

Reconceptualizing Accessibility: From the Right to the City to Independent Mobility for Persons with Reduced Mobility

Erçetin C., Institute for Mobility, KU Leuven, Belgium,
[ORCID 0000-0002-8715-3696](https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8715-3696), cihanercetin@gmail.com

Received: 2025-03-19 | Accepted: 2025-09-24 | Publication: 2025-11-11

Abstract: Accessibility is an essential human right for enabling individuals to access urban services. The spatial configuration of urban environments must facilitate unimpeded passage along all potential routes, eliminating barriers stemming from legal, societal, administrative, and physical factors. This paper explores the intersection of accessibility and the Right to the City, highlighting their interconnectedness in fostering independent mobility. Grounded in theoretical frameworks, this study underscores the foundational role of the Right to the City in conceptualizing urban accessibility. The Right to the City posits that cities are inclusive spaces accessible to all individuals. Central to this concept is the notion of unrestricted movement between urban activities and land uses, underscoring the pivotal role of accessibility in realizing this vision. Examining the city's accessibility levels reveals critical insights into who can fully participate in and benefit from urban life. Factors such as the quality of pedestrian infrastructure and public transportation systems significantly influence individuals' ability to navigate and utilize urban spaces. However, disparities in accessibility often result in marginalized groups facing social exclusion and limited independent mobility.

Through an in-depth review and analysis, this paper argues that accessibility is inherently tied to human rights principles, with independent mobility as a prerequisite for realizing the Right to the City for all. This study contributes to ongoing discussions on urban inclusivity and equitable access to urban environments by unpacking these connections.

Keywords: the right to the city, Accessibility, right to access, persons with reduced mobility

1. Introduction

From a right-based perspective, accessibility means more than urban spatial policies to be adopted for people with disabilities within urban mobility and not limited to people with disabilities. Once the right to access is adopted as one of the human rights, it brings to mind the first article of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (United Nations, 1948), "All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights...". The rights and equality dimension imply that accessibility is an outcome of the combination of spatial, societal, and administrative policies and implementations, and accessibility is a matter for not only a specific group of people with disabilities but also for any person having reduced mobility. Once it is accepted that every single person is equal no matter what the cultural, ethnic, socio-economic condition or level of ability to access is, then it becomes certain that the right to access is for all-encompassing needs and demands of different groups of persons with reduced mobility. To ensure the needs and demands of various beneficiaries of accessibility, the platforms to obtain their ideas about what their experiences are considering barriers against the right to access need to be provided by

administrative authorities. Before having such a participatory decision-making platform to discuss their right to access, local and government policymakers must be considerate to PRMs as equally as all others.

The city and one of its main components, mobility, are the rights for all. While establishing the interrelation between mobility and accessibility, it is noteworthy that mobility is a crucial factor in obtaining and maintaining the Right to the City, including the right to work, to have an education, or to purchase a house. Mobility conditions must provide access to education, employment, and leisure activities, including all practices to develop social capital. Therefore, the right to mobility is a prerequisite for the other rights providing accessibility as a precondition (Ascher, 2007). Accessibility is a link between individuals and public space that provides the condition to obtain those rights. Unless providing the required accessible urban environment for all for the right to access and mobility, it is even impractical to mention appropriating urban space, participating in social networks, and the production of urban space. In this regard, the meaning and content of accessibility and independent mobility concepts establish a link between Persons with Reduced Mobility and the Right to the City. Consequently, this discussion aims to constitute a base for the condition that can be phrased with a question: what is the required condition that is necessary to put forth the significance of the motto, “accessibility for all”? Is it accessibility with the help of others or accessibility through independent mobility? The latter is the answer forming the essence of the argument of this research.

The structure of the research starts with the Right to the City concerning the right to mobility and accessibility, along with the additions of the analysis of accessibility and accessibility chain¹ and the affected subject group of the research as people with disabilities -in a broader sense; persons with reduced mobility. In addition to the structure of the article, a final complementary concept is involved as independent mobility to sustain the achieving process of the accessibility chain.

2. The Right to the City and Independent Mobility: An Analytical Framework

Right to the City offers a perspective in which cities belong to all their inhabitants and everyone has the right to shape and access urban environments. Industrialization and urbanization processes have transformed cities, alienating residents from urban spaces and weakening their participation in social and political life. This transformation has created accessibility barriers, especially for people with reduced mobility, making the right to the city a critical framework for addressing urban inequalities. This study aims to move the descriptive approaches in the literature to an analytical level by linking the concept of the right to the city with the argument that accessibility and independent mobility is a universal human right.

Jeekel notes that high trust societies (e.g. Denmark or Germany) are more successful in inclusive transportation systems. By linking Jeekel's vision of inclusive transport to the provision of independent mobility for PRMs, this paper analyzes how accessibility policies can be reconciled with social and environmental justice.

Harvey (2003) sees the right to the city as more than an individual freedom of access, but as a moral demand, and emphasizes that this right requires democratic governance and control of

¹ The accessibility chain is a sequence of interconnected steps that shape a person's travel experience, starting from planning the trip, using the vehicle, reaching the destination, and providing feedback on the journey. Each step, or “link,” is interrelated and contributes to the overall accessibility of the trip (Erçetin, 2024)

urban resources. This perspective supports our argument that accessibility policies should focus not only on physical infrastructure, but also on social and political participation processes. Castells (1977, 2015) discusses the right to the city through urban social movements and argues that these movements are the main determinants of urban change. According to him, the right to the city is a collective right, not an individual one, and involves citizens having a say in shaping the city. Castells' emphasis on urban social movements raises the question of how PRMs' demands for independent mobility can be strengthened through urban social movements.

This study re-evaluates Lefebvre, Harvey and Castells' concept of the right to the city through the right to accessibility and independent mobility. Although descriptive approaches in the literature show that the right to the city offers a powerful framework for addressing urban injustices, it has not been sufficiently deepened in terms of the right to independent mobility of individuals with reduced mobility. In this context, our study aims to fill this gap in the literature by linking the concept of the right to the city with the definition of accessibility as a universal human right and the development of policies to ensure the full participation of PRMs in urban life. For example, the car-centric nature of current urban transportation planning restricts the accessibility rights of PRMs and deepens social inequalities. This study argues that independent mobility can be achieved not only through physical infrastructure, but also through social solidarity and inclusive policies.

In conclusion, the concept of the right to the city offers a powerful theoretical framework for ensuring that urban spaces are accessible and livable for all residents. However, this concept needs to be considered more analytically in the context of the right to independent mobility and accessibility. This paper explores how accessibility policies can be aligned with social and environmental justice goals by redefining the right to the city as a framework to ensure equal participation of PRMs in urban life. Lefebvre (2015) sees the process of industrialization as one of the main sources of the urban problem. The transformative impact of industrialization on society has destroyed the historical and cultural fabric of cities. According to Lefebvre, industrialization and urbanization have destroyed the unique qualities of cities and restricted the participation of residents in urban spaces. By relating Lefebvre's view to the barriers to access to urban spaces for people with reduced mobility (PRMs), this paper interrogates how the concept of the right to the city intersects with independent mobility. Lefebvre's conception of the right to the city involves a political conception of space and argues that urban space is placed at the center of politics (Purcell, 2013). According to him, the right to the city aims to eliminate alienation in urban areas and reestablish social ties among residents. Developing this concept, Purcell (2013) argues that the right to the city offers a radical alternative that redefines the "ownership" of cities: The city belongs to those who occupy it and should be lived collectively by residents as spaces of learning, encounter, play, connection and connectivity. This perspective sets the stage for the central question of our study, "Whose right is independent mobility?" The right to the city is not limited to physical access, but requires equal participation of individuals in urban life.

