

1 Women and the Use of Public Transport in Nigerian Traditional 2 City -Ibadan

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6

7 **Abstract**

8 It is disheartening to note that the mobility gap between women and men has continued to
9 widen; while poverty horizon of most women continue to deepen as a result of inadequate
10 spatial interactions. The study examines the interplay between women and public transport
11 system in Nigerian traditional city-Ibadan. A purposive sampling technique was used to
12 administered 203 questionnaires. Data collected were analyzed using simple descriptive
13 technique and correlation analysis. Results reveal that, public transport system in the city is
14 inefficient. The analysis also reveals that inadequate public transport system has significant
15 impact on the livelihoods of women. Findings made it clear that socio-economic variables and
16 operational characteristics are determining factors for the patronage of public transport.
17 Based on findings and analysis; the paper discussed the need for considering the mobility
18 needs of passengers, and emphasised the need for a sustainable public transport and gender
19 planning and analysis in Nigerian public transport planning and management. it also stressed
20 that gendered-based transportation planning and management need to be examined, if the
21 reproductive and productivity roles of women in our society are to be achieved.

22

23 **Index terms**— Gender, Public transport, Poverty, Livelihoods, Policy.

24 **1 I. Introduction**

25 unsustainable transport, particularly public transport; has been a researchable issue for the past few years.
26 Meanwhile, sustainable public transport for women, who are often vulnerable to transport externalities has
27 not received adequate attention in terms of research and policy making in Nigeria. This situation, coupled with
28 headlong urbanization and present economic recession or meltdown, is drastically affecting mobility in Nigeria.
29 It is interesting to note that transportation system, specifically public transport in most Nigerian cities, is not
30 sustainable ??Filani, 1988;Adeniji, 1987;Oyesiku 2002 and Odufuwa;2006). This can be justified by the poor
31 state of urban road networks that under severe pressure, as reflected by the worsening traffic congestion and
32 other notable transport externalities. The rate of road expansion and management is affecting travel activities,
33 thereby resulting to traffic grid-lock, particularly during peakperiods which has become a norm. Sequel to this
34 development, one is concerned about the environmental quality, social equity, economic vitality and the threat of
35 climate change, all these have formed a yardstick for a growing interest in the concept of sustainable transport
36 development. Is worth mentioning that urban transport is one of the important sectors that have direct bearing
37 on sustainable development, partly because of the high growth of the transport sector's energy consumption and
38 green house gas emissions at a global scale. It is however not surprising that by the year 2025, the transport
39 sector's energy consumption and greenhouse gas emissions will double, while more people will become dependent
40 on private automobiles (Whitelegg, 1993). Meanwhile, the economic, health and environmental implications of
41 this rapidly growing and poorly regulated public transport system are highly problematic in Nigerian cities.
42 Indeed, it has a permanent and often irreversible impact on the environment through land take and intrusion.

4 III. CONCEPTUAL ISSUE AND A BRIEF LITERATURE REVIEW

43 Inadequate spatial interactions is one of the most serious socio-economic problems engulfing sustainable
44 livelihoods of women folks. However, women; despite their significant roles in production and reproduction
45 activities, particularly in Nigeria are increasingly facing mobility difficulties which often times force them into
46 the shackles of poverty. Thus, liberation of women from this problem is an essential avenue towards sustainable
47 livelihoods and development of the society in general. In other words, improved public transport system
48 will enhance the process that allows women to actively participate in individual and societal issues that are
49 developmental in nature. Suffice to say that, transport is one of the main infrastructural axes on which socio-
50 economic development revolves around. It cuts across all aspects of man's daily activities and promotes a nation's
51 overall development. In Nigeria, it is displeasing to note that like other developing countries, the conventional
52 public transport services are unable to meet the mobility demands of the masses, and this impact on people's
53 economic and social activities. Meanwhile, the difference in travel behaviour of men and women stems from the
54 fact that women are vulnerable to a number of factors in their choice of travel mode or in their travel behaviour.
55 Such factors include their attachment and affinity to the environment, cultural norms, their traditional sex roles,
56 societal vices (Okoko, 2008). Also worth noting is, the place of gender that has been found to be very important
57 in transportation planning and management (Odufuwa, 2008 and2010). Therefore understanding the prevailing
58 socio-economic and cultural attributes of women in relation to public transport planning and management is
59 inevitable if a change in existing and displeasing situation is to be achieved. Obviously, analysis of the socio-
60 economic and cultural attributes will enhance the planning and management of Nigerian public transport system.

