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1 **Conceptual Framework of Life-Cycle Performance**
2 **Measurement: Ensuring the Resilience of Transport**
3 **Infrastructure Assets**

4
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26 **Transportation Research Part D: Transport and Environment**

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Conceptual Framework of Life-Cycle Performance Measurement: Ensuring the Resilience of Transport Infrastructure Assets

Abstract

Having efficient and effective transport infrastructure (e.g. bridges, roads, railways, airways and tunnels) in place is essential for supporting the economic and social well-being of an economy. External disturbances that emerge as a result of climate change, for example, are impacting its performance. Delivering, managing and maintaining transport assets that are resilient and adaptive to changing environmental conditions have become a priority for many governments worldwide. Central to ensuring that transport infrastructure functions at their optimum and is resilient to external changes is performance measurement, as it enables those processes that need to be modified and improved for enhancing the asset's adaptability throughout their lifecycle to be identified. Despite the importance of performance measurement in ensuring the resilience of transport infrastructure, it has received limited attention by governments in their policy making. Therefore, this paper provides a review of the extant literature and proposes a life-cycle resilient performance measurement framework (PMF) within transport context. The developed PMF is robust in comprehensively capturing the underlying perspectives that are significant for: (1) understanding the current state of the resilient level of transport assets; and (2) enabling a higher ability of the assets to adapt to environment-related changes in the future. The implications of the proposed framework for transport policy development are also discussed in this paper.

Keywords: Climate change, performance measurement, transport infrastructure, resilience

1.0 Introduction

“When you can measure what you are speaking about and express it in numbers you know something about it; but when you cannot measure it, when you cannot express it in numbers your knowledge is of a meager and unsatisfactory kind; it may be the beginning of knowledge, but you have scarcely in your thoughts advanced to the state of science, whatever the matter may be” (Lord Kelvin, 1883)

Transport infrastructure describes the networks, assets, and services that facilitate socio-economic activity in an economy. It involves not only traditional engineering structures such as bridges, roads, railways, airways, and tunnels but also digital and information

64 communication technology (ICT) systems. The efficient provision of transport infrastructure
65 provides the hallmark of a well-functioning economy (Hughes and Healy, 2014). For example,
66 the construction of transport infrastructure contributed approximately AU\$32 billion to
67 Australia's Gross Domestic Product from 2016 to 2017 (ABS, 2017). The Commonwealth
68 Government of Australia announced in 2014 that \$50 billion will be invested in the next seven
69 years to deliver vital transport infrastructure for the 21st Century (Australian Government,
70 2014). The European Commission, for example, has invested a total of €700 million to develop
71 sustainable and innovative transport infrastructure projects (European Commission, 2018).
72 Similarly, in the United Kingdom (UK) the government has prioritized the need to ensure its
73 infrastructure is resilient and adaptable to climate change and shifting demographics,
74 particularly in sectors such as energy, ICT and conventional transport (Cabinet Office, 2017).

75

76 Many transport assets, however, are unable to effectively absorb and adapt to intensive
77 disturbances, especially in countries where there exists a significant amount of aged or aging
78 infrastructure (Sircar *et al.*, 2013). In Australia, for example, natural hazards (e.g. flooding,
79 cyclones, and extremely hot weather) have severely impacted the operations of roads and
80 railways over the past several decades, as a result of changing climatic conditions. In 2017,
81 Melbourne (Victoria) experienced an unprecedented deluge (i.e. in excess of 300mm of rain
82 over a weekend) that caused extensive flooding throughout the Central Business District, and
83 surrounding suburbs, which adversely disrupted traffic, flights, and the tram and rail network.
84 However, this is just an example of the many floods that occur throughout Australia on a yearly
85 basis and severely impact commuters, business and the transportation of food, supplies, and
86 goods. To mitigate the negative impacts of such natural hazards, it is imperative to develop a
87 resilient and adaptable infrastructure that is able to effectively respond to the influences of
88 climate change (Hughes and Healy, 2014).

89

90 The concept of resilience incorporates issues such as adaptability and recovery ability (Bosher
91 and Dainty, 2011). It focuses on how infrastructure in an economy can positively withstand
92 and absorb disturbances and respond to changing conditions (NCCARF, 2013). The
93 enablement and enhancement of resilient infrastructure is a sophisticated and systematic
94 process, which integrates the engineering, technical and managerial issues associated with an
95 asset's lifecycle (Desouza, and Flanery, 2013). More specifically, performance measurement
96 has been identified as being able to play a decisive role in determining the effectiveness and
97 efficiency of resilient infrastructure development (e.g. Baroud *et al.*, 2014; Adjetey-Bahun *et*

98 *al.*, 2016; Minaie and Moon, 2017). Despite this significant role, there remains a void about
99 how to measure the performance of resilience, especially within the context of transport
100 infrastructure. In addressing this void, we develop a performance measurement framework
101 (PMF) that can be used to determine and enable the resilience of conventional transport
102 (engineering) assets to climate change and suggest its implications for policy development. We
103 commence our paper with an in-depth review of extant literature of transport infrastructure
104 resilience. Our observations from the review is then used to develop a life-cycle transport
105 resilience PMF. The implications of our proposed framework for policy are discussed.

106

107 **2.0 Infrastructure Resilience**

108 A detailed review of transport resilience can be found in Cox *et al.* (2011), Reggiani (2013),
109 Reggiani *et al.* (2015), Chmutin *et al.* (2016) and Wan *et al.* (2017), but for the purposes of
110 brevity studies directly relevant to the research presented in this paper are examined herein.
111 However, there is a need of being cognizant that when transport networks are damaged and
112 disrupted, then an economy's economic and social wellbeing can be adversely impacted
113 (Hughes and Healy, 2014). Such impacts can be significantly minimized if infrastructure
114 systems are designed, constructed, operated and maintained to accommodate shocks and
115 changes that may be imposed upon them (Love *et al.*, 2017; Zhang and Li, 2018).

