

'Any man who selects a goal in life which can be fully achieved has already defined his own limitations'

(Cavett Robert)

'If you are not scoring, you are only practising'

(Tennis enthusiast)

10.1 Why measure?

We have often been asked to help organisations with benefit measurement. Responses to our asking them why they want to measure have usually been illuminating and have often influenced our response.

I have learned that many organisations want to measure in order to:

- satisfy management;
- justify a previous decision;
- tick the achievement box;
- sometimes lay blame;

and to do this they focus on the measurement of financials, which may be helpful in learning lessons for future investments, but is predominantly backward looking.

I believe that most people, when they go to work, want to do a good job, they want to feel they are contributing, that they are meeting their targets and deadlines and that they are part of a team moving successfully towards the achievement of a shared vision or goal. So measurement should be helpful to everyone, especially those stakeholders who are beneficiaries of the benefits.

Satisfying this wider group of stakeholders requires the monitoring of a much broader range of metrics, including many which are non-financial – quality, service, satisfaction, speed and productivity. Monitoring is not intended to wield a big stick when targets are not met, rather it should help people to understand why, and enable them to get back on track. This type of monitoring is much more forward-looking and more clearly contributes to improving future performance – ‘what you measure is what you get’.

As far as possible measurement should encourage the desired behaviours and this should be an important consideration when determining measures – see section 10.5. Measurement should always lead to action (other than the wielding of the big stick); if this were more widely understood, I believe more organisations would be prepared to invest in measurement.

Earlier I likened the Benefits Map to a military campaign plan, the benefits being equivalent to positions to be captured. Continuing this analogy, measurement is the intelligence cycle. If then a particular benefit is not achieved (that is, a position is not captured) in the target timescale, this important intelligence should be passed to those responsible for later targets, and adjustments to the change management strategy (Campaign Plan) may need to be made.

In both situations intelligence is received not only from the programme (the battlefield) but also from many other sources. Ideally all relevant intelligence should be combined and its implication assessed using the Benefits Map (Campaign Plan).

In summary the overall purpose of measurement is to drive action which may include:

- determining and implementing mitigating strategies when targets have not been achieved or the environment has changed;
- encouraging the desired behaviours;
- rewarding achievement.

10.2 What are measures and metrics?

The *New Oxford Dictionary* defines a metric as a system or standard of measurement and gives numerous definitions for a measure including:

- a size or quantity found by measuring;
- a system of measuring;
- the degree, extent, or amount of a thing;
- a factor by which a thing is reckoned or evaluated.

In the context of benefit realisation I define a *measure* as a metric whose change in the desired direction helps to confirm that the related benefit is being realised.

The measure is the thing that will be tracked and monitored (for example, 'sales value') – it is not the value (for example, £300 000), nor the target improvement (for example, + 30 per cent) nor the means of measurement (for example, quarterly financial review), nor the benefit (for example, more sales).

10.3 Relationship between benefits and measures and changes

Measures are different from benefits, but there should be a clear relationship between them. This can be many-to-many, one-to-many, a many-to-one or one-to-one. Unfortunately, inconveniently, this relationship is seldom the one-to-one case, as is illustrated in the following two examples.

The measure for 'increased sales of Product X', an expected benefit from Programme A, will be 'sales of Product X', which appears to be a one-to-one relationship; but Programme B also expects 'increased sales of Product X'. The measure 'sales of Product X' is the same in both cases but the benefit improvements are distinct, even though they look the same. They are distinct because they arise from different programmes and their target values may also be different. For Programme A the improvement target may be 10 per cent whereas for

Programme B the improvement target may be 15 per cent. Together they should generate a 25 per cent improvement in the measure value and we have an instance of two benefits related to a single measure – a many-to-one relationship.

In a different situation, a certain change initiative was expected to ‘improve staff morale’. There is probably no single measure which can adequately track such an expected improvement. So the following four measures were identified:

- a staff satisfaction rating (from a quarterly survey);
- average number of days of sickness per staff member;
- the staff attrition rate;
- the management view of staff morale.

