EVALUATION OF A PUBLIC PARTICIPATION PROCESS: A CASE STUDY OF THE HAMILTON RLT PROJECT

By

Louisa Elinam Kalitsi

A Major Research Paper Submitted to The Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Ottawa in Partial

Fulfilment of The Requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

December, 2022

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my Father of blessed memory, Mr Alex Kalitsi for instilling in me the spirit of hard work and perseverance may his soul rest in eternal peace.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

My special gratitude goes to God Almighty for giving me the strength and wisdom to pursue this course. I am extremely grateful to my mum, Mrs Lydia Kalitsi who has supported me with her constant prayers and words of encouragement during this period. I also render my heartfelt thanks to my siblings, Elvis Kalitsi and Clarence Kalitsi for their consistent and lingering support and love. I am grateful to my supervisor, Professor Louis Simard of the Faculty of Social Sciences, for his patience, time, suggestions and encouragement throughout my project work. His immense contributions went a long way in shaping this work. Finally, my sincere gratitude goes to course mates who encouraged and offered diverse suggestions during the study. God bless you all.

ABSTRACT

The importance of public participation cannot be emphasized enough. From advancing democratic values to empowering communities to develop long-term capacity to solve and manage challenging social issues, public participation in government enables people to work together with administrations to improve communities, make a difference in the lives of others, and share valuable knowledge and resources. There are numerous styles of carrying out public participation processes, unfortunately, there is limited information on the evaluation of the various public participation design processes and their outcomes. In order to identify the factors that contribute to an effective pubic participation process, this research sought to firstly identify the public participation processes adopted in the implementation and sustenance of the light rail transit (LRT) Hamilton. Secondly, evaluated the processes identified in order to make meaningful suggestions, that will help future stakeholders create less expensive, more efficient, and well-received methods of involving the public in decision-making. Drawing on the rational choice theory as an institution which explains the behaviour of individuals or groups in a decision making environment or process, it is clear that all actors are rational in their interactions and behaviour, however, in their rationality, there are some factors that influence decision making of a group such as a Citizen Jury. These factors were identified as comprehension, and comparison to expert decision. Public participation was used as a tool which distributed power to the actors involved in the decision-making process. To evaluate the effectiveness of the participative process, the Arnstein Ladder was used to determine the extent of power distributed to the actors to serve their interests and strategies. The results obtained after analysis were carried out, indicated that the process of public participation was appropriate for the type of project and gave the citizens enough power during the decision-making process. The output of the CJ was considered in the implementation and design of the project.

Contents

INTRODUCTION

Background of study

If and to what extent public participation (PP) enhances the delivery of public services and infrastructure has been a topic of much disagreement among researchers. Frequently, project outcomes, such as cost recovery and efficiency, effective targeting, and project sustainability, as well as individual satisfaction with results, are used to gauge the quality of public services (Russ & Takahashi, 2012). Even though globally, policymakers have begun to pay more and more attention to public participation, research has not been sufficient to address fundamental concerns regarding the effectiveness of previous initiatives, the characteristics that contribute to success, and the areas where efforts to increase public involvement should be concentrated. This difficulty prevents decision-makers from implementing the best policies since, in the long run, public policy is meant to address problems that have a big impact on the general public (Whittington, 1972). The way people live their lives is significantly impacted by public policy areas such as budgeting, health care, education, and transportation. Direct input and influence from and on behalf of the general public are nevertheless constrained by the representational structure of decision-making in many elements of public administration (Wagner, 2013). Decision-makers, policy-makers, and experts in the field of transportation must be mindful of understanding and addressing the demands of current users of the transportation system while taking into account the possibility that new users may have different but legitimate expectations (Whittington, 1972) and as a result, the public ought to be involved in decisions about the transportation services and systems that will be provided in their areas (Frost, 2002). The subject of transportation is very crucial especially in Canada due to some reasons. Among them is the effect that large-scale transportation projects have on the environment. The use of energy, noise, vibrations, hazardous materials like lead-based paint, mercury, PCBs, asbestos, contaminated soil, and groundwater are just a few of the potential environmental effects that must be managed as a result of the operation and maintenance of infrastructure, facilities, and vehicles. Operations involving trains and buses must continuously address serious environmental challenges (Abdallah, 2017). Thirty-five percent (35%) of total pollutants released into the atmosphere come from sources related to transportation. These pollutants play a role in the rise in cardiovascular and respiratory ailments, which have negative social and financial consequences. It is also thought that air pollution affects other illnesses, including certain malignancies and asthma (Campbell et al., 2000). Aside the negative effects that transportation projects impose on the environment, the wellbeing of seniors is equally vital. Canadians 65 and older will make up a larger percentage of the population, and this trend won't stop until some point between 2036 and 2056. With intra-urban travel in big cities leading the list of transportation issues and accessibility a crucial factor given the ageing population, the country's demographic trends are projected to boost passenger traffic. (Outlook, Trends and Future Issues, 2020). Another noted challenge is Ageing, which has a positive association with the prevalence of disability. Depending on the type of disability, such as mobility, there may be unique transportation needs. This is because, mobility limitation worsens with age and this infers that demand for accessible transportation services is rising in Canada. A disability was reported by 4.4 million Canadians (14.3%) in 2006, including hearing, vision, speech, learning, and mobility impairments. Mobility, hearing, and visual impairments are the most common among seniors, with 1.7 million (43.4%) reporting having a handicap; this number rises to 53.3% for those who are 75 years of age and beyond (Outlook, Trends and Future Issues, 2020). Further to this, the principal metropolitan centres of Canada, like many other cities throughout the world, are plagued by traffic congestion, which causes many citizens to waste time sitting in their automobiles. In recent years, light rail initiatives have emerged as the preferred option of fast transit in long-term transport plans for cities all throughout the country. This is being done both to tackle these difficulties and as a way of linking new regions to current transit networks (Smith, 2012). How then does a government or city ensure that a proposed project such as a light rail transit, which is intended to save travel time and enhance travelling from one city to the other does not become an inconvenience to its intended users and stakeholders? To learn more about public participation in-depth, practically, and contextually, this study will focus on a case study pertaining to a unique form of public transport service; the LRT (Light Rail Transit).

Why Public Participation in Big Projects is Important

In order to understand why it is necessary to involve the public in the decision-making process of major projects it is best to use the construction of a similar project as a reference, as such the construction of the U.S Highway is used as an example. The history of the highway system dates back to President Dwight David "Ike" Eisenhower's administration in 1956 (Gifford, 1994). The president at the time deemed it fit for the construction of the interstate highways for four key reasons: the high rate of accidents and deaths, costs of poor roads, national security, and national economic activity (Lemer, 2006:27). One other main reason for the development of the highway was for national defence purposes. Interstate highways connected routes to principal metropolitan areas, cities, and industrial centres to allow for immediate evacuation across the United States if needed (Lenrow, 1968). As is expected with major projects, the intention to construct the highway was not free of controversies. The debate around geographic location of the interstate highway led to political influence (Lewis, 1999), in addition, the destruction of inner-city neighbourhoods as a consequence of the highway construction had wide-reaching effects. Neighbourhoods, parks, historic districts, and environmentally sensitive regions were destroyed by the highway construction. Few citizens had any real influence on these choices. The residents of the impacted neighbourhoods and villages were aware of the drawbacks of highway construction and were not particularly interested in the benefits the project proposed and this led to the start of freeway uprisings (Mohl, 2004). Decisions on transportation that are based on consumer requirements are simply better when there is public involvement (Hrelja, 2015). Every society will experience change as a result of development, which is a necessary component of social progress and is related to the democratic form of government (Triplett, 2013).

Notably, diverse systems for promoting such engagement exist throughout democratic political regimes, particularly at the municipal level. These procedures range from keeping the public informed about policymaking (like public information hearings, websites, and newsletters) to soliciting public input and incorporating it into policy and decision (like participatory budgeting, public hearings, hybrid committee and citizens jury) (King et al., 1998).

Different Values

A society is an ever-changing system and organisation of customs and practises, power and cooperation, numerous divisions and distinct groupings, restraints on human behaviour, and liberty (Fitzpatrick et al., 1950). Society involves both likeness and difference. If all people had the same beliefs, emotions, and behaviours, shared the same values and pursuits, accepted the same traditions and voiced the same opinions without deliberation or variety, civilisation would never have grown, and culture would have stayed primitive (Mondal, 2014). Since the issue of transportation concerns everyone in any society (both public transport users and owners of private cars) and due to such distinct nature of each person found in a society, it is important to consider the opinions of as much people in the society in order to reach an agreement.

The Power to Choose

Community residents use a variety of modes of transportation to get about. Some modes of transportation could be more widely accessible than others in a given community. Buses, passenger trains, bicycles, and personal automobiles are a few of these options. People typically choose a mode of transportation that is most convenient for them. In most cases, people select their mode of transportation depending on whatever is most convenient in terms of cost, timing, closeness, and flexibility. Another factor that is generally considered is cost. Gas prices are a major predictor of whether commuters choose to drive or ride transit. Back in 2008, for example, commuters in Washington State and many places found it easier to start a vanpool after gas prices exceeded over four dollars per gallon. In a random survey conducted in the U.S, over half of the people agreed that it was critical to keep travel expenses as low as possible. Unless they resided in a place like New York City or Washington, D.C., where transit is widely used and necessary, those with higher incomes used it less frequently (Urban, 2017). It is necessary and important to both the project initiator to consult the public and the citizen to participate in the decision process in order to reach a consensus that would benefit all stakeholders.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine public participation, specifically in transportation planning and how the engagement of public participation techniques and deliberation affected the planning decisions of the Hamilton LRT project. This will be accomplished by exploring the characteristics of public participation in transportation planning from different countries. By studying and analysing the public participation practices that have been used to support the development of the Hamilton LRT project, this research will help to determine what characteristics are present in successful policies/projects and how certain types of public participation affect transportation planning. Particularly, the level of engagement and deliberation will be explored. Review of the literature did not yield many studies that have examined level of engagement or deliberation in the transportation policy arena. This study seeks to fill a gap in the existing research.

Research Questions

In exploring this issue, this study addresses the following questions:

(a) What were the public participation processes adopted in the implementation and sustenance of the LRT Hamilton project? (descriptive)

(b) How effective were the public participation processes on the success of the LRT Hamilton project? (Evaluative) and an explanation of why these processes were or were not effective

Significance of Study

All residents have a stake in the transportation issue since the transportation system and the services it offers have an impact on every part of our daily lives (Rawlings, 2007). Furthermore, the majority of people have an opinion on what transportation needs should be satisfied and how those needs should be supported, usually based on their own experiences. It is more crucial than ever to win the public's support for decisions made about transportation investment in a time of constrained resources, rising public concern over the use of tax dollars for the nation's infrastructure, and a greater desire for sustainable communities. Effective public involvement initiatives increase the ability for individuals, communities, and neighbourhoods to tell decision-makers about their local and specific transportation requirements (Page & Lee, 1992). Instead of each party acting independently and at conflict with the other, engaging the public as an ally can lead to a deeper dialogue and more useful insights into a variety of topics and concerns (Sciara, 2009). Those who might be directly influenced by the decisions may support them since they understand how they were arrived at by participating in the conversation (R. A. Scott et al., 2016). This study will add light to the processes of public participation to allow for reciprocal education and knowledge. Decision makers may find this study useful as it will provide more knowledge, social data on the values, attitudes, and preferences of people most affected by their choices. As a result of this study, decision-makers will also have access to important data that will help them to engage the public more effectively in the planning, programming, development, and execution of transportation projects. Information from this study on public involvement strategies in transportation planning is useful for both theoretical and practical applications. The methods and levels of engagement are examined theoretically, along with the design and efficacy of public participation methods. Another added benefit to citizens is that marginalised, and frequently excluded groups will find a novel and creative way to contribute to and voice their opinions on initiatives or other important issues that are dear to them. More significant are the effects that this study's findings will have on real-world applications for transportation planning organisations in the field of public involvement.

Objective of the Research

The main objective of this research is to identify the public participation processes adopted in the implementation and sustenance of the LRT Hamilton project. The second goal of this research is to evaluate the success of the public involvement procedures used for the project in order to make meaningful suggestions that will help future stakeholders create less expensive, more efficient, and well-received methods of involving the public in decision-making.

Scope of the Study

With respect to context, this study is centred around public administration, decision processes, and public participation. In terms of type of project, this study is limited to public infrastructure in transportation, specifically light rail transit (LRT). Light rail transit is a network of railroads that provides medium-capacity local transportation in cities. Geographically, the focus of this study is Hamilton. Hamilton is a Canadian port city on Lake Ontario's western shore. The city is divided by the Niagara Escarpment, a massive, wooded ridge called locally as "the mountain" and peppered with conservation areas and waterfalls. Regarding techniques and procedure, this study utilises secondary data also referred to as second-hand data.

Figure 1 Map of Hamilton LRT. Source:(Light Rail Transit (LRT) | City of Hamilton, Ontario, Canada, 2020)

Why This Project Was Chosen

Justice William Hourigan was chosen by the Ontario government to serve as the commissioner in charge of a public investigation into Ottawa's light rail transport (LRT) system. He was chosen to look at every commercial and technical factor that contributed to the multiple breakdowns and derailments of the Ottawa LRT system's initial phase in September 2019 (EñAno, 2022). The final report, which was made public, revealed that both the city of Ottawa and Rideau Transit Group had neglected to consider the project's impact on the general population. It specifically ruled that the city council's authority to oversee the project had been "irreparably undermined" by the actions of Mayor Jim Watson and senior city personnel (Raymond, 2022). This sparked an interest to know more about similar light rail transit projects, thus, Hamilton's LRT project. Since it is a very similar and significant project, the Hamilton LRT project was chosen by the researcher as it is focused on improving access to transit and supporting the continued growth and revitalization of the city. It is the initial component of Hamilton's larger rapid transit plan, known as the BLAST Network, and a priority project in Metrolink's Regional Transportation Plan. This project, which is the centrepiece of the Moving Ontario Forward Plan, is being worked on by the City of Hamilton and Metrolinx to develop Hamilton LRT (Metrolinx, 2022).

Reason For Carrying Out This Research on Public Participation

Citizen involvement in governance entails citizens collaborating with authorities to better communities, impact the lives of others, and exchange beneficial information and resources. For many public administrators, it may not come readily to comprehend the necessity of and the strategies for working with citizens to effect change. Public participation is essential to the strength and success of a democracy. Governments are unable to work for the people without input from the larger public and may instead end up adopting policy and programme decisions that solely benefit a select few (Kandil, 2022a).

Conclusion

The effectiveness of public participation and governance is significant for directing, assisting, and encouraging the achievement of various objectives, including social, financial, and developmental ones. This relates to the effectiveness of plans, policies, and tactics, as well as the resources, abilities, agility, and mindsets that society uses to solve problems. Policy makers use public participation as one of the tools to achieve such objectives (Meuleman, 2021). Traffic congestion is a major challenge being faced in many big cities across Canada and beyond and this puts a lot of pressure on transportation infrastructure, as such, innovative transport systems such as LRTs are introduced to provide convenient travel and movement for all (Smith, 2012). All stakeholders and end-users are entitled to give their suggestions and opinions on such mega projects (Page & Lee, 1992). This research utilises Hamilton'LRT project as a case study to evaluate the effectiveness of the public participation process and to make meaningful recommendations for future projects.

Five chapters will make up this study. A review of the literature and an analysis of ideas and concepts related to public involvement will be presented in the first chapter (1). To understand why public engagement is crucial in the first place, the rationale behind the process will be presented. We'll examine a few obstacles to public engagement and how they impact the execution of large-scale projects. There are unspoken guidelines for what behaviours, attitudes, and ideas are acceptable in every culture. For the purpose of this research, public participation represents an institution that dictates what is acceptable and not (Mcleod, 2008). In the decision-making process, public participation is the tool that gives the citizen power to take part in the decision-making process. The Arstein Ladder is the framework that is used in this research to evaluate the tool. These concepts are further discussed in Chapter 2 (Theoretical framework). In chapter 3, the topic of discussion is the methodology (Case study), why this research used Case study style of methodology and its advantages will be highlighted. The type of data used for this research is Secondary data and it will be discussed why this type of data is used. In Chapter 4, there is a complete description of the case and a detailed background of the Hamilton project. In the last chapter, Chapter 5, there is an analysis of the case, recommendations and conclusion. The conclusion will provide a summary and suggestions for additional research.

CHAPTER ONE

LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1 Introduction

This chapter attempts to review the relevant literature and research related to the antecedents on public participation. The chapter first discusses issues pertaining to LRTs and mega projects and discusses the rationale behind the concept including its purpose and various methods of application. Understanding what the word "public participation" means is crucial for making an accurate assessment of the concept. The second major discussions of the chapter are the levels, forces, risks and the various effects of PP. The chapter concludes with PP and Major Infrastructure Projects (MTIPs) and dimensions on the evaluation of public participation.

1.2 Light rail transit

The capacity and speed of light rail, also known as light rail transit (LRT), are typically higher than those of traditional street-running tram systems but lower than those of heavy rail and metro systems. The phrase is commonly used to describe rail systems with features akin to rapid transit, typically using electric rail trains, running primarily in private rights-of-way apart from other traffic but occasionally, if necessary, intermingled with other traffic in city streets (Infrastructure Ontario, 2022.). Three important light-rail transit-related challenges are covered in this section. Job creation, preference for the car over the rail and air pollution. Residents of communities that already have light-rail transport as well as those cities that are considering proposals to create or expand light-rail transit should be aware of the facts.

1.2.1 Job Creation

Jobs are created during both the construction and operation of light-rail transit. However, construction jobs are transient, and depending on the bidding procedure and job requirements, they can go to contractors outside of the neighbourhood. Transit vehicles, for instance, were imported into Los Angeles from Japan, Italy, and Germany, although Southern California could not create rails, power supply, ticket vending machines, or signalling equipment (Obsie et al., 2020). Although train operating generates jobs in that sector, it's crucial to note that these positions are mostly supported by tax dollars. It is argued that the salaries of rail transit employees who receive subsidies shouldn't be counted as new income to the local area because tax dollars have merely been transferred from local taxpayers, state taxpayers, and federal taxpayers to rail transit employees, inadvertently eliminating jobs from other industries. While it is true that the money spent by rail transit employees benefits the local economy, the same would be true if citizens weren't subject to taxes. Additionally, even while operating light-rail transit benefits society, the relative importance of this advantage vs the benefit that citizens would receive from lower taxes is debatable. Jobs will be created if private development surrounds light-rail transit stations, making it easier for people to reach commercial establishments, residential dwellings, and other facilities. These occupations would be a net improvement to the local economy, in contrast to jobs in rail transit (Lavery & Kanaroglou, 2012).

1.2.2 Preference for the car over the rail

Another issue identified is the fact that most individuals favour driving to light-rail transit is not all that unexpected. Autos provide people a sense of independence and private space. People's preference for driving over taking public transportation is demonstrated by their willingness to pay higher gas prices, gas taxes, vehicle registration fees, repair and maintenance costs, and car prices. When one considers that rail transport fares can be less than a dollar per day, the value that individuals place on vehicle transit over rail transit is even more obvious. Additionally, because trains must adhere to rails, rail travel is significantly more constrained than vehicular transit. The time cost of rail transit in comparison to automotive transit may increase as a result of this. People may need to drive to a rail station, board the train, and then depart the train and walk several blocks or more to go to work if they use rail transit, for example. A rail trip can take more time to complete than driving to work. It is to be assumed that many people will decide against using rail transit due to the opportunity cost of time, particularly during working hours (Lavery & Kanaroglou, 2012).

1.2.3 Air pollution

Light-rail transport proponents assert that fewer vehicles on the roads will result in a reduction in pollution. Using light rail transit instead of a car for a year reduces carbon monoxide emissions by 62.5 pounds, nitrogen oxide emissions by 5 pounds, and hydrocarbon emissions by 9 pounds, according to a report by the American Public Transit Association (APTA). Compared to a single car, an electric light-rail train emits roughly 99 percent less carbon monoxide and hydrocarbons each mile. Light-rail transit may not, however, significantly reduce pollution for a number of reasons. First off there is scant proof that rail transit has helped to reduce the number of cars on the road. Cutting pollution won't get any simpler as long as traffic congestion persists. Second, only if light-rail users switch from using cars to using trains can there be a significant reduction in pollution, assuming no increase in traffic congestion. If a large portion of light-rail riders do not own cars, then the development of light rail hasn't resulted in much of a reduction in pollution. Additionally, the reduction in pollutants is much less pronounced as traffic congestion rises (Ortner & Wachs, 1979).

