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Gendered Mobility and Urban Transport Inequality in Katsina Town, Katsina State, Nigeria: A Conceptual Examination of Access, Safety, Affordability and Social Inclusion

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Abstract
Urban transportation connects residents to employment, education, healthcare, markets and other opportunities, but its benefits are not distributed equally. Gender roles, unequal access to resources, household responsibilities, safety concerns and sociocultural expectations can shape how women and men access and use transport services. This paper examines gendered mobility and urban transport inequality in Katsina town, Katsina State, Nigeria, focusing on accessibility, affordability, safety and sociocultural acceptability, and their implications for social inclusion. It adopts a conceptual approach based on a critical review of relevant scholarly literature and policy materials, using Gender and Development (GAD) Theory and Social Exclusion Theory as complementary perspectives. The discussion argues that the existence of roads and transport vehicles does not necessarily ensure equitable mobility: services may remain inaccessible because of distance, poor connectivity or unsuitable facilities; unaffordable because of fares and repeated journeys; unsafe because of harassment, intimidation or inadequate infrastructure; and socially constrained by household arrangements and prevailing expectations. These conditions interact and may restrict women's practical ability to reach economic, educational, health and social opportunities. The paper advances a layered conceptual framework in which gender relations and the urban institutional context shape four interconnected transport conditions, which in turn influence women's mobility capabilities and access to urban opportunities, with social inclusion or exclusion as the wider outcome. It argues for gender-responsive transport planning, affordable and reliable services, safer public spaces, universal accessibility, women's participation in decision-making and the systematic use of gender-disaggregated data. The paper concludes that inclusive mobility in Katsina requires attention not only to transport infrastructure but also to the social and economic conditions determining who can use it, when, at what cost and with what degree of safety.

Keywords: *Gendered mobility; urban transport inequality; accessibility; affordability; transport safety; social inclusion.*

1.0 Introduction

Transportation is a central component of urban development because it connects people to employment, education, healthcare, markets, public institutions and social networks. Its significance therefore extends beyond the physical movement of passengers and goods: the availability, cost, reliability and safety of transport influence residents' ability to participate in urban life. An effective transport system can support economic productivity and social integration, while unequal access can deepen existing disadvantage. Transport should consequently be understood as both an infrastructural service and a social institution through which access to resources and opportunities is organised (Abdullah et al., 2022; World Bank, 2024). Mobility is not experienced uniformly. Gender, income, age, disability, occupation and household responsibilities influence the destinations people need to reach, the times they travel, the modes they can use and the resources available to them. Women's journeys may combine paid work with childcare, shopping, healthcare visits, education and other household-related activities. These linked journeys can differ from direct home-to-work commuting patterns that often inform conventional transport planning. Roy et al. (2024), in a systematic review of women's mobility barriers in low- and middle-income countries, identify service availability, affordability, safety and first- and last-mile connectivity as important influences on women's use of transport. The implication is that equal provision of transport infrastructure does not automatically produce equal mobility outcomes. Accessibility, affordability and safety are mutually dependent. A route may exist but be difficult to reach because pedestrian connections are poor; a vehicle may be available but its fare may be beyond a household's means; and a service may be affordable but avoided because of harassment or insecurity. Household responsibilities and sociocultural expectations may further shape the time, destination and mode of travel considered feasible. These factors can combine to limit access to employment, education, healthcare and commercial activities. Porter et al. (2025) show the importance of safety and harassment in shaping young women's travel experiences and journeys to work in African cities. Noor and Iamtrakul (2023) similarly emphasise the need for policy and institutional responses to sexual harassment in public transport.

In Nigeria, urban transport commonly involves a mixture of buses, taxis, commercial motorcycles, tricycles, private vehicles and other shared services. The availability and quality of these services vary across settlements and neighbourhoods. Studies of Nigerian cities have begun to examine gender differences in transport access and use. Abdullah et al. (2022) investigate gender disparities in urban public transport in Abuja, while research on women's participation in transport occupations draws attention to barriers beyond passenger mobility. Such work provides a basis for examining how gender relations interact with transport systems, but findings from one city should not be assumed to describe every urban context.

