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# BRAND EXPERIENCE IN TOURISM DESTINATIONS: A SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW USING SPAR-4-SLR PROTOCOL AND TCCM FRAMEWORK

**Neeraj Kumar PHOOKAN[1], Pratim BARUA[2]**

[1]*PhD Research Scholar, Centre for Management Studies, Dibrugarh University, India, E-mail address: neeraj_cms@dibru.ac.in, ORCID ID: 0000-0003-2676-8731*

[2]*PhD, Professor, Centre for Management Studies, Dibrugarh University, India, E-mail address: pratim@dibru.ac.in, ORCID ID: 0009-0004-3397-3084*

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***Abstract***
***Purpose –*** *As destinations increasingly seek competitive advantage in an experience-driven tourism market, destination brand experience (DBE) has emerged as a crucial topic for understanding how destinations create differentiation and shape tourists' responses. As DBE spans multiple destination touchpoints throughout the entire tourist journey, a holistic overview is needed to capture the concept's otherwise fragmented literature and provide a comprehensive understanding. This study, therefore, systematically reviews DBE research.*
***Methodology/Design/Approach –*** *Using the Scientific Procedures and Rationales for Systematic Literature Review (SPAR-4-SLR) protocol, this study systematically reviews 87 articles published between 2014 and October 2025. Drawing on the theories-contexts-characteristics-methods (TCCM) framework, the review offers an in-depth analysis of how DBE has been grounded in theory, empirically examined, and methodologically operationalised.*
***Findings –*** *The review sheds light on "what is known about DBE, how it is known, and where its research should be heading." Moreover, drawing on the content analysis, an integrative framework is developed to synthesise antecedents, mediators, moderators, and outcomes that systematically contribute to the topic and offer directions for future research.*
***Originality of the research –*** *This review provides a state-of-the-art overview of DBE scholarship and offers important theoretical, practical, and future research contributions.*

***Keywords*** *Destination brand experience, systematic literature review, destination branding, TCCM, SPAR-4-SLR.*

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## 1. Introduction

The evolving tourism landscape has enabled destinations to transcend their status from mere geographical locations and emerge as complex perceptual entities shaped by tourists' subjective interpretations of psychographic and demographic attributes, experiences, and their purpose of visit (Buhalis, 2000). This perceptual nature, coupled with the complex integration of multiple service industries, including transportation, attractions, events, food and beverages, lodging, hospitality, recreation and entertainment, necessitates a deeper understanding of how tourists experience destination brands (Bogicevic et al., 2019). Within this context, brand experience (BE) plays a crucial role in destination brand-building by shaping tourists' perceptions and fostering favourable outcomes across multiple service touchpoints, enabling destinations to differentiate, facilitate competitive advantage, and create memorable experiences that deepen tourists' psychological associations (Pu et al., 2024; Rather et al., 2020; Rather & Hollebeek, 2020; Rezaei et al., 2017; E. Torres-Moraga & Barra, 2023).

BE, as coined by Brakus et al. (2009), is the moment of truth that emerges in response to brand-related stimuli (Lin & Wong, 2020). These responses are subjective and influenced by consumers' perceptions, emotions, and cognition, playing a key role for brands in creating memorable and unique experiences (Yu et al., 2024). It is multidimensional, comprising sensory, behavioural, intellectual, and affective dimensions (Brakus et al., 2009). BE is distinct and often emphasised as a superior construct because it encompasses the experiential aspect of consumer-brand interactions (Barnes et al., 2014; Brakus et al., 2009; Calderón-Fajardo et al., 2024). Since responses arising from BE are highly subjective and span across the entire customer journey, the concept differs from consumer involvement and engagement, as both presume a prior state of motivation limited to specific interactions (Brakus et al., 2009; Rather, 2020; Rather et al., 2022; Rather & Hollebeek, 2021; Satar et al., 2023).

Expanding on Brakus et al.'s (2009) conceptualisation, Barnes et al. (2014) introduced DBE, highlighting the multidimensional nature of tourist-destination interactions, serving as stimuli in shaping subjective evaluations that influence overall perceptions of the destination brand. This subjective evaluation forms the basis for differentiation from competing destinations (Torres-Moraga & Barra, 2023). Given that tourist destinations are complex combinations of cultural, natural, and service-based touchpoints, DBE considers all tourist interactions, including amenities, marketing communication efforts, and personal experiences, extending beyond pleasure and entertainment (Calderón-Fajardo et al., 2024; E. I. Torres-Moraga et al., 2021). Thus, DBE is formed through cognitive, sensory, affective, and behavioural dimensions making it a critical construct in destination marketing, influencing tourists' destination selection decisions, satisfaction, and loyalty (Barnes et al., 2014; Kumar & Kaushik, 2018).

Unlike Pine and Gilmore's (1998) 4Es framework, which focuses on the education, entertainment, escapist, and esthetic experiences of consumers across service industries, DBE offers notable improvements as it centres on tourists' internal subjective evaluations arising from interactions with a destination, going beyond entertainment and abstract categories such as escapism (Bogicevic et al., 2019; Ngwira et al., 2023; Shizhen et al., 2025). It prioritises how destinations evoke feelings and stimulate the senses, promising both symbolic and functional experiences to visitors (Ngwira et al., 2023). The highly subjective nature of responses and trans-interactional characteristics further distinguish it from other experience models, as it covers a consumer's entire journey, comprising pre-, intra-, and post-interaction sub-experiences (Rather et al., 2022; Rather & Hollebeek, 2021). These interactions, shaped by senses, feelings, cognitions, and actions, reinforce Brakus et al.'s (2009) brand experience theory, making it well-suited for tourism research (E. I. Torres-Moraga et al., 2021). This view is also supported by authors who have tested the BE scale of Brakus et al. (2009) across multiple studies, further validating the relevance of the dimensions in tourism and destination branding (Kumar & Kaushik, 2018; Nysveen et al., 2018). Recently, Ngwira et al. (2023) extended the concept by introducing two new dimensions: relational and spiritual DBE.

Given the growing academic interest, researchers have sought to map the conceptual and empirical evolution of BE. Previous reviews have laid critical foundations, including an SLR covering empirical and conceptual papers across multiple industries (Khan & Rahman, 2015); a narrative review synthesizing multiple theoretical lenses such as service-dominant logic, relationship theory, and consumer culture theory (Andreini et al., 2018); and a bibliometric analysis identifying trends and citations (Zha et al., 2020). However, in the tourism industry, BE research remains fragmented as tourism experiences do not depend on a single product or service encounter (Bogicevic et al., 2019). Although in the tourism context, Vlahovic-Mlakar & Ozretic-Dosen (2022) concentrated on experiential marketing, emphasising the hospitality industry, and Godovykh & Tasci (2020) explored multiple definitions of tourism experience, a comprehensive review specifically exploring DBE remains lacking, especially given its complex nature and growing significance in tourism research (Bogicevic et al., 2019; Calderón-Fajardo et al., 2024; Khan & Rahman, 2015). Moreover, technological advancements

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have opened novel opportunities for DBE, such as the rise of digital platforms, including online destination websites (Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, Campo, et al., 2020; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, et al., 2019; Jiménez-Barreto, Sthapit, et al., 2019; Khan & Fatma, 2021), virtual reality as a source of brand stimuli (Bogicevic et al., 2019), and the emergence of 'armchair tourism' as a digital product (Yu et al., 2024), necessitating systematic exploration. Furthermore, according to the Marketing Science Institute (2024), 'experience' emerged as a key research priority, reinforcing the need for further investigation of DBE (Satar et al., 2023).

To address these gaps, an SLR is more appropriate than a bibliometric review as it offers a deeper understanding of theories, constructs, contexts, and methods (Swain et al., 2024). Therefore, the current study conducts an SLR to offer a comprehensive overview of DBE and its associations with other variables. Guided by the SPAR-4-SLR organising protocol and the TCCM framework, the review presents a structured evaluation of DBE literature across theoretical underpinnings, contexts, characteristics, methodological approaches, and critical gaps. The current study benefits from the usage of TCCM because of its proven ability to conduct in-depth, construct-specific analyses (Paul et al., 2023), aligning with the demand for framework-based reviews in tourism research (Ramos et al., 2024).

The present SLR uses this approach to solve three research questions (RQs):

RQ1. What is known about destination brand experience?

RQ2. How is destination brand experience known?

RQ3. Where should research on destination brand experience be heading?

In response to RQ1, bibliometric data are presented, followed by a comprehensive synthesis of the DBE concept, antecedents, mediators, moderators, outcomes, and their relationships. For *RQ2,* theories, contexts, and methodological approaches are evaluated. Finally, to address RQ3, gaps in the literature and future research pathways are identified based on the TCCM framework. The final section includes the conclusion, presenting the theoretical and practical implications, followed by the study's limitations. The findings will clarify DBE's current conceptual landscape while providing practitioners with insights into how tourists experience destination brands.

## METHODOLOGY

This study follows the SPAR-4-SLR organising protocol (Paul et al., 2021), which provides a logical, thorough, and transparent synthesis of the previous literature, specifically in marketing research (Çelik et al., 2023; Khatri & Duggal, 2022). Figure 1 depicts the three stages and six substages of SPAR-4-SLR: assembling (identification and acquisition), arranging (organisation and purification), and assessing (evaluation and reporting) (Paul et al., 2021). Furthermore, the three RQs were answered using the TCCM framework that categorises research articles into four verticals: theory, contexts, characteristics, and methods as it is effective in rendering a robust foundation for integrative frameworks and delineating agendas for future research (Paul & Criado, 2020; Paul & Rosado-Serrano, 2019).

### 1.1 Stage 1: Assembling

The assembling stage involves "identifying" and "acquiring" relevant literature (Paul et al., 2021). Identification includes defining the review domain (DBE), the research questions (RQ1, RQ2, RQ3), and the source type and quality. Following the criteria set by Paul et al. (2021), only peer-reviewed empirical and conceptual journal articles were included, while book chapters, editorials, dissertations, theses, and conference proceedings were excluded (Khatri & Duggal, 2022). Source quality was assessed using the Australian Business Deans Council (ABDC) journal list and SCImago Journal Rank (SJR), as they primarily cover high-quality management and multidisciplinary publications, respectively (Çelik et al., 2023). These lists are widely used in marketing literature reviews (Çelik et al., 2023; Lee & Cho, 2020; Lim et al., 2021; Paul et al., 2021).

