Title of Paper: OPERATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF PARATRANSIT IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES OF ASIA

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## ABSTRACT

Paratransit modes play a significant role in the urban transport sectors of developing count ries. In many cities, more than half of the total public transport demand are carried by th em. Rapid increase in urban population, per capita income, along with inadequate existing t ransport infrastructures have stimulated their usage as inexpensive and convenient public tr ansport modes. This paper aims a comparative study of their operational characteristics in order to provide a basic data for discussion of urban transport issues in developing countri es. Some future directions are given to increase their efficiency and thus to improve urban mobility.

# 1. INTRODUCTION

Paratransit or the informal public transport modes have been developed to fill the gaps left among private cars, buses and fixed track systems. There are a number of definitions of paratransit based on different criteria. The functional definition of paratransit states

"Paratransit is urban passenger transportation service usually in highway vehicles operated on public streets and highways in mixed traffic; It is provided by private or public operat ors and it is available to certain groups of users or to the general public, but adaptable i n its routing and scheduling to individual user's desires in varying degrees"(1). The conce pt of paratransit, however, differs in developed and developing countries. In developed cou ntries, paratransit is often used for demand responsive systems such as shared-ride taxis, d ial-a-ride and subscription buses. In developing countries, the lower standard of living, h igh population density, availability of cheap labor force etc., have together provided a bew ildering array of transport modes bridging the gap between public bus and private automobile s.

Although various forms of paratransit modes exist in developing countries ranging from simple non-motorized human or animal powered vehicles to motorized mini buses, the motorized paratransit modes are dominant in all cities of developing countries. As for example, 70% of the total public transport demand in Metro Manila (Philippines), 50% in Jakarta (Indonesi a), 40% in Kuala Lumpur (Malaysia), and 21% in Bangkok (Thailand) are carried by motorized p aratransit modes(2). They provide a flexible and frequent services to small settlements and through narrow streets, where no other services are available at a relatively low fare. In addition, the urban paratransit sector generates a considerable number of employment opport

unities, as much as 10%-20% of the total employment in some cities(2).

In different cities, various studies were done on paratransit system, but most of them were limited to only specific systems. This paper summarizes the operational characteristic s of different paratransit modes in the cities of developing countries in comparative form, in order to provide a basic data for discussion of urban transport issues in developing and developed countries. Section 2 begins with outlining the paratransit modes in urban transpo rtation system. Their operational characteristics that include vehicle ownership, fare stru cture, operating cost etc. are described in section 3. Section 4 describes their effect on

urban transportation system, while section 5 deals with their administrative characteristic s. The paper concludes with a discussion on future direction of paratransit with their importance in the urban transport system for cities in developing countries.

## 2. CLASSIFICATION OF PARATRANSIT IN URBAN TRANSPORTATION SYSTEM

Although the characteristics of paratransit modes are different based on their function in different cities, these modes are the usual means of movement among low income people an d have some common characteristics such as cheap fares, low energy requirements, higher labo r intensity, and small area of coverage. Generally, paratransit systems can be broadly clas sified into two types; non-motorized and motorized. The non-motorized paratransit includes animal powered and human powered. The human powered is mainly hand drawn or pedal driven. Both motorized and non-motorized systems have again been subclassified into 3 groups, ie. in dividual type (seating capacity < 4), shared type (seating capacity 5-10) and collective typ e (seating capacity > 11). Table 1 shows the classification system of paratransit modes in developing countries. All non-motorized paratransits are of individual type with seating ca pacity 2, except hand rickshaw (seating capacity 1)(1) in India, and tonga (seating capacity 2-4) in Pakistan. On the other hand, seating capacity of motorized paratransit ranges wide ly from 2 to 18. Sometimes, however, passengers of 2-3 times of capacity ride on.

There are differences in the functional characteristics and service patterns of the par atransit modes which have been classified into 3 separate groups. The "individual" type par atransits provide door to door service. For the "shared" and "collective" types, the routes are generally fixed but vehicles often and marginally deviate from the route on passengers demand. The collective type paratransit sometimes cut routes to pick up opposite direction passengers.

