

Computational Organization Theory

Terrill L. Frantz¹ and Kathleen M. Carley²

(1) HSBC Business School, Peking University, Shenzhen, Guangdong, PRC

(2) School of Computer Science, Carnegie Mellon University, Pittsburgh, PA, USA

INTRODUCTION

As inexpensive and massive amounts of computing power have rapidly become more widely available, the operational aspects of computational-based organizational research has recently become a reality. Today, the concepts of Computational Organization Theory (COT) can be easily implemented and practiced by an ever-increasingly larger group of researchers. Some foresee such computer-science related “computational thinking” (Wing, 2006) as the future of all scholarly research, and COT is part of this broader trend.

COT involves the theorizing about, describing, understanding, and predicting the behavior of organizations and the process of organizing, using quantitative-based and structured approaches (computational, mathematical and logical models). This involves computational abstractions that are incorporated into organizational research and practice through COT tools, procedures, measures and knowledge.

The notion of an organization, as used here, spans the wide range of human-conceived collections of people, i.e., groups, teams, societies, corporations, industries, and governments (e.g., see *Carley and Prietula, 1994*; *Prietula, Carley and Gasser, 1998*; *Gilbert and Doran, 1994*). COT practitioners use computational models and analysis to develop a better understanding of fundamental principles for organizing and behaviors within an organization. Organizational members, i.e., people, are considered information-processing actors. They can interact with and adapt to their environment. They can learn, and they can communicate. While their behavior is certainly complex, this behavior and the underlying determinate of the behaviors can be reduced to basic mathematical equations and algorithms. With this formalization, researchers can develop complete computerized models of an organization which enables the use of computer simulation to create virtual worlds for non-obtrusive experimentation. After running these simulations the collective outcome of these virtual interactions and behaviors can be quantified and collected for extensive analysis. Typically, the results from these experiments are then incorporated into a formalized and thoughtful comparison against findings from controlled lab experiments and real-world empirical cases studies. The history of COT is rich with academic insight and current activity is proving fruitful to organization researchers and practitioners, alike; its future appears very bright.

HISTORY

The field of COT has benefitted from several decades of research. One of the earliest works is *Cyert and March's (1963) The Behavioral Theory of the Firm*, in which a simple information processing model of an organization is used to address issues of organization design and performance. During the past decade an explosion of interest has occurred for theory development and testing in the organizational and social sciences (*Carley, 1995*). The use is expanding for a number of reasons: (a) there is growing recognition that social and organizational processes are complex, dynamic, adaptive, and nonlinear, and thus are hard to study in the real-world (b) researchers and practitioners have come to realize that organizational and social behavior emerges from interactions within and between ecologies of

entities (people, groups, technologies, agents, etc.), which is hard to reproduce and control in the laboratory and real-world, and (c) we have come understand that the relationships among these entities are critical constraints on individual and organizational action, which is hard to control with direct human-based research. Researchers now recognize that organizations are inherently computational since they have a need to scan and observe their environment, store facts and programs, communicate among members and with their environment, and transform information by human or automated decision making (*Burton and Obel, 1996*).

COT has a fundamentally interdisciplinary intellectual history with contributions from social network theory, distributed artificial intelligence and the organizational information processing tradition. Within COT, researchers draw heavily on work in the information/resource processing tradition (*Simon, 1947; March and Simon, 1958; Thompson, 1967; Galbraith, 1973; Cyert and March, 1963; Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978*) and social information processing (*Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978*), as modified by recent work in cognitive science (*Carley and Newell, 1994*), institutionalism (*Powell and DiMaggio, 1991*), population ecology (*Hannan and Freeman, 1977, 1989*), and the contemporary contingency theory (*Baligh, Burton and Obel, 1990*). Within social network and communication/coordination theory, there has been important work done on measures of organizational design and communication (*Wasserman and Faust, 1994; Malone 1986*), cognitive social structures (*Krackhardt, 1987*), network effects on performance, influence and power (*Wasserman and Galaskiewicz, 1994; Kauffer and Carley, 1993; Granovetter, 1985; Burt, 1992*), and research on inter-organizational networks (*Baum and Oliver, 1991; Stuart and Podolny, 1996*). Within the area of distributed artificial intelligence researchers draw on findings regarding representation (*Durfee, Lesser and Corkill, 1987; Lesser and Corkill, 1988*), teams (*Decker, 1995; 1996*), coordination (*Durfee and Montgomery, 1991*), and strategy (*Gasser and Majchrzak, 1994*).