116

117 **2.1 Defining Resilience**

118 The epistemology of resilience is underpinned by four fundamental questions: (1) resilience *of*
119 what? (2) resilience *to* what? (3) resilience *for* whom? and (4) *how* to be resilient (Vale, 2014;
120 Chmutin *et al.*, 2016). Tables 1 and 2 provide a summary of the key studies that have attempted
121 to provide a definition of 'resilience'. These studies not only define resilience but also specify
122 their *purpose* (Wan *et al.*, 2017). While there exists no universally accepted definition of
123 resilience, particularly in relation to infrastructure, four core elements contribute to its ability
124 to: (1) predict and resist impacts; (2) absorb and accommodate stress and remain functional;
125 (3) be 'self-organised'; and (4) learn, change and adapt (Davoudi, 2012; Thayaparan *et al.*,
126 2016).

127

128 A recurring theme of resilience, spurred by calls to respond to global warming, has been the
129 ability to adapt to environmental changes (e.g. Bruneau *et al.*, 2003; Boshier and Dainty, 2011;
130 Emmanuel and Krüger, 2012; Sircar *et al.* 2013; Balsas, 2014; Spaans and Waterhout, 2017).

131 Research addressing this issue has attempted to identify how communities respond to natural
 132 impacts through the implementation and adoption of innovative planning for infrastructure
 133 development (Ingirige, 2016).

134

135

Table 1. Defining resilience for an entire infrastructure system

Authors	Ability (of an asset/system/community)	Impacts (from)	Outcomes
Solomon <i>et al.</i> (2007)	Absorb, self-organise, adapt	Disturbance, stress and change	To retain the same basic structure and ways of functioning
McDaniels <i>et al.</i> (2008)	Maintain, alternate, mobilize, return	Stress and emergencies	Robustness, redundancy, resourcefulness and rapidity
McBain <i>et al.</i> (2010)	Continue, recover, return	Unusual event and threat	To provide essential services and maintain normal operations
Hallet (2013)	Prevent, withstand, recover and learn	Extreme weather hazards	No specified
Environmental Protection Agency (2015)	Anticipate, prepare for, respond to, recover	Hazards	Minimum damage to social wellbeing, economy and environment

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Table 2. Defining resilience for a transportation system

Authors	Ability (of an asset/system/community)	Impacts (from)	Outcomes	Observed Targets
Berche <i>et al.</i> (2009)	Withstand, recover	Major disruption	An acceptable degradation and recovery to in time and cost	Public transport systems
Mansouri <i>et al.</i> (2010)	Adapt, recover	Potential disruption	Recovery in an efficient timeframe after a disruption	Ports
Adams <i>et al.</i> (2012)	Resist, recover	Weather events	No specified	Roadways
Omer <i>et al.</i> (2012)	Absorb, recover	Natural disruption	Well absorb to shocks and efficient recovery to an acceptable level	Maritime transport
Reggiani (2013)	Absorb	External shocks	Without catastrophic changes in its basic functional organisation	Transportation networks
Becker <i>et al.</i> (2015)	Absorb, retain	Natural hazards	To be remaining basic function and structure	Seaports

150

151 Transport systems resilience (e.g. underground rail and buses) to terrorism has been a subject
152 of great interest worldwide as a result of the London bombings in 2005 (Cox *et al.*, 2011;
153 Bruyelle *et al.*, 2014). Emerging from Cox *et al.* (2011) research, for example, were a series of
154 operational metrics that sought to determine a passenger transportation system's resilience to
155 terrorism based on their vulnerability, flexibility and resource availability to cope with a
156 terrorist attack or natural disaster. Continuing with the theme of underground rail and buses,
157 Jin *et al.* (2014) focused on the development of an integrated multi-modal transport network to
158 improve a system's ability to adapt to increasing population and urban density. In stark
159 contrast, Venkittaraman and Banerjee (2013) examined the resilience of existing bridges to
160 natural hazards (e.g. seismic activity) by taking an *ex-post* perspective. As a result,
161 Venkittaraman and Banerjee (2013) identified that there was a need for bridges to be retrofitted
162 to accommodate the likelihood of earthquakes. Similarly, Becker and Caldwell (2015) adopted
163 an *ex-ante* approach to resilience by soliciting the views of stakeholders to design and develop
164 strategies to ensure the resilience of a seaport.

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168 **2.2 Performance Measurement**

169 While *ex-ante* and *ex-post* evaluations can be used to determine infrastructure resilience, a
170 further systematic perspective (e.g. performance measurement) is needed to identify ‘what’
171 needs to be improved so as to provide a direction about ‘how’ to safeguard the progress that is
172 attained (e.g. Baroud *et al.*, 2014; Adjetey-Bahun *et al.*, 2016; Minaie and Moon, 2017).

173

174 Fundamentally, performance measurement aims to (Gunasekaran and Kobu, 2007; Franco-
175 Santos *et al.*, 2012): (1) identify an organisations’ success, customer satisfaction, and where
176 problems exist and improvements can be made; (2) understand an organisations’ processes and
177 determine what they do and do not know; (3) ensure effective decision-making and improve
178 organisational performance; and (4) determine if stakeholders’ expected outcomes have been
179 met so that satisfaction can be improved in the future. Theories of performance measurement
180 abound the extant literature with the most popular being Kaplan and Norton’s (1992) *Balanced*
181 *Score Card* and Neely *et al.*’s (2001) *Performance Prism*. Such theories fundamentally aim to
182 identify: (1) measures for ‘what’ and ‘whom’; (2) ‘how’ to measure and (3) ‘how’ to enable or
183 ensure better performance. Performance measurement has been aligned with the epistemology
184 of resilience, as it attempts to identify the issues related to its ‘what’, ‘whom’ and ‘how’ (i.e.,
185 the resilience of/for what, resilience for whom and how to be resilient). As a result, there are a
186 number of studies that have focused on measuring the resilience of transport assets/systems
187 being undertaken (e.g., Cox *et al.* 2011; Ip and Wang, 2011; Adams *et al.* 2012; Omer *et al.*,
188 2012; Baroud *et al.*, 2014; Adjetey-Bahun *et al.*, 2016; Minaie and Moon, 2017). Francis and
189 Bekera (2014) elaborated that the performance measurement of infrastructure resilience is an
190 assessment for not only asset’s capacities, but also stakeholder engagement and vulnerability.