Recently, the non-motorized paratransit has been restricted in some cities' CBD area.

In Dhaka, rickshaw is banned to enter into some major streets. In Indonesia and Philippine, its use is limited to some cities, although more than half of the public transport passenge rs in some Indian cities and Dhaka are carried by this non-motorized paratransit mode.

## 3. OPERATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF PARATRANSIT

3.1 Service Condition

Table 2 shows the operational/service characteristics of paratransit modes in different countries. Daily travel distance of "individual" type paratransit ranges from 20 Km by Ind onesian becak to 116 Km by auto rickshaw in India. Normally non-motorized vehicles make sho rter trips than motorized ones, which is supported by the range of passengers journey length 1.9 Km by cycle rickshaws to 10 Km by bemo. These paratransit vehicles carry 23 to 273 pas sengers/day. The number of trips varies from 13 to 40. As a summary, non-motorized vehicle s travel daily less than 30 km, the passenger journey length is less than 5 Km and daily passenger handling is less than 25. On the other hand, motorized vehicles travel daily more th an 70 Km, the passengers journey length is more than 3 Km and daily passengers handling is more than 40. The average number of passengers per trip varies from 1.1 for hired motorcycle in Bangkok to 19.5 for jeepney in Manila.

In Metro Manila, modal shares of passengers with trip distance are shown in Table 3. M ost of the public transport passenger trips occur within the distance of 2.5 Km to 7.5 Km and the jeepney captures about 85% of the demand of this distance. The majority of bus passengers (31%) trip distance is 7.6-10 Km, against 2.6-5 Km by jeepney passengers (38%), indicat ing that average trip distance made by bus is longer than jeepney. The bus and jeepney are directly competitive in the trip length of 7.6-10 Km. The higher competitive power of the j eepney in the shorter trip distances is certainly attributed to its high frequency which gav e 3.5 times higher than the bus even on average (Table 4). The hourly passenger capacity (p assenger capacity\* hourly frequency) carried by jeepney and bus is almost the same for a short distance (< 5 Km). But above this range, hourly capacity of bus is almost twice larger t han jeepney.

Considering the average journey speed of the paratransit vehicles in India, it is depic ted from the Table 5 that, average journey speed including waiting time of cycle rickshaw is almost the same as the bus and mini bus, although in vehicle speed differs among bus, mini bus and cycle rickshaw. This is due to much shorter access and waiting time for cycle ricks haw than for mini bus or bus. For shorter trip distance, the shorter access and waiting tim e reduce the total journey time significantly. Thus paratransit looks convenient for short distance as compared to bus.

Comparison of passengers handling capacities in terms of daily passengers carried and p assengers kilometers of paratransit vehicles with conventional buses in Bangkok and India ar e shown in Table 6. In India, the daily passengers carried by auto rickshaw are 2 times lar ger than that of cycle rickshaw due to the speed differences. Although a vast difference is observed in passengers handling capacities, the individual output of paratransit along with their large numbers has made a significant role in urban public transport.

Finally, unlike conventional bus service, the paratransit modes have no obligation to p rovide a service on those routes where demands are low. The operator provides service only where and when it is profitable for him. Often to achieve more profitability, the "shared" and "collective" types paratransit modes do not leave the terminal until the vehicles are fu II and this leads to higher passengers waiting time.

# 3.2 Vehicle Ownership

Almost all the paratransit industry is owned and operated by the private enterprises. Private individuals and cooperatives own the vehicles used for paratransit. Some survey res ults in different countries indicate that drivers rent the vehicles from small scale enterpr ises and very few drivers own their vehicles. For example, only 9% of the jeepney drivers i n Manila, 18% and 13% of becak drivers in Bandung and Jakarta, 1% of samlor drivers in Bangk ok, are estimated to own their vehicles. In India, the percent is relatively higher and is 20% and 34% for cycle rickshaw and auto rickshaws respectively (Table 7). The only exception is found for silor in Chiang Mai where about 75% drivers own their vehicles.