1.3 Negative Sides of Mega Projects

The model of development of the industrialised and post-industrialised world has involved very large scale infrastructure projects whose construction has made profligate use of the environment as a source of materials and a sink for waste involving the construction of immense dams for water supply and energy generation, centralised sewage treatment plants and massive power stations fuelled by coal, gas and nuclear energy, plus road and rail projects contributing to high speed transport corridors, and even giant tower blocks for housing and social services. These megaprojects concentrate resources on a particular part of the system, backed up by widespread networks to disperse the value generated by the megaproject. For instance, a motorway or high-speed railway concentrates resources to provide high speed mobility along a particular route, but their effect on overall mobility depends on the capacity of the whole network of local roads and railways, footpaths and cycle-ways to carry people to their desired destinations. A dam for water storage requires a reticulated water supply system, a sewage treatment plant and a sewerage network. Building industries and the employment they generate thrive on infrastructure megaprojects. But there are also social and environmental costs associated with their provision. Every megaproject in construction produces a certain quantum of greenhouse gases emitted to the atmosphere. These projects often displace other land uses: green open space, social movement networks, agriculture, local ecologies. Megaprojects both in construction and operation generate waste (Sturup & Low, 2019).

1.4 Consequences of Ineffective PP in Infrastructure Projects

Overrunning budgets and timelines are two negative consequences that might result from inefficient public participation in public infrastructure projects (Wu, Jia and Zhang, 2020). For instance, before construction began on either the Beijing–Shenyang High-Speed Rail or the California High-Speed Rail, there was extensive public engagement in the environmental impact assessment process over a period of five or fifteen years, respectively. Inflation and fluctuations in price were important elements that had a significant impact on the expenses and schedules of public infrastructure megaprojects throughout the course of the lengthy time span.

In the context of public infrastructure megaprojects, "uncertainty" refers to the components, interactions, and linkages that cannot be fully appreciated (Salet et al., 2013). The management of stakeholders is the primary factor that contributes to uncertainty in public infrastructure megaprojects (Ward and Chapman, 2008). The amount of time and money needed to complete a project, in addition to the likelihood of that project's success, may be cut significantly by incorporating the public in public infrastructure megaprojects in an efficient manner (Creighton, 2005). Therefore, successful public engagement can help lower the degree of uncertainty associated with public infrastructure megaprojects to some extent.

Public participation may be able to control uncertainty if stakeholders are able to reach a consensus within a limited amount of time and cost. On the other hand, the public's participation that is either inefficient or excessive and out of hand can also contribute to an increase in uncertainty. For instance, when stakeholders are unable to come to an agreement, significant amounts of time and money are wasted as a result. If public participation is not adequately executed, then there is a greater likelihood that there will be uncertainty in the form of social demonstrations, litigation, and political resistance, which may interfere with the effectiveness of public infrastructure megaprojects.

The participation of the public ought to successfully handle the uncertainty associated with public infrastructure megaprojects. The cost and construction schedule overruns of the California High-Speed Rail project have drawn the ire of demonstrators as well as political opponents.

These kinds of overruns are regarded as possible threats to the practise of sustainable construction in the years to come. In a similar manner, Beijing–Shenyang High-Speed Rail and Ministry of Railways placed responsibility on Ministry of Environmental Protection for failing to provide an early approval of the final environmental impact assessment report, which they argued had disrupted the future business strategy of Beijing–Shenyang High-Speed Rail. As a result of insufficient engagement from the general population, the Shanghai Maglev Construction Project was halted in 2008 for a prolonged length of time (Wu et al., 2019). Therefore, in the management of public infrastructure megaprojects, full consideration should be given to the utilisation of public engagement as a means of reducing uncertainty and increasing the likelihood of success.

1.5 Rational for Public Participation

The incorporation of feedback or discussion from any or all parties involved in a public decision, process, or project is often referred to as public participation. When one thinks about public involvement, the first image that comes to mind is one of a public agency asking a group of people who will be affected by a project to provide comments (Maloff et al., 2000). Individuals who are participating in public activities may do it alone or in various associations with other people such as businesses, formal or informal associations, private or public organisations or government agencies (Franklin, 2001). To interact and connect with the public, public managers primarily use three techniques. Public relations, public information, and participation in society. Citizens' opinions are gathered through public involvement in order to create and carry out agency projects, programmes, and policies. Public information is one of the processes of providing data to the public in an effort to inform and enlighten them about agency issues. Public relations are the activities whose main objective is to positively influence how the public perceives agency actions by disseminating information, thoughts, and/or ideas (Maloff et al, 2000).

Arguments in favour of participation can be founded on normative conceptions of democracy and group action, beliefs of what makes a good judgement, or improving agency practise and policy-making processes, among other things. The fundamental logic of citizen participation in complicated science-based issues for example, is called into doubt by several arguments against public participation (Callahan, 2000). Most criticisms of participation have a practical foundation. Critics are concerned that involvement in practise could not result in the lofty goals stated in theory and might even prevent wise decision-making. They make three main arguments: that the advantages do not outweigh the costs; that the public may not be capable of understanding the sophisticated analyses that may be required for accurate assessments and judgments; and that participation processes rarely result in equity in both process and outcome. Others contend that participatory methods frequently suffer from a variety of maladies, such as paralysis by endless deliberations and arriving at only insignificant conclusions while attempting to reach an agreement among stakeholders with divergent beliefs and interests (Berkowitz, 1998). It is helpful to acknowledge at the outset that decision-making on issues and initiatives that have an impact on the environment is fundamentally and appropriately a political process, for example, a project on transportation. Public and private interests are constantly represented in environmental decisions. Additionally, because decisions are frequently supported by political authority, environmental policy constantly involves societal power dynamics. Such relationships influence environmental policy, which in turn changes how power is distributed. This acknowledgment offers a background for comprehending public participation processes, reasons for it, and obstacles to it (Stirling, 2007). Science has a significant impact on how the public engages with environmental issues. Environmental policy decisions should be influenced by the best available scientific evidence and analyses. Since these are matters of public policy, they are required by law to consider the knowledge, opinions, and preferences of interested and impacted parties. Input from the public, accurate information, and wise judgement should all be complementary. By offering their personal experience, observations, or conventional knowledge, interested parties can contribute crucial information and analyses to the process. When public values and concerns guide the questions posed and the techniques used, scientific analysis can become more relevant to decision-making. Ideally, carefully planned public engagement may evaluate the implications of these decisions and make these options obvious. To determine how the risks, costs, and benefits of environmental decisions should be balanced or dispersed among the public, scientific analysis on its own is insufficient. Such decisions are based on factual knowledge as well as values, preferences, and interpretations of the information, among other factors. Scientific analysis alone is insufficient to decide how the risks, costs, and benefits of a project or policy that effects environmental decisions should be balanced or distributed among the public. Such choices are made in accordance with values, preferences, and interpretations of the available facts, among other things. The integration of scientific research and public involvement is necessary even for setting the policy agenda and choosing which environmental issues need public scrutiny and which do not. Such decisions cannot be taken in a democracy lawfully without the input of the diverse social groupings. Some people have questioned the enterprise's worth because of how difficult public engagement in administrative processes may be. However, if the public's concerns are not sufficiently addressed in these procedures, people can and do become politically active outside of them through elections, lobbying, social movements, and legal measures (Dietz & Stern, 2008). While not all public issues may be adequately addressed at once, the inputs obtained from the public should be maximised to the greatest extent feasible, and this is determined by the purpose for the public participation process.

1.6 Purpose of Public Participation

1.6.1 Legitimacy

Many grounds for increased engagement in political theory, especially its deliberative forms, are motivated by the desire to increase the legitimacy of democratic rule. A fundamental premise of representative democracy is that laws and policies are rendered legitimate because citizens have had opportunities to influence the politicians and parties that make those policies and because subsequent elections will confer opportunities to judge the effects of those policies and hold politicians accountable. That is, processes of political competition through elections give citizens a good reason to endorse and obey the policies that result from that process: they have had opportunities to choose the policy makers. The issue of legitimation creates opportunities for democratic innovations that seek to build legitimacy for legal, administrative, and even constitutional decision (Fung, 2015).

1.7 Public participation can be a source of Conflict

The reasons for a process can be the source of conflict just as much as the environmental issue being discussed because agencies and participants may enter a participatory process with varying and occasionally conflicting aims for the process. Agencies need to be aware of this source of conflict and ready to address it (Niemeyer & Spash, 2001). Deliberations regarding the fundamental nature of the issue, the schedule of the meetings that will be held, and the potential impact the outcomes can and should have on policy are frequently the best ways to resolve conflicts about aims, which frequently reflect firmly held beliefs. Public involvement goals can give rise to conflict, which can manifest itself in a variety of ways. For instance, invited public participants may mistakenly believe that their input will have more weight than is possible because they are unaware of the legal restrictions on the amount of authority that can be delegated by an agency or its willingness to share accountability when discretion is involved.

When it comes to which of the several steps in a decision-making process are being opened to public input and impact, agency officials may not be clear about their goals, which can lead to them sending unclear messages to participants in the public. They might purposefully be ambiguous about how public feedback will be used to boost public support for agency decisions while making few guarantees. Or the agency officials convening the process might make explicit assertions of the goals they hope to achieve, but they might be overridden at the process' conclusion by higher-level officials who don't agree with those goals. Conflict between social groups or between social groups and agencies can occasionally play a significant role in the framework of a participative process. Common justifications for such procedures include the expectation that they will be successful in resolving such disputes without the need for other political procedures like protests, lobbying, and legal action. Additionally, conflicts resulting from interagency differences in perspective and mission may affect participatory procedures and the degree to which they impact outcomes when more than one administrative agency has an interest in and responsibility for an environmental assessment or decision (Kandil, 2022).

1.8 Forms of Public Participation

(Rowe & Frewer (2000) discusses processes for involving the public in a variety of ways. The objectives of high-quality and broadly accepted assessments and choices have been achieved using a variety of public participation formats, but each style has also occasionally failed to do so. Over time, a variety of words have been developed to describe various forms of participatory process organisation. Certain words refer to broad "formats." Examples include town hall meetings, citizen juries, study circles, future search conferences, scoping meetings, focus groups, workshops, open houses, charrettes, listening sessions, advisory committees, blue-ribbon commissions, summits, policy dialogues, and deliberative polling. Certain practises, instruments, or procedures that can be employed in conjunction with various formats are described by other words. These include process steering committees, working groups, panels, debates, field trips, websites, listservs, voting, consensus-building exercises, professional facilitation, decision analysis exercises, scenario-building exercises, participatory budgeting, media campaigns, surveys, various educational or outreach activities, and so forth. Frequently, multiple formats share behaviours in common or one format is flexible enough to incorporate practises that are typically associated with another format when the correct conditions arise. Because of this, processes with the same name can appear rather different in use, while processes with different names can have a lot of distinctive components (Hossain, 2005).

For instance, practically all the formats mentioned above can incorporate an expert panel. There are also numerous other specialised techniques that can be used. Even a procedure that is strictly regulated by an agency may have a little amount of public participation (Creighton, 2005). Advisory committees and comparable initiatives urge certain people to take on a more active role. In addition to being requested to make recommendations or other deliverables, committee members are picked to represent a variety of interests (Leach et al., 2002). Their meetings could be designed to promote intra-committee interaction or participation from other individuals and organisations. Agency employees could or might not have a significant role. Study groups, citizen panels, policy dialogues, and consensus conferences are examples of alternatives to typical advisory committee formats (Kenyon et al., 2001).

1.9 Levels of Public Participation

There are several levels of public engagement that one could use depending on the project, the stakeholders, and the decisions that need to be made. For this research, Sherry Arnstein's model of participation which is commonly known as the Ladder of Citizen's Participation is used to identify who has power when important decisions are being made. Understanding participation as described and defined by Arnstein involves understanding power: basically, the ability of the different parties to achieve what they identify as their goals. A major factor in full participative models is power, who has it and who determines who has access to it. Additionally, it depends on two commodities: information and money. Participation also depends on people's confidence and skills. Essentially, the model is a powerful process that seeks to empower people to take charge of their lives and their surroundings (Arnstein, 1969).

1.9.1 Manipulation

The aim is to educate the participants. The starting point is that the proposed plan is obviously the best and the job of participation is to just achieve public support through public relations. Unfortunately, this aspect of the ladder may well be familiar to many community groups and youth projects, as this is the level of which they have been used to in their prior experiences of participation (Arnstein, 1969).

1.9.2 Informing

This is an important first step to legitimate participation. However, too often the emphasis is only on a one-way low of information. If this is not dialogical it thus defeats the object and merely just becomes a channel for feedback, rather than a genuine process of participation. Two-way information sharing may appear to be a simple method, but the impact of this process once taken seriously means that people who are involved often feel listened to, heard and therefore valued; this has the potential to leave them more positively disposed to future participative engagement projects and other proposals (Arnstein, 1969).

1.9.3 Consultation

This is a vital step, it moves beyond the information sharing stage and into the realm of citizen involvement: it can include surveys, actual or virtual; neighbourhood meetings; increasingly the use of social media projects; as well as public enquiries. Consultation is often favoured by organizations that feel that they have a duty, or sense of obligation, to demonstrate civic engagement, as it appears to be a relatively quick-fix process. This is probably why Arnstein still suggests that this is just a 'window dressing' ritual. Done to make it appear that a participative process has been adhered to but lacking in any depth as a process (Arnstein, 1969).

1.9.4 Placation

This level is recognizable by many who have been involved in community development and youth engagement. It relies heavily upon a small group of repeat players: members of a society and or interest group who have been picked as they are seen as a safe group to get involved. Often, they have been handpicked, and are seen as 'passive activists' who are co-opted onto committees. This level allows 'passive activists' citizens to advise or plan ad infinitum but, as Arnstein suggests, the power remains with the power holders and they hold the right to judge the legitimacy or feasibility of the advice given by those who have participated.

1.9.5 Partnership

On this level, power is redistributed through a process of negotiation between citizens and power holders. It is a long-term commitment to continued dialogue and offers clear and transparent processes for planning and decision-making. It is demonstrated by defining clear roles and responsibilities, the very minimum required is that these are shared for example, through joint committees. However, because it can be an elongated process it often inadvertently excludes groups such as young people (Arnstein, 1969).

1.9.6 Delegation

At this level, it is clear that active citizens are involved, that they are in fact holding a majority of seats in groups like committees with delegated powers to make decisions. Decisions on budgets obviously have implications and it is seen that where this takes place, much time and effort has been given to engaging with the public and that now they have the power to assure accountability of the project to themselves (Arnstein, 1969).

1.9.7 Citizen Control

This is a degree of power (or control) which guarantees that participants or residents can govern a programme or an institution, be in full charge of policy and managerial aspects, and be able to negotiate the conditions under which "outsiders" may change them. A group with no intermediaries between it and the source of funds is the model most frequently advocated. Because of access to power, resources, and money, this is when potentially vulnerable status and adequate control measures need to be identified and implemented to safeguard community assets (Arnstein, 1969).

1.10 Perils of Public Participation

Even by its supporters, public participation, which is referred to as a tool for improving democratic practise and the quality of project assessments and decisions, occasionally has a number of other repercussions that are unforeseen and undesirable (Calvert, 1991). In fact, some academics have asserted that public involvement in environmental decision-making is more likely to worsen it than to enhance it (Scheberle,1995). Four major categories can be used to group the worries: First, involvement by the public might turn into little more than political manipulation. An example of such a situation is the new prostitution regulations in Canada. The method of public engagement was exploited to influence, or even fabricate, majority Canadian support for a certain policy goal. As a result, the governing party's principles gained legitimacy, thus, by supporting their values, PP can make elected people more powerful. (Bouchard, 2016).

Second, public involvement may worsen rather than improve the handling of data especially those that involve scientific information and decision quality. The third challenge has to do with leadership. Fourth, public participation could result in insignificant or even negative outcomes at a significant cost in terms of time, effort, and money. Some of the issues examined can be seen as the results of flawed processes from the perspective of participation advocates. However, some participants may be seeking some of these outcomes, such as an agency seeking its own objectives or people hoping to delay decision-making and reduce agency authority. Regarding the political pitfalls of public participation, there are four methods of defence (Ventriss & Kuentzel, 2005).

First, an organisation could start a participatory process just because they believe it gives policies legitimacy without intending to have any impact on its judgments. Building legitimacy and trust among all participants, including public confidence in a decision-making agency, are valid normative objectives from the perspective of democratic theory if the agency actively incorporates public feedback into the development of its assessments and choices. While orchestrating the process to achieve the necessary legitimacy, agency officials' opinions on public participation are occasionally mixed, with some sincerely devoted to using public input and others considering it to be of little value. But typically, such orchestration is short-lived. Even if the decision-makers ignore what is learned through the process, participants may start to trust an agency if a participation process is carried out with the best of intentions by the authorities directly accountable for it. There may be a short-term gain in public approval at the expense of legitimacy in the long run if agency assessors and decision makers solicit public opinion but do not take it seriously (Nonet, 1980; Johnson, 2010).

Secondly, one of the most important worries regarding public participation methods is that they can lower the overall quality of evaluations and conclusions by adding subpar reasoning or by reducing the effective use of science in public decision making when science is included. In technical and environmental policy, for example, it is argued that public opinion should not be given much weight because the ordinary person is particularly bad at managing probabilities and contingencies, despite the fact that these concepts are crucial to societal decisions concerning the environment and technology (Starr, 1969). Influential psychological research on "heuristics and biases" in human decision-making reveals that humans may significantly depart from the modes of thought that normative choice theory presumes, particularly in the face of ambiguity (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974). Deviations may be the result of mistakes in probabilistic or quantitative reasoning, or they may represent different ways of interpreting the issue that make different types of reasoning seem more appropriate (Epstein, 2000). The issue is that procedures emerging from involvement with the public will reflect reasoning flaws if the public erroneously interprets or misapplies complicated technical knowledge or evaluates an environmental problem using different reasoning techniques than specialists (Scheberle, 1995).

Thirdly, as illustrated by Fung (2015), due to the opportunistic and, for the most part, unsystematic nature of its sources, leadership in participatory innovation has been erratic. The serendipitous confluence of forces is frequently where participation programmes are conceived. When a philanthropy wants to invest in civic participation and a local politician seeks to boost support in that community, a community group may demand more voice for its members over a specific local issue. These forces may coalesce around participatory budgeting or local school governance as a public engagement reform that serves each of the several purposes. Because initial excitement for involvement may quickly wane or shift in favour of other goals, such alignments create weak foundations on which participatory governance can be sustained or expanded. The development of stronger and more organised incentives for organisational leaders to develop effective forms of public interaction is necessary to achieve more consistent leadership in this area. The example here is Porto Alegre, where the Workers' Party expanded its base of electoral support during a ten-year period because the participatory budgeting initiatives, they promoted were well-liked by citizens (Fung, 2015).

The final significant criticism of participation focuses on the outcomes. According to the argument, the outcomes of highly participatory processes are frequently trivial, excessively protective of certain interests or values, or result in actions that are ineffective or out of proportion to the threat or problem (Sanders, 1997). According to this theory, participatory methods frequently promote solutions that go against the principles of efficient or economical use of taxpayer funds. Regulators are likely to focus their attention and resources on environmental concerns that are relatively innocuous but highly apparent in the public eye while ignoring others that are less widely recognised but have extremely serious implications because they are pursuing objectives that the public demands (Palmer & Herbers, 1988). Long-term damages will cause more individuals to suffer than necessary since safety and risk-reduction money are used inefficiently.

