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Fabien Martinez

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Organizational Change in Response to Environmental Complexity: Insights from the Business Model Innovation Literature

Abstract

Organizational change research to date has tended to proliferate on a conceptualization of change as a deliberate process driven by rational and formal strategic planning and fuelled by the expansion of exploitative resources. This conceptualization entails that change is essentially a process of reproduction in that it occurs along existing (incremental and cumulative) trajectories. Prompted by the need to manage increasingly complex and uncertain environments and foster progress towards sustainable development, the question of what are the exploratory forces that stimulate the capacity of business organizations to engage in discontinuous shifts towards new (flexible and creative) trajectories, without excessively disrupting existing ones, has comparatively been neglected. This paper contributes to address gaps in existing research by exploring how organizational change in response to complexity is framed in the literature on business model innovation. Three core categories of constraints to change are identified: relational flaws, functional flaws, and the lack of moral motives; and three interacting forces that can be harnessed to overcome these constraints are suggested: sociability, agility, and moral inclusivity. The resulting framework has broad implications for organisational change theory, practice, policy, and research.

Keywords

Organizational change; business model innovation; complex environments; sustainable development; literature review

Introduction

Organizational change, as the movement of an organization from its present state and toward some desired future state of increased effectiveness (Lunenburg, 2010), in highly interconnected, uncertain, complex, volatile, and ambiguous environments is widely recognized by scholars in this field as one of the most daunting tasks facing business organizations (e.g., Gilson & Davis, 2019; Hayes, 2018; Wee & Taylor, 2018). The traditional (and dominant) view of strategy considers that the capacity of organizations to adapt to environmental contingencies, and respond to ‘environmental demands’ (Delmas & Toffel, 2008), is determinant to their successes or failures (Demil et al., 2018). An approach widely followed in organization studies is that adaptation is a deliberate effort within the organization to rationalize and formalize through precise designs, plans, and positions (e.g. Ashmos et al., 2000; Braun et al., 2019). The main course of action consists of reproducing ‘familiar’ processes and maintain a high level of structure and control over both incumbent and new business activities (Hofmann & Jaeger-Erben, 2020). On this basis, market knowledge can be internalized, products can be physically transformed, complexity can be reduced (or sometimes oversimplified), and superior economic performance (e.g., competitive advantage) can be achieved (Rivkin & Siggelkow, 2003). From an individual perspective however, this conceptualization of change has tended to provide organizational agents¹ with relatively little margin for evolving their behaviors, enacting their intuitive and creative skills, and taking part in the exploration and implementation of new ways of ‘doing things’ to resolve a complex environmental problem (Tsoukas, 2018).

A stream of research stressing the importance of organizational ‘fluidity’ has emerged in recent years to transcend the perceived polarization between individual and organizational levels of influence (e.g., Price, 2019; Schreyögg & Sydow, 2010). The result is a better understanding of how organizations can be made to ‘move swiftly and smoothly’ in response to volatile environmental demands while avoiding to excessively disrupt existing processes and

affect performance. Cisco, 3M, Wal-Mart, Hewlett-Packard, Gillette, Microsoft, and SAP are often cited as examples of organizations that are moving towards high levels of fluidity in that they are able to continuously generate new (combinations of) resources while maintaining their level of performance (e.g., Brown & Eisenhardt, 1997; Schreyögg & Sydow, 2010). These organizations are described as proficient in redesigning and reinventing themselves, and in building the necessary resilience to cope with increasingly dynamic and complex internal and external environments (markets, technologies, climate, etc.). One drawback of fluidity in this context is that individual behaviours and collective actions inside and outside organizations are difficult to predict (Cunliffe & Locke, 2019). That is partly because unusual, ‘ad hoc’, experimental, or improvised solutions to complex problems are made possible in ‘supple’ organizational systems (Wolbers et al., 2018). Some level of indeterminacy and exposure to human errors and organizational failures is therefore assumed to impinge upon the capacity of organizations to run fluid processes of change (Lord et al., 2015).

These initial observations lend themselves to the deduction that there is no clear consensus in the organizational change literature on how organizations ought to manage the ‘control versus flexibility’ dilemma, and by extension the ambiguities between individual and organizational levels of influence (Wilden et al., 2019). What can be assumed however is that increasingly complex business environments, and associated ambiguity, uncertainty, conflicts, and pressure for change (in terms of scope and pace), combined with the varying potential of organizational agents to cope with (and collectively organize themselves in the face of) complexity, provide for a certain level of skepticism regarding the appropriateness of an exclusive reliance on exploitative (path-dependent, planned, and internally controlled) organizational change models (Lord et al., 2015).

One argument that has gained credence in the organizational change literature is that organizations function as “*social systems*” (Hofmann & Jaeger-Erben, 2020, p. 2771) in that

they are essentially fueled by the interactions that take place between independent individuals who strive to develop shared understandings and ‘attitudes’ (van Woensel et al., 2017), and ultimately restructure organizational processes (Evans et al., 2017). Complex environmental demands include problems, risks, threats, shocks, and crises (related to, e.g., market ‘volatility’, sustainable development, and technological trends) that organizations cannot address through sole reliance on their existing portfolio of resources (Letiche, 2019). New combinations of internal and external resources must be developed that support an organization’s efforts to (i) cope with conditions of uncertainty (Csaszar & Ostler, 2020) and (ii) manage the multi-level contradictions that can emerge between incumbent business activities and prospective ones (Hargrave & Van de Ven, 2017). Organizational change processes of these kinds are often described as ‘open and dynamic’ because they must respond to discontinuous environmental change (Kelly & Amburgey, 1991) in a variety of ways (e.g., reactive or planned, episodic or continuous) while preserving internal stability (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1997).

Recent empirical studies convey evidence that organizations respond successfully to complexity (and may even approach it as a driver for organizational change and innovation) when they develop the ambidextrous capacity to (i) explore new competencies / set up new partnerships, and (ii) exploit existing competencies / sustain relationships with existing partners (e.g., Hofmann & Jaeger-Erben, 2020; Payán-Sánchez et al., 2021; Peters & Buijs, 2021). Business model innovation is often stressed in the organizational change literature as a useful conceptual resource to explore and understand how organizations create, deliver, and capture value in novel and more sustainable ways through ambidexterity (e.g., Hofmann & Jaeger-Erben, 2020; Norris et al., 2021; Yi et al., 2022). One aspect that scholars in this field have stressed is that the capacity of an organization to establish and sustain ‘congenial’ relationships with various stakeholders has critical influence on its potential for change in response to complexity (e.g., Amoroso et al., 2021; Christmann, 2000; Yi et al., 2022). Organizations with

exploratory competences, it is alleged, are more likely to discover truly novel solutions as they acquire, generate, and integrate ideas from heterogeneous sources (e.g., Best et al., 2022; Snihur & Wiklund, 2019; Sosna et al., 2010).