To ensure comprehensive coverage and content validity in the material acquisition sub-stage, both the Web of Science (WoS) and Scopus databases were selected for their superior citation analysis and broader journal coverage, respectively (Çelik et al., 2023; A. Kumar et al., 2023; Ruiz-Real et al., 2020). To search articles, keywords from Khan & Rahman's (2015) review on BE were adapted for use with DBE. Accordingly, a Boolean search string (Figure 1) was formulated to search titles, abstracts, and author keywords from 2014 to 14 October 2025, yielding 2195 articles from Scopus and 1532 articles from WoS. The starting year was taken as 2014, as DBE was first conceptualised by Barnes et al. (2014).

### 1.2 Stage 2: Arranging

This stage involves the "organisation" and "purification" of the retrieved articles (Paul et al., 2021). In the "organisation" sub-stage, acquired articles were merged into a single dataset for deduplication, reducing the count to 2,055. Using the TCCM framework, articles were coded according to bibliometric data, theories,

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contexts (sector and country of study), methods (research approach, data collection process, and analytical techniques), antecedents, mediators, moderators, and outcomes (Paul et al., 2021; Paul & Criado, 2020; Paul & Rosado-Serrano, 2019). The data were tabulated in a spreadsheet and cross-verified by the second author for reliability.

In the purification stage, article inclusion was determined by reviewing titles, abstracts, or full papers as described by Pickering and Byrne (2014). Articles were eligible if they studied brand experience in tourism destinations or related services as exogenous or endogenous variables, following the theoretical foundations of Barnes et al. (2014) and Brakus et al. (2009), leading to the elimination of 1789 articles. Further filtering of the remaining 266 articles based on ABDC A*, A, and B rankings (Kumar, 2022; Xu & Phillips, 2023) or Q1 and Q2 of the SJR index (Kumar et al., 2023) reduced the count to 64 articles. Finally, snowball sampling identified 23 additional publications by examining citations of the 64 articles (Wohlin, 2014), bringing the final count to 87 full-text papers. For example, an article by Beckman et al. (2013) was included because it aligned with Brakus et al.'s (2009) conceptualisation. Similarly, Rather et al. (2022) used Schmitt's (1999) customer experience dimensions- sense, feel, think, act, and relate that align with the BE dimensions proposed by Brakus et al. (2009). Therefore, this article was also added to the dataset.

### 1.3 Stage 3: Assessing

The final stage involves "evaluating" and "reporting" the findings. In the evaluation sub-stage, a descriptive analysis was conducted to identify relationships among variables and synthesise them into an integrative conceptual framework. Gaps in the literature and avenues for future research were also highlighted.

In the reporting sub-stage, results were presented as a combination of narrative descriptions and visual summaries (tables and figures). Furthermore, the study's limitations were also outlined.

## 2. RESULTS

### 2.1 RQ1 What is known about "Destination Brand Experience"?

#### 2.1.1 Year-wise publication trend

Figure 2 illustrates an increasing trend in publications since 2017, with 67% of the identified articles published between 2020 and 2024, indicating the growing interest of scholars, academicians, and managers in exploring the concept of brand experience in the tourism industry.

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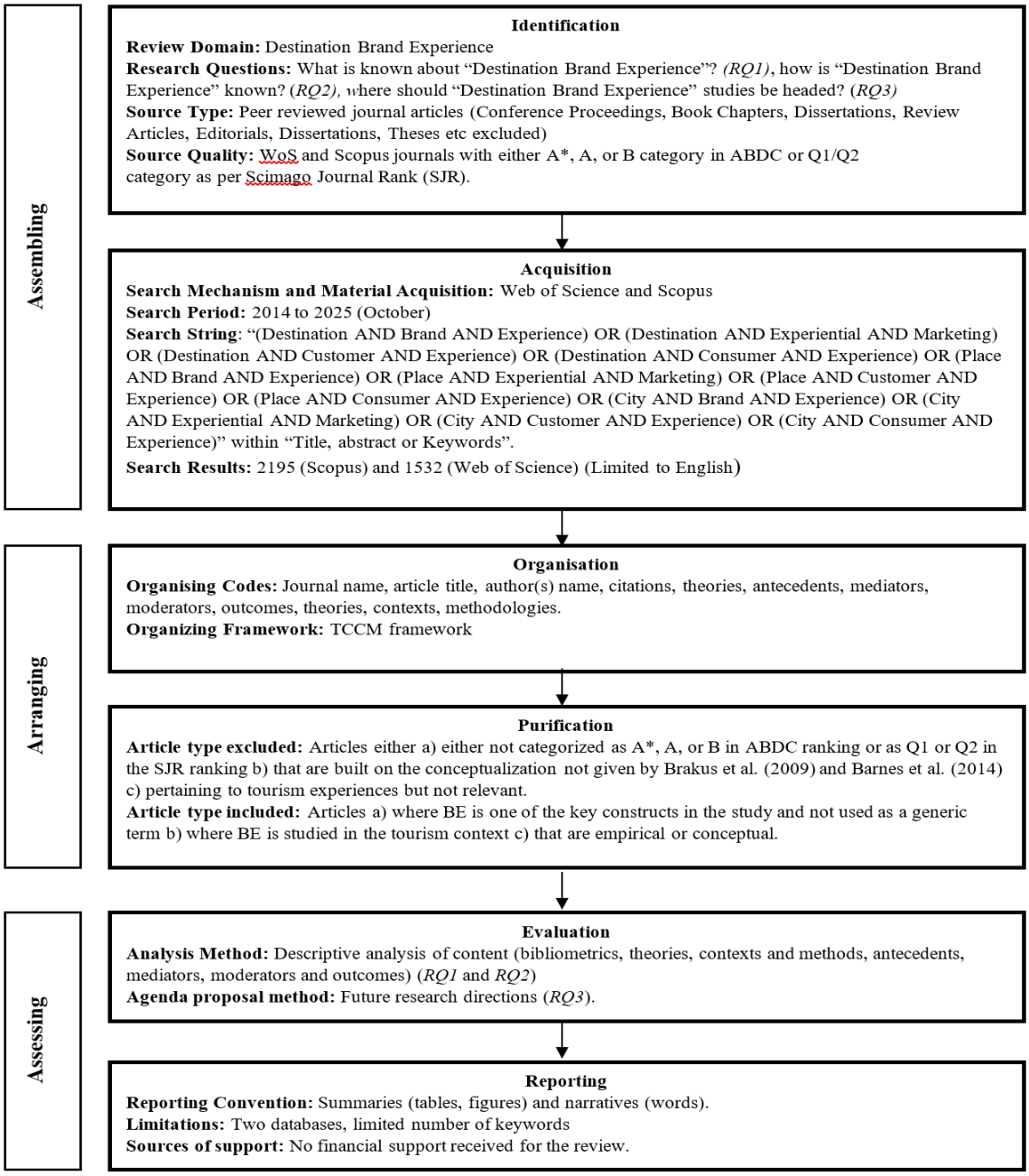



**Figure 1: SPAR-4-SLR protocol (Paul et al., 2021)**




**Figure 2: Articles published across years (Data as on 14 October, 2025)**

### 2.1.2 Journal-wise publication trend

Table 1 presents the distribution of 42 journals publishing 87 articles between 2013 and 14 October 2025. Notably, 83% journals had three or fewer publications. Moreover, only 5 ABDC A* category journals

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contributed with 11 articles. This limited percentage in top-tier ABDC A* journals leaves room for future researchers to fill this gap (Çelik et al., 2023).

**Table 1: List of Journals**

| Journal Name | No. of Articles | Scimago | ABDC | H-Index |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Journal of Vacation Marketing | 7 | Q1 | A | 78 |
| Sustainability (Switzerland) | 7 | Q1 | Not Listed | 169 |
| Journal of Destination Marketing & Management | 6 | Q1 | A | 75 |
| International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management | 5 | Q1 | A | 126 |
| Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing | 4 | Q1 | A | 104 |
| Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management | 4 | Q1 | A | 79 |
| Journal of Travel Research | 4 | Q1 | A* | 172 |
| Current Issues in Tourism | 3 | Q1 | A | 108 |
| Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights | 3 | Q1 | C | 23 |
| Tourism Management | 3 | Q1 | A* | 255 |
| Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics | 2 | Q1 | A | 63 |
| Consumer Behaviour in Tourism and Hospitality | 2 | Q1 | B | 45 |
| Frontiers in Psychology | 2 | Q2 | Not Listed | 184 |
| International Journal of Hospitality Management | 2 | Q1 | A* | 169 |
| International Journal of Tourism Research | 2 | Q1 | A | 78 |
| Journal of Brand Management | 2 | Q1 | A | 68 |
| Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management | 2 | Q1 | A | 70 |
| Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research | 2 | Q1 | A | 88 |
| Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services | 2 | Q1 | A | 143 |
| Anatolia | 1 | Q2 | B | 43 |
| Annals of Tourism Research | 1 | Q1 | A* | 216 |
| Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research | 1 | Q1 | A | 62 |
| British Food Journal | 1 | Q1 | B | 102 |
| Cogent Business and Management | 1 | Q2 | Not Listed | 44 |
| European Business Review | 1 | Q1 | B | 55 |
| European Journal of Marketing | 1 | Q1 | A* | 154 |
| International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration | 1 | Q2 | B | 41 |
| International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship | 1 | Q2 | B | 33 |
| International Marketing Review | 1 | Q1 | A | 106 |
| Journal of Business Economics and Management | 1 | Q2 | B | 48 |
| Journal of Business Research | 1 | Q1 | A | 265 |
| Journal of Foodservice Business Research | 1 | Q2 | C | 37 |
| Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice | 1 | Q2 | B | 61 |
| Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism | 1 | Q2 | B | 42 |
| Journal of Services Marketing | 1 | Q1 | A | 194 |
| Journal of Tourism Futures | 1 | Q1 | C | 33 |
| Spanish Journal of Marketing | 1 | Q2 | B | 30 |
| The Service Industries Journal | 1 | Q1 | B | 85 |

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| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| The TQM Journal | 1 | Q1 | B | 79 |
| Tourism Management Perspectives | 1 | Q1 | A | 82 |
| Tourism Recreation Research | 1 | Q1 | A | 63 |
| Tourism Review | 1 | Q1 | B | 58 |
| N= 42 | 87 | | | |

### 2.1.3 Most Cited articles

10 articles with the highest citations are presented in Table 2. A title search on Google Scholar revealed that Bogicevic et al. (2019) has the highest influence, with 670 citations and an average of 111.67 citations per year. The high number of citations stems primarily from the fact that, as a marketing tool, virtual reality has immense potential to revolutionise tourism experiences (Guttentag, 2010). Barnes et al. (2014) is the second-highest, with 569 citations, followed by Ding & Tseng (2015) with 507 citations, who tested the influence of BE on brand loyalty in the restaurant context. In line with Çelik et al. (2023), the top three articles with the most average citations per year were Rather et al. (2022), Bogicevic et al. (2019), and Rather (2020), having 118.7, 111.67, and 100.8 citations, respectively.

