

# A Dynamic Model on Organizational Learning and Forgetting based on “Serious” Errors

Georgia Ning-Yuan Liu<sup>a</sup>, Konstantinos Triantis<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>*Virginia Tech, 7054 Haycock Rd. Falls Church, Virginia 21043 USA*

## Abstract

Organizational science research has established that organizations experience an oscillation cycle of learning and forgetting, particularly in response to “serious” errors. Yet, the intricacies of this dynamic process and its implications on organizational behavior remain underexplored. This study introduces a dynamic model theorizing how organizations transition from a non-safety focus to a safety-focus following “serious” errors, a phenomenon we term as the learning phase, which subsequently diminishes over time, a phenomenon we term as the forgetting phase. Our investigation reveals three critical insights: First, the time delay in an organization's response to “serious” errors significantly influences the pattern and efficacy of learning in subsequent oscillation cycles. Second, the prevailing organizational culture, especially in terms of resource focus between innovation and safety in the existing period, profoundly affects future probability of errors. Third, the established safety threshold within an organization exerts a lasting impact on safety outcomes in the long run. This paper contributes to the understanding of organizational learning and forgetting dynamics by elucidating the effects of “serious” errors, thereby offering a comprehensive framework for enhancing organizational resilience and performance.

Keywords: Organizational learning, Organizational forgetting, serious errors, system dynamics

## 1. Introduction

On January 28, 1986, the space shuttle *Challenger* exploded soon after takeoff. Seventeen years later, the space shuttle *Columbia* met a similar fate, where it disintegrated during reentry after a successful mission on February 1, 2003, despite a seemingly successful mission (Vaughn, 2005). Official reports have shown that not only are both accidents systemic organizational failures but were also preventable (Feynman, 1986; Gehman et al., 2003). Subsequent analysis indicated that management and organizational factors played a significant part in both accidents; with managerial and engineering decisions creating systemic risk that persisted over the years (Vaughn, 2005).

In the wake of these tragedies, organization science researchers have delved deeper to investigate the mechanisms by which organizations learn from, and sometimes forget, serious errors. These errors are defined as “organizational processes that result in failure with significantly adverse outcomes” (Haunschild et al., 2015). Studies across various safety-critical industries – ranging from airline (Haunschild & Sullivan, 2002a), mining (Madsen, 2009), or orbital launch (Madsen & Desai, 2010) - have revealed a clear pattern: the more severe the failure, the greater the impetus of organizational learning. Furthermore, the temporal proximity of such failure events affects the value of the experience associated with such events, with recent experiences deemed to be more valuable than older ones (Argote et al., 1990; Arthur & Huntley, 2005; Epple et al., 1991; Ingram & Baum, 1997). Madsen & Desai (2010) notably found that knowledge acquired from failure experience decayed more slowly than knowledge acquired from success experience.

45 Despite these insights, the question remains what is the impact of an organization's response to a  
46 major disaster on its future performance. This gap in understanding persists, however, not due to  
47 a lack of theory or data. For example, Madsen (2009) offers a theory on how prior organizational  
48 experience with disaster affects the likelihood that organizations will experience future disasters.  
49 Desai (2015) discusses how the heterogeneity of error types affects organizational learning and  
50 Park et al. (2023) differentiate the learning outcomes based on the root causes of failures.  
51 Furthermore, the majority of organizational learning studies have been empirical by nature, relying  
52 on extensive real-world data to validate hypothesis concerning how organizations learn from  
53 failures (Haunschild et al., 2015; Park et al., 2023). This suggest that the field may benefit from a  
54 methodological advancement that can capture the dynamic and often complex nature of  
55 organizational learning in the aftermath of "serious" errors.

56  
57 Organizations are complex adaptive systems, with which members interact, make decisions and  
58 collectively learn and evolve over time. This systemic complexity prompts a need to view errors  
59 as dynamic rather than static occurrences. Lei & Naveh (2023) highlight this difference in the  
60 perspective gap in their systematic review of organizational studies. They propose a paradigm shift  
61 from viewing errors as isolated incidents to understanding them as processes—sequences of  
62 emergent, interconnected events that adapts throughout the firm's structure and operations. This  
63 "error-as-process" perspective recognizes errors as cascade (or chain) of emergent triggers that a  
64 firm develops, changes, and adapts through the system over time. Furthermore, Lei et al. (2016)  
65 articulate the need for a methodological realignment in research to test theoretical models with  
66 temporal nature of errors, stating: "Researchers should build a better alignment between theory  
67 and method to understand the processes and changes related to errors over time and thus to assess  
68 causality. The temporal-focused research approach can enable error scholars to test key predictions  
69 about how key dynamics of error situations evolve over time and begin specifying the causal links  
70 and feedback" (p. 1340).

71  
72 Despite the future research recommendation, human ability to infer the behavior of low-order  
73 dynamic systems is known to be limited (Diehl & Sterman, 1995; Sterman, 1989). This limitation  
74 has led to two main camps of research interests and distinct schools of thought. First, the more  
75 traditional research approach predominantly focuses on monocausal models, which are a  
76 commonly seen in organization science research. Such models formulate hypotheses that explore  
77 the relationships between specific behavioral and environmental variables. For instance, concerns  
78 about how reactions from security analysts, an external factor, shape organizational learning after  
79 "serious" errors (Polidoro & Yang, 2017), and concerns regarding how the depreciation of  
80 organizational knowledge affects quality performance in car manufacturer vendors (Agrawal &  
81 Muthulingam, 2015).

82  
83 While these models offer clarity in understanding the relationships between independent and  
84 dependent variables, they often do not capture the full complexity of the organization's dynamics.  
85 On the other hand, those that dispense with mono-causality often embrace this complexity by  
86 leaning towards dynamic models. These models move beyond mono-causality to embrace the  
87 complex interaction among variables and how they interact over time. Such dynamic approaches  
88 offer a systematic perspective that generate insights often missed in monocausal models that  
89 account for feedback loops, time delays, and nonlinearities inherent in organizational systems. This  
90 systemic view is not only more reflective of the multifaceted nature of organizations but also

91 allows for a deeper exploration of the emergent properties and patterns that arise from the  
92 interactions within these systems.

93 In this study, we take a different approach to the existing literature. We propose to use simulation  
94 models to demonstrate how time delays and a firm's attitude towards safety incidents can lead to  
95 significant different long-term performance outcomes. It is important to clarify that our model  
96 introduces neither new data nor variables and does not test the strength of relationships between  
97 variables. Instead, our contribution lies in the derivation of new insights from well-established  
98 variables in the existing literature.

99 To develop our simulation model, we follow three steps. First, diverging from the norm of  
100 conventional System Dynamics models that rely on behavior-over-time graphs from empirical data,  
101 we adopt a grounded theory approach to inductively build theory from existing theoretical  
102 frameworks (Strauss & Corbin, 1994). Next, we formulate our conceptual model based on the  
103 narrative theories in the literature. Lastly, we translate the conceptual model into a structural stock  
104 and flow diagram support with mathematical functions to produce and generate dynamic behaviors.

