

Business Process Modeling in the 1920s and 1930s as reflected in Fritz Nordsieck's PhD Thesis

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Abstract. The PhD thesis by Fritz Nordsieck submitted in 1931 was one of the first scientific works in Germany that focused explicitly on business process models. Although the general contributions of Nordsieck to the study of business processes is often acknowledged, there is hardly any reflection on his specific findings on process modeling in any of the works after World War II. This is problematic since research on process modeling often assumes that later works on Petri nets and IDEF in the 1960s defined the starting point of process modeling. In this article, we discuss the contributions of Nordsieck's thesis. We find that the practice of workflow modeling was already richly developed in the 1920s. Even though some present-day concepts were still missing, the thesis still has the potential to inform contemporary research. Most important is the discussion of different categories of diagrams on a spectrum from spatio-temporal to conceptual, which demonstrates the need of re-integrating ideas from information visualization and conceptual modeling, two fields that have been artificially separated and researched by different communities over the last 40 years.

Keywords. Business Process Modeling • Organizational Routines • Workflow Charts • Fritz Nordsieck

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1 Introduction

Fritz Nordsieck (1906–1984) was one of the first to explicitly study how business analysts make use of business process models. His PhD thesis from 1931 with the title *Die Schaubildliche Erfassung und Untersuchung der Betriebsorganisation* (English: The diagrammatic description and analysis of business organization) was published by C. E. Poeschel Verlag as Nordsieck (1932). His thesis builds on a collection of 117 diagrams from 105 publications, organized in three categories.

The importance of Nordsieck's thesis for the organization sciences and business process modeling, at least in the German-speaking countries,



Figure 1: Photo of the young Fritz Nordsieck published in *Archiv für Molluskenkunde* (Janssen 1987)

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I thank Schäffer-Poeschel Verlag für Wirtschaft-Steuern-Recht GmbH for the permission to reprint figures from Nordsieck's PhD thesis and Schweizerbart for permission to reprint Nordsieck's portrait photo. I also thank Hartmut Nordsieck for comments on an earlier version of this article.

is emphasized by Staehle (1969), Grochla (1977), Franken and Frese (1981), Keller and Detering (1996), Kieser (1999), zur Muehlen (2004), Dorow and Blazejewski (2006), and Mendling (2008). His thesis is cited more than 100 times according

to Google Scholar, his opus magnum Nordsieck (1934): *Organisationslehre* (English: organization study) more than 300 times, and his late Nordsieck (1972): *Betriebsorganisation* (English: business organization) around 250 times.

Franken and Frese (1981) reflect upon the significance of his works for modern business and management research, and stress that

“Classical organization studies begin with Nordsieck [. . .]. Only Nordsieck laid the conceptual foundation upon which a new branch of business administration, namely organization studies, could develop.”

Franken and Frese (1981) highlight that his work already recognizes the salience of *tasks* as the starting point for any understanding of organizations. Remarkable is also the fact that Nordsieck (1934) already emphasized the duality of *organization* as a system of rules and structures that support the overall goal of the business and *organizing* as the practice of planning and defining organizational rules. Also the distinction between structural and procedural organization is credited to him by Grochla (1977).

zur Muehlen (2004) praises that his visionary thinking already anticipated the process-oriented design of information systems. Indeed, much of the more recent citations to Nordsieck stem from publications on business process modeling. zur Muehlen (2004) translates a statement in Nordsieck (1972) as follows:

“Think about [a] modern data processing [system]. This, too, represents a significant process that is even connected with the business process and accompanies - or even controls - this process across different segments.”

After Nordsieck completed his PhD at the University of Cologne, he continued in 1934 as a scientific assistant to *Deutscher Gemeindetag* (English: association of German municipalities) and served as the editor-in-chief of the *Zeitschrift für öffentliche Wirtschaft* (English: journal of public management). He aimed for a habilitation,

which was apparently not granted for political reasons (Janssen 1987). After serving in World War II as an officer, he held various senior administrative positions on the municipality and district level in the Lower Rhine region.

At a later stage of his career, he observed an increasing gap between his values and the demands of his political and administrative duties (Janssen 1987). As a response, he turned more and more to his hobbies of painting and malacology (the study of animals such as snails, slugs, clams, octopuses and squid). For the latter subject, he developed a scientific interest and approached it in a somewhat comparable way as already shown process models in his PhD works (Franken and Frese 1981): He collected instances and tried to capture the commonalities of their outer appearance. The difference was that now, it was not diagrams created by others, but he created sketches and paintings of molluscs himself (Janssen 1987). This led to various publications of articles and books on describing and taxonomizing different groups of molluscs. His research in this area inspired him to actively contribute to nature conservation, an engagement for which he received a medal of honor from the nature conservation association in North Rhine-Westphalia. Furthermore, he was active as a philosopher and chess player.

The historic roots of process modeling techniques are often closely related to the advent business-oriented computers in the 1960s (Couger 1973) and office automation in the 1980s (zur Muehlen 2004), but their concepts can be traced back already to scientific management (Taylor 1911) and motion studies (Gilbreth and Gilbreth 1917) in the 1920s. Nordsieck's PhD thesis offers unique insights into the spectrum of models, diagrams and representations that were used at those times. While his work is often mentioned as a rich source of inspiration, such words of praise have hardly been substantiated by more than cursory examples and definitions. For that reason, it is unclear how much of modern process modeling concepts are already included in his work, or if he might have even identified concepts that

would contribute to research on business process modeling still today.

This paper addressed this research gap. More specifically, we reconstruct the contributions of Nordsieck's PhD thesis by the help of concepts that are established in recent research on process models, but which had not yet existed when his thesis was submitted. Even though we study his thesis as a historical document, we do not make use of research methods that are established in the field of economic history. Instead, we follow an approach similar to Burton-Jones (2014). In essence, this approach takes as input the informal description of a theory (in his case the book on the age of the smart machine by Zuboff (1988)) and constructs a more precise description by the help of conceptual models. The difference is that we use reconstruct modeling concepts, and not theoretical constructs. Our findings reveal a rich spectrum of process models and representations, which exhibits a diversity that is unknown to present day standardization efforts.

The paper is structured as follows. Section 2 discusses the translation of German technical terms to English. It also provides an overview of Nordsieck's PhD thesis. Section 3 describes the method of our analysis and presents the findings of our analysis. Section 4 discusses these results in the light of recent debates on business process modeling. Section 5 concludes the paper with a summary and an outline of future research directions.

2 Nordsieck's PhD Thesis

The ambition of his thesis is defined by Nordsieck (1932) in its preface: "*This work tries to provide an overview of techniques for diagrammatic representation and analysis of business organization in an as comprehensive as possible way.*" To this end, "*the question has to be answered: which relationships, events and effects in businesses are accessible for organization-technical description?*" Tab. 1 summarizes the structure of the thesis. He subdivides his work into a general part and a specific part. The general part

discusses foundations of diagrammatic representation in the context of business analysis. The specific part identifies three different categories of diagrams. He distinguishes structure diagrams with eight sub-categories, basic flow diagrams with four sub-categories, and timelines with three sub-categories.

Next, we discuss terminological challenges for interpreting the thesis and the references upon which it builds.

2.1 Terminological Challenges

One difficulty of reflecting Nordsieck's thesis stems from the fact that he uses terminology that is disconnected both from present day process modeling concepts and from present day German terms for these concepts. For this reason, it is important to define translations in a way that is systematic and traceable.

Tab. 2 shows some of the frequent terms used in Nordsieck's thesis. Note that there are alternative terms that can be used as a translation. The most important concept is *Schaubild* (*English: diagram*). This concept is defined as a "graphical representation of a real or imaginary relational structure or event sequence" (Nordsieck 1932, p. 3). The term *Schaubild* is difficult to be explicitly distinguished from *Plan* (*English: chart*), at least in a general sense. Among others, *Verkehrspläne* (*English: traffic charts*) are discussed as specific types of diagrams. The term *Harmonogramm* (*English: harmonogram*) has fallen out of use both in German and in English. For that reason, we use the more common, but less specific term *timeline*.

All diagrams and charts described by Nordsieck are models in a modern sense (Mendling 2008): their syntax, semantics, and notation are predefined or preconceived, constituting at least implicitly a modeling language. It is Nordsieck's ambition to understand these largely implicit modeling languages behind the diagrams he collects from practice and prior research.

Table 1: Table of Contents of Nordsieck's PhD Thesis with page numbers (own translation)

Introduction: Conception of the organization	1
Delimitation of the Topic	1
Part I - Foundations of the diagrammatic description and analysis of business organization	
A. Essence and properties of organization diagrams	3
B. Purposes and functions of organization diagrams	4
C. Forms and representational alternatives of organization diagrams	6
D. The subject of diagrammatic description	9
Part II - Subjects and techniques of diagrammatic description and analysis of business organization	
A. Structure diagrams	13
A 0. Task structure	13
A 1. Task distribution. Business and instance structure	16
A 2. Specific problems of instance composition	19
A 3. Task distribution and task relationships	21
A 4. Job creation, job description and job staffing ¹	27
(A 5 left free for further problems of the business structure)	
A 6. Composition of facilities	29
A 7. Composition of administrative tools	29
A 8. Composition of larger work items	30
B. Basic flow diagrams	31
B 0. Transport, flow, and traffic chart	31
B 1. Work structure and work distribution	32
B 2. Workflow and work cycle	41
B 3. Staffing schedule	61
C. Timelines	62
C 0. Traffic timelines	62
C 1. Workflow timelines	65
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German	English
Aufbau	composition
Aufgabe	task
Betrieb	business
Betriebsfaktoren	operating factors
Darstellung	representation
Erfassung	description
Gliederung	structure
Harmonogramm	timeline
Instanz	instance
Instanzenbau	instance composition
Instanzenweg	reporting line
Leitung	management
Plan	chart
Schaubild	diagram
Untersuchung	analysis
Verfahren	technique
Verrichtung	activity

Table 2: Glossary of frequently used terms in Nordsieck's PhD Thesis

2.2 References used in the Thesis

Nordsieck's PhD thesis builds on 105 references. The full reference list is reproduced in Appendix A, including an English translation of each reference. Most of the references are German, several are French or English, some are Dutch, and one reference mixes German and Polish.

Much of his references are from German business administration journals. Most prominent is *Zeitschrift für Organisation* (English: *Journal for Organization*), which was established in 1927 as the flagship journal of the German Gesellschaft für Organisation (English: *Association for Organization*), an association that still today fosters exchange between academia and practice. 28 of Nordsieck's references are published in *Zeitschrift für Organisation*. 11 articles are from *Betrieb* (English: *business*). A few other references, namely four articles each, stem from *Sparwirtschaft* (English: *savings banking*), *Organisation* (English:

organization), and Industrial Management.² Also of some significance are the proceedings of the IVe Congrès International de L'Organisation Scientifique du Travail (*English: 4th International Congress on the Scientific Organization of Work*) with six papers being cited.

It is also remarkable that Nordsieck builds on ten own prior publications. These include his diploma thesis that he wrote at the Faculty of Management, Economics and Social Sciences of the University of Cologne in 1928. Four of his cited articles were published in *Zeitschrift für Organisation*, another three in *Die Betriebswirtschaft* (*English: business administration*) (collectively listed as Reference 94), one in *Zeitschrift für Handelswissenschaftliche Forschung* (*English: journal for trade economics*), and one in *Zahlungsverkehr und Bankbetrieb* (*English: transaction banking and banking business*).

The extensive reference to then recent articles is testimony to the fact that Nordsieck's thesis is embedded in a vivid discourse at his time. At a more general level, he refers to early proponents of scientific management. Frenchman Henri Fayol and his foundational book on *General and Industrial Management* (Fayol 1916) is discussed in the context of task distribution and a commentary by Henri Verney (1925) on Fayol regarding the purposes of using diagrams. Also referenced is the book on *Applied Motion Study*³ by Gilbreth and Gilbreth (1917). Noteworthy is the fact that Taylor (1911) is not cited in his thesis; maybe the Gilbreth's had been more visible in Germany for their work at the *Auergesellschaft* (Price 1990), a major German corporation for electric light and gas mantle manufacturing in Berlin, and the publication of their motion study book in German (Nordsieck cites both the English original and the

German translation). References to Frederick W. Taylor and Max Weber, as well as to the *Primer to Scientific Management* by Gilbreth (1912) are found only later in his general book on organization studies (Nordsieck 1934).

The more specific discourse, in which his thesis is embedded, is on the usage of diagrams in organizational studies. There is one author who he explicitly singles out as a source of inspiration: Ernst Hijmans, Dutch engineering, director of the Standardization Office of the Netherlands, and a pioneer of organization studies in his country.⁴ Several of Hijmans' works deal with diagrams and their application for specific organization analysis tasks, such as form diagrams (Hijmans 1928) and transport diagrams (Hijmans 1930). Nordsieck emphasizes the importance of Hijmans' works for his thesis in the preface. In the category of *References that cover the complete subject matter discussed in the thesis*, he points only to 1. Porter and 6. Beaumont on *charts*; 2. Wlach, 3. Mildner and 5. Hijmans more specifically on the *diagrammatic representation of organization charts*; and one of his own prior publications, beyond two reference without authors. From this fact, it seems as if the academic discourse was only emerging and driven by practical relevance.

Indeed, Nordsieck's topic appears to be of very practical relevance in the 1920s as evidenced by the number of references from industry. The work of various associations and committees from different countries is visible in several publications. The mentioned Hijmans was closely associated with the *Nederlandsch Instituut voor Efficiency* (Nive), a practitioners' association established in 1925 that continues to exist as a professional platform for managers.⁵ Several of Hijman's publications appeared in a series published by Nive. In France, the *Comité National de l'Organisation*

² The magazine *Industrial Management* was first published in 1891, then called *Engineering Magazine*. Its history is summarized in a Wikipedia article at https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Engineering_Magazine. Digital scans of the magazine are online available at <https://catalog.hathitrust.org/Record/005337008>.

³ A scan of this book on motion study is available online at <https://archive.org/details/appliedmotionstu00gilbrich>.

⁴ For more on the work and life of Ernst Hijmans, see https://nl.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ernst_Hijmans (Dutch only). Scans of the two booklets on diagrams are online at <https://vu.contentdm.oclc.org/digital/collection/nib/id/648> and <https://vu.contentdm.oclc.org/digital/collection/nib/id/733>.

⁵ See <https://www.nive.org/over-nive>.

Française (CNOF) was founded in 1926.⁶ The CNOF organized the IVe Congrès International de L'Organisation Scientifique du Travail and published its proceedings, from which Nordsieck cited six papers (Comité National de l'Organisation Française 1929). In Germany, the Reichsausschuß für Arbeitszeitermittlung (Refa) was established as a professional association in 1924.⁷ Among others, Refa published education material, from which Nordsieck cites two. Also cited is a guidebook published by the Reichsausschuß für wirtschaftliche Fertigung (AWF).⁸ The Ausschuß für wirtschaftliche Verwaltung (AWV)⁹ published a guideline on the organization-technical representation of workflows in bookkeeping, which Nordsieck extended. Further to mention is the Verband Deutscher Ingenieure (VDI), which published the translation of the Applied Motion Studies by the Gilbreths, the Verband Deutscher Elektrotechniker, the Deutscher Normenausschuß, the Fachausschuß Rechnungswesen bei RKW, and the Fachausschüsse des Vereins deutscher Eisenhüttenleute. Also of relevance is the Hauptverband der Industrie österreichs.¹⁰ Its Ausschuß für wirtschaftliche Betriebsführung (AWB) and its österreichischer Normenausschuß für Industrie und Gewerbe (önig) published guidelines for organization diagrams. Nordsieck cites five publications that build on their guidelines.

From this we conclude that Nordsieck addressed a topic of high practical relevance with his thesis that was in need of a deeper academic analysis.

⁶ See https://fr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Comit%C3%A9_national_de_l'organisation_fran%C3%A7aise. The CNOF served as a professional association for work organization. In 1997, it was integrated into IFG Executive Education France.

⁷ Refa continued to exist as REFA - Verband für Arbeitsgestaltung, Betriebsorganisation und Unternehmensentwicklung (English: *Association for Work Design, Business Organization and Business Development*).