This then is an instance of one benefit with four measures. Because these measures are not directly aligned to the wording of the benefit, some people would understandably prefer to call them ‘indicators’ rather than ‘measures’. But since indicators will have the same attributes as measures (see section 10.4), I cannot see any great value in making this distinction, and I shall continue to refer to them all as measures.

Now any one of the above measures might also be linked to benefits from other change initiatives or even to other benefits from the same change initiative – for example, the staff attrition rate may also be a measure for the benefit ‘reduced staff turnover’. Generally I would discourage duplicate use of the same measure within the same change initiative, since it easily leads to double counting.

If we include relationships between measures and changes the situation can become far more complex. For example: within a single programme we might have the same benefit being generated by two changes. The options are:

- the benefit is achieved only when both changes have occurred;
- each change separately generates an improvement in the benefit/measure value – whether this is then registered as one benefit or two is a matter of convenience depending on the situation.

10.4 Measure attributes and categories

Measures have many important attributes or related characteristics. Some relate only to the measure, irrespective of the related benefit. These include:

- unit of measure;
- frequency of measure;
- method of measurement;
- baseline value, if available;
- target value, where appropriate (for example, for sigma Value Type Definite and Expected – see section 9.4d), as indicated by targets in the diagram (Figure 10.1)
- improvement timescale – T1 to T3 for M1 and T2 to T4 for M2;
- measure monitor – person responsible for monitoring the measure;
- beneficiary of the expected improvement.

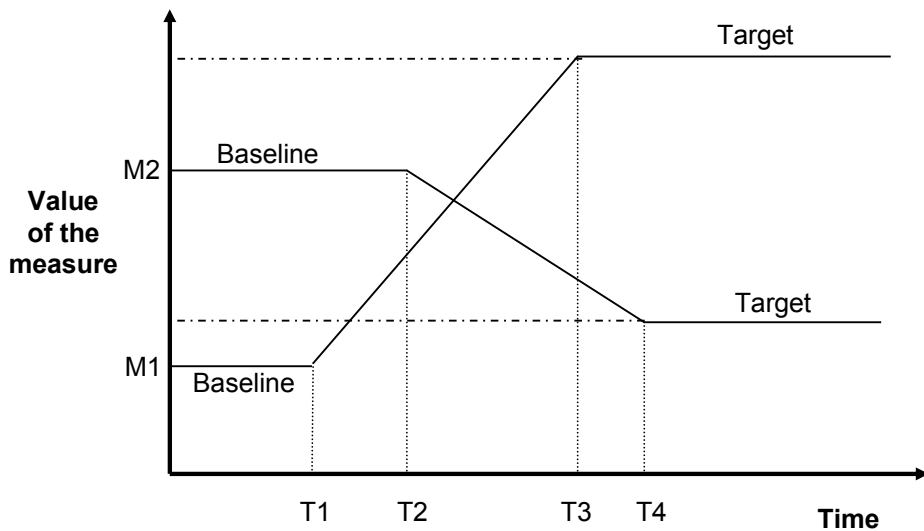


Figure 10.1 Measure predictions

Others relate to the specific benefit-measure relationship and these include:

- Benefit-measure contribution – this is the contribution to the measure target expected from the particular benefit – MV1 to MV2 for Benefit 1 and MV2 to MV3 for Benefit 2 in Figure 10.2;
- Improvement timescale – T1 to T2 for Benefit 1, T2 to T3 for Benefit 2 (Figure 10.2);
- Owner or accountable person – the person accountable for the improvement in the measure related to the particular benefit, usually the Benefit Owner.

