

Steffen Blaschke

Structures and Dynamics of Autopoietic Organizations

Theory and Simulation

GABLER EDITION WISSENSCHAFT

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Good science rests on self-proclaimed principles such as accuracy, precision, and rigor. These principles reduce error of all sorts $(\alpha, \beta, \text{ etc.})$ in the work of scientists; at the same time, they leave them with little room for passion in their work. The present work follows the principles of good science, of course. Nonetheless, it is deeply passionate about its subject of interest—organizations. On a more personal note than all the subtle and sometimes not so subtle hints of my own point of view on management science and organization theory, I want to acknowledge some of the people who in one way or another made a difference to my work.

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Rock & Roll.

Contents

1	Intr	oductio	n 1
	1.1	Purpo	se and Objective
	1.2		ific Contribution
	1.3	Conte	nt and Structure
2	Org	anizatio	ons as Rational, Natural, and Open Systems 7
	2.1	Organ	izations as Rational Systems
		2.1.1	Bureaucracy Theory
		2.1.2	Scientific Management
		2.1.3	Administration Theory
		2.1.4	Administrative Behavior
	2.2	Organ	izations as Natural Systems
		2.2.1	Human Relations
		2.2.2	Cooperative Systems
		2.2.3	Theories X, Y, and Z
		2.2.4	Organizational Learning
	2.3	Organ	izations as Open Systems
		2.3.1	Cybernetics
		2.3.2	Contingency Theory 41
		2.3.3	Loose Coupling, Interpretation, Sensemaking 43
		2.3.4	Knowledge Management
	2.4	Summ	ary and Development Potential 53
3	Org	anizatio	ons as Social Systems 59
_	3.1		mental Concepts of Social Systems Theory 59
		3.1.1	System and Environment 60
		3.1.2	Operation and Observation 62
		3.1.3	Communication and Expectation 66
		3.1.4	Organization and Decision
	3.2		oietic Organization Theory
		3.2.1	Organizational Knowledge
		3.2.2	Organizational Learning
		3.2.3	Organizational Memory

VIII Contents

	3.3	Summary and Application Potential 9	8					
4	Soci	al Science Simulation 10	1					
	4.1	Simulation as Scientific Endeavor	1					
	4.2	A Brief History of Social Science Simulation	3					
	4.3	Purposes of Social Science Simulation	8					
	4.4	Limitations of Social Science Simulation	3					
5	Simulation of Organizational Structures and Dynamics 117							
	5.1	Agent Types	8					
		5.1.1 Organizational Environments						
		5.1.2 Psychic Systems	1					
		5.1.3 Social Systems						
	5.2	Agent Dynamics						
		5.2.1 Knowledge and Decision						
		5.2.2 Learning and Unlearning						
		5.2.3 Remembering and Forgetting						
	5.3	Simulation Findings						
		5.3.1 Knowledge, Learning, and Memory of Social and Psy-						
		chic Systems	5					
		5.3.2 Organizational Structure	9					
		5.3.3 Personnel Turnover	4					
		5.3.4 Personnel Layoff	8					
		5.3.5 Communities of Practice	1					
	5.4	Summary and Implication Potential	5					
6	Conclusion 169							
	6.1	Summary	9					
	6.2	Implications for Theory and Practice	1					
	6.3	Future Research	3					
A	App	endix 17	5					
Bi	bliog	raphy 18	9					

List of Figures

2.1 2.2	Knowledge in Cooperative Systems
2.3	The Cycle of Organizational Learning
2.4	Communication, Control, and Feedback
2.5	Loose Coupling Theory
2.6	Interpretation Versus Sensemaking 47
3.1	Levels of System Analysis
3.2	The Autopoiesis of Organizations and Individuals 65 $$
3.3	Single-loop and Double-loop Learning 92
4.1	The Logic of Simulation
5.1	Organizational Environment
5.2	Psychic Systems
5.3	Communication and Consciousness
5.4	Spatial and Temporal Limitations
5.5	Spell Splitting
5.6	Organizational and Individual Knowledge 146
5.7	Organizational and Individual Learning
5.8	Organizational and Individual Forgetting 149
5.9	Organizational Knowledge for Different Organizational Struc-
	tures
5.10	Organizational Learning for Different Organizational Struc-
	tures
5.11	8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8
	tures
5.12	Organizational Knowledge at Personnel Turnover (Perfectly
	Connected)
5.13	Organizational Knowledge at Personnel Turnover (Loosely
	Coupled)
5.14	Organizational Knowledge at Personnel Turnover (Different
	Structures)

