

**A Study of Decision Making in British Business
Improvement District Organisations.**

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MPhil 2021

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**A thesis submitted to in partial fulfilment of the requirements of
Manchester Metropolitan University
for the degree of Master of Philosophy**

**Department of Operations, Technology, Events and Hospitality
Management
Manchester Metropolitan University**

2021

ABSTRACT

The British BID industry has been growing rapidly since the passing of the BID legislation in the year 2004 by the UK government. BID organisations are known for the ability to generate private funds for the purpose of supporting local councils in the development of town and city centres in the UK. The vast literature on BID however has been on issues such as the evaluation of BID organisations, the undemocratic nature of BIDs, and the impact of BID organisations in communities paying less attention to how BID organisations make place-based decisions that are vital to their host communities.

This research explores the BID industry in the UK from the lens of organisational behaviour and identifies the determinants of decision-making within BID organisations, as well as how BID organisations manage the different stakeholder groups participating in the governance of places.

Case study methodology was used to examine decision-making in four BID cases. Findings from the study suggest that there are three determinants of decision-making used by BID organisations: **Funding**, **BID governance**, and **Nature of Projects**. BID organisations engage with stakeholders using a tactic known as **Enrolment**. Through enrolment, BID organisations inform, consult, collaborate, and empower their stakeholders to get involved in their decision-making process.

A decision-making framework for understanding Place-Based Decision-Making (PBDM) among BID organisations is proposed based on the findings of this study. The framework maps out the steps in making decisions by BID organisations.

Contributions arising from this research are: The strategy used by BID organisations in engaging their diverse stakeholder groups, a framework illustrating the decision-making phases in BID organisations.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I thank God Almighty, the one who gives knowledge, wisdom and understanding, (Proverbs 2:6) for His kindness, love, and guidance throughout the course of my studies. I am forever grateful to my Lord Jesus for His mercies and continuous shower of blessing on me and my family.

With humility, I acknowledge the tremendous support of my capable, understanding, and astute director of the study, Professor Cathy Urquhart for her guidance and instructions and believe in me. THANK YOU, PROFESSOR, FOR THE OPPORTUNITY YOU GAVE. I also acknowledge my supervisor – Dr Bex Lewis, despite your health, you gave me your precious time to not only review my work but provide solid advice. I also acknowledge the Institute of Place Management at Manchester Metropolitan University for the sponsorship grant I received from the Institute during my research.

I would also like to express my profound gratitude to my advisors: Dr Ernest Edifor, Dr Javier Lloveras, Dr Theodoridis Costas, Dr Inalegwu Ode-Ichakpa, Dr Rasheed A. Bello and Dr Mustapha Ojo for their professional advice and for their practical support.

I am also grateful to my colleagues for their contributions and support academically and otherwise.

This would be an incomplete acknowledgement without mentioning the immense support from Pastor Ayo Fashugba, my siblings, and the lovely women in my life, my beloved wife, for her love and patience, to Yeye Oore for her prayers and Mrs Y. Fasugba kindness to me and my family throughout my study period.

Thank you all.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES	ix
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 BID ORGANISATIONS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM: HISTORY, DEFINITION AND EVOLUTION.....	3
1.2 RATIONALE AND SCOPE FOR THE CURRENT STUDY AND RESEARCH QUESTION.....	6
1.3 THESIS STRUCTURE	8
1.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY	8
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW.....	9
2.1 DEFINITION OF DECISION-MAKING.....	9
2.2 DECISION-MAKING MODELS	11
2.3 THE NATURE OF THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESSING	18
2.3.1 INCREMENTALISM.....	18
2.3.2 PHASES OF DECISION-MAKING	19
2.3 LACK OF DECISION-MAKING FRAMEWORK IN BID ORGANISATIONS ...	21
2.4 THE STAKEHOLDER INTERACTIONS IN BID ORGANISATIONS	23
2.4.1 DEFINITIONS OF STAKEHOLDER	23
2.4.2 CLASSIFICATION OF STAKEHOLDERS.....	25
2.4.3 PRIMARY STAKEHOLDERS	26

2.4.4	SECONDARY STAKEHOLDERS	26
2.4.5	STAKEHOLDER THEORY	26
2.4.6	STAKEHOLDERS IN BID ORGANISATIONS.....	29
3.1	HISTORICAL BACKGROUND AND DEFINITIONS OF BIDs.....	30
3.1.1	HISTORY OF BIDs.....	30
2.5	CHAPTER SUMMARY	29
CHAPTER 3: THE RESEARCH CONTEXT		30
3.1.2	EMERGENCE OF BIDs IN THE UK.....	35
3.2	ACADEMIC PERSPECTIVE ON BIDs	38
3.2.1	URBAN NEOLIBERALISATION	41
3.2.2	URBAN NETWORK GOVERNANCE.....	46
3.2.3	POLICY TRANSFER IN URBAN MANAGEMENT.....	51
3.3	UK BID Development.....	55
3.4.1	POLITICAL DRIVERS	56
3.4.2	ECONOMIC DRIVERS	57
3.4.3	INDUSTRY DRIVERS	57
3.4	ENGLISH BID MODEL.....	57
3.4.1	BID LEGISLATION IN ENGLAND.....	58
3.4.2	VOTING PROCESSES IN BID ORGANISATIONA SET UP.....	58
3.4.3	GOVERNANCE STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH BIDs.....	59
3.4.4	FUNDING.....	60
3.5	TYPES OF BID ORGANISATIONS	60
3.5.1	LEGAL FORMS.....	60

3.5.2	CATEGORIES OF BIDs	61
CHAPTER 4:	METHODOLOGY	65
4.1	METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN.....	65
4.2	THE CASE STUDY APPROACH	68
4.3	DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH DESIGN	70
4.3.1	GETTING STARTED	74
4.4	CHAPTER SUMMARY	83
CHAPTER 5:	DATA ANALYSIS USING GROUNDED THEORY APPROACH	84
5.1	INTRODUCTION.....	84
5.2	DATA ANALYSIS METHOD.....	85
5.3	THE GROUNDED THEORY APPROACH.....	86
5.3.1	APPLYING THE CODING PROCESS FOR BUILDING GROUNDED THEORY	86
5.3.2	OPEN CODING.....	87
5.3.3	SELECTIVE CODING.....	90
5.3.4	THEORETICAL CODING	92
5.4	CHAPTER CONCLUSION.....	94
CHAPTER 6:	BID ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXTS	95
6.1	CONTEXT (BID A).....	95
6.2	CONTEXT (BID B).....	96
6.3	CONTEXT (BID C).....	96
6.4	CONTEXT (BID D).....	97
CHAPTER 7:	RESEARCH FINDINGS	98
7.1	INTRODUCTION.....	98

7.2	DETERMINANTS OF PLACE-BASED DECISIONS.....	99
7.2.1	LACK OF DECISION-MAKING FRAMEWORK.....	100
7.2.2	BID GOVERNANCE.....	105
7.2.3	FUNDING.....	107
7.3	STAKEHOLDER MANAGEMENT.....	109
7.3.1	STAKEHOLDER CONSULTATION.....	110
7.3.2	STAKEHOLDER SUPPORT/ENGAGEMENT.....	113
7.3.3	PROJECT EXECUTION.....	114
CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION		118
8.1	LACK OF DECISION-MAKING FRAMEWORK	118
8.2	BID GOVERNANCE	119
8.3	FUNDING.....	121
8.4	RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN TWO CORE THEMES: STAKEHOLDER MANAGEMENT AND ORGANISATIONAL DECISION-MAKING.....	122
8.4.1	RESEARCH QUESTION 1.....	126
8.4.2	RESEARCH QUESTION 2.....	128
8.5	RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION.....	131
8.6	Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research.....	135
References.....		138
Appendix A.....		156
Appendix A continuation.....		157
Appendix B.....		158

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

FIGURES

FIGURE 1 IMPACT OF BID ON NEIGHBOURHOODS (Elmedni et al.,2018)

FIGURE 2 BID GROWTH IN THE UK BETWEEN 2005-2018 (Grail et al., 2019)

FIGURE 3 ANALYTIC PROCESS THIS STUDY

FIGURE 4 EXAMPLE OF EMERGING CATEGORY

FIGURE 5 GLASER'S (1978) SIX Cs CODING FAMILY FOR ANALYSIS

FIGURE 6 DETERMINANTS OF PLACE-BASED DECISIONS

FIGURE 7 MAIN CATEGORIES AND SUB-CATEGORIES OF ORGANISATIONAL
DECISION-MAKING THEME

FIGURE 8 MAIN CATEGORIES AND SUB-CATEGORIES OF STAKEHOLDER
MANAGEMENT THEME

FIGURE 9 DECISION-MAKING FRAMEWORK IN BID ORGANISATIONS

FIGURE 10 ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE OF BIDs

TABLES

TABLE 2.1 ASSUMPTIONS UNDERLYING THE RATIONAL MODEL

TABLE 4.1 ONTOLOGICAL AND EPISTEMOLOGY STANCE OF THIS STUDY

TABLE 4.2 EISENHARDT (1989) THEORY BUILDING FRAMEWORK

TABLE 4.3 BID CASE STUDY DESCRIPTION

TABLE 4.4 INTERVIEWS USED FOR THIS STUDY

TABLE 5.1 EISENHARDT (1989) FIFTH & SIXTH STAGES OF THEORY BUILDING

TABLE 5.2 EXAMPLES OF HOW CORE CATEGORIES WERE GENERATED FROM
OPEN AND SELECTIVE CODING PROCESS

TABLE 7.1 ANALYTICAL DEVELOPMENT OF MAIN CATEGORY OF PBDM

TABLE 7.2 SHOWING INTERVIEW PARTICIPANTS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Business Improvement District (BID) as a concept and an organisation in the last few decades has emerged as a powerful tool or mechanism for managing places and revitalising public spaces using private funds (De Magalhães, 2014; Grail et al., 2019). Viewed as “private governments” (Morcol et al. 2014), BID organisations serve as a source of sustainable means of funding projects and events in public commercial areas thereby ensuring the survival of business districts and high streets around the world (Richner and Olesen, 2019). In 2018, BID organisations in the U.K. forms the largest private funding institution for the regeneration of town centres and high streets spending over £300 million (BritishBID, 2019). In 2021, about 322 registered BID organisations generated over £132 million in levies for supporting service delivery in public spaces around the country (BritishBID, 2021).

In the United Kingdom, these BID organisations support an increasing number of projects delivered by local councils around town centres and high streets, such as marketing and promotion of places, public safety, event programming and giving residents a sense of place. At the national level, BID is used as a mechanism by the central government as an economic and social tool for improving local economies of places through regeneration innovation with the primary aim of improving the vitality of local areas and ensuring that cities engage in entrepreneurial activities by partnering with BID organisations. While the priorities of individual BID organisations in respect of their goals and the strategies adopt to achieve these goals differs from organisation to organisation, the overall objectives of BID organisations is to support the levy payers and to make town and city centres attractive to users (Richner and Olesen, 2019).

Although BID organisations play an important role in shaping the economic and social agendas of the places they manage, most previous studies of BID have not dealt with how these organisations make decisions that affects these places. The research on BID in the United

Kingdom to date has tended to focus majorly on – (1) the neoliberal nature of BID as a tool for achieving urban development; and (2) the transition of Town Centre Management Partnerships into Business Improvement Districts as a more sustainable means of funding public spaces in the U.K. and (3) the undemocratic nature of BID organisations in relation to public governance. The determinants, process and impacts of BID organisations decision-making is understudied, particularly for their role in the social and economic development of places. This however has resulted in a gap in our understanding of how BID organisations make important decisions about the place they manage, the role of stakeholders in the decision-making process of BID organisations.

Understanding the behaviour of BID organisations in relation to how they make vital place-based decisions is important due to the following reasons. First, findings from theoretical studies suggest that BID organisations' spending decisions are made only by levy paying businesses within the business districts. The implication of this is that BID organisations are classified as undemocratic and are only accountable to levy payers within the business district (De Magalhães, 2014). However, the paucity of evidence on stakeholders' participation in the decision-making process of BID organisations particularly in the United Kingdom makes it difficult to determine the privateness or publicness of these organisations (Unger, 2016).

Second, understanding how decisions are made at the managerial level among BID organisations will help to identify patterns of decision-making process thereby assisting in the design of decision support systems (DSS) that are suited to BID organisations.

Third, evaluation of decision-making process in BID organisations will assist in development of a substantive framework which is currently lacking in the context of BID organisations. Therefore, in response to the call made by Parker et al., (2017) for more studies on the impact of decision-making on the vitality and viability of town and city centres, and to address the gaps stated above, this study is set out to explore decision-making process of BID organisations

in the United Kingdom. It attempts to broaden our understanding of the features of decision-making and factors influencing the process of decision-making among BID organisations.

1.1 BID ORGANISATIONS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM: HISTORY, DEFINITION AND EVOLUTION

In addressing a contemporary urban governance issue such as BID, it is important to examine its origin and its evolution and spread to different part of the world. The origin of BIDs according to scholars such as (Briffault, 1999; Ashworth, 2003; Hoyt, 2003; Unger, 2016) dates to the ancient Greek and English era. Ashworth (2003) suggest, the use BID-like concept between the year 1250 and 1570 in England to finance public projects such as road and sewer repairs and building and repairing sea walls in the country. While Unger (2016) traced the root of BID to the ancient Greek who used similar mechanism to maintain and repair their Agora (public spaces).

As one of the recent urban management policies, BID have been instrumental to the continuous existence of public spaces in towns and cities (Cook, 2008). However, Ward (2006) considers the modern usage of BID as a political ideology used by government at various levels to govern urban centres. The different ideas by scholars as to what constitute a BID as bring about its conflicting nature as a geographical place set aside for public-private partnership management and it's use as a neoliberal political ideology for urban governance. This has no doubt resulted in the complexity of defining and conceptualising what BIDs represents.

Hoyt (2006) argue that the emergence of the modern-day BID model started as a concerted effort by business leaders in the city of San Francisco to form a united front in formulating strategies for revitalising the city centre after a natural disaster that destroyed the centre. Referencing Fogelson (2001), Hoyt stated that the joint action of the business leaders led to establishment of the Downtown Association of San Francisco, which subsequently proliferated into various voluntary organisations in different cities in the United States. Hoyt (2006) claims

that the voluntary association continued into the early 1960s and eventually resulted into a new approach used by business owners in Toronto, Canada, to curb the problem of “free-rider”, business owners that are enjoying the benefits from the contribution made by the members of the voluntary groups without committing their own monetary contribution to the association. Similarly, Ward (2007) traced the history of BID to the late 1960s in Canada when local businesses realised that funds that they give voluntarily was inadequate for achieving the year-to-year regeneration programmes aimed at improving the outlook of their business environments. Thus, this prompted deliberations among stakeholders such as business representatives and provincial officials to find a solution to the problem of inadequate funding. The outcome of these extensive deliberations led to the creation of self-imposed tax legislation passed into law by the Ontario province in December of 1969. However, the first BID in history known as Bloor West Village Business Improvement District was established seven months after the initial passing of the law in 1969.

Morcol et al. (2014) however claimed that the creation of BID was the product of the effect of the aftermath of the Second World War which led to economic and demographic deteriorations in the late 20th century. The authors believed that the inability of local government in the United States to fund public programmes due to massive destructions to the source of income in form of tax revenues and the subsequent reduction in federal government’s grants to states and cities led to the idea of devising an alternative means of funding public service delivery in the United States. In addition, the authors believed that BID is a strategic alliance that was formed because of void created due to shift in the power arrangement of cities.

While it has been generally agreed that BID began in Canada, it was however widely accepted in the United States where it exists in various format due to differences in the laws of different states in the country.

Therefore, for this study, it is important to address the definition and functions of BID organisations in the context of the United Kingdom. For instance, the U.K. government viewed BID as “a defined area in which a levy is charged on all business rate payers in addition to the business rates bill” (De Magalhães, 2014). For Briffault (1999), BIDs are legal instruments established by laws and ordinances which determines its functions, governance, and financing. The following characteristics differentiates U.K. BIDs from other places:

Levy – The levy is calculated based on the existing local business rates (a form of tax charged to businesses) using the hereditament as a factor in the calculation of the levy. However, many of the BID organisations sets their levy to around 1% and 2% of the rateable value of individual business (BIDs 2012). The levy is collected by the local councils and subsequently disbursed to the BID organisations for project executions.

Private/Public – In other climes, BID organisations are entire a private and not-for-profit organisation with governmental authority and power to tax or levy businesses. As a result, the government at any level do not participate in the operations of BID organisations. However, BID organisations’ operation in the UK involves the participation of local council outside the collaborative arrangement existing between both organisations. Local councils are represented on some BID boards in the UK as active member of the board.

Self-governing – In other countries, BID organisations decide the nature of their accountability as they are classified as private entity that has no public accountability. UK BID organisations on the other hand are accountable to their boards (Businesses paying levy) as well as the public. In reference to their legal nature, BID organisations in the United Kingdom must register with the government as a charity organisation. While the central government of each devolved governments in the United Kingdom is responsible for establishment of BID organisations, it is the local councils that supervises the operations of the BID organisations (Grail et al., 2019).

Due to the differing nature of legislation on BID across each region in the U.K., the classification of BID organisations is complex, however, The BID Foundation (Institute of Place Management) a think-tank organisation at Manchester Metropolitan University in the U.K. classified BID organisations into two major groups based on their legal form and the scope of their operations (Grail et al., 2019). BID organisations according to their legal form are classified as follows: *property owner BIDs, property owner and occupier BIDs, property occupier BIDs, and cross Borough BIDs.*

Unique- BID organisations are unique from private organisations, non-profit organisations, and other public-private organisations in that they possess the power of the government to tax businesses. While they were established to complement the activities of local councils in the provision of public services within business districts, they have been criticised as undemocratic since their accountability is to the businesses paying the tax despite the social causes they serve.

1.2 RATIONALE AND SCOPE FOR THE CURRENT STUDY AND RESEARCH QUESTION

BID organisations provide a range of services and supports to businesses and people within their locality; they form partnership with local councils and other agencies to provide timely and creative solutions to social issues within the city. While BID organisations are known to provide basic supplemental services to compliment the local councils, their role in the last few years has shifted to more strategic functions. For instance, Browne et al. (2018) reported the strategic involvement of some BID organisations in the planning and implementation of logistics services with the aim of achieving sustainable urban freight initiatives. Similarly, Coca-Stefaniak and Carroll (2015) in their discussion on the evolution of town centre management into Business Improvement District in the UK noted that “there’s a need for a

visionary approach to the management of town and city centres beyond the janitorial role of place management organisations such as BID organisations.

BID organisations are, in essence, responsible for making place-based decisions such as setting agendas and priorities for the business districts and environs, organising events within the town or city centres, deciding on which project to select for execution within the town or city centres. Some authors such as Unger (2018) have highlighted the importance of decision making to the identity of BID organisations. Parker et al., (2014) in their interesting analysis of factors affecting high streets in the UK identifies over two hundred and fifty factors affecting high streets and observed that place makers are averse to risk and therefore are not open to making decisions that will enhance the viability and vitality of high streets and town centres.

In addition, no previous study has investigated the process or models of decision-making in BID organisations and whether these processes or models differs from other not-for-profit organisations such as BID organisations. It is important to state that BID organisations differ from other non-governmental organisations due to the statutory power given to it by the central government to tax or levy businesses as they deem fit and without any public accountability. This study aims to contribute to this growing area by exploring four BID organisations, and discuss the decision-making process or model used in these organisations and examine the role of stakeholders in the process and develop a framework of decision-making in BID organisations.

In general, the result of this study is expected to be useful to both practitioners and academics in understanding how BID organisations make important place-based decisions and the role of stakeholders in the decision-making process. Therefore, this study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the features of the organisational decision-making processes in BID organisations?

2. How is stakeholder management practised in BID organisations?

1.3 THESIS STRUCTURE

The thesis contains eight chapters. Chapter 1 is an overview of the study and provides the study background and the rationale for the study. Chapter 2 reviews the existing literature on decision-making and BID organisations and offer a critical review of these studies. On the other hand, Chapter 3 explores the research context by exploring the concept of town centre management and the BID system in the UK. Chapter 4 discusses the research methodology utilised in the study. This chapter particularly explores the research methods, research philosophy, data collection techniques and data analysis methods. Chapter 5 focuses on the data analysis process using the grounded theory approach. While chapter 6 focuses on BID organisational contexts and discusses the BID organisations used as case studies in the study. However, Chapter 7 discusses the research findings and explores the core themes in the data and link it to the main categories and sub-categories. Chapter 8 discusses the second core theme and link it to the main categories and sub-categories and discussed the result in greater details. The chapter concludes and enumerate the study limitation and provide recommendations for future study.

1.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The study focuses on exploring the decision-making mechanism in the UK's BID organisations. This issue becomes imperative with the BID managers focusing on the daily management of the BID organisations. However, the BID board having the final say on the decision-making while the government are saddled with its regulations. The next chapter focuses on the extensive review of existing studies on BID organisations.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents a preliminary review of the existing and relevant literature on the three major areas of this study. Generate a grounded theory; this present study utilises an inductive approach, which guides model development rather than testing existing theories. Therefore, this chapter does not intend to search for gaps in the literature specifically on the research areas in this study but instead conduct a non-committal literature review. Non-committal literature, according to Urquhart and Fernández (2012), is a literature review in which researchers familiarise themselves with the theories in their research areas without imposing a framework on future data (Urquhart and Fernández, 2012).

2.1 DEFINITION OF DECISION-MAKING

To examine an important concept such as decision-making within the context of BID organisations in the UK, it is important to examine the definition of decision-making as this current study is focused on the process of decision-making within the said context. In addition, the research streams on decision-making in the last six or more decades have cut across different academic areas thereby resulting in abundance of viewpoints on the subject of decision-making. While a generally accepted definition of decision-making is lacking, there is a consensus among scholars on the classification of the definitions into three classes (Simon, 1979). The first class views the definition of decision-making from the perspective of setting priority on what is important either as an individual or an organisation. These class of definitions according to the seminal work of Mintzberg (1975) on strategy is the commitment to action while Simon (1979) referred to decision-making as “finding and attending to problems”. For instance, Hu, Li and Zhang (2018) used this first class to describe decision-making in their study which was aimed at developing a recognition primed decision-making

model which consist of two stages namely: situation recognition and solution generation. Buelens et al., (2006, p.442) defines decision-making as “identifying and choosing alternative solutions that lead to desired state of affairs”. Similarly, Huczynski and Buchanan (2019, p.680) defines decision-making as “the process of making from a number of alternatives”. Also, Daft et al., (2014) views decision-making as “process of identifying and solving problems

The second class presents decision-making as a series of steps taking by a decision-maker while confronted with a situation in which there is a need to make decision. These group of definitions do not consider a general view of what decision-making is about but rather views decision-making from the point-of-view of the number of processes used by the decision-maker. Beach & Mitchell (1978) defined decision-making as a six-step process which includes problem recognition, evaluation of tasks, strategy selection, information process, strategy implementation and choice selection. Similarly, decision-making process according to Schermerhorn et al., (1998) is the steps involved when a decision-maker identifies an opportunity or a problem, determines the alternatives, select an alternative, implement the alternative selected and evaluate the outcome of the decision made.

Finally, the last class view decision-making definitions from the perspective of the decision-maker as using factors such as intuition, creativity, insight, rationality, and judgement to select an alternative among a few alternatives in a linear or sequential process (Dane and Pratt, 2007). In this class, author such Killen et al., (2020) defines portfolio decision-making as “an integrated system of processes that considers these decisions (such as initiation, termination, and prioritisation) simultaneously” (Killen et al., 2020, p.268).

2.2 DECISION-MAKING MODELS

2.2.1 RATIONAL MODEL

The rational model of decision-making is used by normative theorists in psychology, organisation theory, and economics to explain how decision-makers ought to make decisions (Cabantous and Gond, 2011). The “Economic Man” idea based on the concept of rationality assumes that the decision-maker is a rational being and is expected to make rational decisions (Nutt and Wilson, 2010). About Fayol’s (1949) seminal paper on organisational decision-making, the model suggests that managers as decision-makers must be rational in their approach to managerial functions that ensure competitive advantage and efficiency. Additionally, the underlying assumption of the control aspect of management is rooted in the idea that managers must act rationally to achieve the organisation’s overall objectives through the maximisation of labour activities within an organisation (Bratton, 2015).

The lack of empirical validation of these assumptions has resulted in substantial criticisms of the model by behavioural economists and scientists. These opponents argue that the model is too rigid for decision-making when decision problems are unclear and uncertain due to limited information and contexts, such as time-pressured environments where decision-makers make on the spot decisions. Metzger and Schwenk (1990) classified the model as a classical approach to decision analysis. This classification as a classical approach depends on applying the model in disciplines such as Economics, Mathematics, Management Sciences, and Statistics to enhance quantitative or computational modelling to solve complex decision problems. Decision-making activities in the model occur sequentially, where a decision-maker can model from any phase to another without following a linear order.

The model’s primary assumption is that decision-makers must engage in a logical thought process, access adequate information, conduct an in-depth analysis of all options or alternatives. Similarly, the model assumes that decision-making is quantifiable when decision-

makers subjectively add weighting criteria to each choice. The model works effectively within a closed environment with little or no uncertainty that might influence decision-making.

According to Cascetta et al. (2013), a rational decision must be:

- (a) Consistent: The decision must be compatible with the objectives and constraints.
- (b) Aware: The decision is based on unbiased information regarding the alternatives, the context in which the decision occurs, and the likely impact of the decisions.
- (c) Comparative: The decision-maker must consider several alternatives by scanning for other available options
- (d) Flexible: The decision-maker must be willing to reverse the decisions when new alternative information and potential impacts come to the open.

Additionally, Jones (2013) states that are three fundamental underlying assumptions of the rational model. The three assumptions are listed in Table 1.0 below:

Table 2.1: Assumptions underlying the Rational Model

Assumption	Explanations
1. Information and Uncertainty	The decision-maker is assumed to possess all information required to select the best available alternative. The decision-maker is also assumed to be aware of all alternatives and their corresponding outcomes.
2. Managerial Abilities	The rational model assumes that the decision-maker is an all-knowing individual with the intellectual capability to appraise alternatives and select the best optimum solution.

3. Preferences and Values	The rational model assumes that decision-makers within an organisation possess the same preferences and values and operate under the same rule designed to guide the decision-making process within the organisation.
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Source: Jones (2013)

Commenting on the importance of the rational decision-making model, Khatri and Ng (2000) stated rational analysis is an appropriate and essential technique in strategy making, which even strong critics of strategic rationality, such as Mintzberg (1994) and Khatri and Ng (2000) alluded to.

This issue could be applicable to BID managers, as they are economic agents representing the board's interest and social agents focusing on the social aspects of the location. The conditional application of the rational model propelled Heracleous (1994) to assert that applying the rational decision-making model is sub-optimal, as it can only be used for relatively simple problems with specific, agreed, and clear objectives and known cause-effect relations. Simon (1979) proposed satisficing, where satisfactory rather than optimal solutions can be attained in a more realistic environment.

BID organisations are in the spotlight, and there is a need to evaluate the complexity of the BID operation and the time pressure involved. The increasing interconnectivity of the global environment has increased the complexity of the business climate, and the economic or social problems facing any business entity, including BIDs, are growing complexity. This complexity is even stiffer in the operations of BIDs due to their varying mandate from stakeholders. For instance, they have specific objectives to fulfil and are accountable to the board for those objectives, which are often economical. On the other hand, they have social obligations to the

community at large. It is noteworthy that the economic obligations and social obligations might not sometimes align, thereby increasing the complexity level in their operations.

