

Business Motivation Models

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Business motivation is the first of the four business modeling disciplines we describe in this book. A business motivation model describes what a business is trying to accomplish—the goals and objectives of the business. A motivation model is also concerned with how the business intends to go about accomplishing the goals—the strategy of the business. A motivation model includes what is happening in the world that may represent an opportunity or a threat to the business and what is happening in the business itself that may be a strength or weakness. This chapter explains business motivation models.

After some consideration, your company, Mykonos Dining Corp., does acquire Cora Group, striking a cash and stock deal with the owner. Now the general manager of Cora's flagship restaurant, Portia, has come to you with a problem. He is considering making a change to the menu. Portia's entire menu is prepared fresh on the premises. Even the breads and desserts are prepared in-house, and the general manager thinks that this in-house practice has limited the variety of the breads and desserts that are offered. He would like to procure some breads and desserts from local bakeries.

The head chef is opposed. She argues that Portia is a different kind of restaurant, that its mission is about cooking meals fresh, not serving food that others have prepared. Her argument is compelling, and the general manager has been puzzling it back and forth for several weeks as he attends to the daily demands of the restaurant. Now he seeks your advice.

This dilemma is not about the business processes of the restaurant. It is about something larger: why the restaurant exists, the goals it is trying to achieve, and the means it uses to achieve those ends. It is about the *business motivation* of Portia.

The head chef's opposition to the procurement of breads and desserts is not just a difference of opinion about the most profitable direction for Portia. She cares about the restaurant. She invests her time and energy in creating the best food she can because the restaurant has personal meaning for her. Some businesses

spend a lot of time and attention figuring out what they should be doing and why. Some businesses prefer to focus instead on operational matters. But employees always care about motivation. Work is always as much about creating meaning for the people performing it as about earning a living. Business motivation matters.

We build business motivation models—models of what a business is trying to do. Business motivation is the first of the four modeling disciplines we cover in this book. Business motivation models include *goals*—what the organization is trying to do. A motivation model for Portia might include a goal like **Prepare Comfort Food for Urbane Customers**.

Business motivation models include *strategies*—how the organization is trying to achieve its goals. A motivation model for Portia might include the strategy **Extend Dessert Menu with Cakes from Local Bakeries**.

Business motivation models also include *influencers*—justifications of the goals and strategies in terms of what is happening in the organization or out in the larger world. For example, Portia’s business motivation model might include the influencer **Restaurant Customers Demanding More Variety**. This is a trend about the market Portia is serving, a trend that has an effect on whether Portia’s goals and strategies will be successful.

WHY MODEL BUSINESS MOTIVATION?

Why do we care about modeling business motivation? As you will recall from Chapter 1, business models in general are used for eight purposes. Six apply to business motivation modeling: communication, persuasion and selling, training and learning, analysis, managing compliance, and knowledge management and reuse.

Some businesses build motivation models of their strategy and then use those models to *communicate* their strategy across their organization and to stakeholders outside. Sometimes that communication involves *persuasion* of reluctant parties: for example, employees who are skeptical of the new strategy, or suppliers who are concerned about what the new strategy means for them. Sometimes the models are used to *train* new employees in the business strategy.

Motivation models are often *analyzed*. One potential strategy is compared with others, to see which is best. (In fact, motivation models should be analyzed more often than they are today. It is difficult to envision a situation in which a motivation model is built and no analysis is needed.) Sometimes this analysis involves simulation, to understand the implications of a strategy in the evolving business environment. Motivation model simulation is covered in Chapter 11.

Motivation models are essential for *managing compliance* against policy. The policies themselves are part of the business rule model, described in Chapter 6. But the policies can be traced to business motivations, the strategies

and tactics that the policies govern, and to the goals and objectives that they support.

In some organizations, knowledge about an initiative today is carefully captured for the benefit of other initiatives in the future. This *knowledge management* sometimes includes business motivations, explaining the purpose of the initiative and the strategies that were followed. When someone else finds the details of this captured initiative, they can study the motivation model and understand why the initiative was executed the way it was.

MOTIVATION MODELING AND STRATEGY CREATION

Business motivation modeling can play a role in creating a new strategy, although the details depend on how the business works with strategy in general. Different businesses use different techniques to create strategy.¹ Some businesses see strategy as something to be periodically designed, and they convene the leadership team annually in offsite workshops to create multi-year plans that are intended to be implemented by the rest of the organization. Models can be created in these workshops; capturing the strategy as models directly in the workshops supports a different kind of offsite conversation. The leadership team can discuss alternatives by pointing to alternative models. They can see the impact of the choices they are making. Model-based workshops are described in Chapters 8 and 9.

Other businesses approach strategy very differently—as something that is *learned* as the result of ongoing conversations throughout the organization during the day-to-day work. These businesses don't design their strategy so much as incrementally refine it in response to what they are seeing in their environment. For these incrementally learning organizations, business models can be created as needed as part of the communication process, e.g., whenever someone recognizes a new trend and wants to explain to his or her colleagues how that new trend can be exploited as a new opportunity.

In creating strategy, modeling serves to legitimize differences of opinion around what the organization should do. It is a curious but widespread fact of organizational life that differences of opinion about operational matters—such as business processes—are considered to be harmless, but differences of opinion about strategic matters—such as goals—are forbidden. “Don't say that—it's against the company strategy,” they warn, or “We all need to march in the same direction.”

By modeling alternative strategies, the content of the opinion can be separated from the authority of the person who said it. The alternative strategies can be analyzed, maybe even simulated, and the results compared objectively.

¹Mintzberg et al. [Mintzberg 1998] surveys a broad spectrum of strategy practice, all the different ways that companies create and maintain strategy.

Motivation modeling is useful in creating strategy, but model-based strategy creation is still pretty rare, in our experience. Usually strategy is created using some other, older processes that do not involve modeling. Modeling is then used to capture the strategy once it is created. When strategy is created first and modeled later, it doesn't matter how the strategy was created; the modeling simply focuses on what the strategy is. While a strategy first model later approach is not as good as using modeling to create a strategy, it is still valuable to capture what others created.

GOALS

Motivation modeling is about the achievement of goals. Organizations have goals. For example, Apple tries to create consumer electronics products that are beautiful and easy to use. Nike tries to create the best shoes for both serious and occasional athletes. Closer to home, Portia tries to serve innovative and satisfying food.

So what is a goal? A goal is simply something an organization is trying to achieve. For example, the employees of Portia are working on increasing the variety of the food offered. We could model this as the goal **Expand Menu Variety**.

A goal is an *end result*, something an organization is trying to achieve for its own sake, rather than a means to some other end. For example, Portia is trying to achieve greater menu variety by offering daily specials. **Expand Menu Variety** is a goal, whereas **Offer Daily Specials** is not a goal since Portia does not care about offering daily specials except to the extent that they expand the menu variety. **Offer Daily Specials** is a *strategy*. Strategies are attempted to achieve goals, not for their own sake. Strategies are described later in this chapter.

Goals and Organizations

A goal is defined by the organization that is trying to achieve the goal. For example, the restaurant Portia defines the goal **Expand Menu Variety**. Portia's sister restaurants have different goals. Nola—a Cora Group restaurant that just opened—defines the goal **Establish Regular Customers**. Establishing regular customers was once a goal for Portia, when it had just opened, but that goal has long since been achieved and is no longer a goal for the restaurant. [Figure 3.1](#) shows the relationship between Portia and the goal it defines, and between Nola and the goal it defines.

[Figure 3.1](#) also shows a goal for Cora Group and Mykonos. Cora Group—Sam's company that you acquired that includes Portia and all its sister restaurants—defines the goal **Bring Innovative Food to More People**. Mykonos Dining Corp. as a whole defines the goal **Expand Presence in Mid-Atlantic**.

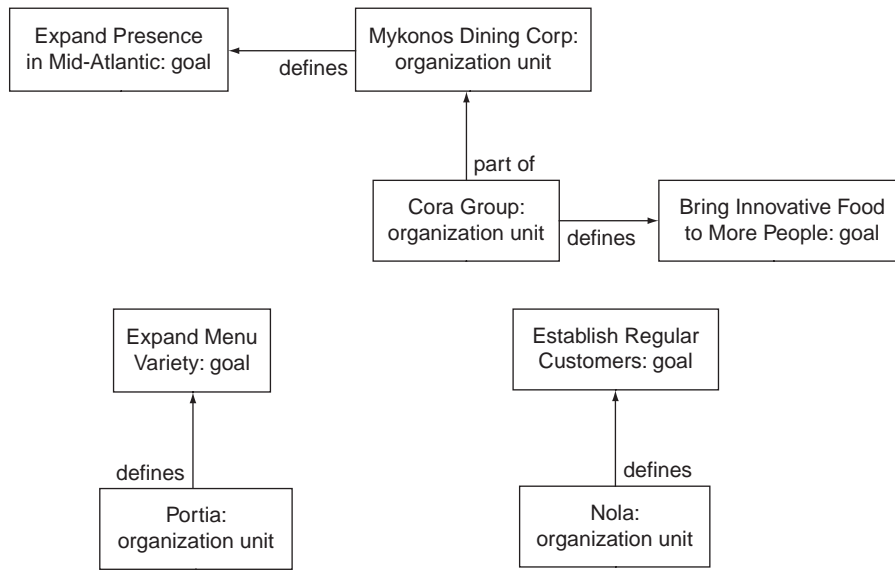


FIGURE 3.1 Organization and goals

Saying that an organization unit “defines” a goal is a bit confusing.² In practice an organization may set a goal for one of its constituent organizations. For example, Portia is one of the restaurants in the Cora Group, and Cora may set the goal **Expand Menu Variety** for Portia. So although expanding menu variety is a goal for Portia, it was in some sense “defined” for it by its parent organization. But the **defines** association does not work that way. When we say that an organization defines a goal, we are using a kind of convenient shorthand. We mean that the people who make up the organization are committed to achieving the goal. The employees who are part of Portia are focusing their time and attention on expanding the variety of the menu.

Goal Hierarchies

Larger goals are often decomposed into *subgoals*—smaller goals that when achieved will collectively result in the larger goal. The result is a *goal hierarchy* showing many goals and their relationships. For example, consider the Cora Group’s goal hierarchy, shown in [Figure 3.2](#). At the top of the hierarchy is **Bring Innovative Food to More People**. That lofty goal is composed of five subgoals:

²The “defines” terminology comes from the Business Motivation Model standard, commonly called BMM. BMM is described later in this chapter.