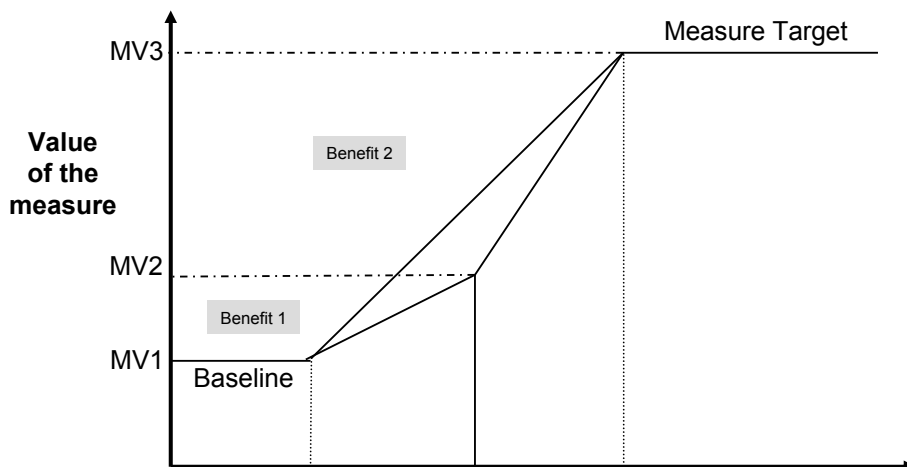


Figure 10.2 Benefit-measure contributions

10.5 Good and bad measures – characteristics of a good measure

A good measure achieves the following:

- motivates behaviours which will contribute to success;
- meets the needs of relevant stakeholders;
- supports, or at least does not undermine, the vision or end goal.

In autumn 2004, the UK national press reported two situations where a young patient urgently needed an ambulance and suffered trauma because none was available. In each instance there was a queue of ambulances containing patients outside the local hospital's Accident & Emergency (A&E) department because the department was not ready to accept the patients.

The ambulance service had no doubt transported their patients to the hospital fast enough to achieve their targets for getting patients to hospital quickly. A&E was achieving its targets for dealing with patients within a certain time by getting the ambulance crews to hang on to their patients until they were ready to deal with them. Both the ambulance service and A&E were meeting their targets, but was this benefiting the primary stakeholder, the patient?

This is a classic case of targets which do not relate to measures which are for the benefit of the primary stakeholder, in this case the patient; the measure should have been the time taken between the 999 call and commencement of appropriate treatment. Had this more relevant measure been used, the outcomes in the above cases would have been quite different. The current drive for joined-up government may hopefully engender the necessary support and commitment, in situations such as the one described, where the most appropriate measures cross organisational boundaries.

Often, as in the above cases, the most appropriate measure is not chosen because:

- the measure would be more difficult to monitor;
- targets would be more difficult to achieve;
- political considerations come to the fore, especially where the measure would span more than one organisation;
- no one in the organisation has the vision to realise that the proposed combination of individual targets will not achieve the overall target.

A serious danger is that those metrics which are easy to measure will be chosen. Because it is so important that measurement encourages the desired behaviour, it is worth spending time, in consultation with the stakeholders, to determine suitable measures, even though they may prove difficult to monitor. This is especially important when national targets are being set with penalties for failure to achieve.

Within the NHS one metric which was being monitored was the number of cancellations of surgical operations. This metric did not distinguish between the reasons for the cancellation or whether the re-scheduled surgery was brought forward or put back. One NHS surgeon frequently brought forward his patients' operations, to their delight. Each time this happened, it registered as a cancellation of the originally scheduled time, and he was eventually penalised for the rise in cancellations – which was a result of his commitment and dedication.

In addition to the three criteria listed at the start of this section, measures should also be:

Relevant	Would change in value matter to stakeholders or predict change in subsequent measures?
In appropriate format	Would a ratio or percentage be more appropriate than an absolute value?
Targetable	Will it be reasonably easy for the appropriate stakeholders to determine a target value?
Inexpensive	Is the measure already tracked by the organisation or can its value be generated by a computer system?
Incorruptable	Could individuals take inappropriate action to massage the values?
Timely	Will reporting frequency be sufficient to observe trends without being onerous?
Unambiguous	Can data be displayed graphically in such a way that all process personnel can understand it?
Consistent	Will data be collected in the same way using the same criteria over the foreseeable future?

