

Citizen Participation in Traffic Safety: Challenges and Strategic Solutions

Obinna Duruanyanwu

Hasselt University, Hasselt, Belgium, 3500

Abstract

The paper aimed to determine the obstacles that impede citizens' involvement in traffic safety initiatives and suggest approaches to mitigate them. The authors' substantial community-based experiences, a review of pertinent literature, and community-based research with important traffic safety stakeholders were the sources of the information. There were found to be five major obstacles to citizen participation. Personnel and planning issues are the two categories into which they are divided. The former covers lack of policy, lack of expertise, and reasons why people are frequently unwilling to get part in traffic safety efforts. The latter consists of unsuitable policy evaluation criteria, unsuitable policy foci, and unsustainable practices. It was determined that the obstacles to public involvement in traffic safety are comparable globally apply to a wide range of promotion interventions besides road safety. Ensuring that the right actions are done to maximize the chance of citizen participation requires awareness of the obstacles and knowledge of how to overcome them.

Keywords: Citizen's participation, traffic safety, community responsibility, safety policy, sustainability

1. Introduction

In both industrialized and developing nations, injuries especially those resulting from traffic accidents are a major source of lost life years and incur annual costs in the billions of dollars (Winch, 2010). Although there have been great advances in the subject of traffic safety, there are still several restrictions and difficulties that practitioners and researchers must overcome. Reducing the incidence of accidents and fostering safer road environments need citizen participation in traffic safety (Commissie Elverding, 2008). Effectively promoting and executing citizen participation in this area is not without its difficulties, though. Therefore, preventing traffic injuries is a top goal for transportation management, and it calls for an all-encompassing strategy that combines law enforcement, regulatory, and educational initiatives with environmental measures (Luyet et al, 2012). Until recently, government and non-government organizations established a sizable chunk of traffic safety measures with comparatively little active citizen participation. Nonetheless, there is growing acceptance that, in the context of a holistic strategy, citizen participation is beneficial. The term "citizen" in this essay refers to individuals who reside in a certain geographic location, such as residents of a city or town. Professionals who may relate to a particular issue, like traffic, by their occupation are also considered citizens (Luyet et al, 2012). There are various ways that citizens can become involved in traffic safety; they can be somewhat passive,

like viewing television advertising, or they can be actively involved, like creating and carrying out traffic safety initiatives. One way to increase citizen participation is to collaborate with already-existing community organizations. One important public communication tactic is low-cost media lobbying. The initiative serves as an excellent example of how local laws may be put into effect for comparatively little money while yet having a big positive impact on the community. This strategy, which is probably more durable than others that forgo substantial public participation, has the backing of local authorities (Morssinkhof, 2007).

Strengthening of citizen action and empowerment are among the five key principles of the Ottawa Charter for Health Promotion, which was devised almost 15 years ago. These principles were reaffirmed at the Jakarta Conference on Health Promotion as the WHO strongly encourages citizen participation in injury prevention including traffic safety (Aan, 2017).

2. Problem statement

Many citizens might not have access to pertinent information, be unaware of how important their role is in traffic safety or be too lazy to actively participate in programs aimed at improving traffic safety because they don't think their contributions will make a difference. There may be a lack of understanding and cooperation when authorities and citizens are unable to communicate

E-mail: obinnaduru6@gmail.com

DOI: 10.5383/JTTM.04.02.004

^{*} Corresponding author. Tel.: +32486361031

^{© 2019} International Association for Sharing Knowledge and Sustainability.

effectively. The creation and execution of a citizenfocused traffic safety program may be hampered by a lack of funding, and success may also be hampered by reluctance to implementing new safety measures or behavioral changes. As Table 1 below illustrates, there are two distinct challenges with citizen participation.

Norms a	and	Consensus	Disagreement
Values >			
knowledgeable			
Certain		Structured problems	Moderately structured
		problems	problems
Uncertain		Moderately	Unstructured
		problems	
m 11 4 m	0	1.1 /77	2000)

Table 1: Type of problems (Hommes, 2008)

2.1. Theoretical framework-citizen Participation

Based on theoretical ideas, this section explains the citizen participatory process. Around the world, citizen participation has a long history. The nation's public sphere is evolving because of a shift from client participation and interest enforcement to citizen and government participation, citizen initiatives, and interactive participation (Ossewaarde et al., 2008). Social and substantive complexity are frequently associated with traffic safety projects (Edelenbos et al., 2009; Koppenjan, 2007; Metze and Turnhout, 2014; Reed, 2008). There is a great deal of uncertainty regarding relationships and behavior due to the intricate context. Emergent behavior may manifest, and effects may be unforeseen (Roovers and Buuren, 2016). According to Teisman et al., (2013), interactive policy making is frequently required for the implementation of projects in this context. Using an interdisciplinary approach like interactive policy making and involving citizens early on should help solve complex issues (Edelenbos and Monnikhof, 2001; Reed, 2008; Roovers and Buuren, 2016). This section looks at how the scientific literature describes and assesses a citizen participatory process based on the problem context.