191

192 Despite the merits of resilience measurement research within the transport sector, it has tended
193 to be limited to developing mathematical measures (e.g. Ip and Wang, 2011; Adams *et al.* 2012;
194 Miller-Hooks *et al.* 2012; Omer *et al.*, 2012; Adjetey-Bahun *et al.*, 2016; Dobie and Schneider,
195 2017; Johansen *et al.*, 2017). For example, Cox *et al.* (2011) and Minaie and Moon (2017)
196 developed a series of operational metrics to determine the resilience of passenger transportation
197 systems and bridges. Similarly, Baroud *et al.* (2014) devised metrics to measure the resilience
198 of inland waterway networks. Notably, there has been an absence of a systematic performance
199 management framework putted forward to measure transport infrastructure resilience. This has
200 resulted in there being an inability to determine how effective transport systems are in

201 accommodating and responding to environmental changes (Faturechi and Miller-Hooks, 2014;
202 Wan *et al.*, 2017).

203

204 In recognition of this shortcoming, Hughes and Healy (2014) developed a measurement
205 framework for transport infrastructure that comprised of two perspectives: (1) technical; and
206 (2) organisational. The developed measurement framework was designed within a systematic
207 context but eschewed to provide a life-cycle process perspective, which is a critical component
208 of resilience theory.

209

210 **3.0 Design of a PMF for Transport Resilience**

211 A PMF acts as an audit and learning system that can be used to challenge the status quo and
212 provide a basis for amending existing performance measures that are in place (Bourne, 1999).
213 The design of a PMF typically incorporates three stages: (1) reviewing and interpreting extant
214 measurement approaches or current practice in performance measurement; (2) deriving core
215 measurement perspectives; and (3) developing relevant key performance indicators (KPIs)
216 according to the derived perspectives (Bourne *et al.*, 2000). Essentially, a PMF needs to capture
217 the inherent complexities of the object (i.e. resilience in this case) to be measured (Neely *et al.*,
218 2001; Liu *et al.*, 2015). Markedly, resilience encompasses not only the fundamental theoretical
219 issues identified by Vale (2014) (e.g. resilience of *what*, resilience for *what* and resilience for
220 *whom*), but also a practical nature about ‘how to be resilient’. Considering aforementioned
221 perspectives in terms of new PMF development (e.g. review of extant approaches, deriving
222 performance measurement perspectives and developing the KPIs relevant to the identified
223 perspectives) and the key components of resilience theory, the process to design a new PMF
224 for measuring transport infrastructure resilience is proposed as Figure 1.

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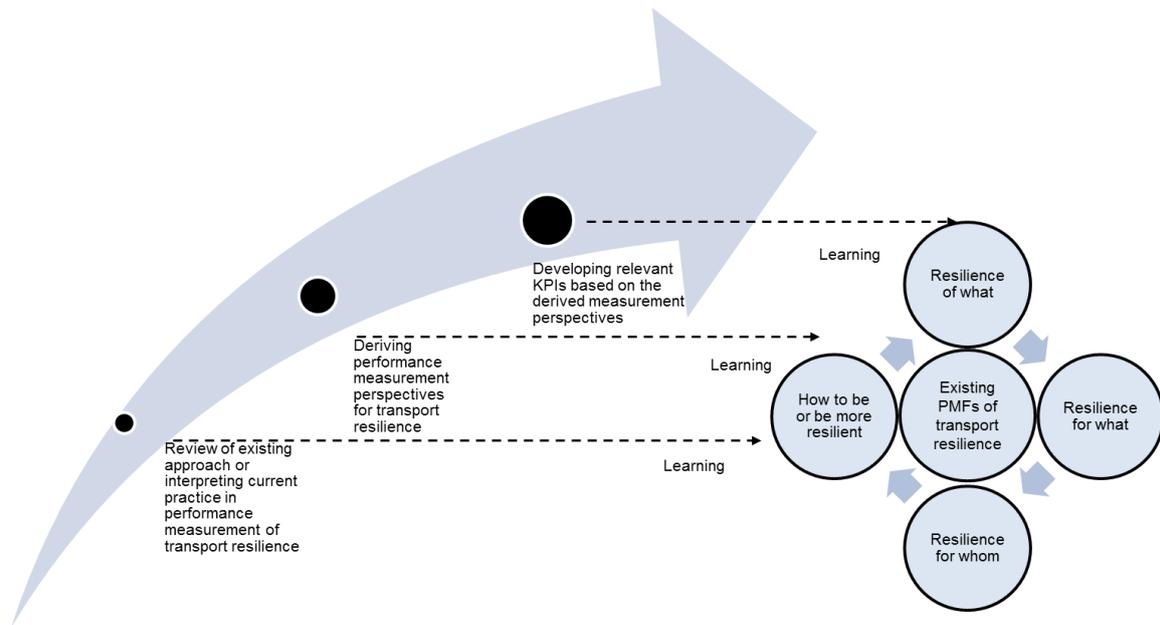


Figure 1. Design of a resilience PMF for transport systems

Building on prevailing theory and the overarching principles identified in Figure 1, the conceptual life-cycle resilience PMF is presented in Figure 2. Conventionally, the measurement of infrastructure resilient performance is focused on examining the assets' abilities to adapt to environmental changes (Hughes and Healy, 2014). Moreover, a performance measurement system needs to be developed with key stakeholders' perspectives (Neely *et al.*, 2001; Liu *et al.*, 2015; 2018a). Therefore, the developed PMF emphasises the 'conventional' aspects of performance measurement such as "Asset's Technical Ability" and stakeholders' expectations and capabilities (e.g. "End-user and Local Resident Expectations" and "Government's and Contractor's Capabilities"). Notably, infrastructure resilience can be determined by the 'processes' leading to asset's technical abilities and their future improvements (Chmutina *et al.*, 2016). Thus, a series of new perspectives has also been proposed in the developed PMF (i.e. Figure 1), including: (1) balanced measurement addressing life-cycle process view; (2) improvement for vulnerability; (3) measurement for specific object(s); and (4) public policies.