Figure 10.3 LEGEND REQUIRED

10.6 Identifying measures

The starting point for identifying measures is the Benefits Map. A change initiative may have more than one map for each of the two or three primary objectives. Between them, they should contain the full set of benefits, related in cause and effect chains, starting with quick wins on the left through to end benefits on the right. The complete set of end benefits, perhaps from several maps, should support the fulfilment of the vision.

I recommend, when identifying measures, working from right to left through each map, but first, two challenging but related questions must be addressed, namely:

- How many benefits should we measure?
- How many measures per benefit?

In response to the first question, many organisations consider it impractical to measure more than three to six benefits per map, or even per change initiative. This is very short-sighted – it might be better not to measure anything, saving the cost of measurement, than to measure too few benefits, which produce meaningless results and no useful action. For a fuller exploration of these issues see the analysis of a banking case example in Chapter 15.

People often say that they will just measure the key benefits; many would then select some or all of the end benefits as key; I would argue that the key benefits are those at the left-hand end, because if they are not achieved, none of the others will be. Of course once these left-hand benefits have been realised the key benefits, by the same argument, become the next benefits to the right. Thus it can be easily seen that all benefits are key benefits.

One senior manager recently said she felt the left-hand benefits were actually more important since, in some situations, it could take several years to reach the end benefits and by then the world may have changed; meanwhile much value may have been achieved from the early (left-hand) benefits.

The number of measures per benefit is likely to vary and will depend on the wording of the benefit. Although it would be convenient if there were a single measure for each benefit, several aspects of improvement are often implied within the wording. For example, the benefit 'increased sales' suggests both an increased volume and an increased value of sales, so at least two measures are needed – the volume of sales and the value of sales. It would also be possible to split the original benefit into two benefits – increased sales volume and increased sales value and give each a single measure. Sometimes this will be the best option, but if both benefits are dependent on the same changes and prior benefits, it is neater, and will keep the maps less cluttered, if the single benefit 'increased sales' is used with the two measures – sales volume and sales value.

In this instance another alternative would be to re-word the benefit as 'increased sales revenue' which could then have a single measure 'sales revenue'. Sometimes this might be an appropriate option, but it could lose valuable information, for if both sales volume and sales value are tracked it is easy to combine them to produce sales revenue whereas the reverse is not possible.

There are often other reasons why more than one measure may be required, including:

- meeting the needs of different stakeholders, and
- balancing the measures so that there are complementary or opposing measures.

Consider the benefit 'improved response to telephone enquirers seeking an insurance quotation'. There is a large number of possible measures. These include:

- a) number of rings before any response;
- b) total time before enquirer speaks to a person;
- c) time to a satisfactory conclusion of call;
- d) time taken for an enquirer to receive a quotation;
- e) quality of the dialogue;
- f) friendliness of the telephonist;
- g) length of queue;
- h) number of quotations provided per telephonist per day;
- i) number of accepted quotations per telephonist per day.

If we consider the primary stakeholder for this particular benefit, the enquirer, then the first six measures, a) to f), are of greatest interest, g) is not directly apparent to the caller though of indirect interest, since it affects a) to d), and h) and i) are of interest only to the insurance company. Although details of all calls may be monitored, random assessments are probably used to report e) and f) and a derived statistic is used for reporting the remainder. Generally the derived statistic is the average, though this is not always the best statistic, as in this situation. For example if the average for b) drops from 5 sec. to 4.5 sec. while the maximum rises from 3 minutes to 5 minutes, is this an overall improvement for enquirers? Probably not, since the change in the average for the majority will be hardly discernable, whereas the slower response

would not be missed by those experiencing it. So for b), and probably for each of a) to d), reporting maxima rather than averages is probably the most useful.