61 This study was based on the premise that financial resources, productive, reproductive needs of men and women
62 and operational characteristics of public transport, partly determine their use of public transport. Therefore,
63 integrating gender planning and analysis into the operation of public transport cannot be side-tracked; as it will
64 foster effective decisions or policy and resource allocations in order to ensure equity, particularly in the Nigerian
65 public transport system. The main objective of this study is to examine the impact of socio-economic variables
66 of women and operational pattern of public transport on patronage. The travel characteristics of the respondents
67 were examined and analysed. Based on the findings; the paper discusses the need for considering the mobility
68 needs of passengers and emphasised a gendersensitive operational pattern of Nigerian public transport service.
69 It is pertinent to note that study of this type will guide policy makers and reveals areas demanding sustainable
70 policy interventions.

71 2 II. Methodology

72 The study explores literatures, complemented by field surveys in Ibadan metropolis. Ibadan is located on the
73 South-Western part of Nigeria, longitude 30541 of the Greenwich Meridian and latitude 70541 north of the
74 equator. The city is elevated at about 234 metres above sea level, and by road is about 150km from Lagos-the
75 Nigerian nerve centre. Ibadan consists of eleven local government areas, while five of the local government areas
76 (Ibadan North West, Ibadan North, Ibadan North East, Ibadan South East and Ibadan South West) make up
77 the Ibadan metropolis. The city was chosen because it is noted as one of the traditional cities in Nigeria, and
78 in recent times has witnessed high level of vehicular traffic as well as influx of non-motorised vehicles. Data
79 were obtained through a questionnaire survey of 203 respondents. A non-probability sampling technique called
80 purposive sampling was adopted to sample 203 respondents. It is worth mentioning that, in purposive sampling,
81 researcher relies on his judgement about respondents to choose; and picks only those who best meet the purpose
82 of the study (Babbie, 1998). For this study, respondents were contacted at bus stops while waiting for the modes
83 to travel with. The study used both quantitative and qualitative approach. The value of this mixed method
84 is well acknowledged in literatures on methodology (Brannen, 1992;Bryman, 1988;Bryman et al, 1990;Okoko,
85 2000;Oyesiku, 2000 andBabbie, 1998). In the study, 19 variables, among others, were investigated and analysed
86 (see table 1).The questionnaire was divided into three parts. Part one probed into the socio-economic background
87 of respondents (age, educational qualification, occupation, monthly income and household size, etc). The second
88 part consists of some variables on travel characteristics (mode of travel, number of household vehicles, driving
89 status, number of trips, transport cost, travel distance and difficulties, etc). The last part was based on decision
90 to use public transport if improved. It should be mentioned that the questionnaire consisted an open and close-
91 ended item. Openended items were designed to permit flexible responses. The reliability of the survey instrument
92 was however conducted using test-retest method, given a reliability coefficient of $r = 0.78$. Data collected were
93 analyzed using simple percentage distribution and correlation technique. The correlation analysis was used to
94 establish the relationship between pattern of travel and selected socio-economic variables.

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98 4 III. Conceptual Issue and a Brief Literature Review

99 Overtime it is accepted that sustainable development, specifically, sustainable transport, implies finding a proper
100 balance between (current and future) environmental, social and economic qualities (OECD, 1996;RIVM, 2005;
101 ??itman, 2003;Beatley, 1995; ??CED, 1987 ?? cited in Steg, et al, 2005). Although various attempt were made to