Building on this approach, it is contended in this paper that organizational change in response to environmental complexity partly depends on the capacity of the organization to innovate its business model and develop collaborative relationships with stakeholders; yet little explanation is offered in research as to how exploration can catalyze this activity, and beyond the idea that exploration can be a complex and chaotic process, incongruous with exploitation (e.g., Dangelico, 2016; Teece, 2018; Wicki & Hansen, 2019). To address this gap in existing research, this paper examines how exploratory organizational change in response to complexity is framed in the literature on business model innovation. In section **‘Antecedents (and constraints) to business model innovation’**, the results of an integrative literature review are presented. Three core antecedents to business model innovation are identified: innovation system paradigm, business model functions, and business model objectives. The analysis of these antecedents reveals that ‘extra efforts’ are required to address the relational, functional, and moral flaws that conspire against exploratory organizational change. In section **‘Forces for organizational change in response to environmental complexity’**, the business model innovation perspective is extended to explore three forces that interact to support this activity: sociability, agility, and moral inclusivity. The resulting framework is sketched in Figure 1 in the form of a diagram that connects business model innovation antecedents to its constraints, forces, and potential outcomes, and depicts the structure of the paper. In section **‘Discussion’**, the framework is synthesized and illustrated with an account of events that unfolded as UK company Adnams Brewery innovated its business model in response to the challenge of energy transition. Implications for organizational change theory, practice, and policy are then outlined. In section **‘Conclusion’**, the key contribution of the paper is highlighted and an outlook to

future research is provided.

INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE

Antecedents (and constraints) to business model innovation

The literature on business model innovation is arguably a useful basis to help organizational change theorists and practitioners articulate an answer to the question of how organizational change in response to complexity can be successfully implemented. The organizational change literature has long established that responsiveness to environmental complexity (and the ‘radical’ changes it demands) include business model change (e.g., Aslam et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2013; Rodríguez et al., 2020). Research has yet to unveil the features of the business model that make it a core driving force for this class of change (Snihur & Wiklund, 2019).

This paper reviews a selection of studies conducted by scholars across disciplines about business model innovation. In line with Torraco’s (2005) guidelines on the process of integrative literature review², the review focuses on published conceptual and empirical articles devoted in some ways to the theme of exploration in processes of business model innovation. The Scopus search engine was used to browse the following keywords: (a) business AND model AND innovation, and (b) exploration. Articles that appeared in the results list because the term exploration was used to qualify either the method of inquiry or the astronomical study of space were systematically excluded. A starting point was established at 2002 for the research, covering thereby most of the fifteen years period that Massa and Tucci (2014) recognized as that of an increasing use of the business model as a unit of analysis for academic inquiry. 165 articles were found that match these search criteria and were therefore included in the final data set. Table 1 provides an overview of the literature sources and their subject areas. An ‘exploration-focused’ review of the selected literature was performed, weaving the streams of

research together to focus on core exploration-related arguments rather than merely reporting previous literature or contrasting disciplinary perspectives.

An emerging stream of research on business model innovation was identified that addresses the challenge of (re)positioning the organization in the context of the networks and ecosystems in which it operates (e.g., Abdelkafi & Täuscher, 2016; Amit & Zott, 2012; Eurich et al., 2014). Within this perspective, innovation of the business model is meant to (openly and interactively) deal with the entire activity system, not only a particular product or process (Snihur & Zott, 2013). It represents a resource for the organization to explore, and engage in, new domains of activity, including those that are identified as alarming and complex environmental (or sustainability) trends (e.g., climate change, biodiversity loss, urban air pollution, greenhouse gas emissions, resource scarcity) (Evans et al., 2017). It is in this spirit that business model scholars have increasingly aligned with three core antecedents to business model innovation, each with its own distinctive features and influence on value creation processes: the innovation system paradigm, business model functions, and business model objectives (e.g., Amit & Zott, 2015; Chesbrough, 2010; Evans et al., 2017).

The innovation system paradigm defines innovation as a social process that considers the influence of an organization's network of interdependencies with external social constituencies on value creation (Zott & Amit, 2010). It challenges organizations to sense the need for change (Teece, 2018), integrate human, physical, and/or capital resources from external parties in the process of change, with the aim of operating in new domains of activities. While an increasing number of organizations are observed that recognize the potential of business model innovation to create value, stay ahead of competition, and better cope with complex environmental demands (Hacklin et al., 2018), the extent to which they can, or are inclined to, integrate external parties (or resources) is debated in the literature (e.g., Antero et al., 2013; Baldwin & von Hippel, 2011; Geissdoerfer et al., 2018). Some scholars consider that

many organizations operate as socially exclusive entities (or ‘black boxes’) that engage with a limited number of partners occupying a performative role in the supply chain (suppliers, customers, intermediaries, etc) (Boons & Lüdeke-Freund, 2013). Within this paradigm, organizations tend to innovate in one or more of the following ways: acquisition or in-house development of talents and technology, emulation from shared team experiences, path-dependency, strategic alliances with external suppliers of technology, and collaborative R&D joint ventures (e.g., Arora et al., 2001; Dunford et al., 2010; McNamara et al., 2013). The main advantage of operating within such a ‘closed’ innovation system paradigm, and thus repeatedly engaging with familiar stakeholders, is that it is likely to guarantee some level of continuity, synchronization, and efficiency of value creation processes (Luciano et al., 2018). It enables the exploitation and leverage of knowledge available endogenously, often facilitated by technological innovations (such as the internet or broadband communication) and consonant with the organization’s requirement for responsiveness to change (Benbya et al., 2004). The disadvantage of an inward looking approach is that some level of entropy, atrophy, apathy, and complacency may emerge that negatively influence an organization’s capacity to explore different ways of doing things (Lanier, 2013). This may happen when an organization becomes (over)reliant on business rules, guidelines, behavioural norms, and performance metrics that impede the integration of novel resources from stakeholders that are not perceived as instrumental to exploitative performance objectives (e.g., short term profitability, share value increase) (Evans et al., 2017). In this case, the willingness to consider organizational changes beyond the creation of value for the focal organization and its primary partners is low. It can be associated with a lack of awareness of sustainability threats, combined with a tendency to discard engagement with social actors who operate outside of (or in domains that are too distant from) the incumbent activity system.

As a case in point, energy transition scholars support the idea that a shift towards more sustainable energy management requires that the dominant and taken-for-granted set of actors, rules, and roles in an industry be challenged and overturned (e.g., Engelken et al., 2016; Kallio et al., 2020). Arguably, the existence of relational flaws in closed innovation system paradigms, and the inherent lack of recognition by (energy-intensive) organizations of the transformational influence of a broader set of actors (e.g., suppliers at various levels, recycling and returning facilitators, NGOs, local authorities, energy experts) (Sarasini & Linder, 2018), partly explains that incoherencies in the way energy is supplied and consumed have sustained, and even increased, over the years – especially in liberalised economies where public authorities’ ability to influence or shape energy choices is weakened (De Carvalho, 2018). A shift towards more social inclusivity and permeability between normally closed institutional settings (Lichtenthaler, 2011) ought therefore to be encouraged.

