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Contents

List of tables 4
List of figures 6
Foreword 8
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION 9
Legislation 10
Objective and layout of the report 11
Data sources 11
Definitions and abbreviations 11
CHAPTER 2: GENERAL PATTERNS IN TRANSPORT 13
DAY TRIPS 13
Reasons for not travelling 22
Driver's licences 24
CHAPTER 3: MODE OF TRANSPORT TO EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS 27
CHAPTER 4: WORK AND BUSINESS-RELATED GENDER TRAVEL PATTERNS 36
Travel for work 36
Main mode of travel to place of employment 37
Distances travelled from places of origin to work 68
Travel for business trips 71
Average number of business trips per month 74
Factors influencing household travel choice 76
Attitudes and perceptions about transport 78
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS 82
APPENDIX A 88

List of tables

Table 2.1: Day trips by sex and population, 2013 14

Table 2.2: Day trips by sex and geotype with gender parity ratios, 2013 15

Table 2.3: Day trips by sex and main mode of transport, 2013 16

Table 2.4: Overnight trips by sex, main purpose and population group, 2013 17

Table 2.5: GPR of overnight trips by population group, 2013 18

Table 2.6: Overnight trips by sex and geotype 19

Table 2.7: Reasons for not travelling by sex and population group, 2013 22

Table 2.8a: Persons aged 18 years and older who are in possession of a driver's license by population group and sex, 2003 and 2013 24

Table 2.8b: The percentage difference of Persons aged 18 years and older who are in possession of a driver's license by population group and sex, between the year 2003 and 2013 25

Table 3.1: GPR of the main mode of transport to pre- and normal school by geotype, 2013 29

Table 3.2: Reasons for walking to educational institution by sex and geotype, 2013 30

Figure 3.3: Municipalities with learners aged 5–20 years, who walk for 30 minutes or more to get to their education institution 31

Table 3.3: Top 25 municipalities with the highest numbers of male and female learners, aged 5–20 years, who walk for 30 minutes or more to get to their education institution 32

Table 3.4: Municipalities with a GPR of 1,3 or higher for male and female learners who walk for 30 minutes or more to get to their education institution 33

Table 4.1: Working-age population by population group and sex, 2013 36

Table 4.2: Main mode of travel to place of employment by sex, 2013 37

..... 37

Table 4.3: Type of vehicle used to drive to work 38

Table 4.4: Main mode of travel to place of employment by geotype and sex, 2013 40

Table 4.5: Main mode of travel to employment for males and females by age 44

Table 4.6: Main mode of transport to place of employment by monthly household income (quintiles), 2013 46

Table 4.7: Main mode of transport used to get to work by presence of a minor child 48

Table 4.8: Time taken to travel to work in minutes by sex, 2013 53

Table 4.9: Mean travel time in minutes to work by province and sex, 2013 53

Table 4.10: Mean travel time in minutes to work by age groups and sex, 2013 54

Table 4.11: Mean travel time in minutes to place of work by province, sex and age groups, 2013 .. 54

Table 4.12: Mean travel time in minutes to place of work by age groups, sex and geotype, 2013 ... 55

Table 4.13: Gender parity ratios for time taken to get to places of employment, 2016 57

Table 4.14: Number of different travel modes used to get to work by sex, 2013 58

Table 4.15: Number of different travel modes used to travel to place of employment by sex and province, 2013 60

Table 4.16: Gender parity ratios for number of travel modes used to travel to place of employment by income, 2013 62

Table 4.18: Time leaving for work by sex, 2013 65

Table 4.19: Time of leaving for work by geotype and sex, 2013 65

Table 4.20: Time of leaving for work by sex and population group, 2013 66

Table 4.21: Mean and median travel distances of men and women in the 25 DC's where women had the longest median travel distances to work, by sex, 2013 70

Table 4.22: Main mode of travel for business trips, 2013 71

Table 4.23a: Main mode of travel for those undertaking business trips by province, 2013: Males ... 72

Table 4.23b: Main mode of travel for those undertaking business trips by province, 2013: Females 72

Table 4.24a: Main mode of travel for business trips by age, 2013: Males 73

Table 4.24b: Main mode of travel for business trips by age, 2013: Females 74

Table 4.25: Factors affecting transport mode of employed persons by sex of the household head, 2013 76

Table 4.26: Factors affecting transport mode to place of employment by population group, 2013 .. 76

Table 4.27: Factors affecting choice of transport mode for business trips by geotype, 2013 77

Table 4.28: Main transport-related problems experienced by male- and female-headed households, 2013 78

Table 4.29: Satisfaction with bus services, 2013 80

Table 4.30: Satisfaction with taxi services, 2013 81

Table A1: Mean and median travel distances of men and women by sex, 2013 88

List of figures

Figure 2.1: Health care facility visited first during illness by sex of household head, 2015 20

Figure 2.2: Mode of travel to health facility by sex 21

Figure 2.3: Time taken to health care facility by sex, 2015 21

Figure 2.4: Reasons for not travelling by province, 2013 23

Figure 2.5: Access to company and private cars by sex of the household head, 2003 and 2013 25

Figure 3.1: Main mode of transport to a PSET facility by sex and population group, 2013 27

Figure 3.2: Main mode of transport to pre- and grade (1-12) school by sex and geotype, 2013 28

Map 3.1: GPR per municipality for male and female learners who walk for 30 minutes or more to get to their education institution 34

Figure 4.1: Main mode of travel to place of employment by sex, 2013 37

Figure 4.2: Percentages of males and females who dropped off or picked up passengers on the way to and from work by geotype, 2013 38

Figure 4.3: Main mode of travel to place of employment by geotype, 2013 39

Figure 4.4: Walking, cycling and driving all the way to work by sex and geotype, 2013 40

Figure 4.5a: Main modes of transport to places of work by province: Males 41

Figure 4.5b: Main modes of transport to places of work by province: Females 42

Figure 4.5c: Gender parity ratios for main modes of transport to places of work by province 43

Figure 4.6: Gender parity ratios for main modes of transport to places of work by age 45

Figure 4.7: The use of public transport by household income (quintiles) and sex 2013 47

Figure 4.8: Percentages of males and females who needed a vehicle at places of employment for work purposes on the travel day by geotype, 2013 47

Figure 4.9: Male and female percentage point differences in main mode of transport used to get to work by presence of a minor child 49

Figure 4.10a: Main mode of travel to work by number of minor children present in a household and sex: For metros, 2013 50

Figure 4.10b: Main mode of travel to work by number of minor children by sex: Urban, 2013 51

Figure 4.10c: Main mode of travel to work by number of minor children by sex: Rural, 2013 52

Figure 4.11: Time taken to travel to work – total in minutes, 2013 53

Figure 4.12: Time taken to get to places of employment by sex and municipalities-persons who travelled 30 minutes or more, 2016 56

Figure 4.13: Number of travel modes used to travel to place of employment by sex and geotype, 2013 58

Figure 4.14: Number of travel modes used to travel to place of employment by population group and sex, 2013 59

Figure 4.15: Gender parity ratios for number of travel modes used to travel to place of employment by population group, 2013 60

Figure 4.16: Monthly income quintiles by number of travel modes used to travel to work, 2013..... 61

Figure 4.17: Average monthly cost of travel by transport modes used to travel to work and sex, 2013 62

Figure 4.18: Percentages of males and females who received cash for public transport to travel to and from work by geotype, 2013 64

Figure 4.19: Percentage differences in time for leaving for work for males and females by geotype, 2013 66

Figure 4.20: Gender parity ratios for time of leaving for work to travel to places of employment 67

by population group, 2013 67

Map 4.1: Percentage of male workers per district council and their median travel distances from their place of origin to work 68

Map 4.2: Percentage of male workers per district council and their median travel distances from their place of origin to work 69

Figure 4:21: Average number of business trips per month, age group and sex, 2013 74

Figure 4:22: Average number of business trips per month by population group and sex, 2013..... 75

Figure 4.23: Percentage differences in main problem experienced by male- and female-headed households, 2013 79

Foreword

Provision of transportation services in the pre-democratic era was treated as the privilege for a few. The task to ensure an inclusive transportation system by government has been an enormous one. This improved system has to be effective and sensitive to individuals' unique demographic and socio-economic needs. Through the legislative framework, which recognises that transport is pivotal to efforts to ensure participation of the majority of South Africans in the economy, the country has made noticeable improvements to the transport system since 1994. However, in recent years, there have been calls to explore the extent to which existing frameworks respond to the needs of the most vulnerable members of the society such as women, children and persons with disabilities. The focus of this report is therefore to analyse data from the National Household Travel Survey of 2013 through a gendered lens. This is done to provide a broader understanding of experiences and needs of males and females in terms of access and the reliability of transportation services.

While implementing an inclusive change is a long and daunting task, it is crucial to constantly measure the direction in which the country is moving. Neglecting issues of gender in policy reform work post the democratic elections would be setting the country's transformation agenda back. Transport, the world over, has been known to prioritise the needs of men over those of women. This could be attributed to cultural practices that insisted on the domestication of women and ignored that even domestic duties require viable transportation systems. As the findings of this report will point out, women's general travel patterns reflect that they are still expected to carry out duties associated with the provision of care. This alone forces government to perceive transport with a gendered lens. .

The transport patterns revealed in this report also suggest that the opening of doors to previously male-dominated sectors, such as education and the labour market, to females inadvertently lead to increased demands for affordable and effective transport systems. As you will see, females were more likely to use public forms of transportation to travel to institutions of learning and to work. A lack of accessible public transport therefore undermines the gains made by governments in its plans for the economic emancipation of girls and women. This report purposely advances our understanding about how inadequate access to transport could affect men and women.

Dr Pali Lehohla

Statistician-General

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

In recent years, South Africa has seen a growing number of publications relating to travel mode choices. Various studies have considered a range of impact factors, including individual and household socio-demographics. Although gender has played an important role in international literature regarding transport since about 1980 (Uteng 2006)[1], gendered travel mode patterns, a focus of, amongst other factors, car deficient households and system attributes in the country, is a newly emerging focal area in transport-related research. The purpose of this report is therefore to build onto existing research by looking at transport with a gendered view. The report aims to highlight gender differences in not only general travel patterns but also types of modes of transport used by males and females for travel.

A number of key theories drawn from work on gender differences in travel behaviour are discussed below to explain travel behaviour differences between men and women. Despite a certain amount of overlap, these theories are associated with various disciplines and hypothetical perspectives. Even though the theories discussed are mainly based on international research, they nonetheless provide a context under which the results of the current report can be understood.

Economic power theories: Gender differences in economic resources and related gendered power structures are highlighted in feminist research and economics. Most prominent is a focus on women's relatively low incomes and restricted access to labour markets (Blumen, 1994)[2] due to occupational segregation and women's 'spatial entrapment' in certain spatial contexts (MacDonald, 1999)[3]. Even between partners who share their household budget or bank account, inequality in economic power may be at play because of unequal contributions to this budget. In an extended form the economic power hypothesis may be termed 'access to resources', among which money is only the most prominent.

Social roles theories: Sociological theories highlight social roles that may commit women more so than men to taking on household and family responsibilities that limit their economic independence. In transport studies this hypothesis was developed mainly in the 1980s. Wen and Koppelman (2000)[4] support this framework by arguing that in households with fewer cars than drivers, the allocation of cars is dependent on activity allocation. Accordingly, 'male roles' as well as 'female roles', i.e. employment as well as maintenance activity obligations (household work, childcare) may increase a household member's chances of accessing a car.

Patriarchy theories: Feminist theory highlights patriarchal power relations that may operate over and above economic inequalities. This 'dual system oppression' borne by capitalism and patriarchy (Walby, 1990)[5] impacts social role patterns, the availability of resources, and norms. Observed gender differences in travel mode choice and activity patterns are thus subject to power relations, particularly to women's weak negotiating positions in the household or in the labour market.

[1] Uteng Priya, T. 2006. Mobility: Discourses from the non-western immigrant groups in Norway, *Mobilities* 1(3) pp. 435-462.
[2] Blumen, O. 1994. Gender differences in the journey to work. Urban Geography 15(3), 223-245.

[3] MacDonald, H. I. 1999. Women's employment and commuting: explaining the links. Journal of Planning Literature 13(3), 267-283.
[4] Wen, C.H., Koppelman, F.S. 2000. A conceptual and methodological framework for the generation of activity-travel patterns. Transportation 27(1), 5-23.

[5] Walby, S. 1990. Theorizing Patriarchy. London: Blackwell.

These hypotheses should not be understood as being independent of each other. For instance, gendered social roles on the intra-household level may be an outcome or a driver of inequality between two partners' economic power. Patriarchy may drive economic inequality, but economic inequality may also help maintain patriarchy over time. The notion of preference assumes individual freedom of choice, but preferences may have their roots in societal traditions and may therefore operate on the basis of patriarchy, inequality and culturally defined social roles. Thus, preferences may mirror societal power relationships rather than having much explanatory power in themselves.

Legislation

This section presents the legislative framework in terms of policies and measures put in place in South Africa to ensure effective and accessible transportation systems. The Department of Transport sees itself as having a fundamental responsibility to conduct sector research, formulate legislation and policy to set the strategic direction of subsectors, assign responsibilities to public entities and other levels of government, regulate through setting norms and standards, and monitor implementation. The following legislation has thus been put in place:

The White Paper on Transport of 1996 is perceived as the key policy document in transport whose over-arching goal is to guide legislation and planning for all transport sectors.

National Land Transport Act of 2009. The act aims to provide for the transformation and restructuring of the national land transport system. It regulates and governs the transportation of passengers for reward. This Act was built upon the National Land Transportation Act of 2000 which laid the foundation for the restructuring and transformation of land transport.

National Transport Master Plan (Natmap) 2050: This presents the long-term vision which is believed will sustain South Africa's projected growth and focus on integrated transport planning to ensure that the different modes of transport complement one another.

The National Development Plan (NDP) 2030: The transport sector is viewed as critical toward realising the implementation of the NDP 2030 which is government's vision of advanced economic development, job creation, growth, and provision of equitable access to opportunities and services for all, while fostering an inclusive society and economy.

While the Department of Transport has taken the redress of apartheid policies, which treated the delivery of effective transport services as a privilege, in its stride there remains a scant legislative framework which directly addresses issues of gender in transport. Legislated undertakings on gender would aid the Department of Transport in its efforts to ensure sustainable and equitable mobility. Gender explicit policies are necessary as literature stresses that men and women have varying transportation needs[6].

[6] Mashiri, M., Buiten, D., Mahapa, S., Zukulu, R. 2005. Towards setting a research agenda around mainstreaming gender in the transport sector. CSIR.

Objective and layout of the report

The purpose of this report is to provide analysis relating to gender and transport using secondary data from Stats SA's National Household Travel Survey (NHTS) and the Community Survey of 2016. Chapter 1 is introductory and briefly discusses transport in relation to gender and theory. This chapter also seeks to establish the rationale for producing the report. The rest of the report employs descriptive analysis to provide male and female differences in travel patterns as well as in modes used to travel for the years 2013 and 2016. Analyses in this report mainly focused on three broad areas. General transport patterns and establishing transport patterns in education, which are discussed in chapters 2 and 3 respectively, while transport, work and gender are covered in chapter 4. Chapter 5 concludes the report by providing a summary of key findings and recommendations. The present report titled *"Gender Series III"* lays the foundation for a series of future reports within the theme of gender and transport. The data published with each report released from this series aims to move away from the narrow confines of transport-related studies by highlighting that gender has a significant impact on transport and travel patterns.

Data sources

Statistics South Africa's National Household Travel Survey (NHTS) of 2013 was used as the primary data source to compile this report. The NHTS is a joint venture between Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) and the Department of Transport (DoT). Its data collection took place between January and March 2013 where a total of 51 341 households and/or dwelling units were sampled using a random stratified sample design. The findings that emanate from this survey are useful to various government spheres as they help with policy planning, development and implementation strategies. As additional data sources, both the 2016 Community Survey (CS) and the 2015 General Household Survey (GHS) which were conducted by Stats SA were used. For the Community Survey, Stats SA visited approximately 1,3 million sampled households across the country. Unlike a census, not every household was visited; only those that were sampled. The CS is the biggest survey that Stats SA undertakes outside of the census. The GHS is an annual household survey conducted by Stats SA since 2002. The survey replaced the October Household Survey (OHS) which was introduced in 1993 and was terminated in 1999. The survey is an omnibus household-based instrument aimed at determining the progress of development in the country. It measures, on a regular basis, the performance of programmes as well as the quality of service delivery in a number of key service sectors in the country.

Definitions and abbreviations

Bakkie – A light delivery vehicle which is a truck of one ton or less.

BRT bus – Bus Rapid Transit bus system

Bus – A road-based public transport vehicle that can carry more than about 18 passengers.

Business trip – A trip taken during the course of one's work for business purposes. It does not include trips to one's usual place of work but focuses on trips 20 km or more away from the usual place of work. A business trip can be a day or overnight trip or both.

Gautrain – An 80-kilometre (50 mile) mass rapid transit railway system in Gauteng province, South Africa, which links Johannesburg, Pretoria, EkuRhuleni and OR Tambo International Airport.

Gender parity ratio – Refers to the proportion of males to females in a given population, usually expressed as the number of males per 100 females.

IRT bus – Integrated Rapid Transit bus system

Main destination – The place which was visited in order to accomplish the main purpose of the trip.

Main purpose of the trip – The purpose in the absence of which the trip would not have been made to a given destination. A travel party, i.e. a group of people making a trip together, has by conversion only one main purpose for the trip. For example, a person accompanying his/her spouse on a business trip will still have the main purpose as business.

Metered taxi – A sedan, cab or minibus which contains a meter which enables the operator to charge a passenger a rate per kilometre travelled.

Metro – Metropolitan municipalities defined by the Municipal Structures Act which include the entire jurisdictions of Cape Town, EkuRhuleni, eThekwini, Nelson Mandela Bay, Buffalo City, Mangaung, Johannesburg and Tshwane.

Minibus-taxi – A 10–16 seater vehicle which operates an unscheduled public transport service for a reward.

Mode of travel – Types or means of transport used for travel purposes. This includes non-motorised transport e.g. walking all the way or animal-drawn vehicles.

Overnight trip – A trip where one night is or more are spent away from the dwelling unit. The focus was on trips 20 km or more away from the usual place of residence.

Public transport – All transport services for which passengers made payment including trains, buses and taxis.

Travel day – One randomly selected day of the week for which the detailed travel patterns of household members were recorded.

Travel time – Time between departure from home and arrival at the destination.

Trip – A one way movement from an origin to a destination to fulfil a specific purpose or undertake an activity.

ABBREVIATIONS

DoT – Department of Transport

GPR – Gender parity ratios

NHTS – National Household Travel Survey

PSET – Post-School Education and Training

Stats SA – Statistics South Africa

CHAPTER 2: GENERAL PATTERNS IN TRANSPORT

Transport should not be perceived as a gender neutral phenomenon according to the World Bank[7]. Females and males have varying transport needs and travel patterns that transport policies should take into cognisance. These could help to ensure equitable access to eminent resources such as education, health care and the labour market. This section presents data taken from the National Household Travel Survey of 2013 on general travel patterns of South Africans. It also aims to showcase different modes of transport utilised by males and females.

DAY TRIPS

The analysis below looks at day trips which, according to the NHTS 2013, were defined as trips taken to the destination from the usual place of residence. These trips exclude trips taken to education facilities and work. NHTS 2013 data were used to detail different gender patterns in travel by population groups, geographic location and transport mode used for travel.

[7]Making transport work for women and men: Challenges and opportunities in the Middle East. Lessons from case studies (2011) World Bank Report, Middle East and North Africa region, Transport and Energy Unit.

Table 2.1: Day trips by sex and population, 2013

Main purpose of day trip	Male										Female									
	Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White		RSA		Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White		RSA	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Home for leisure/holiday	330 391	4,0	21 898	2,9	15880	5,0	96 700	7,4	464 869	4,4	306 858	3,3	28 102	3,4	14288	4,8	93 119	6,8	442 367	3,8
Leisure/holiday	176 377	2,1	91 060	12,1	31983	10,1	304 968	23,4	604 388	5,7	174 016	1,9	97 715	11,7	32996	11,1	288 722	20,9	593 448	5,1
Shopping –business	267 157	3,2	23 873	3,2	23164	7,3	103 159	7,9	417 353	3,9	211 266	2,3	26 224	3,1	8578	2,9	72 214	5,2	318 282	2,7
Shopping – personal	2 362 822	28,6	178 179	23,7	114640	36,0	341 856	26,2	2 997 498	28,2	3 096 723	33,6	245 429	29,5	121394	40,9	412 288	29,9	3 875 834	33
Sporting – spectator	107 800	1,3	8 319	1,1	6824	2,1	23 450	1,8	146 393	1,4	37 240	0,4	4 476	0,5	3368	1,1	23 870	1,7	68 954	0,6
Sporting –participant	128 354	1,6	4 977	0,7	5050	1,6	31 236	2,4	169 617	1,6	42 492	0,5	2 428	0,3	1103	0,4	15 964	1,2	61 987	0,5
Home to visit friends/family	1 255 831	15,2	51 772	6,9	22233	7,0	72 459	5,6	1 402 296	13,2	1 229 818	13,3	58 720	7,0	19810	6,7	77 694	5,6	1 386 041	11,8
Visit friends/family	1 861 739	22,5	250 033	33,3	514864	16,2	228 161	17,5	2 391 419	22,5	1 648 019	17,9	234 916	28,2	49524	16,7	270 023	19,6	2 202 482	18,8
Funeral	808 933	9,8	44 830	6,0	14669	4,6	12 909	1,0	881 342	8,3	1 066 518	11,6	52 143	6,3	18079	6,1	16 859	1,2	1 153 599	9,8
Medical	184 475	2,2	17 149	2,3	5413	1,7	29 333	2,2	236 369	2,2	358 296	3,9	19 801	2,4	8097	2,7	41 244	3,0	427 438	3,6
Wellness (e.g. spa, health farm)	12 022	0,1	3 458	0,5	910	0,3	5 273	0,4	21 663	0,2	23 416	0,3	1 663	0,2	1844	0,6	8 820	0,6	35 742	0,3
Religious	389 133	4,7	31 788	4,2	16963	5,3	19 342	1,5	457 227	4,3	627 387	6,8	39 755	4,8	12681	4,3	27 496	2	707 319	6,0
Wedding	132 698	1,6	9 373	1,2	4278	1,3	16 384	1,3	162 733	1,5	191 287	2,1	11 429	1,4	2521	0,8	15 075	1,1	220 312	1,9
Other	249 771	3,0	14 936	2,0	4518	1,4	19 065	1,5	288 291	2,7	214 824	2,3	10 414	1,2	2402	0,8	14 927	1,1	242 567	2,1
Total	8 267 502	100	751 645	100	318017	100	13 04295	100	10 641 458	100	9 228 160	100	833 215	100	296684	100	1 378 315	100	11 736 372	100

Source: NHTS 2013

Table 2.1 provides an illustration of the day travel patterns of both males and females. In 2013, most people undertook day trips to engage in shopping-related activities for personal reasons. This was true across all population groups, with higher percentages observed among Indian/Asian and black African population groups. In all population groups, more females travelled for this reason compared to their male counterparts. The second most popular reason provided for day travel for all persons was 'visiting family and friends'. High percentages were observed among coloured males (33,3%) and females (28,2%).

Data shown in Table 2.1 indicate little disparities between males and females about reasons for trips during the day, except for trips taken for medical reasons (that means trip taken because either the respondent needed medical attention or they brought someone else for medical attention). For all population groups, females were more likely than males to take trips for medical reasons. Sex differences were biggest in the black African population group with 1,7 percentage points, while the coloured population group recorded the least differences with only a 0,1 percentage point difference between males and females. This finding possibly reflects the fact that the burden of health care often falls in the hands of women. Women often make trips to medical facilities not only for their well-being but to also ensure the well-being of those in their immediate surroundings[8]. It is for this reason that proper infrastructure, which ensures easy access to medical and health facilities, is important.

Table 2.2: Day trips by sex and geotype with gender parity ratios, 2013

	Metro			Urban			Rural		
Main purpose of day trip	Male	Female	GPR	Male	Female	GPR	Male	Female	GPR
	Per cent			Per cent			Per cent		
Home for leisure/holiday	7,7	7,1	1,0	2,6	2,4	0,9	1,5	1,1	0,9
Leisure/holiday	10,0	9,4	1,0	3,7	3,4	0,9	1,7	1,5	1,1
Shopping – business	4,7	3,4	0,7	3,7	2,4	0,6	3,1	2,2	0,9
Shopping – personal	20,4	25,3	1,3	32,2	35,7	1,1	35,0	39,6	1,4
Sporting – spectator	1,8	0,7	0,4	1,1	0,5	0,5	1,1	0,5	0,5
Sporting – participant	1,3	0,6	0,5	1,7	0,5	0,2	1,9	0,5	0,3
Home to visit friends/family	14,4	13,6	1,0	13,4	12,1	0,9	11,3	9,7	1,1
Visit friends/family	24,0	21,2	0,9	22,0	19,7	0,9	20,8	15,3	0,9
Funeral	6,5	7,1	1,1	9,3	10,2	1,1	9,8	12,6	1,6
Medical	1,5	2,4	1,7	2,2	3,4	1,6	3,2	5,2	2,0
Wellness (e,g. spa, health farm)	0,8	0,2	0,2	**0,9**	0,2	0,4	2,20	0,2	0,3
Religious	4,3	6,0	1,5	3,6	5,4	1,6	5,0	6,5	1,6
Wedding	1,4	1	1,2	1,3	1,7	1,3	1,9	2,3	1,5
Other	1,8	1,3	0,7	3,1	2,3	0,7	3,5	2,8	1,0
Total	100	100		100	100		100	100	

Source: NHTS 2013

[8] Cheryl-Ann Potgieter, Renay Pillay, Sharmla Rama. 2008. Women, Development and Transport in Rural Eastern Cape, South Africa. HSRC Press.

Table 2.2 depicts gender parity ratios (GPR) for day trips undertaken for the three geographic areas in the country. Parity (equality) is reached at 1,0. Any score below 1,0 reflects inequalities in favour of males, while a score above 1,0 shows disparities in favour of females. The table shows great gender differences in day trips taken for medical purposes. The analysis above found similar patterns to those observed in Table 2.1. Gender parity ratios confirm that women were more likely than men to undertake day trips for medical purposes. The GPR calculated for medical day trips was above one across all three geographical areas. Again, this shows that more females than males undertook day trips for medical reasons. Gender ratios for rural areas were highest at 2,0. This was followed by urban and metropolitan areas which recorded 1,6 and 1,5 respectively. Notable gender differences were also observed for day trips taken for activities relating to sports. A higher percentage of males than females travelled during the day to participate in sports or as spectators. Females were significantly less likely to travel to participate in sports, with the largest differences observed in urban and rural areas (GPR=0,2 and 0,3 respectively).

Table 2.3: Day trips by sex and main mode of transport, 2013

	Black		Coloured		Indian		White		RSA	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Train	1,3	1,2	2,6	2,4	0,3	0,4	1,0	0,3	1,4	1,1
Bus	6,3	7,5	2,4	2,6	2,4	2,9	0,4	0,4	5,2	6,2
Taxi	53,2	59,9	23,3	27,3	11,3	13,0	0,8	1,0	43,4	49,5
Car driver	12,4	3,8	31,0	7,5	53,8	20,0	71,5	35,7	22,2	8,2
Car passenger	9,4	13,8	24,7	45,0	24,5	57,1	22,0	58,6	12,5	22,3
Walking all the way	1,1	0,8	1,5	1,5	3,8	4,0	3,5	2,4	1,5	1,1
Other	16,2	13,2	14,6	13,7	3,8	2,6	0,8	1,5	13,9	11,6

Source: NHTS 2013

Table 2.3 shows data for the main mode of transport used for day trips taken in the past seven days. In 2013, the most used mode of transport for day travel was as passenger in a taxi or car/bakkie. As the table shows, the usage of public transport, particularly taxis, remains skewed toward black African and coloured population groups with females reporting a higher usage than males. The difference between males and females who reported to have utilised taxis was 6,7 and 4 percentage points for black Africans and coloureds respectively, while it was less than two per cent for both Indians/Asians and whites. The table also shows that black Africans were least likely[9] to be either drivers or passengers in cars compared to other population groups. Black African and coloured women had the lowest likelihood of being drivers compared to their male counterparts i.e. 12,4% (males) and 3,8% (females) for black Africans and 31% (males) and 7,5% (females) for coloureds.

[9] Likelihood in this report refers to denote percentage difference (a certain group has a high chance). It is not used in multivariate terms.

OVERNIGHT TRIPS

This section ascertains gender differences in reasons for taking overnight trips. The NHTS defines an overnight trip as a trip where one or more nights are spent away from the dwelling unit. It collects information about both the trip to the destination and back to the usual place of residence.

Table 2.4: Overnight trips by sex, main purpose and population group, 2013

Main purpose for overnight trip	Male										Female									
	Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White		RSA		Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White		RSA	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Home for leisure/holiday	393 554	7,9	19 225	5,3	16 113	11,5	107 440	11,8	536 331	8,4	357 523	6,2	23 032	5,5	14 970	11,6	105 515	11,1	501 040	6,9
Leisure/holiday	200 869	4,0	84 360	23,4	39 548	28,2	409 559	45,1	734 336	11,5	228 911	3,9	97 134	23,4	42 262	32,7	418 477	44,1	786 785	10,8
Shopping – business	69 460	1,4	5 474	1,5	9 006	6,4	51 988	5,7	135 927	2,1	42 907	0,7	2 580	0,6	3 001	2,3	19 621	2,1	68 109	0,9
Shopping – personal	43 361	0,9	2 049	0,6	2 757	2	6 593	0,7	54760,3	0,9	52 320	0,9	4 070	1	1 671	1,3	7 702	0,8	65 763	0,9
Sporting – Spectator	10 668	0,2	298	0,1	910	0,6	2 508	0,3	14384,3	0,2	6 291	0,1	1 345	0,3	245	0,2	3 353	0,4	11 235	0,2
Sporting-participant	30 195	0,6	2 355	0,7	940	0,7	8 139	0,9	41629,4	0,7	11 216	0,2	1 528	0,4			6 803	0,7	19 547	0,3
Home to visit friends/family	1 736 047	34,9	51 119	14,1	31 637	22,6	96 538	10,6	1 915 340	30,0	1 821 007	31,3	65 245	15,7	27 649	21,4	99 272	10,5	2 013 173	27,6
Visit friends/family	1 285 723	25,8	136 954	37,9	29 276	20,9	172 838	19	1 624 791	25,4	1 510 729	26	152 017	36,6	27 590	21,3	238 686	25,1	1 929 023	26,4
Funeral	596 398	12	29 489	8,2	3 648	2,6	6 927	0,8	636 463	10,0	942 104	16,2	37 129	8,9	4 782	3,7	11 684	1,2	995 700	13,6
Medical	42 981	0,9	3 261	0,9			5 475	0,6	51717,1	0,8	89 269	1,5	5 799	1,4			7 434	0,8	102 502	1,4
Wellness (e.g. spa, health farm)	2 812	0,1					1 101	0,1	3912,65	0,1	6 430	0,1	181	0			1 101	0,1	7 711	0,1
Religious	323 974	6,5	9 189	2,5	1 400	1	4 199	0,5	338 762	5,3	504 570	8,7	12 064	2,9	4 863	3,8	3 714	0,4	525 212	7,2
Wedding	109 094	2,2	6 186	1,7	3 527	2,5	12 352	1,4	131 159	2,1	148 922	2,6	8 521	2,1	2 025	1,6	15 131	1,6	174 600	2,4
Other	132 713	2,7	11 305	3,1	1 481	1,1	22 371	2,5	167 870	2,6	88 899	1,5	4 803	1,2	371	0,3	10 905	1,1	104 978	1,4
Total	4 977 849	100	361 264	100	140 241	100	908 028	100	6 387 382	100	5 811 100	100	415 447	100	129 429	100	949 400	100	7 305 375	100

Source: NHTS 2013

Table 2.4 summarises the main purpose for overnight trips. The table shows that Indian/Asian and white population groups recorded higher percentages for trips taken for holidays/leisure. Among the Indian/Asian population group 32,7% of females and 28,2% of males reported this reason while among the white population groups male percentages were slightly higher (45,1%) than females (44,1%). For both these population groups there were slightly more females than males who reportedly took overnight trips to visit friends/family.

The pattern for overnight travel was slightly different for the coloured and black African population groups. For example, among the coloured population group, there were slightly more males (1,3 percentage points difference) who reported having taken overnight trips to visit friends/family, than females. Going on holiday also recorded equal percentages for both males and females with 23,4%.

Among the black African population group, going home, visiting family/friends and attending funerals were the top three reasons for taking overnight trips. The percentage of females who reported taking overnight trips to attend funerals was higher by 4,2 percentage points when compared to males.

Table 2.5: GPR of overnight trips by population group, 2013

	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	RSA
Home for leisure/holiday	0,9	1,2	0,9	1,0	0,9
Leisure/holiday	1,1	1,2	1,1	1,0	1,1
Shopping – business	0,6	0,5	0,3	0,4	0,5
Shopping – personal	1,2	2,0	0,6	1,2	1,2
Sporting – spectator	0,6	4,5	0,3	1,3	0,8
Sporting participant	0,4	0,6	0,0	0,8	0,5
Home to visit friends/family	1,0	1,3	0,9	1,0	1,1
Visit friends/family	1,2	1,1	0,9	1,4	1,2
Funeral	1,6	1,3	1,3	1,7	1,6
Medical	2,1	1,8	0,0	1,4	2,0
Wellness (e.g. spa, health farm)	2,3	0	0,0	1	2,0
Religious	1,6	1,3	3,5	0,9	1,6
Wedding	1,4	1,4	0,6	1,2	1,3
Other	0,7	0,4	0,3	0,5	0,6

Source: NHTS 2013

Table 2.5 is an illustration of gender parity ratios for overnight trips by population groups. Gender parity ratios (GPR) for overnight trips by sex and population group reflect slight differences in percentages of males and females (table 2.5). Ratios above 1 are favourable toward females for medical, wellness, religious and attending funerals. What this table also indicates is that females across population groups were more likely to take overnight trips for medical purposes than their male counterparts[10].