These criticisms counteract naivety about involvement by pointing out plausible ways that it could go wrong. It helps to consider these criticisms in two different ways. They first bring up the question of what can or should be expected from a participative process in light of the process' goals. For instance, worries about fairness are legitimate if the agency's objective is to uncover public concerns but not to offer answers or come to a consensus; nonetheless, concerns about political scheming, scientific proficiency, and efficiency would appear less relevant. However, these later worries must be taken seriously if the objective is to advocate policy, particularly if the recommendations will be important. Different objectives can increase or decrease the significance of these issues. Surveying the opinions of interested and affected parties is all that is necessary if the primary goal is to define the breadth of public concerns: representation matters, but other issues are more subdued. More emphasis must be placed on the participants' capacity to learn from one other and consider arguments if the goal is to establish consensus (Bosso, 2003).

1.11 Criteria of an effective PP Process

Acceptance criteria pertain to the successful development and application of a procedure, while process criteria are concerned with a procedure's potential for widespread acceptance. A procedure may fail to allay public worries if it is properly established but is viewed by the public as unfair or undemocratic in some way. On the other hand, if a procedure and its suggestions are supported by the public but the final choice is made inefficiently, then its execution may actually be detrimental to sponsors and the general public (Fiorino, 1990). One evaluation framework developed by Webler (1995) examines fairness and competency standards for public participation: Representativeness, independence, early involvement, influence, transparency and structured decision making. It is regarded as the most thorough analysis of the evaluation issue to date and is cited by many authors (Rowe & Frewer, 2000c, p. 15).

The first criteria is the criteria of representativeness. The public participants should be a fairly representative sample of the impacted public's population. However, special care should be taken to avoid disenfranchising poorer groups or segments of society or hiring a knowledgeable, driven, self-interested, and unrepresentative elite that could exacerbate pre-existing tendencies to place high-risk or undesirable projects in the communities of those least able to handle the resulting disruption (Crosby et al., 1986). In transboundary disputes, where one country must decide on a risk issue that will affect another (such as the location of a nuclear power plant or waste repository close to a national border or the construction of a dam along a major river to which other countries have access), additional caution is required. Members of all affected communities, including those in other countries, should be surveyed in order to achieve real representativeness. The implementation of this level of representativeness is likely to encounter political challenges, but the alternative is likely to result in national conflict. The relative distribution of views should also be considered in representation; in a small sample, using participants to represent every point of view could result in a relative decline in the impact of individuals whose opinions are held by the majority (Rahl, 1996). Selecting a random stratified sample of the impacted population is one strategy for ensuring good representativeness. Another could involve the proportionate selection of members based on the results of surveys used to gauge the range of opinions on a certain topic. Once a panel has been chosen, the task environment should be welcoming enough to allow for easy attendance and avoid placing some members at a disadvantage, causing them to withdraw from the process. In terms of methodology, representativeness is crucial if one is to accurately assess the public's opinions (Crosby et al., 1986). After the concerned parties have been well represented, it is important to make sure there is no conflict of interest, thus independence of the members of the group is necessary.

The second vital criteria is independence. The participation procedure needs to be handled impartially and independently. The participation process should be managed objectively such that managers and facilitators are both regarded as and actually are independent. Public officials must also be free from any ties to the organisation that sponsors them (Zinberg et al., 1979). The creation of a steering committee or management team that includes representatives from several bodies or neutral organisations, such as university professors, may help to gain and demonstrate independence (Crowfoot & Wondolleck, 1993). The next thing to consider as a condition for effective PP is the stage at which the public is consulted.

As soon as value judgments become relevant, the public should be consulted as early in the process as practicable. Ng & Hamby (1997) support this point with the example that, it might not be sane to have public participation in making judgments about highly technical matters, such as in the scientific assessment of risk, rather, public participation should happen as soon as it is reasonably practicable. However, when value judgments start to matter, it is crucial to take into account psychological and sociological perspectives on risk, and the general public should be consulted. For instance, when choosing between potential locations for a hazardous facility while the public hasn't had a chance to examine whether the facility is even necessary in the first place, involvement may be perceived as coming too late (Lake & Disch, 1992). The process's results ought to actually affect policy and make a difference.

The procedure's outcome should both be seen to have an impact on policy/decision or lead to the implementation of a policy/decision (Wiedemann & Femers, 1993). One of the primary criticisms of participation methods is that they are frequently seen as ineffective, serving just to legitimise decisions or to provide the image of consultation without any real intention of implementing suggestions. As a result, the public is sceptical and mistrustful of sponsors' intentions. Making sure that there is clear agreement in advance as to how the result will be used and how it might guide policy is one strategy that might lead to achieving this condition. The public should then be informed about the precise ways that the output has influenced policy through the media. It might be even more credible to draw attention to any instances where public proposals have been implemented over sponsor opposition (Rahl, 1996). Another way to gain the public's trust is through transparency.

Transparency in the process will allow the general public to understand what is happening and how decisions are being made. Most scholars like Lee & Bisogni (1995) agree that the participation process should be open to the public so that they may observe what is happening and how decisions are being made. Being open will probably ease the public's concerns over the sponsors and their intentions. Transparency may entail disclosing details about many components of the process, such as how the public participants are chosen, how decisions are made, and meeting minutes. It is advisable to disclose the type of material being withheld and the reasons behind it if it must be kept secret from the public for reasons of security or sensitivity rather than running the risk of the secrecy's exposure and subsequent negative effects (Rowe & Frewer, 2000a). The final criteria deemed worth discussing is the composition and approach of the decision-making process.

The decision-making process should be structured and displayed appropriately in the participation exercise using/providing the relevant means. The participation activity ought to give participants the necessary tools for organising and outlining the decision-making process. This would make it possible to assess the underlying motivations for a decision and the degree to which a conclusion was adequately supported (Rowe & Frewer, 2000a). It would also assist organise the process. Documenting the steps taken to arrive at a choice and its result is likely to boost transparency (and thus the exercise's perceived credibility) as well as the effectiveness of the process. A participation process may include a number of decision-supporting techniques, including decision analysis and decision trees. Basically, these are processes that aid in structuring how both individuals and communities make decisions. They can be applied to make sure that social and political considerations are given equal weight to technical assessments, to clarify the relationships between significant variables, to effectively combine judgments, and to provide a transparent and explicit representation of the process used to reach a decision. It would seem crucial to organise the decision-making process in groups. These are frequently utilised in more recent involvement processes, like consensus conferences and citizen juries (Crowfoot & Wondolleck, 1993).

Conclusion

The incorporation of feedback or discussion from any or all parties involved in a public decision, process, or project is often referred to as public participation (Maloff et al., 2000). It is a process carried out for different reasons which may determine the type of method to use (Rowe & Frewer (2000). PP takes different forms including focus groups, citizen juries and steering committees. There are various levels of PP which influence the effectiveness of the process. They include consulting, involving and collaborating. Although PP is often conducted with good motives, there are sometimes some negative sides and effects to it. The process may be steered towards a political party’s interest more than that of the general public (Bouchard, 2016). A PP process with the wrong leader may end up wasting time and money to no positive end Fung (2015). In connection with large scale transportation projects, PP is important because it helps identify potential opposing ideas that can be used to improve project concept and design and reduce conflicts (Dimitriou et al., 2013). Public participation, benefits actors or initiators because it enables a wide array of stakeholders feel they could advance their interests through the process and/or outcomes of the project. Further, being associated with the project enhances the reputations of the actors driving it (both inside and outside government) (McConnell, 2010).

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

his chapter will discuss the main theories and frameworks used for the study, the justification for the theories chosen, and the degree to which the theories are pertinent to the research questions: (a) What were the public participation processes adopted in the implementation and sustenance of the LRT Hamilton project? (descriptive). (b) How effective were the public participation processes on the success of the LRT Hamilton project? (Evaluative) and an explanation of why these processes were or were not effective of the LRT Hamilton project and why they did or did not.

The chapter is started with a discussion of the concept of an Institution and public participation as an institution and its relevance to the research, followed by the discussion of the theory and framework which this research is based on; the institutionalist rational choice theory and the Arstein Ladder of public participation.

2.2 Institutions

According to the new institutional theory, an institution's definition goes beyond that of an organisation. Institutions are generally understood to be the official and informal rules that govern social, political, and economic interactions (North, 1991). They are the established and widely accepted sets of social norms that govern how people interact with one another (Hodgson, 2006). The notion that institutions are reproduced through habitual activities and offer some level of relative certainty and predictability for regular social, economic, and political interactions is one of their key characteristics. They frequently alter gradually and occasionally, abruptly, but they also tend to persist over time. Social actors may not even be aware that they are adhering to institutionalised patterns of behaving because they are internalised and unconscious. They influence behaviour, which in turn has an impact on child development. It suffices to remark that institutions function in all facets of life and can limit access to opportunities and rights in the economic, legal, political, and social realms (Goguen & Roşu, 2004). Family is one common example of an institution because it serves as the main vehicle for socialisation, it is referred to as a "building brick" of society (Little & McGivern, 2016). Education is another interesting example of an institution. The younger generation might be thought of as becoming socialised through education. Ongoing efforts are made to impose on the child mentalities that he could not have developed on his own (Durkheim, 2006).

In this study, the researcher identifies the public participation process as an institution and a tool which is used to, generate new information and ideas, include diversity of actors and interests, redistribute resources among the players at this decision-making stage, and which offers some players greater clout, visibility, influence, and power, produce legitimacy and credibility, facilitate implementation and. Since public participation has its own effects and repercussions, not all actors are favoured at the end of day (Lascoumes & Le Gales, 2007)

2.3 Public participation as an institution & Tool

For this research, the public participation process is described as an institution and a tool which is used to generate new information and ideas, include diversity of actors and interests, redistribute resources among the players at a decision-making stage, and which offers some players greater clout, visibility, influence, and power to produce legitimacy, credibility and to facilitate implementation. The style of public participation then becomes the tool used to empower the actors/ citizens. Since public participation has its own effects and repercussions, not all actors are favoured at the end of day (Lascoumes & Le Gales, 2007).

2.4 Link Between Institution, PP as an Institution and Rational Choice Theory

Institutions in simple terms are the official and informal rules that govern social, political, and economic interactions in a society (North, 1991). In light of this, the imperative of public participation (which include, legitimacy and transparency) in a society and in the decision-making process, qualifies it to be considered as an institution because it influences the ideas and strategies of the actors and equally empowers them. According to the rationalist theory, actors in a society or decision-making process, pursue their own goals to maximise their own interest. Not all individual interests will be beneficial or safe to all in the society, in order to keep the society safe, institutions are in place to make sure that all actors adhere to the accepted rule and regulations. In a decision-making process, the design of a public participation process is the tool that either empowers/ disempowers the actors depending on the role they are playing in the decision-making process.

2.5 New Institutionalism

Institutionalists believe that institutions matter and policies are embedded in institutions. That said individual behaviour is always present in institutions. In other terms, institutions provide guidance for individual actions, and could possibly provide sanctions when they do not adapt to the institutions' expectations. There are types of institutionalism, however, the focus of this research is the Rational Choice Theory (RCT) (Peters, 2017).

2.6 Rational Choice Theory (RCT)

Rational choice is the process of identifying the possibilities that are accessible and then selecting the most preferable option in accordance with some uniform criterion (Zey, 2015). The foundation of the rational choice theory is the idea that humans are rational entities with free will to choose a path of action. It is predicated on the conventional idea that individuals will seek to maximize their own benefits at the lowest possible cost. According to the rational choice theorist, even crimes that initially appear to be the consequence of sheer impulsivity or pathology are influenced by logical variables like the constraints of one's time and personal abilities or skills, as well as the accessibility of relevant information and victims (Wittek et al., 2013). This does not imply that everyone always behaves sensibly or that everyone has the same goals and ideals. It implies that the model represents a normative ideal of rationality that is expressly or implicitly shared by all people. People follow the principle of least effort, which makes them instrumentally reasonable. Also, as people know that acting on false beliefs undermines the pursuit of their ends, they want to use cognitive procedures that reduce the risk of getting it wrong when getting it right matters (Califano, 2000). This use of rational choice theory to explain participation in light of recent research into human decision-making in psychology and neuroscience finds that, the rational choice model, which is based on an axiomatic approach to theory-building, fails to explain why individuals participate in collective decision making. Part of this is due to a deductive approach to theory-building derived from economic methodology which is at odds with reality, but also to problems associated with rational choice models which are not adequately dealt with in their application. That said, rational choice accounts of participation provide an important normative explanation of the problems facing citizens when they are deciding to participate. In particular, the approach helps to identify contradictions in the relationship between individual and collective decision-making.

Though it may incorporate concerns about everything that motivates people as part of a condition of affairs, the rational choice explanation is fundamentally about states of affairs. Thus, it is simple to understand how it accords with utilitarianism (Hardin, 2001). The development of the field of law and economics, which has generated the most systematic analysis of the vast body of law and legal regulations that legal scholarship and practice have previously seen, was sparked by the introduction of rational choice value theories to the study of law. In other words, the rational choice theory might be able to explain occurrences that we would typically characterize as choices, but understanding these choices as decisions made by agents who used logic to get at them requires a verstehen approach. Verstehen approach refers to understanding the meaning of action from the actor's point of view. (Hardin, 2001). Deliberative agents, who are able to recognize and respond to considerations of evidence and valuation, make decisions and create intentions. Agents having the capacity for deliberate action ought to be aware of the normative significance of the ideas and want they harbor. Intelligibility pertaining to the first-person perspective of a rule-follower is necessary for deliberate action (Wittek et al., 2013). Deliberative agents must have the capacity to exercise care for the rationality of their beliefs given what they have reason to believe to be true as well as care for the rationality of their desires given what they have reason to value, and they must be able to make decisions based on the beliefs and desires they come to accept as being rational (Hardin, 2001). Furthermore, neo-institutionalism of rational choice (institutional rational choice) is the variation in the neo institutionalist constellation of the utilitarian paradigm in social sciences (Delori,2019). Unlike its “historical” and “sociological” cousins, rational choice neo-institutionalism draws its intellectual foundations primarily from microeconomics. It is therefore characterized by particular attention paid to the strategic rationality of the actors, a pronounced taste for modelling and (sometimes) a claim to “tell the truth” Of positivist inspiration (Delori, 2019). Additionally, the neo-institutionalism of rational choice presents itself, at first glance, as a microeconomic framework for reading social and political phenomena. This approach indeed postulates that individuals are the atoms of society, that they have clear objectives (or preferences), and that they seek to determine the best way to achieve these ends (Blomgren, 2015). In accordance with a conception that is now dominant in microeconomics, most neo-institutionalists of rational choice then make the assumption that the rationality of actors is limited. Ideally, this research views rational choice theory as a perfect fit in the case of the Hamilton project. This is because, the theory assumes that people make choices based on their best interest, the project on the other hand involved citizens and their concerns in decision making therefore this theory will help evaluate the effect of citizen participation on the project.

2.7 Rational Choice Institutionalism

Rational Institutionalism assumes that individual decisions are based on self-interest using rational measures. Based on this approach, individuals come to the institution to pursue their own goals and to maximize their interests. Institutions constitute systems of incentives and rules that then shape the choices of the individuals functioning within them. Rational Institutionalists, in contrast to the normative institutionalists, believe that institutions are easy to change (Peters, 2017). Rational choice institutionalism focuses on the purposeful individual and their motivations and beliefs. As such rational choice theory adheres to the principle of methodological individualism. From rational choice perspective individuals always make deliberate and conscious choices in pursuit of their personal goals. Even when action takes place in a collective setting such as interest group or the state, the individual actor must always be the focus of concern. Institutions such as a public participation process, therefore, are nothing more than the set of processes, the machine, which allows such collective action to take place. If individual action forms the core of rational choice institutionalism, then the following primary assumptions about the nature of individual choice are central to rational choice ontology: first, Individuals are predominantly selfish. They choose how to act on the basis of achieving their personal goals, whether these are of a material or non-material nature. Secondly, in pursuit of these goals, individuals act as opportunists who seek the biggest possible benefits and the least costs in their decisions. Lastly, the chosen course of individual action will be affected by changes in the structure of costs and benefits at the margin. The marginal principle implies that other things being equal, any increase in the cost of an action will decrease the likelihood of that action, taking place (Bara & Pennington, 2009)

2.8 The Role of Institutions

The major concern of rational choice institutionalism is on the propensity for different institutions to channel the self-interested choices of actors towards outcomes, which are positive or negative from a collective point of view. The origin of this approach derives from micro-economics and Adam Smith's notion of the invisible hand. In The Wealth of Nations Smith sought to demonstrate how, if institutions are properly structured, the pursuit of self-interest by actors within society can lead to beneficial social results, even if those results are not the specific intent of the actors concerned. Smith did not, as is sometimes implied by critics, maintain that the pursuit of self-interest always produces the best results, but focused on the crucial role of the institutional context and in particular the existence of private property and competitive markets as the key factor in determining whether this is so. Following in the wake of Smith, contemporary neo-classical economics has developed a sophisticated framework to explain how self-interested behaviour in the economic marketplace is able to generate outcomes beneficial from the view of society as a whole, and those contexts where ‘market failures’ are likely to be prevalent (Bara & Pennington, 2009).

2.9 Arnstein’s Ladder

In order to carry out the evaluation of the public participation process, an indicator or framework which is simple to understand and clearly shows how much power the citizens have is required. For this purpose, Arnstein’s ladder is used. The ladder is used as a tool to evaluate the institution which is the public participation process.

Model Cities and Arnstein's "A Ladder of Citizen Participation" were the culmination of a decade's worth of activities. In addition, it was the 1960s, a decade marked by numerous protests and movements, such as the youth movement, the civil rights movement, "Black Power/Black Is Beautiful," the anti-Vietnam War movement, the second wave of feminism, the women's movement, the environmental movement, and the beginning of the gay rights movement. The Demonstration Cities and Metropolitan Development Act, which was enacted on November 3, 1966, and which expired in 1974, included Model Cities. President Johnson altered the name of the City Demonstration program to the Model Cities Program at the time the Act was signed out of concern that it may encourage additional urban demonstrations (Califano, 2000). Federal monies were allocated for failing urban communities under the Model Cities Program to enable them to create "imaginative (plans) to rehabilitate or revive slum and blighted regions" (Demonstration Cities and Metropolitan Development Act, 1966, p. 1255). Based on her HUD staff's investigation of first-year Model Cities programs and their experiences with the citizen engagement process, Arnstein wrote "A Ladder of Citizen Participation" (Arnstein, 1969). She constructed an eight-rung ladder in her piece. The Arnstein model was chosen for this investigation because of its simplicity, robustness, and widespread use. Its applicability for categorizing quite varied participation kinds has been demonstrated by the usage of adaptations of it in the context of government participation, consumer participation, learner involvement, and other contexts. According to a survey conducted at the start of the 2000s on levels of public participation in US cities, in order to fulfil participation goals in the satisfaction of public demands, consensus building, and public trust, the existence of participation mechanisms appears to be a prerequisite and required condition. As a result of participation in decision-making, public needs are better understood and met, and an agreement on service objectives, priorities, and performance expectations" (Wang 2001, p. 332).

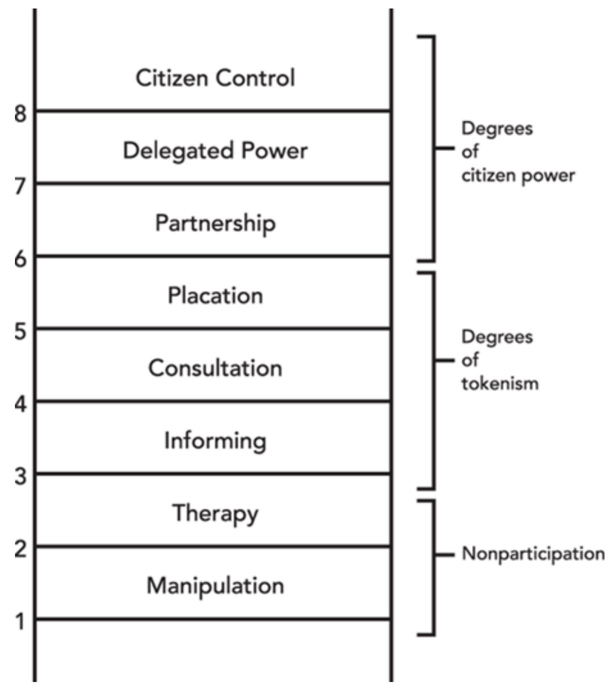

Figure 2: The Arnstein's Ladder

2.9.1 Manipulation

People are appointed to rubber-stamp advisory panels or advisory boards under the pretence of encouraging citizen engagement with the explicit intent of "educating" them or coercing their support. The bottom rung of the ladder represents the distorting of participation into a public relations tool by those in positions of power, as opposed to genuine citizen involvement (Connor, 1988). This fictitious kind of "participation" first gained popularity during urban renewal when local housing officials asked the socially prominent to serve on Citizen Advisory Committees (CACs). The minority group subcommittees of the CAC, which were supposed to defend the rights of Black people in the rejuvenation program, were another area of exploitation. These subcommittees primarily served as letterheads, trotting forward at suitable periods to advocate urban planning, much like their parent CACs. Later, additional initiatives serving the poor adopted this method of nonparticipation (Arnstein,2019). Community Action Agencies (CAAs), which have developed institutions referred to as "neighbourhood councils" or "community advisory groups," are examples of this. These bodies typically lack any authority or valid purpose. 6 They are employed by the CAAs to "prove" the participation of "grassroots people" in the program. However, it's possible that "the people" weren't consulted about the initiative. For example, "We need your signatures on our proposal for a multiservice centre that will house, under one roof, doctors from the health department, employees from the welfare department, and specialists from the employment service." may have been how it was explained in a meeting (Arnstein,2019).