Proposition 1 (P1): The existence of ‘relational flaws’ in activity systems constrains the practice of organizational change in response to complexity.

The second antecedent, namely ‘business model functions’, considers the extent to which an organization’s intangible and tangible resources, assets, and competencies, taken together, are designed to support business model innovation (Amit & Zott, 2012). The transactions that take place within an activity system are fundamentally fuelled by a range of functions (i.e., complementary and interdependent actions) that are performed by their participants (Chesbrough, 2010). The business model innovation perspective entails that new connections can be developed, and new transaction mechanisms can be introduced, to strengthen the position of the organization in its environment (i.e., activity system network), involve relevant partners in the activity system, and respond to complex environmental

demands (Amit & Zott, 2015). Business models can thus be configured, and possibly reconfigured, expanded and / or altered, depending on the functional characteristics of an organization. According to Amit and Zott (2010), these characteristics depend on (i) the choice of activities that are performed, (ii) the design of the links that weave activities together into a system, and (iii) the governance mechanisms that hold the system together. Sosna et al. (2010); and Teece (2018) refer to this ‘configurational’ phase of business model innovation as the exploitation stage when the organization must align its structure and capabilities to deliver the new business model.

One criticism that is often levelled at the functional performance of organizations in the business model innovation literature is the reluctance to challenge, or the difficulty of challenging, incumbent complementarities and interdependencies (Geissdoerfer et al., 2018). Once resources are allocated, and rules, processes, and roles are established to support an activity system that generates revenues, organizational agents may be inclined to resist change (Björkdahl & Holmén, 2013). Some level of passivity, inertia, or rigidity may emerge that inhibit the capacity of an organization to function in a complex environment in which new business models and activities ought to be continually thought, created, and developed (Graetz & Smith, 2010). For example, business models in the mobile telephony industry are often characterized by their reliance on functional interdependencies between hardware producers and network providers (Camponovo & Pigneur, 2004). A phone’s hardware is typically sold at a lower price (or it is free) if the customer buys a long-term contract with a network provider. While this model benefits both the network provider and the hardware producer, it involves a high level of substitution of technically functioning devices. New hardware models are frequently developed that induce changes of fashion among users. There is little leverage in these (technologically driven) design choices for procurement channels other than those involving intensive exploitation of (scarce) resources. Arguably, this ‘carbon lock-in’ trajectory

is partly sustained by the existence of functional flaws (i.e., incapacity to alter or stray from incumbent complementarities and interdependencies) that impede the design of alternative (more sustainable) activity systems.

Proposition 2 (P2): The existence of ‘functional flaws’ in activity systems constrains the practice of organizational change in response to complexity.

The third antecedent, namely ‘business model objectives’, considers the impact of the nexus between individual and strategic goals on value creation (Laasch, 2018). It challenges organizations to determine the range of activities they are willing to engage in, and how these activities fit with their strategic prerogatives (e.g., low cost, enter new markets, tackle sustainability issues), moral purpose (e.g., generate profits, address societal problems), organizational logic (e.g., path-dependencies, fluidity, bureaucracy), and value components (e.g., economic, social, ecological, or a combination of those). The business model innovation literature converges on two main poles: (1) the ‘classical’ economics pole that focuses on the design of business models for technology development and competitive advantage (e.g., Chesbrough, 2010; McNamara et al., 2013; Rivkin & Siggelkow, 2006; Sabatier et al., 2010; Voelpel et al., 2004); and (2) the sustainability pole that challenges conventional thinking and promotes the design of business models for combined economic, social, and environmental gains (e.g., Gauthier & Gilomen, 2016; Roome & Louche, 2015; Schaltegger et al., 2012; Stubbs & Cocklin, 2008; Upward & Jones, 2016).

On one side of the continuum (classical economics), one important business model objective is scalability – i.e., the ability to increase revenues faster than the corresponding cost base (Stampfl et al., 2013). On the other side of the continuum (sustainability), organizations aim to design business models that capture value above economic gains (Moroz & Gamble,

2021) and for a variety of stakeholders (Bocken et al., 2014), regardless of for profit or not-for-profit status (Smith et al., 2013). The position of an organization along this continuum is partly determined by how organizational agents subjectively interpret what ought to be done or not done. Failures to innovate the business model in response to complexity are often explained by a lack of moral commitment from management teams and employees to support exploratory initiatives and actions aimed at mitigating tensions between economic and non-economic dimensions of performance (e.g., Chang, 2019; Moroz & Gamble, 2021; Paulraj et al., 2017). Exploration may be conceived of in this case as costly and ‘dispensable’ in that it is likely to involve core business employees, and thus ‘steal’ valuable resources away from daily exploitation activities. In the realm of energy transition, for example, moral attributes play an important role, especially when we consider that most organizations are engaged in a battle of faith either as proponents of the renewable industries or as parts of the incumbents in the fossil fuel industries that still dominate the global political and economic agenda (Downie, 2019). Arguably, the prevalence of short-term profit generation orientations, combined with the failure to consider energy transition as the right ‘movement’ to engage in, constitutes a moral flaw that affects an organization’s capacity to develop co-productive and co-creative relationships with stakeholders in this domain. This flaw generates behaviours that perpetuate status quo because it limits the number of groups organizational agents identify with (and are therefore influenced by) to those who are not set in conflict against short-term economic performance objectives (Andrews & Johnson, 2016).

Proposition 3 (P3): The existence of ‘moral flaws’ in activity systems constrains the practice of organizational change in response to complexity.

The discussion of the innovation system paradigm, business model functions, and

business model objectives as antecedents to business model innovation indicates that the processes underpinning organizational change in response to environmental complexity are yet to be clarified. The literature has tended to focus on the design of organizational structures along existing (or incremental) trajectories to create more efficient production and consumption systems (e.g., Berkhout, 2002; Geels & Kemp, 2007; Stubbs & Cocklin, 2008). What appears to be assumed within this trend is that the design of business models serves the purpose of continuity for companies who operate in opaque and relatively inert systems, according to strict routines and measurement mechanisms that ensure against disorder, inefficiencies, and uncertainty (Graetz & Smith, 2010). The literature on ‘business model for sustainability’ advocates for a change of trajectory. Scholars in this area commonly question the appropriateness of the purpose of continuity (Freudenreich et al., 2019). They argue in favour of a more innovative path for the business model to align the economic, social, and environmental dimensions of sustainability (e.g., Boons & Lüdeke-Freund, 2013; Roome & Louche, 2016). This background partly explains the increasing scholarly interest in considering a ‘bolder’ perspective on business model innovation (Evans et al., 2017), one that can be exploited as a resource to address the relational, functional, and moral flaws identified in this paper .