[10] The subsample of Indians/Asians is relatively small. This finding therefore does not mean that this population group did not take medical trips.

Table 2.6: Overnight trips by sex and geotype

	Metro			Urban			Rural			RSA	
Main purpose for overnight trip by geotype	Male	Female	GPR	Male	Female	GPR	Male	Female	GPR	Percent	GPR
Home for leisure/holiday	13,1	12,1	0,96	5,9	5,1	0,9	3,5	1,9	0,8	7,6	0,9
Leisure/holiday	18,2	18,4	1,05	8,7	8,2	1,0	3,6	3,7	1,4	11,1	1,1
Shopping – business	3,3	1,5	0,5	1,3	0,5	0,4	1,2	0,6	0,7	1,5	0,5
Shopping – personal	0,5	0,5	1,2	1,0	1,1	1,2	1,4	1,2	1,2	0,9	1,2
Sporting – spectator	0,3	0,2	0,6	0,2	0,1	1,0	0,2	0,1	1,0	0,2	0,8
Sporting – participant	0,6	0,4	0,7	0,6	0,3	0,5	0,8	0,1	0,2	0,4	0,5
Home to visit friends/family	30,8	29,9	1,0	32,2	28,8	1,0	26,1	23,6	1,3	28,7	1,1
Visit friends/family	19,6	20,9	1,1	29,1	29,8	1,1	30,8	30,2	1,4	26,0	1,2
Funeral	6,8	8,3	1,3	10,3	13,7	1,4	14,8	20,2	1,9	11,9	1,6
Medical	0,3	0,5	2,1	0,8	1,6	2,1	1,7	2,3	1,9	1,1	2,0
Wellness (e.g. spa, health farm)	0,0	0,1	2,3	0,1	0,2	3,7	0,1	0,1	1,0	0,1	2,0
Religious	3,2	4,5	1,5	5,1	6,7	1,4	9,0	10,9	1,7	6,3	1,6
Wedding	1,5	1,7	1,2	2,3	2,5	1,2	2,7	3,1	1,6	2,2	1,3
Other	2,0	1,1	0,6	2,4	1,3	0,6	4,0	1,9	0,7	2,0	0,6
Total	100	100		100	100		100	100		100	

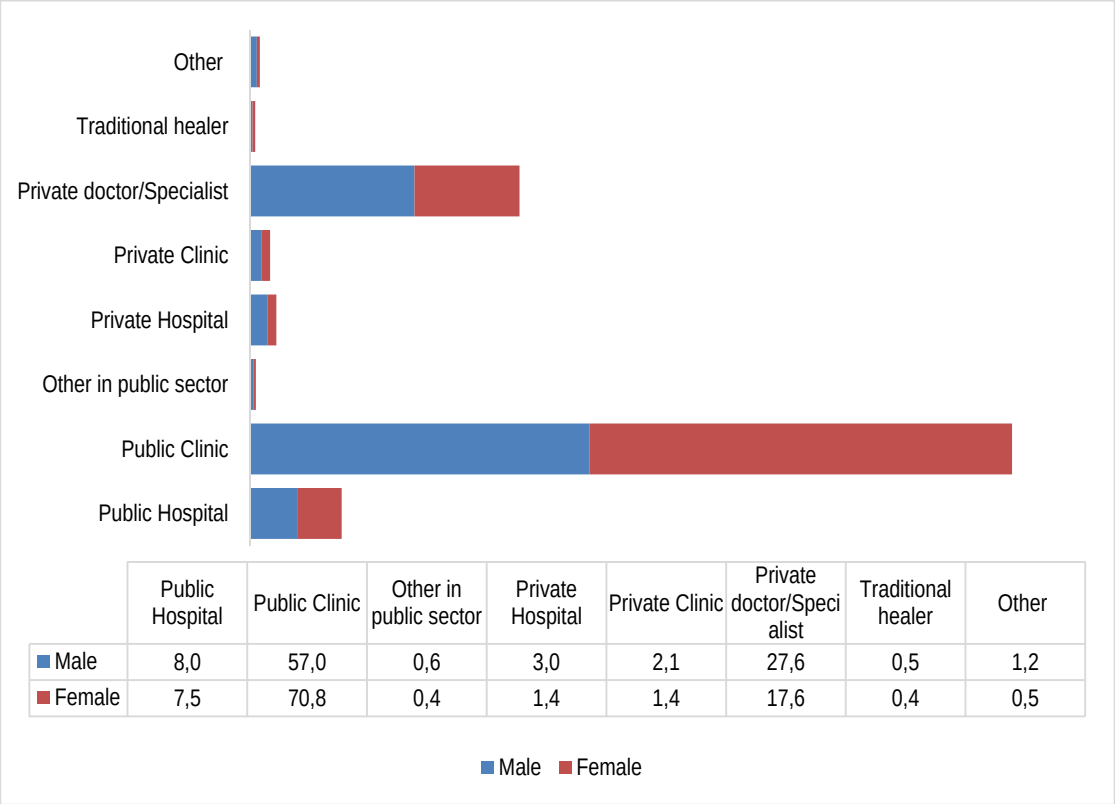
Source: NHTS 2013

When data for overnight trips were analysed according to geographical area it showed that across all geographical areas, taking overnight trips to visit friends/family, going home and travelling for leisure/holiday ranked higher than other reasons. People who reside in rural areas recorded the highest percentages for visiting friends while it was going home which had highest percentages for those in metropolitan areas. For rural areas there were no differences between sexes in as far as visiting friends/family is concerned, while in the metros, males (30,8%) were more likely than females (29,9%) to travel home.

People who reside in the metros were more likely than those from urban and rural areas to take overnight trips for leisure/holiday with virtually no difference between sexes.

When overnight trips for medical reasons were analysed, the results showed that females were more likely than males to take overnight trips, with a gender parity ratio of 2,1 for both metros and urban areas and 1,9 for rural areas.

Figure 2.1: Health care facility visited first during illness by sex of household head, 2015

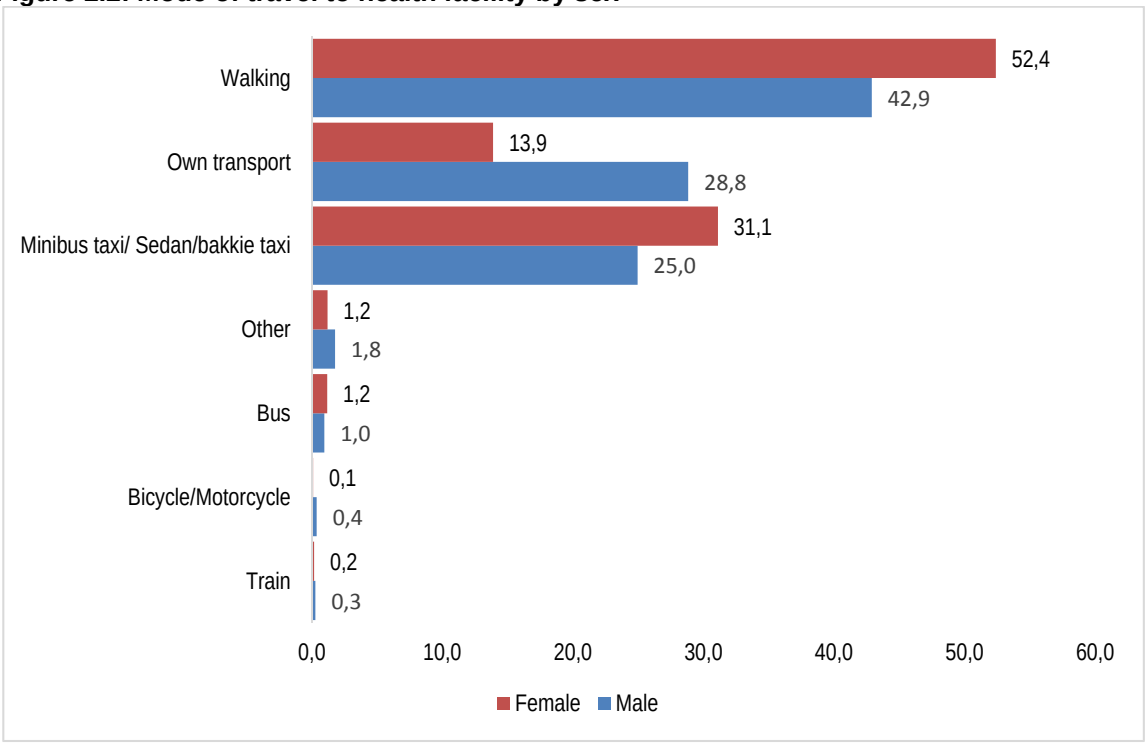


	Public Hospital	Public Clinic	Other in public sector	Private Hospital	Private Clinic	Private doctor/Specialist	Traditional healer	Other
Male	8,0	57,0	0,6	3,0	2,1	27,6	0,5	1,2
Female	7,5	70,8	0,4	1,4	1,4	17,6	0,4	0,5

Source: GHS, 2015

Figure 2.1 shows data for the type of health care facilities visited first when a member of the household is ill. The data were disaggregated by the sex of the household head. The figure illustrates that public clinics recorded highest percentages of health care facilities visited first, with female-headed households recording higher percentages (70,8%) than males (57%). Second highest percentages were observed for visits to a private doctor/specialist. Male-headed households had higher percentages than female-headed households with a difference of 10 percentage points. Other health care facilities recorded less than 10% with marginal differences between male- and female-headed households.

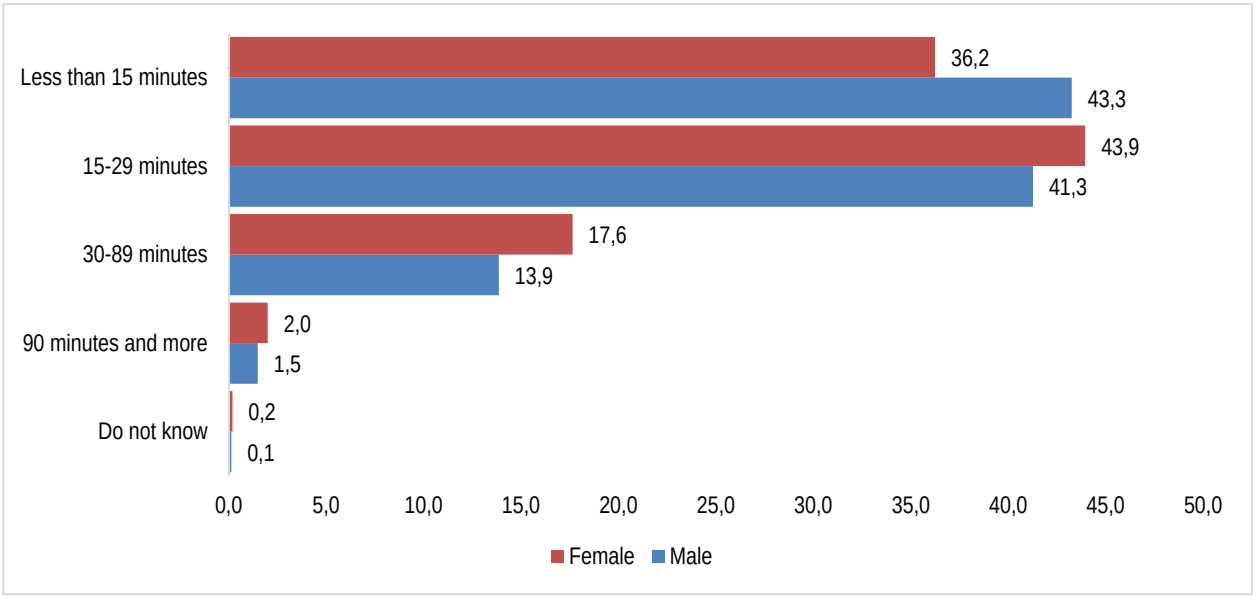
Figure 2.2: Mode of travel to health facility by sex



Source: GHS, 2015

Figure 2.2 is an illustration of mode of travel to a health care facility by sex of household head. Walking to a health care facility recorded the highest percentages for both male- and female-headed household with female-headed households recording a higher percentage (52,4%) than male-headed households (42,9%). Male-headed households reportedly used own transport more than female-headed households, with a 14,9 percentage point difference. Female-headed households recorded higher percentages for the usage of taxis, with 31,1% compared to 25% of males.

Figure 2.3: Time taken to health care facility by sex, 2015



Source: GHS, 2015

Figure 2.3 illustrates the amount of time taken to reach a health care facility by sex of the household head. As shown in the figure, it was male-headed households who recorded higher percentages for the shortest time travelled to a health care facility, with 43,3% compared to 36,2% of female-headed households.

There were more people from female-headed households than male-headed households who reportedly took between 15–29 minutes to reach a health care facility with a percentage point difference of 2,6. The same pattern was also observed for those who took between 30–89 minutes, with female-headed households recording 17,6% and males 13,9%. Households who reportedly travelled for 90 minutes and more recorded the smallest percentages.

Reasons for not travelling

Table 2.7: Reasons for not travelling by sex and population group, 2013

Reasons for not travelling	Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White		RSA	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Did not need to travel	41,0	43,3	51,2	49,1	39,9	47,0	43,6	50,1	41,8	44,1
Financial reasons (not enough money)	13,2	11,3	9,2	8,6	4,5	4,9	3,2	3,3	12,2	10,6
Not well enough to travel	3,8	3,6	4,7	4,2	3,3	4,6	4,1	4,0	3,9	3,7
Too expensive	2,1	1,7	1,5	2,8	1,6	1,0	0,6	0,7	1,9	1,7
Not enough time to travel	0,9	1,0	0,4	0,5	4,2	0,2	1,1	1,4	1,0	1,0
Usual transport not available	0,1	0,1	0,2	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,4	0,6	0,1	0,1
No available public transport	0,1	0,1	0,2	0,2	0,5	0,0	0,1	0,8	0,1	0,1
Disabled: unable to leave the house	1,8	1,1	3,0	2,9	1,4	1,5	1,8	1,4	1,8	1,3
Disabled: transport inaccessible	0,3	0,2	0,5	0,3	0,3	0,4	0,3	0,2	0,4	0,2
Too old/young to travel	25,1	22,0	19,0	16,5	29,5	29,0	16,0	18,6	24,4	21,6
Worried about safety/security	0,0	0,1	0,0	0,6	0,0	0,2	0,2	1,1	0,0	0,2
No interest/nothing appeals	1,2	1,0	1,1	1,4	0,7	1,2	4,9	3,5	1,4	1,2
Taking care of children/sick/elderly	0,5	5,1	0,7	4,7	0,0	5,2	0,9	4,9	0,6	5,0
No particular reason	9,0	8,7	6,6	7,3	8,0	4,0	22,1	9,3	9,4	8,5
Transport strike	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,0
Other	0,7	0,6	1,6	0,8	6,1	0,8	0,5	0,2	0,9	0,6
Grand total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: NHTS 2013

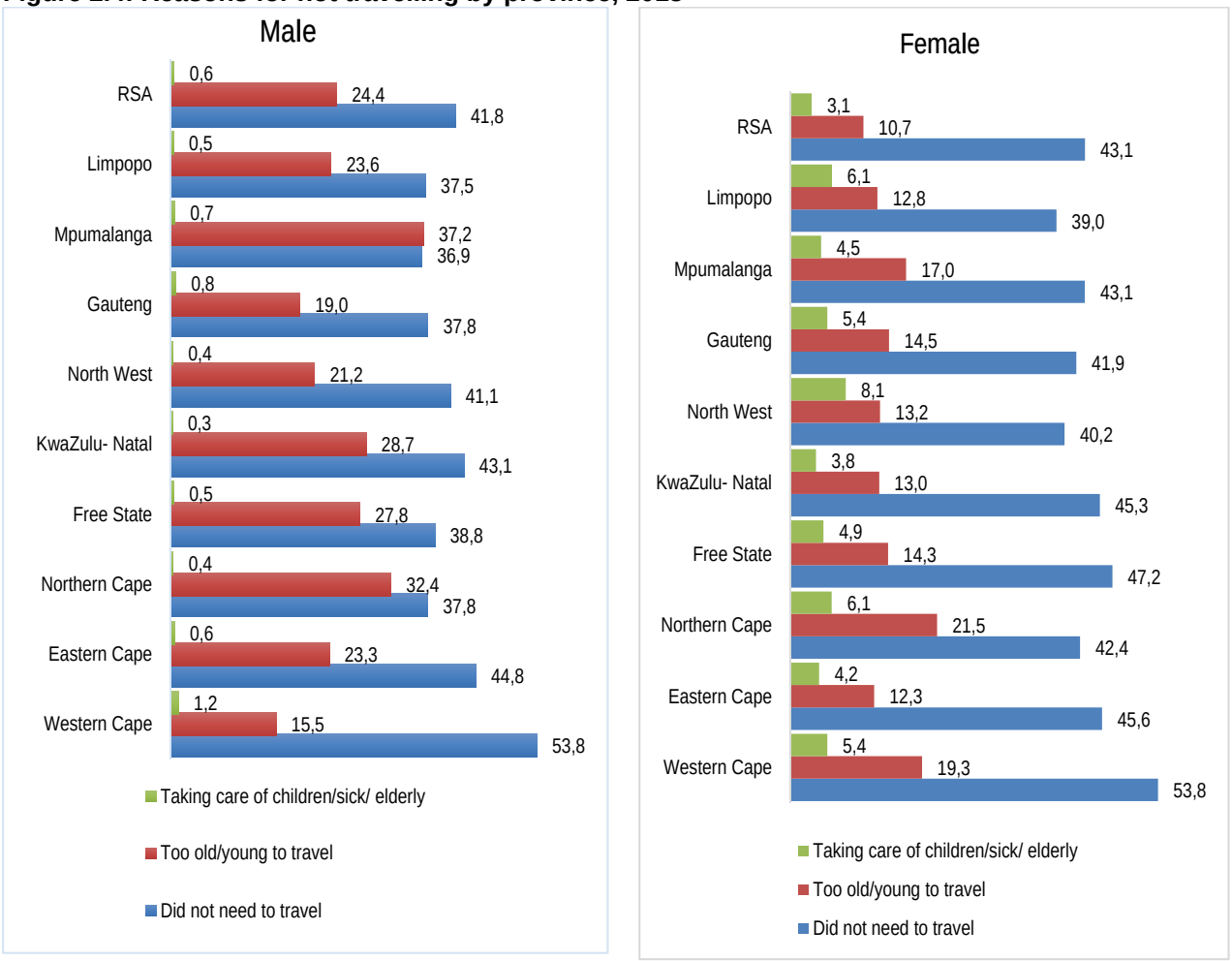
Table 2.7 summarises the reasons for not travelling in the past week. Across all population groups, a higher percentage of males and females reported that they did not need to travel. However the coloured population showed a different pattern from all population groups with males reporting this reason more than females. This was followed by individuals who felt they were too old or too young to travel. A high percentage of black African and coloured males stated this reason more than their female counterparts. In contrast, it was white females more so than white males who felt too old/young to travel.

Furthermore, the table shows that it was mainly females who were less likely to travel because they had to care for children, the sick and the elderly. Amongst the Indian/Asian population, 5,2% of women could not travel due to “caring duties”, while none of their male counterparts reported “caring” as the reason they could not travel. Among the black African population, 5,1% of females compared to only 0,5% of males indicated that caring duties prevented them from travelling. A similar pattern was observed among the coloured population group having similar proportions of 4,7% for females and 0,7% for males, and the white population with 4,9% for females and 0,9% for males. This points to an important issue often highlighted in gender and development literature that caring work is often the responsibility of females. Furthermore such work is usually unpaid, thus preventing women from attending to other aspects of their lives.

Not having enough money was recorded as the third highest reason for not travelling, with black African and coloured males recording higher percentages than their female counterparts.

While being worried about safety and security was cited by a very small amount of respondents, it is worth noting that slightly more females than males indicated this as the reason for not travelling. As shown in Table 2.7, it was the white and coloured population groups that recorded the highest sex differences. It was one per cent of both white and coloured females compared to none of their male counterparts who indicated that they could not travel due to worries about safety.

Figure 2.4: Reasons for not travelling by province, 2013



Source: NHTS 2013

Figure 2.4 shows a snapshot of only three reasons for not travelling by sex and province. The data show that the majority of males and females reported that they did not need to travel. There were more males who reported age (being either too young or too old) than there were females. The highest percentages for males were observed in Mpumalanga and Northern Cape (37,2% and 32,4% respectively) and for females in Northern Cape (21,5%) and the Western Cape (19,3%). The percentages for those who reported not travelling because they had to take care of children/sick/elderly were higher among females and were most likely to be found in the North West (8,1%), the Northern Cape (6,1%) and Limpopo (6,1%). These three provinces also recorded noticeable percentage gaps between females and males. KwaZulu-Natal and the Eastern Cape had the lowest gender gaps with 3,5 and 3,6 percentage points respectively.

Driver's licences

The analysis below examines the possession of a driver's licence for males and females by comparing the years 2003 and 2013.

Table 2.8a: Persons aged 18 years and older who are in possession of a driver's license by population group and sex, 2003 and 2013

Population Group	2003			2013		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
	Thousand					
Black/African	2051	487	2538	3246	1322	4568
Coloured	426	189	615	585	272	857
Indian/Asian	300	181	481	360	228	588
White	1480	1371	2851	1561	1554	3115
Total	4257	2228	6485	5752	3376	9128
	Percentage					
Black African	21%	4%	12%	25%	10%	17%
Coloured	34%	14%	23%	39%	16%	27%
Indian/Asian	77%	44%	60%	72%	47%	60%
White	84%	74%	79%	90%	84%	87%
Total	32%	15%	23%	35%	19%	27%

Source: NHTS 2003 and NHTS 2013

Table 2.8b: The percentage difference of Persons aged 18 years and older who are in possession of a driver's license by population group and sex, between the year 2003 and 2013

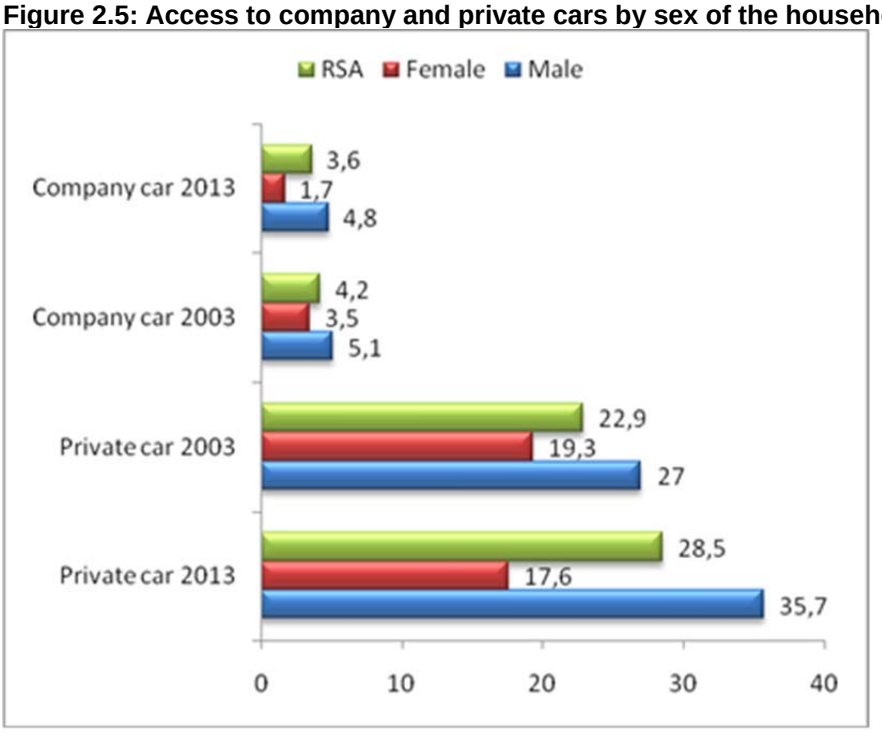
Population Group	Male	Female	Total
Black African	22%	122%	43%
Coloured	14%	20%	16%
Indian/Asian	-6%	6%	-1%
White	7%	13%	10%
Total	9%	27%	16%

Source: NHTS 2003 and NHTS 2013

Table 2.8a shows that in 2003 and 2013, the white population was most likely to be in possession of a driver's license than any other population group with a 79% and 84% respectively, while the black African population group was least likely to be in possession of driver's license with 12% and 17% in both 2003 and 2013 respectively. There was an increase in the number of driver's licenses for all population groups except for Indian/Asians that saw a decline of negative one per cent from 2003 to 2013 as shown in Table 2.8b. Generally the results show that males dominated irrespective of population group and year.

Between 2003 and 2013, in table 2.8b, the percentage of females in possession of a driver's license increased by 27%. While black African females were least likely to possess a driver's license in both 2003 and 2013, they experienced the largest increase (122%) in the proportion of people with driver's license during the period.

Figure 2.5: Access to company and private cars by sex of the household head, 2003 and 2013



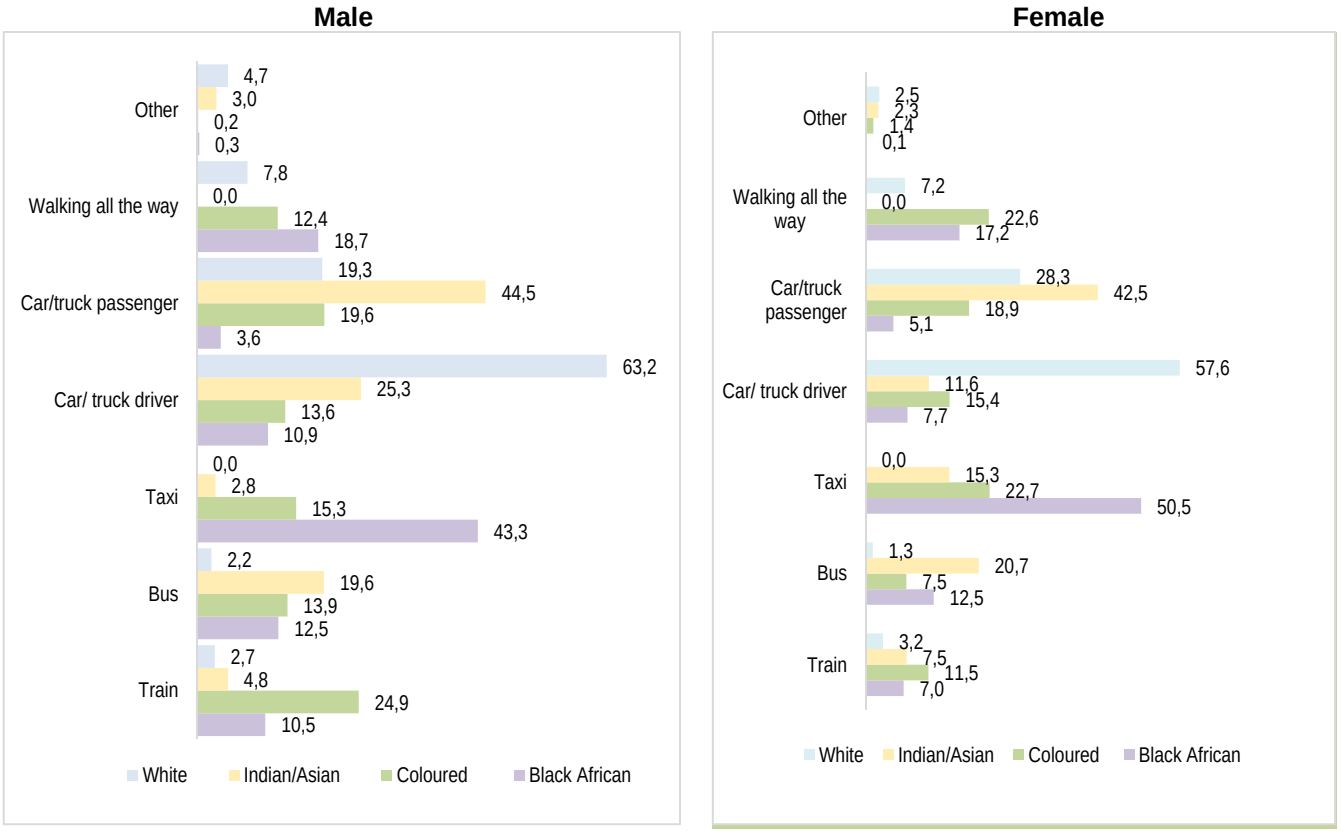
Source: NHTS 2003 and NHTS 2013

According to Figure 2.5, male-headed households were significantly more likely than female-headed households to own/have access to both private and company cars. Even though the percentage of South African households with access to a private car increased significantly between 2003 and 2013 from 22,9% to 28,5%, female-headed households experienced a decline in car ownership of both or company and privately accessed cars. In 2013, 35,7% of male-headed households had access to a private car and 17,6% of female-headed households.

CHAPTER 3: MODE OF TRANSPORT TO EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

Numerous studies in the area of gender, development and transport have shown that access to education is often hindered by a lack of viable transport systems[11]. Proper roads and access to public transport may contribute to enrolment rates in education institutions and possibly education attainment. Educational attainment affects access to the labour market[12]. Poor access to these amenities has multi-fold implications for females. Lack of proper transportation systems to education facilities is a security risk for females as it predisposes them to sexual assault and other forms of abuse. It also means their chances of acquiring financial independence are limited and that serves to maintain their dependency on men, which on its own may have serious implications[13]. This chapter accordingly examines gender variations in modes of transport used to travel to education institutions.

Figure 3.1: Main mode[14] of transport to a PSET facility by sex and population group, 2013



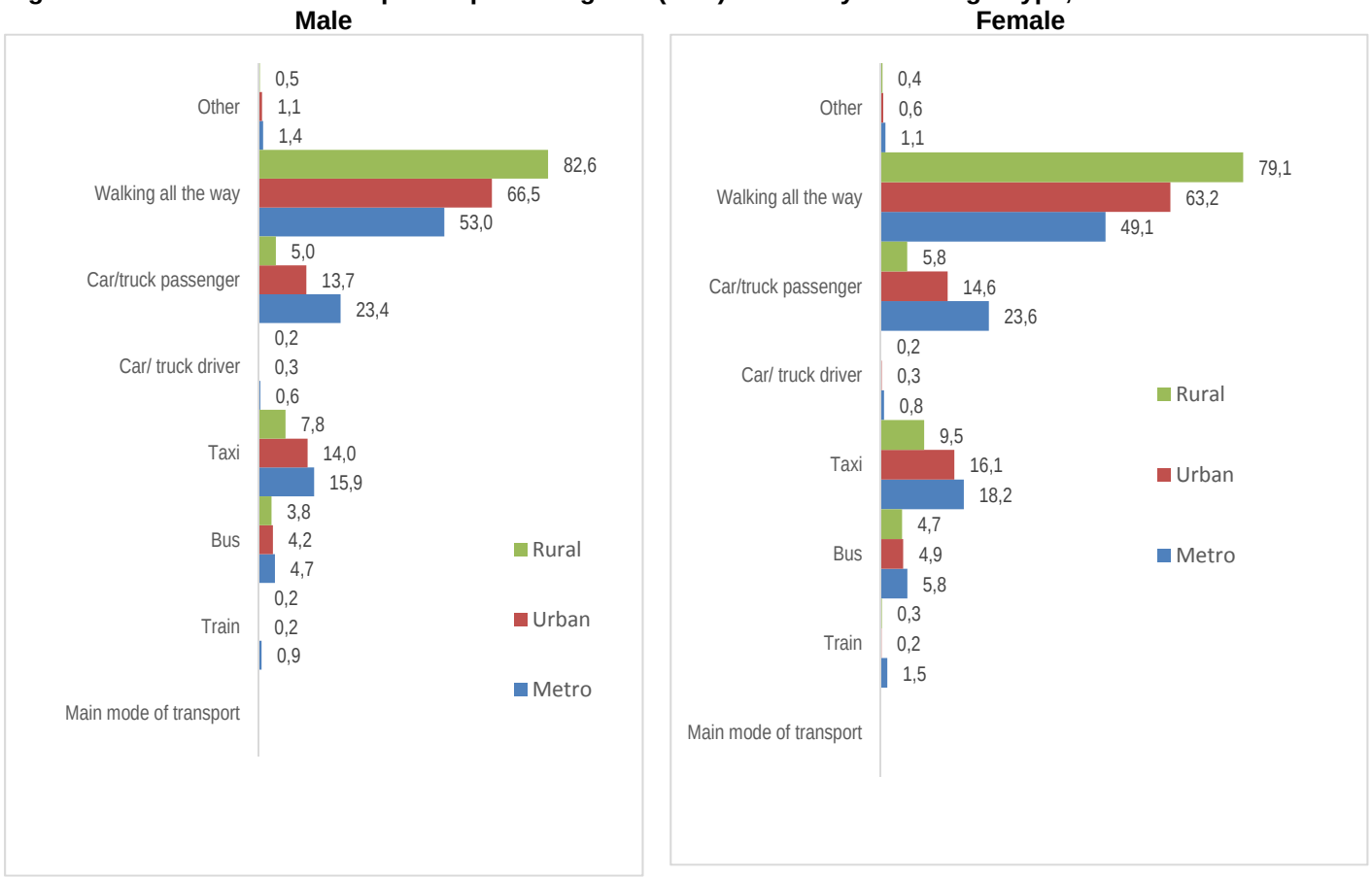
Source: NHTS 2013

[11] Asian Development Bank (2013). Gender tool kit: Transport—Maximizing the benefits of improved mobility for all. Mandaluyong City, Philippines.
[12] Ionescu, A.M. & Cuza, A.I. 2012. How does education affect labour market outcomes? Review of Applied Socio-Economic Research 4(2), pp. 130
[13] USAID (2015) Gender and extreme poverty Getting to Zero: A USAID discussion series
[14] Main mode of transport is derived by organising different modes of travel into a hierarchy (train, bus, taxi, car driver, car passenger, walking all the way and other) and selecting the highest ranking mode on the list as the main mode of travel.