Other worthwhile statistics include the median – the middle value, when all the data is arranged in order of magnitude, and the mode – the most frequently experienced value.

Sometimes, including complementary or opposing measures can avoid distorted or unbalanced emphasis. In this example, the quality of the dialogue or the friendliness of the telephonist may be in tension with the time it takes to receive a quotation, so to balance d) either e) or f) should also be monitored.

In the above example we have considered nine possible measures. It is not necessary to track all nine to check that an appropriate balanced improvement has been achieved. I suggest selecting a maximum of four different measures for a single benefit, taking into consideration:

- the interests of different stakeholders, including how well the measure will generate the required behaviours;
- any need to balance opposing measures;
- ease and/or cost of measurement.

As already mentioned, the benefit identification process is best undertaken using the Benefits Map, since some of the suggested measures may more appropriately be attached to different benefits. For instance, in the above example h) might more appropriately be attached to an improved productivity benefit, if such exists in the Benefits Map.

Recently **sigma** worked with a large government department; several workshops were run – one for each objective – each one creating relevant Benefits Maps. Measures were not selected for all benefits. Instead a few key benefits (mostly end benefits) were selected, the maps were put aside, and measures – often as many as six – were determined for each of these key benefits.

On taking a closer look at these measures I realised that only a few related directly to the selected key benefits – the others were measures of what would be necessary to achieve these key benefits – that is, measures of earlier benefits. Having effectively discarded the Benefits Maps, the participants were creating in their minds a virtual Benefits Map. If they had retained their Benefits Maps and identified a single measure for each benefit, the total number of measures would have been similar and the whole picture would have been far more transparent.

Measures are best identified through carefully structured and well facilitated workshops, whose participants include the key stakeholders. Participants must be familiar with Benefits Maps and appreciate what constitutes a good measure. Measure identification is intellectually demanding and time-consuming; we find three to four hours a suitable length for a workshop.

We use the Benefits Map as the framework for the workshops, working systematically from right to left seeking one or two measures for each benefit. Occasionally we end up with more than two measures, sometimes with none. It is reasonable to accept the occasional benefit with no measures, providing the benefits on either side have measures.

If a three- to four-hour workshop proves insufficient to identify suitable measures for all the benefits, it is useful to focus initially on those benefits with a high strategy score – see section 9.7. It is more important to check that these benefits are being achieved since they have a greater impact on subsequent benefits. They are also likely to link to a wider range of consequential benefits and so are of interest to a larger group of stakeholders. These should

therefore be tackled while there is broad stakeholder representation. Low-scored benefits can be tackled later with smaller groups of stakeholders.

It may well be appropriate during this process to revise the Benefits Maps – this should be acceptable and even encouraged since the whole BRM process is iterative. Most revisions will occur in the wording of the benefits. While drilling down to more precise definitions of measures, people often realise that the wording of the benefit is vague or ambiguous and want to make it more accurate. Or a single benefit may require splitting into two benefits, or sometimes linkages require revision.

10.7 Setting targets

After measures have been identified for each benefit, baselines must be determined and improvement targets and timescales set. Essentially the information in the earlier diagram (Figure 10.1), which for convenience is repeated below (Figure 10.4), is required.