CURRENT STATE-OF-THE-ART

COT models extend from simple intellectual principles of general decision-making behavior (*Cohen et al., 1972; Carley, 1992*) to representations of the decision processes and information flow within specific real-world organizations (*Levitt et al., 1994; Zweben and Fox, 1994*). Models may even operationalize specific management-decisions, -practices and -policies (*Gasser and Majchrzak, 1992, 1994; Majchrzak and Gasser, 1991, 1992*). These COT models enable the researcher to examine the potential impact of general management strategies (*Gasser and Majchrzak, 1994; Carley and Svoboda, 1996*), or enable the manager to examine the organizational implications of specific management decisions (*Levitt et al., 1994*).

Several multipurpose computational-models of organization have been developed including well-known models such as the Garbage Can Model, Plural-Soar, Team-Soar, DYCORN, and ORGAHEAD. In a review of the state of computational modeling (*Ashworth and Carley, 2004, 2007*), 29 specific organization theory computer simulations were found to have been introduced between 1989 and 2003; the authors also made a point that the richness of the models has also increased over those years. More recently, the CONSTRUCT model has been used extensively for theory generation and testing--notably in realms looking at the impact of communications occurring through diverse media. CONSTRUCT provides a vigorous model of organization that has its roots in symbolic interactionism (*Blumer, 1969*), structural interactionism (*Stryker, 1980*), and structural differentiation theory (*Blau, 1970*). These core-theories are combined into a computational theory called constructivism (*Carley, 1991*) which is embodied in the CONSTRUCT model. The model recognizes that people interact within a dynamic social-based organizational network and are characteristically information-seeking agents. They interact to exchange information and purposefully may seek out others who have information that they do not yet hold. They are also being sought out by others seeking their information, or knowledge. This interaction dynamic is played out innumerable times in any organization. When this dynamic is coupled with the organization-membership

changes (hiring and firing) in an organization, this emerging micro-interaction dynamic is manifested in complex organization-level dynamics and outcomes.

Computational organizational theorists often address issues of organizational design, organizational learning, and organizational adaptation. Consider the design question: organizations, through their design, are expected to be able to overcome the cognitive, physical, temporal, and institutional limitations of individual agency. Research has shown that there is no single organizational design that yields the optimal performance under all conditions yet it has shown that for a particular task and under particular conditions, there is a set of optimal designs. Organizational performance itself is dynamic, even under the same design (Cohen, 1986). Thus, the determination of which organizational design is best depends on a plethora of factors which interact in complex nonlinear ways to effect performance. Such factors include the task(s) being performed; intelligence, cognitive capabilities, skills, or training; available resources; quality and quantity of information; volatility of the environment; legal or political constraints on organizational design; the type of outcome desired (e.g., efficiency, effectiveness, accuracy, or minimal costs). The organization's design is considered to be capable of being intentionally changed in order to improve its performance. Consequently, computational models focused on design should be an invaluable decision aid to managers who are interested in comparing and contrasting different types of organizations. Researchers are thus providing guidelines for when to use which design, and developing computational tools for enabling managers to do *just-in-time* design.

Organizational learning, adaptation and change is one of the areas where COT continues to provide invaluable knowledge and understandable promise. In most organizations, multiple types of learning appear to co-exist and interact in complex ways. Organizational learning has been characterized in terms of the search for knowledge (Levinthal and March, 1981), constraint based optimization (Carley and Svoboda, 1996), and aggregation of individual learning (Carley, 1992). In organizational learning, one major challenge is to link multiple models of organizational learning together and to see how they inform each other. We need to understand how organizational networks evolve and how we can characterize an evolved organizational design as being statistically different from an initial design. Such issues of measurement are subjects of ongoing research within the field of COT.

THE FUTURE

The focus of COT is evolving. Past research has focused on representations of natural or human organizations. Increasingly, researchers using COT methods to study organizations which are also composed of artificial agents, or combinations of both human and artificial agents. Human organizations, and artificial systems in general, often show an intelligence and a set of capabilities that are distinct from the intelligence and capabilities of the membership within them. These systems can exhibit organization, intentional adaptation, and can display non-random and repeated patterns and processes of action, communication, knowledge, and memory regardless of whether or not the agents are human. By improving our understanding of the behavior of artificial worlds in general, researchers may discover whether there are general principles of organizing that transcend the type of agent in the organization. Artificial or virtual organizations are appearing and being used to do certain tasks, such as scheduling, robotic control, and so on. One of the issues is how to structure inter-agent coordination and communications. Should organizations of humans and artificial agents be designed in the same way? Do artificial agents need to communicate the same type of information as do humans to be effective? Modeling the interactivity of humans and artificial agents should enable us to answer these questions.

