An Integrated Model of Dissatisfaction Role in Understanding Post-Purchase Behavior in Sustainable Industry

Imen Zrelli [1]

[1] University of Jeddah, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. *ibzrelli@uj.ed.sa*

Abstract: This research proposes to apprehend the debate relating to the risks of tariff modulation in particular at the customers post-purchase behavior in sustainable industry. Each Price modulation generates a *different* reaction from customers. This reaction can take place on two levels. The first concerns the elasticity of demand with respect to price and the second concerns rather the perception of the service itself.

The price elasticity of demand is one of the measures of the effectiveness of marketing actions and helps to understand the state and dynamics of markets. The higher the price, the lower the demand. Moreover, a minority of customers is ready to buy the same service at a higher price. Each price difference translates into a change in demand according to the elasticity. Tariff modulation as a strategic decision must be well studied before its implementation. This is because of its significant impact on the perception of the service, especially as customers link the price to other factors, including quality.

To understand how customers perceive the price and consider bringing together services at different prices satisfying the same needs, we are going to conduct a field survey that will focus on the service sector, we are going to test the impact of dissatisfaction with Price modulation on post-purchase behavior and see how it plays a full mediating role between Price modulation and brand detachment.

We chose the questionnaire survey method for clients, since it allows us to gather a large number of variables and provide operational measures of qualitative variables. This by using psychometric scales accompanied by attitude scales which make it possible to calculate scores for each respondent. In the conclusion, it would be interesting to concentrate the effort on the search for new managerial orientations concerning the application of transparency and relational.

Keywords: Tariff modulation -TM-, Dissatisfaction with price modulation -DPM-, Price modulation -PM-, Brand switching -BS-, brand detachment -BD-.

1. INTRODUCTION

In the service sector, variations in supply cannot be due to variations in inventory, since the service is perishable (Eiglier et al., 1989). The limited capacity and the overall distribution of demand over time dictate specific and adapted pricing practices (Pelé, 1992). This is why a dynamic pricing approach has been developed (Zollinger and Desmet, 1997).

This is the meaning of the pricing variations, flexible pricing or even PM (Colombier and Hourcade, 1989; Barro and Canestrelli, 2005). Being an adjustment of the price to current conditions, PM offers retailers a temporary solution for optimizing and making profitable idle capacity. Such a view calls into question the effectiveness of PM and may even negatively affect customer behavior. The application of different prices depending on the time of year may be poorly received by customers. Moreover, the complexity of the tariff can reduce the transparency and reliability of the information (Kimes, 1994).

Faced with downward PM, customers may be dissuaded from consuming, and may turn to a more expensive offer (Colombier and Hourcade, 1989). Also, each upward PM will develop a feeling of dissatisfaction among customers (Zollinger and Desmet, 1997). This will lose not only in terms of profitability in the short term but also in terms of market share in the long term.

Following dissatisfaction, a customer can develop a lack of interest, which directly affects the probability of dealing with the same brand again. The BS is retained as the riskiest negative behavioral manifestation of dissatisfaction with

a change in pricing. It represents not only an unfavorable opinion towards the brand, but also a loss of profitability and market share.

Our purpose is to essentially highlight the risks associated with PM , particularly in terms of dissatisfaction and BS.

2. THEORIES

2.1. PM : Related Terms and Uses

The term tariff change implicitly contains tariff modifications and adaptations. Several terms are linked to this term, including price variation and TM. Price variation means an apparent or latent, continuous or episodic qualitative or quantitative modification of prices allowing different spatial and - or temporal alternatives (Armand-Balmat, 2002; Vercherand, 2009). TM is a kind of pricing which includes varied prices for the same service depending on the time factor (year, month, week, day, hour, second) (Colombier and Hourcade, 1989; Palma and Marchal, 2005; Stumm and Bollo, 2006). Such a notion covers flexibility and adjustment to current conditions with the aim of regularizing demand.