2.9.2 Therapy

In some ways, group therapy, disguised as citizen involvement, belongs at the bottom of the totem pole because it is both dishonest and haughty. Its administrators—mental health professionals such as social workers and psychiatrists—assume that mental disease and helplessness are mutually exclusive (Arnstein, 2019). On the basis of this supposition, the professionals subject the citizens to therapeutic group therapy while disguising it as citizen involvement in planning. This type of "participation" is particularly reprehensible because residents are heavily involved in activities, but the emphasis is on treating their "pathologies" rather than eradicating the racism and victimization that led to them in the first place. The experiences of student and civil rights activists who encountered guns, whips, and other types of terror in the South demonstrate the complexity of the idea of mental illness in the modern era. In order to deal with their worries and prevent paranoia, they needed the assistance of socially adept psychiatrists (Arnstein, 2019).

2.9.3 Informing

The most crucial first step towards legal citizen engagement can be educating citizens about their rights, obligations, and options. Too often, though, the focus is on a one-way information flow from authorities to citizens with no mechanism for feedback and little negotiating leverage (Arnstein, 2019). People have little opportunity to affect the program intended "for their benefit" under these circumstances, especially when information is presented late in the planning process (Botchwey, 2019). The news media, leaflets, posters, and answers to enquiries are the most common means employed for such one-way communication.

2.9.4 Consultation

Inviting citizens' opinions and providing them with information can both be acceptable first steps toward their active engagement. However, if additional forms of engagement are not included in the consultation process, this step of the ladder is still a fraud because it makes no guarantees that the opinions and concerns of the public will be taken into account (Arnstein, 2019). Public hearings, neighbourhood meetings, and attitude surveys are the most popular techniques for obtaining public input. When decision-makers only allow this amount of input from the public, participation is reduced to a mere window-dressing ceremony (Connor, 1988). People are mostly seen as statistical abstractions, and how many attend meetings, take flyers home, or respond to surveys is used to gauge involvement. Through all of this action, citizens just "participate in participation, which is what they accomplish. And what powerholders achieve is the evidence that they have gone through the required motions of involving “those people” (Arnstein, 2019).

2.9.5 Placation

It is at this level that citizens begin to have some degree of influence though tokenism is still apparent. An example of placation strategy is to place a few handpicked “worthy” poor on boards of Community Action Agencies or on public bodies like the board of education, police commission, or housing authority (Arnstein, 2000). If they are not accountable to a constituency in the community and if the traditional power elite hold the majority of seats, the have-nots can be easily outvoted and outfoxed. Another example is the Model Cities advisory and planning committees (Arnstein, 2019). They permit civilians to plan or advise indefinitely, but they reserve the right for those in positions of power to determine whether the advice is valid or practical. The quality of the technical support residents receive in defining their objectives and the amount to which the community has been organized to advocate for those priorities will, of course, have a significant impact on how satisfied citizens actually are (Califano, 2000).

2.9.6 Partnership

Authority is really redistributed at this rung of the ladder through negotiations between citizens and those in positions of power. By means of committees for planning, joint policy boards, and methods for resolving impasses, they consent to delegate planning and decision-making responsibilities (Arnstein, 2019). The ground rules cannot be changed unilaterally once they have been established through some type of give and take. In order for a partnership to be successful, there must be an organized power base in the community to which the citizen leaders are accountable, financial resources for the group to pay its leaders a fair honorarium for their time-consuming efforts, and the ability for the group to hire (and fire) its own experts in the field, attorneys, and community organizers (Cornwall, 2008). With these components, citizens can actually affect the plan's result through negotiation (as long as both parties find it useful to maintain the partnership).

2.9.7 Delegated

Power Citizens may acquire dominant decision-making authority over a particular plan or program through negotiations with public officials. Common examples include Model City policy boards or CAA delegate agency, where citizens hold a definite majority of seats and real, outlined authority (Gaber, 2019). At this point, the ladder has been climbed to the point where the significant cards are in the hands of the citizens, ensuring their accountability for the program. Powerholders should initiate negotiations to settle conflicts rather than yield to outside pressure (Gaber, 2019).

2.9.8 Citizen Control

The need for neighbourhood control, black control, and community control in schools is growing. Despite the fact that nobody in the country has total authority, it is crucial to avoid mistaking words for intent (Gaber, 2019). Simply put, people are asking for the level of power (or control) that ensures that participants or residents can run a program or an institution, be fully in charge of policy and managerial decisions, and be able to negotiate the terms under which "outsiders" may change them. The approach that is most usually recommended is a local corporation that receives funding directly from the source without the use of any middlemen (Arnstein, 2019). A few of these experimental businesses actually produce items and/or provide social services. New models for control will definitely appear as the have-nots continue to push for increased levels of control over their lives. Several others are supposedly in the development stage (Botchwey, 2019).

2.9.9 Justification and Criticisms for Using Arnstein's Ladder

Arstein's framework has been described to be inadequate for exploring complex power dynamics and decision-making contexts. Like any model or framework, the Ladder of Citizen Participation can only explain so much. A standard criticism of two-dimensional models, particularly those that can be interpreted as graduated hierarchical scales that ascend from lower to higher is that (1) they cannot adequately represent the layered complexity or fluctuating power dynamics that are typically in play in real-world participatory situations, and (2) the tendency is to interpret lower levels as universally negative (or worse than) and higher levels as universally positive (or better when), in fact, lower levels may be positive in some circumstances and higher levels negative in others. For example, it may be perfectly appropriate to inform community members about already made decisions in some situations (like, district administrative decisions about teacher and staff salaries), or to withhold control from citizens or others, such as when they may not have the specialized skills or expertise required for a given task (like managing public funds on a large project) (Abbott & Holley, 2020).

Despite these criticisms, it is a relatively easy framework to comprehend and apply to any research on the topic of participation. Allied to this simplicity is the theme of power. Arnstein herself argues that there is a critical difference between going through the empty ritual of participation and having the real power needed to affect the outcome of the process. She suggests that her ladder juxtaposes and easily helps identify powerless citizens with the powerful in order to highlight the fundamental divisions between them (Varwell, 2022). Arnstein's analysis advanced a central argument that remains as relevant today as it was in 1969: citizen participation in democratic processes, if it is to be considered "participation" in any genuine or practice sense, requires the redistribution of power. In Arnstein's formulation, citizen participation is citizen power. Without an authentic reallocation of power in the form of money or decision-making authority, for example, participation merely "allows the powerholders to claim that all sides were considered, but makes it possible for only some of those sides to benefit (Varwell, 2022).

Conclusion

Public participation process is described as an institution and a tool which is used to generate new information and ideas, include diversity of actors and interests, redistribute resources among the players at a decision-making stage, and which offers some players greater clout, visibility, influence, and power to produce legitimacy, credibility and to facilitate implementation. The style of public participation then becomes the tool used to empower the actors/ citizens. Institutions in simple terms are the official and informal rules that govern social, political, and economic interactions in a society (North, 1991). In light of this, the imperative of public participation (which include, legitimacy and transparency) in a society and in the decision-making process, qualifies it to be considered as an institution because it influences the ideas and strategies of the actors and equally empowers them. According to the rationalist theory, actors in a society or decision-making process, pursue their own goals to maximise their own interest. Institutions are needed to keep actors and their actions in line with the generally accepted rules and norm. Looking at public participation from this angle will serve as a benchmark against which the public participation processes identified from the Hamilton LRT projects will be analysed. Arstein's ladder will serve as a guide that will determine the extent of power given to the citizens which will lead to an evaluation of the decision-making process.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes into details the research methodology, which is the systematic, theoretical analysis of explicit rules and procedures on which this research is based and against which claims for knowledge are evaluated. It includes sampling design, research design, data collection and data analysis. Research design is the plan and structure that guides a researcher to find answers to the research questions (Akhtar, 2016).

There are three types of research design, these are quantitative, qualitative and mixed research design approaches. For the purpose of this study, the qualitative research approach was adopted because it is exploratory and seeks to explain ‘how’ and ‘why’ a particular phenomenon, or behaviour, operates as it does in a particular context. Since this research seeks to find out how the public participation process for Hamilton LRT was carried out by identifying the process and evaluating it, the qualitative approach was suitable. Case studies, ethnography, grounded theory, and phenomenology are examples of qualitative research designs. a case study approach because this approach allows for a careful evaluation of the data within a particular context. When the distinctions between the phenomena and the context are not immediately apparent and numerous sources of information are utilized, the empirical investigation is said to be using a case study research method (Yin & Campbell, 2018). According to Yin (2003) a case study design should be taken into consideration when ''how" and "why'' questions are asked; one may not be able to manipulate the actions of those involved in the study or the events that happen; you want to cover contextual conditions because you believe they are relevant to the phenomenon wider study. The ability to handle a complete range of evidence, including documents, artifacts, interviews, and observations, is a case study's distinctive strength (Yin, 2003, p. 8). On the basis of the framework developed by L. Datta (1990), six different types of case studies are discussed. They consist of illustrative case studies which uses one or two examples to describe a situation and are descriptive in nature. Condensed case studies called exploratory case studies are conducted prior to carrying out a thorough examination. Critical instance case studies focus on one or a small number of sites to investigate particular circumstances of interest or to verify a generalized or universal claim. Program implementation case study is used to determine whether it is being done in accordance with its intended purpose. Case studies on program effects evaluate the results of programs and draw some conclusions about the causes of success or failure. Cumulative case studies combine information from several sites acquired over time. The sort of question an evaluator has will determine the type of case study they should use and how well it will be able to address that particular subject. The program implementation kind of case study is used for the analysis in this study (Lynn, 1991). The Program Implementation Case Studies are a particular kind of case study that aids in determining whether implementation is in line with its objectives. These case studies are helpful in situations when implementation issues are a concern (Lynn, 1991).

3.2 Advantages of Using Case Study Approach

One advantage of thoroughly examining any case is that we often learn information that we had not first expected. As a result, case study research is an excellent technique for formulating hypotheses (Jacobsen, 2002). Case studies are crucial for expanding the body of knowledge in a topic because they provide the framework for future research (Merriam, 2009). Case studies can provide crucial supporting data to experiments. They are very useful when the investigator has limited influence over occurrences and are especially well suited to help clarify the how and why questions by investigating (Yin, 2009). When it's impossible to modify pertinent variables, case studies are appropriate when examining recent or present events (Merriam, 1994). According to Yin (2009), the necessity for case studies arises from the need to comprehend intricate social processes in all domains. Researchers can maintain a comprehensive perspective of real-world events such as individual life cycles, small group behaviour, organizational and managerial processes, neighbourhood change, school performance, international relations, and the maturation of industries using case study research, which has a lot of strength in investigating units made up of multiple variables that may be important (Rowley, 2002). (Yin, 2009). Additionally, it offers understanding and clarifies meaning to broaden the readers' experiences (Merriam, 2009).

3.3 Disadvantages of using Case Study research design

Flyvbjerg (2006) argues that there are five commonly discussed disadvantages concerning case study research: (1) One cannot generalize from a single case. (2) Theoretical knowledge is more valuable than practical knowledge. (3) A case study is most useful for generating hypotheses, whereas other methods are more suitable for hypotheses testing and theory building. (4) It is often difficult to summarize specific case studies. (5) The case study contains a bias toward verification. Some scholars would argue that research focused on case studies is unlikely to be anything more than story-telling, but few would doubt the significance of the case study as a basis for developing hypotheses for further research Critics of case study research contend that experiments are the only acceptable method for conducting explanatory and casual inquiries, and that the study's utility is restricted to and only appropriate for the investigative stage. Case studies are regarded as merely an initial step (Schell, 1992).

3.4 Sampling technique

How the small sample or small collection of cases, units, or activities illuminates social life or the phenomenon under study has been the main point of attention. For a qualitative researcher, gathering specific cases, events, or acts that can further or clarify their understanding of the phenomena under study is the main goal of sampling. Similar to this, their main objective is to identify instances or analytical units that will add to the knowledge that other researchers have on a specific aspect of social life or phenomenon (Mohd Ishak & Abu Bakar, 2014).

Sometimes a single case study is enough to explain a phenomenon, especially if it has important or well-known qualities. In some situations, a single-case study may be the best type of research. First, when a single case serves as the key test case for a carefully crafted hypothesis. There are possibly some specific sets of assumptions or propositions in the theory that apply under certain conditions. These conditions must be met in order to support or refute the idea. Data from such a study can make a substantial contribution to the process of creating knowledge and theories. Second, when a case represents an exceptional or severe circumstance, qualitative researchers may choose for a single-case design. An individual, an organisation, or a community are examples of single-case studies that can be done (Mohd Ishak & Abu Bakar, 2014b).

Since the transportation system and the services, it provides have an impact on every aspect of our daily lives, for this research, the instance of the LRT project is a good fit. It is a significant social issue and citizens have a stake in the transportation issue. The Hamilton LRT project is focused on improving access to transit and supporting the continued growth and revitalization of the city. Secondly, the goal is to assess the effectiveness of the LRT Hamilton project's public engagement process and its effects on decision-making. This research is a single case study on the Hamilton LRT project. It does not require the study of multiple cases to achieve its objectives.

3.5 Qualitative Content Analysis

Any endeavour to reduce and make sense of a large volume of qualitative data in order to find the fundamental themes and meanings is referred to as qualitative content analysis (Patton, 2022b). In qualitative content analysis, the technique of categorising or thematically organising raw data on the basis of reliable inference and interpretation is used. By carefully examining and continually comparing the data, the researcher employs inductive reasoning to draw patterns and classifications from it (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2021). Researchers can quantify and examine the occurrence, significance, and connections of such specific words, themes, or concepts using content analysis. For instance, academics can assess the language used in a news story to look for partiality or bias. Interviews, open-ended inquiries, field study notes, reports, chats, or really any instance of communicative language could be sources of data (such as books, essays, discussions, newspaper headlines, speeches, media, historical documents) (Elo & Kääriäinen, 2022).

For this research, the approach draws on techniques of qualitative content analysis and Framework Analysis to ensure that the process of analysis was systematic and comprehensive. Framework analysis is an inherently comparative form of thematic analysis which employs an organized structure of inductively- and deductively-derived themes (i.e., framework) to conduct an analysis using a combination of data description and abstraction in this approach the data are organised into a chart of columns and rows (with each row being an individual document, and each column a theme) to assist with the identification and labelling of text into meaningful chunks (Goldsmith, 2017).

3.6 Data Collection

In terms of data collection, our research makes use of four sources of evidence: 1) Citizen Jury (CJ) documents that assess their structure, mandate, operation, and relationship to higher authority; 2) Minutes and observation of CJ meetings; 3) Hamilton's City Council meetings and discussions; and 4) Newspaper coverage of the CJ and the official Hamilton website

Furthermore, this study evaluated "The Report on Proceedings and Recommendations from the Citizens' Jury on Transit" that was prepared for Hamilton City Council. These reports provide a thorough description of the citizen jury recruiting and selection procedure. The report also contained an exit poll for the jury members. Researcher also observed several CJ public meetings that had been recorded and placed online. Finally, between 2015 and 2017, sessions of the LRT Subcommittee and Hamilton City Council were watched to gauge the degree to which the jury's recommendations were debated and adopted. This was done in addition to a review of how the citizens' jury and more general LRT discussions were covered in the media.

3.7 Type of Data Used (Secondary Data)

Information that has already been gathered by other researchers is known as secondary data (e.g., in a government census or previous scientific studies). It is quick and simple to access and the data that covers longer time periods and a wider range of geographic regions can be gathered. The lack of control over the data's generation is one drawback of employing secondary data. In order to make sure it works for the analysis; it might also need additional processing. In qualitative research, non-numerical data are gathered and analysed to better comprehend concepts, attitudes, or experiences (Creswell, 2022). In adopting this approach, there was an assessment of the following:

(a) The various public participation processes adopted in the implementation and sustenance of the LRT Hamilton project.

(b) how effective were the public participation processes on the success of the LRT Hamilton project. This was done through assessment of empirical data. The methodology adopted in this investigation is qualitative content analysis of documents relevant to the research, they include but are not limited to the following: Reports like the report on Proceedings and Recommendations from the Citizen's Jury on Transit; Editorials about Metrolinx (an actor) which is the company established by the province to develop and implement a Regional Transportation Plan ; Project Memorandum of Understanding (MoU), which contained details of the city representatives on the project; Report on LRT timeline (contains information pertaining to the dates and schedules for the meetings held by the citizen Jury); Publications containing details on the LRT project provided on the official City of Hamilton website.

3.8 Data analysis

To accomplish the study's aims, content analysis is used as the primary analytical tool. The four stages of content analysis identified by Gaur and Kumar (2018) are the ones we address in our study: data collection, coding, analysis, and interpretation of coded material. Finding patterns and recurring themes in texts, whether they be written, spoken, or visual, is possible with the help of content analysis. Investigation of the purpose, topics, and effects of texts is made possible by the technique. The meaning units used in the study are crucial to content analysis. Any specific theme communicated or given by a collection of words or phrases in the context of the study is referred to as a meaning unit (Graneheim and Lundman 2004). Meaning units shouldn't be too long in order to maintain the trustworthiness of the data because this makes analysis challenging owing to the variety of meanings offered. Despite divergent opinions on what the ideal unit of analysis should be, for the sake of this essay, it is defined as either a subject or the entire text that serves as the study's analytical focal point.

Conclusion

For the purpose of this study, the qualitative research approach was adopted because it is exploratory and seeks to explain ‘how’ and ‘why’ a particular phenomenon, or behaviour, operates as it does in a particular context it fits the aims of this research. Case studies are crucial for expanding the body of knowledge in a topic because they provide the framework for future research (Merriam, 2009). For a qualitative researcher, gathering specific cases, events, or acts that can further or clarify their understanding of the phenomena under study is the main goal of sampling, as is the case for this research. Data collected was analysed based on the process of the Citizen Jury and its outcomes to evaluate it.

CHAPTER FOUR

DESCRIPTION OF THE CASE

4.1 Introduction

This research sought to evaluate the public participation process carried out for the Hamilton LRT project. This chapter presents the details pertaining to the case, the history, reason behind the project, funding, scandals, actions taken towards implementing the project, changes in decisions taken along the planning process and the various actors involved in the project.

4.2 History

In June 2007, the Province of Ontario released their Move Ontario 2020 plan, which was a multi-year rapid transit action plan for the Greater Toronto and Hamilton Area (GTHA). Metrolinx was then established by the province to develop and implement a Regional Transportation Plan (RTP) along with an Investment Strategy and Capital Plan. Following the announcement, the city worked closely with Metrolinx to undertake rapid transit feasibility studies, develop technical reports and undertake consultations. This work culminated in the February 2013 report, Rapid Ready - Expanding Mobility Choices in Hamilton, which outlines the City's vision for rapid transit along the B-Line corridor; which then led to a provincial announcement in May 2015 of a $1 billion investment of light rail transit in Hamilton.

