

Cycling in Great Britain

Contents

Key points:	1
Introduction	3
National Cycling Strategy	3
Cycle Traffic	4
Characteristics of cyclists	6
Accidents involving cyclists	24
Bicycle crime	29
Data sources	30
References	33
Annex: The National Cycling Strategy	34

Key points:

Bicycle traffic:

- Annual traffic fell substantially from 24 billion kilometres in 1949, to 4.4 billion kilometres in 1994, although there was some revival from the mid 1970s to the mid 1980s.
- There was a slight increase in cycle traffic in 1995 to 4.5 billion kilometres.
- In terms of all road traffic, cycling declined from 37 per cent in 1949 to just 1 per cent in 1995.
- Cycling is most popular in the summer, with about a third more cycling traffic on the roads in July and August than in an average month.

Use of bicycles

- The overall average cycle mileage per person per year estimated by the National Travel Survey fell by more than a quarter from 1975/76 to 1993/95.
- 38 per cent of all households in 1993/95 owned a bicycle.
- On average, men do more than three times the annual cycle mileage of women.
- Cycle mileage by children fell by more than 40 per cent from 1975/76 to 1993/95.
- In 1993/95, commuting accounted for 47 per cent of cycle mileage for those of working age.
- About a quarter of journey stages travelled by bicycle are less than a mile, and another third between one and two miles. A quarter of car stages are less than two miles.
- Cycling is in the top five sporting activities for each age and sex. The percentage of General Household Survey respondents who reported having cycled in the previous year increased from 15 per cent in 1987, to 19 per cent in 1993.

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Cycling to work

- In 1991, 3.4 per cent of males in Great Britain usually cycled to work, compared with 2.4 per cent of females. The areas with the greatest proportions cycling to work were Cambridge, York and Oxford. In Cambridge, a quarter of men and nearly a third of women cycled to work.
- In Great Britain in 1991, half of all bicycle journeys to work by men, and two-thirds by women, had a 'crow-fly' distance of less than two miles.
- Nearly 7 per cent of people in households with no car cycled to work in 1991, compared to nearly 4 per cent in households with one car. These proportions were almost the same in 1981, but the proportion of households without a car fell from one in five to one in eight over this period.
- From 1994 to 1995, the estimated number of people who cycle to work in Great Britain increased by over 5 per cent, from 781 to 823 thousand.
- On average, about a quarter of bicycle journeys to work take less than 10 minutes, and two thirds take less than 20 minutes, Journey times are longer in London and the metropolitan areas.
- The mean time taken to cycle to work varies from 12 minutes in East Anglia to 25 minutes in inner London

Purpose-built cycle ways

- Of the 117 highway authorities in England and Wales, 48 had no purpose-built cycle ways in 1995. Shropshire had the greatest length of cycle way (130 km), followed by Durham (88km) and Berkshire (80 km).

Accidents

- The number of cyclists killed on the roads of Great Britain declined by 31 per cent between 1970 and 1990, and fell in every year from 1990 to 1994, before increasing sharply in 1995. The total fall from 1970 to 1995 was 43 per cent. The fall for those seriously injured was rather less, totally 29 per cent from 1970 to 1995.
- Male casualties outnumbered female casualties by four to one overall and by five to one for those aged under 20.
- Most casualties were caused in accidents involving cars, which accounted for 44 per cent of those killed and 73 per cent of those seriously injured.
- Accidents involving heavy goods vehicles were much more likely to be fatal. Overall, 4 per cent of serious casualties were killed, but 24 per cent of serious casualties involving a heavy goods vehicle were killed.
- Overall, about one in six cyclists observed in roadside surveys wore helmets. Usage was much higher than average in London, where over one in three wore helmets.

Bicycle crime

- Data on thefts of bicycles are available from the British Crime Survey. In 1993, it is estimated that there were over 6 bicycle thefts per 100 bicycle owners. This amounted to a total of nearly 600 thousand thefts, nearly three times more than were recorded by the police.
- About a third of bicycles stolen had been post-coded. 17 per cent of these were returned compared with 13 per cent of those without coding.

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Introduction

This report presents information about cycling in Great Britain, mainly at the national level. The first part looks at trends in cycle traffic and ownership and the characteristics of people who cycle. The second part looks at cycling to work, for which data are available for local districts. The final part looks at trends in cyclist casualties and casualty rates. It also compares casualty rates between modes using different measures of exposure.