The majority of owners have only small fleets. For example, in Manila and Malang, 55% and 79% jeepney and bemo owners have only one vehicle (Table 8). Conversely, only 19% of je epney operators own more than 5 units. In Bandung, becak's owner fleet size is a little lar ger, which shows 41% own 3-9 units.

#### 3.3 Fare System

In general, fares of urban public transport modes vary widely. Bus is the cheapest and taxi is the most expensive modes of public transport in all cities. The fares of paratrans it modes are higher than conventional bus because it provides a convenient means of travel w ith a high frequency of service. The fare systems are classified into 3 groups; fixed, mete red and decided through negotiation. Mostly, the fares of "individual" types paratransit mo des are decided through negotiation between passengers and drivers. In some countries like India and Nepal, they have metered auto rickshaw. But in case of "shared" or "collective" t ypes paratransit, fixed fares are received from passengers. The jeepney in Manila has the s ame fare system as that of conventional bus. Table 9 shows the examples of fare system in d ifferent cities.

In India, fare rates on cycle rickshaws and autorickshaws are prescribed for typical jo urneys by the local authority. But in practice all rates are decided by bargaining, even th ough auto rickshaws carry a meter. The fares per passenger kilometer of these two modes do not differ much but the total fare paid per trip is higher on auto rickshaws (Table 10). Th is is because of the longer journey distance covered by the auto rickshaws.

The results of a 1990 survey of samlor users in Bangkok shows that passenger believe th e current fare bargaining system is not favorable to them. More than half of the samlor pas sengers interviewed opted for a change in the current fare bargaining system and prefer a me ter system of fare collection or fare fixed by government(3). Recent introduction of metere d taxi may reflect this view.

### 3.4 Operating Cost and Profitability

The exact level of earning of paratransit drivers is difficult to determine and very fe w studies estimate the operating cost, including fuel, rent and repair, and revenues. Opera ting cost of paratransit in Bangkok is summarized in Table 11. The average operating revenu e per day for samlor is the highest and hired motorcycle is the lowest. But their operating

income, excluding personnel expenses, is almost the same. The fuel consumption of these paratransits is relatively low. For example, approximately 15 liters of fuel is required per shift (12 hours) for samlor(3). The significantly low fuel consumption is due to the small size and less weight of vehicles (450 Kg for samlor)(4). Furthermore, comparing the average net pay, a driver earns the minimum labor wage of 90 Baht in a shift(3). On average, paratransit drivers in Bangkok are better paid than laborers.

The average daily fare revenue of the jeepney driver in Manila was 397 Pesos (\$17.68). Daily expenses were 302 Pesos (\$13.45). Fuel/oil cost accounted for 53% of total daily exp enses, while boundary fee (rent, repair, etc.) at 44% and others (parking fee, dispatchers' fee, etc.) at 3% of total expenses(5). The financial profile of the jeepney in Metro Manila is shown in Table 12.

### 4. EFFECTS OF PARATRANSIT

Each transport mode has its positive and negative effect. Employment generation is the positive effect of paratransit and the effect on speed or capacity of road traffic includin g accident is its negative impact.

#### 4.1 Positive Effect

In the urban area, the transport sector including storage and/or communication provides a great number of job opportunities which accounts for 2% to 20% of the total labor force a t the national level. In India and Bangladesh the share of transport sector is remarkably h igh, 12% in India and 12.9% in Bangladesh, due to the labor intensive cycle rickshaw. About 10% of the total labor force in Manila was involved in the jeepney services. This percent was more in case of Chiang Mai (Bangkok), about 13-20%, in the minibus and samlor services( 2).

In Dhaka, Bangladesh, about 380,000 people are directly employed as rickshaw pullers, a nd another 80,000 are employed in ancillary services related to rickshaws, together accounti ng for nearly one fourth of all employment in metropolitan Dhaka. Motorized and non-motoriz ed public transport services together provided direct employment to 28,000 people in Patna, India, in the mid-1980s(6). Table 13 compares the employment generation by different modes in Patna, India, which shows that, 100,000 rupees (US\$4,167) investment in a conventional bu s system was estimated to produce 3 new direct jobs. If it is invested in the auto rickshaw system, 6 direct jobs were created. The same sum was estimated to create 75 jobs if invest ed in cycle rickshaw. Thus, paratransit accounts for the large share in providing employmen t for unskilled low income workers.

