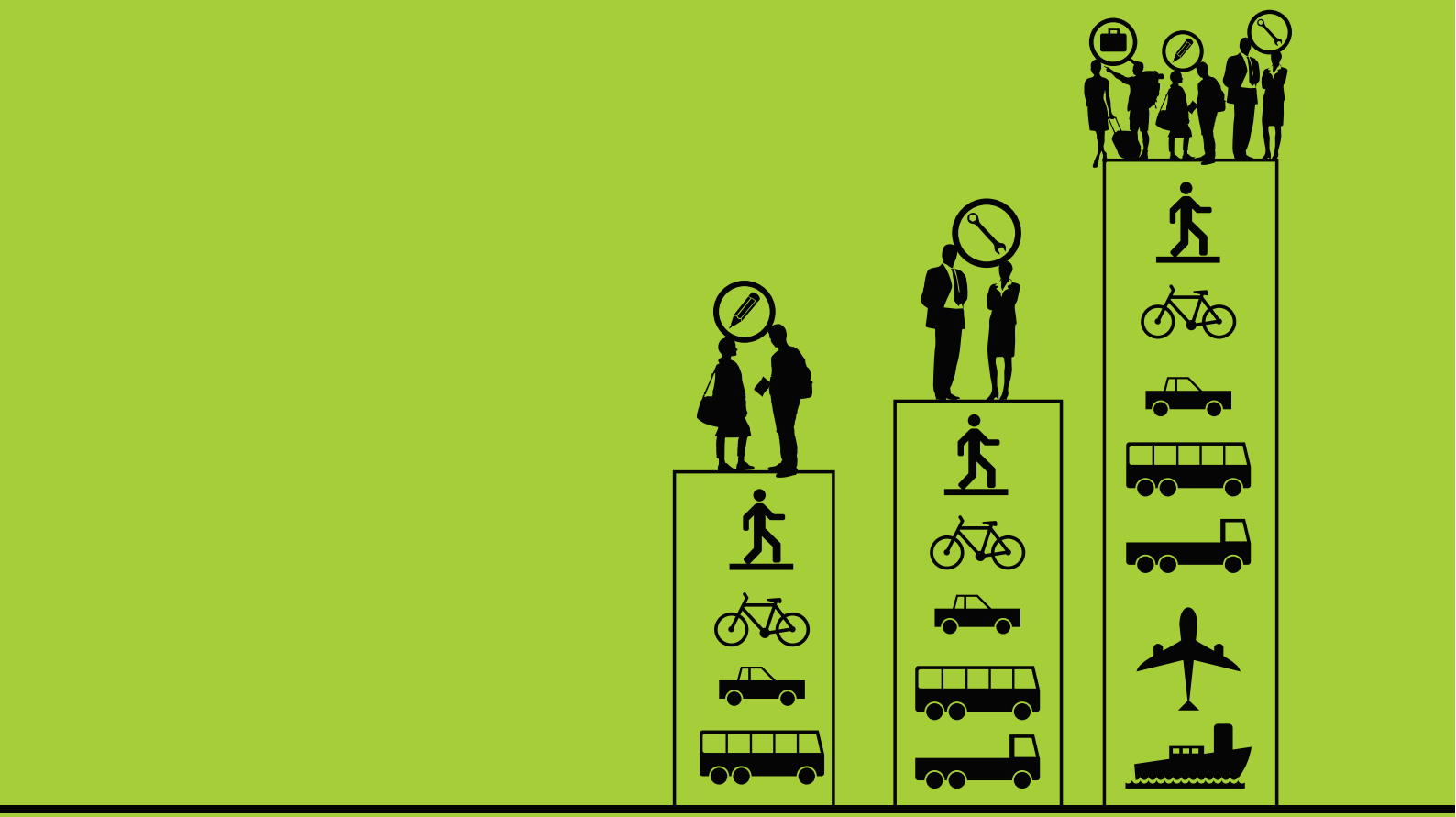
Gender series vol VIII:

Gender patterns in transport, 2020 report



IMPROVING LIVES THROUGH DATA ECOSYSTEMS

stats sa
Department:
Statistics South Africa
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

Gender Series Volume VIII:
Gender patterns in Transport, 2020

Statistics South Africa

Risenga Maluleke
Statistician General

Report No. 03-10-24

Gender Series Volume VIII: Gender patterns in Transport, 2013–2020 / Statistics South Africa

Published by Statistics South Africa, Private Bag X44, Pretoria 0001

Stats SA Library Cataloguing-in-Publication (CIP) Data
Gender Series Volume VIII: Gender patterns in Transport, 2013–2020 / Statistics South Africa, Pretoria: Statistics South Africa, 2021

Report no. 03-10-24
pp 66

ISBN: 978-0-621-49907-0

A complete set of Stats SA publications is available at Stats SA Library and the following libraries:

National Library of South Africa, Pretoria Division
National Library of South Africa, Cape Town Division
Library of Parliament, Cape Town
Bloemfontein Public Library
Natal Society Library, Pietermaritzburg
Johannesburg Public Library
Eastern Cape Library Services, King William's Town
Central Regional Library, Polokwane
Central Reference Library, Mbombela
Central Reference Collection, Kimberley
Central Reference Library, Mmabatho

This report is available on the Stats SA website: www.statssa.gov.za

For technical enquiries please contact:
Ms Xoliswa Ndamase
Email: xoliswan@statssa.gov.za,

or

Ms Neo Nghenavo
Email: neon@statssa.gov.za

Table of contents

List of tables

List of figures

Foreword

Access to transportation is critical for marginalised groups like women, children, and persons with disabilities to reach their full potential. As a result, the National Development Plan (NDP, 2030) advocates for safe, affordable, and effective transportation options in order to provide equitable access to opportunities for all and reduce poverty. In South Africa, public transportation is the most prevalent mode of transportation, particularly for women. As a result, introducing viable, gender-sensitive public transportation methods is critical to the country's overall economic and social development.

South Africa's legal framework recognises transportation as critical to efforts to ensure the participation of the majority of South Africans in the economy. In recent years, there have been calls to explore the extent to which existing frameworks meet the needs of all while ensuring that development does not leave anyone behind. The purpose of this report is to analyse data from the 2020 National Household Travel Survey (NHTS) through a gendered lens. This is done to gain a better understanding of male and female experiences and needs in terms of transportation access and reliability.

Throughout history, transportation has been known to prioritise the needs of men over those of women. This could be attributed to cultural practices that insisted on domesticating women while overlooking the fact that even domestic duties necessitate viable transportation systems. As the findings of this report will demonstrate, women's general travel patterns reflect the fact that they are still expected to perform duties related to the provision of care. This alone forces the government to view transportation through a gendered lens. With the NHTS conducted prior to the COVID 19 pandemic, the effects of the pandemic on general travel patterns including - travel patterns to educational institutions and workplaces - will reflect in the next reporting cycle. The transportation patterns revealed in this report also suggest that females' increased access to previously male-dominated sectors such as education and the labour market inadvertently leads to increased demand for affordable and effective transportation systems. The report highlights that females were more likely than males to use public transportation to get to and from school and work. As a result, a lack of easily accessible public transportation undermines the gains made by governments in their plans for economic emancipation of girls and women. This report aims to improve our understanding of how insufficient transportation can affect both men and women.

_____

Statistician General:
Risenga Maluleke

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Transport research through a gender lens has been one of the focal areas that seek to address gender equality in the transport sector. There has been a growing need for information about travel patterns by gender, age groups and other factors based on current trends in transport studies. Travel patterns are influenced by many factors, including gender roles and responsibilities. Transport needs are not gender-neutral, and research shows that men and women are affected differently, whether in the form of time, distance, mode of transport, or reason for travel, which transport policies need to acknowledge and address.[1]

Historically, population group, spatial configuration, and other socio-economic factors have influenced transportation planning and usage in South Africa.[2] The South African National Development Plan (NDP) envisions safe, affordable, and effective transportation options by 2030 to enable equitable access to opportunities for all and to reduce poverty.[3] This is to respond to the needs of society's most vulnerable groups, such as children, the youth, women, the elderly, and persons with disabilities, because sustainable transportation is central to poverty eradication, sustainable development, and gender equality. This is also highlighted in development agendas such as the Beijing Platform for Action and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which encourage the progressive realisation of gender equity. SDG 11 on sustainable cities may appear to be the only goal directly related to transportation; however, achievement of other SDG goals is indirectly related to access to transportation.

Travel patterns and transportation usage vary depending on geographical location, socioeconomic status, and other factors. There has been an increase in the number of women in the labour market since the beginning of the twenty-first century, and it is common for working women to combine job and domestic commitments such as taking children to school or running household errands. These changes have had a significant impact on women's mobility over the years; for example, female drivers have nearly doubled since the South African National Household Travel Survey (NHTS) in 2013. According to the NHTS, 37,1% of South African women held a driving licence in 2020. Furthermore, access to private cars facilitates household travel; 35,7% of male-headed households were reported to have access to private cars, while 17,6% of female-headed households had access to private cars.

The majority of women's social and economic responsibilities involve travel. Another factor influencing travel patterns is public safety; for women, the main concerns are crime and transportation accessibility.[4] Around 40,9% of men and 45,5% of women feel unsafe walking alone in their neighbourhoods when it is dark, and 41,7% of households commonly use walking as a mode of transportation.[5] Walking is a common mode of transportation in rural areas due to transportation constraints, and women primarily use it.[6]

The purpose of this report is to supplement previous research by examining transportation through a gendered lens, highlighting gender differences in the use of various modes of transportation and general travel patterns of men and women in South Africa.

[1] National Academy of Sciences. 2011. Women's Issues in Transportation: Summary of the 4th International Conference, Volume 1: Conference Overview and Plenary Papers
[2] Mashiri, M., Buiten, D., Mahapa, S.& Zukulu, R. 2005. Towards setting a research agenda around mainstreaming gender in the transport sector. CSIR.
[3] National Development Plan: Vision for 2030. National Planning Commission, Pretoria, South Africa, 2011.
[4] Buck N., Social cohesion in cities (2005), Changing Cities: Rethinking Urban Competitiveness, Cohesion and Governance Series, Publisher Palgrave Macmillan.
[5] Statistics South Africa. National Household Travel Survey, 2020.
[6] World Bank. 2001. A Gender Responsive Monitoring and Evaluation System for Rural Travel and Transport Programs in Africa. Washington, DC: World Bank.

1.2 Theories on travel behaviour

Several key theories drawn from research on gender differences in travel behaviour are discussed below to explain differences in travel behaviour between men and women. Despite some overlap, these theories are associated with a variety of disciplines and hypothetical perspectives. Notwithstanding the fact that the theories discussed are primarily based on international research, they provide a context in which the current report's findings 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)[7] due to occupational segregation and women's 'spatial entrapment' in certain spatial contexts (MacDonald, 1999).[8] 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 take 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)[9] 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)[10] 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 the labour market.

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 based on patriarchy, inequality and culturally defined social roles. Thus, preferences may mirror societal power relationships rather than having much explanatory power in themselves.

1.3 Legislation and policy framework

In all countries, transportation plays an important role in developing the economy and overall socioeconomic development. Countries prioritise transportation by enacting legislation and policies that facilitate travel and transportation options. This section describes the legislative framework, policies, and measures implemented in South Africa and around the world to ensure efficient and accessible transportation systems.

[7] Blumen, O. 1994. Gender differences in the journey to work. Urban Geography 15(3), 223-245.
[8] MacDonald, H. I. 1999. Women's employment and commuting: explaining the links. Journal of Planning Literature 13(3), 267-283.
[9] Wen, C.H.& Koppelman, F.S. 2000. A conceptual and methodological framework for the generation of activity-travel patterns. Transportation 27(1), 5-23.
[10] Walby, S. 1990. Theorizing Patriarchy. London: Blackwell.

1.3.1 International Context

Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) 2030 recognises transport as a key contributor to sustainable development. Transport contributes directly and indirectly to some of the SDG indicators also linked to gender equality. The 2030 Agenda states that sustainable transport systems, along with universal access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy services, quality and resilient infrastructure, and other policies that increase productive capacities, would build strong economic foundations for all countries.

1.3.2 Regional Agenda

Agenda 2063

The African Union Agenda 2063 (AU) recognises and identifies transport as one of the drivers of socio-economic transformation for the continent. The plan envisages that by 2063 necessary infrastructure should be in place to support Africa's accelerated integration and growth, technological transformation, trade and development. This will include high-speed railway networks, roads, shipping lines, sea and air transport, as well as well-developed ICT infrastructure and the digital economy (African Union, 2014).

1.3.3 Local context

The National Development Plan (NDP) 2030:

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

- Investments in public transport, which will benefit low-income households by facilitating mobility.
- Establishment of effective, safe and affordable public transport.
- Investments in the transport sector, which will bridge geographical distances affordably, and foster reliability and safety to access previously inaccessible economic opportunities, social spaces and services.
- Investments in public transport infrastructure and systems, including the renewal of the commuter rail fleet, supported by enhanced links with road-based services.
- Establishment of user-friendly, less environmentally damaging, cheaper and integrated or seamless public transport.

The Department of Transport is the organ of state that is responsible to realise the NDP transport goals. Its roles also include 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 overarching 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 NATMAP recognises that efficient, affordable and reliable transport systems are critical components of national economic development.

1.4 Objective and layout of the report

The purpose of this report is to provide analysis relating to gender and transport using secondary data from the 2013 and 2020 National Household Travel Survey (NHTS). The specific objectives of the report include determining:

- the disparities between males and females on their general travel patterns,
- the gender variations in the modes of transportation to educational institutions
- gender variations in the modes of travel used to workplaces; and
- household travel patterns and the factors influencing households choice of the mode of travel.

Chapter 1: Covers the introduction and briefly discusses transport in relation to gender and theory. This chapter also seeks to establish the rationale for producing the report and describes the data sources used.

Chapter 2: Looks at the general travel patterns of South Africans. Indicators in this section focus on the main purposes for day trips, overnight trips, reasons for not travelling during the reference period and possession of a driving licence.

Chapter 3: Provides information about modes of transport used to travel to education institutions.

Chapter 4: Presents indicators on travel patterns to places of work and business, otherwise known as commuting patterns.

Chapter 5: Looks at the households' travel modes, household expenditure on public transportation, transport-related problems, and factors influencing mode of travel selection for the female and male-headed households.

Chapter 6: Concludes the report by providing a summary of key findings.

1.5 Data sources

Statistics South Africa's National Household Travel Survey (NHTS) of 2013 and 2020 were used as the primary data sources 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 from January to March 2020 where a total of 65 523 dwelling units were sampled based on a two-stage 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.

1.6 Limitations of the study

Since the NHTS is a sample survey and relies on population estimates and a weighting process to extrapolate sample estimates to population estimates, the absolute number of cases does not always correspond with census or administrative data sources. In addition, due to the sample size of the survey disaggregation of indicators by sex and municipality may not be possible.

1.7 Definitions

Business trip: A trip undertaken during 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.

Gender parity ratio: Refers to the relative equality in terms of numbers and proportions of women and men, girls and boys, and is often calculated as the ratio of female-to-male values for a given indicator.

Main destination: The place that was visited 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.

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

Minibus-taxi: A 10–16 seater vehicle that 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 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.

Private transport: All forms of motorised transports which were used by individuals in travel modes other than public transport. This includes car drivers, car passengers and company vehicles.

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

Quintile: A quintile is one-fifth of 20% of a given number. The poorest per capita quintile (quintile 1) represents households that fall into the lowest fifth or 20% of the data. Quintile 2 represents households that fall into the second fifth (21% ─ 40%). Quintile 3 represents households that fall into the third fifth (41% ─ 60%). Quintile 4 represents households that fall into the fourth fifth (61% ─ 80%). The final and wealthiest quintile, quintile 5, represents households that fall into the highest fifth of the data (81% ─ 100%) of the data.

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.

1.8 Abbreviations

AU	African Union
DOT	Department of Transport
GPR	Gender parity ratio
ILO	International labour Organisation
IRT bus	Integrated Rapid Transit bus system
NATMAP	National Transport Master Plan
NDP	National Development Plan
NHTS	National Household Travel Survey
PSET	Post-School Education and Training
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
Stats SA	Statistics South Africa
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

CHAPTER 2: GENERAL PATTERNS IN TRANSPORT

2.0 Background

Understanding gendered travel patterns are critical to meeting regional and international commitments while also responding to people's mobility needs; by understanding these patterns, we can comprehend when, why, and how people move between places. Sustainable transportation facilitate mobility and is central to improving people's livelihoods and achieving other Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Accessibility to key services such as education and employment, through an efficient and effective transportation system, has a positive impact on poverty eradication (SDG 1).

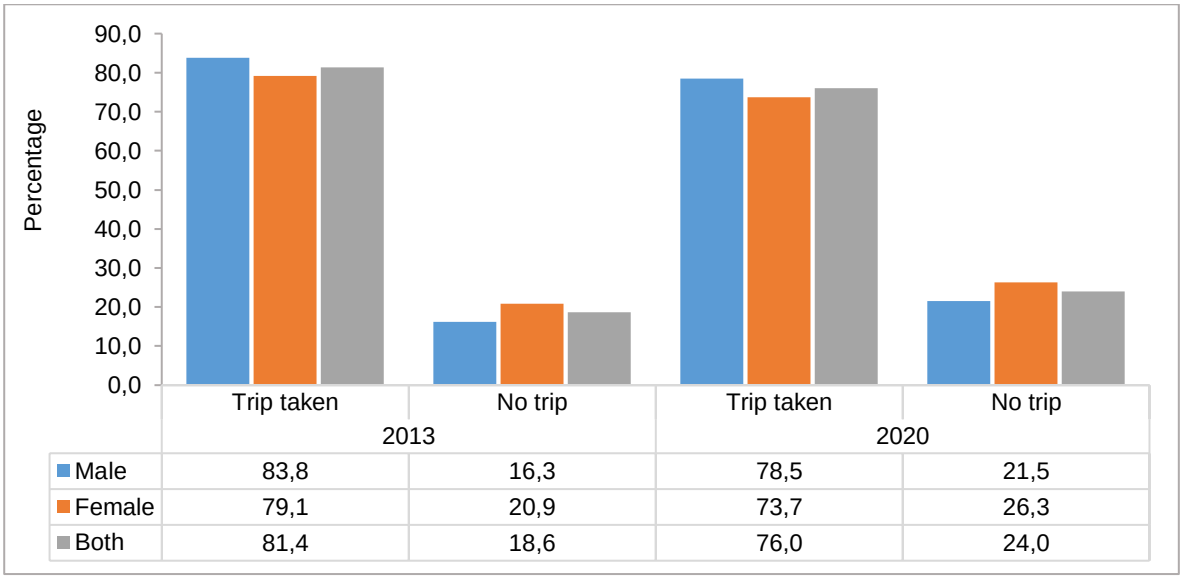
The World Bank emphasises that transport should not be perceived as a gender-neutral phenomenon.[11] Gender is one of the key socio-demographic variables that can influence travel behaviour, so it is crucial to comprehend it.[12] An efficient transportation system serves as a catalyst in realising some of the targets and indicators of SDG 5, such as securing equal participation and opportunities for leadership and universal access to sexual and reproductive rights.

This section examines general travel patterns through a gender lens, focusing on general trips taken and whether they were day or night trips. The analysis will further look into the possession of a driving licence and the reasons advanced by those who did not take any trips during the reporting period.

2.1 Trips taken

Taking trips happens regularly for a variety of reasons, either for short or long distances. This can be done by using different modes of transport, including walking, as these enable people to effectively participate in community life and carry out their daily activities. The NHTS defines a trip as a one-way movement from an origin to a destination, to fulfil a specific purpose or undertake an activity.

Figure 2.1: Distribution of individuals who undertook a trip and those who did not during the seven days prior to the interview by sex, 2013 and 2020



	2013		2020	
	Trip taken	No trip	Trip taken	No trip
Male	83,8	16,3	78,5	21,5
Female	79,1	20,9	73,7	26,3
Both	81,4	18,6	76,0	24,0

Source: NHTS 2013, NHTS 2020

[11]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.
[12]Ng and Acker – Understanding Urban Travel Behaviour by Gender for Efficient and Equitable Transport Policies

Figure 2.1 shows the distribution of those who undertook a trip and those who did not by sex. Overall, the majority of people indicated to have taken trips between 2013 and 2020, though a decline of 5,4 percentage points was observed (81,4% in 2013 and 76,0% in 2020). In both years, a higher proportion of males than females reported to have taken trips during this period however, both males and females observed a decline of 5,3 and 5,4 percentage points, respectively. Analysis further revealed that the proportion of those who did not undertake any trip during the reporting period increased for both males and females.

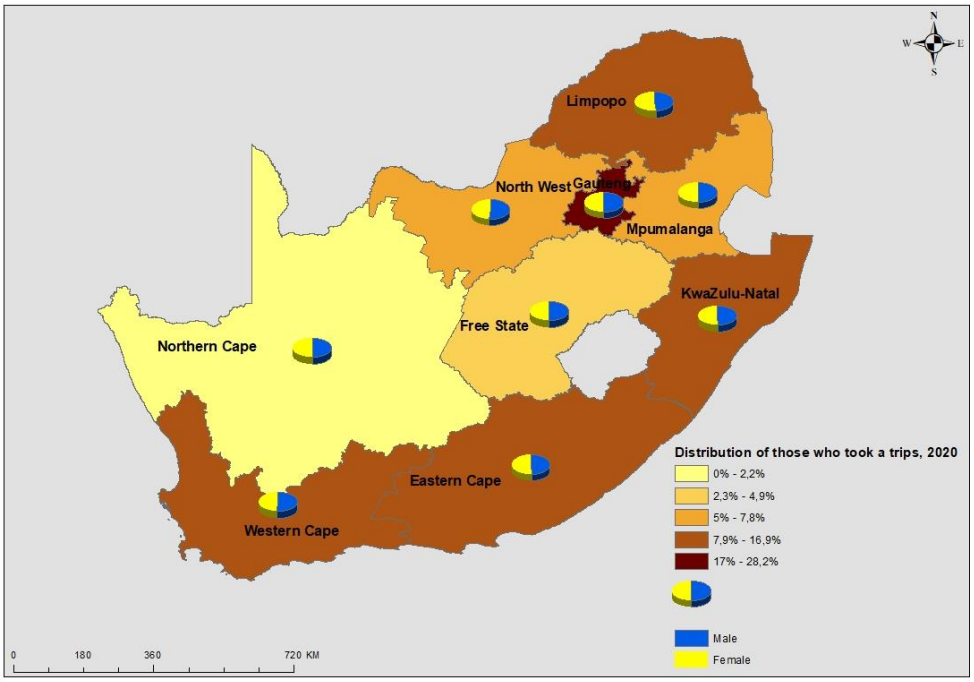
Table 2.1: Percentage of persons who travelled during the seven days prior to the interview by sex and province, 2020

	Male		Female		Both sexes	
Province	**N ('000)**	**%**	**N ('000)**	**%**	**N ('000)**	**%**
WC	2 608	11,5	2 438	10,9	5 046	11,2
EC	2 329	10,3	2 411	10,8	4 740	10,5
NC	504	2,2	494	2,2	999	2,2
FS	1 115	4,9	1 105	4,9	2 219	4,9
KZN	3 800	16,8	3 824	17,1	7 624	16,9
NW	1 647	7,3	1 523	6,8	3 170	7,0
GP	6 490	28,6	6 204	27,8	12 694	28,2
MP	1 768	7,8	1 732	7,8	3 500	7,8
LP	2 421	10,7	2 619	11,7	5 040	11,2
RSA	**22 682**	**100,0**	**22 350**	**100,0**	**45 032**	**100,0**

Source: NHTS 2020

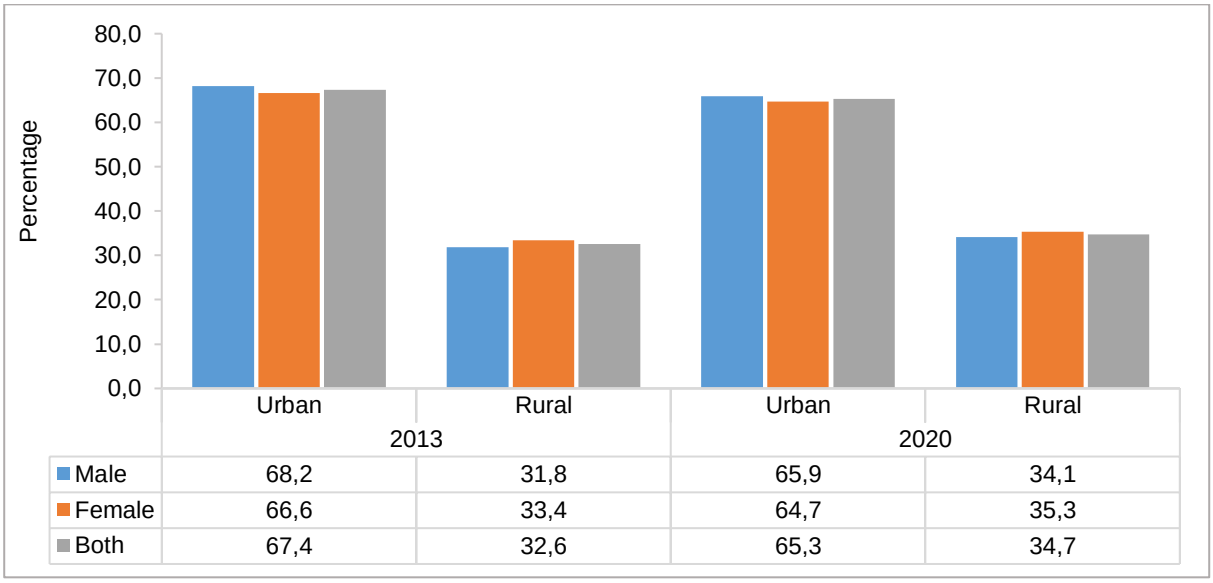
Table 2.1 and Map 2.1 show the distribution of those who undertook a trip by sex and province. According to the analysis, at least a tenth of both males and females in five of the nine provinces travelled in 2020, with Gauteng (28,2%) and KwaZulu-Natal (16,9%) attaining the highest percentages. Northern Cape province had the least proportion of people who undertook trips, with both males and females having an equal percentage share of 2,2%. Female trips were slightly higher than male trips in the provinces of KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape and Limpopo, while male trips were more in the provinces of Western Cape, Gauteng and North West.