Lefebvre (2003) argues that urban projects, strategies and policies affect the daily lives of all individuals in society, yet individuals' participation in these processes remains passive. Gentrification and exclusion from urban areas brought about by industrialization has led to the fragmentation of communities and the exploitation of urban spaces. The right to the city includes two fundamental rights: the right to participate and the right to own urban space (Purcell, 2002). Participation is essential for citizens to be directly involved in decision-making processes; however, in current practice, citizens are often only advisors. The right to ownership, on the other hand, refers to the authority of city dwellers to control urbanization processes. By linking Lefebvre's rights to participation and ownership with the right to independent mobility for people with reduced mobility, this paper explores how these rights can be integrated into accessibility policies. For example, the inaccessibility of urban spaces for PRMs prevents them from fully exercising their right to the city.

David Harvey (1973, 2008) and Manuel Castells (1977) develop the concept of the right to the city through capitalist production processes. Harvey (2008) defines the right to the city not as an individual freedom, but as the right to change ourselves by transforming cities. For him, it is a collective right and relies on a shared power to reshape urbanization processes. Harvey argues that cities have been taken away from their rightful owners due to the capitalist cycle, which deepens urban injustices. This study links Harvey's emphasis on collective rights to the identification of accessibility and independent mobility as a universal human right. For example, PRMs' barriers to access to urban spaces are not just an individual problem, but a structural injustice produced by capitalist urbanization processes. Jeekel (2019) discusses how neoliberal policies deepen social exclusion in transportation systems and proposes a radical approach to inclusive transportation. In neoliberal societies, car dependency, spatial segregation and low trust increase accessibility barriers.

Harvey (2003) sees the right to the city as a moral demand rather than an individual freedom of access, and emphasizes that this right requires democratic governance and control of urban resources. This perspective supports our argument that accessibility policies should focus not only on physical infrastructure, but also on social and political participation processes. Castells (1977, 2015) discusses the right to the city through urban social movements and argues that these movements are the main determinants of urban change. According to him, the right to the city is a collective right, not an individual one, and involves citizens having a say in shaping the city. Castells' emphasis on urban social movements raises the question of how PRMs' demands for independent mobility can be strengthened through urban social movements.

This study reassesses Lefebvre, Harvey and Castells' concept of the right to the city through the right to accessibility and independent mobility. Although descriptive approaches in the literature show that the right to the city offers a powerful framework for addressing urban injustices, it has not been sufficiently deepened in terms of the right to independent mobility of individuals with reduced mobility. In this context, our study aims to fill this gap in the literature by linking the concept of the right to the city with the definition of accessibility as a universal human right and the development of policies to ensure the full participation of PRMs in urban life. For example, the car-centric nature of current urban transportation planning restricts the accessibility rights of PRMs and deepens social inequalities. This study argues that independent mobility can be achieved not only through physical infrastructure, but also through social solidarity and inclusive policies.

In conclusion, the concept of the right to the city offers a powerful theoretical framework for ensuring that urban spaces are accessible and livable for all residents. However, this concept needs to be considered more analytically in the context of the right to independent mobility and accessibility. This paper explores how accessibility policies can be aligned with social and environmental justice goals by redefining the right to the city as a framework to ensure equal participation of PRMs in urban life.

2.1. Mobility as A Right

Urban mobility is a fundamental component of social and economic development since it allows people to access facilities in the city such as services, employment opportunities, education, social relations, and other places offering leisure time activities in the city (UN-Habitat, 2012). In this regard, each individual must have the right to mobility and access by default, as Lefebvre, Harvey, Purcell, and other scholars noted. Mobility is a significant element in obtaining the Right to the City in participation and appropriation practices. In this respect, accessibility of urban space and mobility stands as fundamental components for the participation of urban practices and for

having the ability and satisfaction of moving in the city -in other words, the Right to the City itself in its fullest expression (Castaneda, 2019). Consequently, a fundamental link between the Right to the City and mobility emerges interdependently.

As the functional part of the right to the city, a prerequisite factor for the right to appropriation and participation (Verlinghieri & Venturini, 2018), the right to mobility refers to a right to move, to be mobile in urban space, to enable accessibility of urban functions and opportunities. Considering Harvey's approach to the Right to the City as a collective right, since the social needs of individuals and mobility choices are closely embedded with each other, the right to mobility can also be considered a collective right (Sager, 2006; Harvey, 2008). It is evident that to achieve one of the fundamental human rights -the Right to the City- to generate collective acting and thinking, it is necessary to access the urban itself, not only single persons to specific places but each individual has the right to collectively move and access to any place depending on social and individual desires. Therefore, it is noteworthy to state that the Right to the City derivates a practical version of another right of its own -the right to mobility-which evidently puts forth the need to access urban itself as a social right – a right for all.

In light of the close link between the right to mobility and accessibility, moving to or in-between urban services, social capital, and public spaces are at the core of participation in urban processes through accessing them and experiencing appropriation of urban space. From a more primary perspective, being in public is an exercise of democracy through experiencing the city and society. In other words, mobility is a means to access the urban (Castaneda, 2019; Ferreira & Batey, 2007). Fundamentally, each individual in society has the right to access any urban asset and resource that makes the right to mobility cover the right to accessibility. Considering the production processes of urban space, the right to mobility widens the path of the Right to the City to proceed a few steps further because without being mobile and accessing the urban assets and the city itself, it is not possible to take part in the production of space as a collective action (Hannam, Sheller, & Urry, 2006). Therefore, there is one of the human rights as the basis of experiencing the city, but the question phrase is “for whom”?

2.2. Whose Right to Mobility?

The discussion on the concept has been about to generate a critical question: who currently owns the Right to the City? The answer is supposed to be the entire society, every single individual, but in a collectively owned and utilized manner. To reveal an evident fact related to contemporary urbanization practices, Harvey (2008) highlights the relationship between that who owns the ‘right’ and urban issues. In line with his approach, the Right to the City has been obtained by private interests restricted to a small group of people from political or economic management elites of cities that has the risk for the urban development to be shaped conforming to their own desires. The most prominent sub-issues of the concept—the right to appropriation and participation—stand out as significant human rights that have the dispute to be neglected and ignored in the current agenda.

Right to the City is an interdependent concept closely linked with the right to mobility and accessibility. In theory, the right to mobility belongs to all—to every single individual in society. However, in practice, other externalities take part in realizing the right to the city. Those external factors vary regarding economic condition or political power, physical ability to be mobile, or affording a car more simplistically. Therefore, this brings to the discussion that individuals are unequal in terms of physical abilities and economic capabilities. For example, considering an imaginary urban square and its car-oriented connections surrounded by vehicular traffic with

narrow sidewalks, one might have the economic power to obtain a car to enjoy the beautiful urban square; another might have the desire to do the same but not afford to drive; moreover, one another might afford driving, have the same desire to have that experience, but not have the physical ability to move without a wheelchair. Thus, a fact arises specifically to this example: to enjoy this beautiful urban square having weak sustainable pedestrian connections, only a few ‘fortunate’ persons would have the chance to access it through an unsustainable mobility mode; that is, have the right to mobility and to access in practice independently by car. The question is that the right theoretically and conceptually seems to be for all, but in practice, to whom does this right belong?