The issue of time pressure is not clear-cut, and it is dependent on the circumstances and the issue at stake. For instance, the increasing rate of terrorism in various places globally has put the BID managers on their toes to offer the necessary security. Similarly, the wave of economic shocks with snowballing effects has equally put the BID managers on edge to maximise the board's wealth with minimal risks and costs.

2.2.2 BOUNDED RATIONAL MODEL

The bounded rational model emanated from the underlying behavioural assumption of bounded rationality, emphasising that decision-makers have cognitive limitations (Simon, 1959). Historically, Simon (1947) is among the foremost critics, pointing out the rational model's weakness propounded by neo-classical economists in the early nineteenth century. Simon (1957) argued that the underlying philosophy of the rational model is vague and lacks consensus. However, he admitted that human behaviour could be rational but could be limited by the inability of a human to process a large volume of information at the time and other external factors. Hollnagel (2007) supports this view by arguing that decision outcomes do not often represent the best decisions available to decision-makers.

The neo-classical school of thought presents humans as "Economic Man" whose objective maximises utility through rational behaviour. The underlying assumption of the Economic Man theory application in decision-making is that the decision-maker is equipped with adequate information about the alternatives and possible outcomes of the decision-making process. Simon (1947) replaced the idea of the 'Economic Man' with what he called the 'Administrative Man.' Unlike the 'Economic Man,' whose objective is to optimise decision outcomes by minimising the inputs, the "Administrative Man" satisfice his options. By

satisficing, decision-makers pursue the optimum solution in the sequential decision-making process when a satisfactory alternative is obtained.

Apart from the difficulty experienced in applying the rational model due to limited available information, Simon (1979, 1959) asserted that decision-makers cannot process all subjective cognitive information even when they have all the pertinent information. The bounded rational model allows enough room not to know decision parameters (Rahman & De Feis, 2009).

The bounded-rational model seeks to replace the classical model with a model that would describe decisions that could be made or probably made when the decision-makers lack a general and constituent utility function to compare heterogeneous alternatives (Simon, 1979).

While the decision-makers do not seek outcome maximisation in the model, the establishment of satisfactory outcomes is considered acceptable. Similarly, abstract organisational goals can be collapsed into more tangible sub-goals to enable feasible decision-making for bounded rational decision-makers (Rahman & De Feis, 2009).

Furthermore, the decision-making task can be shared among specialists with knowledge within their specific area of expertise, thereby resolving some challenges faced by decision-maker, who is an expert in many different areas. Instead, the coordination of specialist work can resolve situations where individual managers cannot make a good decision. In their framework, Rahman & De Feis (2009) posit that the bounded rational model is suitable for high time pressure and low complexity. Therefore, it is essential to note that despite being managed by professionals with different specialities, BID organisations are an assemblage of actors and stakeholders (Ward and Cook, 2010) with other interests, which makes the BID environment complex and often requires decisions to be completed within a short period (Schlesinger et al., 2015). The randomness about BID's complexity and high time pressure makes applying either rational or bounded rational model difficult to the BID decision environment (Mintz and DeRouen Jr., 2010; Schlesinger et al., 2015).

2.2.3 ORGANISED ANARCHY- THE GARBAGE CAN MODEL

Cohen et al. (1972) described organisations as organised anarchies characterised by inconsistent and ill-defined preferences, complex processes, and fluid participation of members of the organisation. Furthermore, Cohen and his colleagues argued that applying rational models in any form would not provide an efficient solution in such an environment because of decisions made. Cohen et al. (1972) proposed an extreme model in the decision-making continuum termed Garbage Can. Unlike other models, the Garbage can consider the “aggregate flow of people, problems, and solutions through the organisational network” (Padgett, 1980, p.583).

The Garbage can model views the decision-making process in an organisation as a combination of complex problems and solutions created by members of the organisation to create a choice they can select from as a solution to the organisation’s problem. Decisions are made in the can through the interaction of the following factors: solutions, problems, choice, and participants (Cohen et al., 1972).

This model usually happens in highly uncertain organisations, and such organisations are characterised by problematic preferences, fluid participation, and unclear technologies. There are ambiguous problematic preferences in each stage of the decision-making process. At the same time, unclear technology leads to an inability to determine cause-and-effect relationships because of vast random activity. On the other hand, fluid participation is the rapid participant turnover and the limited available decision time.

The garbage-can model is suitable for understanding what seemingly would have been wholly irrational behaviour. Decisions do not start with a problem in this model and end with a solution. Instead, decisions result from independent streams of organisational events that flow together by chance (Cohen et al., 1972; Etzioni, 1989; March, 1982). The model’s underlying chance interaction stems from recognising an ill-defined, anarchic and inconsistent business

environment where participants have free entrance and exit (Rahman & De Feis, 2009). There is a highly dynamic environment and a need to make decisions and act on such decisions within a limited period.

Amit & Schoemaker (1993) noted that that uncertainty, conflict, and complexity could lead managers to make discretionary and imperfect decisions to develop and deploy selected resources and capabilities for personal gains outside the scope of their organisations' goals. Thus, despite the garbage-can model effectively accounting for complexity, the decision made under this model can be sub-optimal. Under the Rahman & De Feis (2009) framework, the garbage-can model is suitable for high complexity and high time pressure conditions. This model might be considered relevant to the BID organisations due to its randomness, which considers different perspectives and interests among the actors. Theodoridis and Kayas (2017) supported this view. They argued that the repetitive nature of work done by BID organisations and the need to consider the varying interests among the stakeholders make the model ideal for BID organisations. Similarly, the authors believe that the need to swiftly respond to the business needs within the business districts by BID organisations makes the model more suitable for this context.

2.2.4 INTUITIVE MODEL

The intuitive approach to decision-making arose from observations of using previous experiences and insight as tools guiding decision-makers, particularly at the top level of most organisations (Dunn et al., 2010). The influence of behavioural factors such as emotions, creativity, insight, and intuition bring the need to understand the influence of these behavioural factors on the decision-making capability of decision-makers (Glockner & Wittman, 2010). According to a strand of literature, such as Elbanna (2006) and Ashkanasy & Sinclair (2005), the concept of 'gut feeling' as an underlying factor for the model links the decision-makers feeling on the present decision problems to the experience gathered on similar issues in the past

(Ashkanasy & Sinclair, 2005). Relating previous experiences to similar circumstances helps decision-makers develop patterns or cues used in the decision-making process (Dane & Pratt, 2007). However, this could affect the decision as intuition produces the decision-makers' subconscious feelings (Myers, 2002).

This approach is often adopted in uncertain situations and contexts whereby the rational decision-making model is unsuitable for rapid decision-making. Such contexts include situations where the decision problems are poorly defined or structured, time is of the utmost importance, and uncertainty due to lack of adequate information or incomplete information (Elbanna, 2006; Gigerenzer, 2015). As stated above, the intuitive model is applicable in dynamic environments whereby decisions are made based on the decision-makers experience in similar circumstances and tasks that are usually repetitive. While these criteria are appropriate in this context, since most of the decisions made in BID organisations are financial-related, the BID committee and the BID boards make the decisions. There the intuitive model of decision-making would not be helpful in BID organisations.

2.3 THE NATURE OF THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESSING

2.3.1 INCREMENTALISM

The incremental process partitions the decision-making process sequentially into smaller steps, with the steps occurring in three phases: identification, development, and selection (Hermann, 2015). Specifically, the incremental model limits complex decisions to various simple decisions. One noticeable feature of the incremental model is that decision-makers are not fully rational as they consider limited alternatives during each step. Rahman & De Feis (2009) argued that implementing various simple decisions seems more conceivable when decision-makers are confronted with unpredictable implementation path of a complex decision. It is noteworthy that incrementalism is divided into two categories. This first one is disjointed incrementalism (Braybrooke & Lindblom, 1963) and advocate managers are muddling through

decision-making (Abma et al., 1959). The second one is logical incrementalism (Abma et al., 1959) which postulated that managers muddle through with a purpose (Wrapp, 1984). The models are suitable for varying policymaking domains, ranging from incremental government politics to business organisations' strategic decision-making (Rahman & De Feis, 2009).

The logical incrementalism model occurs when there is a known expected goal, but the path is not determined a priori due to a lack of facts (Wrapp, 1984). This seems to fit the BID managers' scenario since they are aware of the expected goal: maximise the return of the board and satisfy the social goal of their location, although they do not know from the beginning the path to navigate in achieving this goal. This corroborates Rajagopalan & Rasheed's (1995) view, who opined that effective managers have an excellent idea of their objectives, but they lack precise ideas about their realisation. With this situation, they often intelligently adopt an experimental process that often is in a trial-and-error process to achieve their goals. The complexity involved in the decision-making path seems less dramatic when a complex decision with long-term focus is deconstructed into various short-term, simpler decisions (Rahman & De Feis, 2009).

The relevance of logical incrementalism model under a complex setting requires the collapse of the referenced decision into smaller parts. However, decisions that cannot be collapsed cannot be effectively accomplished via incremental sequenced steps. In the case of BID managers, their decisions fall into collapsible and non-collapsible, and the type of such decision would determine the suitability of the incrementalism model. Based on the Rahman & De Feis' (2009) framework, logical incrementalism is an appropriate decision-making technique when the underlying conditions have high complexity and low time pressure.

2.3.2 PHASES OF DECISION-MAKING

In real world, decision-making is not often a simple process whereby decision-makers moves from one activity to another as described in the rational model where conditions for making

decisions are perfect (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2019). Decision-making process can occur in either a logical or chaotic manner (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2019) depending on the factors affecting the process. For instance, complex decisions are characterised by factors such as: delays, feedback loops, and interruptions. In addition, strategic decision-making which is often complex in nature involves a number of dynamic processes which often include delays and acceleration, “failure cycles”, a stage in which decision-makers revert to the previous stage when there is agreeable solutions, “comprehension cycles”, a stage in which the decision-makers understand the complicated problem they are trying to solve (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2019).

To understand the phases of decision-making in organisations, Mintzberg, Raisinghani, & Theoret (1976), examined decision-making process in 25 Canadian organisations, using the decisions as the unit of study, found that there are three phases in organisational decision-making: ‘identification’, ‘development’ and ‘selection’ (p. 252). Identification consists of problem ‘recognition’ and ‘diagnosis’, while development, the longest phase, comprises ‘search’, the exploration of existing solutions, and ‘design’, designing new or adapting existing solutions. Lastly is the selection phase, where individuals may ‘screen’, if there are many alternative options, then ‘evaluate/choose’, and finally ‘authorise’ the chosen solution. While in this model all decisions pass through these phases, they do so in differing ways, and with variations in the feedback loops, delays, and interruptions they experience. In all, Mintzberg et al. identified seven different paths a decision process could take.

Maddalena (2007), exploring the ethical decision-making among healthcare professionals in a non-profit hospital in Canada, argued that as the healthcare service delivery becomes more complex due to various reasons, healthcare professionals, particularly at the management level are faced with the daunting task of making ethical decisions. He categorised the decision-making process among these professionals into four phases: ‘assessing’, ‘planning’, ‘implementing’ and ‘evaluating’ (p.72). At the assessing phase, decision-makers engage in the

following activities: ‘state the problem’, ‘gather information’, ‘verify problem’, and ‘decide what is the best possible outcome’, while this phase according to the author is the most challenging, yet it is the most important phase of the process. The ‘planning’ phase involves listing all available options and testing each option by asking questions that will help decision-makers determine the usefulness of the options. The next phase is the implementation phase, and the decision-maker makes the final decision in this phase. At this point, the decision-maker justify the selected option as the best available option. The final phase is the evaluation phase allows the decision-maker to set out evaluative criteria that will be used to evaluate the decision outcome. Additionally, the phase involves drawing up lessons learnt as feedback into the system which might be used subsequently presenting lesson learn to colleagues and other stakeholders. Projects or events delivery planning in BID organisations can be viewed as a combination of multiple processes, which can be distinct or interrelated and requires making decisions in either in a linear or non-linear phases.

2.3 LACK OF DECISION-MAKING FRAMEWORK IN BID ORGANISATIONS

One of the issues confronting BID organisations is the decision-making process within these organisations. Decision-making is predominantly an issue among BID organisations due to where their accountability lies. For instance, Briffault (1999) argues that it is an autonomous legal entity that is unaccountable to residents of the districts, its operating jurisdiction, or its business or the constituents of the property owner. This assertion suggests that the BID organisation has the free will to make its own decision and have its decision-making mechanism. However, Briffault (1999) maintains that the accountability of a BID organisation lies with the willingness of a city government to monitor the BID regularly and act if it is working in ways that it should not. With the political impact interest of the city government, it may influence the operation of the BID organisation, and subsequently decision, through

government policy and expectation. This expected political accountability aligns with a strand of literature that argues that a BID is politically accountable, with specific measures, such as sunset and reauthorisation requirement and outside audits, instituted to ensure regular evaluation of its performance (Wolf, 2006).

While it could be argued that implementing specific measures to monitor the activities of the BID organisation, such monitoring could reduce their decision-making capacity and account for their lack of decision-making framework. Caruso & Weber (2006) and Morçöl & Zimmermann (2006) are concerned that the provision of adequate reporting by BIDs would lead to inadequate controls.

On the other hand, other studies pointed out that the government ultimately creates the BID organisations, and thus, they are considered creatures of government (Becker, 2012). With this, the government can decide the existence or termination of a BID. While this authority keeps the BID in check, it also has unintended consequences on their decision-making process. However, Meek & Hubler (2006) posited that BID organisations and traditional governments approaches are complementary, with the local governments meeting the general needs while BID organisations enable the government to meet peak service demand. While this claim might suggest that they have some decision-making power, Houston (1997) contended that BID organisations are directly accountable to businesses in the district, especially those that use the voting mechanism to select the board members. However, with the selected board members exerting substantial influence on the daily operation of the BID organisations, the BID organisations will have little or no decision-making power. More so, the voting mechanisms are often undemocratic and may not lead to accountability (Garodnick, 2000). However, many BID organisations have board members appointed by the city council, mayor, or governor in different parts of the world. In this case, the decision of the BIDs may be influenced by those appointing the board, which will give the BIDs limited or no decision-making power.

Specifically, the BIDs might just append those who appoint the board members and hinder their decision-making power and authority.

2.4 THE STAKEHOLDER INTERACTIONS IN BID ORGANISATIONS

2.4.1 DEFINITIONS OF STAKEHOLDER

The stakeholder concept is not new according to Richter and Dow (2017); it emerged in the 1960s when its first usage was recorded in an internal memorandum used at the Stanford Research Institute (SRI) to describe a group of people other than organisations' stockholders. A possible explanation for the SRI's use of the term may be attributed to the fact that most organisations' primary goals were to maximise profits for their stockholders during this era. At the same time, little or no attention is given to other individuals or groups of people whose direct or indirect participation in attaining the organisational goals is significant.

According to Donaldson (1995), the lack of a universally accepted definition of a stakeholder is dependent on the diverse opinions on what constitutes a 'stake.' Firstly, Miles (2017) asserted that the concept of stakeholder is a highly contested concept that has two levels of meaning, as suggested by Jacobs (2006). At the first level, a stakeholder is a concept that possesses a 'common core' which no other term expresses its core ideas. Furthermore, the ideological and social position of the definer determines the weight ascribed to the meaning of stakeholder (Miles, 2012, p.286). Secondly, the level of strategic dimensions attached to the use of the concept can be used to determine the depth of the definition. This could be likened to a continuum with one end describing the legal or institutional recognition of stakeholders, at the middle, are definitions in respect of the power, ability, and influence of stakeholders' impact on the survival of organisations and the end of the continuum are the definitions that are influenced by normative dimensions.

Consequently, the stakeholder has been viewed differently in various professional and academic areas, particularly management literature. The concept has been defined either

broadly or more narrowly depending on the authors' viewpoint. A stakeholder, in its broadest form according to the seminal book by Freeman (1984), is "any individual or group of individuals that can affect or is affected by attainment of objectives of an organisation" (Freeman, 1984: pp.36). However, this broad definition means that individuals or a group within or outside could claim stakes in the organisation, including customers, employees, suppliers, environmentalists, the financial community, and consumer advocates. Some authors consider this definition too broad in identifying stakeholders due to the multiplicity of groups covered in this definition (Mitchell, Agle & Wood, 1997). The following criticisms, according to Buchholtz and Carroll (2012), equally faced other definitions offered by other authors who embraced a similar idea of a stakeholder's definition:

Lack of 'consistency in the application of the term stakeholder (Starik, 1994)

A 'muddling of theoretical bases and objectives' (Donaldson and Preston, 1995: 73)

A 'slippery creature used by authors to mean broadly different things as a basis of support of their arguments' (Weyer, 1996:35).

The term is used in a 'content free' manner resulting in a situation whereby readers derive the meaning of the concept based on what the author meant it to be, thereby resulting in 'confusion' and 'often shallow' debate among scholars (Stoney and Winstanley, 2001: 650)

Expanding the broad definition by Freeman (1984), Jepsen and Eskerod (2013) defined stakeholders in a project as "individuals, groups, or entities represented by individuals who can affect or who can be affected by the project process or the project outcomes." Similarly, Edum-Fotwe and Price (2009) defined a stakeholder as "individuals or groups who are directly and indirectly involved in the selected scales and beyond and whose lives, environment or business are affected by the three spatial scales and beyond the adopted constructs."

This study will adopt Freeman (1984) definition of stakeholder as any individual or group of individuals that can affect or is affected by the operations of BID organisations within their

city or town centre. While residents and non-levy paying stakeholders do not participate in BID organisations' decision-making process, their views and opinions are sought on projects and events implementation by BID managers and sometimes incorporated these opinions and views in their recommendations to the BID boards.

2.4.2 CLASSIFICATION OF STAKEHOLDERS

Despite his simple definition, Freeman (1984) admitted the oversimplification of his stakeholder view of the firm. Each stakeholder group can be decomposed, and there may be differences within each stakeholder category. Similarly, other authors have attempted to expand on the definition by creating various stakeholder classifications. For instance, attempts have been made to classify stakeholders as either internal or external (Brickson, 2007). Also, Eesley & Lenox (2006) highlighted the separation of primary and secondary stakeholders by Clarkson (1995) or those without contractual, formal, or legal ties to the organisation. Despite a lack of precise or limiting definition, legitimacy is a significant consideration in the definition of stakeholder. Freeman (1984) opined that anyone with an organisational stake is legitimate and can influence the organisation, irrespective of the manager's consideration for the stakeholder; managers should offer legitimacy to stakeholders who can impact the group even if the managers consider the demands of stakeholders as not appropriate. Freeman (1984) acknowledges the presence of a non-stakeholder and acknowledges that there are those stakeholders with suspected legitimacy. Legitimacy, alongside urgency and power, is a significant attribute in identifying stakeholders, and the presence or lack of these should influence the manager's response to the stakeholder. A review of the extant literature on stakeholders shows that stakeholders' legitimacy and identification are significant challenges for the stakeholder approach. Despite this, stakeholder theory is increasingly popular among organisational scholars and is utilised in various contexts.

2.4.3 PRIMARY STAKEHOLDERS

The primary stakeholder groups are regarded as the influencers and collaborators (Miles, 2017) without whose participation an organisation would not achieve its objective or cease to exist (De Nisco et al. 2008). Influencers are individuals or groups that can impact organisations positively or negatively and possess active strategies to execute their impact. These are the stakeholders whose interactions with an organisation are formal, contractual, or official with significant economic influence on the organisation (Clarkson, 1995). These groups include employees, customers, government, and so on.

2.4.4 SECONDARY STAKEHOLDERS

Secondary stakeholder groups are the recipients and claimants (Miles, 2017) who participate in the advancement of the organisational performance or goals that are passive and unimportant. Some stakeholders affect or influence the organisation or are affected or influenced by it but are not engaged in organisational activities essential for its survival. They can be very influential, primarily affecting reputation and public opinion, but their stake is not direct; it is representational. The special interest groups and the media are secondary stakeholders under this definition.

2.4.5 STAKEHOLDER THEORY

Although various studies have argued that the concept of stakeholder is broad, others argued that its broad definition is beneficial to both stakeholder concept and theory (Phillips et al., 2003). Stakeholder theory emerges as an opposition to the stockholder theory (Laplume et al., 2008). Despite Freeman (1984) being considered the originator of stakeholder theory, evidence abounds that there are other theoretical advancements. For instance, Koschmann (2007) argued that Donaldson & Preston (1995) and Mitchell et al. (1997) are arguably the most influential in the development of stakeholder theory. Donaldson & Preston (1995) consider stakeholder theory as comprising three different theoretical elements: descriptive, normative, and

instrumental. However, Donaldson & Preston (1995) argue for descriptive stakeholder theory, regarding the understanding of factual claims relating to the organisations' and managers' role; for instrumental stakeholder theory, regarding exploring managerial action's outcomes; normative stakeholder theory, focusing on asking managers or organisations on what they should do (Freeman et al., 2010).

Donaldson & Preston (1995) majorly focus on the normative approach, which they refer to as the epicentre of stakeholder theory, with interpretive and descriptive approaches as subordinates. Although they acknowledged the relationship between the three, each branch of the theory is distinct. However, other studies see more combinations than were acknowledged by Donaldson & Preston (1995). For instance, Butterfield et al. (2004) opine that the three approaches sometimes overlap or blend, though they viewed the descriptive stakeholder theory as the least developed. On the other hand, Mitchell et al. (1997) offered another frequently cited approach to stakeholders by focusing on stakeholder identification criteria in their theory of stakeholder salience. They highlighted the broad nature of the stakeholder concept and posited that more is required to identify the determinant of stakeholder or who warrants the manager's attention. They opined that stakeholders could be identified through three criteria: the legitimacy of the relationship, the power to influence, and the urgency of the stakeholder's claim. These criteria, in conjunction with other socially constructed stakeholder attributes, are needed for a managerial response. Similarly, they classified stakeholders as dominant, definitive, dangerous, dormant, dependent, demanding, or discretionary.

Apart from these oft-cited stakeholder-theory variations, the theory is confronted with blended or variations with existing theories to create various interpretations. The theory has been combined or quoted alongside agency theory (Ryan & Schneider, 2003), transaction cost and resource dependence theories (Mitchell et al., 1997), and theory firm (Bouckaert & Vandenhove, 1998), among others. Furthermore, the three components in Donaldson & Preston

(1995) have been explored by various authors, including Jones (1995), who developed the instrumental theory in addition to descriptive theory comprising prospect theory, resource dependence, organisational life cycles (Jawahar & McLaughlin, 2001) and normative framework application, including critical and standard good theory (Laplume et al., 2008). Similarly, stakeholder theory has been combined with social capital (Cots, 2011), utilised in revising convergent stakeholder theory (Jones & Wicks, 1999), and utilised in corporate social responsibility (Arenas, Lozano & Albareda, 2009). The ease of blending the stakeholder theories with other theories explains its popularity. Similarly, its popularity among organisational leaders is driven by its practical value.

Stakeholder management is the improvement and maintenance of relationships with stakeholders (Smudde & Courtright, 2011), with stakeholder relationships linked with organisation outcomes (Freeman, 1984) and effectiveness (Koschmann, 2007). Although various interpretations of stakeholder theory indicate that stakeholder is frequently used in management theory, it is faced with multiple criticisms. For instance, Freeman (1984) argued that minding stakeholders should galvanise a competitive advantage. However, a strand of literature has found stakeholders to be at variance with business because an organisation cannot satisfy all stakeholders (Jensen & Sandström, 2011). Similarly, the boundary conditions of stakeholder theory have been criticised.

In contrast, others are concerned with its normative components, arguing that its moral or ethical components have overtaken the strategic concerns within stakeholder management (Jensen & Sandström, 2011). Fundamentally, a significant criticism of the theory is whether it is a theory, with some management scholars arguing that it is not. For instance, Lewis (2007) does not consider it a theory in the strict sense, while Koschmann (2007) argued that no actual theoretical development was made until Donaldson & Preston (1995) came on board. Even at that, it is argued that most of the theoretical development was from other theories. Similarly,

Trevino & Weaver (1999) questioned the empirical theory, while some scholars undertook empirical work on stakeholders bypassed the theory (Nowell, 2009).

2.4.6 STAKEHOLDERS IN BID ORGANISATIONS

As most BID organisations in the United Kingdom are business-led, not-for-profit private organisations, the main decision-makers within these organisations involved in the planning, operations, and service delivery are levy-paying businesses within the business districts. Businesses are the primary stakeholders of BID organisations. Aside from levying businesses, public sector organisations such as the local council, the police, chamber of commerce, tourism agencies, retail associations, and public transport service providers are essential stakeholders. They play a significant role in most BID organisations. Other stakeholders of BID organisations include the residents, customers, tourists, social enterprise organisations. External contractors, consulting firms, and not-for-profit organisations such as ATCM (Association of Town & City Management) and TBF (The BID Foundation) are considered stakeholders. However, according to Freeman (1984), these stakeholder groups are not the main stakeholders in the management of BID organisations. Despite the criticism of BID organisations as undemocratic and non-transparent organisations (De Magalhães, 2014), it has commonly been assumed that residents, tourists, and the public apart from the businesses are the significant groups that benefit the more because of the operations of BID organisations such as cleaning, and securing high streets, industrial parks, and business districts (De Magalhães, 2014).

2.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter explores existing literature on decision-making, and the review shows the significance of decision-making in organisations. While the reviews enumerated various factors driving managerial decision-making, a vast body of literature emphasises the complexity involved in decision-making. It would even be more apparent in BID organisations

with multiple stakeholders involved, and the BID managers must ensure that their decisions consider various stakeholders. The effectiveness of the decision-making might be viewed differently among the decision-making models.

CHAPTER 3: THE RESEARCH CONTEXT

This chapter presents the BID industry in the UK as the context in which this research study is undertaken. The chapter begins by presenting a brief historical background and definitions of BIDs. The second section examines the theoretical frameworks of BIDs and looks at how they inform the nature of BIDs and their implementation in various countries. The third discusses the development of BIDs in the UK. The section also considers the factors driving the growth of BIDs operation in the UK. The fourth section analyses the nature of the English BID, by considering the method of voting for a new BID organisation, and those organisations' governance structure. Additionally, the section describes the funding source for the operation of BIDs in the UK. While the fifth section discusses the types of BID organisations existing in the UK. The final section of the describes the major activities of BID organisations within their districts. Two documents were utilised extensively for this review, BID State of the Art Review (BID Foundation, 2019) and National BID Survey (BritishBID, 2019).

3.1 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND AND DEFINITIONS OF BIDs

3.1.1 HISTORY OF BIDs

The Business Improvement District (BID) typically functions by generating levies by assessing properties within a business district. Levies generated from this evaluation are redistributed to

fund services, such as maintenance, parking, security, economic development, marketing, and special events within the business districts (Segal,2002). BIDs had a relatively humble beginning in a Toronto shopping area in the 1960s. It originated when the local retailers noted that their voluntary contributions would be insufficient to achieve their expected year-on-year revitalisation strategies (Ward, 2016). This propelled various deliberation between representatives of local businesses and local and provincial officials in adopting a self-imposed tax, which resulted in the enactment of BID-enabling legislation by the province of Ontario in 1969 (Hoyt, 2003a).