Every facet of a traffic safety program ought to incorporate citizen participation (Eisenhardt, 1989). Locals' knowledge can expedite and save costs associated with problem identification by pointing out threats that data collection may later confirm or deny (or for which there is no data) (Van Houwelingen, Boele and Dekker, 2014). Individuals from diverse backgrounds, such as recent immigrants, ethnic minorities, parents of young children, seniors, bicyclists, joggers, and schoolchildren, can offer significant perspectives on the world and how their peers navigate it. These perspectives can be instrumental in identifying issues and designing effective programs. These individuals may serve as "key informants," offering qualitative information that aids in setting priorities for the issues found through data analysis (Edelenbos, Klok and van Tatenhove, 2009).

Participation from the citizen can aid in a traffic safety program's partnership expansion. Many members of the public who join Safe Communities coalitions belong to groups that can be contacted for assistance, such as businesses, unions, parent-teacher associations, religious organizations, fraternal organizations, and youth initiatives like the Boy and Girl Scouts. In a coalition, citizens also contribute their unique resources. Some will be proficient writers who can create grants or public safety announcements. Signs and brochures can be designed by those with artistic talent (Ossewaarde et al., 2008). Those with good tool skills can construct exhibits for bicycle rodeos or health fairs. Amateur photographers can contribute to the creation of educational resources for the public or record hazardous crossings. A computer-literate person can help with data analysis, program evaluation, or resource searches on the Internet. Citizen involvement in traffic safety can also help create sustainability (Roovers and Buuren, 2016; Teisman, 2013). The community development process is most referred to where citizen participation is a significant component of projects. Hence, it is useful to present a framework for community development that illustrates the 'ideal' circumstances for citizen participation. The process is the focus of the first five elements of this framework, whereas the outcomes are the focus of the final two elements. These "ideal" components can be compared to the difficulties or obstacles to involvement encountered in the "real" world. According to Austin and Green (2019) the five process elements of traffic safety development are.

- Control of decision making by citizens who participate to control the identification of issues and the project interventions.
- Involvement in action by the citizens to change the issue.
- Development of a citizen culture by the project that contributes to safety.
- Organizational development that occurs where the project builds a new organization or improves an existing one.
- Learning which occurs when the participants acquire new skills and information.

Austin and Green (2019) also stated that the two elements that relate more to the outcomes of a project are:

- A concrete benefit results through the achievement of a new or improved service or facility, and
- New power relationships result in the citizens that are more equitable.

2.1.1. Barriers and potential solutions to citizen participation

The writers' experiences in Europe were the foundation for this section on barriers and their solutions, but their involvement in projects in other nations also provided support. A special mention will be given to the Child Pedestrian Injury Prevention Project (CPIPP), a three-year initiative implemented in collaboration with the Curtin University Centre for Health Promotion Research and the City of Gosnells Local Government Authority. Other partners involved in the program include 15 Gosnells primary schools, the Western Australian Office of Road Safety, Bike West, Main Roads Western Australia, The West Australian Health Promotion Foundation, and Road-Wise (Michels, 2011).

Based primarily on the authors' experiences in Europe, this section on barriers and their solutions is also bolstered in the body of research on the promotion of traffic safety and injury prevention shows a striking parallel in the kinds of obstacles to citizen participation and the strategies employed to get past them. There are a lot of things that make it less likely for citizens to actively participate in preventive measures like traffic safety. Eight barriers appear consistently as impediments to citizen participation (Van Houwelingen, Boele and Dekker, 2014).