Forces for organizational change in response to environmental complexity

From a managerial perspective, the concept of business model innovation brings flexibility and creativity in business and social activities to the fore because it assumes that organizational change agents have some leverage within their management systems for pursuing multiple goals, choosing new objectives, creating new activities, and developing new stakeholder connections (Massa & Tucci, 2014). From a theoretical perspective however, there currently exists no consensus on the exact nature of the forces that interact to support and develop this

practice (Braun et al., 2019). The challenge therefrom is to identify the organizational change processes that mediate the effects of the antecedents of business model innovation on its outcomes.

To moderate the impact of relational flaws (P1) on organizational change, the challenge for organizations is to do more in terms of considering the collaborative and transformational potential of actors operating inside and outside of their existing activity systems. This effort implies that they act as connected and sociable entities invested with the broader ambition of aligning product/service performance with a positive contribution to the common good of the society (Argandoña, 1998). In doing so, organizations (and the individuals that are appointed to the task of innovating or coordinating innovation) ought to develop congenial and appropriate social interactions with a variety of stakeholders, including those who expect to engage with them in projects that solve complex social and/or environmental problems. The main particularity of ‘sociable’ interactions in organisational contexts is that they involve empathic personalities capable of identifying with diverse representatives of stakeholder communities and make their variant manifestations, needs, and concerns intrinsic to their own being (Kegan, 1994). These individual features arguably constitute the higher end of a sociability continuum, with the lower end characterizing individuals’ devotion to the more exploitative purpose of their organizational roles (e.g., financial objectives, work-related tasks, formalities, or pecuniary incentives).

Often associated in organization studies with the hospitality sector where it is conceived of as a core business (Guerrier & Adib, 2003), the notion of sociability can be usefully extended to constitute a driver for organizational change in response to complexity. The main reason is that it meets the demands of socialization and congenial interactions between a diversity of social actors (i.e., innovation system paradigm) that are inherent in this phenomenon (Fantinel & Davel, 2019). Simmel (1950) explained that sociability is a

spontaneous process (or the ‘play’ form) of organizational lives, one which is fuelled by friendliness, reciprocity, creativity, and/or improvisation. As an element of business model innovation, sociability has the benefit of stimulating mutual trust, understanding, and persuasion amongst social actors, including those who do not normally interact with each other. One might expect, for example, that sociable organizational agents can actively contribute to the creation of an ‘ambience’ for genuine and fertile dialogue and interaction with representants of the stakeholder community (Kimble, 2020). The rationale is that sociable behaviours have the dual effect of blurring the boundaries between interest and indifference (as well as between formality and informality) and unambiguously placing the cursor of social inclusivity above that of social exclusivity. Normally closed institutional settings can therefore be made more permeable as organizational agents are disposed to engage in congenial interactions with a variety of social actors, regardless of their significance for the organization’s financial performance. Sociability is in this sense a catalyst for addressing the relational flaws that impede the process of creating value for the organization, wider society, and the natural environment.

Proposition 4 (P4): Sociable individuals (and organizations thereof) are disposed to develop congenial relationships with a variety of actors, including those who operate in domains that are not evidently related to financial performance.

In organizational contexts, individual sociability is however insufficient on its own as an engine of change in response to complexity. The discussion of ‘business model functions’ as an antecedent of business model innovation indicates that a certain level of dependence of organizational agents on established functional channels and mechanisms (i.e., path dependency, lock-in situation) can limit the scope of sociable interactions to those that take

place within an incumbent activity system (P2). Interactions with external stakeholders can in this case be inexistant, or at best casual and driven by interest and opportunism. To overcome this functional flaw, Teece and colleagues suggest an approach to business model innovation based on the constant nurturing of ‘dynamic capabilities’ (e.g., Best et al., 2021; Teece, 2007a, 2007b; Teece et al., 2016; Teece et al., 1997). This perspective entails that change is an ever-present element of organizational lives – one that mobilizes a set of functional competencies and resources to cope with environmental complexity. It is argued that organizations may support this coping mechanism by becoming change proficient – i.e., developing the capacity to explore and implement new ways of matching the organization’s strategy, processes, people, and structure.

Often referred to in the organizational change literature as convergent change or fine-tuning (Nelson, 2003), this process is most soundly represented in scholarly works based on the concept of agility, with references made to notions of, e.g., agile manufacturing (Sharp et al., 1999), agile supply chains (Mason-Jones & Towill, 1999), and organizational agility (Teece et al., 2016). This stream of research generally converges on a conception of agility as a never-ending quest for better, faster, and cheaper organizational processes (Munteanu, 2017). Business model innovation scholars essentially conceive of agility as the functional capacity to integrate ideas and resources from the outside world and achieve complementarities across incumbent and new activities (e.g., Bhatti et al., 2021; Clauss et al., 2019; Ghezzi & Cavallo, 2020). An agile activity system requires cooperation, coordination of resources (in terms of cost, time, process, scope, and robustness of change), and alignment of interests (Dove, 1995). Each party brings unique expertise and talents to a given project. As cooperation is sought in a sociable and ‘change proficient’ environment, learning takes place and conflicts between participants who may not share similar viewpoints may be addressed. In the present framework therefore, agility is incorporated as a variable that interacts with sociability to support an

organization's functional capacity to develop and exploit linkages with stakeholders. It provides the open activity system forged through sociability with some level of strategic oversight, structure, and control.

Proposition 5 (P5): Agile individuals (and organizations thereof) can develop linkages with stakeholders and 'grow' them into functioning business models through the integration of external ideas and resources and the realization of new complementarities.

The discussion of the antecedents to business model innovation further indicates that moral flaws can emerge as impediments to successful organizational change in response to complexity (P3). The rationale is that engagement in business model innovation involves some level of risk and uncertainty that are deemed objectively acceptable only if organizational agents are morally convinced that engagement in a new domain of activity is necessary (Moroz & Gamble, 2021). Morally engaged organizational agents are aware about (and possibility care for) the constraints imposed, and opportunities offered, by the wider environment (Hart, 1995). They identify the organization with deeper meaning than that which is generally associated with the financial aspects of performance (Evans et al., 2017). In the field of psychological development, Erikson's (1982) lifespan theory suggests that organizational agents go through a variable developmental process reflecting conflicting tendencies towards 'generativity' and 'stagnation'. Generativity involves productive and creative activity motivated by a farsighted ethic of intergenerational care and attention to Others; stagnation on the other hand consists of narcissistic self-absorption (Hoare, 2001). Erikson thus suggests a universally experienced life stage conflict where a motivated ethics (i.e., moral conviction) and a state of ethical decay (i.e., moral scepticism/cynicism) compete to become dominant influences on behaviours (Marshall et al., 2013). Business model innovation research has similarly established the existence of

conflicting motivations and inconstant aptitudes from organizational agents to orient themselves to a view of their organization as seen through the lens of an open learning system or a sustainability-oriented logic (Demil et al., 2018).