Authors dealing with the issue of pricing, however, use several terms to express PM, namely flexible pricing (Stumm and Bollo, 2006), temporal price modification (Colombier and Hourcade, 1989), dynamic pricing (Storelli, 1997; Deveaux, 2005) and modular pricing (Palma and Marchal, 2005). The use of this term mainly depends on the sector of activity.

We find the term modulation abundantly in the literature relating to the determination of the prices of services to express any change in price in direct relation to the time factor (Colombier and Hourcade, 1989; Kenigswald, 1995; Storelli, 1997; Leloup and Deveaux, 2000; Gilles Johanet, 2003; Deveaux, 2005; Calvet, 2009; Helfter, 2010). On the other hand, the literature relating to goods frequently uses the term price variation (Temple, 1974; Fayolle and Zachmann, 1987; Zollinger, 1993; Zollinger and Desmet, 1997; Armand-Balmat, 2002; Vercherand, 2009).

In order to solve the problem of ambiguity and confusion between the different terms, it would be relevant to use the term TM in the rest of the work.

2.2. Dissatisfaction with PM -DPM-

A review of the literature shows that there is little interest in studying the impact of price on the level of satisfaction. The majority of studies give more interest to other elements such as perceived quality or perceived performance (Llosa, 1997; McKinney et al., 2002), interactivity (Zeitoun and Chéron, 1990) or more generally emotional and affective variables (Westbrook, 1980). Given that it constitutes an element of the offer, the price can have an effect on the degree of customer satisfaction. By referring to studies relating to the impact of TMs on customer behavior, we can conclude that prices are the main source of dissatisfaction in the field of electricity (Colombier and Hourcade, 1989). However, there is no universal definition of dissatisfaction. A review of the literature shows the existence of two main categories of definitions (Yi, 1990; Tse and Wilton, 1988; Oliver, 1997; Aurier and Evrard, 1998).

For the first category, dissatisfaction is a final state after the purchase (Oliver, 1997; Aurier and Evrard, 1998). It is an abstract concept, cumulative and describes the total experience (Johnson et al., 1995). For the second category, this concept is a comparative measure between two situations (Hunt, 1977; Tse and Wilton, 1988). It corresponds to an evaluative judgment bearing on an experience resulting from cognitive processes and integrating affective elements (Hunt, 1977). Dissatisfaction with TM would therefore be a comparative process. The analysis of this comparison process is the basis of models of the formation of dissatisfaction, grouped under the name of the paradigm of the non-confirmation of expectations (Oliver, 1977).

It should be noted that this work is part of this approach, namely that dissatisfaction is a comparative measure and that it supposes a comparison between the last price paid and the current price of the service.

2.3. The BS

It is possible to define BS as behavior that opposes loyalty and leads to a tendency to always change brands (Lin, et al., 2000). Simonson et al., (2003) conducted an experiment in the field of aviation to determine the difference in customer behavior. In the event that customers are called upon to choose between two brands, they will be divided

into three groups, the first is the one who prefers the first without considering the second. The second group is the one who chooses the second without considering the first. The third group is the one who chooses

considering both brands at the same time. It is this last group that constitutes the group of sign changers. It is characterized by its search for the cheapest brand.

Statistics reveal that American companies lose half of their customers in five years and that these rates affect brand performance by 25 to 50% (Ganesh et al., 2000). Competition between brands can be measured in an attitudinal and behavioral way. Attitudinal measures include preferences, service attributes, benefits, substitution in use and similarities between brands. Behavioral measures include inter-purchase duration, cross-elasticities, BS data and purchase data.

3. IMPLEMENTATION OF THE CONCEPTUAL RESEARCH MODEL

A review of the literature reveals that the mediating role of DPM in the PM - BS relationship remains, to our knowledge, neglected. The originality of this work is to highlight this role.

3.1. Impact of PM on consumer behavior

3.1.1. PM and BS

PM is a very complex action to implement and risks being poorly perceived by customers (Dussart, 2003). Such pricing action can even negatively affect the transparency and reliability of information (Kimes, 1994).