105 Our findings not only align with previous work but also provide a layer of specificity to the  
106 discourse. Our contribution is fourfold: 1) Our model advances the literature on organizational  
107 learning and forgetting, particularly in response to "serious" errors. This progression is achieved  
108 through an extensive review of the existing literature, allowing for a more nuanced understanding  
109 of these processes. 2) The dynamic nature takes a first step to provide "error-as-process"  
110 perspective on the research question that is complex and adaptive. 3) We present the practicality  
111 and relevance of using the system dynamics model to investigate complex organizational  
112 phenomena. The model focus on how organizations response to "serious" errors over time and  
113 highlights potential policy interventions that could fortify organizational resilience and  
114 performance, such as balancing innovation with safety and establishing effective safety thresholds.  
115 4) Lastly, this research extends its impact beyond organizational science, contributing to related  
116 fields such as safety science, operations management, and risk management.

117 The insights derived from our model are threefold. First, we provide a feedback perspective on  
118 how organizations adjust their attention prior to and after the occurrence of errors. Second, our  
119 findings reveal that firms undergo the process of organizational learning and forgetting when they  
120 encounter "serious" errors. Third, we observe that organizations with a strong emphasis on safety,  
121 which address potential errors more diligently, tend to experience fewer errors. Consequently,  
122 these organizations accumulate less knowledge derived from failures. Additionally, we note that  
123 the environments with higher volatility of errors tend to provoke more risk-taking behaviors in a  
124 profit-focused firm. Our study underscores the importance of a dynamic approach to  
125 simultaneously consider both learning and forgetting within organizations. This approach is crucial  
126 to understand how varying degrees of safety culture and adaptability in learning contribute to  
127 organizational performance over time.

128 As the renowned statistician George Box aptly stated, "All models are wrong, but some are useful."  
129 This principle holds true for our structural model, which, despite its utility, is not without  
130 limitations. Certain assumptions inherent in the model might pose challenges to the validity of our  
131 analysis, as indicated by the relevant literature (Forrester, 1994). However, it is essential to

132 recognize that any analytical journey must begin with a foundational step. The model we have  
133 developed adds complexity by considering important interactions and feedback loops to the  
134 existing thread of literature, yet it also crystallizes insights into the dynamic nature of  
135 organizational learning and forgetting in the context of “serious” failures. It is crucial to focus on  
136 the core dynamics presented by this model and leverage it as a foundation for future explorations.  
137 By doing so, we can build upon the insights gleaned and continue to refine our understanding of  
138 these critical organizational processes.

139 The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In § 2, we present a detailed walkthrough of  
140 the steps to develop the conceptual model that derived from building theory from theory. In §3,  
141 we develop and analyze a formal model of organizational learning and forgetting due to “serious”  
142 errors. In §4, we present the model simulation results, including the firm’s response to severe errors,  
143 the adaptive dynamics of organizational knowledge and attention in response to a single exogenous  
144 shock, and comparative dynamics on safety and non-safety-focused firms under environmental  
145 volatility. In § 5, the conclusion and implications for future research are discussed.

## 146 **2. The Method**

147  
148 We explore the mechanisms that produce variations of organization’s performance through time  
149 due to “serious” errors by developing a formal model. Rather than building our theory from raw  
150 empirical data that are well documented and articulated in the system dynamics community  
151 (Repenning & Sterman, 2002; Rudolph & Repenning, 2002), we build our conceptual model from  
152 a grounded theory approach, building theory from theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1994). We reviewed  
153 the literature in organizational learning (Argote, 2011; V. M. Desai et al., 2020), organizational  
154 forgetting (Mariano et al., 2020a, 2020b), and error management in organizations (Lei & Naveh,  
155 2023). Recent trends in organizational studies, especially in error research, use empirical data to  
156 induce hypothesized theories (Baum & Dahlin, 2007; Haunschild & Sullivan, 2002b; Madsen,  
157 2009). Hence, although our study does not build on empirical data, the conceptual model that we  
158 developed in this study is a synthesis of the findings of these papers that are based on empirical  
159 data.

160  
161 With the motivating example of *Challenger* and *Columbia* space shuttle accidents, we pursued the  
162 following steps to carry out our theory development. First, we follow the steps of ground theory  
163 building to build theory from theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1994, Suddaby, 2006), starting by  
164 translating constructs and relationships in the space shuttle accident and pharmaceutical industry  
165 “serious” errors narrative (Haunschild et al., 2015) into a system dynamics language of causal loop  
166 diagrams (Forrester, 1997; Sterman, 2010). We also incorporate some fragments of other research  
167 findings, proposing constructs and relationships that augment feedback structures that were not  
168 explicitly explored in the current literature (Davis et al., 2007). For instance, we incorporate the  
169 attention-based view of the organization, linking the accumulation of organizational knowledge to  
170 complete the feedback loop (Park et al., 2023). This feedback structure is further inspired by Lei  
171 et al.'s (2016) review of how errors interact and reach dynamic equilibrium in organizations,  
172 emphasizing the need for firms to constantly align themselves to cope with persistent disruptions  
173 and conflicting forces. Our model reflects this necessity to correct and learn from errors over time,  
174 thereby enabling resilience and sustainability. Illustrative examples of such dynamics are drawn

175 from studies by Ramanujam & Goodman (2011) and Rudolph & Repping (2002), which provide  
176 empirical contexts to our theoretical constructs.

177  
178 Second, we translate the causal loop diagram to a stock-flow diagram. It was at this point that we  
179 realized that it is crucial to identify the stocks in our system dynamics model that clearly depicts  
180 organizational behavior. This is a critical process to transform mostly error-as-event, a static view  
181 of errors, into an error-as-process, a dynamic view of errors in the model. Third, for our stock and  
182 flow diagram, we incorporate equations so that it is a formal model that produces simulation runs.  
183 For example, “organizational knowledge” is presented as a stock in the model, and the rate of  
184 inflow and outflow is experience and depreciation, respectively.

185  
186 The benefit of constructing a formal model by theorizing about the dynamic processes allowed us  
187 to identify inconsistencies with existing theories and synthesize fragments of theories and logical  
188 gaps (Sastry, 1997; Sterman, 1994). We followed standard system dynamic modeling formulation  
189 to account for the model’s robustness (Sterman, 2010, p. 86).

190

### 191 **3. The Model**

#### 192 **3.1. How Organizational Knowledge Accumulates and Erodes**

193  
194 We begin with the specification of conceptual model with the notion of organizational learning.  
195 Scholars predominantly define organizational learning as a change in the organization’s knowledge  
196 that occurs as a function of experience (e.g., Fiol & Lyles, 1985). It is commonly agreed that  
197 experiences are accumulated into organizational knowledge, thereby influencing and refining  
198 future behaviors, actions, and beliefs (Argote & Miron-Spektor, 2011; Cyert & March, 1963; Levitt  
199 & March, 1988). This knowledge is understood as the collective capability of organizational  
200 members, developed through work and shaped by historical collective understandings and  
201 experiences (Chiva, 2005; Tsoukas & Vladimirov, 2001).