Often discussed in organization studies as a feature of digital platforms that facilitates self-organization in flexible activity systems (Andersen & Bogusz, 2019), the concept of generativity is represented in the literature on business model innovation as a variable that explains how individuals creatively develop new or modified activity systems (Lüdeke-Freund et al., 2018). The perspective entails that a business model is generative when it is capable of fostering “complementary innovation from autonomous, heterogeneous [individuals and] organizations” (Cennamo & Santaló, 2019, p. 617). The focus of scholars in this area is generally on a process known as ‘generative cognition’, that is the aptitude of organizational agents to envision the design of future business models (e.g., Hossain, 2017; Loon et al., 2020; Martins et al., 2015). Generative cognition is fundamentally shaped by the values of organizational agents (Breuer & Lüdeke-Freund, 2017). Organizational values, Kotter (1992) explains, are concerns and goals that are shared by most of the people in a group, that tend to shape group behaviour, and that often persists over time even with changes in group membership.

The combination of Erikson’s conception of generativity with that which is endorsed in the business model innovation literature leads to the argument that organisational values fulfil the generative potential of an activity system when they stimulate moral inclusivity amongst the actors involved. Moral inclusivity in this context characterizes organizational agents and members of the stakeholder community who share a belief in the existence of interdependencies between business and community needs. Shared belief sets the premise for diverse actors to carry innovative ideas, focus energies, and mobilize competencies in joint projects. Generative organizational agents, for instance, are arguably disposed to include everyone (all social actors

and institutions) and everything (e.g., animals, environment) in their concerns, not just the economic interests of their organizations. They can thus understand stakeholder perspectives, recognize the appropriateness/value of these perspectives, and develop respectful and authentic relationships that make feasible collective choices and unified commitment to change projects.

The implication in the present theoretical reasoning is that organizational change agents must align sociability and agility efforts with the development of inclusive moral values across the organization (Sully de Luque et al., 2008). This aspect of the framework is notably described by Martí (2018) as a caring concern for the ‘Other’ that influences business model change. The question of whether one’s caring attention is focussed on personal or communal needs and concerns (Bradley, 1997) is paramount to the human interactions that are bound to take place between different actors involved in the use of (business and ‘common pool’) resources (Ostrom, 2009). Moral inclusivity is in this sense an essential component of the framework developed in this paper, one that holds an influence on the depth, durability, and quality of the interactions that take place between organizations and stakeholders.

Proposition 6 (P6): Morally inclusive individuals (and organizations thereof) perceive the value (and appreciate the meaning) of pursuing new activities and developing moral bonds with new actors in domains that are not evidently related to financial performance.

Discussion

Table 1 synthesises the links proposed in this paper between business model innovation antecedents, forces, and outcomes. The narratives included in the table indicate how each force, taken in isolation from other forces, has potential as a variable that affects an organization’s capacity to change. In their weakest forms, the forces exert little (or no) influence on

organizational change proficiencies, whereas in their strongest forms, they yield to a favourable propensity to respond to complex environmental demands. High levels of sociability, agility, and moral inclusivity, it is argued, are attributed to organizational change agents (and organizations thereof) who (i) can develop congenial relationships with a broader scope of stakeholder groups than that which they are conventionally restricted to (sociability), (ii) can mobilise resources and develop the change proficiencies that are required to ensure simultaneity in business effectiveness and commitment to address a complex environmental problem (agility), and (iii) are morally convinced that sustainability, or any similar class of new and complex activity, is the right thing to do (moral inclusivity). Such demonstration of commitment implies that organizations and stakeholders are disposed to facilitate collective learning, shared meaning, and joint decision-making (in processes of value co-creation) as necessary steps towards the implementation of bold and daring measures to resolve complex environmental problems (Bodin, 2017). Organizations that have traditionally relied upon exploitative business strategies will likely lack these ‘exploration’ skills (Wicki & Hansen, 2019).

INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE

To illustrate the framework, it may now be helpful to examine a real-life case of organizational change in which the features identified in this paper played a significant role. Southwold Brewery Adnams (UK) took steps towards energy transition³ in the wake of the appointment of Andy Wood as CEO in 2010. A series of informal talks between the author and members of Adnams’ management team two years later indicated that the success of Adnams in developing more sustainable operations was partly attributed to the ethos and vision of Andy Wood, culminating in him being honoured with an Order of the British Empire (OBE) in 2013. Because the company was governed in a rather top-down fashion, the CEO had a critical role

in determining the organization's values (what Adnams stands for) and envisioning / shaping its business model. Andy Woods was disposed to promote the pursuit of (and to see the benefits of pursuing) exploratory activities throughout the company. He was portrayed as a morally inclusive leader (P6), committed to the objectives of moving the company along a more sustainable trajectory for managing energy and giving rise to unified commitment to this goal. According to him, setting the business to contribute to address important and complex sustainability issues in the region of Southwold was the '*right thing to do*', and it turned out to be a '*collectively rewarding experience*'. This morally inclusive mind-set allowed the company to gain the trust and confidence of local communities, which would then prove to facilitate cooperative initiatives, notably in the energy transition domain.

In the same series of talks, a chain of events was described that acted to entrench the contribution of Adnams to energy transition. Andy Wood attended a 'sustainability' conference before his appointment as CEO and (serendipitously) met with an entrepreneur from the Cambridge-based Bio Group at one of the event's lunch breaks. A fertile dialogue between the two protagonists was spontaneously engaged thanks to the design of this 'sociable space'. The entrepreneur explained that the main activity of the Bio Group consisted of developing bio-digestion systems – i.e., a technological solution for turning food waste into renewable energy. Stimulated by their initial (friendly) exchanges in an improvised context, they both sensed an opportunity to initiate a joint project with the potential to address a complex environmental problem. This event illustrates the role of Andy Wood as a sociable organizational change agent. In line with P4, Adnams' CEO seized an opportunity to establish a congenial relationship with an 'energy expert' and felt capable of banking on the ideas that emerged from their (informal) discussions to innovate the company's business model.