Katsina town, as the administrative and commercial centre of Katsina State, contains residential neighbourhoods, markets, educational institutions, health facilities, government offices and other destinations that generate daily travel. Ladan and Abdullahi's assessment of transportation challenges in the Katsina metropolitan area provides a local context for considering issues such as transport facilities, cost and insecurity. However, general transport difficulties do not establish that women and men experience them in identical ways. A gender-focused analysis must consider how access to financial resources, household responsibilities, mobility expectations and personal security may shape the ability to use available services. These influences should be investigated rather than presumed to operate uniformly across all households or women in

Katsina. The central problem addressed in this paper is the tendency to understand urban transport inequality mainly through infrastructure and service availability, without sufficiently integrating the gendered social and economic conditions that determine actual use. The paper therefore examines gendered mobility and transport inequality in Katsina town through four connected dimensions: accessibility, affordability, safety and sociocultural acceptability. It also considers how these dimensions affect women's access to socioeconomic opportunities and social inclusion. The argument is that transport inequality is not simply a question of whether people can move; it concerns who can travel, where and when they can travel, the cost and safety of doing so, and the opportunities they can reach as a result.

2.0 Conceptual Clarifications

Gender and gender relations refer to socially constructed roles, responsibilities, expectations and power relations associated with women and men. These relations influence the distribution of resources, household tasks, decision-making authority and opportunities. In transport, they may affect who controls money for fares, who undertakes care-related journeys, who has access to private vehicles and whose movement is subject to particular expectations. Gender is therefore relevant not as a personal characteristic in isolation but as a set of social relations operating within households, communities and institutions. Gendered mobility describes the ways travel patterns, transport choices, access and experiences of movement are shaped by gender relations and wider social and economic circumstances. It asks not only whether transport is present but who can use it, for which purposes, at what times and under what conditions. Women's mobility may involve several linked destinations and may be influenced by caregiving, employment, income, safety and household decision-making. Women are not a homogeneous group: age, disability, occupation, education, income and residential location may produce different experiences among women themselves (Roy et al., 2024; Yuan et al., 2023). Urban transportation comprises the infrastructure, services, modes and institutional arrangements that facilitate movement within an urban settlement. It includes public and private vehicles, shared transport, pedestrian movement, roads, walkways, terminals, waiting areas and traffic management. From a sociological perspective, transport is part of urban organisation because it affects how residents reach institutions, services and social networks. Transport inequality refers to the unequal distribution of transport opportunities, costs, facilities and benefits. It can occur even where services exist, if they are inaccessible, unaffordable, unreliable, unsafe or unsuitable for particular users (Lucas, 2012). Accessibility concerns the practical ability to reach desired destinations through available transport networks. It includes distance, route connectivity, service frequency, waiting time, reliability, pedestrian access and the suitability of facilities. Affordability refers to the ability to meet travel costs without sacrificing other essential needs. Safety concerns protection from road crashes and physical injury, while security includes protection from harassment, intimidation, theft and violence. Sociocultural acceptability refers to the ways gender roles, household responsibilities, religious and cultural expectations, and household decision-making may shape the modes, destinations and timing of travel considered feasible. Such influences vary between individuals and households and should not be treated as fixed characteristics of Katsina society. Social inclusion means having meaningful opportunities to participate in economic, educational, health, social, cultural and institutional life. Transport contributes to inclusion by connecting people to these opportunities. Conversely, transport disadvantage can contribute to social exclusion when people cannot reach services or participate

in activities because of cost, distance, insecurity or other barriers (Lucas, 2012). In this paper, social inclusion is treated as a key outcome of equitable mobility rather than simply as the physical presence of transport infrastructure.