Map 2.1: Distribution of those who took a trip by sex and province, 2020



Source: NHTS 2020

Figure 2.2: Distribution of those who took a trip in the seven days prior to the interview by sex and geographic location, 2013 and 2020



	2013 Urban	2013 Rural	2020 Urban	2020 Rural
Male	68,2	31,8	65,9	34,1
Female	66,6	33,4	64,7	35,3
Both	67,4	32,6	65,3	34,7

Source: NHTS 2013, NHTS 2020

Figure 2.2 shows the distribution of those who took a trip by sex and geographical location. The majority of people who took a trip reside in urban areas, regardless of sex. In 2013, over two-thirds (67,4%) of individuals residing in urban areas indicated to have taken trips, though this slightly declined to less than two-thirds (65,3%) in 2020. In both years, more males than females undertook trips, with males realising an increase of 1,6 percentage points higher in 2013 and 1,2 percentage points higher in 2020.

Although people in rural areas generally took fewer trips, there was an increase in trip taking for both males and females during this period.

2.2 Reasons for not travelling

Table 2.2: Reasons for not travelling in the last seven days prior to the survey by sex, 2013 and 2020

	2013						2020					
	Male		Female		Both sexes		Male		Female		Both sexes	
Reasons for not travelling	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%
Did not need to travel	1 644	41,8	2 363	44,1	4 007	43,1	2 970	47,9	3 823	47,9	6 794	47,9
Financial reasons (Not enough money)	481	12,2	569	10,6	1 050	11,3	641	10,3	572	7,2	1 213	8,6
Not well enough to travel/sick	152	3,9	198	3,7	350	3,8	291	4,7	397	5,0	688	4,9
Too expensive	77	2,0	90	1,7	167	1,8	69	1,1	92	1,1	161	1,1
Not enough time to travel	38	1,0	53	1,0	90	1,0	56	0,9	68	0,8	124	0,9
Usual transport not available	6	0,2	7	0,1	12	0,1	4	0,1	5	0,1	9	0,1
No available public transport	5	0,1	7	0,1	12	0,1	5	0,1	11	0,1	15	0,1
Disabled: unable to leave the house	73	1,9	68	1,3	141	1,5	107	1,7	92	1,1	199	1,4
Disabled: transport inaccessible	14	0,4	13	0,3	27	0,3	30	0,5	13	0,2	43	0,3
Too old/young to travel	958	24,4	1 157	21,6	2 115	22,8	1 436	23,1	1 666	20,9	3 102	21,9
Worried about safety/security/crime	2	0,1	11	0,2	13	0,1	8	0,1	9	0,1	17	0,1
No interest/Nothing to see or do that appeals to me	54	1,4	62	1,2	116	1,2	72	1,2	75	0,9	147	1,0
Taking care of children/sick/elderly relative	22	0,6	270	5,0	292	3,1	32	0,5	576	7,2	608	4,3
No particular reason	368	9,4	454	8,5	821	8,8	334	5,4	417	5,2	751	5,3
Transport strike	2	0,1	2	0,0	4	0,0	10	0,2	11	0,1	21	0,1
Other, Specify	36	0,9	34	0,6	70	0,8	136	2,2	150	1,9	286	2,0
No available public transport at specific times	*	*	*	*	*	*	2	0,0	4	0,1	6	0,0
Total	**3 929**	**100,0**	**5 357**	**100,0**	**9 287**	**100,0**	**6204**	**100,0**	**7 980**	**100,0**	**14 184**	**100,0**

Source: NHTS 2013, NHTS 2020

Table 2.2 shows the reasons for not travelling in the seven days preceding the survey by sex. In both years, more than 40% of those who did not travel stated that they did not need to travel (43,1% in 2013 and 47,9% in 2020), and more than 20% stated that they were either too old or too young to travel (22,8% in 2013 and 21,9% in 2020). In 2020, approximately 9% of those who did not travel indicated that they did not travel due to financial reasons; this was a decline of 2,7 percentage points from 2013. This reason is concerning as it can have an adverse impact on participation in various socio-economic spheres of life It largely affected males more than females, though both males and females saw a decline of 1,9 percentage points and 3,4 percentage points, respectively, between 2013 and 2020.

In 2013, there were glaring gender disparities between males and females who did not travel, with 5% of females reporting that they were caring for children/sick/elderly compared to only 0,6% of males. In 2020, this figure increased by 2,2 percentage points (7,2%), while males saw a decrease of a 0,1 of a percentage point

(0,5%). This is consistent with the literature, which suggests that women spend a disproportionate amount of time participating in unpaid care compared to men[13].

Table 2.3: Reasons for not travelling by sex and population group, 2020

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	46,3	46,9	56,7	57,4	54,0	43,3	50,8	48,0	**47,9**	**47,9**
Disabled: transport inaccessible	0,4	0,2	1,4	0,2	0,5	0,0	0,5	0,2	**0,5**	**0,2**
Too old/young to travel	23,9	21,3	17,2	15,6	21,4	21,9	24,9	23,7	**23,1**	**20,9**
Worried about safety/security/crime	0,1	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,2	0,3	**0,1**	**0,1**
No interest/Nothing to see or do	1,1	0,9	1,7	1,3	1,5	1,5	1,4	0,6	**1,2**	**0,9**
Taking care of children/sick/elderly relative	0,4	7,1	1,0	10,7	1,1	3,0	0,6	5,8	**0,5**	**7,2**
No particular reason	5,6	5,5	6,1	3,0	2,1	5,7	2,4	4,8	**5,4**	**5,2**
Transport strike	0,2	0,2	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,0	**0,2**	**0,1**
Other	2,2	2,0	1,9	1,2	0,0	0,0	3,9	2,8	**2,2**	**1,9**
Financial reasons (Not enough money)	11,5	7,9	5,8	3,7	9,6	10,4	2,1	1,8	**10,3**	**7,2**
Not well enough to travel/sick	4,3	4,8	5,0	4,0	4,9	8,6	9,4	7,6	**4,7**	**5,0**
Too expensive	1,2	1,1	0,7	0,4	1,3	1,3	0,2	2,3	**1,1**	**1,1**
Not enough time to travel	0,9	0,8	0,1	0,4	3,2	4,2	1,8	0,8	**0,9**	**0,8**
Usual transport not available	0,1	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	**0,1**	**0,1**
No available public transport at specific times	0,0	0,1	0,0	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	**0,0**	**0,1**
No available public transport	0,1	0,1	0,2	0,6	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,4	**0,1**	**0,1**
Disabled unable to leave the house	1,8	1,2	2,0	1,5	0,2	0,0	1,9	1,0	**1,7**	**1,1**
Total	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**

Source: NHTS 2020

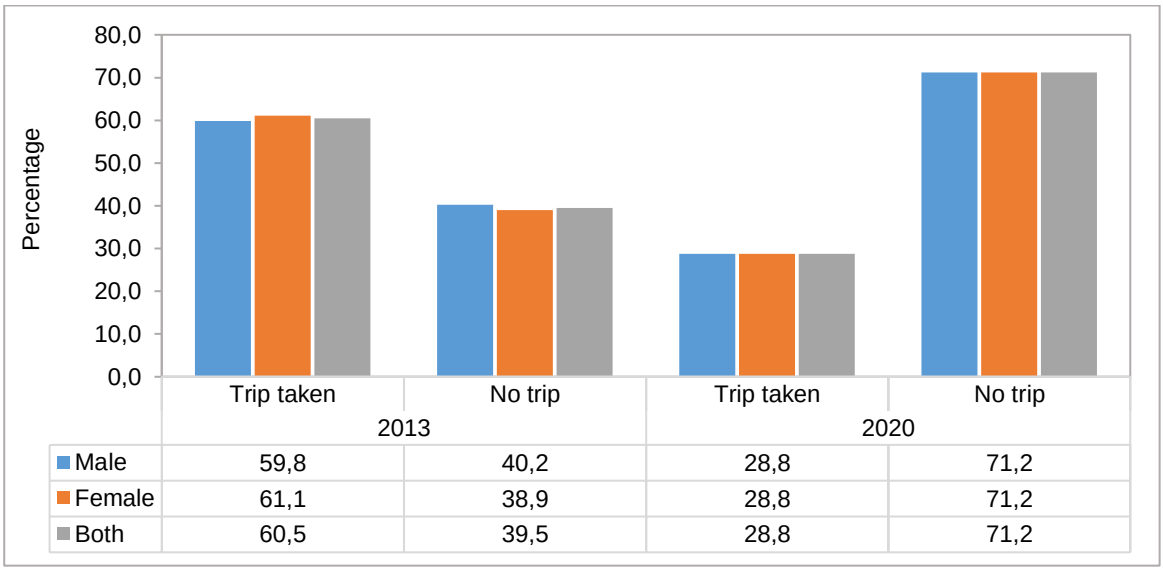
Table 2.3 summarises the reasons for not travelling in the seven days preceding the survey by sex and population group. Nationally, more than 40% of those who did not travel reported that they did not need to travel in both years. Similarly, this is the main reason stated by all population groups. However, there were gender differences, with slightly more females than males giving this reason among Black Africans and Coloureds. In contrast, the opposite was true for Indians/Asian and White population groups.

The analysis further showed that a significant proportion of women across all population groups did not travel because they were caring for children/sick/elderly relative. This responsibility was held by approximately 11% of coloured females, 7,1% of black African females, 5,8% of white females and 3% of Indian/Asian females. As already alluded to in Table 2.2, this kind of responsibility often hinders women from actively participating in the labour market and even attending to other social aspects of their lives.

[13] https://www.caregiver.org/resource/women-and-caregiving-facts-and-figures/

2.3 Day Trips

Figure 2.3: Distribution of those - 15 years or older who took a day trip/- did not take a day trip by sex, 2013 and 2020



Source: NHTS 2013, NHTS 2020

Figure 2.3 depicts the daytime travel patterns of both males and females. A day trip is defined as travelling away from one's usual home and returning on the same day by the NHTS 2020. These are trips taken in the last twelve months based on the needs of the traveller, but do not include trips to educational facilities or work.

According to these findings, the majority of people, regardless of sex, took day trips in 2013. However, there was a huge decline of 31,7 percentage points between 2013 and 2020, with only 28,8% of individuals who indicated to have taken day trips in 2020. A similar pattern was observed for both males and females, where both sexes realised an equal percentage in the decline of day trips.

Table 2.4: Main purpose of day trip by sex, 2020

Main purpose of day trip	Male		Female		Both sexes	
	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%
Visit friends/Family/Ancestral home	2 583	44,2	2671	42,3	5 254	43,2
Religious/Cultural/Traditional	239	4,1	408	6,5	647	5,3
Wedding	115	2,0	155	2,5	270	2,2
Other	440	7,5	256	4,1	696	5,7
Leisure/Holiday	615	10,5	728	11,5	1 343	11,0
Shopping	759	13,0	1 067	16,9	1 825	15,0
Sporting	158	2,7	77	1,2	235	1,9
Funeral	366	6,3	503	8,0	868	7,1
Medical	124	2,1	196	3,1	320	2,6
Government services (e.g. Home affairs, etc.)	90	1,5	75	1,2	165	1,4
Looking for work	345	5,9	166	2,6	511	4,2
Wellness (e.g. Spa, Health farm, etc.)	16	0,3	15	0,2	31	0,3
Total	**5 850**	**100,0**	**6 317**	**100,0**	**1 2167**	**100,0**

Source: NHTS 2020

Table 2.4 shows the main purpose of a day trip by sex. In 2020, the top three main purposes cited for day trips included visiting friends/family/ancestral home (43,2%), shopping (15,0%), and leisure or holiday (11,0%). In examining gender differences in the main purpose of day trips undertaken during this period, analysis revealed that females were more likely than males to take trips to religious/cultural/traditional facilities, go shopping, attend funerals, and travel to medical facilities. On the other hand, Males were more likely to have visited friends/family/ancestral home, attended sporting events, and travelled to look for work.

Table 2.5 Main purpose of day trips by sex and population groups, 2020

	Male								Female								Both Sexes	
	Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White		Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White			
Main purpose of a day trip	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%
Visit friends/Family/Ancestral home	2136	46,3	114	36,5	53	34,0	280	36,6	2189	43,0	121	36,0	37	34,4	324	41,7	5254	43,2
Religious/Cultural/Traditional	220	4,8	10	3,2	2	1,6	7	0,9	382	7,5	10	2,9	6	5,3	10	1,3	647	5,3
Wedding	74	1,6	2	0,7	17	11,1	21	2,8	108	2,1	3	1,0	15	13,6	29	3,7	270	2,2
Other	325	7,0	26	8,5	29	18,4	60	7,8	216	4,2	11	3,2	0	0,1	29	3,8	696	5,7
Leisure/Holiday	287	6,2	86	27,5	25	16,3	217	28,4	358	7,0	96	28,8	31	28,4	243	31,3	1343	11,0
Shopping	627	13,6	33	10,5	17	11,1	82	10,7	931	18,3	46	13,8	9	8,7	80	10,3	1825	15,0
Sporting	116	2,5	7	2,3	2	1,0	34	4,4	50	1,0	3	1,0	0	0,0	24	3,1	235	1,9
Funeral	333	7,2	18	5,9	6	4,1	8	1,1	467	9,2	22	6,7	5	4,6	9	1,1	868	7,1
Medical	86	1,9	6	1,9	1	0,8	31	4,0	161	3,2	13	4,0	2	1,4	20	2,6	320	2,6
Government services (e.g. Home affairs, etc.)	75	1,6	2	0,8	0	0,0	12	1,6	59	1,2	7	2,0	2	1,7	8	1,0	165	1,4
Looking for work	330	7,2	7	2,2	3	1,7	6	0,7	162	3,2	3	0,8	2	1,7	0	0,0	511	4,2
Wellness (e.g. Spa, Health farm, etc.)	8	0,2	0	0,1	0	0,0	8	1,1	14	0,3	0	0,0	0	0,0	1	0,1	31	0,3
Total	**4 618**	**100,0**	**311**	**100,0**	**155**	**100,0**	**766**	**100,0**	**5 097**	**100,0**	**335**	**100,0**	**108**	**100,0**	**777**	**100,0**	**12 167**	**100,0**

Source: NHTS 2020

Table 2.5 illustrates the main purpose of day trips that were undertaken by sex and population group. In 2020, the top three main purposes cited by people who undertook trips for both males and females, among Coloureds, Indian/Asians and Whites included, visiting friends/family/ancestral home, leisure/holiday and shopping. However, the top three main purposes for day trips undertaken by black Africans did not conform to the pattern of the other three population groups, especially the second and the third main purposes. Black African males and females indicated to have taken day trips to visit friends/ family/ ancestral home, went shopping, and attended funerals. Gender imbalances were observed across all population groups, though they were also in line with the pattern observed for males in the top three main purposes of day trips.

Table 2.6: Main purpose of day trips by sex and geography type, 2020

	Urban			Rural		
Main purpose of day trip	**Male**	**Female**	**GPR**	**Male**	**Female**	**GPR**
Visit friends/Family/Ancestral home	49,5	48,3	0,97	32,9	31,7	0,96
Religious/Cultural/Traditional	3,4	5,2	1,51	5,5	8,7	1,58
Wedding	2,2	2,9	1,29	1,4	1,7	1,23
Other	7,5	3,9	0,52	7,7	4,4	0,57
Leisure/Holiday	12,8	15,2	1,19	5,7	5,1	0,89
Shopping	8,6	10,4	1,21	22,2	28,3	1,28
Sporting	2,5	1,0	0,40	3,2	1,7	0,52
Funeral	6,4	8,1	1,27	6,0	7,7	1,29
Medical	1,5	2,2	1,47	3,4	4,7	1,36
Government services (e.g. Home affairs, etc.)	1,3	1,0	0,81	2,1	1,5	0,69
Looking for work	4,1	1,6	0,39	9,7	4,4	0,46
Wellness (e.g. Spa, Health farm, etc.)	0,3	0,3	0,87	0,2	0,2	0,79
Total	**100,0**	**100,0**		**100,0**	**100,0**	

Source: NHTS 2020

Table 2.6 depicts main purpose of day trips undertaken by sex and geographical location. Gender parity ratios (GPR) for day trips undertaken are calculated to ascertain if gender influenced the trips taken. Gender parity ratio is a measure of equality; for example, a GPR of 1,0 represents parity (equality), a GPR below 1,0 shows disparity in favour of males, and a GPR of greater than 1,0 shows disparities in favour of females.

Gender parity ratios showed marked gender differences in the main purpose of day trips undertaken. In urban areas, women mostly did day trips such as religious/cultural/traditional, wedding, leisure/holiday, shopping funeral and medical, as the ratios were more biased towards them. Gender parity ratios for day trips taken owing to sporting, leisure/holiday, government services, looking for job and wellness were more inclined towards men, showing that males were more likely than females to have taken these trips.

Gender parity ratios in rural areas mirrored the urban area pattern, conforming to all the main purposes cited to favour females or males, except for leisure/holiday where for urban areas it was in favour of women and for men in rural areas.

Table 2.7: Day trips by sex and main mode of transport, 2013 and 2020

Mode of transport for day trip	Male		Female		Both sexes	
	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%
	2013					
Train	142	1,4	132	1,1	274	1,2
Bus	548	5,2	716	6,2	1 264	5,7
Taxi	4 563	43,4	5 731	49,5	10 295	46,6
Car driver	2 329	22,2	948	8,2	3 278	14,8
Car passenger	1 308	12,5	2 587	22,3	3 895	17,6
Walk all the way	1 456	13,9	1 342	11,6	2 798	12,7
Other	157	1,5	129	1,1	286	1,3
Total	**10 504**	**100,0**	**11 586**	**100,0**	**22 089**	**100,0**
	2020					
Train	57	1,0	38	0,6	95	0,8
Bus	388	6,6	497	7,9	885	7,3
Taxi	2 336	39,9	3 000	47,5	5 336	43,9
Car driver	1 856	31,7	756	12,0	2 612	21,5
Car passenger	843	14,4	1 707	27,0	2 550	21,0
Walk all the way	233	4,0	159	2,5	392	3,2
Other	136	2,3	160	2,5	297	2,4
Total	**5 850**	**100,0**	**6 317**	**100,0**	**12 167**	**100,0**

Source: NHTS 2013, NHTS 2020

Table 2.7 shows day trips taken by main mode of transportation and sex. Generally, between 2013 and 2020, the most common mode of transport used for day trips was a taxi, though there was a decrease of 2,7 percentage points in 2020 (from 46,6% in 2013 to 43,9% in 2020). On the contrary, other modes of transport used such as car driver and car passenger observed increases, with car driver realising an increase of 6,7 percentage points and car passenger attaining an increase of 3,4 percentage points.

The analysis revealed glaring gender imbalances in the choice of mode of transport used for day trips. In examining gender differences in the mode of transport used for day trips other than taxis, females were more likely to be a passenger in the car. In contrast, males were more likely to drive themselves to their destination.