102 define sustainable transport ??Litman, 2008a and Steg, 2007). However, a key set of indicators (environmental, 103 social and economic qualities) gives a reflection of what could be referred to as sustainable transport. Sustainable 104 transportation might be considered by examining the efficiency of the transport system itself, focusing attention 105 on the positive and negative values and externalities of traffic and transport as they are apparent now or in the 106 future. These indicators according to (Gilbert et al; Gudmundsson, 2001 and ??&W, 1991) have been used by 107 governments to set sustainable transport goals and to monitor whether the current transport system is moving 108 towards sustainability or not. RIVM, (2005) made future projections to forecast developments in transport 109 and relevant sustainability indicators. While, Gilbert, et al; 2000; Gudmundsson, 2001 and ??itman, (2003) 110 identified energy use, carbon monoxide emissions, land use disruption and fragmentation of natural areas, waste, 111 traffic safety, noise pollution, health consequences of transport, crash costs, contribution of transport sector 112 to economic welfare, and accessibility as factors to be considered when examining sustainability of transport 113 system. ??964), a renowned transport analyst, emphasized that "immobility perpetuates poverty". This implies 114 that, transportation has resultant effects on almost every human being in the course of their daily activities. 115 Thus, it is rare to conceive a situation over space where transportation does not play a tangible role in the 116 life of any individual or society at large. Similar to this view, is the assertion of Geerlings et al, ??2005), that 117 "the issue of transport is a derived effect of the fulfilling of all sorts of needs, varying from economic needs to 118 social needs". This further justified the fact that, transportation is a "derived demand" and that there is "no 119 escape from transport". According to CST, (2003) sustainable transport system forms a basic foundation that 120 facilitates movement of goods and services in the present generation and capable of taking care of incoming 121 generations. Therefore, it should be affordable, efficient, available, safe, and supports economic development of 122 the people. Similarly, changes in the transport sector may induce changes in other sectors, which in turn may 123 affect sustainable development (Vibeke, 2009). For instance, they may induce macro-economic changes (lower 124 production values in transport, and higher production values in trade and industry), resulting in changes in GDP 125 and employment levels (Geurs et al, 2000 cited in Steg et al;.

126 The state of transportation in Nigeria can be classified into five major modes -roads, rail, water, air and 127 pipelines. The contribution of the transport sector to the economy of Nigeria if considered by the GDP tends 128 to stagnate or decline at about 3% of GDP ??Filani, 1988 and ??gunsanya, 2002). Indeed, the sector's real 129 contribution to GDP continued to decline from 6% in 1998 to 3.12% in 1991 and 3.10% in 1998 and to about 130 2.1% in recent time (Oyesiku, 2002 and. Road in particular, declines from 5.17% in 1981, 2.90% in 1995 and to 131 2.86% in 1996 and 2.84% in 1997 and to less than 2.5% in recent time. It is interesting to note that, in many 132 cities today, private cars have become important and dominant mode of transport (Odufuwa, 2007 and ??koko, 133 2007).

134 To achieve long-term goal of individual and sustainable city development, transportation issues must take a 135 centre stage in fulfilling its economic and social functions (Carruthers et al, 2005; ??ukas et al, 2001 and ??bara, 136 2002). The box below reveals the views of CST, (2003), about sustainable transport system.

137 "that allows the basic access needs of individuals and society to be met safely and in a manner consistent 138 with human and ecosystem health, and with equity within and between generations; 139 is affordable, operates efficiently, offers choice of transport mode, and supports a vibrant economy; 140 limits emissions and waste within the planet's ability to absorb them, minimizes consumption of non-renewable 141 resources, limits consumption of renewable resources to the sustainable yield level, reuses and recycles its 142 components, and minimizes the use of land and the production of noise. CST, (

143 SUSTRAN, (2000) also made an effort to guide activities of transport planners towards achieving a sustainable 144 transport system by providing the good and bad examples of transport in Asian cities.: "A city, where roads 145 and haphazard vehicles seem to be everywhere; a city where shops, schools and parks are far apart and requires 146 a vehicle to reach the; where roads act as barriers between communities, where traffic dominates the streets 147 making them difficult to cross; where walking and cycling are unsafe and unpleasant; where public transport is 148 infrequent and hard to get; where pollution is visible, pungent health hazard and where honking and road rage are 149 the main turns of social exchange," (SUSTRAN 2000). Sequel to the above discussion, it can be conceived that, 150 there is relationship between transportation, economic, social and environmental development. Thus, transport 151 is an inevitable factor towards achieving sustainable livelihoods.

152 5 IV. Literature Review

153 In recent past, gender analysis is becoming a major issue in transport sector; as the huge cost of transport 154 externalities to national economies and individual households become increasingly apparent. This stems on 155 the fact that, bulk of urban development projects like transportation takes no account of gender differences 156 or women's specific needs and may thus be labelled "gender-blind" ??Moser, 1993; Year and widely used in 157 the world, while international policy makers all over the world need, as a matter of urgency; to recognize 158 the fact that, the differences in travel mode and activity pattern between men and women are a central and 159 recurring feature in sustainable development and empowerment process (Peters, 2002). Despite improvement in 160 building women's capabilities, gender gaps in efficient means of travel continue to persist ??Asiyanbola, 2007 and 161 Oyesiku, et al;. In Nigeria, urban transport that suppose to serve as the sinew that bind together various landuses 162 has not only remained inefficient, but it has grown over the years to be expensive and dangerous (Egunjobi, 163 1999). A growing body of academic literature has emerged over the last few years addressing the relationships

