingly turn to S-O-R, privacy calculus, and post-adoption theories. The fact that 57 of 74 studies (77%) explicitly extend their primary framework says something about the state of the field—no off-the-shelf theory adequately captures LBM adoption on its own. Table 4 presents the full theoretical distribution.

Methodological Profile

Quantitative methods dominate—69 of 74 studies (93%)—leaving just four qualitative and five mixed-methods contributions. Among quantitative studies, CB-SEM (n = 30, 41%) and PLS-SEM (n = 25, 34%) together account for three-quarters of the

analytical approaches used. Regression, descriptive statistics, fsQCA, field experiments, and quasi-experimental designs round out the remainder. Sample sizes range wildly, from 19 participants in a qualitative study to 584,592 records in an archival analysis; the median for survey-based quantitative work is 349. Table 6 breaks down the methods.

Key Construct Frequency

Table 6 tallies how often key constructs were tested across the 74 studies and summarises the general direction of their effects.

Thematic Synthesis

Iterative coding across the 74 studies produced five themes.

Technology Acceptance as The Universal Adoption Foundation

PU and PEOU are the most consistently supported adoption drivers in this literature significant in virtually every study that tested them. The strength of PU is sometimes striking: [16] found it explains 81% of variance in timeshare app adoption intention. Across the sample, researchers tend to decompose PU into time-saving, money-saving, and convenience sub-dimensions. [25] reported convenience as the strongest and most consistent effect on both intention and actual usage. [26] confirmed time-saving as the primary functional motivation but found that money-saving is not a strong driver—which challenges the common assumption that price-based promotions sit at the heart of LBM value.

PEOU is significant throughout but shows diminishing relative importance as users accumulate mobile experience. This makes intuitive sense: ease of use matters most during initial adoption and matters less once users become comfortable with the technology. The consistency of these findings validates TAM's continued utility as an adoption baseline, even as the field moves toward richer frameworks.

Individual Consumer Characteristics and Engagement

Personal innovativeness emerges as a significant driver in several studies [27-28,5]. finding is especially interesting: innovativeness was the strongest predictor of consumer involvement with hotel app-mediated personalised services and simultaneously reduced privacy concerns. That double benefit driving adoption while lowering the main barrier is a useful insight for targeting strategies. Habit is one of the most powerful predictors in UTAUT2-based studies, especially for post-adoption continuance [29-31] offered an explanation through the lens of status quo bias: once consumers settle into using a platform, inertia keeps them there. Hedonic motivation and perceived enjoyment show up as significant in 26% of studies, particularly in tourism, restaurant, food delivery, and gamification settings. Consumer involvement defined as the perceived personal relevance of the LBM-mediated service was the single strongest predictor of hotel app adoption intention in Morosan and DeFranco's [5] study. The implication is that hospitality managers who find ways to deepen engagement are also creating conditions that make LBM adoption more likely.

The Privacy-Trust-Personalisation Triad

This is where the LBM literature in hospitality says something distinctive. The relationship between personalisation, privacy concern, and trust produces a consistent and theoretically interesting pattern that we term the personalisation paradox: personalisation simultaneously raises privacy concerns and builds trust. Whether LBM's value proposition survives or collapses depends on which effect wins and trust is the deciding factor.

Ozturk, Nusair, Okumus, and Hua [2] privacy calculus model provides the clearest demonstration. They showed that personalisation positively predicts privacy concern, negatively predicts perceived risk, and positively predicts trust. Trust, in turn, positively predicts loyalty, while perceived risk negatively predicts it. Crucially, the direct effect of privacy concern on loyalty is non-significant meaning privacy concern works as an antecedent of trust rather than as a direct barrier to adoption. [3] added nuance by showing that only concern about data collection (not secondary use, improper access, or error) actually inhibits hotel LBS adoption [32] confirmed the triad's importance in travel tracking apps, with their extended model explaining 81.9% of variance in adoption intention.

The privacy concern effect is not universal, though [33] found it non-significant among tourists using LBS during vacation. That makes sense if you think about it: when a traveller is navigating an unfamiliar city, the benefits of location-aware assistance likely overwhelm whatever privacy hesitations they might normally feel. Context shapes the calculus.

Social Influence and External Adoption Factors

Social influence was tested in 27% of studies and reached significance in most of them. Shaw showed that word-of-mouth shapes hotel app adoption [34] found WOM to be the single strongest predictor of tourism app adoption in Tunisia, which suggests that social referencing may carry particular weight in emerging markets where institutional trust is weaker. Temporal and contextual targeting are newer entrants in the literature: [8] demonstrated that time of day and weather conditions affect how consumers respond to restaurant marketing a finding that highlights how LBM effectiveness depends on more than just spatial proximity. Cross-cultural variation is another recurring theme [35] found that self-efficacy predicts mobile hotel booking in China but not in the UK. [36] identified opposite driver profiles in France (usability-driven) and Russia (trust-driven). These findings are a useful corrective to the implicit assumption in much of the literature that adoption drivers are culturally invariant.