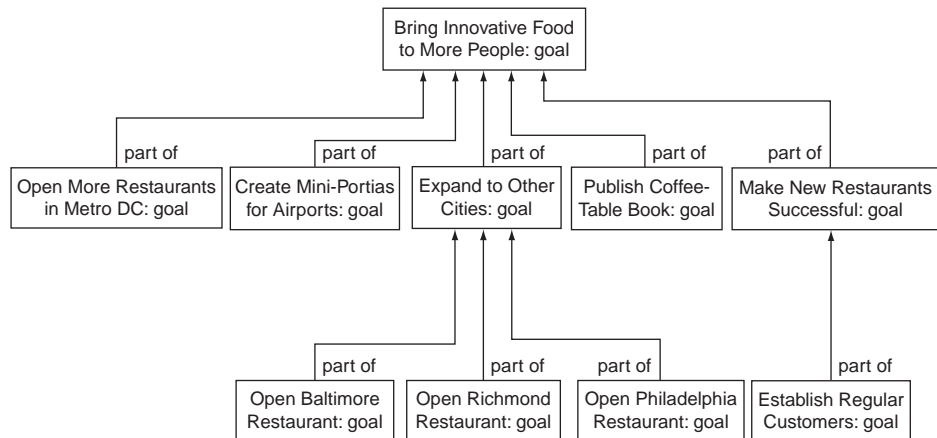


FIGURE 3.2 A goal hierarchy

- **Open More Restaurants in Metro DC**
- **Create Mini-Portias for Airports**
- **Expand to Other Cities**
- **Publish Coffee-Table Book**
- **Make New Restaurants Successful**

Each of these subgoals is a significant desired end result; each is a goal. **Expand to Other Cities** has its own subgoals: **Open Baltimore Restaurant**, **Open Richmond Restaurant**, and **Open Philadelphia Restaurant**.

The subgoal **Expand to Other Cities** is related to **Bring Innovative Food to More People** via the association **part of**. The **part of** association is what defines **Expand to Other Cities** as a subgoal. The **part of** association means that something smaller is a piece of something larger: The smaller subgoal is a piece of the larger goal. As we will see, **part of** is a useful association—useful not just for subgoals and goals but also for other things that have parts.

Goals change, typically at a pace of years or decades. Once the Cora Group opens a restaurant in Baltimore, **Open Baltimore Restaurant** will no longer be a goal. Another goal will take its place.

OBJECTIVES

Goals are not enough by themselves. Goals are vague about timing, about when a goal should be achieved. Consider the Cora Group goal **Expand to Other Cities**. Are they opening restaurants in other cities this month, next year, or within the next 10 years? Goals are also vague about measurement. At what point has

Cora Group succeeded in expanding to other cities—When they open one restaurant outside metro DC? Three restaurants? 20?

Goals are complemented by *objectives*. Objectives are desired end results like goals, but they are specific about both timing and measurement. The goal **Expand to Other Cities** is complemented by an objective to open restaurants in three cities outside of Metro DC by the end of the year. This **3 City Openings** objective *quantifies* the goal **Expand to Other Cities**: It specifies a measurement—three cities outside metro DC—and a timing—by the end of the year.

A single goal can be quantified by more than one objective. For example, **Expand to Other Cities** is quantified by both the **3 City Openings** objective and by a subsequent **7 City Openings** objective, to open restaurants in seven cities outside of metro DC by the end of next year. Both objectives quantify the same goal.

Descriptions

You might have noticed that **3 City Openings** and **7 City Openings** are named using a different style: the details of **3 City Openings** are not embedded in the name. The name of the model element does not reveal that the objective is about opening restaurants outside of metro DC. Nor does the name reveal that the objective is to be accomplished by the end of the year. **3 City Openings** has a description that provides the details. Any motivation model element can have a description. Descriptions allow names to be short, so model elements can be easily referenced. Short names are a modeling best practice, described with other best practices in Chapter 7.

For example, a description for **3 City Openings** states:

Open three restaurants outside of metro DC by the end of the year.

Objectives change faster than goals. Suppose Cora Group encounters some financing difficulties and only succeeds in opening two restaurants outside metro DC by the end of this year. The **3 City Openings** objective is no longer a current goal because the year has come and gone. Cora Group may scale back the objective for the following year, focusing on opening four restaurants by the end of the year instead of seven. The goal remains the same—**Expand to Other Cities**—but the objectives have changed.

Measuring Objectives

Objectives must be measurable. For **3 City Openings**, measuring is easy: One just counts the number of restaurants that are opened outside the Washington, DC, metropolitan area. But measuring is not always so easy. How does one measure the Portia goal **Expand Menu Variety**? What yardstick do you use to measure menu variety?

One approach to measuring menu variety is to count the number of items on the menu: 8 entrees, 11 appetizers, 4 salads, etc. But the number of menu items is

a flawed measure. Fast-food hamburger chains often have a large menu but little real variety: the hamburger, cheeseburger, double hamburger, and deluxe hamburger are all very similar.

Portia might choose to measure the menu variety with a survey of their customers, asking them whether they like the variety of the menu. With the survey approach, the objective **Improve Customer Variety Perception** quantifies the goal **Expand Menu Variety**. **Improve Customer Variety Perception** is described as raising the customer variety survey results from a 3.5 to a 3.9 by June.

Another approach to measuring menu variety is to hire an expert restaurant consultant to evaluate the menu and rate it on her own variety scale. The goal is quantified by the objective **Improve Expert Variety**, described as raising the consultant's variety rating from a B+ to an A- by September.

Portia can pursue both objectives; neither objective is a perfect measure of the goal, but together they are a pretty good quantification. [Figure 3.3](#) shows the resulting goal, objectives, and the organization unit **Portia**. Note that Portia defines the goal **Expand Menu Variety** and also defines the two objectives that quantify that goal. This is a typical relationship: Usually the organization that defines the goal will also define the quantifying objectives.

Some goals are easy to measure conceptually but difficult in practice. Consider Nola, the new restaurant with the goal of establishing regular customers. In theory, Nola could measure the percentage of customers who have returned within 90 days. But in practice, there is no good way of knowing if a customer returns. An information technology (IT) system could track the customers, perhaps using credit cards as identification. But that approach has its own shortcomings: People use different credit cards, some people pay cash, and when two people meet for

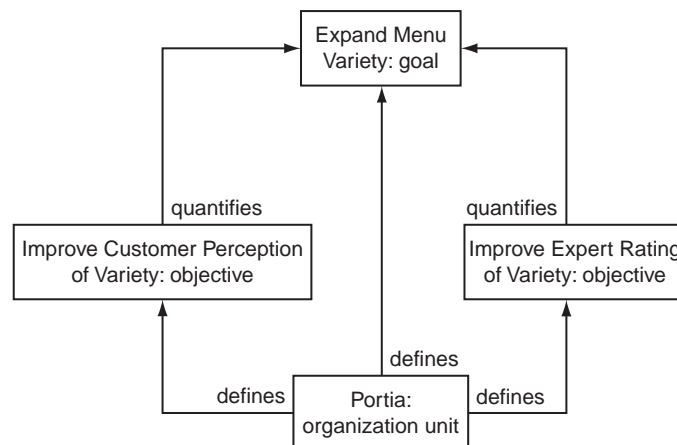


FIGURE 3.3 A goal and the objectives that quantify it

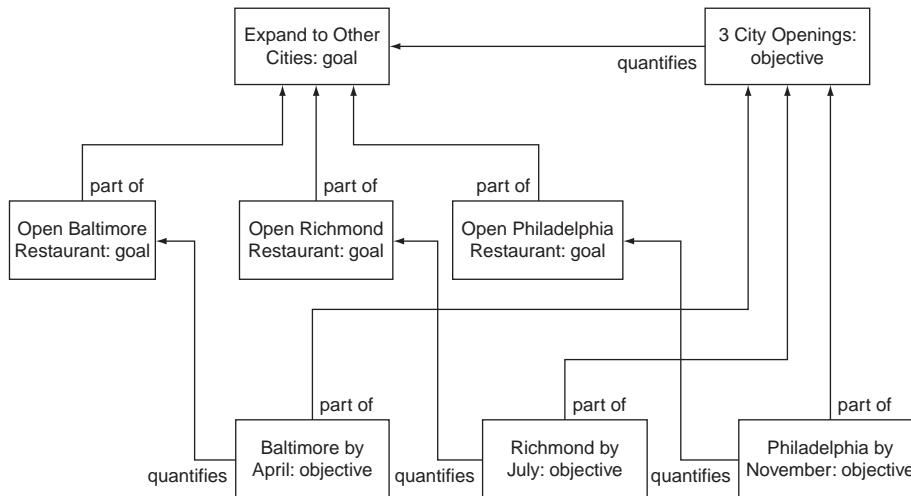


FIGURE 3.4 An objective hierarchy and a goal hierarchy

business, sometimes one pays and sometimes the other does. At best Nola is going to have an imperfect measure of repeat customers.

These difficulties with measurement are common. An objective is created with one eye on the goal it quantifies and the other eye on what can be actually measured. Goals can be lofty statements of direction, but objectives are always grounded in the constraints of measurability.

Objective Hierarchies

Like goals, objectives can be organized into a hierarchy using a **part of** association. [Figure 3.4](#) shows the goal **Expand to Other Cities**, the objective **3 City Openings** that **quantifies** that goal, and three sub-objectives that are part of opening in three cities outside metro DC. The sub-objective **Baltimore by April** also quantifies its own goal, **Open Baltimore Restaurant**, and the other sub-objectives do the same. This kind of parallel hierarchy of goals and objectives is common.

DESIRED RESULTS AND COURSES OF ACTION

Objectives and goals are similar in that they are both *desired results*. A desired result is something an organization is trying to do for its own sake, not as a means to some other end. For example, suppose the restaurant Nola adds two goat dishes to the menu. If the head chef does this because he always wanted to serve goat, then **Add Goat Dishes** is a desired result. But suppose he added the goat

dishes in an effort to attract press attention, to have some new newspaper articles written about Nola. Then **Add Goat Dishes** is a means to a larger end, the goal **Increase Media Coverage**. In that case, **Add Goat Dishes** is not a desired result and not a goal. It is instead a *course of action*.

Courses of action are similar to desired results (goals and objectives) in that both courses of action and desired results are things the organization is trying to accomplish. But courses of action are the means to other ends. They are the ways that organizations achieve their goals and objectives, the stepping stones to the success instead of the success itself. The difference between courses of action and desired results is the difference between journeys and destinations. A course of action is a journey, and a desired result is a destination.