6 V. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

164 between transportation and gender, both in developed ??Rosembloom. 1993 ??Rosembloom. , 1989;1981
165 ?? Peters, 2001;;Schintler, 2001) and developing countries (Fernando, 2002;Grieco, 1997;Okoko, 2008;Odufuwa,
166 2007 andAsiyanbola, 2007). Matalon, (1992) however, confirmed that the travel behaviour of individuals is not
167 uniform, and he attributed this differences to biological difference between male and female. Studies in developed
168 countries using aggregate travel data and travel diaries, reported consistent and significant gender differences in
169 trip purpose, trip distance, transport mode and other aspects of travel behaviour 1981;Fagnani, 1983, Howe, et
170 al; 1982 cited in Law, 1999). Fadare, et al;, posited that there is a remarkable difference in the travel behaviour
171 of men and women. While, (1980) noted that women travel less frequently than men and they travel shorter
172 distances than men do and rely on bus (public transport) to a greater extent than men. Despite the transport
173 bias against women, scholars emphasized that; there would be increase productivity, improved nutrition and
174 health for children and the society at large when gender discrimination against women is eliminated in terms of
175 accessibility (Blackden et al, 2006;Okoko, 2008).

176 It is pertinent to note that studies conducted by ; (1991); and (2005) suggested inclusive framework for
177 understanding women's transport needs. This entails paying attention to socialization history and body size,
178 as well as domestic role and labour market position. Meanwhile, transport planning models are not designed
179 to capture these differences (Schintler, 2001;Asiyanbola, 2007). Public transport planning operation in most
180 developed countries does not take into account the fact that the journey to work for women is often more time
181 consuming, more costly, and more complicated than men's. For instance, ; Root, et al; and Turner, et al;(2006)
182 emphasized the need for gender concern and integration of mobility needs of women into transportation planning
183 and management. They claimed that, an examination of how gender issues are reflected in the field of transport,
184 particularly; in public transport services is necessary to make women visible in transport planning, policy making
185 and transport intervention. It is against the backdrop of the city transportation scene that the transportation
186 planners and researchers, not only in Nigeria; but also in the other developing countries have been exploring the
187 possibility of encouraging sustainable urban transportation system. As highlighted above, the city transportation
188 system leads to increasing travelling time and cost; which represent about 25 percent of an average monthly salary.
189 Indeed, Lagos, as one of the major growing mega city of the world has the longest travel time to and from work.
190 For instance, work trip travel time in Lagos with a low car ownership of 4.3 per 1000 population was 85 minutes
191 in 1999 and rose to 125 minutes in 2007 (Auclair, 1999; ??yesiku, 2004 andOdufuwa, et al, 2007). The existing
192 transport system that has ignored simple personal mode of travel and collective mass transportation commutation
193 has basic endemic transport and environmental problems. There are ample evidences to show that the growth
194 and development of transport sector is increasingly affecting sustainable development in most Nigerian cities.
195 This is not only in terms of air pollution, but also noise disturbance fatalities and congestion. Above all, the
196 preponderant negative environmental consequences of road transport in the Nigerian cities are mainly those of
197 noise disturbance, vibration, accident, pollution, urban sprawl, and traffic congestion ??Akinyemi, et al; ??nd
198 Oyesiku, 2001a ??nd 2001b).

199 6 V. Findings and Discussion

200 In all, a total of 203 respondents were used. As revealed in table 2, age of respondents ranged from less than
201 30years to above 60years, majority (78, representing 38.5%) were below 30 years. Is also note worthy that,
202 about 88 (43.2%) of the respondents have tertiary education, while less than 10% have no formal education.
203 The implication of this however, is that most women are more resourceful based on their age (active age) and
204 educational background that enables them to work as professionals and skilled labours. It is therefore pertinent to
205 mention that, about 35.0% of the respondents earn between ??26,000 -?35,000 monthly, while above 20% earns less
206 than ??5,000 per month. This finding reveals that there is a relationship between income and spatial interaction
207 in the city. In other words, high rate of poverty among women can partly be attributed to mobility restriction
208 ?? Source: Otubaga, 2011