COT will move theories of organizations beyond empirical description to predictive modeling. By focusing on the components (such as agent, structure, task, and resources), the networks of connections among these components (such as the communication structure or the resource

access structure), and the processes by which they are altered (such as routines, learning, adaptation), a more dynamic and coherent view of the organization as an embedded, complex, adaptive system of human and automated agents with greater predictive ability will emerge (Carley and Prietula, 1994). Attending to these factors will necessarily increase the complexity and veridicality of the models, as well as increasing the difficulty in building and validating the models. However, the resulting models will be capable of addressing the concerns of both the theoretician and the practitioner, and yield greater predictive ability and practical guidance. COT thus has the potential to generate a better theoretical understanding of organizations, better tools for designing and reengineering organizations in real-time, and better tools for teaching people how teams, groups, and organizations function.

See **Organization, Organizational Behavior, Models, Complex Behavior.**

REFERENCES

- Ashworth, M., and Carley, K. M. (2004). Toward Unified Organization Theory: Perspectives on the State of Computational Modeling. Proceedings of the NAACSOS 2004 Conference, Pittsburgh, PA.
- Ashworth, M., and Carley, K. M. (2007). Can tools help unify organization theory? Perspectives on the state of computational modeling. *Computational and Mathematical Organization Theory*, 13(1), 89-111.
- Baligh, H. H., Burton, R. M., and Obel, B. (1990). "Devising Expert Systems in Organization Theory: The Organizational Consultant," in *Organization, Management, and Expert Systems*, M. Masuch, ed., Walter De Gruyter, Berlin.
- Baum, J. and Oliver, C. (1991). "Institutional Linkages and Organizational Mortality," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 36, 187-218.
- Blau, P. M. (1970). A formal theory of differentiation in organizations. *Am. Soc. Rev.*, 35(2), 201-218.
- Blumer, H. (1969). *Symbolic interactionism: Perspective and method*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Burt, R. (1992). *Structural Holes: The Social Structure of Competition*, Harvard University Press, Boston.
- Burton, R. M. and Obel, B. (1996). "Organization," in *Encyclopedia of Operations Research and Management Science*, S. I. Gass and C. M. Harris, eds., Kluwer Academic Publishers, Norwood, Massachusetts.
- Carley, K. M. (1991). A theory of group stability. *Am. Sociol. Rev.*, 56(3), 331-354.
- Carley, K. M. (1992). "Organizational Learning and Personnel Turnover," *Organization Science*, 3(1) 20-46.
- Carley, K. M. (1995). "Computational and Mathematical Organization Theory: Perspective and Directions," *Computational and Mathematical Organization Theory*, 1(1), 39-56.

- Cohen, M. D., March, J. G., and Olsen, J. P. (1972). A garbage can model of organizational choice. *Admin. Sci. Q.* 17, 1–25.
- Carley, K. M., and Newell, A. (1994). The nature of the social agent. *J. Math. Sociol.* 19(4), 221–262.
- Carley, K. M. and Prietula, M. J., eds. (1994). *Computational Organization Theory*, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Hillsdale, New Jersey.
- Carley, K. M. and Svoboda, David M. (1996). “Modeling Organizational Adaptation as a Simulated Annealing Process,” *Sociological Methods and Research*, 25, 138–168.
- Cohen, M. D. (1986). Artificial intelligence and the dynamic performance of organizational designs. In *Ambiguity and Command: Organizational Perspectives on Military Decision Making* (J. G. March and R. Weissinger-Baylon, eds.), pp. 53–70. Marshfield, MA: Pitman.
- Cyert, R. and March, J. G. (1963). *A Behavioral Theory of the Firm*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall,
- Decker, K. (1995). “A Framework for Modeling Task Environment,” *Environment-Centered Analysis and Design of Coordination Mechanisms*, Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Massachusetts.
- Decker, K. (1996). “TAEMS: “A Framework for Environment Centered Analysis and Design of Coordination Mechanisms,” in *Foundations of Distributed Artificial Intelligence*, G. M.P. O'Hare and N. R. Jennings, eds., John Wiley, New York.
- Durfee, E. H. and Montgomery, T. A. (1991). “Coordination as Distributed Search in a Hierarchical Behavior Space,” *IEEE Transactions on Systems, Man, and Cybernetics*, 21, 1363–1378.
- Galbraith, J. (1973). *Designing Complex Organizations*, Addison-Wesley, Reading, Massachusetts.
- Gasser, L., and Majchrzak, A. (1992). HITOP-A: Coordination, infrastructure, and enterprise integration. In *Proceedings of the First International Conference on Enterprise Integration*, pp. 373–378. Hilton Head, SC: MIT Press.
- Gasser, L., and Majchrzak, A. (1994). ACTION integrates manufacturing strategy, design, and planning. In *Ergonomics of Hybrid Automated Systems IV* (P. Kidd and W. Karwowski, eds.), pp. 133–136. Netherlands: IOS Press.
- Gilbert, N. and Doran, J., eds. (1994). *Simulating Societies: The Computer Simulation of Social Phenomena*, UCL Press, London.
- Granovetter, M. (1985). “Economic Action and Social Structure: The Problem of Embeddedness,” *American J. Sociology*, 91, 481–510.
- Hannan, M. T. and Freeman, J. (1977). “The Population Ecology of Organizations,” *American J. Sociology*, 82, 929–964.
- Hannan, M. T. and Freeman, J. (1989). *Organizational Ecology*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
- Kaufer, D. S. and Carley, K. M. (1993). *Communication at a Distance: The Effect of Print on Socio-*