In practice, how can you tell if an attempted thing is a desired result or a course of action? The key question is: What happens if it doesn't work? Suppose Nola's head chef is unable to secure a reliable supply of good goat meat and so cannot introduce goat dishes on the menu. If **Add Goat Dishes** is a desired result, then the failure to get goat meat is the end of the story. Nola pursues other goals. But if **Add Goat Dishes** is a means to achieving the goal **Increase Media Coverage**, then failure to secure supplies of goat will lead to a search for other ways of getting media coverage.

In practice, things can get messy. The head chef might have personally always wanted to serve goat, and **Add Goat Dishes** might have been his personal goal. But to achieve this goal, he had to convince his general manager. In selling the idea, he stressed the advantages of increased media coverage and demoted his goal to a course of action to achieve the newly minted goal of increasing the media coverage. Once he fails to secure supplies of goat, he is left with a commitment to a goal he doesn't want, and he must search for another course of action to attain that goal.

STRATEGIES AND TACTICS

Courses of action come in two varieties: *strategies* and *tactics*. The difference between the two is a matter of size and commitment. Strategies are larger and harder to change. Tactics are smaller and easier to change.

Consider Nola's goal of establishing regular customers. One approach to that goal is to establish seasonal menus—to introduce a winter menu in December, a spring menu in April, and so on. The idea is that someone who enjoyed a dinner in February might be tempted to return in the spring to see what new dishes are offered, and then return again in the summer. The strategy **Offer Seasonal Menus** is one way of achieving the goal **Establish Regular Customers**.

Another approach to the same goal is to give a discount coupon to customers as they settle their bills. The coupon, discounting a future visit to Nola, will induce some customers to return. The tactic **Offer Discount Coupon** also attempts to achieve the goal **Establish Regular Customers**.

The two approaches are quite different in size. The strategy of launching a new menu every season requires hundreds of hours of effort. The tactic of creating a discount coupon is much less work. The two approaches also represent different levels of commitment. Once a seasonal menu is established, customers will come to expect it. If the restaurant decides to drop the seasonal menu plan, some customers could be disappointed. By contrast the restaurant has made no commitments by implementing a one-time discount coupon—no commitment beyond the financial one of honoring the coupon for some limited duration.

Strategies **channel efforts toward** desired results. [Figure 3.5](#) shows the strategy **Offer Seasonal Menus** channeling effort toward the goal **Establish Regular Customers**. Channeling effort toward a goal means that the strategy or tactic is attempting to achieve the goal, but it also means more. The whole purpose of the strategy is the goal on the other side of the **channels effort toward** link. Once the goal is accomplished, the strategy should be reexamined.

But strategies are hard to change. Once the restaurant has regular customers, it might want to retain the strategy of offering seasonal menus, channeling effort now toward other goals, such as keeping the regular customers or earning praise from restaurant critics.

Tactics also channel efforts toward goals. [Figure 3.5](#) shows the tactic **Offer Discount Coupon** channeling effort toward establishing regular customers. And certainly once Nola has a base of regular customers, it should look closely at whether discount coupons are still useful.

Organization units *establish* strategies and tactics, just as they define goals or objectives. [Figure 3.5](#) shows Nola establishing both the strategy **Offer Seasonal Menus** and the tactic **Offer Discount Coupon**.

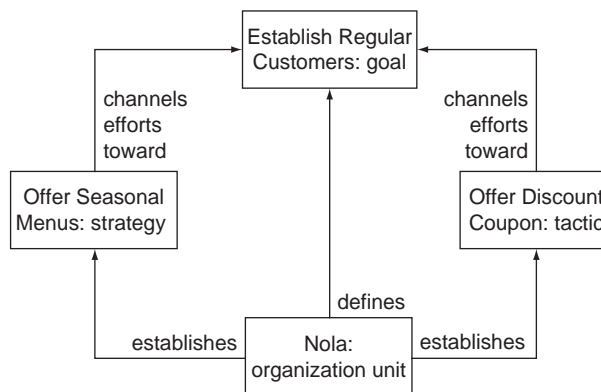


FIGURE 3.5 A strategy and a tactic

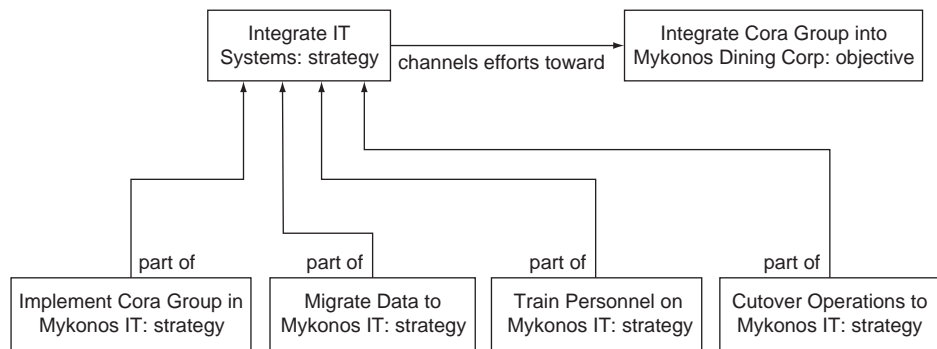


FIGURE 3.6 A hierarchy of strategies

Strategy Hierarchies and Tactic Hierarchies

Just as goals can be decomposed into subgoals and objectives decomposed into sub-objectives, strategies can be decomposed into sub-strategies. For example, consider what must be done after the Cora Group is acquired to integrate it into Mykonos Dining Corp. Part of that post-merger integration involves integrating the IT systems. [Figure 3.6](#) shows the objective **Integrate Cora Group into Mykonos Dining Corp** and the strategy **Integrate IT Systems**. This strategy has four sub-strategies; each is a **part of** the IT integration.

Tactics can also have sub-tactics in the same way. Hierarchies of tactics are less common than hierarchies of strategies, since tactics are usually small enough to be implemented on their own without any such division.

INFLUENCERS

In everyday business language, people speak of *trends*—things that are happening in the environment of a business that might have an impact. For example, Cora Group derives more than half its revenue from business spending: entertaining clients, dinners while on travel to DC, company parties, and other events that cause businesspeople to spend company money for food and drink at good restaurants like Portia. Suppose companies started cutting expense account budgets and applying more scrutiny to the business value of expense account expenses. This is a trend, and this trend would have an impact on the Cora Group.

In business motivation modeling, trends are modeled as *influencers*. Some examples of influencers for Portia are:

- The increasing interest of Washingtonians in comfort food
- Declining readership of newspapers and declining influence of newspaper restaurant reviews

- The emergence of diner restaurant reviews on the Internet
- The declining economy in metro Philadelphia
- Rising public consumption of ethnic fare
- Public concern about food-borne bacteria

Influencers also include some things that are not trends, including competitors, assets, and company habits. An influencer is anything that can have an effect on an organization, anything that can potentially hinder it or assist it. Some examples of influencers that are not trends include:

- Portia's reputation for interesting food
- Nola's nearby competitor
- Adelina's nightly review process, evaluating what went well and what should be improved
- The enactment of a local smoking ban

The category of influences is huge and astonishingly inclusive. Every business will have hundreds of potential influencers. There will always be too many influencers to model. Some kind of criterion is needed to determine what to model and what to ignore.

In practice we model the influencers that affect our strategies and tactics. If Portia's competitor introduces a radically expanded menu, the new menu will affect Portia's strategies about what to do with its own menu. The competitor is important enough to model. The declining readership of newspaper restaurant reviews will affect Portia's strategy to get good newspaper reviews, so this influencer is also important enough to model.

We also model the influencers that affect the achievement of our goals and objectives. If the economy of metropolitan Philadelphia continues to decline, that will affect Cora Group's objective of opening a restaurant there by November.

OPPORTUNITIES

An *opportunity* is a favorable situation to a business for achieving its goals. Often someone will judge that an influencer presents an opportunity. For example, the shortage of innovative restaurants in the western suburbs of DC presents an opportunity—an opportunity to open a new restaurant there to fill the need. [Figure 3.7](#) shows the relationship between the opportunity and the influencer. The opportunity **Western Portia Branch Would Be Successful** is said to “judge” the influencer **Innovative Restaurant Shortage in Western Suburbs**, using the association **judges**. The influencer is a simple statement of the situation: that there is a shortage of innovative restaurants there. The opportunity is a claim that the situation can be exploited by the Cora Group for business advantage. The influencer is neither good nor bad by itself; it does

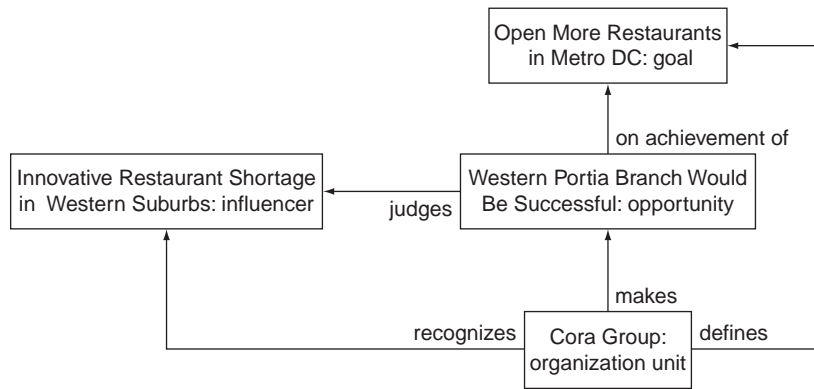


FIGURE 3.7 An influencer and an opportunity

not judge the situation. It only becomes a potential for good when it is judged to be an opportunity.

Who does the judging? As shown in [Figure 3.7](#), Cora Group recognizes the influencer and makes an assessment that the influencer presents an opportunity. And Cora Group only recognizes it as presenting an opportunity because the opportunity affects the achievement of one of the Cora Group's goals, **Open More Restaurants in Metro DC**.

Opportunities and Influencers

The split between opportunities and influencers might seem odd. Why have these two kinds of things in motivation modeling instead of just one? Why have both an influencer—a simple factual statement of something that can hinder or assist our business—and an opportunity—an opinion that that this influencer can be exploited?