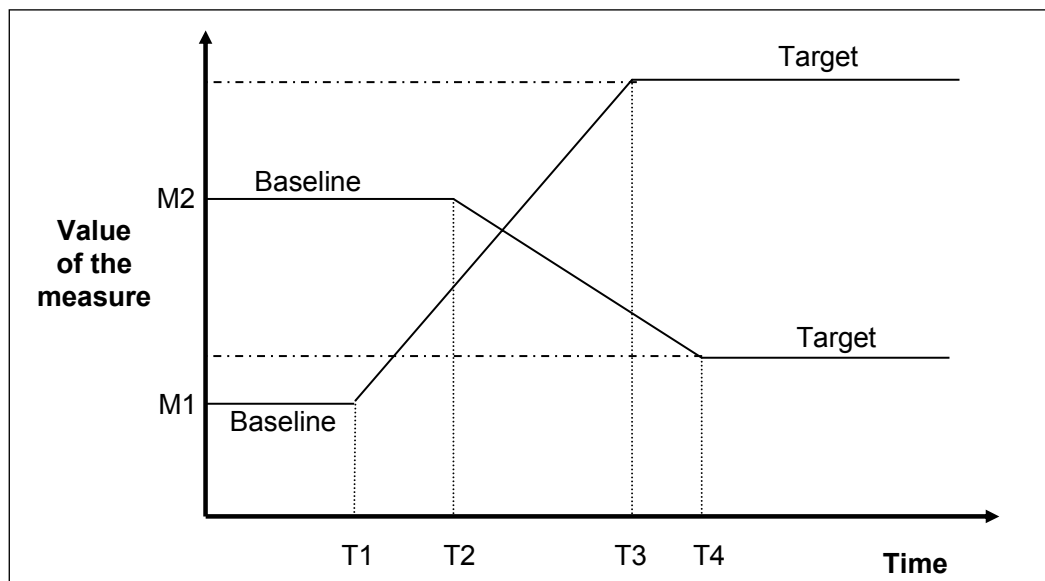


Figure 10.4 Measure predictions

If there are no baselines (which can be simply determined from the Measures Dictionary if it exists – see section 10.10) they must be generated from measuring (see section 10.8).

Like measures, targets should encourage desired behaviours, so it is vital to engage with the relevant stakeholders, especially those who will be affected by any dependent changes, in exploring the likely consequences of proposed targets. The more widespread the application of the target the more care is necessary in selecting and checking it, particularly in the case of national targets set by the government. Without due care and stakeholder involvement we arrive at ludicrous situations such as those outlined earlier relating to primary healthcare.

The accuracy to which targets can be set will vary depending on the measure. This variation can be categorised using the **sigma** Value Types (see section 9.4d), where for definite measures we would expect an accurate target, for expected measures we would expect a target, but

realise it may not be achieved fully, especially if there are significant external drivers which could impact the target. For logical measures it is probably not possible to determine realistic targets, so it may be better not to set targets. It would still be important to track the measure, creating learning for future target setting, while avoiding the frustration of failing to achieve an unrealistic target.

If no baseline exists when targets are set (this is often the case if they are set in workshops), a percentage improvement will usually suffice. This can easily be translated into an absolute value as and when baselines are established.

With respect to timing, improvement is likely to start at some time in the future, T1 for measure M1, and then to improve steadily until the target is reached at time T3. In practice this improvement may not be steady or linear, as suggested by the diagram, but for prediction purposes this is usually the best which can be offered. Generally I suggest using a three-monthly time interval, though monthly or annually may sometimes be more appropriate.

10.8 Measuring

When I ask groups of managers when they should start measuring, their responses invariably equate to – ‘as soon as you know what it is you need to measure’. I then ask whether this is what happens in their organisations and their response is always – No!

Measurement should start as soon as the measures have been determined, in order to:

- generate some baseline data for measures, where none exist;
- ensure that any early achievement of benefits – a quick win – is recognised and reported;
- increase the chance of it happening – if the start of measuring is delayed, it is more likely not to happen at all.

What then is the problem? I suggest the following possibilities:

- a) The importance of measurement has not been understood.
- b) People think measurement is difficult and time-consuming.
- c) There is uncertainty as to whether improvements in the measure values can be attributed to the programme.
- d) Some stakeholders may not want to see the benefit realised.
- e) There is a common misconception that measurement should start after everything else has been done.
- f) No one has been appointed to undertake the measurement.

It is important to consider each of these potential hindrances to measuring.