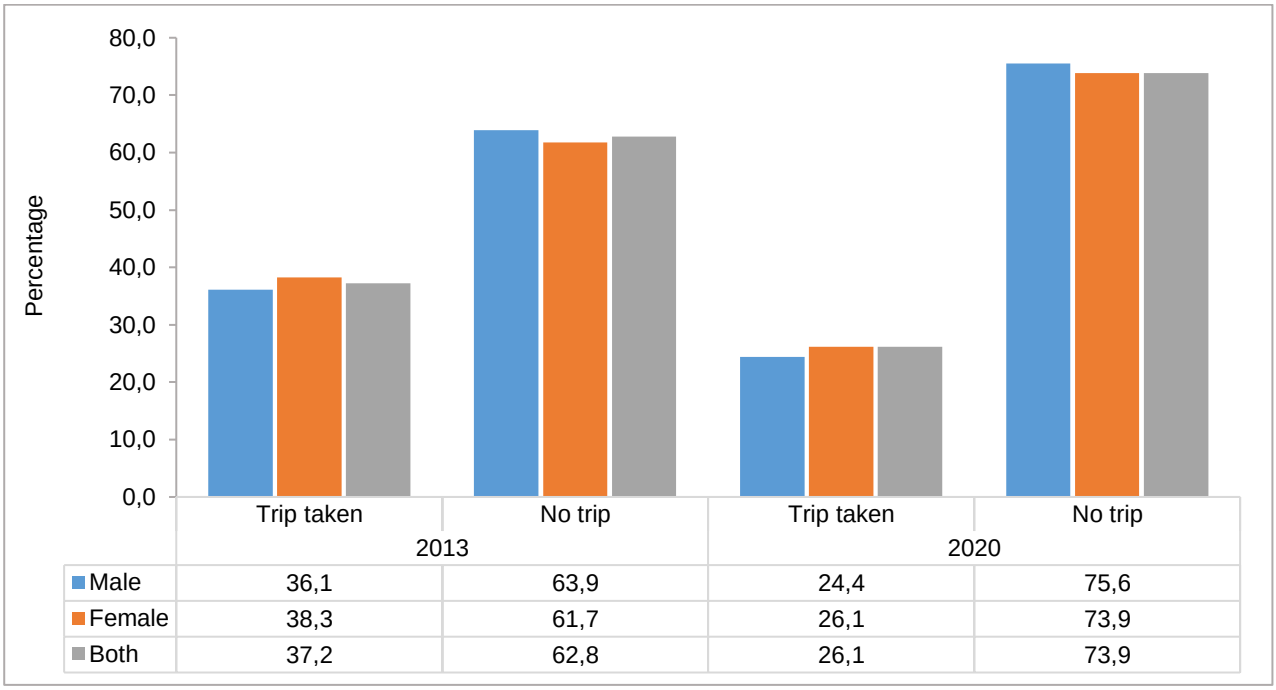
Table 2.8: Percentage distribution of day trips by sex, population group and the main mode of transport, 2020

Main mode of transport	Black Africans		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Train	1,0	0,7	1,5	1,0	0,0	0,0	0,6	0,2
Bus	7,8	9,1	5,5	6,6	3,0	0,5	1,1	1,5
Taxi	48,9	57,3	15,9	20,2	10,6	4,0	1,5	1,2
Car driver	22,2	7,4	44,3	14,3	62,9	31,0	77,6	38,2
Car passenger	13,6	20,8	27,8	52,0	12,6	53,5	14,3	53,2
Walk all the way	4,8	3,0	2,7	2,0	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,0
Other	1,7	1,8	2,3	3,9	10,8	11,0	4,8	5,8

Source: NHTS 2020

Table 2.8 shows percentage distribution of day trips by main mode of transport, population group and sex. The findings show that black Africans are more likely than other population groups to use public transportation, particularly taxis, with females being more likely than males. When taking day trips, men from the coloured, Indian/Asian, and white population groups were more likely to be drivers, while women from these population groups were more likely to be passengers. On average, black Africans were relatively less likely to be drivers, though the findings are in line with the pattern observed for other population groups, where males were more likely to be drivers (22,2%) than females (7,4%).

Figure 2.4: Distribution of those 15 years or older who took an overnight trip/did not take a trip by sex, 2013 and 2020



	2013		2020	
	Trip taken	No trip	Trip taken	No trip
Male	36,1	63,9	24,4	75,6
Female	38,3	61,7	26,1	73,9
Both	37,2	62,8	26,1	73,9

Source: NHTS 2020

Figure 2.4 shows the distribution of those who took an overnight trip or did not by sex. According to the NHTS, an overnight trip is one in which one or more nights are spent away from the dwelling unit and is a round trip to the destination and back to the usual place of residence. Between 2013 and 2020, most people reported to have not undertaken overnight trips, which was true for both sexes. In 2013, 36,1% of males reported taking an overnight trip, compared to 38,3% of females. Both males and females realised a decrease in overnight trips in 2020, with males recording a drop of 11,7 percentage points and 12,2 percentage points for females.

The findings also showed gender differences in overnight trips taken during this period, with females being more likely to have taken these kinds of trips than males.

Table 2.9: Main purpose of overnight trip by sex, 2020

Main purpose of overnight trip	Male		Female		Both sexes	
	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%
Visit friends/Family/Ancestral home	2 987	60,1	3464	60,4	6 450	60,2
Religious/Cultural/Traditional	252	5,1	401	7,0	654	6,1
Wedding	62	1,3	90	1,6	152	1,4
Other	250	5,0	137	2,4	387	3,6
Leisure/Holiday	755	15,2	897	15,6	1 653	15,4
Shopping	27	0,6	39	0,7	66	0,6
Sporting	30	0,6	12	0,2	42	0,4
Funeral	369	7,4	541	9,4	910	8,5
Medical	38	0,8	62	1,1	100	0,9
Government services (e.g. Home Affairs, etc.)	38	0,8	23	0,4	61	0,6
Looking for work	155	3,1	64	1,1	219	2,0
Wellness (e.g. Spa, Health farm, etc.)	5	0,1	9	0,2	15	0,1
Total	**4 970**	**100,0**	**5 739**	**100,0**	**10 709**	**100,0**

Source: NHTS 2020

Table 2.9 summarises the main purpose of overnight trip by sex. The most common reasons for overnight trips were visiting friends/family/ancestral home (60,2%), followed by leisure/holiday (15,4%) and funeral (8,5%). The least overnight trips that were undertaken were for wellness-related activities, and this was the case for both females and males.

Gender variations were observed in some of the reasons cited for overnight trips, including travel to religious/cultural/traditional and funerals, which were more likely to be done by women, whereas overnight trips taken to go look for work, to attend sporting related activities and travel to government services were more likely to be done by men.

Table 2.10: Overnight trips by sex, the main purpose and population group, 2020

	Male								Female									
	African/Black		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White		African/Black		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White		RSA	
Main purpose of an overnight trip	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%
Visit friends/Family/Ancestral home	2 626	65,8	108	42,9	65	50,2	187	31,4	3099	65,8	105	40,2	45	45,8	214	31,9	**6 450**	**60,2**
Religious/Cultural/Traditional	242	6,1	6	2,3	1	0,7	3	0,6	383	8,2	13	4,8	0	0,0	5	0,8	**654**	**6,1**
Wedding	40	1,0	6	2,3	5	4,2	11	1,9	70	1,5	6	2,2	5	5,5	9	1,3	**152**	**1,4**
Other	204	5,1	14	5,5	7	5,7	25	4,2	112	2,4	8	2,9	0	0,4	17	2,6	**387**	**3,6**
Leisure/Holiday	283	7,1	89	35,4	44	33,6	340	57,0	358	7,6	96	36,5	44	44,3	400	59,5	**1 653**	**15,4**
Shopping	21	0,5	2	0,6	3	2,5	2	0,3	35	0,7	1	0,4	0	0,4	3	0,5	**66**	**0,6**
Sporting	23	0,6	3	1,1	0	0,0	5	0,8	6	0,1	1	0,3	0	0,0	5	0,7	**42**	**0,4**
Funeral	353	8,9	11	4,6	0	0,1	5	0,8	514	10,9	25	9,5	0	0,0	2	0,3	**910**	**8,5**
Medical	23	0,6	8	3,2	0	0,0	7	1,2	48	1,0	7	2,5	2	1,7	6	0,8	**100**	**0,9**
Government services (e.g. Home Affairs, etc.)	24	0,6	2	0,7	4	3,1	8	1,4	15	0,3	0	0,2	2	1,9	5	0,8	**61**	**0,6**
Looking for work	149	3,7	3	1,4	0	0,0	2	0,4	62	1,3	1	0,4	0	0,0	1	0,1	**219**	**2,0**
Wellness (e.g. Spa, Health farm, etc.)	3	0,1	0	0,1	0	0,0	1	0,3	4	0,1	0	0,0	0	0,0	5	0,8	**15**	**0,1**
Total	**3 992**	**100,0**	**251**	**100,0**	**130**	**100,0**	**596**	**100,0**	**4 706**	**100,0**	**262**	**100,0**	**99**	**100,0**	**672**	**100,0**	**10 708**	**100,0**

Source: NHTS 2020

Table 2.10 summarises the main purpose of overnight trips by sex and population group. Generally, most people who undertook overnight trips stated that they visited their friends/family/ancestral homes, which was true for all population groups, with virtually no gender differences observed. Whites, Coloureds, and Indian/Asians were more likely to have taken overnight trips for leisure/holidays, while black Africans were more likely to have taken these trips to attend funerals. There were slight gender differences that were observe across all population groups on the aforementioned main purposes; however, these were in line with the pattern observed for males.

Table 2.11: Main purpose of overnight trips by sex and geography type, 2020

Main purpose for overnight trips	Urban							Rural						
	Male		Female		Both sexes		GPR	Male		Female		Both sexes		GPR
	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%		N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	N ('000)	%	
Visit friends/Family/Ancestral home	2 289	62,5	2 500	62,7	4 789	62,6	1,00	698	53,4	963	55,0	1 661	54,3	1,03
Religious/Cultural/Traditional	128	3,5	174	4,4	302	4,0	1,24	124	9,5	228	13,0	351	11,5	1,37
Wedding	44	1,2	57	1,4	100	1,3	1,19	19	1,4	33	1,9	52	1,7	1,34
Other	163	4,5	81	2,0	244	3,2	0,46	87	6,7	56	3,2	143	4,7	0,48
Leisure/Holiday	666	18,2	798	20,0	1464	19,1	1,10	89	6,8	99	5,7	188	6,2	0,83
Shopping	12	0,3	17	0,4	29	0,4	1,21	15	1,1	23	1,3	37	1,2	1,15
Sporting	21	0,6	8	0,2	29	0,4	0,35	9	0,7	4	0,2	13	0,4	0,30
Funeral	234	6,4	290	7,3	524	6,8	1,14	136	10,4	251	14,3	387	12,6	1,38
Medical	23	0,6	26	0,7	49	0,6	1,05	15	1,2	36	2,1	51	1,7	1,77
Government services (e.g. Home Affairs, etc.)	28	0,8	13	0,3	41	0,5	0,43	10	0,8	10	0,6	20	0,6	0,71
Looking for work	51	1,4	17	0,4	68	0,9	0,30	104	8,0	47	2,7	151	4,9	0,34
Wellness (e.g. Spa, Health farm, etc.)	4	0,1	6	0,2	10	0,1	1,60	2	0,1	3	0,2	5	0,1	1,14
Total	**3 663**	**100,0**	**3 987**	**100,0**	**7 650**	**100,0**		**1 307**	**100,0**	**1 752**	**100,0**	**3 059**	**100,0**	

Source: NHTS 2020

Table 2.11 shows the main purpose of overnight trips by sex and geographical location. The most common reason for overnight trips in both geographical areas was to visit friends/family/ancestral home. Leisure/holiday was reported as the second most common reason for overnight trips for those residing in urban areas, while attending funerals was reported as the second most common reason for overnight trips for those residing in rural areas, and this was true for both males and females.

Between 2013 and 2020, the gender parity ratios for travelling to religious/culture/traditional facilities, attending weddings, shopping, attending funerals and travelling to wellness facilities were biased towards females. Overnight trips for sporting activities, looking for work, and accessing government services, on the other hand, were skewed toward men, indicating that these trips are more likely to be taken by men.

2.4 Driving licences

One of the requirements for driving in South Africa is to have a driving licence. Driving is an important milestone for young people, but it requires someone to be responsible because it comes with risks and challenges. As a result, having a driving license necessitates a sense of responsibility.[14]

The following analysis compares the possession of a driving licence for males and females between the years 2013 and 2020.

Table 2.12: Persons aged 18 years and older who have a driving licence by population group and sex, 2013 and 2020

	2013			2020		
	Male	**Female**	**Total**	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**
Population group	**Thousand**					
Black African	3 246	1 322	**4 568**	4 742	2 152	**6 893**
Coloured	585	272	**857**	686	328	**1 014**
Indian/Asian	360	228	**588**	455	308	**763**
White	1 591	1 554	**3 145**	1 683	1 673	**3 356**
RSA	**5 783**	**3 376**	**9 158**	**7 566**	**4 460**	**12 027**
Per cent						
Black African	25,8	9,6	**17,4**	32,1	13,4	**22,3**
Coloured	39,1	16,3	**27,1**	40,6	17,5	**28,5**
Indian/Asian	73,7	47,5	**60,7**	75,7	54,5	**65,4**
White	92,7	83,6	**88,0**	92,8	86,2	**89,4**
RSA	**35,5**	**19,0**	**26,9**	**40,1**	**21,8**	**30,6**

Source: NHTS 2013, NHTS 2020

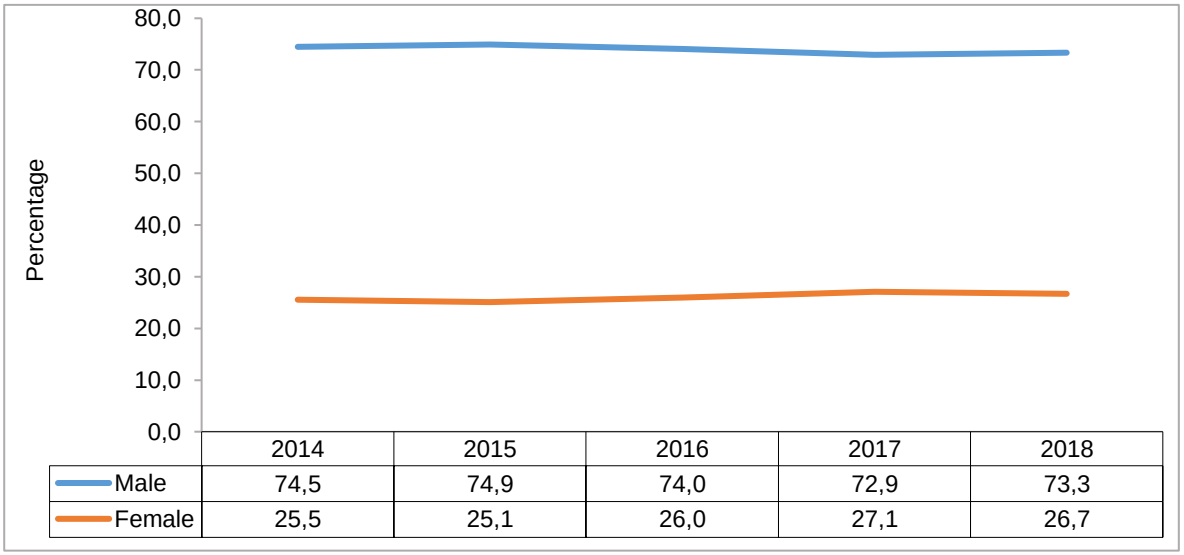
Table 2.12 shows the distribution of persons aged 18 years and older who have a driving licence by population group and sex. Nationally, only 26,9% of persons aged 18 years and older had driving license in 2013, and an increase of 3,7 percentage points was realised in 2020. Between 2013 and 2020, there was a general increase in the number of driving licence holders. Notwithstanding the generic increases observed across all population groups, the analysis revealed that whites were more than three times more likely than the national average to have a driving licence in 2013. In 2020, this figure increased by 1,4 percentage points. On the contrary, black Africans lagged behind all other population groups, falling below the national average in both years (national average: 26,9% vs black African: 17,4% in 2013 and national average: 30,6% vs black African: 22,3% in 2020).

Gender analysis revealed that women lagged behind men across all population groups, indicating significant gender disparities among driving licence holders in both years.

[14] https://howtoadult.com/reasons-that-teenagers-should-be-able-to-drive-9828245.html

2.6 Transportation road Accidents

Figure 2.5: Deaths due to transport accidents by sex, 2014–2018

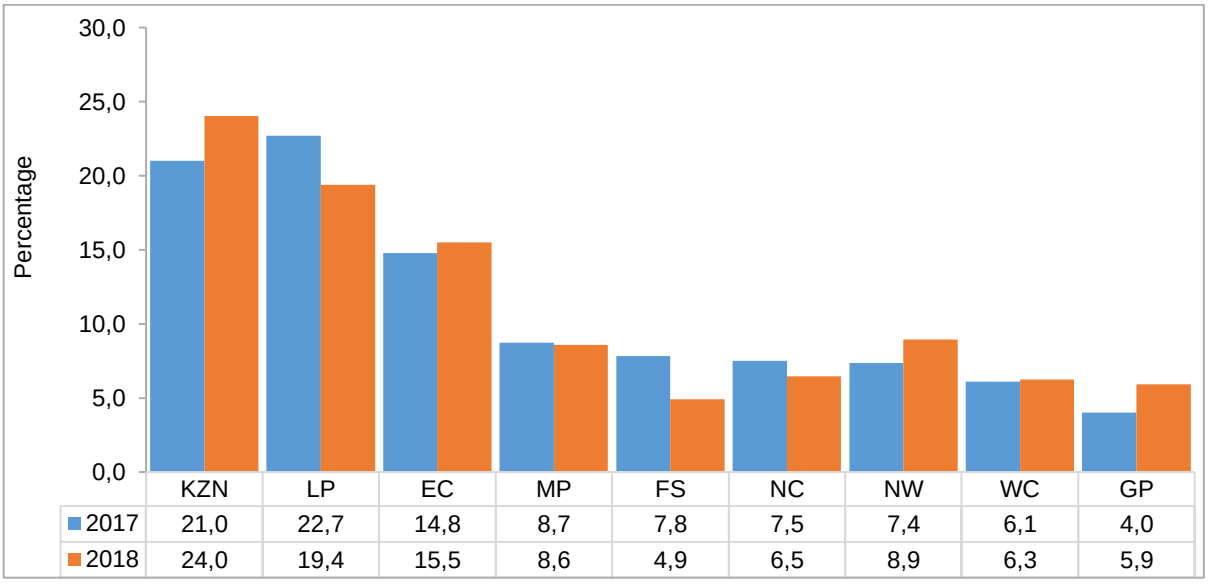


	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Male	74,5	74,9	74,0	72,9	73,3
Female	25,5	25,1	26,0	27,1	26,7

Source: MACOD 2014, MACOD 2018

Figure 2.5 shows deaths caused by transport-related accidents by sex. According to the findings, males were more likely than females to succumb to death in transport accidents, though the trend remained relative stable from 2014 to 2018, hovering between 72% and 75%. These findings confirm what literature suggests that men are more likely than women to die in transport-related accidents due to riskier behaviour such as reckless driving, driving while intoxicated and not wearing seatbelts.[15] Females, on the other hand, have consistently had fewer fatalities due to transport accidents, despite the slight increases observed during this period.

Figure 2.6: Distribution of transport accidents related deaths by province, 2017 and 2018



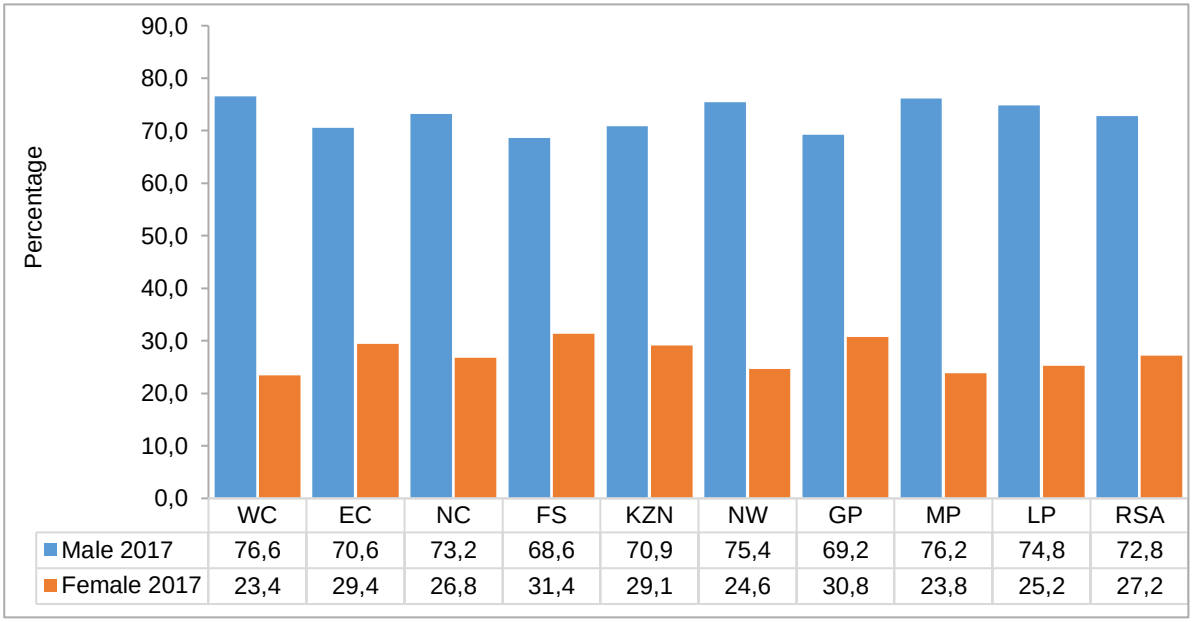
	KZN	LP	EC	MP	FS	NC	NW	WC	GP
2017	21,0	22,7	14,8	8,7	7,8	7,5	7,4	6,1	4,0
2018	24,0	19,4	15,5	8,6	4,9	6,5	8,9	6,3	5,9

Source: MACOD 2017, MACOD 2018

Figure 2.6 shows the distribution of transport related deaths by province between 2017 and 2018. During this period, five of the nine provinces observed increases in the percentage of deaths due to transport accident. KwaZulu-Natal accounted for nearly a quarter of all accidents that occurred in 2018, an increase of three percentage points from 2017. The Free State province had the lowest percentage of deaths caused by transport accidents, with a decrease of 2,9 percentage points from 2017.

[15] https://www.argionislaw.com/car-accidents/who-causes-more-car-accidents-men-or-women/

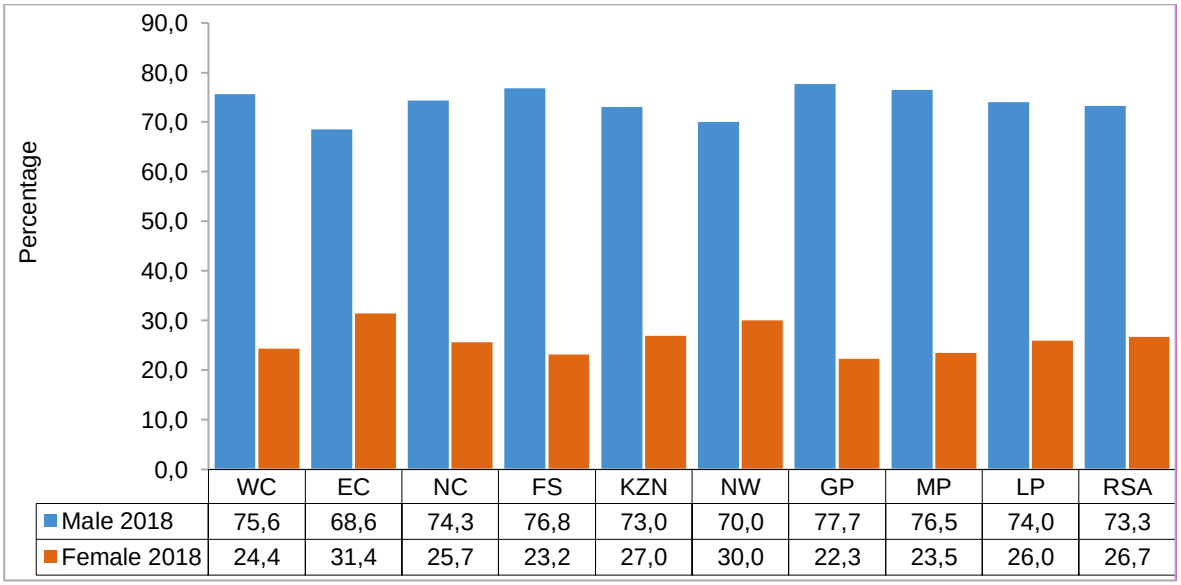
Figure 2.7a: Percentage share of deaths caused by transport accidents by province and sex, 2017



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	RSA
Male 2017	76,6	70,6	73,2	68,6	70,9	75,4	69,2	76,2	74,8	72,8
Female 2017	23,4	29,4	26,8	31,4	29,1	24,6	30,8	23,8	25,2	27,2

Source: MACOD 2017

Figure 2.7b: Percentage share of deaths caused by transport accidents by province and sex, 2018



	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	RSA
Male 2018	75,6	68,6	74,3	76,8	73,0	70,0	77,7	76,5	74,0	73,3
Female 2018	24,4	31,4	25,7	23,2	27,0	30,0	22,3	23,5	26,0	26,7

Source: MACOD 2018

Figures 2.7a and 2.7b illustrate percentage share of deaths caused by transport accidents by province and sex. Nationally, the percentage share of deaths caused by transport accidents among males increased by half of a percentage point, from 72,8% in 2017 to 73,3% in 2018, whereas females decreased by the same percentage share, from 27,2% in 2017 to 26,7% in 2018.