(i)Decline in Social Capital

- (ii) Lack of time of citizens
- (iii) Lack of leadership
- (iv) Citizens' Lack of Relevant Skills and Knowledge
- (v) Adherence to a single approach or process
- (vi) Top down or bottom-up planning
- (vii) Unsuitable Program Concentrate
- (viii) Lack of sustainability

Decline in Social Capital: Developed nations have seen a global shift toward more individualistic societies. There could be multiple reasons for the consequent decline in social capital, or citizen involvement (Shareef, Kumar, Kumar, and Dwivedi, 2009). These include the predominance of economic rationalism, the idea of heightened competition and the ensuing emphasis on prioritizing oneself and one's family at the expense of others, the rise in the number of family members employed, longer workdays, the population growth in cities and the corresponding loss of social cohesion, as well as an increase in mistrust and isolation. Therefore, despite calls for greater citizen involvement in traffic safety, there has been a trend toward decreased public participation (Shareef et al., 2009). To understand why citizen involvement is declining and to suggest strategies for reversing this trend, researchers are focusing on the idea of social capital. It is especially pertinent considering the Ottawa Charter for Traffic Safety Promotion's emphasis on citizen empowerment and action. To measure social capital in a valid and trustworthy manner, work still needs to be done (Reddick, 2008).

Reversing the decline in social capital and its impact on citizen involvement in traffic safety initiatives is a complex problem. There is a claim that social capital is acquired through a laborious, mostly local process (Mofleh, Wanous, and Strachan, 2008). Programs aimed at improving social capital and reinstating a sense of citizenship, therefore, need to have a long-term perspective. Activities that foster trust and cooperation among residents and have them collaborate to achieve shared objectives for the betterment of their community can increase social capital (Gotosh, 2009).

In the case of CPIPP, the project led to a great deal of collaboration between the researchers, the local community, and the participating schools and citizen agencies. Anecdotal evidence suggests that these groups, who were brought together to work toward a common goal for the benefit of their community, viewed the project favorably (Mofleh, Wanous, and Strachan, 2008).

Lack of Time for Citizens/Members: Due to members' time constraints, many traffic safety initiatives fall short of their goals or are not continued. Most people who participate in traffic safety initiatives already have other substantial obligations. It is not uncommon to find that a community's small core group oversees multiple initiatives (Roy, 2006). Programs must demonstrate consistent, observable progress for users to believe their time is being well spent. If at all feasible, funds must be available to pay for the hiring of a project officer who can guarantee that a project will move forward with little reliance on the time of unpaid group participants (Mofleh et al., 2008).

Citizens were represented on several CPIPP committees, including the Project Advisory Committee, the 15 school traffic safety committees, and the City of Gosnells Road Safety Committee. These participants received regular updates on the project's status and regular recognition for their contributions. Even though many citizens' voluntary time was needed for the project, paid staff who were paid through project grants did most of the work (Rantanen, Kulmala, Lonnnqvist and Kujansivu, 2007).

Lack of Leadership: One of the biggest obstacles to the development and application of preventative interventions in a community is a lack of committed, knowledgeable, and involved individuals in the field of traffic safety. Although external facilitators can start a project, local leadership is typically responsible for its development and long-term sustainability (Rantanen, Kulmala, Lonnnqvist and Kujansivu, 2007). To effectively involve citizens in both initiating and maintaining programs, committed leadership has been identified as a crucial element. An influential group must be represented on a project "management" committee to prevent the project from losing momentum too soon. They must be capable decision-makers and people with interpersonal skills. It is also typically advantageous for the

mayor or shire president, senior council officers, and representatives of local stakeholders to be actively involved (Jain and Kesar, 2011).

Programs are more likely to flourish in communities that already have 'entrepreneurs of change,' i.e., people who are already actively involved in similar community initiatives. An example of this representation in the CPIPP was the active involvement of the City of Gosnells Traffic Engineer and the Deputy Mayormof the City along with other key stakeholders as members of the Gosnells traffic Safety Committee and the Project Advisory Committee (Eggers, 2005).

Citizens' Lack of Relevant Skills and Knowledge: When group members lack the necessary knowledge and abilities, many community projects fail. Through close collaboration and training, trained facilitators can assist citizens in acquiring new skills. The latter must consider the citizens' educational attainment as well as the right locations, times, and resources (Denters and Klok, 2010). This strategy was widely applied as part of CPIPP. For instance, in-service training and a specially designed traffic safety curriculum were given to teachers at participating schools (Woltjer, 2010). Furthermore, a project officer provided support to the Gosnells Traffic Safety Committee members during the planning and execution of traffic safety initiatives within their local community. Assigning specific tasks to citizens involved in the traffic safety project was another strategy employed in the CPIPP to support their skill development. Their dedication to the project appeared to be reinforced by this as well (Denters and Klok, 2010).