⁸ See <https://www.awf.de/ueber-uns/historie/>.

⁹ See <https://www.awv-net.de/awv/daten-fakten/index.html>.

¹⁰ See <https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Industriellenvereinigung>.

3 Reconstruction of Nordsieck's Thesis using Present-Day Concepts

3.1 Research Method

The methodological approach used in this paper is loosely inspired by Burton-Jones (2014). His paper has the objective to surface and precisely articulate the theory of the *Smart Machine* described by Zuboff (1988). To that end, he builds on coding procedures of grounded theory and content analysis. Such measures are not required for Nordsieck's thesis that provides a concise, systematic and structured presentation on a limited number of 76 pages (in contrast to the 468 pages of Zuboff's book). What is relevant for our study is that Burton-Jones explicates and reconstructs Zuboff's theory using conceptual models. We will utilize this idea and reconstruct Nordsieck's conceptualizations in a precise manner. In this way, we aim to formalize Nordsieck's ideas by the help of contemporary concepts that were not yet available when he was conducting his doctoral research.

3.2 Benefits of Diagrams

Right in the beginning of his thesis, Nordsieck discusses various properties of diagrams (Part I, Sect. A). This section is not much longer than one page, but concise and sharp. Nordsieck defines the concept of a *diagram* as a graphical representation of a real-world or imagined complex of relationships or sequences of events. This definition is closer to contemporary notions of a diagrammatic representation (*how information is represented*) as, for instance, described by Larkin and Simon (1987), than definitions of a conceptual model as a mapping (*what information is represented*) as described by Thalheim (2018), which have a strong connection with metamodels or grammars (Burton-Jones et al. 2017).

In his discussion of properties of diagrams and associated benefits, Nordsieck emphasizes both the question of *how* and *what* to represent. Natural language is his benchmark, as for many later authors who look at diagrams from a cognitive angle including Larkin and Simon (1987), Vessey

(1991), Kelton et al. (2010) or most recently Ritchi et al. (2020) and Malinova and Mendling (2022). Nordsieck states that “the usage of symbols equips the diagram with properties that facilitate not only to replace other means of representation, especially language, but to reveal the true nature of a represented matter in a more pristine way than other means of representation could.”

The *cognitive* benefits of using diagrams are summarized by Nordsieck as follows. First, diagrams are *compact*. They eliminate the verbosity of natural language and represent matters in a short, lucid, clear and pictorial way. Staehle (1969) highlights Nordsieck's merits in emphasizing the potential of diagrams to represent complex facts synoptically, to minimize text, and to take the shortest possible time to grasp. Second, diagrams are *spatial*. Text is sequential and forces the reader into a specific reading order, while diagrams can be inspected in any direction. This argument is more than 50 years later systematically analyzed by Larkin and Simon (1987).

Nordsieck also points to a *conceptual* benefit. Diagrams force the modeler to exert the utmost *precision* by operating with symbols. The idea of a metamodel is implicitly developing with this argument when he states that every symbol should be introduced with careful thought. Research into the quality of symbols in a sense of concepts as defined in schemas, metamodels (Sharman 1978), or modeling grammars (Wand and Weber 1990) only develops 50 years after Nordsieck.

3.3 Purposes and Functions of Organization Diagrams

Nordsieck describes the purpose of organization diagrams to support the documentation and analysis of organizations. The similarities with the present-day tasks of the business process management lifecycle, as for instance covered by Dumas et al. (2018), is striking. He describes how an *organization study* should be conducted, an endeavor that we would call a process improvement project today. Such a study is driven by an *organizer*, a person that we might refer to as a business

analyst. Organizers should pay attention to both the organizational structure and behavior.

An organization study is supposed to be conducted as follows:

1. As a first step, the organizer should conduct a documentation of the *as-is* situation. In modern business process management (BPM), this is called process discovery. The organizer should focus on recurrent work processes. These can be captured using diagrams.
2. The step of process analysis, which receives substantial attention in modern approaches to BPM, Lean or Six Sigma (Alter 2013; Dumas et al. 2018; Schroeder et al. 2008), is described only shortly and as part of as-is documentation. Recurrent issues, disruptions and errors are mentioned.
3. Then, the organizer turns to the specification of a *to-be* design of the organization. This new design is meant to fix all the issues of the current situation. As much as Reijers and Mansar (2005) will criticize it 75 years later, there is no discussion of how this to-be design of the organization is actually derived.
4. Nordsieck also mentions that the to-be design should replace the current practice, and that this requires various measures, including the provision of check lists. In modern BPM, this step is called process implementation.
5. He also mentions briefly that ongoing controls should be conducted. Modern BPM speaks of process monitoring in this context.

It is interesting to note that Nordsieck not only discusses as-is and to-be models, but also reference models (*German: Einheitspläne*). His description is consistent with the present-day usage of the term, e. g., by Fettke and Loos (2003). Nordsieck emphasizes the benefits of using diagrams as a means of comparison and benchmarking between different organizations. He formulates the vision that reference models could be created for organizational structure and processes, among others, for those functions that are similar in many companies. The same idea shows up 60 years later

in research on reference models and enterprise software (Keller and Teufel 1998; Scheer 1994).

3.4 Representations of Organization Diagrams

Nordsieck discusses that types of diagrams can be distinguished according to how information is represented. He identified geometric arrangement and types of elements as criteria.

Diagrams can be designed according to different *geometric arrangements* in three groups.

1. Free positioning: There are diagrams that use a *free positioning* of the elements. Modern graph-based diagrams such as UML class diagrams belong to this category.
2. Bound in one dimension: Diagrams can be *bound in one dimension*. Directed graphs such as BPMN business process diagrams or decision trees assume a dimension directed from left to right or top to bottom indicating temporal or logical order. A special case that Nordsieck mentions are diagrams that use a dimension that is scale-proportional. One modern example of a time-proportional diagram bound in one dimension are timeline charts.
3. Bound in two dimensions: Diagrams can be *bound in two dimensions*. Directed graphs such as BPMN business process diagrams can be extended with swimlanes for representing different actors orthogonal to temporal-logical order. A special case of a space-proportional diagram are planograms and factory layout plans.

It is striking that such a simple, yet powerful categorization of diagram types from the perspective of *how* information is represented is absent in modern research on process modeling. Related categorizations exist in the field of information visualization. Beyond, the classic by Bertin (1967), several fine-granular classifications have recently been proposed. Aigner et al. (2011) distinguish static versus dynamic and two- versus three-dimensional representations. Beck et al. (2017) describe force-directed, orthogonal, hierarchical and matrix layout of static graph as well

as node-link, matrix and list layout of dynamic graphs. McNabb and Laramee (2017) distinguish data-centric, hierarchical, graph, and geospace-time representations. Research on graph drawing focuses on optimizing single aesthetics (Diaz et al. 2002), but less on organizing a diagram more generally. Hoffswell et al. (2018) distinguish layout types including tree, radial, Sugiyama-style, force-directed layouts.

Diagrams are composed of different elements. These elements can be represented in different ways. Nordsieck distinguishes three categories: symbols, color and shades, numbers and letters. First, symbols can be used to discriminate between different meanings. Symbols can be fully abstract or mnemonic. Fig. 2 shows an example of a list of task symbols with many abstract symbols from Nordsieck's thesis. Second, elements can be differentiated using color and shades. Interestingly, Nordsieck emphasizes that the use of color is at his time of writing largely restricted by technical challenges of color printing and reproduction (Nordsieck 1932, p. 8). Therefore, shading and hatching is often used in diagrams of the 1920s. Notably, these challenges have been overcome in the meantime. Color has become one of the most important and most effective means of discriminating elements (Green and Petre 1996; Moody 2009). Third, numbers and letters can be used as elements for referring to conceptual elements. This category is rather rare in modern diagrams. An example is the gateway element in BPMN models. The letter "X" indicates the type of the gateway as an exclusive gateway.

3.5 Domain of Organization Diagrams

Nordsieck describes the structure of a business as a network of personal, material, and geo-spatial relationships, which under observation reveals its true nature of continuous motion. This statement suggests some affinity with ideas found in structuration theory (Giddens 1984) and sociomateriality (Leonardi 2013), but Nordsieck's understanding of motion is actually closely associated with the structure of pre-defined processes. Both

Tafel der Sinnzeichen für die Funktionen

I. Leitungsfunktionen:		
0. Instanz (Grundfunktion)		Fallweise Kenntnisnahme auf eigene Initiative
1. Initiativfunktion		Nichtplanmäßige Kontrolle (Revision).
2. Entscheidungsfunktion		Nichtplanmäßige Überwachung
1 und 2 werden nur dargestellt, wenn sie besonders hervorgehoben werden sollen, oder wenn sie von der Instanz getrennt auftreten.		Besonders zu merken: Nichtplanmäßige, fallweise Initiative
		Nichtplanmäßige, fallweise Entscheidung (Regelfall)
II. Ausführungsfunktionen:		Planmäßige, aber nur einen Teil des Inhaltes der Aufgabe betreffende Funktionen werden dadurch gekennzeichnet, daß man nur die untere Hälfte des Zeichens darstellt, z. B.:
a) Direkte oder eigentliche Ausführungsfunktionen:		Planmäßig teilweise Sachbearbeitung
3. Eigentliche Ausführung oder Sachbearbeitung (Grundfunktion)		Planmäßig teilweise Nachprüfung (Spezialkontrolle)
4. Bearbeitungschwieriger Aufgabenteile und Vorfälle		Planmäßige Teilinstanz
5. Erledigung von Hilfsarbeiten		Besonders zu merken: Planmäßige Teilentscheidung
4 und 5 werden nur dargestellt, wenn sie von der eigentlichen Sachbearbeitung getrennt auftreten.		Nichtplanmäßige und nur einen Teil des Inhaltes der Aufgabe betreffende Funktionen können dadurch zum Ausdruck gebracht werden, daß die Zeichen in der Vertikalrichtung halbiert werden und nur die linke Hälfte des Zeichens wiedergegeben wird, z. B.:
b) Indirekte oder Ausführungshilfsfunktionen (meist mit aufgabenverbindendem Charakter):		Nichtplanmäßige Spezialkontrolle
6 a. Besondere Raterteilungspflicht gegenüber dem Sachbearbeiter		Besonders zu merken: Nichtplanmäßige, fallweise Teilentscheidung
6 b. Besondere Berichterstattungspflicht gegenüber dem Sachbearbeiter (abgeschwächte Raterteilung) (selten)		Kombinationsmöglichkeiten (typ. Beispiele)
7. Besondere Kenntnisnahme von der Durchführung der Aufgabe		Instanz, verbunden mit Überwachung und Beaufsichtigung der Bearbeitung
In den Fällen 6 a und b und 7 kann durch Nennung der Nummer auf die Aufgabe hingewiesen werden, auf Grund deren Kenntnis eine Raterteilung oder Berichterstattung erfolgt, oder für deren Erledigung eine entsprechende Kenntnisnahme notwendig ist — z. B.		Instanz mit fallweiser Überwachung und Beaufsichtigung
		Instanz mit Nachprüfung der Arbeitsleistungen
		Instanz, verbunden mit Spezialkontrolle
		Instanz mit fallweiser Initiative
		Instanz und Bearbeitung schwieriger Fälle
		Sachbearbeitung mit Initiative
		Sachbearbeitung mit eigener Nachprüfung der Arbeit (nur wenn eine tatsächliche Kontrolltätigkeit vorliegt)
III. Kontrollfunktionen:		Überwachung und fallweise Entscheidung
8. Kontrolle durch Überwachung und Beaufsichtigung		Überwachung und Bearbeitung schwieriger Fälle
9. Kontrolle durch Nachprüfung der geleisteten Arbeit		Überwachung und Nachprüfung der Leistungen
Nichtplanmäßiges, fallweises Auftreten einer Funktion wird dadurch gekennzeichnet, daß man das Zeichen der betreffenden Funktion halbiert und nur den oberen Teil wiedergibt, z. B.:		Überwachung und fallweise Nachprüfung (Revision)
Nichtplanmäßige, fallweise Sachbearbeitung		
Fallweise Hilfeleistung auf Wunsch des Sachbearbeiters		

Figure 2: Table of Symbols for Types of Tasks (Nordsieck 1932, p. 25)

the structural and the behavior views of an organization are intertwined, because they jointly refer to several generic entities.

According to Nordsieck (1932), the structure of a business can be described with reference to the different actors, persons, means and objects. He distinguishes two types of actors (*German: Aufgabenträger*): persons and means. The key difference between both is their degree of autonomy and agency. Persons are human actors who conduct work. Persons can be individuals and collectives. A collective can either be a group of persons with the *same* capabilities, these are called resource pools in operations management (Dumas et al. 2018), or a group of persons with *complementary* capabilities. These are often referred to as teams in resource management (Schönig et al. 2018). Means (*German: Hilfsmittel*) comprise tools, machines and geospatial means such as rooms and buildings. Means can partially be considered as non-human agents with the limitation that they at least to a certain extent depend upon human operation and control. All these different agents act on objects. Nordsieck (1932) distinguishes different categories of objects. The first category is defined by intellectual objects, for which he mentions the topic of a discussion as an example. The second category are persons as objects. These are, for instance, customers that are the target of services. The third category are material objects. Interestingly, Nordsieck (1932) counts both physical objects and informational objects to this category. The dividing line between physical and informational objects is indeed still a matter of recent debates on the ontology of the digital object (Faulkner and Runde 2019).

The dynamic aspect of a business according to Nordsieck (1932) is defined by tasks and work. He defines *task* as a conceptual entity and the actual fulfillment of a task as *work*. This means that work is constituted by the observation of sequences of action in relation to a task. Work and actors are connected via the notions of workload and work distribution. The distribution of work defines the assignment of units of work to specific actors while workload defines the number of work

units that they can complete at a given time interval. Tasks are usually not isolated but they define more complex workflows (*German: Arbeitsabfolge*). Furthermore, work is often bound to a specific work rhythm. Both workflow and work rhythm, as Nordsieck (1932) emphasizes, are often the concern of diagrammatic analysis of businesses.

If we compare the ontological view on business organizations by Nordsieck (1932), we can identify some interesting overlaps and differences with contemporary frameworks. We consider the Architecture for Integrated Information Systems (ARIS) by Scheer (2000) here. Actors are part of the organization view in ARIS, tasks are covered by the functional view. Objects are separated into the output view and the data view. The process view in ARIS ties together the dynamics of workflows that Nordsieck (1932) mentions. The major difference between Nordsieck (1932) and Scheer (2000) is the emphasis of informational objects: Scheer gives information primacy as a separate view while Nordsieck considers information as one specific category of objects. Even if given less emphasis, it is remarkable that information is explicitly discussed by Nordsieck.

The analysis of workflows is of particular importance for Nordsieck. It is associated with two categories of problems that he refers to as the time problem and the space problem. The *time problem* is concerned with the question how task elements can be arranged in sequences. This is the question of order that is addressed by many diagrams that Nordsieck (1932) discusses. It has to be distinguished from the question of temporal duration, which is faithful to the scale of time. These are captured by timeline diagrams. The *space problem* is concerned with the question of where work is performed and how workflows can be arranged across different locations. Specific diagrams focus on the corresponding concern of transportation.

In the following, we neglect structural diagrams (*German: Strukturschaubilder*), to which Sect. A in Part II is dedicated, and focus on workflow diagrams (*German: Ablaufschaubilder*) (Sect. B)

and timelines (*German: Harmonogramme*) (Sect. C).

3.6 Workflow Diagrams

Nordsieck (1932) describes different categories of workflow diagrams. Tab. 3 gives an overview. Key to his categories is a distinction between spatial-proportional diagrams and conceptual ones. Furthermore, diagrams can represent single or multiple paths. Mind that multiple paths are discussed with the suggestion of paths of different kinds like in railway schedules, which can highlight conflicts.

units	spatial	conceptual
single	transport chart	flow chart
multiple	spatial traffic chart	conceptual traffic chart

Table 3: Categories of Workflow Charts

For the category *transport chart* (single and spatial paths), he presents the example of an order and the path over several desks along the process (see Fig. 10 in the appendix). Diagrams with a spatial projection are largely missing in recent business process modeling research. De Leoni et al. (2012) is a rare application of projections of workflows on city maps. Diagrams like the one shown in Nordsieck (1932) are called planograms, which have been used for process projection by Solti et al. (2018). The introduction of information systems for office work has made them largely obsolete for informational processes.