Provincial analysis through a gender lens revealed that five of the nine provinces recorded increases in the percentage of transport accidents occurred among males, with Gauteng and Free State provinces realising the largest increases of 8,5 and 8,2 percentage points, respectively. Conversely, in all the provinces where males experienced increases, females experienced decreases in transport accidents equivalent to such increases. Mpumalanga is the only province that observed minor gender variation when compared to other provinces.

2.5 Conclusion

The majority of people who too trips between 2013 and 2020 declined. However, a higher proportion of males than females indicated to have taken a trip during this period. Between 2013 and 2020, people residing in urban areas were more likely to have undertaken a trip than those residing in rural areas. Taking care of children/sick/elderly relatives was one of the reasons cited by people who did not travel during the reporting period, and there were glaring gender differences, with females being more likely than males to perform this responsibility. Analysis on the main purpose for day trips showed that females were more likely to have taken day trips for religious/cultural/traditional and funeral reasons, whereas males were more likely to have taken day trips for leisure/holiday and sporting activities.

When taking day trips, gender analysis revealed that females were more likely to use public transport, particularly taxis, whereas males were more likely to drive themselves to their destination. Analysis on driving license possession revealed that the black African population lagged behind all other population groups, falling below the national average in both years (national average: 26,9% vs black African: 17,4% in 2013 and national average: 30,6% vs black African: 22,3% in 2020). Furthermore, women lagged behind men across all population groups, indicating significant gender disparities among driving licence holders in both years. Data on transport-related deaths showed that men were more likely than women to die in transport-related accidents, and this was true across all provinces.

CHAPTER 3: EDUCATION AND TRANSPORT

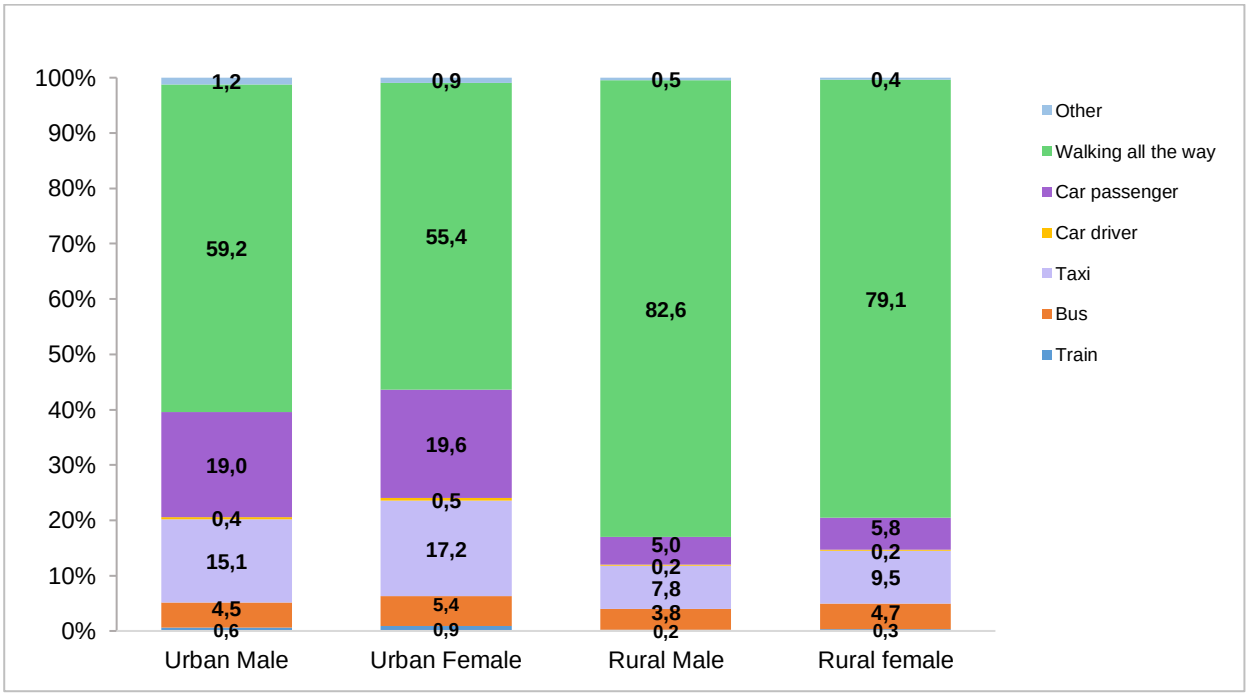
3.1 Mode of transport to educational institutions

The 2030 Agenda for sustainable development is premised upon its pledge of leaving no one behind, particularly vulnerable groups who were previously more likely to be left behind in the country's developmental agenda. Goal 11 (Target 11.2) of this agenda recognises the importance of having access to safe, accessible and sustainable transport systems that benefit everyone and further places emphasis on the need to improve road safety and the expansion of public transport, with special attention being given to the needs of the vulnerable groups, including women.[16]. Women and men, including girls and boys, experience mobility differently because they use different modes of transport for different purposes and in different ways based on their socially determined reproductive, productive, and community-related gender roles.[17] Mobility is a crucial enabler of social and economic growth, either facilitating or impeding people's access to education, work, services, and their community at large.

Numerous studies in the fields of gender, development, and transportation have revealed that a lack of viable transportation systems frequently impedes access to education.[18] Proper roads and access to public transport may help to increase enrolment rates in educational institutions and possibly educational attainment.[19] Access to the labour market is influenced by educational attainment. Inadequate transport to educational facilities poses a security risk for females, predisposing them to sexual assault and other forms of abuse. It also means that their chances of achieving financial independence are limited, which keeps them trapped in poverty or perpetuates their dependency on men.

This chapter examines gender variations in modes of transport used to travel to education institutions.

Figure 3.1a: Main mode of transport to pre-school and grade (1-12) by sex and geotype, 2013



Source: NHTS 2013

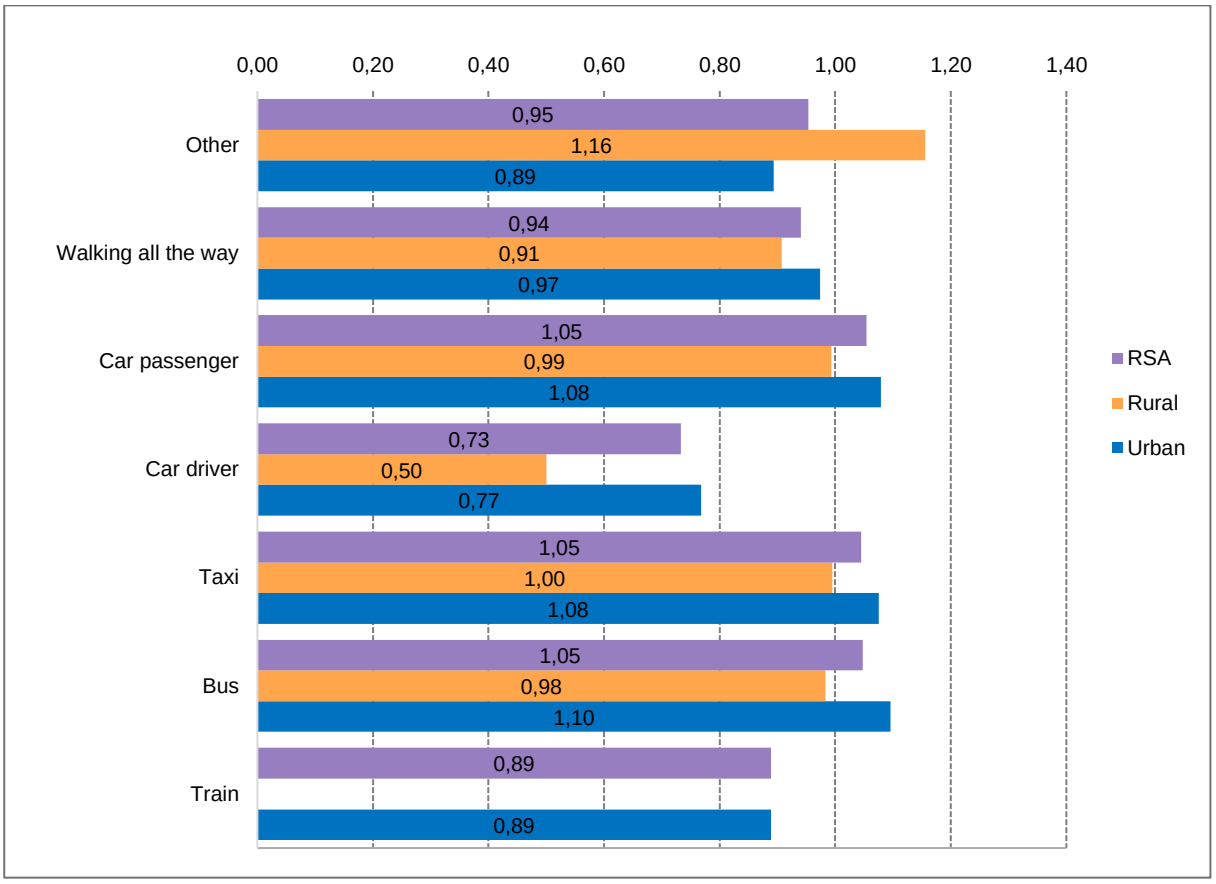
[16] Transforming our World: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, A/RES/70/1
[17] Asian Development Bank (2013). Gender tool kit: Transport—Maximizing the benefits of improved mobility for all. Mandaluyong City, Philippines.
[18] Asian Development Bank (2013). Gender tool kit: Transport—Maximizing the benefits of improved mobility for all. Mandaluyong City, Philippines.
[19] Ionescu, A.M. & Cuza, A.I. 2012. How does education affect labour market outcomes? Review of Applied Socio-Economic Research 4(2), pp. 130

Figure 3.1b: Main mode of transport to pre-school and grade (1-12) by sex and geotype, 2020

Source: NHTS 2020

Transport is critical to achieving social equity because it enables people to participate effectively in various life activities and avert potential exclusions, such as the inaccessibility of education to some learners due to a lack of a viable transportation system. An efficient and effective transportation system to educational institutions, including early childhood development centres, is central to improving educational outcomes in all geographical areas. Figures 3.1a and 3.1b show that walking all the way to school was the most common mode of transport used in both urban and rural areas, with males being more likely to walk than females. Over 70% of learners in rural areas were more likely to walk all the way to school, and this was the case for both sexes. Furthermore, females in urban areas were more likely than males to ride as a passenger in a car, take a taxi, or take the bus to school. Between 2013 and 2020, a taxi remained the third most common mode of transport for both sexes, though these numbers declined in urban areas in 2020.

Figure 3.2: GPR of the main mode of transport to pre-school and grade (R-12) by geotype, 2020



Source: NHTS 2020

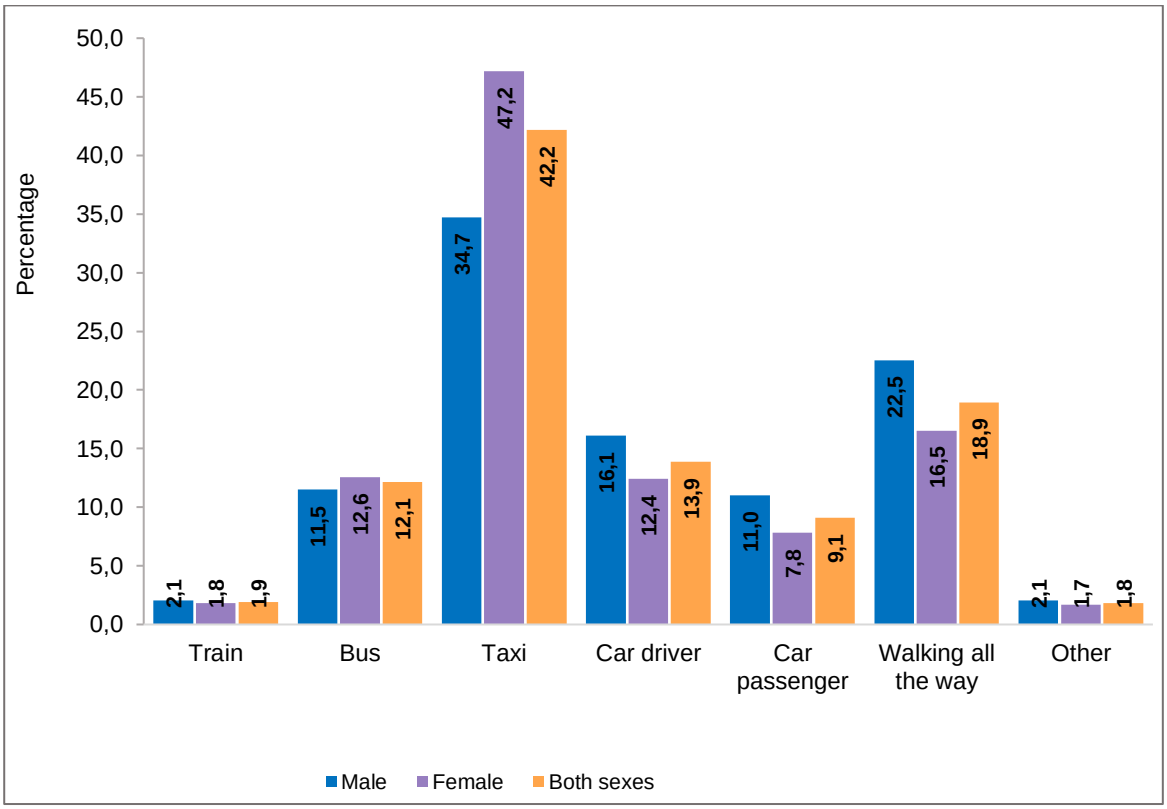
Figure 3.2 depicts gender parity ratios (GPR) of the main mode of transport to pre-school and grade (R–12) school by geographical location. According to UNESCO, a GPR between 0,97 and 1,03 indicates gender parity. A GPR below 0,97 indicates a disparity in favour of males, while a GPR above 1,03 indicates a disparity in favour of females,[20] Nationally, the ratios for car passenger, taxi and bus transport modes were favourable to females, suggesting that female learners were more likely to use public transport to get to school, whereas car driver ratios leaned towards males.

The gender parity ratios in urban areas mirrored the national pattern, with ratios for bus, taxi and car passenger biased towards females. Walking all the way was the only mode of transport that showed parity. As was the case at a national level, the GPR for driving was skewed towards males.

In rural areas, except for car driver and other, almost all modes of transport reached parity. Gender differences in driving were glaring, with a GPR of 0,50 observed, denoting that males were more likely than females to be drivers.

[20] https://learningportal.iiep.unesco.org/en/glossary/gender-parity-index-gpi

Figure 3.3: Main mode of transport to PSET by sex, 2020



Source: NHTS 2020

Figure 3.3 depicts data for modes of transport used to get to Post-Secondary Education and Training institutions (PSET) by sex. Higher educational institutions are often located in inaccessible areas for many communities, particularly low-income communities. The affordability of university education, the availability of on- or off-campus student accommodation, and how university mobility is managed all influence travel demand in higher education campuses.[21] According to recent studies, the student population at PSET institutions, particularly universities, has increased, affecting investment in university infrastructure, including student accommodation.[22] As a result, the number of students residing off-campus has increased, increasing the demand for viable modes of transportation. Figure 3.3 shows that males were more likely to use almost all modes of transport available, except a taxi and a bus, where usage was skewed towards females. As such, more than 47% of females took a taxi to PSET institutions, which was 12,5 percentage points higher than their male counterparts (34,7%). Walking all the way to the PSET institution was the second most popular mode of transport for both males and females while taking the train was the least popular.

[21]Mokwena, O.H. & Zuidgeest, M., 2020, 'Identifying transport policy gaps in student travel demand management in South Africa', Journal of Transport and Supply Chain Management 14(0), a522. https://doi.org/10.4102/jtscm.v14i0.522

[22] Mbara, T.C., Celliers, C., 2013, 'Travel patterns and challenges experienced by University of Johannesburg off-campus students', *Journal of Transport and Supply Chain Management* 7(1), Art. #114, 8 pages. http://dx.doi. org/10.4102/jtscm.v7i1.114

Table 3.1: Reasons for walking all the way to the educational institution by mode of transport, geography area and sex, 2020

Mode of transport	Urban			Rural		
	Male	Female	RSA	Male	Female	RSA
It was by choice	7,7	7,4	**7,6**	4,5	4,2	**4,4**
No parking at destination	0,0	*	**0,0**	0,0	0,0	**0,0**
Fuel costs	0,1	0,1	**0,1**	0,1	0,0	**0,1**
Other	0,7	0,4	**0,5**	0,6	0,5	**0,5**
Public transport too expensive	8,3	9,5	**8,9**	12,9	13,5	**13,1**
Public transport not available	0,6	0,7	**0,7**	2,4	2,5	**2,5**
No transport available at specific times	0,0	0,0	**0,0**	0,5	0,4	**0,4**
Public transport not enough	0,2	0,1	**0,1**	0,3	0,4	**0,3**
No transport	1,1	1,2	**1,1**	5,4	4,9	**5,1**
Nearby/close enough to walk	80,6	80,3	**80,5**	73,1	73,3	**73,2**
Health reasons/exercising	0,6	0,3	**0,4**	0,3	0,3	**0,3**
To avoid traffic congestion	0,0	0,0	**0,0**	0,0	0,0	**0,0**
Total	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**

Source: NHTS 2020

Table 3.1 depicts the reasons for walking to an educational institution based on sex and geographical location. This analysis includes all types of educational institutions, ranging from Early Childhood Development Centres to PSET institutions. While nearby to an educational institution was cited as the primary reason for walking, other factors such as transport affordability and accessibility must be considered (comprised of public transport not available and no transport), especially for people residing in rural areas. According to Table 3.1, slightly more females than males reported walking all the way to an educational institution in both urban and rural areas because public transport was too expensive. High costs were cited as the primary reason by 9,5% of females versus 8,3% of males in urban areas, and 13,5% of females versus 12,9% of males in rural areas.

3.2 Departure time, travel time and waiting time

The amount of time spent travelling and waiting are important indicators of service quality. Excessive travel and waiting times are unproductive time that cannot be used and thus add no value to students' learning.[23] Reliable, less cumbersome (in terms of physical effort), low-cost transport can help increase access to formal education and the achievement of SDG targets 4.2 and 4.3, with impacts on subsequent livelihood opportunities.[24] One of the strategic objectives for improving public transportation accessibility outlined in the National White Paper on National Transport Policy is to reduce walking distances to public-transport facilities to less than one kilometre. According to research, some people can walk a kilometre in at least 15 minutes. Improved spatial planning is thus critical in achieving the far more desirable goal of placing every dwelling within approximately seven minutes of a public transportation boarding point (around 400-500 m).[25]

[23] Mbara, T.C., Celliers, C., 2013, 'Travel patterns and challenges experienced by University of Johannesburg off-campus students', *Journal of Transport and Supply Chain Management* 7(1), Art. #114, 8 pages. http://dx.doi. org/10.4102/jtscm.v7i1.114
[24] UN-Habitat, UNEP & SLoCaT , 2015, 'Analysis of the transport relevance of each of the 17 SDGs'
[25] Council for Scientific and Industrial Research, 'Public Transport: Guidelines for human settlement planning and design'

Table 3.2: Departure times to the educational institution by province and sex, 2020

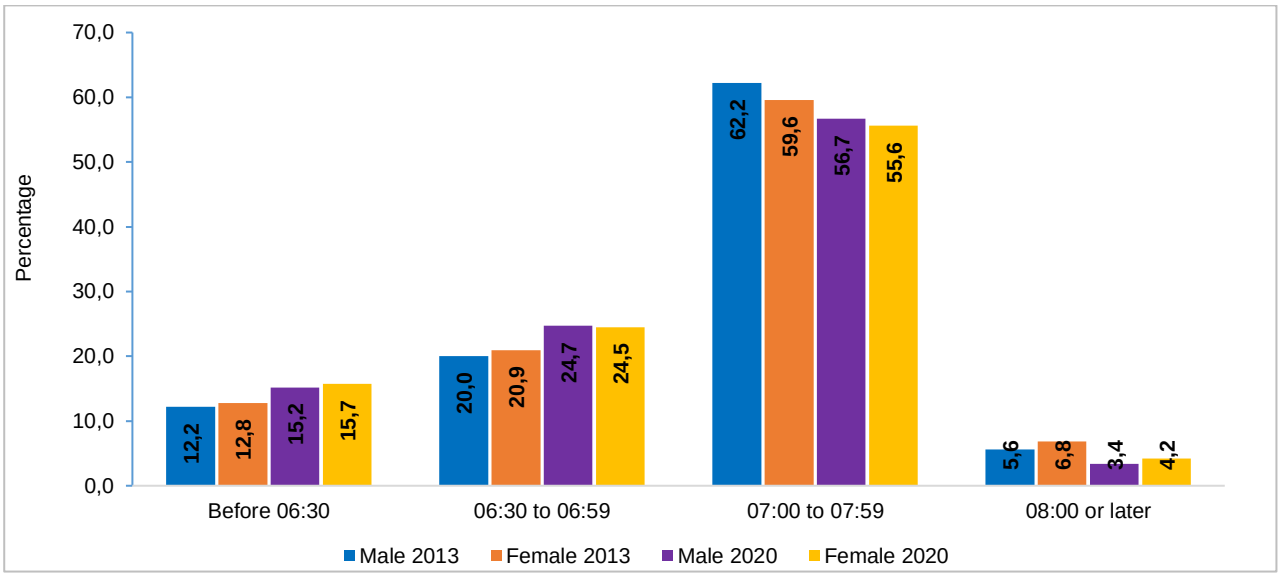
Province and sex		Before 06:30	06:30 to 06:59	07:00 to 07:59	08:00 or later	Total
	Male	8,8	11,5	77,4	2,3	**100,0**
WC	Female	8,5	12,7	75,4	3,3	**100,0**
	Male	11,2	16,1	70,5	2,2	**100,0**
EC	Female	12,3	16,0	69,3	2,4	**100,0**
	Male	11,1	31,8	54,7	2,3	**100,0**
NC	Female	13,8	31,8	51,1	3,3	**100,0**
	Male	8,7	21,2	65,4	4,7	**100,0**
FS	Female	9,5	21,1	63,7	5,7	**100,0**
	Male	17,7	27,0	49,6	5,7	**100,0**
KZN	Female	19,4	26,4	48,6	5,6	**100,0**
	Male	16,1	30,3	50,0	3,7	**100,0**
NW	Female	15,8	30,8	49,4	3,9	**100,0**
	Male	15,1	23,3	57,6	4,0	**100,0**
GP	Female	13,8	22,7	57,8	5,7	**100,0**
	Male	15,6	34,6	48,9	1,0	**100,0**
MP	Female	14,8	35,4	48,3	1,5	**100,0**
	Male	23,1	33,7	41,3	1,9	**100,0**
LP	Female	25,4	32,0	39,5	3,0	**100,0**
	Male	**15,2**	**24,7**	**56,7**	**3,4**	**100,0**
RSA	**Female**	**15,7**	**24,5**	**55,6**	**4,2**	**100,0**

Source: NHTS 2020

Table 3.2 depicts departure times to an educational institution by sex. The question about departure times was asked to determine demand for public transportation at specific times. Traffic congestion has been increasing over the years, and the current traffic trajectory indicates that it will continue to worsen, negatively affecting the quality of life in cities. This is due to an increase in private vehicle ownership, which has been accompanied by increased levels of dissatisfaction with public transportation as more people have expressed less trust in it. Its primary manifestation is a gradual decrease in traffic speed, resulting in longer travel times. To combat traffic congestion, travellers must factor in possible delays into their travel times, which frequently results in peak periods with increased demand for public transportation.