202  
203 While researchers have identified various types of experiences that impact a firm organization  
204 learning behavior, such as direct versus indirect experience (Haas & Hansen, 2005), the novelty of  
205 the experience (Katila & Ahuja, 2002), and the ambiguity of the experience (March, 2010); our  
206 study focuses on experience from failure. In this context, researchers indicate that such failure  
207 events incentivize members to accumulate the necessary knowledge to anticipate and prevent  
208 future incidents (Baum & Dahlin, 2007; V. M. Desai, 2011; Madsen, 2009). Hence, in our  
209 conceptual model, we hypothesize that failure experience is accumulated into organizational  
210 knowledge, which is observed in form of performance improvements and the likelihood of future  
211 success.

212  
213 On the other hand, alongside the accumulation of knowledge through failure experience, there is  
214 also potential for erosion, a process termed knowledge depreciation (Argote et al., 1990) and  
215 knowledge loss (Daghfous et al., 2013) in the literature. This concept falls under organizational  
216 forgetting, which (de Holan & Phillips, 2004) describe as “the loss, voluntary or otherwise, of  
217 organizational knowledge” (p. 1606). It has been observed that organizational knowledge is often  
218 unsystematic and opportunistic, leading to situations where previously acquired knowledge is  
219 overlooked (Geroski & Mazzucato, 2002).

220

221 Thus, in our model, we conceptualized organizational knowledge, denoted as  $K$ , as a stock or level  
 222 variable. Acknowledging that knowledge cannot be acquired by managers instantaneously but  
 223 gradually, we proposed that it's rate of change is governed by two factors: experience and  
 224 depreciation.

$$225 \quad K = \int_{t_0}^t \left( \frac{\text{Max}(0, S_t - K_t)}{T_e} - \frac{\text{Max}(0, K_t - S_t)}{T_d} \right) dt + k_{t_0} \quad (1)$$

226 The first component, experience, is defined as the rate at which knowledge accumulates within an  
 227 organization, it is calculated as experience learned per month. This rate of inflow is calculated as  
 228 the difference between the current state of the knowledge,  $K_t$ , and the firm's attention to safety,  
 229 denoted as  $S_t$  (detailed explanation of  $S_t$  is documented in Section 3.2.), and divided by the time  
 230 it takes for an experience to grow within the organization,  $T_e$ . The second component of the integral  
 231 function represents the rate of knowledge depreciation. The stock of knowledge,  $K$ , is reduced by  
 232 this outflow. Similarly, depreciation rate is determined by the gap between the knowledge,  $K_t$ , and  
 233 attention to safety,  $S_t$ , over the time it takes for knowledge to depreciate within the organization  
 234  $T_d$ . In summary, when a firm's focus on safety, denoted as,  $S_t$ , surpasses its current level of  
 235 knowledge, represented by  $K_t$ , it indicates that managers have recognized the need for acquiring  
 236 more knowledge. This situation leads to a positive inflow of experience into the organization's  
 237 knowledge stock. On the other hand, when the firm's attention to safety,  $S_t$  is less than the  
 238 organization's knowledge  $K_t$ , there is an outflow of knowledge depreciation in the firm. We also  
 239 assume that organization firm is equipped with an initial knowledge, denoted as  $k_{t_0}$ , and a baseline.  
 240 Next, we specify the organization's probability of error,  $P_{error}$ , as a sigmoid function of  
 241 organization's knowledge,  $K$ , the safety threshold,  $\chi$ , pressure from manager,  $p$ , and magnitude of  
 242 the chance of errors,  $\gamma$  (scaling factor).

$$244 \quad P_{error} = \gamma * \left( 1 - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-p(K - \chi)}} \right) \quad (2)$$

246 We then model the error occurrence,  $E$ , as a stochastic function comparing between organization's  
 247 chance of error  $P_{error}$  and a random uniform distribution function representing the randomness of  
 248 the environment. Let  $T$  be the current time and be  $T_{int}$  the integer part of  $T$ . Chance of Errors,  
 249  $P_{error}$ , is a probability value between 0 and 1. The random variable  $U$  follows a uniform  
 250 distribution in the interval  $[0, 1]$  with a specified seed for reproducibility. The conditional  
 251 expression of Error Occurrence,  $E$ , can then be defined as:

$$253 \quad E = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } T = T_{int} \text{ and } U < P_{error} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

### 255 3.2. Attention based View of the Organization

257 In the second half of the conceptual model, we take an attention based view of the firm (Ocasio,  
 258 1997; Ocasio et al., 2020) and the notion of limited organizational attention (Simon, 2013), to  
 259 hypothesize how firms respond to serious errors. The concept of attention has been coined  
 260 prominently in organization learning theories, where firm behavior is the result of how firms'  
 261 channel and distribute their attention to organization members. Ocasio (1997) defines attention as

262 “the noticing, encoding, interpreting and focusing of time and effort by organizational decision  
263 makers” (p. 189).

264  
265 Similar to our transformation from qualitative framework to quantitative model for organizational  
266 knowledge, we conceptualized “Attentional Resource”, denoted as  $A$ , as a stock or level variable  
267 that accumulates over time. Recognizing that this resource cannot be changed directly by managers,  
268 but it rather grows or depletes gradually, we propose two primary mechanisms of change: attention  
269 growth and attention erosion. Attention resource, represented mathematically below, captures  
270 these dynamics:

$$271 \quad A = \int_{t_0}^t \left( \frac{\text{Max}(0, E*(A^* - A_t))}{T_g/16} - \frac{A_t}{T_e} \right) dt + r_{t_0} \quad (4)$$

272  
273  
274 Attention growth, the first component in the integral function, is predicated on the idea that,  
275 organizations adjust their attention in response to the occurrence of “serious” errors,  $E$ , as the firm  
276 tries to minimize the gap between the Desired Attention goal  $A^*$  and the current attention level,  
277  $A$ . Last, the growth rate is moderated by,  $T_g$ , representing the time it takes for attention to grow  
278 post-error<sup>1</sup>. The second component addresses attention erosion. Given the assumption that  
279 attentional capacity among organization members are inherently limited, not all organizational  
280 experience are converted into knowledge (Gavetti et al., 2012). The erosion rate is modelled as the  
281 current the level of attention resource divided by the average time of attention erosion,  $T_e$ . We also  
282 incorporate an initial of attention resource level,  $r_{t_0}$ , representing the firm’s attentional resource  
283 baseline.

284  
285 Last, we propose firm’s attention on safety follows a sigmoid function to normalize it to the range  
286 of 0 and 1, as formulated in Equation (5). This equation incorporates the Attention resource,  $A$ , the  
287 normal attention resource on safety (attention capacity),  $N$ , and firm’s attention capability,  $\alpha$ . The  
288 normal attention resource on safety signifies the baseline level of attention that a firm should  
289 allocate to safety-related concerns. Deviation from  $N$  the normal attention resource may indicate  
290 a shift in focus. Firm’s attention capability,  $\alpha$ , is the firm's ability to consciously regulate its  
291 attention allocation. It influences how quickly or gradually the firm adjusts its attention to safety  
292 concerns in response to changes in its attention resource ( $A$ ) relative to the normal attention  
293 resource ( $N$ ). A higher  $\alpha$  value implies a more rapid adaptation of attention, while a lower value  
294 suggests a slower response.

$$295 \quad S = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\alpha(A-N)}} \quad (5)$$

296  
297  
298 This formulation adheres to the attention-based view, which posits that if the experience gained  
299 exceeds the normal attention resource, then firm will wittingly or unwittingly choose to allocate  
300 their finite attention to a particular experience and knowledge while ignoring others (Ocasio, 1997;  
301 Simon, 2013).