Sectoral Variation and Post-Adoption Dynamics

LBM adoption dynamics differ across hospitality sectors in ways that go beyond surface-level variation. In hotels, the dominant pattern is task-oriented and trust-mediated; this sector has produced the richest privacy-trust-adoption models. Quasi-experimental evidence hints at downstream effects worth studying further: [38] found that hotel app adoption reduces consumer search intensity, while [37] showed super-app adoption boosts cross-channel sales. Tourism splits into two profiles: utilitarian (information-seeking) and hedonic (experiential discovery). The balance between these depends on the specific application and the trip context. Food delivery tells a different story entirely. This sector barely existed in the academic literature before 2019, and its adoption narrative looks nothing like the hotel or tourism literatures. Trustworthiness is the most important app attribute, but loyalty drivers extend to fairness [39], safety value [9], and value co-creation through service-dominant logic [7]. COVID-19 acted as a structural break in food delivery adoption patterns a point that complicates any attempt to generalise from pre-pandemic findings.

DISCUSSION

Significant Findings

Four main findings emerge from this synthesis. First, TAM and UTAUT2 together account for 39% of the included studies, confirming their theoretical dominance—but the 77% extension rate and the post-2019 diversification wave signal that these frameworks are necessary starting points rather than adequate destinations. They capture the basics but miss what makes LBM adoption in hospitality distinctive. Second, PU and PEOU are near-universal enablers. Habit, innovativeness, and trust are robust individual-level and relational drivers. Privacy concern operates primarily through its negative effect on trust rather than as a direct inhibitor—a distinction with real practical consequences for how operators should communicate about data practices. Third, the trust-personalisation-privacy triad represents the distinctive theoretical signature of LBM adoption in hospitality. This dynamic is not captured by standard TAM or UTAUT2 and arguably warrants its own integrative model. Fourth, the methodological consensus around cross-sectional, survey-based SEM has generated a coherent evidence base but at the cost of systematic blind spots. There is little knowledge about longitudinal dynamics, actual (as opposed to intended) behaviour, or causal mechanisms.

Gaps Identified

Seven gaps stand out. (1) No included study systematically compares LBM adoption dynamics across multiple hospitality sectors using equivalent constructs so we cannot yet say with confidence whether hotel adoption findings generalise to restaurants or food delivery. (2) The USA and China account for 39% of the evidence base; Africa, Latin America, and the Middle East are barely represented. (3) Every included study is cross-sectional, leaving temporal dynamics how trust forms over time, how privacy concerns evolve with experience completely unexamined. (4) Almost all studies measure intention rather than observed behaviour. (5) Negative adoption experiences permission revocation, responses to data breaches, abandonment remain underexplored. (6) Whether COVID-era adoption patterns persist beyond the pandemic is an open question requiring longitudinal data. (7) Emerging LBM technologies including AI-driven hyper-personalisation, augmented reality LBM, and super-app architectures represent entirely new adoption contexts that the existing literature has barely begun to address.

Practical Implications

Several implications follow directly from the evidence. Operators should build trust before deploying personalisation the evidence consistently shows that personalisation raises privacy concerns but also builds trust, and the net effect is positive when trust has been pre-established. LBM platforms should prioritise utilitarian value in their design:

convenience, time-saving, and task efficiency dominate consumer motivations across every sector we examined. Habit formation deserves strategic attention. Early adoption programmes targeting tech-oriented frequent travellers can exploit status quo bias to create durable competitive advantages. Temporal and contextual targeting incorporating time of day, weather, and spatial distance should go beyond simple proximity triggers. When communicating about privacy, operators should emphasise the limited scope of data collection rather than technical details about downstream data security protocols. And segmenting users by innovativeness and habit can help optimise both initial adoption campaigns and long-term retention.

CONCLUSION

This review provides the first PRISMA-compliant, cross-sector synthesis of consumer adoption of location-based marketing in hospitality. From 1,301 Web of Science records, we identified and analysed 74 studies published between 2015 and 2025, organising findings into five thematic clusters: universal technology acceptance foundations, individual consumer characteristics, the privacy–trust–personalisation triad, social influence and contextual factors, and sector-specific dynamics. The central finding is that LBM adoption in hospitality is governed by a trust–personalisation–privacy triad. Personalisation creates value but simultaneously raises the primary adoption barrier—privacy concern—and trust is the mechanism that determines whether LBM's value proposition survives the tradeoff. This triad operates with variable intensity across sectors, cultures, and adoption stages, creating a well-defined agenda for the next wave of research.

Limitations

Four limitations should be noted. Only one database was utilised for the research (WoS); adding Scopus, ABDC, and EBSCO would likely surface additional relevant studies. Publication bias probably inflates the representation of positive adoption findings in our sample. The geographic imbalance in the included literature limits how far the findings can be generalised. And thematic synthesis inevitably involves interpretive judgements—different reviewers might draw the thematic boundaries differently in places.

Future Research Directions

The gaps identified in this review point toward several productive directions. Researchers should design cross-sector comparative studies that measure equivalent constructs across hotel, restaurant, food delivery, and tourism LBM contexts without this, we cannot determine whether sector-specific findings are genuinely sector-specific or merely artefacts of separate research traditions. Cross-cultural studies testing whether the trust–personalisation–privacy triad operates differently in individualist versus collectivist settings would add important nuance. Longitudinal panel designs are needed to track how privacy concerns evolve, how trust forms over time, and how habit develops none of which cross-sectional snapshots can address.

Measuring actual adoption behaviour rather than stated intentions through archival data, field experiments, or behavioural logging would strengthen the evidence base considerably. Research into negative adoption experiences, including privacy violation responses and data breach effects, would fill a notable blind spot. Developing and testing an integrated LBM adoption framework that combines the triad with TAM/UTAUT2 constructs represents a clear theoretical opportunity. And finally, whether the adoption patterns that emerged during COVID-19 persist in post-pandemic conditions is a question only longitudinal data can answer.

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