For the category of *flow charts* (single and conceptual paths), he refers to the Refa guidelines. These guidelines define six levels of granularity for a workflow process. Fig. 11 from Nordsieck (1932) shows a corresponding example defining a decomposition tree from 1) production order, 2) production plan, 3) work sequence, 4) work steps, 5) grasp, and 6) grasp element. Nordsieck (1932) criticizes the bottom-up definition of Refa and its restricted application to production processes only. He introduces more general terms that are defined top-down making it 1) workflow,

2) work cycle, 3) work sequence, 4) work step, 5) partial work, and 6) work element. This top-down approach is remarkably similar to hierarchical task analysis (Stanton 2006) and consistent with later cognitive research on human problem solving (Newell and Simon 1972), goal decomposition (John and Kieras 1996a,b), and mental architectures (Anderson et al. 2004, 1997).

Nordsieck (1932) also pays some attention to work cycles. In particular, he distinguishes processes that are periodically triggered and event triggered. Differences in the rhythm of work naturally gives rise to different types of stocks. *Bulk stocks* are required for buffering different quantities (e. g. six screws are needed for a particular production piece, while screws can only be purchased in multiples of hundreds). *Variation stocks* buffer are needed to handle an unexpectedly large number of triggering events at any point in time. These matters are less a concern of modern business process modeling, but of system dynamics (Sternan 2000). Regarding work sequence, Nordsieck (1932) describes bundling and unbundling. This is an important concern, in particular for logistic processes, but hardly covered by modern business process modeling. It has been identified as a key challenge for object-centric process mining recently (Cabanillas et al. 2013; Gerke et al. 2009; Lu et al. 2015; van der Aalst 2019).

Nordsieck (1932) also describes a specific subcategory of workflow diagrams: workflows that capture parallelism and choices. These are faithful to temporal order of work, in contrast to the conceptual decomposition of work that was discussed just above. The diagram in Fig. 12 models choices while Fig. 13 shows parallelism. Subcategories of these workflow diagrams are restricted to capturing decomposition with choices, temporal order, with binding of the second coordinate.

Binding the second coordinate to actors or organizational units is a prominent subcategory. Examples of such diagrams are shown in Figures 17–21. Diagrams like Fig. 20 are conceptually similar to UML Activity diagrams and BPMN models with

swimlanes. Nordsieck (1932) also describes workflow diagrams that do not use the temporal axis for layout. Fig. 22 shows an example that is similar to BPMN choreography diagrams. It is remarkable that he also identifies a category of data flow diagrams. These diagrams represent how forms and corresponding data is processed (see Fig. 24). Also a category for root causes and control mechanisms is proposed. Fig. 25 integrates risks and control tasks with the workflow representation.

There is a final special category of workflow diagrams. These are dedicated to staffing schedules as shown in Fig. 26. These indicate at which time intervals, different categories of personnel are available.

3.7 Timelines

Timelines defines the second category of diagrams that are concerned with dynamics in Nordsieck (1932). He uses the term harmonogram (*German: Harmonogramm*) to refer to timelines in an organizational context. The most prominent subcategory of timelines are Gantt charts, named after Henry Laurence Gantt (1919), an associate of Frederick Taylor.¹¹ Arguably, he was not the first one to design timelines. The first known publication of a timeline is in Joseph Priestley's book from 1765, showing a timeline chart of biographies (Aigner et al. 2011). Similar charts like the one by Gantt date to the late 19th century. Karol Adamiecki, a Polish engineer and organization scientist,¹² invented a diagram that he called *harmonogram* (Marsh 1975). This term also exists in English, German, and other Slavic languages, and must have been commonly used at the time of writing of Nordsieck (1932). He cites a talk in English by Adamiecki at the First International Management Congress in Prague in 1924.

The first subcategory of timelines that Nordsieck describes are *transport timelines*. These are diagrams that show where a vehicle like a railway train is at a given point in time, with time being

fixed as one of the layout axes. The timelines are closely associated with railway schedules as they have been designed by railway companies since the 19th century. Fig. 27 shows an example of trains running back and forth between different stations of a production company.

The second subcategory of timelines are *workflow timelines*. These diagrams are meant to capture the rhythm of work. Fig. 28 shows the regular temporal pattern of work of a production process. Fig. 29 shows the specific pattern of batching of a molding production process. 90 years later, a similar chart called performance spectrum has been re-invented by Denisov et al. (2019) and Klijn and Fahland (2019) as a process mining technique.

The third subcategory covers timelines that are used for *staffing*. Fig. 32 shows an example that, in essence, informs about when which resources are bound for which type of work. These diagrams come close to Gantt charts. Mind that Nordsieck (1932) does not cite Gantt's article from 1919 in *Industrial Management*, so he might not have been aware of his work.

4 Discussion

Our reconstruction of the PhD thesis of Nordsieck (1932) has several implications for research. We highlight four major implications: the richness of early 20th century diagramming techniques for business processes and organizational routines, quality criteria explicitly discussed and implicitly used by diagrams, the close integration of different categories of workflow diagrams before the great shism between conceptual modeling and information visualization, and the affordances and constraints imposed by then contemporary production and reproduction techniques for diagrams.

The discussion in Nordsieck (1932) demonstrates the richness of the concepts covered by diagramming techniques in the 1920s and 1930s. These concepts are partially organized differently than for example in the ARIS framework by Scheer (2000), but cover most of its concepts. The concept

¹¹ A scan of his article is available on this website: <https://babel.hathitrust.org/cgi/pt?id=mdp.35128001491289&view=1up&seq=101>.

¹² See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Karol_Adamiecki.

of a metamodel, modeling grammar, or modeling notations was not yet explicitly defined in the 1930s. Nordsieck (1932) already had a vague intuition of this concept when he states that “Brevity and clarity are enhanced in its effect by the force of exactness . . . Symbols must not be introduced without a process of reflection.” His whole endeavor of identifying categories of diagrams lays the necessary foundations upon which follow-up work could have developed a notion of metamodel.

Nordsieck (1932) defines some quality criteria explicitly. Interestingly, these criteria have closer affinity with recent cognitive research on diagrams (Malinova and Mendling 2022) than with ontological research on diagrams (Burton-Jones et al. 2017; Wand and Weber 1990). He emphasizes brevity, clarity, and pictographic quality, which we know to be effective for visio-spatial search (Larkin and Simon 1987). He already discusses these benefits against weaknesses of textual representation of information when he states that “textual descriptions always stay linear and unidimensional.” He also mentions exactness, which has an ontological dimension (Burton-Jones et al. 2017; Wand and Weber 1990). Though not explicitly discussed, the example diagrams in Nordsieck's thesis reveal that many common labeling styles had already been used back then. Many of the labeling guidelines described in (Leopold et al. 2013) seem to be considered in the examples.

It is important to note that Nordsieck (1932) uses a common framework to discuss diagrams that are today discussed in isolation by different research communities. The field of information visualization researches representations of dynamic phenomena such as event sequences by the help of binding at least one axis proportionally to time (Aigner et al. 2011), while the field of conceptual modeling has been mostly concerned with conceptual structures (Wand and Weber 1990). The field of business process management (Dumas et al. 2018) has by and large developed its work in the tradition of conceptual system analysis and design. Only recently, steps are made to closer integrate research from both fields

in the context of process mining (Yeshchenko et al. 2021).

The thesis also reveals some interesting insights into affordances and constraints (Norman 1999) of diagram production and reproduction techniques. It seems that the diagrams in the 1920s were mostly designed manually using pen, paper, and a ruler. Hand-written text is present in many diagrams in the thesis, but not in all. The usage of pen and paper imposed strict constraints on the flexible rescaling and repositioning of elements and text as we know it from contemporary software modeling tools. This might explain that many diagrams work with a strict binding of one or two axes, such that they often almost look like tables. For the sake of spatial economy, abstract and compact symbols are used to refer to, for instance, different types of activities (see Fig. 2). The set of visual representation was subject of debate at that time, as many of the articles published in *Zeitschrift für Organisation* cited by Nordsieck reveal. Also the usage of color seems to have been difficult at that time. Nordsieck (1932) laments that “Unfortunately, the usage of color coding is often limited by technical difficulties.” He must have had an understanding of the effectiveness of color, as later demonstrated in various studies on business process models (Kummer and Mendling 2021; Reijers et al. 2011). The lack of better tools for modeling might be at least a partial explanation why conceptual modeling of business processes stagnated until the 1960s.

5 Conclusion

In this articles, we discussed the contributions of Fritz Nordsieck's PhD thesis with the title “The diagrammatic description and analysis of business organization”, which was submitted in 1931 and published in 1932. The thesis is unique in the way how it approaches conceptual modeling in business in the 1920s and 1930s. It presents a rich collection of example diagrams and analyzes them according to a common framework. We find that the practice of workflow modeling was already richly developed at that time. His PhD thesis has

the potential to inform contemporary research on business process modeling even 90 years after publication. Most important is his discussion of different categories of diagrams on a spectrum from spatio-temporal to conceptual. His work clearly shows the potential to re-integrate ideas from information visualization with conceptual modeling, both fields that have been artificially separated and researched by different communities over the last 40 years.

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Appendix A: Reference List of Nordsieck's PhD Thesis

The reference list of Nordsieck's thesis is organized according to topics in four sections:

1. References that cover the complete subject matter discussed in the thesis;
2. References that discuss specific representation formats, but do not provide a holistic perspective;
3. References that do not primarily focus on diagrams in general, but which provide explanations of individual diagrams that they include;
4. Other research areas that relate to the thesis.

For non-English publications, we provide a translation of the title in brackets.

1. References that cover the complete subject matter discussed in the thesis

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2. References that discuss specific representation formats, but do not provide a holistic perspective

A 2 and A 3: Problems of Instance Structure and Task Relationships

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A 6: Composition of Facilities

10. without author (1928) Schaltzeichen und Schaltbilder, (*English: Switching symbols and circuit diagrams*). 2. Auflage. Verband Deutscher Elektrotechniker E. V., Berlin, und dem Deutschen Normenausschuß E.V., Berlin. Beuth-Verlag, Berlin

A 7: Composition of Administrative Tools (Account Systems)

11. Schmalenbach, Eugen (1927) Der Kontenrahmen, (*English: The chart of accounts*). Zeitschrift für handelswissenschaftliche Forschung. Vol. 21, pp. 431–475
12. Schmalenbach, Eugen (1929) Der Kontenrahmen, (*English: The chart of accounts*). 2. Auflage. G. A. Gloeckner, Leipzig
13. Schriftenreihe “Einheitsbuchführungen”. (*English: Publication series “Single-entry accounting”*) Fachausschuß Rechnungswesen beim RKW, und zwar
 1. Mittlere Maschinenfabriken, (*English: Mid-sized engineering works*).
 2. Braunkohlenbergbau, (*English: Brown coal mining*).
 3. Mittlere Eisengießereien, (*English: Mid-sized iron foundries*).
 4. Webereien unter besonderer Berücksichtigung der Buntwebereien, (*English: Weaving mills under consideration of color weaving*).
 6. Binnenschifffahrt unter besonderer Berücksichtigung der Schleppschifffahrt, (*English: Inland navigation under consideration of towing*).
 7. Brauereien, (*English: Breweries*).
 8. Gesenkschmieden, (*English: Drop forges*).
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- A 3:** Task Relationships
see Hardung-Michel, Reference 66.
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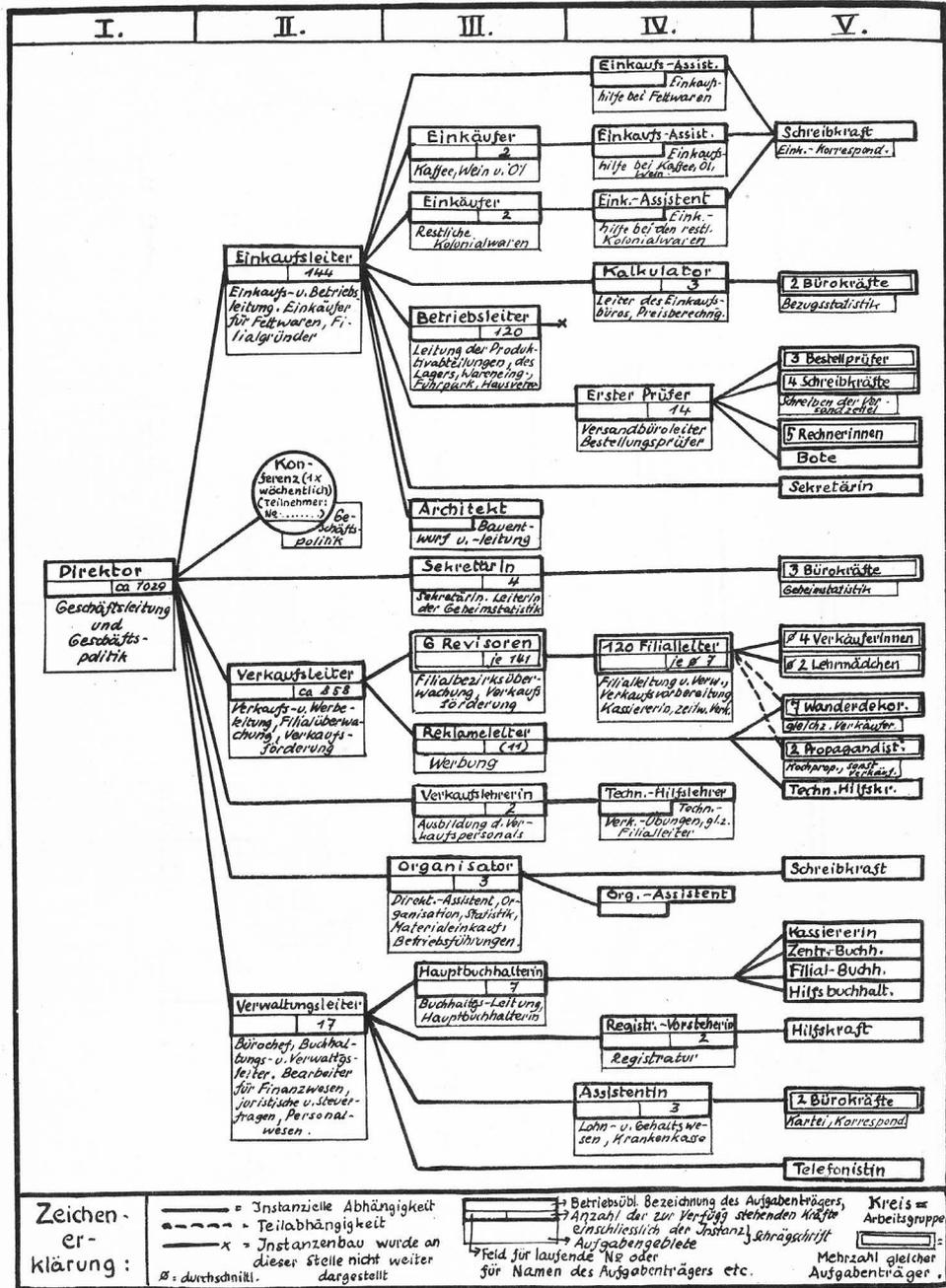
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¹⁶ A scan of these books is available via Delpher: <http://resolver.kb.nl/resolve?urn=MMKB02:000119651:00009>