This culminated in the establishment of the world's first BID, the Bloor-Jane-Runnymede Improvement Area seven months later (Ward, 2016). The same Bloor West Village BID established in the early 1960s is still flourishing in Toronto, and currently has 83 BIDs (TABIA, 2019). The success of the Toronto BID model in the 1970s galvanised its spread across Canada. It is noteworthy that the BID is an interventionist policy of local business elites, which is borne out of the need for consistent revitalisation within commercial areas in the city, and an early signal of how states around the world would perform entrepreneurial activities in the coming years (Harvey, 1989). For instance, the Ontario province has the infrastructure for the benefit of only BIDs, and this encourages their formation (Hoyt, 2003a).

It is noteworthy that the success of Toronto's BID spreads beyond the shores of Canada; it expands internationally. For instance, the first US BID was founded in New Orleans in 1975 to provide sanitation services, extra security and capital improvements in sidewalks and pedestrian malls (Wagner, Joder & Mumphrey, 1995). It needs to be emphasised that there is a contrary assertion that the advent of BID in the US is not related to the Toronto success. Instead, it was argued that the US BID model is a consequence of the economic and social downturn. Specifically, the mass movement of Americans away from major US cities to rural areas is believed to have led to the social and economic struggles among US downtowns during

the late 1970s and 1980s (Ward, 2016). While this downturn resulted in the closure of department stores in downtowns, out-of-town malls were thriving, expanding and making downtowns redundant spaces (Anderson, Duncan & Hudson, 1983).

The case of the JC Penney store exemplifies this. During this period, the closure of various JC Penney stores across the US was a symptom of a broader transformed spatial logic of capital accumulation (Harvey, 1989). Between its inception in 1902 and towards the end of the 1970s, JC Penney stores were mostly located in downtowns of various US cities. However, the company repositioned in 1982 by emphasising that it is a traditional department store with a focus on satisfying the merchandise needs of consumers patronising shopping malls (JCPenney, 2019). Such a repositioning strategy continued during the 1980s across the US and witnessed the closure of various downtown stores, but with no significant consequences for the surrounding areas (Ward, 2007). This resulted in the creation of local conditions to galvanise the spread of BIDs across the US.

Despite the US having its distinctive downtown policies during this period, the emergence of US BIDs in some downtowns reflects the Canadian experience. While the special assessment district and the special purpose district were established in the 1960s, the US BID model is viewed as a blend of these two concepts (Hoyt, 2003a). Despite the establishment of the first US BID in the 1970s, the spread of this model to other locations in the US is slow. For instance, it took almost 15 years after the creation of the first BID before other US locations adopted it. The slow spread of BID in the US is partly due to the lack of state encouragement for the creation of BID. The legal system implies that a state legislative approval is required whenever a place intends to establish a BID. Thus, only a third of the BIDs in the US were established before 1990 (Hoyt, 2003a), while other states have put in place BID-enabling legislation, propelling the US downtowns to make up for a lost time (Ward, 2016). For instance, the

prevalence of BIDs in the US has been on the increase after 20 years of the establishment of the first BID.

There is an upsurge in consumer patronage as from the 1980s and resulted in edge- and out-of-town retail developments. This propelled some stores to relocate to the newly built shopping malls while others simply exit the market. With a reduction in the number of shops and job relocation to industrial parks at the city’s edges, staying in the centre of the city became an unattractive proposition. However, only those with limited resources to relocate remains. Although this trend is more noticeable in the US, evidence abounds that the notion of residential and retail suburbanisation is witnessed across most industrialised nations (Wrigley & Lowe, 1996). Because of the similar issue confronting their downtowns, it is unsurprising that practitioners and policymakers in various countries are seeking other solutions.

A review of the literature shows that BID has indeed transitioned from its initial role of maintenance and cleaning to a strategic concept. Nonetheless, the literature shows that the concept is still an emerging concept amongst academics (Cook, 2010). Table 3.1 provides an overview of the definitions of BIDs in previous research.

Table 3.1 Definitions of BID

Sources	Definitions
MacDonald (1996)	defines a “BID as an organisation of property owners in a commercial district who tax themselves to raise money for neighbourhood improvement”.
Houston (1997)	BIDS are “areas in central cities defined by state and local legislation in which the private sector delivers services for revitalisation beyond what the local government can be reasonably expected to provide”.

Segal (1997)	defines “BIDs as “benefit districts” with geographic boundaries where property owners utilise assessments to fund services, ranging range from district maintenance to security, parking and transportation management, urban design, business recruitment and retention, consumer marketing, regulatory advocacy and enforcement, social services, capital improvements, and visioning”.
Mitchell (1999, p. 6)	agrees to offer an “extra public service in a specific area by imposing a fee or added tax on all properties and/or businesses in the area”.
California-based ‘Civic Centre Group’ (2002)	“The Economic Development Tool for the 21st Century” which can dramatically increase commercial activity, improve property values, and provide a source of civic pride”.
City of Albany, New York (2002)	The City of Albany, New York stresses that a “BID is a public/private partnership through which a special assessment is used to finance improvements or services within a designated commercial area”.
Warner <i>et al.</i> (2002)	Describes BIDS as “quasi-public entities established to provide services and promote economic development within a designated district”.
Ashworth (2003)	BIDs are “organisations entitled to levy an additional property tax within a specified area for providing a defined range of services or carrying out specific works”.
Hogg <i>et al.</i> (2003)	BID is a “business-led response to the decline of the downtown”.
Hoyt (2003)	defines BIDs as “publicly sanctioned, yet privately directed organisations that supplement public services to improve shared, geographically defined, outdoor public spaces”.
Lloyd <i>et al.</i> (2003)	BID offers a “means of delivering limited objectives in relation to city centre renewal”.

Ratcliffe & Flanagan (2004)	BIDs are a “conspicuous demonstration of creative and collaborative thinking and action between mutual interest groups concerned with economic vitality at the local level in towns and cities”.
Unger (2016)	BIDs are “private non-profit corporations legislatively created by local government in depressed urban areas”.
Wonhyung Lee (2016)	Business improvement districts, or BIDs, are “local organisations that aim to revitalise commercial areas”.

Source: Compiled by the Author

3.1.2 EMERGENCE OF BIDs IN THE UK

Recall that there is an unresolved argument on the origin of BID in the US, with some linking it to the success story in Canada and others linking it to the necessary reaction to the social and economic downturn in the US downtowns. In the UK, the emergence of BIDs is generally considered an offshoot of the concept of town centre management (TCM). The concept of TCM is premised on the notion that places need to be actively managed (Seisdedos, Gallardon & Duarte, 2007; Symes & Steel, 2003) to guarantee sustainability (Girardet, 2006). At conception in the UK, TCM was viewed as a reaction to external factors and characterised as a holistic reaction to pressures from competitors, which entails promotion, development and management of private and public areas within the town centres, for the benefit of everyone (Wells, 1991). It is also seen as incorporating various distinct concerns of leisure, town planning, publicity departments and public health, and it is viewed as a symbiotic relationship rather than a face-off with the private sector (Guy, 1993).

The idea of introducing BIDs to the UK has been on since the early 1990s (ATCM, 1997b; Shutt et al., 1999). Specifically, the Conservative government mooted the idea of introducing BID-like policy in 1992 but jettisoned the idea (Hoyt, 2003b). However, as reported by Ward and Cook (2017), the ATCM (Association of Town and City Management) and the IDA

(International Downtown Association) jointly organised a World Congress in Coventry in 1996 where BID officials from the US highlighted similar ideas. This prompted the UK government to commission a panel from the government, ATCM and other stakeholders to explore the operations of BIDs in the US with the possibility for policy transfer. The choice of the US was not surprising considering the relationship existing between both countries, and the period signifies a period of various policy exchanges between the two countries (Hambleton, 1995). While New York was the chosen case study for providing the rationale for the establishment of BID in the UK, the choice is based on various reasons. Fundamentally, the city in the 1990s appeared to have reduced crime rate and attract investment via the public-private partnership (PPP). Specifically, some sites within the city had metamorphosed into a vital component in the political imagination on both sides (Ward, 2006).

Although the Conservative-led government supported the introduction of BID into the UK, the party was reluctant to proceed with the introduction of the mechanism, while stakeholders involved in the management of urban spaces believed that the success of the strategy in North America particularly in the US could be replicated in the UK. However, the government at the time was not ready to implement the mechanism (Ward and Cook, 2017).

The idea of UK cities and towns forming TCM partnerships started in the early 1990s, and this notion is increasingly used in the extant literature to emphasise the international spread of downtown management techniques, practices and strategies (Ward, 2006). It is important to note that both TCM partnerships and BIDs are similar in their overall objective of regenerating public spaces such as town and city centres. However, they are different in terms of the geographical boundaries they govern, their funding strategy and those who make the strategic and daily decisions. For instance, as a private, not-for-profit entity, BID organisations govern a defined area within the business districts, fund their daily operations through by collecting mandatory levy from

The voluntary nature of the TCM partnerships in an era whereby the central government is pursuing the policy of austerity means that the local councils would have to implement policy such as the public-private partnership that will provide a steady source of financing their social programs and projects in town and city centres. In the absence of the BID's tax-raising powers, the creation of TCM partnerships and inclusion of property owners and local businesses in supervising downtown revitalisation created local economic and political conditions that favour the importation of a BID from North America. Similarly, various informal exchanges are occurring between urban economic elites in both countries.

The experimentation with TCM partnership, an understudy of US BIDs and passage of the Local Government Act 2003, BID-enabling legislation, led to the creation of BIDs in England and Wales (Justice & Skelcher, 2009). With the influence of US BIDs, it has been argued that the adoption of the BID in the UK is premised on the narrow types of BID experiences in the US (Symes & Steel, 2003; Ward, 2006). It is a widely held view that the US model informs the governance design of the UK BID (Justice & Skelcher, 2009). However, the UK BID model is quite distinct from the US model, especially in the areas of political and business cultures, governmental tradition, and underlying system of property taxation. For instance, the BIDs in the US are private sector-driven initiatives, which often starts voluntarily, and the levy charged on property owners rather than the property occupiers. In the UK, the occupier pays the levy. The differences in the determination of who pays the levy between property occupiers and property owners in the US and the UK is due in part to the varying taxation system adopted in both countries. The BID levy is generated through the existing business rate system in the UK, and its complexity hinders the government from introducing a new tax system. The BID model imposes a mandatory levy on either property owners or businesses occupying properties within the business district, thereby discouraging the non-payment of level known as "free-riding" (Ward and Cook, 2017). Specifically, in the UK the property occupier is recognised by

referring to liability to non-domestic rating, the fundamental unit of the hereditament – the specified property area upon which an occupier is taxed (Blackwell, 2005). It needs to be emphasised that some argued that the BID levy is an unfair tax on occupier since the property owner gets long-term benefit through rising property prices while the occupiers only get short-term benefit from a BID. Although the occupier bore the BID rate and tax rate, the property owner may pay a proportionate tax in the case of a vacant property.

The Kingston First, established in 2005, is the first London's BID and in its third term as at 2015. Similarly, six additional BIDs are in their third term: In Midtown, Better Bankside, Team London Bridge, New West End Company, and the Heart of London BIDs Partnerships (Piccadilly and St James and Leicester Square BIDs). With term renewal serving as a vital measurement of BID's success, a report by the Future of London reveals that eight BIDs in London with renewal ballots since 2012 had enhanced approval rates and turnout. Overall, the number of BIDs has been witnessing exponential growth in the UK, from 40 BIDS in England and Wales as of February 2007 to 305 in the UK as at July 2018 (BBIDS, 2019).

3.2 ACADEMIC PERSPECTIVE ON BIDS

De Magalhães (2014) warned that despite the frequently reported successes of BIDs and the continuous spread of the concept around the world, there are “complex and contentious issues” which have resulted to varying opinions about the concept. Both the supporters and critics of BIDs in order to justify their positions have used cases of the concept mostly drawn from North America. According to the proponents, the concept is a private sector-led non-bureaucratic mechanism of regenerating declining public spaces, methods of service delivery, which makes managing urban spaces effective and efficient. On the other hand, critics who argued that BID organisations are not accountable to the public, particularly the non-property or business owners (Morcol et al., 2014) view them as undemocratic organisations. Such varied opinions

reflect substantially different theoretical perspectives. Specifically, it reflects the dichotomy between critical political economy/social constructionism and rational choice theories.

The rational choice theories – institutional rational choice, public choice, and polycentrism – fundamentally assume that individuals act in their social and economic life and make rational decisions through utility maximisation, and this benefits all those involved at the end (Scott, 2000). The theoretical rational choice framework assumes that the preferences of individuals are predetermined and universal while the normative preference of this theory is a limited governmental (external) intervention in the individual's decisions, and hence, smaller state units that are closer to decision-makers (Morcol et al., 2014). BIDs align with this definition of closer and smaller units.

Although critical theorists and social constructionists have diverse interpretations, they commonly assume that patterns and forms of individual behaviours or preferences are not universal. Rather, they are determined historically and culturally. While social constructionists seek to understand these conditions, most of them, especially critical theorists, are critical of such conditions and seek to transform them. They support governmental interventions and political acts that would assist in transforming social conditions, particularly those of the disadvantaged groups – such as the poor and the homeless - in society. This explains their likely criticisms of BIDs that are governed and created by property and business owners and tend to remove some governmental power from the democratically accountable and popularly elected local governments (Morcol et al., 2014).

On the other hand, polycentrism favours the private government, such as BIDs, and have a varying perspective compared to the metropolitan reformers who advocate for monocentric metropolitan governments. Polycentrism postulates that it is generally advantageous to have multiple decision-making centres and split the authority into metropolitan areas than having one big government. Barr (1996) opined that private governments are a fragment of a mixed

system and occasionally compete with traditional local governments at one time and offer supplementary services at other times. While Barr (1996) noted that one could not make a priori judgement about the superiority of a polycentric system over a monocentric system, a polycentric system generally has more beneficial meeting the service preferences of more homogenous populations, such as the downtown's business owners (Morcol et al., 2014). As such, BIDs and entities of such nature can be beneficial as they can fulfil the needs of their homogeneous and smaller constituencies despite being self-financing and self-governed units. However, Lloyd & Peel (2006) utilised the perspective of social constructionists to examine the TCM practices and its transition to the BID model in the UK and opined that TCM and BIDs practices should be viewed as the multiple interactions and interrelations in the public domains are constantly negotiated and re-appraised, with differentiation across locale and time. Furthermore, Lloyd & Peel (2006) observe that BIDs and TCM practices address a complex resource and governance issues linked with the wider goals of achieving urban sustainability and counteracting pressure to address the negative effects of out-migration and suburban sprawl. In addition, they argued that BIDs and TCM practices represent a wider social transformation that is happening in recent decades. Specifically, they affirmed that the two concepts are a deliberate re-articulation of state-market-civil association and new contractualism with regards to the provision of public services in defined jurisdictions. Regardless of their theoretical focus, BID researchers and theorists agreed that BIDs impede the traditional concepts of private and public, and governmental and non-governmental. Specifically, BIDs are viewed as a space occupier between private and public realms while the terms, such as private governments, PPPs, and quasi-governmental entities, signify this in-between space (Morcol et al., 2014). While all the stated theories can be used to explain BIDs, there are various theories relating to urbanisation that fits perfectly into the concept of BID,

and this includes urban neoliberalism, policy transfer in urban management and urban network governance.

3.2.1 URBAN NEOLIBERALISATION

The advent of neoliberalism as the art of governance in contemporary cities is dated back to 1980s, and it is linked with the conservative governments' ascendance to power in both the UK and the US to pursue strategic economic development based on the traditional free-market ideas (Grossman, 2016). Since then, urban neoliberalism has deepened and expanded across the globe through the privatisation of public services, increasing emphasis on turning local government into entrepreneurs, and the commodifying urban space. This has resulted in a variety of politico-economic regimes globally through variegation and hybridisation processes. Although there is a new embrace of neoliberalism across UK and US cities (Weber, 2002), it is centred on a new governance model: regulations, rules, policies, and programmes to revive cities as capital accumulation sites (Brenner, & Theodore, 2002b; Ward, 2000). This governance aims to reinforce cities socially and physically into entrepreneurship and exhibits three prominent features: transfer of government functions to quasi-state and non-state bodies (Jessop, 1998); policy supplant redistributive for competitive pursuits (Ward, 2000), and policy provides an unparalleled justification (Jessop, 1998). While these formations in varying settings are different things, they are formed via different social hierarchies, economic bases, institutional frameworks, and political cultures to create varying rules, policies, regulations, and capitals privileges (Wendt, 2017). At the national levels, there are cities that are trapped in similar economic circumstances and have the desire to restructure. However, in the evolving global places, there is a mixture of wildly differing neoliberal governance that rarely resembles each other (Wilson, 2004).

While some studies have explored neoliberal governance in the UK and US cities, the result reveals its complexity and contingent characteristics. Some of these studies, taking some common regulatory formations as its beginning – its analysis unit is the neoliberal urban project – investigates the historical fluid and specific nature of their formation (Larner, 2000). These studies place this governance in the early 1980s, the era of the local and global economic downturn (Larner, 2000). In this case, the two forces of capitalism and globalisation are explored. First, a new capitalist regime from a ruptured 1970s local and global economy had new spatial and social requirements for cities' enactment. The evolving economic sphere implies the transformation of cities' fabric. Second, the idea of globalisation – propelled various cities to enhance their politics of resource attraction and competitiveness (Grossman, 2016). The advent of globalisation implies that cities require adjustment in the way they are governed. However, the character of neoliberal governance has extensively been utilised as a contrasting analysis unit, the case-specific city (MacLeod, 2002). A central theme in this city-specific case is the prerequisite of this negotiation of local cultures of governance while a vital need for this governance is centred: human consent and acceptance (Ward, 2003). The pursuance of normalcy is continuous with disintegrating endlessly produced outcomes, such as homelessness, poverty, racial tensions, and economic hardship. With the tough and brusque talk, ideologies that are closer to the marketisation ideals seek to reduce these tensions (Weaver, 2018). For instance, Wilson & Wouters (2003) highlighted the possible economic prosperity from supporting and noting the benefits of calling out the poor. Neoliberal governance is anything, but a brute political and economic imposition and it is sensitised to understanding and norms that belie its dogmatic and uncompromising stereotype.

Similarly, a strand of recent studies deepens cultural analysis to explore this governance type. The focus is on the case-specific meanings and symbols within discourse than normalise policies (Wilson & Wouters, 2003). This study connects neoliberal politics with a localised

political representation. The core of it is the relentlessly produced social constructions, such as urban obsolescence, that people and sites for neoliberal reorganises. It is asserted that spaces and people must be symbolically readied before they can be accepted as restricting objects (Wilson, 2004). Such symbolised regimes are considered vital political terrains that are firmly entrenched in various things: utilisation of common prejudices and understandings, making sense and identity of places, use of language and differentiating threatening and villainous? Forces (Wilson, 2004). The mechanism of governing urban spaces through the collaboration of private and public organisations are increasingly becoming popular (Tickell & Peck 2003) and emphasises urban space as an essential platform and outcome of the neoliberal governance operation. That is, it is a primitive essence scaled, with coded meanings, and physically structured in the neoliberal political service (Wilson, 2004). Neoliberal governance considers space as the privileged instrument to fill it with legitimacy, operational support, and logic space cushions actual projects as organised spatial pathways (Brenner & Theodore, 2002c).

BIDs are frequently viewed as a segment of the debates on the urban-governance reconfiguration in Europe and North America. The studies on BIDs focus on the theoretical perspectives, notably network governance theory (Morçöl & Zimmermann, 2006) and political economy (Eick, 2008; Ward, 2006). However, many of these analyses emphasise neoliberal urbanisation, where BIDs seem symbolic of the multifarious process of local and national institutional change, as obtain by adopting neoliberal practices and principles at the urban scale, such as the PPP and entrepreneurship (Brenner & Theodore, 2002a; Harvey, 1989). Similarly, BIDs symbolise the “transnational repertoire of neoliberal strategies” (Brenner, Peck & Theodore, 2010) through their propagation through international professional networks (Hoyt, 2006; McCann & Ward, 2010), and this illustrates the propagation of neo-liberalised projects within evolving institutional regimes and new inter-locality policy relays (Brenner et al., 2010). With the symbolisation of neoliberal policies, BIDs are criticised for their profit-oriented

redevelopment concept via the creation of commodified spaces of elite consumption, collateral exclusionary process, and the intensified surveillance of public spaces (Töpfer, Eick & Sambale, 2007).

The discussion of BID organisations has largely focused on the social and economic developments they provide to their host communities. However, emerging studies related to BID policy from a critical standpoint has focused on the relationship between BID policy and gentrification of communities. Gentrification according to Hwang and Lin (2016, p.10) is the “process in which neighbourhoods with low socioeconomic status (SES) experience increased investment and an influx of new residents of higher socioeconomic status (SES)”. Research on gentrification shows that low-income residents are displaced from their communities opening the door for wealthier citizens to regenerate and letting out the refurbished apartments and shops at a higher rate (Hwang and Lin, 2016). Elmedni et al.(2018) study raised an important question on whether BID is a policy for economic development or a tool for gentrification of poor communities. The authors argued that the BID is a transformative tool for the revitalisation of neighbourhoods but has a long-term unintended impact such as increase in real estate value in adjacent areas, high-income resident takeover of the BID area. In addition, several studies that have examined the impact of the city-wide urban regeneration projects implemented in Barcelona and Bilbao which includes the refurbishment of museums (Museu d’Art Contemporani de Barcelona (MACBA) and Guggenheim Bilbao Museoa) in both cities showed that the implementation of the BID policy in Spain resulted to the gentrification of urban areas in both cities (Rodríguez et al., 2015; Sequera and Janoschka, 2015). The figure 1, below shows the process of neighbourhood transformation using BID policy and the different levels of impact of the policy. A possible explanation from Elmedni et al. (2018) framework is that while BID serves as a transformative tool for regenerating places, its long-term and lasting impacts are actually the gentrification of the areas around the business districts

resulting to expulsion of low-income residents, business owners from the area (Elmedni et al.,2018). See figure 1 below showing Elmedni et al. (2018) framework of BID as a transformative tool and its corresponding impacts.

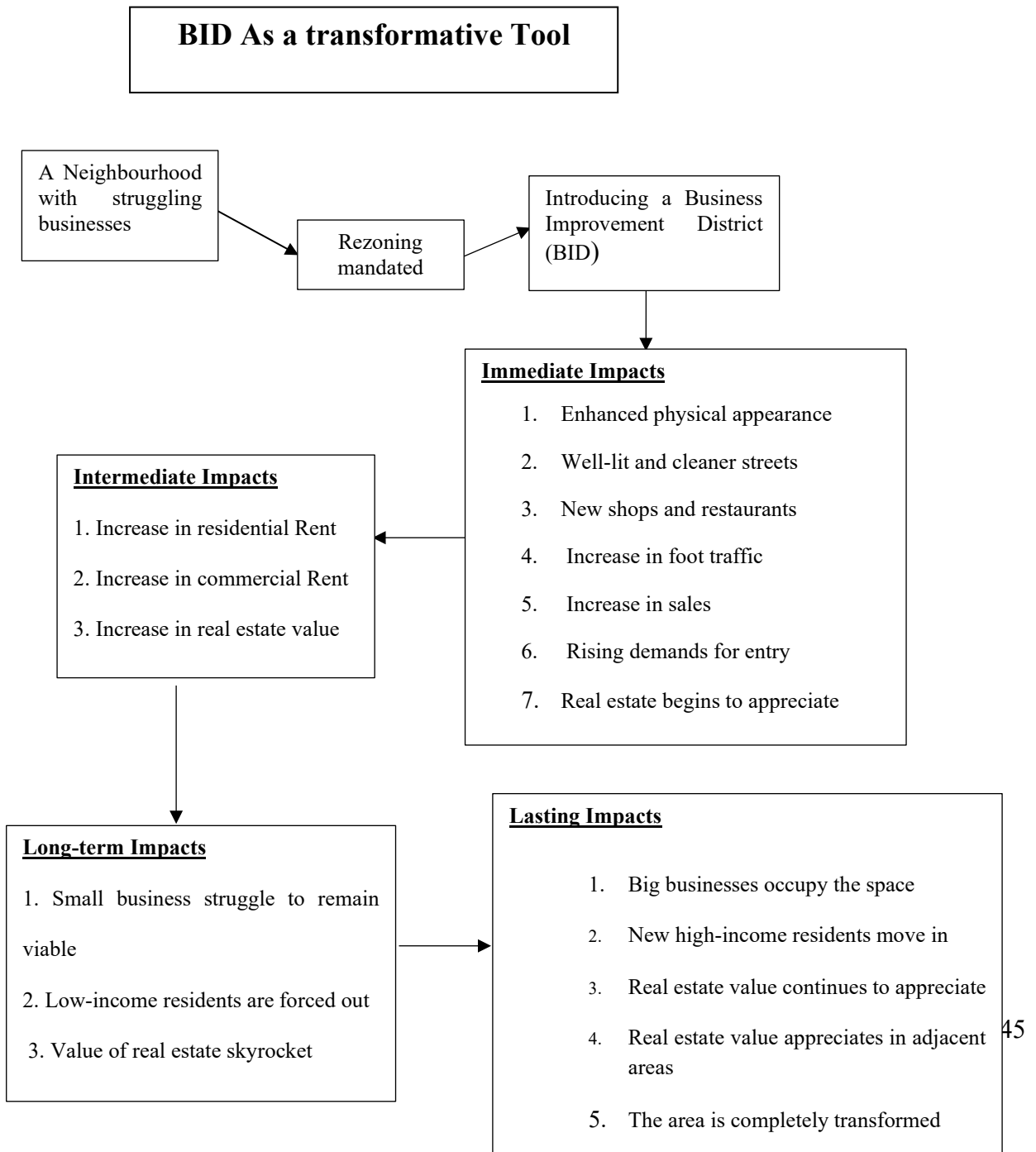


Figure 1: Impact of BIDs on Neighbourhood. Source (Elmedni et al.,2018)

3.2.2 URBAN NETWORK GOVERNANCE

Urban governance network according to Morcol and Wolf (2010) is a governance strategy adopted by governments as a strategy for managing public spaces together with various stakeholders such as private and non-profit organisations Morcol and Wolf (2010). The urban network is increasingly becoming part of public policy. Apart from state and market, networks of interdependent actors have become the third form of guiding an organisation and can be viewed as a response to a fragmented and more complex society (Jessop, 1997 cited in Powell, 2003). Similarly, the ‘network society’ articulated by Castells (1996) has become a new mantra for planning (Mandelbaum & Albrechts, 2005). Entrepreneurial governance forms, galvanised by the enhanced rivalry between cities in the globalised network society (Le Galès, 2002) have pushed some local governments into some form of elitist policy networks with private actors to improve development and growth (Nyseth, 2008). This has led to the emergence of elitist networks and public-private partnerships (PPPs) as a chosen form of institutional arrangement (Goodwin & Painter, 1997), and propelled coalitions and networks as drivers with power to act (Sehested, 2004).

On the other hand, the reactive role of public planning authorities has aggravated this tendency in the UK, as they have transferred and saddled the private actors with the planning initiative. With the market serving as a regulator and giving private entrepreneurs the planning

responsibility at the project level, this has resulted in the planning fragmentation and to entrepreneurial governance forms where private developers are empowered to execute their projects without the influence of politics (Rosnes, 2005). A major consequence of this approach is that lay citizen and the third party are normally uninformed before the end of negotiation or until the final plan proposal hearing (Rosnes, 2005). The decline and absence of transparency are a challenge to open democratic participation. However, the use of land in urban areas is often a debatable issue, and there is a lack of proper channel for public opposition to urban development. But the utilisation of networks is not limited to this possible outcome. It needs to be emphasised that networks are not necessarily an elitist concept and need not operate to protect private capital.