Examining gender differences in departure times across different provinces, most persons attending educational institutions leave home between 07:00 and 07:59, followed by 06:30 to 06:59, which was true for both males and females. There were no marked gender preferences associated with the highlighted times, as only negligible gender differences were observed.

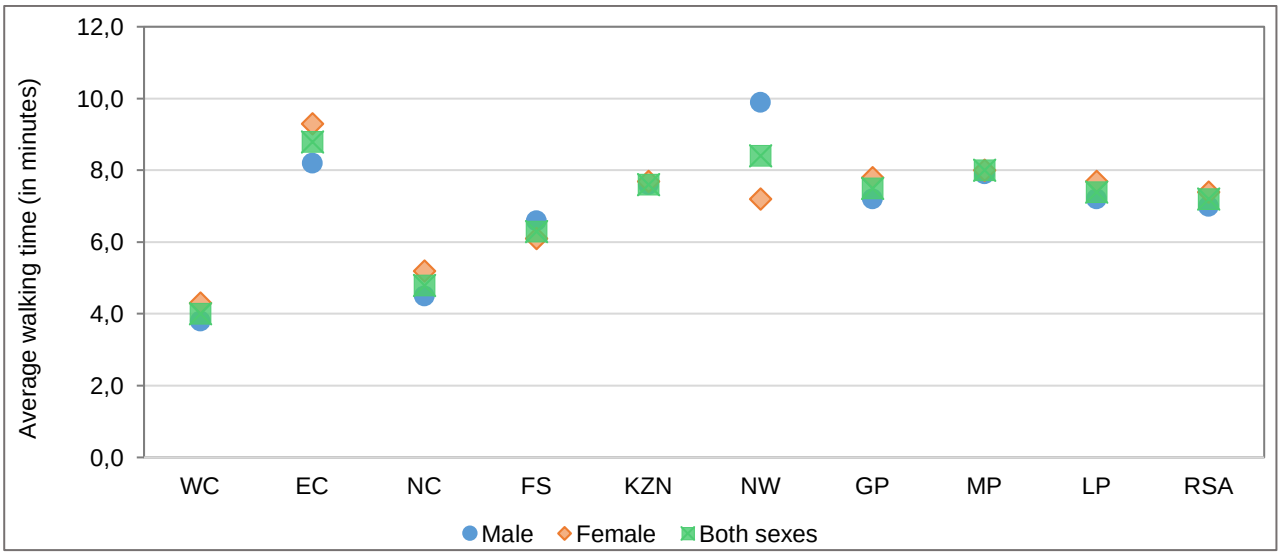
Figure 3.4: Departure time to educational institution by sex, 2013 and 2020



Source: NHTS 2013, NHTS 2020

Figure 3.4 depicts departure times to an educational institution between 2013 and 2020. This analysis examines departure times through a gender lens to see if any gender differences were observed during the reporting period. Between 2013 and 2020, the proportion of students leaving home between 07:00 and 07:59 decreased, with a significant number now leaving any time before 06:30 to 06:59. This was true for both males and females, with females slightly more likely to leave before 06:30 and males slightly more likely to leave between 06:30 and 06:59.

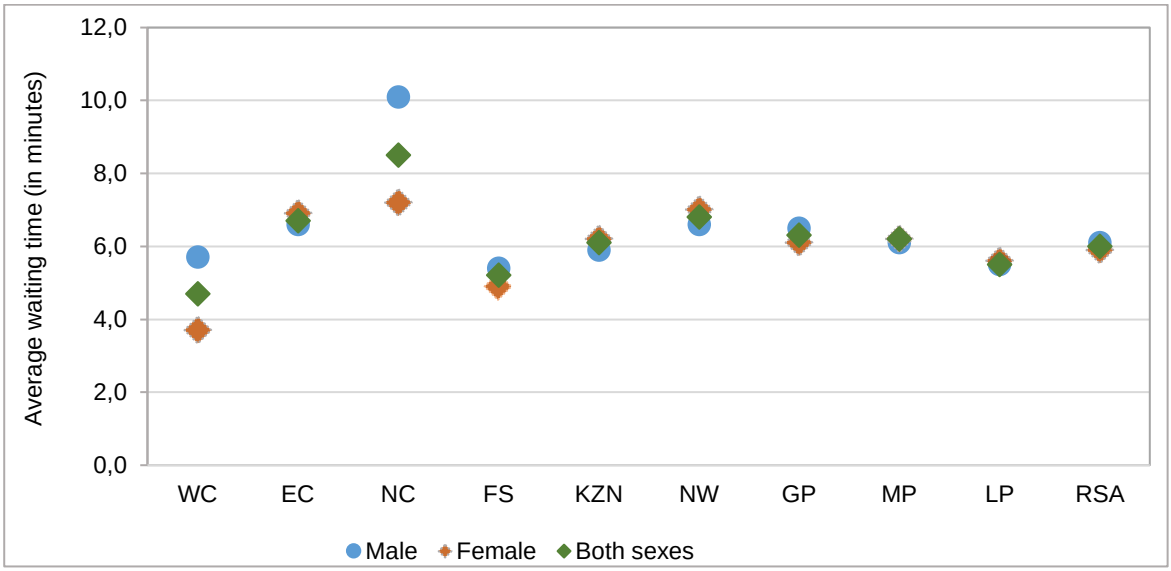
Figure 3.5: Average walking time in minutes to the first transport by sex and province, 2020



Source: NHTS 2020

Figure 3.5 depicts the average walking time in minutes to the first transport based on sex and province. Walking is a common mode of access to public transport, including public transportation boarding points or stations, and can significantly influence designing and placement of public transportation infrastructure. The optimal walking distance to public transport stations or points of interest to access transport is an important factor in determining user satisfaction with the overall efficiency of the public transportation system. Figure 3.5 shows that there were no significant gender differences in students' average walking time to the first mode of transport when travelling to their respective institutions, with the exception of the Eastern Cape and North West. Students in the Eastern Cape, on average, walked for longer periods of time, and this was especially true for females. In the North West, males travel for longer periods of time on average than their female counterparts.

Figure 3.6: Average waiting time (in minutes) for the first transport when travelling to an educational institution

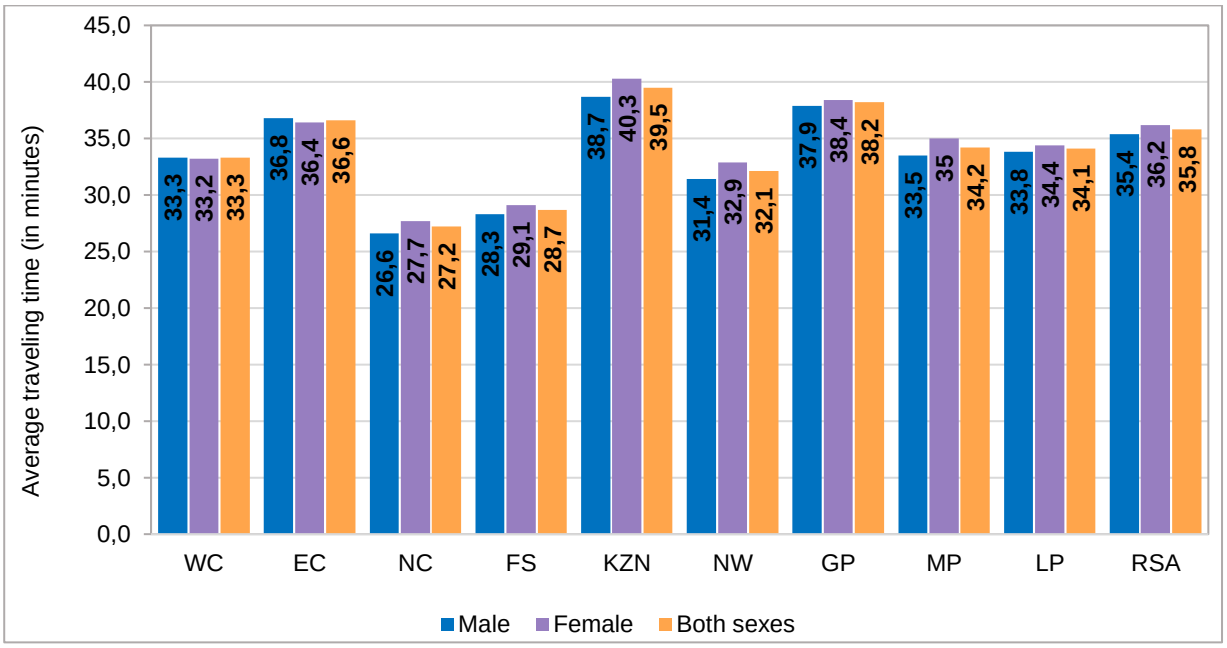


Source: NHTS 2020

Figure 3.6 depicts the average waiting time in minutes for the first transport when travelling to an educational institution by sex and province. When it comes to public transportation, safety is a major concern that affects women and girls disproportionately. Women on public transportation are susceptible to unwanted attention, sexual harassment and violence. According to the literature, young women are prime targets for such abuse, particularly in urban areas.[26] Gender-based violence risks increase for women traveling from all walks of life, including walking to and from boarding points, and waiting at public transportation boarding points or stations, such as bus, taxi, and train stations. Figure 3.6 shows that, with the exception of the Western Cape and Northern Cape provinces, there were no marked gender differences in average waiting times for first transport. Despite the fact that the two provinces were outliers when analysed through a gender lens, males were more likely to wait longer times on average than females in both provinces.

[26] USAID.GOV: GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE ON PUBLIC TRANSPORTATION

Figure 3.7: Average traveling time in minutes to an educational institution by province and sex, 2020

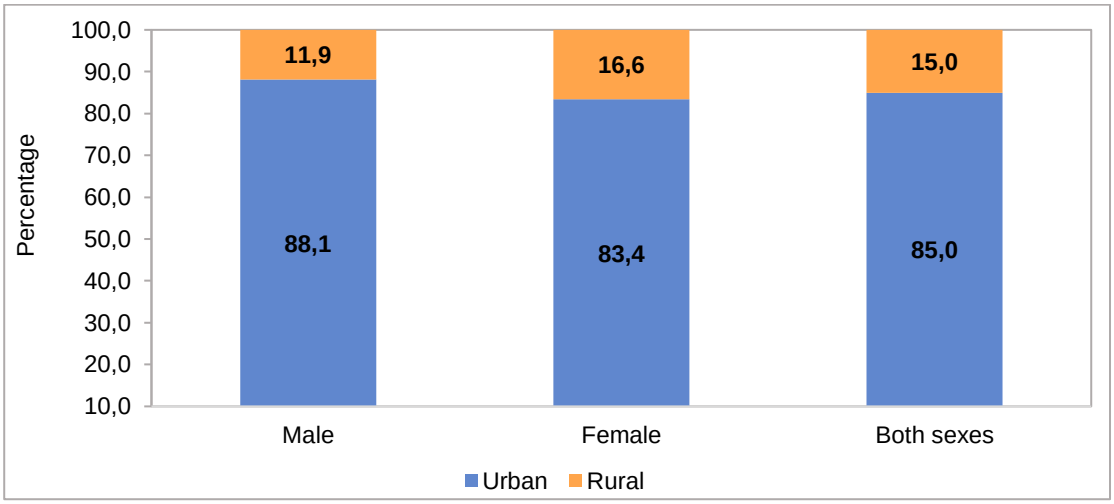


Source: NHTS 2020

Figure 3.7 shows the average traveling time in minutes to an educational institution based on sex and province. The National White Paper on National Transport Policy aims to promote safe and secure, reliable and sustainable public transport that meets the needs of users, including the needs of those who attend ECD, schools and PSET institutions. At the national level, while females took slightly longer time than males to get to their respective educational institutions, no significant gender differences were observed.

According to the provincial analysis, students in KwaZulu-Natal, Gauteng, and the Eastern Cape provinces spent more time traveling to their educational institutions than students from other provinces. The average times displayed in the aforementioned provinces surpassed the national average of 35,4 minutes for males and 36,2 minutes for females. The average travel time in KwaZulu-Natal was the longest of the three provinces for both sexes.

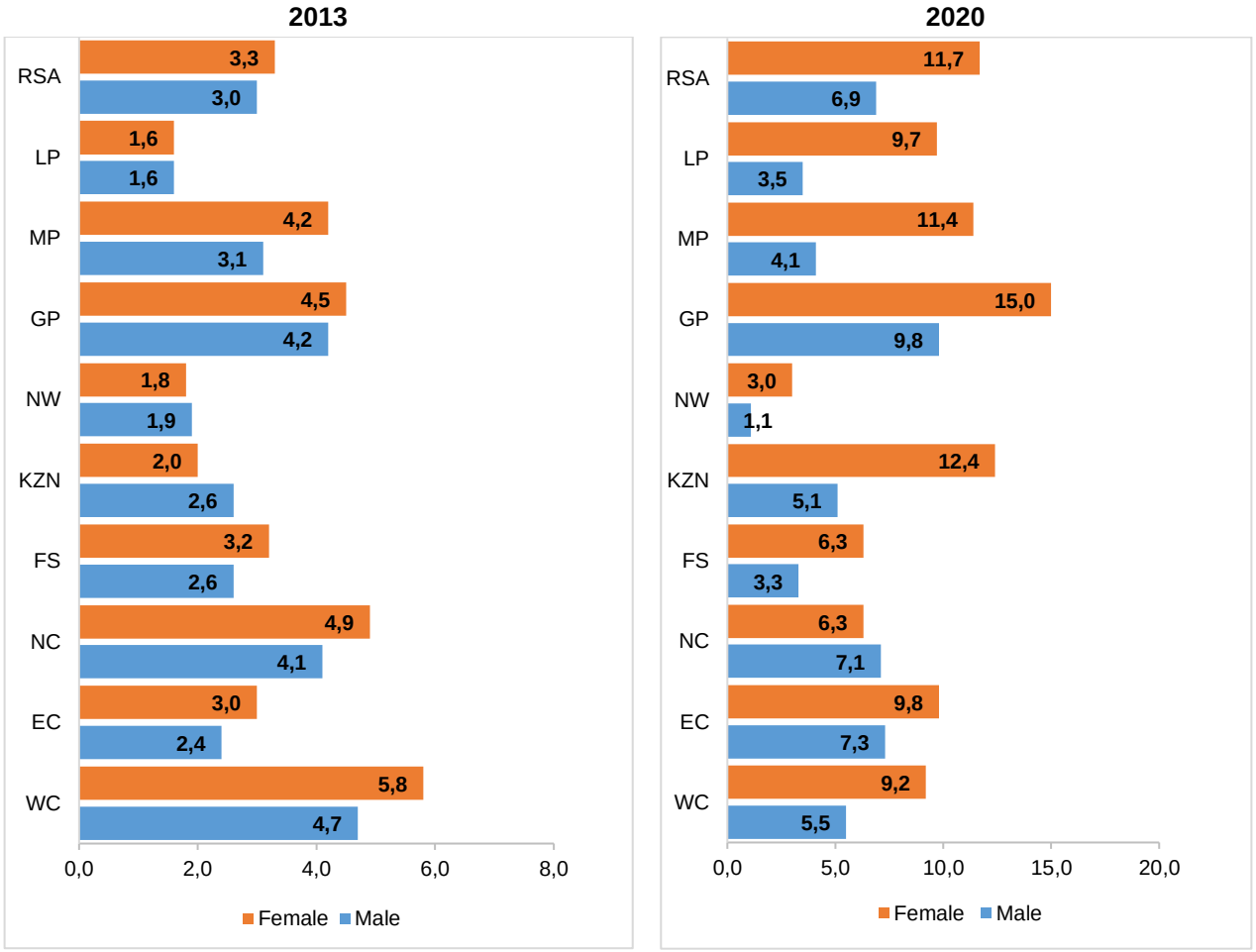
Figure 3.8: Percentage of students who used more than one mode of transport to get to an educational institution by geography type and sex, 2020



Source: NHTS 2020

Student transportation can have either positive or negative impact on students' academic performance and access to the institution of choice. The logistics of travelling to and from the educational institution influence a student's ability to get to school on time, absenteeism, and the availability to participate in extramural activities and after-school events. According to Figure 3.8, students in urban areas were more likely to use more than one mode of transport to get to an educational facility than those in rural areas, and this was true for both sexes. In rural areas, females were 4,7 percentage points more likely than males to use more than one mode of transport to get to an educational facility.

Figure 3.9: Percentage of students who use more than one mode of transport to an educational institution by province and sex, 2013 and 2020



Source: NHTS 2013, NHTS 2020

Figure 3.9 depicts the percentage of students who use more than one mode of transportation to an educational institution, regardless of type, by province and gender. There are various factors that contribute to a person not attending a nearby educational institution, particularly for children of school-going age (Grade R–12). Negative perceptions about certain schools, which are perceived to be inferior, are frequently the catalysts that lead to parents or students choosing schools that are far from home. Some educational institutions' spatial placement necessitates the use of more than one mode of transportation, particularly when direct public transportation is unavailable. Nationally, between 2013 and 2020, the percentage of persons who were using more than one mode of transport to get to an educational institution increased. The relative increase realised over this period was 8,4 percentage points higher for females and 3,9 percentage points higher for males, indicating that females were more likely than males to use more than one mode of transport to get to an educational institution.

A provincial analysis revealed marked gender differences in persons who used more than one mode of transport to get to an educational institution, with women being more likely than men to be in this situation in eight of the nine provinces. Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal, and Mpumalanga recorded the largest increases. Northern Cape is the only province where male increase surpassed the female increase during this period.

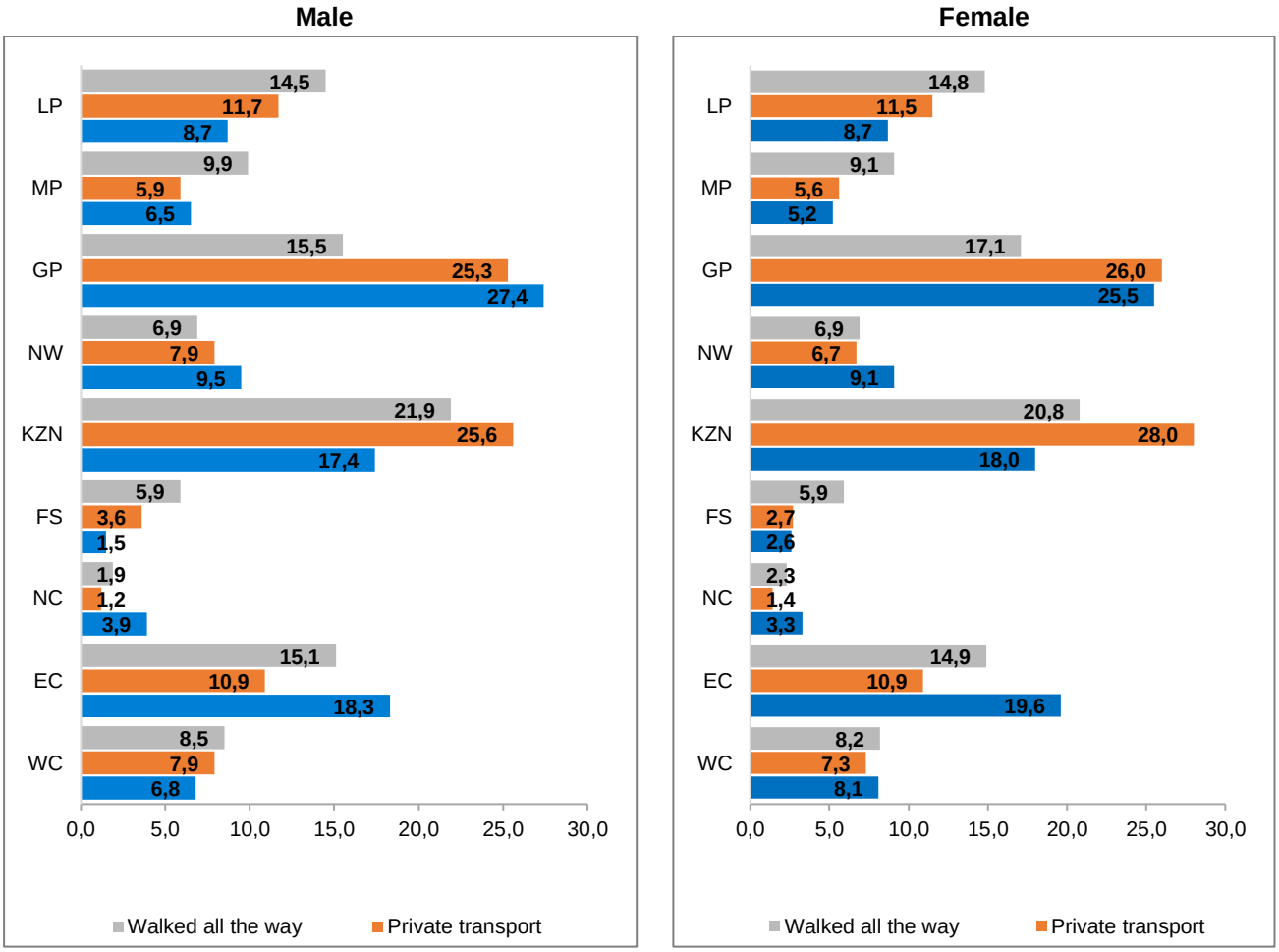
Table 3.3: Percentage of learners aged 5–20 years, who walk at least 30 minutes to an educational institution by province, sex and geography type, 2020

	Male			Female		
Province	**Urban**	**Rural**	**Total**	**Urban**	**Rural**	**Total**
WC	11,8	0,1	**4,6**	9,0	0,1	**3,7**
EC	10,8	21,2	**17,2**	10,3	19,0	**15,5**
NC	2,3	0,6	**1,3**	2,1	1,0	**1,5**
FS	8,1	1,5	**4,0**	8,7	1,4	**4,4**
KZN	17,9	36,6	**29,5**	16,7	36,7	**28,6**
NW	6,2	5,8	**6,0**	4,8	6,5	**5,8**
GP	31,1	0,8	**12,4**	37,0	0,7	**15,4**
MP	8,6	10,5	**9,8**	7,9	10,9	**9,7**
LP	3,1	22,9	**15,3**	3,5	23,6	**15,5**
RSA	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**

Source: NHTS 2020

Table 3.3 shows percentage distribution of learners aged 5–20 years, who walk at least 30 minutes to an educational institution based on province, sex and geographical location. Walking a long distance to school can be discouraging for learners, leading to high absenteeism or dropout rates. Distance is measured in terms of travel time to school for this indicator, and a school is considered far if a learner travels at least 30 minutes to get there. The analysis revealed that the province of KwaZulu-Natal had the highest percentage of learners who walked at least 30 minutes to get to school, regardless of learner sex or geographical location. The Eastern Cape and Limpopo provinces, which are considered rural like KwaZulu-Natal, had a higher percentage of learners walking such long distances only in rural areas. Affluent provinces such as Gauteng and the Western Cape had a higher percentage of learners who walked for at least 30 minutes in urban areas.