**Table 2: Most Cited articles**

| Journal Name | Article Title | Author | Citations[a] | Average citations per year[b] |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Tourism Management | Virtual reality presence as a preamble of tourism experience: The role of mental imagery | Bogicevic et al. (2019) | 670 | 111.67 |
| Annals of Tourism Research | Destination brand experience and visitor behavior: Testing a scale in the tourism context | Barnes et al. (2014) | 569 | 51.72 |
| European Journal of Marketing | On the relationships among brand experience, hedonic emotions, and brand equity | Ding & Tseng (2015) | 507 | 50.7 |
| Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing | Customer experience and engagement in tourism destinations: the experiential marketing perspective | Rather (2020) | 504 | 100.8 |
| Journal of Business Economics and Management | Influence of Sensory Stimuli on Brand Experience, Brand Equity and Purchase Intention | Moreira et al. (2017) | 416 | 52 |
| Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management | Impact of Brand Experience on Loyalty | Ong et al. (2018) | 402 | 57.40 |
| Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services | Customers' Service-related Engagement, Experience, and Behavioural Intent: Moderating Role of age | (Rather & Hollebeek, 2021) | 371 | 92.75 |
| Journal of Travel Research | First-Time versus Repeat Tourism Customer Engagement, Experience, and Value Cocreation: An Empirical Investigation | Rather et al. (2022) | 356 | 118.7 |
| International Journal of Hospitality Management | Antecedents and consequences of customer brand engagement in integrated resorts | Ahn and Back (2018a) | 347 | 49.57 |
| Journal of Brand Management | The power of experiential marketing: exploring the causal relationships among multi-sensory marketing, brand | Weidmann et al. (2018) | 341 | 48.71 |

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| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | experience, customer perceived value and brand strength | | | |

[a]*Data from Google Scholar (14 October 2025)*
[b]*Calculated by subtracting current year with publication year (Çelik et al., 2023; Ramos et al., 2024)*

## 2.2 Characteristics

Following John & Supramaniam (2024), Çelik et al. (2023), and Kumar et al. (2023), antecedents, outcomes, mediating and moderating variables depicting the evolution of DBE, along with its dimensionality, were outlined and presented in an integrated framework (Figure 3).

### 2.2.1 Antecedents of DBE

Antecedents are the factors that directly or indirectly affect DBE. Identified antecedents are categorised as motivational, cognitive, interactional/ relational, brand-related, and technology-related, as presented in Table 3.

#### 2.2.1.1 Motivational Antecedents

Motivational antecedents identified in the SLR include tourist attractions, sensory stimuli, and brand authenticity. Tourist attractions, characterised by distinct human and natural features foster positive destination experiences by evoking pleasure through innovative and diverse activities and services (Rini et al., 2024). Sensory stimuli, assessed through the human senses, are antecedents in both physical and digital environments. Stimuli such as 'décor, services, products and environment' in restaurants or using online short-form videos as marketing communication can trigger positive BE (Li et al., 2023; Moreira et al., 2017). Finally, within SOR frameworks, brand authenticity, stemming from originality and genuineness, stimulates consumer interest, thereby enhancing BE (Zhang et al., 2021a).

#### 2.2.1.2 Cognitive antecedents

Identified cognitive antecedents included destination brand identity (DBI), brand reputation (BR), self-congruity, self-expression, perceived brand innovativeness (PBI), perceived green image (PGI), and perceived destination website quality (PDWQ). Organisational identity theory posits that DBI drives DBE by connecting the brand's internal and external aspects to tourists' self-image, fostering self-brand connections through cultural activities and events (Chiang & Chen, 2023). BR in integrated resorts drivers all BE dimensions by influencing visitors' cognitive processing and behavioural responses (Ahn & Back, 2018b). Self-congruity and self-expression are crucial drivers; the former aligns an individual's self-concept with the destination brand image, and the latter reflects tourists' portrayal of their identity through destination choices and travel experience sharing (Guo & Hsu, 2023; Rini et al., 2024). Finally, PBI and PGI reflect perception of a destination's novelty and environmental commitment (Nysveen et al., 2018), while PDWQ enhances cognitive immersion and emotional connection to the destination website (Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, et al., 2019).

#### 2.2.1.3 Brand-related antecedents

Literature identified several brand-related factors, including brand personality (BP), destination brand, destination brand awareness (DBA), content specificity, event marketing, marketing communication, brand clues, servicescapes, and destination management. BP, defined as human-like brand traits, differentiates and influences consumer choices by strengthening brand associations and perceived value, thus shaping BE in tourism and hospitality (Kusumawati et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2021b). In creative MICE tourism, destination brand elements and associated DBA exert a positive direct effect on DBE that subsequently contribute to brand equity (Kim et al., 2022). In online destination marketing, content specificity, such as minority-language text elements, evoked emotional brand experiences, improving destination image and media engagement (Lonardi et al., 2024). In restaurant, event marketing, marketing communication, and brand clues significantly shape BE by facilitating avenues of direct interactions, sensory impressions, and communicative brand touchpoints (Khan & Fatma, 2017). In hospitality, servicescape elements trigger customer mindfulness and enhance BE (Ben Haobin et al., 2021). Finally, visitor-centric destination management, rooted in the stakeholder theory, boosts all dimensions of DBE (Cavdar Aksoy & Yazici, 2023).

#### 2.2.1.4 Interactional/Relational Antecedents

Several relational antecedents, such as consumer engagement (CE), customer value co-creation (CVC), customer-to-customer (Cu2Cu) and customer-to-companion (Cu2Co) interaction quality, and customer-perceived relationship marketing (CPRM), drive BE in tourism. CVC, based on service-dominant logic (SDL), creates value through collaborative consumer-service provider interactions across tourism touchpoints, influencing BE (Satar et al., 2023; Shoukat & Ramkissoon, 2022). From a on the CE theoretical lens, CVC highlights the differentiated effects of the DART (dialogue, access, risk assessment, and transparency) elements on BE. Dialogue, access, and transparency strengthen BE, whereas risk assessment weakens it, due to vulnerabilities in tourists' perceptions arising from uncertain travel conditions (Oklevik et al., 2022). Beyond

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the theoretical perspective, CE, defined as cognitive, emotional and behavioural responses to brand interactions, also drives BE within SDL-based frameworks (Rather, 2020; Rather et al., 2022; Rather & Hollebeek, 2021; Satar et al., 2023). Incorporating the social exchange theory and value co-creation principles, Lin & Wong (2020) found that Cu2Cu and Cu2Co interactions also shape BE in a triadic model with employee-to-customer interactions moderating the relationship. As marketing emphasises relationship building, CPRM is key for BE as it enables customers to evaluate relationship marketing strategies that enhances their satisfaction and spending behaviour (Rezaei et al., 2017).

**2.2.1.5 Technology-based antecedents**

Technology-based antecedents identified include *online experience* and *technology-mediated preview modes*. Online experiences, shaped by interactions with digital platforms offering hotel and destination information, significantly influence offline tourist experiences (García et al., 2018). As preview interactivity progressed from static images and 360° website tours to virtual reality (VR), tourism experiences became increasingly immersive, highlighting that secondary stimuli, such as immersive VR, can significantly enhance BE without direct brand interaction (Bogicevic et al., 2019).

**2.2.2 Dimensionality of DBE**

DBE is a multidimensional construct encompassing sensory, affective, cognitive, and behavioural experiences (Barnes et al., 2014; Kumar & Kaushik, 2018). The sensory dimension captures multisensory perceptions evoked by distinctive destination sensescapes such as landscapes, products, and services that create unique and memorable experiences (Barnes et al., 2014; Ngwira et al., 2023). The affective dimension reflects emotional connections that influence attachment to destinations, producing intense subjective experiences (Barnes et al., 2014; Brakus et al., 2009; Kumar & Kaushik, 2018; Ngwira et al., 2023). The cognitive dimension involves mental activities such as curiosity and problem-solving through which individuals process external environmental stimuli based and form judgments about the destination (Barnes et al., 2014; Beckman et al., 2013). The behavioural dimension refers to tourists' physical actions that express active lifestyles and self-expression by engaging the senses, promoting health, or connecting with nature (Brakus et al., 2009; Ngwira et al., 2023).

Recent scholarship has expanded DBE's dimensions. Jiménez-Barreto et al. (2019) introduced social and interactive dimensions for online destination platforms. Social ODBE emphasises the extent of user-destination communication and a sense of community, while interactive ODBE, measures the platform's ability to enable users to create and share content, promoting co-creation (Jiménez-Barreto, Sthapit, et al., 2019). Nonetheless, the foundational four dimensions remain central to destination branding (Lin et al., 2024). Additionally, Ngwira et al. (2023) proposed spiritual and relational dimensions, with the former reflecting connectedness to natural or cultural environments, and the latter focussing on interactions with locals, fellow travellers, or service providers, fostering community and social identity that enrich tourism experiences.

**2.2.3 Outcomes**

Outcomes materialise as consequences of decisions based on their assessments (Lim & Rasul, 2022). The current study revealed behavioural, cognitive, affective, and relational outcomes of DBE as presented in Table 3.

**2.2.3.1 Behavioural outcomes**

Multiple behavioural outcomes were identified. Loyalty, consumer's commitment to repurchase a brand, appeared in 12 articles. While most studies examined loyalty as a single construct, few explored its multi-dimensionality. These included purchase and attitudinal loyalty (Khan & Fatma, 2017), revisit and recommendation intentions (Chen & Wu, 2022), willingness to pay more, word-of-mouth (WOM), and repurchase intention (Ong et al., 2018).

WOM (n=8), particularly in its positive form, was studied both in-person and digital contexts. Going beyond WOM, destination advocacy (DA), reflecting tourists' deeper bond through active promotion of a destination, is influenced by affective and intellectual BE (Srivastava et al., 2022).

Additional behavioural outcomes include visit intentions (n=4), revisit intentions (n=7), recommendation intentions (n=5), purchase intentions (n=1), repurchase intentions (n=1), general behavioural intentions (n=6), destination boycott intentions (n=1), and destination evangelism (n=1). Lastly, pro-environmental intention, driven by customer inspiration, and continuous online watching intention, enhanced by multisensory stimulation and short-form travel videos, are also influenced by BE (Kwon & Boger, 2021; Li et al., 2023).