Alternatively, there is an existence of more democratic network models, and this has scholars in collaborative and communicative planning to advocate for collaborative network models, which will foster the participation of citizens, various business organisations, administrative staff, interest groups, and stakeholders (Innes & Booher, 2004). While such participation approaches exemplify the notion of democratic network governance, the consequences of network governance might be dependent on the network type provide access to the planning process, its performance regarding democratic norms and rules, and its link to the representative democratic institutions (Nyseth, 2008). While a network governance framework can be used to explain BIDs, the traditional boundaries between the domain of policymaking and practice of public administration are increasingly blurred (Kettl, 2015).

Elliott & Salamon (2002) enumerated the crucial component of the public administration landscape by asserting that the practice has evolved beyond the public-agency borders and have embraced a wider variety of third parties that are hugely involved in the public business management and implementation. In essence, Kettl (2015) and Elliott & Salamon (2002) canvassed for a new governance framework for this phenomenon while Morçöl & Wolf (2010)

argued that BIDs are the resultant effect of the expanded scope of public administration problems. They further asserted that having a good understanding of the roles of BIDs and their links in urban areas requires the use of a governance framework. Morçöl & Wolf (2010) opined that the framework of Elliott & Salamon (2002) provided essential conceptual tools to explore BIDs. The framework has five major concepts: the analysis unit should be tools and not the agency or program; the relationship between organisations and participating agencies should be viewed as networked, rather than hierarchical; there should be recognition of the blending of private and public spheres; the bases of management philosophy should be persuasion and recognition, rather than control and command; the managers require a new set of enablement skills. The framework suggests that the new governance presented three crucial challenges to public administration: accountability, management, and legitimacy challenges (Morçöl & Wolf, 2010).

It needs to be emphasised that BIDs play a huge role in blurring the lines between the public and private spheres, with the BIDs serving as examples of the blend of the two spheres. Specifically, BIDs management organisations are essential organisations of business interests, such as business associations and chambers of commerce. They are offered a different level of government powers in varying states, or they exert such powers even when they lack such authority (Morçöl & Wolf, 2010). The idea of public and private spheres gets more obscured in some states in the US as BID management organisations can leverage huge public finance to fund their district projects. For instance, BIDs in Georgia, USA, carry out feasibility studies for district projects and use these tools to leverage local governed and/or large state funds for their planned district projects and this has seen some BID managers in this state boasting that they attract public funds at ridiculous rates using this method (Morçöl & Zimmermann, 2017). However, there is variation in the conceptualisation of BIDs, and this often resulted in the varied legally defined organisational forms of BIDs while their legal and de factor powers often

create difficulty in finding a simple theoretical lens to capture the BID phenomenon in its entirety (Morçöl & Wolf, 2010). A review of extant literature shows that BIDs are characterised across four different concepts: tools for government policies, PPPs, private governments, and quasi-government entities. While each of this description can contribute to capturing some elements of the BIDs, Morçöl & Wolf (2010) argue that BIDs as actors in urban governance network is their best characterisation. The four characterisations of BIDs have seen a huge body of literature exploring these characterisations across these four themes. For instance, Grossman (2008) defines BIDs as PPP, and this conceptual characterisation is frequently used in various studies despite its vague content. While Lowndes & Skelcher (1998) noted that the term is utilised for the identification of governance modes that entail private and non-profit organisations at the local level, this suggests that they are not partnerships, but their management organisations may be viewed as partners in the network governance mode at the local level. However, the partnership conceptualisation misses the power role in urban governance networks (Morçöl & Wolf, 2010).

On the other hand, another strand of literature explored BIDs as government-policy tools (Morçöl & Wolf, 2010). BIDs are considered instruments for achieving the broad goals of public policy, such as the promotion of general municipalities' welfare or facilitation of joint production and provision of the local public good of place (Justice & Goldsmith, 2008). This characterisation applies the policy tool concept in the new governance framework of Elliott & Salamon (2002). In the framework, policy tools are assumed to be unit of analysis and not programs or agencies. However, Morçöl & Wolf (2010) noted the limiting and somewhat misleading nature of policy tools metaphor as it creates tool user's image and as such, presents a one-way power relation between the BID and the government authority. However, the relationship between the BID and the government is much more complex than it is being presented by this image. In contrast to the government tool image presented by this assertion,

business-property representatives, and not local governments, in most cases, begin the BID creation process, with the goal of promoting their own commercial interest, which may align with the economic development objectives of local governments (Morçöl & Wolf, 2010). Briffault (1999) noted that a private sector proposal often influences the direction of the local government. Similarly, the representatives of private interest equally occupy BID boards, and BID managers, in conjunction with these boards, exercise considerable authority in their operations (Morçöl & Zimmermann, 2008).

Furthermore, another strand of literature conceptualises BIDs as quasi-government entities/authorities (Levine & Ross, 2006), and this is a variation of the policy tool metaphor. However, quasi-government authorities are defined as organisations that are saddled with the responsibility of implementing at least a public policy and funded publicly without an existing hierarchical relationship with a parent department or minister (Bertelli, 2005). However, this conceptualisation is not applicable to BIDs as they are not hierarchical relationships with governments while their funding mainly comes from self-assessment and not the government, although some of them leverage on government funds and its resources (Morçöl & Zimmermann, 2008).

In addition, BIDs are also seen as a private government (Justice and Goldsmith, 2006; Morçöl & Wolf, 2010; Unger, 2016). This view is premised on private organisations, in most cases, that represent commercial interest, such as chambers of commerce, are the forefront in the creations of BIDs and sometimes manage them (Morçöl & Zimmermann, 2008). Similarly, they are viewed as a private government because BID boards and managers utilise government authorities, and this is characterised as components of a parallel state (Mallett, 1993) or private governments (Lavery, 1995). While private interests have an impact in the establishment and operations of BIDs, Morçöl & Wolf (2010) argued that the concept of private government is an exaggeration, as it ignores their interdependencies with both local and state governments.

Furthermore, Morçöl & Wolf (2010) emphasised that BIDs are better conceptualised as urban governance network actors, with Kickert, Klijn & Koppenjan (1997) considering the actor metaphor as an essential conceptual tool of network governance theorists. It is argued that governments are not the only determinants of public purposes in governance processes; instead, other actors like the private and non-profit organisations are involved in the determination of public policy goals and shape collective action (Kettl, 2015; Milward & Provan, 2000), and this reflects the action of BIDs.

3.2.3 POLICY TRANSFER IN URBAN MANAGEMENT

While every country assumes its problems are unique, policymakers in countries, cities and regional government can learn from the responses of their counterparts elsewhere (Rose, 1991). Such a process of learning has been on the rise with rapid growth in communication since the Second World War, and this process underlies the theory of policy transfer. Policy transfer theories (Mossberger & Wolman, 2003; Stone, 2001) highlight the significance of understanding the suitable exporting and importing conditions when exploring the transfer potential of specified programmes and policies (Peel & Lloyd, 2005). While the idea of policy transfer helps in the spread of the concept of BID around the globe various studies have emphasise the problems that may be faced when programmes and policies are uncritically transferred across domains. It is argued that political and economic contextual circumstances must be accounted for when considering the transfer of policy instruments and mechanisms (Daßler & Parker, 2004; Pemberton et al., 2015). Similarly, Wolman & Page (2000) emphasises the policy transfer in urban regeneration policymaking and enumerates the benefits of learning from others' experience. Specifically, they highlighted the opportunities to reduce mistakes and realise efficiency gains regarding avoiding the starting policy formation from scratch. In addition, they emphasise the benefits of accessing fresh ideas. However, they opined

that the specific needs of individual's localities and the full understanding of contexts, conditions and expected outcomes are vital in the implementation of a successful policy. It shows that the collection, assessment, and evaluation of the so-called policy successes need a deepening understanding of the evaluated contextual conditions (Peel & Lloyd, 2005).

Although US BIDs are attracting attention globally due to the success of Grand Central BID in New York and the Centre City BID in Philadelphia (Stein et al., 2017), it needs to be emphasised that the US BIDs are not actually the only existing urban policies to gain traction among practitioners, policymakers, and advocates (Cook, 2008). Specifically, some urban policies are viewed as 'policy meccas' that practitioners and policymakers continue to discuss, critique and considering their emulation (Cook, 2008). In the past three decades, there are notable examples and include Baltimore for its Harborplace redevelopment, New York for its zero-tolerance on strategic policies, Bilbao for the Guggenheim Museum redevelopment, and Barcelona for its public spaces, urban management, and design of the 1992 Olympic Games (see Monclús, 2003, Dixon & Maher, 2005; Ward, 2006; Newburn & Jones, 2007). Their inclusion in good-practice regeneration guides and their discussion during international conferences and study tours have resulted in these places, their policies and their seeming successes have been converted into various ready-made policy remedies (Peck & Theodore, 2001).

A strand of studies on policy transfer has shown that UK policymakers have often been inspired by the US in the past three decades, especially in areas of welfare reform and urban policy. Apart from BIDs, other notable policies with US origin include the Urban Development Grant (Wolman, 1992), and the Working Families' Tax Credit and the New Deal 'welfare-to-work programme (Peck & Theodore, 2001). The strong personal political relations, shared ideology and common language (Dolowitz, Greenwold, & Marsh, 1999) propel these policy transfers. On the other hand, Peck & Theodore (2001) opined that the New Labour government of the

UK (1996-2008) focused on fast policy transfer as it is viewed as offering quick interventions to domestic social and economic problems. Imitating perceived successful policy solutions that address almost the same problems offers policy prescriptions that do not include costly policy formation, time-consuming and the policy's rolling-out that are not tested (Cook, 2008). Furthermore, studying policy elsewhere is promoted by the general availability of reports, good-practice guides, benchmarking studies and website providing a digestible description of policy programmes and their successes (McCann, 2004, 2008; Wolman & Page, 2000, 2002). According to Ward and Cook (2010), disembedding and re-embedding materials, such as reports, guides, benchmarking, and policy programmes from other nations help in the formation of BID policy. However, policymakers would have to pay attention to local needs when these materials. A typical example is the implementation of BID in the UK. Although the idea was modelled after the East Coast BID models, the funding mechanism in terms of the tax, levy payers and criteria for determining the levy differs. This is contrary to Germany, Sweden, and South Africa, where the US model was completely implemented.

The account of various empirical studies highlights the rationale, actors, mechanisms, and institutions behind policy mobilisation (see, e.g. Dolowitz & Marsh, 2000; Evans, 2017; Evans & Davies, 1999; Stone, 2004). However, these accounts tend to underplay the processes of disembedded and re-embedded of policies into new social, political, and economic contexts (Peck & Theodore, 2001). There is also little consideration for the multifaceted ways of policy interpretation and (re)presentation as both appropriate and successful (Cook, 2008). After all, there is rarely policy transfer if such policy is deemed inappropriate or unsuccessful. Therefore, fully understanding BIDs' policy transfer requires a conceptual framework, which focuses on the process of policy transfer and the social construction of appropriateness and success (Cook, 2008).

Cook (2008) outlined a conceptual framework for this, which is premised on the ontological understanding that policy transfer entails the contingent and processual disembedding, mobilisation and re-embedding of policies. Similarly, policy transfer is due to the discontentment with the existing domestic policies, and it is attained via persuasion, augmentation, and negotiation. In his framework Cook (2008) emphasises the following six factors with overlapping aspects in need of conceptual and empirical attention:

1. The construction and identification of domestic policy problems are essential. With policy transfer often propelled by existing policy discontent, attention must be paid to the mechanisms and processes through which domestic policy problems are identified, articulated, constructed, and fed into the policy process.
2. The strategic selection of policies and the ways they are interpreted as appropriate and successful are essential. In this context, four components need attention. One, the methods and criteria of strategically selecting existing policies and places. Two, the policy disembedding – material and discursive ways in which a policy is stripped of its territorial economic, social, and political contexts and link into its methodological or administrative essence or a portable model (Peck & Theodore, 2001). Three, the conception and presentation of the model as already successful in the locality of the donor, and, consequently, soon-to-be-successful in the destination of the recipient. Four, the conception and presentation of the model as an appropriate means to fix the domestic policy problem and appropriate to the recipient's economic, social, and cultural context.
3. The ways the models are re-embedded and reshaped in, the new context is essential. In this context, the components must be addressed. One, how the model, in conjunction with its previous and inherent successes, is conceived and presented as being transferable. That is, how it will successfully work in the recipient's economic, political, and social context. Two, the way the model is purposely adjusted to solve the perceived problems, meet the needs of society and work within the existing governance strategies and institutions in the locality of the recipient. Three, the way the model is reshaped and reconstituted via its new conceptual economic, social, and political relations following its roll-out and the way the roll-out policy, which in turn, reconstitutes economic, political, and social context

4. Similarly, how, and why the actual current policies are digressively utilised as a legitimisation tool is crucial. It is noteworthy that attention must be paid to how policymakers digressively utilise policies and places elsewhere, to legitimise and mobilise support for these policy prescriptions and as part of subsequent policy justification. In this context, attention is required on the sources of statistics and narratives, and the dissemination strategies, recycling, and consumption of these associative discourses.
5. The institutions and actors involved in the process of policy transfer and their roles within this requires evaluation. The non-state actors, core state and institutions involved in the transfer at various scales and places need to be identified. Similarly, the contingent power relations between the institutions and actors, scales and places involved at various stages need to be unravelled.
6. The exclusion and silences within the process of policy transfer must be enumerated. Some institutions and actors, specific places, existing practices and policies, and evaluation while strategically involving re-embedding methods in policy transfers. Similarly, others are not included in the process. Given this, attention must be paid to the exclusions and silences from the process. Specifically, which existing practices and policies, places, institutions and actors, and evaluation and re-embedding methods excluded, overlooked, or silenced.

3.3 UK BID Development

BIDs began operations in the U.K. in 2005 after the enactment of the BID legislation the previous year. Over the next few years, the number of newly created BID organisations fluctuated, while the number of existing BIDs continues to increase due to the success rate of renewal by the BIDs after their first term. In 2014, several BIDs were established across the U.K. and, even a record number were formed in 2016. This indicates the acceptance of BIDs as the solution to the issue of funding previously experienced in town centre management schemes whose funding strategy was unsustainable to support the operations of the T.C.M. partnerships. The fluctuation in the growth of BIDs in the last one-half decades is indicative of

the complex nature of the BID industry in the UK. They also show the nature of support available for the overall development in the UK, as discussed below.

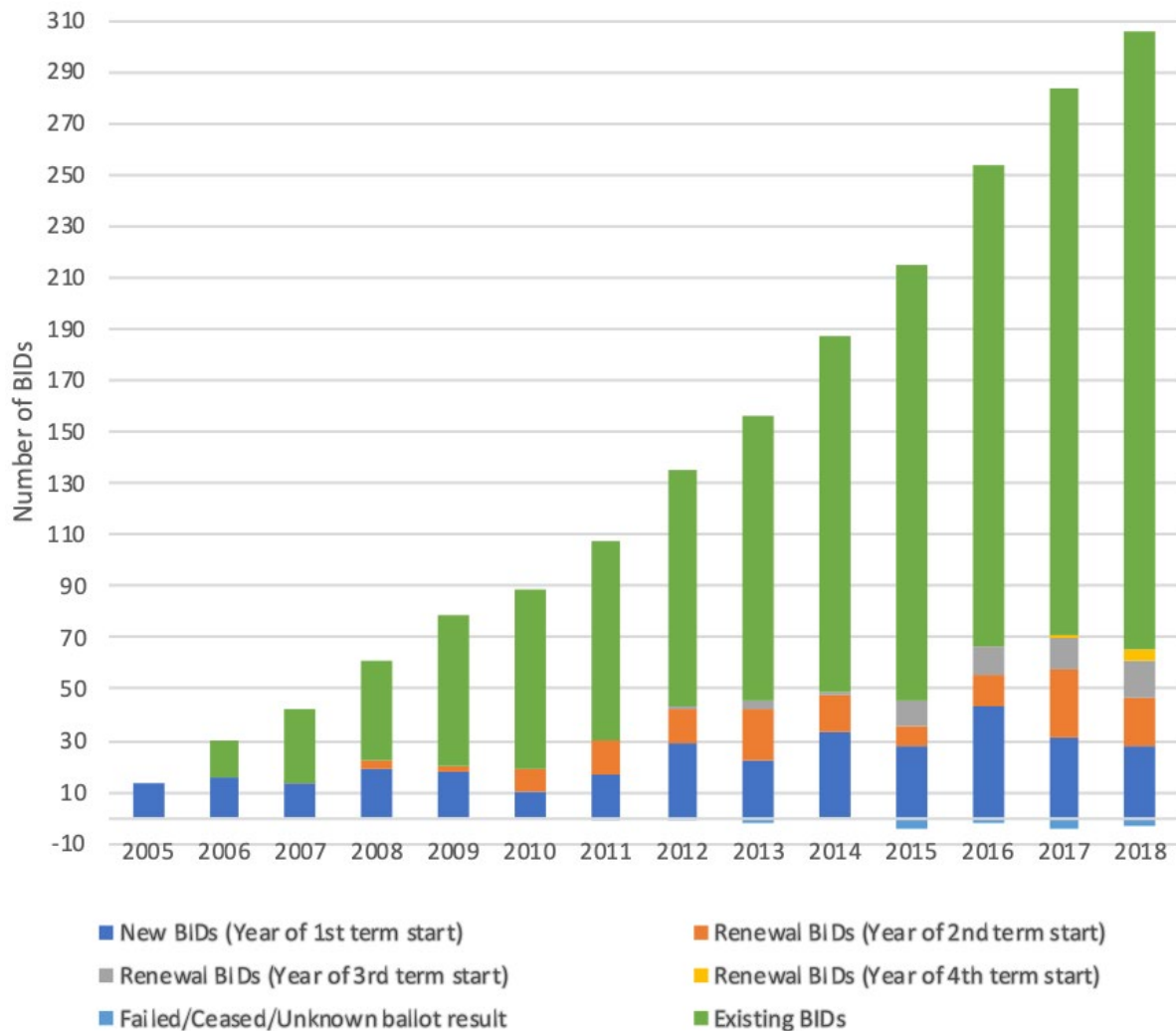


Figure 2: BID growth in the UK between 2005 and 2018. Source: Grail et al. (2019)

3.4.1 POLITICAL DRIVERS

Before implementing the BID concept in the U.K., the central government had played a significant role in transferring the policy from North America. According to Ward (2011), the government of both major political parties in the U.K. at different times supported the implementation of BID by working with organisations such as the association of town and city management (ATCM, 1997b), the association of London government (Hansard, 1997) and the corporation of London (Travers and Weimar, 1996). While the regulations vary across the four

nations, there are similarities in the extent to which each government provides support for BIDs politically.

3.4.2 ECONOMIC DRIVERS

BID critics, particularly levy payers, view BIDs as quasi-government, performing similar functions as local councils (Grail et al., 2019). However, this narrative has changed in the last few years due to the austerity policy of the U.K. government, which has made some local councils unable to provide these public services without help from the private sector (Grail et al., 2019). This factor has positively influenced the development of BID in the U.K. since BIDs are considered a better alternative to generating funds that can support the provision of services to the public.

3.4.3 INDUSTRY DRIVERS

While there are currently no academic papers that have examined the factors influencing the growth of the BID industry, Grail et al. (2019) argued that the UK's BID industry had reached maturity point, where BID management organisations can learn from each other. In addition, the industry now has experts with years of experience supporting the implementation of BIDs from a ballot to becoming operational.

3.4 ENGLISH BID MODEL

The BID model in England is a policy import from North America and regulated in 2004, culminating in the formation of the first BID at the end of 2004. De Magalhães (2014) noted that English BIDs are viewed as a partnership of commercial property's occupiers with their local author, having decision power on a compulsory surtax, ring-fenced to pay for improvements and additional services in their locality. The English BIDs were typically set up in well-defined areas or business parks with funds generated by the business levy spent on additional services. Traditionally, these are common good services, such as street wardens,

extra street cleaning, CCTV, and security radio networks, that local authority or individual businesses working alone cannot always provide.

3.4.1 BID LEGISLATION IN ENGLAND

The BID model was introduced to the UK in the Local Government Act 2003. However, the conduct of the BID model in England is legislated under the Business Improvement Districts (England) Regulations 2004. The legislation emphasised that it must be additional services, implying that they cannot be substituted for statutory service. This provision leaves some room for manoeuvring, as many assumed statutory services are not fulfilled in reality while others would be frequently fulfilled well beyond the minimum statutory standard. This often results in questioning where the additional threshold begins. Similarly, the onslaught of local public spending cuts eroded the principle. Many proposed and successful BIDs are built on a platform of maintaining or replacing lost and building on services formally provided locally by the local authority or through local authority-funded PPP arrangements. This prompted the need to extend the BID model and provide funding for some visitor/tourism support components. The prompted the change in legislation, culminating in the Business Improvement Districts (England) (Amendment) Regulations 2013. This requires a local authority to coordinate the BID vote and collect the levy within its own local administrative boundary.

3.4.2 VOTING PROCESSES IN BID ORGANISATIONA SET UP

Establishing a BID requires a BID proposer to prepare a proposal and a business plan and submit the same to the local authority. The proposal sets out the intended service provision, the BID's scope and size. Similarly, it sets out the levy amount, its calculation and who is liable. The ballot proposer notifies the Secretary of State and local authority to put the BID proposal to the ballot. This is done at least 84 days before the proposal submission. Similarly, the ballot holder must publish a notice regarding the ballot date and notify the Secretary of State 42 days before the final ballot date. As stated in the proposals, businesses that are liable for levy can

vote in a ballot, which determines the appropriateness of the scheme. Each business has one vote based on each property occupied or unoccupied but owned in the geographical area of the BID. A vote is deemed successful by a simple majority of votes and in the votes cast's rateable value. While the local authority manages the ballot process, the local authority can veto the proposals if it considers that the BID arrangement would likely cause significant conflict with an existing policy or an unjust levy burden. However, the local authority can only exercise this power within 14 days from the ballot date. On the other hand, the request to void the ballot can be sent to the local government and Secretary of State if there is a significant rule breach during the ballot process. Such a request is expected within 28 days of the published ballot result.

3.4.3 GOVERNANCE STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH BIDs

The BID's governance is the responsibility of the Board, which comprises property owners, government officials and businesses. The management of a BID is the responsibility of a paid administrator, typically occupying the post of executive director of a management company. The Board creates a management structure that encourages continuous business involvement in identifying priorities and shaping activities based on the business plan. The Board is elected by members of the BID organisation, who are drawn predominantly among the levy payers in the area and made up of representatives of stakeholders and businesses of the area and significant agencies linked with the successful delivery of the BID project. While the BID is private sector driven, local authority representatives are typically part of the Board as a critical operational link. The board's primary role is to protect the interests of levy payers by ensuring that the BID organisation operates according to its plan and is professional and provides consistent value for funds based on its targets. Additionally, the Board ensures that the BID implementation is monitored and delivered in a timely and cost-effective manner. The Board equally provide a consistent and effective voice for businesses across the area. However, all

roles on the Board are voluntary and executed based on a commitment to represent the interest of all businesses in the area.

3.4.4 FUNDING

BIDs are business-led organisations funded by a mandatory level on all eligible businesses after a successful ballot. While this is the primary source of its funding, a BID can equally draw on other public and private income streams to fund specific projects and schemes. In deepening the development of new BIDs in England, the government established the BID Loan Fund. This Fund supports the development of new BIDs in recognition that BIDs can be confronted with start-up costs during their development phase. The loans are repaid from the levy receipts, and further loan tranches can be made available as repayments are made.

3.5 TYPES OF BID ORGANISATIONS

To better understand the concept of BID, Grail et al. (2019) classified BIDs into two distinct types using the legal form of BIDs and the BID's definition of what they represent. According to the legal form, BIDs can be categorised as property-occupier BIDs, property-owners BIDs, property-owner and occupiers BIDs and Cross-borough BIDs.

3.5.1 LEGAL FORMS

As the name implies, property-occupier BIDs represent BIDs in which the businesses within the business district are the ratepayers. The majority of the BIDs, around 98.3% (Grail et al., 2019) in the U.K, particularly in England, are in this format. In general, this might be due to the legislations and regulations guiding the establishment and operations of BIDs in the country being designed on an existing business rate system in which businesses occupying different properties within various business districts are the eligible business ratepayers. Also, the BID legislation empowers the BID management organisations to determine the amount of levy the eligible ratepayer pays and what businesses are exempted from paying the levies.

While most BIDs in North America and other places are in the format of property-owner BIDs, property-owner and occupier BIDs and Cross-municipal BIDs, their existence in the U.K varies among the four nations in the United Kingdom. These BID formats, according to Grail et al. (2019), theoretically exists on paper. Still, they noted that the new Business Rate Supplement legislation implemented in 2014 has resulted in creating the following BIDs: Leicester Square BID, St James and Piccadilly BID and New West End Property BID. It is important to note that the number of property-owner BIDs has risen to four at the time of writing this review, indicating that the number might increase in the nearest future. However, the Scottish legislation on BIDs mandates the BID management organisations to impose the BID levy on both the property owners and occupiers, based on the condition that the ratepayers are stated in the levy rules before establishing BIDs.

3.5.2 CATEGORIES OF BIDs

While there are no criteria for BID management organisations self-identification, Grail et al. (2019) observe that the idea of self-identification has become a norm among property-occupier BIDs due to the homogenous nature of levy payers within the BID and the dominant land usage within the geographical area managed by the BIDs. In Grail's classification, BIDs are categorised as Town Centre; Industrial; Commercial; Retail; Tourism; and Other BIDs. According to Grail et al. (2019), the largest among these categories is the Town Centre BIDs. The table 3.2 below shows the types of BID organisations available in the UK

BID Type	Description	Examples
Town Centre BID	Town centre BIDs is the largest of these self-identified categories and cover at least some of the core commercial areas of a town/city centre.	Examples: 235 Town Centre BIDs in the UK.
Industrial/ Business Park BIDs	These are BIDs that are focused on industrial and business parks.	Manor Royal BID, Kimpton BID
Commercial BIDs	These are BID that supports commercial and offices areas in urban centres where the dominant land-use within the BID area is commercial	Examples: Team London Bridge and Liverpool BID

<p>Tourism BIDs</p>	<p>These BIDs are usually spread over a larger geographical area. Unlike other types of BIDs, some tourism BIDs exclude certain types of levy payers, meaning that they are more sector-focussed than place-focussed</p>	<p>English Riviera Tourism BID, Wight BID, and Yorkshire Coast BID.</p>
<p>Leisure BIDs</p>	<p>These BIDs focus on leisure and the evening economy. Like commercial BIDs, these BIDs are merely reflective of their dominant activity/use within their jurisdictional area</p>	<p>Birmingham Westside around Broad Street, Heart of London's Leicester Square, to Piccadilly Circus BID and All in Sauchiehall, Glasgow.</p>
<p>Retail BIDs</p>	<p>whilst located in town/city centres, these BIDs have a more specific retail focus, reflecting their spatial remit.</p>	<p>Retail BID Birmingham Liverpool Retail and Leisure BID; Manchester BID.</p>

Other BIDs	<p>These are BIDs which do not fall into any of the above categories, perhaps because they focus on more than one business aspect within their respective boundaries. There are six distinct types of BIDs in the UK that do fit into any of the categories listed above.</p>	<p>East Lothian Food and Drink; North Notts BID.</p>
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Table 3.2: Types of BID organisations in the UK. Source: Grail et al. (2019)

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

4.1 METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

This present study's research problem involves exploring the decision-making process of managers and stakeholders within BID organisations in the U.K., which implies that the study is qualitative. Qualitative research interprets words instead of quantifying data (Bryman & Bell, 2015). This method is appropriate for social events and processes, as it can offer a detailed understanding of a phenomenon, in this case, the decision-making process in BID organisations. More so, qualitative research is suited for research in understanding human behaviour. With the human component in a decision-making process, especially in an organisational setting, qualitative research is ultimately required in this study, considering the complexity involved in the context (BID organisations) and the lack of a decision-making framework.