Figure 3.1 shows data for mode of transport used to Post-School Education and Training institutions (PSET). Institutions of higher learning are often situated in areas that are removed from many communities, especially those with low income. This makes demands for viable modes of transport even more valid. As the table above shows, whites and Indians/Asians were most likely to drive to institutions of higher learning. With the exception of coloureds, males in all population groups were more likely to drive to a PSET institution than their female counterparts. The percentage gap was biggest among the Indian/Asian population group with 13,7 percentage points. Among the coloured population group, 15,4% of females were likely to drive as opposed to 13,6% of the males. Percentages of people who were driven to institutions of higher learning were favourable toward the white and Indian/Asian population groups. It is important to note that females recorded higher percentages than males for black African and white population groups. With the exception of whites, females in all population groups used taxis to institutions of higher learning more than their female counterparts.

The coloured and black/African population groups were most likely to walk to a higher learning institution. Among the coloured population group it was females who had a higher likelihood than their male counterparts with 22,6% and 12,4% respectively, while it was more males than females among black Africans with 18,7% and 17,2% respectively. The Indian/Asian and white population groups were least likely to walk.

Figure 3.2: Main mode of transport to pre- and grade (1-12) school by sex and geotype, 2013



Source: NHTS 2013

Transport to basic education, including early childhood education, is critical especially given the matric results that consistently show poor performance by schools situated in rural areas. The table illustrates that walking all the way was the most likely mode of getting to school across different geographical areas, with males having a higher likelihood than females. Rural areas had the highest likelihood than other geographical locations. As Figure 3.2 shows, percentages of people who used taxis to get to school were higher among females than males in all geographical locations, with metros recording the highest proportions.

Table 3.1: GPR of the main mode of transport to pre- and normal school by geotype, 2013

	Metro	Urban	Rural	RSA
Main mode of transport				
Train	1,6	0,9	1,7	1,5
Bus	1,2	1,2	1,2	1,2
Taxi	1,2	1,1	1,2	1,1
Car/truck driver	1,4	0,9	0,6	1,1
Car/truck passenger	1,0	1,0	1,1	1,0
Walking all the way	0,9	0,9	0,9	0,9
Other	0,8	0,5	0,9	0,7

Source: NHTS 2013

Table 3.1 shows gender parity ratios for mode of transport used to pre- and normal school by geographical area. In the metros, almost all transport modes were favourable to females. It was only ratios for passenger that showed parity. The ratios for people who indicated that they walked all the way leaned toward males.

The pattern was similar in urban settings with ratios leaning toward females for all modes, except trains and walking all the way. Gender parity for rural areas were more than one for all modes of transport, except driving and walking all the way. With a GPR of 0,6 observed for driving in rural areas, gender differences for this particular mode of transport were the highest when modes of transport to pre/normal school were analysed by geographical area.

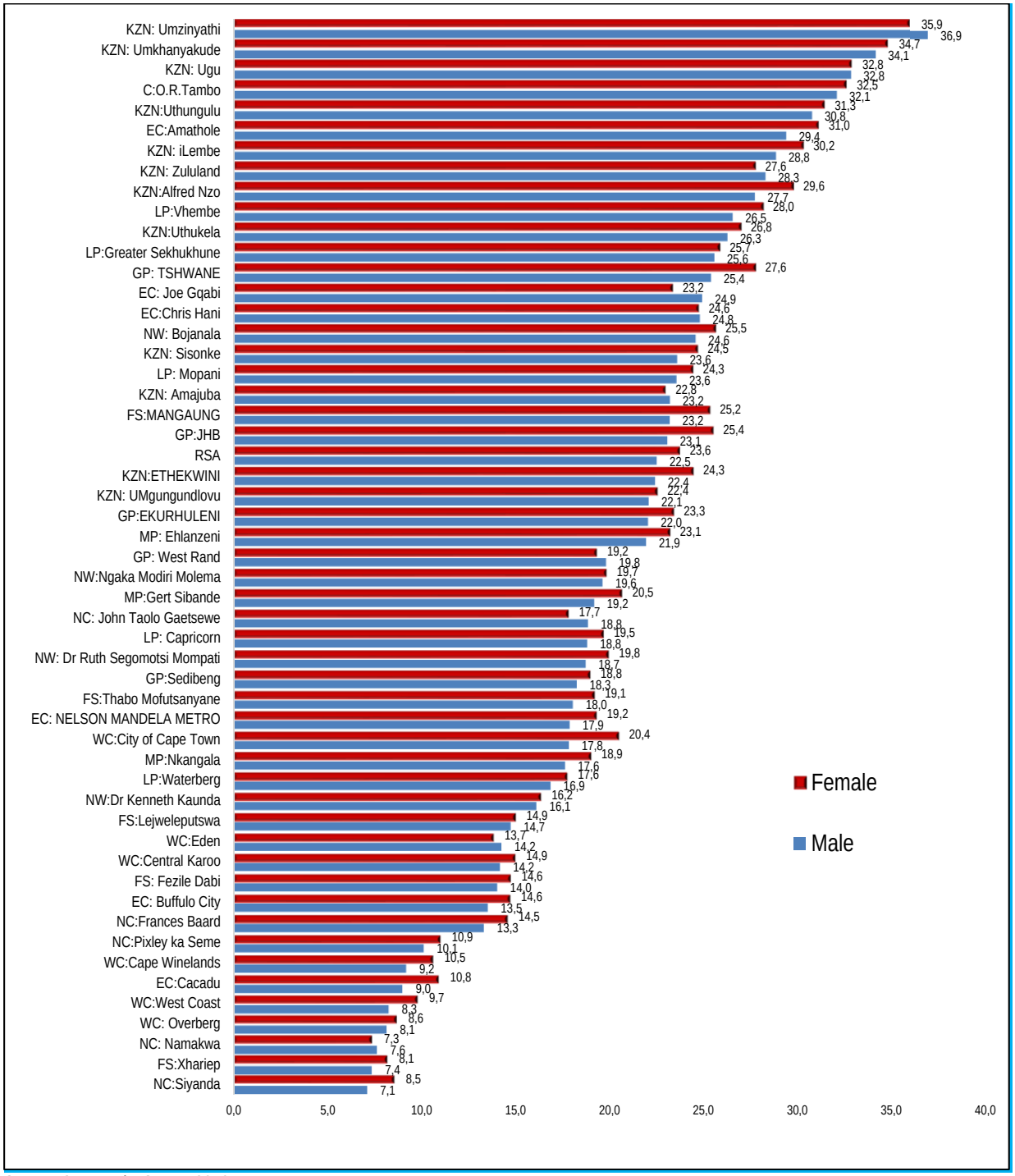
Table 3.2: Reasons for walking to educational institution by sex and geotype, 2013

	Metro		Urban		Rural		RSA
Reasons for walking	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	
Choice	7,4	5,6	10,2	9,0	3,7	3,6	6,1
P/trans too expensive	8,1	6,7	11,7	10,5	9,7	9,3	9,4
No available transport	1,7	1,4	2,6	3,0	7,2	7,2	4,5
Not enough public transport	0,3	0,5	0,7	0,7	1,5	1,7	1,0
Nearby	80,0	83,5	72,4	74,9	76,5	76,5	77,0
Health reasons	0,7	0,5	0,5	0,4	0,4	0,3	0,4
To avoid traffic congestion	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,1
No parking at destination	0,2	0,3	0,2	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,1
Fuel costs	0,6	0,4	0,6	0,5	0,2	0,5	0,5
Other	1,0	1,0	1,0	0,7	0,7	0,7	0,8
Grand total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: NHTS 2013

Table 3.2 illustrates reasons for walking to an educational institution by sex and geotype. While living nearby was cited as the main reason for walking to an education institution, other reasons such as transport affordability and accessibility need to be given attention, especially for people residing outside the metros. As Table 3.2 shows, slightly more males than females in all geographical locations reported that they walked to an education facility because public transport was too expensive. In urban areas it was 11% of males compared to 10,5% of females, while in rural areas, 9,7% of males compared to 9,3% of females reported high cost as the main reason. The metropolitan areas recorded lowest percentages compared to other areas with 8,1% for males and 6,7% for females.

Figure 3.3: Municipalities with learners aged 5–20 years, who walk for 30 minutes or more to get to their education institution



Source: Community Survey 2016

Figure 3.3 shows data for males and females who took more than 30 minutes to reach an education institution. As the figure indicates, seven out of ten districts with the highest percentages were in KwaZulu-Natal. The other three were O.R. Tambo, Amathole (both in the Eastern Cape) and Vhembe in Limpopo. The difference between sexes was marginal with the highest percentage point difference recorded in Vhembe (1,5 points in favour of females) and iLembe in favour of males with 1,4 percentage point difference. Siyanda district (Northern Cape), Xhariep (Free State) and the

Namakwa (Northern Cape) had the lowest number of people who took more than 30 minutes to the institution of learning, with females recording higher percentages in both Siyanda (8,5%) and Xhariep (8,1%) compared to males who recorded 7,1% and 7,4% respectively. Among the metros, it was the City of Tshwane which recorded highest percentages of males and females who took more than 30 minutes to get to an education institution with females recording higher percentages (27,6%) than males (25,4%). Females had higher percentages in all metros, with the percentage point difference of more than two between males and females in Johannesburg City (2,3) and the City of Cape Town (2,6).

Table 3.3: Top 25 municipalities with the highest numbers of male and female learners, aged 5–20 years, who walk for 30 minutes or more to get to their education institution

	Municipality	Number Males	Number Females	Total	% of Males	% of Females	GPR
1	Umzumbe	9 850	9 397	19 247	43,3	42,9	0,991782
2	Mnquma	10 423	9 781	20 203	28,4	29,4	1,034191
3	Nongoma	10 798	9 535	20 333	32,3	31,2	0,964607
4	Jozini	10 356	10 041	20 397	35,1	35,6	1,014281
5	Umhlabuyalingana	11 236	10 051	21 287	44,0	44,2	1,004147
6	Nkomazi	11 268	11 713	22 981	19,8	21,0	1,061186
7	Nyandeni	12 321	11 237	23 559	27,3	25,6	0,940361
8	Greater Tzaneen	12 362	11 950	24 313	25,6	26,3	1,029816
9	uMlalazi	12 869	11 991	24 860	43,3	43,5	1,003979
10	Mbombela	13 551	12 563	26 114	21,5	21,0	0,973445
11	Greater Tubatse	14 226	12 580	26 806	29,4	28,8	0,980258
12	Mangaung	12 883	14 204	27 087	19,0	21,5	1,128032
13	Mbhashe	15 170	14 416	29 586	35,6	36,5	1,025942
14	Msinga	15 791	14 558	30 349	49,0	47,0	0,958729
15	Mbizana	15 055	15 440	30 496	28,4	30,5	1,072629
16	Makhado	16 845	15 724	32 568	22,6	22,8	1,008295
17	Ngquza Hill	17 730	17 319	35 049	35,4	35,9	1,013869
18	King Sabata Dalindyebo	20 181	18 105	38 286	34,3	32,7	0,951736
19	Bushbuckridge	19 851	19 494	39 345	24,3	25,3	1,038591
20	Thulamela	21 366	20 195	41 560	24,7	24,6	0,998917
21	City of Cape Town	19 814	22 106	41 919	7,9	9,1	1,146138
22	EkuRhuleni	27 621	27 545	55 166	14,4	15,0	1,042445
23	City of Tshwane	28 623	28 634	57 257	15,8	16,4	1,037183
24	City of Johannesburg	32 726	33 201	65 927	11,2	11,9	1,062773
25	eThekwini	34 719	33 322	68 042	13,8	13,9	1,008273

Source: Community Survey 2016

According to Table 3.3 the largest absolute numbers of male and female learners aged 5–20 years who walk to their places of learning are found in uMlalazi and Mbombela local municipalities. They are closely followed by the metropolitan areas in Gauteng, Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal. The data also show that in areas where large numbers of learners walk for 30 minutes or more, there is

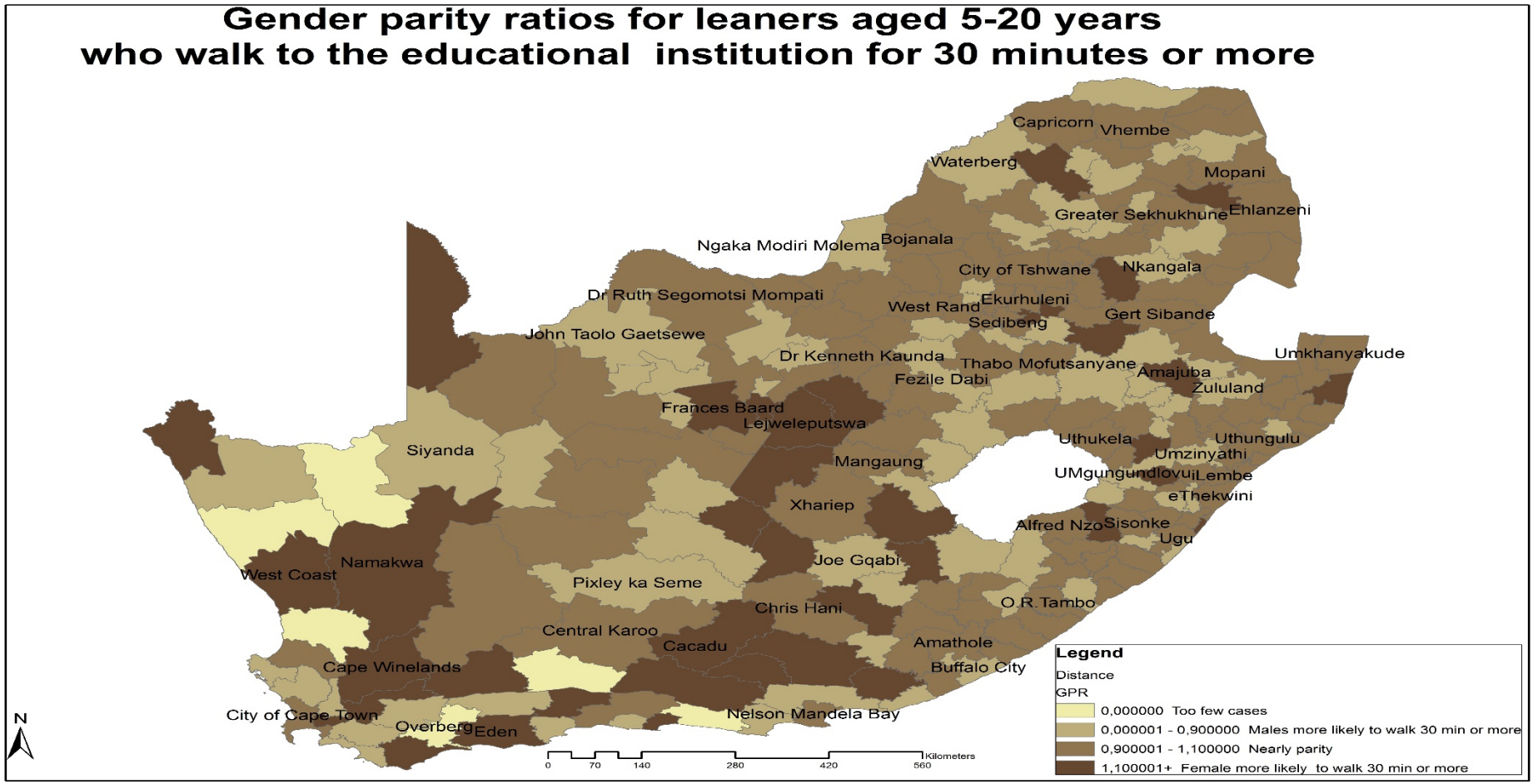
gender parity or GPRs close to parity. However, when the same analysis is used but grouped according to the highest GPR ratios (see Table 3.4), a different picture emerges. According to the table – in instances where GPRs are higher than 1 – i.e. where females are more likely than males to walk, the proportions of learners of both sexes who walk are lower than when absolute numbers are considered. Municipalities where females are more likely to walk than males are more likely to be in Western Cape, Northern Cape, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal.

Table 3.4: Municipalities with a GPR of 1,3 or higher for male and female learners who walk for 30 minutes or more to get to their education institution

Province	Municipality	Number males	Number females	Total	% of Males	% of Females	GPR
KZN	The Big 5 False Bay	1 665	1 779	3 444	32,8	37,8	1,2
LP	Maruleng	2 602	2 979	5 581	19,6	22,6	1,2
WC	Stellenbosch	1 041	1 140	2 181	6,8	7,9	1,2
FS	Tokologo	224	241	464	7,3	8,5	1,2
GP	Lesedi	503	517	1 020	7,1	8,4	1,2
KZN	Umtshezi	1 298	1 465	2 763	14,9	17,6	1,2
LP	Mogalakwena	6 260	7 088	13 348	14,0	16,6	1,2
WC	Witzenberg	309	332	641	3,2	3,8	1,2
FS	Letsemeng	107	120	227	2,8	3,3	1,2
EC	Makana	952	1 091	2 043	14,0	17,2	1,2
WC	Oudtshoorn	1 121	1 475	2 596	14,3	18,4	1,3
KZN	Umdoni	1 055	1 216	2 271	17,8	22,9	1,3
KZN	Emadlangeni	1 542	1 824	3 366	32,6	42,1	1,3
FS	Mohokare	431	515	946	9,9	12,8	1,3
WC	Breede Valley	725	1 006	1 731	6,5	8,5	1,3
MP	Lekwa	826	1 057	1 884	9,3	12,2	1,3
NC	Richtersveld	44	60	104	6,4	8,4	1,3
KZN	Greater Kokstad	723	1 015	1 738	9,0	12,2	1,4
EC	Maletswai	621	913	1 534	9,7	13,3	1,4
FS	Tswelopele	196	274	470	3,5	4,9	1,4
EC	Baviaans	659	1 064	1 722	30,4	43,1	1,4
FS	Naledi	559	699	1 258	9,5	13,6	1,4
NC	Renosterberg	11	16	27	0,9	1,3	1,5
WC	Hessequa	142	208	350	3,8	5,6	1,5
NC	Hantam	30	45	74	1,6	2,4	1,5
KZN	uMngeni	252	373	625	3,6	5,5	1,5
MP	Steve Tshwete	1 080	1 671	2 750	6,8	11,2	1,6
EC	Camdeboo	144	306	449	2,8	4,9	1,8
NC	Umsobomvu	83	155	238	2,6	5,0	1,9
WC	Cape Agulhas	40	81	121	1,7	3,4	2,0
NC	Magareng	134	215	349	4,7	9,9	2,1
WC	Bitou	84	181	265	2,0	4,2	2,1
NC	Dikgatlong	180	320	501	3,3	7,3	2,2
NC	Mier	14	22	35	1,7	4,0	2,4
WC	Laingsburg	13	22	34	1,6	4,2	2,6
EC	Tsolwana	72	197	269	1,5	4,1	2,8
EC	Blue Crane Route	19	94	113	0,7	3,8	5,2
EC	Ikwezi	19	117	136	1,6	9,7	6,0

Source: Community Survey 2016

Map 3.1: GPR per municipality for male and female learners who walk for 30 minutes or more to get to their education institution



Source: NTHS, 2013

Map 3.1 illustrates gender parity ratios for learners aged 5–20 years who walked to an education institution for 30 minutes or more. In the majority of districts there was no difference between males and females who walked for more than 30 minutes to an education institution.

The map also shows that it was mainly municipalities in the Western Cape (such as the City of Cape Town, Eden, Cape Winelands, West Coast and Namakwa) that had more females than males who reported having walked more than 30 minutes to an education institution. Cacadu in the Eastern Cape, Francis Baard (Northern Cape) and Lejweleputswa (Free State) also had a gender parity of more than 1,1, an indication that females reported walking more than 30 minutes compared to males. Among municipalities that had gender parity ratios of less than one (favourable to males) were Pixley ka Seme (Free State), Joe Gqabi (Eastern Cape), Nelson Mandela Bay, Buffalo City, O.R. Tambo (Eastern Cape), Waterberg, Greater Sekhukhune and Nkangala.

CHAPTER 4: WORK AND BUSINESS-RELATED GENDER TRAVEL PATTERNS

Access to transport has been shown to increase participation in the labour market. An analysis of work-related transport patterns aids government to respond better to males' and females' varying transport needs (Potgieter, 2006)[15]. Establishing gender patterns in transport helps to adequately deal with issues that may impede access to employment, particularly for females, thus contributing to the critical task of alleviating poverty. This chapter accordingly analyses travel patterns for work and business.

The following analyses were undertaken using the 2013 National Household Travel Survey data. The population that was studied consisted of people between and including the ages of 15 and 64, who are considered to be of working age.

Travel for work

In 2013, the South African population consisted of 52 714 819 million people, 34 557 895 of which were aged 15–64 years (i.e. working-age population). The number of males of working age was 16 961 779 (49,1%), while 17 596 116 (50,9%) females were of working age. Table 4.1 disaggregates the working-age population by employment status, population group and sex.

Table 4.1: Working-age population by population group and sex, 2013

Males

Population group	Not employed		Employed		Total	
	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number
Black African	54,6	7 297 138	45,4	6 062 769	100,0	13 359 907
Coloured	42,8	664 346	57,2	888 532	100,0	1 552 878
Indian/Asian	31,7	152 963	68,3	329 414	100,0	482 376
White	23,3	365 517	76,7	1 201 101	100,0	1 566 618
Total	50,0	8 479 963	50,0	8 481 816	100,0	16 961 779

Females

Population group	Not employed		Employed		Total	
	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number
Black African	67,4	9 359 279	32,6	4 517 854	100,0	13 877 134
Coloured	55,2	922 483	44,8	748 260	100,0	1 670 743
Indian/Asian	54,9	254 888	45,1	209 312	100,0	464 200
White	41,1	651 437	58,9	932 603	100,0	1 584 040
Total	63,6	11 188 087	36,4	6 408 030	100,0	17 596 116
Both sexes	56,9	19 668 050	43,1	14 889 846	100,0	34 557 895

Source: NHTS, 2013

In 2013, 14,9 million (43,1%) persons were employed. Among males, an equal proportion was employed and not employed, while a higher percentage among their female counterparts was not

[15] Australian Aid: Gender equality indicators & Household travel survey: Sydney
Potgieter, C. 2006. Gender, development and Transport in Rural SA, Human Sciences Research Council

employed. When employment status was disaggregated further by population group, figures show that a lower percentage among coloured and black African females was employed when compared to percentages observed for Indian/Asian and white females.

Main mode of travel to place of employment

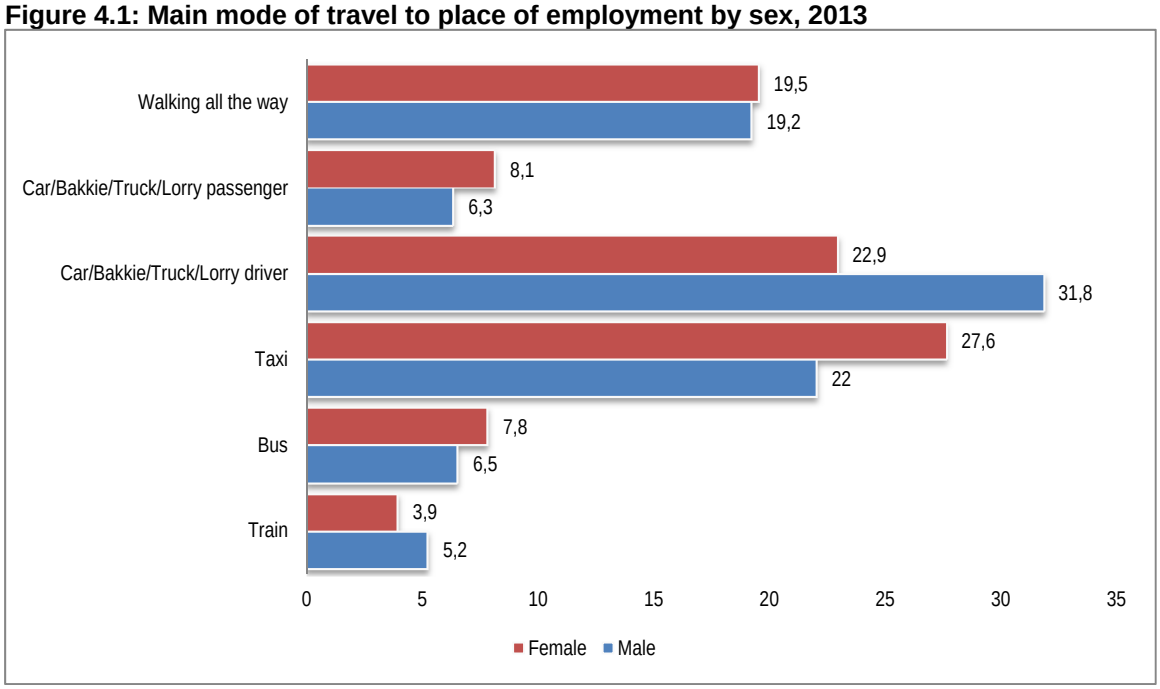
The analysis in Table 4.2 and Figure 4.1 focuses on different main modes of travel used by males and females to their places of work.

Table 4.2: Main mode of travel to place of employment by sex, 2013

	Male		Female		Total		GPI
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	
Train	441 722	5,2	251 018	3,9	692 740	4,7	0,6
Bus	548 005	6,5	501 086	7,8	1 049 091	7,0	0,9
Taxi	1 863 942	22,0	1 767 140	27,6	3 631 083	24,4	0,9
Car/bakkie/truck/lorry driver	2 694 974	31,8	1 468 423	22,9	4 163 397	28,0	0,5
Car/bakkie/truck/lorry passenger	530 333	6,3	517 859	8,1	1 048 192	7,0	1,0
Walking all the way	1 630 052	19,2	1 251 585	19,5	2 881 637	19,4	0,8
Not applicable	317 623	3,7	324 465	5,1	642 087	4,3	1,0
Other	151 507	1,8	23 706	0,4	175 213	1,2	
Unspecified	303 657	3,6	302 748	4,7	606 405	4,1	
Total	8 481 816	100	6 408 030	100	14 889 846	100	

Source: NHTS, 2013

Figure 4.1: Main mode of travel to place of employment by sex, 2013



* Figures exclude other, unspecified and not applicable.
Source: NHTS, 2013

Table 4.2 and Figure 4.1 both depict the main mode of travel to place of employment by sex for 2013. They both show that in 2013, most workers drove cars, bakkies, trucks or lorries (28,0%) or used taxis (24,4%) to get to their place of employment. However, a higher percentage of males (31,8%) travelled to work driving a vehicle than females. Most females (27,6%) utilised taxis to get to places of work. Females were generally more likely than males to use all the kinds of public transport, with the exception of trains. Large, but similar percentages of males (19,2%) and females (19,5%) walked all the way to work. With gender parity ratios (GPR) of 0,5 and 0,6, the largest gender gaps were observed amongst males and females driving themselves to work and those who used trains. The highest percentages observed were among males. Males were more likely than females to drive and make use of trains.

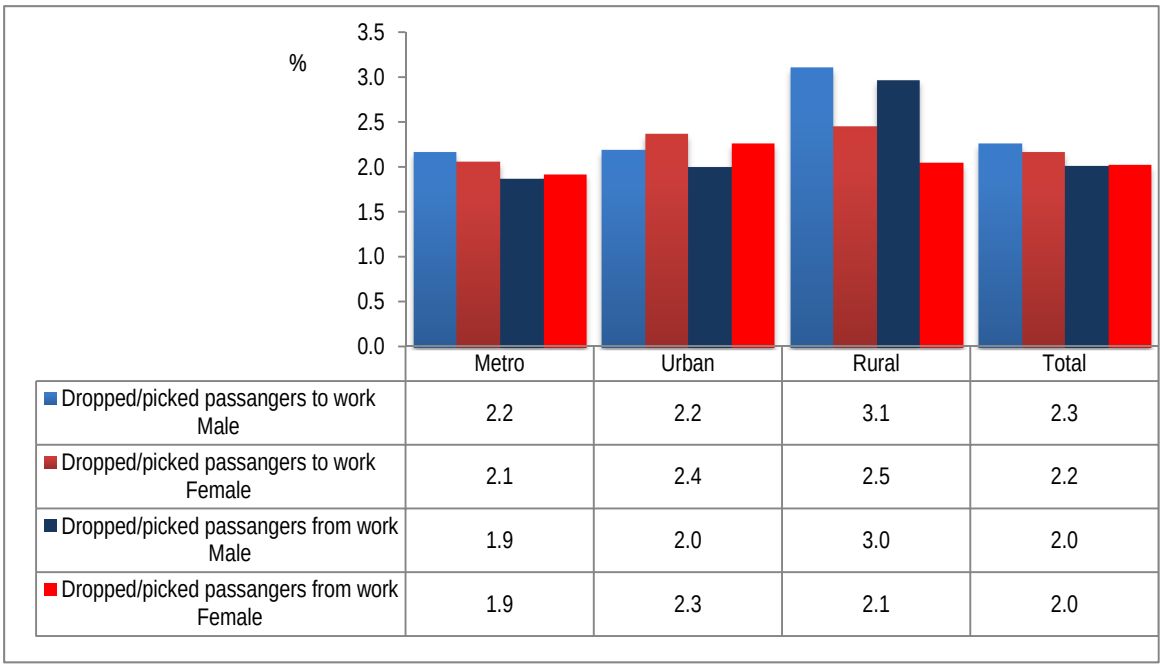
Table 4.3: Type of vehicle used to drive to work

	Metro		Urban		Rural	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
	Per cent					
Truck/lorry	1,0	0,3	1,5	0,3	3,7	0,4
Car/bakkie	94,0	97,2	94,1	35,2	82,0	21,1
Motorcycle/scooter	2,1	1,2	1,7	0,4	1,8	0,2
Minibus (private)	1,9	1,0	2,1	0,6	7,2	0,4
Other	1,0	0,3	0,7	63,6	5,3	77,7

Source: NHTS 2013

Table 4.3 illustrates the type of vehicle used to drive to work. The table illustrates that driving a car/bakkie was the most used form of getting to work for everyone in all geographic areas, except for females in urban and rural settings. Females in urban and rural areas used other forms of transportation (63,6% urban and 77,7% rural).

Figure 4.2: Percentages of males and females who dropped off or picked up passengers on the way to and from work by geotype, 2013

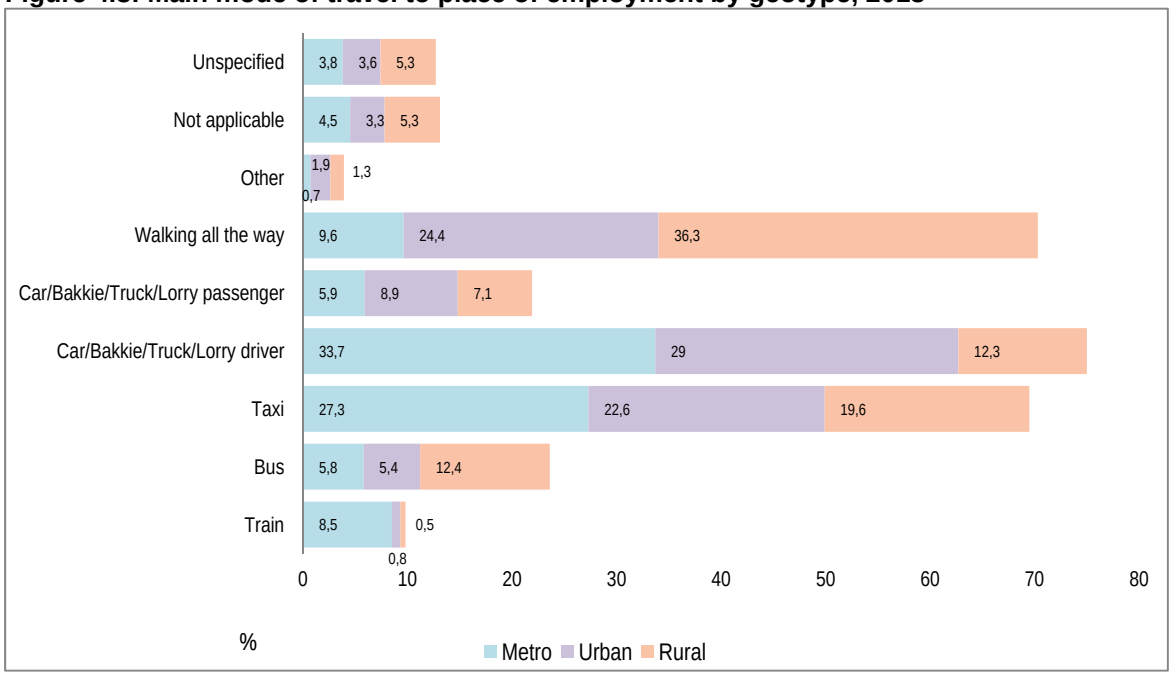


	Metro	Urban	Rural	Total
Dropped/picked passangers to work Male	2.2	2.2	3.1	2.3
Dropped/picked passangers to work Female	2.1	2.4	2.5	2.2
Dropped/picked passangers from work Male	1.9	2.0	3.0	2.0
Dropped/picked passangers from work Female	1.9	2.3	2.1	2.0

Source: NHTS, 2013

Percentages depicted in the totals of Figure 4.2 above indicate little gender variation between males and females who dropped off or picked up passengers on the way to and from work. However, geographical variations reveal noteworthy gender differences. Females in urban areas were more likely to have stopped between to and from work. In contrast, it was males in rural areas who mainly stopped to drop off and pick up passengers on their way to and from work. The biggest gender gaps were also observed in rural areas. The percentage of males in rural areas who stopped to drop off/pick up passengers to work was almost seven percentage points higher than that recorded for females, while those who dropped off/picked up passengers on their way to work was more than nine percentage points higher than their female counterparts.