Recent scholarship reframes this question by positioning mobility itself as a human right, closely tied to the realization of broader socio-economic, civil, and political rights. Coggin and Pieterse (2015), for instance, argue that public transport is not merely a technical service but a critical enabler of social and spatial justice, particularly for marginalized groups such as low-income migrants in South African cities. Their rights-based approach demonstrates that exclusion from mobility directly undermines the ability to exercise the “right to the city.” While Coggin and Pieterse (2015) state that mobility is critical for social and spatial justice, Kett et al. (2020) extend this discussion to low- and middle-income countries. Inclusive transport planning in low- and middle-income countries requires a stronger recognition of the intersection between disability, mobility, and accessibility barriers. Kett, Cole, and Turner (2020) highlight that persons with disabilities often face systemic exclusion from mobility systems due to inadequate infrastructure, limited policy attention, and persistent socio-economic inequalities. Their thematic review emphasizes that transport is not merely a technical service but a critical enabler of participation in education, employment, and social life. By framing mobility as both a rights-based and developmental issue, the authors underline the importance of inclusive policies and investment strategies that prioritize the needs of marginalized groups. Such an approach situates inclusive transport planning at the core of sustainable urban development, aligning accessibility improvements with broader goals of equity and social inclusion. These studies show that mobility is not only a technical service, but also a fundamental right to social inclusion. Similarly, Lassance and Figueira (2020) caution against assuming that expanding mobility options automatically produces inclusion; depending on context, mobility interventions may reinforce inequalities by deepening dependency on urban cores or perpetuating socio-spatial segregation. Lassance and Figueira (2020) note that mobility interventions can reinforce inequalities, while Poltimäe et al. (2022) address similar challenges in a rural context. Recent research on rural mobility highlights the challenges of providing inclusive, economically viable, and environmentally sustainable transport solutions outside urban contexts. Poltimäe et al. (2022) show that single mobility solutions rarely meet the diverse needs of rural populations, which include both permanent and temporary residents. Their study identifies semi-flexible and flexible demand-responsive transport, car-sharing, and ride-sharing as key categories of novel mobility solutions, emphasizing that combining these solutions generates spatial and temporal synergies critical for accessibility. Furthermore, success depends on clear information systems for routing, booking, and ticketing, as well as cooperation, trust, and shared values among stakeholders. These findings underscore the importance of integrating diverse user needs and adopting flexible, connected transport networks to achieve socially inclusive and sustainable mobility in rural contexts. These studies show that inclusive mobility policies need to be adapted in different geographical contexts. These insights emphasize that mobility cannot be understood solely in distributive or infrastructural terms, but must also be analyzed as a normative claim—“whose mobility is being enabled, and under what conditions?”

This broader framing connects with earlier contributions on transport disadvantage and social exclusion, such as studies of unequal access to opportunities among marginalized groups (Kain, 1968; Wachs & Kumagai, 1973), uneven distribution of transport benefits and burdens (Hodge, 1988; Pereira et al., 2019), and gendered spatial entrapment (Hanson & Pratt, 1995). Lucas (2012) further highlights the intersection between transport disadvantage and processes of social exclusion, while research on motility (Kaufmann, 2002; Adey et al., 2014; Sheller, 2018a) extends this understanding by analyzing not just infrastructural access but also embodied experiences and social capabilities. Alando (2017) further extends this discussion to users of non-motorized transportation. Inclusive transport planning notes that current planning approaches, which typically prioritize motorized vehicles, often exclude the poor majority who use non-motorized transport such as bicycles in many cities. This exclusion stems from inadequate infrastructure, dangerous traffic conditions, and policies that equate modernization with motorized transport. In this context, the concept of social exclusion can be used as a tool to highlight the disadvantages faced by cyclists and to provide a framework for addressing these issues. Therefore, inclusive transport planning should aim to create street space and traffic conditions where cyclists can travel, thereby increasing accessibility and mobility for those who need it most. This approach not only meets the needs of cyclists but also ensures a more equitable and sustainable use of urban spaces (Alando, 2017). This framework suggests that accessibility policies should be designed to include not only PRMs but also other marginalized groups such as cyclists. Alando (2017) applies the social exclusion framework to cyclists, while Bjerkan and Øvstedal (2020) deepen this concept for people with disabilities. Transport-related social exclusion significantly affects the participation of people with disabilities in economic, social, and civic life. Bjerkan and Øvstedal (2020) emphasize that functional requirements in transport systems—such as accessible design, service reliability, flexibility, affordability, and safe travel environments—are essential to mitigate social exclusion. Their review of empirical studies highlights that mobility barriers extend beyond physical access to include time constraints, economic costs, fear, and limited control over transport options. By addressing these multifaceted barriers, inclusive transport solutions can facilitate participation in education, employment, and social activities, reinforcing mobility as both a fundamental human right and a social enabler. This perspective underscores the need for systematic, rights-based planning approaches that prioritize accessibility, reliability, and user-centered design in transport services to ensure social inclusion of persons with disabilities. These studies emphasize the need for inclusive policies, addressing not only the physical but also the social and economic dimensions of mobility barriers. Building also on Sen's capabilities approach (1993, 1999), subsequent work (Pereira et al., 2017) has stressed that mobility must be seen as a crucial enabler of valued social activities, contingent upon both personal and contextual conversion factors.

Recent theoretical diversification extends beyond distributive concerns to include procedural and recognition-based justice. Transport justice perspectives have underscored the importance of inclusive decision-making and respect for diverse mobility needs (Young, 1990; Fraser, 1996), while empirical studies have revealed systemic power inequalities shaping mobility outcomes, for instance in post-disaster mobility or cycling policies (Cook & Butz, 2015; Schwanen, 2020). Mobility justice, as conceptualized by Sheller (2018b), situates these issues across multiple scales—from embodied practices to urban spatial systems to planetary mobilities—emphasizing ethical responsibilities and relational understandings of movement (Nikolaeva et al., 2019; Davidson, 2020; Karlsson, 2018). Collectively, these contributions underscore that framing mobility as a right requires attending simultaneously to material infrastructures, embodied

capacities, and social recognition, as well as to the political and procedural processes through which mobility access, control, and participation are structured.

The basis of this review is that mobility and accessibility are human rights and must be for all. One of the contributors to the problem of allocation of the Right to the City for all, in theory, is that the concept remains quite abstract. It is not clearly perceived by individuals in practice—daily life—how to obtain the Right to the City, what the barriers are against it, and how mobility problems contribute to that problem. Şengül (2015) phrased the perception of the concept in practice and its relationship with the problem of inclusion of all. Once the concept of the Right to the City is rephrased as the right to public space or the right to housing, or the right to access urban services to make it more concrete since the essence of the concept mostly remains abstract, those rights in question will inevitably be insufficient to bring together different segments and groups of people in the city. On the other hand, the Right to the City covers the entire group of individuals living in the city. It, as a right to reproduce urban space and self-actualization in the city, covers marginal groups, migrants, low-income people, and people who are not satisfied with urban daily life (Şen, 2012; Şengül, 2015). Therefore, it is necessary to be a right for all; however, society is not homogenous to obtain the right to mobility as well as the right to access any urban service. One of the most remarkable reasoning for the failure of allocation of the right to access through independent mobility is to be built clearly upon existing social exclusion.

Excluding a person or a group of people from a specific urban place, process or activity is to be expressed as a process in which the ones are prevented from participating in daily urban activities (Raje, 2007). Urban mobility is a significant part of this process of social exclusion. According to research by Mackett and Thoreau (2015), creating and sustaining barriers to accessibility is one of the main factors affecting urban daily life negatively that contributes to social exclusion through creating and accepting barriers against it. Those are the barriers preventing a part of society from reaching and experiencing urban space that put forth the fact that mobility-related social exclusion exists. In this manner, it is remarkable to mention that accessibility is a crucial indicator for people to be included in economic, social, and political life. Accessing social services and business networks in daily life is a prominent factor that makes the 'urban' belong to all as a right that needs to be ensured through sufficient mobility opportunities and alternatives for the whole society (Kenyon, Lyons, & Rafferty, 2002).