3.0 Theoretical Perspectives

The paper draws on Gender and Development (GAD) Theory and Social Exclusion Theory. The two perspectives are complementary: GAD explains the gender relations and institutional arrangements that shape unequal access to resources and mobility, while Social Exclusion Theory explains how transport disadvantage can restrict participation in essential aspects of social and economic life. GAD emerged as a critical approach to development analysis that shifted attention from women as a separate target group to the social relations and institutional structures producing gender inequality. It examines the distribution of power, resources, responsibilities and decision-making authority within households, communities and wider society. Moser (1993) highlights women's multiple reproductive, productive and community-management roles, while Kabeer (1994) examines how gender hierarchies shape access to resources, agency and achievements. These contributions are relevant to transport because responsibilities for care and household management may generate complex travel needs, while unequal access to income and decision-making can limit the ability to choose convenient transport.Applied to Katsina town, GAD directs attention to the relationship between gender roles, household resources, transport choices and the organisation of urban services. It helps explain why the availability of roads, taxis, buses or tricycles does not necessarily guarantee equal mobility. A woman may have a transport route nearby but lack sufficient money to use it regularly; she may need to combine several destinations in one journey; or her choice of mode and travel time may be shaped by safety concerns and household arrangements. GAD also challenges planning approaches that treat the conventional commuter as the standard user and overlook journeys associated with care, informal work and household provisioning.

Social Exclusion Theory focuses on the processes through which individuals or groups are prevented from participating fully in economic, social, political and cultural life. Exclusion is multidimensional and may arise from poverty, institutional barriers, discrimination, geographical isolation and unequal access to services. Silver (1994) explains that social exclusion can be understood through different social and institutional relationships, while Lucas (2012) demonstrates the connection between transport disadvantage and restricted participation. Transport is therefore both a means of reaching opportunities and a potential mechanism through which disadvantage is reproduced The theory is useful for explaining the consequences of gendered transport barriers. When fares are unaffordable, services are poorly connected or travel is perceived as unsafe, women may be unable to reach work, markets, schools, healthcare or social networks. Repeated restrictions can reduce economic participation and reinforce dependence or isolation. For Katsina, Social Exclusion Theory shifts the question from whether transport facilities exist to whether women and other residents can use them to participate meaningfully in urban life. The theories are combined in this paper without treating them as interchangeable. GAD provides the primary explanation of how gender relations and unequal resources shape mobility conditions; Social Exclusion Theory explains the wider consequences when those conditions restrict access to opportunities. Together, they support an analysis that links social structures, transport conditions, practical mobility and participation.

4.0 Gender Dimensions of Urban Transportation

Gender differences in mobility arise partly from the organisation of paid and unpaid work. Women may combine employment or trading with childcare, shopping, healthcare and household provisioning, creating journeys with several stops and different time requirements. Transport networks designed mainly around direct commuting may not adequately connect the destinations involved in these activities. Roy et al. (2024) identify first- and last-mile connections, service frequency and network coverage as relevant barriers to women's mobility. Transport planning should therefore consider the range and sequencing of everyday journeys, rather than relying only on conventional commuting patterns.

Access to transport infrastructure involves more than the presence of roads or vehicles. The location of services, distance to stops, pedestrian conditions, reliability, waiting time and connections to markets, schools, health facilities and workplaces all affect practical access. Poor walkways or disconnected routes can create additional difficulties for people travelling with children, carrying goods or living with disabilities. Abdullah et al. (2022) demonstrate the importance of gender in examining access to and use of public transport in Abuja. Their work supports attention to the difference between nominal availability and effective access.

Safety and security influence whether people are willing and able to travel. Road conditions, traffic risks, lighting, waiting facilities and the conduct of transport operators matter to all users. Women may also face gender-specific risks, including verbal harassment, unwanted contact, intimidation and sexual violence in vehicles, terminals or public spaces. Fear of harassment can influence mode choice, travel time and destination, and may lead some women to pay more for an alternative or avoid a journey. Porter et al. (2025) and Noor and Iamtrakul (2023) underline that safety requires institutional measures, accountability and reporting mechanisms, not merely individual precautions. Affordability concerns the relationship between transport expenditure, household income and the journeys needed to access opportunities. Fares can be especially burdensome for people in low-paid or informal work and for those who make multiple journeys. Where women have limited control over household resources, transport costs may restrict access to markets, employment, education and healthcare. A service that is physically available is not meaningfully accessible if its cost prevents regular use. Affordability should therefore be considered alongside service coverage, reliability and the number of journeys required.