Figure 4.3: Main mode of travel to place of employment by geotype, 2013



Source: NHTS, 2013

Figure 4.3 compares modes of travel used in different geotypes. It can be seen that in 2013, the main modes of travel in metro areas were either by self-driven vehicles (33,7%) or taxis (27,3%). These were followed by walking all the way (9,6%) and train services (8,5%). Most people also drove themselves to work in urban areas (29,0%). Nearly a quarter (24,4%) walk all the way and 22,6% use taxis in this regard. Most people in rural areas walk to work (36,3%) and nearly two in ten use taxis. These modes of transport are closely followed by buses (12,4%) and self-driven vehicles (12,3%). The use of taxis and self-driven vehicles were common means of transport to places of work in all three different geotypes. Trains were not a popular mode of transport in any of the geotypes. Neither were buses, except in rural areas. A relatively small number of males and females walked all the way to work in metro areas.

Table 4.4: Main mode of travel to place of employment by geotype and sex, 2013

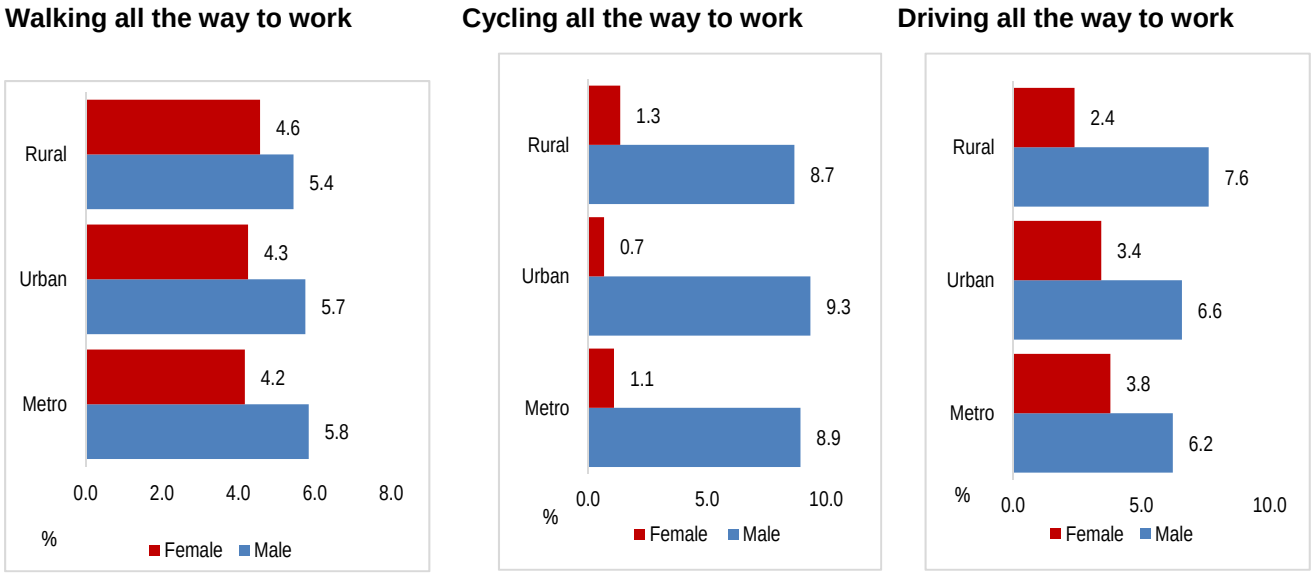
Main mode to place of employment by geotype	Males				Females			
	Metro	Urban	Rural	Total	Metro	Urban	Rural	Total
Males	Per cent							
Train	9,7	0,8	0,6	5,2	7,0	0,8	0,4	3,9
Bus	4,5	5,8	12,3	6,5	7,6	4,8	12,6	7,8
Taxi	25,4	19,2	17,6	22,0	29,8	27,4	22,2	27,6
Car/bakkie/truck/lorry driver	37,3	33,1	16,2	31,8	29,0	23,3	7,1	22,9
Car/bakkie/truck/lorry passenger	5,2	7,8	6,6	6,3	6,9	10,5	7,8	8,1
Walking all the way	10,0	24,1	34,9	19,2	9,2	24,8	38,0	19,5
Other	1,0	3,0	1,9	1,8	0,3	0,5	0,4	0,4
Not applicable	3,9	2,8	4,7	3,7	5,3	3,9	6,0	5,1
Unspecified	3,1	3,3	5,1	3,6	4,8	4,1	5,4	4,7
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: NHTS, 2013

Table 4.4 summarises the main modes of travel to place of employment by geotype and sex. The table indicates that males in metropolitan and urban areas mainly use self-driven vehicles. Most of the males in rural areas walk all the way to work. The second mode of transport used by males in metropolitan and rural areas is taxis. The second choice of males in urban areas is to walk all the way. This is also the third choice of males in metro areas. The third choice of males in urban areas is to use a taxi.

Females in metro areas mainly use taxis or drive themselves to work. Those in urban areas travel either by taxi, walk all the way or use taxis. Most females in rural areas walk to work, unlike some who use taxis or buses.

Figure 4.4: Walking, cycling and driving all the way to work by sex and geotype, 2013



Source: NHTS 2013

Figure 4.4 shows data for various ways people used to get to work. Almost two thirds of males from each geographic location walked to their place of work, while females accounted for just over 40% per location. The percentage point gap between males and females was narrowest among rural

dwellers (8,8 percentage points) while it was two times wider than that in both metropolitan and urban areas with 16,8 and 15 percentage points respectively.

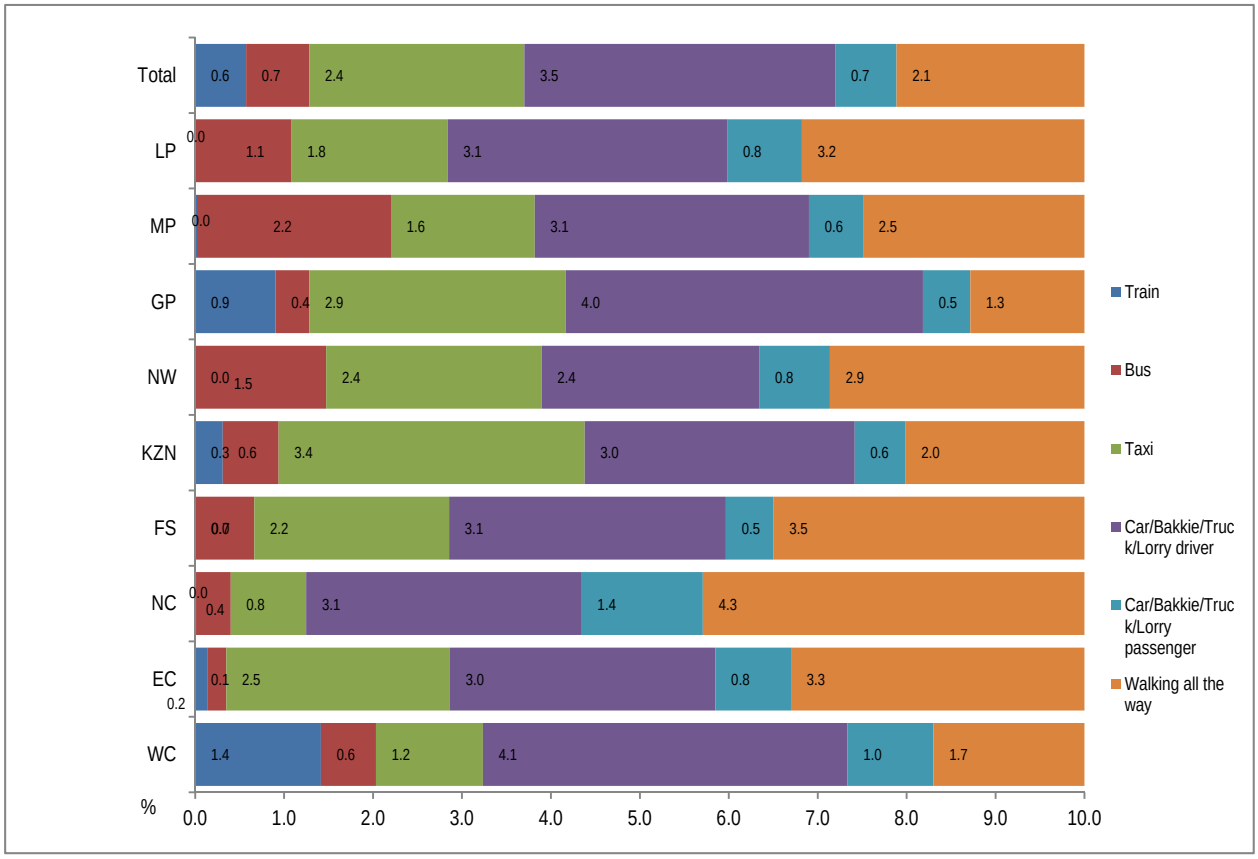
The figure on cycling shows that more than 80% of males from each geographic area reported having cycled to work compared to only around 10% of females. Among females, rural areas had slightly more females who reported to have cycled to work than other geographical types.

Among those who reported to have driven to work, males had the highest likelihood of driving to work than females, with almost a third reporting having driven to the place of work in each geographical type. Rural males had the highest likelihood of driving to work than their female counterparts with 76%, while females recorded only 23,9%.

Main modes of transport to places of work of males and females by province

The next two figures show the main modes of travel to places of work by province. The first graph depicts figures for males (Figure 4.5a), while the second one looks at females (Figure 4.5b).

Figure 4.5a: Main modes of transport to places of work by province: Males

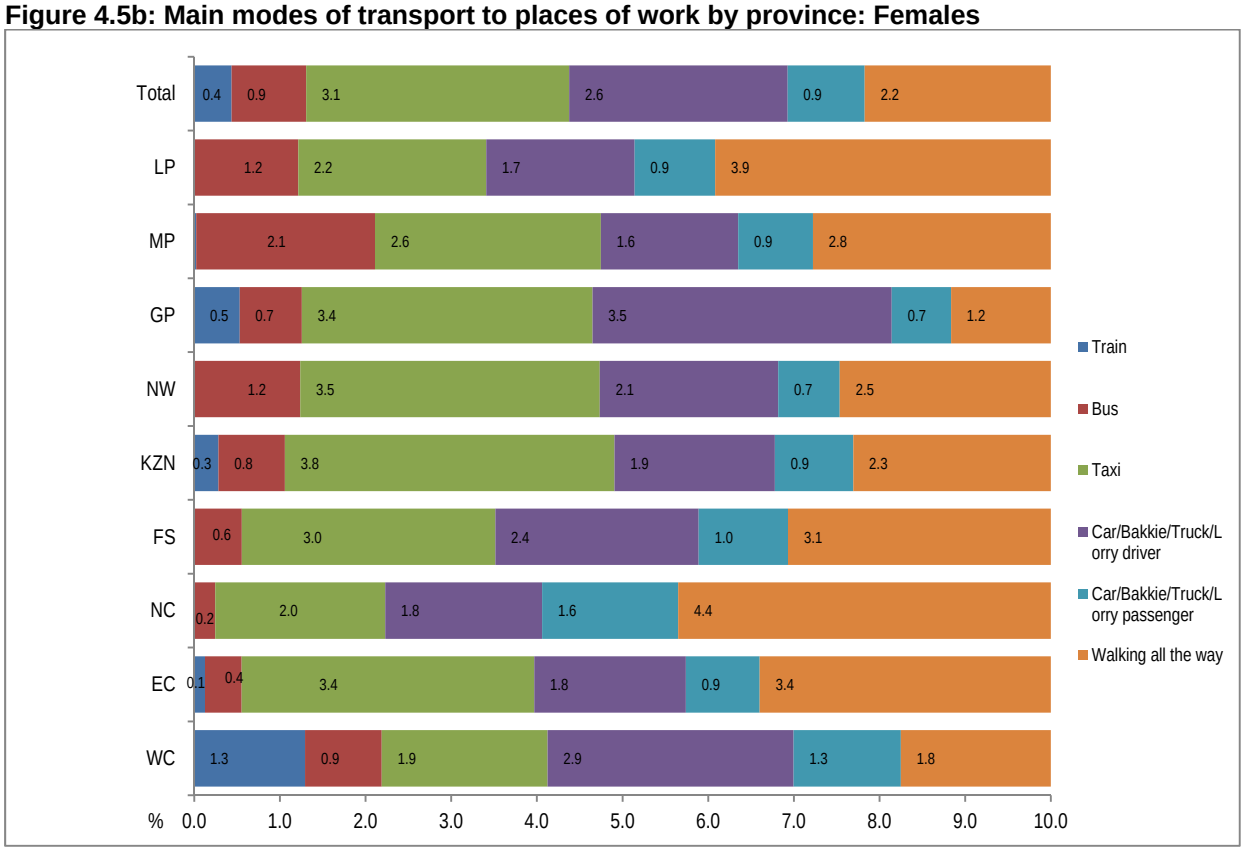


* Figures exclude percentages for other, unspecified and not applicable.
Source: NHTS, 2013

Across all provinces, males were most likely to drive themselves to work. The highest percentages in this regard were found in Western Cape and Gauteng at above 40%, respectively. The highest percentages of males who walked to work was found among those who resided in Northern Cape

(42,9%). This was followed by those in Free State (35,0%) and Eastern Cape (33,0%). The use of public transport for males was generally highest amongst those in provinces such as KwaZulu-Natal (43,8%), Gauteng (41,7%), Mpumalanga and North West at above 38% respectively. Males in most provinces used taxis as a form of public transport to get to their places of employment, with the highest percentages recorded in KwaZulu-Natal, Gauteng and North West (34,4%, 28,8% and 24,2%). In contrast, those residing in Mpumalanga were more likely to use buses (21,8%) than taxis (16,2%)

Figure 4.5b: Main modes of transport to places of work by province: Females



* Figures exclude percentages for other, unspecified and not applicable.
Source: NHTS, 2013

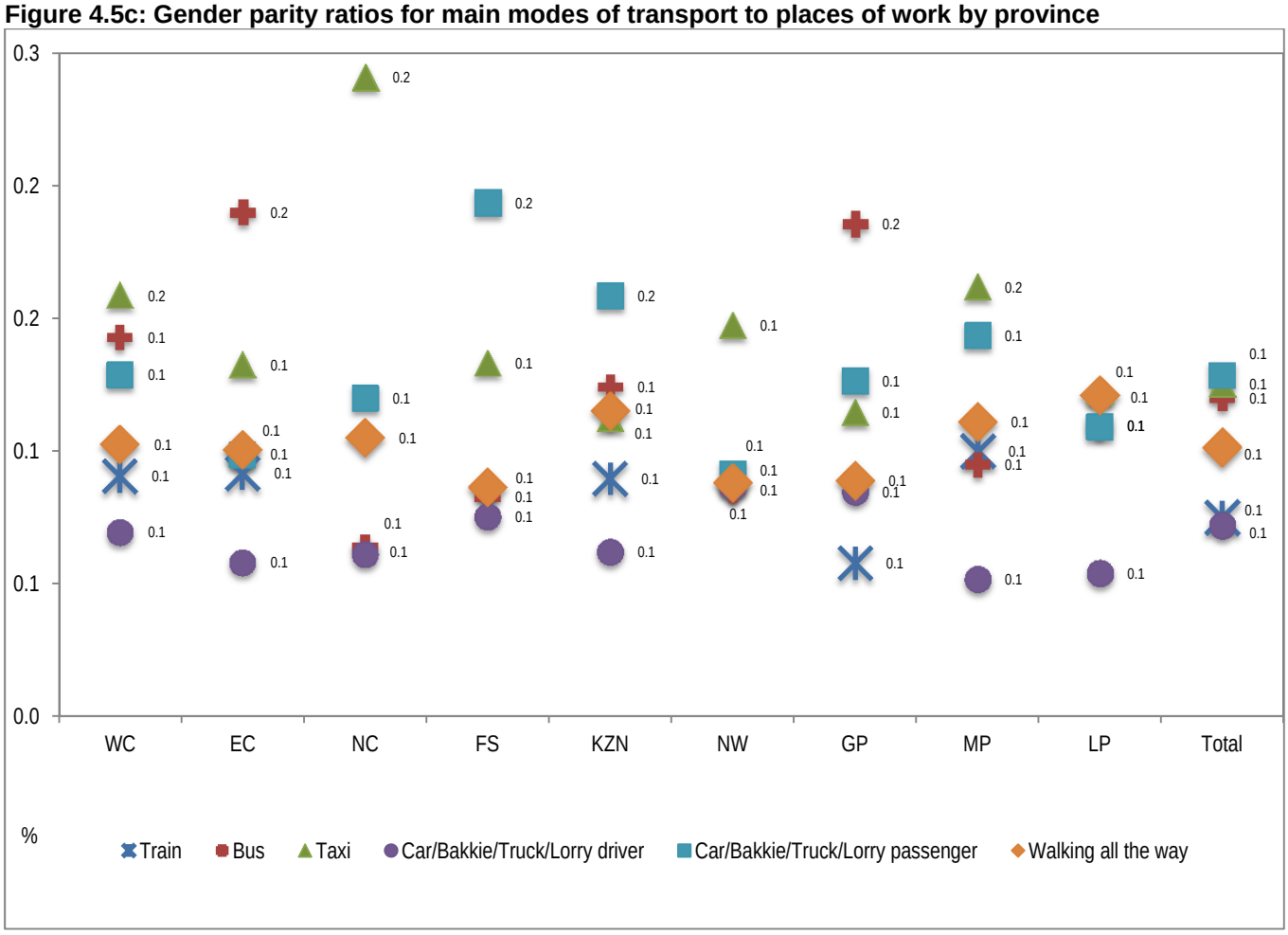
Nationally, females were more likely to use public transport than males, i.e. 37% vs. 43,8%. As with males, the use of public transport was most prevalent in KwaZulu-Natal (49%), Mpumalanga and North West (at 47,3% respectively) and Gauteng (46,5%). At a national level, more females (30,7%) used taxis to travel to work than males (24,2%). This figure was 6,5 percentage points higher than that observed for their male counterparts. Like their male counterparts, the use of taxis amongst females was highest in KwaZulu-Natal (38,8%), North West (35%) and Gauteng (33,9%). However, females living within the province of Eastern Cape also recorded high percentages of taxi use at 34,2%. Across all provinces, the use of buses or trains as a form of public transport to get to work amongst females was lower than taxis. However, the use of buses by females in Mpumalanga (20,9%), North West (12,4%) and Limpopo (12,1%) and trains in Western Cape (11,6%) were noticeable.

Around 26% of females who went to work were self-driven, a figure that is nine percentage points lower than for males. A similar provincial trend observed amongst males who drove themselves to

work was repeated for females. Females residing in the country's economic hubs, i.e. Gauteng (31,3%) and Western Cape (28,7%), recorded the highest percentages.

Nationally, more than a fifth of females (21,7%) walked to places of employment. This figure was similar to that recorded among males, i.e. (21,1%). As with their male counterparts, females residing in Northern Cape and Eastern Cape were more likely to walk to work. However, with almost two fifths (39,2%) of females living in Limpopo walking to work, the second highest percentage of females who walked to work were observed in Limpopo, following Northern Cape at 43,5%.

Figure 4.5c: Gender parity ratios for main modes of transport to places of work by province



* Figures exclude percentages for other, unspecified and not applicable.
Source: NHTS, 2013

Figure 4.5c depicts gender parity ratios (GPR) of the main modes of transport used to get to places of employment within each of the nine provinces. It can be seen that across all provinces, the highest gender inequalities relating to the different modes of transport being used by males and females to get to work were found in the use of taxis and self-driven vehicles. Amongst persons who drove to work, females were generally 30% less likely to drive themselves to work. Gender differences were highest amongst those living in Mpumalanga and Limpopo. With regard to taxi use, more females in Northern Cape (GPR=2,4), Western Cape and Mpumalanga (GPR=1,6 respectively) as well as North West (GPR=1,5) used taxis to get to work than their male

counterparts. Gender differences for bus use were highest in Gauteng and Eastern Cape (GPR=1,9 respectively) where females were virtually twice more likely than males to use buses to get to places of work. On the other hand, gender inequality in Free State (GPR=1,9) and KwaZulu-Natal (GPR=1,6) were highest for males and females who were passengers in vehicles. In both provinces, females were more likely to use this mode of transport to travel to work.

Main mode of transport used to get to work by sex and age group

Table 4.5 illustrates the main mode of travel to work by sex and age groups. The analysis shows that the use of self-driven vehicles increases with age for both males and females.

Table 4.5: Main mode of travel to employment for males and females by age

	15-24 yrs.	25-34 yrs.	35-44 yrs.	45-54 yrs.	55-64 yrs.	Total	15-24 yrs.	25-34 yrs.	35-44 yrs.	45-54 yrs.	55-64 yrs.	Total
	Male						Female					
	Per cent											
Train	5,0	5,7	5,8	4,4	3,4	5,2	3,7	4,0	4,0	3,8	3,8	3,9
Bus	6,3	6,6	7,1	5,7	5,8	6,5	6,5	7,7	8,3	7,9	7,8	7,8
Taxi	25,5	26,8	22	16,1	12	22,0	33,6	31,5	26,4	23,5	20,7	27,6
Car/bakkie/truck/lorry driver	18,3	25,1	33,2	42	46,1	31,8	15,6	21,1	24	24,6	29,3	22,9
Car/bakkie/truck/lorry passenger	9,9	7,3	5,5	4,4	4,4	6,3	12,2	8,5	7,5	7,4	5,9	8,1
Walking all the way	25,7	21	17,9	16,4	15,3	19,2	21,1	19	20,1	19,8	17,2	19,5
Other	1,9	1,7	1,6	2,1	2,1	1,8	0,2	0,3	0,4	0,4	0,3	0,4
Not applicable	3,5	2,5	3,7	4,8	6,8	3,7	2,9	3,3	4,6	7,9	8,7	5,1
Unspecified	3,9	3,2	3,4	4,1	4,2	3,6	4,1	4,6	4,6	4,7	6,3	4,7
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: NHTS, 2013

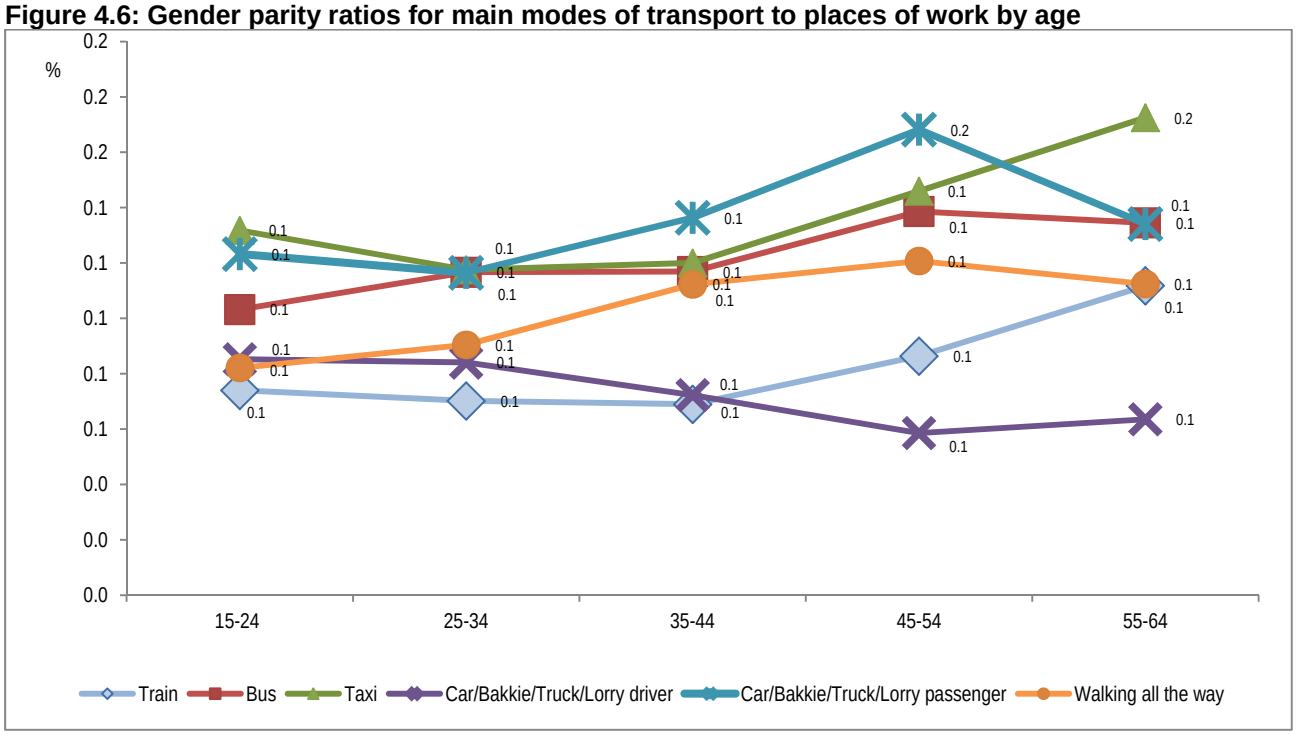
In 2013, most males between the ages of 15 to 24 either used a taxi (25,5%) or walked all the way to work (25,7%). Approximately a fifth (18,3%) drove themselves to work. Following the general gender pattern in transport use, a higher percentage (a third) of females (33,6%) in this age group used taxis. This was more than eight percentage points higher than the figure observed for their male counterparts. Slightly fewer females between the ages of 15 and 24 years than males (i.e. 15,6% compared to 18,53%) were self-driven. A total of 21,1% walked all the way to work.

Males and females between the ages of 25 and 34 and 35 and 44 years mainly took taxis or drove themselves to work. More than a quarter (26,8%) of males and 31,5% of females aged 25–34 years took taxis. Observed percentages for those between the ages of 35 and 44 years were 22,0% and 26,4% respectively for males and females using taxis. A quarter of males (25,1%) and more than a fifth of their female counterparts (21,1%) in this age category drove themselves to work. Comparative figures for their 35–44-year-old counterparts were 33,2% for males and 24,0% for females.

As can be seen, the use of self-driven vehicles was higher among males and females in the 45–54 and 55–64 age groups. Males and females between the ages of 45 to 64 were less likely to use taxis, than the younger groups. The percentage of males using taxis in the 15–24 age group (i.e. 25,5%) dropped to 12,0% in the 55–64 age group. In the case of females, the percentage dropped

from 33,6% in the 15–24 age group to 20,7% in the 55–64 age group. The percentage of females using taxis, however, remained higher than that observed for males in the older age groups.

Figure 4.6: Gender parity ratios for main modes of transport to places of work by age



* Figures exclude percentages for other, unspecified and not applicable.
Source: NHTS, 2013

Figure 4.6 shows that in 2013, gender differences between males and females increased with age. This was true particularly for those who used taxis. The gap between older females and males aged 55–64 years who used taxis, was widest compared to their younger counterparts. Thus the older the female, the more likely that she will use a taxi as a means of transport to travel to work than a male in the same age group category. Gender gaps for males and females who were passengers in vehicles, who walked all the way or used buses to get to places of employment increased with age up to the age of 45–55 years, and thereafter decreased. Virtually no gender differences were observed amongst young people aged 15–24 years who drove themselves to work (GPR=0,9). This, however, changes as persons get older, with males more likely to self-drive than their female counterparts within each older age group category.

Main mode of transport used to get to work by sex and household income

Table 4.6 and Figure 4.7 show modes of transport used to travel to work by monthly household income. The income categories have been calculated according to income quintiles. The analysis shows information in respect of males and females living in households earning income within the quintiles.

Table 4.6: Main mode of transport to place of employment by monthly household income (quintiles), 2013

Main mode to place of employment	Lowest income quintile (Quintile 1)		Quintile 2		Quintile 3		Quintile 4		Highest income quintile (Quintile 5)		Total	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
	Males											
Train	3 661	3,9	36 260	4,3	102 302	5,9	175 394	6,9	124 106	3,8	441 722	5,2
Bus	9 408	10,1	55 815	6,6	138 583	8,0	196 107	7,7	148 093	4,5	548 005	6,5
Taxi	15 959	17,2	182 807	21,8	452 008	26,0	711 391	28,1	501 776	15,3	1 863 942	22,0
Car/bakkie/truck/lorry driver	15 530	16,7	93 515	11,1	244 079	14,0	541 606	21,4	1 800 245	55,0	2 694 974	31,8
Car/bakkie/truck/lorry passenger	3 883	4,2	51 003	6,1	114 718	6,6	192 034	7,6	168 695	5,2	530 333	6,3
Walking all the way	28 806	31,1	306 826	36,5	507 605	29,2	519 750	20,5	267 067	8,2	1 630 052	19,2
Other	1 161	1,3	33 495	4,0	41 507	2,4	46 600	1,8	28 745	0,9	151 507	1,8
Not applicable	8 774	9,5	41 606	5,0	61 088	3,5	69 858	2,8	136 296	4,2	317 623	3,7
Unspecified	5 540	6,0	38 703	4,6	79 178	4,5	81 521	3,2	98 716	3,0	303 657	3,6
Total	92 723	100	840 029	100	1 741 067	100	2 534 259	100	3 273 738	100	8 481 816	100
	Females											
Train	2 493	2,6	27 820	3,0	62 172	4,8	90 050	5,3	68 483	2,9	251 018	3,9
Bus	3 923	4,2	80 478	8,8	144 899	11,2	160 402	9,4	111 386	4,7	501 086	7,8
Taxi	20 025	21,3	246 968	27,0	446 596	34,5	650 025	38,0	403 527	16,9	1 767 140	27,6
Car/bakkie/truck/lorry driver	4 173	4,4	30 611	3,3	61 613	4,8	215 216	12,6	1 156 810	48,3	1 468 423	22,9
Car/bakkie/truck/lorry passenger	3 999	4,2	50 907	5,6	88 352	6,8	119 070	7,0	255 530	10,7	517 859	8,1
Walking all the way	34 152	36,2	362 981	39,6	373 106	28,8	309 762	18,1	171 584	7,2	1 251 585	19,5
Other	192	0,2	3 349	0,4	4 464	0,3	8 610	0,5	7 091	0,3	23 706	0,4
Not applicable	15 901	16,9	62 022	6,8	50 239	3,9	71 015	4,2	125 288	5,2	324 465	5,1
Unspecified	9 363	9,9	50 508	5,5	64 438	5,0	84 459	4,9	93 980	3,9	302 748	4,7
Total	94 221	100	915 643	100	1 295 880	100	1 708 608	100	2 393 678	100	6 408 030	100

Source: NHTS, 2013

Males and females from poorer households were equally more likely to report walking all the way to work, i.e. 31,1% in quintile 1 and 36,5% in quintile 2 for males and 36,2% in quintile 1 and 39,6% in quintile 2 for females%. Females and males living in middle income quintiles (i.e. those falling in the 3rd and 4th quintiles) were most likely to use taxis to work. However, the percentage differences between females who walked and those who used taxis to get to work in these quintiles was minimal compared to that observed amongst their male counterparts (i.e. average difference for females was 5,7 and 22,8 percentage points for males).

Self-driving was highest for males and females who lived in the highest income quintile (quintile 5). More than half of males (55%) and around 48% of females in quintile 5 drove themselves to work. The likelihood of self-driving increased with household income. Furthermore, gender gaps reported between males and females who self-drove to work were smaller in the highest income quintile than for those found in quintiles lower than 5.