X List of Figures

5.15	Organizational Knowledge at Personnel Layoff (Perfectly Con-	
	nected)	59
5.16	Organizational Knowledge at Personnel Layoff (Loosely Cou-	
	pled)	60
5.17	Organizational Knowledge at Personnel Layoff (Different Struc-	
	tures)	61
5.18	Organizational Knowledge With and Without Communities	
	of Practice	65

List of Tables

2.1	Key Issues in Organizational Learning
2.2	Boulding's Hierarchy of Systems
2.3	Modes of Knowledge Creation
2.4	Perspectives on Knowledge, Learning, and Memory 55
3.1	Epistemological Attributes of Knowledge
4.1	Social Science Simulation
4.2	Payoff Matrix for Prisoner's Dilemma
5.1	Organizational Environment
5.2	Synthesis of Communication
5.3	Learning and Unlearning
A.1	Descriptive Statistics and Two-tailed t-Tests for Different Organizational Structures
A.2	Descriptive Statistics and Two-tailed t -Tests for Organizational Structures ($n = 50$) at Personnel Turnover 177
A.3	Descriptive Statistics and Two-tailed t -Tests for Organiza-
	tional Structures $(n = 50, g = 2)$ at Personnel Turnover 178
A.4	Descriptive Statistics and Two-tailed t-Tests for Organiza-
	tional Structures $(n = 50, g = 5)$ at Personnel Turnover 179
A.5	Descriptive Statistics and Two-tailed t-Tests for Organiza-
	tional Structures $(n = 50, g = 10)$ at Personnel Turnover 180
A.6	Two-tailed t-Tests of Organizational Knowledge, Learning,
	and Forgetting for Different Organizational Structures at Low,
	Medium, and High Turnover
A.7	Two-tailed t -Tests of Individual Knowledge, Learning, and
	Forgetting for Different Organizational Structures at Low,
	Medium, and High Turnover
A.8	Descriptive Statistics and Two-tailed t-Tests for Organiza-
	tional Structures $(n = 50)$ at Personnel Layoff 183

XII List of Tables

A.9	Descriptive Statistics and Two-tailed t-Tests for Organiza-	
	tional Structures $(n = 50, g = 2)$ at Personnel Layoff	184
A.10	Descriptive Statistics and Two-tailed t-Tests for Organiza-	
	tional Structures $(n = 50, g = 5)$ at Personnel Layoff	185
A.11	Descriptive Statistics and Two-tailed t-Tests for Organiza-	
	tional Structures $(n = 50, g = 10)$ at Personnel Layoff	186
A.12	Descriptive Statistics and Two-tailed t -Tests for Communities	
	of Practice $(n = 50, g = 5) \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots$	187
A.13	Descriptive Statistics and Two-tailed t -Tests for Communities	
	of Practice $(n = 50, g = 10)$	188

1 Introduction

O body swayed to music, O brightening glance, How can we know the dancer from the dance?

—William Butler Yeats, Among School Children, 1927

The closing question from Yeats' poem Among School Children incites a paradoxical answer. It is possible to observe the particular positions and movements of an individual dancer and thereby identify the performance as a specific dance, while it is impossible to observe the performance of the dance devoid of the positions and movements of the dancer. Still, any other dancer may well perform the same dance, and just therefore it is possible to distinguish the particular positions and movements that constitute a specific dance from any individual performance. "Such remarks indicate that we are aware of two ontologically distinct entities within one perceptual phenomenon," Gill (1975) highlights.

Knowing the dancer from the dance is neither purpose nor objective of the following contemplation. Nonetheless, the paradox that it is both possible and impossible to know the dancer from the dance is intriguing enough to introduces this work's genuine purpose and objective.

1.1 Purpose and Objective

The primary interest of this work rests with organizational knowledge and the associated concepts of organizational learning and memory, not the least because many argue that organizational knowledge is the main source of competitive advantage (e. g., Grant, 1996; Kogut & Zander, 1992; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Nonaka, 1991, 1994; Prahalad & Hamel, 1990). The conceptual metaphors of organizational knowledge, organizational learning, and organizational memory enjoy a long-standing tradition in both management science and organization theory. "Indeed, they have simply become part of the taken-for-granted background in conversations of these topics, and now simply provide a point of departure for researchers to address their own assumptions," Easterby-Smith, Crossan, & Nicolini (2000, p. 748 f.) assert.