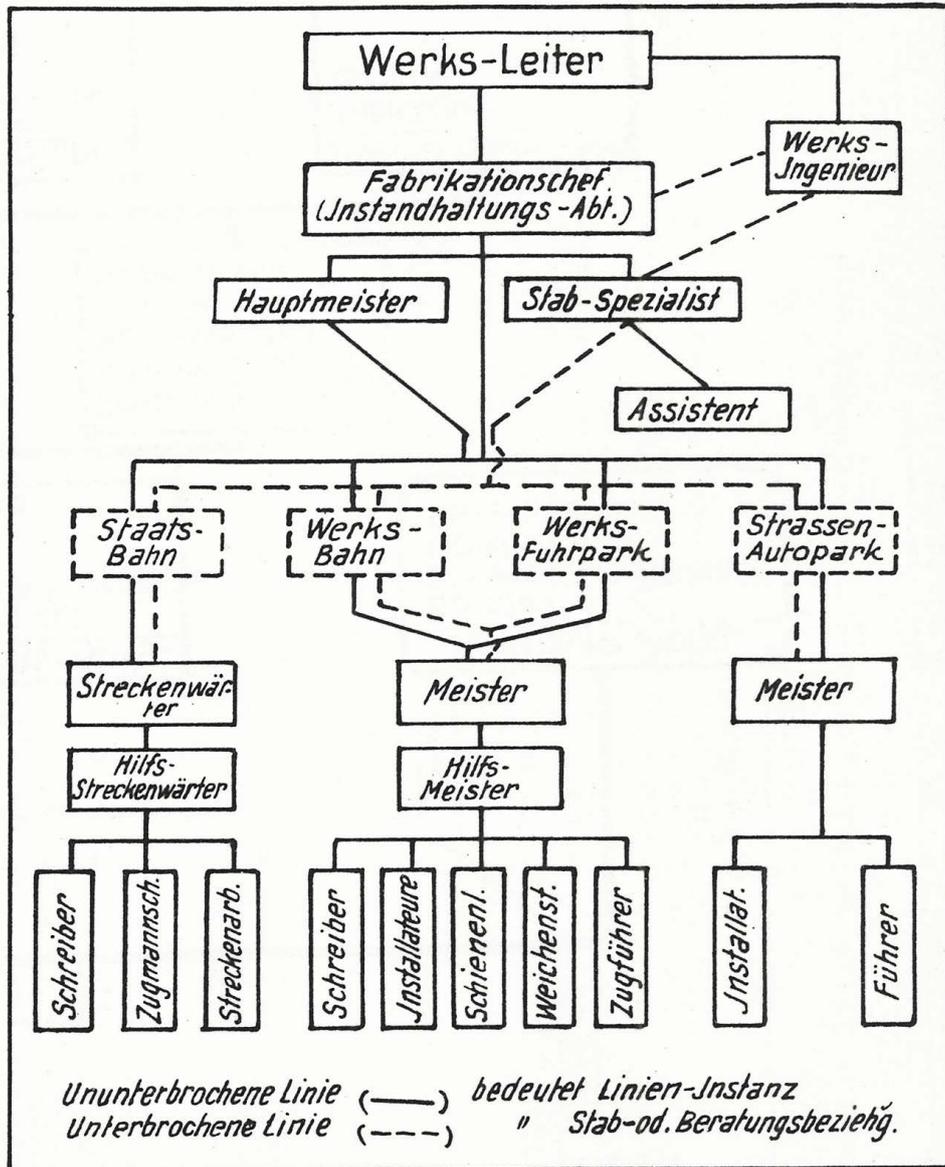
AUFGABENVERTEILUNGS- UND INSTANZENGLIEDERUNGSPLAN
mit Darstellung der Rangeinstufung (I.-V. = Rangstufen) A 10



Aufgabenverteilung und Instanzenbau eines Massenfilialbetriebs des Lebensmittel Einzelhandels (gekürzt)
Erläuterungen siehe S. 16 ff.

Figure 4: Example A 10 belonging to the category A 1: Task distribution (Nordsieck 1932, p. 80)

A 24



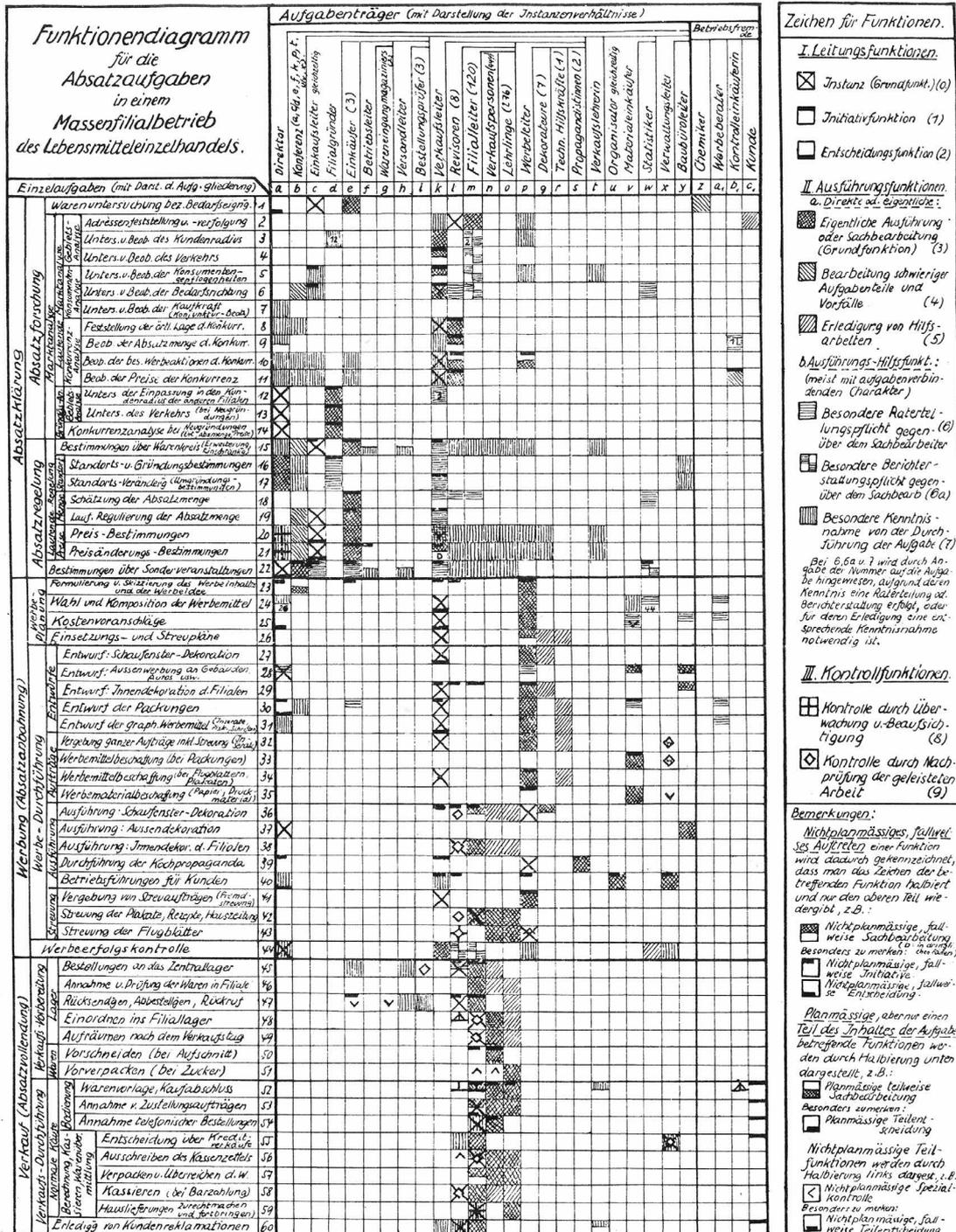
Gliederungsplan der Speditionsabteilung der Westinghouse Electric & Mfg. Co.

Aus: Management's Handbook, New York 1924, S. 755. (Übersetzt)

Erläuterungen siehe S. 20

Figure 5: Example A 24 belonging to the category A 2: Specific problems of instance composition (Nordsieck 1932, p. 82)

A 35

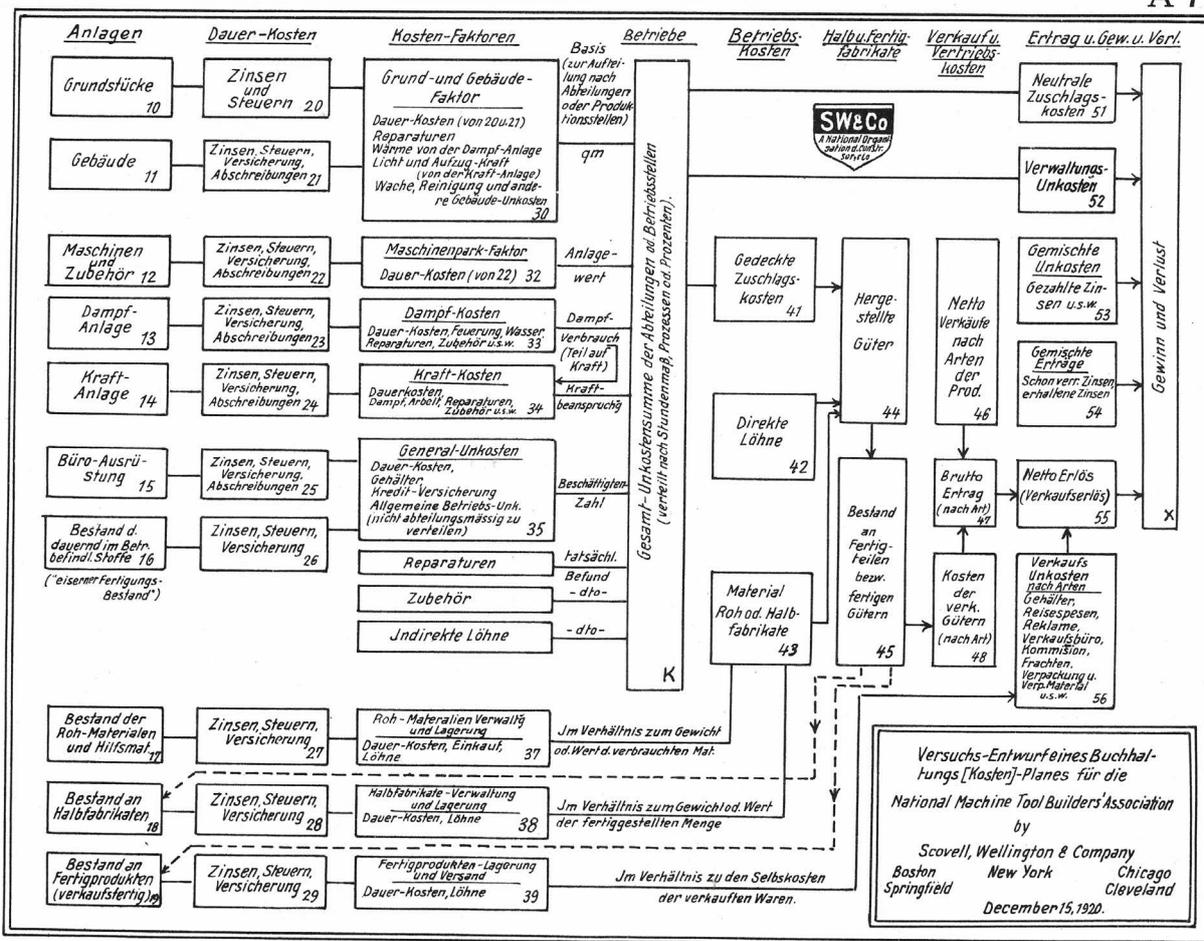


Erläuterungen siehe S. 21 ff., S. 26

Funktionendiagramm

Figure 6: Example A 35 belonging to the category A 3: Task distribution and task relationships (Nordsieck 1932, p. 89)

A 71



(Aus dem Amerikanischen übersetzt)

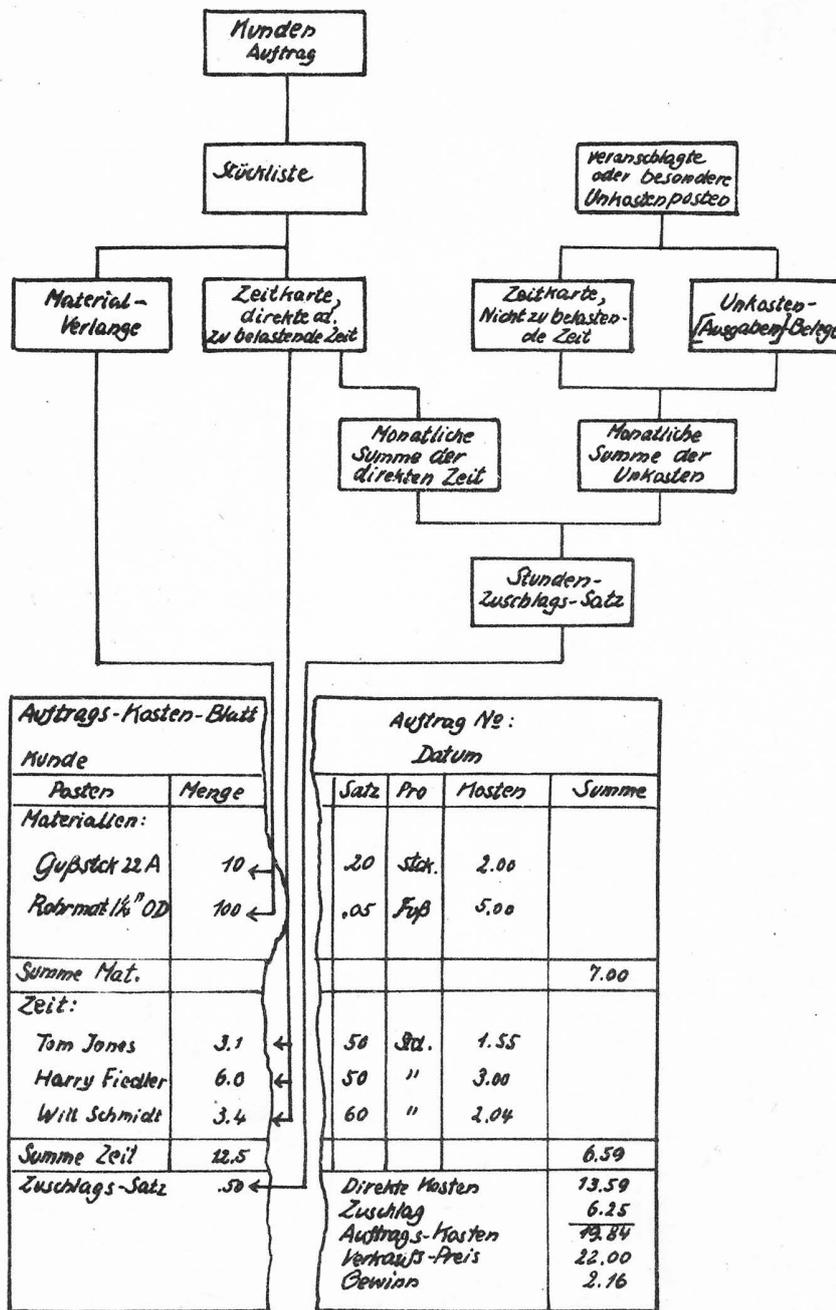
Versuchs-Entwurf eines Buchhaltungs-Planes für die „National Machine Tool Builders' Association“, von „Scovell, Wellington & Company“, „a National Organization for Constructive Service“. (Zeigt die amerikanische Art der Abteilungskalkulation nach der „Richtkosten“-Methode.)

Aus: Leon Carol Marshall: L.V. 56, S. 485.

Erläuterungen siehe S. 30

Figure 8: Example A 71 belonging to the category A 7: Composition of administrative tools (Nordsieck 1932, p. 93)

A 80



(Aus dem Amerikanischen übersetzt)

Verfahren bei der Kostenberechnung für einen Auftrag
 Zeigt den Aufbau eines Formulars aus Daten.

Erläuterungen siehe S. 30

Aus: H. P. Dutton: Factory Management, New York 1924, S. 216.