The discussion so far aims to investigate the question: to whom does this right belong? Is it for the ones who have a car, or for the people having the ability to walk-hear-see, or for the ones at an early age without any difficulty moving? People with disabilities (Edwards, 2001) and people having reduced ability of mobility have been exposed to stay as external social beings in the production of urban space and decision-making processes as a significant part of participatory policy making. Therefore, the right to mobility, as Soja (2010) noted, does not simply belong to all in practice; society varies by means of different factors disabling perception. The main goal is to form cities having inclusive urban mobility patterns for the production of space; that is, the co-production of space along with inclusive mobility systems as a collective right. Increasing accessibility opportunities for the whole society will enable the capability of people to reach all urban social activities and to the city itself as a right to avoid unequal conditions in urban transport, for primarily related to the disadvantaged group of people in society. We all have been living in a world of social exclusion caused partly by problems in urban accessibility that makes the right to access not for all but for the fortunate ones to have a chance to be mobile.

3. Accessibility: A Right for All

Considering the social aspect of the discussion regarding each link of the accessibility chain, an urban mobility system, expected to be free from any spatial and physical barriers, needs to be correspondingly free from social exclusion (Hawas, Hassan, & Abulibdeh, 2016). Mobility-led social exclusion is highly related to the participation of persons in social life as well as economic and political activities. Barriers to accessibility contribute to mobility-related social exclusion, even in cities with high mobility (Kenyon, Lyons, & Rafferty, 2002). Cities sometimes call themselves as serving high mobility, which means rapid transport between urban services by predominantly motorized vehicles. In this respect, it is necessary to take the term mobility into account along with pedestrian movement in urban public spaces, including the ones having reduced mobility. To prevent our minds from perceiving mobility as a mere and individual action of going from one place to another, accessibility of the urban environment and sustainable modes must be inclusively designed, which also contributes to experiencing the urban through independent mobility.

Accessibility is a concept to be considered as a chain with links that are composed of different segments of the trip. Each single trip-leg link of the chain needs to be inclusively accessible. The accessible mobility structure of this chain comprises the accessibility of sidewalks, crossings, stations/stops, information systems, and many other features that must be designed in an inclusive manner for persons with reduced mobility (Ling Suen & Mitchell, 2003). Therefore, accessibility is for all -for each segment of society, no matter how the income levels, physical condition, or level of social well-being of individuals vary. Accessibility is not only a theoretical right, but also a principle that needs to be implemented through practical means. The AMELIA software developed by Mackett et al. (2008), aims integrating social inclusion into transport planning requires tools that assess policy impacts on disadvantaged groups linking transport policies to measurable accessibility benchmarks and cost-effectiveness. It showed that small interventions, like adding benches, can significantly improve accessibility for the elderly, highlighting the value of evidence-based tools in guiding inclusive transport decisions. Such tools contribute to making urban areas more inclusive, especially for vulnerable groups such as the elderly, by measuring the impact of accessibility policies.

Accessibility is a right guaranteed by globally embraced rules and principles. There are many national and supra-national documents and studies related to the rights of people with disabilities and their well-being, which stands out as one of the fundamental human rights. An inclusive society is a crucial component that has the capacity to welcome the rights and well-being of people with disabilities. Therefore, there is a need for an effectively working inclusive society structure in which each individual is treated equally with an equal right to participate in economic, social, and political life. In this framework, accessibility of information, education, housing, the city, and other services is vitally significant, and the term accessibility significantly covers the group of people having special needs, which considerably includes people with disabilities (United Nations, 2013a). It is noteworthy to mention that accessibility is a prominent key factor for an inclusive society that put forth equality as one of the fundamental principles of human rights. The emphasis on an inclusive society that is highly related to accessibility is seen in The Millennium Development Goals Report (United Nations, 2005) as “the need for persons with disabilities to be guaranteed full enjoyment of their rights without discrimination.” In this respect, accessibility plays a critical role in the establishment of a society having an equal basis for all as a precondition to participating in daily urban life activities for persons with disabilities (United Nations, 2013b).

Accessibility and persons with reduced mobility are a right recognized by supranational documents and reports of international institutions such as the European Union, United Nations, World Bank, and World Health Organization. Along with countries' commitment, accessibility is accepted as one of the most significant components of human rights, which constitute the ontological base of the relationship between the Right to the City and independent mobility. To mention that a wide range of documents notes accessibility as a right directly or indirectly, Table 1 states the names, years, and the founder institution of the documents.

Table 1. Supranational Documents with Terms Noting Accessibility as a Right

The name of the document/report	Year	Related institution
European Convention on Human Rights	1953	Council of Europe
The World Programme of Action Concerning Disabled	1982	United Nations
The United Nations Standard Rules for the Equalization of Opportunities of Persons with Disabilities	1994	United Nations
World Health Organization (WHO) Mental Health Declaration for Europe	2005	World Health Organization
Council of Europe Action Plan to promote the rights and full participation of people with disabilities in society 2006-2015	2006	Council of Europe
United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities	2006	United Nations
European Pact for Mental Health and Well-being	2008	European Union
European Disability Strategy (2010-2020)-A Renewed Commitment to a Barrier-Free Europe	2010	European Commission
2011 White Paper on Transport	2011	European Commission
The Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union	2012	European Commission
European Accessibility Act	2015	European Commission

Table 1 shows that accessibility is a universal right supported by international instruments. In this context, Fian and Hauger (2020) provide a comprehensive framework for inclusive mobility. Drawing on the principles of Universal Design, the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, and the Sustainable Development Goals, Fian and Hauger (2020) propose a comprehensive conceptual framework for building inclusive mobility systems. Their model allocates mobility and accessibility requirements to four major sectors—government, private industry, academia, and civil society—reflecting a quadruple helix of shared responsibilities. Within this framework, eight inclusive components are identified, covering vehicles, built environments, digital trip management, personal assistance, organizational practices, regulatory standards, public awareness, and funding. These components demonstrate that inclusive mobility requires not only technological solutions but also coordinated social, institutional, and financial measures. Moreover, the authors emphasize that automation and digitization, if aligned with accessibility objectives, can significantly enhance equality and inclusion in future mobility systems (Fian & Hauger, 2020). This model emphasizes the importance of implementing accessibility policies through a multi-stakeholder approach. The table also demonstrates that the two concepts, accessibility and people with disabilities, are taken into account by the most prominent supranational institutions, meaning that accessibility along with one of the most fundamental rights -the Right to the City- is an interdependent concept to be perceived with one of the most disadvantaged groups of parts of the society -persons with reduced mobility. It means that not

only people with disabilities, low-income people, or only children are the subject of the discourse. Accessibility is a right for all as a matter for all persons with reduced mobility to experience in an independent manner.

4. Independent Mobility

Accessibility rights must be ensured for not a single trial of an accessibility chain but for the whole journey and for every single member of persons with reduced mobility. In this respect, there is a need for the right to access without being in need of help for any link of the chain. Thinking of a person with a wheelchair, getting out of home, reaching the bus stop, and getting the necessary information for the arrival of the bus without any help is a process to be called what theoretically accessibility is. However, once this person was in need of help to get on the bus due to the level difference between the pedestrian sidewalk and the bus door, the accessibility chain would have been broken due to a lack of independent mobility. Therefore, accessibility indispensably requires ensuring independent mobility.