### 302 303 **3.3. Model Overview** 304

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<sup>1</sup> We divided  $T_g$  with 16 due to model boundary issue

305 This section presents an overview of the model that consists of two negative feedback loop, as  
306 illustrated in Figure 1. The two feedback loops, “Organizational Learning” and “Organizational  
307 Forgetting” due to “serious” errors describes the dynamic organizational behavior. Initially, an  
308 occurrence of a “serious” error, triggers an increase in the rate of attention growth, resulting in an  
309 accumulation of the attentional resource stock. This surge of attentional resources, enhance the  
310 organization’s focus on safety, thereby facilitating an inflow of experience into the organization’s  
311 knowledge. In organization behavior studies, this stage exemplifies organizational learning  
312 triggered by “serious” errors.  
313

314 Subsequently, as organizational knowledge increases, implying superior safety performance, the  
315 probability of error occurrence diminishes. This reduction in the probability of errors leads to a  
316 stagnation in attention growth within the organization, accumulating into a gradual depletion of  
317 attentional resources. As attentional resources diminish, a lower incoming experience rate  
318 contributes to the depletion of organizational knowledge, which increases the occurrence of errors.  
319 This phase represents the phenomenon of organizational forgetting, also known as knowledge  
320 depreciation. This concept refers to the concept of knowledge decaying unintentionally and  
321 gradually through time, as evidence in Argote et al., (1990) Benkard (2000) &Thompson (2007).  
322 It is important to note that the term “organizational knowledge” in this model specifically pertains  
323 to safety-related knowledge, given our focus on the dynamics of learning and forgetting in the  
324 aftermath of “serious” errors. During this phase, knowledge – particularly that which pertains to  
325 “serious” errors – diminishes, and increases the likelihood of error occurrence. Moreover, in line  
326 with the principles of the attention-based perspective on organizations, firm's attention is a limited  
327 resource. Such limited resource is typically turned into competition in organization as tensions  
328 between conflicting goals, such as safety and profit goals (e.g., Gaba & Greve, 2019; Madsen,  
329 2013). Haunschild et al. (2015) found that the focus of organizational attention oscillates between  
330 safety (i.e., errors) and innovation (i.e., patents) goals based on the recency of errors, concluding  
331 that failure incidents plays a dual role that “pushes organizations toward a focus on safety while  
332 pulling them away from competing foci such as efficiency or innovation” (p. 1683). That is, the  
333 allocation of attention in organizations due to failure may trigger learning, but simultaneously,  
334 other organizational goals may suffer as a result.

335 Ultimately, this initiates a recurring cycle. Figure 2 depicts the dynamic behavior generated by the  
336 proposed simulation model. Firm oscillates between safety focus (avoid doing things that might  
337 result in a “serious” error such as developing a new drug that is not safe) and non-safety focus  
338 (avoid not doing things that is appropriate, such as not producing a drug that is safe) in the wake  
339 of accidents or “serious” errors.  
340



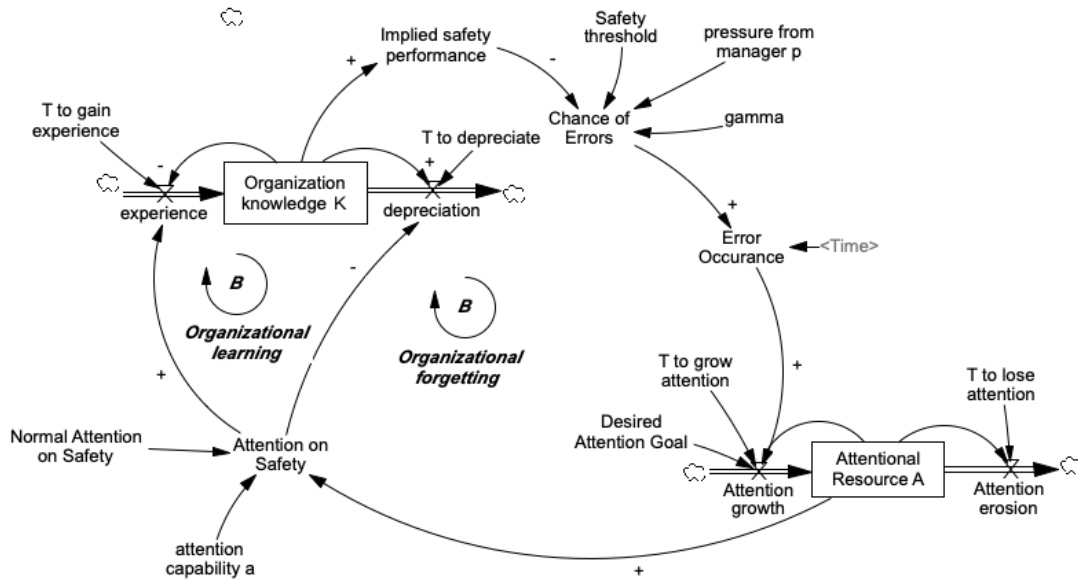


Figure 1. Model Structure Overview<sup>2</sup>

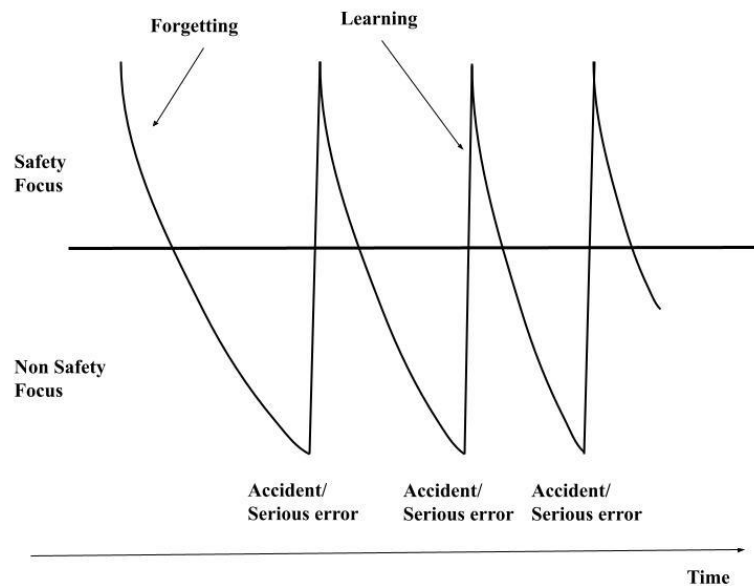


Figure 2. Organizational Oscillation between Safety and Non-Safety Foci due to “Serious” Error (Adapted from Haunschild et al. (2015))

#### 4. Model Analysis

##### 4.1. Firm’s Response to “Serious” Errors

<sup>2</sup> Note: Arrows indicate the direction of causality. Plus, or minus signs on the linkage indicate the polarity of the relationships: a plus signs denotes that an increase in the independent variable causes the dependent variable to decrease, a decrease causes a decrease. Similar, a minus sign indicates that an increase in the independent variable causes the dependent variable to decrease. The rectangle box sign represents the stock variable, that accumulates and dissipates, where the flow variable, next to the stock variable, are presents in the diagram as “pipes” with “valves”.