Adherence to a Single Approach or Process: It may not be beneficial to tenaciously advocate for a specific "process" for involving the public in traffic safety initiatives or programs. Single-minded advocates who disparage other strategies can be extremely harmful and compromise collaboration. The 1980s controversy surrounding the "healthy cities" concept serves as an excellent illustration of this issue (Reed, 2008).

The establishment of programs and obtaining citizen participation should not be limited to anyone "process" or "model." There are numerous options for carrying out these kinds of projects. Respect for different methods; best outcomes will probably come from adapting the most suitable elements (De Graaf and Dewulf, 2010).

For CPIPP, a blend of strategies from reputable and tested planning procedures was used.

Top-Down or Bottom-Up Planning: Some supporters of initiatives with a strong citizen participation component believe that bottom-up planning (i.e., 'community development') is essential (Horsey, 2007). At the program start phase, they support a community development approach. That is, they think that the needs and goals for traffic safety should be determined by the people themselves, and then the interventions should be created. With the goal of empowering the community, this process may involve very little assistance from traffic safety and other professionals. One of the main issues with this approach is that it takes a lot of time, especially if the citizens are not knowledgeable about traffic safety or have no experience with planning (McDonald, 2002). This is particularly problematic when the program's duration is constrained (funding, for example, might only be available for a year or two) (Muir, 2005).

Lack of Sustainability: The programs' lack of sustainability has drawn the attention of funding organizations. Certain agencies frequently assume that after the funding is expended, community groups will carry on with their operations (Goldsmith and Eggers, 2004). If many of the obstacles previously discussed are removed, there is a higher chance that the program will be sustained. Programs, for instance, have a higher chance of sticking around if funding is guaranteed. Sustainability also requires committed and capable citizens' support as well as appropriate leadership. These abilities can be cultivated early in a project and are a component of the process of building capacity and empowering communities, which ultimately provides them more control over their health and safety (Jain and Kesar, 2011).

Program institutionalization or sustainability may be preferred, but it's not always necessary for them to continue in the community after the original funding has run out. It is acknowledged that projects give citizens the chance to gain expertise in promoting traffic safety, which will be helpful for upcoming events and initiatives (Krywkow, 2009). Certain citizens and projects may find it desirable to have a restricted lifespan. If the group's or the project's goals have been met, there isn't much point in continuing. One such is the community organization People Against Drunk Driving (PADD), which was founded in Western Australia in the middle of the 1980s with the intention of promoting the use of random breath testing. After the measure was included in the WA traffic safety legislation, the organization was dissolved.

In the case of the CPIPP, after funding for the three-year trial program ended, the project was canceled as a separate entity. Nonetheless, the program was maintained by adding the pertinent elements to a curriculum support document for school traffic safety education that was distributed throughout the state (Rantanen et al., 2007).

Unsuitable Program Concentrate: Priority problems might not be chosen for intervention because community members think other issues are more pressing. For example, they might think marijuana-related traffic accidents are more serious than alcohol-related ones (Try and Radnor, 2007). This may cause resources to be allocated toward an issue with a comparatively small local impact (Metze and Turnhout, 2014).

On the other hand, choosing too many priorities could lead to a lack of commitment or program focus. Problems may also arise if a citizen continues to prioritize an issue in which only, they have a personal stake. It is beneficial to focus on a single issue that has evidence of being a high priority (child pedestrian injury as in CPIPP, for example) (Denters, 2014). Although this might not be the community's top priority, it can offer a reasonable focus for concrete action and is more likely to produce some observable results. A justification should be created that compares local and state statistics, as well as details about the volume and kind of traffic accidents and injuries. A better understanding of the priorities may be provided by such information. Additionally, the community group can be made aware of the possibility of interventions being successful in lowering the problem of injuries by providing proof of the positive outcomes of other programs like the one that is planned.

Human Behavior such as the proliferation of mobile devices has increased the prevalence of distracted driving, posing a significant challenge to road safety. Despite technological advancements, human errors remain a leading cause of traffic accidents. Also, Infrastructural Challenges such as Poor Road design and maintenance contribute to accidents. Therefore, improving infrastructure, especially in developing regions, is crucial. Notably also is traffic congestion and congested roadways which can lead to frustration and risky driving behaviors. In many places, there is a significant proportion of older vehicles lacking modern safety features (Raad, 2014).