**2.2.3.2 Cognitive Outcomes**

The analysis reveals several cognitive outcomes of DBE. Trust, shaped by perceptions of brand reliability and responsibility, was widely studied (n=7). Torres-Moraga & Barra (2023) highlighted the DBE-trust relationship is mediated by trustworthiness. Attitude (n=3), defined as consumers' evaluations during brand interactions, was explored in both offline and online settings. Customer-perceived value exhibited multi-

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dimensionality across financial, functional, social, individual, and wellness aspects (Ahn & Back, 2019; Weidmann et al., 2018). BE enhances brand positioning in upscale hotels and fosters competitive differentiation in destinations (S. Lin et al., 2024; Liu & Hu, 2022a, 2022b). Similarly, in destinations, BE also fosters competitive differentiation through precise positioning (S. Lin et al., 2024). In online contexts, emotional BE shapes destination brand image by influencing tourists' cognitive perceptions (Lonardi et al., 2024). Other identified cognitive outcomes include brand prestige, brand identification, brand distinctiveness, sports event image, perceptions of destination sustainability, and perceived risk during pandemics (Table 3).

**2.2.3.3 Affective Outcomes**

Satisfaction (n=7), the assessment of post-consumption experience based on expected versus actual performance (Khan & Fatma, 2017), appeared as an affective outcome. Brand attachment (BA) (n=7), an emotional bond between consumer and brand, was a prominent affective outcome. It also exhibited multidimensionality, comprising brand affection, brand passion, and brand connection (Huaman-Ramirez & Merunka, 2019). Moreover, BE from brand-related stimuli evoked emotional responses that foster long-term affective commitment (n=2). Finally, sensory and affective DBE improved subjective well-being (SWB) (n=1) among highly engaged tourists (So et al., 2024).

**2.2.3.4 Relational Outcomes**

Brand equity (n=9), the additional marketing value derived from brand association, was a prominent relational outcome, conceptualised in single and multi-dimensional forms. Moreover, consistent positive BE, including consumer expression through social media brand communities, strengthened long-term relationships and enhanced brand relationship quality (Touni et al., 2020). Finally, sensory, affective, and intellectual BE facilitated on digital platforms drive perceived service quality in tourism destinations, supporting visit intentions (Liébana-cabanillas et al., 2025).

All identified antecedents and outcomes are presented in Table 4.

**Table 3: Antecedents and Outcomes**

| **Antecedents** | | **Outcomes** | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Category** | **Name** | **Category** | **Name** |
| Motivational Antecedents | Tourist attractions (Rini et al., 2024); Sensory Stimuli (Li et al., 2023; Moreira et al., 2017); Brand authenticity (Zhang et al., 2021a) | Behavioural outcomes | Loyalty (A. H. Chen & Wu, 2022; Ding & Tseng, 2015; Khan, Hollebeek, et al., 2020; Khan & Fatma, 2017; V. Kumar & Kaushik, 2018; Liu & Hu, 2022b; Manthiou et al., 2016; Ong et al., 2018; Rini et al., 2024; Srivastava et al., 2022; Yadav et al., 2023; Yu et al., 2024); WOM (Beckman et al., 2013; Gómez-Suárez & Yagüe, 2021; Khan & Fatma, 2017, 2021; Nukhu & Singh, 2024; Yadav et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2021b, 2021a); Destination Advocacy (Srivastava et al., 2022); Visit intentions (Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, et al., 2019; Li et al., 2023; S. Lin et al., 2024; Pu et al., 2024); Revisit intentions (Barnes et al., 2014; Beckman et al., 2013; H. Chen et al., 2022; Kong et al., 2024; Kusumawati et al., 2023; Martins et al., 2021; Rather et al., 2022); Recommendation intention (Barnes et al., 2014; H. Chen et al., 2022; Chiang & Chen, 2023; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, et al., 2019; Martins et al., 2021); Purchase intentions (Han et al., 2019; Moreira et al., 2017); Behavioural intention (Ahn & Back, 2018b; Y. C. Chen et al., 2018; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, & Campo, 2020; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, Campo, et al., 2020; Magnoni et al., 2021; Rather, 2020); Pro-environmental Intention (Kwon & Boger, 2021); Continuous online watching intention (Li et al., 2023); Destination evangelism |

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| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | | (Anubha, 2024); Destination boycott intentions (Shah et al., 2025) |
| Cognitive antecedents | Destination brand identity (Chiang & Chen, 2023); Brand reputation (Ahn & Back, 2018b); Self-Congruity, Self-Expression (Guo & Hsu, 2023; Rini et al., 2024); Perceived brand innovativeness, Perceived green image (Nysveen et al., 2018); Perceived destination website quality (Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, et al., 2019) | Cognitive Outcomes | Trust (Dandis et al., 2023; Kang et al., 2017; Khan & Fatma, 2017; V. Kumar & Kaushik, 2018; Srivastava et al., 2022; E. Torres-Moraga & Barra, 2023; W. Xu et al., 2022); Attitude (Gómez-Suárez & Yagüe, 2021; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, et al., 2019; Khan & Fatma, 2017); Perceived value (Ahn & Back, 2019; Wiedmann et al., 2018); Brand Positioning (S. Lin et al., 2024; Liu & Hu, 2022a, 2022b), Destination brand image (Lonardi et al., 2024); Brand Prestige (Choi et al., 2017); Brand identification (Guo & Hsu, 2023; Rather et al., 2020); Brand distinctiveness (Kang et al., 2020); Sustainability perceptions (E. I. Torres-Moraga et al., 2021); Sports event images (Girish & Lee, 2019); Perceived risk (Kusumawati et al., 2023) |
| Brand-related antecedents | Brand personality (Kusumawati et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2021b); Destination brand, Destination brand awareness (Kim et al., 2022); Content specificity (Lonardi et al., 2024); Event marketing, Brand clues, Marketing communication (Khan & Fatma, 2017); Servicescapes (Ben Haobin et al., 2021); Destination management (Cavdar Aksoy & Yazici, 2023) | Affective Outcomes | Satisfaction (Cavdar Aksoy & Yazici, 2023; Dandis et al., 2023; Khan & Fatma, 2017; Ngwira et al., 2023; Nysveen et al., 2018; Oklevik et al., 2022; Rezaei et al., 2017); Brand attachment (Guo & Hsu, 2023; Huaman-Ramirez & Merunka, 2019; Kang et al., 2020; Z. (CJ) Lin & Wong, 2020; Satar et al., 2023; Shang et al., 2020; W. Xu et al., 2022); Affective commitment (Dandis et al., 2023; Khan & Fatma, 2021); Subjective well-being (Ahn et al., 2019; Barnes et al., 2014; So et al., 2024) |
| Interactional / relational antecedents | Value co-creation (Oklevik et al., 2022; Satar et al., 2023; Shoukat & Ramkissoon, 2022); Consumer engagement (Rather, 2020; Rather et al., 2022; Rather & Hollebeek, 2021; Satar et al., 2023); Customer-to-customer and Customer-to-companion interaction quality (Lin & Wong, 2020); Customer perceived relationship marketing (Rezaei et al., 2017) | Relational outcomes | Brand equity (Ding & Tseng, 2015; Farzin et al., 2023; García et al., 2018; Gómez-Suárez & Yagüe, 2021; Kim et al., 2022; Moreira et al., 2017; Rahman et al., 2021; Satar et al., 2023; Shizhen et al., 2025); brand relationship quality (Touni et al., 2020); service quality (Liébana-cabanillas et al., 2025) |
| Technology based antecedents | Online experience (García et al., 2018); Preview modes (Bogicevic et al., 2019) | | |

### 2.2.4 Mediators

The SLR reveals several mediators that influence associations between antecedents, DBE, and outcomes. Contextual differences also lead to identifying a few antecedents and outcomes as mediators.

#### 2.2.4.1 Mediators connecting experience and its outcomes

Satisfaction (n=5) mediates BE's effect on revisit, recommendation, repurchase intentions and loyalty (Barnes et al., 2014; A. H. Chen & Wu, 2022; Han et al., 2019; Martins et al., 2021). BE also influence well-being through autonomy, competence, and relatedness dimensions of needs satisfaction (Ahn et al., 2019). Utilitarian perceived value (n=1), formed by high-quality BE mediates repurchase intentions (Han et al., 2019). In heritage

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destinations, brand image (n=1) is a stronger mediator than satisfaction (A. H. Chen & Wu, 2022), while heritage destination loyalty (n=1) mediates BE's relationship with brand equity (Rahman et al., 2021).

Place dependence, shaped by emotional bonds, mediates BE's effect on WOM and revisit intentions for both locals and tourists (Beckman et al., 2013). Deep social and environmental bonds foster place brand equity and attachment, that serially mediate BE's relationship with intention to stay (Magnoni et al., 2021). Furthermore, hedonic emotion substantially mediate BE-loyalty relationships compared to cognitive brand equity dimensions (Ding & Tseng, 2015). Similarly, positive emotions arising from positive DBE also mediate DBE-destination brand equity relationship (Shizhen et al., 2025).

In hospitality, brand attachment and brand knowledge (n=1) mediate the influence of positive experiences in the formation of brand trust and loyalty (Kang et al., 2017; Manthiou et al., 2016). Brand identification (n=2) links BE to WOM in heritage restaurants (Zhang et al., 2021a) and mediates trust and loyalty in tourist destinations (Kumar & Kaushik, 2018). Moreover, perceived credibility (n=2) of digital sources and destination brand credibility also mediate BE's effect on behavioural intentions and brand equity (Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, Campo, et al., 2020; Shizhen et al., 2025).

In theme parks, self-congruity triggered by autotelic experiences fosters flow and brand commitment, collectively mediating BE and visitor engagement (Fu et al., 2020). The trans-interactive nature of BE fosters brand loyalty mediated by brand commitment and ex-ante interactional brand trust (Khan, Hollebeek, et al., 2020). Brand trust also mediates positive experiences and brand attachment (Huaman-Ramirez & Merunka, 2019), while trustworthiness links sensory and affective experiences with trust (E. Torres-Moraga & Barra, 2023). Customer engagement mediates BE's effect on subjective well-being relationship (So et al., 2024) and brand relationship quality (BRQ) (Touni et al., 2020). However, BRQ also mediates BE's impact on tourist citizenship behaviours (Tang et al., 2023).