In the case where a customer who has already dealt with a brand, consumes on the occasion of a price reduction, the probability that he will deal again with the same brand becomes unlikely. Obviously, consumers will no longer accept any subsequent price increase and will therefore opt for a new brand (Zollinger and Desmet, 1997). Each upward PM causes the brand to lose not only in terms of short-term profitability but also in terms of long-term market share (Zollinger and Desmet, 1997).

Likewise, faced with a downward price adjustment, customers may be dissuaded from purchasing and may turn to an even more expensive offer (Colombier and Hourcade, 1989). Box No. 1 presents the theory of the information economy to explain the reduction in the rate of sales following downward PM.

Box No 1: Information economics theory

> To explain the causes of the reduction in the rate of sales following a downward Price modulation , the economic literature provides us with some arguments. The market is characterized by the asymmetry of information between the buyer and the seller on the products offered. The customer cannot judge the quality of the service before having consumed it. This is why he will look for a signal to trigger his purchase decision.
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> The price reduction is an incentive for the purchase. A customer will consider this signal as a motivation for consumption. However, a high price is a signal of good quality. Downward tariff modulation is just a poor quality signal. A consumer attracted by the price reduction action will probably change brands during their next purchase (Kahn and Louie, 1990).

So the first hypothesis is:

H1: PM positively affects the BS.

2.1.2. TM and dissatisfaction

A downward price adjustment generally attracts a new category of customers. Following this action, customers who come often will feel unfair and develop dissatisfaction, since "their brand" has become accessible to everyone (Oliver and Swan, 1989). In this same vein, the theory of object perception presents a justification for the link between PM and dissatisfaction (see Box No. 2).

Box No 2: Theory of object perception

By "Object", we mean a product, a service, a brand or a company. Several researchers have demonstrated the negative effect of downward price modulation on the perception of the object and the development of a feeling of dissatisfaction among customers (Oliver and Swan, 1989).

The multiplication of downward Price modulation actions adversely affects subsequent choice behavior between different brands (Kalwani, Yim, Rinne, and Sugita, 1990). Excessive exposure to this action makes the customer accustomed to finding this brand at a reduced price, which influences its image as well as its market share. Kalwani et al. (1990) supported this result, showing that frequent exposure to sales promotion actions has a negative effect on the expected price.

Too systematic use of promotion distorts the brand image by giving it a cheap connotation (Kotler and Dubois, 1992). If a brand carries out permanent promotional actions, it will suffer from a shortfall in revenue from loyal customers. They will feel dissatisfied since their brand has become accessible to everyone.

In the same way, starting from a reduced estimated price, any subsequent increase in price develops the dissatisfaction of customers who are used to buying from the same brand, since they will not agree to pay extra to have the same service (Zeitoun and Chéron, 1990; Kimes, 1994-2002; Feinberg, Krishna and Zhang, 2002; Choi and Mattila, 2004). This tells us that:

H2: PM positively affects customer dissatisfaction -CD-.

2.1.3. Dissatisfaction and BS

Faced with dissatisfaction, a customer has two reactions; passively or actively (Oliver and Swan, 1989). He can be passive and decide to do nothing or react actively in several positive or negative forms. The reaction is positive when it manifests itself through complaints (Oliver, 1987), and negative when it involves legal recourse (Zeitoun and Chéron, 1990), negative word of mouth or even a BS. (Richins, 1984).

The majority of customers do not complain (Stephens and Gwinner, 1998). Dissatisfaction forms disinterest and directly affects the likelihood of doing business with the brand again. The theory of self-perception presents an explanation of the relationship between dissatisfaction and BS (see Box No.3).

Box No.3: Self-perception theory

It is likely that consumers attribute their purchases to external causes (taking advantage of a price reduction), and not to internal causes (preferring the brand) (Rothschild and Gaidis, 1981). In the case of a price reduction, the purchase motivation is due to this external incentive. When the latter is not maintained, the probability of doing business again with the same brand is reduced (Kahn and Louie, 1990). On the other hand, if the purchase is the result of a desire for the brand (an internal motivation) the consumer will develop a positive attitude towards the brand, which will increase their probability of returning.