The solution to the challenges of citizen participation in traffic safety cannot be over emphasized. To instill a culture of responsible road use, it is crucial to develop comprehensive educational programs that emphasize safe driving techniques, pedestrian safety, and the significance of adhering to traffic laws. These programs should also offer training sessions for various age groups (Hurlbert and Gupta, 2015). However, Hurlbert and Gupta, 2015 added that data analytics, IoT devices, and mobile apps can be used to gather and analyze information on accident hotspots, traffic patterns, and citizen-reported incidents. This information can then be used to inform targeted interventions and enhance overall traffic management.

Cruzes, Dyba, and Runeson, 2014 mentioned that encouraging citizen involvement in monitoring and reporting traffic violations and establishing partnerships between law enforcement agencies and citizens can create a shared responsibility for traffic safety. Furthermore, In order to ensure that proposed changes to traffic management are well-received and address the specific needs of each community, it is important to implement reward programs for safe driving behavior. These programs can take the form of insurance discounts, recognition ceremonies, or community events that celebrate collective achievements in improving road safety (Metze & Turnhout, 2014). regularly evaluating traffic safety initiatives, getting public input, and utilizing the data to modify and enhance existing programs to keep them current and useful over time.

2.1.1.1 Analysis framework

In summary, depending on the nature of the issue, different levels and intensities of participation are advised. The problem context, the level of participation, and the intensity of participation are all related to one another in this study, as previously explained. An analysis framework for a comparison of theory and empiricism was the outcome of this. A successful participatory process is anticipated when the procedure is followed exactly as instructed (Denters, 2014).

Citizens' acceptance of the participatory process depends on the use of an appropriate participatory method (Barreteau, Bots and Daniell, 2010; Edelenbos, and Monnikhof, 2001). When the appropriate and efficient channels for citizen participation are used, in accordance with the level of participation, citizens will benefit (Denters, 2014). Krywkow, 2009) outlines nine distinct participatory method classes. The following classes which are ranked from low to high in terms of citizen interaction—include forums, public information campaigns, education, surveys, events, workshops, interviews, and meetings. These have a connection to the management and participation ladder.

In addition, a participatory process can be characterized by the intensity of participation in addition to the degree of participation and the corresponding participatory method. The level of citizen influence is described by the degree of participation. The application of dimensions that mold the participatory process is described by the intensity of participation. This intensity can be mapped using the constraints, objectives, process, intensities, and reporting (COPIR) method as outlined by (Krywkow, 2009). Six dimensions are used to measure the intensity of the participatory process in this method: power sharing, activity, equality, transparency, flexibility, and reach. Three levels are used to measure the intensity: "low," "average," and "high." 'High' intensity does not always translate into the best outcome for the process. It is about how a project's context and the levels of the six dimensions are coherent.

2.2. Data Collection and Analysis

Qualitative methods were used to gather data, including document and literature review (e.g. tender documents,

action plan, and minutes). This method's data triangulation allowed for the description of the project's citizen participatory process. from publications in which three project residents, the project manager, and the manager of stakeholder number seven participated in semi-structured interviews. Residents were chosen at random during a project meeting that was open to the public, which resulted in insights from various viewpoints. Throughout the 60- to 120-minute interviews, the following subjects were covered: 1) The nature of the problem; 2) The level of participation and the participatory approach; 3) The level of participation intensity; and 4) Satisfaction. Every case was examined independently. In this study, "data reduction," "showing data," and "concluding" based on patterns and regularities have all been used in this study (Cruzes, Dyba and Runeson, 2014). The researcher's logical inference served as the foundation for the findings.

These findings demonstrate how the citizen participatory process was applied in these cases and how the project team and the three residents felt about it. Comparing the used approach with the suggested approach by the literature is done through pattern matching (Yin, 2009). This entails contrasting "theoretical ideals" with "pragmatic reality," which yields understanding and information regarding a collaborative process (De Graaf, 2005). The results talked about three sorts of relationships which are: possible relationships, consistent relationships, and inconsistent relationships (De Graaf, 2005). A consistent relationship describes a relationship between an applied method and explanation which occurred in two or more cases. The consistent relationships were the basis of the citizen participation strategy of this research and answered the main question of this research.