Similarly, the study embraces an inductive research approach. The inductive research approach evolves from findings and observation to build a theory, and these findings are integrated into existing literature to propound theories (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Thus, it implies that theory development is this research proposed outcome. On the other hand, the underlying philosophical assumptions for this study are from the interpretive tradition. Suggesting that epistemologically, the assumptions about understanding the social world are obtained by interpreting the participants' lived experiences in this research; and assuming the ontological stance that reality is the subjective and shared meaning, and both constructed by the researcher and the research participants.

Interpretive approaches posit that knowledge about reality is obtained through social constructions, such as tools, shared meanings, languages, and documents (Myers, 2019). The interpretive research lacks predefined independent and dependent variables; instead, it focuses on using human complexity to make sense as the situation arises (Chowdhury, 2014). With the

interpretive approach, it is argued that social phenomena must be viewed from social contexts, and they are constructed and reproduced via their activities (Greeff, 2015). Understanding social action depends on social actors' meanings to their deeds (actions/performance).

Furthermore, interpretivism posits that social reality is constructed due to intentional actions (Kamoche, 2019). Interpretive approaches in decision-making research focus on generating a contextual understanding of decision-making and process where decision-making impacts and impacts the context (Wells, Butler & Koke, 2016). The philosophical stance of interpretive research is categorised into four: phenomenology, ethnomethodology, philosophy of language and hermeneutics (Myers, 2019).

Regardless of the category adopted, the use of interpretive perspective for this study will enhance understanding of the social, critical, and organisational issues relating to the decision-making in BIDS. However, the interpretive approach assumes that accessing reality is only possible via social constructions, such as shared meanings and language, while its philosophical base lies in phenomenology and hermeneutics.

The adoption of interpretive approaches enhances the scope of the study in addressing various influential issues and offer the opportunity to explore questions, such as 'how' and 'why' specific decisions are taken (Jolhe & Subash Babu, 2014). Klein & Myers (1999) proposed a set of seven principles based on hermeneutic orientation. These principles enhance the quality of research conducted from the interpretive perspective, including contextualisation, hermeneutic circle, the interaction between the subject and the researcher, dialogical reasoning, abstraction and generalisation, and suspicion and multiple interpretations. There is an established interrelation between these principles (Klein & Myers, 1999) and focus on a researcher's decision on the explored relevant context. Given this, this study utilised the principles proposed by Klein & Myers (1999).

However, the interaction between the subject and the researcher plays its role in creating data about the subjects. On the other hand, abstraction and generalisation are utilised when deciding the concepts or theories and the research to be abstracted and generalised. Similarly, diagonal reasoning is used when the intellectual history of the researcher is at stake. However, the research might sometimes be confronted with varying versions of interpretation and may require the researcher to evaluate the influence of the social contexts and document various views. In this case, the adoption of the principle of multiple interpretations is advised. In presenting the aspects of reality to formulate critically formulate research questions, the principle of suspicion comes into play in this instance. These seven principles give plausibility to research work and convince the target audience. Specifically, the seven principles see to enhance the cogency and plausibility of the research.

Thus, as explained above, this study aims to explore and understand factors influencing decision-making in this context using the lived experiences of BID managers and stakeholders and the interpretations of their responses from the conceptual lens of the researcher to explore the daily decision-making process of the respondents. Having conducted an independent study using a qualitative research approach, I believe it is advantageous for me to understand my role as a researcher and subjectively relate to the research respondents' reality within this context. Table 4.1 below from Orlikowski and Baroudi (1991) shows the epistemological and ontological stance of the researcher on this study.

Beliefs About	Explanation	The stance of this Study
Physical and Social Reality: Ontology	Questions the nature of reality by asking whether the worldview of the research participants and researchers are constructed, subjective or objective.	Subjectivist and constructionist to an extent about the social reality
Knowledge: Epistemology	Criteria for constructing and evaluating knowledge	Interpretive and hermeneutics
	Which research methods are appropriate for generating valid evidence	A contextualist method where a complex social phenomenon can be understood

Table 4.1: Ontological and Epistemological Stance of this study. Source: Orlikowski and Baroudi (1991).

4.2 THE CASE STUDY APPROACH

The past decade has seen the rapid application of the case study approach in many academic disciplines, particularly among qualitative researchers (Thomas, 2011; Hyett, Kenny & Dickson-Swift, 2014). Case study methodologists: Stake (1995), Merriam (2009); Yin (2009); and Denzin and Lincoln (2011) have contributed immensely to the approach's popularity, increasing its acceptance in different academic areas. Despite the growing popularity of the

case study approach, the differences in the philosophical stances of case study methodologists have resulted in varied opinions of the approach in the literature.

Due to these differences in opinions about what constitutes a case. According to a definition provided by Yin (2013), a case study is 'the empirical inquiry into a contemporary phenomenon or event within a real-world context, when the boundaries between phenomenon or event and its context are unclear and in which multiple sources of evidence are used.' Similarly, Robson (2011) states that a case study is a dual-purpose strategy for exploring and evaluating a recent phenomenon within a real-life context that is either unclear or previously little researched area (Robson, 2011). In addition, Robson and McCartan (2016) argued that a case study provides rich data since it holistically derives data from either a single case or multiple cases, thereby providing in-depth information about the case.

According to Stake (2000) and Sandelowski (2010), the use of the case study approach relied on the ontological stance of the researcher. The seminal work of the following case study methodologists: Eisenhardt (1989, 1991), Silveira et al. (2010), Flyvbjerg (2011), and Yin (2013) adopts the post-positivist ontological perspective in their work-using case study as the primary approach to research design. At the end of the other continuum, Guba and Lincoln (1985), Stake (1995), and Merriam (2009) employed the use of case study within the interpretive approach. A possible explanation for the case study ability to combine research approaches with different ontological perspectives is a factor, which distinguishes it from others.

As noted by Myers (2020), case studies are far more effective in studies that aim to explore a phenomenon within the context of messy real-life situations, and therefore can allow researchers to get "close to the action" in studies with high complexity. Myers (2020) argues further that the value of a case study methodology is not only in its ability to explore a messy real-life situation but deals with cases that are contemporary stories, thereby dealing with issues

within cases are of utmost current importance to other organisations. By drawing on the concept of case study methodology, Eisenhardt has shown that case study is effective for building theories and generating hypotheses. Eisenhardt maintains that a case study is ideal in situations where there is a need for a fresh perspective or little or nothing is known about the phenomenon. Similarly, Yin (2019) advocates the importance of case study when the research questions are designed to answer "why and how" questions in circumstances whereby the researcher has little or no control over situations that bothers the research processes.

Hence, this study adopts multiple case study methodology from an interpretive perspective since it aims to answer the "how" question within a contemporary and complex context in which the researcher does not have control over, and it supports the inclusion of rigours in design and data collection (Walsham, 1995). Specifically, the study is hugely influenced by the ontological and epistemological stance of the researcher. Thus, it is emphasised that the researcher believes in a socially constructed reality. Learning about it can occur through the interplay between the object and subject of the study. Similarly, Chukwudi, Zhang & Gable (2019) suggest that a case study allows for possible contextual capturing and understanding and can be utilised to achieve numerous researches aims using different data collection and analysis methods.

On the other hand, Urquhart & Fernández (2016) suggest that case studies allow a global approach to complex phenomena' social and historical analysis. Interpretive researchers seek to derive their constructs from the field by investigating exposure to the referenced phenomenon in-depth. With this approach, emergent themes and categories are linked to the participant's experience in the study (Salovaara et al., 2019).

4.3 DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH DESIGN

In every research endeavour, there are fundamental assumptions that guide the conduct of researchers during the research process (Myers, 2013). These assumptions, whether known by

the researcher(s) or not, influence factors such as the appropriate data collection methods, the type of research and interview questions needed to answer the research question, the kind of research participants required for the research and the extent of influence a funding body will have on the research process and its outcome. Therefore, it has been suggested that researchers understand these assumptions before embarking on a research project. Thus, a case study methodology and interpretive epistemology in conjunction with grounded theory principles for data analysis were deemed appropriate for this current study. With these underlying assumptions, this section discusses the research strategy and design used for data collection. This study will adopt the Eisenhardt (1989) eight-step process framework to aid the research strategy design to develop theories from data obtained from cases used in the research study. The choice of Eisenhardt's framework on theory building from the case study in an interpretive study such as this current study is based on the adaption of the framework by qualitative researchers such as Andrade (2009) and Urquhart (2012), both of whom used the framework to develop theory in I.T. research area. Table 4.2 below shows the Eisenhardt (1989) framework for theory development adopted by this study.

Table 4.2: Eisenhardt (1989) Theory Building Framework

Step	Activity	Comment on the Approach taken in this study
1. Getting Started	Definition of the research question. Possibly a prior construct Neither theory nor hypotheses	A broad research problem that relates to decision-making will be formulated A preliminary literature review that will identify broad constructs

2. Selecting Cases	Specify the population Theoretical sampling is carried out	One interview was conducted and analysed as part of the pilot interviews. Eight more interviews were conducted using four cases.
3. Crafting Instruments and Protocols	Multiple data collection methods Qualitative and quantitative data	Data was collected using semi-structured interviews, A single investigator carried out the collection of qualitative data.
4. Entering the Field	Overall data collection and analysis, flexible and opportunistic	Negotiation of access for the pilot interviews and the interviews was carried out through IPM and personal meetings in seminars and events with BID stakeholders.
5. Analysing Data	Within-case analysis Cross-case pattern search using divergent techniques	Background write-ups for each of the four cases (Chapter 7). The process is enabled by maintaining and developing a database for each of the four case studies. Each database comprises

		<p>documents and interview transcripts.</p> <p>Foremost, cases were analysed individually for relationships and constructs in the data and followed by within-group analysis to explore differences and similarities in these constructs and their relationships.</p>
6. Shaping Hypotheses	<p>Iterative tabulation of evidence for each construct</p> <p>Replication, not sampling, logic across cases</p>	<p>Emergent constructs from the data were continuously compared with the evidence obtained from consecutive cases.</p>
7. Enfolding Literature	<p>Comparison with conflicting literature</p> <p>Comparison with similar literature</p>	<p>The emergent theory was compared with the relevant literature areas</p>
8. Reaching Closure	<p>Theoretical saturation when possible.</p>	<p>Reaching theoretical saturation is achieved when no additional data is found to contribute to extending the theory.</p>

Source: Eisenhardt (1998)

The Eisenhardt (1989) eight-step process framework was formulated to develop theories from data obtained from cases used in the research study.

4.3.1 GETTING STARTED

In every research project, the getting started stage often signifies the beginning of the research. At this stage, the researcher engages in two essential activities grounded in existing and current knowledge in the research areas. First, the researcher defines the research issue at this point. However, in qualitative research, particularly one that aims to build theory using a case study methodology or grounded theory or to combine both methods, the researcher often defines a broad research problem or states a broad research question and identifies relevant research constructs.

At the start of this current study, broad research questions were defined in line with this study's primary objective: to broaden our understanding of how decisions are made within BID organisations in the U.K. More specifically, the cases used in this study were designed to give insight into the processes of decision making used by decision-makers within the context of the BID. In achieving this objective, the researcher formulated the following research questions following the conduct of preliminary literature:

1. What are the features of the organisational decision-making processes in BID organisations?
2. How is stakeholder management practised in BID organisations?

Urquhart and Fernandez (2006) suggested that the researcher conduct a foundational literature review to identify concepts, theories, models, frameworks, and academic areas relevant to the study. At this point, the researcher does not intend to find the gap in the literature but to be theoretically sensitive about the different academic areas required in the research and to be able to design an appropriate research methodology for this research.

Cases	Location	No Employees	Purpose of BIDs
A	Altrincham	3	It prioritises security, environmental improvement, place-shaping, responsible business services, place promotion, and events and networking.
B	Manchester	8	It seeks to support the vibrancy of the city centre and its economic success by bringing the public agencies in Manchester with retailers to improve operations and attract additional custom.
C	Ballymena	11	It seeks to create a safe, vibrant, secure, and accessible town centre with a sense of identity. It maintains and develops an enabling environment for residents, visitors, and people working in the town.
D	Rochdale	5	It focuses on improving the trading environment in Rochdale town centre to assist its levy-payers in enhancing their business performance.

Table 4.3: BID Case Study Descriptions

4.3.1.1 SELECTING CASES

According to Benbasat et al. (1987), selecting cases is crucial for building theory from case studies. In her framework, Eisenhardt (1989) suggested that two critical activities must occur at this stage. Firstly, the researcher must determine the population of interest, and secondly, the selection of cases, according to Eisenhardt (1989), is dependent upon the underlying

philosophical assumptions guiding the researcher. However, for research such as this current study which aims to build a substantive theory, the case study must be carefully designed using the theoretical usefulness of the sample cases rather than random or statistical sampling as the basis for selecting the cases. In addition, Eisenhardt (1989) suggested that one of the following may serve as the objective of selecting cases: to extend emergent theory, may be selected to fill theoretical categories and provide examples of polar types or replicate the previous case.

Many BID organisations currently exist across the United Kingdom, with businesses coming together to fund supplementary services to those provided by local councils for regenerating and maintaining urban places such as business districts. There are six broad categories of BID organisations across the U.K., most of them in London. As discussed previously (Chapter 3), these BID organisations fall into the following types: Town Centre BIDs, Industrial/ Business Park BIDs, Commercial BIDs, Tourism BIDs, Leisure BIDs, and Retail BIDs.

As discussed in chapter previous, these six types of BID organisations differ in size, the type of services to their business districts, and organisational structure. Still, they are similar in their funding mechanism and governance structure. Therefore, using theoretical sampling, it was decided that each BID organisation type will be used as a case study in this research. It is believed that by utilising each BID organisation type, the research will be able to examine the decision-making process.

4.3.1.2 SELECTING THE SPECIFIC CASES

Selecting a specific BID organisation was based on the classification of BID organisations in theory and using the influence of the BID Foundation to which most BID organisations are members. Despite Eisenhardt's suggestion to select polar examples and the general belief that researchers often pursue the idea of adopting 'best practice' in their research project (Ravenswood,2011). The BID organisations considered in this research needed to have similar issues confronting them regarding making decisions. Therefore, a BID organisation from each

category was considered in the selection of the cases. However, the tourism BID was excluded due to their geographical location in the U.K. Having attended some seminars and familiarisation tours to some BID organisations. I realised that data collection might be difficult due to the respondents' lack of availability and often busy schedules. Therefore, BID organisations in Ballymena and Manchester were used as cases in this research.

Hence, three pilot interviews were conducted using town centre BID and retail BIDs, respectively. All three organisations' purposes and objectives vary since they serve different businesses within their business districts.

4.3.1.3 GAINING ACCESS

The researcher sought access to the cases in two phases. The first phase involved interviews of professionals working within the BID industry. These professionals include upper-level management teams such as BID executives/managers, event managers and operations managers from different categories of BID organisations, town centre managers from the partnership that is becoming a BID organisation. During this stage, the researcher had discussions with professionals and academics in retail management and urban management to sensitise myself to the research areas. The primary purpose of this phase was: to sensitise myself with the research context, thereby improving my theoretical knowledge of BID's operation in the U.K. It was assumed that this would help me identify BID organisations interested in participating in the research and familiarising myself with the respondent, thereby gaining their trust, which is crucial to granting access into the organisations. Most of the meetings are informal and usually occur at various events organised by the Institute of Place Management and BID Foundation at the Manchester Metropolitan University in Manchester. During such meetings, I often hand out the PIS (Participant Information Sheet), which details the nature and objective of the research and the rights of the respondents if they choose to participate in the research. At this stage, this initial phase, I ensure that my objective is to

understand and have a general overview of BID organisations' operations in the U.K. As a result of these initial meetings, I was able to organise meetings with two town centre managers whose partnerships have been voted to operate as BID organisations, to get their perspectives on decision-making and the operations of their respective TCM partnerships. In addition, I explained to the managers that the data collection was scheduled to take place around eight to ten months, to collect data from various stakeholders within their organisations repeatedly until the point of saturation. Most importantly, I requested permission to sit on management team meetings, board meetings, and sub-committee meetings as an observer and access important documents that might be useful for me in analysing their decision-making process. To obtain diverse opinions of BID stakeholders, I negotiated interviews with the following stakeholders:

- interviews with a senior management team consisting of BID executives/managers, BID operations managers and BID event managers.
- interviews with board members.

4.3.1.4 CRAFTING INSTRUMENT AND PROTOCOLS- INTERVIEWS AND DOCUMENTS

The data collection for this study was carried out using primary sources. The study adopted semi-structured interviews with participants to understand their decision-making processes regarding the effective data collection technique. Personal interviews are essential and valuable information sources (Liedtka, 1992). The research participants for this study were selected based on their relevance to the research theme. For this study, the total number of participants for the interview was achieved. The selected participants are BID managers, board/committee members, and they were chosen based on their impact on the decision-making process in BIDS. The interviews are conducted in English and transcribed. Although there was subjective information from interviews, the researcher tried to account for various perspectives within BID organisations. Similarly, interview transcripts were analysed through a systematic,

iterative process. This involves the repeated reading of these interview transcripts, which enhances understanding of respondents' viewpoints and perspectives. While four case studies were analysed, it involved a total number of 8 interviews, majorly focusing on BID managers, management teams with decision-making capability and stakeholders. The table 4.2 below shows the distribution of the research participants involved in the study:

Table 4.4: Interviews used in this study

BID Organisations	No of Interviews						Totals
	BID/ Managers (B/M)	Date/ Duration (mins)	Event/Op eration Managers (E/OM)	Date/ Duration (mins)	Stakeholders /Board Members (BM)	Date/ Duration (mins)	
BID A	1	09 Oct 19 / 65	1	10 Oct 19 / 50	0		2
BID B	1	06 Feb 21/45	1	06 Feb 21 / 40	1	15 Feb 21 / 30	3
BID C	1	06 Mar 20/60	0		1	09 Mar 20 / 30	2
BID D	1	30 Jul 18/50	0		0		1
TOTAL INTER VIEWS	4		2		2		8

Four case studies were analysed. It involved eight interviews, majorly focusing on BID managers, a management team with decision-making capability and stakeholders.

While most of the interpretive research, until recently, on decision-making (Marsden & Littler, 2000) utilised relatively data collection techniques, such as analysis of surveys, textual analysis, or analysis of published data. This study adopted meetings and interviews, which offer face-to-face contact with participants to probe and explore their responses. The case study method entails collecting a large amount of rich qualitative information from various sources to address the complexity of the decision-making process in BID organisations. However, during the fieldwork, the data's cross-checking mechanism relating to each case study was used. That is, the questions were clarified and refined during the data gathering process. Similarly, the critical results of the analysis are established by a continuous review of transcripts of interviews.

The data analysis deals with the description of each case based on the data collected using semi-structured interviews. In addition, an analysis was conducted of varying and similar patterns in each case study, using grounded theory analysis and constant comparison. This researcher contends that formulating a description of case studies enables gaining insights into the specific context, and these descriptions are given in Chapter 5. Furthermore, with the case studies involving different case situations, it is essential to search for patterns in all cases, as this enables the researcher to develop a considerable body of evidence from the cases.

4.3.1.5 PILOT STUDIES

Yin (2009) advocated for adopting pilot studies to develop suitable lines of questioning before conducting the actual research and help in data collection refinement procedures and plans. This research intends to locate individuals, notably BID managers and stakeholders, involved in the decision-making process at BID organisations. A pilot study can be a mini version of full-scale research or a trial run conducted to execute the complete research. Similarly, it is

viewed as a feasibility study and can be considered a certain pre-testing of research instruments, including interview or questionnaire schedules (Van Teijlingen, & Hundley, 2001). Thus, the pilot study was conducted after the researcher had a clear vision of the research theme, questions and the research techniques, which would be used and the nature of the research.

With difficulty in getting such participants, the researcher conducted a pilot study. It is noteworthy that some interview questions adopted during pilot studies might be modified during the actual interviews. Such flexibility is supported by the semi-structured, qualitative techniques chosen for data collection. In particular, a pilot study is a "reassessment without tears" (Connelly, 2008), and trying out all research techniques, which the researcher intends to see how well they will pan out in practice. The pilot study for this study can be defined as majorly a try-out of research methods and interviews. During this process, the researcher tested a semi-structured interview on the decision-making process of three selected BID organisations: Brixton BID, Positively Putney Bid and London Bridge BID. Thus, the pilot studies of the current study can be defined as a feasibility study and a pre-testing of interview instruments, in the parlance of Eisenhardt (1989).

The value of the pilot study cannot be overemphasised. It is noteworthy that the research process might not be the way it is envisaged. Thus, it is clear to the researcher that the pilot study for this research is essential to prevent the waste of valuable resources and time. For instance, Welman & Kruger (1999) emphasised that some researchers might be disillusioned when the research guidelines are valid only in an ideal environment but not in the practical research environment where they conduct the research. This partly justifies the need for a pilot study. The pilot is also needed to detect inherent flaws in measurement procedure and operationalisation of independent variables. Furthermore, a pilot study is required to identify ambiguous or unclear items in an interview survey (Welman & Kruger, 1999). On the other hand, participants' non-verbal communication or behaviour may indicate important information

about a form of discomfort experienced based on the wordings or content of items in the interview schedule.

4.3.1.6 SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS

An initial protocol guide was designed for the interviews (see Appendix A) to guide the conduct of all the semi-structured interviews. Semi-structured interviews were considered suitable other forms of interviewing techniques due to their flexibility in enhancing in-depth conversation between the interviewer and the participants. Because each BID case had distinct goals, a unique mode of operation and a different structural arrangement, it was decided to design the set of questions used in the interview broadly, covering every critical part of the topic areas such as: such as the business plans used by the BIDs, types of decisions that are made within the BIDs, the governance structure of the BIDs, and the role of stakeholders within the BIDs—focused on the study. The participants were asked questions around these topic areas. At the discretion of the interviewer, were asked follow-up questions as a means of getting an adequate and extensive explanation of the participants' responses.

The interviews varied in length from 30 minutes to over 1 hour, and all the interviews were conducted in English, tape-recorded, and transcribed verbatim. The transcripts were subsequently analysed using grounded theory analysis (discussed in Chapter Six) to identify the issues around decision-making, and stakeholder interactions, categorised them and developed themes.

Manchester Metropolitan University's ethical guidelines regarding research participants were strictly adhered to in carrying out this research. Before starting each interview, a participant information sheet and a consent form were given to the participant. The interview was initiated once the consent was given by verbal agreement and signing the consent form.

4.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter explored the methodology adopted in the study and offered a rationale for its adoption. The next chapter gives details of the data analysis approach used for the interviews.

5.2 DATA ANALYSIS METHOD

Bryman (2016) highlights the difficulties involved in qualitative data analysis. Qualitative data are typically derived from a large volume of textual materials, and there are no standard rules on how to embark on the data analysis. Specifically, there is a proliferation of data analysis approaches, with coding being the central feature of most approaches (Bryman, 2016). However, the suitability of a specific approach depends solely on the focussed research purpose (Dey, 1993). While this study focuses on developing an understanding of decision-making in BID organisations, leveraging grounded theory analysis techniques is a good choice for the study due to the following reasons. Grounded theory being a “qualitative research method, utilising systematic procedures to develop an inductively derived theory about a phenomenon” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) offer an effective way of generating theory. Its choice as an analytical strategy for this study is driven by various considerations, as highlighted by Yoong (1999), Scott (2000) and Urquhart (2013).

Firstly, there is an extensive body of literature on BID in urban management, place management and public administration (Morcol et al., 2014). However, to date very little is currently known about decision-making within BID organisations.

Secondly, grounded theory helps develop “useful knowledge about the behavioural patterns that shape social process as people interact together in groups” (Urquhart, 2013). Since this current study explores how decisions are made and how stakeholders are managed within BID organisations in the UK, due to the exploratory and interactional nature of this study the grounded theory is ideal for analysis such data.

Lastly, grounded theory helps researchers interact and respond to the research participants in a context of their reflexivity and positionality.

5.3 THE GROUNDED THEORY APPROACH

The grounded theory approach is rooted in symbolic interactionism, which posited that people engage in a world that requires reflexive interaction as different from environmental responses (Lee et al., 2005). Grounded theory is considered a general methodological analysis associated with data collection that uses the systematic application of methods to generate an inductive theory about a focused area (Glaser, 1992). Grounded theory has three basic components: concepts, categories, and prepositions. Pandit (1996) considered concepts the basic analysis unit because the theory is not developed from the data itself but the data conceptualisation. Strauss & Corbin (1990) posited that theories could not be built with actual activities or incidents, as reported, or observed.

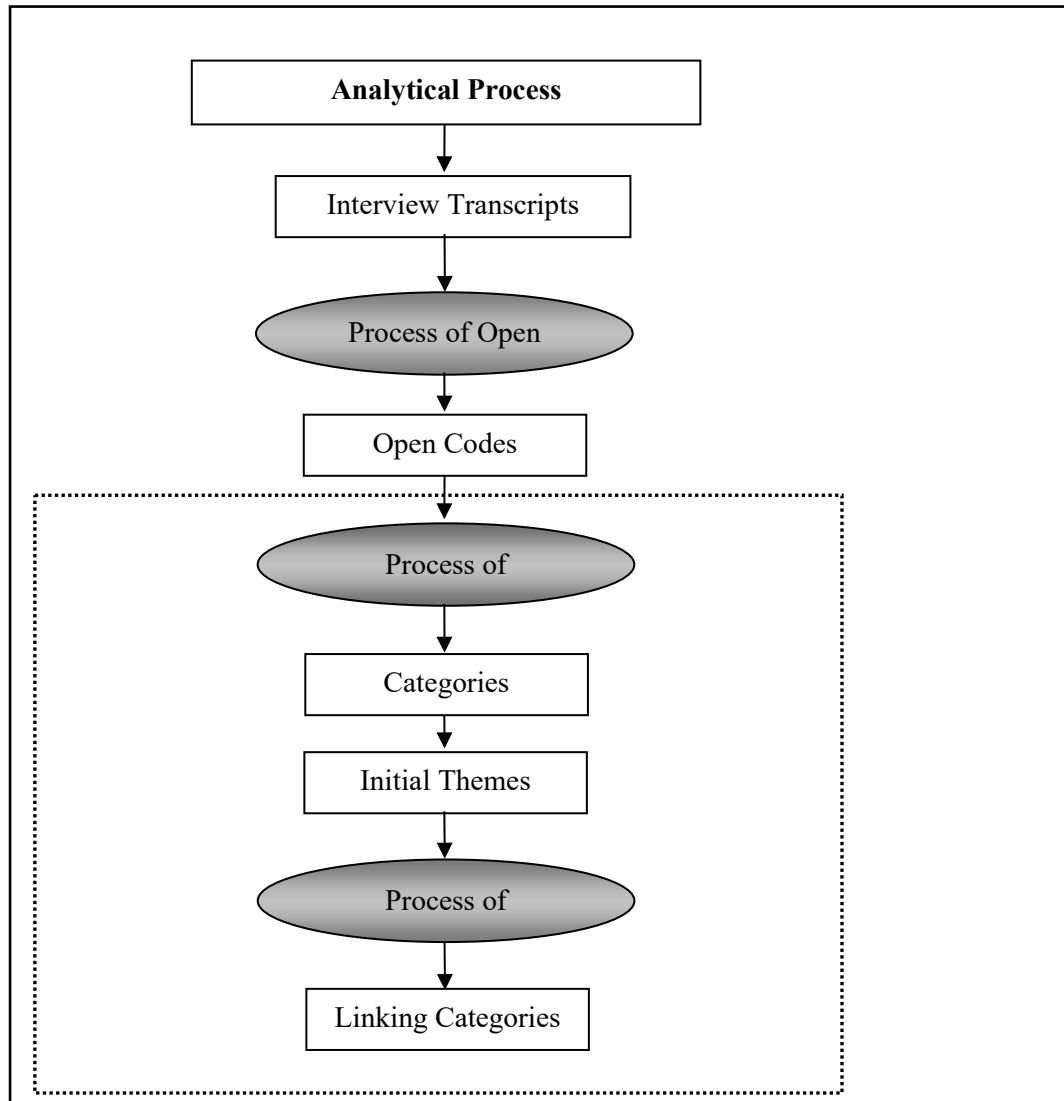
The events, incidents and happenings are analysed or taken as potential phenomena indicators, attached to conceptual labels. Hence, the basic theory units can only be obtained by comparing incidents and attaching similar labels to the same term (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). On the other hand, categories are higher than concepts and abstracts than basic units or concepts characterised and are pivotal to the theory building (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). In contrast, prepositions, originally termed hypothesis by Glaser & Strauss (1967), are conceptual instead of measured relationships between a category and its associated concepts or between different categories (Pandit, 1996).