A) THE IMPORTANCE OF MEASUREMENT HAS NOT BEEN UNDERSTOOD

As indicated in section 10.2, measurement of benefits is equivalent to the gathering of intelligence during a military campaign; it is unthinkable that any military commander would contemplate any military campaign without continuous intelligence-gathering both from the field and from elsewhere. Strategy, tactics and the whole deployment of resources are dependent on this information. Sadly, it is still fairly common for project and programme

managers to exercise their responsibilities, overseeing the acquisition and implementation of enablers and the management of business change, without any intelligence on progress towards the achievement of benefits.

The primary purpose of measurement is to drive and shape future action. Delivering enablers and implementing business change without tracking and reporting benefits is comparable to shooting in the dark.

B) PEOPLE THINK MEASUREMENT IS DIFFICULT AND TIME-CONSUMING

Generally the most difficult part of measurement is the identification of suitable measures and this has been addressed in section 10.6. Once they have been identified we first need to check whether they are actually being tracked elsewhere in the organisation. This is easily done if the organisation operates a Measures Dictionary (section 10.10). If the required metrics are not already being tracked then it will be important to set up a measurement mechanism, including tracking frequency and a person to be responsible for measuring. This information should then be added to the Measures Dictionary if it exists.

C) THERE IS UNCERTAINTY AS TO WHETHER IMPROVEMENTS IN THE MEASURE VALUES CAN BE ATTRIBUTED TO THE PROGRAMME

It is far more important to know that a target has been achieved than to be certain to which project, or even to which programme, success can be attributed. So measurement is vital even when attribution is difficult or impossible.

One of the best ways to attribute benefits to a programme is through the use of the Benefits Map. Usually benefits at the left-hand side of the map are more clearly a direct consequence of an integrated set of specific enablers and business changes and so for these benefits attribution is straightforward. Benefits on the far right – end benefits – are more difficult since they are susceptible to far more external influences over a much longer time period. So if only end benefits are measured there is little hope that improvements in measure values can honestly be clearly attributed to the programme. If on the other hand all benefits on the map are measured, then the knock-on effects can be seen as targets are progressively achieved.

D) SOME STAKEHOLDERS MAY NOT WANT TO SEE THE BENEFIT REALISED

Certain stakeholders may be resistant to measuring, because they do not want the benefit to be realised – one such instance could be when the benefit is ‘reduced headcount’. Situations like this are rare, but when they do occur sensitive management is needed; members of staff whose jobs are at risk should not be asked to track the benefits.

Apart from situations similar to the above, most resistance arises for one or more of the following reasons:

- The stakeholders have not been involved throughout the process – in benefit identification, the construction of a Benefits Map and the determination of suitable measures and targets.
- The programme is a ‘cart before the horse’ programme – that is, the benefit has been created to justify a preconceived solution rather than as a step on the path to achieving of a vision.

- Measurement may expose vulnerable people, for example, those who might be held accountable for a benefit, especially if they are unconvinced that it is realisable.

In one workshop situation a sales team was reluctant to acknowledge that increased sales was a valid benefit from a programme whose main purpose was to increase sales! When I expressed surprise, they explained their concern that acknowledging the benefit would lead to them being given tougher sales targets. They had not bought in to the programme and become confident that it could enable them to sell more, without having to work twice as hard to reach the anticipated tougher targets. Once they had seen the completed Benefits Map, which they had helped to construct, they began to understand that 'increased sales' was a realistic benefit, which didn't require them to be super-human. At this point their attitude towards the programme became significantly more positive.

E) THERE IS A COMMON MISCONCEPTION THAT MEASUREMENT SHOULD START AFTER EVERYTHING ELSE HAS BEEN DONE

Although the situation is improving, organisations may even today not start to think about measurement until late in the programme life cycle, often after the enablers have been implemented. When measurement starts so late in the life cycle, early benefits will be missed, gaps in baseline data will not be filled and the measurement regime will not provide the early intelligence to shape and steer early changes.

In all other respects this hindrance to effective measurement is similar to my first hindrance – that is, the importance of measurement has not been understood.