Andy Wood and the entrepreneur subsequently leveraged and coordinated resources (expertise, technology, location, finance, time frame, etc) to launch a joint venture company,

namely 'Adnams Bio-Energy'. This 'design choice' turned out to allow for a fruitful exploitation of the new stakeholder linkage, whereby the new technology could be integrated in Adnams' business model without it causing major disruptions in incumbent activities. As part of this business venture, anaerobic bio-digestion tanks were installed near Adnams' distribution centre in Southwold. The system had the capacity to process 4,000 tonnes of waste from the brewery's pubs and hotels, as well as communities within a 25-mile radius. A new energy management system was thus configured with the potential to produce bio-methane and supply gas into the national grid to heat 235 family homes (Zokaei et al., 2016). Consistent with the process criteria of agility (P5), Adnams seized an opportunity to innovate its business model by stretching its portfolio of resources. The development of a bio-digestion system was managed with functional agility in that the ongoing delivery of value to customers was not disrupted and the company did not lose its core purpose in the process. This project was perceived at the time as a substantive step towards realizing the aspiration of Adnams to deal with the complex sustainability issues faced by local communities of the Suffolk region. The interacting forces of sociability, agility, and moral inclusivity deployed by the stakeholders (in particular, CEO Andy Wood and Bio Group's entrepreneur) were detrimental to the success of Adnams in individually and collectively delivering a pioneering contribution to energy transition⁴, and thus making a move from a relatively energy intensive business model to a more sustainable energy management system.

The conceptual framework developed in this paper can thus serve as a useful basis for advancing organizational change theory and practice, and for informing deductive research (and prospective modelling) in this domain. On the front of theory, it expands the field of organizational change by explaining how readiness for change in complex environments is created within the organization, and between the organization and its stakeholders (Ian, 2005). Organizational change theory assumes that change is an ever-present element that affects all

organizations on a daily basis as they seek to match organization's strategy, processes, people, and structure (Luecke, 2003). Our understanding of some aspects of this matching process have been clarified by some authors (e.g., pace and scope of change) (e.g., Brown & Eisenhardt, 1997; Van de Ven & Poole, 1995; Waeger & Weber, 2019) with a strong tendency to focus on processes of change internal to the organization (inward-focused), and to emphasise the role of organizational leaders and staff in managing and guiding change (Kelan & Wratil, 2018). But the business model innovation processes that organizations can deploy (and perhaps ought to sustain) as part of a system of (traditionally 'secondary' or 'indirect') stakeholders that are mobilised to reach a common objective were not well understood. The process criteria of sociability, agility, and moral inclusivity enable us to clarify what these exploratory competencies might be. They are brought together in a framework that theorises how change may be effectively dealt with in complex environments through the evaluation of an organization's performance in relation to the three criteria.

In the example of Adnams, organizational change occurs in the form of a seemingly fluid and conflict-free process resulting in a self-organised, authentic, and original expansion of the firm's value proposition without destabilizing the system's overall structure. One major theoretical implication is that organizational change does not systematically reflect the chaotic and hardly controllable process described by some (postmodern) scholars in this field (e.g., Anderson, 1999; Burnes, 2005). Rather, it can happen within a system that is made controllable and coherent because it is fuelled by the coordinating processes of sociability, agility, and moral inclusivity. These variables accommodate a socially constructed view of reality (Clegg, 1994) – the assumption being that the capacity of individual actors (or organizational agents) to positively interact with Others plays a central role in maintaining a system's cohesion in times of change. Organizational agents hold within themselves what can turn out to constitute a unique set of competencies that can be leveraged to manage complexity and reconfigure an

organizational system in response to it. New business models may thus be explored, created, and exploited that include other stakeholders in the organizational environment without altering existing operations and performance (e.g., Adnams Bio Energy).

It must however be recognised that institutional forces are likely to constitute a structure within which organizational agents can be oriented towards specific processes (e.g., Cardinale, 2019; Lok & Willmott, 2019). An initiative from conference organizers to design informal spaces for participants to spend time for fortuitous encounters and sociable interactions (e.g., lunch or coffee breaks) is one example. Beyond the role of time and space as boundary conditions on organizational change projects (Carr & Hancock, 2006), the degree of ‘institutionalisation’ of an organization (or a country) will likely determine the propensity to which the processes discussed in this paper can be nurtured. The success of Adnams’ CEO Andy Wood may not be fully explained without considering that he had the power and legitimacy in his institutional context to run the project. Erikson (1982) considered for example that the devotion of individuals reaching career pinnacles (and possibly holding leadership ranks in organizations) to high moral purposes plays a significant part in the process of organizational change in response to complexity. Andy Wood also certainly benefited from a cultural environment in which the human side of change is managed with openness and care.

This paper has practical implications as well insofar as it explicitly formulates the sociability, agility, and moral inclusivity attributes of organizational agents willing (or somehow incited) to engage in new activities. On one hand, it must be recognised that many business models across institutional and industrial sectors are not designed to incorporate and reward these attributes. They are structured and managed according to strict business routines. On the other hand, change is a constant feature of many organizational lives. A multitude of pressures and tensions exist in the internal and /or external organizational environment that can emerge at any given time to disrupt the current business model. This justifies that careful

consideration is needed regarding how the ambidextrous task of exploring and exploiting can be effectively pursued and sustained. This task can be cognitively and socially demanding, especially when the level of uncertainty / complexity of both the targeted environmental issue and the contemplated solution is high and individuals are 'harrowed' to engage with other business agents and / or members of the wider stakeholder community. The depth, durability, and quality of the interactions that take place in these circumstances can determine the success of a change project. This paper specifies that the pathway toward success is less 'tortuous' when it is activated by sociable, agile, and morally inclusive organizational agents, as opposed to the variety of negative human reactions to change that are documented in the literature – e.g. resistance, indifference, apathy, rejection, rumour, anxiety, power struggles, blind obedience, refusal, dispute, contestation, opposition, repression, strike, sabotage (e.g., Burnes & James, 1995; By, 2005).

The framework can thus serve as an aid to managers in organizations that invest resources to develop innovation competencies, but where the potential is not fully realised, to more fully realise this potential. It can be used to more completely understand the forces that interact to stimulate exploratory phases of innovation, help them use this understanding to evaluate the attributes that their organizations may possess, determine why certain practices lead to certain outcomes (cf. Figure 1), and then identify and deploy those attributes that have the potential to improve change capabilities. By extension, the framework can help organizations nurture attributes of change as part of their continuous efforts to innovate the business model. The underlying rationale is that stakeholder relationships that are built through processes of sociability, agility, and moral inclusivity are sound enough (i.e., they are not too casual and short-term) to serve the innovative functions that need to be performed in most organizations. Business strategies may thus be implemented that rely on these individual characteristics and lead to a better alignment of exploratory and exploitative activities.