5.3.1 APPLYING THE CODING PROCESS FOR BUILDING GROUNDED THEORY

The study applied Glaser's (1978) three-phase coding sequence on the data. The researcher conducted an extensive line-by-line data analysis: open coding up to the formation of main and sub-categories, and their interrelationship was carried out. Multiple interpretations and data analysis levels were carried out. Figure 3 shows the execution of the three-phase coding process for the study. Although this seems a linear process, it was not entirely so. For instance, most of

the implicit open codes were made explicit and the selective coding phase, but on realisation that some codes that did not occur during the open coding phase. I reverted to the interview transcripts to redefine the open codes or start the data afresh.

Figure 3: Analytical Process Used for this Study



Source: Glaser (1978)

5.3.2 OPEN CODING

With Glaser & Strauss' (1967) open coding procedure, the first stage of this study's data analysis started at the word, sentence, and paragraph levels of the first case's first transcript. While the goal was to generate emergent categories and their properties, which are important

for integrating into a theory, open coding started data coding in all possible ways to attain this goal (Glaser, 1978). Based on this, the transcript was decomposed into ‘thought units,’ ranging from a word to phrase and sentences. Despite the time-consuming nature of this detailed analysis, it allows for the generation of rich concepts and categories and offers direction for developing them and their general properties via theoretical sampling (Corbin & Strauss, 2014). Instead of choosing relevant excerpts during the open coding process, a line-by-line or paragraph-level text coding was carried out around the study objective, regardless of its relevance to the study (Glaser, 1978).

While the coding purpose was to build a direction for the study, it was carried out keeping in mind that there might be redundant codes or refined and reworded at a later analysis stage, when a particular focus has been built for the research problem (Glaser, 1978). Therefore, at least a code for each data chunk was given based on conceptual value instead of the text’s face-value meanings. Although the research is not based on preconceived theoretical prepositions and hypotheses, open coding was carried out with previously identified constructs and research problems in mind. Similarly, it was carried out with an ‘open mind’ that enables new concepts from the data to emerge. The first interview transcript was subjected to two rounds of open coding to make sure the significant concepts in the data were captured and represented as much as possible by the open codes.

The open coding of the first transcript was preceded by second and other cases, comparing the existing codes with the emergent codes, modifying and/or adding new codes as coding progresses across transcripts. The other transcripts were subjected to three rounds of open coding to ensure that concepts well-represented interpretation could be carried over to subsequent cases.

5.3.2.1 CODING FOR THIS STUDY

Interview quotation: *“For instance, we involve the local resident in the planning of the layout, so they came in and they decided you know what proportion of pedestrian foot way versus what proportion of car parking on the streets. So, they assisted in all that, you know what proportion of trees we should have”.*

Key Point: *“So we involve stakeholders”.*

Code: Stakeholder involvement

5.3.2.2 CONSTANT COMPARISON METHOD

The codes derived from the open coding technique are usually descriptive. To obtain analytical code, which is the root of theory generation, the analyst must continuously conduct constant data to data comparison, data to code comparison and code to code comparison as soon as the open codes are derived. According to Glaser and Strauss (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) and Glaser (1992), the constant comparison allows the analyst to combine analytical codes at a level of abstraction known as concepts. The figure 4 below shows an example of the emerging category.

Concept:

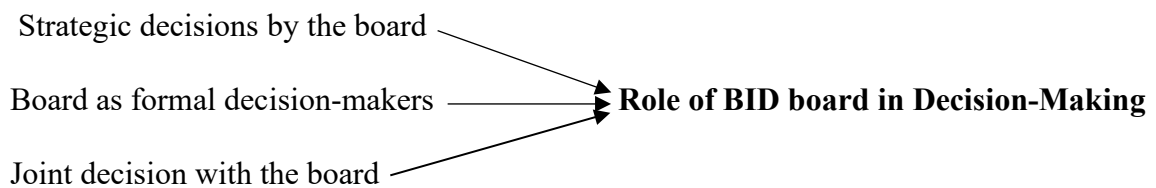


Figure 4: Example of category emerged from underlying concepts.

Concepts such as the role of the BID board in decision-making, economic issues, BID governance, stakeholder consultation, stakeholder support, project types, project approval and project challenges all emerged from further analysis of the open codes. Repeating the constant comparison on the concept results in a higher level of abstraction known as core categories.

Category: The BID board is the primary stakeholder and employer in BID organisations. Their role in the decision-making process of BID organisations is of utmost importance due to their ownership of the BID organisation. A detailed account of the BID board's role is discussed in chapter 5. Figure 4 above shows how the category emerged from the concepts.

5.3.3 SELECTIVE CODING

The second stage of data analysis involves coding around a large volume of open codes to further conceptualise them into patterns, groups or sub-groups, linked together via common properties to form categories, and this to core categories or themes, through a selective coding process. This process was executed on the first case's first transcript to the whole of the first case to subsequent cases until theoretical data saturation is attained. Glaser's (1978) concept indicator model was used during this process to guide the conceptual coding of a set of empirical indicators. Similarly, this provides vital connections between concept and data, leading to the theory generation from data (Glaser, 1978). The comparison focuses on the differences, similarities, and level of consistency of meaning between them. During this stage, though not subjected to open coding, observational notes, documents, and qualitative survey data were analysed for additional evidence to the emerging categories from interview transcripts. Therefore, the outcome of the model operationalisation for the first case was the generation of four initial core categories and their associated categories and sub-categories of underlying uniformity. However, the saturation outcome (i.e. after the 4th case) of the case-by-case refinement, modification and extension of the categories from the first case was two core categories with a varying focus. Table 5.2 provides the process for generating two categories or themes after completing the selective coding for all four cases.

Table 5.2: Examples of how Core Categories were generated from the Open and Selective Coding Process

Open Codes →	Selective Codes		
Open Codes	Sub-categories	Main categories	Core Categories/Themes
<i>dynamic business environment; reactivity; priorities setting; flexibility; accountability</i>	Lack of defined decision-making framework	Organisational decision issues	Organisational Decision-Making
<i>Board as formal decision makers; strategic decisions by the board; joint decision with the board</i>	BID Governance		
<i>Board delegating decision;</i>			
<i>Economic climate; financial decisions; restrictive budget; size and types of projects.</i>	Funding issues		
consultation with businesses; actively using suggestions as project input; production of business plan		Stakeholder issues	Stakeholder Management
help with merchandising/promotion; offer of business			

support; engagement	business	Stakeholder support		
Types of Project; (Size of the project)	Project	Project Execution		

Table 6.3 shows the process of selective coding which resulted in the grouping of open codes to develop sub-categories to main categories and subsequently to their core categories or themes based on some common properties identified in the open codes.

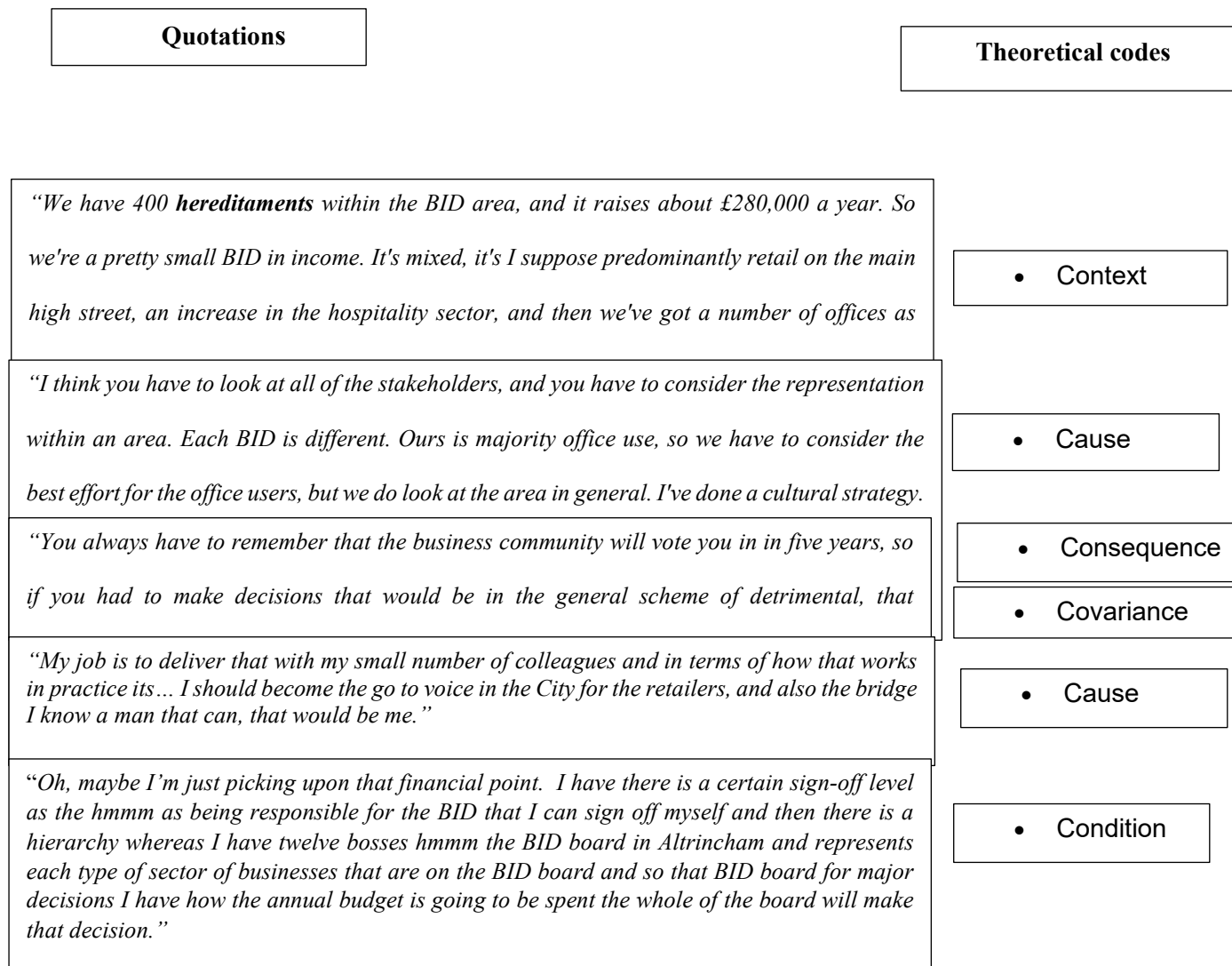
5.3.4 THEORETICAL CODING

The theoretical coding is the final step in the theory generation process. This entails identifying the interrelationships between substantial codes that were generated in the first two previously enumerated steps. The relationships between these codes depend solely on the theoretically grounded nature of the data, rather than elaborated with logical possibilities (Glaser, 1978). Eighteen theoretical coding families with considerable overlap among them were proposed to facilitate this process (Glaser, 1978). The study found the 6 Cs, the interactive family and the strategic family useful for building relationships between the data-derived codes and concepts. Glaser (1978) posited that the 6 Cs – causes, contexts, contingencies, consequences, covariance and condition – is the first code to consider during theory generation. In this study, it is vital to clarify the contexts and specific conditions where decision-making takes place in BID organisations.

Similarly, it is essential to determine the causes and conditions under which the decision-making process changes and the consequences of such changes. Additionally, I needed to capture the interacting patterns between constructs when I am unable to determine which comes first. For instance, what is the interaction between decision-making and Board delegation? Do

they have a one-way or bidirectional relationship? In this case, the interactive family was helpful (Glaser, 1978). The strategy family explores the arrangements and mechanisms that strategy individual happened to be a vital way of exploring the constructs for this study (Glaser, 1978). For instance, what arrangements are in place for strategising BID managers to take decisions or delegate decisions to others in a BID organisation? The figure below shows the illustration of the Six Cs according to Glaser (1978):

Figure 5: Glaser’s (1978) Six Cs Coding Family for Analysis



DETERMINANTS OF PLACE-BASED DECISION-MAKING

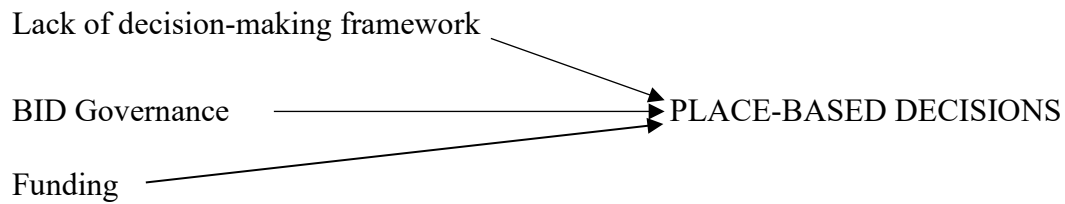


Figure 6: Determinants of Place-Based Decision-MakingS (PBDM)

5.4 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

The chapter justifies the adoption of grounded theory as a data analysis approach and provides a detailed description of grounded theory techniques adopted in analysing the data. That is steps five and six in Table 4.2 in Chapter Four. Providing a detailed analysis discussion gives the readers a picture of the analytical process in developing the building blocks of a theory of Place-Decision Determinants. Evidence to support the grounding of two main categories – *Organisational Decision-Making* and *Stakeholder Management* – and their properties in the data were presented.

CHAPTER 6: BID ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXTS

This chapter explores the background of the BID organisations used in the study by exploring their primary activities and income processes. Similarly, it explores governance structures of the BID organisations.

6.1 CONTEXT (BID A)

BID A was incorporated in 2016 in the UK after a successful ballot and its funds are only applied directly to activities within its BID areas. In particular, it applied its funds through promotion, events, partnerships and investing in the future of its area, making it a conducive and vibrant area to live, work and visit. Its major activities include representing businesses by influencing and collaborating with key partners within its jurisdiction. Similarly, it maintains and sustainably grows the number of visitors with promotion and marketing, and high-quality, year-round programmes. Additionally, it improves public areas within the area to make it clean, vibrant, green, welcoming, and safe. It also focuses on creating the right environment to attract new businesses to the area and enhance connectivity between all parts of the area, giving visitors reasons to spend time and use the facilities in the area.

On the other hand, it supports businesses with various services to reduce costs and enhance customer experience and continue to lead already set-up project groups and establish new ones. Within four years, the BID has made giant strides, notably growth in international and national head offices in the area. BID A holds membership with the BID Foundation, Institute of Place Management (I.P.M) and the Association of Town and City Management, with these organisations representing the interests of their members, and providing support and guidance and share best practices. While its Board comprises voluntary representatives of its town centre business community, they represent each business sectors and available to discuss BID activity. However, there is a periodic review of Board members while the Chairman of the Board request for those interested in joining the Board from the levy-paying businesses.

6.2 CONTEXT (BID B)

BID B was launched in 2013 and brought together many foods, retail, and other customer-facing business in its geographical area. It aims to support the vibrancy of the city centre and economic success by agglomerating retailers within its area to enhance its operations. BID B works in partnership with the city council, charity network and other statutory bodies, such as police and transport corporation. While it represents the interest of its members, it ensures levy payers are part of the changing story of a thriving and resilient area to work, invest, live and visit. It provides operational support by assisting with street cleaning, environmental issues, protests, anti-social behaviour, urban resilience, and road closures. Similarly, BID B focuses on business crime reduction partnerships by improving access to business intelligence, all-round radio systems linked to the CCTV at the city centre and security training. Additionally, the BID is involved in city forums and lobbying and enables businesses to collaborate on problem-solving and represent corporate interests with public authorities. It is financed by a levy payment per property, and this is paid based on rateable value. While it governed by a Board, the Board comprises of representatives from levy-paying businesses and non-executive directors from stakeholders.

6.3 CONTEXT (BID C)

BID C commenced operations in 2017, and it is funded by multiple businesses paying a small levy based on their properties' rateable value. The levy is paid by all properties or hereditament, based on 1.25% of their rateable value at the end of the first quarter. However, the levy is paid by those with a rateable value of at least £10,000, with £12,500 maximum levy for a single hereditament. Similarly, the Board decides on an annual incremental level, accounting for inflation and economic conditions. However, the owners of untenanted properties are liable for levy payments. Additionally, shopping centre occupiers are subject to a service charge for

managing their properties, amounting to 60% levy. Similarly, charitable organisations are subject to business rate liability relief, subject to a discount.

BID C brings businesses within the area together to assist in reducing costs and act as an effective lobbying body. Similarly, it enhances the town's reputation as an accessible and welcoming place to visit, shop and work. Additionally, it makes a cleaner and safer town centre. While it focuses on services and projects that are additionally provided by the local authority, it does not fund services and projects already in place. The Board manages the affairs of the BID, with the number of directors not exceeding twelve. The Directors are picked from the levy-paying and some non-levy businesses, and the Board conducts quarterly meetings.

6.4 CONTEXT (BID D)

BID D was established in 2014 as a not-for-profit organisation and is focused on making its district a distinctive and sustainable destination. A Board oversees the BID and comprises of local business leaders and small executive team who champion the activities of the BID based on the business plan. The BID focuses on making its area greener and ensures its public spaces and streets have high-standard maintenance by featuring more flowers and plants at street level. Similarly, the BID focuses on attracting additional funding for enhancing pavements and public spaces, increases access to public toilets and achieve the right balance on the high street for businesses to thrive. This is funded through levy payers, fixed for the fixed term of five years and subject to inflation or alterations. The collected levy is applied to businesses within all businesses within the BID area with a rateable value. However, new businesses would be charged from the occupation point based on the rateable value at that time. Additionally, vacant properties or refurbishing ones would be liable to the BID levy. The BID would be governed by a Board, which would be directly accountable to BID levy payers for effective project delivery, as outlined in the business plan. The Board is voluntary and comprises organisations and businesses within the area.

CHAPTER 7: RESEARCH FINDINGS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The data analysis process discussed in Chapter 5 resulted in the identification of two major research themes: **Organisational Decision-Making**.

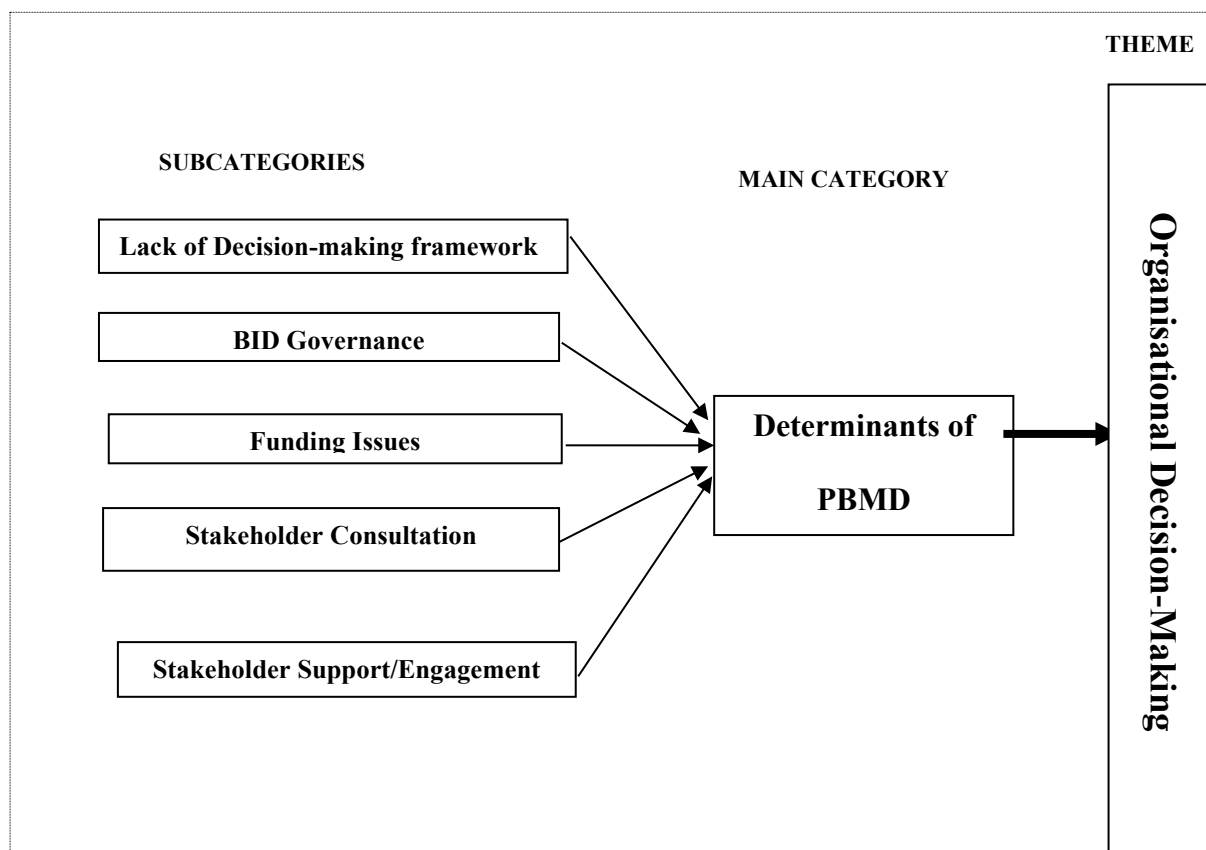
This chapter focuses on the issues relating to the theme: **Organisational Decision-Making**.

The findings regarding the theme, **Organisational Decision-Making** is presented based on the research questions highlighted in Chapter 1.

1. *What are the features of the organisational decision-making processes in BID organisations?*
2. *How is stakeholder management practised in BID organisations?*

Figure 7 below shows the main categories and sub-categories that explains the theme, **Organisational Decision-Making**.

Figure 7: Main categories and sub-categories of Organisational Decision-Making Theme.



7.2 DETERMINANTS OF PLACE-BASED DECISIONS

The main category of the **Organisational Decision-Making theme** is the determinants of PBDM. Three sub-categories inform this main category: *Lack of Decision-Making Framework, Funding issues, BID Governance Stakeholder Consultation and Stakeholder Support/Engagement.*

The table 7.1 below shows the analytical development of the main category determinants of place-based decision-making.

Table 7.1: Analytical Development of Main Category of PBDM.

<i>Open Codes</i>	<i>Subcategories</i>	<i>Main Category</i>
Dynamic business environment; reactive decisions; changing priorities.	Lack of Decision-Making Framework	Determinants of Place-Based Decision-Making (PBDM)
Board as formal decision makers; strategic decisions by the board; collaboration and delegation. Economic climate; financial decisions; restrictive budget; size and types of projects.	BID Governance Funding issues	
consultation with stakeholders; actively using suggestions as project input and production of business plan.	Stakeholder Consultation	
offer of business support; business engagement;	Stakeholder Support/Engagement	

Informal relationships; building trust and creating values.		
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The table 7.2 shows the distribution of participants selected for this study.

Table 7.2 showing the interview participants

Participants	Role within BID	Duration of Interview
Participant 1	BID-A Manager	65 minutes
Participant 2	BID-A Event Manager	50 minutes
Participant 3	BID-B Manager	45 minutes
Participant 4	BID-B Operations Manager	40 minutes
Participant 5	BID-B Board Member	30 minutes
Participant 6	BID-C Manager	60 minutes
Participant 7	BID-C Board Member	30 minutes
Participant 8	BID-D Manager	50 minutes

7.2.1 LACK OF DECISION-MAKING FRAMEWORK

Majority of the participants agreed that framework for making decisions in their respective organisations is lacking. The participants apart from participant (5) and participant (7) believes that the lack of decision-making is based on the dynamic environment in which the levy-payers

they support operates in. It is interesting that the six participants (1,2 ,3, 4, 6 and 8) do not believe that BID organisations lacking decision-making framework is an issue rather it affords them the opportunity of responding to the needs of the stakeholders particularly the levy-payers. The participant (1) explained the dynamic and complex environment in which her BID operates as:

“For instance, we are currently supporting the businesses through hmm the challenges that **Brexit or wherever position Brexit is in** at the moment that’s challenge for the High Streets because they don’t know which way, we’re going to nobody knows which way at this stage High Street is going to look on what the effects are on. *But we need to be able to support those businesses. Whatever the economic climate presents to the town*”.

Participant (1) stated further:

“Very current at the moment. The coronavirus is having a significant impact on the footfall and business confidence at this at this moment. That's a very recent challenge the high street is dealing with. But prior to that, the key challenges aside from weather would be the business rates”.

In addition to this view, Participant (6) added that:

“The coronavirus, of course, is having a significant impact on visitors to the town. And because of the levels of uncertainty, people are waiting for government guidance to see what level of exposures that they should put themselves under. Depending on mixing with other people and being in proximity with the people. And so we are just ensuring that we are up to speed with the government guidance at the moment. So, at the moment we’ve got events coming up in May, June time. And before we start publicising those, we will just see how the government plays out the next few days”.

In a similar manner, participant (3) stated the BID cannot make decisions using a framework when a disruption happens and the board or the BID team needs to make decisions immediately.

He cited the following example:

“The Extinction Rebellion protest a few weeks ago, **we were able to coordinate with the Police to warn all the affected retailers**, and that was a really interesting one because it is an unusual form of protest in that, I am generalising, but a lot of people agree with the subject and it wasn’t a violent protest, but it did shut down the roads for 4 days”.

When asked how this disruption affects the decision-making in the BID, Participant (3) stated that:

“Hmmm, of course, we won’t be able to make decisions if the board put in place a policy or rules on making decisions in these circumstances”.

In addition, participant (8) has this to say when asked about the use of decision-making framework in his BID organisation:

“Well, a decision-making framework or rule per se, I don't think so. I think using some rules hmmm will make the process rigid as those of hmmm the local council. Or I don't know which are the decision-making frameworks”.

Participants (2) and (4) are event and communication and operations managers of their respective BID organisations. Both participants feels that the use of decision-making frameworks or rules will slow down the time required for BID organisations to respond to the needs of businesses and might impact their performance adversely as an organisation.