Figure 4.7: The use of public transport by household income (quintiles) and sex 2013

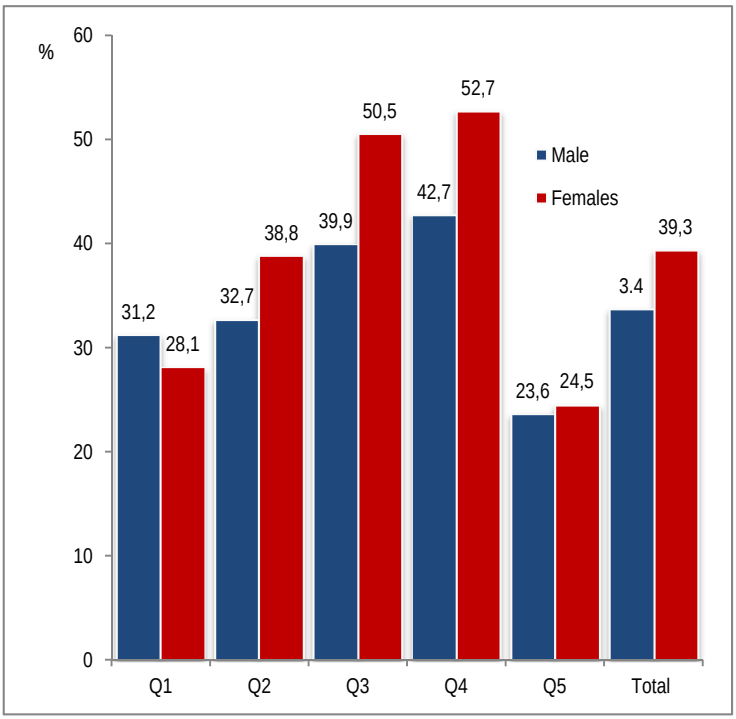
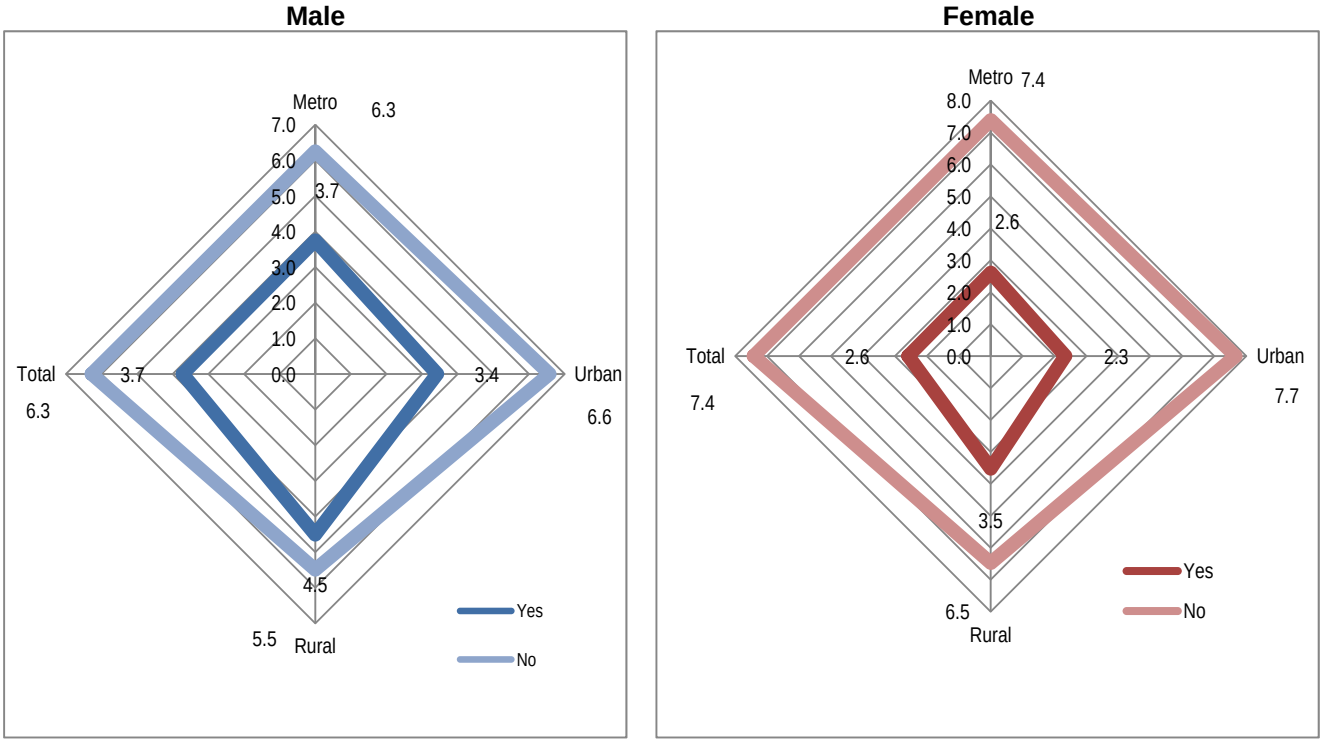


Figure 4.7 on the left reveals that the use of public transport was highest for both males and females in the middle income quintiles (3 and 4). However, within each income bracket, females were more likely to use public transport than their male counterparts. Gender differences were also largest for those in quintiles 3 and 4 and lowest for males and females in the highest income quintile (i.e. quintile 5).

NHTS, 2013

Figure 4.8: Percentages of males and females who needed a vehicle at places of employment for work purposes on the travel day by geotype, 2013



Source: NHTS, 2013

Figure 4.8 shows that in 2013, more males than females needed a vehicle at places of employment for work purposes on a travel day. This was particularly true for males residing in rural areas. Nationally, the percentage of males who needed a vehicle was more than 11 percentage points higher than for females. Among females, those living in rural areas were also more likely to have needed a vehicle at work for work purposes than females in metros and urban areas.

Main mode of transport used to get to work by presence of a minor child

The analysis in this section focuses on the different modes of transport used by males and females in accordance to the number of minor children present in the household. Minor children in this report are defined as children aged six years and less. Table 4.7 contains the number and percentages of males and females by the type of main mode of transport being utilised and the number of minor children present in a household.

Table 4.7: Main mode of transport used to get to work by presence of a minor child

Male-headed households	No children		1 child		2 children		3 children		4+ children		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Train	5,3	300 354	5,2	99 210	4,5	32 840	4,2	7 614	3,3	1 705	5,2	441 722
Bus	5,7	320 065	8,0	153 101	7,7	56 254	8,3	14 921	7,1	3 664	6,5	548 005
Taxi	21,6	1 213 098	22,9	436 150	21,2	154 307	27,1	48 667	22,7	11 721	22,0	1 863 942
Vehicle: driver	32,2	1 809 975	32,9	625 576	29,6	215 731	18,5	33 268	20,2	10 424	31,8	2 694 974
Vehicle: passenger	6,3	355 225	6,2	117 741	5,6	40 765	6,6	11 889	9,1	4 713	6,3	530 333
Walking all the way	19,3	1 083 455	16,9	322 055	23,0	167 240	24,3	43 759	26,2	13 543	19,2	1 630 052
Other	1,6	91 969	2,0	37 143	2,3	16 610	2,4	4 334	2,8	1 452	1,8	151 507
Not applicable	4,4	245 498	2,5	47 094	2,6	18 617	2,7	4 870	3,0	1 544	3,7	317 623
Unspecified	3,5	198 621	3,5	65 939	3,5	25 787	5,8	10 389	5,7	2 921	3,6	303 657
Total	100	5 618 259	100	1 904 008	100	728 150	100	179 711	100	51 687	100	8 481 816
Female-headed households	**No children**		**1 child**		**2 children**		**3 children**		**4+ children**		**Total**	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Train	4,2	156 892	3,5	60 198	3,5	22 820	4,7	8 409	4,7	2 698	3,9	251 018
Bus	7,2	271 084	8,9	154 373	8,1	53 838	9,3	16 535	9,1	5 257	7,8	501 086
Taxi	26,1	985 194	28,9	502 518	30,8	203 597	34,2	60 906	25,8	14 926	27,6	1 767 140
Vehicle: driver	26,9	1 013 844	19,7	342 358	15,3	101 051	5,4	9 629	2,7	1 542	22,9	1 468 423
Vehicle: passenger	7,9	296 385	8,2	142 675	8,7	57 585	7,3	12 970	14,2	8 243	8,1	517 859
Walking all the way	17,7	669 498	21,1	366 553	22,3	147 630	27,6	49 096	32,5	18 809	19,5	1 251 585
Other	0,4	16 439	0,3	5 158	0,3	2 109	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,4	23 706
Not applicable	5,4	203 754	4,2	72 412	4,9	32 162	6,3	11 297	8,4	4 841	5,1	324 465
Unspecified	4,3	161 199	5,2	90 998	6,0	39 835	5,2	9 180	2,7	1 536	4,7	302 748
Total	100	3 774 287	100	1 737 243	100	660 625	100	178 022	100	57 852	100	6 408 030

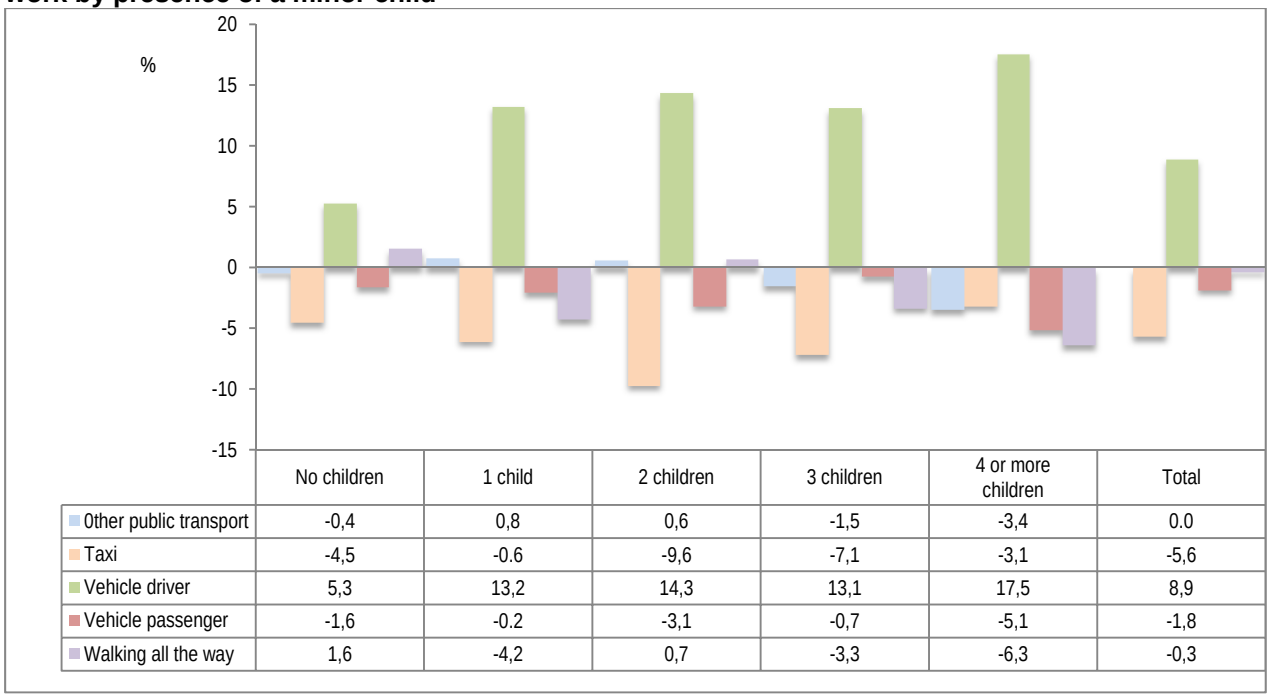
Source: NHTS, 2013

In 2013, males residing in households with up to two minor children in the household were more likely to report self-driving. Around a third of those with no (32,2%) or one (32,9%) minor child in a household drove themselves to work. This was approximately three percentage points higher than those with two minor children (29,6%). The percentages of males who drove themselves to work declined with an increase of the number of minor children within a household. The most frequently

selected main mode for males in households with three minor children was taxis, while those in households with four or more minor children present walked to places of employment. For males, the percentages of walking all the way generally increased as the number of minor children increased in a household.

High percentages of taxi use were mostly observed for females, regardless of the number of children present in a household. However, among females residing in households with no minor children, the percentages of those who used taxis and those who reported self-driving were virtually equal (i.e. 26,1% for taxi and 26,9% for self-driving). As in trends observed for males, the percentages of females who self-drove to work dropped with an increase of the number of minor children present in a household. Likewise, a positive relationship was observed between walking to work and a rise in the number of minor children in a household. However, the decline (self-driving) and the increase (walking) observed in trends for females were steeper than those found among their male counterparts (see also Figure 4.6 below).

Figure 4.9: Male and female percentage point differences in main mode of transport used to get to work by presence of a minor child



	No children	1 child	2 children	3 children	4 or more children	Total
Other public transport	-0,4	0,8	0,6	-1,5	-3,4	0.0
Taxi	-4,5	-0.6	-9,6	-7,1	-3,1	-5,6
Vehicle driver	5,3	13,2	14,3	13,1	17,5	8,9
Vehicle passenger	-1,6	-0.2	-3,1	-0,7	-5,1	-1,8
Walking all the way	1,6	-4,2	0,7	-3,3	-6,3	-0,3

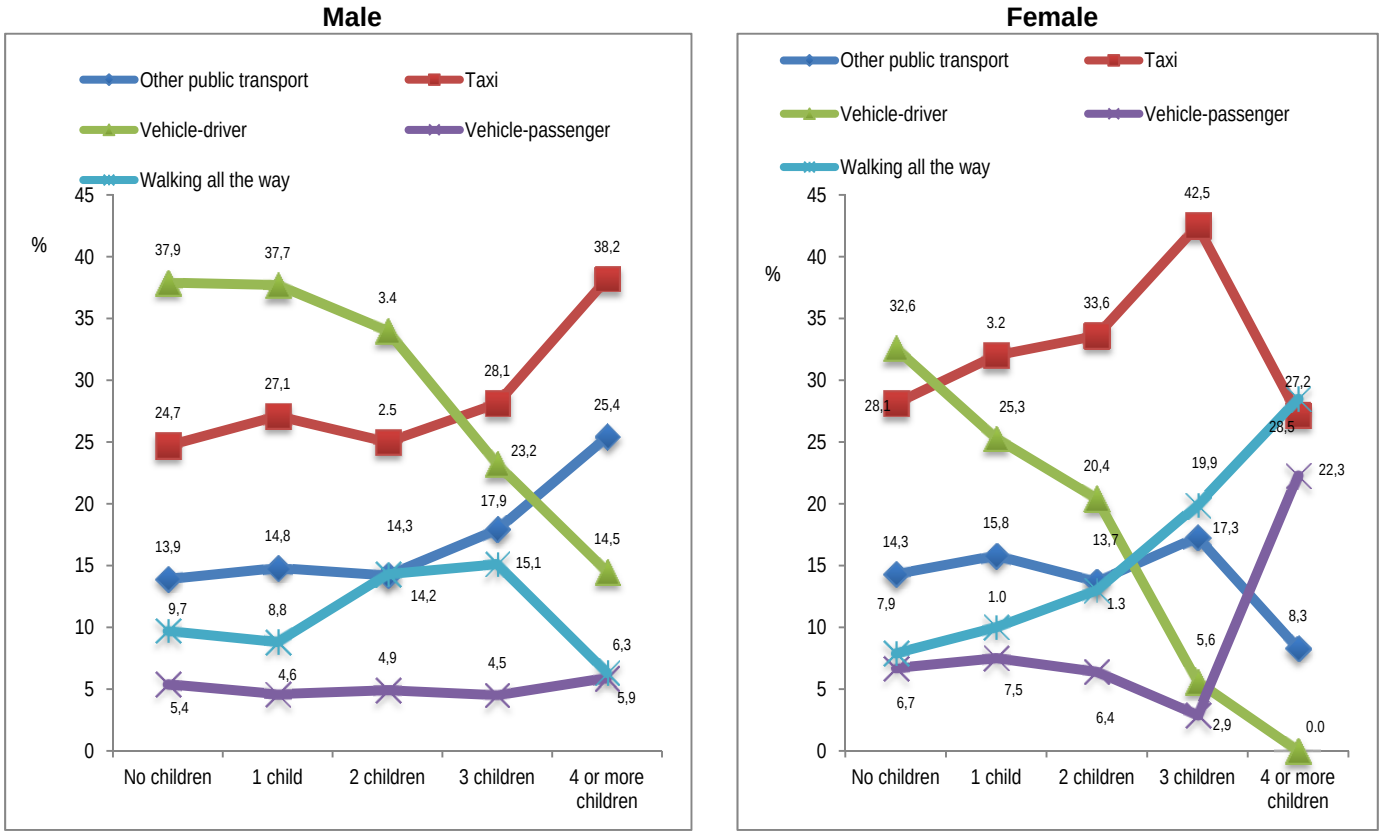
* Figures exclude percentages for other, unspecified and not applicable.
Source: NHTS, 2013

Figure 4.9 indicates male and female percentage point differences in main mode of transport used to get to work by presence of a minor child. The largest gender differences in types of main modes of transport being used to get to places of employment for males and females by the number of children present in a household were found among those with one or more minor children who self-drove. More males with one or more minor child in the household drove themselves to work than their female counterparts. Notable gender differences were also observed for those who utilised taxis to get to work, with higher percentages of females with one or more minor children in the household reporting taxi use than their male counterparts.

Main mode of travel by geotype

Figure 4.10a, Figure 4.10b and Figure 4.10c all illustrate main modes of travel used to get to work by sex in relation to the number of minor children in the household for each geographical area (i.e. geotype). The variable 'other public transport' used mostly in this section of the report refers to individuals who used trains and buses.

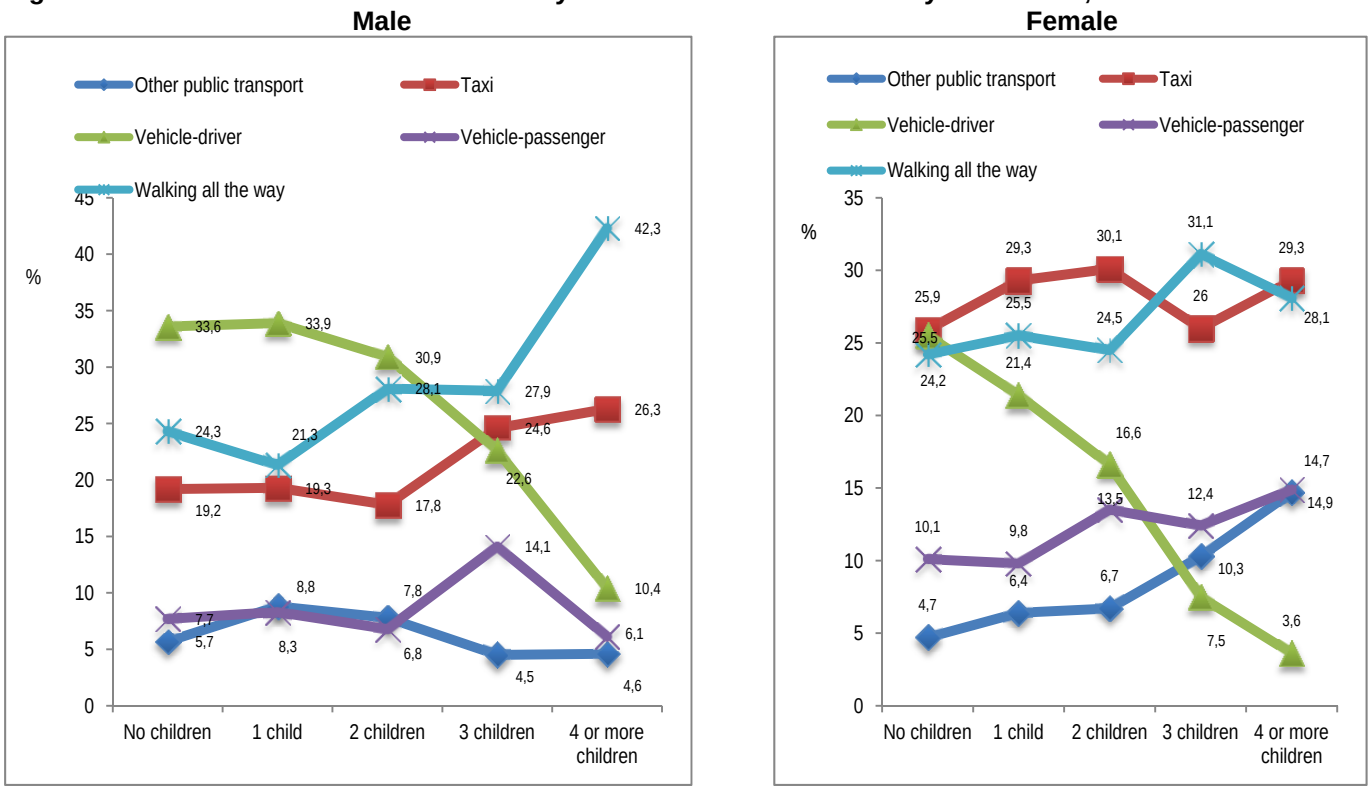
Figure 4.10a: Main mode of travel to work by number of minor children present in a household and sex: For metros, 2013



* Figures exclude percentages for other, unspecified and not applicable.
Source: NHTS, 2013

In metro areas, males mostly travel to work by driving themselves to work until there are three or more children in the household, where-after they mainly travel by taxi. Females with no minor children in the household mainly drive themselves to work. Once there is at least one minor child in the house, they mainly use taxis. With three minors in the home, females either travel by taxi or walk all the way.

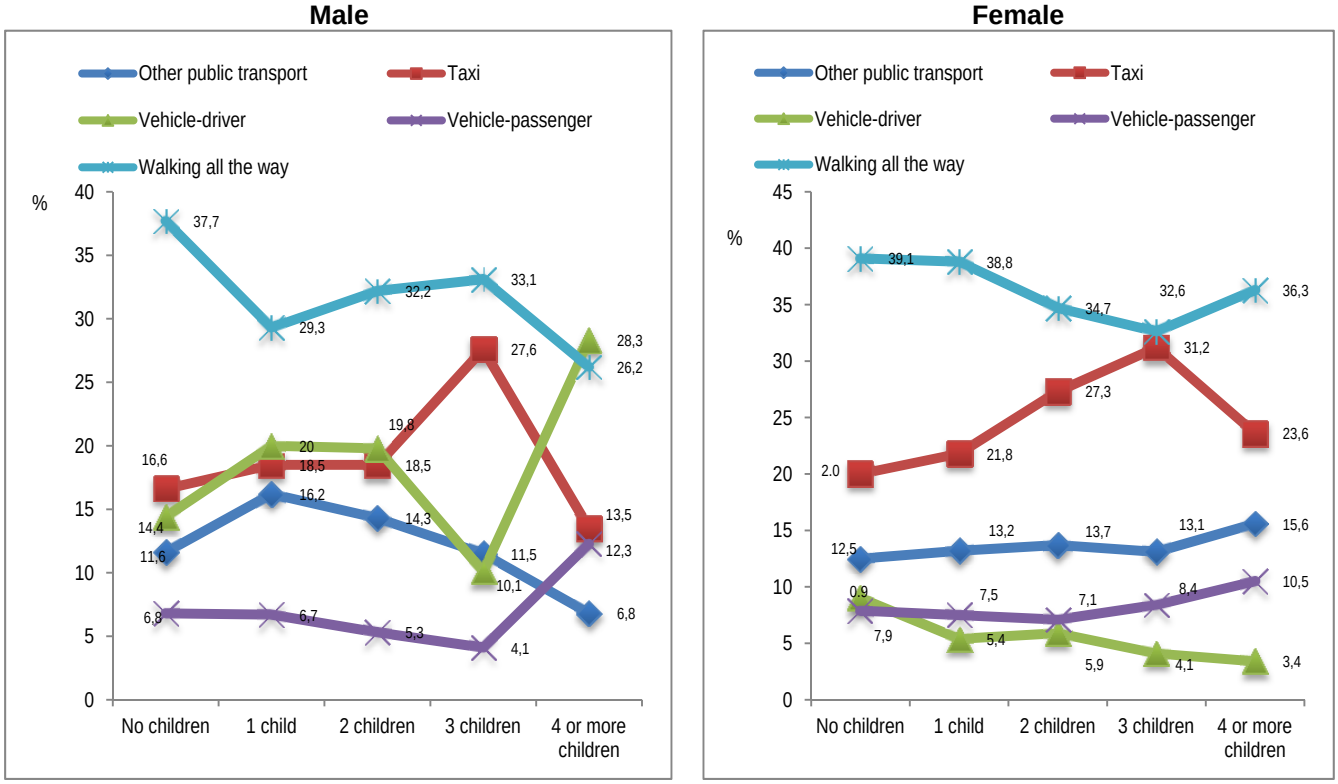
Figure 4.10b: Main mode of travel to work by number of minor children by sex: Urban, 2013



* Figures exclude percentages for other, unspecified and not applicable.
Source: NHTS, 2013

More males and females reported walking all the way to places of employment in urban areas than in metros. Walking to work was the second most mentioned main mode of travel after self-driving. For males, big increases in walking were observed as the number of minor children in the household increased. In contrast, noticeable increases in walking to work were only evident for females residing in households with more than two minor children. As in metros, the use of public transport (taxis and other public transport) for females in urban areas increased as the number of minor children within a household increased. However, while a similar pattern was found for taxi use by males, the use of other public transport (trains and buses) starts to decline with more than one minor child in urban areas. This trend was also observed in rural areas (Figure 4.10c).

Figure 4.10c: Main mode of travel to work by number of minor children by sex: Rural, 2013



* Figures exclude percentages for other, unspecified and not applicable.
Source: NHTS, 2013

Irrespective of the number of minor children in the household, males in rural areas were most likely to report walking all the way to work. The same pattern is observed for females. However, the percentage of females walking all the way is generally higher than that of males. Both in metros and in urban areas, higher numbers of minor children in the household accompanied increased percentages of walking to work. In contrast, the percentages of both males and females who reported walking dropped with an increase in the number of minor children being reported in a household. This decline was more noticeable among males.

Across all geotypes and for both males and females, self-driving was negatively related to the number of minor children in a household. However, the drop observed for self-driving females in rural areas was modest.

Mean time to travel to work

Figure 4.11 indicates the time taken to travel to work in 2013. The figure shows that about one third of employed persons took less than 30 minutes to travel to work. Most (47,2%) take between a half hour and one hour to travel to their destinations; 11,3% travel longer than an hour, but not longer than one and a half hours.

Figure 4.11: Time taken to travel to work – total in minutes, 2013

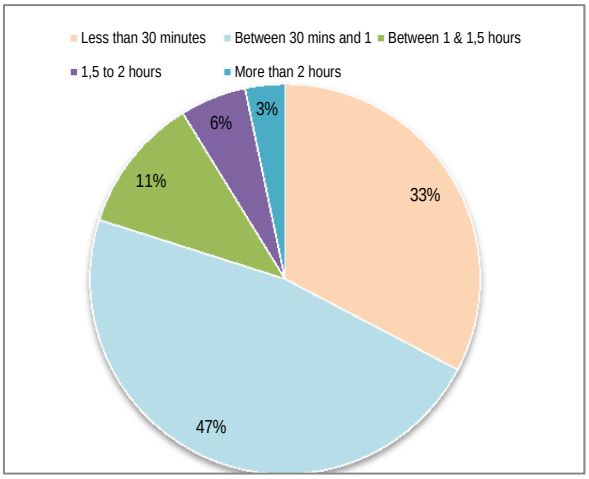


Table 4.8: Time taken to travel to work in minutes by sex, 2013

Time taken to travel to work	Male		Female		Total	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Less than 30 minutes	2678704	31,6	2194415	34,2	4873119	32,7
Between 30 mins and 1	4060696	47,9	2966273	46,3	7026969	47,2
Between 1 & 1,5 hours	954366	11,3	723573	11,3	1677939	11,3
1,5 to 2 hours	482971	5,7	336746	5,3	819717	5,5
More than 2 hours	305079	3,6	187023	2,9	492102	3,3
Total	8481816	100	6408030	100	14889846	100

Source: NHTS, 2013

Although a slightly higher percentage of females than males took less than 30 minutes to travel to work (Table 4.8), virtually no differences existed when the time taken to travel to work was analysed by sex.

Table 4.9: Mean travel time in minutes to work by province and sex, 2013

Province	Male	Female	Total	GPR
Western Cape	42,3	41,0	41,7	1,0
Eastern Cape	36,4	35,8	36,1	1,0
Northern Cape	31,6	29,6	30,8	0,9
Free State	35,4	30,6	33,4	0,9
KwaZulu-Natal	46,4	44,3	45,4	1,0
North West	44,1	39,5	42,4	0,9
Gauteng	53,2	50,1	51,9	0,9
Mpumalanga	49,6	44,9	47,7	0,9
Limpopo	42,2	37,6	40,2	0,9
Total	46,2	43,2	44,9	0,9

Source: NHTS, 2013

Table 4.9 above reflects travel times in minutes, and also shows that there were no differences between the average travel times of the sexes when examined by province. Persons living in KwaZulu-Natal, North West, Gauteng and Mpumalanga travel for slightly longer times on average. The travel times for persons working in Gauteng were shown to be the longest.

Table 4.10: Mean travel time in minutes to work by age groups and sex, 2013

Age groups	Male	Female	Total
	Mean travel time in minutes		
15–24 years	46	42	45
25–34 years	47	43	45
35–44 years	47	46	47
45–54 years	45	42	44
55–64 years	43	40	42
Total	46	43	45

Source: NHTS, 2013

Table 4.10 shows the mean travel time in minutes to work by age groups and sex. According to the table, the average travel times to work for females is slightly shorter than times observed for males within each age group. Additionally, for both sexes, the travel times of those between the ages of 35 and 44 years is slightly longer, while that recorded among persons in the 55–64 age group was slightly shorter than times observed in other age group categories.

Table 4.11: Mean travel time in minutes to place of work by province, sex and age groups, 2013

Province	Male					Female				
	15 to 24	25 to 34	35 to 44	45 to 54	55 to 64	15 to 24	25 to 34	35 to 44	45 to 54	55 to 64
	Mean minutes travelled					Mean minutes travelled				
Western Cape	45	45	43	38	36	40	42	45	37	31
Eastern Cape	37	36	40	35	33	36	34	38	37	34
Northern Cape	34	32	31	31	33	35	29	28	32	27
Free State	33	37	39	31	31	28	28	34	32	28
KwaZulu-Natal	46	47	48	44	43	44	46	46	41	40
North West	42	44	48	43	39	42	35	41	44	36
Gauteng	56	54	53	54	48	48	50	54	48	47
Mpumalanga	44	48	52	52	52	41	44	48	42	48
Limpopo	43	43	41	41	45	45	37	37	39	32

Source: NHTS, 2013

Table 4.11 indicates the average times males and females of different age groups take to travel to their places of work in each province. The longest average travel times are found in Gauteng for males and females of all ages and for males in Mpumalanga between the ages of 25 and 64. The lowest travel times are recorded for the Northern Cape, followed by the Free State.

The next table shows the average travel time to work by age and sex within each of the three different geotypes.

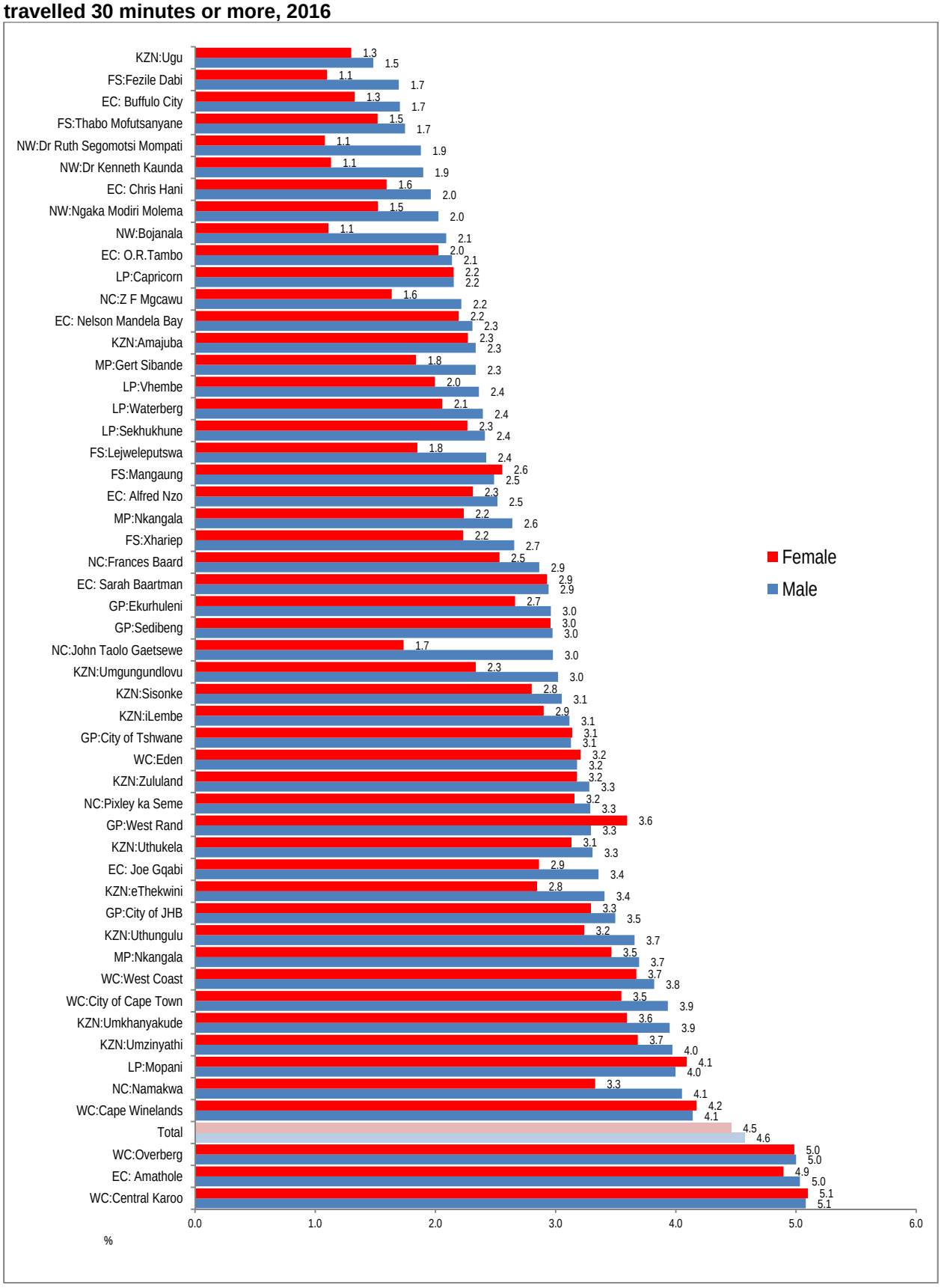
Table 4.12: Mean travel time in minutes to place of work by age groups, sex and geotype, 2013

Age groups	Male			Female		
	Mean travel time in minutes					
	Metro	Urban	Rural	Metro	Urban	Rural
15 to 24	54	37	44	46	37	42
25 to 34	52	39	47	48	34	44
35 to 44	52	39	47	53	35	44
45 to 54	50	38	44	46	36	40
55 to 64	46	36	45	43	34	39

Source: NHTS, 2013

Table 4.12 shows the mean travel time in minutes to place of work by age groups, sex and geotype. In 2013, the highest average travel times were found among males working in metros, while the lowest were found in urban areas. The same pattern is found among females, with average travel times in metro areas being the highest and those in urban areas being the lowest.