At a 'higher' level, the framework has implications for policymakers who may design incentives to encourage more organizations – especially those falling behind in innovation and sustainability performance – to commit to exploratory projects. It is implied in this paper that current incentives, tools, and processes that are effective in exploitation-focused business models lack efficacy when explorative resources are required to compensate a lack of knowledge in a new activity domain. The assumption that solutions to complex environmental problems are never straightforward justifies that organizations pursue unorthodox change trajectories and that the sociability, agility, and moral inclusivity characteristics of a diversity of protagonists are accounted for. The conception of change agents as any individuals (inside or outside the organization) who are empowered to contribute to strategy formation and drive organizational change constitutes a shift away from the general reliance of organizational theory and practice on a single 'magic' leader (Graetz & Smith, 2010) or 'heroic' individuals (Tourish, 2019) who impose certain business strategies and win over the masses to drive rational and linear change within a 'non-complex' and controlled environment. The corollary of this argument, of course, is that failure to change is not caused by a lack of insight and prescience from leaders or managers alone. The responsibility can be that of an overly rigid organizational structure and/or an overly resistant context for decision-making. It can also be the consequence of a system-level failure to create an organizational context for change – i.e., one in which the attributes contemplated in this paper are understood, exploited, and rewarded. Hence, it seems reasonable to suggest that policymakers can play a central role in encouraging organizations to embrace these characteristics. They may use the framework as a reference point to decide what business strategies should be incentivised, that is, those which facilitate the development of congenial and co-creative stakeholder relationships in phases of exploration.

Finally, while it is anticipated that the study of sociable, agile, and morally inclusive individuals in organizations can reveal opportunities for more 'fluid' and innovative pathways

towards market growth and/or sustainability progress in the face of increasingly complex environments, the framework remains to be consolidated. The explanatory potential of some situational variables at individual (e.g. culture, values, aspirations, interests, ambitions, and personality traits), organizational (e.g., design of space, time constraints, process formalities, institutional pressures, structural rigidities, staff turnover, power struggles, political interests, resource allocations) and macro (e.g., regulatory environment, pressures from activism, industry specific constraints, media coverage) levels could not be exhaustively captured in a single conceptual study. This warrants further theoretical and empirical research, that is, if the framework is to have real meaning for how its components can be moved from theory to practice.

Conclusion

This paper clarified how organizational change in complex environments unfolds. At its core lies the proposition that organizations that demonstrate high levels of sociability, agility, and moral inclusivity are well placed to foster business model innovation and unlock opportunities for market and/or sustainability innovation. The main contribution of this paper is a more explicit (and less ‘conventional’) formulation of the processes underpinning organizational change in response to environmental complexity as actors from various disciplines and fields of expertise are brought in contact and are disposed to develop congenial relationships (sociability). Their willingness (moral inclusivity) to foster change towards a commonly desired end goal (e.g., market growth, sustainability), together with their combined acuity, resources, and change proficiencies (agility), complete the framework.

The explanatory potential of this framework may be usefully extended to a variety of fields in which ‘atypical’ organizational change processes unfold or are required. For example, the worldwide spread of the Covid-19 virus raised awareness of the need to act together and

implement new ways of organizing economic activities (Buheji & Ahmed, 2020). Many organizations were bound to activate change processes that resemble those that are contemplated in this paper. The framework, combined with accumulated evidence of its explanatory potential, can hopefully help to transform, or sustain the transformation of, the ‘exploitation bias’ that has long prevailed in organizational contexts into one which prizes transdisciplinary collaboration, as well as individual creativity, mobility, risk-taking, collegiality, and generosity.

Endnotes

¹ Organizational agents are broadly defined in the literature as the people (any employees, managers, strategists, or leaders) that are engaged in the actual formulation and implementation of the change (e.g., Armenakis et al., 1993; Ford et al., 2008).

² According to Torraco (2005), the method of ‘integrative literature review’ involves structuring, identifying and synthesising the conceptual content of a specific research field; and therefore guide towards the development of a new framework. A clear and replicable three-step process is followed in this paper: (i) defining the unit of analysis, (ii) collecting literature data, and (iii) classifying/analysing the literature.

³ Initiatives included the construction of a hemp roof distribution centre, production of lighter bottles, installation of solar panels around the distribution centre and a more ‘energy efficient’ brewery (Zokaei et al., 2016).

⁴ Adnams was the first brewery to implement a project of this kind in the UK (Zokaei et al., 2016).

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Table 1. Academic sources selected for review

Indicative discipline (N° of articles)	Academic journal (N° of articles)
Business, Management and Accounting (107)	Business Strategy and the Environment (8), Journal of Business Research (5), Journal of Cleaner Production (5), Organization and Environment (5), Technological Forecasting and Social Change (3), Journal of Business Ethics (2), Journal of Change Management (2), European Journal of Innovation Management (3), Journal of Organizational Change Management (2), Journal of Technology Management and Innovation (2), R and D Management (2), Technology Analysis and Strategic Management (2), Journal of Management (2), Academy of Entrepreneurship Journal (1), Academy of Management Journal (1), Academy of Management Perspectives (1), Asia Pacific Journal of Management (1), Asian Journal of Technology Innovation (1), Business Ethics Quarterly (1) British Food Journal (1), Business Horizons (1), Business Process Management Journal (1), Chinese Management Studies (1), Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management (1), Creativity and Innovation Management (1), Decision Sciences Journal of Innovative Education (1), Education Business and Society Contemporary Middle Eastern Issues (1), Emerald Emerging Markets Case Studies (1), European Business Review (1), European Journal of Marketing (1), Foresight and Sti Governance (1), Global Journal of Flexible Systems Management (1), Industry and Innovation (1), Innovation And Management Review (1), International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal (1), International Journal of Entrepreneurial Venturing (1), International Journal of Human Resource Management (1), International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation (1), International Journal of Information Management (1), International Journal of Innovation Studies (1), International Journal of Innovation and Sustainable Development (1), International Journal of Learning and Intellectual Capital (1), International Journal of Techno entrepreneurship (1), International Journal of Technology Intelligence and Planning (1), International Marketing Review (1), International Journal of Product Development (1), Journal of Air Transport Management (1), Journal of Business and Industrial Marketing (1), Journal of Business Strategy (1), Journal of Education for Business (1), Journal of Electronic Commerce in Organizations (1), Journal of Indian Business Research (1), Journal of Innovation Management (1), Journal of Knowledge Management (1), Journal of Management Control (1), Journal of Media Business Studies (1), Journal of Product Innovation Management (1), Journal of Relationship Marketing (1), Journal of Service Management (1), Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development (1), Journal of Strategy and Management (1), Journal of Strategic Leadership (1), Journal of Technology Transfer (1), Knowledge And Process Management (1), Leadership And Organization Development Journal (1), Management Science (1), Meditari Accountancy Research (1), Organization Science (1), Review of Managerial Science (1), Revista de Administracao Mackenzie (1), Revue Française De Gestion (1), Review of Managerial Science (1), Sloan Management Review (1), Society and