Several studies highlighted brand authenticity (n=4) as a mediator between experience and place attachment, brand loyalty, affective commitment, WOM, and behavioural intentions. Other identified mediators include customer inspiration (n=2), food attitude (n=1), nation brand love (n=1), arousal and memorable tourism experience (n=1) and perceived environmental sustainability (n=1), linking BE to behavioural outcomes like pro-environmental intention, travel intention, brand loyalty, WOM, destination evangelism, and revisit intention. Finally, in negative online DBE, tourists' animosity mediated the formation of destination boycott intentions (Shah et al., 2025).

#### 2.2.4.2 Mediators connecting experience and its antecedents

Virtual environments in hospitality influence BE through mental imagery and a sense of presence (Bogicevic et al., 2019). In heritage catering brands, customer interest awakened through historical value mediates authenticity and BE, while in internet-celebrity restaurants, perceived coolness, mediates brand personality and BE (Zhang et al., 2021a, 2021b). Mindfulness, shaped by interactions with physical environments and service employees, strengthens BE in hospitality (Ben Haobin et al., 2021). Finally, self-expansion mediates self-congruity and BE when destination brands align with tourists' identities (Guo & Hsu, 2023).

### 2.2.5 Moderators

Moderators influence the strength of relationships between DBE, its antecedents, and outcomes. Multiple studies identified sociodemographic moderators such as age, gender, education, generational profile (millennial/non-millennial), and income. Contextual moderators such as prior destination experience (n=3), service type (hedonic versus utilitarian) (n=1), integrated resort type (n=1), type of official destination platforms (n=1) were also identified.

Moderators between antecedents and DBE include length of stay, which enhances mindfulness's effect on DBE (Haobin et al., 2021), creative performance, which strengthens authenticity's influence (Zhang et al., 2021a), and employee-to-customer interactions (Lin & Wong, 2020).

Multiple moderators affect DBE's relationship with outcomes. These include customer service expertise (Ahn & Back, 2019), switching costs (Han et al., 2019), and food quality (Zhang et al., 2021b), which strengthen links to loyalty, satisfaction, and revisit intentions, respectively. Cultural, psychological and behavioural moderators include cultural proximity (Zhang et al., 2021a), cultural orientation (Khan & Fatma, 2021), customer involvement (Rather et al., 2022), perceived severity and self-efficacy (Satar et al., 2023), satisfaction (Nukhu & Singh, 2024), subjective knowledge (Pu et al., 2024) and trust and loyalty (Srivastava et al., 2022).

All identified mediators and moderators are presented in Table 4.

Based on the results obtained from the SLR, an integrative framework is presented in Fig. 3.

**Table 4: Mediators and Moderators**

| Category | Name | Category | Name |
|---|---|---|---|

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| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Mediators (between BE and outcomes) | Satisfaction (Ahn et al., 2019; Barnes et al., 2014; A. H. Chen & Wu, 2022; Han et al., 2019; Martins et al., 2021); perceived value (Han et al., 2019); brand image (A. H. Chen & Wu, 2022); destination loyalty (Rahman et al., 2021); place dependence (Beckman et al., 2013); place brand equity (Magnoni et al., 2021); attachment (Kang et al., 2017; Magnoni et al., 2021); emotions (Ding & Tseng, 2015; Shizhen et al., 2025); brand knowledge (Kang et al., 2017; Manthiou et al., 2016); brand identification (V. Kumar & Kaushik, 2018; Zhang et al., 2021a); credibility (Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, Campo, et al., 2020; Shizhen et al., 2025); self-congruity, flow (Fu et al., 2020), brand commitment (Fu et al., 2020; Khan, Hollebeek, et al., 2020), trust (Huaman-Ramirez & Merunka, 2019; Khan, Hollebeek, et al., 2020); trustworthiness (E. Torres-Moraga & Barra, 2023); customer engagement (So et al., 2024; Touni et al., 2020); brand relationship quality (Tang et al., 2023); brand authenticity (Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, & Campo, 2020; Khan & Fatma, 2021; Shang et al., 2020; Yu et al., 2024); customer inspiration (Anubha, 2024; Kwon & Boger, 2021), food attitude (Pu et al., 2024), nation brand love (Yadav et al., 2023), arousal, memorable tourism experience (Kong et al., 2024); perceived environmental sustainability (Nukhu & Singh, 2024); tourists' animosity (Shah et al., 2025) | Mediators (between antecedents and BE) | mental imagery, sense of presence (Bogicevic et al., 2019); customer interest (Zhang et al., 2021a), perceived coolness (Zhang et al., 2021b); mindfulness (Ben Haobin et al., 2021); self-expansion (Guo & Hsu, 2023) |
| Moderators (between BE and outcomes) | length of stay (Ben Haobin et al., 2021); creative performance (Zhang et al., 2021a); employee-to-customer interactions (Z. (CJ) Lin & Wong, 2020) | Moderators (between antecedents and BE) | customer service expertise (Ahn & Back, 2019), switching costs (Han et al., 2019), food quality (Zhang et al., 2021b); cultural orientation (Khan & Fatma, 2021), customer involvement (Rather et al., 2022), perceived severity and self-efficacy (Satar et al., 2023), satisfaction (Nukhu & Singh, 2024), subjective knowledge (Pu et al., 2024); trust and loyalty (Srivastava et al., 2022) |
| Other moderators | Sociodemographic Moderators | Age, gender, education, generational profile (millennial/ non-millennial), income (Ahn & Back, 2018a; Y. C. Chen et al., 2018; Huaman-Ramirez & Merunka, 2019; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, et al., 2019; Rather & Hollebeek, 2021; Wiedmann et al., 2018) | |

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| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | Contextual Moderators | Prior destination experience (Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, Campo, et al., 2020; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, et al., 2019; Shah et al., 2025); service type (hedonic vs. utilitarian) (Oklevik et al., 2022); integrated resort type (Xu et al., 2022); type of official destination platforms (Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, & Campo, 2020) |

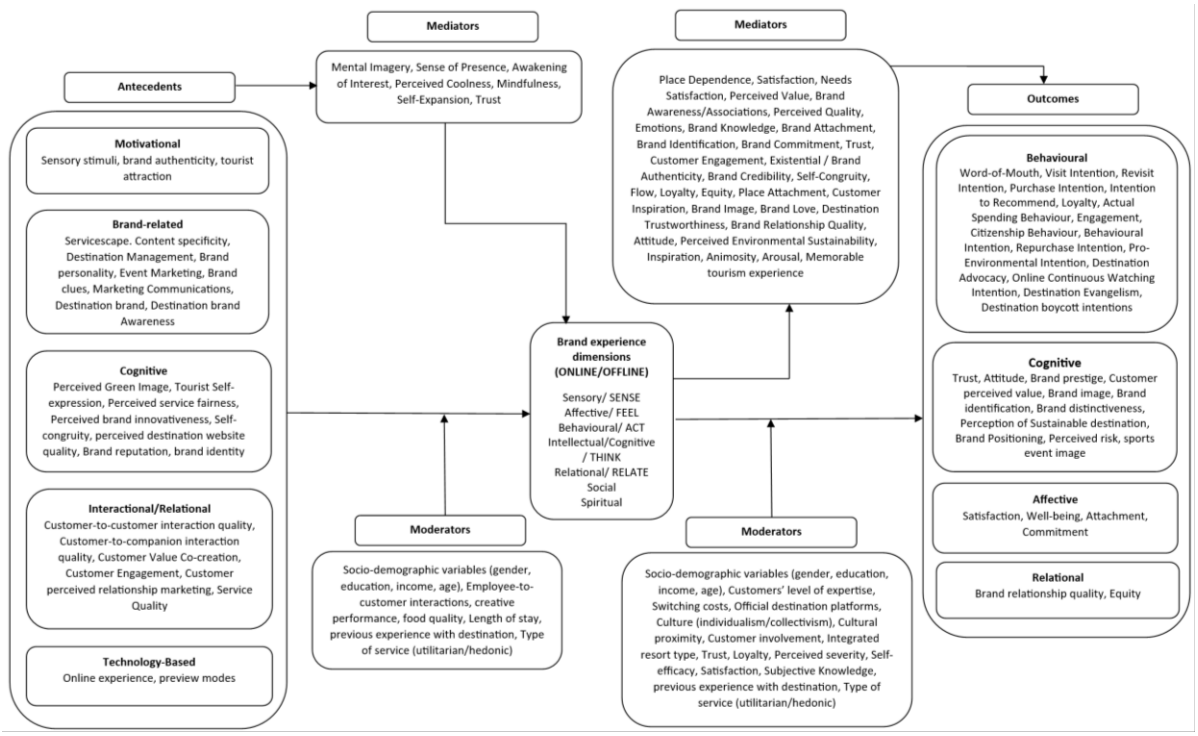



**Figure 3: Integrative/Conceptual framework of Destination Brand Experience**

## 2.3 RQ2: How is Destination Brand Experience known?

### 2.3.1 Theories

Theoretical frameworks explain interactions between constructs (Lim et al., 2021). DBE is primarily grounded on Brakus et al. (2009).

The Stimulus-Organism-Response (S-O-R) theory received the highest number of citations (n=13). Applied in both pre- and post-consumption contexts, studies emphasised how positive BE drives cognitive and affective consumer responses (Anubha, 2024; Farzin et al., 2023; Kwon & Boger, 2021; Nukhu & Singh, 2024; So et al., 2024; Tang et al., 2023). Researchers also examined how environmental stimuli shaped experiences as cognitive (Ahn & Back, 2018b; Zhang et al., 2021a) or behavioural responses (Ben Haobin et al., 2021).

Social identity theory (SIT) and attachment theory (AT) were cited in 5 articles. In tourism, SIT posits that individuals experiencing positive psychological associations identify more with a destination brand (V. Kumar & Kaushik, 2018; Rather et al., 2020). AT examines how emotional connections influence consumer behaviour. In tourism, attachment forms through continuous brand interactions, strengthening consumer-brand relationships (Guo & Hsu, 2023; Huaman-Ramirez & Merunka, 2019).

Sensations-perceptions theory (SPT) (n=4) explains how sensory stimuli trigger cognitive interpretations and behaviours (Khan & Fatma, 2021). In digital tourism, SPT highlights how multimedia content on destination platforms enhances brand authenticity and credibility thus affecting behavioural responses (Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, & Campo, 2020; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, Campo, et al., 2020).

Other influential theories include social exchange theory, service-dominant logic, self-congruity theory, theory of planned behaviour, SERVQUAL, relationship marketing theory, self-expansion theory and customer inspiration framework.

All identified theories addressing experience and related constructs are presented in Table 5. Notably, 36 studies lacked theoretical grounding.