Cultural and religious expectations, household responsibilities and decision-making arrangements may also shape women's mobility. They can influence the timing of travel, the modes considered acceptable and the destinations women visit. Their influence is not uniform or inherently restrictive: household and community arrangements differ, and education, employment, income and generation may shape individual experiences. A sociological analysis should avoid generalisations about all women in Northern Nigeria and instead examine how social expectations interact with available transport options and individual circumstances.

Transport disadvantage also intersects with age, disability, pregnancy, income and residential location. Women with disabilities may face inaccessible vehicles, walkways and terminals; older women may need shorter walking distances and appropriate seating; pregnant women and women travelling with infants may require safer and more convenient facilities. Low income can compound these barriers by limiting the ability to select alternative modes. An intersectional perspective is therefore necessary to avoid treating women as a single category and to ensure that transport improvements benefit users with different physical and economic circumstances (Yuan et al., 2023).

5.0 Urban Transportation and Gender Inequality in Nigeria

Urban transportation in Nigeria relies substantially on road-based services, including buses, taxis, commercial motorcycles, tricycles, private vehicles and shared transport. These arrangements connect residential areas with markets, schools, health facilities and employment centres, but service quality and availability vary. Inadequate pedestrian infrastructure, poor road conditions, congestion, inconsistent fares and limited route coordination can increase the time and cost of everyday travel. These challenges should be considered in relation to gender because users may have different resources, responsibilities and mobility needs.

Research in Nigeria provides evidence that gender matters to transport access and use. Abdullah et al. (2022) examine gender disparities in public transport in Abuja, while other studies discussed in the source paper address women's participation in transport occupations and the safety of public transport environments. This literature indicates that gender inequality is not confined to passenger access: occupational stereotypes, finance, institutional support and safety may also affect women's participation as drivers, operators and transport entrepreneurs. Evidence from other cities is useful for identifying issues, but it should be applied to Katsina as a comparative guide rather than proof that identical conditions prevail there.

In Northern Nigeria, transport and mobility should be examined in relation to the diversity of urban settlements, household arrangements and socioeconomic circumstances. Cultural and religious expectations may shape travel choices in some households, while income, employment, education, age and family decision-making may produce different experiences among women. It would be inappropriate to assume a single pattern across the region. The relevant analytical task is to establish how these factors interact in particular local settings.

The available discussion of Katsina metropolitan transport challenges offers a local point of departure, including reported concerns about transport facilities, cost and insecurity. However, general evidence about transport problems does not by itself establish their gender distribution. A focused gender analysis would need to establish whether women experience particular difficulties in accessing services, paying fares, travelling safely or reaching essential destinations. This distinction is important to avoid presenting conceptual propositions as empirical findings about all female residents of Katsina.

Gender-responsive transport policy requires more than adding roads or vehicles. It involves integrating gender considerations into route design, service schedules, infrastructure, fare practices, safety systems and decision-making. It also requires consultation with women and the collection of data disaggregated by gender and other relevant characteristics. The Sustainable Development Goals provide a broad policy basis: Goal 5 concerns gender equality, while Goal 11 promotes inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable cities and communities (United Nations, 2015).

6.0 Gendered Mobility and Urban Transport Inequality in Katsina Town

Katsina town accommodates administrative, commercial, educational, health and residential activities that generate movement between neighbourhoods and urban destinations. Road-based modes such as tricycles, taxis, buses, motorcycles and private vehicles form part of the transport environment. Their convenience, availability and cost may differ by route and destination. The local transport challenges discussed by Ladan and Abdullahi provide context, but the gendered distribution of those challenges requires careful examination rather than assumption.