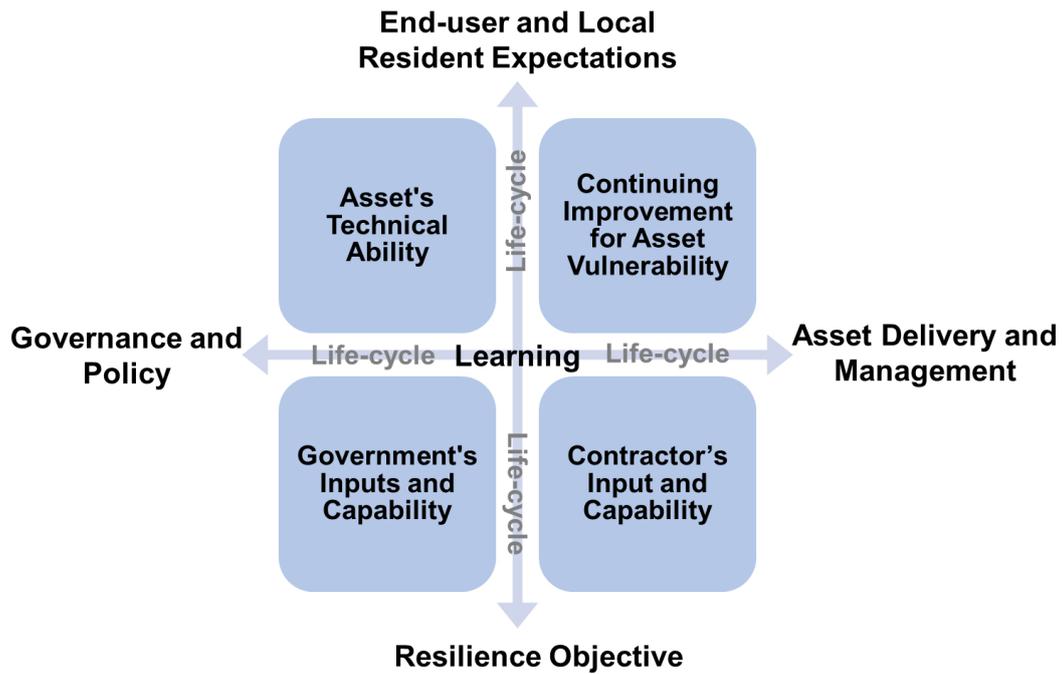
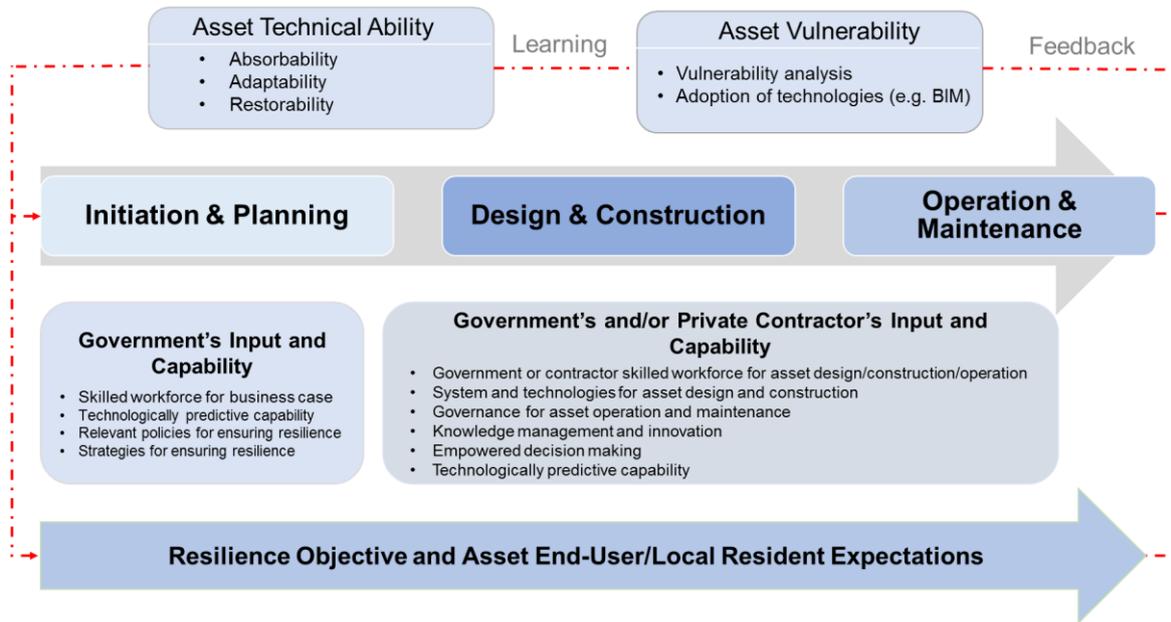


Figure 2. Conceptual life-cycle resilience PMF of transport assets

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The ‘life cycle’ addressed in Figure 2 covers the stages cascading from the project’s feasibility study and land-use planning to the operation/maintenance/replenishment of the asset. It is noted that performance measures (i.e. KPIs) underpin the measurement perspectives of a PMF (Liu *et al.*, 2015). Bearing these in mind, the resilience PMF (i.e. Figure 2) can be further developed to Figure 3, in which learning mechanisms have been embedded to ensure that lessons from the KPIs of each stage of the project (e.g. Initiation & Planning, Design & Construction, and Operation & Maintenance) can be effectively and efficiently absorbed and learned to improve asset’s life-cycle resilience. Noteworthy, Figure 3 illustrates the interconnections between the developed PMF’s measurement perspectives (e.g. Asset Technical Ability, Continuing Improvement for Asset Vulnerability, and Government’s/Contractor’s Inputs and Capabilities) and their relevant KPIs (e.g. adaptability, absorbability, restorability, appropriateness of vulnerability analysis, skilled workforce for business case and asset management/maintenance, robustness of technologically predictive capability, effectiveness of governance and knowledge management and innovation) within the context of an asset’s lifecycle.