Figure 9: Example A 80 belonging to the category A 8: Composition of larger work items (Nordsieck 1932, p. 92)

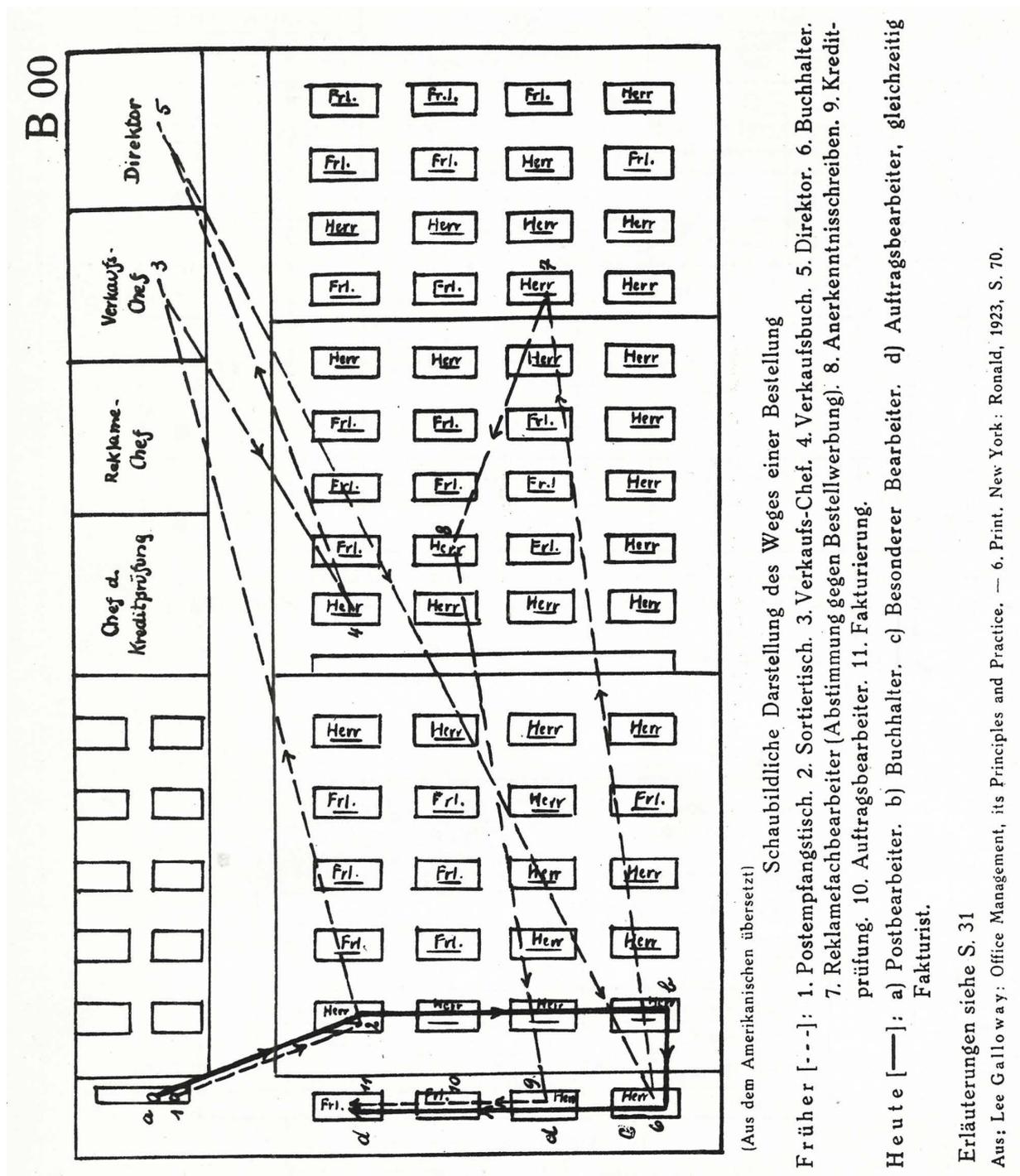
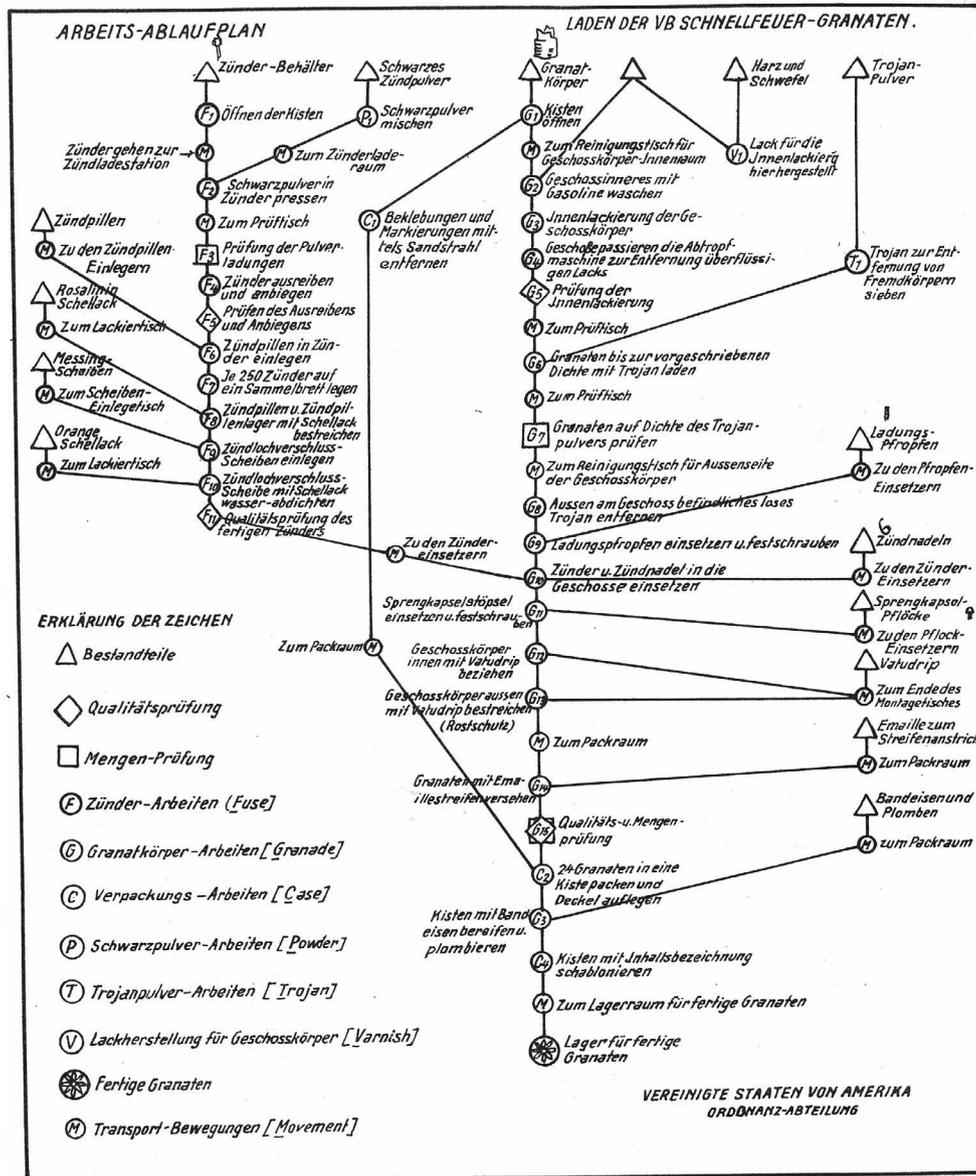


Figure 10: Example B 00 belonging to the category B 0: Transport, flow, and traffic chart (Nordsieck 1932, p. 95)

B 211



(Übersetzt)

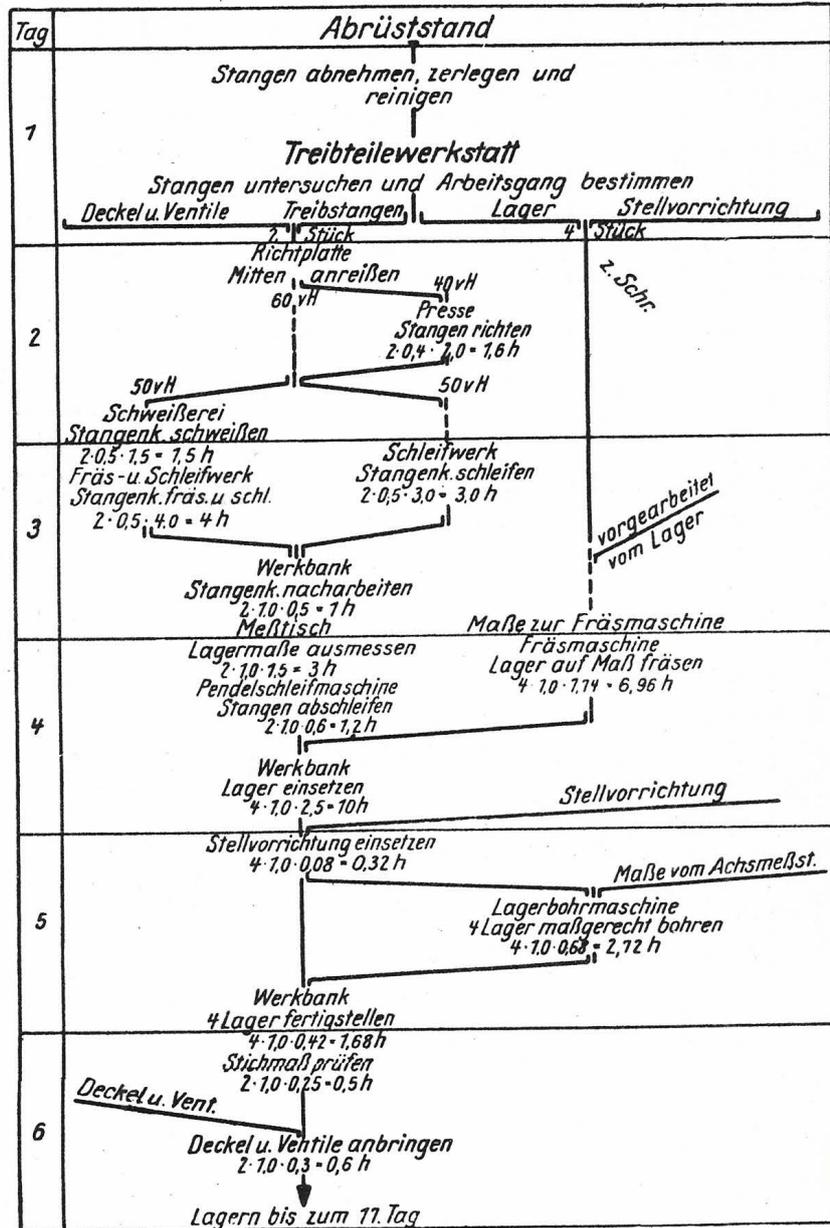
Arbeitsablaufplan: Laden von Schnellfeuergranaten

Aus: Management's Handbook. L.V, 1, S. 802/803.

Erläuterungen siehe S.45

Figure 13: Example B 211 belonging to the category B 2: Workflow and work cycle (Nordsieck 1932, p. 105)

B 214



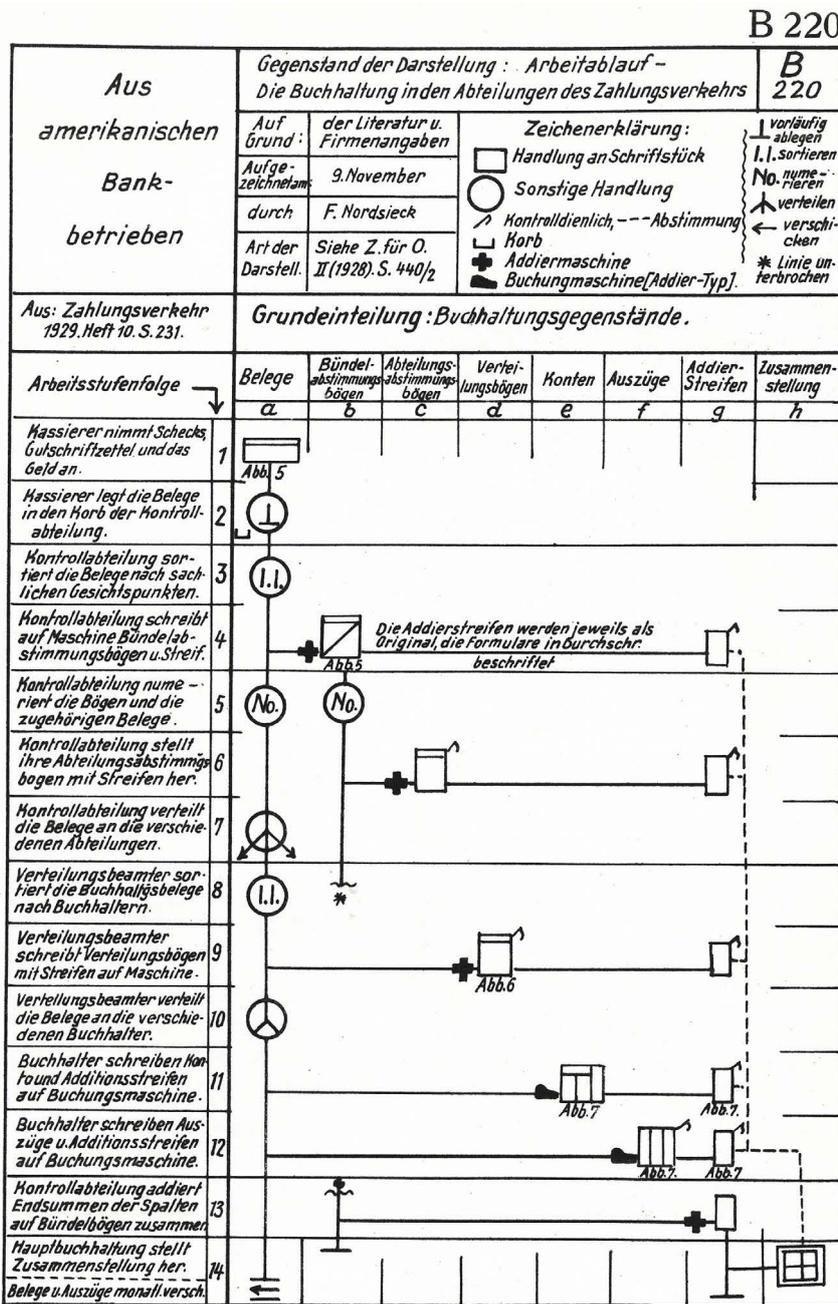
Teil aus dem Arbeitsdiagramm der Treibteilewerkstatt

Anmerkung: Die Arbeitsminuten sind gleich Gesamtstückzahl mal Prozent der zu bearbeitenden Stücke mal Bearbeitungszeit der einzelnen Stücke.

Erläuterungen siehe S. 46

Aus: F. Neesen: Ausbesserungsarbeiten in Fließarbeit. — Maschinenbau VI. (1927). S. 848.

Figure 14: Example B 2141 belonging to the category B 2: Workflow and work cycle (Nordsieck 1932, p. 117)



Die Darstellung soll den gegenständlichen Aufbau der Buchhaltung zeigen.

Die Linienführung bedeutet :

- a) Horizontale Verbindungslinien zwischen den Symbolen = Gegenständlicher Aufbau (lose Reihung);
- b) Vertikale Verbindungslinien = Bearbeitungsfolge an den einzelnen Gegenständen;
- c) Durchgezogene horizontale Netzstriche = Trennung der Arbeitszyklen.