2 1 Introduction

In general, metaphors allow for the understanding of one conceptual domain (source) in terms of another (target) (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 5), for example, organizations in terms of machines, organisms, brains, cultures, political systems, or psychic prisons (Morgan, 1986). The basic assumption of any such conceptual transfer is that the source and the target are two ontologically distinct entities that may or may not come within one perceptual phenomenon, not unlike the dancer and the dance. Hence, a clear-cut distinction between individuals and organizations is the prerequisite of organizational knowledge, learning, and memory.

The topics of knowledge, learning, and memory spawn an increasing amount of popular scientific literature. Bestselling titles such as *The New Organizational Wealth* (Sveiby, 1997), *Intellectual Capital* (Edvinsson & Malone, 1997), *Working Knowledge* (Davenport, 1993), *The Future of Knowledge* (Allee, 2003), and *The New Knowledge Management* (McElroy, 2003) present tools for measuring creativity, practical business rules for increasing prosperity, and step-by-step guides for sustaining competitive advantages. Their back flaps alone read like easy-bake recipes for organizational success. Davenport & Prusak (1998, front flap), for instance, lay claim to be the "definite overview of knowledge management, this influential book establishes the enduring vocabulary and concepts in the field." Although scientific in nature, this literature clearly lacks in rigor and therefore widely confuses individuals and organizations.

In large part, the scientific literature likewise denies organizations knowledge, learning, and memory of their own, nevertheless drawing heavily on the conceptual metaphors thereof. Carley (1992, p. 41) then writes, "there is no repository for knowledge in the organization other than personnel," and in a later work, "knowledge resides in the minds of the individuals in the organization, and it is also captured and stored in databases, procedural routines and organizational structure" (Carley & Hill, 2001, p. 68). Hedberg (1981, p. 3) states, "it is individuals who act and who learn from acting; organizations are the stages where acting takes place", and according to Argyris (1992, p. 8), "Organizations do not perform the actions that produce the learning. It is individuals acting as agents of organizations who produce the behavior that leads to learning."

Managerial practice (more or less) follows scientific theory. On the above assumption that organizational knowledge is little more than individual knowledge in an organizational setting, other literature advises business leaders to establish knowledge management systems (Hansen, Nohria, & Tierney, 1999; Poston & Speier, 2005; Thomas, Sussman, & Henderson, 2001; Watson & Hewett, 2006), for example. The promise is to efficiently

and effectively capture, extract, and harvest individual knowledge for the benefit of the organization. Notwithstanding, information technology cannot deliver knowledge management all by itself (McDermott, 1999). An apparent trouble of managerial practice and ultimately organizational success (performance, survival, etc.) is thus the reliance on assumptions which may well be erroneous to begin with.

In remedy of these shortcomings, the genuine purpose and objective of this work is to develop a clear-cut distinction between (1) individuals and organizations, and between (2) individual and organizational knowledge, learning, and memory. Individuals and organizations lend themselves to theoretical scrutiny as two ontologically distinct entities despite being one perceptual phenomenon in practice. The distinction yields insights into knowledge, learning, and memory of both individuals and organizations as if the positions and movements that constitute a dance are observed devoid of the dancer, and vice versa. It provides the initial backdrop against which old and new questions in management science and organization theory are put, for example, "What is the effect of organizational structure on the knowledge of organizations?", "How does personnel turnover and layoff affect organizational learning?", and "Under which conditions are communities of practice beneficial to organizational memory?"

1.2 Scientific Contribution

The clear-cut distinction between individuals and organizations derives from social systems theory (Luhmann, 1984, 1995). Here, individuals and organizations are self-referential and self-producing or, in other words, autopoietic systems which recursively generate their networks of production through the interactions of previously produced components (Maturana & Varela, 1980, pp. 26–29). In case of individuals, these networks produce and reproduce consciousness; in case of organizations, they produce and reproduce communication (Luhmann, 1986). The autopoiesis of individuals and organizations furthermore separates them not only from their particular environment but from each other. Nonetheless, individuals and organizations are structurally coupled in that they incorporate observations of each other (Maturana & Varela 1980, p. 8; Orton & Weick 1990; Weick 1976) in their production and reproduction of consciousness and communication.

Autopoietic organization theory (Baecker, 1999, 2003; Bakken & Hernes, 2003; Seidl & Becker, 2006) adheres to the above definitions of individuals and organizations and already refines social systems theory (e.g., with respect to decision making, strategic management, organizational form and