Figure 4.12: Time taken to get to places of employment by sex and municipalities-persons who travelled 30 minutes or more, 2016



Source: Community Survey, 2016

Figure 4.12 uses data from the 2016 Community Survey to indicate the percentages of males and females who travelled more than 30 minutes to commute to work for each of the 52 districts and metros in the country. In 2016, the three districts recorded percentages above the national average of males and females who travelled more than 30 minutes to get to work. Two of these were in Western Cape (i.e. Central Karoo and Overberg), with the third district recorded in Eastern Cape (Amathole).

In most districts, males were more likely than females to travel more than 30 minutes to get to work. Large gender differences were generally observed in districts within Northern Cape. With a GPR of 0,5, the largest gender difference was generally observed in North West (Bojanala), where males were twice as likely to travel more than 30 minutes when commuting to work than their female counterparts. Noticeable gender differences were also observed in districts such as Dr Kenneth Kaunda and Dr Ruth Segomotsi Mompati in North West, and Fezile Dabi in Free State (each with GPR=0,6 respectively), as well as in Z F Mgcawu in Northern Cape (at GPR=0,7).

Table 4.13: Gender parity ratios for time taken to get to places of employment, 2016

District	GPR
WC: Central Karoo	1,0
EC: Amathole	1,0
WC: Overberg	1,0
WC: Cape Winelands	1,0
LP: Mopani	1,0
WC: West Coast	1,0
NC: Pixley ka Seme	1,0
KZN: Zululand	1,0
WC: Eden	1,0
GP: City of Tshwane	1,0
GP: Sedibeng	1,0
EC: Sarah Baartman	1,0
FS: Mangaung	1,0
KZN: Amajuba	1,0
EC: Nelson Mandela Bay	1,0
LP: Capricorn	1,0

CS, 2016

Table 4.13 indicates that females residing in 16 of the 52 districts and metros were equally as likely as their male counterparts to travel more than 30 minutes to get to places of employment (GPR=1,0).

Number of different modes used to travel to work

Generally an efficient transport system can be characterised by the number of different modes used to reach a destination. The fewer changes needed, signify a more efficient system and vice versa. Respondents were asked to indicate four different modes of travel under four different variables. A composite variable was created to determine how many of the four questions were answered positively. Some respondents did not indicate any mode of travel. These non-responses are reflected as zero (0). Analysis in this section looks at the number of different travel modes used by males and females to travel to work.

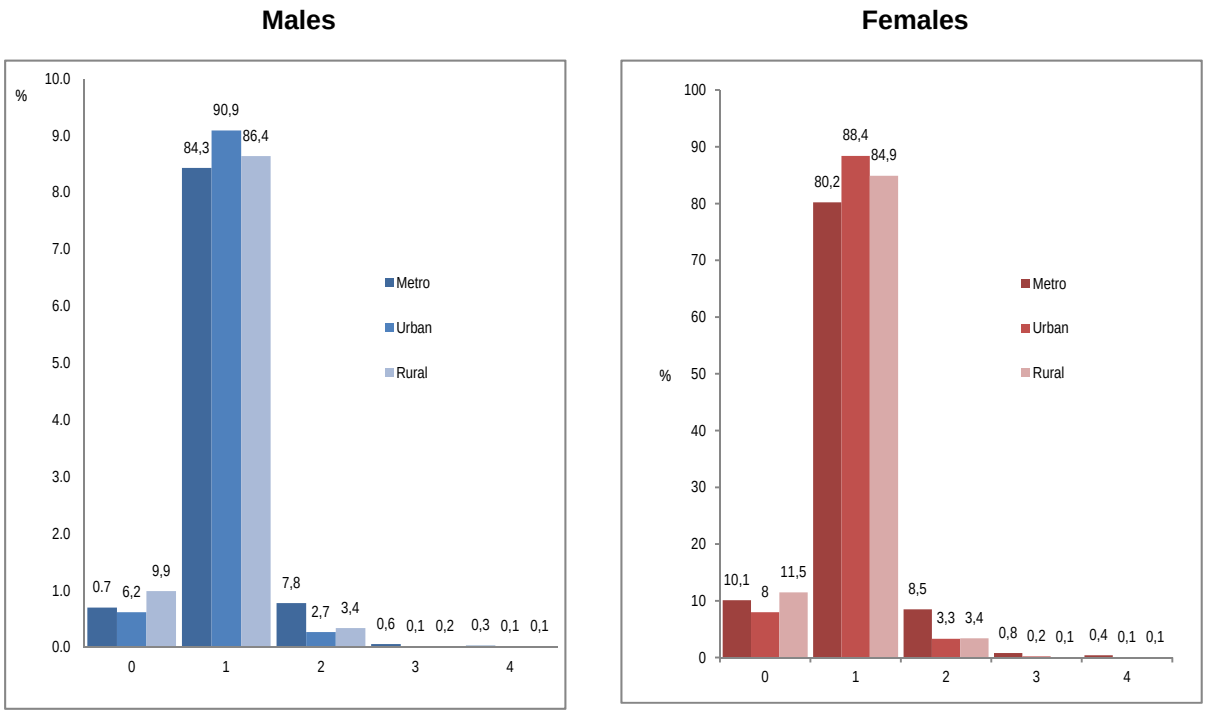
Table 4.14: Number of different travel modes used to get to work by sex, 2013

Number of travel modes used to get to work	Male		Female		Total	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
0	621 280	7,3	627 213	9,8	1 248 493	8,4
1	7 355 007	86,7	5 349 115	83,5	12 704 122	85,3
2	455 778	5,4	382 397	6,0	838 175	5,6
3	31 592	0,4	32 701	0,5	64 293	0,4
4	18 159	0,2	16 604	0,3	34 763	0,2
Total	8 481 816	100,0	6 408 030	100,0	14 889 846	100,0

Source: NHTS, 2013

Table 4.14 shows the number of different travel modes used by males and females to travel to work. In 2013, the majority of both males and females used one mode of travel, 86,7% of males and 83,5% of females. However, a slightly higher percentage of females used two or more modes of transport than males (6% for males and 7% for females)

Figure 4.13: Number of travel modes used to travel to place of employment by sex and geotype, 2013



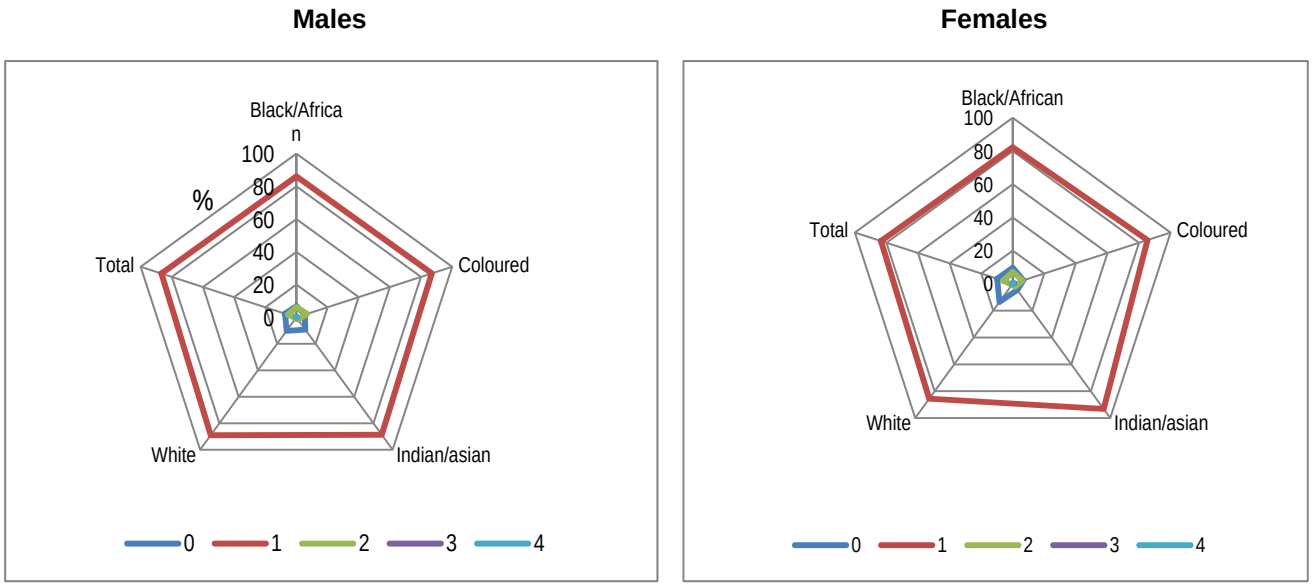
Source: NHTS, 2013

Figure 4.13 shows the number of different travel modes used by males and females to travel to their places of work by geotype.

As in previous analyses, the majority of people, both males and females, only utilised one mode of transport to travel to work in all the geotypes. This was especially true in urban areas for both males and females, but applied to a larger percentage of males than females. Males and females living in metros are more likely to use two modes or more than those living in other geotypes. Overall, the number of modes of transport used to travel to places of employment did not differ substantially between males and females.

The analysis below looks at sex differences in the number of travel modes used by population groups.

Figure 4.14: Number of travel modes used to travel to place of employment by population group and sex, 2013



Source: NHTS, 2013

White and Indian/Asian males and females were generally more likely to use only one mode of transport than other population group. The general trend observed in previous analyses showed slightly lower percentages of females who used one mode of transport to work than males. However, the percentage Indian/Asian females who used one transport mode was higher when compared to their male counterparts. Although small proportions of each population group use more than one mode of transport, such use was found mainly among black Africans (males: 6,9%, females: 8,1%) and coloureds (males: 7,6%, females: 7,8%).

Figure 4.15: Gender parity ratios for number of travel modes used to travel to place of employment by population group, 2013

	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1
1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
More than 1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1

Source: NHTS, 2013

Figure 4.15 looks at gender parity ratios relating to the number of travel modes used by males and females belonging to different population groups. As previously discussed, parity (i.e. equality) is reached at a ratio of 1,0. The figure above suggest that noteworthy gender differences exist between males and females who walk to places of employment (i.e. number of travel modes=0). Black African, coloured and white females were more likely to walk to work than their male counterparts. Indian/Asian females were less likely to do so compared to Indian/Asian males. Furthermore, wider gender gaps were observed among the Indian/Asian (GPR=0,5) and black African (GPR=1,4) population groups.

Table 4.15: Number of different travel modes used to travel to place of employment by sex and province, 2013

Number of travel modes	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
	Males									
	Per cent									
0	7,7	7,5	5,4	8,1	6,9	8,7	6,6	7,2	9,8	7,3
1	84,7	89,3	92,8	87,5	88,4	86,2	85,0	89,9	87,1	86,7
2 or more	7,5	3,1	1,9	4,3	4,7	5,1	8,4	2,9	3,2	6,0
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
	Females									
	Per cent									
0	10,4	10,3	5	12,5	7,4	9,7	9,9	9,3	13,0	9,8
1	81,4	84,2	93,1	82,5	87,1	84,8	81	86,3	84,2	83,5
2 or more	8,3	5,5	1,9	5,0	5,5	5,4	9,1	4,4	2,8	6,8
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**

Source: NHTS, 2013

Table 4.15 illustrates the number of different travel modes used to travel to place of employment by sex and province. The majority of both sexes in all the provinces only use one mode of travel. The highest proportions of males using only one mode were found in Northern Cape (92,8%), Mpumalanga (89,9%), Eastern Cape (89,3%) and KwaZulu-Natal (88,4%). The highest percentages

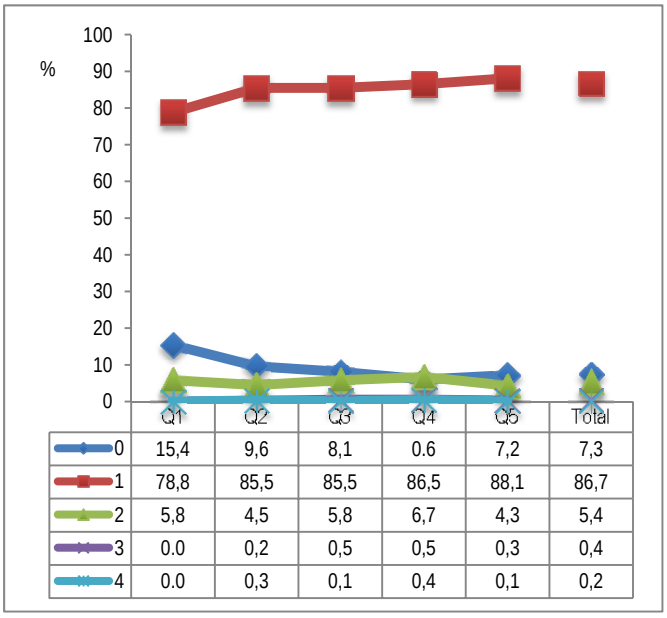
of females using a single mode of transport was also found in Northern Cape (93,1%). However, females in KwaZulu-Natal (87,1%) recorded the second highest use of a single mode of transport, ahead of use of Mpumalanga at 86,3%. Males were more likely to use only one type of transport to get to work than females. The largest gender differences within provinces were found in Eastern Cape with 5,1 percentage points. This was followed by Free State and Gauteng with 5,0 and 4,0 percentage points respectively.

Among males, 6% used more than one mode of transport to get to work. This was driven mainly by high percentages observed in Gauteng (8,4%), Western Cape (7,5%) and North West (5,1%). Females in Gauteng (9,1%) and Western Cape (8,3%) also contributed to the total average of females who utilised more than one type of transport to get to work. The total for females was approximately 7%. Females in all provinces, except Northern Cape, were more likely to use multiple modes of transport compared to males. Wider gender gaps were identified in Eastern Cape with a difference of 2,4 percentage points, and in Mpumalanga (1,5 percentage points).

The biggest gender differences regarding the number of transport modes used to get to places of employment by province was observed in those who walked to work. Females residing in Free State, Gauteng and Limpopo recorded much higher scores when compared to their male counterparts, i.e. differences of 4,4 , 3,3 and 3,2 percentage points respectively.

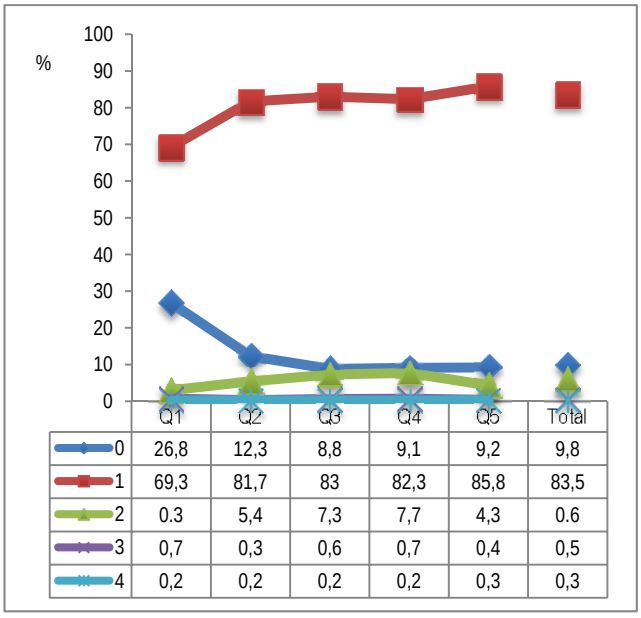
Figure 4.16: Monthly income quintiles by number of travel modes used to travel to work, 2013

Males



	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Total
0	15,4	9,6	8,1	0.6	7,2	7,3
1	78,8	85,5	85,5	86,5	88,1	86,7
2	5,8	4,5	5,8	6,7	4,3	5,4
3	0.0	0,2	0,5	0,5	0,3	0,4
4	0.0	0,3	0,1	0,4	0,1	0,2

Females



	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Total
0	26,8	12,3	8,8	9,1	9,2	9,8
1	69,3	81,7	83	82,3	85,8	83,5
2	0.3	5,4	7,3	7,7	4,3	0.6
3	0,7	0,3	0,6	0,7	0,4	0,5
4	0,2	0,2	0,2	0,2	0,3	0,3

Source: NHTS, 2013

Figure 4.16 shows the percentages of the number of travel modes used by males and females to travel to the place of employment for each income quintile. Males and females in all income quintiles mainly use only one mode of transport. The use of one mode of transport increased with an increase in household income quintile, particularly for females. Likewise, the use of more than one mode declined as the household income quintile increased. However, the observed decrease was sharper for females than for males.

Table 4.16: Gender parity ratios for number of travel modes used to travel to place of employment by income, 2013

Household income quintiles	0	1	2	3	4
Q1	1,7	0,9	0,5		
Q2	1,3	1,0	1,2	1,5	0,7
Q3	1,1	1,0	1,3	1,2	2,0
Q4	1,5	1,0	1,1	1,4	0,5
Q5	1,3	1,0	1,0	1,3	3,0
Total	1,3	1,0	1,1	1,3	1,5

Source: NHTS, 2013

Gender parity ratios as calculated in Table 4.16, however, show that females were more likely to report walking to work than males. This was particularly true for females living in households with monthly income falling in the lowest quintile (quintile 1).

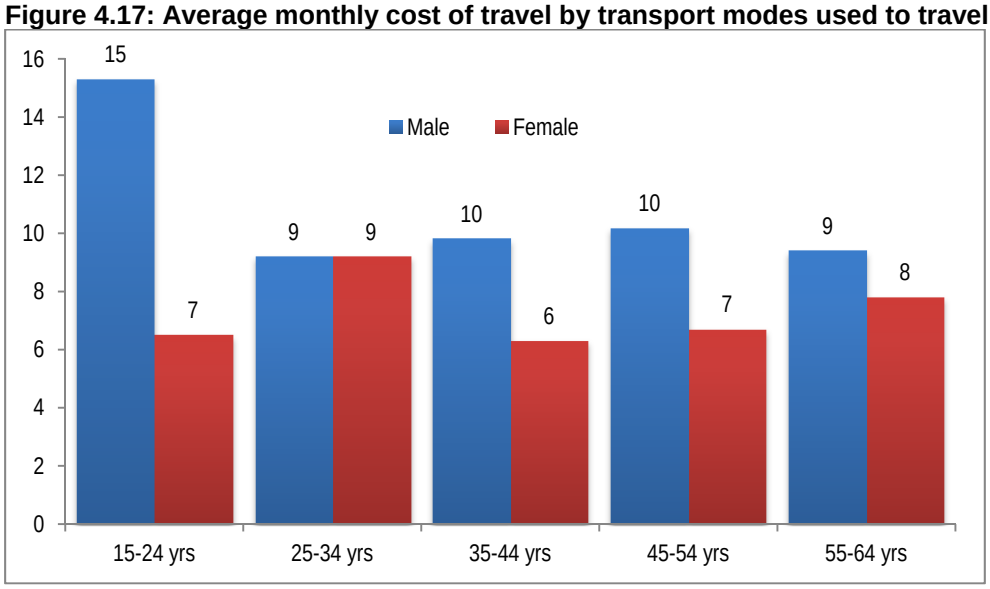
Irrespective of household income, no gender gaps are observed among those who use a single mode of transport.

The chances of females reporting the use of multiple modes of transport to work were higher than for males. This was true regardless of the household income. Furthermore, the observed gender gaps increased with reported household income, with the highest gender gaps noted for those falling in quintiles 4 and 5.

Mean cost of travel

The analysis below shows mean cost of travel to work by main mode of transport.

Figure 4.17: Average monthly cost of travel by transport modes used to travel to work and sex, 2013



Source: NHTS, 2013

Figure 4.17 indicates the mean cost of travel to work by main mode of transport. In 2013, the highest average monthly cost for both males and females travelling to work was on self-driven vehicles. The largest cost-differences by gender were also observed for those who self-drove. Males spent on average R529 per month more than that their female counterparts. The finding that males on average spent noticeably more than females on self-driving is not entirely surprising. Figures reported earlier in this report showed that males were more likely to self-drive to places of employment than females. In contrast, a high percentage of females used taxis, buses or were driven by others to get to work than males. However, females spent on average almost the same amount of money on these modes of transport than males.

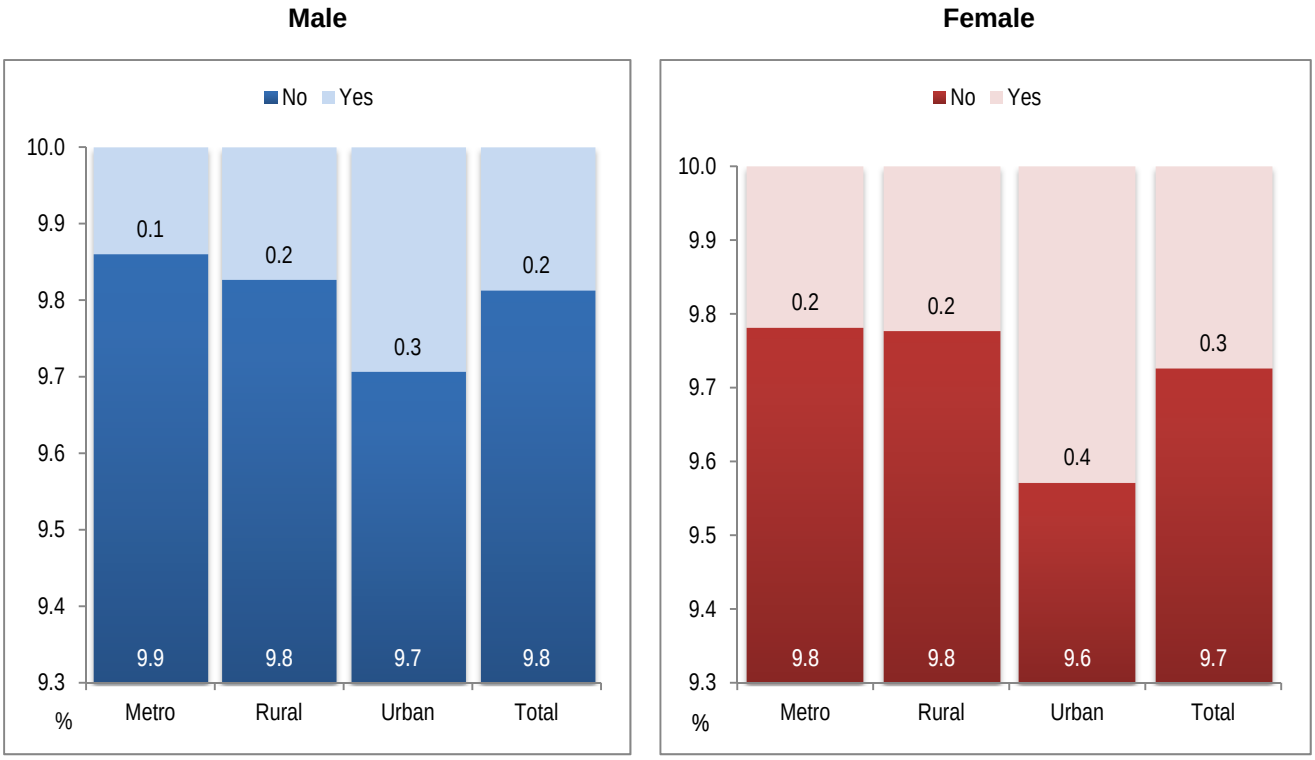
Table 4.17: Average monthly cost of transport by main mode, sex and population group, 2013

Main mode	Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Train	382	419	383	362	657	514	707	1 049
Bus	491	509	512	497	720	492	394	487
Taxi	590	537	527	489	560	615	598	786
Car/bakkie/truck/company car driver	950	984	738	807	2 958	982	1 898	1 656
Car/bakkie/truck passenger	705	637	613	620	730	733	717	831

Source: NHTS, 2013

Table 4.17 shows that among black Africans, females spent more than males on all transport modes except on taxis and vehicle passengers. The highest cost difference between males and females for this population group was for those who were vehicle passengers, where males spent R68,00 more than females. The average monthly cost patterns were different for the coloured population group. Females spent more than males on vehicles (either as drivers or passengers) only. For the Indian/Asian population group, it was males who generally spent more on all modes of transportation than females (except on taxis), where females spent R55,00 more than their male counterparts. It cost Indian/Asian males R1 976,00 more than females to drive to work. This is the highest gender difference observed in all population groups. However, these findings should be used with care as this population group is represented by a relatively small sub-sample in the data. Among whites, the average monthly cost for females was more than that of males for all transport modes except in vehicle-self driving, where males spent on average R242,00 more than their female counterparts.

Figure 4.18: Percentages of males and females who received cash for public transport to travel to and from work by geotype, 2013



Source: NHTS, 2013

Figure 4.18 summarises the percentages of males and females who received cash for public transport to travel to and from work by geotype. In general, very few males and females received cash for public transport to travel to and from work (Figure 4.18). In 2013, the national figure for females who reported having received cash for public transport to travel to and from work was above that recorded amongst males (i.e. 2,7% compared to 1,9% for males). More males and females who lived in urban areas reported receiving cash for public transport than in metros and rural areas. With a 1,3 percentage point difference between males and females who received cash for public transport to get to and from places of employment, some gender differences were observed in urban areas.

Earliest time to leave home for work

Table 4.18 shows the percentage of persons who departed for work during the different time intervals. Around a third of people (32,4%), left for work between the hours of 06:00 and 06:59. No gender differences were observed for persons leaving for work at this time. At approximately 30%, the second highest percentage amongst females left for work between 07:00 and 07:59, while males were second most likely to leave before 6:00. Furthermore, notable gender differences were observed for persons leaving before 6:00 (8,5 percentage point difference in favour for males) and

between 07:00 and 07:59 (5,9 percentage point difference in favour for females). In general, more females left for work later than 07:00 than males.

Table 4.18: Time leaving for work by sex, 2013

Time leaving to work	Male		Female		Total	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Before 6:00	1 997 908	23,6	966 894	15,1	2 964 802	19,9
06:00 to 06:59	2 779 367	32,8	2 051 052	32,0	4 830 419	32,4
07:00 to 07:59	2 035 419	24,0	1 912 837	29,9	3 948 257	26,5
08:00 to 08:59	440 407	5,2	406 058	6,3	846 465	5,7
09:00 to 09:59	113 816	1,3	117 118	1,8	230 934	1,6
10:00 or later	310 744	3,7	187 560	2,9	498 304	3,3
Not applicable	317 623	3,7	324 465	5,1	642 087	4,3
Unspecified	486 532	5,7	442 046	6,9	928 578	6,2
Total	8 481 816	100	6 408 030	100	14 889 846	100

Source: NHTS, 2013

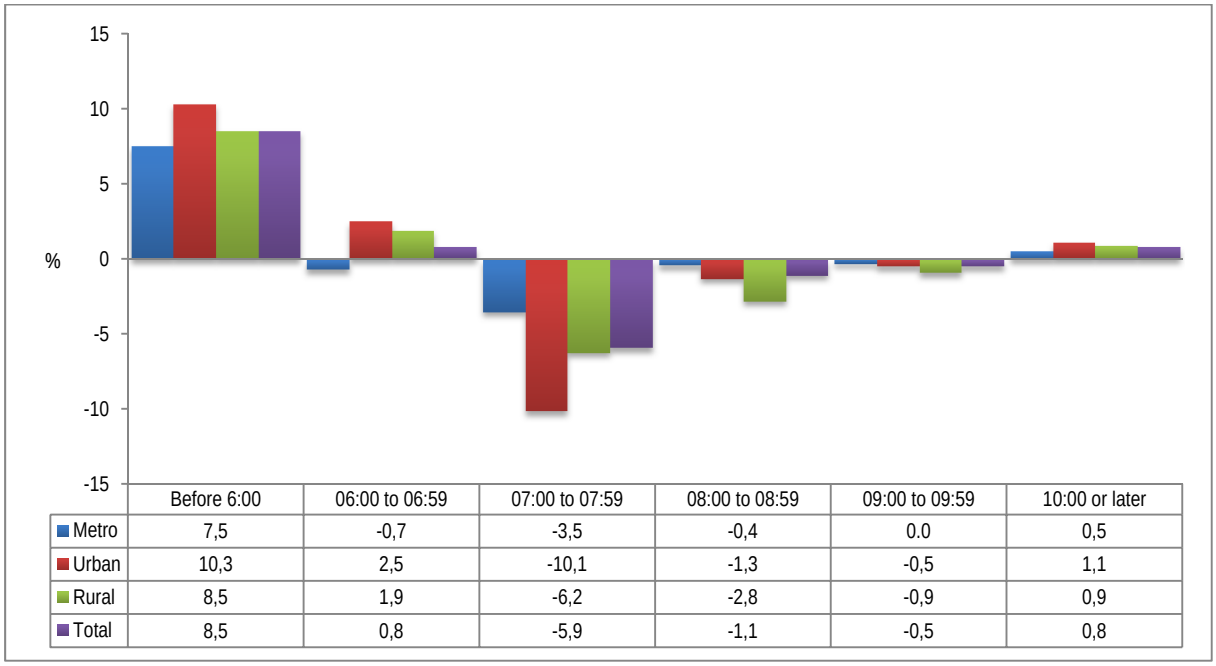
Table 4.19 looks at the different times for leaving for work by geotype in respect of males and females. The majority of males and females across all geotypes leave between the hours of 06:00 and 06:59. The largest percentages of males who left at this time were in urban and rural areas, while high percentages for females were observed in metros. Although females were generally less likely to leave for work before 6:00, those residing in rural areas were more likely to leave for work before 6:00 than females living in metros and urban areas.

Table 4.19: Time of leaving for work by geotype and sex, 2013

Time	Males				Females			
	Metro	Urban	Rural	Total	Metro	Urban	Rural	Total
	Per cent							
Before 6:00	22,8	21,7	28,1	23,6	15,3	11,4	19,6	15,1
06:00 to 06:59	32,0	33,7	33,2	32,8	32,7	31,2	31,3	32,0
07:00 to 07:59	23,7	27,5	19,7	24,0	27,2	37,6	25,9	29,9
08:00 to 08:59	6,3	4,7	3,1	5,2	6,7	6,0	5,9	6,3
09:00 to 09:59	1,7	0,9	1,2	1,3	2	1,4	2,1	1,8
10:00 or later	4	3,7	2,8	3,7	3,5	2,6	1,9	2,9
Not applicable	3,9	2,8	4,7	3,7	5,3	3,9	6	5,1
Unspecified	5,6	5	7,1	5,7	7,3	5,9	7,4	6,9
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100,0	100

Source: NHTS, 2013

Figure 4.19: Percentage differences in time for leaving for work for males and females by geotype, 2013



	Before 6:00	06:00 to 06:59	07:00 to 07:59	08:00 to 08:59	09:00 to 09:59	10:00 or later
Metro	7,5	-0,7	-3,5	-0,4	0.0	0,5
Urban	10,3	2,5	-10,1	-1,3	-0,5	1,1
Rural	8,5	1,9	-6,2	-2,8	-0,9	0,9
Total	8,5	0,8	-5,9	-1,1	-0,5	0,8

Source: NHTS, 2013

Figure 4.19 illustrates the percentage differences in time for leaving for work for males and females by geotype. The figure shows that gender differentials are highest among males and females who leave work before 06:00 and between 07:00 and 07:59. Males were more likely to leave for work before 06:00 than females. Females, on the other hand, largely made their way to work between 07:00 and 07:59. In urban areas, a higher percentage of males left for work before 06:00 than their female counterparts (a difference of more than 10 percentage points). This was followed by those residing in rural areas with around 9 percentage point difference between males and females. High gender differences were also observed for those who left for work between 07:00 and 07:59, particularly in urban areas. The percentage of urban females who left for work at this time was, again, above 10 percentage points higher than urban males.