National Cycling Strategy

Cycling is an economical, environmentally friendly and healthy mode of transport. It is also a realistic means of transport, especially for short local trips which make up many of our everyday journeys. The Government's statement of policy on cycling in June 1994 indicated an intention to make cycling easier, safer and more convenient. This would contribute to wider plans to reduce congestion and improve the environment.

In November 1995, the Department of Transport set up a Steering Group to bring forward a National Cycling Strategy. Membership of the Steering Group was drawn from voluntary organisations, commercial interests, local authorities and Government Departments. The Steering Group's terms of reference were to:-

- (1) identify mechanisms and factors for encouraging, facilitating and establishing bicycle use
- (2) ascertain existing constraints to cycle use and develop means of removing them
- (3) unlock necessary private and public sector resources
- (4) agree targets and indicators of progress
- (5) monitor and evaluate the strategy implementation

The Strategy was launched at a national conference in July 1996. It is a consensus document, expected to acquire a wide common ownership. It aims to establish a culture which favours an increase in the use of bicycles, develop good practice and seek out innovative, practical and effective ways of improving facilities for cyclists.

The National Cycling Strategy sets out objectives, targets and actions for achieving a dramatic increase in cycle use in the UK. A key aim is to work towards national targets for increased cycle use. It is thought realistic to seek to double existing levels of cycling by the year 2002. Local authorities are being asked to identify how they can contribute to realising the national target.

A National Cycling Forum is being established, to co-ordinate contributions to the Strategy, and to monitor progress on the outputs and targets. Reliable means will be needed of measuring both changes in cycle use, and key determinants and indicators of sustainability.

The statistics in this report are intended to inform debate and enable local authorities to compare cycling in their area with the national picture.

2. Cycling in Great Britain

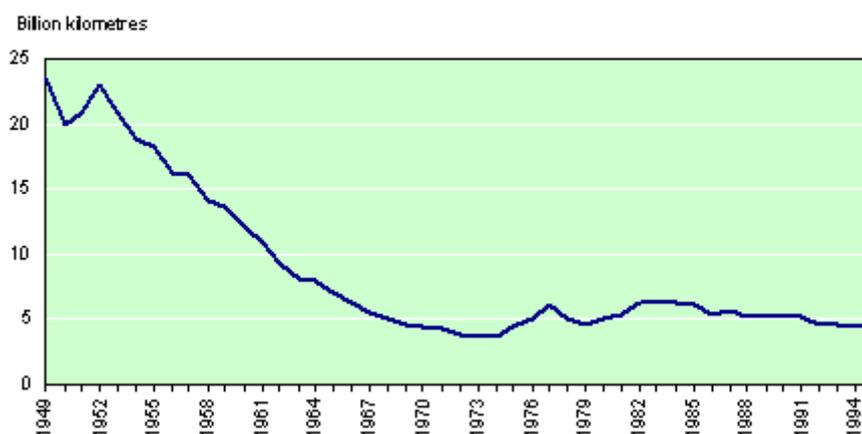
Cycle Traffic

Chart 1 shows trends in cycle traffic on the public road using data from the Traffic Census. Other cycle traffic, for example on off-road cycle routes, bridle paths and cross-country, is excluded.

The chart shows that annual cycle traffic fell substantially from the 24 billion kilometres recorded in 1949. The decline began in 1952 and continued in every year until 1973, when the world-wide energy crisis and domestic economic conditions may have been responsible for a modest turnaround. Having peaked between 1982 and 1984, cycle traffic fell steadily again, reaching 4.4 billion kilometres in 1994. There was a slight increase in 1995 to 4.5 billion kilometres.

In terms of all road traffic, cycling declined from 37 per cent in 1949 to just 1 per cent in 1995. During this period, increasing affluence led to greater choice in the available modes of transport to work.

Chart 1: Cycle traffic in Great Britain



Source: National Traffic Census, DoT

Table 1 shows that most cycle traffic is on minor roads (in 1995, 81 per cent), in marked contrast with other modes. Because of limitations of sample size, a reliable split of minor road cycle traffic into built-up and non built-up is not possible.