2.3. Methodology

This section outlines the research methodology that was used in this study. (Van Houwelingen, Boele and Dekker, 2014) Since this is a real-world issue, the research was literature focused. An essential component of the evaluation in this study was the cases' context. Indepth research about the stufy was done to obtain a comprehensive understanding of all the context's features. As a result, the research was more intricate, well-supported, and detailed but less broadly applicable. This is consistent with qualitative research, which emphasizes the potential for in-depth and subjective study. Desk research would not be adequate to gather subjective data about the cases on which empirical research was conducted. A literature review strategy served as the foundation for the study. The literature review satisfies the requirements for the research mentioned above, which include grounded theory being theory oriented, experiments using a manipulated setting, desk research not being empirical, and surveys ignoring the project's context. A literature review can provide directly involved parties and other interested parties with a broader awareness by providing detailed information about various aspects of the study. It can also track processes, check the significance that others assign to behavior, collect detailed information, and focus on the entire context of а case.

2.4 Results

Eight priority traffic safety projects were chosen by the core committee based on data collected from literature reviews on traffic injuries. These projects are being carried out by working groups made up of local organizational partners and community members. One project aims to address the high frequency of crashes on Route 82, which connects downtown and Interstate 95 directly. A different working group is producing and distributing a brochure that lists alternate routes to the casinos that circumvent the tiny country roads, which were never meant to handle the amount of traffic the casinos generate. Representatives from each of the five impacted towns are among the 20 members of the working group responsible for the casino brochure. The Tribal Nations were particularly keen to dispel the myth that many drivers who speed on local roads are tourists attracted to the region by the casinos. The information revealed that residents receive many speeding tickets. A public awareness campaign, a speed monitoring

program, stricter enforcement of seat belt laws, a public speeding campaign, and various school-based initiatives, such as those aimed at enhancing bus and pedestrian safety, are among the other projects. The researcher's efforts also led to the discovery of several traffic safety articles that were printed in the Norwich Bulletin. Evidence of the kind of support the media will provide for a traffic safety program with widespread community support can be seen in the later reprinting of this series as a special supplement. The town coalitions are still coming up with and carrying out exciting new projects. Each is collaborating with nearby schools to include lessons on traffic and pedestrian safety in the K-12 presence of Parent-Teacher curriculum. The Organization presidents on the core committee facilitates the creation of district and public support. The president stated that "people are busy" and it is challenging to engage them. During a weekend children's Safety Fair was organized and parents were educated because they brought their children and people who have small children want to reside in a community that is safe.

2.5 Discussion

The findings of the study were discussed in this section (1). First, the research indicates a connection between the project's problem context and the participatory process design (Edelenbos, Klok and van Tatenhove, 2009; Hurlbert and Gupta, 2015; and Krywkow, 2009). The cases supported this, or they differed for reasonable explanations (e.g. time or money constraints). Second, research indicates that fostering acceptance and support during the planning stage promotes an efficient participatory process (Van Houwelingen, Boele and Dekker, 2014). Hurlbert and Gupta, (2015) explains that one of the biggest obstacles to public participation is the government's budget. The government has the biggest influence on how much money and time are available for citizen participation (Zhang and Yang, 2009). The literature supported this. Due to time and money constraints imposed by the province, the project team used more participatory methods than was advised but still implemented a lower level of participation than was advised. Both a strict budget and hard-administrative deadline was absent. The level of participation in this study was correlated with the participatory methods (Krywkow, 2009). Citizens benefit when strategies that match the level of participation are implemented (Denters, 2014); Edelenbos and Monnikhof, 2001). While the recommended level of participation and/or intensity of participation was attained in some cases, the participatory methods used in those cases did not always correspond with the recommended methods. Metze and Turnhout, 2014). discusses a crucial piece that suggests that not everyone is a good fit for citizen participation. Participants' acceptance of the participatory process depends on a participatory method that meets their needs (Winch, 2010); Edelenbos, and Monnikhof, 2001). As a result, when choosing participatory methods, one should consider both the problem context and the participants' need for participation.

2.6. Future Research

Resolving these issues and carrying out more research in these fields can support continuous initiatives to improve traffic safety around the world. To develop a thorough and practical strategy for lowering traffic accidents and raising general safety, researchers, legislators, business stakeholders, and the public must work together. Further study should be carried out on.

• Autonomous connected Vehicle: Studying the integration of autonomous and connected vehicles into mixed traffic environments to ensure safe coexistence.