4.3 Why did Hamilton need LRT?

According to the Provincial Growth Plan for the Greater Golden Horseshoe (2017), the population is expected to increase to 780,000 by 2041, while the number of jobs will increase up to 350,000. This represents an increase of approximately 220,000 people and 135,000 jobs over the next 23 years. The Growth Plan has also set a minimum target for residential intensification of 60%. These projections will generate a significant demand to move people throughout the city and connect them to employment and the services and supports they need. The City of Hamilton recognizes the need to look at new and improved ways to prepare for the future. The LRT service will therefore provide the following services:

- Better accommodate future travel demand and build healthier, more sustainable communities by encouraging the development of mixed-use, higher density communities.
- Support city growth by building transit to prepare for Hamilton's expected increase of population to 780,000 by 2041.
- Include significant investment to both public and private infrastructure such as roads, sidewalks, bridges, water mains, sewers, electrical distribution (hydro), telecommunications, natural gas, traffic control signals and streetlights
- Contribute to economic uplift by attracting long-term development and investments
- Provide new local jobs through employment and training opportunities and apprenticeships
- Contribute to an efficient and integrated public transit system for all users by being the first of a network of rapid transit lines, known as the BLAST Network, that are proposed for Hamilton. With an annual ridership of 9.2 million each year, this corridor is the most used of any within the city.
- Provide improved frequency and increased service hours with trains running every 6 minutes during peak hours
- Be clean and green with no emissions from the vehicle, which reduces air pollution and contributes to cleaner air.
- Be accessible due to low floor level boarding with multiple doors, so strollers and mobility devices can easily roll on and off.

4.4 Funding

The original capital commitment for the project was $1 billion, however, in November 2020, a technical review indicated that a $1 billion LRT system funded solely with provincial capital would not be of sufficient length to be a viable project to benefit the people of Hamilton and required federal funding to create a feasible project. In light of that, a new federal funding commitment of $1.7 billion was announced by Caroline Mulroney, Ontario's Minister of Transportation, and Catherine McKenna, Federal Minister of Infrastructure and Communities at the time (Tremblay, 2021).

4.5 About Metrolinx

Metrolinx, an agency of the Government of Ontario under the Metrolinx Act, 2006, was founded on April 24,2006. This for-profit agency was created to improve the coordination and integration of all modes of transportation in the Greater Toronto and Hamilton Area (Crunchbase, 2020.). The agency is on the mission to connect communities with the vision of getting its clients or passengers to their various destinations faster, better and easier at an affordable cost (About Metrolinx, 2022)The function of Metrolinx is described as an agency that leads the planning, financing, development, and implementation of an integrated, multi-modal transportation network that promotes a high standard of living, a healthy environment, and a strong, prosperous, and competitive economy (Fleischer, 2016).

Metrolinx, employs women, Indigenous persons, persons with disabilities and members of visible minorities. Teamwork forms part of the firm's mandate. Its workforce thrives on innovation and collaboration between employees from various departments and fields such as construction and maintenance, marketing, communication, customer-facing staff and engineering among other fields (About Metrolinx, 2022).

Metrolinx is currently working on expanding GO Train infrastructure, particularly the widening and improving of the Barrie Go Line, as well as building LRT lines throughout the GTHA, including the Eglinton Crosstown LRT, the Finch West LRT, the Hurontario LRT, and the Hamilton LRT. Metrolinx is also expected to be a major supporter of future public transportation projects such as the 'Ontario Line,' which was recently unveiled, and the City of Toronto's Downtown Relief Line (Lavictoire, 2019).

4.6 Controversies

Some issues about how Metrolinx makes its decisions have been discussed. One of the private consultants holds an executive position and awards contracts worth millions of dollars to his company (Boxfish). Metrolinx however, came out to explain that the consultant in question, Brian Guest, is excluded from decisions pertaining contracts. The types of contracts have been awarded to Boxfish and their worth is being investigated by the office of Transportation Minister Caroline Mulroney. The decision-making processes are also being investigated by the minister of transportation's office. Funding was originally set aside for the project back in 2015 by the Government of Ontario, but after projected costs rose too high, the LRT was cancelled. Then in February of 2021, the Province recommitted to the project, with the federal government agreeing to contribute $1.7 billion. Construction is expected to begin in early 2022 (Hanrahan, 2021).

4.6.1 Escalated Cost

The 17-stop project was estimated to cost $1 billion when the previous Liberal government committed to funding it in 2014. The Progressive Conservatives promised during the 2018 election to move ahead with it, then re-committed to it in their 2019 budget. Unfortunately, on Tuesday, February 9th 2021 the province requested for funding from Ottawa as the price costs of the project had escalated to $5.5 billion (The Canadian Press, 2021).

4.6.2 Metrolinx Levelled Buildings

A report published by CBC News on October 12, 2021 indicated that Metrolinx had plans to demolish a dozen properties along Hamilton's proposed LRT route. This was following after 21 other properties along the LRT corridor were levelled. Two other buildings near Main Street East and Kenilworth Avenue were also brought down. Activists had previously called for some of the sites to be used as affordable housing. But Metrolinx, which owns the buildings, said they were too unsafe to be repurposed. The 12 sites slated for demolition include: 85 Paisley Avenue South,918 Main Street West,930 Main Street West/160 Bond

Street South, 940 Main Street West,670-674 King Street East,676-680 King Street East, 692 King Street East, 696 King Street East, 787-789 King Street East, 924 King St East, 1030 King St East,1407 Main St East (CBC News, 2021).

4.7 Actors

4.7.1 The province of Ontario

Hamilton LRT is a joint-project involving the City of Hamilton, Metrolinx and Infrastructure Ontario (Project Roles and Responsibilities, 2021). The LRT will be owned by Metrolinx (an agency of the Government of Ontario) and the city council is going to decide who runs it after completion (Borsuk, 2022).

4.7.2 Residents of Hamilton

A group of citizens that reflect the diversity of the Hamilton community were recruited for a Citizens' Jury. Using input from stakeholders like the public, the Jury provided advice to Hamilton City Council (Community Engagement for the LRT | City of Hamilton, Ontario, Canada, 2021).

4.7.3 Public Agencies

Metrolinx and Infrastructure Ontario an agency of the Government of Ontario. Infrastructure Ontario (IO) is an Ontario government Crown organisation that supports the province's activities to update and maximize the value of public infrastructure and real estate. IO works with the private sector to support the government's commitment to renewing public services. IO has four lines of businesses where it delivers results to clients by doing the following:

1. Acts as the province's procurement and commercial lead for all significant public infrastructure projects.
2. Engages in Asset planning, facilities contract management, and real estate advising services in order to modernise and enhance the government's real estate assets.

3. Supports the renewal of public sector infrastructure by delivering affordable long-term loans to eligible clients.
4. Provides government and public sector partners with commercial transaction advice and negotiation support, including substantial land developments (Infrastructure Ontario, 2022).

4.8 Community Engagement Process

4.8.1 Community Connectors

The LRT Community Connectors programme began in 2016. The Connectors are made up of a varied collection of people from all around the city, committed to visiting every property along the corridor (almost 1,400) twice a year for the duration of the project. Their job is to inform, educate, and involve property owners, as well as collect feedback that will aid in the development of the LRT plans. They also staff information tables at office and residential complexes along the corridor as part of this engagement (Community Engagement for the LRT | City of Hamilton, Ontario, Canada, 2021).

4.8.2 The Steering Committee

A working group consists of people who bring the specialist skills and expertise you need to a project. The working group could be several individuals with lived experience of mental health problems or a combination of staff and individuals with lived experience. It will be their responsibility to identify and fulfil all tasks, sharing decision making as they go. In contrast, a steering group is similar in its makeup and the sharing of decision making. However, the role of this group is to steer work undertaken by others. Members of steering groups use their experiences, skills and knowledge of specific topics of sectors to help make strategic decisions (Iyer, 2022).

A project as huge as the Hamilton LRT project which involves the government requires the signing of an MOU. To develop the MOU, the City, Metrolinx and MTO established a Steering Committee as well as a Working Group (Hamilton Light Rail Transit (LRT) Project Memorandum of Understanding, 2021, p. 3).

A Steering Committee was formed to provide oversight in the selection process to ensure that residents selected at random satisfied the demographic targets of the city of Hamilton. Aside meetings held for the Steering Committee, many of the members of the committee attended jury meeting in order to monitor the direction of discussions, working with staff and consultants to ensure that discussions were within scope.

4.8.2 i City representatives on the Steering Committee

• City Manager Janette Smith

• General Manager of Planning and Economic Development Jason Thorne

• General Manager of Corporate Services Mike Zegarac

• Solicitor Bryan Boodhoo

4.8.2 ii City representatives on the Working Group:

General Manager of Planning and Economic Development Jason Thorne

• Solicitor Bryan Boodhoo

• Director of Financial Planning Administration Brian McMullen

• Manager of Budgets and Financial Policy Kirk Weaver

• Director of Transit Maureen Cosyn Heath (Hamilton Light Rail Transit (LRT) Project Memorandum of Understanding, 2021, p. 3)

4.9 The Jury

A citizen jury was established to promote citizen participation and engagement. 2,400 names were chosen at random for the citizens' jury from the city's tax list and renter's list (Tim L. Dobbie, 2016). Following communication from the City of Hamilton, those who expressed interest in the program were picked based on "the diversity of Hamilton's population in terms of gender, age, income, education, and whether they were Canadian born or not" (Tim L. Dobbie, 2016). An independent consulting team made sure that the final 19 members were informed of their tasks and time obligations in addition to selecting representatives from the upper city, lower city, former suburb, and rural community

The jury was approved by the Council in September, 2015 before the expected start of the project the same year and according to LRT Timeline & Documents, the Jury was formed and consulted before the actual start of the project. This may imply that the jury's recommendations were useful to the final designs and activities pertaining to the construction of the LRT project.

Project schedule

The Jury was made up of citizens who were randomly selected (Hamilton Light Rail Transit (LRT) Project Memorandum of Understanding, 2021, p. 16)

•In total there were nineteen (19) jury members (Hamilton Light Rail Transit (LRT) Project Memorandum of Understanding, 2021, p. 16)

•There were 10 meetings in all with (Hamilton Light Rail Transit (LRT) Project Memorandum of Understanding, 2021, p. 20)

•There were approximately five (5) presentations (Hamilton Light Rail Transit (LRT) Project Memorandum of Understanding, 2021, p. 18)

The instruction to establish a Citizen's jury was given by Council in March 2015 and the contract was given to Tim L. Dobbie Consulting Ltd and Associates in July 2015 (Hamilton Light Rail Transit (LRT) Project Memorandum of Understanding, 2021, Part a).

4.10 Selection

From October 2015 to January 2016, a group of loyal citizens randomly selected by the Steering Committee from throughout the city of Hamilton volunteered their time working and learning together for about 40 hours as the Citizens' Jury on Transit (the Jury). With a mandate to develop a set of recommendations to City Council on rapid transit in Hamilton, they received presentations from city staff, stakeholders and experts from Hamilton and other municipalities with experience of Light Rail Transit (LRT). They took a bus tour of the proposed LRT route, went to Kitchener-Waterloo to see their construction zone and hear from regional staff, conducted their own research and deliberated on what they had heard, seen and learned about the city and the challenges and implications of implementing the LRT system. They had conversations with members of the public who were invited to attend three of the presentations. They developed a very good, shared understanding of LRT, and learned a great deal about the city during the process. The diverse background of Jury members allowed them to present different perspectives and experiences during their deliberations. They reflected on and shared their take on transit and other City service viewed from their respective neighbourhoods. Their deliberations led to a number of observations and the recommendations presented (Hanrahan, 2021).

4.11 The Meetings

The meetings were intended to inform the Jury members about Hamilton's public transportation system in general, the justification for building a rapid transit system, and lessons learned from the development and operation of rapid transit in other cities. The public was invited to three open meetings where they heard presentations and conversed with the jury members and one another to analyse and debate what they had heard. Additionally, the jury members joined a personal Facebook page where documents were submitted. They were encouraged to share any articles they came across that they believed would be helpful to their peers.

4.11.1 Some Questions the Citizen Jury Considered During the Meetings

1. The Jury was asked about their opinion on the roles they would like citizens to play in shaping decision -making as higher order transit is implemented in Hamilton.

2. They were also asked about the principles that they think should guide the City Council as it develops a revenue sharing agreement with Metrolinx.

3. The Jury's view on how to minimize the negative impacts of the major disruption to local communities and traffic in general during the construction period was also sought.

4. Their advice on how the City can ensure the community stays informed, as the transit plan is implemented and the role of citizens to ensuring the benefits of the LRT are realized, was required.

4.12 The Jury's Report and Recommendations

This section presents the conclusions reached by the Citizens' Jury on Transit (the Jury) after their months of learning and deliberation. It begins with Guiding Principles, which underpinned the ways in which the Jury expected recommendations and actions to be conducted. The second part, "The Foundations for Success" includes fifteen recommendations that the Jury believed must be met as the project is designed and contracts signed. It is based on what was learned from other municipalities, research and about local construction projects. There' a third part Section C, "Signs of Success" includes three sections: preparing for construction; construction; and what the Jury hoped to see after construction, The first two sections describe concrete actions that would happen if the project is going well. The third section is aspirational, what is dreamed could be the impact of successful rapid transit in Hamilton (Tim L. Dobbie, 2016, p. 6).

4.12.1 Guiding Principles

These principles came from a discussion amongst the Citizens' Jury members on how decision-makers (i.e., City, Metrolinx, Project Consortium) should behave in their relationship with stakeholders:

1. Good communication is necessary to the success of this project. Communicate in an open, honest and transparent way. Communication is a two-way street - share and listen.
2. Great ideas will come from people in the community if you ask them. Work collaboratively with community and other stakeholders to develop the plans for implementing the rapid transit plan and for redevelopment; treat them as partners and be open to their ideas. Use engagement methods that foster dialogue and shared understanding. Anticipate what might happen, be proactive, work together to take initiative and be problem solvers.
3. Put people first, especially those directly affected by change.
4. Act for the benefit of the whole city.
5. Be creative and innovate; develop a learning culture around implementation of rapid transit and urban redevelopment exploring what other communities do, both in Canada and around the world, reimagined to suit our city.
6. Be fiscally responsible with this money; leverage the opportunities it brings and ensure that Hamilton is kept whole when negotiating a revenue sharing agreement with Metrolinx.
7. Build the trust of Hamilton residents on this and other projects by saying what you will do and doing what you said, doing it well, being open and consistent and telling the story.

4.12.2 The Foundations for Success

This section covers the period when agreements were being negotiated and decisions were being reached on the project details including an effort to inform the citizens and consider all factors that needed to be addressed in future phases of the project:

1. Articulate a vision that fully expresses the city-building effects of the implementation of our rapid transit network, describing how it will benefit the whole city. City Council and staff are encouraged to embrace this vision and develop a communications plan to generate awareness among residents. Use visuals to communicate signs at future stops and start now.
2. Begin now to prepare people for changes to future road use, particularly King St through the core. Design incentives and disincentives that will help to change people's driving patterns and implement these before construction begins. This might include, for example, creating a pedestrian mall (with transit only) on King between Wellington and Walnut before 2018,
3. Ensure the HSR is kept "whole" in the revenue sharing agreement that the city signs with Metrolinx. By this we mean the HSR cannot lose the revenue from its most profitable route (the B line), as it currently subsidizes the rest of the transit system.
4. Although Metrolinx will own and operate the LRT, we expect the customer experience of moving from bus to LRT to regional transit (GO) to be integrated, seamless, convenient and affordable.
5. Metrolinx and the City of Hamilton should collaborate in a highly coordinated and cooperative way. Speak with one voice on project implementation and feel accountable to the people of Hamilton for what they do.

4.12.3 Signs of Success

I. Preparation Phase 2016 - 2019

a) A vision is developed and communicated of end-user focused multi-modal transit system that includes HSR, walking, bikes, car share, GO, LRT, shared rides, DARTS. The City and Metrolinx are focused on creating an integrated transit experience that is convenient, affordable, and reliable.

b) A Communication Plan is being implemented. This could include developing models or mock-ups of LRT at City Hall and through a road show (e.g., malls, municipal service centres, presence at Festivals) Most residents are getting behind the project. An app could be developed and ready for the construction phase.

c) Community engagement will be underway with a wide range of stakeholders and different methods of engaging. Conversations are being held, information and ideas gathered and solutions formed. The Project develops a Community Engagement Plan for the construction phase.

d) A Community Benefits Network is in place to coordinate implementation of the agreement on how to move people who are unemployed or under-employed to good jobs. Providing people easy access to educational and skill development facilities is a key role of transit.

e) Station enhancements and land use around stations envisioned and planned that will:

• Generate more revenue to support transit such as discretionary purchase concessions on site and

• Include retail and services in proximity to the stations that support the needs of transit users and become multi-service hubs. Community engagement will be underway with respect to the design and uses of the stations and adjacent land use.

f) There is a conscious effort to be creative, research new ideas and examine how they might work in Hamilton.

g) Drivers are prepared for the construction that will happen and will become less reliant on King St. as a main thoroughfare. Traffic diversion plans are communicated broadly and effectively (Tim L. Dobbie, 2016, p. 9).

4.13 LRT Project Alignment with Citizens' Jury Recommendations

To satisfy the recommendations of the Citizen Jury regarding 'Guiding Principles' the following was made (City of Hamilton, 2018):

a. Since May 2016, individual meetings were held with over 80 stakeholder and community groups, including Chambers of Commerce, Business Improvement Areas (BIAs), Ward/Community Council meetings, neighbourhood associations, school boards and other major organizations. Consultation sessions were held specifically for streetscaping plans and the cycling community

b. Participated in 23 community events and festivals since June 2016 to share information and answer questions about the LRT project. A light rail vehicle model was on display at some events to help citizens visualize what the trains could look like.

c. Two series of Public Information Centres were held; seven meetings in September 2016 (PIC #1) and three meetings in January 2017. The January 2017 PICs were supplemented by three additional meetings in communities outside of the LRT corridor

d. social media updates shared via Metrolinx and City of Hamilton accounts. LRT project Twitter account (@HamiltonLRT) launched in January 2017.

e. E-newsletter established to share project updates/milestones.

f. Project websites (City of Hamilton & Metrolinx, including FAQs and video FAQs, a timeline of LRT Council reports, public consultation opportunities).

g. Media interviews and briefings as appropriate.

h. The LRT “Community Connectors” Program launched in May 2016; a team of diverse individuals from across Hamilton who visit properties along the LRT corridor. Their role is to inform, educate and engage property owners, and gather feedback that will help inform the project by visiting properties twice per year for the duration of the project.

i. Partnered with the Hamilton Chamber of Commerce to launch the ‘LRT Ready’ workshop series to engage business owners along the corridor and help them prepare for construction. The first session was held in June 2017 with three more to follow in August, September and October 2017.

j. Two series of Public Information Centres (PICs) were held; seven meetings in September 2016 and three meetings in January 2017. The January 2017 PICs were supplemented by three additional meetings in communities outside of the LRT corridor. Community feedback resulted in changes to the design, including: adding a Gage Park stop.

k. Internal and external consultation sessions were held on streetscape design between June 2016 and February 2017.

l. Public Information Centres and community update meetings were held across the city, not just along the LRT route. Stakeholder meetings also took place in many wards across the city. The LRT team plans to reach rural/suburban areas in the fall by attending local fairs and festivals (i.e., Binbrook Fair, Winona Peach Festival, Ancaster Fall Fair)

4.13.1 Signs of Success

a. Hamilton's Rapid Transit Vision Statement: "Rapid Transit is more than just moving people from place to place. It is about providing a catalyst for the development of high quality, safe, environmentally sustainable and affordable transportation options for our citizens, connecting key destination points, stimulating economic development and revitalizing Hamilton." The LRT project integrated with other forms of transit including HSR, GO stations, SoBi bike share hubs, cycling lanes and a pedestrian connection from the James Street stop to the Hamilton GO Centre. It was part of a suite of transportation choices in Hamilton.

b. Community feedback resulted in changes to the design, including:

- added a Gage Park stop

- changed two stops in the International Village to bookend the BIA

McMaster terminus alignment

- additional pedestrian crossing locations

- traffic design changes in the west end

- cycling infrastructure impacted by LRT in the York/Dundurn area The Community Connector property outreach program was also established to inform, educate and engage all property owners, businesses and tenants along the LRT corridor.