268

269 Figure 3. Developed PMF integrated with a project life-cycle perspective and relevant KPIs

270

271 **3.1 Asset Technical Ability**

272 The theory of resilience, as identified above, incorporates two perspectives in terms of
 273 ‘*resilience of what*’ (Kaplan, 1999; Chmutina *et al.*, 2016): (1) the *product-oriented* view
 274 focusing on the output quality of a final product (i.e. asset’s abilities to be resilient to impacts;
 275 and (2) *process-based* view, which focuses on the engineering, technical and managerial
 276 aspects. As noted in Figure 2, both resilience concepts need to work in concert to ameliorate
 277 an asset’s performance (Madni and Jackson, 2009; Dobie and Schneider, 2017; Faturechi and
 278 Miller-Hooks, 2017). However, the prevailing measurement frameworks of infrastructure
 279 resilience tend to only take a product-oriented perspective where an emphasis is placed on the
 280 asset’s absorbability, adaptability (i.e. abilities to absorb/adapt of impacts) and restorability
 281 (i.e. ability to be repaired easily and efficiently), which are known as asset’s technical ability
 282 or capacity to accommodate impacts (Francis and Bekera, 2014).

283

284 Within the context of transport infrastructure, an asset’s technical abilities of resilience
 285 mentioned above can be broken down to: (1) Tolerance; (2) Redundancy; (3) Safe-to-Fail; (4)
 286 Connectivity; and (5) Accessibility (Hughes and Healy, 2014; Reggiani *et al.*, 2015). Tolerance
 287 refers to an asset's ability to withstand a given level of stress without a substantial loss of its
 288 function (Bruneau *et al.*, 2003). Redundancy and safe-to-fail relate to the capacity in: (1)
 289 satisfying functional requirements and (2) the planned or controllable failure in an event of a
 290 disruption (Park *et al.*, 2013). Hence, the design of performance measures (i.e. KPIs) under the

291 measurement perspective of an ‘Asset’s Technical Ability’ in the developed PMF need to be
292 associated with the three main abilities (e.g. adaptability, absorbability and restorability)
293 identified above (Figure 3). The KPIs of a ‘process’ measurement perspective is developed to
294 evaluate the robustness and effectiveness of the business process used to enable a transport
295 asset’s resilient abilities.

296

297 Resilience also needs to be incorporated into the business case of a transport infrastructure
298 development proposal by considering how innovative technologies and management
299 techniques can be used to ensure value for money throughout the asset’s lifecycle (Li and
300 Herbert, 2012; Suryanto *et al.*, 2015). For example, building information modelling (BIM) and
301 associated technologies have a pivotal role in ensuring the correct information is available at
302 the right time and place during operations and maintenance (Love *et al.*, 2017; 2018).

303

304 **3.2 Resilience Objective**

305 The ‘*resilience to what*’ is a key question that must be addressed when designing a PMF
306 (Hughes and Healy, 2014). Thus, “determining what needs to be measured and designing the
307 metrics to be implemented are key objectives of a PMF” (Bourne *et al.*, 2000, p.758). In this
308 regard, it is necessary to identify the types of external disturbances that could potentially impact
309 an asset so that they can be incorporated as relevant measures into the PMF (Francis and
310 Bekera, 2014; Hughes and Healy, 2014). If, however, the PMF is not aligned with a specific
311 ‘object’, it will be difficult to identify appropriate and effective performance measures (Park *et*
312 *al.*, 2013).

313

314 The ultimate goal of transport infrastructure is to provide a mechanism to enable and ensure
315 the movement of humans, animals, and goods from one location to another. The ability to
316 achieve this goal can be severely hampered by adverse environmental impacts. Therefore, the
317 KPIs that are embedded into the measurement perspective entitled ‘*Resilience Objective*’
318 within the developed PMF should be specific to natural hazards that may severely bring
319 disruptions to transport systems (Figures 2 and 3).

320

321 **3.3 End-user and Local Resident Expectations**

322 ‘*Resilience for whom*’ is akin to stakeholder engagement (Francis and Bekera, 2014; Sauders
323 and Becker, 2015). In essence, stakeholder satisfaction is a central tenet of performance

324 measurement (Gunasekaran and Kobu, 2007). Indeed, stakeholder demand provides the basis
325 for the design and development of strategies and internal business process of an organisation
326 (Neely *et al.*, 2001). Therefore, measuring stakeholder satisfaction (e.g. businesses, passengers
327 and local residents) can provide governments with an improved understanding about the
328 functioning of their transport services and assets (Queensland Department of Transport and
329 Main Roads, 2018). For example, light rail transit (LRT) systems are often implemented to
330 offset climate change impacts as they can be used to (City of Ottawa, 2012; Love *et al.*, 2017):
331 (1) reduce traffic congestion and greenhouse gas emissions; and (2) stimulate economic
332 development (e.g. positive impact on the property market).