4.2 Negative Effect

The accident rate of paratransit modes which may be considered as its negative effect i s often claimed to be excessive in developing countries. Very little information has been o btained regarding the accident data of paratransit modes. In Ankara (Turkey) 54% of all urb an accidents involve a typical paratransit called "dolmus"(7). Results of the passengers su rvey (1990) in Bangkok reveals that almost a quarter of the total 727 respondents had experi enced accidents while riding on the hired motor cycles. Moreover, the traffic accidents stu dies conducted in Thailand by the Department of Highways (1990) indicates that ratio of numb er of accidents by hired motor cycles ranked highest, 25.6% and 21.8% in 1987 and 1988, resp ectively(8). Many of accidents involving the paratransit modes occur as a result of sudden stops made carelessly and incautiously to pick up or set down passengers in the outside lane of carriageway. Intense competition for passengers often gives rise to aggressive driving behavior, which in turn often leads to high accident rates.

The traffic mix of slow and fast moving vehicles are also another reason for accidents. In Dhaka (Bangladesh), it was reported that rickshaw contributed to only 2.3 % traffic acc idents as against the motorized modes such as cars (45.5%), buses (21.5%), trucks (18.6%), a uto rickshaws (5.9%) and motorcycles (5.5%)(9). But the actual figure of accidents involvin g rickshaw was unreported because of illegal status of rickshaw themselves and lack of insur ance claims.

The excessive working hours of paratransit drivers might be one reason for accidents. Controls on drivers' working hours are nonexistent or poorly enforced. For example, the ave rage driver's working hours for samlors, silors and hired motorcycles in Bangkok are 10.7, 1 3.3 and 13.7 hours per day(10). In some cases drivers have to work even more than 15 hours a day in order to make a living and/or to keep his employment.

Other negative effects due to excessive numbers of small motorized paratransit vehicles are reduction of the vehicle speed and decrease of the capacity of road which can cause app reciable congestion, thereby hindering conventional bus services. Their indiscriminate stop ping and starting may hamper the normal flow of the traffic. In Jakarta, opelet routes over lapped with city bus routes results in an adverse effect on the free flow of traffic. In te rms of road space utilization per passenger, it is estimated that a microbus is 4-5 times m ore inefficient than a conventional bus and 2-3 times than a mini bus. The bajaj or bemo wa s 10-13 times more inefficient than a bus(1). Another significant effect of paratransit was obtained on speed/flow relationship for Jakarta. The result showed that for low quality du al carriageway (width <10 meter), when the proportion of mikrolets increases from 10% to 25 %, the peak hour traffic speed reduces from 16.2 Kmph to 6.7 Kmph for peak hour traffic volu me of 1500 pcu/hr/lane. The Istanbul speed/flow relationship with dolmus also obtained the same results as Jakarta speed/flow relationship with opelet(11).

## 5. ADMINISTRATIVE CHARACTERISTICS OF PARATRANSIT

In order to overcome the negative impact by paratransit, the authorities in certain countries have imposed certain controls and regulations over the paratransit industry. These controls and regulations are mainly for maintaining smooth traffic flow and recently for environmental protection. Typical regulations by local authorities include restrictive controls on entry of new operators, restriction of paratransit operation in certain areas, control over financial liability requirements and licensing of drivers. Recently in Nepal, the Gover nment banned the import of diesel engine tempos for protecting the environment from polluted gases emitted by the tempo.

Restrictions on the total number of paratransit vehicles are usually imposed to protect conventional bus operators, or to keep overcrowding at terminals and on the roads to reason able levels. For example, the Department of Land Transport (DLT) in Bangkok has set limits for the number of registered units of samlor and silor which are 7,500 and 8,000 respectivel y(10). In Karachi, auto rickshaws were subjected to restrictions on new registrations from 1986 onwards(6). In a number of cities in India, Indonesia, and Bangladesh, restrictions ha ve been placed on the number of cycle rickshaw registrations that will be permitted, often f reezing registrations at a fixed level for many years. As a consequence of the license rest rictions, it is believed that a quite large number of illegal paratransits are in operation in these cities.