As another example, a person decides to go to the theatre with a ticket in the front row. First, s/he checks the schedule of the bus to reach the theatre from the internet by herself/himself, then goes out and walks on the sidewalk, gets on the bus by herself/himself, enters the theatre building and the hall by walking down the stairs by herself/himself. This part of the trip represents the combination of links of a successful accessibility chain with an emphasis on managing every single link 'by herself/himself,' which means without seeking any help, and that means independent mobility. Independent mobility has been a significant complementary concept of the right to access since the beginning of the research. It means having the capability to access urban services without seeking any help from others. Therefore, everybody has the right to access that needs to be ensured with independent mobility. However, ensuring the right to access is not the only precondition. Spatially sustainable right to access and societally sustainable right to access are the two others -and related -components. Firstly, urban space, along with its public transport infrastructure, needs to be accessible, which represents spatial accessibility. If the right to access is not ensured by enabling spatially sustainable accessibility, the accessibility chain is frequently interrupted for PRMs, which results in frequent failures in urban trips. Therefore, PRMs become unwilling to go out in time, which means unsociability consequences emerge. Secondly, socially sustainable accessibility means achieving accessibility chains without facing socially unwilling consequences sourced by inaccessible urban space. Independent mobility is a critical factor in enabling social sustainability through accessibility.

For persons with reduced mobility, independent living and seamless participation in daily life are one of the ultimate aims to enable equality in terms of human rights sustainably. In this respect, accessibility is a significant factor to be ensured by local, governmental, and international policy-making authorities (United Nations, 2008). Under the umbrella of precisely defined rules, the independence dimension of mobility brings quite significant practical and psychological positive outcomes for persons with reduced mobility. In practice, reaching a bus stop or having a rest in a park without getting any help makes people reflect on their personal will to urban space by utilizing, affecting as well as changing it. In this way, there will not be any difference between any individual in social life, meaning that they will be able to live urban setting in practice. As a consequence, the self-determination of human psychology of any individual having mobility difficulty will be registered to urban social life successfully. As a more simplistic statement, practically, the ability of, i.e., stepping from the sidewalk to crossing by using an ideally designed ramp as any other able-bodied individuals do in their daily routine, and the positive self-

determination feeling gained by this action collaboratively composes the concept of independent mobility.

To prevent deprivation and isolation from social life for people with disabilities as one of the most vulnerable groups of persons with reduced mobility, they need to have their mobility right independently and efficiently in urban areas (Falkmer, Fulland, & Gregersen, 2001). In this sense, independent mobility is the core of the Right to the City and the right to mobility. Ahmad (2015) puts forth similarly that “once the right of independent mobility is ensured, the feeling of being handicapped and disabled could vanish, albeit the existing impairment.” Enabling independent mobility is not limited to physical infrastructure; technological innovations also play a critical role. For example, the Viana+Acessível app developed by Silva et al. (2023) draws upon a multi-objective optimization model, which is a mobile application designed to promote inclusive mobility in urban environments. Developed in response to increasing traffic congestion and a growing focus on urban sustainability, the system aims to enhance the physical and psychological well-being of citizens with temporary or permanent reduced mobility, including visually impaired individuals, wheelchair users, pregnant women, and the elderly. Unlike standard navigation software that typically offers the fastest route, this application evaluates four distinct criteria—path length, slope, accessibility, and duration—to provide safer and more accessible alternatives with minimal difference in travel time. This approach ensures a better user experience by prioritizing safety and ease of movement for the most vulnerable populations (Silva et al., 2023).. Such technologies support independent mobility, enabling PRMs to move around urban areas more safely and autonomously. Technological innovations play an important role in supporting independent mobility. Silva et al. (2023) discuss Viana+Acessível, while Matyas (2020) discusses how MaaS promotes behavioral change, which investigates how Mobility as a Service (MaaS) can facilitate behavioural change by promoting multimodal transport use and reducing reliance on private vehicles. Using in-depth interviews in London, the study highlights that users categorize transport modes offered via MaaS into ‘essential,’ ‘considered,’ and ‘excluded,’ with the greatest potential for behavioural change lying within the ‘considered’ modes. Key barriers to adoption include safety concerns, service characteristics, trust, administrative burdens, and strong attachment to personal vehicles. MaaS platforms can address these issues by offering integrated, user-friendly digital interfaces, centralising booking and payment, and enabling targeted interventions for different socio-demographic groups. Overall, the findings suggest that while MaaS alone may not overcome all individual barriers, it can raise awareness of alternative modes, simplify multimodal journeys, and indirectly encourage reductions in private vehicle use, provided supporting policies and infrastructure are in place.. Such platforms support independent mobility by increasing accessibility for PRMs.

The emphasis here on the self-feeling of being disabled or handicapped can be annihilated through independent mobility for all. In addition, in the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (United Nations, 2012), there is an emphasis on independent mobility by ensuring accessibility for independent living, effective participation in society, and freedom to experience personal mobility without facing any barriers. In addition, accessibility has the capacity to contribute well-being of persons with reduced mobility and participation in the society that develops a sense of belonging, social and economic sustainability and elimination of poverty. Similarly, Olkin and Pledger (2003) state the significance of independence in daily life for persons with disabilities as that disability studies are highly related to the independent living approach by putting emphasis on increasing their self-determination enabling full access to social, educational, and political aspects of life.

Independent mobility is a matter of human rights. It is particularly for persons with disabilities as a citizenship right and a matter of equity in urban mobility for promoting disability rights in practice (Ahmad, 2015). In this respect, some of the core principles forming the core EU passenger rights are about independent mobility and about the significance of accessibility of persons with reduced mobility (European Commission, 2011), which are;

- right to non-discrimination for the accessibility of urban transport,
- right to mobility, including accessibility and assistance,
- right to full application and effective enforcement of EU law.

Urban transport passengers need to indispensably have accessible urban transport modes without any discrimination, and urban mobility needs to be considered a human right for all. It should be guaranteed by EU legal documents. In this sense, Çağlar (2012) notes that accessibility for people with disabilities is not only a means of exercising their rights but also a condition for living independently and fully participating in all areas of social life. For people with disabilities to lead an independent and dignified life, they must have equal access to the physical environment, transportation, information, and communication, including information and communication technology, and other public facilities and services, on an equal basis with other members of the society. In line with this statement, the fact that most human rights are to be used through participation in social, political, economic, and cultural life has led to the discussion that accessibility must be accepted as an independent right beyond being a prerequisite for participation.

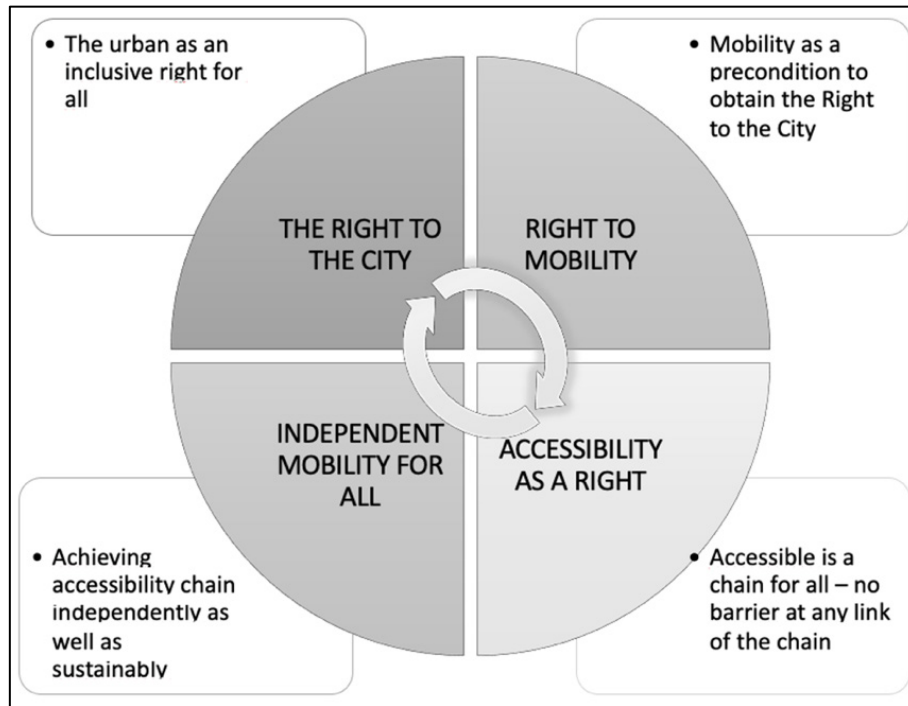
5. Conclusion

This study begins by arguing that accessibility is a human right for all and discusses the genesis of this claim. The theoretical framework is shaped around the ideas that cities should be seen as a right for all individuals, that cities are valued as a commodity and can be reclaimed through social movements. In this context, although accessibility is defined as the ease or difficulty of accessing an urban service, a rights-based approach questions the underlying causes that prevent access. For example, reaching a destination may be considered an "accessible" route, but in the case of inaccessibility, deeper reasons come into play, such as the lack of independent mobility, even though the main determining factor often seems to be urban space.