- Cyber security: Research on preventing cyberattacks on connected vehicles to maintain their safety and functionality.
- Exploring the potential of smart infrastructure, such as intelligent traffic management systems, to enhance safety.
- Smart infrastructure: Exploring the potential of smart infrastructure, such as intelligent traffic management systems, to enhance safety.
- Data Analytics and machine learning: Developing predictive models to anticipate potential accident hotspots and take preventive measures. Utilizing machine learning for more accurate post-accident investigations and reconstruction.

3. Conclusion

By addressing these challenges and implementing strategic solutions, it is feasible to increase citizen participation in traffic safety and build an environment where everyone drives more responsibly and safely. One of the best methods for encouraging citizen participation in traffic safety-related interventions is the creation of a local committee. The committee must be a part of an established organization, such as the City Council or a Shire (County), and it must serve a specific geographic area. The committee should be backed financially and by experts in program intervention, evaluation, and community development. As part of the empowerment process, these officers can serve as facilitators and assist the members of the citizen committee in developing their skill sets. The committee may also serve as a channel through which the public can voice and direct their concerns to the proper authorities regarding road safety.

References

[1] Aan de slag met de Omgevingswet. (2017). Inspiratiegids Participatie Omgevingswet. Retrieved 09 11, 2017, from Aan de slag met de Omgevingswet: <u>https://aandeslagmetdeomgevingswet.nl/aandeslag/them</u> <u>a/participatie/inspiratiegids/</u>

[2] Austin, E.K. & Green, K.N. (2019), "The Central Role of Community Participation in Traffic Safety Culture", Ward, N.J., Watson, B. and Fleming-Vogl, K. (Ed.) *Traffic Safety Culture*, Emerald Publishing Limited, Leeds, pp. 129-143

[3] Barreteau, O., Bots, P., & Daniell, K. (2010). A framework for clarifying "participation" in participatory research to prevent its rejection for the wrong reasons. Ecology and Society, 15(2), 1-22.

[4] Commissie Elverding. (2008). Actieplan sneller en beter. Den Haag: Projectdirectie Versnelling Besluitvorming Infrastructurele Projecten.

[5]Cohen, W. & Levinthal, D. (1990). A new perspective on learning and innovation, Administrative Science Quarterly, 35, pp. 128-152

[6] Cruzes, D., Dyba, T., & Runeson, P. (2014). Case studies synthesis: a thematic, cross-case, and narrative synthesis worked example. New York: Springer Science+Business Media.

[7] De Graaf, R. (2005). Strategic urban planning. Industrial area development in The Netherlands, to direct or to interact? Enschede: Universiteit Twente.

[8] De Graaf, R., & Dewulf, G. (2010). Applying the lessons of strategic urban planning in the developing world to the Netherlands: A case study of three industrial area development projects. Habitat International, 34(4), 471-477.

[9] Denters, B., & Klok, P.-J. (2010). Rebuilding Roombeek: patterns of citizen participation in urban governance. Urban Affairs Review, 45(5), 583-607.

[10] Denters, B. (2014). Beyond 'What do I get?' Functional and procedure; sources of Dutch citizens' satisfaction with local democracy. Urban Research and Practice, 7(2), 153-168.

[11] Edelenbos, J., Klok, P., & van Tatenhove, J. (2009). The institutional embedding of interactive policy making. The American Review of Public Administration, 30(2), 125-148.

[12] Edelenbos, J., & Monnikhof, R. (2001). Lokale interactieve beleidsvorming . Utrecht: Lemma

[13] Eggers, W. (2005) Government 2.0: using technology to improve education, cut red tape, reduce gridlock, and enhance democracy, Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, NY

[14] Eisenhardt, K. (1989). Building theories from case study research. Academy of management, 14(4), 532-550

[15] Goldsmith, S. & Eggers, W. (2004). Governing by Network: The New Shape of the Public Sector, Brooking Institution Press, Washington D.C 1420

[16] Gotosh, E. (2009). Critical factors increasing user satisfaction with e-government services, Electronic Government, An International Journal, 6(3), pp. 252-264

Hope, J. & Fraser, R. (2001). Beyond budgeting: questions and answers, available at www.bbrt.org (as of November 2007)

[17] Horsey, B. (2007). Developing and applying a framework to evaluate participatory research for sustainability. Ecological Economics, 60(4), 726-742.

[19] Hurlbert, M., & Gupta, J. (2015). The split ladder of participation: a diagnostic, strategy, and evaluation tool to assess when participation is necessary. Evironmental Science & Policy, 50, 100-113.