Consumers who buy based on the strong price incentive are not sure if their purchasing behavior is explained by a preference of the brand (an internal motivation), or by the desire to take advantage of this operation (external motivation) (Dodson, Tybout and Sternthal, 1978). The consumer seeks explanations for his behavior in the face of a price reduction. He can conclude that he chose the sign because it was on sale. This conclusion develops in the customer a poor self-perception, becomes dissatisfied and even encourages him to change brands.

Generally, satisfaction does not imply the repetition of the consumption action, but DPM can generate a BS (Trivedi, Minakshi, Morgan and Michael, 1996). Even the most loyal customers, faced with price dissatisfaction, change their behavior (Trivedi et al. 1996). Change is therefore considered the riskiest negative behavioral manifestation of DPM. DPM can thus imply a reduction in the probability of dealing with the same brand (Oliver 1997; Mittal and Akamakura, 2001). So:

H3: DPM positively affects BS.

Following hypothesis H2 assuming a significant positive effect of PM on CD and hypothesis H3 assuming a significant positive effect of DPM on BS, it is possible to test the mediating role that dissatisfaction can play in the relationship between PM and BS.

3.2. Dissatisfaction: mediator in the PM-BS relationship

This involves presenting the different theoretical explanations of the mediating role of dissatisfaction in the PM - BS relationship. They can be grouped into two categories namely; the specificity of customers and the evaluation of the price.

2.2.1. Customer specificities

A dissatisfied consumer generally displays high price elasticity and non-resistance to competition (Ganesh et al., 2000). Several studies have paid attention to the study of the link between dissatisfaction and BS in the banking sector (Ganesh et al., 2000). Individuals who changed banks for reasons related to dissatisfaction are more satisfied with the services of the new bank. On the other hand, those who are satisfied and who nevertheless changed banks are less satisfied.

Garbarino and Johnson (1999) distinguished two categories of customers in artistic institutions, namely relational and transactional. Relationship customers are customers who usually buy from the same brand and who are looking for a lasting relationship. On the other hand, transactional people are those who have only ever subscribed to a subscription occasionally. Dissatisfaction influences the BS more among transactional people than among relational ones.

Mittal and Kamakura (2001) added the notion of a dissatisfaction threshold based on the specificity of the customer base. Given that they can have two different dissatisfaction thresholds, two customers dissatisfied with a brand do not have the same probability of repeating the consumption action. Obviously, customers have different dissatisfaction thresholds. If this threshold is high, this is a tolerant customer whose probability of dealing once again with the same brand is high. If the dissatisfaction threshold becomes low, it is in this case a demanding customer with a very likely change behavior.

The price represents the first informational element allowing to increase the level of customer requirements and makes the threshold of dissatisfaction relating to low prices (Kahn and Louie, 1990). In this way, dissatisfaction generated by PM positively affects the BS.

2.2.2. The evaluation of the price

The reference price theory (see Box No. 4) and the theory of equity (see Box No.5) provide a clear explanation of the impact of DPM. on the BS.

Box No 4: The internal and external reference price (adapted from Zollinger, 1993)

> The reference price integrates two notions: internal and external. The internal reference price is the stored price of the last similar purchase. Its origin is purely subjective (an idea about prices). The consumer will develop a learning process based on past purchasing experiences and stored information, this process will allow him to construct his internal reference price. According to Winer (1986), Zollinger and Desmet (1997) this notion is not static, it is updated taking into account external information from the environment (e.g.: announcements, promotional actions).
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> The external reference price is formed by referring to advertising. Consumers use shortcuts, since they cannot process all the information emitted by their environment, which leads to errors of judgment.

The existence of a perceived gap between the last price paid and the current price of a service complicates the calculation of the profit generated following a transaction. Such pricing action can also be poorly received if it is not justified.