333

334 By incorporating resilience into a government's transport strategy, future needs and
335 expectations of key stakeholders, in addition to their satisfaction, can be considered (Becker
336 and Caldwell, 2015; Mott MacDonald, 2017). Drawing on the *Expectation Confirmation*
337 *Theory* of psychology, the expectation is a latent factor of satisfaction but relates directly to the
338 perceived performance. Thus, measuring expectations can provide a more robust assessment
339 of stakeholders' satisfaction. In this instance, the KPIs would focus on the expectations of
340 direct asset users and the residents of the local communities that are being served.

341

342 **3.4 Continuing Improvement for Asset Vulnerability**

343 Despite every effort to enable and ensure assets are resilient, severe disruptions to transport
344 systems and networks can still materialize (Park *et al.*, 2013). As part of a risk management
345 process, it is important that potential vulnerabilities are identifiable (Love *et al.*, 2018). Hence,
346 having in place an initiative that aims to improve and manage asset's vulnerability to prevent
347 an unexpected crisis is an innate feature of infrastructure resilience corresponding to the theory
348 of '*how to be resilient*' (Omer *et al.*, 2012; Thayaparan *et al.*, 2016). Francis and Bekera (2014)
349 also argue that vulnerability analysis plays a vital role in ensuring transport asset's resilient
350 ability, as it contributes to reducing the possibility of being impacted.

351

352 The proposed PMF incorporates a measurement construct, '*Continuing Improvement for Asset*
353 *Vulnerability*'. The concept of infrastructure vulnerability places an emphasis on identifying
354 and managing aspects of the system that will be of risk to environmental disturbances
355 (Hellström, 2007). In addressing vulnerability, there is a need to focus on reducing an asset's
356 weaknesses in terms of its absorbability, adaptability and restorability/restorative capacity,

357 through material and technology-focused actions (Biringer *et al.*, 2013; Francis and Bekera,
358 2014; Love *et al.*, 2018). This view is supported by Seppänen *et al.* (2018), who have suggested
359 that to mitigate a system's vulnerability it requires: (1) the identification of the asset's
360 weaknesses that may lead to system failure during an external impact; (2) an assessment for
361 the potential effects that may materialise from the identified weaknesses; and (3) the use of
362 appropriate technologies to reduce the likelihood to the occurrence and its effects. With this in
363 mind, specific KPIs for improving asset vulnerability include the: (1) appropriateness of
364 weakness identification and relevant effect assessment; and (2) effectiveness of the advanced
365 technologies applied to reduce the system's vulnerability and ensure to its adaptability and
366 restorative capacity (Figure 3).

367

368 **3.5 Government and Contractor Inputs and Capabilities**

369 The inputs and capabilities of government and contractors have been identified as determinants
370 of infrastructure resilience in terms of '*how to be resilient*' (Bruneau *et al.*, 2003). While inputs
371 are designed to measure the resources to be used to enable/enhance resilience, an organisational
372 capability is created to measure whether the basic building blocks of competitiveness are robust
373 enough to ensure satisfactory performance (Neely *et al.*, 2001; Cabinet Office, 2016).

374

375 In the developed resilience PMF for transport assets, the KPIs for '*Government's Inputs and*
376 *Capabilities*' and '*Contractor's Inputs and Capabilities*' thus relate to: (1) skilled workforce
377 (i.e. designed to measure if the workforce of the government contractor is experienced or
378 knowledgeable in planning/designing/constructing /managing resilient assets); (2) empowered
379 decision making (i.e. designed to measure the level of authority provided to skilled staff to
380 respond to the disruption); (3) knowledge management and innovation (i.e. implemented to
381 measure the effectiveness and efficiency of organisational mechanisms, for example, training
382 and learning systems, in government or contractor to manage the knowledge of and facilitate
383 the innovation of knowledge of transport resilience); and (4) effectiveness of the strategies (e.g.
384 of future investment into an enhancement of transport resilience) (Figure 3). In this instance,
385 initiatives to be considered are an asset's resilient abilities (e.g. absorbability and adaptability)
386 to accommodate foreseeable and unforeseeable impacts by improving its design or restoration
387 (process).

388

389 In addition, the robustness of a transport asset's technological ability to resilience can be
390 determined by the predictive capability of the organisations engaging with their design and
391 management (i.e. government) (Bruneau *et al.*, 2003; Orsato *et al.*, 2017). The predictive
392 capability is referred to as the key-stakeholder organisations' technological capability to
393 anticipate an event and its impacts (Park *et al.*, 2013). This capability refers to the government's
394 or relevant organisation's systems, technologies, database and/or techniques useful for
395 supporting the identification of future potential impacts. Hence, a KPI, which relates to the
396 technology-focused ability in predicting potential events of disruption, is developed to measure
397 the effectiveness and efficiency of the systems and technologies to forewarn of potential
398 disruptive threats from climate change.

399

400 The KPIs under the measurement perspectives of government's and contractor's inputs and
401 capabilities are the measures for examining the effectiveness and efficiency of the works and
402 resources required to enable resilience over an asset's development process. Hence, they are
403 interconnected with each other on the basis of the resilience objective and key stakeholders'
404 expectations. For example, the knowledge and experience of skilled workforce in government
405 or private contractor can determine the robustness of the organisation's predictive capability or
406 governance, which may affect the effectiveness of the policies/strategies/technologies and
407 decision-making system implemented and adopted to plan, construct, operate and maintain the
408 infrastructure. This in turn underpins improving asset's vulnerability and then enhancing its
409 technical ability to absorb and adapt to the impacts of environmental changes (Figure 3).

410

411 **3.6 Governance and Policy**

412 Infrastructure development is influenced by public policies (e.g. land, planning, and
413 procurement) with varying political dimensions being pivotal to facilitate and enhance asset
414 resilience (Nierop, 2014; Giezen *et al.*, 2015; Sage *et al.*, 2015). Thus, 'policy' is a key
415 determinant of '*how to be resilient*'. The design of a PMF for the public sector must, therefore,
416 consider the influence of relevant policies on their ability to manage an asset throughout its
417 lifecycle (Bacci *et al.*, 2017). However, it has been noted that policy-related issues have been
418 largely ignored by prevailing measurement frameworks of transport resilience. Relevant KPIs
419 need to be concerned with the effectiveness of the policies (e.g. environmental) that can affect
420 the resilience of transport assets (HM Government, 2011).