In recent years, authorities of some developing countries have restricted the operation of non-motorized paratransit in several areas of city. In Manila, the tricycles have been banned from main roads, and now operate mostly on smaller roads as feeder service. In Bangk ok, samlor and silor are not permitted to use expressways. The reason for these restriction s is that these slow vehicles impede the flow of traffic and disrupt the smooth flow of more efficient mode of transport.

In some cities without formal controls, paratransit operators' associations sometimes a dopt a self-regulatory role to ensure that supply and demand are kept in balance. There are no regulations in any of the developing cities regarding the stoppage, usage of lanes and f are structures of paratransit modes.

6. FUTURE OF PARATRANSIT

In the future, urban rail systems may relieve the transport and traffic congestion prob lems of developing countries. But this needs a huge amount of capital investment which is a Imost impossible for most of the developing countries. In such circumstances, paratransit m odes will continue its dominant role in the urban transport system. So it is necessary to u ndertake a number of actions which will result in more effective use of paratransit and impr oved urban mobility. It will not be possible to withdraw non-motorized transport from certa in cities in the near future, because of economical and political reasons due to its large e mployment generation effect. For such cities, it is necessary to segregate non-motorized tr affic from high speed motorized transport flows, and this segregation can be achieved by mak ing physical barrier on the road surface or providing individual lanes for non-motorized tra nsport such as becak lanes in Indonesia, or cycle rickshaw lanes in India and Bangladesh. t is better if these non-motorized modes could be restricted to feeder service only.

As long as motorized paratransit operates in mixed traffic, it cannot offer a higher le vel of service than private car; it is subject to the same congestion, delays, safety hazard s, and so on, as private cars. So priority treatment such as separate or special lanes for motorized paratransit should be provided where this is feasible. Alternately, its service m ay be confined to feeder roads only.

Recently, metering system taxi has been introduced in Bangkok. For "individual" type o f paratransit, it is better to introduce the metering system. Reasonable and controlled far es for the rest of the paratransit modes should be provided. Furthermore, stands or termina Is for paratransit would be useful to reduce hailing and stopping from nearly all points alo ng the streets which create not only delays to the queue vehicles but also is possible cause of accidents. Finally, in order to ensure the passengers' safety, comfort and good appeara nce of vehicles, it is better to prepare certain minimum specified design standards which in clude shorter body for easier maneuvering in traffic and parking, engine types other than di esel powered, seating standards, and so on.

### 7. CONCLUSIONS

The significant features of paratransit system in the cities of developing countries ar e their flexibility and door to door service. Their popularity as public transport cannot b e neglected as shown by that in Metro Manila; it carries two thirds of public transport pass engers. Certain physical and technical differences have been found in terms of their passen gers capacity, operating ranges, service pattern and regulatory frame works. As a private b usiness, the paratransit vehicles are managed and operated by typical small scale independen t enterprises, where mostly vehicles are rented on a daily basis. In some cities it generat es considerable employment opportunity and also does not require significant public resource s which are a major attraction in many cities of developing countries with shortage of fund S.

Even in the future, the role of paratransit as a transport mode cannot be underestimate d in the cities of developing countries, but unfortunately, there is no sufficient data in t his field in many countries. So future joint survey and research will be important and each country government may provide a wide range of public transport modes with special emphasis on paratransit system in order to provide an appropriate transportation service.