CHAPTER FIVE

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents summary of the findings and answers to the research questions, an evaluation of the public participation process and the effects of rational choice theory in the decision-making process, and the Asntein ladder. In addition, recommendations and conclusions are also drawn from the findings of the study. Limitations, areas for further research, and contribution to knowledge are also presented in this chapter. The main objective of this research was to identify the public participation processes adopted in the implementation and sustenance of the LRT Hamilton project. From the description of the project done in the previous chapter, Chapter four (4), Citizen Jury (CJ) was the participatory tool used for the project. Much like a jury in a legal case, a Citizens Jury will receive background information about the project, hear expert witnesses, and then make a considered “judgment”. Used effectively, a Citizens Jury can have a direct impact on decision-making by contributing a well-informed, common-ground solution to a complex and often controversial public issue (Smith & Wales, 1999). The second goal of this research was to evaluate the success of the public involvement procedures used for the project in order to make meaningful suggestions that will help future stakeholders create less expensive, more efficient, and well-received methods of involving the public in decision-making. The analysis in this chapter will dive into the detailed breakdown of the Citizen Jury, which represents the process of citizen participation which was adopted for the project.

5.1 Implications of Rational Choice Theory and Decision Making

Rational Choice Theory (RCT) can be applied to citizen jury behaviours and other styles of public participation processes. There are three broad types that can be considered. In the Citizen jury context, RCT postulates that juries will consider the costs and benefits of each decision they can make. CJ decision-making is remarkable in that it places such a large amount of trust and power in the hands of ordinary citizens. However, with this power comes the question of whether the jury has arrived at the right recommendations and answers to the pertinent questions or situations. To psychologists, this question has relevance in regard to a variety of concepts, including persuasion, group behaviour, and memory. Psychologists also take particular interest in factors that may influence juries since, as stated in Rational Choice Theory, individuals will determine what decisions to make based on which choice benefits themselves the most. Taking that into account, the most important factors of jury performance can be assessed in two different categories: comprehension, and comparison to expert decision. Comprehension looks at the extent to which juries have comprehended their mandate and goals. Performance varies depending on the subject matter. This shows that comprehension can be a key factor in affecting jury decisions, as whether or not they comprehend the information given to them will play a role in how they ultimately decide. Comparison to expert decision-makers, meaning how jurors will use perceived credibility or tangible credentials to impact their decisions. Along with these biases, "other heuristics, including the hindsight bias, counterfactual thinking (considering alternative outcomes), availability (relying on how easy it is to retrieve information when making judgments), and representativeness (over attending to salient features) have also been implicated in juror decision-making outcomes," all of which fall under the broad category of comparison to expert decision-makers may also impact how juries make decisions. In addition, the emotions or moods of jurors can affect how they review information. Research has shown that jurors may unconsciously construe evidence or process information that is consistent with their emotions, which can ultimately affect their decisions and preferences. These cues and biases show that there are a variety of factors in relation to comparison of decision-makers that could potentially contribute to a CJ's decision, including perceived credibility, hindsight bias, availability of information, and others. Ultimately, the category of comparison to expert decision-makers and biases that fall under it highlights the need to determine what the specific comparison factors are.

5.2 Answer to Question 1

A Citizen Jury, which incorporated different activities was identified as the processes adopted for the project. These activities were done in various stages of the entire decision-making process. The stages include the Preparation stage, the Hearings stage and the last and important stage which involves, evaluation and follow ups.

5.2.1 Preparations:

Preparations: Before a public participation process is started, the project initiators must be sure there is enough funding to cover the entire process in order not to be left stranded halfway during the process. It is also important to ensure that funding is from more than one source to avoid any suspicion that organizers have an interest in seeing the decision going in a certain way (Pekkonen & Crosby, 2022). The Federal government and the province funded this project. The project was initially going to be solely funded by the provincial capital with an amount of $1 billion, however, when the price costs of the project escalated to $5.5 billion, the Federal government made a commitment of $1.7 billion to support the project (Tremblay, 2021). Another requirement of the preparations stage of a Citizen jury style of public participation is the provision of an oversight panel. This panel should be composed of a range of stakeholders with general knowledge of the issue who would oversee the process, provide focus to the issue before the jury, and ensure that the CJ understand the project and what their mandate is (Tremblay, 2021). An independent consulting team made sure that the final 19 members of the newly created jury were informed of their tasks and time obligations. A Steering Committee was also formed to provide oversight in the selection process to ensure that residents selected at random satisfied the demographic targets of the city of Hamilton. Aside meetings held for the Steering Committee, many of the members of the committee attended jury meeting in order to monitor the direction of discussions, working with staff and consultants to ensure that discussions were within scope. Selecting the Jury is the next crucial stage in any preparation stage. Jury selection is important and must be thoroughly done because it can influence the legitimacy of the entire decision-making process (Tremblay, 2021). Potential jurors can be selected at random and categorized according to age, gender, race or occupation depending on the type of case. For this project, the Jury members first of all had to be residents of Hamilton. 2,400 names were chosen at random for the citizens' jury from the city's tax list and renter's list. Following communication from the City of Hamilton, those who expressed interest in the project were picked based on "the diversity of Hamilton's population in terms of gender, age, income, education, and whether they were Canadian born or not" (Tim L. Dobbie, 2016). The next big thing to consider after Jury members have been selected is to clearly define their objective. There were presentations made to the CJ from city staff, stakeholders and experts from Hamilton and other municipalities who explained the project and the mandate of the CJ. Meetings were held to inform the Jury members about Hamilton's public transportation system in general, the justification for building a rapid transit system, and lessons learned from the development and operation of rapid transit in other cities. The Citizen Jury was formed to promote citizen participation and engagement for the project, as such, it is required to prepare a plan to publicly convey the outcome of the Jury to the appropriate government body or necessary stakeholders, either online or via the media. The report from the CJ at the end of the decision-making process was published on the official website for the City of Hamilton.

5.2.2 Meetings: At this phase of the process involving a CJ, it is vital to set the agenda and timeframe of the meetings. Where policy reform or government action is required to address the issue, mobilising public opinion and pressure is the key (Tremblay, 2021). Press coverage of the jury process and a wider public dissemination of findings is therefore essential for achieving impact. The public was invited to three open meetings where they heard presentations and conversed with the jury members and one another to analyse and debate what they had heard. Additionally, the jury members joined a personal Facebook page where documents were submitted. They were encouraged to share any articles they came across that they believed would be helpful to their peers. The recommendations and other details from the CJ were made accessible to the public. There were 10 meetings in all.

5.2.3 Evaluation and Follow Ups: The final stage of the CJ, which is as imperative as the previous ones, is to work with the media and the community groups to disseminate CJ findings and recommendations. There must be follow-ups with government authorities for the implementation of the Jury's recommendations. All jurors should also complete an evaluation of the project, including the process, agenda and project staff (Tremblay, 2021). This phase may be described as the most telling phase of any citizen participation process. It is at this stage that one knows the extent of power given to the public and how valuable the public's opinion is to the project initiators. For the Hamilton LRT project, the comments and recommendations made by the CJ were published and the changes that were made to the initial plan of the project, due to the CJ's concerns, were also published on the city's website.

5.3 Evaluation of the PP process (Answer to research question 2).

To evaluate a public participation process, there are a couple of guides that may direct the evaluation process: What benefits or "impacts" are to be achieved from the participation process? Indicators of these impacts and the tool to track the impacts. The public participation process, for the Hamilton LRT project was set up to promote citizen participation and engagement. The Citizen Jury, which represented an instrument to achieve the goal, was mandated to develop a set of recommendations to City Council on rapid transit in Hamilton. The CJ did a phenomenal job on providing their rich and diverse opinions that were submitted in a report to the city. Due to the relevance and pertinence of their recommendations, some changes were made to the actual design of the project. The opinions of the CJ leading to a change in the design of the project is an indicator that the impacts needed from the formation of the PP process have been achieved. Also, there was no information/report regarding resistance from the citizen jury. They participated in the entire process and gave their recommendations to City Council as mandated. Tools for tracking these impacts would be the continues inputs of the recommendations into the implementation of the project till it is finished. The LRT along the B line is just one piece of a 25 year transit plan, however, since the recommendations have been published on the city's website, interested parties can keep track of them along with the project.

5.3.1 Recommendations that made a difference

a. **Communication:** The Jury highlighted the importance of communication to them. A rational way of looking at it is that, they valued communication as a tool that would help them achieve their goal in the decision-making process. They demanded honesty and transparency from the initiators of the project. In response to this, Metrolinx organised 23 community events and festivals to share information and answer questions the public had about the LRT project. A light rail vehicle model was on display at some events to help citizens visualize what the trains could look like. Another Metrolinx did to be transparent in its dealings with the public was to organise two series of Public Information Centres (PICs) and seven meetings in September 2016 (PIC #1) and three meetings in January 2017 (PIC #2) The January 2017 PICs were supplemented by three additional meetings in communities outside of the LRT corridor. Responses were provided to all comments that came up from the public. To inform, educate and engage property owners, in order to gather feedback that will help inform the project, the LRT "Community Connectors" Program was launched in May 2016, it included a team of diverse individuals from across Hamilton who visited properties along the LRT corridor (City of Hamilton, 2018).

b. **The CJ also recommended that Metrolinx build the trust of Hamilton residents on this and other projects by saying what they planned to do and doing what they said, doing it well, being open and**

consistent with telling the story: Both Metrolinx and City of Hamilton contributed significant resources to ensuring clear, consistent and timely ongoing communication using various platforms to reach a multitude of audiences and to build trust (City of Hamilton, 2018).

c. **Act for the benefit of the whole city: The CJ further recommended that Metrolinx prioritise the city first and make sure their actions reflect their interest for the betterment of the city. In response to this** Public Information Centres and community update meetings were held across the city, not just along the LRT route. Stakeholder meetings also took place in many wards across the city. The LRT team plans to reach rural/suburban areas in the fall by attending local fairs and festivals (i.e., Binbrook Fair, Winona Peach Festival, Ancaster Fall Fair) (City of Hamilton, 2018).

5.4 Evaluation and Discussion Based on Arstein Ladder

Looking at the various stages from formation of the CJ to the various meetings and final outcome, the evaluation process can be said to have been quite effective, looking at its position up the ladder. The CJ according to Arnstein ladder got to the stage of Partnership, which generally falls under Degree of Citizen Power. According to the ladder, the very bottom stages of manipulation involve absolute deception if the engagement process does not move from that stage and just ends there. Findings for this research however, revealed that though the CJ started with this stage of non-participation which involved meetings (meetings were intended to inform the Jury members about Hamilton's public transportation system in general, the justification for building a rapid transit system, and lessons learned from the development and operation of rapid transit in other cities) and educating the CJ of their mandates and their role which was to promote citizen participation and engagement and to develop a set of recommendations to City Council on rapid transit in Hamilton, the process of participation moved up the ladder to consultation. This stage of the process was justified by the various individual meetings that were held with over 80 stakeholder and community groups, including Chambers of Commerce, Business Improvement Areas (BIAs), Ward/Community Council meetings, neighbourhood associations, school boards and other major organizations. Consultation sessions were held specifically for streetscaping plans and the cycling community. Although, most often than not, there is no guarantee that the input will actually make a difference, the results of these meetings proved positively different for this project. The meetings were held in response to the CJ's recommendation on Guiding Principles. The process although within the same stage of Tokenism, moved up to Placation. Aside the views of the CJ leading to the formation of the meetings, Community feedback actually resulted in changes to the design. Placation according to Arnstein is powerful people and institutions are forced to make some sacrifices: in almost all cases, those with power will first try to placate opponents by offering money now rather than giving any power that might establish a precedent for the future (Arnstein, 1969). However, this was not the case for this project, appeasement had to be made but it was made to legitimise the participatory process by making changes to the project because of the recommendations. Some of the changes that were made due to the CJ's input include an added a Gage Park stop, changed two stops in the International Village to bookend the BIA McMaster terminus alignment, an additional pedestrian crossing locations and changes in the traffic design in the west end. Complete power was not given to the public because the evaluation of the process ended at Partnership. This is so because, according to Arnstein, in partnership, citizens and power-holders negotiate joint structures such as policy boards, planning committees, and similar mechanisms to resolve different priorities. If the recommendations of the CJ led to some changes being made to the original plan of the project, one may be justified to say that the CJ was able to negotiate a structure that resolved different priorities. For example, although the project was about the Hamilton LRT, the project integrated with other forms of transit including HSR, GO stations, SoBi bike share hubs, cycling lanes and a pedestrian connection from the James Street stop to the Hamilton GO Centre. It was part of a suite of transportation choices in Hamilton. Cyclists, who obviously would have other priorities aside an LRT were considered. Also, business support strategies were considered and amended. One can confidently **answer the second research question by saying that indeed, the public participation process adopted for the Hamilton LRT project was effective and it gave the citizen ample power in the decision-making process.**

5.5 Evaluation of the PP process

The first criteria to an effective PP process is the criteria of representativeness. The jury was a relatively good representative sample of the population of Hamilton. The diversity of the group based on their ages or gender made the contribution of the Jury rich in diverse opinions. The members of the jury were randomly selected, according to the reports on the selection process. This was a strategy for ensuring good representativeness. The second vital criteria is independence. The participation procedure was handled impartially and independently. There was no report on the any issues arising from suspicion to that factor. To avoid a conflict of interest, a steering committee was formed to make sure that there was independence in the activities of the group. Timing of public participation is relevant to indicating if the PP process was effective. The Jury was approved by the Council in September, 2015 before the expected start of the project. This means that the recommendation and opinions were indeed used by Metrolinx and this is further evidenced by the changes that were made to the project due to the recommendations provided by the Jury. Ultimately, the outcome of the Jury had an impact on the project because their recommendations on communication, transparency and trust were factored into Metrolink's final project outcome. The jury was well informed about its role in order to avoid confusion. The decision-making process was well structured and displayed appropriately in the participation exercise. The Jury was provided with all the necessary details. The various recommendations were well documented and made available to boost transparency thus, the participation process had credibility.

The meeting's objective stated that some discussions were only open to the public while others were "designed so that both jury and community members could learn from presenters, engage in dialogue to process what they heard, and develop ideas of how what they learned would apply to the Hamilton situation" (Tim L. Dobbie, 2016: 17).

5.6 Lessons Learned

a. The public participation not only made decisions more responsive to public values and more substantively robust, it also helped to resolve conflict, build trust, and build public knowledge about the project and issues relating to it. Ultimately, the public input improved the ideas incorporated into decisions in of the project, the process of participation resolved conflict in the project, it also led to trust in Metrolinx and the other lead agencies and ultimately, the process of participation increased participant's understanding of the project.

b. The public participatory processes adopted for the project (Citizen Jury and Steering committees and community connector program) were clearly effective at achieving the purpose of the entire process (to promote citizen participation and engagement).

c. Some factors that led to the success of the pp process was the fact that the lead agencies were responsive, demonstrating active commitment to the process and fluid communication with its participants. The motivation of participants, encompassing the optimism and ambition they carried into the effort, also played a large role in success. Finally, high quality deliberation among participants generally led to a successful process. It is evident how Metrolinx made an effort to incorporate the recommendations that the Jury made into the project (refer to Chapter 4).

d. The context of participatory decision may sometimes have little direct influence on its ultimate success. For this research, information about a pre-existing relationship among the parties involved was not mentioned. However, one may assume that the relationship was a conducive one of which trust was of value. When the jury recommended this: 'Build the trust of Hamilton residents on this and other projects by saying what you will do and doing what you said, doing it well, being open and consistent and telling the story', the project planners adapted processes to meet this requirement. It may either be seen as a pre-existing history or mistrust between the citizens and the project initiators or otherwise, either way, it suggests that the pre-existing level of conflict or institutional environment can influence the effectiveness of a pp process (Wallerstein & Duran, 2006).

Conclusion

This research was carried out to address fundamental concerns regarding the effectiveness of previous initiatives, the characteristics that contribute to success, and the areas where efforts to increase public involvement should be concentrated. The research focussed on Transportation because it is a topic that concerns everyone in any society (both public transport users and owners of private cars) and due to such distinct nature of each person found in a society, it is important to consider the opinions of as much people in the society in order to reach an agreement. Of course, one importance of public participation in an issue of transportation is relevant because there are many options that the public would choose from and this could be a big challenge to a government or any initiator of such a big project. As such getting the opinions of the public would be the best thing to do in order to get guided ideas as how people choose their mode of transportation and the factors that help them choose. The purpose of this study was to examine public participation, specifically in transportation planning and how the engagement of public participation techniques and deliberation affected the planning decisions of the Hamilton LRT project. And this purpose was guided by research questions on the processes used and how effective it was. This research could not be conducted without guiding theories as to what guides decision making of a group of people in a society. Since individuals and even groups have their different perceptions and priorities, it is important to establish that, in any given society, people look out for themselves. This idea is the point of the rational institutionalism theory. People would always be motivated by their own goals and so, institutions are necessary to be in place to guide the actions and behaviour of people in a society. To keep them in line and within the safe and accepted norms of society. There are some conditions and factors that influence decision making of a group or individual, they are comprehension, and comparison to expert decision. For this research, public participation functioned as the institution that guided the action of the actors in the decision-making process. The tool that was used to evaluate the process was the Arnstein ladder.

Limitations of the Study

Since the study made use of Secondary data, some of the information gathered were most likely outdated. Also, there was some missing information about possible conflicts that may have arisen during the Citizen Jury meetings. This may had influenced the outcome of the research to some extent. The mode of public participation used for the project was the Citizen Jury, so the outcome of the research is only limited to this type of public participation process. Citizen Jury type of public participation process are usually expensive, funding for this project was not a challenge because it funded by the Federal and province, however, cost must be considered if a private organisation or individual would consider this type of public participation process (Rutar, 2019).

Recommendation

It is recommended that further research be conducted for other modes of transport in other cities or countries in order to identity a trend or pattern of either an effective public participation method or not.

References

Aaltonen, K., & Kujala, J. (2010). A project lifecycle perspective on stakeholder influence strategies in global projects. *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, *26*(4), 381–397. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scaman.2010.09.001

Abbott, & Holley. (2020, February 27). *Ladder of Citizen Participation*. Organizing Engagement. Retrieved December 16, 2022, from https://organizingengagement.org/about/

Abdallah, T. (2017). *Sustainable Mass Transit: Challenges and Opportunities in Urban Public Transportation* (1st ed.). Elsevier.