Table 1 Distribution of road traffic by type of road and mode: 1995

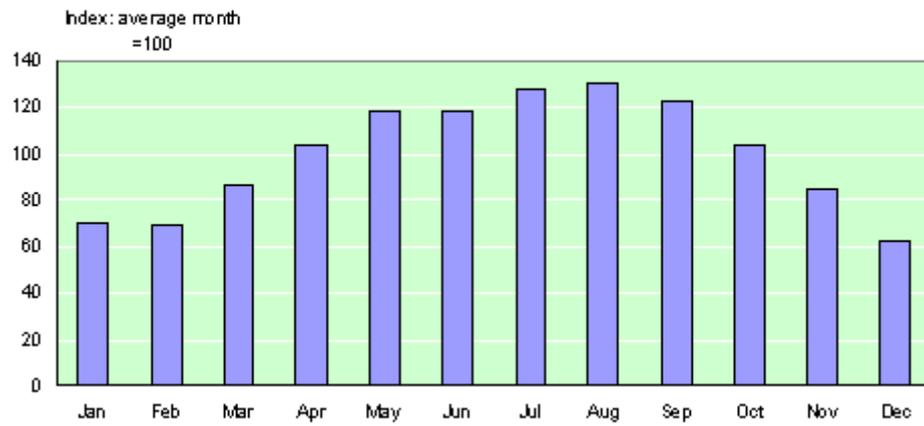
					Percentage
	Minor	Major built-up	Major nonbuilt-up	Motorway	All roads
Pedal cycle	81	14	5	-	100
Motorcycle	45	24	25	6	100
Car	38	19	28	15	100
Bus and coach	44	27	19	10	100
Light goods	38	18	29	15	100
Other goods	18	13	37	32	100

Source: National Traffic Census

Chart 2 shows cycling traffic for months in 1995. Cycling is most popular in the summer, with about a third more cycling traffic on the roads in July and August than in an average month.

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Chart 2: Bicycle traffic distribution by month 1995



Source: National Traffic Census, DoT

Characteristics of cyclists

Cycle Ownership

Table 2 is based on data from the National Travel Survey (NTS) and shows that cycle ownership grew strongly between 1975/76 and 1993/95, with cycles owned per person more than doubling. However, average mileage per cycle fell by nearly two thirds over the same period, leaving personal cycle use a quarter lower overall. It should be noted that because the NTS does not include travel off the public highway (except on tarmac cycle routes), it is not possible to identify any increase in off-road cycling with the growth in the market for mountain bikes.

Table 2 Trends in cycle ownership and usage: 1972/73 to 1993/95

	Percentage of households with at least one cycle	Cycles owned per 100 persons	Stages per person per year	Miles per person per year	Miles per cycle per year
1975/76	24	14	30	51	361
1978/79	29	18	27	46	254
1985/86	36	25	25	44	176
1989/91	36	27	21	41	153
1993/95	38	30	17	37	123

1 A journey consists of one or more stages. A new car or bicycle stage when there is a change of mode of transport.

Source: National Travel Survey

Overall, 38 per cent of households owned a bicycle. Households with children are much more likely to own cycles. In 1993/95, 54 per cent of households with one child and 69 per cent of those with two or more children owned cycles, compared with only 12 per cent for pensioner households and 38 per cent for other childless households.

Cycle ownership is strongly linked to household income. Overall, about a quarter of households in the lowest 40 per cent of incomes owned a cycle, compared to nearly half in the remaining 60 per cent.

Characteristics of cycle users and cycle journeys

Table 3 gives more detail on recent trends in cycle mileage showing the large disparities in cycle mileage between different age groups and the two sexes. In each survey period, men did more than three times the cycle mileage of women, and this gap widened from 1975/76 to 1989/91. This difference was less for those aged 10 or under, but much higher for those aged 11-20.

In each survey period, cycle mileage was highest in the 11-15 and 16-20 age categories, and then generally declined steadily with increasing age for both sexes. The exception is that women aged 30-59 cycled a greater average mileage than those aged 21-29.

Recent trends in cycle mileage by age and sex have been varied. There was a sharp decline between 1975/76 and 1985/86 for men aged over 60, but mileage has changed little since then. Mileage by children fell by more than 40 per cent from 1975/76 to 1993/95. This possibly reflects the greater traffic volumes on roads and the declining popularity of cycling to school. The fall was similar for both boys and girls aged up to 10, but there has been an even larger fall among girls aged 11-15.