F) NO ONE HAS BEEN APPOINTED TO UNDERTAKE THE MEASUREMENT

Measurement is undertaken more regularly and accurately if those undertaking it also benefit from it. So it is best to work with stakeholders who are likely to benefit from the improvement, engaging them in the benefit identification process and subsequently in the ongoing monitoring and reporting. Probably a large number of people will be involved in capturing the raw measurement data; so in addition to these people it is important to have a defined role for gathering and consolidating this information. I shall refer to this role, which could also include responsibility for reporting the results to the various interested parties, as Measure Monitor.

This role could be part of our recommended Benefit Facilitation Role – see section 6.13 – and could include responsibility for the Measures Dictionary – see section 10.10.

10.9 Measures dashboard – reporting measures

For measurement to lead to action, measures must be reported to the people who will ensure that the necessary action is taken. In one organisation I met a woman who spent all her time generating reports relating to different types of measurement. These reports were then meticulously indexed and filed; sadly no one ever saw them unless they chose to request them, which they rarely did.

Visual reporting – charts, dials, graphs and tables – is generally helpful. A set of meters of this kind, gathered on a single screen or sheet of paper, is often called a dashboard. As different models of car require different dashboards, so do different stakeholders.

Another option, which avoids overwhelming people with data, is to report by exception. If there is a good plan, action will be required only when there is a deviation from expectation. So exception reporting, which presents only those metrics which have fallen outside a specified tolerance of the relevant target, is an effective mechanism.

Sometimes the above two reporting approaches are combined. The complete set of relevant data is reported with deviations from plan highlighted using a colour code – usually green to indicate a measure is within a narrow tolerance of target, amber for values within a wider deviation from target and red for values that are way off the mark. This is often referred to as a RAG (red, amber, green) status. Some organisations use a BRAG status, where a fourth colour (blue) is used to indicate that the target has been achieved and measurement of this metric is now complete.

10.10 Measures Dictionary

An organisation measures many things as part of its regular monitoring of business performance. With continuing investment in change, the number of metrics being monitored will continue to increase. This monitoring will generate baseline data for future investments likely to impact these particular metrics.

Much effort is often wasted measuring and tracking metrics which are also being tracked elsewhere. This happens when person A has no knowledge of person B and what that person might be measuring.

The most practical solution is for the organisation to establish a Measures Dictionary, containing all the metrics which the organisation is measuring, each with an expanding history of actual values. If the success of a new investment is to be tracked using measures not in the dictionary, these must be added; as measurements are recorded, baseline values for these new measures will be determined.

So as measures are identified for a particular investment, they must be checked against the Measures Dictionary.

The Measures Dictionary should hold, in addition to an historic set of actual values for each measure, the predicted values or target contributions for each change initiative. So a predicted increase of 30 per cent in the measure 'sales' may be made up from the following target improvements – 5 per cent from Programme A, 15 per cent from Programme B and 10 per cent from Programme C. This central recording of targets makes it relatively easy to spot when several programmes collectively are claiming more benefits than can realistically exist.

Each measure may also be subdivided into a set of dimensions. For example, sales may have both a product and a region dimension, so we could monitor sales of product P in country C. The dictionary might also hold the names of the individuals (the Measure Monitors) responsible for the measurement of each measure and/or the mechanisms by which the measures are being tracked.

As benefits are realised and improvements are attributed to particular programmes, this information might also be held in the dictionary against the corresponding prediction or claim.

10.11 Measure Owner

A Measure Owner is the person with the overall responsibility for a measure, in particular for the planned total improvement in the measure. So the Chief Executive or Managing Director is likely to be the owner of the measure 'profit', while the Sales Director would be the owner of the measure 'sales revenue'.

The owner is not necessarily the Measure Monitor and Measure Owners are usually different from Benefit Owners. A Benefit Owner is responsible for the improvements in one or more measures relating to a specific benefit from a particular change initiative.

While much of the BRM process will add value when it is only partially applied, an incomplete or inappropriate set of measures could yield no value or worse, encourage inappropriate or undesirable behaviour.