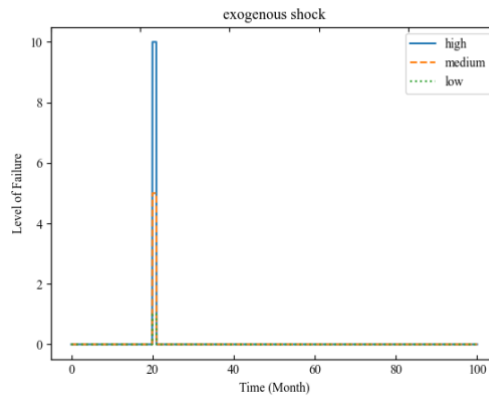
349 We begin the analysis by reproducing the dynamics outlined in the narrative theory of organization  
350 learning and forgetting due to “serious” errors, spanning a duration of 100 months. Figure 4 shows  
351 a set of model runs, illustrating how a firm responds to “serious” errors occurring at month 20. We  
352 show three possible scenarios, each corresponding to a different severity level of the impact of  
353 errors (moderate, significant, and critical). We quantify the severity level impact errors as one, five  
354 and ten, respectively to differentiate their impact (Figure 3). This scale does not correspond to any  
355 real-world metrics but serves as a conceptual tool to demonstrate the varying intensities of “serious”  
356 errors in our simulation runs. Figure 4-a shows the firm’s attention resource response to these  
357 varying levels of impact errors. In each case, immediately after the occurrence of “serious” errors  
358 at month 20, there is a marked spike in the firm’s attention resource. Later, however, the intensity  
359 of the attention resource subsequently erodes over time, leading to a decline attention resources.  
360 In short, the intensity of the incident drives varying levels of attention, thereby creating a distinct  
361 behavioral pattern of organizational knowledge over time.

362  
363 This observed pattern aligns with the attention based view of the theoretical framework of crises  
364 as proposed by Kudesia & Lang (2023). Given that organizational members are inherently limited  
365 in their attention capacities (Ocasio, 1997), failures within organizations act as strong signals,  
366 motivating organizational members to allocate significant amount of resources towards preventing  
367 similar future failures (Dahlin et al., 2018; V. M. Desai et al., 2020; Madsen & Desai, 2010). There  
368 are two factors that distinguish the three behavioral patterns. First, the level of severity failures  
369 prompts organizations to allocate different levels of attention. For instance, accidents of larger  
370 magnitude, which are measured in terms of accident cost and level of injuries motivates  
371 organization members to pay more attention and invest more in activities that can reduce the risk  
372 of future accidents (Madsen, 2009). Consequently, in our example, the attention resource  
373 allocation during the critical impact error scenario is the highest among the three. Second, the  
374 recency of the incident affects attention. Over time, the impact of the event on attention resources  
375 diminishes as many problems are resolved or better managed (Haunschild et al., 2015). Hence, a  
376 consistent pattern of decreasing attention over time is observed in all three of our scenario  
377 examples.

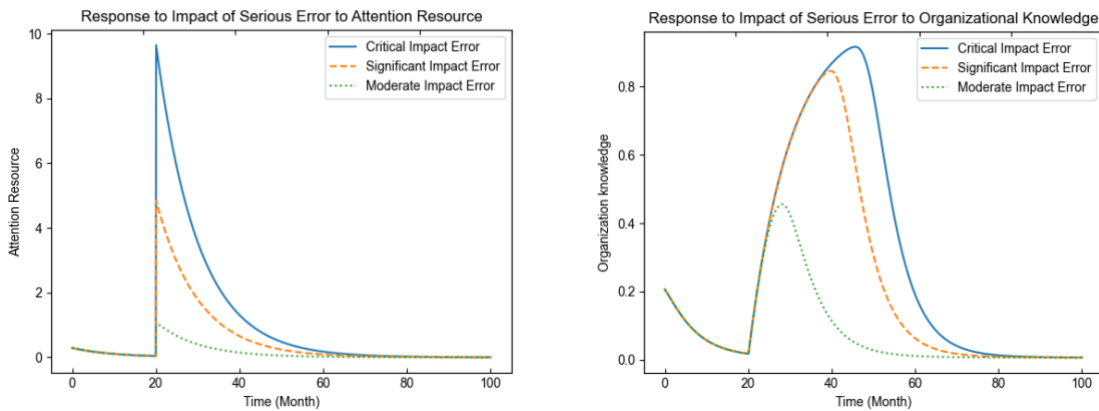
378  
379 Simultaneously, Figure 4-b illustrates the firm’s trajectories of organization knowledge under the  
380 same three scenarios. Unlike attention, organization knowledge requires time to develop. This  
381 process begins once an incident is internalized and transformed into “experience”, and  
382 subsequently being learned and integrated as organizational knowledge (Argote & Miron-Spektor,  
383 2011). In each scenario, there is an initially gradual increase in knowledge following the impact of  
384 a “serious” error. Nevertheless, this knowledge gradually depletes through time as organizations  
385 forgets voluntarily or not (de Holan & Phillips, 2004). As expected, the critical impact error  
386 scenario accumulates a larger amount of organization knowledge compared to the others as it  
387 develops the most attention resource. Furthermore, the sample runs reveal a delay mechanism in  
388 the accumulation of organizational knowledge. As Rahmandad (2008) suggests, such delays add  
389 complexity to the learning process and result in performance heterogeneity in organizations.

390  
391 It is important to emphasize that in our model, “organizational knowledge” specifically refers to  
392 knowledge pertaining to safety, instead of knowledge on other organizational profit goals such as  
393 efficiency and innovation. This focus is essential for understanding the relationships between  
394 failures and knowledge. In the example simulation runs, the upward trajectory in Figure 3-b

395 represents the phenomenon of “organization learning”, while the downward trend signifies the  
 396 “organizational forgetting” phenomenon, a concept explored in detail by Haunschild et al. (2015).



397  
 398 Figure 3. Three Different Levels of level of “Serious” Errors as Shocks  
 399



400  
 401 Figure 4. Firm Response to a “Serious” Error and its Impact on Organizations Attention  
 402 Resource and Knowledge

#### 403 4.2. Adaptive Dynamics of Organizational Knowledge and Attention in Response to an 404 Exogenous Shock

405  
 406 To analyze the dynamic behavior of organizational knowledge and attention resources in response  
 407 to “serious” errors, we begin with two simple cases in which a firm encountered “serious” errors  
 408 under two types of assumptions: deterministic and stochastic.