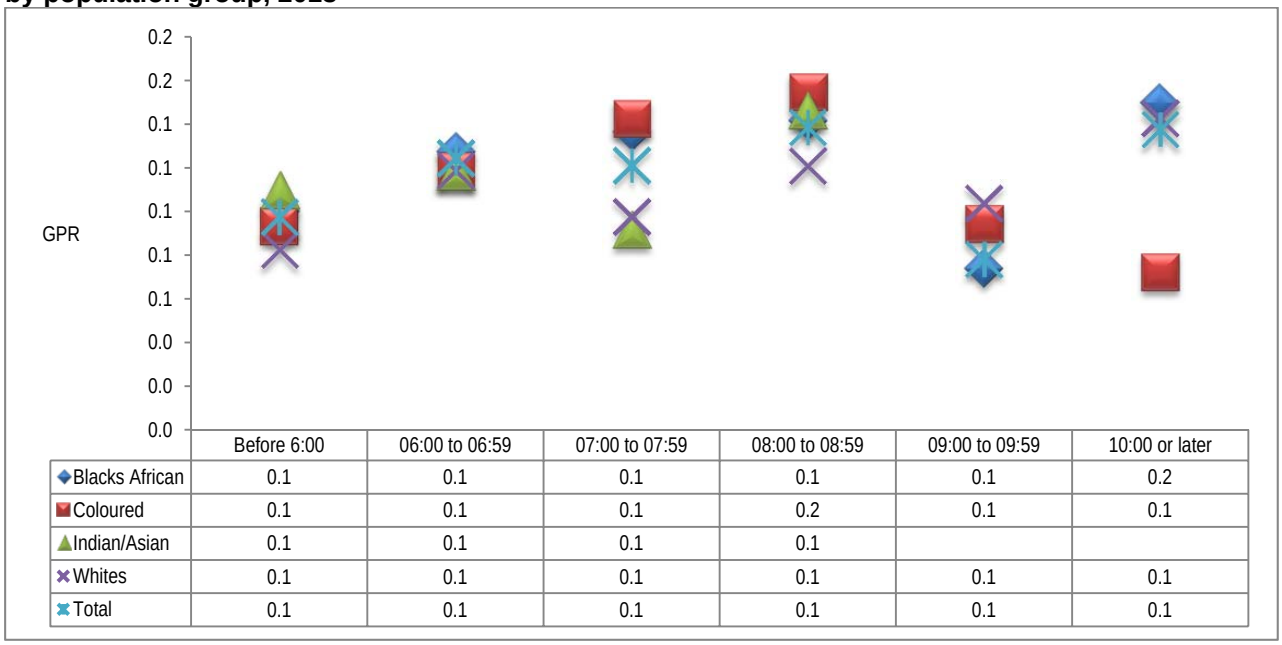
Table 4.20: Time of leaving for work by sex and population group, 2013

Time	Males					Females				
	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
	Per cent					Per cent				
Before 6:00	28,4	16,0	6,5	9,1	23,6	18,8	9,8	3,2	3,8	15,1
06:00 to 06:59	32,6	39,7	27,1	30,2	32,8	32,7	37,1	29,7	25	32
07:00 to 07:59	20,6	28,5	36,5	34,3	24	26,3	33,8	43,3	40,8	29,9
08:00 to 08:59	4,1	4,7	12,3	8,9	5,2	5,6	6,7	11,3	8,7	6,3
09:00 to 09:59	1,2	1,1	2,6	1,9	1,3	1,7	1,7	3,8	2,3	1,8
10:00 or later	3,9	3,6	3,3	2,7	3,7	2,9	3,4	2,0	2,8	2,9
Not applicable	3,2	2,9	6,3	6,3	3,7	4,8	2,1	3,3	9	5,1
Unspecified	5,9	3,5	5,4	6,5	5,7	7,2	5,4	3,4	7,7	6,9
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100,0	100

Source: NHTS, 2013

Table 4.20 analyses the times of departure for work among population groups by sex. More black African and coloured males left for work before 6:00 than their Indian/Asian and white counterparts. This trend was repeated amongst females. A higher percentage of whites and Indians/Asians left for work between 07:00 and 07:59 compared to black Africans. This is due to a higher percentage of black Africans who leave home before 06:00 than individuals belonging to other population groups.

Figure 4.20: Gender parity ratios for time of leaving for work to travel to places of employment by population group, 2013



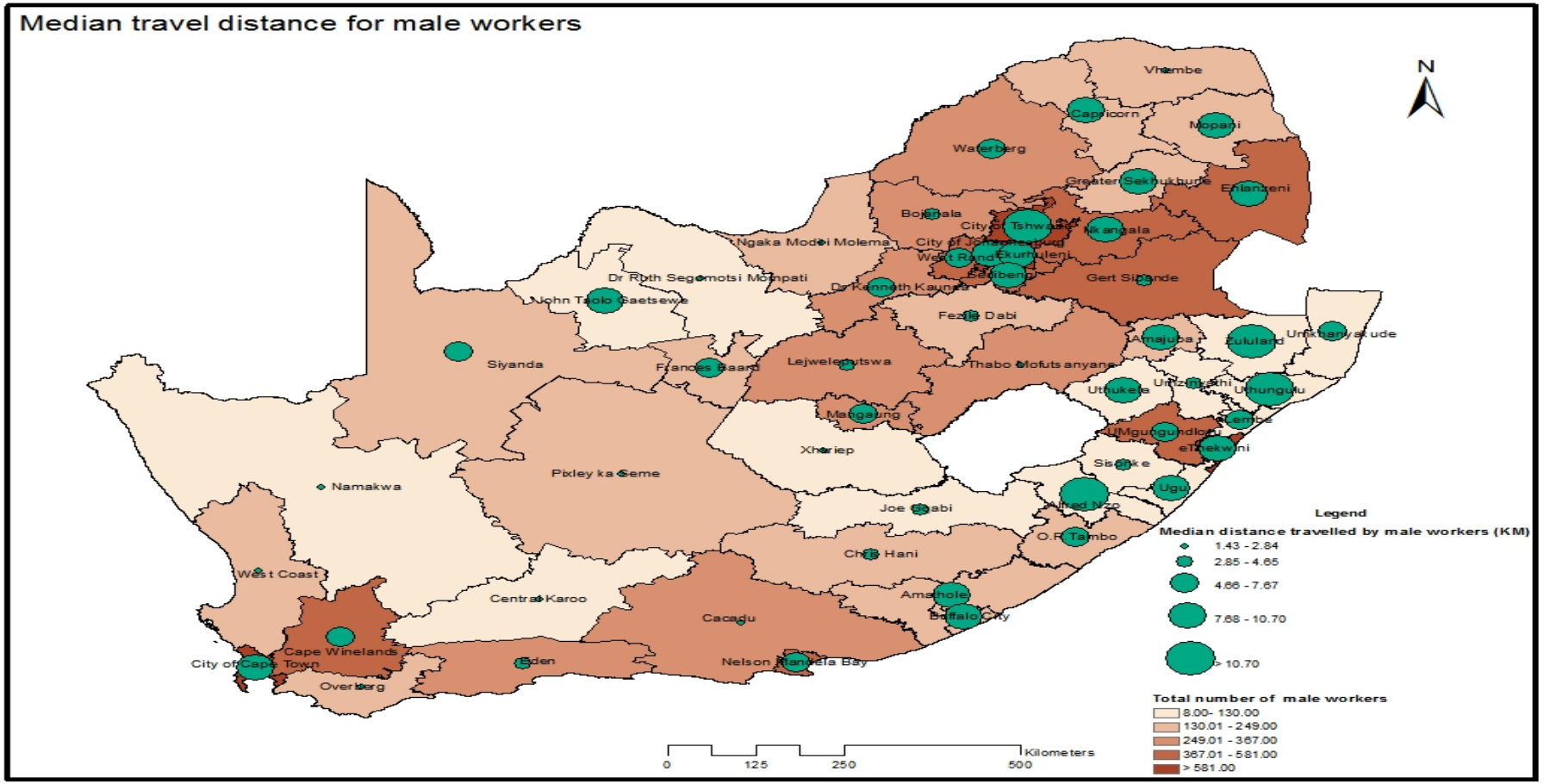
	Before 6:00	06:00 to 06:59	07:00 to 07:59	08:00 to 08:59	09:00 to 09:59	10:00 or later
Blacks African	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Coloured	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1
Indian/Asian	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1		
Whites	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1

Source: NHTS, 2013

Figure 4.20 shows that in 2013, no gender gaps were observed amongst black Africans who left for work before 06:00. The gender gap between males and females started to widen the later the time for leaving for work was recorded (i.e. after 06:00). Large gender gaps were observed for the Indian/Asian and coloured population groups who departed between 08:00 and 08:59 (GPR=1,5 respectively) as well as amongst black Africans who left for work at 10:00 or later (GPR=1,5). In all cases, females were more likely to leave for work at those specified times than their male counterparts.

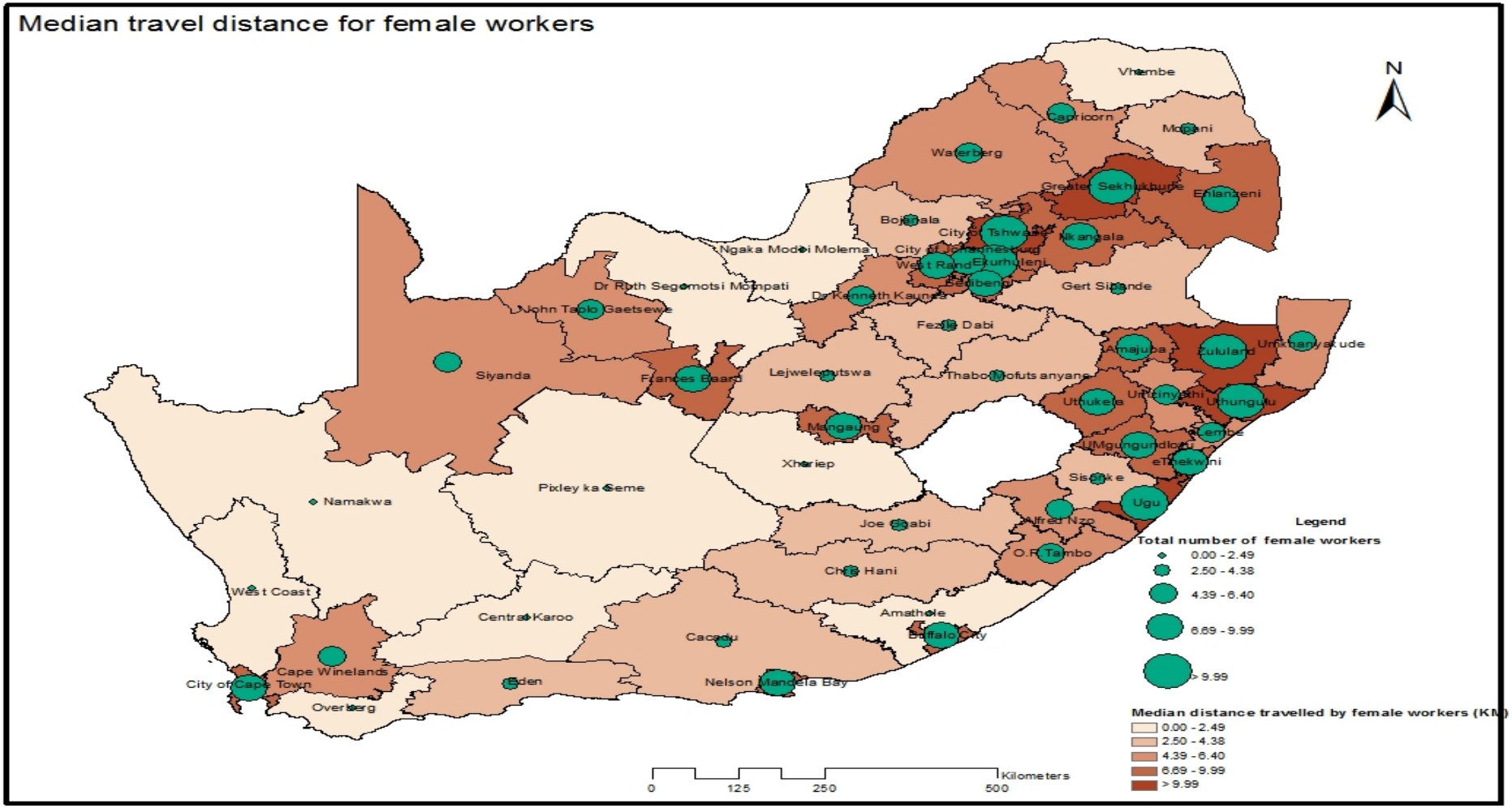
Distances travelled from places of origin to work

Map 4.1: Percentage of male workers per district council and their median travel distances from their place of origin to work



Source: NHTS, 2013

Map 4.2: Percentage of male workers per district council and their median travel distances from their place of origin to work



Source: NHTS, 2013

The NHTS 2013 provided data on the sub and main place that was the destination of workers. Since no data are available about the exact coordinates for the workplace, the distance from place of origin to place of work has been calculated using the centroid of the destination sub-place polygon.

The maps on the preceding page show that there are differences between male and female travellers in relation to distances travelled to work if the analysis is done at DC level. District councils where employed males are more likely to travel more than 10 kilometres to work were: Uthungulu, Cty of Tshwane, Zululand, Alfred Nzo, City of Cape Town, City of Johannesburg, Ekhurhuleni, Mopani and Greater Sekhukhune.

In the case of females, the district councils where the median distances travelled to work exceeded 10 km included: Uthungulu, City of Tshwane, Ugu, Zululand, Ekhurhuleni, Greater Sekhukhune and City of Johannesburg.

Table 4.21: Mean and median travel distances of men and women in the 25 DC's where women had the longest median travel distances to work, by sex, 2013

		Mean distance in km		Median distance in km			
Province	DC name	Male	Female	Male	Female	Difference of the Mean	Difference of the Median
KZN	UTHUNGULU	17,1	19,2	17,2	13,9	2,00	-3,37
GP	CITY OF TSHWANE	22,9	26,0	14,4	13,5	3,12	-0,93
KZN	UGU	20,1	34,0	9,0	12,1	13,91	3,13
KZN	ZULULAND	41,4	31,4	12,7	11,8	-10,01	-0,90
GP	EKURHULENI	14,9	13,7	10,5	11,4	-1,16	0,89
LP	GREATER SEKHUKHUNE	32,6	21,4	10,0	10,7	-11,21	0,69
GP	CITY OF JOHANNESBURG	18,3	18,9	10,7	10,0	0,57	-0,67
WC	CITY OF CAPE TOWN	16,8	17,3	10,8	9,3	0,55	-1,47
KZN	AMAJUBA	19,4	22,5	9,4	9,3	3,06	-0,18
KZN	UTHUKELA	22,5	25,2	9,0	9,0	2,72	0,00
KZN	UMGUNGUNDLOVU	20,9	27,2	7,7	8,9	6,37	1,29
EC	BUFFALO CITY	18,4	25,0	8,6	8,8	6,58	0,24
KZN	ETHEKWINI	17,0	16,8	9,7	8,4	-0,22	-1,25
MP	NKANGALA	29,4	40,9	8,3	8,3	11,50	0,00
GP	SEDIBENG	14,0	13,1	8,1	8,1	-0,94	0,05
MP	EHLANZENI	20,9	16,7	9,3	7,4	-4,27	-1,87
GP	WEST RAND	11,8	13,4	7,4	7,4	1,56	0,00
EC	NELSON MANDELA BAY	15,3	18,6	7,5	7,4	3,31	-0,08
FS	MANGAUNG	29,5	27,5	7,5	7,1	-2,01	-0,36
NC	FRANCES BAARD	8,3	8,1	5,5	6,9	-0,22	1,43
LP	CAPRICORN	26,0	39,1	8,0	6,7	13,08	-1,33
KZN	UMZINYATHI	32,6	40,2	3,5	6,7	7,61	3,17
EC	ALFRED NZO	38,0	17,4	12,4	6,2	-20,60	-6,18
KZN	ILEMBE	16,8	16,4	5,9	6,0	-0,33	0,10
NW	DR KENNETH KAUNDA	8,5	6,7	6,3	5,8	-1,73	-0,47

Source: NHTS 2013

Also see Appendix A for a detailed list of travel distances for males and females per DC

Travel for business trips

For the purpose of the NHTS a business trip is a trip taken during the course of one's work for business purposes. It does not include trips to one's usual place of work and focuses on trips 20 km or more away from the usual place of work. A business trip can be a day or overnight trip or both. In this section data collected in respect of the main mode of travel concerning the longest part of a trip that was undertaken during a month is referred to as the main mode of travel. The analysis in this part of the report looks at the main mode of travel for business trips.

Table 4.22: Main mode of travel for business trips, 2013

Main mode of business travel categories	Male		Female		Total	
	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number
Train	0,8	7 605	1,1	4 501	0,9	12 106
Bus	3,0	29 203	4,7	20 285	3,5	49 489
Short distance minibus/metered taxi	5,0	49 603	8,7	37 315	6,2	86 918
Long distance minibus taxi	3,9	38 548	6,4	27 459	4,7	66 007
Sedan/bakkie taxi	0,9	8 579	2,0	8 626	1,2	17 205
Vehicle passenger	10,7	105 682	14,1	60 503	11,8	166 185
Vehicle driver	46,9	462 291	37,5	160 665	44,1	622 956
Company vehicle	13,7	134 544	10,0	42 973	12,6	177 518
Aircraft	12,2	119 770	12,0	51 489	12,1	171 258
Other	1,3	12 646	1,6	6 960	1,4	19 606
Unspecified	1,7	16 254	1,7	7 138	1,7	23 392
Total	100	984 726	100	427 912	100	1 412 638

Source: NHTS, 2013

Table 4.22 depicts the main mode of travel for business trips, 2013. In 2013, the main mode of transport used by both males and females when undertaking business trips was self-driven motor vehicles, with higher percentages observed among males (i.e. 46,9% vs. 37,5%). The second most prevalent main mode for males was the use of a company vehicle (13,7%), while travelling as a passenger in a vehicle was second for females, at 14,1%. Thirdly, with 12,2% and 12,0% for males and females respectively, both sexes were equally most likely to use aircraft for business travel. In addition to availability, the choice of the mode of transport also depends on the journey to be undertaken. For example, the use of aircraft would only be necessary for long-distance trips. The expectation is that trucks and other utility vehicles could be job-dependent and would be the choice of contractors.

Table 4.23a: Main mode of travel for those undertaking business trips by province, 2013: Males

Main mode of business travel categories	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
	Per cent									
Train	1,7	0,0	0,0	0,7	0,7	0,0	0,9	0,0	0,3	0,8
Bus	2,1	1,6	1,3	0,7	2,5	4,2	3,0	2,5	8,1	3,0
Short distance minibus/metered taxi	1,0	4,9	0	4,1	7,2	4,8	4,6	6,9	12,6	5,0
Long distance minibus taxi	1,2	3,6	3,6	5,3	1,6	7,8	4,3	6,1	4,5	3,9
Sedan/bakkie taxi	0,0	0,9	1,4	1,0	1,4	2,3	1,0	0,0	0,4	0,9
Vehicle passenger	8,7	9,8	18,8	8,8	9,4	19,9	9,4	14,3	14,1	10,7
Vehicle driver	46,5	46,0	44,3	39,9	42,3	42,1	51,7	45,8	39,9	46,9
Company vehicle	11,0	21,2	26,7	30,0	15,2	14,8	9,1	20,4	12,5	13,7
Aircraft	26,5	9,7	2,6	0,5	13,0	2,0	14,8	0,7	1,8	12,2
Other	0,3	1,4	0,0	8,0	2,2	0,5	0,9	0,5	0,0	1,3
Unspecified	1,1	0,9	1,2	0,9	4,5	1,5	0,4	2,8	5,7	1,7
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: NHTS, 2013

Table 4.23a illustrates the main mode of travel for those undertaking business trips by province. In 2013, the most prevalent mode of travel for business among males was by self-driven vehicles. This was true for all provinces. The second most prevalent mode was company vehicles. Among males, Free State had the highest use of company vehicles (30,0%) and Northern Cape the second highest (26,7%). The percentage of individuals who used company vehicles for business trips in the provinces containing big metros was found to be relatively lower than the other provinces: Western Cape (11,0%), KwaZulu-Natal (15,2%) and Gauteng (9,1%). Travel by aircraft was, however, higher in these provinces.

Table 4.23b: Main mode of travel for those undertaking business trips by province, 2013: Females

Main mode of business travel categories	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	Total
	Per cent									
Train	3,4	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,4	2,3	1,1	0,0	0,0	1,1
Bus	2,6	5,4	1,8	0,6	5,4	8,4	3,5	9,6	10,0	4,7
Short distance minibus/metered taxi	1,5	9,4	2,6	7,4	13,1	12,1	7,6	10,1	16,7	8,7
Long distance minibus taxi	0,0	12,0	4,3	16,9	8,6	9,5	3,5	17,0	3,6	6,4
Sedan/bakkie taxi	0,0	9,5	2,2	2,0	3,5	0,0	1,7	0,6	2,1	2,0
Vehicle passenger	17,4	11,4	20,1	17,8	14,7	20,9	10,5	18,9	16,6	14,1
Vehicle driver	37,5	29,6	22,7	20,5	29,3	28,1	48,9	29,4	26,8	37,5
Company vehicle	7,9	16,7	25,5	18	11,3	14,7	4,5	14,4	18,6	10,0
Aircraft	29,7	2,5	11,1	1,3	10,1	1,7	16,4	0,0	2,0	12,0
Other	0,0	0,9	5,8	13,5	0,8	0,0	1,0	0,0	0,0	1,6
Unspecified	0,0	2,7	3,8	2,1	2,9	2,2	1,3	0,0	3,8	1,7
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: NHTS, 2013

Table 4.23b shows the main mode of travel for those undertaking business trips by province. The findings for females reflected those observed among their male counterparts. The most prevalent mode of travel for business trips for females was also the use of self-driven vehicles. This was followed by the use of company vehicles in the Eastern Cape, Northern Cape, Free State and Limpopo, with Northern Cape having the highest percentage of respondents in this regard (25,5%), and Limpopo (18,6%). As found with males, the percentages of respondents who used company vehicles was relatively lower in wealthier provinces i.e. Western Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and Gauteng.

Whereas train use was concentrated in Western Cape among males (1,7%), the use of trains for females was limited to the Western Cape (3,4%) and North West (2,3%). The Western Cape and Gauteng showed the highest percentages in the use of aircraft (29,7% and 16,4%, respectively). The use of aircraft among females within the two provinces was higher than for males. The most prevalent use of long-distance taxis for both males and females was found in Mpumalanga, Free State and the Eastern Cape. Higher percentages were, however, observed among females.

Table 4.24a: Main mode of travel for business trips by age, 2013: Males

Main mode of business travel categories	15 to 24	25 to 34	35 to 44	45 to 54	55 to 64	Total
	Per cent					
Train	0,6	0,5	1,0	0,9	0,5	0,8
Bus	1,0	3,4	3,4	2,8	1,8	3,0
Short distance minibus/metered taxi	11,4	7,0	4,6	3,0	3,6	5,0
Long distance minibus taxi	8,2	5,4	4,4	2,0	1,7	3,9
Sedan/bakkie taxi	3,4	0,9	0,5	1,1	0,4	0,9
Vehicle passenger	20,6	14,3	11,2	6,0	7,5	10,7
Vehicle driver	28,5	35,9	43,6	59,1	62,4	46,9
Company vehicle	19,3	19,0	14,3	9,2	7,0	13,7
Aircraft	3,0	8,5	15	13,2	14	12,2
Other	2,9	2,3	0,8	1,2	0,0	1,3
Unspecified	1,1	2,7	1,2	1,4	1,1	1,7
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: NHTS, 2013

Table 4.24a shows the use of different modes of transport for business trips by age among males. For males, the percentage that self-drove for business increased with age. A similar trend is observed for females (Table 4.24b). However, the percentage increase within each age group among males was higher than that observed for females.

Tables 4.24a and 4.24b show that the use of a company vehicle was higher for males that females across all age groups. Additionally, company vehicle use declined with age, both for males and females. However, the gender gap between males and females who used company vehicles narrows with age, with the lowest percentage difference found among those aged 45–55 years and 55–64 years.

It was found that for males, the use of short-distance minibus taxis and long-distance taxis for business travel also decreased with age. A similar pattern was observed for females, only with regard to the utilisation of long-distance taxis (Table 4.24b). However, the percentages of females who used short-distance minibus taxis increased with age.

Table 4.24b: Main mode of travel for business trips by age, 2013: Females

Main mode of business travel categories	15 to 24	25 to 34	35 to 44	45 to 54	55 to 64	Total
	Per cent					
Train	2,1	0,9	0,7	1,3	1,4	1,1
Bus	3,2	4,5	5,2	4,4	5,8	4,7
Short distance minibus/metered taxi	6,1	8,6	8,8	9,0	9,6	8,7
Long distance minibus taxi	10,0	6,5	6,5	7,0	2,6	6,4
Sedan/bakkie taxi	2,7	1,6	2,2	1,7	3,0	2,0
Vehicle passenger	27,1	14,7	12,6	11,6	15,7	14,1
Vehicle driver	28,9	31,2	38,9	41,3	46,7	37,5
Company vehicle	13,5	11,8	10,2	8,3	7,1	10,0
Aircraft	1,5	13,0	13,2	14,0	7,3	12,0
Other	1,7	4,2	1,1	0,0	0,0	1,6
Unspecified	3,2	2,9	0,8	1,3	1,0	1,7
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

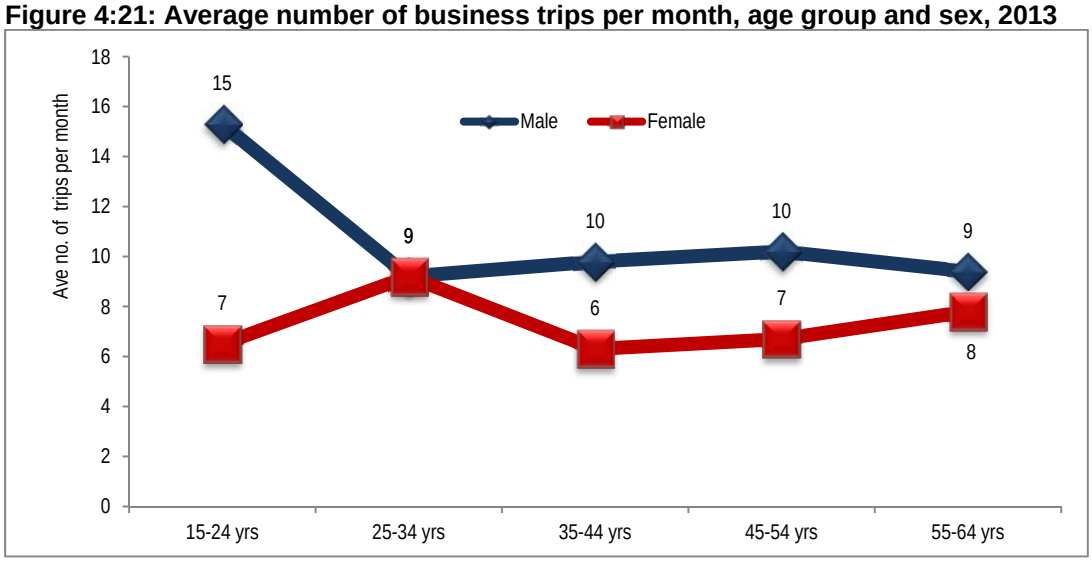
Source: NHTS, 2013

Table 4.24b shows the main modes of travel for business trips in respect of females of different age groups. Self-driven vehicles were found to be the main mode of travel for all age groups. Travelling in a motor vehicle as a passenger is the second most common mode for females between the ages of 15–34 years and for those in the 55–64 age group. The second most common main mode for females aged 35–54 was travelling in company vehicles. Around 2% of females aged 15–24 years used trains. No males in this age group were shown to make use of this mode of transport. The use of short-distance taxis increased with age. Aircraft travel was mainly undertaken by females aged 25–54 years.

Average number of business trips per month

This section analyses gender differences in number of business trips per month (average). Figure 4.21 looks at age, while Figure 4.22 disaggregates figures by population group.

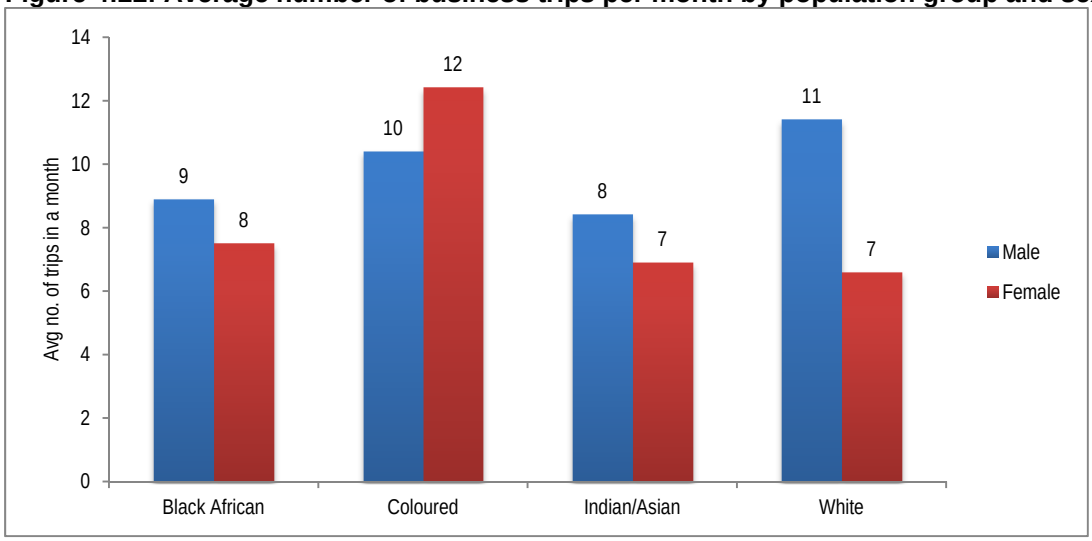
Figure 4:21: Average number of business trips per month, age group and sex, 2013



Source: NHTS, 2013

It can be seen from Figure 4.21 that, on average, males in the 15–24 age group undertook the most trips in a month (15). The largest gender gap between the two sexes was also found among this age group, with females of all ages generally undertaking less business trips when compared to males. The only exception to this is the 25–34 year age group which had the highest monthly average for females.

Figure 4:22: Average number of business trips per month by population group and sex, 2013



Source: NHTS, 2013

Figure 4.22 reflects the average number of business trips per month by population group and sex. In 2013, coloured females and white males undertook the most trips for business (average trips of 12 and 11 per month respectively). Furthermore, males of other races recorded on average, higher numbers of business trips than their female counterparts. However, as it was the case with table 2.7 the coloured population group showed a pattern which is different from other population groups. As the figure depicts, among coloureds, it was females who undertook more trips than males. Indian/Asian and white females undertook, on average, the lowest number of business trips per month.

Factors influencing household travel choice

This section discusses the travel choices of employed individuals by the sex of the household heads. The analyses are tabulated by population groups and geotypes.

Table 4.25: Factors affecting transport mode of employed persons by sex of the household head, 2013

Reasons for selecting transport mode	Sex of the household head		
	Male	Female	Total
Travel time	32,3	32,7	32,4
Travel cost	24,3	24,2	24,3
Safety from accidents	8,8	9,3	8,9
Security from crime	2,5	2,7	2,6
Flexibility (you can travel wherever you want, whenever you want)	11,3	9,2	10,7
Drivers' attitude	3,0	3,6	3,2
Distance from home to transport/accessibility	3,3	4,0	3,5
Comfort	6,1	5,5	5,9
Timetable not available/information inaccurate	0,6	0,7	0,6
Reliability	5,1	5,1	5,1
Other	1,4	1,6	1,5
Unspecified	1,3	1,5	1,4
Total	100	100	100

Source: NHTS, 2013

Table 4.25 depicts the factors affecting transport mode of employed persons by sex of the household head. In 2013, the choices of both male- and female-headed households on the type of transport used were mainly based on travel time and travel costs. This was true for both male- and female-headed households. No differences were found in the percentages of male- and female-headed households who mentioned these factors. The third criterion for the choice of transport for male-headed households was flexibility (11,3%). On the other hand, the third reasons for female-headed households were flexibility and safety from accidents (9,2% and 9,3%, respectively). Security from crime was not a major criterion for the choice of transport.

Table 4.26: Factors affecting transport mode to place of employment by population group, 2013

Reasons for selecting transport mode	Male-headed households					Female-headed households				
	Black African	Coloured	Indian/ Asian	White	Total	Black African	Coloured	Indian/ Asian	White	Total
	Per cent					Per cent				
Travel time	35,3	24,3	25,8	26,6	32,6	34,8	25,7	26,9	26,1	32,2
Travel cost	25,9	31,7	12,7	15,7	24,6	25,2	30,0	13,4	15,6	24,0
Safety from accidents	8,5	9,4	16,3	9,5	9,0	8,1	9,8	15,5	9,9	8,8
Security from crime	2,0	3,7	5,2	4,1	2,6	1,9	3,8	5,0	4,0	2,5
Flexibility (you can travel wherever you want, whenever you want)	7,5	11,4	17,0	22,9	10,4	7,8	11,9	15,8	24,2	10,9
Drivers' attitude	3,3	2,5	3,2	2,3	3,1	3,5	2,8	3,0	2,5	3,2
Distance from home to transport/ accessibility	4,0	2,8	1,8	1,8	3,5	4,3	2,4	2,5	0,9	3,5
Comfortableness	4,8	7,9	11,2	7,8	5,8	5,1	7,5	9,8	8,1	6,0
Timetable not available/ information inaccurate	0,7	0,5	0,4	0,2	0,6	0,7	0,6	0,4	0,2	0,6
Reliability	5,1	3,3	2,2	5,9	4,9	5,7	3,4	4,2	5,3	5,3
Other, specify	1,6	1,5	0,8	1,2	1,5	1,5	1,1	0,7	1,3	1,4
Unspecified	1,2	1,0	3,4	2	1,4	1,3	0,9	2,7	1,9	1,4
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: NHTS, 2013

Table 4.26 indicates the factors affecting transport mode to place of employment by population group. In 2013, the main reasons for the choice of transport for all population groups were mainly based on travel time and travel costs. Safety from accidents and flexibility were also significant motives. Households headed by black African males had a higher concern for travel time (35,3%) and lesser need for flexibility (7,5%) than those headed by males belonging to other population groups. Households headed by white males reported the highest need for flexibility (22,9%), while those headed by their coloured counterparts were more concerned about travel costs than the other population groups. Households headed by Indian/Asian males on the other hand, considered safety from accidents (16,3%) and comfortableness (11,2%) as greater concerns than other groups.