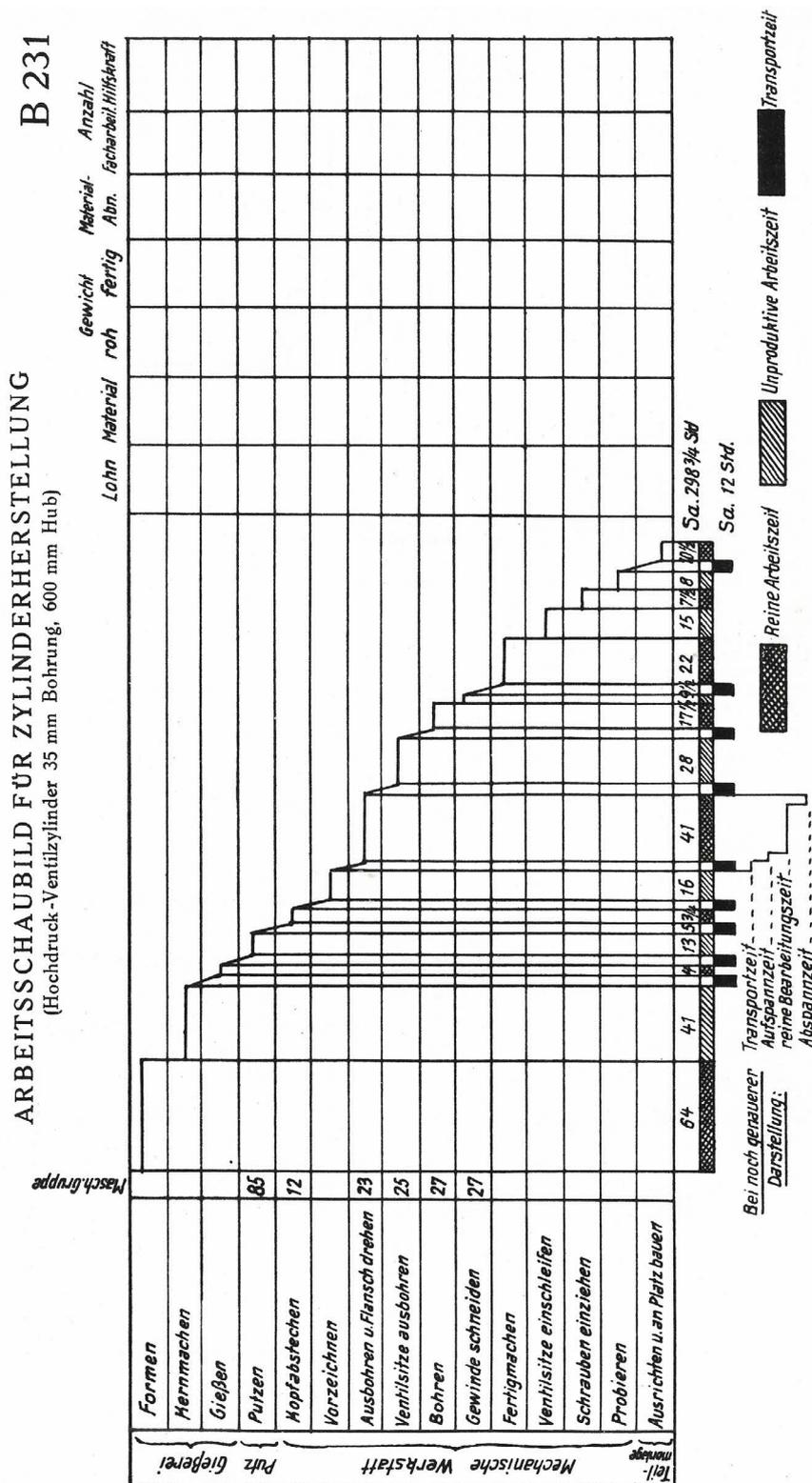
Ablauftyp: Stufenweise Trennung (mit loser Reihung).

(Die mit dem Zusatz „Abb. 5, 6, 7“ versehenen Schriftstücke sind in dem betreffenden Aufsatz im Original wiedergegeben.)

Erläuterungen siehe S. 46

Aus: F. Nord sieck: Die Gestaltung der innerbetriebl. Organisation der amerikan. Banken usw. L.V. 69, S. 231.

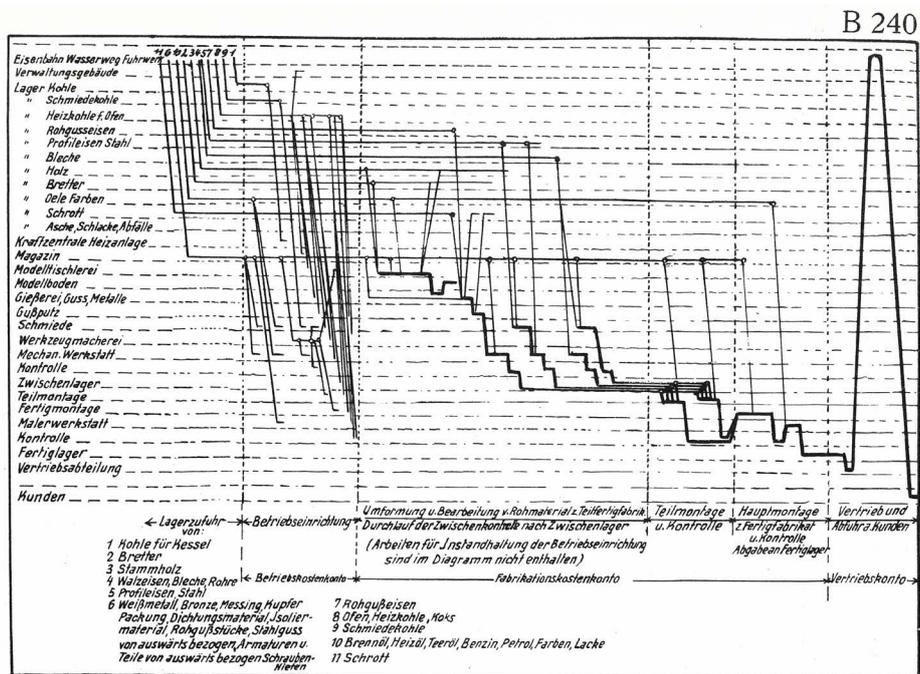
Figure 15: Example B 220 belonging to the category B 2: Workflow and work cycle (Nord sieck 1932, p. 107)



Erläuterungen siehe S. 48

Aus: Fabrikorganisation usw. L.V. 73, S. 753 und L.V. 66, S. 552.

Figure 16: Example B 231 belonging to the category B 2: Workflow and work cycle (Nordsieck 1932, p. 111)

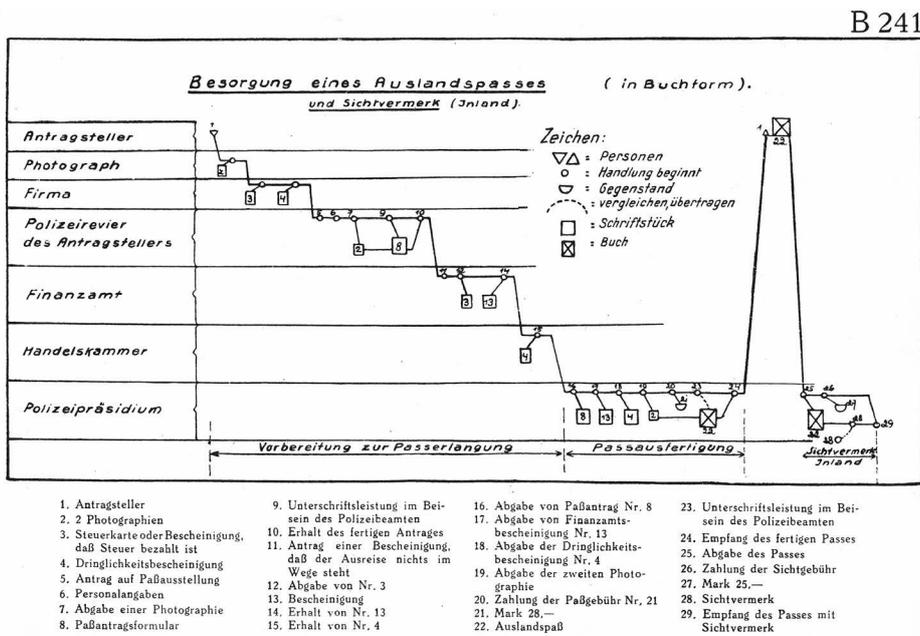


Gesamtfertigungsplan. Lauf des Arbeitsgutes durchs Werk, einschließlich aller Hilfsstellen. (Reihenfolge der Einzelarbeitsverfahren mit Zeitbedarfsdarstellung; diese unmaßstäblich.) Der Objektlauf geht von links nach rechts.

Erläuterungen siehe S. 48

Aus: Otto Hardung: Fabrikbauten usw. L.V. 73, S. 753.

Figure 17: Example B 240 belonging to the category B 2: Workflow and work cycle (Nordsieck 1932, p. 112)

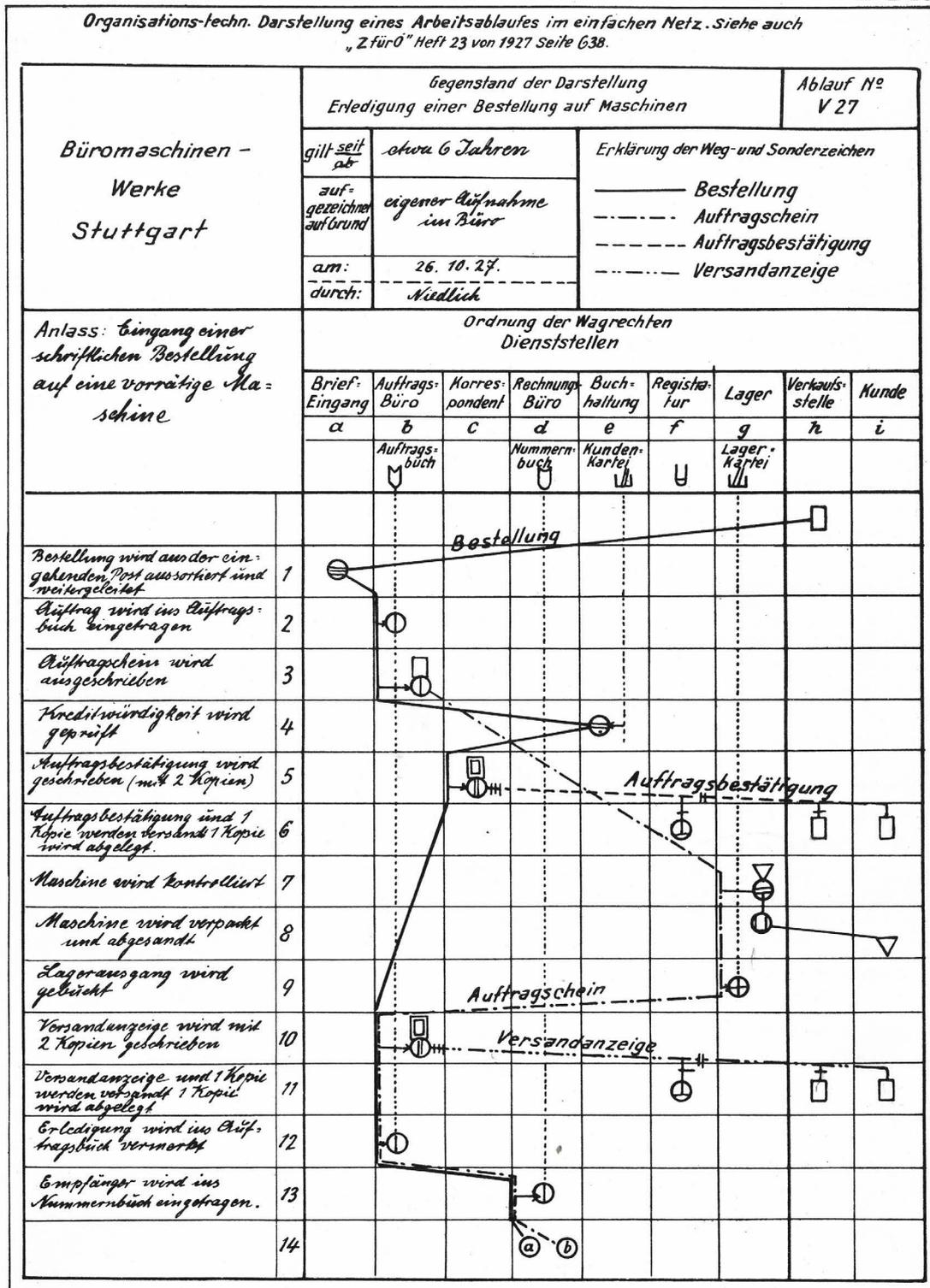


Erläuterungen siehe S. 48

Aus: Otto Hardung: Methoden der graph. Darstellung usw. L.V. 21, S. 110.

Figure 18: Example B 241 belonging to the category B 2: Workflow and work cycle (Nordsieck 1932, p. 112)

B 243



AWB-Entwurf (Zeichentabelle siehe vorige Seite)
 Aus: Mildner: Schaubildliche Darstellung von Organisationsplänen. L.V. 3, S. 514.
 Erläuterungen siehe S. 49

Figure 19: Example B 243 belonging to the category B 2: Workflow and work cycle (Nordsieck 1932, p. 115)

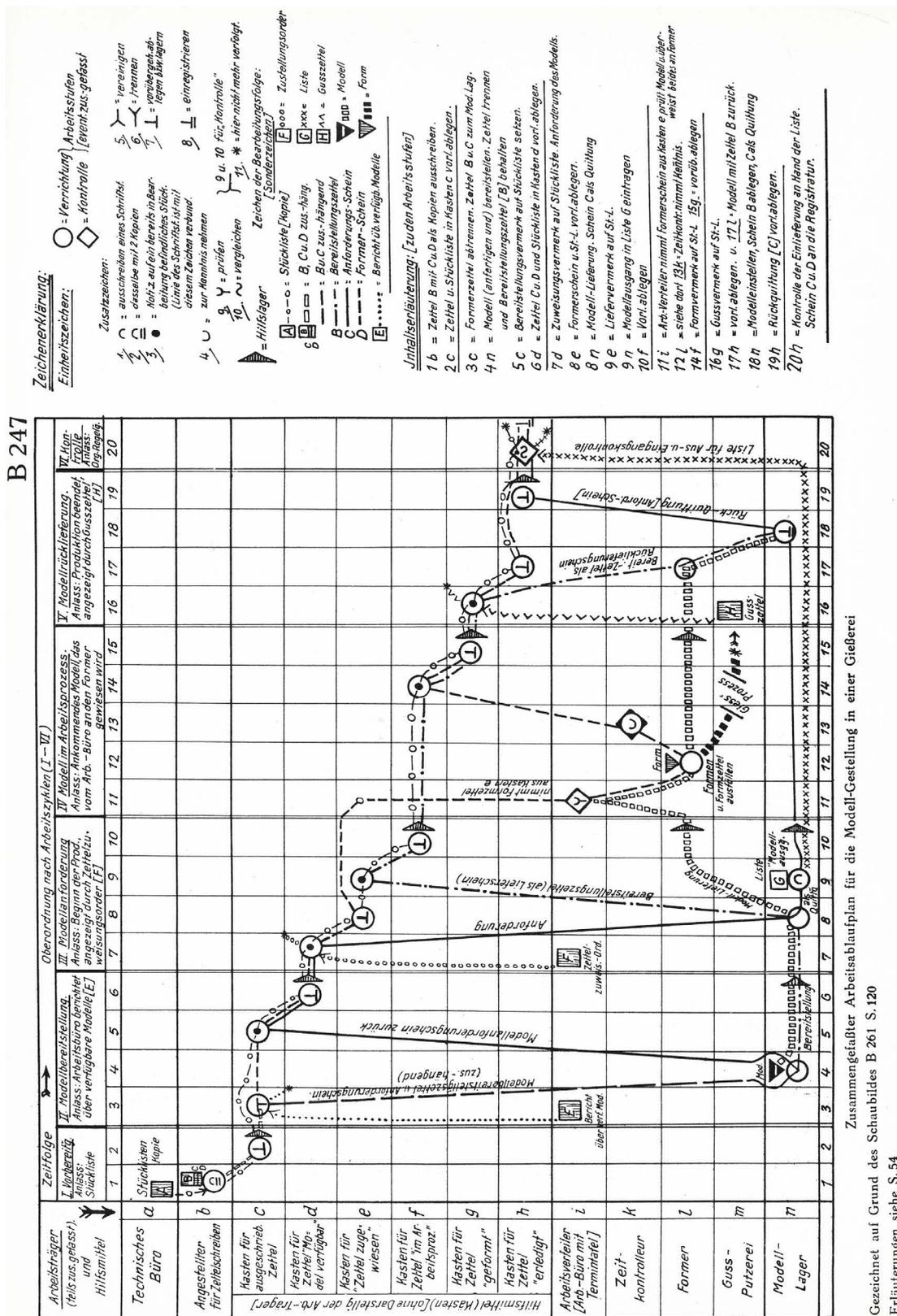


Figure 20: Example B 247 belonging to the category B 2: Workflow and work cycle (Nordsieck 1932, p. 121)