About Metrolinx. (2022). Retrieved November 23, 2022, from https://www.metrolinx.com/en/aboutus/about_us_index.aspx

Akhtar, M. I. (2016, February 1). *Research Design*. https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=2862445

Ali. (2018). Institutional Theory and Non-profits. *Global Encyclopaedia of Public Administration, Public Policy, and Governance*. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-20928-9_2587

Almer, H. L., & Koontz, T. M. (2004). Public hearings for EIAs in post-communist Bulgaria: do they work? *Environmental Impact Assessment Review*, *24*(5), 473–493. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eiar.2003.12.004

Anthopoulos, L., Reddick, C. G., Giannakidou, I., & Mavridis, N. (2016). Why e-government projects fail? An analysis of the Healthcare.gov website. *Government Information Quarterly*, *33*(1), 161–173. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.giq.2015.07.003

Anyebe, A. (2018). An Overview of Approaches to the Study of Public Policy. *International Journal of Political Science*, *4*(1). https://doi.org/10.20431/2454-9452.0401002

Arditi, D., Akan, G. T., & Gurdamar, S. (1985). Reasons for delays in public projects in Turkey. *Construction Management and Economics*, *3*(2), 171–181. https://doi.org/10.1080/01446198500000013

Arnstein, S. R. (1969). A Ladder of Citizen Participation. *Journal of the American Institute of Planners*, *35*(4), 216–224. https://doi.org/10.1080/01944366908977225

Arnstein, S. R. (2019). A Ladder of Citizen Participation. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, *85*(1), 24–34. https://doi.org/10.1080/01944363.2018.1559388

Assaf, S. A., Al-Khalil, M., & Al-Hazmi, M. (1995). Causes of Delay in Large Building Construction Projects. *Journal of Management in Engineering*, *11*(2), 45–50. https://doi.org/10.1061/(asce)0742-597x(1995)11:2(45

Bara, J., & Pennington, M. (2009). Comparative Politics: Explaining Democratic Systems. *Sage Journals*. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781446215685

Becker, Dawson, Devine, & Hannum. (2022). *Case Studies - The WAC Clearinghouse*. The WAC Clearinghouse. Retrieved November 16, 2022, from https://wac.colostate.edu/resources/writing/guides/casestudies/

Bennett, A. (2013). The mother of all isms: Causal mechanisms and structured pluralism in International Relations theory. *European Journal of International Relations*, *19*(3), 459–481. https://doi.org/10.1177/1354066113495484

Berkowitz, P. (1998). Free Markets and Social Justice. By Cass R. Sunstein. New York: Oxford University Press, 1997. 416p. $35.00. *American Political Science Review*, *92*(1), 213–214. https://doi.org/10.2307/2585953

Bhuiyan, N., & Thomson, V. (1999). The use of continuous approval methods in defence acquisition projects. *International Journal of Project Management*, *17*(2), 121–130. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0263-7863(98)00011-8

Bishop, T. F. (2011). Paid Malpractice Claims for Adverse Events in Inpatient and Outpatient Settings. *JAMA*, *305*(23), 2427. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2011.813

Boin, A., Brock, K., Craft, J., Halligan, J., ‘t Hart, P., Roy, J., Tellier, G., & Turnbull, L. (2020). Beyond COVID-19: Five commentaries on expert knowledge, executive action, and accountability in governance and public administration. *Canadian Public Administration*, *63*(3), 339–368. https://doi.org/10.1111/capa.12386

Bosso, C. J. (2003). Democracy in Practice: Public Participation in Environmental Decisions. By Thomas C. Beierle and Jerry Cayford. Washington, DC: Resources for the Future Press, 2002. 160p. $50.00 cloth, "8.95 paper. *Perspective on Politics*, *1*(1), 157–246. https://doi.org/10.1017/s1537592703450159

Botchwey, N. D., Johnson, N., O’Connell, L. K., & Kim, A. J. (2019a). Including Youth in the Ladder of Citizen Participation. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, *85*(3), 255–270. https://doi.org/10.1080/01944363.2019.1616319

Botchwey, N. D., Johnson, N., O’Connell, L. K., & Kim, A. J. (2019b). Including Youth in the Ladder of Citizen Participation. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, *85*(3), 255–270. https://doi.org/10.1080/01944363.2019.1616319

Bouchard, N. (2016). The dark side of public participation: Participative processes that legitimize elected officials’ values. *Canadian Public Administration*, *59*(4), 516–537. https://doi.org/10.1111/capa.12199

Brittan, S. (1977). The Private Government of Public Money. By Hugh Heclo and Aaron Wildavsky. (Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1974. Pp. 399. "5.75.). *American Political Science Review*, *71*(2), 772–774. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0003055400268731

Bruzelius, N., Flyvbjerg, B., & Rothengatter, W. (1998). Big decisions, big risks: improving accountability in mega projects. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, *64*(3), 423–440. https://doi.org/10.1177/002085239806400306

Bryson, J. M., Edwards, L. H., & Van Slyke, D. M. (2017). Getting strategic about strategic planning research. *Public Management Review*, *20*(3), 317–339. https://doi.org/10.1080/14719037.2017.1285111

Callahan, K. (2000). Citizen Participation Run Amok. *Public Productivity &Amp; Management Review*, *23*(3), 394. https://doi.org/10.2307/3380727

Calvert, R. L. (1991). Beyond Self-Interest. Edited by Jane J. Mansbridge. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1990. 402p. $55.00 cloth, "5.95 paper. *American Political Science Review*, *85*(1), 272–273. https://doi.org/10.2307/1962904

Cappella, J. N., Price, V., & Nir, L. (2002). Argument Repertoire as a Reliable and Valid Measure of Opinion Quality: Electronic Dialogue During Campaign 2000. *Political Communication*, *19*(1), 73–93. https://doi.org/10.1080/105846002317246498

CBC News. (2021, October 12). *Metrolinx to level 12 more buildings along LRT route in Hamilton*. Retrieved December 17, 2022, from https://www.cbc.ca/news/canada/hamilton/metrolinx-lrt-demolition-1.6207825

Citizen Involvement in the Decision-Making Processes of Environmental and Spatial Planning, and it's Influence on Public Participation: A Case Study of Lisbon. (2017). *International Journal of Political Science*, *3*(1). https://doi.org/10.20431/2454-9452.0301004

City of Hamilton. (2018). LRT Project Alignment with Citizens' Jury Recommendations. In *pub-hamilton.escribemeetings.com*. Retrieved December 19, 2022, from https://pub-hamilton.escribemeetings.com/filestream.ashx?DocumentId=126902

Clarke, R. V., & Cornish, D. B. (1985). *Cornish, D. B., & Clarke, R. V. (2002). Analysing organized crimes. Rational choice and criminal behaviour: Recent research and future challenges*. U.S Department of Justice Office of Justice Programs. Retrieved September 17, 2022, from https://www.ojp.gov/ncjrs/virtual-library/abstracts/modeling-offenders-decisions-framework-research-and-policy-crime

Community Engagement for the LRT | City of Hamilton, Ontario, Canada. (2021, May 19). Hamilton. Retrieved May 25, 2021, from https://www.hamilton.ca/city-initiatives/priority-projects/community-engagement-lrt

Connor, D. M. (1988). A new ladder of citizen participation. *National Civic Review*, *77*(3), 249–257. https://doi.org/10.1002/ncr.4100770309

Cornell University Press. (2021, November 4). *Product Details*. https://www.cornellpress.cornell.edu/book/9780801446559/the-just-city/

Cornwall, A. (2008). Unpacking "Participation": models, meanings and practices. *Community Development Journal*, *43*(3), 269–283. https://doi.org/10.1093/cdj/bsn010

Creighton, J. L. (2005). *The Public Participation Handbook: Making Better Decisions Through Citizen Involvement* (1st ed.). Jossey-Bass.

Creswell, W. (2022, November 10). *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design*. SAGE Publications Inc. https://us.sagepub.com/en-us/nam/qualitative-inquiry-and-research-design/book246896

Crosby, N., Kelly, J. M., & Schaefer, P. (1986). Citizens Panels: A New Approach to Citizen Participation. *Public Administration Review*, *46*(2), 170. https://doi.org/10.2307/976169

Crowfoot, J. E., & Wondolleck, J. M. (1993). Environmental Disputes: Community Involvement in Conflict Resolution, James E. Crowfoot and Julia M. Wondolleck. 1990. Island Press, Washington, DC. 275 pages. ISBN: 0-933280-74-2. $34.95. *Bulletin of Science, Technology &Amp; Society*, *13*(1), 53–54. https://doi.org/10.1177/027046769301300176

Crunchbase. (n.d.). *About*. Crunchbase. Retrieved May 14, 2022, from https://www.crunchbase.com/organization/metrolinx

Danish consensus conferences as a model of participatory technology assessment: An impact study of consensus conferences on Danish Parliament and Danish public debate. (1998). *Science and Public Policy*. https://doi.org/10.1093/spp/25.1.2

DellaVigna, S. (n.d.). *Psychology and Economics: Evidence from the Field*. American Economic Association. Retrieved September 22, 2022, from https://www.aeaweb.org/articles?id=10.1257/jel.47.2.315

Dietz, & Stern, C. (2008). Public Participation in Environmental Assessment and Decision Making. *Public Participation in Environmental Assessment and Decision Making (2008)*. https://doi.org/10.17226/12434

Divided Highways: Building the Interstate Highways, Transforming American Life. (1999). *The Annals of Iowa*, *58*(1), 104–106. https://doi.org/10.17077/0003-4827.11071

D'Urbano, E. D. (2021, December 10). *What is LRT? Light rail transit explained*. Metrolinx News. Retrieved July 14, 2022, from https://blog.metrolinx.com/2022/01/04/what-is-lrt-light-rail-transit-explained/

Durkheim. (n.d.). Google Books. https://books.google.ca/books?id=zR7ukzDHaB0C

Durkheim. (2006). Google Books. Retrieved November 21, 2022, from https://books.google.ca/books?id=zR7ukzDHaB0C

Elo, & Kääriäinen, M. (2022, June 7). *Content Analysis*. Retrieved November 20, 2022, from https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/full/10.1177/2158244014522633

Elster, J. (2001). Rational Choice Theory: Cultural Concerns. *International Encyclopaedia of the Social & Behavioral Sciences*. https://doi.org/10.1016/b0-08-043076-7/04630-1

Epstein, S. (2000). The rationality debate from the perspective of cognitive-experiential self-theory. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, *23*(5), 671–671. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0140525x0028343x

Erkul, M., Yitmen, I., & Çelik, T. (2016). Stakeholder Engagement in Mega Transport Infrastructure Projects. *Procedia Engineering*, *161*, 704–710. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.proeng.2016.08.745

Eñ Ano, K. (2022, February 3). *Justice William Hourigan to lead public inquiry into Ottawa light rail transit system*. Law Times. https://www.lawtimesnews.com/news/general/justice-william-hourigan-to-lead-public-inquiry-into-ottawa-light-rail-transit-system/363673

Ferejohn, J. A., & Fiorina, M. P. (1974). The Paradox of Not Voting: A Decision Theoretic Analysis. *American Political Science Review*, *68*(2), 525–536. https://doi.org/10.2307/1959502

Fiorino, D. J. (1990). Citizen Participation and Environmental Risk: A Survey of Institutional Mechanisms. *Science, Technology, &Amp; Human Values*, *15*(2), 226–243. https://doi.org/10.1177/016224399001500204

Fitzpatrick, J. P., MacIver, R. M., & Page, C. H. (1950). Society: An Introductory Analysis. *The American Catholic Sociological Review*, *11*(1), 44. https://doi.org/10.2307/3706919

Fleischer, D. (2016, June 6). *Understanding Metrolinx*. Torontoist. Retrieved May 14, 2022, from https://torontoist.com/2014/10/understanding-metrolinx/

Franklin, A. L. (2001). Serving the Public Interest: Federal Experiences with Participation in Strategic Planning. *The American Review of Public Administration*, *31*(2), 126–138. https://doi.org/10.1177/02750740122064884

Frost. (2002). *Public Involvement Techniques - Publications - Public Involvement - Planning - FHWA*. U.S Department of Transportation Federal Highway Administration. Retrieved August 19, 2022, from https://www.fhwa.dot.gov/planning/public_involvement/publications/pi_techniques/index.cfm

Fung, A. (2015). Putting the Public Back into Governance: The Challenges of Citizen Participation and Its Future. *Public Administration Review*, *75*(4), 513–522. https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.12361

Gaber, J. (2019). Building "A Ladder of Citizen Participation." *Journal of the American Planning Association*, *85*(3), 188–201. https://doi.org/10.1080/01944363.2019.1612267

Gaur, A., & Kumar, M. (2018). A systematic approach to conducting review studies: An assessment of content analysis in 25 years of IB research. *Journal of World Business*, *53*(2), 280–289. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2017.11.003

Geddes, B. (2018, October 8). *Uses and Limitations of Rational Choice | 5 | New Approaches to Method*. Taylor & Francis. Retrieved September 22, 2022, from https://www.taylorfrancis.com/chapters/edit/10.4324/9780429499371-5/uses-limitations-rational-choice-barbara-geddes

Gerton, T., & Mitchell, J. P. (2019). Grand challenges in public administration: Implications for public service education, training, and research. *Journal of Public Affairs Education*, *25*(4), 435–440. https://doi.org/10.1080/15236803.2019.1689780

Gifford, J. L. (1994). Adaptability and flexibility in urban transportation policy and planning. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, *45*(2), 111–117. https://doi.org/10.1016/0040-1625(94)90088-4

Gladilina, I. P. (2015). Public Administration: Challenges and Solutions. *International Journal of Applied and Fundamental Research*, *1*. http://www.science-sd.com//460-24752

Goguen, J., & Roşu, G. (2004). Composing Hidden Information Modules over Inclusive Institutions. *From Object-Orientation to Formal Methods*, 96–123. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-540-39993-3_7

Goldsmith, J. (2017, December). *Using Framework Analysis in Applied Qualitative Research*. TQR. Retrieved December 16, 2022, from https://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol26/iss6/21/#:~:text=Framework%20analysis%20is%20an%20inherently,of%20data%20description%20and%20abstraction.

Graneheim, U., & Lundman, B. (2004). Qualitative content analysis in nursing research: concepts, procedures and measures to achieve trustworthiness. *Nurse Education Today*, *24*(2), 105–112. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nedt.2003.10.001

Hamilton Light Rail Transit (LRT) Project Memorandum of Understanding (PED21176/CM21012/LS21034). (2021). https://pub-hamilton.escribemeetings.com/filestream.ashx?DocumentId=282921

HamiltonNews.com. (2016, March 11). *Citizens' Jury on Hamilton's LRT used as political pawns*. https://www.hamiltonnews.com/opinion-story/6387726-citizens-jury-on-hamilton-s-lrt-used-as-political-pawns/

Hanrahan, L. (2021, September 18). *Hamilton LRT project gets go-ahead from City Council*. Urbanized. Retrieved May 18, 2022, from https://dailyhive.com/toronto/hamilton-lrt-project-city-council

Hodgson, G. M. (2006). What Are Institutions? *Journal of Economic Issues*, *40*(1), 1–25. https://doi.org/10.1080/00213624.2006.11506879

Hossain, S. (2005). *Public Participation in Transportation- an Empirical Test for A*. Scribd. Retrieved August 20, 2022, from https://www.scribd.com/document/567732738/Public-Participation-in-Transportation-an-Emperical-Test-for-A

Hrelja, R. (2015). Integrating transport and land-use planning? How steering cultures in local authorities affect implementation of integrated public transport and land-use planning. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, *74*, 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tra.2015.01.003

Ianniello, M., Iacuzzi, S., Fedele, P., & Brusati, L. (2018). Obstacles and solutions on the ladder of citizen participation: a systematic review. *Public Management Review*, *21*(1), 21–46. https://doi.org/10.1080/14719037.2018.1438499

Impact Assessment Agency of Canada. (2016, June 7). *Public Participation Guide - Canada.ca*. Government of Canada. Retrieved August 3, 2022, from https://www.canada.ca/en/impact-assessment-agency/services/policy-guidance/public-participation-guide.html

Infrastructure Ontario. (2022). *About Infrastructure Ontario*. Retrieved November 23, 2022, from https://www.infrastructureontario.ca/About-Infrastructure-Ontario/

Iyer. (2022, April 8). *What Is a Steering Committee in Project Management?* Wrike. Retrieved December 17, 2022, from https://www.wrike.com/blog/steering-committee-project-management/#What-is-a-steering-committee

Johnson, B. B. (2010). Trust and Terrorism: Citizen Responses to Anti-Terrorism Performance History. *Risk Analysis*, *30*(9), 1328–1340. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1539-6924.2010.01422.x

Kandil. (2022, February 17). *Public Participation Guide: Introduction to Public Participation*. US EPA. Retrieved August 3, 2022, from https://www.epa.gov/international-cooperation/public-participation-guide-introduction-public-participation

Kelle, U. C. L. (2019, September 16). *Bridge Assumptions in Rational Choice Theory: Methodological Problems*. Taylor & Francis. Retrieved September 22, 2022, from https://www.taylorfrancis.com/chapters/edit/10.4324/9780429303753-7/bridge-assumptions-rational-choice-theory-methodological-problems-possible-solutions-udo-kelle-christian-l%C3%BCdemann

Kenyon, W., Hanley, N., & Nevin, C. (2001). Citizens' Juries: An Aid to Environmental Valuation? *Environment and Planning C: Government and Policy*, *19*(4), 557–566. https://doi.org/10.1068/c4s

King, C. S., Feltey, K. M., & Susel, B. O. (1998). The Question of Participation: Toward Authentic Public Participation in Public Administration. *Public Administration Review*, *58*(4), 317. https://doi.org/10.2307/977561

Kumari, A. (2021). Public Administration: Meaning, Scope and Its Nature. *SSRN Electronic Journal*. https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3765649

Kundu, O., James, A. D., & Rigby, J. (2021). Public opinion on megaprojects over time: findings from four megaprojects in the UK. *Public Management Review*, 1–24. https://doi.org/10.1080/14719037.2021.2003107

Kvasny, L. (2004). Virtual Inequality: Beyond the Digital Divide, by Karen Mossberger, Caroline J. Tolbert, and Mary Stansbury. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press, 2003. xvi + 192 pp. "9.95/£14.25 (paper). ISBN: 0-87840-999-8. *The Information Society*, *20*(5), 409–410. https://doi.org/10.1080/01972240490508162

Lake, R. W., & Disch, L. (1992). Structural Constraints and Pluralist Contradictions in Hazardous Waste Regulation. *Environment and Planning A: Economy and Space*, *24*(5), 663–681. https://doi.org/10.1068/a240663

Lascoumes, P., & Le Gales, P. (2007). Introduction: Understanding Public Policy through Its Instruments? From the Nature of Instruments to the Sociology of Public Policy Instrumentation. *Governance*, *20*(1), 1–21. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-0491.2007.00342.x

Lavery, T., & Kanaroglou, P. (2012). Rediscovering light rail: assessing the potential impacts of a light rail transit line on transit-oriented development and transit ridership. *Transportation Letters*, *4*(4), 211–226. https://doi.org/10.3328/tl.2012.04.04.211-226

Lavictoire, G. (2019, October 2). *What is Metrolinx?* Scargall Owen-King LLP Expropriation Law. Retrieved May 13, 2022, from https://www.sokllp.com/blog/blog-post/blog/2019/10/02/what-is-metrolinx

Leach, W. D., Pelkey, N. W., & Sabatier, P. A. (2002). Stakeholder partnerships as collaborative policymaking: Evaluation criteria applied to watershed management in California and Washington. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, *21*(4), 645–670. https://doi.org/10.1002/pam.10079

Lee, G., & Bisogni, C. (1995). Communicating about Health Risks Associated with Food. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, *95*(9), A49. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0002-8223(95)00513-7

LeGates, T., & Stout. (1996). *The City Reader*. Google Books. Retrieved September 22, 2022, from https://books.google.ca/books?hl=en&lr=&id=tWWPAgAAQBAJ&oi=fnd&pg=PA238&dq=Arnstein,+S.+(2

000).+A+ladder+of+citizen+participation.+LeGates,+Richard+T,+238-50.&ots=KQ4ZZ7XH4t&sig=gDFZ0x2OERUdgY3d2MzKCmDFc80&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q&f=false

Leijten, M. (2013). Real-world decision-making on mega-projects: politics, bias and strategic behaviour. *International Handbook on Mega-Projects*, 57–82. https://doi.org/10.4337/9781781002308.00010

Lenrow, M. S. (1968). The Citizen and Model Cities: Citizen Involvement in Planning the Model City Program. *Midwest Review of Public Administration*, *2*(2), 103–103. https://doi.org/10.1177/027507406800200206

Lesutis, G. (2021, November 8). *Kenya's mega-railway project leaves society more unequal than before*. The Conversation. https://theconversation.com/kenyas-mega-railway-project-leaves-society-more-unequal-than-before-170969

Lewis, T. (1999). Divided Highways: Building the Interstate Highways, Transforming American Life. *The Annals of Iowa*, *58*(1), 104–106. https://doi.org/10.17077/0003-4827.11071

Li, T. H., Thomas Ng, S., & Skitmore, M. (2012). Public participation in infrastructure and construction projects in China: From an EIA-based to a whole-cycle process. *Habitat International*, *36*(1), 47–56. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.habitatint.2011.05.006

Light Rail Transit (LRT) | City of Hamilton, Ontario, Canada. (2020, July 19). Hamilton. Retrieved August 21, 2022, from https://www.hamilton.ca/city-initiatives/priority-projects/light-rail-transit-lrt

Little, & McGivern. (2016). Introduction to Sociology - 2nd Canadian Edition. *BCcampus*, *2*(13: 9781774200216). https://open.umn.edu/opentextbooks/textbooks/436

Lodewijckx, I. (2021, December 23). *The difference between citizen engagement and participation*. Citizen Lab's Blog. Retrieved August 3, 2022, from https://www.citizenlab.co/blog/civic-engagement/what-is-the-difference-between-citizen-engagement-and-participation/#:%7E:text=The%20key%20difference%20between%20participation,can%20come%20from%20citizens%20only.