Often influencers and opportunities come in pairs (as in [Figure 3.7](#)) with a single influencer and a single opportunity related together. But influencers and opportunities are not always joined in pairs. Sometimes a single influencer can help achieve more than one goal, and so it is judged to be more than one opportunity. Consider [Figure 3.8](#). The same influencer, **Innovative Restaurant Shortage in Western Suburbs** is judged to be both an opportunity to open a Portia branch there and an opportunity to attract western suburban residents to Nola, a Portia sister restaurant that is an easy drive from the western suburbs. In fact, there could be a useful debate within Cora Group about how to best exploit the lack of innovative restaurants in the western suburbs. Do we open a new restaurant, promote our existing restaurants, or both?

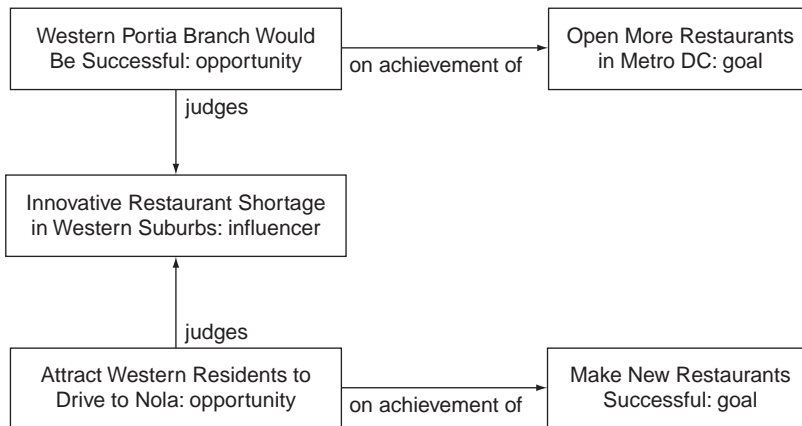


FIGURE 3.8 An influencer and two opportunities

Opportunities and Strategies

An opportunity can affect the application of a strategy as well as directly affect the achievement of a goal. Consider Portia’s strategy of offering seasonal menus. In the past, time worked against this seasonal strategy. By the time people had heard of the details of this season’s menu, it was too late; a new season and a new menu had arrived. But with the emergence of diner restaurant reviews on the Internet, a potential customer can learn about this season’s menu from someone she doesn’t know, from someone who took the trouble to review it for her and for everyone else. With the diner restaurant reviews, word spreads more quickly, providing the restaurant an opportunity for making more frequent changes to the menu. [Figure 3.9](#) shows how this new opportunity **affects employment of** the strategy. An opportunity can affect a tactic in a similar way.

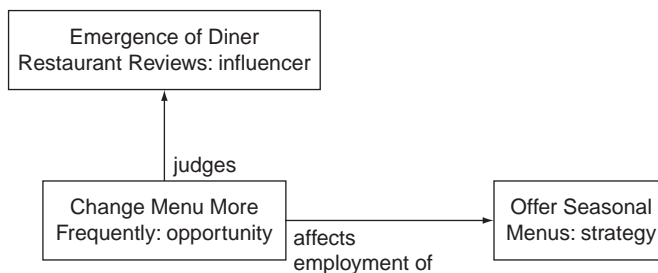


FIGURE 3.9 An opportunity affecting a strategy

THREATS

Not every influencer that affects an organization's goals or strategies can be exploited as an opportunity. For example, consider the trend of customers increasingly eating ethnic food when they dine out. Cora Group recognizes that trend as the influencer **Increasing Public Interest in Ethnic Fare**, shown in Figure 3.10, and judges it to be a *threat* to Nola, that Nola may lose customers to Thai, Peruvian, and other more ethnic restaurants.

A threat is modeled like an opportunity: a threat judges an influencer. A threat is an assessment of how the influencer will affect the business. An organization recognizes the influencer and makes an assessment that the influencer is a threat. Threats are just like opportunities except they're negative instead of positive. Whereas an opportunity can lead to a business advantage, a threat can lead to a disadvantage.

Like an opportunity, a threat can affect a goal. Figure 3.10 shows the threat **Potential to Lose Business to Ethnic Restaurants** to be a threat to the achievement of the goal **Establish Regular Customers**. Note that the organizations involved are different in this case. Cora Group makes the assessment, recognizing the influencer as a threat to *another organization*—to Nola and its goal of establishing regular customers.

Threats and Opportunities

A single influencer can be judged to be both a threat and an opportunity. Nola recognizes the same influencer of customers eating more ethnic fare but sees

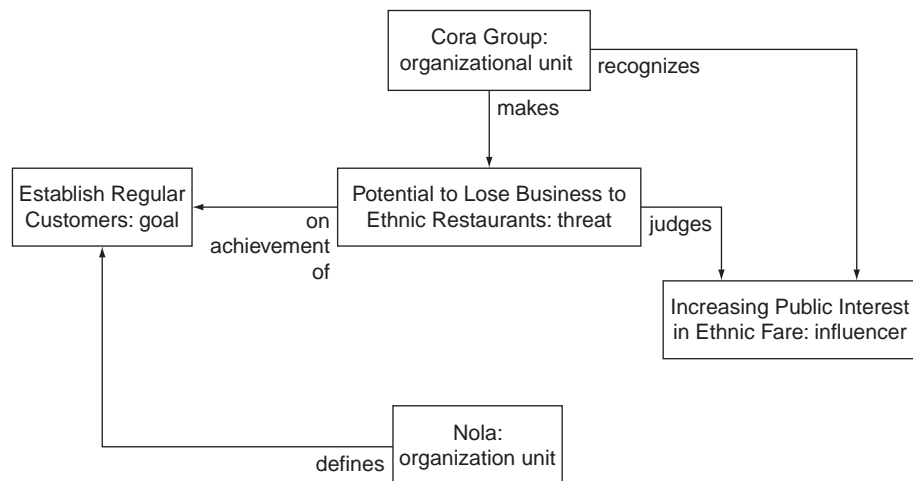


FIGURE 3.10 A threat affecting a goal

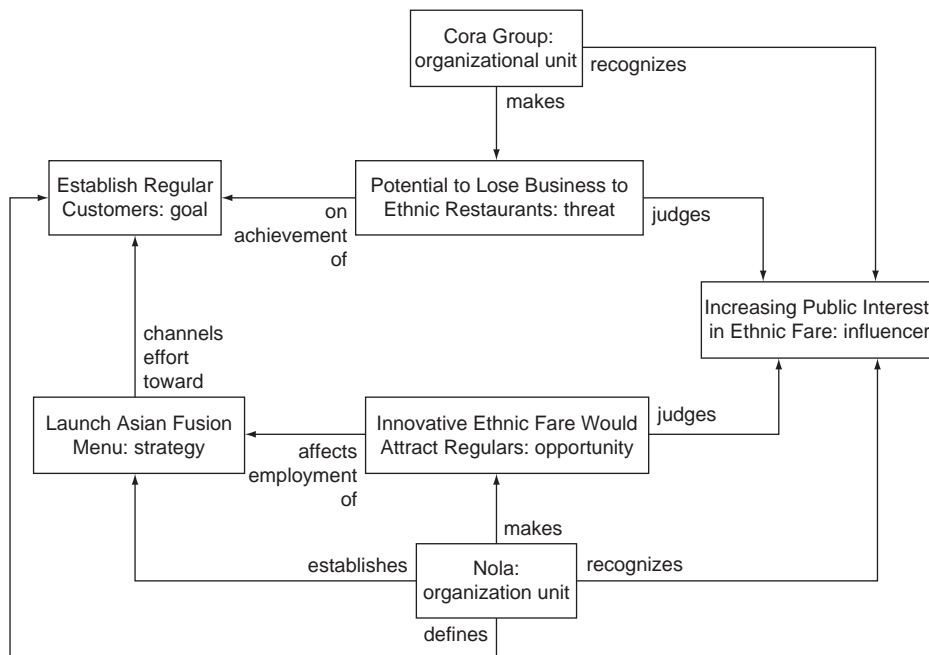


FIGURE 3.11 An influencer judged to be both a threat and an opportunity

the influencer as an opportunity to exploit by offering innovative ethnic food. [Figure 3.11](#) shows the result, with Nola creating a new strategy, **Launch Asian Fusion Menu**, around the opportunity it sees.

An influencer is simply a statement of what is happening, but threats and opportunities are judgments about how an influencer affects the business. In our experience, differences of opinion like that shown in [Figure 3.11](#) are very common. Sometimes the differences are disagreements between different organizations, as in [Figure 3.11](#). In other circumstances, various people within a single organization will have different opinions about how to judge an influencer. Motivational models are very convenient for making these differences of opinions explicit and for (when appropriate) facilitating consensus.

ASSESSMENTS

Threats and opportunities are very similar; they are both *assessments*. An assessment is an evaluation of an influencer's potential effect on a business. If the influencer is both external to the organization—about a competitor, a market trend, or

Table 3.1 The Four Varieties of Assessment

	Internal	External
Positive	Strength	Opportunity
Negative	Weakness	Threat

something else outside the organization itself—and judged to be favorable, it is an opportunity. If the influencer is external to the organization and judged as unfavorable, it is a threat.

Influencers can be internal to an organization, and an internal influencer can have an assessment, also positive or negative. A positive assessment of an internal influencer is a *strength*, and a negative assessment of an internal influencer is a *weakness*. Table 3.1 shows the four varieties of assessments.

You may be familiar with the four varieties of assessment from their acronym: SWOT, for strength, weakness, opportunity, threat. *SWOT analysis* is a popular method of creating business strategy by identifying and analyzing the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats of a business and using those identified assessments to create a strategy.

Motivation modeling does not prescribe SWOT analysis. Instead, motivation modeling is agnostic to the method by which strategy is formed. Strategies can be created through a formal SWOT analysis process and then modeled. Or, more commonly in our experience, strategies can be formed, refined, and rethought in a series of informal conversations among key leaders over a period of months and years. Or strategies can be created in the modeling process itself, in a series of model-based workshops, as described in Chapters 8 and 9. Modeling can be applied at any step of the way, to make explicit the current discussion and show the current disagreements.

STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES

Some influencers are internal to the organization. An internal influencer can be judged as either a strength, if it helps the organization achieve its goals and strategies, or as a weakness, if it inhibits the organization from such achievement.

For example, Adelina is a fairly new restaurant in the Cora Group with a small space—only eight tables. They have exploited the intimate setting of their small space by focusing on romance, by becoming the Cora Group restaurant that couples go to for a romantic evening. By catering to couples focused on romance instead of business dinners or larger parties, Adelina has prospered.