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Table 3: Cycle mileage by age and sex: 1975/76-1993/95

Age	1975/76	1985/86	1989/91	1993/95	% change 1975/76 to 1993/95
Males					
All ages	79	70	67	59	-25
5-10	32	16	20	19	-41
11-15	236	199	198	138	-41
16-20	124	160	126	121	-3
21-29	64	87	88	94	47
30-59	74	66	71	64	-14
60+	59	28	29	27	-53
Females					
All ages	25	20	18	17	-33
5-10	18	14	12	10	-45
11-15	65	57	47	24	-64
16-20	29	45	36	31	6
21-29	24	27	15	16	-31
30-59	31	20	25	23	-25
60+	8	4	5	8	-8
All persons	51	44	41	37	-27

Source: National Travel Survey

For men aged between 21 and 29, mileage grew strongly over the period from 1975/76 to 1993/95.

Bicycles are mainly used for commuting and leisure travel. In 1993/95, commuting accounted for 47 per cent of cycle mileage for those of working age. Leisure travel accounted for 35 per cent. For those aged 5-15, 59 per cent of mileage was for leisure, and 20 per cent for education.

The increased proportion of leisure travel reflects the main recent change in the use made of cycles - the 1975/76 figure was 27 per cent of mileage (all ages). However, it should be noted that this may be an underestimate of the growth in leisure (see paragraph 3.1).

Table 4 shows the lengths of journey stages travelled by bicycle and car. Overall, about a quarter of bicycle stages are less than a mile, and another third between one and two miles. Less than one in ten are over 5 miles. Women cycle shorter distances than men; over a third of stages were less than one mile.

A large number of car stages are also short. Overall, a quarter of car stages are less than two miles - again there is a greater proportion of women making short car stages. There is considerable scope here for a change of mode from car to bicycle for these short stages.

Table 4 Average lengths of bicycle and car stages¹ 1993/95

	Under 1 mile	1 to under 2 miles	2 to under 5 miles	5 to under 10 miles	10 miles and over	All stages	Average stage distance
Bicycle							
Total	26.6	34.3	30.2	6.9	1.9	100.0	2.1
Male	23.1	32.4	33.4	8.8	2.4	100.0	2.3
Female	34.1	38.3	23.6	3.0	1.0	100.0	1.6
Car²							
Total	7.7	17.3	33.9	20.6	20.6	100.0	8.5
Male	6.7	15.3	32.8	21.1	23.8	100.0	9.6
Female	8.8	19.1	35.0	20.0	17.2	100.0	7.3

¹ A journey consists of one or more stages. A new car or bicycle stage starts when there is a change of mode of transport.

² Total stages for car drivers and passengers

Source: National Travel Survey

2. Cycling in Great Britain

In 1993, the General Household Survey asked respondents about sporting activities. Cycling featured in the top five activities for every age and sex grouping. The percentage who reported having cycled in the past year increased from 15 per cent in 1987, to 17 per cent in 1990 and 19 per cent in 1993.

Traffic Census estimates of cycle use compared with the NTS estimates

Because the NTS collects information on cycling in a travel diary, it can be used to provide information about trends in cycle use. These trends are not entirely consistent with those from the Traffic Census, and it should be noted that grossed up estimates of the total volume of cycle traffic from the NTS are lower than those from the Traffic Census (for 1992/94, around 20 per cent lower). This is partly because certain types of travel which are excluded from the NTS, such as travel by cycle couriers, are included in the Traffic Census.

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Cycling to work

Over 20 per cent of journeys made by adults are journeys to or from work. Because these journeys create congestion at peak periods, statistics on travel to work in fine area detail are important when planning transport provision. These are available at ward level from the decennial population censuses, and at regional level (annually, since 1992) from the Labour Force Survey.

Census data

1991 Census statistics show that in Great Britain nearly 700 thousand people (3 per cent of those working) used a bicycle as their usual mode of travel to work (see Table 5). For those living and working in the same district/borough, who would generally have shorter journeys, on average over 4 per cent cycled to work. Cycle usage was much lower in Wales and Scotland than in England.

Cycling to work by country (1991 Census)

Table 5: Cycling to work by country (1991 Census)

	thousands and percentage			
	Total residents cycling to work		Cycling to work in home district	
	Number	Proportion	Number	Proportion
Great Britain	695.6	3.2	582.7	4.2
England	652.0	3.4	542.8	4.7
Wales	15.4	1.5	13.5	1.9
Scotland	28.2	1.5	26.4	1.9