409  
 410 In the deterministic case, a firm encounters a “serious” level 3 error at month 20 (as illustrated in  
 411 the previous example in Section 4.1). In this case, attention spikes at this point (Figure 5a), and  
 412 organizational knowledge begins to accumulate slowly post-incident, reflecting the firm’s effort to  
 413 fix and address the failure. The gradual accumulation of organizational knowledge, even after the  
 414 peak of the attention resource, suggests an ongoing learning process within the firm, such as  
 415 improving its safety protocol and gaining insights to prevent future incidents. Following the  
 416 “serious” errors, both attention resources and organizational knowledge revert to zero. Since the  
 417 firm does not experience any “serious” errors anymore, no attention is needed, and organizational  
 418 knowledge is depleted gradually. We then introduce a phase portrait, representing the trajectories  
 419 of the firm through the phase space.

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Figure 5b represents the state of the attention resource against the state of organizational knowledge. Each directional line shows the trajectory, and each error shows the direction of the flow from that point. The trajectory in the phase portrait shows how the state of the system evolves after the shock. The directional lines on the upper right indicate that after the spike of attention, the system starts to move back towards the origin, where both “attention resource” and “organizational knowledge” are at lower levels. In this case, the path that leads back to the origin (lower left in the plot) suggests that the firm’s process and responses to shocks are resilient, bringing the system back to equilibrium. This resiliency is due to the balancing feedback loop, where the firm’s mechanisms for dealing with errors counteract the disturbance caused by the shock.

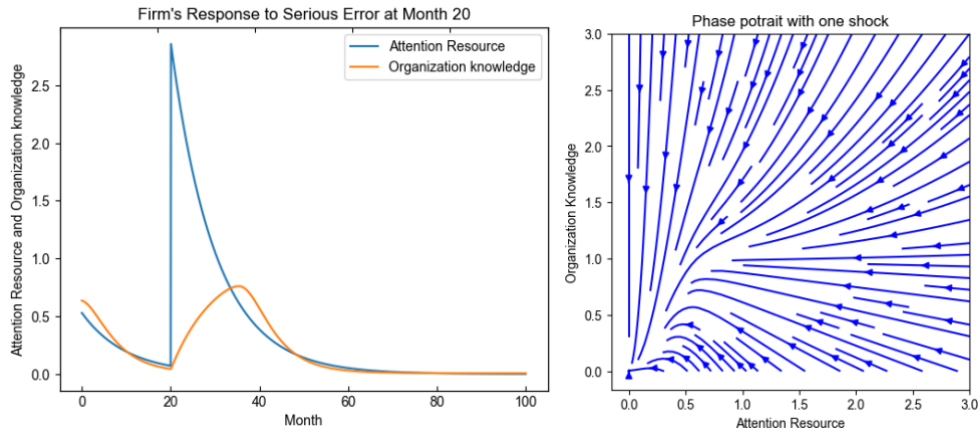


Figure 5. (a) Firm’s Response to a Single Shock and (b) Phase Portrait Diagram.

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In the second case example, rather than treating “serious” errors as an external shock, we assume firm’s responses to errors are directly affected by their safety performance, represented by organizational knowledge in this study, which directly impacts their likelihood of errors. Here, firm’s attention growth is contingent upon the probability of error occurrence at time  $t$ . The revision is motivated by the idea that a firm’s attention growth is not only influenced by exogenous factors, but it is tied to its own safety performance and the probability of errors occurring. We revised the attention growth equation as follows:

443

$$\text{Attention growth rate} = \frac{\text{Max}(0, P_{\text{error}} * (A^* - a))}{T_g/16}$$

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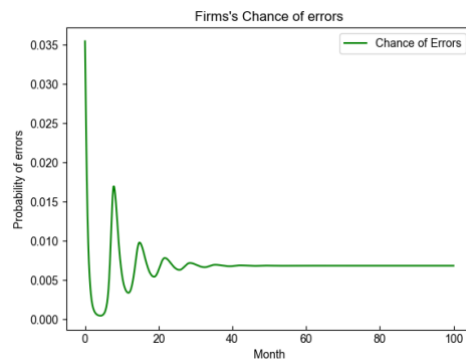
The model starts with a randomly generated state of error probability of 3.5% at Month 0 (Figure 6a). As the probability of errors diminishes, there’s a corresponding decrease in the accumulation of attention resources, leading to minimal accumulation of knowledge. However, the little organizational knowledge implies poor safety performance, thereby heightening the likelihood of errors, a pattern of oscillation thus emerges (Figure 6b). This oscillation gradually dampens as the firm settles into a new equilibrium state, each characterized by reduced error probability and shorter spikes in attention, leading to a diminishing oscillatory behavior in organizational safety knowledge.

453 Eventually, both attention resource and organization knowledge reached a state of equilibrium. As  
454 attention resource returns to its initial baseline, it suggests that the firm does not allocate as much  
455 attention to the error. Meanwhile, organizational knowledge remains at a slightly elevated level  
456 compared to the initial state, indicating that there is some retention of the insights gained from the  
457 crisis.

458  
459 Figure 7 depicts the phase portrait of the firm's dynamic behavior, mapping attention resource in  
460 response to changes in organizational knowledge. The plot shows one or more points where the  
461 trajectory converges, indicating a stable equilibrium point where the system eventually settles. As  
462 the amplitude of the oscillatory behavior diminishes the phase diagram spirals inwards. There are  
463 two main trajectories observed: First, in the lower left of the graph, where the firm is low on  
464 attention and knowledge, an increase in attention (moving right along the x-axis) leads to a rise in  
465 organizational knowledge (move up along the y-axis), indicating the "learning" phase after the  
466 incident. In this phase, the balancing feedback loop –"organizational learning" dominates the  
467 behavior of the system.

468  
469 Second, in the upper right on the graph, where resource attention and organizational knowledge  
470 are high, a decrease in attention results in a gradual reduction of organizational knowledge (moving  
471 diagonally towards to lower left of the graph). This trajectory represents the "forgetting" phase,  
472 characterized by the balancing loop of "organizational forgetting." It is clear that the firm tries to  
473 find the stable equilibrium post-error occurrence, aiming to return to baseline levels. However, in  
474 the real-world scenarios, the oscillation never dies away, due to the continuous disruption with  
475 noise such as "serious" errors. In the next section, we present scenarios considering noise in the  
476 system.