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# LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 1 TABLE 2	EXAMPLE OF CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM OF PARATRANSIT MODES IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES OPERATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF PARATRANSIT MODES IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES
TABLE 3	MODAL SHARE OF PASSENGERS WITH TRIP DISTANCE IN MANILA
TABLE 4	FREQUENCY OF BUS AND JEEPNEY IN MANILA
TABLE 5	SERVICE CHARACTERISTICS OF INDIAN PARATRANSIT
TABLE 6	PASSENGERS HANDLING CAPACITY OF PARATRANSIT MODES AND BUSES
TABLE 7	PERCENT OF VEHICLE OWNERSHIP IN DIFFERENT CITIES
TABLE 8	DISTRIBUTION OF OWNERS' FLEET SIZE (%)
TABLE 9	EXAMPLES OF FARE SYSTEM IN DIFFERENT CITIES
TABLE 10	FARE STRUCTURES OF PARATRANSIT MODES IN INDIA
TABLE 11	FINANCIAL CONDITIONS OF PARATRANSIT MODES IN BANGKOK (Baht)
TABLE 12	FINANCIAL PROFILE OF JEEPNEY DRIVER AND OPERATOR IN METRO MANILA
TABLE 13	COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT GENERATION BY DIFFERENT MODES IN INDIA

TABLE 1 EXAMPLE OF CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM OF PARATRANSIT MODES IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

	Non-motorized	Moto						
Country	Individual	Individual	Shared type	Collective type				
Bangladesh	R(2) Misuk(2)	Auto R(2-3)	Auto tempo(6-10)	-				
India	Tonga(2) CR(2) Hand R(1)	T scooter R(2) MCR(4)	Trekker(9)	Tempo(14)				
Indonesia	Dokar(2) Delman(2) Becak(2)	Bajaj(2-3) Ojek(2) Helicak(2)	Bemo(4 wheel)(10)					
Malaysia	Trishaw(2)	-	-	Bus mini(16)				
Nepal	CR(2)	Meter tempo(2)	Tempo(6-7)	-				
	Tonga(2-4)	MR(2)	-	-				
Philippine	Calesa(2) Pedal T(2)	T(2)	-	Jeepney(14-18)				
Sri lanka	-	Auto(2-3)	-	-				
Thailand	R(2) T(2)	Samlor(2-3) Hired MC(1)	Silor(6-8)	Pickup(14)				
Vietnam	Xiclos(2)	Selam(4-5)	-	-				
Notes: The values in the parenthesis indicate the capacity (person) of each paratransit mode s R = Rickshaw, M = Motor,T = Tricycle,C = Cycle,- = Not exist Source: (2)								

# TABLE 2 OPERATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF PARATRANSIT MODES IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

City/ Country	Modes	Daily Travel Km/Day	Avg.Pax Km	No Pax /Day		Pax. /Trip	Load Factor
Bangkok	Samlor	-	-	60	23.2	2.6	-
	Silor	-	-	58.3	18.1	3.2	-
	Hired Motorcycle	-	-	35.5	33.8	1.1	-
Bangladesh	Rickshaw	-	3.0-6.0	26-35	30-40	-	-

India Indonesia Philippines	Auto Cycle Becak Bajaj Bemo		20 70 70	4	010 010	- 46 23 - - 273	- 26 13 - - - 14	- 1.8 1.8 - - - 19.5	0.7 0.8 - - 0.6
Note: - =   Sources: (				)					
TABLE 3 M	ODAL SH	ARE OF PA	SSENGERS	WITH TRI	P DISTAN	CE IN -	MANILA		
Distance		Passenger							
(Km)		y % Bus				-			
2.6-5.0 5.1-7.5 76-100	1357 2891 1882 628	38 192 27 656	) 1 13 2 8 30 5 27 25 3 31 13	83 38 81	9 13 30 25 13 7 3				
TABLE 4 FI	Averag route	e hourly length (k	frequenc (m)	y (one wa	y) by				
Mode Jeepney		10 10-20 		>30 Av <u>q</u>  18 38					
	18 7		10	10 11					
Source: (14 TABLE 5 SI	,	Avg. Waiting	Avg.	Avg. Journey	Avg. I	 n-			
Modes		(Min)			(Km/hr	) 			
Cycle ricks Auto ricks Tonga Mini bus(3 Bus	haw(2)	3.0 - 11.7	13.1 16.9	9.9	12.6 27.0 - 17.9 16.3				
Notes :	age val in Ind	ues of 3		(2) = Av	erage va	 lues o	f 2 citie	es; (3	e) = Average values o
TABLE 6 P	ASSENGE	RS HANDLI			RATRANSI  Passenge		S AND BUS	SES	