Source: ONS

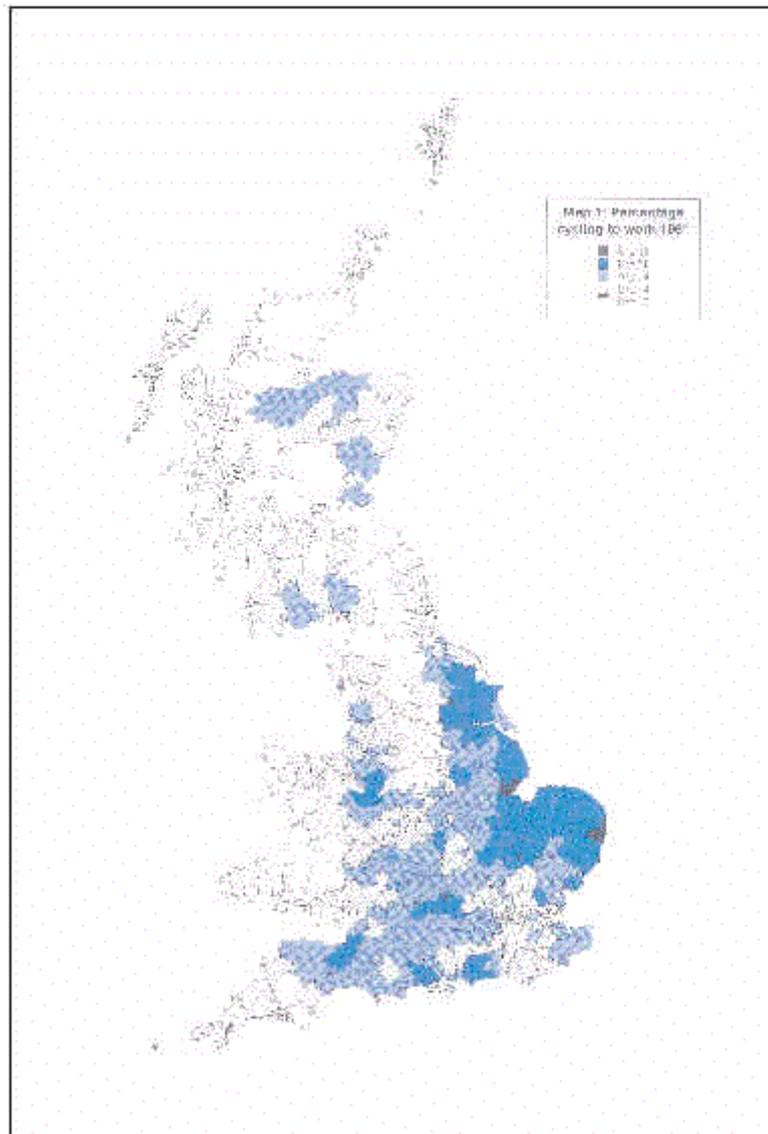
Nationally, proportions cycling to work fell from 4.4 per cent in 1971, to 3.7 per cent in 1981, and 3.2 per cent in 1991. This fall was greater for women. In England and Wales, for example, the proportion of women cycling to work fell from 3.6 per cent in 1981 to 2.7 per cent in 1991. For men, the equivalent fall was less, from 4.2 to 3.9 per cent.

Maps 1 and 2, show proportions cycling to work by local authority districts in 1981 and 1991. The decline is particularly apparent in central areas of England.