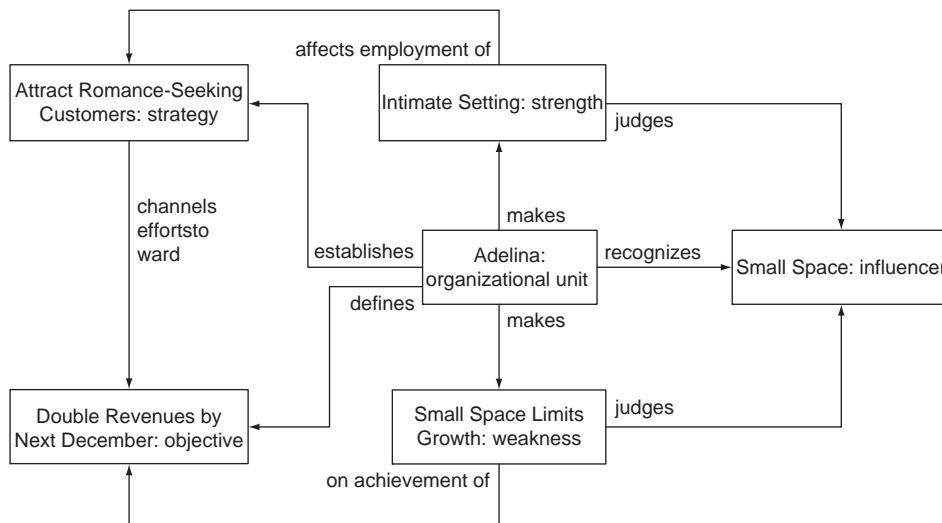


FIGURE 3.12 A strength and a weakness

Figure 3.12 shows a model of this situation. The influencer **Small Space** is a simple statement of the fact that Adelina has only eight tables. (The description attribute of this model element would no doubt include details about the small space, including the dimensions and layout of the dining room and how it is usually configured for eight two-person tables.) The strength **Intimate Setting** represents how Adelina uses the small space to its advantage in setting a romantic mood. This strength affects the employment of Adelina's strategy **Attract Romance-Seeking Customers**.

Unfortunately Adelina's success is also limited by its space; they turn away many people every night because they have only eight tables and they have become very popular. If they had a larger space, they could do more business. But moving is always risky. What if their customers don't move with them or they don't find the new larger space as charming as the existing one?

Figure 3.12 also shows this limitation on their success. The same small space that leads to the strength **Intimate Setting** is also judged to be a weakness, **Small Space Limits Growth**. This weakness affects Adelina's objective, **Double Revenues by Next December**.

In this example there is a single influencer that is judged to be both a strength and a weakness. This is common. Often factors that help our businesses succeed later inhibit further success. Models are useful for spotting these subtle, counterintuitive relationships. They are sometimes hard to notice when talking or thinking about a situation but easy to identify when creating a visual model.

COMPARING ALTERNATIVES

Motivation models are most often used for *strategy capture*. Someone creates the strategy in a process that does not involve modeling. Modelers are called in later to capture that strategy after it is created. The model represents the strategy that is already agreed, and the purpose of the model is to support the communication of the strategy, or its analysis, or one of the other purposes discussed earlier.

But sometimes motivation models are used to help create the strategy. As part of the process of deciding what strategy is best, modelers create models of the alternatives and then analyze them. For example, suppose the management team is trying to decide how to increase Adelina's revenue. Three alternatives are discussed: Adelina could move to a new location, Adelina could cater to business events that rent the whole restaurant for an evening, or Adelina could raise prices, attempting to capture new revenue from the existing business. For the most part, these alternatives are mutually exclusive. If Adelina moved, it would be a risky time to raise prices or to cater to a new audience.

Figure 3.13 shows the first alternative: moving to a new location. The influencer **Restaurant Moves Often Strand Customers** is a reflection of the reality of the restaurant business. Many customers remember a restaurant by its location. Moving the restaurant will lead some customers to show up at the old place and others to forget about the restaurant entirely. Some customers will be lost.

This influencer is *evoked* by the strategy **Move to New Location**. The influencers we have seen so far are all observations about the world—trends, competitors, etc.—or observations about our business. This one is different; it is a *potential* observation, something that is not happening yet but that we expect to happen if we adopt this strategy. It is related to the strategy by the association **evokes**.

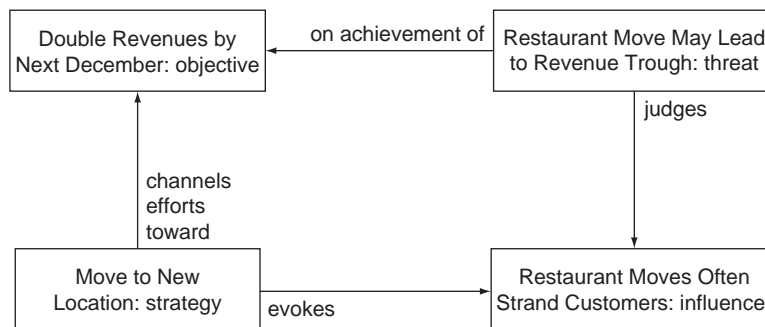


FIGURE 3.13 One alternative strategy

If the restaurant move does strand some customers, Adelina will see a revenue trough—a decline in revenue for some time until existing customers learn about the new location and new customers discover the restaurant. This potential revenue shortfall is modeled by the threat **Restaurant Move May Lead to Revenue Trough**. The threat in turn affects achievement of the objective **Double Revenues by Next December** that is the original motivation for the restaurant move strategy.

Another Strategy

Figure 3.14 shows the second strategy, **Market to Business Events**—marketing to businesses that are interested in reserving the whole restaurant for an evening, to host a business event. These business events often involve much drinking and typically result in more revenue for the restaurants that host them.

But there is a drawback to this second alternative. Some customers who are looking for an evening of romance at Adelina will be disappointed to learn that the whole restaurant is closed that night for a business event and that they must find another venue. This consequence evoked by the strategy is modeled as the influencer **Closing for Events Disappoints Some Customers**, judged by the threat **May Lose Disappointed Regulars to Competitors** that will affect the objective of doubling revenues.

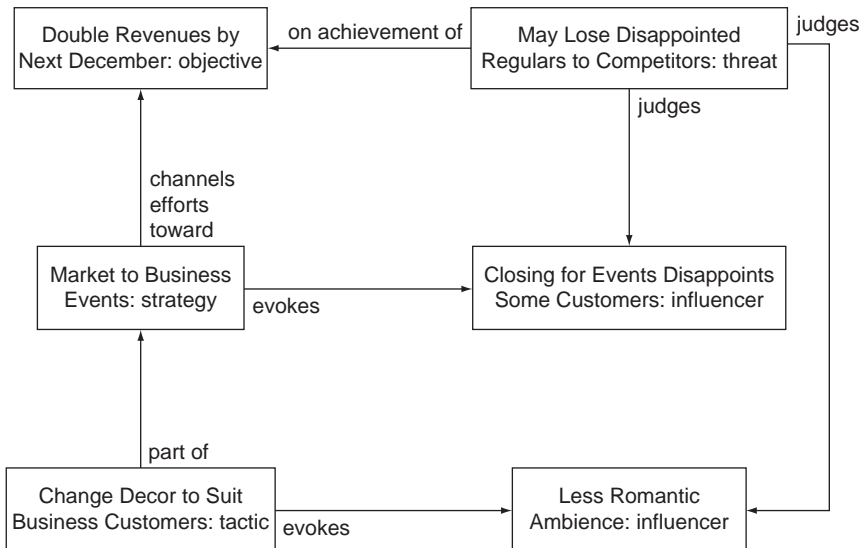


FIGURE 3.14 Another alternative strategy to achieve the same objective

There is another drawback. Adelina's decor reinforces its current strategy of high romance. If Adelina wants to attract a business audience for events, it needs to tone down the romantic decor to something more business-appropriate. The tactic **Change Decor to Suit Business Customers** is part of the new strategy. This tactic evokes its own consequence, the influencer **Less Romantic Ambience**, that also threatens to lose disappointed regulars to more romantically focused alternatives.

A Third Strategy

Figure 3.15 shows the third alternative: raising prices. **Raise Prices** is modeled as a tactic rather than a strategy because it is quick to implement and easy to reverse. The tactic evokes an obvious consequence: that some regular customers will reevaluate their patronage, modeled as the influencer **Price-Sensitive Customers Reevaluate**. (And in the usual manner of luxury goods, the higher prices may even signal increased desirability to some customers.) The influencer is assessed by the threat **Lose Customers to Less-Pricey Competitors**.

But there is also another more serious threat involved in raising prices. If the price rise leads to Adelina earning a reputation of being overpriced (modeled as an influencer), this could lead to customers becoming indignant, also affecting the objective of doubling revenues.

Three Strategies in a Single Diagram

Figures 3.13, 3.14, and 3.15 show three alternative courses of action—two strategies and a tactic—to the objective of doubling revenues. The three courses of action are shown in three separate diagrams. They can also be shown in the same diagram, as shown in Figure 3.16. The three courses of action are alternative approaches to channel effort toward the objective, and the three **channels**