Figure 3.10: Percentage of learners who attend a formal school (Grade R–12) by sex and type of transport, 2020



Source: NHTS 2020

Figure 3.10 depicts the percentage distribution of learners who attend a formal school (Grade R–12) by sex and type of transport. Due to data constraints, only three types of transportation were examined for this analysis: government scholar transportation, private transportation, and walking all the way to school. A small fraction of learners indicated that they hitchhiked all the way to school; however, this number was too small to provide a reliable disaggregation by province. Analysis showed that male learners from Gauteng, Eastern Cape, North West, and Northern Cape predominantly used government learner transport to school, while learners from KwaZulu-Natal largely used private transport (approximately 26%). Notwithstanding that walking all the way to school was not the primary mode of transport indicated by male learners in KwaZulu-Natal, approximately 22% of them indicated that they walked to school; this is relatively higher than what is observed in all other provinces. Similarly, with the exception of the Gauteng province, the analysis on the predominant mode of transport used by female learners to get to school mirrored that of their male counterparts. Female learners in Gauteng equally used both government scholar transport and private transport to get to school.

3.3 Monthly costs of travel

The enrolment rate at Post-Secondary Education and Training institutions (PSET), particularly universities, continues to rise, resulting in a significant number of students residing off-campus due to lack of student accommodation. Daily commuting to an educational institution incurs significant costs that are expected to be borne by families and students. Access to higher education in terms of travel distance is thus critical, particularly for students living in remote areas where travel costs can be a barrier. An individual's residence and the distance between institutions can have an adverse impact on participation in higher education, especially for students who are from low-income households.

Table 3.4: Mean cost to PSET institutions by mode of transport, sex and province, 2013 and 2020

Mean (Rands)		WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP	RSA
2013											
Train	Male	406	1 200	*	*	304	*	352	*	*	**367**
	Female	376	348	*	*	345	*	842	*	*	**600**
Bus	Male	426	696	*	493	481	500	788	462	350	**510**
	Female	811	947	229	405	517	414	490	307	355	**478**
Taxi	Male	350	522	,	376	420	695	531	533	366	**477**
	Female	430	427	320	464	469	883	460	502	399	**483**
Car/Bakkie/Truck/Lorry driver	Male	861	1 249	*	716	1 419	1 573	1 138	943	2 255	**1 124**
	Female	979	987	*	522	1 906	1 163	1 415	1 013	1 730	**1 328**
Car/Bakkie/Truck/Lorry passenger	Male	317	613	*	913	483	*	1 024	*	*	**734**
	Female	929	456	*	773	572	*	1 427	691	466	**911**
2020											
Train	Male	550	*	*	*	228	*	218	*	*	**341**
	Female	127	292	*	*	199	*	459	*	*	**371**
Bus	Male	592	0	0	745	474	619	435	757	583	**541**
	Female	637	614	196	562	948	494	362	806	493	**587**
Taxi	Male	526	668	563	575	899	588	930	1 565	511	**822**
	Female	553	569	519	582	828	763	709	590	630	**689**
Car/Bakkie/Truck/Lorry driver	Male	628	621	*	370	1 514	1 019	1 717	1 151	1 717	**1 353**
	Female	1 595	530	*	2 517	1 515	514	1 733	1 135	655	**1 505**
Car/Bakkie/Truck/Lorry passenger	Male	185	252	376	0	210	204	203	2 000	133	**209**
	Female	91	133	733	258	772	0	1 044	134	137	**600**

* The asterisk represents unweighted numbers with the value of 3 and below.
Source: NHTS 2013, NHTS 2020

Table 3.4 shows the average cost to PSET institutions by main mode of transport, sex and province. Between 2013 and 2020, travelling by car/bakkie/truck as a driver was the most expensive mode of travel for PSET students nationally, and this was true for both males and females. During this period, the average cost of this mode of transport increased by R230 for males and R170 for females. In 2013, car/bakkie/truck/lorry as a passenger was the second most expensive mode of transport; however, taxis surpassed this in 2020 and became the second most expensive mode of transport.

A provincial analysis revealed glaring gender differences in the average costs to PSET institutions using various modes of transportation. In line with the national pattern, travelling by car/bakkie/truck as a driver was the most expensive mode of travel across all provinces between 2013 and 2020. When average cost was examined through a gender lens, there were noticeable differences, with some provinces recording the highest average cost among males in 2013, but females changing that position in 2020. During the reporting period, both sexes exhibited a significant erratic pattern on average cost across all provinces.

3.4 Conclusion

Over 70% of learners from rural areas indicated walking all the way to school as their main mode of transportation. The analysis on the main mode of transport used by students who attend PSET institutions showed that males were more likely to use almost all modes of transport available, with the exception of a taxi and a bus, where usage was skewed towards females. Examining reasons for walking all the way to an educational institution revealed that slightly more females reported walking to an educational institution because public transport was too expensive, and this was true in both urban and rural areas. Between 2013 and 2020, the percentage of persons who used more than one mode of transport to get to an educational institution increased, with females being more likely than males to find themselves in this situation. The province of KwaZulu-Natal had the highest percentage of learners who walked at least 30 minutes to school, regardless of learner sex or geographical location, while the provinces of the Eastern Cape and Limpopo had a higher percentage of learners walking such long distances only in rural areas. On average, students in KwaZulu-Natal, Gauteng, and the Eastern Cape provinces spent more time travelling to their educational institutions than students from other provinces. Learners in Gauteng, Eastern Cape, North West, and Northern Cape provinces predominantly used government learner transport to school, while learners in KwaZulu-Natal largely used private transport (approximately 26%). The KwaZulu-Natal province also recorded the largest percentage (22%) of learners who walked all the way to school compared to other provinces.

CHAPTER 4: WORK AND BUSINESS-RELATED GENDER TRAVEL PATTERNS

4.0 Background

Access to transport has been shown to increase participation in the labour market. An analysis of work-related transport patterns aids the government to respond better to males' and females' varying transport needs.[27] Access to efficient modes of transport is essential for labour force participation and with the gradual increase in the absorption of women in the labour force as working women tend to simultaneously combine job and domestic commitments, such as taking children to school or running errands distinguishing their travel pattern from that of men.[28] Identifying gender patterns in transport will inform policy and assist in recognising issues that may hinder access to employment particularly for females, thus contributing to alleviating poverty.

The following analysis uses the 2020 National Household Travel Survey data. The population of interest consists of people between and including the working age population. According to the International Labour Organisation (ILO), the working-age population is defined as individuals aged between 15 and 64. These individuals represent the potential labour supply of the population. The labour force is the portion of the working-age population that is economically active, for example employed and unemployed persons, who are actively looking for work.

4.1 Travel for work

Developing countries lag behind with access to reliable public transport. Success in achieving targets under SDG 11 will lead to fulfilment of targets in many other SDG goals, including goal 8 on economic growth and access to decent work. The rapid global industrialisation and creation of jobs make transport a crucial role player in the labour market, therefore information is needed to ensure that sustainable transport is available to all, particularly to vulnerable populations such as women, children, the elderly and persons with disabilities. Equal representation of both sexes in the labour force is of great importance and the influential role of gender equality in economic growth is most directly illustrated by the participation of women in employment.

Table 4.1: Percentage distribution of employed persons (15–64 years) seven days prior to the survey by sex, 2020

	Male		Female		Both sexes	
Status	**N(`000)**	**%**	**N(`000)**	**%**	**N(`000)**	**%**
Employed	8 658	45,6	6618	33,6	15 276	39,5
Not employed	10 343	54,4	13 089	66,4	23 432	60,5
Total	**19 001**	**100**	**19 707**	**100**	**38 707**	**100,0**

Source: NHTS, 2020

Table 4.1 shows the percentage distribution of the working-age population seven days prior to the survey. According to Stats SA's 2020 Mid-Year Population Estimates, the South African population consisted of 59,62 million people. Depicted in the table 4.1 38,7 million people were in the working-age population (15–64 years). Among the 19,0 million males of working age, 45,6% were employed while among the 19,7 million females only 33,6% were employed. The analysis shows that males were more likely to be employed than females, with a gender gap of 0,76, which is favourable to males.

[27] Australian Aid: Gender equality indicators & Household travel survey: Sydney Potgieter, C. 2006. Gender, development and Transport in Rural SA, Human Sciences Research Council
[28] Uteng Priya, T. 2006. Mobility: Discourses from the non-western immigrant groups in Norway, *Mobilities* 1(3) pp. 435-462.

Table 4.2: Percentage distribution of employed persons (15–64 years) seven days prior to the survey by sex and population group, 2020

	Male									
	African/Black		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White		Both sexes	
Status	N(`000)	%	N(`000)	%	N(`000)	%	N(`000)	%	N(`000)	%
Employed	6 425	42,1	864	51,1	358	62,8	1010	68,7	8 658	45,6
Not employed	8 842	57,9	828	48,9	212	37,2	460	31,3	10 343	54,4
Total	**15 268**	**100,0**	**1 692**	**100,0**	**570**	**100,0**	**1 470**	**100,0**	**19 001**	**100,0**
	Female									
Employed	4 874	30,6	710	40,0	210	41,2	823	54,8	6 618	33,6
Not employed	11 044	69,4	1 066	60,0	300	58,8	678	45,2	13 089	66,4
Total	**15 918**	**100,0**	**1 776**	**100,0**	**510**	**100,0**	**1502**	**100,0**	**19 707**	**100,0**

Source: NHTS 2020

Table 4.2 shows employment status disaggregated by population group. Overall, the analysis shows that a higher percentage of whites were employed than other population groups, with black Africans lagging behind all other population groups. Moreover, analysis within sexes revealed further disparities, where among white females, approximately 55% were employed compared to lower percentages observed for black African (30,6%), coloured (40,0%) and Indian/Asian females (41,2%). These findings still depict historical disadvantages other population groups, face even among the same sexes.

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

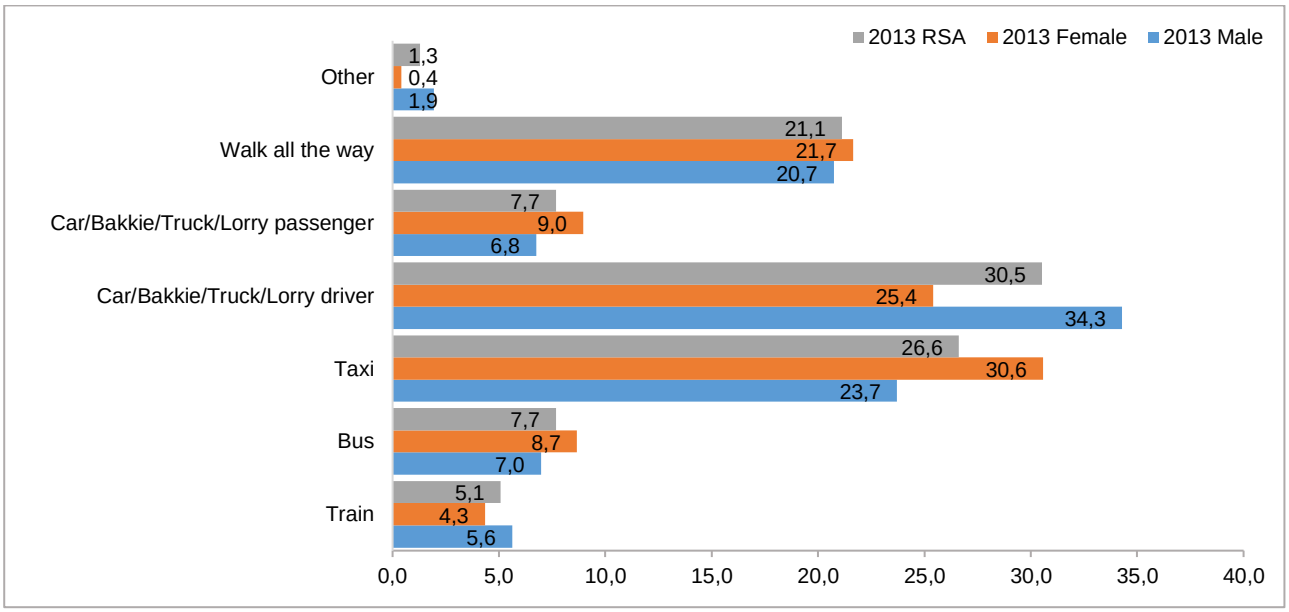
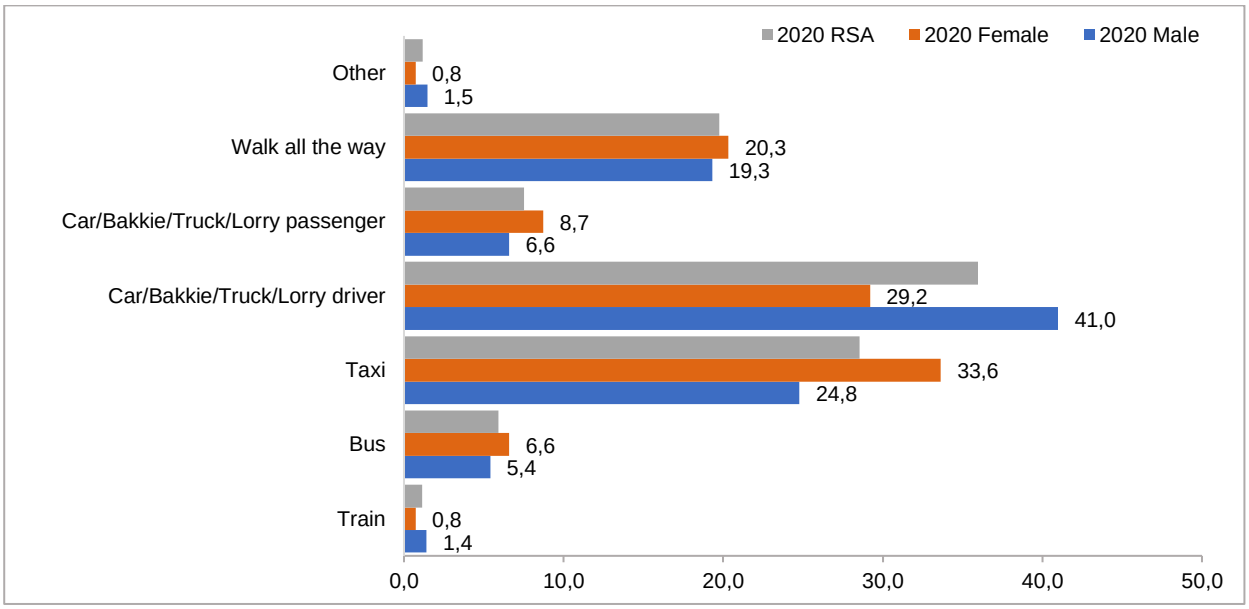


Figure 4.1b: Main mode of transport to place of employment by sex, 2020



Source: NHTS 2013, NHTS 2020

Figures 4.1a and 4.1b depict the main mode of transport to employment by sex for 2013 and 2020. Overall, the work travel patterns were similar between 2013 and 2020. Most workers drove cars, bakkies, trucks or lorries (30,5% in 2013 and 36,0% in 2020) or used taxis (26,6% in 2013 and 28,6% in 2020) to get to their places of employment. The percentage of males commuting as car drivers (41%) surpassed that of females by 8,9 percentage points in 2013 and 11,8 percentage points in 2020.

Meanwhile, taxis were the most popular mode of transportation for females (30,6% in 2013 and 33,6% in 2020) to get to places of employment. They were also generally more likely to use buses than males. Those who walked all the way to work accounted for just about a fifth of the work commuting population, with 21,7% females and 20,7% males in 2013 and 20,3% females and 19,3% males in 2020.

Table 4.3: Main mode of transport to place of employment by sex and geo-type, 2020

	Urban						Rural					
	Male		Female		RSA		Male		Female		RSA	
Mode of transport	**N (`000)**	**%**	**N (`000)**	**%**	**N (`000)**	**%**	**N (`000)**	**%**	**N (`000)**	**%**	**N (`000)**	**%**
Train	101	1,8	38	0,9	139	1,4	*	0,1	*	0,1	*	0,1
Bus	229	4,1	212	5,1	441	4,6	159	9,9	139	11,6	298	10,7
Taxi	1 449	26,1	1 476	35,8	2 925	30,2	322	20,2	313	26,1	636	22,7
Car/Bakkie/Truck/ Lorry driver	2 539	45,7	1409	34,2	3 948	40,8	392	24,5	144	12,0	536	19,2
Car/Bakkie/Truck/ Lorry passenger	362	6,5	373	9,1	736	7,6	110	6,9	91	7,6	201	7,2
Walk all the way	794	14,3	582	14,1	1 376	14,2	588	36,8	499	41,7	1 088	38,9
Other	79	1,4	30	0,7	109	1,1	26	1,6	10	0,8	35	1,3
Total	**5 554**	**100,0**	**4 120**	**100,0**	**9 674**	**100,0**	**1 598**	**100,0**	**1 198**	**100,0**	**2 796**	**100,0**

* The asterisk represents unweighted numbers with the value of 3 and below.
Source: NHTS, 2020

Table 4.3 summarises the main modes of travel to place of employment by sex and geographical location. Nationally, a large percentage of workers in urban areas (40,8%) drove some kind of vehicle to get to their place of employment, while in rural areas most workers walked all the way (38,9%) to their places of employment. The same pattern was observed for both males and female even though gender disparities existed. The most common form of transport for males in urban areas was driving to work while in rural areas they walked all the way to work.

Female preferences also varied by geographic location; in urban areas 35,8% females mainly used taxis to get to their places of employment, while in rural areas 41,7% of females walked all the way to work. For females, the second choice of transport in urban areas was driving, while those in rural areas used taxis. The second main mode of transport used by males in urban areas were taxis, while it was driving to work for those from rural areas.

Table 4.4: Main mode of transport used to get to work by presence of minor children, 2020

Mode of transport	Male								
	No child		1 child		2 children		3+ children		
	N('000)	%	N('000)	%	N('000)	%	N('000)	%	Total
Train	50	1,5	23	1,6	14	1,1	15	1,5	**102**
Bus	154	4,6	72	4,9	87	6,7	76	7,5	**388**
Taxi	841	25,0	351	23,9	312	23,9	268	26,5	**1 772**
Car/Bakkie/Truck/Lorry driver	1 325	39,3	660	44,9	586	45,0	360	35,7	**2 931**
Car/Bakkie/Truck/Lorry passenger	218	6,5	92	6,3	91	7,0	71	7,1	**472**
Walk all the way	737	21,9	242	16,4	196	15,1	207	20,5	**1 382**
Other	44	1,3	30	2,1	18	1,4	13	1,3	**105**
Total	**3 368**	**100,0**	**1 470**	**100,0**	**1 304**	**100,0**	**1 009**	**100,0**	**7 151**
Female									
Train	18	1,0	13	1,0	5	0,4	3	0,4	**40**
Bus	111	6,0	75	5,6	81	6,9	85	8,7	**351**
Taxi	546	29,6	433	32,5	434	37,2	377	38,5	**1 789**
Car/Bakkie/Truck/Lorry driver	676	36,7	440	33,1	295	25,3	142	14,5	**1 553**
Car/Bakkie/Truck/Lorry passenger	164	8,9	111	8,4	115	9,9	74	7,6	**464**
Walk all the way	313	17,0	247	18,6	229	19,6	292	29,9	**1 082**
Other	16	0,9	10	0,8	7	0,6	6	0,6	**40**
Total	**1 844**	**100,0**	**1330**	**100,0**	**1165**	**100,0**	**979**	**100,0**	**5319**

Source: NHTS, 2020

Table 4.4 shows the analysis of the different modes of transport used by males and females to get to work in accordance to the number of minor children present in the household. Minor children in this report are defined as children aged 17 years and younger. There are a lot of factors that influence travel mode choice among families with young children. In 2020, generally, males were more likely to report self-driving to work, regardless of the number of minor children in the household. Research shows that having a vehicle in the household provides an important means of accessing activities and services for families, especially those with young children.[29] Therefore, driving a vehicle to work may be considered the preferred mode of transport in order to successfully juggle these demands within time and spatial constraints.

The second most frequently selected main mode of transport to places of employment by males in households with minor children was taxis. Generally, the percentages of walking all the way to the place of employment among males increased as the number of minor children increases in the household. A higher percentage of females used taxis, regardless of the number of minor children present in the household. The percentages of females who drove themselves to work dropped with an increase in the number of minor children present in the household. Similar to males, a positive relationship was observed between walking all the way to work and a rise in the number of minor children in the household. However, this relationship was relatively steeper amongst females than their male counterparts.

Notable gender differences were also observed for those who utilised taxis to get to work, with females realising higher percentages in taxi usage for households that contained two or more minor children than their male counterparts.

[29] Mattioli, G., Lucas, K., & Marsden, G. (2016). *The affordability of household transport costs: Quantifying the incidence of car-related economic stress in Great Britain*. 48th Annual Universities' transport study group, January 6–8, Bristol.