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478  
479 Figure 6. Firm's Probability of Errors

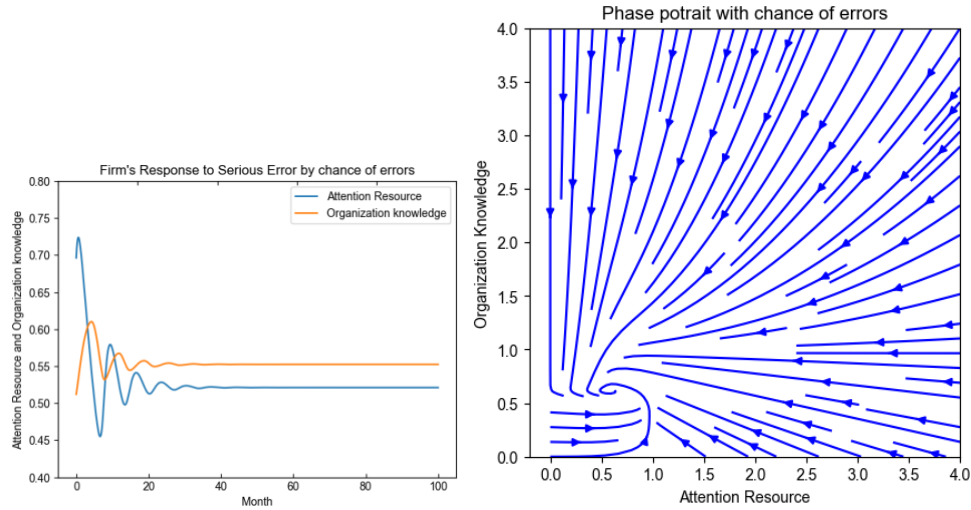


Figure 7. Firm's Response in Probability of Errors – Stochastic Case

### 4.3. Comparative Dynamics on Safety and Non-Safety Focused Firms under Environmental Volatility

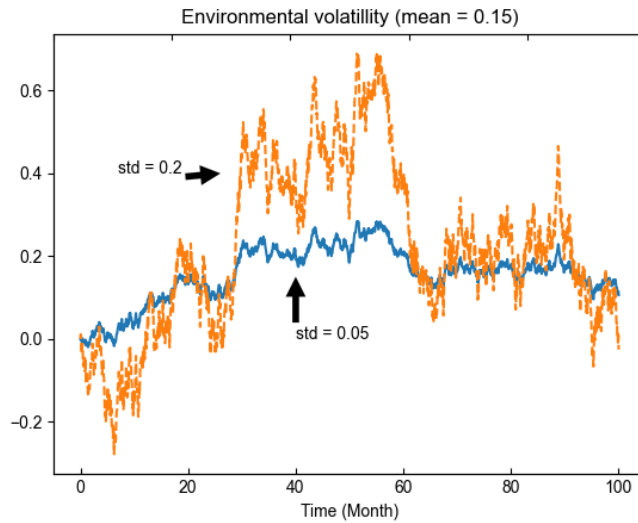
In this section, we explore how variability in environmental volatility influence the firm's organizational knowledge. To incorporate the effect of environmental uncertainty, we represent noise by modeling probability of error with the – exogenous shock to attention growth – as pink noise process,  $\epsilon$ , where normally distributed white noise is exponentially smoothed to create first-order autocorrelation with time constant of  $\delta$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$ .<sup>3</sup>

$$E = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } T = T_{int} \text{ and } \epsilon < P_{error} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

To present the main finding, we consider two firms responding to two types of environmental variability. The first firm prioritizes safety, and responds aggressively to failures, particularly during moments of high error probability ( $\chi = 0.2$ ). On the other hand, the second firm focuses on non-safety goals, usually profit related such as efficiency and innovation ( $\chi = 0.8$ ) and adopts a more measured response to potential failures.

All parameters remain constant across simulations except for the standard deviation of the error noise, which is increased fourfold (std = 0.5) in the second simulation, though the mean failure rate remains unchanged (shown in Figure 8). The noise parameter ranges from -0.5 to 0.5 with a mean of 0.15, implying that lower values denote a riskier environment. This approach allows us to systematically assess the influence of heightened environmental volatility on the strategic decision-making of firms with different core foci.

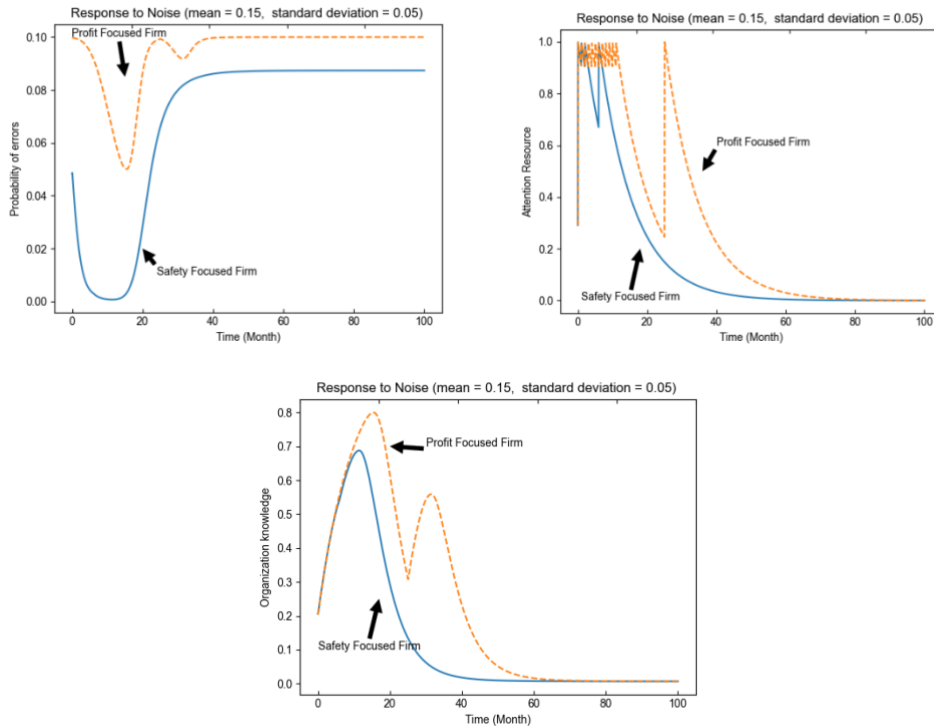
<sup>3</sup> See (Sterman, 2010) for an comprehensive examination of using pink noise as a testing input in continuous time simulation models.



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Figure 8. Environmental Volatility

508 We test how the firms react within an environment characterized by low volatility, meaning that  
 509 the environment is generally stable with minimal unexpected disruptions or potential failure events  
 510 (as indicated by a standard deviation of 0.05 in Figure 8). Under these conditions, the profit-  
 511 focused firm sustains a higher level of organizational knowledge (Figure 9). This is attributed to  
 512 its exposure to a greater probability of errors, necessitating increased attention to address the  
 513 environmental noise. As the probability of errors is determined by the organizational knowledge  
 514 and the safety threshold, the safety-focused firm, adhering to a more conservative policy regarding  
 515 potential errors, experiences fewer instances of error occurrences, thus reducing the likelihood of  
 516 “serious” errors.