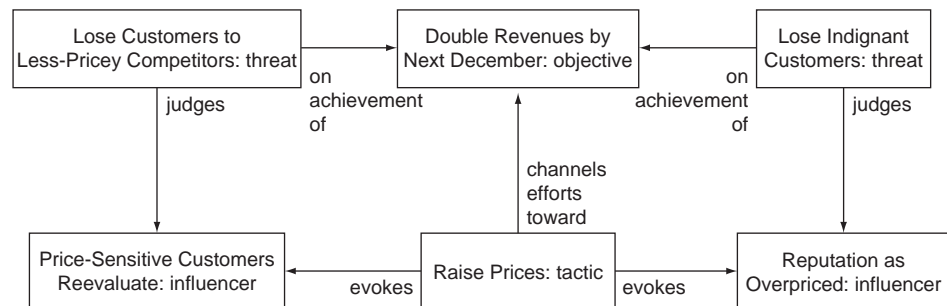


FIGURE 3.15 A third alternative strategy

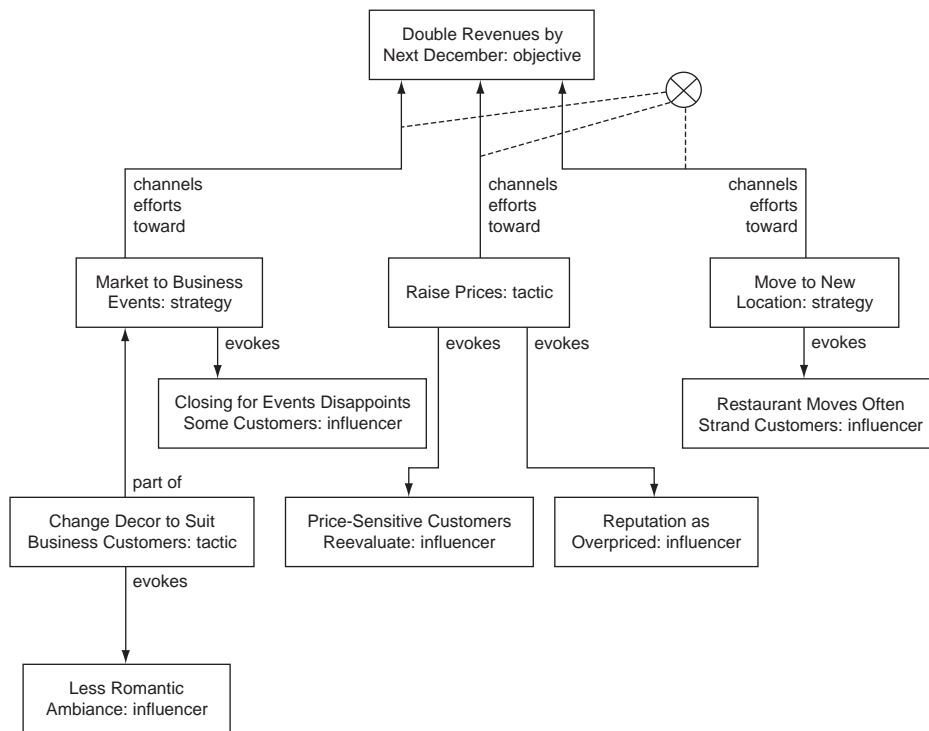


FIGURE 3.16 Three alternative courses of action

efforts toward relationships are labeled with an exclusive-or symbol, to indicate that they are mutually exclusive. If they were not so labeled, someone could interpret the diagram as showing three courses of action that Adelina intends to pursue in tandem.

The influencers that are evoked by the three courses of action are also shown in Figure 3.16. The resulting threats are omitted, so the diagram shown is not overly complicated. (A version of this model with the threats included was shown in Chapter 2 as an example of an overly large and complex model, one at the limit of understandability.)

CAUSAL LOOP DIAGRAMS

Influencers are connected to opportunities and other assessments through the **judges** relationship and the **evokes** relationship, as described earlier in this chapter. Influencers also support another relationship—at least some influencers do.

Some influencers can be connected to other influencers to show cause and effect. These special influencers that can be connected to each other are called *actuators*. An actuator is an influencer that represents a quantity, something that is large or small, growing or declining. Portia's competitor is an influencer for Portia, as it could be a threat (or even an opportunity), but it is not an actuator since it is not a quantity. But the competitor's annual revenue is an actuator; it's a quantity that has an effect on Portia's world. Similarly, the competitor's critic ratings are an actuator, as is their customer reputation.

Note that an actuator may be easy to measure—like annual revenues—or difficult to measure—like critic ratings. How do you average a good rating in a newspaper with a middling rating in Zagat's™? Some actuators, such as customer reputation, are perhaps not even measurable. An influencer can be an actuator without being measurable. An actuator need only be inherently a quantity, even if it can't actually be measured.

A network of actuators connected together is called a *causal loop diagram*. A causal loop diagram shows how potential business actions lead to complex dynamic effects. For example, consider neighborhoods that become restaurant districts, with dozens of restaurants all within a few blocks. How does this happen? Initially, a couple of restaurants are located in the neighborhood. In an effort to be noticed, another new one opens nearby. The neighborhood gets the reputation as a minor restaurant district, and some customers travel to the neighborhood and then walk around to decide where to eat. More restaurants open there, and the reputation of the restaurant district increases.

Figure 3.17 shows a model of this situation. The actuator **Neighborhood Is Known for Restaurants** increases, and that actuator causes increases in the actuator **Restaurant Customers Dine in Neighborhood**. That in turn causes increases in the actuator **Neighborhood Attractiveness to Restaurant Owners**. Greater attractiveness of the neighborhood to restaurant owners

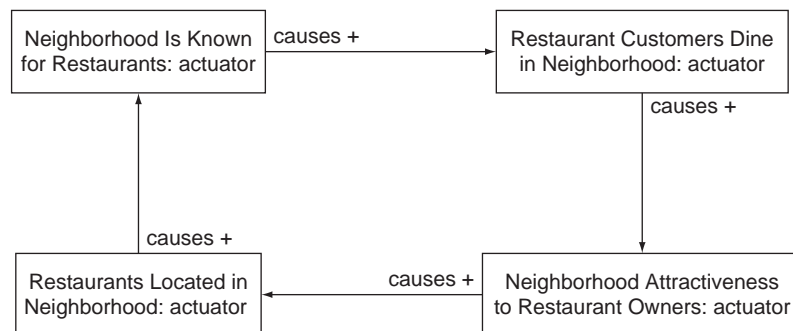


FIGURE 3.17 A causal loop

causes increases in the actuator **Restaurants Locate in Neighborhood**, which in turn causes increases in the original actuator **Neighborhood Is Known for Restaurants**. The neighborhood becomes increasingly concentrated with restaurants.

Connecting Actuators

The relationship that connects the two actuators is **causes+**, meaning that increases in one actuator lead to increases in the other. It also means that decreases in one actuator lead to decreases in the other; the same causal loop can run in reverse. Suppose a local crime wave (not modeled) leads to the neighborhood becoming less popular with customers this year. The neighborhood is now less attractive to restaurant owners and fewer restaurants now locate there; some restaurants will close and others will choose to locate elsewhere. Now the neighborhood is a bit less known for restaurants than it was before, and even fewer customers seek it out. The neighborhood spirals down.

An increase in one actuator can alternatively lead to a decrease in another. For example, if business rents increase in a neighborhood, the neighborhood will become less attractive to restaurant owners. As a result, fewer restaurants will locate there; some existing restaurants will move to other, cheaper locations, and owners considering opening a new restaurant will also choose other locations. The negative causality between rents and attractiveness is identified with a **causes-** relationship, the negative twin of **causes+**.

Figure 3.18 shows a **causes-** relationship between business rents and attractiveness, as part of a causal loop. This causal loop is *balancing*; a rent increase causes a decrease in the neighborhood attractiveness to owners, causing fewer restaurants to locate there and leading to declines in the rent. In a balancing loop,

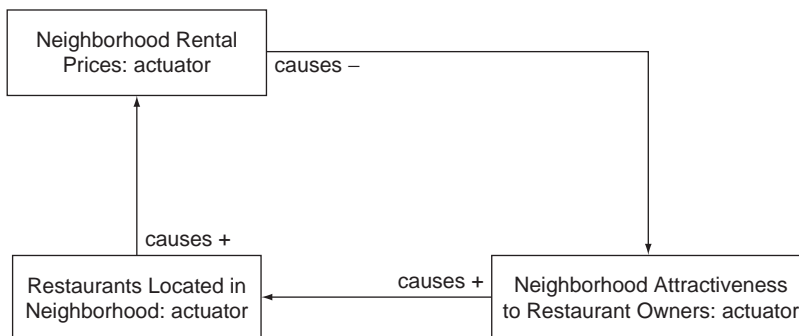


FIGURE 3.18 A balancing causal loop

changes in one direction cause changes in the other direction, tending toward either moderation or (in some cases) cycles. By contrast, [Figure 3.17](#) is a *reinforcing* causal loop diagram: Things get more and more extreme over time.

Delayed Causality

Some causality happens quickly and some happens slowly. Rising rents will cause a neighborhood to become immediately less attractive to restaurant owners, but the number of restaurants there won't decline immediately. Owners are reluctant to decide to relocate their restaurants, and even when they decide to move, executing the move takes months. Restaurants will close due to the high rent or for other reasons, but only over time, and others will fail to open there, but again only over time. There are significant delays in this link of the causal loop.

Causal loop models indicate which causal links happen slowly, with the relationships **causes delayed+** and **causes delayed-**. [Figure 3.19](#) shows the same balancing loop as [Figure 3.18](#) but with the delays annotated. Now **Neighborhood Attractiveness to Restaurant Owners** causes a delayed response to **Restaurants Located in Neighborhood**.

There are four causality relationships. [Table 3.2](#) summarizes them.

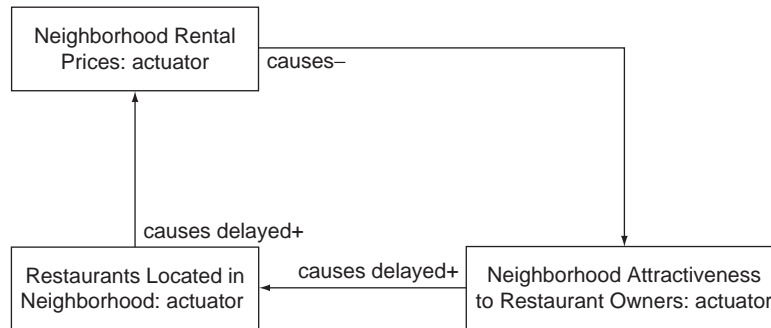


FIGURE 3.19 A causal loop with delays

	Immediate	Delayed
Positive	causes+	causes delayed+
Negative	causes-	causes delayed-

Complex Dynamics

The causal loop diagrams so far are fairly simple and easy to understand, and it's easy to predict what will happen. They show simple dynamics. But causal loop diagrams can also exhibit complex dynamics that are hard to predict. Consider what happens if we combine [Figures 3.18 and 3.19](#) into a single model, shown in [Figure 3.20](#).³

The neighborhood wants to become more concentrated with restaurants, making it attractive to restaurant owners and leading to additional restaurants. But the neighborhood becomes expensive (at least in terms of business rent), making it less attractive to restaurant owners and leading them to look elsewhere. What will happen?

Note that the **Neighborhood Attractiveness to Restaurant Owners** has two causality links coming in—one for the positive effect of restaurant customers dining there, the other for the negative effect of rental price increases. What does the causality mean when there are multiple incoming relationships? How can we say that an increase in rental prices will lead to a less attractive neighborhood (to the restaurant owner) when that effect may be overwhelmed by the increasing number of restaurant customers choosing to dine there?