Accessibility is a matter for not only able-bodied persons and persons with disabilities but for anyone with mobility difficulty. To achieve this universal right -emphasized in universal design principles as "equitable use"- in a sustainable manner, the mobility practices need to enable independent mobility. Figure 1 illustrates the conceptual framework of this research, highlighting the sequential linkage of key concepts. The research is initially inspired by the notion of the Right to the City, which asserts that urban spaces should be accessible to all. Realizing this right requires the ability to move freely between activities and urban land uses. In this context, the city's accessibility determines who can fully utilize and benefit from urban settings, walking environments, and public transport facilities—elements that form the subcomponents of the so-called "accessibility chain" of urban mobility. This raises the question: whose right is this? Theoretically, it is the Right to the City for everyone, including persons with reduced mobility; yet, in practice, significant social inclusion challenges remain due to accessibility barriers. Accordingly, accessibility concerns not only able-bodied individuals or persons with disabilities, but any individual experiencing mobility difficulties. Achieving this universal right in a sustainable

manner—aligned with the universal design principle of “equitable use”—requires mobility practices that enable independent movement for all.

Figure 1. A Relational Representation of the Conceptual Research (Source: Author's Own Contribution)



Accessibility for persons with disabilities is a fundamental human right that ensures equal use of the city. This includes the urban physical environment (parks, squares, roads, buildings and entrances), urban mobility (walking facilities, public transport and stops), information and communication technologies and other publicly available services. In other words, the equal rights of persons with disabilities as part of society cannot be ignored, neither by an individual, nor by an institution, nor by the city itself. Therefore, urban space should enable equal mobility for all in all processes, such as home-to-destination transportation, information systems, walking, use of public transport, use of recreational spaces and returning home.

In a socially sustainable urban setting, the matters need to be human rights, accessibility, urban mobility, and participation. The point to be referred to here is that accessibility must be enabled through the independent achievement of mobility as a chain at any time and any place. For instance, using an urban bus system at a specific stop needs to enable a person with a wheelchair to arrive and get on the bus by himself/herself, which is independent mobility. In this respect, persons with reduced mobility must have the right to independent mobility, except for persons having the condition of being gravely disabled.

Accessibility must be regarded as a conjoint concept with the inclusiveness of urban space that highlights the social dimension of the discussion. It is an inclusive right and, unquestionably, must be guaranteed for all -for the entire society covering every individual of Persons with Reduced Mobility. As a consequence, inextricable cycles of inaccessibility prevent PRMs from having their right to access independently. Unless a right-based approach embedded in the right to access is adopted for accessibility policies, it could not be possible to live in cities where accessibility chains would be able to achieve without any barriers.

To ensure independent mobility, the right to access must be ensured along with spatially and societally sustainable urban mobility trips. Taking the fact that everybody is equal as given, then groups such as people with disabilities, elderly people, and parents with a baby stroller are expected to access any urban service independently. However, it is worth noting that helping as an ordinary habit in some cultures sometimes causes deprivation of a fundamental human right in urban mobility for PRMs. Therefore, the spatial and societal structure must provide independent mobility for all.

This paper argues that accessibility is a universal human right and that this right should be ensured for all through independent mobility. The question "Whose right to mobility?" reveals that mobility is not only the act of getting from one place to another, but also a fundamental tool for participation in social, economic and cultural life. Existing transportation planning often prioritizes motorized vehicles and excludes people using non-motorized transport such as bicycles or individuals with reduced mobility, deepening social inequalities. In particular, groups such as people with disabilities, the elderly, and parents with strollers have difficulty accessing urban areas due to physical, economic and psychological barriers, which limit their participation in education, employment and social activities. This shows that the right to mobility is not limited to urban areas, but needs to be addressed equitably in rural areas as well.

Ensuring independent mobility should be supported by innovative solutions. For example, mobile applications designed for people with reduced mobility can promote autonomous mobility in urban areas by providing safe and accessible routes. Similarly, multimodal transport platforms can integrate different transport options, reducing private car dependency, but such systems need to overcome barriers such as trust, safety and user-friendly interfaces. Furthermore, small-scale infrastructure interventions, such as adding benches in public spaces, can improve accessibility for groups such as the elderly. Inclusive mobility needs to be achieved not only through physical infrastructure, but also through an approach that requires the joint efforts of government, the private sector, academia and civil society. This multi-stakeholder model strengthens urban inclusion by bringing together the digital, institutional and social dimensions of accessibility.

Neoliberal policies leading to car dependency and fragmented urban planning undermine social cohesion and increase mobility inequalities. Inclusive transport should not only prevent social exclusion, but also offer a vision that strengthens social solidarity and promotes environmental sustainability. In this context, the right to mobility should be provided equitably for all, in line with universal design principles. In urban and rural contexts, inclusive transport policies, supported by technological and social innovation, can ensure that cities become accessible and livable spaces for all. This lays the foundation for a more equitable, sustainable and inclusive urban future for all of society, including people with reduced mobility.

In conclusion, the literature review shows that the concepts of right to the city, right to movement and right to accessibility have an important place in urban justice debates. While the right to the city has been discussed within the framework of collective ownership of urban spaces and participation in urbanization processes, the right to movement and the right to accessibility have mostly been discussed indirectly. Existing transport systems are observed to deepen social exclusion and inclusive transport practices are still limited; in particular, the independent mobility of people with reduced mobility has not been systematically integrated with these concepts. While the relationship between the three rights provides a strong theoretical foundation, concrete policies and field studies to ensure their full participation in urban life are lacking. This study addresses this gap by presenting an analytical approach that combines the rights to

accessibility and mobility within the framework of the right to the city and emphasizes the need for field-based research to develop inclusive transportation policies.