**Table 5: Theories applied in DBE research**

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| **Theory (Authors)** | **No. of articles** |
|---|---|
| S-O-R Theory (Ahn & Back, 2018b; Anubha, 2024; Ben Haobin et al., 2021; Farzin et al., 2023; Gómez-Suárez & Yagüe, 2021; Kong et al., 2024; Kwon & Boger, 2021; Nukhu & Singh, 2024; Shah et al., 2025; Shizhen et al., 2025; So et al., 2024; Tang et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2021a) | 13 |
| Attachment Theory (Guo & Hsu, 2023; Huaman-Ramirez & Merunka, 2019; Kang et al., 2017, 2020; Shoukat & Ramkissoon, 2022) | 5 |
| Social Identity Theory (X. Chen et al., 2025; Guo & Hsu, 2023; V. Kumar & Kaushik, 2018; Magnoni et al., 2021; Rather, 2020; Rather et al., 2020) | 5 |
| Sensations-Perceptions Theory (Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, & Campo, 2020; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, Campo, et al., 2020; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, et al., 2019; Khan & Fatma, 2021) | 4 |
| Social Exchange Theory (Cavdar Aksoy & Yazici, 2023; Z. (CJ) Lin & Wong, 2020; Rather, 2020; E. Torres-Moraga & Barra, 2023) | 3 |
| Service-Dominant Logic (Rather et al., 2022; Satar et al., 2023; Shoukat & Ramkissoon, 2022) | 3 |
| Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ahn & Back, 2019; Nukhu & Singh, 2024; Shoukat & Ramkissoon, 2022) | 3 |
| Self-Congruity Theory (Fu et al., 2020; Guo & Hsu, 2023) | 2 |
| SERVQUAL (García et al., 2018; Rezaei et al., 2017) | 2 |
| Relationship Marketing Theory (Dandis et al., 2023; Touni et al., 2020) | 2 |
| Customer Inspiration Framework (Gómez-Suárez & Yagüe, 2021; Kwon & Boger, 2021) | 2 |
| Self-Expansion Theory (X. Chen et al., 2025; Guo & Hsu, 2023) | 2 |
| Appraisal Theory of Emotion (Ding & Tseng, 2015) | 1 |
| Brand Signalling theory (Shizhen et al., 2025) | 1 |
| Experiential View of Consumption (Ding & Tseng, 2015) | 1 |
| Theory of Reasoned Action (Ahn & Back, 2018b) | 1 |
| Theory of Value Creation (Ong et al., 2018) | 1 |
| Constructive Theory of Attitude (Ahn & Back, 2019) | 1 |
| Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning (CTML) (Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, et al., 2019) | 1 |
| Self Determination Theory (Ahn et al., 2019) | 1 |
| Elaboration Likelihood Model of Persuasion (Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, Campo, et al., 2020) | 1 |
| Interactionist Based Theory (Shang et al., 2020) | 1 |
| Flow Theory (Fu et al., 2020) | 1 |
| Cognitive Appraisal Theory (Shoukat & Ramkissoon, 2022) | 1 |
| Schmitt's Five Module Theory (H. Chen et al., 2022) | 1 |
| Value Co-creation (Lin & Wong, 2020) | 1 |
| DART Model for Co-Creation (Oklevik et al., 2022) | 1 |
| Cognitive-Affective-Conative Model (Li et al., 2023) | 1 |
| Trust Formation Theory (E. Torres-Moraga & Barra, 2023) | 1 |
| Protection Motivation Theory (Satar et al., 2023) | 1 |
| Stakeholder Theory (Cavdar Aksoy & Yazici, 2023) | 1 |
| Learning By Doing (Nukhu & Singh, 2024) | 1 |
| Foreign Language Display Theory (Lonardi et al., 2024) | 1 |
| Choice Theory (Lonardi et al., 2024) | 1 |
| Legitimacy Theory (Rini et al., 2024) | 1 |
| Spillover Theory (Su et al., 2023) | 1 |
| Script Theory (Su et al., 2023) | 1 |
| No theories | 36 |

### 2.3.2 Contexts

Context refers to the environmental conditions in which the research was conducted. Therefore, this review considers industries and countries that have contributed to DBE research.

#### 2.3.2.1 Industry

A destination comprises multiple service industries, such as transportation, attractions, events, food, lodging, hospitality, and entertainment, which collectively model tourists' DBE (Bogicevic et al., 2019; Poon & Low,

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2005). Since DBE integrates culture, nature, services, and marketing communication (Calderón-Fajardo et al., 2024), this analysis examined its application across multiple industries within the tourist destination.

The analysis identified 38 articles on *tourism destinations*, of which 35 were published between 2020 and 2025. These studies concentrated on *cities* (Beckman et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2022; Kusumawati et al., 2023; Satar et al., 2023), *nation as a destination* (Yadav et al., 2023), *heritage sites* (Chen & Wu, 2022; Kim et al., 2022; Rahman et al., 2021), *food tourism* (Guo & Hsu, 2023; Pu et al., 2024), *slow tourism* (Shang et al., 2020) and *night tourism* (Kong et al., 2024).

12 articles published between 2019 and 2025 addressed online tourism destinations, emphasising digital experiences. *Armchair tourism* (Yu et al., 2024) emerged as a novel concept, in which virtual travellers experience destinations remotely. The *hotel and resort* sector accounted for 15 articles, including studies on green hotels (Kwon & Boger, 2021; Nysveen et al., 2018) and use of virtual reality in pre-consumption experiences (Bogicevic et al., 2019). The *restaurant and catering* sector included 12 publications, while other sectors included festivals *and events* (n=4), *cruise* (n=4), *transportation* (n=1), *theme park* (n=1), *casino* (n=1), while *online hotel/airline bookings* (n=1). 3 studies covered multiple sectors. Table 6 presents a detailed list of citations along with the industries.

**Table 6: Research Contexts (Industry)**

| **Industry** | **No. of articles** |
|---|---|
| Tourism Destinations (Anubha, 2024; Barnes et al., 2014; Beckman et al., 2013; Calderón-Fajardo et al., 2024; A. H. Chen & Wu, 2022; H. Chen et al., 2022; Z. Chen et al., 2024; Gómez-Suárez & Yagüe, 2021; Guo & Hsu, 2023; Kim et al., 2022; Kong et al., 2024; V. Kumar & Kaushik, 2018, 2020; Kusumawati et al., 2023; S. Lin et al., 2024; Magnoni et al., 2021; Martins et al., 2021; Ngwira et al., 2023; Nukhu & Singh, 2024; Pu et al., 2024; Rahman et al., 2021; Rather, 2020; Rather et al., 2020, 2022; Rather & Hollebeek, 2021; Rini et al., 2024; Satar et al., 2023; Shang et al., 2020; Shizhen et al., 2025; Shoukat & Ramkissoon, 2022; So et al., 2024; Srivastava et al., 2022; Su et al., 2023; Tang et al., 2023; E. Torres-Moraga & Barra, 2023; E. I. Torres-Moraga et al., 2021; Yadav et al., 2023; Zhu et al., 2024) | 38 |
| Online Platforms (Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, & Campo, 2020; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, Campo, et al., 2020; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, et al., 2019; Jiménez-Barreto, Sthapit, et al., 2019; Khan, Hollebeek, et al., 2020; Khan & Fatma, 2021; Köchling, 2021; Li et al., 2023; Liébana-cabanillas et al., 2025; Lonardi et al., 2024; Shah et al., 2025; Yu et al., 2024) | 12 |
| Hotel And Resorts (Ahn et al., 2019; Ahn & Back, 2018a; Ben Haobin et al., 2021; Bogicevic et al., 2019; García et al., 2018; Kang et al., 2017; Kwon & Boger, 2021; Liu & Hu, 2022b, 2022a; Manthiou et al., 2016; Nysveen et al., 2018; Rezaei et al., 2017; Touni et al., 2020; Wiedmann et al., 2018; W. Xu et al., 2022) | 15 |
| Restaurant And Catering (Choi et al., 2017; Dandis et al., 2023; Ding & Tseng, 2015; Farzin et al., 2023; Han et al., 2019; Huaman-Ramirez & Merunka, 2019; Khan & Fatma, 2017; Moreira et al., 2017; Oklevik et al., 2022; Ong et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2021a, 2021b) | 12 |
| Festivals And Events (Chen et al., 2018; Chiang & Chen, 2023; Girish & Lee, 2019; Gómez-Suárez & Yagüe, 2021) | 4 |
| Cruise (Ahn & Back, 2019; Kang et al., 2020) | 2 |
| Transportation (Huaman-Ramirez & Merunka, 2019) | 1 |
| Theme Park (Fu et al., 2020) | 1 |
| Casino (Z. (CJ) Lin & Wong, 2020) | 1 |
| Multiple sectors- Restaurant, hotel, travel (Huaman-Ramirez & Merunka, 2019); Hotel and restaurant (Oklevik et al., 2022) Online Hotel and Airline Bookings (Khan, Hollebeek, et al., 2020) | 3 |

**2.3.2.2 Country**

Table 7 presents the geographical coverage of the reviewed articles. Sample/respondent locations and first author locations (for articles not mentioning sample location) were considered to determine the country of study. Among the 27 countries identified, China, the USA and India accounted for 44.6% of the publications, followed by Spain, Taiwan, South Korea, Malaysia, and Italy. Asian countries contributed 40.7% of publications, underscoring BE's growing influence in the tourism domain. This growth is supported by government-backed nation-brand campaigns such as "Malaysia, Truly Asia" and "Incredible India" (Rather et

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al., 2020; Yadav et al., 2023). Only a few studies used multi-country samples to assess cross-cultural responses (Barnes et al., 2014; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, & Campo, 2020; Jiménez-Barreto, Sthapit, et al., 2019; Pu et al., 2024; E. I. Torres-Moraga et al., 2021).