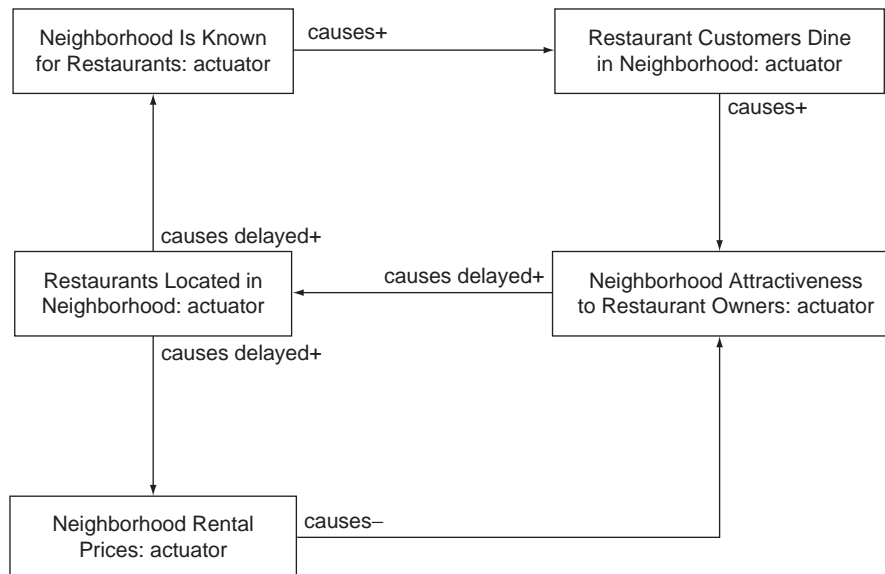


FIGURE 3.20 Combining two loops into a single model

³Actually, [Figure 3.20](#) can exhibit some different outcomes, depending on how the delays interact.

There is a wrinkle in what the causality links mean. If actuator A is linked via a **causes+** relationship to actuator B, that means that increases in A lead to increases in B *if everything else is equal*, and decreases in A lead to decreases in B *if everything else is equal*. For actuators with multiple incoming causality, everything else is not equal. The combination of the causal links can result in complex dynamics.

There are several different ways the [Figure 3.20](#) dynamics can play out. One possibility is that the neighborhood becomes more popular until the high rents halt the increase in popularity. Another possibility is that the neighborhood becomes more popular for restaurants, leading to some big rent increases, which in turn lead to many established restaurants departing, the neighborhood becoming a much less desired destination, and more restaurants leaving, finally resulting in no restaurants at all. Another possibility is that the rent negative causality is not enough to diminish the enthusiasm for the neighborhood, and it becomes increasingly popular until other dynamics take over (e.g., the restaurant concentration leads disgruntled residents to complain to city authorities about the noise and traffic). And there are other possibilities; many outcomes exist.

Causal Loop Diagrams and Management Discussion

Causal loop diagrams are useful for eliciting discussion among members of a management team. The Portia management team can dig into [Figure 3.20](#) and (perhaps) predict how the neighborhood will evolve over time.

A causal loop diagram can also be simulated to resolve issues about how the dynamics will play out. However, causal loop diagrams are rarely simulated directly. They simply don't have enough information to resolve the uncertainties. Instead, a causal loop model is used as an intermediate step in building a system dynamics model, and the system dynamics model is simulated. Chapter 11 describes system dynamics models and simulation.

THE BMM STANDARD

In 2006, the Object Management Group adopted a standard for business motivation modeling: the Business Motivation Model (BMM). Prior to BMM, there was much variety. In practice, business analysts used many different techniques to model business goals and strategies. There was little agreement among all the variety of techniques, and people had difficulty translating models from one technique to another. Also, some modeling tools supported the modeling of goals and strategies, but different tools supported it in different ways with different kinds of model elements. Again there was little agreement among all the tool

variety, and people had difficulty porting models built in one tool to another. The OMG stepped in to fix this problem with the BMM standard.⁴

The motivation models described in this chapter are largely consistent with the BMM. As with all the standards described in this book, we have not endeavored to be complete. There are several corners of the BMM that are not covered in this chapter. For example, the BMM describes a rather elaborate categorization of influencers, including suppliers, infrastructure, implicit corporate values and management prerogatives. (For more details you can read the specification [OMG 2007]. For a standards specification, it is remarkably clear and readable.) Instead of providing complete coverage, we have covered the parts of the BMM standard that are (in our opinion) the most useful for everyday business modeling, endeavoring always to keep the discussion simple and useful.

In addition to goals, strategies, and influencers, the BMM also specifies business policies and business rules as well as the way policies and rules are related to goals and strategies. Rather than describing business rules and business policies in this chapter, we describe them in Chapter 6. Similarly, the BMM specifies the way business processes are related to strategies. We cover that topic in Chapter 5, when we describe business processes.

As we write this book, BMM is a new standard: BMM 1.0 was adopted in 2006. In our view the standard is good but incomplete. One shortcoming of BMM 1.0 is that it does not specify a graphical look for BMM diagrams. The standard says how goals and strategies are related but is silent on how a diagram showing goals and strategies should be drawn. But in our experience, business motivation models are inherently visual. It is not enough to *read* how their goals and strategies relate; people like to *see* how they relate in a diagram.

We created our own graphical look for BMM diagrams and used that look for the diagrams in this chapter. This look is meant only to be a stopgap, an attempt to show diagrams in the absence of a standard. Hopefully a future edition of the book will be able to use the BMM graphical standard when it is developed in a future version of the BMM.

We also took the liberty of changing the cardinality of one of the relationships. In the BMM each assessment judges a single influencer. But we have found that the same assessment is sometimes convenient for more than one influencer—for example, as in [Figure 3.14](#). So we changed the cardinality of **judges**, to allow an assessment to judge more than one influencer.

The BMM was developed to model a single strategy for a business: either today's strategy or a desired strategy described in a business plan. The BMM is silent on alternative strategies, on supporting the sometimes messy process of deciding which influencers are important and which tactics to employ. In our

⁴There is a potential confusion between the Business Motivation Model—the standard—and business motivation modeling—the practice of creating models of goals and strategies and the focus of this chapter. To avert this confusion, we use the acronym to refer to the standard and spell out the practice: BMM is the standard used for business motivation modeling.

use of the BMM to model strategy alternatives, we found a need for a couple of extensions. One extension is the relationship **evokes** between a course of action and an influencer. As described earlier in the chapter, a potential course of action **evokes** an influencer when someone believes that the course of action will lead to the influencer. [Figures 3.13, 3.14, 3.15, and 3.16](#) all use this new relationship.

[Figure 3.16](#) shows a second extension for modeling strategy alternatives. As discussed earlier, when several course-of-action alternatives are shown in the same diagram, we use a symbol to show that the relationships are mutually exclusive. This approach to modeling mutually exclusive relationships is adapted from Terry Halpin's work with Object Role Modeling [Halpin 2001].

BMM 1.0 does not support modeling of causality networks among influencers. You simply cannot create a causal loop diagram in BMM. To support causal loops, we added the influencer subclass actuator and the four causality relationships among actuators shown in [Table 3.2](#). Our notation for these causal relationships was adapted from the standard notation for causal loop modeling in system dynamics [Sterman 2000], modified to be more consistent with the form of model elements and relationships in BMM.

Case Study

Unisys Corporation performs IT infrastructure services and IT outsourcing for other companies and for government agencies. Many organizations recognize that their own IT departments do not perform services such as desktop support very well, so they outsource that responsibility to Unisys. When a client employee's desktop computer misbehaves, the employee calls tech support and talks to someone at Unisys.

In 2007, Unisys had a problem. Unisys had many existing clients who were happy and satisfied with Unisys, but the company was having increasing difficulty winning work from new clients. Unisys lacked the numeric evidence from its existing work—the before and after numbers about cost reduction and time savings that would motivate new clients to choose Unisys over another IT services vendor. When writing proposals, Unisys personnel wanted to be able to make claims that client X saved \$23 million by hiring Unisys and that client Y cut the time waiting to resolve IT support issues by 38%. Unfortunately, no one at Unisys was collecting the evidence to support those claims.

Unisys assembled an “evidence team” to solve this problem. This team included both sales and marketing professionals who understood the kinds of evidence needed as well as field managers—individuals who work with existing clients every day and understand what is easy to accomplish with clients and what is hard. The team was chartered with determining how the engagement delivery process needed to change to collect the evidence.

The evidence team knew they had to create new business processes and modify existing ones to collect the evidence. But they didn't start by examining processes. Instead they started with a discussion of what they were trying to do, digging deeper into the goals they had been asked to achieve and the alternative strategies they could use to achieve those goals. They started by creating a motivation model.

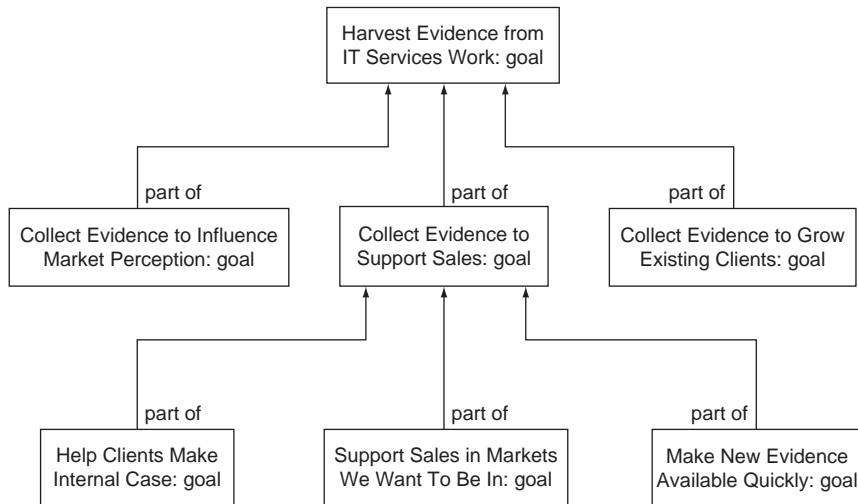


FIGURE 3.21 Goals of the Unisys evidence team

The evidence team modeled the overall challenge as the goal **Harvest Evidence from IT Services Work**, shown at the top of [Figure 3.21](#). The team recognized that there were three distinct purposes for the evidence that they were charged with collecting. First, the evidence was to be used to influence the general market perception of Unisys, to be used in trade publication advertisements and as talking points by the senior management. This was modeled as the goal **Collect Evidence to Influence Market Perception**, a subgoal of **Harvest Evidence from Services Work**. Second, the evidence was to be used to support individual sales. When Unisys writes a proposal for a client, the proposal team should be able to use numeric evidence of past success with other clients in the new proposal. This second purpose was modeled as the goal **Collect Evidence to Support Sales**. Third, the evidence was to be used to grow business at an existing client. For example, if Unisys does desktop support for some business units of a company, numeric evidence of success in those business units would help convince

Continued

Case Study—continued

the client to outsource desktop support of the rest of the business units. The third purpose was modeled as the goal **Collect Evidence to Grow Existing Clients**.