209 Table 3 reveals the travel characteristics of respondents. About 17.6% women possess personal vehicles (about
210 1-2 vehicles), while a larger percentage (82.4%) have no personal vehicles. Based on this finding, it could be
211 said that the provision or availability of efficient public transport services will enhance the mobility pattern,
212 particularly, spatial interaction of women. It is interesting to note that, about 82.3% of the respondents can
213 drive, while few of the respondents cannot handle the steering. Is worth mentioning that despite their ability
214 to drive most of them still depend on public transport system on a daily basis. This was therefore justified by
215 the numbers of trips made by public transport. Clearly, most women make two (2) to three (3) trips per day
216 due to various production and reproduction activities which they must or have to perform for the sustenance of
217 the household. It should be emphasised that the average time that commuters or prospective passengers spent
218 (waiting time) at bus stop before making the journey is one important indicator, among others, used to measure
219 the efficiency of the existing public transport. It is however disheartening to note that most women (34.0%)
220 spent over 15minutes while waiting for a travel mode. Invariably, literatures emphasised that at every 15minutes,
221 a public transport (bus) is expected to arrive and pick passengers at the bus stops. This stem on the fact that
222 long waiting time at bus stops usually translates to lost of productive man-hour. Furthermore, prolonged waiting
223 time impact on the physical wellbeing or cause health distressed experience by respondents, especially those
224 travelling with children and luggage. Table 3 also reveals the distance travel, time of travel and time spent per
225 trip. Findings show that most women make short trips, and this was attributed to their domestic role and child

226 care obligations. They emphasised that, they prefer to work closer to where they reside (home). This will not
227 only reduce the travel time, but will also impact on the travel cost and transport externalities experienced. This
228 finding corroborated the points raised in the literature review. It should be mentioned that most respondents
229 always avoid night travelling; partly due to poor transport infrastructure (street light) and fear of attacks (crime).

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232 Year marginalization. For instance, the study reveals that 82.4% of the respondents have no access to private
233 Interestingly, empirically tested hypothesis shows that, there is significant relationship between selected socio-
234 economic variables of the respondents (women) and the use or patronage of public transport (see table 4). This
235 finding implies that the patronage of public transport by women is a factor of their level of education, age,
236 occupation, income and household size. The chronic public transport problems in Nigerian traditional city have
237 been on alarming increase despite the effort of government to ameliorate the situation. It is pertinent not to
238 lose focus on the fact that quality of public transport in Ibadan-a traditional city in Nigeria is poor. As a
239 consequence, travel pattern of vulnerable groups, particularly women, consist of an array of travel burdens; they
240 spend much time waiting for travel modes; they face assaults; their productive and reproduction roles are affected
241 and despite the apparent lack of gender planning and analysis in public transport planning and management,
242 such shortcoming can affect women livelihoods more severely than men. Scholars over the time emphasized that,
243 in countries where there is gender inequality and persistent gender blind planning, especially in transport sector,
244 the detrimental impacts of poverty are borne more by women. The study reveals that the city has vast number
245 of old and poorly maintained buses provided by the private operators. Generally, provision of effective public
246 transport service remains low; relative to the increasing demand. This was partly confirmed by the long waiting
247 time and influx of commercial motorcycles (otherwise known as "okada" in Nigeria). The study further reveals
248 that what exists in Nigerian traditional city as public transport service is nothing but "death traps" for passengers
249 and non-users. Sustainable public transport system in Nigerian cities demands adequate planning and regulation.
250 In other words, regulation of public transport through quantity and quality controls (to ensure safety and secure
251 system and enforcement of policy measures) is urgently needed in the city. Nevertheless, transport planners as
252 well as other stakeholders, should adequately be involved in the planning and decision making process. Based
253 on the premise that women are highly potential or resourceful, regulation of public transport should emphasize
254 accessibility, affordability and equity issues. Hence, reducing travel difficulties or transport externalities faced
255 by women when using public transport should adequately be addressed. Thus, policies should reflect on land
256 use planning, decentralization of activity areas and prioritization of effective non-motorized transport services.
257 On a final note, while developed countries have made substantial progress in enhancing the mobility needs
258 of the people through adequate provision of transport infrastructural facilities, most developing countries are
259 lagging behind. It should therefore be noted that, though mobility difficulties experienced by women and other
260 vulnerable groups is similar in most developing countries, but a total adoption of measures used in developed
261 countries by developing countries require adequate consideration of priorities, resources and transport operation
262 and management strategies in existence.