6. Bibliography

- Ahmad, M. (2015). Independent-Mobility Rights and the State of Public Transport Accessibility for Disabled People: Evidence From Southern Punjab in Pakistan. *Administration & Society*, 47(2), s. 197-213. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0095399713490691>.
- Adey, P., Bissell, D., Hanham, K., Merriman, P., & Sheller, M. (2014). *The Routledge handbook of mobilities*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315857572>.
- Alando, W. (2017). A framework for inclusive transport planning in medium-sized Sub-Saharan African cities: The case of cycling in Kisumu, Kenya [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. TU Dortmund University. <https://repository.maseno.ac.ke/handle/123456789/3409>.
- Ascher, F. (2007). Section 2- Landscapes of Capital - Multimobility, Multispeed Cities: A Challenge for Architects, Town Planners, and Politicians. *Places*, 19(1), 36-41. <http://escholarship.org/uc/item/80j6x3gt>.
- Barber, L. B. (2020). Governing uneven mobilities: Walking and hierarchized circulation in Hong Kong. *Journal of Transport Geography*, 8, 102622. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtrangeo.2019.102622>.
- Bjerkan, K. Y., & Øvstedal, L. R. (2020). Functional requirements for inclusive transport. *Transportation*, 47(3), 1177–1198. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11116-018-9939-7>.
- Castaneda, P. (2019). From the Right to Mobility to the Right to the Mobile City: Playfulness and Mobilities in Bogotá's Cycling Activism. *A Radical Journal of Geography*, 52(1), s. 58-77. <https://doi.org/10.1111/anti.12581>.
- Castells, M. (1977). *The Urban Question: A Marxist Approach*. Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Castells, M. (2015). *Networks of Outrage and Hope: Social Movements in the Internet Age*. John Wiley & Sons. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ijpor/edt020>.
- Çağlar, S. (2012). Right of Accessibility for Persons with Disabilities and Accessibility in Turkey. *Ankara Üniversitesi Hukuk Fakültesi Dergisi*, 61(2), s. 541-598.
- Coggin, T., & Pieterse, M. (2015). A right to transport? Moving towards a rights-based approach to mobility in the city. *South African Journal on Human Rights*, 31(2), 294-314. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19962126.2015.11865248>.
- Cook, N., & Butz, D. (2015). Mobility justice in the context of disaster. *Mobilities*, 11(3), 400–419. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17450101.2015.1047613>.
- Davidson, A. C. (2020). Radical mobilities. *Progress in Human Geography*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0309132519899472>.
- Edwards, C. (2001). Inclusion in Regeneration: A Place for Disabled People? *Urban Studies*, 38(2), s. 267-286. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00420980125583>.
- Enright, T. (2019). Transit justice as spatial justice: Learning from activists. *Mobilities*, 14(5), 665–680. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17450101.2019.1607156>.

- Erçetin, C. (2024). Right-based approach to urban accessibility: analysis of user perspective. *TeMA-Journal of Land Use, Mobility and Environment*, 17(2), 249-264. <http://doi.org/10.6093/1970-9870/10510>.
- European Commission. (2011). Communication From The Commission To The European Parliament And The Council: A European Vision For Passengers: Communication on Passenger Rights in All Transport Modes. COM/2011/0898: The European Parliament and The Council of European Union. <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=celex:52011DC0898>.
- Falkmer, T., Fulland, J., & Gregersen, N. (2001). A Literature Review of Road Vehicle Transportation of Children with Disabilities. *Journal of Traffic Medicine*, 29, s. 54-62. <https://urn.kb.se/resolve?urn=urn%3Anbn%3Ase%3Ahj%3Adiva-6270>.
- Ferreira, A., & Batey, P. (2007). Re-Thinking Accessibility Planning: A Multi-Layer Conceptual Framework and Its Policy Implications. *The Town Planning Review*, 78(4), s. 429-458. <https://doi.org/10.3828/tpr.78.4.3>.
- Fian, T., & Hauger, G. (2020, December). Composing a conceptual framework for an inclusive mobility system. In *IOP Conference Series: Materials Science and Engineering* (Vol. 960, No. 3, p. 032089). IOP Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1757-899X/960/3/032089>.
- Fraser, N. (1996). Social justice in the age of identity politics: Redistribution, recognition, and participation. *The Tanner Lectures on Human Values*, Stanford University. <https://tannerlectures.utah.edu/documents/a-to-z/f/Fraser98.pdf>.
- Gilow, M. (2020). "It's work, physically and logistically": Analyzing the daily mobility of employed mothers as domestic mobility work. *Journal of Transport Geography*, 85, 102693. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtrangeo.2020.102693>.
- Golub, A., Marcantonio, R. A., & Sanchez, T. W. (2013). Race, space, and struggles for mobility: Transportation impacts on African Americans in Oakland and the East Bay. *Urban Geography*, 34(5), 699–728. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02723638.2013.778598>.
- Hanson, S., & Pratt, G. (1995). *Gender, work, and space*. Routledge. ISBN 9780415099417.
- Harvey, D. (1973). *Social Justice and the City*. Oxford: Blackwell. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-658-10438-2_14.
- Harvey, D. (2003). The Right to the City. *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research*, 27(4), s. 939-941. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0309-1317.2003.00492.x>.
- Harvey, D. (2008). The Right to the City. *New Left Review*, s. 23-40. <https://doi.org/10.64590/fmh>.
- Harvey, D. (2012). *Rebel Cities. From the Right to the City to the Urban Revolution*. London and New York: Verso.
- Hawas, Y., Hassan, M. N., & Abulibdeh, A. (2016). A Multi-Criteria Approach of Assessing Public Transport Accessibility at A Strategic Level. *Journal of Transport Geography*, 57, s. 19-34. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtrangeo.2016.09.011>.
- Hodge, D. C. (1988). Fiscal equity in urban mass transit systems: A geographic analysis. *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, 78(2), 288–306. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8306.1988.tb00208.x>.
- Jeekel, H. (2019). Towards Inclusive Transport: The Radical Approach. In H. Jeekel, *Inclusive Transport*, 151-197. Elsevier. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-813452-8.00006-2>.

- Kain, J. F. (1968). Housing segregation, negro employment, and metropolitan decentralization. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 82(2), 175–197. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1885893>.
- Karlsson, F. (2018). Mobility, animals and the virtue of justice. In D. Butz & N. Cook (Eds.), *Mobilities, mobility justice and social justice* (pp. 217–229). Routledge.
- Karner, A., London, J., Rowangould, D., & Manaugh, K. (2020). From transportation equity to transportation justice: Within, through, and beyond the state. *Journal of Planning Literature*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0885412220927691>.
- Kett, M., Cole, E., & Turner, J. (2020). Disability, mobility and transport in low-and middle-income countries: a thematic review. *Sustainability*, 12(2), 589. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12020589>.
- Kwan, M.-P., & Schwanen, T. (2016). Geographies of mobility. *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, 102(2), 243–256. <https://doi.org/10.1080/24694452.2020.1744422>.
- Lassance, G., & Figueira, P. (2020). Is the Right to Mobility a Right to the City? Examining a Well-Accepted Planning Paradigm. *Journal of Civil Engineering and Architecture*, 14, 603-608. <https://www.davidpublisher.com/Public/uploads/Contribute/5fe3fbe9c2122.pdf>.
- Lefebvre, H. (1968). *Le droit à la ville*. Paris: Anthopos.
- Lefebvre, H. (1996). *Writings on cities*. Cambridge: Blackwell. (çakışan: ikinci sette editör bilgisi E. Kofman & E. Lebas)
- Lefebvre, H. (2003). *The Urban Revolution*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.
- Lefebvre, H. (2015). *The Right to the City*. İstanbul, Translated by Ergüden, I: Sel Publishing.
- Ling Suen, S., & Mitchell, C. (2003). Accessible Transportation and Mobility. Transportation Development Centre: Transport Canada.: Paper A1E09: Committee on Accessible Transportation and Mobility. <https://onlinepubs.trb.org/onlinepubs/millennium/00001.pdf>
- Lucas, K. (2012). Transport and social exclusion: Where are we now? *Transport Policy*, 20, 105–113. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tranpol.2012.01.013>.
- Mackett, R. L., & Thoreau, R. (2015). Transport, Social Exclusion and Health. *Journal of Transport & Health*, 2(4), s. 610-617. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jth.2015.07.006>.
- Mackett, R. L., Achuthan, K., & Titheridge, H. (2008). AMELIA: A tool to make transport policies more socially inclusive. *Transport Policy*, 15(6), 372–378. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tranpol.2008.12.001>.
- Matyas, M. (2020). Opportunities and barriers to multimodal cities: lessons learned from in-depth interviews about attitudes towards mobility as a service. *European Transport Research Review*, 12(1), 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12544-020-0395-z>.
- Mullen, C., & Marsden, G. (2016). Mobility justice in low carbon energy transitions. *Energy Research & Social Science*, 18, 109–117. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.erss.2016.03.012>.
- Nikolaeva, A., Adey, P., Cresswell, T., Lee, J. Y., Nóvoa, A., & Temenos, C. (2019). Commoning mobility: Towards a new politics of mobility transitions. *Transactions of the Institute of British Geographers*, 44(2), 346–360. <https://doi.org/10.1111/tran.12276>.