Table 4.5: Main mode of transport to place of employment by sex and income quintile, 2013 and 2020

Mode of transport	2013									
	Male					Female				
	Q1 (R400)	Q1-Q2 (R411-R1700)	Q2- Q3 (R1701-R3810)	Q3- Q4 (R3811-R8120)	Above Q4 (+R8121)	Q1 (R400)	Q1-Q2 (R411-R1700)	Q2- Q3 (R1701-R3810)	Q3- Q4 (R3811-R8120)	Above Q4 (+R8121)
Train	4,7	4,8	6,4	7,4	4,1	3,6	3,5	5,3	5,8	3,2
Bus	12,0	7,4	8,7	8,2	4,9	5,7	10,0	12,3	10,3	5,1
Taxi	20,4	24,1	28,2	29,9	16,5	29,0	30,8	37,8	41,9	18,6
Vehicle driver	19,8	12,3	15,3	22,7	59,2	6,1	3,8	5,2	13,9	53,2
Vehicle passenger	5,0	6,7	7,2	8,1	5,6	5,8	6,3	7,5	7,7	11,8
Walk	36,7	40,4	31,7	21,8	8,8	49,5	45,2	31,6	19,9	7,9
Other	1,5	4,4	2,6	2,0	1,0	0,3	0,4	0,4	0,6	0,3
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
2020										
Train	1,3	2,1	1,2	2,4	0,7	0,7	0,7	0,5	1	0,8
Bus	3	5,4	6,7	7,1	5,7	5,5	7,2	5,9	9,4	5,7
Taxi	20,2	29,7	23	33,8	21,2	22,6	42,8	38,7	42,6	30
Vehicle driver	56,6	29,3	20,3	20,2	55,7	51,5	13,1	10,7	10	39,9
Vehicle passenger	5,6	6,7	6,7	8,1	6,3	9,9	6,1	5,6	7,4	11
Walk	11,9	24,6	39,6	26,8	9,7	8,9	29	38,4	28,9	11,9
Other	1,4	2,3	2,4	1,6	0,7	0,9	1,1	0,2	0,8	0,7
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**

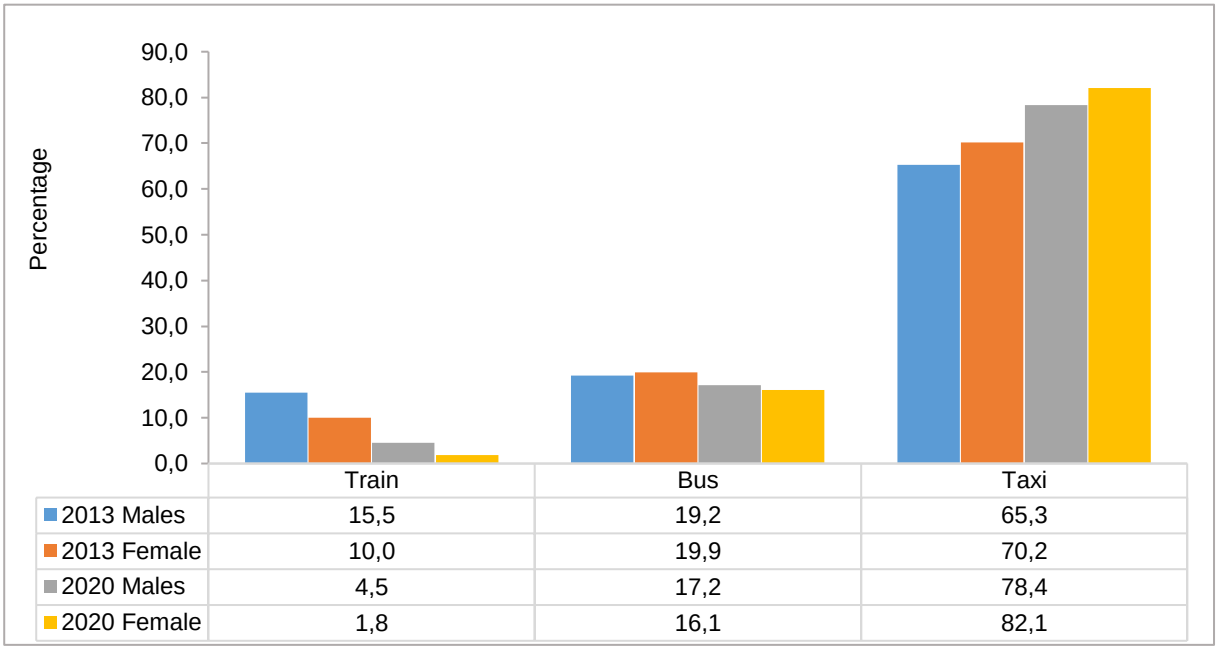
Source: NHTS 2013, NHTS 2020

There are inequalities among households; for example, compared to members of low-income households, members of higher-income households typically have private transport, particularly for shopping and recreational trips. Studies show that members of low-incomes households not only experience household income constraints in affording private transport mode but, often, public transport too.[30] In these situations, walking becomes the dominant form of transport. This creates barriers in accessing health and social services that perpetuate cycles of social disadvantage.

Figure 4.2 shows that the majority of males from low-income households used taxis to get to work. In 2020, among those who had a monthly household income above R8121, over a half (55,7%) drove themselves to work. The same trend was observed for female in the same income quintile. Using trains and buses was uncommon among both males and females of all income quintile categories.

[30] Bostock, L. (2001). Pathways of disadvantage? Walking as a mode of transport among low-income mothers. Health and Social Care in the Community, 9(1), 11–18

Figure 4.2: Percentage distribution of using public transport to the place of employment by sex, 2013 and 2020



	Train	Bus	Taxi
2013 Males	15,5	19,2	65,3
2013 Female	10,0	19,9	70,2
2020 Males	4,5	17,2	78,4
2020 Female	1,8	16,1	82,1

Source: NHTS 2013, NHTS 2020

One of the objectives of the NHTS is to assess the accessibility of public transport to communities, including for persons with disabilities and elderly. Public transport is a form of transportation system for which passengers pay for services rendered. It includes trains, buses and taxis.

Figure 4.2 shows the public transport usage to work. The figure illustrates that taxis were the form of public transport most used to travel to work by both sexes, followed by buses. Gender disparities were observed between males and females use of public transport. On average, during this period the use of taxis increased for both males and females by 13,1 percentage points and 11,9 percentage points, respectively. People who took a train to work declined by approximately a tenth, 11 percentage points for males and 8,2 percentage point for females. In 2020, the use of taxis was skewed towards females with a GPR of 1,05, and use of trains had a low GPR of 0,4, signifying more males used trains to get to their place of employment than their female counterparts.

Figure 4.3a: Time taken to travel to work in minutes by sex, 2013

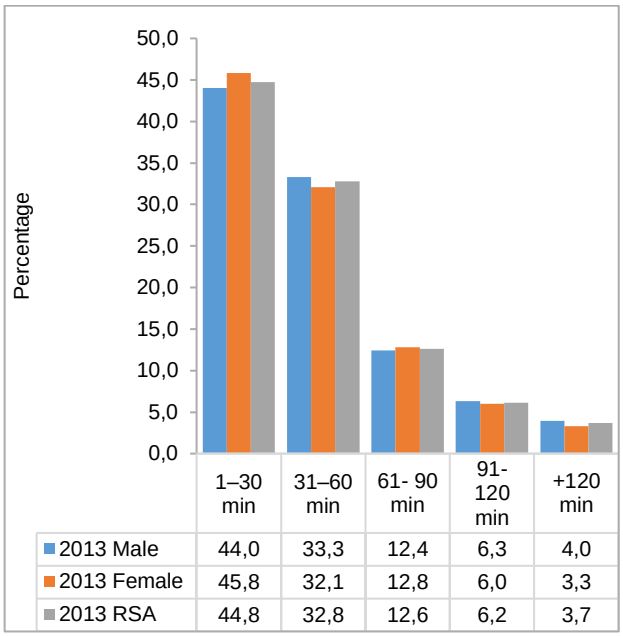
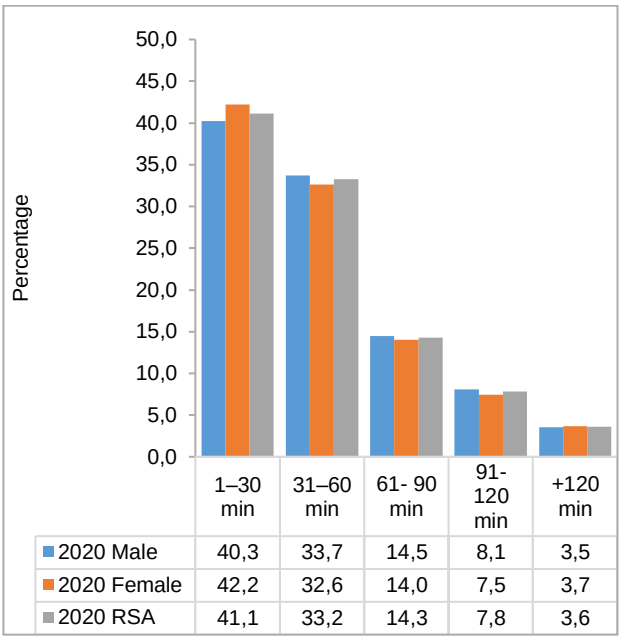


Figure 4.3b: Time taken to travel to work in minutes by sex, 2020



Source: NHTS, 2020

To assist in identifying disadvantaged regions and transport needs for investment in transport infrastructure, the time taken to access work, services and reach destinations is an important measure of efficient transport services. Figure 4.3a and 4.3b indicate the time taken to travel to work in 2013 and 2020. For both years, most employed persons took at most 30 minutes to get to work. In 2020, around one third (33,2%) took between 31 minutes and 60 minutes to travel to their places of work.

Minor gender differences among those who travelled at most 30 minutes were observed in both years, with females recording 1,8 percentage difference in 2013 and 1,9 percentage difference in 2020.

Table 4.6: Average travel time (minutes) to work by province and sex, 2013 and 2020

Province	2013		2020	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
WC	46,7	46,6	49,7	48,9
EC	40,2	40,5	38,2	38,1
NC	33,9	31,5	34,8	33,6
FS	38,8	35,7	38,1	40,9
KZN	50,8	48,9	51,3	50,5
NW	49,7	44,7	42,1	37,0
GP	58,7	57,5	59,3	57,9
MP	54,8	50,7	55,5	53,1
LP	47,6	44,3	45,2	41,4
RSA	**51,0**	**49,1**	**51,3**	**49,6**

Source: NHTS 2020

Table 4.6 indicates the average times males and females travel to their workplaces in each province. There were no major variations observed in the time taken to travel to work for both years of reporting. Nationally the average travel times for males were slightly longer than female travel times. The average travel times for persons working in Gauteng were shown to be the longest in 2013 and 2020, followed by Mpumalanga, KwaZulu-Natal and Western Cape. There were no major differences in the average travel times between sexes when examined by province, the longest average travel time were recorded for Mpumalanga (4,1 minutes longer) in 2013 and North West (5,1 minutes longer) in 2020.

Table 4.7: Average monthly cost (rands) of travel to work province and sex, 2013 and 2020

Province	2013		2020	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
WC	465	457	747	702
EC	517	465	719	825
NC	470	416	374	382
FS	522	475	745	660
KZN	571	522	1 034	951
NW	585	525	860	765
GP	605	643	1 428	1 247
MP	522	451	918	774
LP	660	501	921	756
RSA	**566**	**539**	**1075**	**959**

Source: NHTS 2013 and 2020

Table 4.7 shows provincial average monthly cost of travel to work by sex. The average monthly cost of travel increased nationally and in all provinces, except in the Northern Cape, where it decreased from R470 for males in 2013 to R374 in 2020, and from R416 in 2013 to R382 in 2020 for females. The greatest increase in average costs was seen in Gauteng, which saw a monthly increase of R823 for males and R604 for females. In addition, commuters from Gauteng we re more likely than their counterparts in other provinces to spend more on transportation, with an average monthly cost of R1428 for males and R1247 for females. This was followed by those residing in KwaZulu-Natal, while workers from Northern Cape spent the least on travel costs.

Table 4.8: Average monthly cost (rands) of travel by transport modes used to travel to work and sex, 2013 and 2020

Mode of transport	2013			2020		
	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes
Train	391	422	402	674	307	566
Bus	498	507	503	567	700	630
Taxi	586	536	561	942	909	925
Car/Bakkie/Truck/Lorry driver	1 290	1 216	1264	1 338	1 277	1317
Car/Bakkie/Truck/Lorry passenger	690	671	680	415	341	379

Source: NHTS 2013, NHTS 2020

Table 4.8 indicates the average cost of travel to work by main mode of transport of males and females. During this period, the highest average monthly cost of travelling to work was on self-driven vehicles, spending on average R1 290 in 2013 and increased to R1 338 in 2020, whereas females spent R1 216 in 2013 and R1 277 in 2020. The finding that males on average spent noticeably more than females on self-driving are not entirely surprising, as previous results in this report have shown that males are more likely to drive themselves to places of employment than females. Taxis were the second most expensive mode of transport, costing more than R900 on average per month in 2020.

In 2020, the largest cost-differences by gender was observed among those who used trains, with males spending R367 more than females on average per month. In contrast, females spent more money on buses than males.

4.2 Travel for business trips

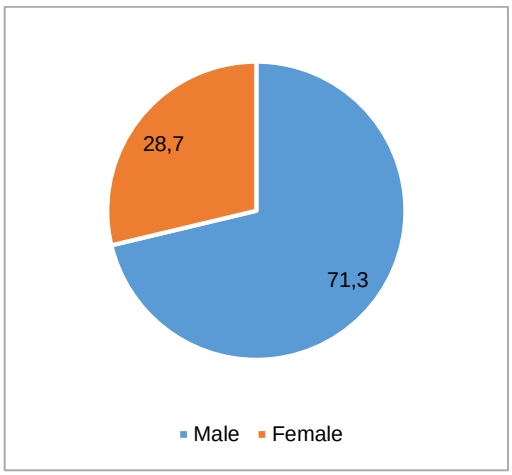
For the purpose of the NHTS a business trip is a trip taken during the course of one's work for business purposes. It does not include trips to one's usual place of work, and only focuses on trips 20 km or more away from the usual place of work. A business trip can be a day or overnight trip or both.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

This section of the report examines the primary mode of travel for business trips.

Table 4.9: Distribution of individuals who took a business trip by sex, 2020

Business trip	Male		Female		Both sexes	
	N (`000)	%	N (`000)	%	N (`000)	%
Yes	959	10,4	386	5,5	1 345	8,3
No	8 298	89,6	6 667	94,5	14 964	91,8
Total	**9 256**	**100,0**	**7 053**	**100,0**	**16 309**	**100,0**

Figure 4.4: Share of individuals who undertook a business trip by sex, 2020



Source: NHTS 2020

Table 4.7 depicts the distribution of individuals who undertook a business trip by sex. Almost a tenth (8,3%) of individuals reported taking a business trip during 2020. Among males, 10,4% undertook a business trip while 5,5% was recorded for females. As shown in Figure 4.4 among those who undertook business trips, males accounted for more than 71,%, while approximately 29% of females indicated to have taken a business trip.

Table 4.10: Distribution of individuals who took a business trip by mode of transport, 2020

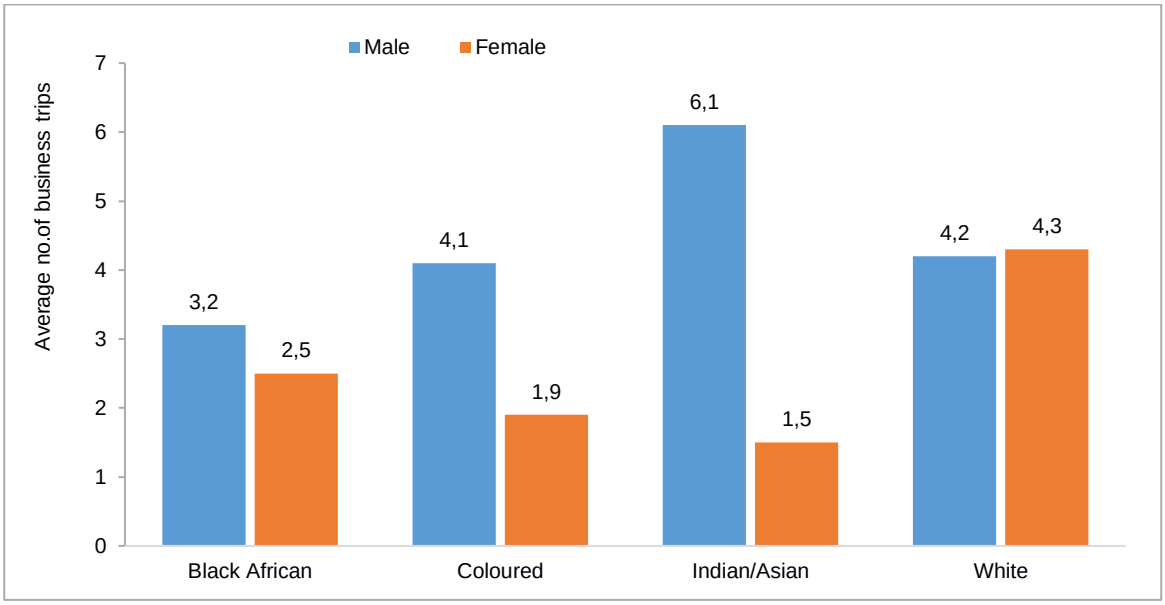
Mode of transport for business trip	Male		Female		Both sexes	
	N(`000)	&	N(`000)	%	N(`000)	%
Train	*	0,2	*	0,0	*	0,1
Bus	30	3,2	21	5,4	51	3,8
Taxi	164	17,1	117	30,3	281	20,9
Car/Bakkie/Truck/Lorry driver	428	44,6	104	26,8	531	39,5
Car/Bakkie/Truck/Lorry passenger	89	9,3	74	19,2	163	12,1
Company car	171	17,9	39	10,0	210	15,6
Aircraft	62	6,5	24	6,2	86	6,4
Other	13	1,3	8	2,1	21	1,5
Total	**959**	**100,0**	**386**	**100,0**	**1 345**	**100,0**

* The asterisk represents unweighted numbers with the value of 3 and below.
Source: NHTS 2020

Table 4.8 depicts the main mode of transport for business trips undertaken. In 2020, the main mode of transport mostly used when undertaking business trips was car driver (39,5%). This mode of transport was commonly used by males compared to females (i.e. 44,6% vs 26, 8%).The second most common mode of transport for males was the use of a company vehicle (17,9%), followed by taxis (17,1%). Nearly a third (30,3%) of females used taxis as their most preferred mode of transport for business trips and 19,2% females reported to have ridden as passengers in a vehicle when they undertook business trips.

Negligible gender differences were observed for the use of aircraft, where males were more likely than females to use aircraft when they undertook a business trip (6,5% for males and 6,2% females). 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.

Figure 4.5: Average number of business trips per month by sex and population group, 2020



Source: NHTS, 2020

Figure 4.5 reflects the average number of business trips per month by sex and population group. In 2020, Indian/Asian males undertook the most trips for business (average trips of 6). Likewise, males of other races recorded on average higher numbers of business trips than their female counterparts. Indian/Asian and coloured females undertook, on average, the lowest number of business trips per month.

4.3 Conclusion

With the NHTS conducted before the COVID- 19 pandemic, the effects of the pandemic on work travel will be seen in the next cycle of reporting. Gender differences were observed in the main mode of transport to the places of employment, with males more likely to drive to work (41,0%) in 2020, whereas females were inclined to use taxis (33,6%). Gender disparities were further exacerbated when geographical location was used in the analysis. About 41,7% of women in rural areas walked all the way to work. Gender parity ratios of 0,71 were observed amongst those who drove themselves to work, indicating that men are more likely to drive themselves to work. A gender parity ratio of 1,35 showed that it was uncommon among males to take taxis to work. The analysis further showed that females were more likely to use all modes of public transport, except for trains. Males accounted for 71,3% of those who took a business trip in 2020.

While gender variations in transport usage to places of employment can be attributed to some extent to patriarchal social norms, they can also result from demographic, economic and social factors such as income, age, population group and child care responsibilities. The findings also revealed that males were more likely to report self-driving to work regardless of the number of minor children in the household. The use of trains and buses was found to be uncommon among both males and females across all income quintiles.

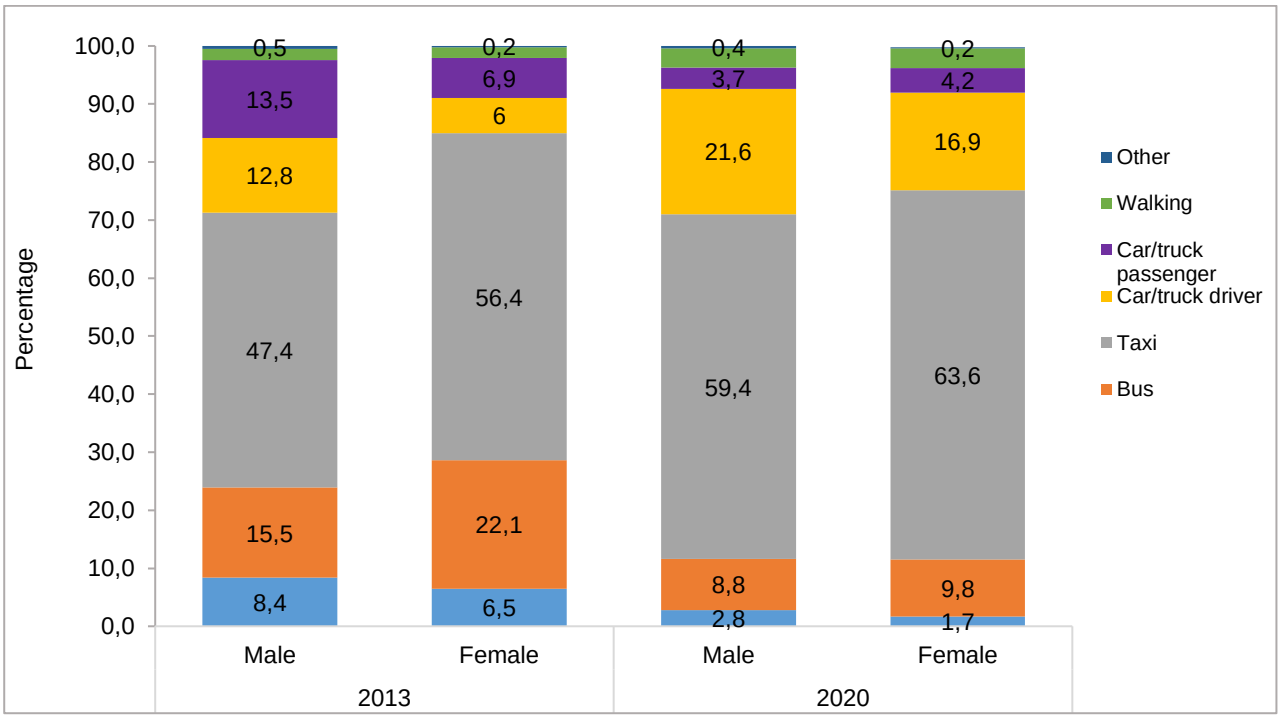
CHAPTER 5: HOUSEHOLD TRAVEL PATTERNS

Transport is critical to any country's social and economic development, and the government has identified transportation as one of its five main socio-economic development priority areas. A large proportion of South African households live far from their places of employment, making commuting to work both time-consuming and costly.

This chapter will concentrate on household travel modes, household expenditure on public transportation, transport-related problems, and factors influencing mode of travel selection. Understanding these factors and challenges influencing travel behaviour can reveal changes in household preferences and attitudes, providing valuable information for improving transportation planning, preparing for future infrastructure needs, and enacting informed transport policies that improve gender equity. The household will be used as the unit of analysis, and the travel experiences and characteristics of the household heads will be used to represent the household. A household is classified as female headed if the head of the household is female, or male headed if the head of the household is male.

5.1 Travel modes of the households

Figure 5.1: Main modes of travel usually used by households, by sex of the household head, 2013 and 2020



Source: NHTS 2013, NHTS 2020

Figure 5.1 shows that taxis were the most popular mode of transportation for households in both 2013 and 2020, with female-headed households being more likely to use them. Taxis were used by nearly two thirds of female- and male-headed households in 2020, representing an increase of 7,2% and 12,0%, respectively, between 2013 and 2020. In 2013, buses were the second most popular mode of transportation, while self-driving was the second most popular mode of transportation for households in 2020, with 21,6& of male-headed households and 16,9%of female-headed households using them. Furthermore, the figure shows a decrease in household use of trains and an increase in household use of car drivers.