Participant (2) explain her opinion as follows:

“I don’t think we need a framework as everything changes within a short time and the businesses particularly the national chains who are the major funders expects swift

response to their queries and moreover myself and the manager only makes recommendations”.

Reactive decision-making

Participants were asked questions on factors which affects the process of decision-making within their BID organisations. One common theme among the participants was the issue of BID organisations’ reaction to issues outside their business plan. They agreed that the business plan is the basic tool guiding the activities of BID organisations including decision-making and acknowledged that the BID organisations must be able to deal with issue outside of the plan within a short time. Most of the participants felt that BID organisations must be flexible in their decision-making. Participant (8) reported that the uniqueness of BID organisations is their ability to respond to issues without any rigid process involved. In his words:

“The whole point about BID is that hmmm they shouldn’t hmmm, they should be dynamic and respond to issues quickly because that’s what makes BID organisations unique as oppose to local authorities that might have a really long time to make a decision, BIDs needs to be quicker. Their uniqueness is also that they don’t have a massive cumbersome process that makes decision-making difficult”.

Participant (1) alluded to the uniqueness of BID organisations saying that:

“one of the very positive things about BIDs is that there is no bureaucracy and being able to be **reactive** to issues”. When probed further on how she makes decisions when the BID board delegates project implementation to her, she explained that:

“what is really helpful about the BID is that there isn’t huge levels of bureaucracy you can make decisions quickly to respond to whatever demands the business present to you”.

In addition, participant 4 and participant 6 talked about reactive decisions from a different perspective. For instance, when participant 6 was discussing about how her BID organisation makes decisions that are either strategic or tactical, she said:

“I have how the annual budget is going to be spent the whole of the board will make that decision. But if there are **reactive decisions**, I need within hmmm in-between those that board meeting. Then there is an exec group of nominated individuals of three of which I need to make sure I have sign-off from two of those individuals to ensure that I can spend on a project”.

Participant 4’s comment below shows that BID organisation management teams recognise the ability of BID organisation to respond to unplanned opportunities or challenges in a timely manner is an important factor in their success. Participant 4 said:

“It's a quite small organization, so actually putting very structured policies in place wouldn't work for BIDs. I think that's one of the things that makes BIDs successful, it's the fact that they are able to look at situations and turn them around quite quickly and find solutions quite quickly. My own opinion would be that there's no structured formal process in terms of decision-making. I think that there has to be policies in place in terms of sign offs so that there's not just one person, belief in one project or something. I do think that there needs to be an easy way to be able to respond to the issues that are happening on the ground”.

Changing priorities

To understand in depth the causes of lack of decision-making frameworks in BID organisations, the research participants were required to give their opinions on the issue. Many of the participants commented that the changing priority of businesses and other stakeholders is one of main reason why there is lack of structured policies or framework for making decisions among BID organisations. As participant 1 put it:

“There is no there is no specific set of decisions because each town has its own set of priorities, The priorities of that business plan though actually have slightly changed from when it was first written back in 2015 because Altrincham and back then had a big challenge around vacant

units. It's reduced to 10% of vacant units so there is no one town that is the same and that is a key point stress that each town will have very different sets of priorities and challenges because of the very makeup of each of those towns”.

In addition, participant 1 stressed her opinion further with the following viewpoint:

“So, the actual decision-making has to be flexible. It has to be fluid. You have to be able to respond to whatever challenges are coming”.

Participant 5, a board member echoed the view of participant 1, saying:

“As BIDs have different priorities and different teams and different budgets and things, it's difficult to anticipate what the BID will be able to respond to at a point in time-- It's just impossible that a BID will be able to respond to the changing needs of the levy-payers when the manager or the boards are following some models or frameworks”.

7.2.2 BID GOVERNANCE

Strategic decisions by the BID board

All the participants including participant 5 and participant 7 (board members) agreed that the BID boards are the leaders of the organisations and as such provides the strategic direction and make strategic decisions for the BID organisations to achieve their overall objectives as stated in the business plan. Participant 5 explained the role of the board in reference to providing strategic visions for his BID organisation:

“As directors of the BID, it is our job to ensure that we make the right decisions on events and other projects so that we can go back to businesses in the centre to say we have delivered what we promised and after this term we need you to give us a YES vote when the ballot comes up”.

Participant 7 supports the view of participant 5 stating the clear focus the board provides on the priorities and direction for the BID:

“We make sure that the BID team is delivering what the businesses and those levy payers wanted to prevent drifting of the organisation because at the end if we do not make those strategic decisions, we won’t get the vote we wanted when this five year completes next year”.

Participant 2 a BID manager in a major city echoed the role of the board in his BID organisation as follows:

“The BID company has an executive board that looks at the strategic decision, that is impact, for instance, how many employees we have, do we need to expand the offices? Do we need to create another BID? We have two level of decisions, the executive BID board, focus on the strategic, on the vision, on the planning, on the thinking, where do we need to be by 2025? Whereas the BID board is about making sure that we're delivering against our business plan”.

Participant 4 corroborated the opinions of other participants by describing the role of the BID board in relations to decision-making:

“Yes. The way the BID is set up is that the board, they're the directors of the company and they make the overall strategic decisions based on recommendations that I've made”.

BID BOARD AS A FORMAL DECISION-MAKER

When asked about BID organisations make decisions, majority of the participants described the board as the sole decision-maker in BID organisations. Their responses shows that BID managers and their management teams makes recommendations on projects, events or ideas using the business plan as a guiding tool and often requires an approval by the board or a subcommittee for their day-to-day decisions.

Participant1 explained the role of the board as follows:

“The BID board represents each type of sector of businesses that are on the BID board and so that BID board for major decisions I have how the annual budget is going to be spent the whole of the board will make that decision”.

In addition, participant 6 comments on her role in the decision-making process of the BID organisation and emphasis on the point that the board makes the final decisions.

“Key decisions, yes. I make recommendations to the boards on what I think we should and how I think we should be prioritising over the next six months and then they'd make the final decision. Then they leave it up to me to make the smaller practical day to day operational decisions”.

Also, participant 6 stated:

“The BID board are responsible for making and auditing decisions and so every project that the BID does there is a series of evaluation ehmm dashboard, keys that we will look at, so we were just to embark on ehmm the Christmas project. Delivering projects and activities that the board has approved, so they've approved everything we do”.

COLLABORATION AND DELEGATION

BID is involved in city forums and lobbying and enables businesses to collaborate on problem-solving and represent corporate interests with public authorities.

my decision making when it comes to the project's allocation is very much a shared exercise that is done in collaboration with colleagues that are working specifically on that. But these kind of you know decisions, if you like, when it comes to budget allocation are taking if you like on a yearly basis however if you like people have allowed, if you like.

7.2.3 FUNDING

Participants stated that **funding** is an important determinant of decision-making within BID organisations. While it has been acknowledged that BID boards are the main decision makers within these organisations, BID managers have limits to which they can spend on making it

difficult to make decisions on some of the things enumerated in the business plan. In addition, some of these decisional challenges are aggravated by the *economic-related issues* as attested to in this statement:

“I mean Jesus at the moment online, economic circumstances, Brexit, all of which is against shopping, so we are trying to do the best we can to keep shops open and places attractive”.

In particular, they asserted as follows:

“Well, and if there is a financial involvement with something which inevitably there usually is to get something to happen. I have a limit and I can make a decision up to that amount.

If we are going to spend this much on marketing and events and that sort of programme, and we are going to spend, I don't know, this much on other stuff and obviously contingencies. So actually, those chaps then get put into numbers which dictates the financial spend and resource spend on each”.

“Funding, it's all based on the funding because without a funder we can't do it. We know what our annual income is expected to be and I suppose we work that from there. We take off the fixed cost and then see how much money we've got left and work out what the priorities for that year are and work out the best way to spend it”.

Overall, all the participants acknowledged the Board as the sole decision-maker in the decision-maker in their operations, as they give approvals and override some of the existing approvals. Sometimes, they introduce new projects that they think would add value to the community and other stakeholders. However, the Board provides the BID managers with the necessary support in the collaborative decision-making process between the Board and the BID managers. One noticeable feature in the decision-making process is the various factors in the decision-making process, especially funding. For instance, the decision-making in the BID is traditionally driven

by the business plan. However, the dynamic business environment and the competitive landscape often destabilise the business plan and hinder the decision-making process's effectiveness, resulting in a lack of a defined decision-making process. It is important to note that the levy-payers (businesses) is the stakeholder group that funds majority of the BID organisation's activities through the tax they paid into the BID organisation.

7.3 STAKEHOLDER MANAGEMENT

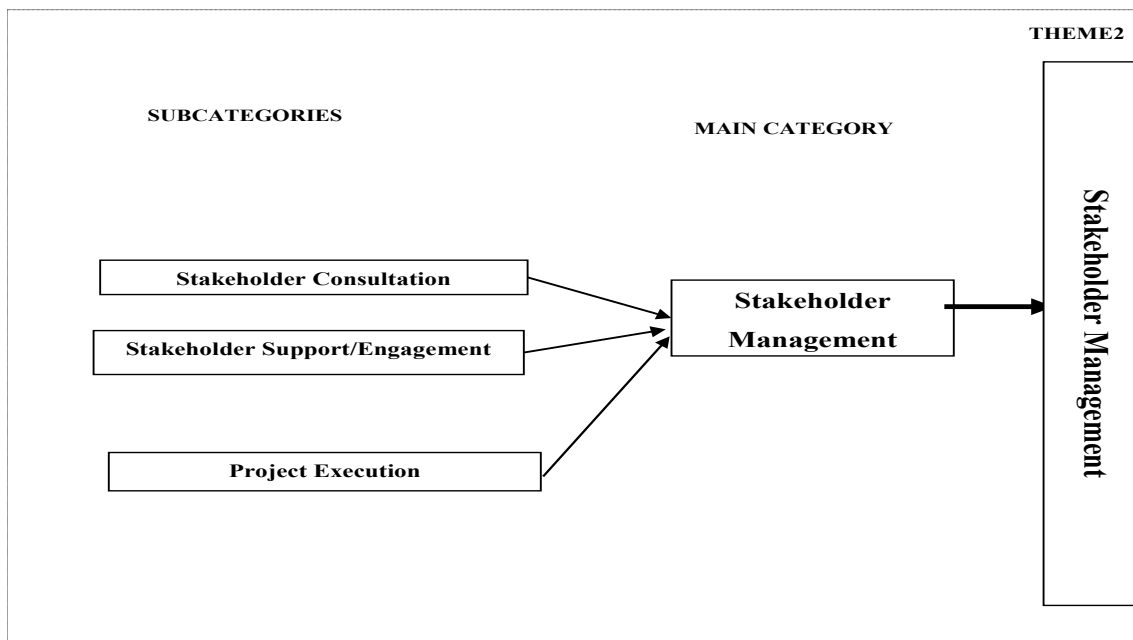
This section focuses on the issues relating to the second theme: **Stakeholder Management**.

The findings regarding the theme, **Stakeholder Management** is presented based on the research question 2 highlighted in Chapter 1.

1. *How is stakeholder management practised in BID organisations?*

The Figure 8 below shows the main category and sub-categories that explains the theme, **Stakeholder Management**.

Figure 8: Main categories and sub-categories of Stakeholder Management Theme.



The main category of the **Stakeholder Management theme** is the stakeholder management . Three sub-categories inform this main category: *Stakeholder Consultation*,

Support/Engagement, and Project Execution are the sub-categories of the main theme **Stakeholder Management**. The table 7.2 below shows the analytical development of the main category stakeholder management.

Table 7.2: Analytical Development of Main Category Stakeholder Management

<i>Open Codes</i>	<i>Subcategories</i>	<i>Main Category</i>
consultation with stakeholders; actively using suggestions as project input and production of business plan.	Stakeholder Consultation	Stakeholder Management
offer of business support; business engagement; Informal relationships; building trust and creating values.	Stakeholder Support/Engagement	
Nature of project, project process,	Project Execution	

Table 7.2: Analytical Development of Lack of Defined Decision-Making Process Categories

7.3.1 STAKEHOLDER CONSULTATION

The participants in this study including the members of the board that were interviewed the importance of managing and consulting with stakeholders on project and event deliveries.

CONSULTATION WITH STAKEHOLDERS

The participants recognise the role of the levy payers, committee members and board members as primary stakeholders in the decision-making process of the BID organisation.

“We have a number of steering groups that we work with on specific projects. But I suppose it is about having an absolute understanding of what the key project, key

priorities are for those for those different steering groups and ensuring that we're all working towards common goals”.

The impact of consulting with the levy payers, committee, and board members is further shown by the following comment by participant 4

“If we don't know about it and there might be a major event on at the same time that will have an impact, and that can cause frustrations, but usually that we're good at communicating with our stakeholders”.

The participants recognised residents within the business districts as stakeholders. Although they believed that the residents possess little or no influence on the operations of BID organisations since they are unable to vote. For instance, a participant¹ discussed the involvement of the residents' representative in her BID organisation as follows:

“She can influence the conversation and the discussion but then she doesn't actually get a vote”.

The participants acknowledged the council's role as a major stakeholder in their decision-making process since both the BID organisations and the local councils work together to deliver projects within the town/city centres, however, there is a need to get approval from them.

According to participant 8:

“No, just on some projects. For example, we've recently wanted to put banners, promotional banners on the lamp columns and we had to wait for the council process of approval to allow us to do that”.

Participant 8 has a dual role within his BID as the BID manager and as the Town Centre Manager. The BID districts comprise of small businesses with the local council actively involved in the BID's operations.

The participants support the view on the importance of the local council in their decision-making: For instance, participant 6 describes the role of the local council in the decision-making process as follows:

“So, there's a series of decision making that goes into when we're talking with the council and we're talking with the company that's bringing in the bike race. We're making sure that we have considered all the possible areas”.

While the stakeholder issues are prominent in the data, the problems can be classed in stakeholder consultation and *stakeholder support*.

There is a high-level consultation among stakeholders regarding the affairs of the BID organisation and the decision-making, as shown in the following statements:

“... people that create that and then make a decision also based on what board members and stakeholders kind of you know want, you've got to try and get all those different stakeholders involved”.

When asked about who the stakeholders are in BID organisations, participant3 named the following groups as the major stakeholders in his BID organisation.

Were there stakeholders?

“Yes. Key stakeholders, the police, the council, the Department of Transport, voluntary associations, business associations and the businesses”.

ACTIVELY USING SUGGESTIONS AS PROJECT INPUT

Another aspect of stakeholder consultation is to actively use stakeholders' suggestions as part of recommendations to the BID board before decisions are made. BID organisations, mainly where the local councils are active participants, consult and listen to the centres' residents.

“That type of thing but we involved them in the planning of the layout, so they came in and they decided you know what proportion of pedestrian footway versus what

proportion of car parking on the street versus what proportion of carriageway. So they assisted in all that, you know what proportion of trees we should have etc.etc. and we involved them two months consultation period and then when we **input all of their suggestions, we then produced a plan** and we picked up an award for that in London through the Institute of Landscape”.

In addition, BID organisations consult with the community using a tactic called *enrolling*. Stakeholders such as residents and other users are enrolled through informing them about the projects the BID organisation intends to implement.

“So, we consult our stakeholders. Yeah, on most things that we would do. What we did in order to endorse the project at a very early stage, we consult our local businesspeople telling them what we want to do”.

7.3.2 STAKEHOLDER SUPPORT/ENGAGEMENT

The stakeholder consultation often requires collaboration and lead to the support of various stakeholders on the common goal of the BID organisations. Such *stakeholder support* is evident in the following statement by participant1:

“.... For instance, we are currently supporting the businesses through hmm the challenges that Brexit or wherever position Brexit is in at the moment that’s challenge for the High Streets because they don’t know which way, we’re going to nobody knows which way at this stage High Street is going to look on what the effects are on. But we need to be able to support those businesses. Whatever the economic climate presents to the town”.

Developing a harmonious relationship among key stakeholders is vital in BID organisations, and this emphasises the importance of relationship-building among various stakeholders. The importance of relationship-building underpins some of the views of respondents as follows:

“Well relationships are absolutely key, and we have a number of steering groups that we work on specific projects. But I suppose it is about having an absolute understanding of what the key project, key priorities are for those for those different steering groups and ensuring that what we’re all working towards common goals”.

One BID manager expressed concern about working with stakeholders as follows:

“So you can build a lot of personal relationships and then stop, and some companies have policies of either heavily supporting BIDs or not supporting BIDs, so there is an element of, I wouldn’t want to say you are wasting your time because I am always trying to help everybody, but you wouldn’t know that these stores, as a company, decide not to engage in BIDs, or these restaurants don’t, or whatever the business maybe”.

When asked about the most essential tool used in their day-to-day role as BID managers, most of the participants pointed out that relationship building is the most critical tool in their toolkit for achieving their objectives. This is evidenced as follows:

“You have just to develop relationships. It's all about relationships”.

In a further comment, the respondent explained her relationship with the BID board. This in essence shows why relationship is essential to a BID manager.

“I have a very good working relationship with the BID board, and you know twelve bosses need to be happy with the direction of where we’re going, but we are working extremely hard”.

7.3.3 PROJECT EXECUTION

Project execution is another important category identified in the participants’ responses. BID organisations are project-oriented and executes various projects as agreed upon in the business plan. The importance of project delivery was emphasised by participant 3 in his response as follows:

“I think we are too busy and too focused on delivering fantastic events and projects to really hmmm it’s not going to work if people if people are constantly challenging what we’re doing”.

Participant 8 accentuated the approval by the board to execute projects in different themes which is based on the needs of the community in which the BID organisation operates in.

“I lead on the projects and activities that the BID Board hmmm have agreed fund allocation for to promote four key objectives for the town, increase footfall, dwell time, spend”.

However, the project execution is driven by the nature of project and project process. These two issues form the identified sub-categories.

NATURE OF PROJECT

BID organisations are involved in various projects and the nature of such projects is driven by the needs, funding and focus of the BID organisations, as shown in the following statement by participant 1:

“And interestingly, this project started off with a budget line of the specific amount but as we are going forward with that budget line”.

In addition, participant 1 emphasised the focus of different committees on specific projects to be implemented by the board and the importance of relationships within the BID organisation:

“Well relationships are absolutely key, and we have a number of steering groups that we work on specific projects”.

“spending that sort of money on that specific project because I am a bakery, and I don’t understand why that’s errr working for me and then the equivalent person on the board who have similar business challenges can explain why those decisions were made”.

Participant 6, described the strategic nature of decision-making relating to project delivery:

“and look at the different projects that we need to have prioritised but that's at a high level in terms of the decision making”.

PROJECT PROCESS

Project process is the second sub-category identify in the participants' responses, as attested to in the following statement by participant 6:

“Then there is an exec group of nominated individuals of three of which I need to make sure I have sign-off from two of those individuals to ensure that I can spend on a project”.

The project process includes the evaluation of the project delivery using different metrics as explained by participant 6:

“The BID board are responsible for auditing and so every project that the BID does there is a series of evaluation ehmm dashboard, keys that we will look at, so we were just to embark on ehmm the Christmas project”.

The quote from participant 3, indicates that financial decisions are made by BID managers and members of BID committees who often approve the budget allocated to different projects that will be implemented in the five-year term of BID organisations:

“So, you know, in terms of the actual budget allocation to projects related and to the theme groups, essentially this decision up taken jointly with the board member, sorry with the board and then with the board members that chairs each of the groups. So, when it comes to those decisions in terms of larger budget allocations”.

In addition, participant 4 explained the project selection process and decisions on the alternative project selected for implementation:

“Then on a daily basis, obviously, we fine-tune those different projects. So, we'll be making different decisions on which way is the best way to go on the project”.

Overall, the stakeholder management is an important component of BID operations, as there are various collaborations among various stakeholders. Similarly, it engenders various support among stakeholders for effective operations. This support galvanises teamwork, which enables execution of various projects. However, project execution is driven by nature of project and process success.

CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter discusses the research findings based on the frame of the study's research questions. The chapter evaluates the conduct of the whole research and discusses the contribution and implication of the study regarding research and practice. Similarly, the chapter puts forward some final thought about the study, outlines the study's limitations and make some suggestions for future study.

8.1 LACK OF DECISION-MAKING FRAMEWORK

One interesting finding of this study is the of lack of framework for decision-making among BID organisations. The lack of decision-making framework among BID organisations according to the study is due to factors such as environment dynamism, changing or shifting priorities, complexity, and time pressure.

The review of the existing literature on BID shows that little or no current study have examined the decision-making process among BID organisations.

For instance, Briffault (1999) argues that a BID organisation is an autonomous legal entity consisting of private individuals empowered to make decisions about urban spaces. This assertion suggests that the BID organisations have the free will to make their own decisions and have its decision-making mechanism. However, the finding from this study shows that while BID organisations are empowered to make decisions, they do so without any formalised decision-making mechanism or framework. The following response from participant 2 in the study shows the evidence of lack of decision-making among BID organisations:

“I don't think we need a decision-making framework or rule as everything changes within a short time and the businesses particularly the national chains who are the major funders expects swift response to their needs and moreover myself and the manager only makes recommendations to the BID board”.

This finding is consistent with that of Tucker et al., (2005) who suggested that decision-makers are faced with challenges when making decisions in highly dynamic and complex environments which are characterised by non-linear behaviour, adaptive behaviour, and time delays. In addition, this finding reflect those of Sterman (2000) who found that rather than using decision-making frameworks, decision-makers in complex organisational settings such as BID organisations depend on the use of past mental models which are incorporated in the assumptions about the organisation.

Place-based decisions are made either within a short time period or otherwise depending on the circumstance facing the BID organisation at the time of making decisions. The nature of the business environment influence how decisions are made by the BID boards or the BID managers.

8.2 BID GOVERNANCE

"These are businesspeople making business decisions to improve business districts".
(Houstoun, 2004)

The citation above by Houstoun (2004) shows that BID organisations are control and manage majorly by business owners possessing the influence and power to make decisions about the urban spaces they manage. The BID strategy is commonly used globally as an urban management approach which empowers private citizens to provide supplemental services to town and city centres using private funds.

The governance structure of BID organisations is an important determinant in how BID organisations make decisions and how stakeholders perceived themselves as part of the decision-making process. Thus, BID managers from three BID organisations used as case studies in this study, had a sense of themselves as employees of the BID board, while one of the BID managers who had worked previously as the Town Centre Manager and then transitioned into the BID manager role perceived himself as the representative of the local

council on the BID's board, in turn employing team members. Although not all stakeholders get involved with the decision-making on a day-to-day basis, the BID managers recognise the influence of stakeholders such as residents, public organisations, and other external stakeholders on the decision-making process of these BID organisations, particularly those that are Town Centre BIDs where the local councils play an active role in the partnership.

The two board members interviewed categorised themselves as the directors of the BID organisations (businesses paying levies) saw themselves as having the power to contribute to certain decisions because BID organisations are dependent upon the levy they provided. Thus, BID managers considered it entirely appropriate - indeed, a responsible use of private funding - that they strictly follow the business plan which provide clear guidelines for their activities. The local council by offering additional sources of funding to these BID organisations, they have a significant impact on certain projects and event decisions that the BID boards made.

Results from this study shows that the BID board is the major stakeholder in the BID organisations in the U.K. In addition, the results shows that BID managers make recommendations to their BID boards through different committees established within the business districts.

As stated in the section 3.5.3, the BID's governance is the responsibility of the Board. While the day-to-day management of a BID is the responsibility of a professionals recruited to manage the BID organisations. The findings shows that the BID board is responsible for most of decisions made on behalf of the BID organisation while the professionals make recommendations to the BID board via committees within the BID. The Board creates a management structure that encourages continuous business involvement in identifying priorities and shaping activities based on the business plan. The Board is elected by members of the BID organisation, who are drawn predominantly among the levy payers in the area and made up of representatives of stakeholders and businesses of the area and significant agencies linked with the successful delivery of the BID project. While the BID is private sector driven,

local authority representatives are typically part of the Board as a critical operational link. The board's primary role is to protect the interests of levy payers by ensuring that the BID organisations operate according to its plan and is professional and provides consistent value for funds based on its targets. Additionally, the Board ensures that the BID implementation is monitored and delivered in a timely and cost-effective manner. The Board equally provide a consistent and effective voice for businesses across the area. However, all roles on the Board are voluntary and executed based on a commitment to represent the interest of all businesses in the area.

These results are consistent with Unger's (2016) study, which describes the BID board as possessing the management authority and fiduciary responsibilities for the BID organisation. According to Unger (2016) there is no particular governance structure among BID organisations as each of the BID areas are faced with unique challenges that the BID organisations are providing supplemental services to solve these challenges.

8.3 FUNDING

Unlike private organisations, that accrued profits through the provision of goods and services, and other non-profit organisations, that depend on the goodwill of citizens to donate and receive tax exemption from the government, BID organisations as non-profit organisations primarily raise funds through the mechanism of taxation using government powers (Brettmo and Browne, 2020) and funding support from the central government particularly in the UK. Therefore, BID organisations depend majorly on the funds that comes from the levy paid into a pot to fund the events and projects agreed upon by the businesses in the BID business plan. However, the findings from this study shows that factors such as the economic climate of business environment, the restrictive budgeting due to contractual agreements, and the size and types of projects or events to be implemented by the BID organisations influence decision-making among BID organisations.

In addition, when making financial decisions, BID managers are given purchasing power to a certain amount they can spend on projects, events or other administrative costs to a certain limit in terms of the budget they can utilise in their day-to-day operations. BID organisations operate on a restrictive budget each year during the BID term to deliver projects or events within the business district area. The ring-fenced budget is also a major factor considered when making place-based decisions (Unger, 2016).

8.4 RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN TWO CORE THEMES: STAKEHOLDER MANAGEMENT AND ORGANISATIONAL DECISION-MAKING

One of the central features of this study is the diversity of stakeholders involved in the BID organisations (Berry et. al., 2010). This often creates difficulties for the management teams and the board when making decisions. The levy-payers and other stakeholders in a BID organisation represent different interest groups and seek to maximise their groups' interest (Berry et. al., 2010). However, to ensure that all stakeholders are involved in the process, BID managers and their teams strive to use the views and opinions of the stakeholders as part of their recommendations to the BID boards in their decision-making (Cook, 2010). In enhancing the quality of decision-making among BID organisations, the findings show that BID managers identify key stakeholders critical to a project or issue. It is important to note that these stakeholders are often the levy payers within the business district and are knowledgeable, qualify, affected or care about the project or issue. In addition, the key stakeholders include those who can contribute to making the successful implementation of the project or issue. However, the key stakeholders are situational. They depend on the project or the issue at stake. On the other hand, such decisions can be simple or complex depending on the nature of a project, or an event agreed upon by the levy-payers and documented in the business plan. In the case of simple decisions, such as the daily operational issues, the BID managers make these decisions and requires the approval of a selected board member. In contrast, complex decision-

making requires organised thinking to help factor in a broad array of relevant issues. This type of decisions is often made in an ad hoc manner and may impact diverse stakeholders or maybe a unique project or issue that has never been experienced or lacks well-understood alternatives. Similarly, the findings showed that a complex decision might be multiple interconnected or dependent decisions with or without a predictable timeframe.