Evidence Collection Subgoals

As they discussed it further, the evidence team uncovered three subgoals of **Collect Evidence to Support Sales**—goals that were important to achieve as part of supporting proposals to new clients. Prospective clients must make the business case inside their own companies; they must persuade various internal client stakeholders of both the wisdom of outsourcing and the merits of outsourcing to Unisys. The evidence team thought it was important to collect the kinds of metrics that would help their clients make those internal cases. This was modeled as the goal **Help Clients Make Internal Case**, a subgoal of **Collect Evidence to Support Sales**.

Unisys has many successful client engagements. There was not time enough to collect detailed evidence from every success. The evidence team knew they must focus. But which client engagements should they focus on? The team decided that they should focus on the markets in which the company wanted to grow and pay less attention to the other markets. This market focus for the evidence was modeled as the goal **Support Sales in Markets We Want To Be In**, another subgoal of **Collect Evidence to Support Sales**.

The kinds of evidence needed to sell new clients changes from year to year. Last year cost saving was important. This year, clients are interested in improving their time to market. Next year, supporting growth will overshadow other concerns. The evidence team realized that new evidence must be available quickly to support new sales needs as they arise. This realization was modeled by the third subgoal of **Collect Evidence to Support Sales: Make New Evidence Available Quickly**.

The evidence team turned from discussing goals to discussing how these goals could be achieved. Who should collect the evidence from an engagement? Should it be the existing engagement delivery personnel, already working with the client? Or should it be someone else, perhaps an “evidence squad” whose sole purpose is to dive in, collect evidence from an engagement, and then leave? The evidence team decided it would be easier and simpler for the existing engagement delivery personnel to collect the evidence. This decision was modeled as the strategy **Evidence Collected by Delivery Team**, shown in [Figure 3.22](#).

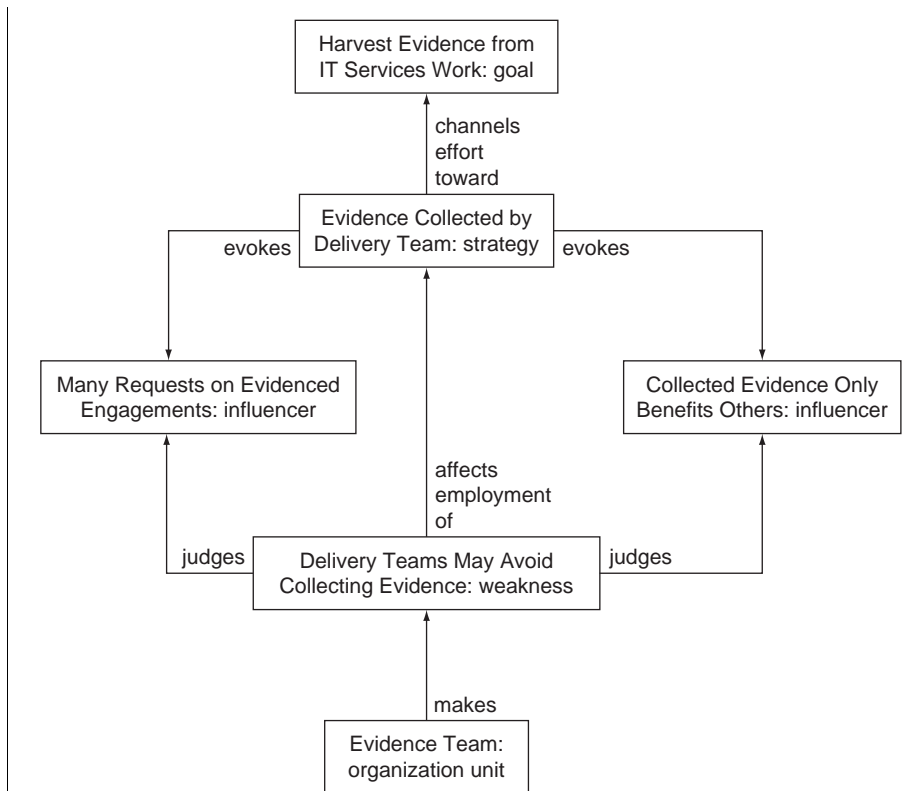


FIGURE 3.22 Using the delivery team to collect evidence

Challenges with Relying on Delivery Personnel

But there are some drawbacks with using the delivery personnel to collect evidence. The field managers described a hidden costs of providing numeric evidence: the engagement team and the client that provides the evidence have to field many subsequent requests by other interested clients—clients who want to verify that the evidence is real and ask questions about how it was achieved. These requests can be a burden on both the Unisys team and the client. This is a significant disincentive to those field managers who collect evidence from their engagements and a reason for them to avoid collecting evidence, everything else being equal. This drawback is modeled as the influencer **Many Requests on Evidenced Engagements** and the weakness

Continued

Case Study—continued

Delivery Teams May Avoid Collecting Evidence, a judgment of the influencer by the evidence team.

The existing delivery incentives also work against the strategy. The delivery personnel are incented to perform well on their engagement: to keep their client happy and satisfied, to deliver the contracted services, and to perform this work within budget and on time. Collecting evidence takes time and effort but does not help the people who are expending this time and effort. All this work is for the benefit of unknown others sometime in the future. In most organizations, such work is usually avoided, short-changed, or performed superficially. This misalignment between who pays for evidence collection and who benefits is modeled as the influencer **Collected Evidence Only Benefits Others**. The weakness **Delivery Teams May Avoid Collecting Evidence** is also a judgment of this influencer.

The evidence team decided they needed to tackle this weakness. They decided on three strategies. First, they tackled the misalignment of incentives by deciding to incorporate evidence collection into performance evaluation. The engagement manager, the leader of the delivery personnel for a client, will be measured on how well he or she collects evidence of success as well as the other measures, such as engagement profitability and client satisfaction. This decision is modeled as the strategy **Incorporate Evidence into Delivery Perf Evaluations**, shown in [Figure 3.23](#) as a sub-strategy of **Evidence Collected by Delivery Team**.

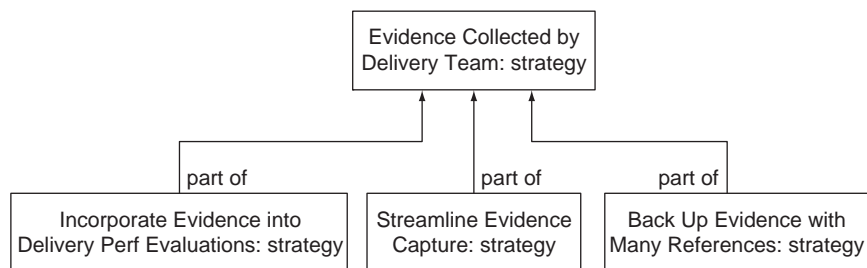


FIGURE 3.23 Evidence strategies

Second, they decided to make evidence collection easy, to reduce the avoidance by lowering its cost. This approach is modeled as the strategy **Streamline Evidence Capture**.

Third, they reasoned that creating a lot of evidence references from existing engagements would spread out the burden of fielding requests.

No one delivery team would have to field too many requests if everyone fielded some. This decision was modeled as the strategy **Back Up Evidence With Many References**.

The Value of the Motivation Model

With their motivation model, the evidence team now had a clear understanding of what they were trying to do and a consensus on how to do it. They proceeded to decide what metrics to collect and how to change the engagement delivery business processes to collect those metrics. This work was also performed via business modeling, using a business process model of the engagement delivery process. But business process models are not the focus of this chapter; instead they are described in Chapter 5. So our description of this case study ends here, with the completed motivation model.

How did the motivation model help the Unisys evidence team? The motivation model helped organize the discussion as it was happening. Meetings of large cross-functional groups often wander. By constructing a motivation model along the way, the team focused their attention on what they were trying to do.

The motivation model served as a record of their discussion later. Too often teams make decisions in workshops and then the members later cannot recall the logic behind the decision. Why did we decide that? What were we thinking? The motivation model is a record of the goals, strategies, and influencers that led to their decisions.

As the evidence team crafted business process activities to collect evidence, they traced these activities back to goals and strategies. For example, early in an engagement, a delivery manager decides whether to try to collect evidence from that engagement. This decision is driven by whether the evidence is likely to help sell other work that Unisys wants to win. So the new activity **Decide Whether to Collect Evidence** is traced back to the goal **Support Sales in Markets We Want To Be In**.

Finally, the motivation model was useful for communicating the evidence collection strategy to others. Many other people would have to understand what the evidence team has done. The many engagement delivery managers across Unisys who will become responsible for collecting evidence metrics need to understand what needs to be done and why. The evidence team used the motivation model to explain these metrics to the engagement delivery managers.

The motivation model built by the evidence team is not concerned with the corporate strategy of Unisys as a whole nor with the strategy of a Unisys business unit. Instead, the motivation model is narrowly focused on the strategy for achieving one goal: collecting evidence from delivery work to support future sales. This is strategy-in-the-small, the strategy for a single

Continued

Case Study—continued

project. While strategy-in-the-large gets much attention, strategy-in-the-small pervades all organizations. Only a few people in any organization perform strategy-in-the-large, but everyone performs strategy-in-the-small.

Motivation models are just as useful for modeling strategy-in-the-small as for modeling strategy-in-the-large. Both involve goals, objectives, influencers, assessments, strategies, and tactics.

A business motivation model describes the broad goals that the business is trying to achieve, specific measurable objectives, and the strategies and tactics by which they are to be achieved. The goals, objectives, strategies, and tactics are affected by influencers—things that are happening in either the world or the business. These influencers are assessed to be strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, or threats to the business. Some of these influencers affect each other in causal loops, the aggregate effect of which impedes or supports the strategy of the business. All these model elements—goals, strategies, influencers, etc.—are related to one another in an interconnected network.

The business motivation model is largely about the “why” of the business. In Chapter 4 we look at the “who”—the organizations that live within a business, how those organizations are related to each other, and how they interact, both with each other and with organizations outside the walls of the business.