Box No 5: Equity (adapted from Zrelli, 2008)

> The authors present fairness as a dimension of perceived justice, even if they admit that it has its origins in the field of social exchange and the inequality of social relations, particularly at work (Adams, 1963; Fisk and Young, 1985; Florey and Harrison, 2000; Seijts, 2002).
>
> The theory of equity covers both interactional justice relating to interpersonal aspects during the exchange process, procedural justice linked to the means implemented in the process and distributive justice also called equity which considers the perception of inputs and exchange outputs (Prim-Allaz and Pras, 1999). Marketing research has particularly focused on distributive justice (Oliver and Swan, 1989; Smith and Bolton, 2002). For Walster et al. (1978), equity is a post-exchange assessment. It arises when an individual making an exchange is persuaded that the ratio of his results to his expenses and that of the other part of the exchange are equal. That's to say :
>
> (Results / expenses) part 1 = (Results / expenses) part 2
>
> Marketing being in essence the discipline of the behavior of the exchange, fairness is based heavily on this notion (Walster et al., 1978; Woodruff et al., 1983; Vanhamme, 2002

Colombier and Hourcade (1989) show that customers who are used to dealing with the same brand will not appreciate any subsequent PM , will feel unfair and will probably go as far as abandonment.

Dissatisfaction is considered as a comparative process between the subjective experience lived by the consumer and an initial reference base (prior to the consumption of the service). Some experts believe that, for the probability of BS to decrease, the satisfaction promised to the customer must be lower than that actually perceived. When the promise is superior, the customer becomes dissatisfied and may decide to change brands (Mittal and Kamakura, 2001). Following this development, hypothesis H4 can be formulated as follows:

H4: DPM is a mediating variable in the PM – BS relationship.

The relationships between PM, dissatisfaction and BS are presented in the conceptual model shown in Figure 1.
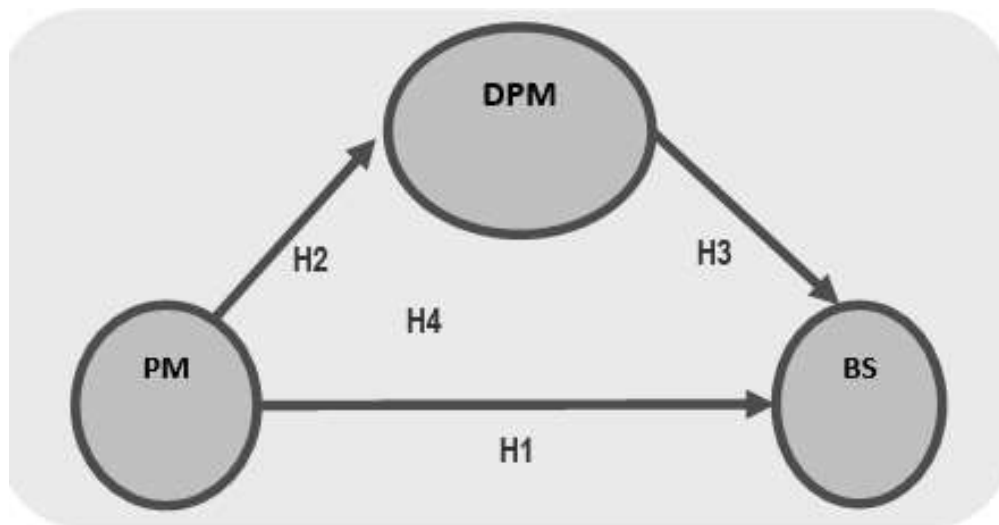

Figure No 1: The conceptual research model

4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGICAL CHOICES

The tourism sector is considered one of the pillars of the Tunisian economy. With the liberalization movement, it has experienced significant changes, particularly with competition from Morocco, Turkey, Egypt and Greece. The tourism sector has experienced remarkable development due mainly to the encouragement of the State and the increase in international demand. Due to the place of the tourism industry we chose it as the scope of this research.