Table 5.1: Mode of travel used to access service and public facilities, by sex of the household head, 2013 and 2020

Service/facility	Sex of the HH head	Mode						
		Walk	Train	Bus	Taxi	Car/bakkie/ minibus	Other	Do not need to / Cannot get there
		2013						
Food or grocery shops	Male	18,0	0,3	1,8	44,4	34,0	0,9	0,5
	Female	17,5	0,4	3,3	59,2	18,5	0,2	0,8
Other shops	Male	50,9	0,3	0,7	18,2	24,7	0,8	4,4
	Female	58,7	0,4	1,2	23,1	12,1	0,4	4,2
Traditional healer	Male	9,6	0,5	0,2	4,4	3,2	0,6	81,4
	Female	11,6	0,5	0,3	5,4	1,6	0,5	80,0
Church	Male	40,9	0,4	0,5	12,2	24,4	0,5	21,1
	Female	56,9	0,3	0,6	17,0	12,9	0,3	11,9
Medical service	Male	28,8	0,4	1,0	29,4	29,9	0,7	9,7
	Female	35,7	0,2	1,8	39,7	15,7	0,3	6,5
Post office	Male	20,8	0,4	0,9	25,9	25,0	0,7	26,3
	Female	24,7	0,2	1,6	35,4	12,1	0,3	25,6
Welfare office	Male	12,1	0,4	1,2	28,1	14,9	0,6	42,7
	Female	15,0	0,4	2,1	43,5	8,4	0,4	30,2
Police station	Male	22,5	0,3	1,2	31,1	25,1	0,7	19,2
	Female	24,2	0,2	1,9	43,7	12,3	0,3	17,3
Municipal office	Male	16,2	0,3	1,2	31,2	24,2	0,5	26,4
	Female	17,4	0,4	2,0	43,9	11,9	0,4	24,0
Tribal authority	Male	12,8	0,6	0,5	6,9	3,5	0,5	75,2
	Female	21,7	0,5	0,9	11,8	2,0	0,5	62,6
Financial services/banks	Male	14,1	0,3	1,5	43,9	32,0	0,8	7,4
	Female	13,8	0,3	2,7	58,5	16,6	0,3	7,7
		2020						
Food or grocery shops	Male	49,8	0,1	0,6	24,3	23,3	0,4	1,4
	Female	48,8	0,0	0,8	28,7	19,7	0,2	1,6
Other shops	Male	13,3	0,1	1,3	49,9	30,7	0,9	3,8
	Female	12,3	0,0	1,7	57,3	24,8	0,6	3,2
Religious institution	Male	41,0	0,1	0,4	12,2	23,1	2,7	20,6
	Female	50,9	0,2	0,6	15,2	19,5	1,4	12,4
Medical service	Male	37,4	0,0	0,9	28,8	27,5	0,8	4,4
	Female	39,5	0,0	1,0	33,7	22,4	0,6	2,7
Post office	Male	18,0	0,0	0,7	30,3	21,6	2,3	27,0
	Female	18,3	0,0	0,9	35,7	17,8	1,8	25,6
Welfare office	Male	10,8	0,1	1,1	34,7	18,1	2,0	33,2
	Female	13,0	0,1	1,4	43,0	14,4	1,4	26,8
Police station	Male	23,7	0,0	1,0	38,6	25,4	1,1	10,1
	Female	23,5	0,0	1,1	44,2	19,8	0,7	10,6
Municipal office	Male	14,8	0,1	1,1	39,7	24,9	1,4	18,1
	Female	15,3	0,0	1,3	46,5	19,8	0,9	16,2
Home affairs	Male	7,3	0,1	1,4	51,0	25,8	1,1	13,3
	Female	8,1	0,1	1,6	56,8	20,4	0,7	12,3
Library	Male	18,4	0,0	0,5	17,0	13,1	4,9	46,2
	Female	21,7	0,0	0,6	21,4	11,1	4,9	40,2
Tribal authority	Male	16,6	0,0	0,5	8,3	4,8	4,9	65,0
	Female	19,8	0,0	0,5	10,1	3,6	4,5	61,5
Financial services/banks	Male	17,0	0,0	1,2	48,1	28,8	1,2	3,6
	Female	17,0	0,0	1,4	55,7	22,9	0,6	2,4

Source: NHTS 2013, NHTS 2020

Access to public services and facilities such as home affairs offices, churches, hospitals, and police stations, facilitates the right to basic human needs. Because of the country's spatial planning, the majority of households live far from these facilities and must rely on various modes of transportation to get there. According to Table 5.1, the proportion of female- and male-headed households walking to food or grocery stores increased significantly between 2013 and 2020, rising from nearly 20% to 50%. Walking was also the most popular mode of transportation to religious institutions and medical services in 2020, with a higher proportion of female-headed households than male-headed households. Taxis were the most popular mode of transportation among all households in 2020 when it came to getting to other shops, police station, home affairs, municipal and welfare offices, and financial services.

5.2 Factors influencing the choice of the mode of travel, 2020 and 2013

Table 5.2: Factors influencing the household's choice of mode of travel, by sex of the household head

Factors influencing household's choice of mode of travel	2013			2020		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Travel time	32,4	33,0	**32,6**	23,7	23,0	**23,3**
Travel cost	26,1	26,2	**26,1**	30,8	30,8	**30,8**
Safety from accidents	8,7	8,8	**8,7**	2,4	2,6	**2,5**
Security from crime	2,5	2,3	**2,4**	1,8	2,1	**2,0**
Flexibility (you can travel wherever you want, whenever you want)	9,8	8,3	**9,2**	12,1	11,7	**11,9**
Drivers' attitude	3,2	3,5	**3,3**	0,9	0,7	**0,8**
Distance from home to transport/accessibility	3,8	5,0	**4,3**	6,0	5,9	**6,0**
Comfort	6,0	5,7	**5,9**	8,9	8,9	**8,9**
Timetable not available/information inaccurate	0,6	0,6	**0,6**	0,3	0,4	**0,3**
Reliability	5,1	4,7	**4,9**	11,0	11,8	**11,5**
Other	1,7	1,9	**1,8**	2,1	2,1	**2,1**
Total	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**

Source: NHTS 2013, NHTS 2020

The mode of travel for households is influenced by a variety of factors. Distance to/from, waiting time, operating speed, dependability, comfort, costs, travel time, and service quality are some examples. The factors influencing household mode of travel in 2013 and 2020 are shown in Table 5.2. Travel time, travel costs, and flexibility were the three most important factors for households in both years. During the review period, there was an increase in the proportion of households concerned with reliability, travel costs, comfort, and distance from home to transport/accessibility. In 2013, travel time was cited as the most important factor influencing the mode of travel choice by 33% of female-headed households and 32,4% of male-headed households. In 2020, however, 30,8% of both male- and female-headed households cited travel costs as the primary factor influencing mode of travel choice.

5.3 Household Travel Costs

Table 5.3: Monthly household expenditure on public transport, by sex of the household head and province, 2020

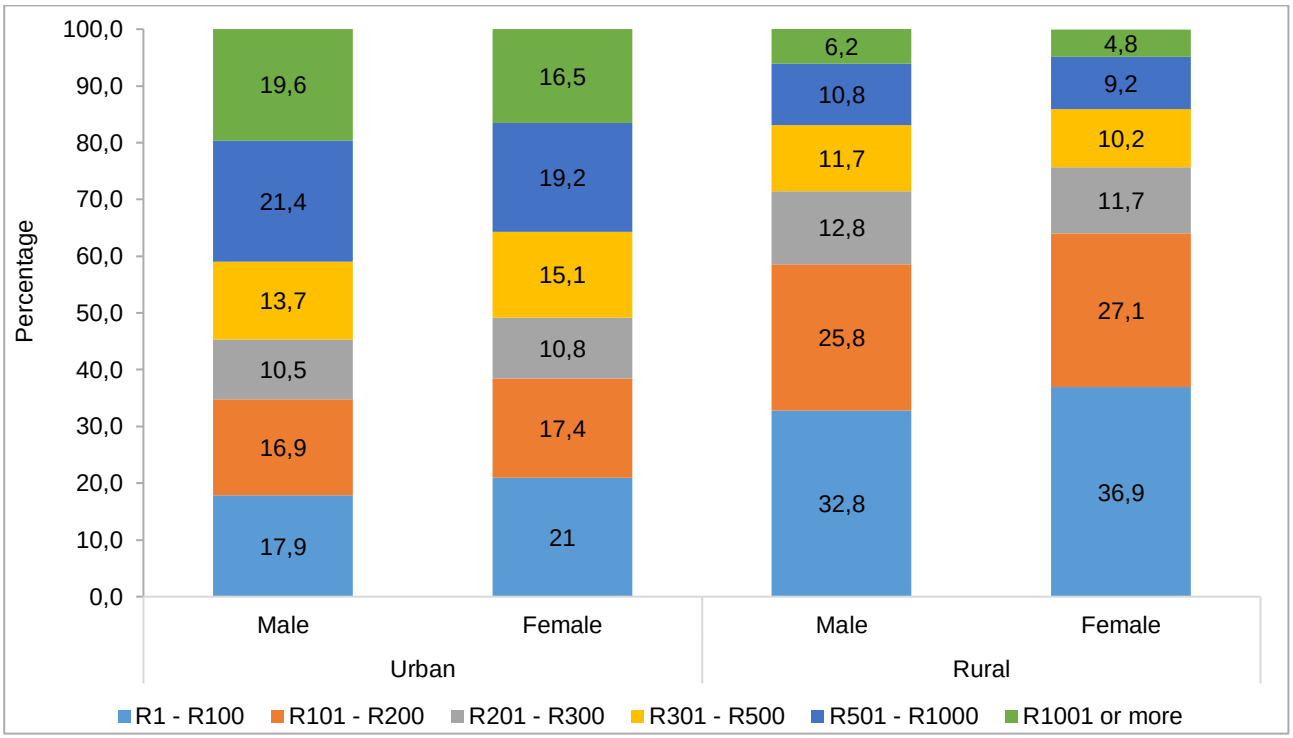
Province	Sex of the HH head	R1 - R100	R101 - R200	R201 - R300	R301 - R500	R501 - R1000	R1001 or more
WC	Male	12,1	17,7	9,1	13,4	25,3	22,3
	Female	14,4	20,7	9,1	17,9	19,6	18,3
EC	Male	37,4	24,1	11,4	11,5	9,6	6,1
	Female	40,3	24,8	10,1	9,9	8,9	6,1
NC	Male	27,9	31,9	15,9	11,7	9,3	3,2
	Female	31,1	27,4	15,1	14,3	8,8	3,4
FS	Male	33,1	25,3	9,4	12,4	12,8	7,1
	Female	41,3	22,1	8,8	13,3	9,5	4,9
KZN	Male	26,2	20,3	13,0	12,4	16,4	11,6
	Female	30,2	21,9	11,9	12,2	13,4	10,4
NW	Male	30,6	19,5	10,7	15,3	12,2	11,8
	Female	29,0	22,6	11,2	13,0	13,7	10,4
GP	Male	14,7	15,1	9,8	13,4	23,1	23,9
	Female	15,3	14,6	10,8	14,5	22,9	21,8
MP	Male	29,5	21,6	13,8	11,8	15,5	7,8
	Female	33,9	21,2	12,5	12,2	13,7	6,4
LP	Male	28,6	29,2	14,1	13,2	10,7	4,2
	Female	32,5	28,9	12,8	11,9	10,4	3,6
RSA		**25,6**	**20,8**	**11,2**	**13,1**	**16,2**	**13,1**

Source: NHTS 2020

Due to limited access to economic resources, the ability to pay for transport is a concern for households, particularly low-income households and marginalised groups such as women. Table 5.3 shows monthly household spending on public transport by gender of the household head and province. Nationally, a larger proportion of households (46,4%) spend between R1 and R200. Provincial differences show that the Western Cape and Gauteng have a higher proportion of households spending in higher expenditure categories (R501 - R1000 and R1001 or more). Furthermore, when looking at gender differences, the higher proportions of male-headed households were more likely to spend in these higher expenditure categories than female-headed households. In Western Cape, 47,6% of male-headed households spent R501–R1001 or more) compared to 37,9% of female-headed households.

The total household expenditure on public transportation in the provinces of Eastern Cape, Limpopo, and KZN, on the other hand, revealed a different picture, with a higher proportion of households spending in lower expenditure categories between (R1–R100 and R101–R200). Gender differences revealed that higher proportions of female-headed households were more likely to spend in these lower expenditure categories than male-headed households.

Figure 5.2: Monthly household expenditure on public transport by sex of the household head, geo type



Source: NHTS 2020

The cost of transportation in rural areas is influenced by several factors, including the fact that rural areas are generally sparsely populated, making the provision of public transportation infrastructure costly and difficult. Furthermore, the high prevalence of poverty and unemployment in rural areas make demand for public transportation uneconomical. Figure 5.2 shows that most urban households spend more on public transportation in higher expenditure categories than rural households, which spend more in lower expenditure categories. Sex differentials show that female-headed households spend more than male-headed households in lower expenditure categories, while male-headed households spend more in higher expenditure categories. In rural areas, 64% of female-headed households spent between (R1and R200), compared to 58,6% of male-headed households in the same category. Similarly, 38,4% of female-headed households spent between (R1- R200) in urban areas, compared to 34,8% of male-headed households in the same category.

5.4 Transport- related Problems and Perceptions

Table 5.4: Most important transport related problems experienced by households by sex of the household head

Transport-related problems	2013			2020		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Male	Total
No transport problems	9,2	7,9	**8,7**	10,4	10,5	**10,5**
Poor condition of roads	12,6	13,7	**13,0**	13,0	13,4	**13,2**
Rude drivers	6,3	6,2	**6,3**	3,4	3,9	**3,7**
Overload	4,4	5,7	**4,9**	2,6	3,2	**2,9**
Congestion	4,5	2,2	**3,6**	4,1	3,9	**4,0**
Crime	3,3	2,6	**3,0**	4,3	4,4	**4,4**
Toll fees	1,5	0,6	**1,1**	0,3	0,2	**0,2**
Parking	0,6	0,3	**0,5**	0,2	0,2	**0,2**
Taxi-related problems	29,4	32,4	**30,6**	21,9	22,9	**22,4**
Bus-related problems	19,8	21,6	**20,3**	26,7	26,3	**26,4**
Train-related problems	6,6	5,2	**6,0**	9,9	7,7	**8,5**
Other	1,8	1,5	**1,7**	3,3	3,4	**3,4**
Total	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**

Source: NHTS 2013, NHTS 2020

Despite the variety modes of transport available, households still experience challenges in their use. These challenges include issues with accessibility in remote rural areas, safety issues, crime and violence in the taxi industry, accidents and cost related issues. Table 5.4 depicts the main issues faced by male- and female-headed households between 2013 and 2020. Over half of the problems faced by male- and female-headed households in both years were related to public transportation. There was a decrease in the proportion of households that experienced taxi-related problems for both male and female headed households between the review period, with a decrease of 7,5 and 9,5 percentage points, respectively. Bus problems were the most commonly reported transportation issues by households in 2020, followed by taxi problems and poor road conditions. There were no significant gender differences in household problems.

Table 5.5: Dissatisfaction levels with minibus taxi services by sex of the household head

Attributes of the minibus taxi service	2013			2020		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
The distance between the taxi rank/route and your home	28,9	30,1	**29,5**	26,3	28,2	**27,3**
The travel time by taxi	22,2	23,5	**22,8**	24,2	24,9	**24,6**
Security on the walk to/from the taxi rank	37,2	36,3	**36,8**	31,3	31,4	**31,3**
Security at the taxi rank	37,1	36,4	**36,8**	29,7	29,6	**29,7**
Security on the taxis	32,9	32,4	**32,7**	21,9	21,3	**21,6**
The level of crowding in the taxis	35,8	37,3	**36,5**	30,7	31,6	**31,1**
Safety from accident	43,7	42,7	**43,2**	33,3	33,4	**33,4**
The frequency of taxi during peak period	31,1	32,0	**31,6**	28,5	29,6	**29,1**
The frequency of taxis during off-peak period	35,0	35,7	**35,3**	33,5	34,7	**34,1**
The waiting time for taxis	39,5	41,0	**40,2**	36,5	38,5	**37,5**
The taxi fare	50,0	51,4	**50,7**	40,6	42,0	**41,3**
The facilities at the taxis rank, e.g. shelters	53,8	54,4	**54,1**	55,7	56,5	**56,1**
Roadworthiness of taxis	43,1	43,6	**43,3**	36,5	36,7	**36,6**
Behaviour of the taxi drivers towards passengers	42,9	42,0	**42,5**	32,7	32,4	**32,5**
The taxi service overall	37,9	37,8	**37,8**	30,0	31,3	**30,7**

Source: NHTS 2013, NHTS 2020

Table 5.5 compares the level of dissatisfaction with minibus taxi services for households headed by females and males between 2013 and 2020. During this time, the most common reasons for dissatisfaction with minibus taxi services among households were facilities at the taxi rank and taxi fare. There were no differences in the level of dissatisfaction for the various taxi attributes between female and male-headed households. Between the two years, however an improved perception with taxi drivers' behaviour toward passengers as a significant decline of about 10% dissatisfaction levels for this attribute among female-headed and male-headed households was observed. Similarly, the perception with taxis due to safety from accidents and taxi fares also declined.

Table 5.6: Dissatisfaction levels with bus services by sex of the household head

Attributes of the bus service	2013			2020		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
The distance between the bus stop and your home	26,6	28,0	**27,3**	27,1	26,6	**26,8**
The travel time by bus	27,8	31,4	**29,5**	28,5	30,0	**29,3**
Security on the walk to/from the bus stop	34,3	34,9	**34,6**	31,4	29,7	**30,5**
Security at the bus stop	34,7	35,8	**35,2**	33,1	32,2	**32,6**
Security on the buses	28,9	30,3	**29,6**	21,9	19,5	**20,7**
The level of crowding in the bus	42,2	47,9	**45,0**	44,7	44,3	**44,4**
Safety from accidents	26,1	28,8	**27,4**	23,3	24,6	**24,0**
The frequency of buses during peak period	30,8	34,3	**32,5**	30,7	33,9	**32,4**
The frequency of buses during off-peak period	33,0	36,7	**34,8**	37,3	37,1	**37,2**
The punctuality of buses	27,3	30,0	**28,6**	26,6	28,4	**27,6**
The bus fares	25,9	26,4	**26,1**	22,8	22,3	**22,5**
The facilities at the bus stop, e.g. toilets, offices	46,3	49,2	**47,7**	60,3	62,3	**61,4**
Behaviour of the bus drivers towards passengers	21,1	22,4	**21,7**	17,3	19,0	**18,2**
The bus service overall	25,3	27,4	**26,3**	26,0	26,9	**26,5**
Availability of information	28,5	29,6	**29,0**	33,1	32,7	**32,9**

Source: NHTS 2013, NHTS 2020

Table 5.6 summarises the reasons for household dissatisfaction with bus services. The four attributes most likely to cause dissatisfaction among bus users were bus stop facilities, the level of crowding in the bus, security at the bus stop, and the frequency of buses during off-peak periods. Dissatisfaction with bus stop facilities, such as toilets and offices, increased from 46,3 percent and 49,2 percent in 2013 to 60,3% and 62,3% among male- and female-headed households, respectively.

Table 5.7: Dissatisfaction levels with train services by sex of the household head

	2013			2020		
Attributes of the train service	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**
The distance between the train station and your home	52,2	53,7	**52,7**	50,0	53,5	**51,2**
The travel time by train	49,4	52,0	**50,3**	71,0	73,8	**72,0**
Security on the walk to/from the train station	53,5	54,1	**53,7**	68,0	69,0	**68,3**
Security at the train station	32,8	31,9	**32,5**	52,1	56,1	**53,6**
Security on the trains	45,4	46,9	**45,9**	60,2	64,7	**61,8**
The level of crowding in the train	75,9	76,5	**76,1**	84,4	84,5	**84,5**
Safety from accidents	29,4	30,2	**29,7**	38,0	40,1	**38,8**
The frequency of trains during peak period	44,7	43,8	**44,4**	76,9	79,7	**77,9**
The frequency of trains during off-peak period	51,0	46,5	**49,4**	76,3	79,1	**77,4**
The waiting time for trains	61,4	58,9	**60,5**	77,8	88,2	**81,6**
The train fares	16,1	14,9	**15,7**	12,0	10,7	**11,5**
The facilities at the train station, e.g. toilets, offices	45,3	43,7	**44,7**	57,5	63,1	**59,5**
The train service overall	44,9	45,0	**45,0**	64,7	69,0	**66,2**

Source: NHTS 2013, NHTS 2020

Table 5.7 shows that households were most likely to be dissatisfied with trains in both 2013 and 2020 because of the level of crowding in the train, followed by the waiting time for a train. In 2013, the third most significant reason for dissatisfaction with the trains was security on the walk to/from the train station, while in 2020, households cited the frequency of trains during peak periods as the third most significant reason.

Looking at train perceptions through a gender lens revealed that in 2020, 88,2% of female-headed households were dissatisfied with train punctuality, followed by 84,5% and 79,7% of households dissatisfied with train crowding and train frequency during peak periods, respectively. On the other hand, 84,4% of the male headed households were dissatisfied with train crowding followed by 77,8 %and 76,9% of the households dissatisfied with train punctuality and train frequency during peak periods, respectively.

5.5 Conclusion

An examination of household travel patterns revealed that households primarily used taxis to access public facilities and services such as home affairs, police station, welfare, and municipal offices, as well as to get to regional shops. Nationally, households were more likely to spend between R1 and R200 with female-headed households more likely than male-headed households to spend in these lower expenditure categories. The Western Cape and Gauteng had a higher proportion of households spending in higher expenditure categories. The main problems encountered by male- and female-headed households in both years were related to public transportation, which resulted in dissatisfaction with taxis, primarily due to taxi rank facilities and taxi fare.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

The analysis showed that females and males make almost similar general patterns in their trips; however, males travel more than females. In terms of reasons for not travelling, both men and women indicated that they did not need to travel; however, a higher percentage of females than males did not travel due to family responsibilities. Gauteng (28,2%) and Kwazulu-Natal (16,9%) recorded the highest proportions of travellers for both males and females, with the Northern Cape (2,2%) recording the least for both sexes. Disparities indicated that more males than females undertook day trip for government services like home affairs and sporting activities in both urban and rural areas. The gaps were wider in rural areas as reflected by the GPRs 0,81 (urban) and 0,69 (rural) for home affairs and wider for sporting activities respectively in urban areas with GPR of 0,40 (urban) and 0,52 (rural) for sporting activities .

The main mode of transport for day trips was a taxi for both females and males, however, females were more likely than males to use public transport, particularly taxis. In addition, females were more likely to be car passengers than males and less likely to be car drivers. There were no major differences between females and males for overnight trips, which were undertaken mainly to visit friends/family/ancestral home followed by traveling for leisure/holiday. A higher percentage of females were more likely to undertake overnight trips to attend funerals than their male counterparts. With regard to driving licences, males were more likely to possess a driving licence than females.

An analysis of the modes of transport used to travel to education institutions indicated that walking all the way was the main mode of transportation in both urban and rural areas. The gender parity ratios nationally revealed that females were more likely to use public transport to get to school whilst males were more likely to be car drivers. Walking all the way was the only mode of transport that showed parity. A review of the main mode of transport used by students who attend PSET institutions showed that females were more likely to use taxis and buses whilst males were more likely to walk all the way or use a car as passengers or drivers. When the reasons for walking to an educational institution were investigated, it was discovered that slightly more females reported walking to an educational institution because public transportation was too expensive, and this was true in both urban and rural areas. In comparison to other provinces, KwaZulu-Natal had the highest percentage of learners who walked all the way to school. Learners from KwaZulu-Natal, Gauteng, and the Eastern Cape provinces spent more time travelling to their educational institutions than students from other provinces. Learners in Gauteng, the Eastern Cape, North West, and the Northern Cape provinces primarily used government learner transport to school, whereas students in KwaZulu-Natal primarily used private transportation (approximately 26 %).

Differences between males and females in modes of transportation used to get to work revealed that car drivers (36,0%) were the most common mode of transportation used by both males and females, followed by those who used taxis (28,6%). Males drove themselves to work at a higher rate than females (41%). Females primarily used taxis (33,6%) to get to work, while 41,7% of females in rural areas walked to work. In addition, regardless of the number of minor children in the household, males were more likely to be car drivers.

A review of household travel patterns revealed that both female- and male-headed households primarily relied on taxis, with female-headed households being more likely to use buses and taxis than male-headed households. In 2020, no differences were observed in the factors influencing the mode of transportation chosen by both male- and female-headed households, which were primarily travel costs and travel time.