Choices for households headed by black African, Indian/Asian and white females were mainly based on travel times, with the highest percentages observed among black Africans (34,8%). Households headed by coloured females mainly based their choice of transport on the cost of travelling (30,0%). Their second criterion is based on travel times (25,7%). Travel costs were the second criterion used by the other population groups. As observed for their male counterparts, households headed by white females also had the highest reliance on flexibility (24,2%). Those headed by Indian/Asian females had a greater need for comfortableness (9,8%), followed by whites (8,1%).

Table 4.27: Factors affecting choice of transport mode for business trips by geotype, 2013

Reasons for selecting transport mode	Male-headed households				Female-headed households			
	Metro	Urban	Rural	Total	Metro	Urban	Rural	Total
	Per cent				Per cent			
Travel time	32,7	30,9	34,7	32,6	31,7	30,9	35,2	32,2
Travel cost	24,2	24,8	25,0	24,6	23,8	22,9	25,9	24,0
Safety from accidents	10,5	7,6	7,4	9,0	9,5	8,7	7,1	8,8
Security from crime	3,1	2,4	1,7	2,6	3,1	2,0	1,9	2,6
Flexibility (you can travel wherever you want, whenever you want)	11,3	10,6	8,0	10,4	12,3	10,4	8,2	10,9
Drivers attitude	2,8	3,4	3,3	3,1	3,3	3,5	2,6	3,2
Distance from home to transport/ accessibility	2,7	3,5	5,5	3,5	2,9	3,1	5,7	3,5
Comfortableness	5,5	7,3	4,5	5,8	6,0	7,6	3,9	6,0
Timetable not available/ information inaccurate	0,6	0,5	0,8	0,6	0,7	0,5	0,7	0,6
Reliability	4,0	6,0	5,8	4,9	4,5	6,6	5,8	5,3
Other, specify	1,3	1,6	1,9	1,5	1,1	1,9	1,5	1,4
Unspecified	1,3	1,4	1,4	1,4	1,1	2,0	1,4	1,4
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Source: NHTS, 2013

Table 4.27 shows that there were consistencies within the different geotypes to mentioning travel time as the highest concern, travel costs as the second highest criterion and flexibility as the third highest criterion for males. There were, however, higher concerns for safety from accidents in the metro areas (10,5%). Households headed by males in rural areas showed a higher concern for the distance from home to transport accessibility (5,5%).

The choices for households headed by females were similar to that of males with travel time, travel costs and flexibility being the highest concerns. Females in rural areas, however, also had the highest concern for distance to transport facilities (5,7%) and they were least concerned about crime when deciding on transport mode.

Attitudes and perceptions about transport

The analysis detailed in this section explores attitudes and perceptions as revealed by employed male and female household heads.

Main problem experienced

Table 4.28: Main transport-related problems experienced by male- and female-headed households, 2013

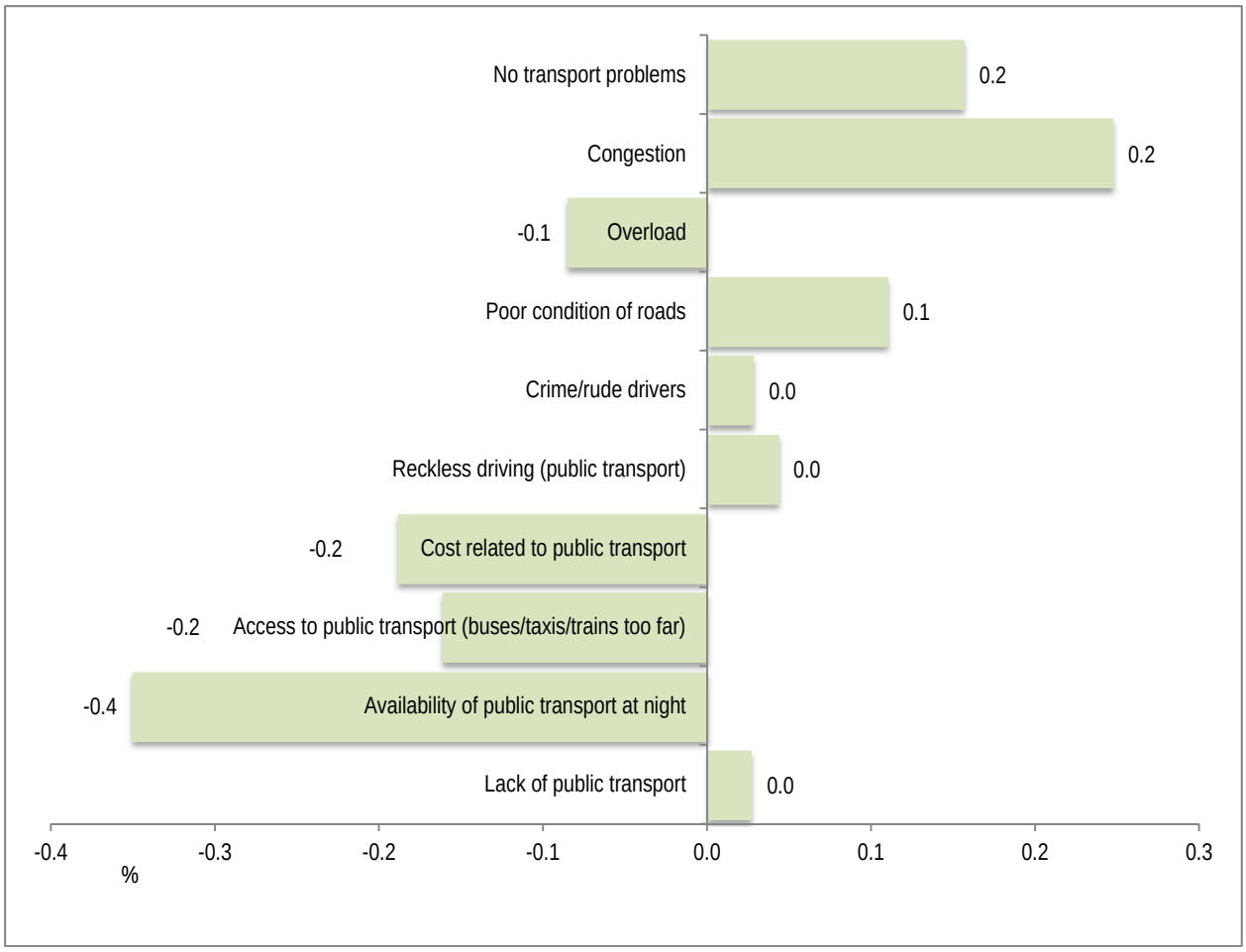
Main problem experienced by household	Male-headed households		Female-headed households		Total	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Lack of public transport	1 954 720	19,7	884 325	19,5	2 839 044	19,6
Availability of public transport at night	1 095 976	11,1	661 753	14,6	1 757 729	12,2
Access to public transport (buses/taxis/trains too far)	625 232	6,3	360 064	7,9	985 296	6,8
Cost related to public transport	923 644	9,3	509 188	11,2	1 432 833	9,9
Reckless driving (public transport)	1 015 713	10,3	446 256	9,8	1 461 969	10,1
Crime/rude drivers	732 199	7,4	323 015	7,1	1 055 214	7,3
Poor condition of roads	905 536	9,1	365 414	8,0	1 270 950	8,8
Overload	273 338	2,8	164 174	3,6	437 512	3,0
Congestion	499 648	5,0	116 884	2,6	616 531	4,3
No transport problems	1 380 128	13,9	561 918	12,4	1 942 046	13,4
Other	502 682	5,1	151 695	3,3	654 377	4,5
Total	9 908 814	100,0	4 544 686	100,0	14 453 500	100,0

* Figures exclude unspecified and not applicable.
Source: NHTS, 2013

In 2013, the three most mentioned problems experienced by both male- and female-headed households were related to public transport (Table 4.28). The lack of public transport and the availability of public transport at night were reported first and second by both sexes. Gender differences were observed in the third most mentioned problem experienced. Households headed by males reported reckless driving, while those headed by females were dissatisfied with the cost of public transport. Around 14% and 12% of male- and female-headed households did not report any transport-related problems.

Figure 4.23 shows percentage differences in the main problem experienced between households headed by males and females.

Figure 4.23: Percentage differences in main problem experienced by male- and female-headed households, 2013



Source: NHTS, 2013

Figure 4.23 summarises the percentage differences in the main problem experienced between households headed by males and females[16]. According to Figure 4.23, more households headed by females than males reported problems associated with the unavailability of public transport at night, issues relating to distance when accessing public transport and the cost of public transport than those headed by males. On the other hand, a higher percentage of male-headed households complained about traffic congestion than their female counterparts. Households headed by males were more likely not to report transport problems that those headed by females.

The largest gender differences reported for the main reported transport problem were observed for those reporting in the unavailability of public transport at night and traffic congestion problems – 3,5 percentage points difference (in favour of female-headed households) and 2,5 percentage points difference (in favour of male-headed households).

[16] A table which informs this figure is attached as appendix B

Levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with public transport: Buses and Taxis

The analysis above looked at highlighting the main problems experienced by employed individuals with transport. As shown, the top three transport-related problems listed involved the use of public transport. Accordingly, the analyses shown in this section focuses on levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with various aspects of public transport as reported by employed male- and female-headed households. Table 4.29 analyses data for those who used buses and Table 4.30 details information for taxi users in the calendar month.

Table 4.29: Satisfaction with bus services, 2013

Satisfaction with bus services	Male-headed households		Female-headed households		Total
	Very satisfied/ Satisfied	Very dissatisfied/ Dissatisfied	Very satisfied/ Satisfied	Very dissatisfied/ Dissatisfied	
	Per cent				
The distance between the bus stop and your home	72,2	27,8	71,6	28,5	100
The travel time by bus	70,8	29,2	66,6	33,4	100
Security on the walk to/from the bus stop	65,2	34,7	64,4	35,6	100
Security at the bus stops	64,0	36,0	63,5	36,6	100
Security on the buses	70,6	29,4	69,3	30,7	100
The level of crowding in the bus	54,9	45,1	50,4	49,5	100
Safety from accidents	72,6	27,5	70,4	29,6	100
The frequency of buses during peak period	68,2	31,8	63,9	36,0	100
The frequency of buses during off-peak period	65,8	34,2	61,5	38,5	100
The punctuality of buses	71,8	28,2	69,2	30,8	100
The bus fares	73,2	26,8	72,8	27,3	100
The facilities at the bus stops e.g. shelters	49,5	50,5	47,7	52,2	100
Behaviour of the bus drivers towards passengers	78,2	21,8	77,5	22,6	100
The bus service overall	72,6	27,3	70,8	29,2	100
Availability of information	70,0	30,0	69,7	30,3	100

Source: NHTS, 2013

Table 4.29 shows data for satisfaction with bus services. In 2013, both male- and female-headed households were mostly satisfied with various aspects of bus services. The highest percentages of satisfaction for households headed by males were reported for aspects such as the behaviour of the bus drivers towards passengers (78,2%), bus fares (73,2%) and the distance travelled between the bus stop and home (72,2%). Male-headed households were mostly dissatisfied with facilities available at the bus stops e.g. shelters (50,5%) and levels of crowding in buses (45,1%). A similar trend was observed for female-headed households. However, slightly higher percentages were recorded for dissatisfaction with facilities available at the bus stops (49,5%) and crowding in buses (52,2%).

Notable gender gaps in satisfaction were observed in four aspects of bus services. These were travel time by bus, levels of crowding in the bus, frequencies of buses during peak periods and off-peak periods. Households headed by females were on average more than 4 percentage points less satisfied than their male counterparts.

Table 4.30: Satisfaction with taxi services, 2013

Satisfaction with taxi services	Male-headed households		Female-headed households		Total
	Satisfied/ Very satisfied	Dissatisfied/Very dissatisfied	Satisfied/Very satisfied	Dissatisfied/Very dissatisfied	
	Per cent				
The distance between the taxi rank/route and your home	69,2	30,7	69,0	31,0	100
The travel time by taxi	76,3	23,7	76,0	24,0	100
Security on the walk to/from the taxi rank	61,2	38,8	63,4	36,7	100
Security at the taxi ranks	61,1	38,8	63,0	37,0	100
Security on the taxis	65,7	34,3	67,3	32,7	100
The level of crowding in the taxis	62,4	37,6	61,9	38,2	100
Safety from accidents	55,6	44,3	57,0	43,0	100
The frequency of taxis during peak period	68,0	32,0	67,2	32,8	100
The frequency of taxis during off-peak period	63,8	36,3	63,2	36,8	100
The waiting time for taxis	59,0	41,1	57,9	42,2	100
The taxi fares	48,7	51,3	47,1	52,8	100
The facilities at the taxi ranks e.g. shelters	44,4	55,6	45,0	55,0	100
Roadworthiness of taxis	55,6	44,4	55,8	44,2	100
Behaviour of the taxi drivers towards passengers	56,6	43,4	58,7	41,2	100
The taxi service overall	60,7	39,3	62,3	37,7	100

Source: NHTS, 2013

Table 4.30 depicts data for satisfaction with taxi services. Generally, both male- and female-headed households were satisfied with the various conditions and services provided by the taxi industry. Differences in dissatisfaction were only observed in taxi fares and facilities at taxi ranks. Households headed by females were more likely than those headed by males to report dissatisfaction with these two aspects, with 10 percentage points difference for those dissatisfied with facilities in taxi ranks and 1,5 percentage points for dissatisfaction with taxi fares.

Of interest is to note that a slightly higher percentage of male-headed households than females reported issues pertaining to security and behaviour of drivers toward passengers. No gender differences were observed in the percentages of male- and female-headed households who reported dissatisfaction with security and the behaviour of drivers toward passengers for those who used buses (see Table 4.30). A higher percentage of female-headed households were satisfied with the overall service of buses and taxis than households headed by males.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this report was to highlight gender patterns in transport. The analyses mainly focused on three broad areas. General transport patterns and establishing transport patterns in education were discussed in chapters 2 and 3 respectively, while transport, work and gender were covered in chapter 4. Although this report primarily detailed gender differences in modes of transport, it lays the foundation for a series of future reports that begin to highlight the theme of gender and transport by highlighting that mobility is a multi-faceted phenomenon which bears significant impact on women's empowerment.

Findings:

General travel patterns

General travel patterns were analysed according to reasons for undertaking either a day or an overnight trip, the mode of travel used for the trips and the reasons for not taking any trip. This gave a general picture of travel needs for both males and females. While very little gender disparities were observed when reasons for taking day trips were analysed, it is important to note that day trips for medical and reasons related to self-care, such as for example going to a wellness spa were skewed toward females. This was found to be true across geographical areas and population groups. Trips taken for medical reasons demand to be gazed through a gender lens as they reflect the core of what gender scholars such as Potgieter (2008) and Mashiri (2005) mean when they argue that men and women have different transport needs. The reproductive health needs of women mean that they need to frequent health care facilities more than men. Above all that, the patriarchal structure of the society often leaves the burden of care solely on the shoulders of women, resulting in women making more medically related trips than men. As shown by the findings of both day and overnight trips, black African and coloured females were more likely than females of other population groups and males of their own population group to undertake trips for medical purposes. For people residing in settings with poor infrastructure such rural and peri-urban areas, this becomes even more difficult as reliable and safe transport in such settings is not always available.

The Department of Transport's commitment to the provision of effective and accessible public transportation systems needs to be treated with urgency. As the findings of this report suggests, for the poor people who reside outside of the metros, public transportation remains the only option. For example, the analysis of mode of transport for day trips showed that it was black Africans who were least likely to drive or to be passengers in a vehicle. The findings also showed that black African and coloured females were least likely to be passengers in vehicles when compared to other population groups.

The analysis of reasons for not travelling showed that taking care of children/sick/elderly was a factor among more females than males. Indian/Asian females recorded the highest percentage (5,2% compared to none for males), followed by the black African (5,1% females and 0,5% males) and white population group (4,9% females and 0,9% males). It was 4,7% of females and 0,7% of males who indicated this reason among the coloured population group. Caring work is the area of work that is never rewarded accordingly and rarely given the recognition it deserves, according to

Mashiri et al (2005)[17]. The transport needs of women performing these duties are often neglected and this is most likely because gender is not imbedded in transport strategies, which has made it difficult for those who provide care to attend to other aspects of their own well-being.

Travel patterns to education institutions

Transport is among the key factors in determining access to education in South Africa. The opening of doors to previously disadvantaged people would be meaningless if key determinants of access are not critically examined. As demonstrated in this report, issues that determine the choice of travel mode to institutions of learning still reflect the discriminatory practices of the apartheid era.

Modes of transport to basic education facilities show that taxis were most likely to be used by more females than males, and this was true for all geographic areas. The findings also show that those who reside in metros were less likely to walk to school than pupils in urban and rural areas. More males than females in all geographical locations reported that they walked to an education facility because public transport was too expensive. In urban areas it was 11% of males compared to 10,5% of females, while in rural areas 9,7% of males compared to 9,3% of females reported high cost as the main reason. The metropolitan areas recorded lowest percentages compared to other areas with 8,1% for males and 6,7% for females.

These findings echo the sentiments dominant in gender and transport literature[18] that access to centres of learning are negatively impacted by poor access to transport. As argued in chapter three, for young girls residing in poorly resourced settings, a lack of access to effective public transport has multi-fold implications such as predisposition to sexual violence and dropping out of school. The structural differences between social contexts (rural and urban settings) also pose varying challenges that transport policies need to be responsive to. Lack of transport for rural pupils, for example, could mean walking very long distances and sometimes having to cross rivers.

The findings also point to a heavy reliance on public transport when travelling to institutions of higher learning by previously disadvantaged people. This makes the calls for the provision of the effective and affordable transport even stronger. As it is often argued, one of the mechanisms to effectively deal with gender-based violence is to make women financially independent[19]. In South Africa, education remains the main viable option for financial independence and the transport sector has to play a role in ensuring that it is accessible. As highlighted in chapter three, it is white and Indian/Asian population groups that are likely to drive to PSET institutions with males having a higher likelihood than females, except for black Africans were males and females were equally likely to drive.

[17] Mashiri, M., Buiten, D., Mahapa, S., Zukulu, R. 2005. Towards setting a research agenda towards mainstreaming gender in the transport sector. CSIR

[18] Mashiri, M., Buiten, D., Mahapa, S., Zukulu, R. 2005. Towards setting a research agenda around mainstreaming gender in the transport sector. CSIR

[19] Mashiri, M. and Naude, A. 2002. A rural transport and development strategy for South Africa CR-2002/72. Pretoria

Work-related transport patterns and gender

Studies show that gender differences in access to resources lead to differences in travel and transport patterns (Uteng, 2006)[20]. Access to effective modes of transport has been found to be essential for labour force participation. With restricted access, women's daily mobilities emerge and could give rise to different labour market opportunities (Uteng, 2006). In this report, differences between males and females relating to the modes of travel used to get to places of employment were revealed. For example, findings showed that the majority of both males and females self-drove (28,0%) or used taxis (24,4%) to get to their place of employment. A higher percentage of males (31,8%) drove themselves to work than females. Females mostly utilised taxis (27,6%) to get to places of work. With gender parity ratios (GPR) of 0,5 and 0,6, the largest gender gaps were observed amongst males and females driving themselves to work and those who used trains. Amongst persons who drove to work, gender differences were highest amongst those living in Mpumalanga and Limpopo. With regard to taxi use, more females in Northern Cape (GPR=2,4), Western Cape and Mpumalanga (GPR=1,6 respectively) as well as North West (GPR=1,5) used taxis to get to work than their male counterparts.

Generally speaking, females were more likely to use public transport, except for trains, and as vehicle passengers. For females, the use of public transport was most prevalent in KwaZulu-Natal (45,3%), Mpumalanga (42,8%), North West (42,5%) and Gauteng (41,8%). Across all provinces, the use of buses or trains as a form of public transport to get to work was lower than taxis. However, the percentages of females in Mpumalanga (18,8%), North West (11,1%) and Limpopo (10,4%) who used buses and those who used trains in Western Cape (11,6%) were noticeable. Findings in the report also showed that gender differences between males and females in modes of transport used to get to work also increased with age. This was true particularly for those who used taxis. The gap between older females and males aged 55–64 years who used taxis, was widest compared to their younger counterparts. i.e. the older the female, the more likely she is to use a taxi as a means of transport to travel to work than a male in the same age group category.

Although the present report did not directly investigate car-ownership, results showing an overwhelmingly majority of males who self-drive may indicate gender inequalities in access to vehicles. Access, in this sense (and for the purposes of the present report), relates to ownership and/or social gendered norms that impact access (e.g. the contextualisation of traditional female roles). An example of this is the notion that males are perceived as the drivers within households, regardless of who owns the vehicle in a household. On the other hand, research shows that asset ownership (which includes owning a car) is higher among males than females. Likewise, in 2013 the share of females aged 18 years and older with a driver's licence (which is a prerequisite for self-driving) in South Africa was a little more than 35%, (Gender Series I: Economic Empowerment, 2014). The main advantage of having access to a vehicle is that it gives the freedom to travel. Individuals who have access to a vehicle are less limited to fixed routes and timetables. The lack of '*access'* to vehicles amongst females as implied by the report findings therefore, takes on a gendered phenomenon. It is necessary for policy makers and developers to tackle details of these constrained accesses to truly empower women. Similarly, if females are significantly in the majority as public transport users, planning and service design for such services should essentially be about

[20] Uteng Priya, T. 2006. Mobility: Discourses from the non-western immigrant groups in Norway, *Mobilities* 1(3) pp. 435-462.

ensuring the delivery of not only improving access in public transport, but also aligning issues of safety and quality of services from a gender perspective, e.g. exposure to sexual violence and victimisation.

While gender variations in transport use can be established owing to differentiated access and patriarchal social norms, differences can also be attributed to differences in demographic, economic and social factors such as income, age, population group and child care responsibilities. The findings regarding this are highlighted below.

Influence of household income

The use of public transport was highest for both males and females living in households with an income below the R21 002 income bracket. However, within each income bracket, females were more likely to use public transport than their male counterparts. Gender differences were, however, largest for those living in households in higher income categories. The percentages of females within the R5 233–R9 500 and R9 506–R21 0001 household income brackets who used public transport to get to places of employment were 9,2 and 8,5 percentage points higher than for males in the same household income categories.

Child care

In this report, the number of minor children present in the household was used as a proxy for child care responsibilities. The percentages of males who drove themselves to work declined with an increase of the number of minor children within a household. High percentages of taxi use were mostly observed for females, regardless of the number of children present in a household. However, among females residing in households with no minor children, the percentages of those who used taxis and those who reported self-driving were virtually equal (i.e. 26,1% for taxi and 26,9% for self-driving). As in trends observed for males, the percentages of females who self-drove to work dropped with an increase in the number of minor children present in a household. Likewise, a positive relationship was observed between walking to work and an increase in the number of minor children in a household. However, the decline (self-driving) and the increase (walking) observed in trends for females were steeper than those found among their male counterparts.

Studies show that women's trip scheduling tends to be more complex than men, especially if there are dependent children in the home, creating more spatio-temporal constraints on their activity participation (Gordon, 1989)[21]. Rosenbloom and Burns (1994)[22] report that women adjust their schedules to accommodate their fulltime employment with little or no adjustments from their male partners. Women were also found to be less able to adjust their schedules and travel patterns to accommodate alternative schedules (which includes child care) or transportation modes (Rosenbloom & Burns, 1994). On the other hand, Chapple (2001)[23] found that childcare obligations can require low-income women to seek employment closer to home than men.

[21] Gordon, L., Riger, S. 1989. The Female Fear (Free Press, New York)
[22] Rosenbloom, S., Burns, E. 1994. "Why working women drive alone: implications for travel reduction programs" *Transportation Research Record* 1459 39-45
[23] Chapple, K. 2001. "Time to work: job search strategies and commute time for women on welfare in San Francisco" *Journal of Urban Affairs* 23 155-73

Number of modes of transport

The chances of females reporting the use of multiple modes of transport to work were higher than for males. This was true regardless of the amount stated for household income, provincial, age and racial disaggregation. Literature shows that women spend more time engaging in activities relating to the household than men (TUS, 2010). These household responsibilities often include child care and may be taken on the way to or from work. The result is that women make more frequent but short trips (Lu & Pas, 1998)[24]. While factors such as child care could explain gender differences in the number of modes used for travel, the result of this report also point to the need for further research. For example, what are the factors which push women to use multiple modes of transport to places of employment? Do they live further from work than males? Are females more likely to work in places where access to transport is difficult? Is this driven by types of occupations for females? Further investigation into the afore-mentioned research questions are critical in providing a holistic picture into gender differences in number of modes used for travel to work.

Average monthly cost of travel to work

In 2013, the highest average monthly cost for both males and females travelling to work was for self-driven vehicles. The largest cost-differences by gender were also observed for those who self-drove. Males spent on average R529 per month more than their female counterparts. The finding that males on average spent noticeably more than females on self-driving is not entirely surprising. Figures reported earlier in this report showed that males were more likely to self-drive to places of employment than females. In contrast, a significant number of females used more taxis, buses or were driven by others to get to work than males. However, females spent on average almost the same amount of money on these modes of transport as males.

The second part of analyses in chapter 4 examined gender differences in transport used for business travel. According to Uteng (2006) and as discussed in work travel, male and female contrasts in business travel are established owing to, but not limited to, differentiated access and attitudes and norms, differences in patterns of commuting and employment.

[24] Lu, X., Pas, E. 1998. “Socio-demographics, activity participation and travel behaviour” *Transportation Research Part A* 33 1-18

Business travel

The main mode of transport used by both males and females when undertaking business trips was also self-driven motor vehicles, with higher percentages observed among males (i.e. 45,5% vs. 37,4%). The second most prevalent main mode for males was the use of a company vehicle (13,7%), while travelling as a passenger in a vehicle was second for females, also at 13,7%.

Free State had the highest use of company vehicles (30,0%) and Northern Cape the second highest (26,7%). The percentage of individuals who used company vehicles for business trips in the provinces containing big metros was found to be relatively lower than the other provinces: Western Cape (11,0%), KwaZulu-Natal (15,2%) and Gauteng (9,1%).

Use of different modes of transport for business trips differed by age. For males, the percentage that self-drove for business increased with age. A similar trend was observed for females. However, the percentage increase within each age group among males was higher than that observed among females. On the other hand, the use of a company vehicle declined with age, both for males and females. The gender gap between males and females who used company vehicles narrows with age. The lowest percentage differences between the sexes were found among those aged 45–55 years and 55–64 years. It was also found that for males, the use of short-distance minibus taxis and long-distance taxis for business travel also decreased with age. A similar pattern was observed for females, only with regard to the utilisation of long-distance taxis. However, the percentages of females who used short-distance minibus taxis increased with age.

Type of transport used

The present report also investigated factors which influenced types of transport used. It was found that the modal choices of both male- and female-headed households were mainly based on travel time and travel costs. This was true for both male- and female-headed households. The third criterion for the choice of transport for male-headed households was flexibility (11,3%). On the other hand, the third most prevalent reasons for female-headed households were flexibility and safety from accidents (9,2% and 9,3%, respectively).

Geographical disaggregation of the data further showed that there were higher concerns for safety from accidents in metro areas (10,5%). Distance from home to transport, i.e. accessibility, was of equal importance to male- and female-headed households living in rural areas.

In conclusion, the results of this report highlighted the ways in which gender differences in travel patterns may relate to women empowerment. Rather than being a singular function of transport provision, the daily travel of males and females in this country is influenced by not only cultural and socially constructed norms around gender, but also by a set of complex demographic, social and economic hierarchies. This report suggests that these factors are highly interrelated and influential in the gendering issues around travel. A new discourse focusing on prevalent social/cultural norms, transport infrastructure and planning and governance (women's presence and participation in policy planning and implementation around transport) should therefore be established.

APPENDIX A

Table A1: Mean and median travel distances of men and women by sex, 2013

Province	DC name	Mean distance in km		Median distance in km		Difference of the Mean	Difference of the Median
		Male	Female	Male	Female		
WC	WEST COAST	13,2	10,8	2,4	1,9	-2,40	-0,52
WC	CAPE WINELANDS	12,0	12,2	5,6	5,7	0,17	0,14
WC	OVERBERG	5,5	8,1	1,8	2,5	2,58	0,73
WC	EDEN	12,0	8,4	3,5	3,4	-3,64	-0,18
WC	CENTRAL KAROO	4,5	5,3	1,9	1,7	0,77	-0,25
WC	CITY OF CAPE TOWN	16,8	17,3	10,8	9,3	0,55	-1,47
EC	CACADU	17,5	11,5	2,8	2,8	-6,02	-0,08
EC	AMATHOLE	22,2	13,2	9,9	2,0	-9,02	-7,82
EC	CHRIS HANI	29,7	12,1	4,3	3,9	-17,61	-0,37
EC	JOE GQABI	14,5	17,8	3,1	3,1	3,26	0,00
EC	O,R,TAMBO	12,1	11,1	5,5	4,8	-0,98	-0,66
EC	ALFRED NZO	38,0	17,4	12,4	6,2	-20,60	-6,18
EC	BUFFALO CITY	18,4	25,0	8,6	8,8	6,58	0,24
EC	NELSON MANDELA BAY	15,3	18,6	7,5	7,4	3,31	-0,08
NC	NAMAKWA	9,7	15,7	1,8	1,4	6,06	-0,47
NC	PIXLEY KA SEME	14,3	9,5	2,1	2,1	-4,88	0,00
NC	SIYANDA	21,3	26,5	6,0	4,6	5,21	-1,40
NC	FRANCES BAARD	8,3	8,1	5,5	6,9	-0,22	1,43
NC	JOHN TAOLO GAETSEWE	17,6	13,1	8,9	4,8	-4,45	-4,07
FS	XHARIEP	12,6	8,0	1,4	1,4	-4,69	0,00
FS	LEJWELEPUTSWA	11,3	11,2	4,7	4,0	-0,12	-0,62
FS	THABO MOFUTSANYANE	19,7	32,0	2,3	3,0	12,32	0,65
FS	FEZILE DABI	10,4	12,6	3,3	3,3	2,18	0,00
FS	MANGAUNG	29,5	27,5	7,5	7,1	-2,01	-0,36
KZN	UGU	20,1	34,0	9,0	12,1	13,91	3,13
KZN	UMGUNGUNDLOVU	20,9	27,2	7,7	8,9	6,37	1,29
KZN	UTHUKELA	22,5	25,2	9,0	9,0	2,72	0,00
KZN	UMKHANYAKUDE	24,2	12,5	5,4	4,6	-11,63	-0,76
KZN	UTHUNGULU	17,1	19,2	17,2	13,9	2,00	-3,37
KZN	SISONKE	40,1	20,3	3,7	3,6	-19,84	-0,15
KZN	UMZINYATHI	32,6	40,2	3,5	6,7	7,61	3,17
KZN	AMAJUBA	19,4	22,5	9,4	9,3	3,06	-0,18
KZN	ZULULAND	41,4	31,4	12,7	11,8	-10,01	-0,90
KZN	ILEMBE	16,8	16,4	5,9	6,0	-0,33	0,10
KZN	ETHEKWINI	17,0	16,8	9,7	8,4	-0,22	-1,25
NW	BOJANALA	21,6	42,8	4,3	4,4	21,19	0,12
NW	NGAKA MODIRI MOLEMA	9,9	5,0	2,3	2,1	-4,94	-0,17
NW	DR RUTH SEGOMOTSI MOMPATI	13,5	39,6	2,3	0,0	26,14	-2,33
NW	DR KENNETH KAUNDA	8,5	6,7	6,3	5,8	-1,73	-0,47

Province	DC name	Mean distance in km		Median distance in km		Difference of the Mean	Difference of the Median
		Male	Female	Male	Female		
GP	SEDIBENG	14,0	13,1	8,1	8,1	-0,94	0,05
GP	WEST RAND	11,8	13,4	7,4	7,4	1,56	0,00
GP	EKURHULENI	14,9	13,7	10,5	11,4	-1,16	0,89
GP	CITY OF JOHANNESBURG	18,3	18,9	10,7	10,0	0,57	-0,67
GP	CITY OF TSHWANE	22,9	26,0	14,4	13,5	3,12	-0,93
MP	GERT SIBANDE	14,2	11,0	3,3	2,9	-3,22	-0,42
MP	NKANGALA	29,4	40,9	8,3	8,3	11,50	0,00
MP	EHLANZENI	20,9	16,7	9,3	7,4	-4,27	-1,87
LP	MOPANI	30,0	28,7	10,0	4,2	-1,30	-5,82
LP	VHEMBE	22,5	11,6	2,5	2,2	-10,92	-0,31
LP	CAPRICORN	26,0	39,1	8,0	6,7	13,08	-1,33
LP	WATERBERG	28,2	23,7	5,6	4,9	-4,59	-0,65
LP	GREATER SEKHUKHUNE	32,6	21,4	10,0	10,7	-11,21	0,69

Source: NHTS 2013

APPENDIX B

Main problem experienced by sex of head of the household

Main problem experienced by household	Male headed households		Female headed households		Total	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Lack of public transport	1954720	19,7	884325	19,5	2839044	19,6
Availability of public transport at specific times	1095976	11,1	661753	14,6	1757729	12,2
Access to public transport (buses/taxis/trains too far)	625232	6,3	360064	7,9	985296	6,8
Cost related to public transport	923644	9,3	509188	11,2	1432833	9,9
Reckless driving (public transport)	1015713	10,3	446256	9,8	1461969	10,1
Crime/rude drivers	732199	7,4	323015	7,1	1055214	7,3
Poor condition of roads	905536	9,1	365414	8,0	1270950	8,8
Overload	273338	2,8	164174	3,6	437512	3,0
Congestion	499648	5,0	116884	2,6	616531	4,3
No transport problems	1380128	13,9	561918	12,4	1942046	13,4
Other	502682	5,1	151695	3,3	654377	4,5
Total	9908814	100	4544686	100	14453500	100