The parent population relating to this research concerns customers who return at least once (in order to verify the PM condition), who pay the price (in order to measure the effect of PM on the consumer) and who reside in Tunisia (to have the same tariff benchmark). Based on the work of Rothschild and Gaidis (1981), we considered the first renewal as the minimum threshold for customer choice. TMs include all general variations in tariffs, downward or upward, whatever the cause. The research covered a sample of 348 customers.

We chose the questionnaire survey method for customers, since it allows us to bring together a large number of variables and provide operational measurements of qualitative variables. This is done using psychometric scales (Sabadie, 2003) accompanied by attitude scales which make it possible to calculate scores for each respondent. The scales considered are available in the French-language literature (see boxes No. 6 and No. 7).

For the indicators measuring DPM and a **BS**, we chose the Likert attitude scale ranging from (1) completely agree to (5) not at all. agreement.

Box No. 6: Dissatisfaction measurement scale

1. Overall, I'm really happy with the prices this brand offers me (reversed)
2. When I think about how this brand prices, the feeling I get is quite nice (reversed)
3. I am more often disappointed than happy with the prices this brand offers me
4. Compared to what I expected, I am a little disappointed by the prices of this brand

Box No. 7: BS measurement scale

1. I like to try different brands so I can compare them.

2. I prefer to stick to a brand where I have often stayed, rather than trying others that may disappoint me. (reverse)

3. I will rarely change the brand I like, just to try something different (reversed)

4. Staying in the same brands bores me even if they are good.

5. I often want to stay in a completely different brand from the one I usually stay at.

6. Before booking, I would like to discover the different brands.

The TM measurement scale is presented in Box No. 8.

Box No. 8: TM measure

Could you indicate the price (per day) of your last stay?

Number of days	Number of people	Price paid	Price per day (per person)

When you booked, how were the prices compared to the last price paid? (circle the correct number)

1. **Extremely reduced**   2. **Reduced**   3. **Same**   4. **Slightly increased**   5. **Extremely high**

The first question is used to determine the unit price and the second to make a comparison with the last price paid. These two questions make it possible to check the condition for application of PM and to estimate the customer assessment.

5. SEARCH RESULTS

5.1. The analysis method

The analysis of the results follows the most recommended approach for marketing research. First we applied a Principal Component Analysis. This analysis followed a three-step procedure. She began by seeing the possibility of factoring the indicators based on the K-M-O (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) value, Bartlett's sphericity test and the correlation matrix. Then, only the dimensions whose eigenvalue is greater than or equal to 1 were retained. Finally, a factor rotation was carried out to improve the belonging of the indicators to the factors retained. This last step allowed us to name the dimensions retained by referring to the indicator/factor correlation.

Secondly, the reliability of the factors selected was estimated. We thus examined the correlation between the indicators relating to each factor and eliminated those which do not participate in its formation. To do this, we chose Cronbach's Alpha and Jöreskog's Rhô as measures of reliability. We took a minimum of 0.7 as a reference to conclude that the measurement had good reliability. Following this approach, we selected scales with good reliability.

Thirdly, it involves carrying out a confirmatory analysis to test the convergent and discriminant validity of the measures.

Finally, it was a question of testing the different hypotheses of this research based on the method of structural equations.

5.2. Processing measurement scales

The results of dimensionality, reliability and convergent and discriminant validity of the measures are presented in Table No. 1.

Table No. 1: Treatment of measuring instruments

	Purification		Factors	Reliability	Validity	
	PCA	FCA			Convergent	Discriminatory
DPM	KMO = 0,780 Barlett: 0, 000 Variance explained:70% Extraction > 0, 5			□ = 0,798 ρ = 0,827		
BS	KMO = 0,684 Barlett : 0, 000 Variance explained:75% Extraction > 0, 5	χ 2 / dof = 1, 921 GFI = 0, 923 AGFI = 0, 889 CFI = 0, 954 RMSEA = 0, 048	Variety seeking -VS-	□= 0,732 ρ = 0,711	ρ VC = 0, 682 p < 0, 001	The difference in χ 2 between the two free and constrained models is much greater than the theoretical value (22.213 > 9.997. Discriminant validity is established.
			Brand detachment -BD-	□ = 0,840 ρ = 0,787	ρ VC = 0, 597 p < 0, 001	