**Table 7: Research Contexts (Country of Study)**

| Authors | Number |
|---|---|
| China (Ben Haobin et al., 2021; H. Chen et al., 2022; X. Chen et al., 2025; Z. Chen et al., 2024; Guo & Hsu, 2023; Li et al., 2023; S. Lin et al., 2024; Z. (CJ) Lin & Wong, 2020; Pu et al., 2024; Shang et al., 2020; Shizhen et al., 2025; Su et al., 2023; Tang et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2021a, 2021b; Zhu et al., 2024) | 16 |
| USA (Ahn & Back, 2018a, 2018b, 2019; Beckman et al., 2013; Bogicevic et al., 2019; Choi et al., 2017; Fu et al., 2020; Jiménez-Barreto, Sthapit, et al., 2019; Kang et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2022; Kwon & Boger, 2021; So et al., 2024; Touni et al., 2020) | 13 |
| India (Anubha, 2024; Khan & Fatma, 2017; V. Kumar & Kaushik, 2020, 2018; Nukhu & Singh, 2024; Rather, 2020; Rather et al., 2020, 2022; Rather & Hollebeek, 2021; Satar et al., 2023; Srivastava et al., 2022; Yadav et al., 2023) | 12 |
| Spain (García et al., 2018; Gómez-Suárez & Yagüe, 2021; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, & Campo, 2020; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, Campo, et al., 2020; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, et al., 2019; Jiménez-Barreto, Sthapit, et al., 2019; Liébana-cabanillas et al., 2025) | 7 |
| Taiwan (A. H. Chen & Wu, 2022; Y. C. Chen et al., 2018; Chiang & Chen, 2023; Ding & Tseng, 2015; Liu & Hu, 2022a, 2022b) | 6 |
| South Korea (Girish & Lee, 2019; Han et al., 2019; Kong et al., 2024; W. Xu et al., 2022; Yu et al., 2024) | 5 |
| Malaysia (Ahn et al., 2019; Kang et al., 2017; Manthiou et al., 2016; Ong et al., 2018) | 4 |
| Italy (Calderón-Fajardo et al., 2024; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, & Campo, 2020; Lonardi et al., 2024) | 3 |
| Chile (E. Torres-Moraga & Barra, 2023; E. I. Torres-Moraga et al., 2021) | 2 |
| Germany (Köchling, 2021; Wiedmann et al., 2018) | 2 |
| Iran (Farzin et al., 2023; Rezaei et al., 2017) | 2 |
| Norway (Nysveen et al., 2018; Oklevik et al., 2022) | 2 |
| Portugal (Martins et al., 2021; Moreira et al., 2017) | 2 |
| Saudi Arabia (Khan, Fatma, et al., 2020; Khan & Fatma, 2021) | 2 |
| Indonesia (Kusumawati et al., 2023; Rini et al., 2024) | 2 |
| Africa (Ngwira et al., 2023) | 1 |
| Australia (Pu et al., 2024) | 1 |
| Singapore (Pu et al., 2024) | 1 |
| Bangladesh (Rahman et al., 2021) | 1 |
| Denmark (Barnes et al., 2014) | 1 |
| Sweden (Barnes et al., 2014) | 1 |
| France (Magnoni et al., 2021) | 1 |
| Jordan (Dandis et al., 2023) | 1 |
| Peru (Huaman-Ramirez & Merunka, 2019) | 1 |
| Türkiye (Cavdar Aksoy & Yazici, 2023) | 1 |
| Ecuador (E. I. Torres-Moraga et al., 2021) | 1 |
| Pakistan (Shah et al., 2025) | 1 |

### 2.3.3 Methods

Following Çelik et al. (2023), the methodology component of the review was evaluated using three criteria: research approach, data collection process and analytical techniques (Table 8).

Most reviewed articles used quantitative methods, confirming earlier findings of limited qualitative research (Andreini et al., 2018; Khan & Rahman, 2015; Vlahovic-Mlakar & Ozretic-Dosen, 2022). However, Jiménez-Barreto, Sthapit, et al. (2019) undertook a qualitative approach and 7 articles used a mixed-methods approach. Additionally, Shoukat & Ramkissoon (2022) utilised a conceptual approach, 5 studies adopted experimental methods, and 6 used case studies. Notably, So et al. (2024) conducted a three-wave longitudinal design to examine the impact of tourist experiences on subject well-being in the context of consumer engagement.

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Regarding data collection, studies primarily relied on a single primary data source. However, 12 articles employed multiple data sources. Researchers often used self-administered surveys, both offline and online, sometimes via e-mail, WhatsApp, and Google Forms. 21 articles used professional online survey platforms, including MTurk, Qualtrics, Nortstat, SurveyMonkey, Clickworker, Sojump, Lime and Wen Juan Xing. 3 articles employed focus group discussions (Ding & Tseng, 2015; Jiménez-Barreto, Sthapit, et al., 2019; Rini et al., 2024), and Calderón-Fajardo et al. (2024) used web scraping to collect tourist reviews of DBE of Turin, Italy. Most studies used non-probability sampling.

For data analysis, 49 articles used covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM), and 26 articles applied partial least squares SEM (PLS-SEM). The growing interest in the latter stems from its flexibility with sample sizes, fewer sample distribution assumptions, greater ability to handle complex models, and simpler explanation of higher-order constructs (Kumar et al., 2023). Other methods included ANOVA (4), t-test (3), regression analysis (5), and ANCOVA (1). Calderón-Fajardo et al. (2024) employed data mining and machine learning for sentiment analysis, topic modelling, and classification of tourist reviews while analysing DBE.

**Table 8: Research Methods**

| **Methods** | | **Number (Authors)** |
|---|---|---|
| Research Approach | Qualitative | 1 (Jiménez-Barreto, Sthapit, et al., 2019) |
| | Mixed Method | 7 (Ahn & Back, 2018a; Anubha, 2024; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, Campo, et al., 2020; Köchling, 2021; Li et al., 2023; Ngwira et al., 2023; Rini et al., 2024) |
| | Experimental | 5 (Bogicevic et al., 2019; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, & Campo, 2020; Köchling, 2021; Lonardi et al., 2024; Shah et al., 2025) |
| | Case-study | 6 (Calderón-Fajardo et al., 2024; A. H. Chen & Wu, 2022; H. Chen et al., 2022; Liu & Hu, 2022a; Shang et al., 2020; W. Xu et al., 2022) |
| | Conceptual | 1 (Shoukat & Ramkissoon, 2022) |
| | Longitudinal | 1 (So et al., 2024) |
| Data Collection Technique | Online | 40 (Ahn et al., 2019; Ahn & Back, 2018b, 2018a, 2019; Calderón-Fajardo et al., 2024; Cavdar Aksoy & Yazici, 2023; H. Chen et al., 2022; X. Chen et al., 2025; Z. Chen et al., 2024; Choi et al., 2017; Dandis et al., 2023; Fu et al., 2020; Gómez-Suárez & Yagüe, 2021; Huaman-Ramirez & Merunka, 2019; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, & Campo, 2020; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, Campo, et al., 2020; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, et al., 2019; Jiménez-Barreto, Sthapit, et al., 2019; Kang et al., 2020; Khan, Hollebeek, et al., 2020; Khan & Fatma, 2021; Köchling, 2021; Kong et al., 2024; Kusumawati et al., 2023; Kwon & Boger, 2021; S. Lin et al., 2024; Lonardi et al., 2024; Magnoni et al., 2021; Moreira et al., 2017; Nysveen et al., 2018; Pu et al., 2024; Rini et al., 2024; Shah et al., 2025; So et al., 2024; Tang et al., 2023; E. I. Torres-Moraga et al., 2021; Touni et al., 2020; Wiedmann et al., 2018; W. Xu et al., 2022; Yu et al., 2024) |
| | Online and Offline | 2 (Guo & Hsu, 2023; Shizhen et al., 2025) |
| | Multiple data source | 12 (Barnes et al., 2014; Beckman et al., 2013; Bogicevic et al., 2019; Gómez-Suárez & Yagüe, 2021; Huaman-Ramirez & Merunka, 2019; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, & Campo, 2020; Li et al., 2023; Lonardi et al., 2024; Nukhu & Singh, 2024; Pu et al., 2024; Rahman et al., 2021; E. Torres-Moraga & Barra, 2023) |
| | Survey Platforms | 21(Ahn et al., 2019; Ahn & Back, 2018a, 2018b, 2019; Cavdar Aksoy & Yazici, 2023; X. Chen et al., 2025; Guo & Hsu, 2023; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, & Campo, 2020; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, Campo, et al., 2020; Jiménez-Barreto, Sthapit, et al., 2019; Kang et al., 2020; Köchling, 2021; Kwon & Boger, 2021; S. Lin et al., 2024; Lonardi et al., 2024; Magnoni et al., 2021; Pu et al., 2024; Shah et al., 2025; So et al., 2024; Tang et al., 2023; E. I. Torres-Moraga et al., 2021) |

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| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Data Analysis Technique | CB-SEM | 49 (Anubha, 2024; Beckman et al., 2013; A. H. Chen & Wu, 2022; X. Chen et al., 2025; Y. C. Chen et al., 2018; Chiang & Chen, 2023; Choi et al., 2017; Ding & Tseng, 2015; Fu et al., 2020; García et al., 2018; Girish & Lee, 2019; Gómez-Suárez & Yagüe, 2021; Han et al., 2019; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, & Campo, 2020; Kang et al., 2017, 2020; Khan, Hollebeek, et al., 2020; Khan & Fatma, 2021; Kim et al., 2022; Kong et al., 2024; V. Kumar & Kaushik, 2018, 2020; S. Lin et al., 2024; Z. (CJ) Lin & Wong, 2020; Liu & Hu, 2022b, 2022a; Magnoni et al., 2021; Manthiou et al., 2016; Martins et al., 2021; Ngwira et al., 2023; Nukhu & Singh, 2024; Nysveen et al., 2018; Oklevik et al., 2022; Rahman et al., 2021; Rather, 2020; Rather et al., 2020; Rather & Hollebeek, 2021; Shah et al., 2025; Shang et al., 2020; Shizhen et al., 2025; So et al., 2024; Srivastava et al., 2022; Tang et al., 2023; E. Torres-Moraga & Barra, 2023; Touni et al., 2020; Yadav et al., 2023; Yu et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2021b, 2021a) |
| | PLS-SEM | 26 (Ahn et al., 2019; Ahn & Back, 2018a, 2019; Barnes et al., 2014; Ben Haobin et al., 2021; Cavdar Aksoy & Yazici, 2023; Dandis et al., 2023; Farzin et al., 2023; Guo & Hsu, 2023; Huaman-Ramirez & Merunka, 2019; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, & Campo, 2020; Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, et al., 2019; Kusumawati et al., 2023; Kwon & Boger, 2021; Li et al., 2023; Liébana-cabanillas et al., 2025; Moreira et al., 2017; Ong et al., 2018; Rather et al., 2022; Rezaei et al., 2017; Rini et al., 2024; Satar et al., 2023; Su et al., 2023; E. I. Torres-Moraga et al., 2021; Wiedmann et al., 2018) |
| | ANOVA | 4 (Bogicevic et al., 2019; Y. C. Chen et al., 2018; Lonardi et al., 2024; Wiedmann et al., 2018) |
| | t-test | 3 (Y. C. Chen et al., 2018; Rather, 2020; Rather et al., 2022) |
| | Regression | 5 (Ahn & Back, 2018b; S. Lin et al., 2024; Ngwira et al., 2023; Pu et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2021a) |
| | ANCOVA | 1 (Köchling, 2021) |
| | Machine Learning | 1 (Calderón-Fajardo et al., 2024) |

## 3. DISCUSSION

Based on the results, this section deals with "RQ3: Where should DBE studies be headed?" by revealing gaps in the literature and outlining a future research agenda based on Paul & Rosado-Serrano's (2019) TCCM approach.