263 Above all, sustainable public transport through gender planning and analysis of Nigerian public transport
264 system is needed based on the premise that, perceptions as earlier stated may vary according to gender relations,
265 mobility needs, roles and access to resources and decision-making process. Gender planning and analysis cannot
266 be side-tracked as it partly entails decisions and resource allocations, and ensure equity; particularly in Nigerian
267 public transport system. Gender planning and analysis should take cognizance of the unequal or differential
268 relations of women and men (different household roles and mobility needs), stands to showcase the mobility
269 difficulties facing and hindering effective spatial interaction among the women folks. Thus, a gross decay of
270 transport infrastructure has forced people, particularly; the vulnerable or urban poor to adopt the use of non-
271 motorized modes for most travels or socioeconomic activities. Therefore, building of gendered transportation
272 planning and management in Nigeria and other developing countries needs to be examined, if the reproductive
273 and productivity roles of women in our society are to be achieved. Indeed, women's issues in Nigerian public
274 transport have received little or no attention from transport planners and policy makers, empirical evidence with
275 respect to travel burdens facing women during spatial interactions is needed. Data should be accumulated on
276 how Nigerian public transport system can be regulated to accommodate gender or mobility needs of the people,
277 particularly the vulnerable groups and achieve the provision of sustainable public transport for all.

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Figure 1:

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S/N	Variables	Operational Definitions and Variable Types
1.	Age	Total age of respondents in years -continuous variable
2.	Household size	Total number in the household-Continuous variable
3.	Sex	Dichotomous variable: 1=male; 0=female
4.	Income	Total income in Naira-Categorical variable
5.	Educational level	Dichotomous variable
6.	Possession Vehicle	Access to household vehicle; 1=Yes; 0=No
7.	Driving Status	Ability to drive: 1=Yes; 0=No
8.	Cost of travel (fare)	Fare paid: Categorical variable
9.	Time spent in travel	Total travel time: Continuous variable
10.	Waiting time	Time spent at bus stop: Continuous variable
11.	Quality of bus stops	Dichotomous variable: 1 each if the following facilities/services are bad: shelter, seats, clean, location, toilet, light, and general condition of the bus stop; 0= otherwise
12.	Number of trips	Total no. of trips per purpose: Continuous variable
13.	Walking distance	Categorical variable
14.	Time of travel	Time of commencement of journey: Continuous variable
15.	Mode of travel	Dichotomous variable: 1= bus; 0= others
16.	Quality of vehicle	

[Note: Dichotomous variable: 1 each if the following are bad; engine, seats, cleanliness, body/structure, colour; 0= others 17. Quality of travel environment Dichotomous variable: 1 each if the following are bad: dirty, abandoned sites, lighting, scaring, road; 0= others 18. Travel alone or in company of others Dichotomous variable: 1 if travel alone; 0 if otherwise 19. Desire to use public transport if improved Dichotomous variable: 1 if passengers will use public transport if improved; 0 if otherwise]

Figure 2: Table 1 :

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[Note: A]

Figure 3:

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Figure 4: Table 2 :

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	Frequency	%
Possession of Personal Vehicle(s)		
Yes	36	17.6
No	167	82.4
Number of Household Vehicles		
1-2	114	56.2
3-4	37	18.2
>5	-	-
No Vehicle	52	25.6
Driving Status		
Can drive	167	82.3
Cannot drive	36	17.7
Distance Travel		
2-5km	165	81.3
6-10km	33	16.2
Above 10km	5	2.5
Time spend per trip		
< 10min	114	56.2
10-30min	59	29
> 30min	30	14.8
Daily Travel Cost		
< N200	29	14.3
N200-N300	131	64.5
N300-N400	43	21.2
Mode of public transport use		
Tricycle	11	5.4
Motorcycle	48	23.6
Taxi	63	31.0
Bus	81	40.0
Waiting Time		
Less than 5 min	41	20.2
5-15 min	62	30.5
20-40min	69	34.0
More than 40 min	31	15.3
No of Trips per day		
1	49	24.1
2	75	37
3	59	29.1
Above 3	20	9.8

Source: Otubaga, 2011

Figure 5: Table 3 :

Variables	R	P	Decision(s)
Educational level	-0.17	0.06	Significant
Income	0.14	0.03	Significant
Age	0.08	0.01	Significant
Occupational status	0.15		0.02 Significant
Household size	0.16	0.04	Significant

Tested at 0.05 level of significance,

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Figure 6: Table 4 :

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