421

422 **3.7 Asset Delivery and Management**

423 Due to the influence of procurement policy on the resilience of transport assets (Love *et al.*,
424 2017), ‘*Asset Delivery and Management*’ has been included in the conceptual framework
425 presented in Figure 2 as it is associated with ‘*Contractor’s Input and Capability*’ and
426 ‘*Continuing Improvement for Asset Vulnerability*’. Accordingly, the KPIs that are relevant to
427 ‘Asset Delivery and Management’ in the developed resilience PMF are aligned with the
428 procurement method that is selected and used to deliver and manage the asset.

429

430 The selection of the most appropriate procurement option is dependent on the public sector’s
431 requirements and needs (Love *et al.*, 1998). Though, there has been a subtle shift by Australian
432 state governments to use Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs) or variants thereof to procure
433 major roads and rail assets (Regan *et al.*, 2017). For example, PPPs have been used to deliver
434 LRT systems in cities such as Canberra, Gold Coast and Sydney (Love *et al.*, 2017). Specific
435 performance measures (i.e. KPIs) for the ‘Asset Delivery and Management’ perspective of the
436 developed PMF, particularly in the case of PPPs, will need to focus on the effectiveness and
437 efficiency of monitoring of construction, operations and maintenance phases being managed
438 by the private sector. In addition, it has been identified that technology-enhanced asset
439 management is able to support replenishing transport assets and continually improve their
440 vulnerability by providing digital access to appropriate and reliable information (Love *et al.*,
441 2018). Hence, the KPIs with regard to asset management within the developed PMF should be
442 specific for the appropriateness and effectiveness of the technologies used to monitor the assets
443 (Figure 3), for example, real-time sensors and BIM, which are useful for collecting asset
444 performance data essential for decision making.

445

446 **4.0 Implications for Policy Development to Enable Transport Resilience**

447 Having developed a life-cycle resilience PMF for transport infrastructure, its implications for
448 policy development are examined and discussed. In particular, an emphasis is placed on
449 developing: (1) an organisational culture that is attuned to resilience; (2) information policy to
450 facilitate learning; and (3) governance of service recovery and risk prevention.

451

452 **4.1 Policies for Developing Organisational Resilience Culture**

453 The development of an organisational culture of resilience within the public sector is a
454 necessity for ensuring assets are future-proofed (Everley, 2011; Love *et al.*, 2017). Culture

455 plays an integral part in cultivating and shaping a resilience strategy to be enacted by employees
456 (Scholz, 1987; Bititci *et al.*, 2006; White, 2013; Hughes and Healy, 2014). It has been widely
457 acknowledged that organisational culture can support the development and improvement of
458 organisational capability (e.g. Hock, 2016; Chang *et al.*, 2017; Cromptley, 2017).

459

460 A public transport authority that possesses a resilience culture, for example, needs to (Martins
461 and Terblanche, 2003; Everly, 2011): (1) make an investment based on its stakeholders
462 requirements; (2) contribute to improve organisational innovation by managing the adversities
463 that can affect the services of its' transport assets (i.e. enhance assets' abilities to withstand
464 natural hazards); and (3) provide investment in training and education to develop employees'
465 knowledge to deal with short-to-long-term environmental impacts on the assets. The
466 aforementioned initiatives can enhance government employees' skills and knowledge in
467 identifying and innovatively managing external impacts on the functions of transport systems
468 (Copper *et al.*, 2014). As a result, the public sector's organisational capability to respond to
469 foreseeable or unforeseeable events from environmental disturbances (i.e. climate change) will
470 be significantly improved.

471

472 An organisational culture of resilience can be established by putting in place appropriate
473 strategic human resource (HR) policies, which should focus on the: (1) recruitment of
474 employees who have appropriate knowledge and skills in developing resilient transport assets;
475 (2) enhancement of public investment in human capital (i.e. training and continued
476 development of workforce ability in improving transport resilience); and (3) empowerment (i.e.
477 to facilitate decision making during a disruptive event) (Lengnick-Hall *et al.*, 2011).

478

479 **4.2 Information Policy to Facilitate Learning**

480 Learning is a central tenet of the PMF that has been developed (Figures 2 and 3). It can be
481 enhanced through supportive organisational mechanisms (e.g. technology, system and policy)
482 (Robey *et al.*, 2000). Thus, governments need to develop and implement policies that engender
483 effective reciprocal learning between public authorities and private-sector contractors involved
484 with the delivery, maintenance and operation of transport systems and networks.

485 Information is integral to effective learning. The *learning cycle* encompasses the generation of
486 information, its integration into the organisational context, collective interpretation and
487 responsive action on the interpreted meaning (Dixon, 1999). Furthermore, “information is a

488 vital resource as when it ceases to flow an organisation's ability to function halts” (Westrum,
489 2014, p.60). The Cabinet Office of the UK (2011) also identified that enabling resilience is a
490 process, incorporating: (1) resilience measurement; (2) risk identification; (3) risk assessment;
491 and (4) building resilience, in which information processing (e.g. information gathering,
492 retrieving and communication) is a ‘hub’ (Figure 4). In this regard, information policy is useful
493 to develop resilient transport assets (Cabinet Office, 2017), as it is the set of public laws and
494 regulations encouraging and regulating the creation, use, storage, access, and communication
495 and dissemination of information.