The principal component analysis made it possible to verify a one-dimensional structure for the scale measuring DPM and a two-dimensional structure for the scale measuring BS. Note that we have eliminated the indicator "Before booking, I would like to discover the different brands." due to its low participation in the formation of the final solution (extraction = 0.350). The remaining five indicators display acceptable integrity (K-M-O = 0.684) and participation in the final structure of the factors retained is acceptable overall. Based on the indicator-factor correlation, we can name the first dimension seeking variety and the second dimension BD.

Confirmatory factor analysis made it possible to estimate the structural model and test the significance of the links between the latent variables and the observed variables.

The reliability analysis (Cronbach's alpha and Jöreskog's Rhô) shows a good internal correlation between the measurement indicators.

The methodological choices and the results of the principal component analysis make it possible to reformulate the research hypotheses (see Table No. **2**).

Table No. 2: Research hypothesis

Hypotheses	
H1	PM positively affects BS.
H1a	PM positively affects the VS.
H1b	PM negatively affects BD.
H2	PM positively affects CD.
H3	DPM positively affects BS.
H3a	DPM positively affects the VS.
H3b	DPM negatively affects BD.
H4	DPM is a mediating variable in the PM – BS .
H4a	DPM is a mediating variable in the PM – VS .
H4b	DPM is a mediating variable in the PM – BD .

5.3. Hypothesis testing

Before moving on to testing the hypotheses, we present the results of the goodness of fit of the model. Table No. 5 presents the adjustment indicators.

Table No 5: Quality of fit of the model

Indicators	χ^2 Standardized	RMSEA	CFI	GFI
Values	1,822	0,058	0,931	0,974

In relation to the probable violation of the multi-normality assumption, the Satorra and Bentler correction was applied to the chi-square of the model. In our case, the standardized chi-square is equal to 1.822 (well below 5); we consider the model fit to be acceptable. As for the value of Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), it is equal to 0.058. This value indicates a very good level of adjustment (Marsh, Balla and Hau, 1996). The values of the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) are equal to 0.974 and 0.931, respectively. This indicates a good harmonization between the theoretical model and the empirical data. The fit of the model is considered satisfactory.

The series of regression analyzes makes it possible to examine the influence of PM on DPM and on the components of BS.

We note the existence of a direct influence of dissatisfaction with a PM on the two components of the BS (β VS = 0.564 and β BD = - 0.321). We cannot reject hypothesis H3.

We observe a significant, positive and considerable influence of PM (β= 0.891) on DPM. We cannot reject hypothesis H2.

PM has no significant influence on BD. We must therefore reject hypothesis H1.b.

While the VS is influenced in a positive and significant way by PM (β= 0.383). We cannot reject hypothesis H1.a. Thus, hypothesis H1 is not partially rejected.

The mediating status of DPM was tested following the three-step approach of Baron and Kenny (1986). This involves implementing three independent regression analyzes to verify that:

1. The independent variable (X: PM) affects the mediator (M: DPM),

2. The independent variable (X: PM) affects the dependent variable (Y: Change in brand),

3. The mediating variable (M: DPM) affects the dependent variable (Y: BS).

The link between PM (the independent variable) and BS (the dependent variable) must be significantly reduced, while the link between dissatisfaction with a PM (the mediating variable) and PM (the independent variable) remains significant.

We speak of total mediation when the influence of the independent variable on the dependent variable completely disappears in the presence of the mediating variable and the relationship between the mediating variable and the dependent variable remains significant. We speak of partial mediation when the effect of the mediating variable on the dependent variable is only reduced. In this case, only part of the impact of the independent variable on the dependent variable occurs through the mediator and the rest occurs directly on the independent variable, or through another variable not considered in the conceptual model.