[20] Jain, V. & Kesar, S. (2011). E-government implementation challenges at local level: a comparative study of government and citizens' perspectives, Electronic Government, An International Journal, 8(2/3), pp. 208- 225

[21] Koppenjan, J. (2007). Onderzoek tussen politieke en wetenschappelijke rationaliteit. Delft: Eburon

[22] Krywkow, J. (2009). A methodological framework for participatory processes in water resources management. Enschede: Universiteit Twente

[23] Luyet, V., Schleapfer, R., Parlange, M., & Buttler, A. (2012). A framework to implement stakeholder participation in environmental projects. Journal of Environmental Management, 111, 213-219

[24] Metze, T., & Turnhout, E. (2014). Politiek, participatie en experts in de besluitvorming over super wicked problems. Bestuurskunde, 23(2), 3-11.

[25] Michels, A. (2011). De democratische waarde van burgerparticipatie: interactief bestuur en deliberatieve fora. Bestuurskunde, 20(2), 75-84.

[26] Mofleh, S., Wanous, M., & Strachan, P. (2008). The gap between citizens and egovernment projects: the case for Jordan, Electronic Government, An International Journal, 5(3), pp. 275-287

[27] Morssinkhof, G. (2007). Procesmapping in bouwprocessen. Enschede: Universiteit Twente

[28] Muir, B. (2005). Challenges facing today's construction manager. Delaware: University of Delaware.

[29] Ossewaarde, R., Moulijn, M., Ketner, S., Hermsen, F., Verkaik, L., & Bron, P. (2008). Effectieve vormen van burgerparticipatie? Borne: Provincie Overijssel.

[30] Pröpper, I., Litjens, B., & Weststeijn, E. (2006). Wanneer werkt participatie? Een onderzoek bij de gemeenten Dordrecht en Leiden naar de effectiviteit van burgerparticipatie en inspraak. Vught: Partners+Pröpper

[31] Rantanen, H., Kulmala, H., Lonnnqvist, A., & Kujansivu, P. (2007). Performance measurement systems in the Finnish public sector, International Journal of Public Sector Management, 20(5), pp. 415-433

[32] Raad van State. (2014). Advies W14.13.0235/IV. Retrieved from Raad van State: https://www.raadvanstate.nl/adviezen/zoeken-inadviezen/tekst-advies.html?id=11250

[33] Reed, M. (2008). Stakeholder participation for environmental management: A literature review. Biological conservation, 141'(10), 2417-2431.

[34] Reddick, C. (2008). Collaborative management and e-government: a survey of state government CIOs, Electronic Government, An International Journal, 5(2), pp. 146-161

[35] Roovers, G., & Buuren, M. (2016). Stakeholder participation in long term planning of water infrastructure. Infrastructure Complexity, 3(1), 1-13.

[36] Roy, J. (2006). E-service delivery and new governance capacities: 'Service Canada' as a case study, International Journal of Services Technology and Management, 7(3), pp. 253 – 271

[37] Shareef, M, Kumar, U., Kumar, V., & Dwivedi, Y. (2009). Identifying critical factors for adoption of egovernment, Electronic Government, An International Journal, 6(1), pp. 70-96

[38] Teisman, G., van Buuren, M., Edelenbos, J., & Warner, J. (2013). Water governance: facing the limits of managerialism, determinism, water-centricity, and technocratic problem-solving. International Journal of Water Governance, 1, 1-11.

[39] Try, D. & Radnor, Z. (2007). Developing an understanding of result-based management through public value theory, International Journal of Public Sector Management, 20(7), pp. 655-673

[40] Van Houwelingen, P., Boele, A., & Dekker, P. (2014). Burgermacht op eigen kracht? Den Haag: Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau

[41] Verschuren, P., & Doorewaard, H. (2015). Het ontwerpen van een onderzoek . Amsterdam: Boom Lemma uitgevers.

[42] Woltjer, J. (2010). The 'Public Support Machine': Notions of the Function of Participatory Planning by Dutch Infrastructure Planners. Planning practice and research, 41(3), 437-453.

[43] Winch, G. M. (2010). Managing Construction Projects. Hoboken: Wiley-Blackwell

[44] Yin, R. (2009). Case Study Research: Design and Methods. London: Sage.

[45] Zhang, Y., & Yang, K. (2009). Citizen participation in the budget process: the effect of city managers. Journal of public budgeting, accounting & financial management, 21(2), 289-317.