Women's access to available transport may be shaped by the distance between homes and

services, the location of pick-up points, service frequency, route connections, waiting time, reliability and the availability of pedestrian facilities. Household responsibilities may require travel to several destinations, while work and school schedules may make some services unsuitable. The central issue is whether women can reach the transport network and use it in a way that meets their practical needs. Evidence from Abuja and the systematic review by Roy et al. (2024) provides comparative insight, but does not substitute for locally generated evidence from Katsina. Sociocultural expectations and household arrangements may influence the timing and organisation of women's journeys. Women who combine care responsibilities with trading, paid work or education may need flexible and connected services. Access to money and household decision-making may also affect whether a woman can travel independently or choose a particular mode. These conditions are likely to vary by education, income, occupation, age and household structure; they should not be represented as universal features of Katsina households.

Safety is another important consideration. Road conditions, street lighting, waiting arrangements and the conduct of transport operators can influence the travel experience. Concerns about harassment, intimidation or unwanted attention may affect women's choice of route, mode and travel time. The extent and form of such experiences in Katsina town require empirical investigation. Studies from Abuja and other contexts establish why the issue merits attention, but the paper does not claim that their findings demonstrate the prevalence of harassment in Katsina.

Transport costs may influence women's access to markets, workplaces, schools and health facilities, particularly where income is limited and several journeys are required. A woman engaged in small-scale trading or informal work may need to balance fares against household expenditure and expected earnings. If the cost of travel is high, she may reduce the frequency of journeys, select less convenient alternatives or forego an opportunity. This illustrates how affordability can translate into restricted participation, rather than remaining a narrow question of transport pricing. The consequences extend to social inclusion. Transport difficulties can affect access to education, healthcare, employment, public institutions and social networks. The physical existence of a school, clinic or workplace does not guarantee that a person can reach and use it. In this sense, gendered mobility constraints may reproduce wider inequalities by limiting women's capacity to benefit from urban opportunities. The argument is conceptual: the actual extent and distribution of these outcomes in Katsina should be established through further empirical research.

7.0 Critical Discussion and Conceptual Analysis

The preceding discussion indicates that transport inequality is produced through the interaction of infrastructure, household resources, gender relations, safety and institutional arrangements. Women and men may use the same roads or vehicles but experience different levels of convenience, independence, cost and security. Equality in the physical provision of transport therefore does not necessarily produce equality in its use. GAD explains how gendered responsibilities and unequal control over resources shape mobility options, while Social Exclusion Theory explains how restricted mobility can limit participation in essential activities (Moser, 1993; Kabeer, 1994; Lucas, 2012).

Accessibility, affordability and safety reinforce one another. A route may be available but difficult to reach; a connected service may be too expensive; and an affordable service may be avoided if the waiting area or journey is perceived as unsafe. Sociocultural acceptability cuts across these dimensions by influencing which modes, routes and travel times are considered

feasible within particular household and community settings. A single intervention, such as increasing the number of vehicles, may therefore have limited effect if fares, pedestrian access or safety remain unresolved. Roy et al. (2024) and Abdullah et al. (2022) support a multidimensional understanding of women's transport experiences.

Transport is a mechanism of inclusion when it enables residents to reach employment, education, healthcare, markets, public institutions and social networks. It can contribute to exclusion when cost, distance, poor connectivity or insecurity prevents such access. For women, these barriers may combine with unpaid care work and unequal access to resources, producing cumulative disadvantage. The consequence is not only reduced movement but potentially reduced economic independence, social participation and access to services. This is consistent with Lucas's (2012) argument that transport disadvantage is closely connected to social exclusion.

A limitation of gender-neutral planning is that it may treat all residents as if they have similar travel patterns and resources. An emphasis on road capacity, traffic flow and direct commuting can overlook multiple-stop journeys, pedestrian access, care-related travel, affordability and personal security. Treating all users identically may preserve unequal outcomes when their circumstances differ. A gender-responsive approach does not presume that every woman has the same needs; rather, it recognises differences and uses consultation and disaggregated evidence to design services that are accessible to diverse users.