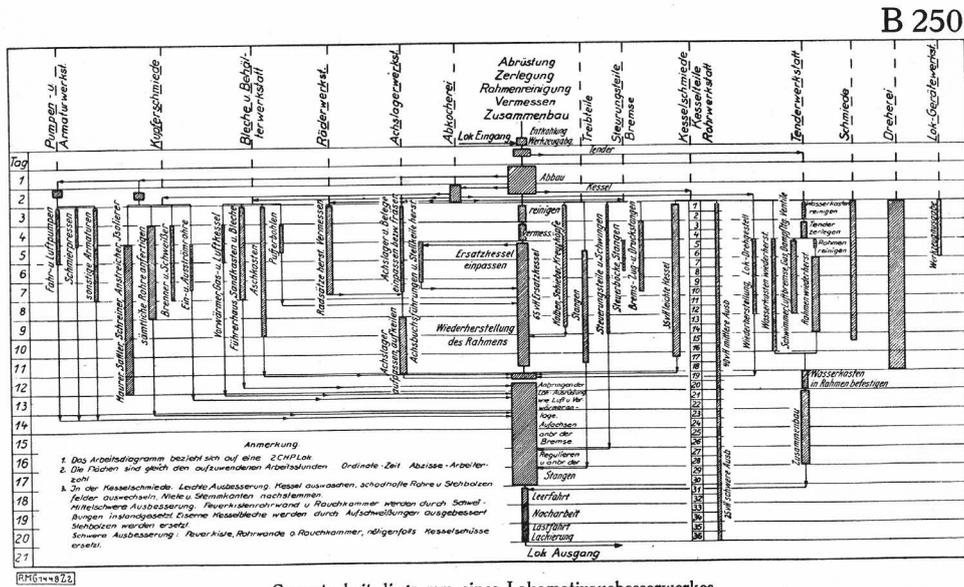


Figure 21: Example B 250 belonging to the category B 2: Workflow and work cycle (Nordsieck 1932, p. 117)

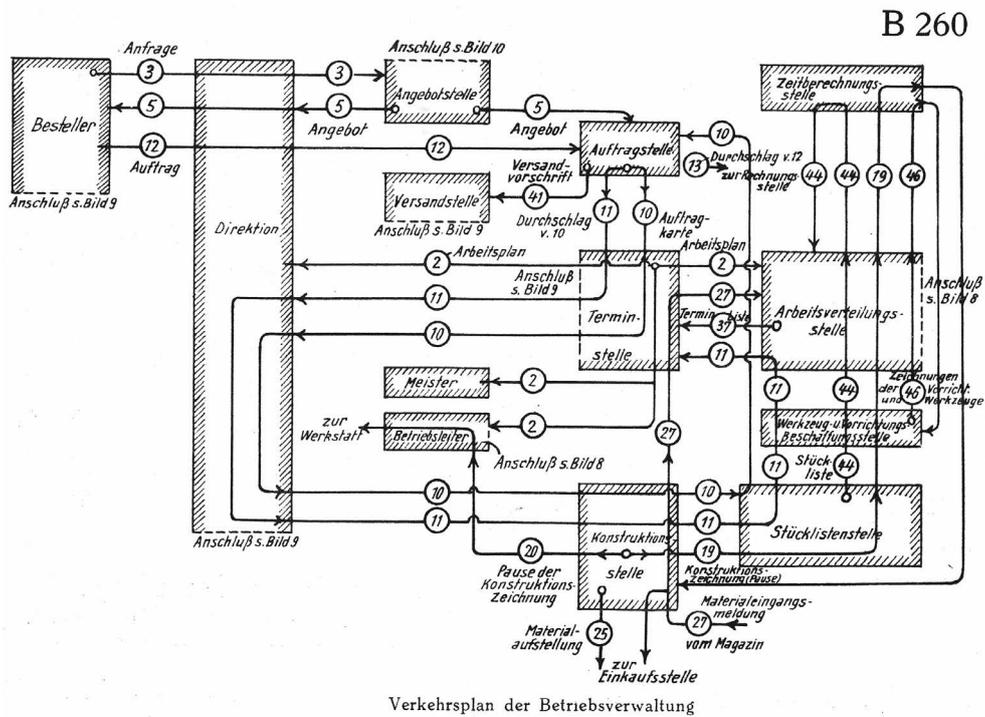
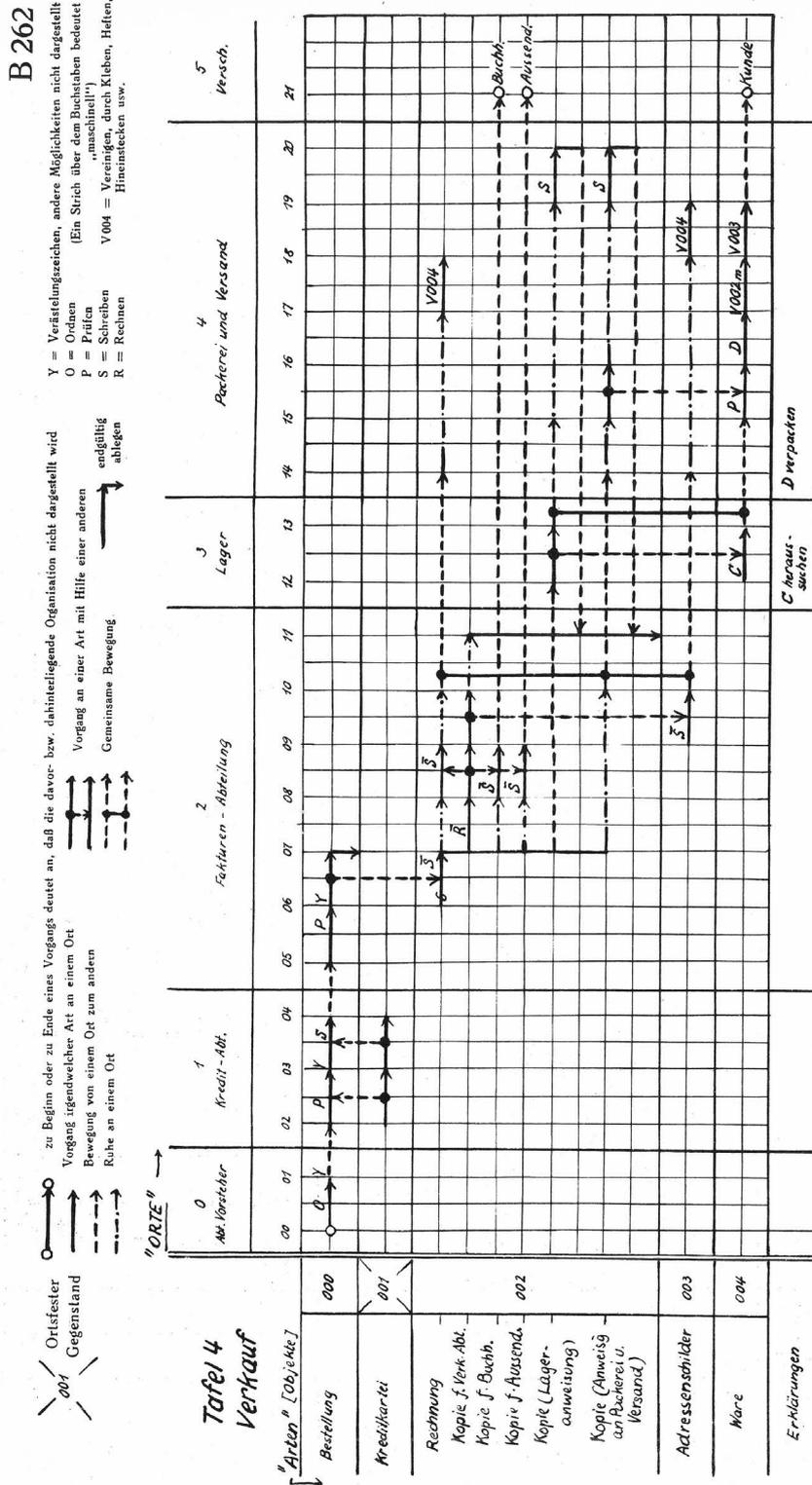
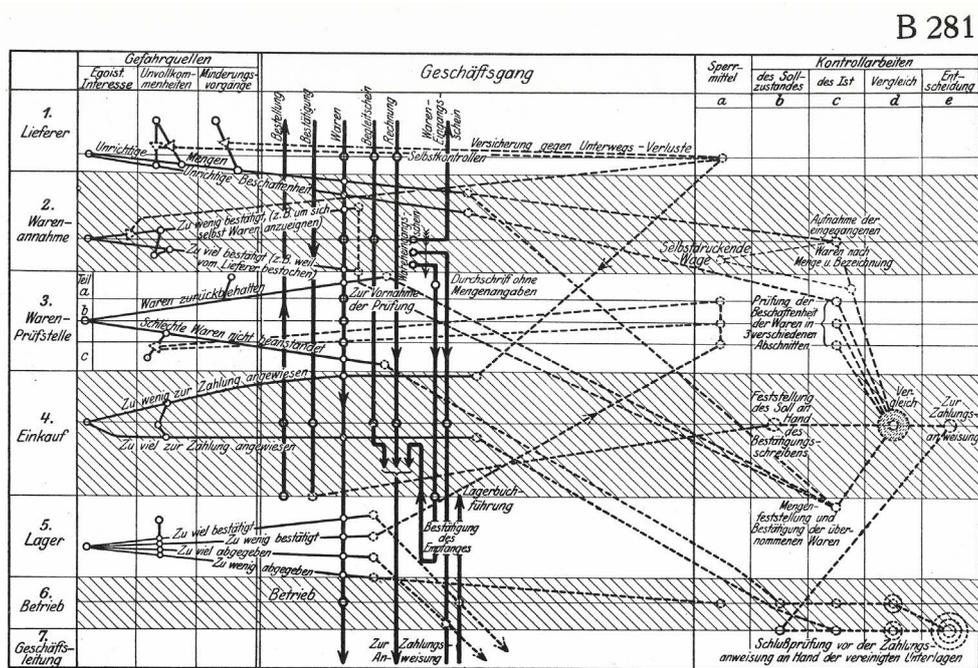


Figure 22: Example B 260 belonging to the category B 2: Workflow and work cycle (Nordsieck 1932, p. 119)





Geschäftsgang, Gefahrenquellen und Kontrollarbeiten bei einem Einkaufsgeschäft

Erläuterungen siehe S. 59/60

Aus: Werner Gruhl: Die Kontrolle in gewerblichen Unternehmungen, L.V. 79, S. 221.

Figure 25: Example B 281 belonging to the category B 2: Workflow and work cycle (Nordsieck 1932, p. 129)

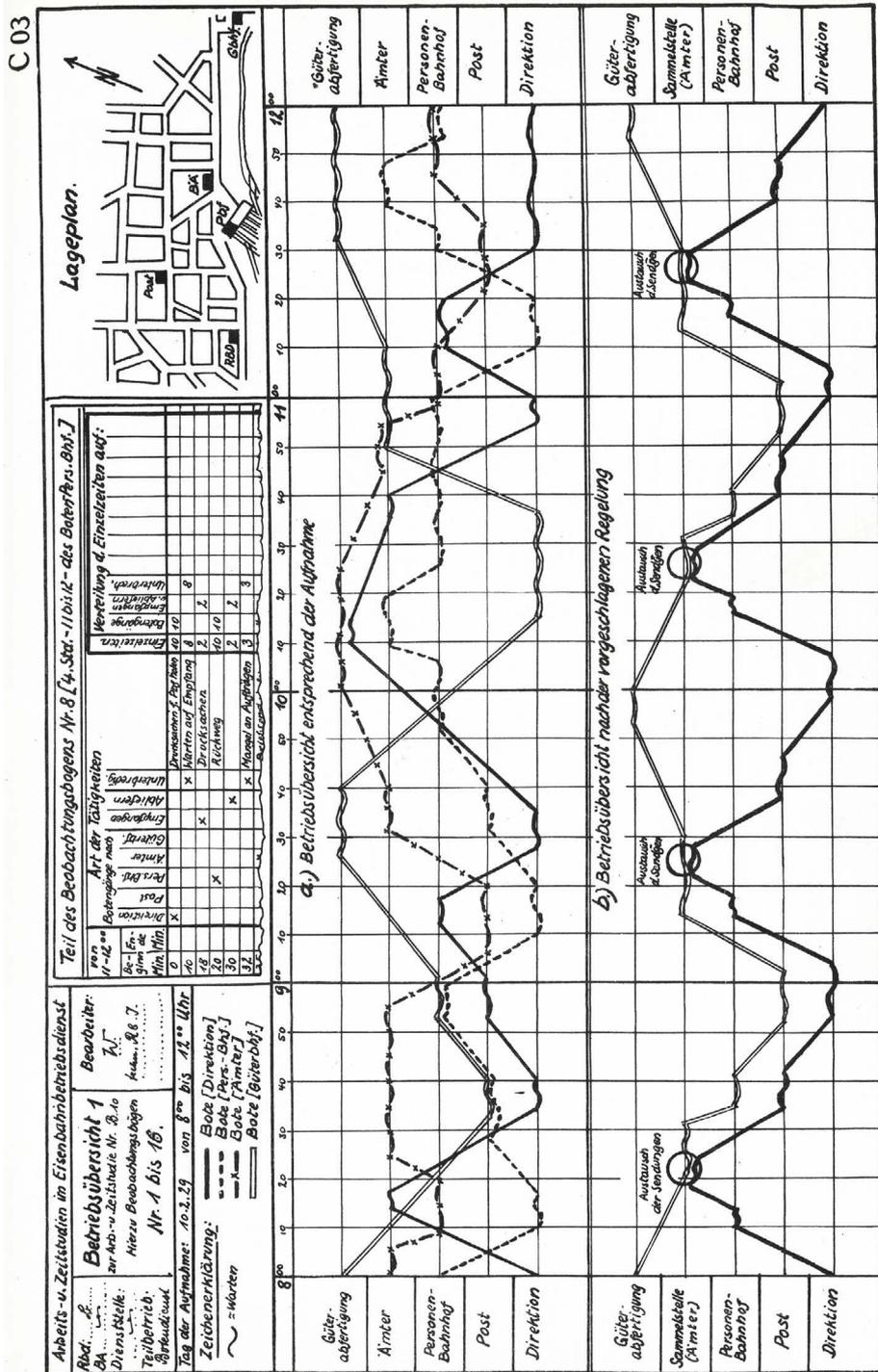
Dienstplan. Dienstzweig/Dienstposten: Aufsichtsbeamte u. Telegraphisten
Dienstplanmäßiger Bedarf: 6 Köpfe. Gültig ab: 11.9.1928. B 30

Woche	Dienstzweig/Dienstposten: Aufsichtsbeamte u. Telegraphisten							Dienstplanmäßiger Bedarf: 6 Köpfe. Gültig ab: 11.9.1928.				
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	Dienstag	Mittwoch	Donnerstag	Freitag	Sonabend	Sonntag	Montag	Gesamtdauer der Arbeit				
1	[Grid with dots representing work shifts]							57 . 2 . . . 56 .				
2	[Grid with dots]							52 52				
	[Grid with dots]							109 2 . . 108				
	[Grid with dots]							54 30 1 . . 54 .				
1	[Grid with dots]							62 . 2 . . . 61 .				
2	[Grid with dots]							48 . 1 30 . . 47 15				
3	[Grid with dots]							57 . 2 30 . . 57 45				
4	[Grid with dots]							50 50 .				
	[Grid with dots]							219 . 6 . . . 216				
	[Grid with dots]							54 45 1 30 . . 54				

1) Dienstschichten durch schwarzen Strich, Pausen durch Unterbrechung des Striches darstellen. Dienstschichten und Pausen, deren Beginn und Ende nicht mit den vollen Stunden zusammenfallen, durch Minutenzeiffern über dem Strich kennzeichnen. Abwesenheits- bzw. Eintrags-, Dauer der planmäßigen Arbeitszeit, wenn erforderlich, darunter blau nach Stunden und Minuten vermerken.
 2) Dienstberechnungen sind im bilateralen Teil (Spalten 2-8) nicht ersichtlich zu machen.
 3) Verkürzte Ruhetage mit „r“ als übrigen mit „R“ bezeichnen, z.B. r24, R32

Erläuterungen siehe S. 61/62
 Aus: Beispiele für Arbeits- und Zeitstudien in Eisenbahnbetriebsdienst (Innere Dienstvorschrift) L. V. 83, Heft 2, S. 35.