### 3.1 Theories

Multiple theory integration in DBE literature was scarce (Ahn & Back, 2019; Ding & Tseng, 2015; Lonardi et al., 2024; Satar et al., 2023; Su et al., 2023), despite multi-theory approaches generating deeper understanding of complex phenomena (Lim & Rasul, 2022). Moreover, the results indicate that most theories appeared only once (Table 5). Hence, future studies should prioritise multi-theory integration and employ underutilised theories in the literature to gain valuable insights into DBE. For example, integrating SOR with cognitive appraisal theory could elucidate how tourists' cognitive evaluations of destination stimuli trigger emotional responses leading to behavioural outcomes.

Additionally, integrating positive psychology theories, such as broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2004), may reveal how DBE-induced positive emotions expand tourists' cognitive and emotional perspectives, thereby enhancing well-being, which in turn influences revisit intentions and evangelical behaviour. Furthermore, as global reach of destinations increases, exploring popular cultural theories by Hofstede (2003), Schwartz (1992), and Trompenaars (1993) may clarify how cultural differences shape DBE. In digital contexts, CTML may explain how multimedia elements in VR or armchair tourism affect cognitive processes that activate DBE.

### 3.2 Contexts

Although *destination types* offer distinct attractions, research on DBE remains context-bound, with limited cross-destination comparison to achieve generalisability, highlighting the need to explore how DBE manifests across diverse destinations (Li et al., 2023; Srivastava et al., 2022; E. I. Torres-Moraga et al., 2021). For instance, comparing DBE across heritage, cultural, beach, mountain, eco, slow, creative, rural, or culinary

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tourism destinations (A. H. Chen & Wu, 2022; Tiwari et al., 2023; E. I. Torres-Moraga et al., 2021) could provide nuanced insights into how DBE dimensions influence downstream outcomes. Also, examining DBE in newly designated UNESCO World Heritage Sites (Adjiwanou, 2024) could yield novel insights into tourist-brand interactions in these unique spaces. Future research should also assess how adverse global events (e.g., pandemic or wartime contexts) affect tourists' DBE, as this can offer opportunities for improvement and adaptability for destination marketers and service providers. Finally, future research should examine how AI-based applications, such as personalisation tools, chatbots, and recommender systems, shape DBE and subsequent tourists' levels of satisfaction and visit or revisit intentions.

**3.3 Characteristics (Dimensions of DBE)**

Existing DBE research adopted a unified approach, overlooking the individual effects of each dimension on tourist outcomes. Addressing this gap requires a granular perspective to examine the inter-relations between specific dimensions and their influence on tourist responses (Khan & Fatma, 2021; Shizhen et al., 2025; Su et al., 2023). For instance, findings shows that sensory DBE, triggered by website stimuli, influences cognitive DBE (Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, et al., 2019). Building on this, future research should extend investigation to emotional and behavioural DBE, as well as the extended dimensions- relational and spiritual DBE- in a similar manner (S. Lin et al., 2024; Ngwira et al., 2023). Examining their interactions and causal influence with constructs in the integrative framework may offer deeper theoretical and practical insights.

**3.4 Characteristics (Antecedents and Outcomes of DBE)**

Table 3 revealed that a significant portion of the antecedents were underexplored, with many appearing only once in the literature (Bogicevic et al., 2019; Calderón-Fajardo et al., 2024; Khan & Rahman, 2015). For instance, antecedents such as host-tourist relationships, DART elements of co-creation, consumer involvement, and customer participation can strongly influence DBE by shaping the initial consumer-brand interactions (Ngwira et al., 2023; Oklevik et al., 2022; Satar et al., 2023). Furthermore, to represent the different stages of the customer journey, future research should examine both immediate and long-term outcomes of DBE, such as place attachment, destination competitiveness, well-being, and brand advocacy (Ahn et al., 2019; Cavdar Aksoy & Yazici, 2023; Magnoni et al., 2021; Ngwira et al., 2023; Shang et al., 2020; Srivastava et al., 2022; Su et al., 2023). Studies should assess the impact of DBE on brand evangelism, a deeper commitment than brand advocacy, where consumers actively proselytise a brand (Jam et al., 2025; Kang et al., 2020). With growing sustainable tourism, exploring the influence of DBE on tourists' perceptions of sustainability, through antecedents such as destination familiarity and destination reputation, may strengthen tourist-destination relationships (E. I. Torres-Moraga et al., 2021). Finally, it is necessary to investigate how negative onsite DBE drives adverse emotions or negative brand relationships, such as brand hate or avoidance, as these responses are highly memorable and psychologically impactful (Huaman-Ramirez & Merunka, 2019; Satar et al., 2023; Shah et al., 2025).

**3.5 Characteristics (Moderators and Mediators of DBE)**

The current literature emphasises demographic moderators, but factors such as duration of stay, past destination experience, involvement, trust, loyalty, and satisfaction are understudied (Table 4). Prior research reported a positive impact of sensory and affective DBE on affective and behavioural outcomes (Ahn & Back, 2019; Barnes et al., 2014; Chiang & Chen, 2023; Girish & Lee, 2019; So et al., 2024). Introducing moderators such as cultural context or personality traits into this relationship may yield contrasting effects for domestic versus international tourists (Dandis et al., 2023; Khan & Fatma, 2021; S. Lin et al., 2024; So et al., 2024). Future researchers should examine whether repeat visitation moderates DBE's effect on long-term brand relationships. For instance, brand passion, brand attachment, and brand love may build over repeated experiences (Ding & Tseng, 2015; Rather & Hollebeek, 2021; Satar et al., 2023). Similarly, whether repeated visitations change DBE's influence on tourists' hedonic and eudaimonic well-being should also be studied (E. Torres-Moraga & Barra, 2023; Vada et al., 2023).

Mindfulness, underexplored in tourism research, needs further exploration as a mediator by examining how specific destination elements stimulate mindful awareness among tourists to enhance their DBE (Ben Haobin et al., 2021), thereby increasing well-being. Additionally, investigating the interaction between mindfulness and the extended dimensions of DBE would be noteworthy. Researchers should examine whether mindful experiences lead to brand-related outcomes, with flow as a mediator that fosters complete involvement when the environment is enjoyable (Fu et al., 2020). Finally, because DBE involves subjective evaluations, it elicits varied emotional responses that may exhibit a mediating role in shaping long-term brand-related and affective outcomes (Su et al., 2023).

**3.6 Methods**

Current DBE literature reveal that significant number of studies predominantly use cross-sectional research designs, indicating the lack of longitudinal studies. Table 8 shows that only So et al. (2024) used a three-wave

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study to measure variables sequentially. Future researchers should incorporate longitudinal study designs to capture DBE across pre-visit, on-site, and post-visit stages as it is useful in establishing cause-and-effect relationships. Additionally, implementing mixed-method studies would enable exploration of various dimensions of BE distinct to different destinations that would give clearer insights of complex research problems (Pomerlyan & Belitski, 2023). Experimental studies remain scarce. With the growing relevance of digital avenues such as armchair tourism, experimentally manipulating online DBE and assessing its effects on behavioural outcomes would be interesting.

Since most studies used single source data, future researchers should implement multi-source data collection across diverse destination settings and tourist groups to increase generalizability and reduce response bias (Çelik et al., 2023).

Although structural equation modelling dominate DBE research future studies should adopt more advanced and hybrid analytical frameworks. For example, integrating SEM with Artificial Neural Networks would extend analysis beyond estimating latent variable relationships by capturing non-linear patterns and potential endogeneity, thereby uncovering causal mechanisms and feedback structures within the conceptual framework (Srivastava et al., 2024).

## 4. CONCLUSION

This SLR provides valuable theoretical and practical insights through a systematic analysis of 87 peer-reviewed research articles published between 2014 and October 2025, using the SPAR-4-SLR methodology and the TCCM framework (Paul et al., 2021; Çelik et al., 2023).

### 4.1 Theoretical Implications

This study advances DBE literature by tracing and synthesising its key developments. The rise in publications since 2017 underscores the importance of the concept, reflecting its trans-interactive nature covering the entire tourist journey (Rather et al., 2022; Rather & Hollebeek, 2021). Accordingly, to provide a holistic understanding of DBE, an integrative framework encompassing all identified antecedents, mediators, moderators and outcomes was developed. The analysis revealed 36 prominent theories with the S-O-R framework, AT and SIT most frequently used. Few studies used a multi-theory approach, indicating the potential to gain deeper insights (Çelik et al., 2023). Studies primarily focused on China, the USA, and India, with limited cross-cultural studies, underscoring the need for future comparative research. Finally, most articles applied a quantitative, cross-sectional approach, with increasing adoption of PLS-SEM.

### 4.2 Practical Implications

Tourism practitioners can use the findings of the review to refine experiential marketing strategies and unearth key factors behavioural drivers. The integrative framework can serve as a reference for destination managers when designing brand stimuli or establishing service provider-tourist relationships. For instance, marketers may create unique marketing strategies targeting frequent and first-time tourists, prioritise culturally aligned visual stimuli for online platforms, or develop engaging content for novel areas such as armchair tourism (Khan & Fatma, 2021; Pu et al., 2024; Rather et al., 2022; Yu et al., 2024). Finally, DMOs should focus on positive host-tourist interactions and promote well-being to maximise the effectiveness of the extended dimensions of DBE, strengthening competitive positioning (Ngwira et al., 2023).

### 4.3 Limitations and future research

This study has several limitations. First, only peer-reviewed English-language articles from WoS and Scopus databases. Future researchers should consider adding more databases to improve coverage. Second, adopting alternative frameworks, such as 5W+1H, ADO, IMO, or ADO-TCM (Paul et al., 2023) may yield new insights. Third, this article used a limited number of keywords in the literature search. Including additional terms may broaden the final article pool. Nonetheless, integrating the TCCM framework with SPAR-4-SLR provides a comprehensive overview of DBE, consolidating multiple destination touchpoints and offering a reliable reference for further research.

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