For Katsina town, the conceptual implication is that planning should assess transport performance not only by the quantity of infrastructure or vehicles but also by whether residents can reach essential destinations conveniently, safely and at manageable cost. Women's participation in planning can identify barriers that may not be visible in conventional transport assessments. Periodic review should consider differences by gender, age, disability, income and residential location. The argument remains a framework for analysis and policy; local empirical work is required to determine the magnitude and specific distribution of each barrier.

8.0 Proposed Conceptual Framework

The framework proposed in this paper is organised as a layered pathway rather than a simple list of four transport variables. It distinguishes the structural context in which mobility takes place, the immediate conditions of transport use, the practical mobility capability that results, and the social outcomes associated with access to urban opportunities. This arrangement clarifies how gender relations may shape transport conditions and how those conditions can translate into inclusion or exclusion. It draws on GAD Theory to explain the structural context and on Social Exclusion Theory to explain the consequences for participation.

At the first level are gender relations and the wider urban-institutional context. These include the distribution of paid and unpaid responsibilities, access to household resources, decision-making authority, social expectations, transport governance and the distribution of infrastructure. They do not operate as a single direct cause; rather, they shape the circumstances in which transport services are planned, provided and used.

At the second level are four interconnected conditions: (1) accessibility, including proximity, route connectivity, service frequency, reliability, waiting time and pedestrian links; (2) affordability, including fares, the cost of multiple journeys and the relationship between transport expenditure and available income; (3) safety and security, including road safety, lighting, safe waiting areas, harassment prevention and reporting mechanisms; and (4) sociocultural acceptability, including gender roles, care responsibilities, household decisions and social

expectations concerning movement. These dimensions interact. For example, poor connectivity may increase the cost of a journey, while safety concerns may lead a passenger to select a more expensive mode.

The third level is women's practical mobility capability: the real opportunity to make necessary journeys, choose among available modes, travel at appropriate times and reach desired destinations. This is the connecting mechanism between transport conditions and social outcomes. It is also shaped by intersecting circumstances such as age, disability, education, occupation, income, household structure and residential location. These factors may strengthen or weaken the effects of the four transport conditions and explain variation among women.

At the fourth level are access to urban opportunities and the broader outcome of social inclusion or exclusion. Relevant opportunities include employment and income-generating activities, education, healthcare, markets, social relationships, community participation and public institutions. When mobility capability is strengthened, access and participation are more likely to improve. When transport conditions constrain mobility, access may be reduced and social exclusion reinforced. The relationship is not necessarily linear or automatic: the availability and quality of the destination services also matter. The framework also allows for a feedback relationship. Restricted access to employment and markets may reduce income, which can further weaken transport affordability; limited access to education or public institutions may also affect future opportunities. Conversely, inclusive transport planning and improved participation can help reduce disadvantage. The framework therefore treats gendered transport inequality as a dynamic social process rather than a one-way relationship.

8.1 SCHEMATIC PRESENTATION AND EXPLANATION

GENDER RELATIONS AND URBAN-INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT
(division of paid/unpaid work; household resources and decision-making; social expectations; transport governance and infrastructure)

↓ shapes

FOUR INTERCONNECTED TRANSPORT CONDITIONS
ACCESSIBILITY ↔ AFFORDABILITY ↔ SAFETY AND SECURITY ↔ SOCIOCULTURAL ACCEPTABILITY

↓ influence

WOMEN'S PRACTICAL MOBILITY CAPABILITY
(ability to make necessary journeys, choose modes, travel at suitable times and reach destinations)

↓ affects

ACCESS TO URBAN OPPORTUNITIES
(employment and markets; education; healthcare; social and community activities; public institutions)

↓ contributes to

SOCIAL INCLUSION OR EXCLUSION

INTERVENING / DIFFERENTIATING CONDITIONS AT ALL STAGES: age, disability, education, occupation, income, household structure and residential location.

FEEDBACK: restricted access may reinforce income and opportunity disadvantages, further weakening transport affordability and mobility.