Country/CityModes	Passengers Carried Daily	
		_

Bangkok	Samlor Silor Hired Motor cyc Bus(Reg.+Air.co Minibus		5 - 7800
India	Cycle rickshaw Auto rickshaw Bus		46
Manila	Jeepney	273	1584
	not available (5), (10), (15)		
TABLE 7 F	PERCENT OF VEHIC	LE OWNER	SHIP IN DIFFERENT CITIES
Mode/ (City)		wned by river	Rented by Driver Others*
Becak (Bar Becak (Jak Cycle rick	kshaw (India)#2 Manila) ang Mai) 7	3 0	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
#	= Drivers relat = The average v (3), (5), (15),	alues of	ends or employee-driven or cooperatives 7 cities
TABLE 8	STRIBUTION OF	OWNERS'	FLEET SIZE (%)
Mode (City	/) 1 2 3 4	5-9	10-29 30+
Becak (Bandung) Bemo	0 04 79 13 4 2		
(Malang) Jeepney (Manila)	55 15 7 4		19
Source: (2	2)		
TABLE 9 E	EXAMPLES OF FARE	SYSTEM	IN DIFFERENT CITIES
City	Mode		Fares/Trip/ Person
Bandung Bangkok	Becak Silor Samlor Hired-	B B B	Rp 50-100(3-6) Baht 7(29) Baht 10(41)
Chiang Mai Dhaka	Motor cycle Pickup	B F B F B B	Baht 6.5(27) Baht 2-7(8-29) Baht 2-3(8-12) - -
Delhi Jakarta	Auto rickshaw Cycle rickshaw Tonga Becak Bemo Bajaj Opelet	В	- - - Rp 76(4)

Karachi	Motor ri Tonga	ckshaw B B		
Nepal	Cycle ri Tempos	ckshaw E F	5	-
Manila	Meter te Jeepney	mpo B F		- Pesos 0.25(1.2) 1st 5 Km, 0.05 Pesos(0.22) additional Km.
Notes: Ex	change rat	e: US1\$ =		4.25 = Indonesian Rupiah 1865.38 = Indian Rupee 24 = Peso
s 22.45				; B = Bargained,
	Fixed; - (2), (10),		ot avai	lable
TABLE 10	FARE STRU	CTURES OF	PARATR	ANSIT MODES IN INDIA
Mode		Avg. Distance (Km)	Pax./	Trip
	45	4.0	1.9	342 (Cont 14 25)
rickshaw Cycle– rickshaw			1.7	(Cent 14.25) 153 (Cent 6.50)
Source: (*	15)			
TABLE 11	FINANCIA	L CONDITI	ONS OF	PARATRANSIT MODES IN BANGKOK (Baht)
ltems		Samlor	Silor	Hired- Motor cycle
Avg. Opera Revenue/Da Ave. Opera	ay	475.9	342.7	250.8
Expenses/I Fuel Expen	Day	319.8 85.3	194.1 96.6	112.3 52.3
Others(Ren Repair etc	c)	217.4	137.3	66.0
Operating (Excluding	Income g Expenses)	138.1	148.6	138.5
Source: (*		(\$5.69)	(\$6.13	5) (\$5.7) 
5001Ce. (	10)			
TABLE 12	FINANCIAL	PROFILE	OF JEEP	NEY DRIVER AND OPERATOR IN METRO MANILA
ltems				Operator
Daily Avg Daily Avg	. Revenue . Expenses	(Pesos) (Pesos)	397 302	133 46 4.23) 87 (\$3.87)
Source: (				
TABLE 13	COMPARISO			GENERATION BY DIFFERENT MODES IN INDIA
ltems		Public bus	: Mini bus	- Auto- Cycle- rickshaw rickshaw

No employees per	0.3	0.2	0.6	7.5
Rs 10,000 investment No employees per '000 pax. Kms daily output	1.3-3.3	0.8-1.3	13-14	40-60
Source: (7)				