The findings established that BID organisations utilised ad hoc analytical decision-making process for decision-making when an opportunity or challenges under high time pressure (Cook, 2008; Lundgren-Laine et al., 2011). This process is a systematic approach that assists in synthesises information and alternatives. The findings showed that using such analytical decision-making process aids in balancing the benefits and risks of alternatives and back decisions with evidence and data. This process involves the following sequential pattern: define the intended decision; develop accomplishment criteria; evaluate alternative decisions based on the accomplishment criteria; identify the risks involved; identify key stakeholders; manage key stakeholders; get the buy-in of other stakeholders; take the decision; execute decisions (Maddalena, 2007). For instance, the manager of BID-B, described the process of making decision in his BID as “So to make decision you’ll need to go back to that business plan, but I mentioned the sort of teams before. They (sub-committee) have actually got some financial numbers against them. So we did that first consultation and when you’ve done it all you end up with... right so we suggested in the last one, the summary meeting, that given the amount of prioritisation we ask if the rank for different office what they would do. If we spend roughly 10-15% of our income on operations or we are going to have a headline cost on the staffing and try and keep it under 20%, which is the industry norm for BIDs. If we are going to spend this much on marketing and events and that sort of programme, and we are going to spend, I don’t know, this much on other stuff and obviously contingencies. So actually, those chaps then get put into numbers which dictates the financial spend and resource spend on each.

So, the Finance Committee then recommends back to the main Board all the time, because you might have it easier talking to 4 people about this sort of stuff than it is 20, but we will check in with them every 6 to 8 weeks, so they meet fairly regularly with us” (BID- B Manager).

Regardless of whether it is simple or complex decision-making, the research findings showed that BID organisations issued an ad hoc decision statement once it is recognised that a decision needs to be made. This was the case in BID-B as stated above and in BID-A and BID- C This decision statement is a crucial part of the decision-making process. This provides the focus of other things that follow and sets the choice limit. It typically indicates a choice, some actions, and its intended results. For instance, such a decision could be to execute a project or deliberate on a major issue. In identifying key stakeholders for complex decisions, the findings showed that the number of stakeholders involved is typically kept small to ensure a concise decision statement. However, depending on the number of the existing committees within the BID organisation, the number of stakeholders is expanded to review the projects or issues that initiated the need for a decision and explore the issue of those that the decision would impact. This is followed by developing a list of alternatives and involves key stakeholders. In developing alternative criteria, the cost, funding, business environment, affected stakeholders and other issues are considered.

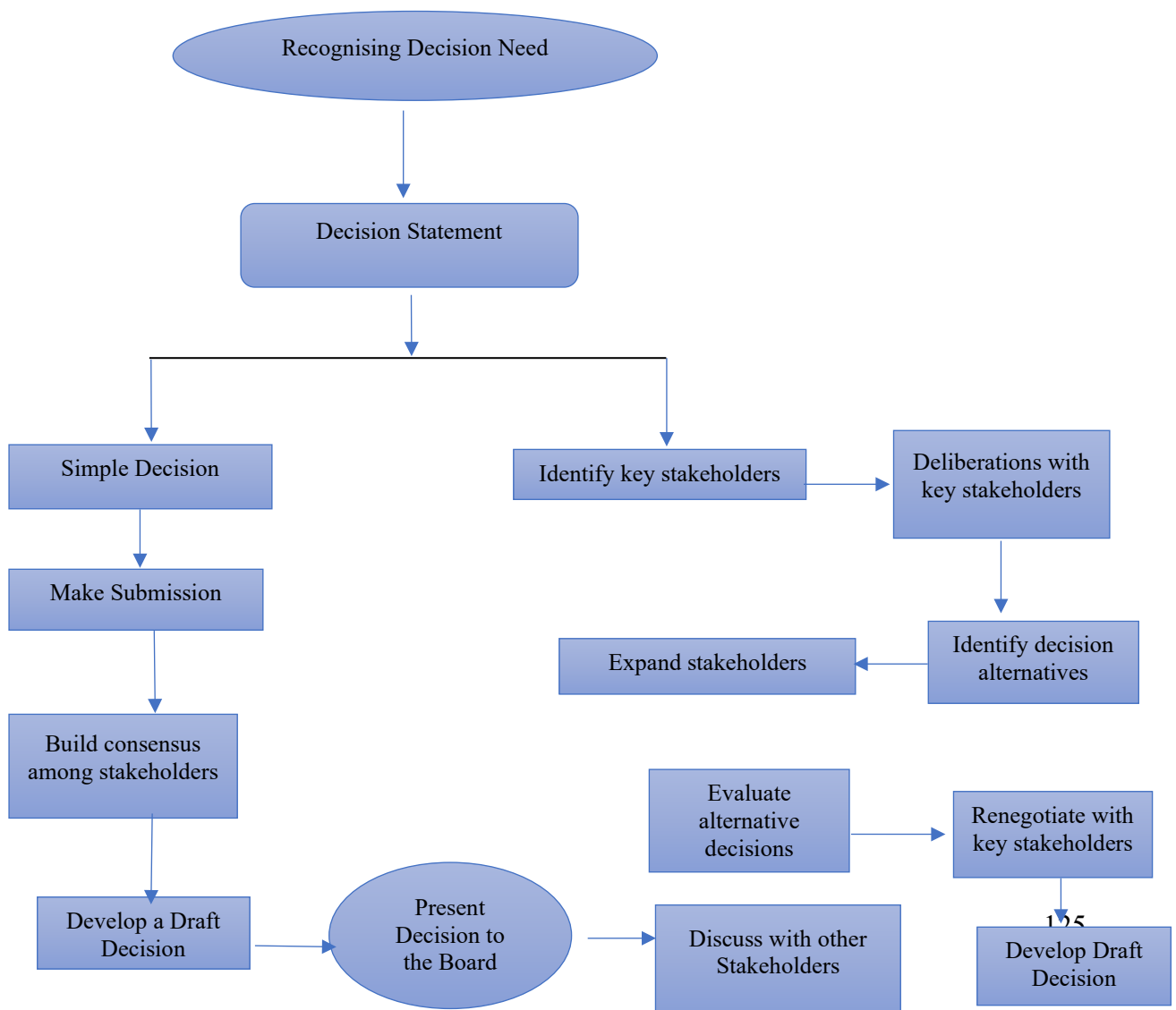
These alternatives are used for wider consultation to arrive at a list: Participant 8 in the study

“OK, it very much depends on what the project is as to how we arrive at that decision. So first of we all had to build a business case then an economic appraisal and then evaluate if additional funding would be needed and to inform them (sub-committee) after strapline the vision to the businesspeople that strapline was we are doing this to make the town centre fit for purpose”.

This list is used to renegotiate with the key stakeholders. The essence of reverting to the key stakeholders, instead of all stakeholders, is to limit never-ending disagreement with many

stakeholders. Once the agreement has been sealed with the key stakeholders, the draft decision is used to seek consensus with other stakeholders. This is to ensure all stakeholders have a say in the decision-making process. While this decision is presented to the Board as a major stakeholder, the Board mostly ratify this decision. However, it might override it and amend it based on other considerations. One noticeable feature in the relationship between stakeholder management and decision-making process is that stakeholders drive the quality of decision-making in BID organisations. This shows that the relationship between the two core themes stakeholder management and decision-making – of the study is a unidirectional relationship which emanates from the stakeholder management to decision-making. Based on the findings from BIDs A, B, C and D, Figure 8.1 represents the decision-making process in a BID organisation.

Figure 9: Decision-Making Framework in BID Organisations



8.4.1 RESEARCH QUESTION 1

What are the determinants of the organisational decision-making processes in BID organisations?

The findings revealed that the interactions of a lack of a defined decision-making process, funding issues, governance structure and stakeholder management influenced the decision-making process in BID organisations (Berry et. al., 2010). The findings revealed the business plan serves as the foundation of decision making in BID organisations. The business plan is perceived as an essential document prepared when setting up a BID and contains all the relevant internal and external components involved in starting up a new BID (Grail et al., 2020). They also used the business plan to access funding and attract new partnerships, and it is often used for due diligence (Grossman, 2016; Grail et al., 2020). Similarly, the findings revealed that the business plan is used as a guideline for action, and it is a vital document for setting up business relationships among various interested parties. The participants contended that a business plan improves their actions, as it clearly defines the objectives and supports effective implementation.

The findings also showed that a business plan assists the BID organisations in integrating their goals into people's actions and helps in forming concrete ideas about the desired future of BID organisations. Additionally, the findings revealed that a business plan assists BID organisation in decision-making as it identifies the necessary information and skills required to attain business objectives and offers a framework for action that leads to successful results (Grossman, 2016). While it was also found that BID organisations have a varying entrepreneurial tendency, the findings showed that BID organisations with higher entrepreneurial tendency typically have an urge for action and a mindset of seizing opportunities may navigate faster without a full understanding of business challenges and may also be misled by their intuition. The participants contended that well-conceived business plans

might aid them in decision-making in these circumstances by safeguarding them against such tendencies.

Despite the utility of a business plan in BID organisations, the findings contended that a business plan is often limited for decision-making in BID organisations due to the economic environment. BID organisations do not operate in a vacuum. Instead, they operate in a dynamic environment, comprising all factors that affect and support their activities. Its dynamism often leads to various uncertainties that are not factored into their original business plan (Grail et al., 2020). For instance, the unforeseen nature of the current Coronavirus pandemic impacted on the established business plan. This curtailed BID organisation from following their business plan. Similarly, a business plan is a statement of intention, and it is based on expectation. These expectations are factored into the business plan, especially on funding and financing. With the impaired business activities due to economic shocks occasioned by the current Coronavirus pandemic, the BID organisations cannot make decisions based on their planned activities. The findings showed that the inability to meet up with the planned activities impaired cash flow of BID organisations and aggravated funding issues (Berry et al., 2010).

It is argued that these funding issues destabilised some of the plan enumerated in the business plan. In particular, it often resulted in changing the planned decision-making and led to the reallocation of resources to other projects. BID organisations exist with the purpose of achieving performance as a group of levy-payers that one individual or organisation cannot achieve individually. This has prompted BID organisations to find an organisational structure that best fits the industry its operates and its environment. The participants agreed that organisational structures must follow a clear path, especially regarding how and where organisational decisions are made to attain the organisational goals.

The findings established that the Board is the highest decision-making body in a BID organisation, the findings showed that the BID managers' agenda is attempting to find a

balance for the decisions. The choice is often between identifying the decision authority at higher hierarchical levels when little or no authority is delegated to subordinates or increase the responsibilities and delegate decision power to subordinates. While BID managers attempt to make decisions based on the business plan approved by the Board, the Board often change some of these decisions based on the exigency of time or economic situations. The study found that it might lead to the reallocation of resources to other projects or total cancellations of other projects.

Although the study established a lack of defined decision-making mechanisms in BID organisations, the study established that the decision-making in BID organisations is essentially determined by the approved business plan. This is where the decision-making process starts. However, dynamic business decisions and uncertainty could result in various changes. Regardless of the changes, the findings showed that decision-making in BID organisation is most driven value-addition and project exigency. Therefore, the decision-making process is based on the approved business plan by the Board, and this is followed through, except there is a need to alter this. In this case, a Board meeting would be convened, and deliberations made on the changes. However, the findings showed that there is always an undercurrent deliberation before the Board meeting is conveyed, and all Board members are aware of the impending changes (Cook, 2010).

8.4.2 RESEARCH QUESTION 2

How is stakeholder management practiced in BIDs?

The findings revealed that the interactions of stakeholder issues, teamwork, project execution, project planning and project funding influenced stakeholder management in BID organisations. The operations of BID organisations involve various stakeholders, and this has made stakeholders and their management an integral part of BID organisations. This is reflected in

the research findings. The findings showed that the operations of BID organisations, in terms of projects or strategy, affect various stakeholders in various ways and these stakeholders seek to influence the operations of the BID for the common goal. The study established that stakeholders of BID organisations include levy-payers, the Board, the community, government agencies and the public. However, the study established that BID organisations operate in a dynamic and complex environment. Therefore, BID organisations can face unexpected problems and uncertainty in their operations if stakeholder management is not adequately addressed.

Similarly, it is highlighted that a lack of adequate resources and changes in the scope of projects and negative community reactions to the project can hinder the effectiveness of the projects undertaken by BID organisations. In enhancing the effectiveness of stakeholder management, the study places stakeholder consultation at the core of this. Such consultation would enable engagement with various stakeholders. However, the study found that there are various engagement levels, ranging from informing people about what the BID organisation plan to do actively to seek consent and placing the final decisions in their hands. While there are various engagement levels, the participants noted that it depends on the project type, the potential impact, and the stakeholders' needs. The engagement level is decomposed into five: inform, consult, involve, collaborate, and empower. The BID organisations inform by providing its levy-payers and the community with objective and balanced information to assist them in understanding the project they intend to undertake.

Furthermore, they consult the stakeholders by gathering feedback on the information provided. The input level ranges from minimal interaction to extensive consultation with various stakeholders. On the other hand, the BID organisations involve the stakeholders by working directly with them during the project implementation process to ensure that their concerns and desired outcomes are well understood and considered. Similarly, BID organisations collaborate

with stakeholders by partnering with them at different stages of the decision-making process. This could include developing alternative solution ideas and collaborate to select the preferred solution. This often involved the BID managers and the Board on the one hand or the BID managers and the executives on the other hand. Additionally, the BID organisations empower and places final decision-making power in the hands of stakeholders. For instance, the Board, as a stakeholder, is saddled with the responsibility of having the highest decision-making power in a BID organisation.

With projects at the core of BID operations, some of the findings are related to project implementation. However, issues relating to project implementation are compartmentalised under three categories: project funding, project planning and project execution. The categories are further decomposed to four sub-categories: nature of projects, project processes, project approval, and project challenges. The findings showed that the nature of projects implemented by BID organisations vary and it is location- and exigency-dependent. Despite this, the nature of the project is typically driven by the needs of their community and the value such projects would add to the community and BID organisation. Similarly, the findings showed that BID organisations fund their projects through their limited resources. This often results in prioritising projects and considering the interest of various stakeholders in the decision-making process while prioritising projects. Such priority might result in making various changes to the already planned project in the business plan. Regarding the project processes, the study found that the projects typically undergo some processes before their implementation.

Such processes involve setting up various committees to evaluate the appropriateness of the projects in terms of relevance to the community and its returns. However, various competing projects might emerge, and the Board, the BID managers and the project committees would deliberate before arriving at the selected project choice. Despite this, the selection might be hampered by economic shocks and may derail the project implementation. While stakeholder

management is a critical part of BID organisations, the study established that managing stakeholder through project funding and priority could impact on the quality of decision-making. For instance, the study revealed that some projects were jettisoned to satisfy the interest of some stakeholders despite a competing and higher quality project. Similarly, efforts are often made to carry the various stakeholders along, and this could lead to taking certain decisions that might not be in the overall interest of the BID organisation (De Magalhães, 2014; Guimarães, 2021).

8.5 RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION

This present study makes a number of important contributions to the field of organisational behaviour and UK's BID industry. Being one of the earliest studies to examine BID organisation behaviour from the perspective of decision-making, this study systematically examines the determinants of Place-Based Decision-Making (PBDM) and the management of stakeholders within BID organisations. While the study aids our understanding of the concept of BID, it additionally, serves as a platform for future research into PBDM. An important contribution of this study is the decision-making framework showing the mapping of decision-making process among BID organisations. A search of the literature revealed several studies have examined the concept of BID from different perspectives, however, the review showed that there is a paucity of research on BID which has focus on the organisational behaviour of BID organisations and stakeholder management within these organisations. Understanding the dual nature of BID organisations through their decision-making process is important for BID organisations as it helps to differentiate them from other non-profit organisations where the issue of accountability is important and rooted in their social cause.

Therefore, the present study provides a unique contribution to the existing literature on stakeholder management in a multi-stakeholder context such as BID organisations by identifying how BID organisations in the UK engage with stakeholders through the process of

enrolling stakeholders. Understanding the concept of enrolment, which enables organisations to engage with their stakeholders, is important to BID organisations unlike other non-profit organisations and public organisations that are accountable to all stakeholders. Enrolment in BID organisations involves consulting with stakeholders by informing them on the objective and information that will help stakeholders understand the impact of proposed projects or events on their activities within the business districts. The BID organisations then collaborate with their stakeholders by working directly with them during the project implementation process to ensure that their concerns and desired outcomes are well understood and considered. Similarly, BID organisations collaborate with stakeholders by partnering with them at different stages of the decision-making process. This could include developing alternative solution ideas and collaborate to select the preferred solution. And finally levy payers are empowered to make decisions through the committee members representing their interest within the BID board.

In addition, this current study makes significant methodologically contribution to the body of existing knowledge on organisational behaviour and BID organisations. To build a picture of decision-making process and stakeholder management among BID organisations in the UK, this study combines the use of case study methodology and grounded theory as the analytical tool for analysing data collected from research participants using semi-structure interviews. Past studies, relating to multi-stakeholder non-profit organisations such as BID organisations, helped inform the type of interview questions used for this study with majority of them adopting other forms of research methodologies.

Implications for Practice

With this study's substantive theory representing the decision-making process in BID organisations, it seems appropriate to explore those who the research might be beneficial.

Implications for BID Board/Managers

The research findings give some valuable implications for BID board/managers and suggest various strategies that BID board/managers might consider for improving their decision-making process. One, a lack of well-defined decision-making underlines the significance of decision-making for both the effective use and creation of an effective decision-making process. This emphasises the need for decision-making and stakeholder management in BID organisations. While it is essential to engage stakeholders for effective decision-making, there is a need for evaluating different risks and incorporate those risks in the business plan. Similarly, the findings showed that decision-making barriers in BID organisations prevented organisations from either executing project investments or understanding the strategic use of decision-making for organisational value creation from these decisions.

Based on this, it is suggested that BID board/managers should be cognisant, through workshops or seminars, of the current developments in the decision-making field in relation to BID organisations. BID board/managers should be aware that decision-making strategies need to align with organisational vision, capabilities, and processes, for projects highlighted in the business plan to bear fruits. A strand of literature – such as Abrams (2003) - has argued about a strong link between decision-making strategies and business planning. Hence, these decision-making strategies need to be carefully developed. Two, the findings indicate that BID organisations need more synergy, collaboration and coordination among various stakeholders linked with the BID. The findings suggest that decision-making in BID organisations involves various parties. However, the interest of these parties vary, and this results in a lack of a defined decision-making process. Therefore, it is important to craft strategies to harmonise the interest of various stakeholders. This would enhance the decision-making process, enhance project delivery, and add value to the BID organisations and community.

Three, the findings showed that operations of BID organisations are prevalently dependent on their internal networks for executing various projects in their business plan. This suggests the need for a wider base of relationships for effective decision-making and stakeholder management. However, competition and rivalry among various groups within the organisations and stakeholders are some challenges for effective decision-making and inter-organisational relationship-building in BID organisations. In an environment like the UK where trust is based on relationships, it is crucial for BID board/managers to gradually cultivate trust in BID organisations through strategic endeavours. This could be achieved through the formation of inter-organisational strategic alliances for deepening stakeholder alliance and decision-making process in line with the business plan. Similarly, setting up industry-oriented training institutes by resourceful BID organisations, in a way that would be beneficial to the community and all stakeholders. Additionally, the findings suggest that BID organisations' relationships with their community are at personal levels and do not offer much value to those values. Hence, BID board/managers need to form strategic collaborative ties with these parties at the business level to galvanise an effective decision-making process.

Implications for Policy and Practice

The research findings provide significant implications for policy and practice. The government and the local authority can benefit from this study for designing the decision-making process in any public sector or public-private partnership organisations. Most importantly, the study offers various implications for government policies and practices in the UK. Although BID is a private organisation, its decision-making through its operation has a significant effect on the community, local authority and by extension, the central government. Therefore, it is essential for the government to aid BID organisations to build its capabilities by ensuring value-added decision-making process. Therefore, the government policy on BID should complement existing efforts of BID organisations to achieve effective decision-making process.

Similarly, the findings revealed and suggested that effective decision-making in BID organisations and stakeholder management in these organisations require collaboration and coordination between various stakeholders. In this regard and given government interventionist stance, the government can intervene using policy changes and actions, notably building formal partnerships with BID organisations in the areas of policy formulation for effective BID operations. Similarly, the government can propel deepening communication, close cooperation and working relationships with BID organisations and collaborate to have a good and secure community.

8.6 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

Research like all other types of projects are limited in some ways. The same is for this current study, as there are some limitations encountered in the course of conducting the research project. These limitations are often beyond the control of the researcher as some of them are external. However, these limitations provides opportunity and guidance for future research. One important limitation observed in this study was issue of access. This study began as part of a project designed to implement a decision support system to Town Centre Management, however due to different reasons access to different research participants was limited and therefore the amount of data collected for this study was limited. The lack of data for this study resulted in its restricted scope, with its focus on one study area, in the UK, one sector and four BID organisations out of various such organisations in the UK. Therefore, prospective research could explore theoretical generalisations of this study in other studies of decision-making in the organisation in the same or different industry. Similarly, it may warrant a large-scale empirical study in the UK BID sector to statistically measure the hypotheses in the theory of decision-making and to show that these hypotheses and conclusions are not bound by the specific case selection. Furthermore, comparative case studies of the decision-making process in related sectors, such as town centre management, are suggested.

Such exploration may be useful in investigation decision-making and compare with that of the BID organisation.

Although this study offered some insight into the decision-making process in BID organisations and its implication for organisational effectiveness, it is limited in providing detailed explanations on the decision-making process between BID organisations and government agencies, especially those at the centre. Hence, further studies can focus on evaluating the decision-making process between BID organisations and government agencies. Similarly, the study is limited in explaining the decision-making process in various levels of the organisations, and further study could focus on the decision-making within the BID organisation instead of focusing on only BID managers and executive.

Concluding Thoughts

The study explored the decision-making process in UK BID organisations. The founding argument was the lack of decision-making framework in BID organisations. The study established the complexity involved in the decision-making process, considering the multiplicity of stakeholders in the BID delivery chain. This is even further fuelled by the dynamic operating business environment, which exposes BID organisations to various economic shocks. More, there are diversity of interests within the BID organisations, and the to react to challenges or opportunities inhibit the BID organisations from having a defined decision-making process despite their decisions are driven by the business plan. Similarly, various decisions are driven by the impact of the projects on the community, value-additions, funding for competing projects and fairness among stakeholders.

These issues often make it difficult to have a defined template for the decision-making process. This implies that all these contending factors must be considered during the decision-making process. While some can easily be evaluated, the dynamic business environment often makes it difficult to capture some of the unanticipated economic and social shocks. As such, decision-

makers in BID organisations, especially the Board and managers, must recognise this complexity and build it in their business plan. Importantly, they must incorporate effective risk management practice in their decision-making process to enable them to anticipate and evaluate the risk for the effective decision-making process.

Research findings are meaningful when they are applied in real-life situations. Therefore, I hope this study would be acknowledged and its findings are used in practice. It is noteworthy that the research is not an end in itself; instead, it is a means to an end. It is hopeful that the decision-making in BID organisations as a research area would gain traction in the decision-making and management literature and develop in the future.

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Appendix A

Interview Guide

Role

How long have you been with this BID organisation?

How would you describe your role within the BID?

What are the main issues about your role?

Can you tell me about the business district you are managing?

What are the issues affecting your BID?

Decisions

What are the main decisions you get involved in, daily, short-term or long term?

What types of decisions you did not involve in that you felt by virtual of your role you should have been?

Do you consider this as a constraint? If yes, why?

What are the key issues or decisions facing your BID now?

Are there criteria you consider when making decisions?

If they are, what are they?

Are there variations in your decision-making process?

What factors influence your decision-making process?

Business Plans

What is the role of the business plan in your decision-making process?

What happens to your decision-making process when the BID business plan is modified?

Do you have any decision criteria for implementing your business plan and how are they support your goal?

Appendix A continuation

Stakeholders

Who are the stakeholders involved in managing your BID?

How would you classify these stakeholders?

What are the key roles of stakeholders in the BID decision area?

What is the influence of the stakeholders on your decision-making process?

Governance Structure

How do you see the Management/BID Steering Committee?

What are relationships like between BID management team and BID Board in your BID?

Can you describe how your BID organisation is structured?

What governance procedures guide decision-making of your BID board members?

How would categorise your BID as an organisation?

As private or public organisation. If as a public organisation, how does this affect decision-making and

if it is public organisation, how does it affect decision-making process within the BID?

Tell me a little about how your organisation makes decisions

How often do you have to refer a decision upwards?

How much freedom do you have to make decision?

Appendix B

Organisational structure common to most BIDs showing leadership and management structure.

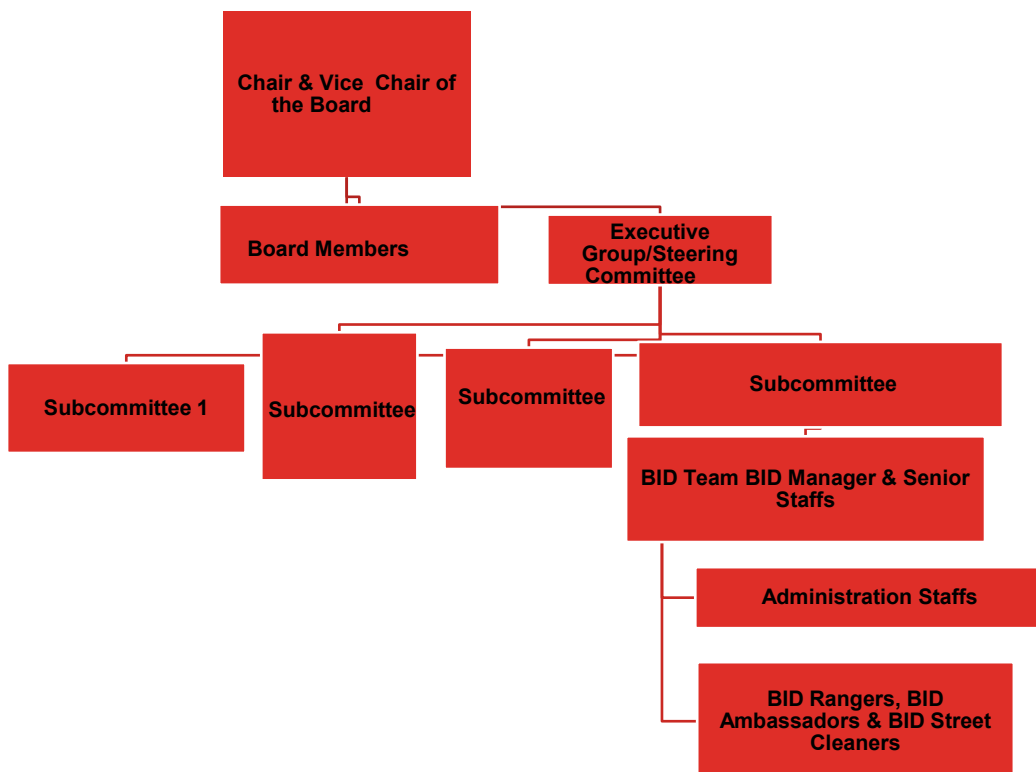


Figure 10: Organisational Structure of BIDs

An explanation of Figure 4: Appendix B

In most BIDs, the Chair and Vice Chair are often levy paying business owners nominated or selected to lead the BID organisation. The Board members are also levy paying business

owners appointed to the board to help achieve the objectives set out by businesses before voting for the establishment of the BID. On the hand, the executive group or the steering group are members of the BID board selected to act as intermediaries between the BID board and the BID team. In situations where there is an emergency and the BID manager/CEO needs to get in touch with the board, the steering committee members are contacted to provide leadership. The BID team is led by the BID manager or the CEO and work with other team members to deliver the proposed projects agreed upon in the business plan.