	Business Review (1), Strategic Direction (1), Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal (1), Total Quality Management and Business Excellence (1), Vine Journal of Information and Knowledge Management Systems (1)
Social Sciences (including decision sciences and psychology) (31)	Sustainability Switzerland (10), Long Range Planning (8), Africa Education Review (1), British Journal of Educational Technology (1), Career Development International (1), Decision Sciences Journal of Innovative Education (1), Education Business and Society Contemporary Middle Eastern Issues (1), Environmental Innovation and Social Transitions (1), International Journal of Innovation Creativity and Change (1), Journal of Human Rights and the Environment (1), Journal of World Prehistory (1), Revista de Ciencias Sociales (1), Technology in Society (1), Transportation Research Part D Transport and Environment (1), Webology (1)
Energy (6)	Energy Research and Social Science (1), Energy Strategy Reviews (1), Journal of Air Transport Management (1), Journal of Sustainable Forestry (1), Petroleum Exploration and Development (1), Shiyou Kantan Yu Kaifa Petroleum Exploration and Development (1)
Economics, Econometrics and Finance (10)	Amfiteatru Economic (1), Economics of Innovation and New Technology (1), Electronic Markets (1), Emerald Emerging Markets Case Studies (1), Foresight and Sti Governance (1), Global Environmental Change (1), Journal of Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies (1), Journal of Open Innovation Technology Market and Complexity (1), Small Business Economics (1), Wseas Transactions on Business and Economics (1)
Engineering (11)	Technovation (2), Acta Astronautica (1), Advanced Science Letters (1), IEEE Access (1), International Journal of Design Creativity and Innovation (1), International Journal of Innovation Science (1), International Journal of Technology Management (1), Journal of Technology Transfer (1), Transportation Research Part D Transport and Environment (1)

Figure 1. Antecedents, constraints, forces, and potential outcomes of organizational change in response to complexity

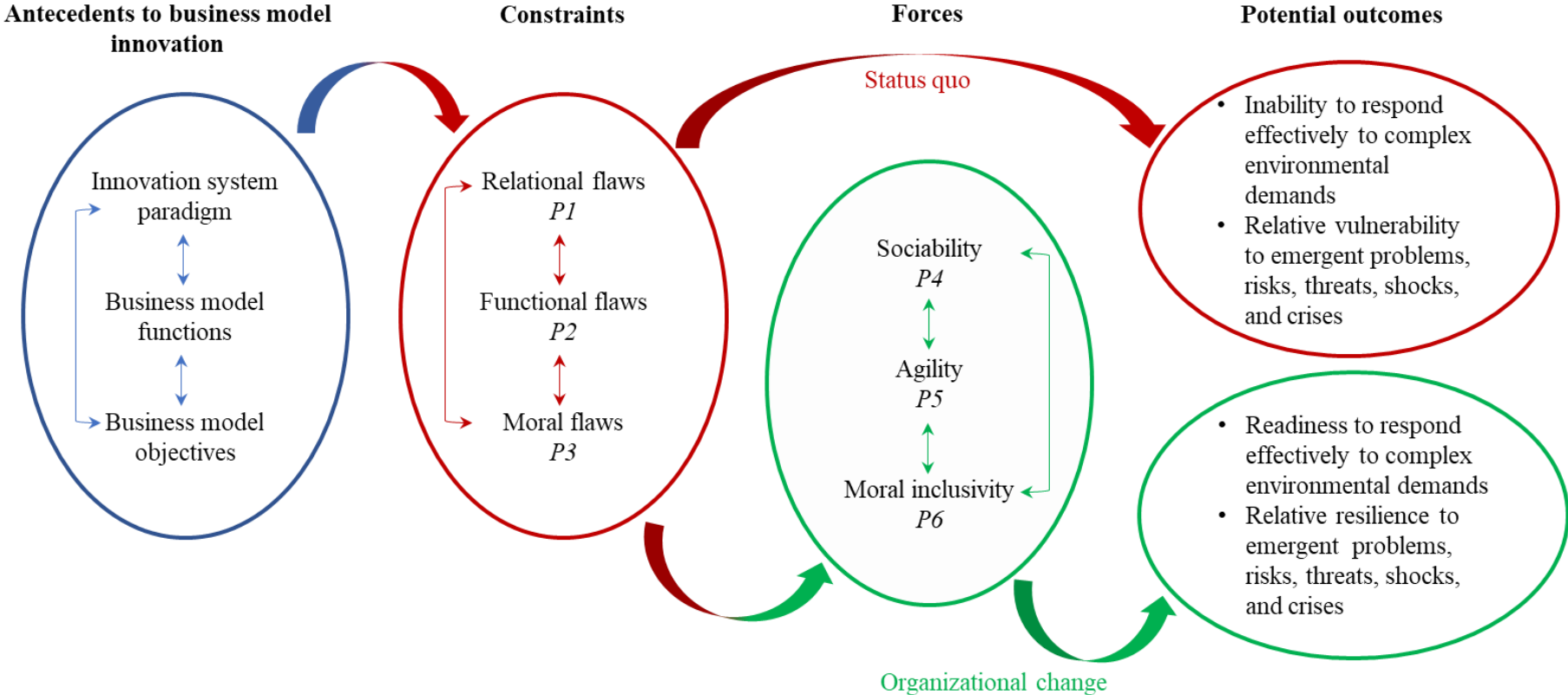


Table 2. Synthesizing the links between organizational change antecedents, forces (sociability, agility, and moral inclusivity), and outcomes

Antecedent to business model innovation	Sociability		Agility		Moral inclusivity	
	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong
Innovation system paradigm	<p>P1 <u>Organizational change agents are counterproductive.</u> <i>They can develop some level of entropy, atrophy, apathy, and complacency in relation to job performance.</i></p>	<p>P4 <u>Organizational change agents are positive/productive.</u> <i>They can connect, and develop congenial relationships, with multiple actors, including representatives of the wider stakeholder community.</i></p>	<p>Likelihood to innovate along existing trajectories</p>	<p>Potential to innovate along new trajectories</p>	<p>Likelihood to innovate along existing trajectories</p>	<p>Potential to innovate along new trajectories</p>
Business model function	<p>Likelihood to resist engagement in new processes</p>	<p>Potential to create, generate and integrate new resources</p>	<p>P2 <u>Organizations are ready to pursue continuity.</u> <i>They rely upon incumbent complementarities and interdependencies.</i></p>	<p>P5 <u>Organizations are ready to integrate new resources.</u> <i>They can achieve complementarities across incumbent and new activities.</i></p>	<p>Likelihood to resist engagement in new processes</p>	<p>Potential to create, generate and integrate new resources</p>
Business model objective	<p>Likelihood to include most instrumental (economic) interests</p>	<p>Potential to embrace (economic and non-economic) interests of a wider set of stakeholders</p>	<p>Likelihood to include most instrumental (economic) interests</p>	<p>Potential to embrace (economic and non-economic) interests of a wider set of stakeholders</p>	<p>P3 <u>Organizational change agents are mired into self-interests.</u> <i>They identify with a limited number of stakeholders.</i></p>	<p>P6 <u>Organizational change agents are generative and open-minded.</u> <i>They are willing to include everything and everyone in their concerns.</i></p>