Loughran, T. A. (2019). Behavioral criminology and public policy. *Criminology &Amp; Public Policy*, *18*(4), 737–758. https://doi.org/10.1111/1745-9133.12465

LRT Timeline & Documents | City of Hamilton, Ontario, Canada. (2019, September 12). Hamilton. Retrieved May 19, 2022, from https://www.hamilton.ca/city-initiatives/priority-projects/lrt-timeline-documents

Lyu, H. S. (2008). The Public's E-Participation Capacity and Motivation in Korea: A Web Survey Analysis from a New Institutionalist Perspective. *Journal of Information Technology &Amp; Politics*, *4*(4), 65–79. https://doi.org/10.1080/19331680801975789

Maloff, B., Bilan, D., & Thurston, W. (2000, April 1). *Enhancing Public Input into Decision Making: Development of . . .: Family & Community Health*. Semantic Scholar. Retrieved August 24, 2022, from https://journals.lww.com/familyandcommunityhealth/Abstract/2000/04000/Enhancing_Public_Input_Into_Decision_Making_.8.aspx

Matemilola, S., & Sijuade, T. (2021). Public Participation. *Encyclopaedia of Sustainable Management*, 1–5. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-02006-4_515-1

McComas, K. A. (2006). Theory and practice of public meetings. *Wiley*, *11*(1), 36–55. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2885.2001.tb00232.x

Mccorcle, M. (1986). *Case study research: Design and methods: by Robert K. Yin. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications, 1984, 160pp | Semantic Scholar*. https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/Case-study-research:-Design-and-methods:-by-Robert-Mccorcle-Bell/a26499844b45de8d47eea72db0243fc5356cabc9

Mcleod, S. (2008). *Social Roles and Social Norms - Simply Psychology*. Retrieved December 12, 2022, from https://www.simplypsychology.org/social-roles.html

Metrolinx. (2022). *Frequently Asked LRT Questions | City of Hamilton, Ontario, Canada*. Hamilton. Retrieved December 12, 2022, from https://www.metrolinx.com/en/projects-and-programs/hamilton-lrt

Meuleman, L. (2021). Public Administration and Governance for the SDGs: Navigating between Change and Stability. *Sustainability*, *13*(11), 5914. https://doi.org/10.3390/su13115914

Mohd Ishak, N., & Abu Bakar, A. Y. (2014a). Developing Sampling Frame for Case Study: Challenges and Conditions. *World Journal of Education*, *4*(3). https://doi.org/10.5430/wje.v4n3p29

Mohd Ishak, N., & Abu Bakar, A. Y. (2014b). Developing Sampling Frame for Case Study: Challenges and Conditions. *World Journal of Education*, *4*(3). https://doi.org/10.5430/wje.v4n3p29

Mohl, R. A. (2004). Stop the Road. *Journal of Urban History*, *30*(5), 674–706. https://doi.org/10.1177/0096144204265180

Mondal, P. (2014, April 14). *Society: Sociologist Views, Characteristics and Definitions*. Your Article Library. https://www.yourarticlelibrary.com/society/society-sociologist-views-characteristics-and-definitions/35064

Muller, P. O., & Muller, P. O. (1994). *Urban Policy in Twentieth-Century America*. Arnold R. Hirsch and Raymond A. Mohl, eds.; *European Cities Towards 2000: Profiles, Policies and Prospects*. Alan Harding, Jon Dawson, Richard Evans, and Michael Parkinson, eds. *Urban Geography*, *15*(7), 694–694. https://doi.org/10.2747/0272-3638.15.7.694

Musa, M., Hashim, N. F., & Muhammad, R. (2020). Integrated Transport System: Challenges and Potential Toward Sustainability in the Malaysian Transport System. *IOP Conference Series: Materials Science and Engineering*, *884*(1), 012032. https://doi.org/10.1088/1757-899x/884/1/012032

Nabatchi, T., Ertinger, E., & Leighninger, M. (2015). The Future of Public Participation: Better Design, Better Laws, Better Systems. *Conflict Resolution Quarterly*, *33*(S1), S35–S44. https://doi.org/10.1002/crq.21142

Ng, K. L., & Hamby, D. M. (1997). Fundamentals for Establishing a Risk Communication Program. *Health Physics*, *73*(3), 473–482. https://doi.org/10.1097/00004032-199709000-00005

Niemeyer, S., & Spash, C. L. (2001). Environmental Valuation Analysis, Public Deliberation, and their Pragmatic Syntheses: A Critical Appraisal. *Environment and Planning C: Government and Policy*, *19*(4), 567–585. https://doi.org/10.1068/c9s

Nonet, P. (1980). The Legitimation of Purposive Decisions. *California Law Review*, *68*(2), 263. https://doi.org/10.2307/3479987

North, C. (1991). Institutions, Institutional Change and Economic Performance. *Cambridge University Press*, *9780521397346*, 159. https://www.cambridge.org/gb/academic/subjects/politics-international-relations/political-economy/institutions-institutional-change-and-economic-performance

Obsie, A., Woldeamanuel, M., & Woldetensae, B. (2020). Service Quality of Addis Ababa Light Rail Transit: Passengers' Views and Perspectives. *Urban Rail Transit*, *6*(4), 231–243. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40864-020-00135-2

Ohio University. (2022, May 2). *Citizen Engagement in Public Administration*. Retrieved August 2, 2022, from https://onlinemasters.ohio.edu/blog/citizen-engagement-in-public-administration/

Ontario Newsroom. (2017, February 2). https://news.ontario.ca/en/release/43579/ontario-moving-forward-with-more-transit-options-for-hamilton

Opinion | LRT will transform Hamilton for the better: Eisenberger. (2020a, March 1). thespec.com. https://www.thespec.com/opinion/columnists/2016/06/10/lrt-will-transform-hamilton-for-the-better-eisenberger.html

Opinion | LRT will transform Hamilton for the better: Eisenberger. (2020b, March 1). thespec.com. https://www.thespec.com/opinion/columnists/2016/06/10/lrt-will-transform-hamilton-for-the-better-eisenberger.html

Ortner, J., & Wachs, M. (1979). The Cost-Revenue Squeeze in American Public Transit. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, *45*(1), 10–21. https://doi.org/10.1080/01944367908976934

Outlook, Trends and Future Issues. (2020, September 18). Transport Canada. Retrieved August 23, 2022, from https://tc.canada.ca/en/corporate-services/policies/outlook-trends-future-issues

Oyesiku, K. O. (2016). Analysis Of Mobility Pattern and Challenges of Transportation Needs of The Elderly in A Fast-Growing City in Nigeria. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal*, *3*(3). https://doi.org/10.14738/assrj.33.1812

Page, J., & Lee, R. (1992). LIGHT RAIL TRANSIT IMPACT MITIGATION POLICY: BRIDGING THE GAP BETWEEN ENVIRONMENTAL REGULATION AND COMMUNITY CONCERN. *Impact Assessment*, *10*(1), 99–107. https://doi.org/10.1080/07349165.1992.9725735

Palmer, K. T., & Herbers, J. (1988). The New Heartland: America's Flight beyond the Suburbs and How It Is Changing Our Future. *CrossRef Listing of Deleted DOIs*, *18*(4), 132. https://doi.org/10.2307/3330339

Park, Y. S., Konge, L., & Artino, A. R. (2020). The Positivism Paradigm of Research. *Academic Medicine*, *95*(5), 690–694. https://doi.org/10.1097/acm.0000000000003093

Patanakul, P., Kwak, Y. H., Zwikael, O., & Liu, M. (2016). What impacts the performance of large-scale government projects? *International Journal of Project Management*, *34*(3), 452–466. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2015.12.001

Patton. (2022, November 10). *Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods*. SAGE Publications Inc. https://us.sagepub.com/en-us/nam/qualitative-research-evaluation-methods/book232962

Peters. (2017). The New Institutionalism Approaches. *International Public Policy Association*. https://www.ippapublicpolicy.org/teaching-ressource/the-new-institutionalism-approaches/5

Price, V., & Neijens, P. (1998). DELIBERATIVE POLLS: TOWARD IMPROVED MEASURES OF “INFORMED” PUBLIC OPINION? *International Journal of Public Opinion Research*, *10*(2), 145–176. https://doi.org/10.1093/ijpor/10.2.145

Priemus, H., & Leijten, M. (2005). The Dutch Zuider Zee railway: A giant with feet of clay. *Planning Practice and Research*, *20*(1), 59–67. https://doi.org/10.1080/02697450500261723

Project Roles And Responsibilities. (2021, May 19). Hamilton. Retrieved May 16, 2022, from https://www.hamilton.ca/city-initiatives/priority-projects/frequently-asked-lrt-questions

Quality and legitimacy of decision-making. (2018, August 31). involve.org.uk. https://www.involve.org.uk/resources/knowledge-base/what-impact-participation/quality-and-legitimacy-decision-making

Rahl, G. M. (1996). Risk Reduction Through Public Participation in Environmental Decisions. *Naval Engineers Journal*, *108*(4), 53–57. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-3584.1996.tb02895.x

Rawlings, R. M. (2007). Meeting Customer Needs. SoCalGas Offers Transportation Service. *Natural Gas*, *3*(2), 12–16. https://doi.org/10.1002/gas.3410030203

Raymond, T. (2022, December 9). *Watson takes “full responsibility” for LRT failings in first statement since damning report but also blames RTG*. Ottawa. https://ottawa.ctvnews.ca/watson-takes-full-responsibility-for-lrt-failings-in-first-statement-since-damning-report-but-also-blames-rtg-1.6188528

Rowe, G., & Frewer, L. J. (2004). Evaluating Public-Participation Exercises: A Research Agenda. *Science, Technology, &Amp; Human Values*, *29*(4), 512–556. https://doi.org/10.1177/0162243903259197

Rowe, G., & Frewer, L. J. (2005). A Typology of Public Engagement Mechanisms. *Science, Technology, &Amp; Human Values*, *30*(2), 251–290. https://doi.org/10.1177/0162243904271724

Russ, L. W., & Takahashi, L. M. (2012). Exploring the Influence of Participation on Programme Satisfaction: Lessons from the Ahmedabad Slum Networking Project. *Urban Studies*, *50*(4), 691–708. https://doi.org/10.1177/0042098012456248

Rutar, T. (2019). For an integrative theory of social behaviour: Theorising with and beyond rational choice theory. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour*, *49*(3), 298–311. https://doi.org/10.1111/jtsb.12204

Rydin, Y., Lee, M., & Lock, S. J. (2015). Public Engagement in Decision-Making on Major Wind Energy Projects. *Journal of Environmental Law*, *27*(1), 139–150. https://doi.org/10.1093/jel/eqv001

SANDERS, L. M. (1997a). Against Deliberation. *Political Theory*, *25*(3), 347–376. https://doi.org/10.1177/0090591797025003002

SANDERS, L. M. (1997b). Against Deliberation. *Political Theory*, *25*(3), 347–376. https://doi.org/10.1177/0090591797025003002

Scheberle, D. (1995a). Breaking the Vicious Circle: Toward Effective Risk Regulation. Stephen Breyer Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1993, 160 pp. US>2.95 cloth. ISBN 0-674-08114-5. Harvard University Press, 79 Garden Street, Cambridge, MA 02138, USA. *Politics and the Life Sciences*, *14*(2), 291–292. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0730938400019341

Scheberle, D. (1995b). Breaking the Vicious Circle: Toward Effective Risk Regulation. Stephen Breyer Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1993, 160 pp. US>2.95 cloth. ISBN 0-674-08114-5. Harvard University Press, 79 Garden Street, Cambridge, MA 02138, USA. *Politics and the Life Sciences*, *14*(2), 291–292. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0730938400019341

Sciara, G. C. (2009). Earmark Pursuit Practices of Metropolitan Planning Organizations and Their Members. *Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research Board*, *2119*(1), 58–65. https://doi.org/10.3141/2119-08

Scott, A. (1990). Constitutions and Institutions. *Rationality and Society*, *2*(1), 107–111. https://doi.org/10.1177/1043463190002001007

Scott, A. (2011). Focusing in on Focus Groups: Effective Participative Tools or Cheap Fixes for Land Use Policy? *Science Direct*, *28*(4), 684–694. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.landusepol.2010.12.004

Scott, R. A., George, B. T., & Prybutok, V. R. (2016). A Public Transportation Decision-Making Model within a Metropolitan Area. *Decision Sciences*, *47*(6), 1048–1072. https://doi.org/10.1111/deci.12203

Shepsle, K. A. (1989). Studying Institutions. *Journal of Theoretical Politics*, *1*(2), 131–147. https://doi.org/10.1177/0951692889001002002

Smith, G., & Wales, C. (1999). The Theory and Practice of Citizens' Juries. *Policy &Amp; Politics*, *27*(3), 295–308. https://doi.org/10.1332/030557399782453118

Smith, & Wales. (2000). Citizens' Juries and Deliberative Democracy. *Sage Journals*, *48*(1). https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9248.00250

Star Editorial Board. (2022, January 28). *Editorial | The public interest, and only the public interest, must rule at Metrolinx*. thestar.com. Retrieved May 14, 2022, from https://www.thestar.com/opinion/editorials/2022/01/27/the-public-interest-and-only-the-public-interest-must-rule-at-metrolinx.html

Starr, C. (1969). Social Benefit versus Technological Risk. *Science*, *165*(3899), 1232–1238. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.165.3899.1232

Stirling, A. (2007). “Opening Up” and “Closing Down.” *Science, Technology, &Amp; Human Values*, *33*(2), 262–294. https://doi.org/10.1177/0162243907311265

Sturup, & Low. (2019). *Sustainable development and mega infrastructure: An overview of the issues*. Taylor & Francis Online. Retrieved December 15, 2022, from https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/24724718.2019.1591744

Teymur, N. (2002). Community Participation Methods in Design and Planning: Henry Sanoff, John Wiley & Sons, New York (2000) 306pp., ISBN 0 471 35545 3. *Design Studies*, *23*(1), 103–105. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0142-694x(01)00014-x

The Canadian Press. (2021, February 9). *Ontario asks federal government for ".5 billion in funding for Hamilton LRT project*. Toronto. Retrieved December 17, 2022, from https://toronto.ctvnews.ca/ontario-asks-federal-government-for-1-5-billion-in-funding-for-hamilton-lrt-project-1.5302664?cache=kmdeuabt?clipId=89950

The Rational Choice Approach to Politics: A Challenge to Democratic Theory | The Review of Politics. (n.d.). Cambridge Core. Retrieved October 23, 2022, from https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/review-of-politics/article/abs/rational-choice-approach-to-politics-a-challenge-to-democratic-theory/C3B9AB9F66FA4D36912F07D408DEA198

The Triumph & Tragedy of Lyndon Johnson. (n.d.). Google Books. Retrieved September 22, 2022, from https://books.google.ca/books?hl=en&lr=&id=ZU5rBgAAQBAJ&oi=fnd&pg=PA13&dq=Califano,+J.+(2000).+The+triumph+%26+tragedy+of+Lyndon+Johnson:+The+White+House+years.+College+Station,+TX:+Texas+A%26M+Press&ots=RftVpVY5b_&sig=oC5MMWhY9n6kVIjq2CQmTr28zfM&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q&f=false

Theoretical Framework: New Institutionalism. (2009). *The Politics of Water Institutional Reform in Neo patrimonial States*, 31–43. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-531-91377-3_3

Tim L. Dobbie Consulting Limited and Associates. (2016). *Report on Proceedings and Recommendations from the Citizen's Jury on Transit*. https://www.hamilton.ca/sites/default/files/media/browser/2016-03-03/lrt-citizensjury-report-final-2016.pdf

Tremblay. (2021, May 13). *Ontario and Canada Investing $3.4 billion to Advance Hamilton LRT*. Ontario Newsroom. Retrieved December 17, 2022, from https://news.ontario.ca/en/release/1000121/ontario-and-canada-investing-34-billion-to-advance-hamilton-lrt

Triplett, K. L. (2013, November 30). *Increasing Citizen Voice in Transportation Related Decision-Making: A Model for Citizen Engagement*. National Academies Sciences Engineering Medicine. Retrieved August 21, 2022, from https://trid.trb.org/view/1289570

Tversky, A., & Kahneman, D. (1974). Judgment under Uncertainty: Heuristics and Biases. *Science*, *185*(4157), 1124–1131. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.185.4157.1124

Urban, A. (2017, February 24). *Understanding the basics behind transportation choices*. Mobility Lab. Retrieved December 12, 2022, from https://mobilitylab.org/2017/02/24/understanding-the-basics-transportation-choices/

Varwell. (2022). A Literature Review of Arnstein's Ladder of Citizen Participation: Lessons for contemporary student engagement. *The Interdisciplinary Research Journal*. https://exchanges.warwick.ac.uk/index.php/exchanges/article/download/1156/958

Ventriss, C., & Kuentzel, W. (2005). Critical theory and the role of citizen involvement in environmental decision making: A re-examination. *International Journal of Organization Theory &Amp; Behavior*, *8*(4), 520–540. https://doi.org/10.1108/ijotb-08-04-2005-b004

Wagner, J. (2013). Measuring Performance of Public Engagement in Transportation Planning. *Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research Board*, *2397*(1), 38–44. https://doi.org/10.3141/2397-05

Wang, X. (2001). Assessing Public Participation in U.S. Cities. *Public Performance &Amp; Management Review*, *24*(4), 322. https://doi.org/10.2307/3381222

Wang, X., & Van Wart, M. (2007). When Public Participation in Administration Leads to Trust: An Empirical Assessment of Managers' Perceptions. *Public Administration Review*, *67*(2), 265–278. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6210.2007.00712.x

White, S. (2021, June 28). *Kenya's huge railway project is causing environmental damage. Here's how*. The Conversation. Retrieved September 2, 2022, from https://theconversation.com/kenyas-huge-railway-project-is-causing-environmental-damage-heres-how-159813

Whittek, Snijders, A., & Nee. (2013). *The Handbook of Rational Choice Social Research*. Google Books. Retrieved September 22, 2022, from https://books.google.ca/books?hl=en&lr=&id=WlY8zuOJf6YC&oi=fnd&pg=PR7&ots=k6F5mWcWUZ&sig=tmpq8ZiUj908eNsKGJJ9eBAli-8&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q&f=false

Whittington, M. (1972). Thomas R. Dye, Understanding Public Policy. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1972, pp. xii, 305. *Canadian Journal of Political Science*, *5*(4), 579–580. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0008423900037094

Wiedemann, P. M., & Femers, S. (1993). Public participation in waste management decision making: Analysis and management of conflicts. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, *33*(3), 355–368. https://doi.org/10.1016/0304-3894(93)85085-s

Yang, K., & Callahan, K. (2007). Citizen Involvement Efforts and Bureaucratic Responsiveness: Participatory Values, Stakeholder Pressures, and Administrative Practicality. *Public Administration Review*, *67*(2), 249–264. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6210.2007.00711.x

Yin, K., & Campbell, T. (2018). Case study research and applications: design and methods Case study research. *SAGE Publications*, *6*(1506336167d), 319. https://ocul-uo.primo.exlibrisgroup.com/permalink/01OCUL_UO/5lqjs2/alma991027255389705161

Zey. (2015). *Rational Choice Theory and Organizational Theory*. Google Books. Retrieved September 20, 2022, from https://books.google.ca/books?hl=en&lr=&id=wHca96KWSS8C&oi=fnd&pg=PP11&dq=related:PVgwhdOqVaEJ:scholar.google.com/&ots=KRjfZE9RXm&sig=r5KtJsTpfK8nVH3QXqvER-omYi8&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q&f=false

Zhang, & Wildemuth. (2021, July). *Qualitative Analysis of Content*. The University of Texas School of Information Is a Graduate School and Undergraduate School at the University of Texas at Austin. Retrieved November 18, 2022, from https://www.ischool.utexas.edu/~yanz/Content_analysis.pdf

Zinberg, D. S., Nelkin, D., McHale, J., & McHale, M. C. (1979). Technological Decisions and Democracy: European Experiments in Public Participation. *Technology and Culture*, *20*(2), 399. https://doi.org/10.2307/3103895