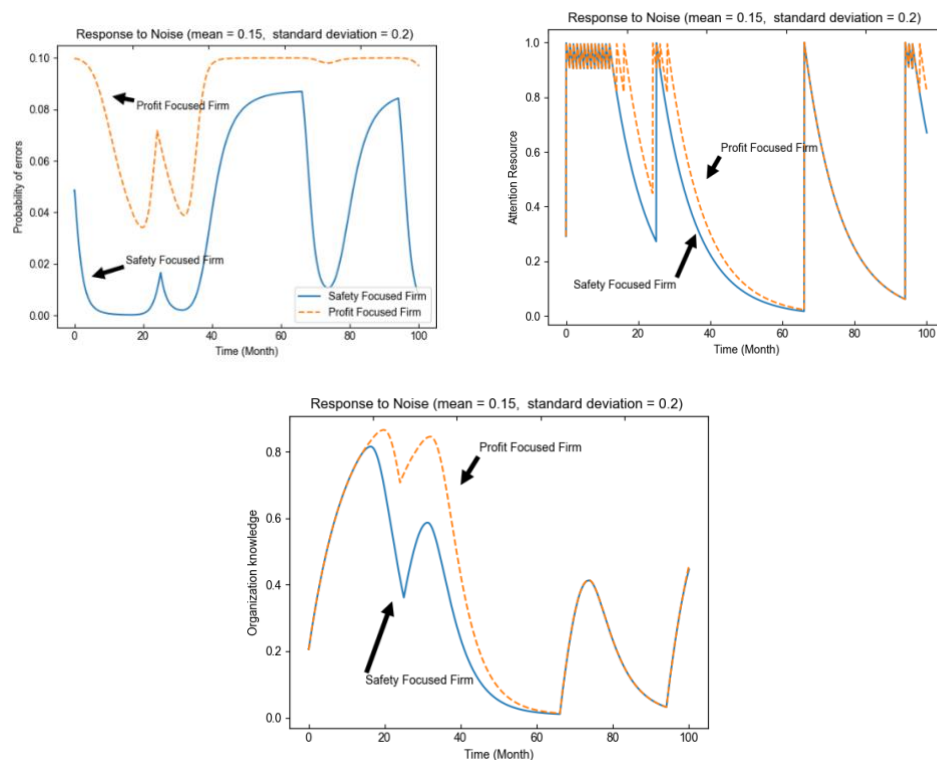
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518

519 Figure 9. Safety and Profit Focused Outcomes, One Environmental Volatility with  $\sigma =$   
 520  $0.05, \delta = 10 \text{ months}$

521 In the second simulation run, we increased the standard deviation of the environment noise to 0.5,  
 522 keeping the remaining parameters values identical. The environmental shock of safety condition  
 523 is depicted by the orange line in Figure 8, where there is a very unsafe period between month 0  
 524 and 20 and a very safe period between the month of 30 and 60. Utilizing the same seed variable  
 525 for both simulations ensures that the general shape of the environmental conditions remains  
 526 consistent, though the severity varies. This results in an extremely unstable environment with  
 527 significant fluctuations.

528  
 529 The profit-focused firm displays a higher probability of errors compared to the safety-focused firm,  
 530 primarily due to its less rigorous approach to potential error conditions (Figure 10). This  
 531 necessitates the allocation of additional effort and attentional resources to mitigate the errors,  
 532 which consequently leads to an accumulation of organizational knowledge over time. Under such  
 533 a volatile environment, the disparity in how each firm addresses potential errors becomes apparent,  
 534 with the profit-focused firm ultimately enhancing its organizational knowledge as a byproduct of  
 535 its response strategy.



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 538 Figure 10. Safety and Profit Focused Outcomes, One Environmental Volatility with  $\sigma =$   
 539  $0.2, \delta = 10 \text{ months}$

540  
 541 **5. Discussion and Implications for Future Research**

542  
 543 Our analysis offers two contributions in understanding the impact of “serious” errors on  
 544 organizational learning and forgetting. First, we treat errors as a trigger for the dynamic interplay  
 545 between learning and forgetting within the organization over time, emphasizing the temporal



546 aspects of errors and the response to errors. While an existing research has examined how “serious”  
547 errors can trigger learning and forgetting (Haunschild et al., 2015), we focus on the feedback loops  
548 and delays in these systems. We delved into how “serious” errors, which later are translated into  
549 experiential learning, affect long term accumulation of organizational knowledge. Second, we  
550 showed that the relationship between “serious” errors and organization’s learning and forgetting is  
551 far more complex than monocausal models might suggest. Our systemic perspective, grounded in  
552 the attention-based view of organizations, examines the effect of firms’ limited attention to safety  
553 issues over time in response to “serious” errors, and how this influences organizational knowledge  
554 acquisition. Specifically, we investigate the safety culture within organizations, exemplified by  
555 managerial attitudes towards errors, represented by safety thresholds in our study, plays a  
556 significant role in shaping the long-term behavior of organization knowledge.

557  
558 It is important to acknowledge that the model from these insights derived is far simpler than any  
559 real-world system. As organizations are complex adaptive systems, varying in size, culture,  
560 structure and goals, the time to learn and forget is different among firms. For instance, (Huberman,  
561 2001) explores the variation in learning rates observed across firms. Thus, treating errors as a  
562 homogenous event with predictable outcomes across all organizations is an oversimplification.  
563 Our model, however, represents an initial step towards understanding these core dynamics under  
564 theoretical assumptions. The nature and impact of “serious” errors can vary significantly across  
565 different contexts. For example, the contrasting consequences of a pharmaceutical company  
566 releasing a harmful drug versus a railway traffic control center experiencing a train accident.

567  
568 There are, however, limitations to our proposed model. First, our model is a theoretical model,  
569 though derived from a theory, is not yet validated with empirical, real-world data. Second, we have  
570 not captured the novelty of the errors. We have assumed uniformity in error characteristics, but in  
571 reality, the novelty of the error could significantly influence the learning and/or the forgetting rate  
572 of the organization, as well as the transformation and internalization of the experience. For  
573 example, a firm may pay more attention to a new type of “serious” errors than errors that have  
574 occurred in the past.

575  
576 Despite these limitations, our model offers two crucial insights: First, a more comprehensive  
577 understanding of how organizations learn and forget in response to “serious” errors requires the  
578 consideration not only the severity of the error, but also the novelty of the error. Secondly, it is still  
579 premature to assume that all errors induce similar dynamics in organizational learning and  
580 forgetting processes. In summary, our research contributes to a deeper understanding of the  
581 nuanced and complex relationship between serious errors and organizational learning and  
582 forgetting, highlighting the need for further empirical investigation in this area.

## 583 584 **6. Conclusion**

585  
586 Overall, in addition to these contributions, we hope that our model provides a systemic perspective  
587 to the understanding of the oscillatory behaviors in organization learning and forgetting prior and  
588 post-error. Our approach builds upon the error-as-process perspective, incorporating an analysis of  
589 the feedback mechanisms and time delays that influence an organization's accumulation of  
590 knowledge over time. While we focus primarily on the shifting attention in response to “serious”

591 errors, this research has the potential to be extended to other precursors, such as sudden changes  
592 in staff retention or other significant organizational shifts.

593  
594 A key avenue for future research lies in the empirical testing of our model using real-world data.  
595 Given that concepts such as experience, knowledge, and attention are inherently challenging to  
596 quantify, we advocate for the incorporation of established survey methodologies that can translate  
597 these abstract constructs into measurable, quantitative data. We suggest that future studies could  
598 gather survey data on organizational knowledge and attention, collecting information from  
599 managers and staff within organizations over time. This approach will provide a more robust  
600 foundation for validating the proposed theoretical model.

601  
602 Finally, while it is an unrealistic goal to eliminate all “serious” errors, and the oscillation cycle  
603 they generate, understanding the underlying mechanisms of such phenomena is crucial. This can  
604 potentially help organizations to better anticipate and mitigate the impacts of errors, thereby  
605 enhancing the learning and forgetting process.

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