- Olkin, R., & Pledger, C. (2003). Can Disability Studies and Psychology Join Hands? *American Psychologist*, 58(4), s. 296-304. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.58.4.296>.
- Pereira, R. H. M., Banister, D., Schwanen, T., & Wessel, N. (2019). Distributional effects of transport policies on inequalities in access to opportunities in Rio de Janeiro. *Journal of Transport and Land Use*, 12(1), 741–764. <https://doi.org/10.5198/jtlu.2019.1523>.
- Pereira, R. H. M., Schwanen, T., & Banister, D. (2017). Distributive justice and equity in transportation. *Transport Reviews*, 37(2), 170–191. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01441647.2016.1257660>.
- Poltimäe, H., Rehema, M., Raun, J., & Poom, A. (2022). In search of sustainable and inclusive mobility solutions for rural areas. *European transport research review*, 14(1), 13. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12544-022-00536-3>.
- Plyushteva, A. (2009). The Right to the City and the Struggles over Public Citizenship: Exploring the Links. *The Urban Reinventors Online Journal*, 3(9).
- Purcell, M. (2002). Excavating Lefebvre: The Right to the City and Its Urban Politics of the Inhabitant. *GeoJournal*, 58, s. 99-108.
- Purcell, M. (2013). Possible Worlds: Henri Lefebvre and the Right to the City. *Journal of Urban Affairs*, 36(1), s. 141-154. <https://doi.org/10.1111/juaf.12034>.
- Raje, F. (2007). The Lived Experience of Transport Structure: An Exploration of Transport's Role in People's Lives. *Mobilities*, 2(1), s. 51-74. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17450100601106260>.
- Sager, T. (2006). Freedom as Mobility: Implications of the Distinction between Actual and Potential Travelling. *Mobilities*, 1(3), s. 465-488. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17450100600902420>.
- Schwanen, T. (2020). Low-carbon mobility in London: A just transition? *One Earth*, 2(2), 132–134. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oneear.2020.03.007>.
- Sevenhuijsen, S. (2003). *Citizenship and the ethics of care: Feminist considerations on justice, morality and politics*. Routledge. ISBN 0415170826, 9780415170826.
- Sheller, M. (2018a). Theorising mobility justice. *Tempo Social*, 30(2), 17–34. <https://doi.org/10.11606/0103-2070.ts.2018.142763>.
- Sheller, M. (2018b). *Mobility justice: The politics of movement in an age of extremes*. Verso. <https://doi.org/10.1080/2325548X.2020.1760059>.
- Silva, T., Verde, D., Paiva, S., Barreto, L., & Pereira, A. I. (2023). Accessibility strategies to promote inclusive mobility through multi-objective approach. *SN Applied Sciences*, 5(5), 450. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s42452-023-05349-0>.
- 6.1.1.1. Soja, E. W. (2010). *Seeking Spatial Justice*. Minneapolis: MN: University of Minnesota Press. (çakışan: ikinci sette tekrar edilmiş). <http://dx.doi.org/10.4067/S0250-71612011000200008>.
- Şen, S. (2012). Kentlilik Üzerine Düşünmek. *Eğitim, Toplum ve Bilim Dergisi*, s. 110-117.
- Şengül, T. (2015). Gezi Başkaldırısı Ertesinde Kent Mekanı ve Siyasal Alanın Yeni Dinamikleri. *METU Journal of Faculty of Architecture*, 32(1), s. 1-20. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4305/metu.jfa.2015.1.1>.

- UN-Habitat. (2010). State of the World's Cities 2010/2011: Bridging the Urban Divide. Routledge. <https://unhabitat.org/state-of-the-worlds-cities-20102011-cities-for-all-bridging-the-urban-divide>.
- UN-Habitat. (2012). The State of Latin American and Caribbean Cities 2012. Kenia. <https://unhabitat.org/state-of-latin-american-and-caribbean-cities-2>.
- United Nations. (1948). Universal Declaration of Human Rights. United Nations. Retrieved from: http://www.un.org/en/udhrbook/pdf/udhr_booklet_en_web.pdf.
- United Nations. (2005). The Millennium Development Goals Report. Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat. <https://www.un.org/webcast/summit2005/MDGBook.pdf>.
- United Nations. (2008). Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. United Nations. <https://www.ohchr.org/en/instruments-mechanisms/instruments/convention-rights-persons-disabilities>
- United Nations. (2012). Report of United Nations Expert Meeting on Building Inclusive Societies and Development through Promotion of Accessible Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs); Emerging Issues and Trends . Tokyo: United Nations Information Center. <https://www.un.org/disabilities/documents/egm2012/final-report.pdf>.
- United Nations. (2013a). A New Global Partnership: Eradicate Poverty and Transform Economies through Sustainable Development. New York: United Nations Publications. https://www.un.org/development/desa/pd/sites/www.un.org.development.desa.pd/files/unpd-cm13-201502-a_new_global_partnership_eradicate_poverty.pdf.
- United Nations. (2013b). Accessibility and Development – Mainstreaming disability in the post-2015 development agenda. Department of Economic and Social Affairs Division for Social Policy and Development. <https://desapublications.un.org/publications/accessibility-and-development-mainstreaming-disability-post-2015-development-agenda>.
- Verlinghieri, E., & Venturini, F. (2018). Exploring the Right to Mobility through the 2013 Mobilizations in Rio de Janeiro. Journal of Transport Geography, 67, pp. 126-136. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtrangeo.2017.09.008>.
- Verlinghieri, E., & Schwanen, T. (2020). Transport and mobility justice: Evolving discussions. Journal of Transport Geography, 87, 102798. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtrangeo.2020.102798>.
- Young, I. M. (1990). Justice and the politics of difference. Princeton University Press.

How to cite this article

Erçetin C. (2025). Reconceptualizing Accessibility: From the Right to the City to Independent Mobility for Persons with Reduced Mobility. Journal of Accessibility and Design for All, 15(2), 97-116. <https://doi.org/10.17411/jacces.v15i2.607>.



© Journal of Accessibility and Design for All (JACCES), ISSN 2013-7087, is published by the [Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya, Barcelona Tech](#), with the sponsoring of [ONCE Foundation for Cooperation and Social Inclusion of People with Disabilities](#). This issue is free of charge and is available in electronic format.



This work is licensed under an Attribution-Non-Commercial 4.0 International Creative Commons License. Readers are allowed to read, download, copy, redistribute, print, search, or link to the full texts of the articles or use them for any other lawful purpose, giving appropriate credit. It must not be used for commercial purposes. To see the complete license contents, please visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>.



JACCES is committed to providing accessible publication to all, regardless of technology or ability. The present document grants vital accessibility since it applies to [WCAG 2.2](#) and [PDF/UA](#) recommendations. The evaluation tool used has been Adobe Acrobat® Accessibility Checker. If you encounter problems accessing the content of this document, you can contact us at jacces@catac.upc.edu