- Cultural Organization and Change, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Hillsdale, New Jersey.
- Krackhardt, D. (1987). "Cognitive Social Structures," *Social Networks*, 9, 109–134.
- Lesser, D. D. and Corkill, D. D. (1988). "Functionally Accurate, Cooperative Distributed Systems," in *Readings in Distributed Artificial Intelligence*, A. H. Bond and L. Gasser, eds., Morgan Kaufmann, Inc., San Mateo, California.
- Levinthal, D. and March, J. G. (1981). "A Model of Adaptive Organizational Search," *Jl. Economic Behavior and Organization*, 2, 307–333.
- Levitt, R. E., Cohen, G. P., Kunz, J. C., Nass, C. I., Christiansen, T., and Jin, Y. (1994). The Virtual Design Team: Simulating how organization structure and information processing tools affect team performance. In *Computational Organization Theory* (K. M. Carley and M. J. Prietula, eds.). pp. 1–18. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Majchrzak, A., and Gasser, L. (1991). On using artificial intelligence to integrate the design of organizational and process change in US manufacturing. *Artif. Intell. Soc.* 5, 321–338.
- Majchrzak, A., and Gasser, L. (1992). HITOP-A: A tool to facilitate interdisciplinary manufacturing systems design. *Int. J. Hum. Factors Manuf.* 2(3), 255–276.
- March, J. and Simon, H. (1958). *Organizations*, John Wiley, New York.
- Malone, T. W. (1986). "Modeling Coordination in Organizations and Markets," *Management Science*, 33, 1317–1332.
- Pfeffer, J. and Salancik, G. R. (1978). *The External Control of Organizations: A Resource Dependence Perspective*, Harper and Row, New York.
- Powell, W. W. and DiMaggio, P. J. (1991). *The New Institutionalism in Organizational Analysis*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois.
- Prietula, M. J., Carley, K. M., and Gasser, L., eds. (1998). *Simulating Organizations: Computational Models of Institutions and Groups*, AAAI Press/The MIT Press, Menlo Park, California.
- Salancik, G. R., and Pfeffer, J. (1978). A social information professing approach to job attitudes and task design. *Admin. Sci. Q.* 23, 224–253.
- Simon, H. A. (1947). *Administrative Behavior*, Free Press, New York.
- Stryker, S. (1980). *Symbolic interactionism: A social structure version*. Menlo Park, CA: Benjamin/Cummings Publishing.
- Stuart, T. E. and Podolny, J. M. (1996). "Local Search and the Evolution of Technological Capabilities," *Strategic Management Jl.*, 17, 21–38.
- Thompson, J. D. (1967). *Organizations in Action*, McGraw-Hill, New York.
- Wasserman, S. and Faust, K. (1994). *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications*. Cambridge University Press, New York.
- Wasserman, S. and Galaskiewicz, J., eds. (1994). *Advances in Social Network Analysis: Research in the Social and Behavioral Sciences*, Sage, Thousand Oaks, California.

Wing, Jeannette M. (2006). Computational Thinking. *Communications of the ACM*, 49(3), 33-35.

Zweben, M., and Fox, M. S. (eds.). (1994). *Intelligent Scheduling*. San Mateo, CA: Morgan Kaufmann.