496



497

498 Figure 4. The process of enabling resilience [Adapted from Cabinet Office (2011)]

499

500 Information policy for transport resilience would need to regulate the use and communication
501 of the information, regarding the: (1) services that the assets will provide; (2) physical and
502 service status of the assets; (3) likelihood and impacts of potential risks that can cause
503 disruption on the services of the assets; and (4) emergency assistance and management (Cabinet
504 Office, 2011). In addition, policy needs to support the development of a system that encourages
505 *Information Sharing and Learning* between public and private sectors to enable knowledge
506 exchange and therefore stimulate learning and process improvement. An initiative that has been
507 established to begin to address this issue is the *Trusted Information Sharing Network* (TISN)
508 which has been launched across sectors in Australia to enhance infrastructure resilience
509 (Australia Government, 2017). But, the TISN falls short as it does not provide a platform for

510 learning to take place and a process of benchmarking, which are needed to enact a process of
511 future-proofing to be initiated.

512

513 A significant interrelationship between information flow and organisational culture prevails
514 (Curry *et al.*, 2011). Information is, therefore, an indicator of organisational culture, which can
515 reflect the quality of cooperation and decision-making within the organisation (Westrum,
516 2014). Therefore, an information policy that aims to boost information sharing can enable the
517 culture of a government to shift from being ‘bureaucratic’ to ‘generative’, where information
518 exchange across their internal boundaries is valued (Westrum, 2009). A ‘generative’ culture
519 thus provides the foundation to underpin effective and efficient information communication
520 among public authorities, which has been identified above as being pivotal for an enablement
521 of transport resilience. Yet, the culture of governments tends to be ‘bureaucratic’, as they
522 “maintain their ‘turf’, and insist on their own rules and generally do things by the book – their
523 book” (Westrum, 2014, p.59). The corollary being intra and inter departmental (i.e. within
524 public sector) and cross-sector (i.e. between public and private sectors) sharing of knowledge
525 can be stymied owing to issues of commercial sensitivity, self-protection and/or unclear
526 clarification about what information is needed to be shared (Cabinet Office, 2017).

527

528 **4.3 Policies for the Governance of Service Recovery and Risk Prevention**

529 Governance has been embedded into the developed resilience PMF (Figures 2 and 3), as it can
530 affect the implementations of short-to-long-term plans for infrastructure development (Taylor,
531 2016). However, it has been widely observed that ineffectual governance is a constraint that
532 inhibits equitable resilience and adaptation planning (Fraser and Kirbyshire, 2017). While
533 many governments have implemented governance policies to enable and enhance the
534 resistance/robustness of their transport infrastructure (i.e. physical ability to withstand natural
535 impacts), limited attention has been given to ‘how’ to regulate, re-route and/or recover the
536 assets’ services that have been disrupted by hazards (Department of Transport, 2014; Highways
537 England, 2016). ‘Recovery’ from an adverse occurrence that causes destruction/failure is a
538 critical ability to transport assets in terms of resilience (USDHS, 2009; Wilkinson, 2013). Thus,
539 policies that aim to govern ‘how’ to effectively and efficiently back-up or substitute disrupted
540 service are needed.

541

542 The ‘Continuing Improvement for Asset Vulnerability’, which aims to reduce vulnerability and
543 prevent impacts from climate-related hazards/risks, has been identified as a key measurement
544 perspective of the developed PMF. Accordingly, risk or hazard prevention needs to be
545 addressed in future policy development relating to resilience governance. In practice, risk
546 management is a process comprised of risk identification, assessment and control (i.e. plan to
547 prevent risks) (Safe Work Australia, 2011). Thus, it follows that the robustness of the risk and
548 hazard prevention for transport infrastructure depends on the effectiveness of risk identification
549 and assessment (Department of Transport, 2014). Despite the importance of risk management,
550 there are limited policies being implemented in practice that up-date risk assessment on a
551 regular basis (Highlands England, 2016). For example, in the UK “transport operators are not
552 obliged to produce an update of their Risk Assessments” and this has weakened the resilience
553 of the assets (Department of Transport, 2014, p.45).

554

555 **5.0 Conclusions**

556 Having efficient and resilient transport systems in place is a priority for the governments in
557 many developed economies. The corollary has been a plethora of studies examining the nature
558 of resilience. Nevertheless, the enablement of resilience is a sophisticated process relating to
559 asset's planning, design, engineering, construction, operations and maintenance. Performance
560 measurement is a key facilitator to effective and efficient process management. There have
561 been limited studies of the resilience measurement of transport assets in the literature, and
562 therefore, the research presented in this paper aimed to develop a robust PMF to effectively
563 manage the resilience of transport assets throughout their lifecycle.

564

565 Based on a review of the extant literature of resilience, a life-cycle resilience PMF that has
566 been developed. The framework incorporates a series of measurement perspectives: (1) asset
567 technical ability; (2) continuing improvement for asset vulnerability; (3) government and
568 contractor inputs and capabilities; (4) specific objectives; (5) end-user and local resident
569 expectations; (5) governance and policy; and (6) asset delivery and management. With these
570 features, the developed PMF for transport assets can capture and reflect not only the robustness
571 of transport asset’s technical abilities to adapt to the disturbances as a result of environmental
572 change, but also the process and policies leading to such abilities. Practical implications have
573 been identified for future policy development to enable and/or improve resilience. These
574 include the development of: (1) organisational resilience culture activated by government's

575 strategic HR policies; (2) information policy; and (3) policies for the governance of service
576 recovery and risk prevention.

577

578 The study presented in this paper is significant, as it contributes to the literature of resilience
579 measurement that has been acknowledged as being a prerequisite of building resilient transport
580 infrastructure. Hence, it provides governments with a novel insight into ensuing and improving
581 their asset's resilience to accommodate environmental changes and then enabling safer
582 communities for local residents. Our paper is conceptual in nature, and thus empirical research
583 is required to valid our proposed PMF. To this end, future research is needed to empirically
584 examine the feasibility of the developed PMF using a series of case studies so that it can be
585 used a frame of reference to guide policy development.

586

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