Figure 26: Example B 30 belonging to the category B 3: Staffing schedule (Nordsieck 1932, p. 131)



Verkehrsharmonogramme für Botendienst (früher 4, heute 2 Boten) zwischen 8 und 12 Uhr innerhalb der aus obigem Lageplan ersichtlichen Stellen
 Erläuterungen siehe S. 64/65
 Aus: Beispiele für Arbeits- und Zeitstudien im Eisenbahnbetriebsdienst (Innere Dienstvorschrift der Rh.Ges.) L. V. 83, Heft 2, S. 105.

Figure 27: Example C 03 belonging to the category C 0: Traffic timelines (Nordsieck 1932, p. 135)

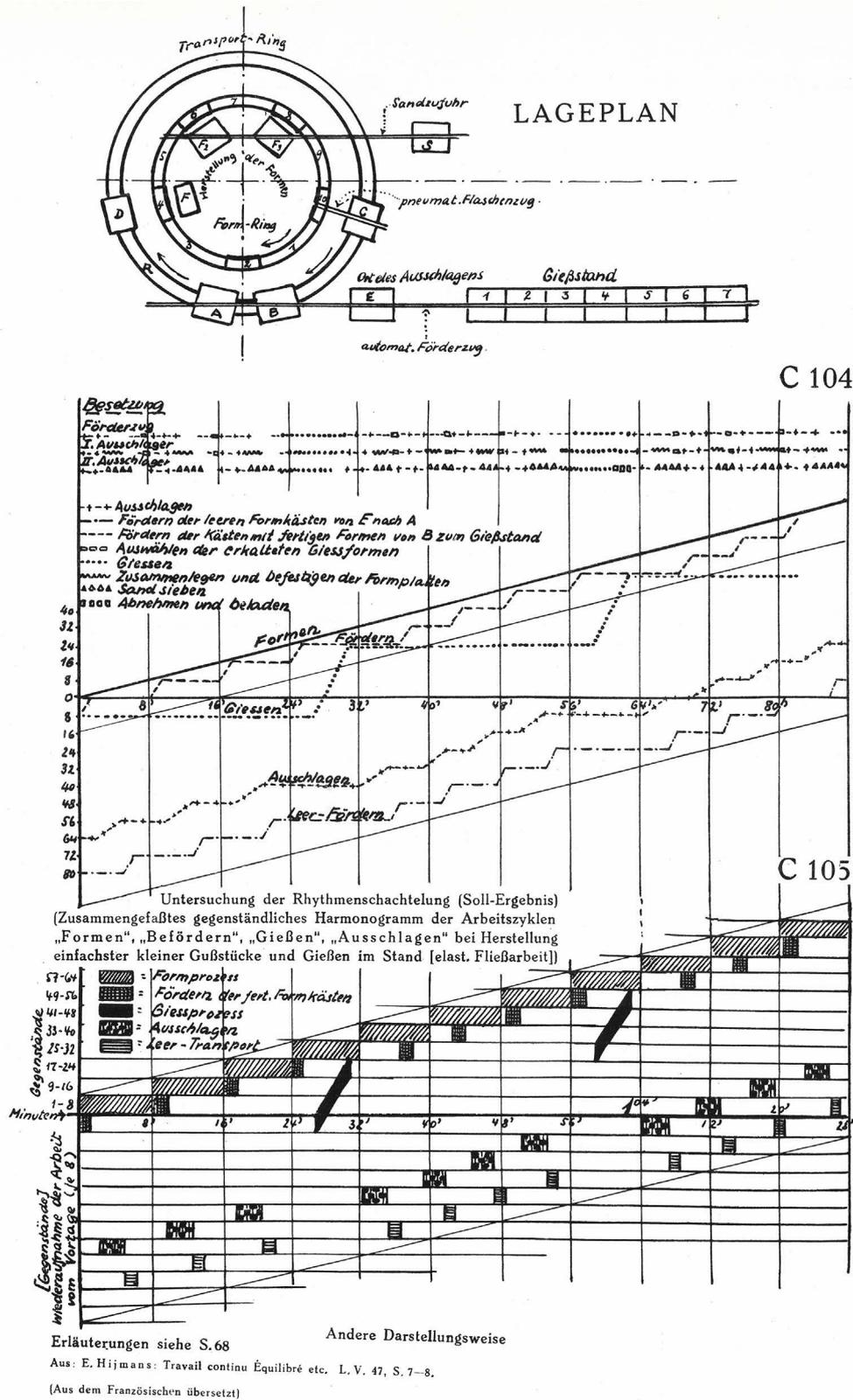


Figure 28: Example C 104 and C 105 belonging to the category C 1: Workflow timelines (Nordsieck 1932, p. 140)

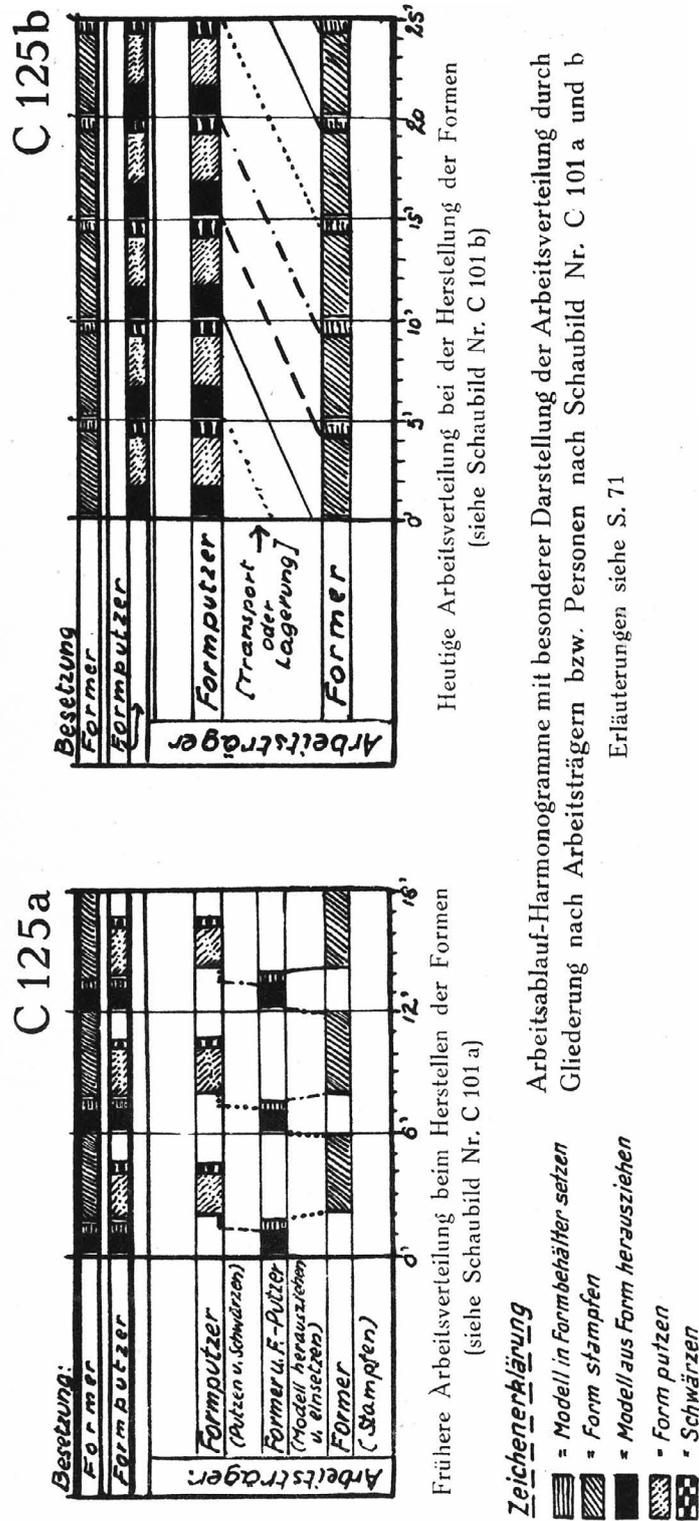


Figure 30: Example C 125 belonging to the category C 1: Workflow timelines (Nordsieck 1932, p. 144)

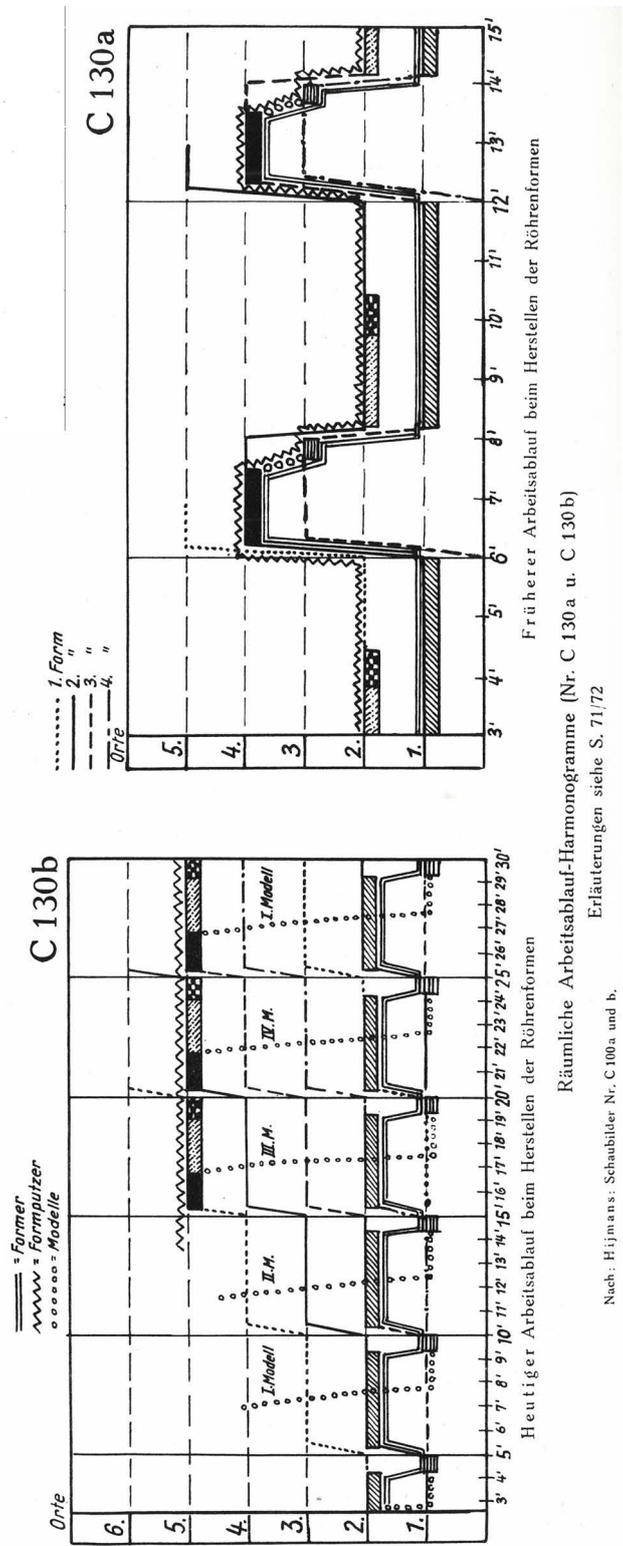


Figure 31: Example C 130 belonging to the category C 1: Workflow timelines (Nordsieck 1932, p. 144)

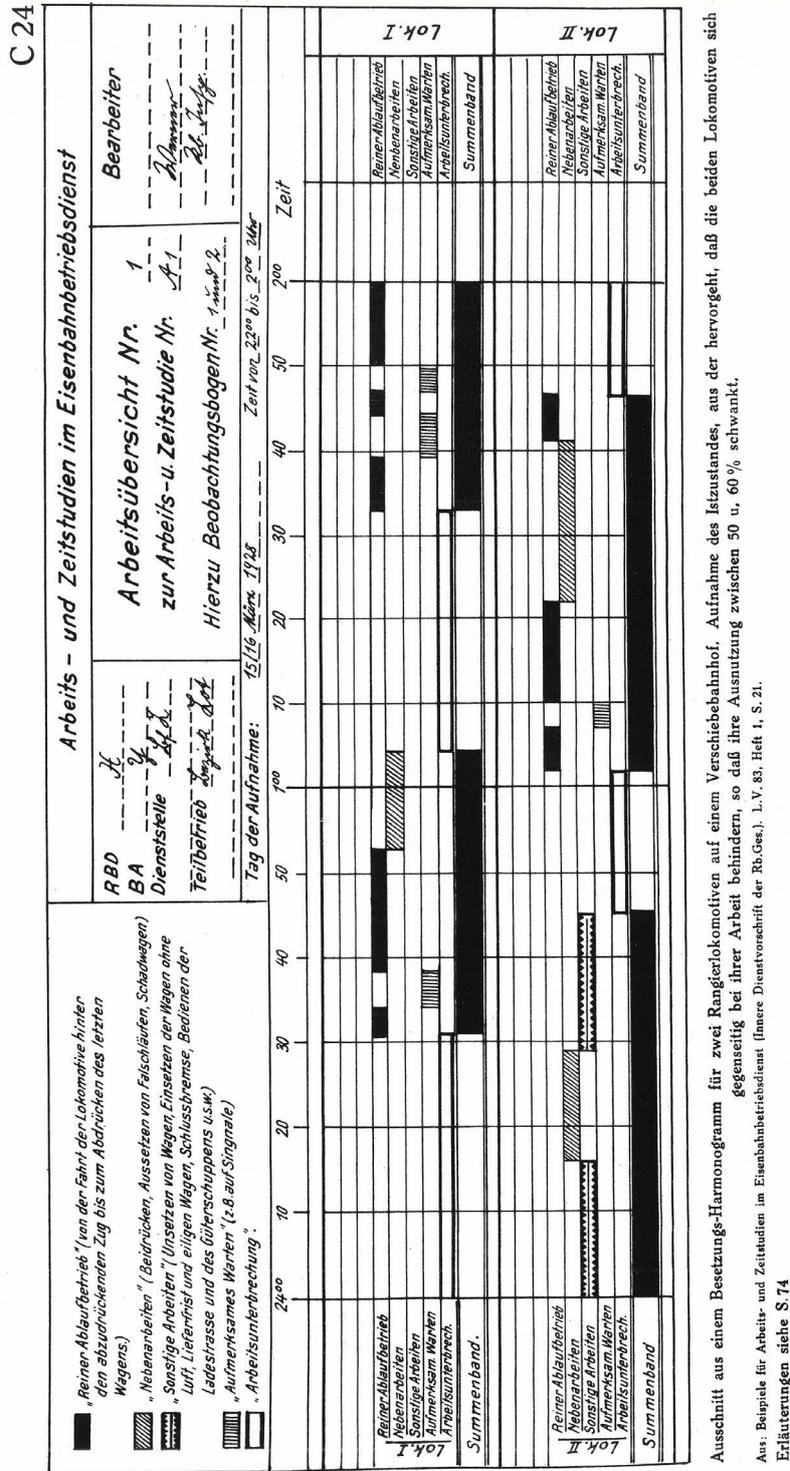


Figure 32: Example C 24 belonging to the category C 2: Staffing timelines (Nordsieck 1932, p. 149)