The value of the total effect of one variable on another is equal to the sum of the direct effect and the indirect effect (Fornell, Lorange and Roos, 1990). The total effect of PM on the VS is therefore equal to 0.822 (0.421 (direct effect) + 0.459 (indirect effect)) (see Table No. 6).

Table No. 6: Results of direct, indirect and total effects

Effect on BS Nature of the effect		PM	DPM
Direct effect	VS	0, 486	0, 585
	BD	- 0, 189	- 0, 301
Indirect effect	VS	0, 459	-------------------
	BD	- 0, 186	-------------------
Total effect	VS	0, 822	0, 601
	BD	- 0, 347	- 0, 289

Examination of the total effects (see Table No. 5) allows us to conclude that PM affect the VS dimension more; this effect is positive and high both and indirect (the standardized coefficient is equal to 0.486). PM have a negative direct (the standardized coefficient is equal to -0.189) and indirect (the standardized coefficient is equal to -0.186) effect on BD.

PM significantly, positively and considerably affect DPM.

5.4. Summary of results

In conclusion, the results of this research show that:

- Price adjustments have no significant effect on BD.

- The VS is affected positively and significantly by PM.

- DPM affects the components of BS in different ways; the effect is positive and high on the VS and negative but less high on BD.

- The mediation of dissatisfaction with a PM is total in the relationship linking PM and BD.

- The mediation of DPM is partial in the relationship between PM and the VS.

- In other words, DPM plays a dominant mediating role between price adjustments and BD. This role becomes partial with the VS component. The analysis of the results shows that despite this nature of partial mediation, the indirect effect of DPM is more remarkable.

6. DISCUSSION

Each price change generates a different reaction from customers. This reaction can be on two levels. The first concerns the elasticity of demand in relation to price and the second concerns rather the perception of the service itself.

Price elasticity of demand is one of the measures of the effectiveness of marketing actions and makes it possible to understand the state and dynamics of markets (Dietsch et al., 2000). The more the price increases, the more demand decreases (Zollinger and Desmet, 1997). Moreover, a minority of customers are ready to purchase the same service at a higher price. Each price difference results in a change in demand according to elasticity (Kotler and Dubois, 1992).

PM as a strategic decision must be carefully studied before its implementation. This is because of its significant impact on the perception of the service, especially since customers link the price to other factors, including quality.

To understand how customers perceive price and consider connections between services at different prices satisfying the same needs, authors have demonstrated a privileged relationship between impressions of price and impressions of quality (Parasuraman et al., 1994). . Here the term quality must be taken in a very broad sense and bring together all the attributes that customers consider essential in their assessment of the value of a service.

7. IMPLICATIONS

The results of this research question the relationship between BS and customer post-purchase behaviour. The existence of the negative effects of pricing actions, the time constraints linked to the distribution of the service, the demands of customers and the intensification of price competition make it appropriate to implement a vigilant support strategy. The objective of such a vision is to rationalize price change actions and review their effect on customer relations.

Emptied of any relational substance, presenting itself as a simple action on price, the change in prices needs to be supported by a much more respectful vision. The firm should control pricing actions according to the blocking and release periods. In addition, it should find a balance between maximizing income and controlling dissatisfaction. It can thus act on both supply and demand.

This involves finding the optimal level of profit through the adjustment of the different categories of units offered in relation to a variety of forecast demand behaviours. Reducing dissatisfaction can thus be a result of the application of varied, transparent and personalized pricing to each category of customers. The relationship between firm and customer is no longer one-way.

Through the personalization of the offer, the firm aims to improve its relationship with customers (Bharadwaja and Matsunob, 2006). This is how it offers a scale of priced services adapted to the constraints of each category of customers.

Thus, the firm must set barriers between the different rate classes and put in place restrictions on certain services in order to distinguish each rate category. The offer must also present a certain privilege for the most profitable customers through additional services. Each category of customers thus benefits from better availability of offers at advantageous rates at certain times of the year.

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