The arrows indicate conceptual relationships, not measured causal effects. The four transport conditions are shown as interconnected because a weakness in one dimension may intensify another. The intervening conditions are positioned across the framework because they can shape both exposure to transport barriers and the capacity to respond to them. This is more analytically useful than treating age, income or disability only as background characteristics or presenting the four dimensions as independent variables. The framework can guide future empirical research by helping identify what should be examined at the household, transport-service and urban-institutional levels.

9.0 Policy Implications and Recommendations

First, Katsina State Government and relevant transport and urban-planning authorities should integrate gender considerations into transport policy, route planning, infrastructure development and service evaluation. Women from different age, income and occupational groups should participate in consultations and decision-making. Consultation should be organised so that the experiences of women with disabilities, older women, students, traders and caregivers are not obscured by a single general category.Second, transport accessibility should be improved through better connections between residential neighbourhoods and markets, schools, healthcare facilities and employment centres. Road improvements should be accompanied by safe pedestrian walkways, accessible crossings, suitable waiting areas and adequate lighting. Route planning should consider multiple-stop journeys and the needs of passengers travelling with children, goods or mobility limitations. Third, affordability and reliability should be treated as central components of inclusive mobility. Relevant authorities should monitor fare practices, encourage transparent pricing and improve coordination of routes and services. Policy measures should pay attention to the cumulative cost of multiple journeys and the circumstances of low-income users. Any fare intervention should be designed with attention to service sustainability and the actual travel needs of residents. Fourth, safety and security should be incorporated into the management of vehicles, terminals, stops and pedestrian spaces. Measures should include adequate lighting, safe waiting facilities, clear procedures for reporting harassment and misconduct, appropriate operator training, monitoring and institutional follow-up. Safety policy should address both road injury risks and threats to personal security. Fifth, transport policy should recognise the influence of household responsibilities and sociocultural expectations without reinforcing discriminatory restrictions. Public awareness and community engagement can support women's access to education, employment, healthcare and public life. Service schedules and route connections should take account of care-related and income-generating journeys.Sixth, inclusive transport design should address the needs of women with disabilities, older women, pregnant women, female students and low-income users. Universal design, accessible vehicles and walkways, appropriate seating and safe waiting facilities should be incorporated into transport planning rather than treated as optional additions.

Finally, government agencies, local authorities, transport operators and community organisations should coordinate their interventions and develop gender-disaggregated transport data. Periodic assessments should examine travel patterns, costs, service access and safety experiences by gender, age, disability, income and location. Opportunities for women's participation in transport employment and entrepreneurship should also be strengthened through training, access to finance and fair institutional practices.

10.0 Conclusion

This paper has examined gendered mobility and urban transport inequality in Katsina town through the interconnected dimensions of accessibility, affordability, safety and sociocultural acceptability, arguing that the existence of roads and transport services does not in itself guarantee equitable mobility because gender relations, household responsibilities, unequal access to resources, personal security and institutional arrangements shape who can use available services, at what cost and under what conditions. Drawing on Gender and Development Theory and Social Exclusion Theory, the analysis has shown conceptually how these transport conditions may influence women's practical ability to reach employment, markets, education,

healthcare, social networks and public institutions, and how restricted mobility can reinforce wider socioeconomic disadvantage. The proposed framework advances this argument by linking gender relations and the urban-institutional context to four mutually reinforcing transport conditions, women's mobility capability, access to urban opportunities and the broader outcomes of social inclusion or exclusion, while recognising that age, disability, education, occupation, income, household structure and residential location differentiate women's experiences. The paper therefore contends that gender-responsive transport planning in Katsina must move beyond infrastructure expansion to include affordable and reliable services, connected routes, safe pedestrian and waiting facilities, effective responses to harassment, universal accessibility, women's participation in decision-making and systematic gender-disaggregated data. Since the paper is conceptual, it does not claim to establish the prevalence or precise distribution of gendered transport barriers in Katsina; rather, it provides an analytical basis for locally grounded empirical investigation and for policy interventions that make urban mobility more accessible, safe, affordable and socially inclusive.

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