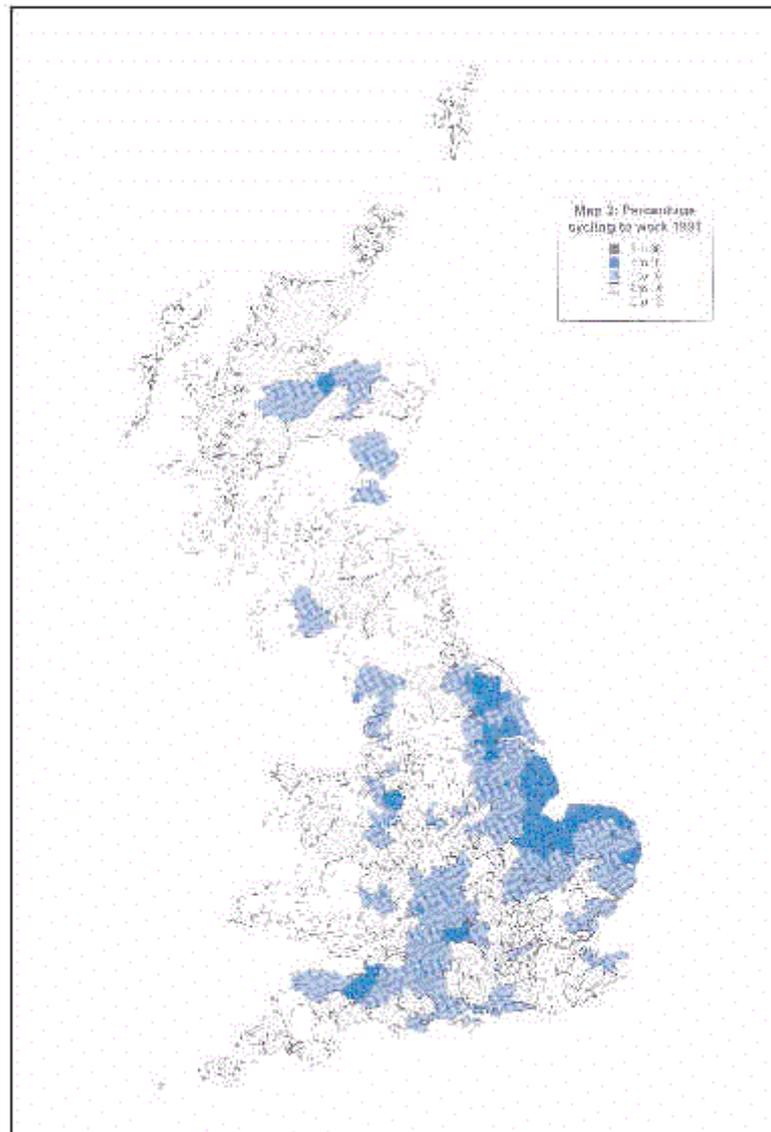
There were exceptions in about one in five areas to the general decline in cycling to work from 1981 to 1991. In particular, the proportion of residents cycling to work increased by more than a quarter in six inner London boroughs - Hackney, Islington, Southwark, Haringey, Lambeth and Tower Hamlets.

The wide variations between districts are evident in Maps 1 and 2. All of the 20 districts with the highest cycling to work rates in 1991 (Table 6) were in areas that are mainly flat, with 11 from East Anglia, Lincolnshire and Humberside alone. These areas also generally have less rain than the Great Britain average. Among the lowest 20, most were in south-east Wales and Scotland.

2. Cycling in Great Britain



2. Cycling in Great Britain



1991 cycling levels were generally lower among females than among males. On average 3.4 per cent of males in Great Britain cycled to work, compared with 2.4 per cent of females. About two thirds of those cycling to work were men.

In about one in six districts, a greater proportion of women cycled to work than men. East Cambridgeshire, Boothferry, South Holland, Fenland, and Cleethorpes had the highest ratios of female to male proportions cycling to work, with the female proportion close to double the male proportion. In absolute numbers, more women cycled in these areas, which all had a high overall proportion cycling to work.

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Table 6: Districts with the highest and lowest proportions of residents cycling to work

Rank	District	Proportion	Rank	District	Proportion
1	Cambridge	28.2	439	Rosendale	0.5
2	York	19.0	440	Merthyr Tydfil	0.5
3	Oxford	17.4	441	Cynon Valley	0.5
4	Boston	15.5	442	Western Islands	0.4
5	Gosport	15.1	443	Rhymney Valley	0.4
6	Kingston upon Hull	14.1	444	Clydesdale	0.4
7	Waveney	12.5	445	East Kilbride	0.4
8	Crewe & Nantwich	11.9	446	Eastwood	0.4
9	Scunthorpe	11.7	447	Motherwell	0.4
10	Peterborough	11.4	448	Strathkelvin	0.4
11	Great Grimsby	10.8	449	Derwentside	0.4
12	Hereford	10.7	450	Kilmarnock and Loudoun	0.3
13	Boothferry	10.6	451	Cumnock and Doon Valley	0.3
14	Ryedale	10.4	452	Hamilton	0.3
15	Norwich	10.3	453	Blaenau Gwent	0.3
16	Fenland	10.2	454	Rhondda	0.2
17	South Holland	9.9	455	Shetland Islands	0.2
18	Barrow-in-Furness	9.7	456	Monklands	0.2
19	Cheltenham	9.3	457	Cumbemauld and Kilsyth	0.2
20	Portsmouth	9.2	458	Iwerchyd	0.1

Source: 1991 Census, ONS

There are many factors that influence the choice of mode of travel to work. Cycling is many times more popular in the flattest areas of Great Britain than elsewhere. Although it is obvious that it is easier to cycle in flat areas, the extent of the differences are surprising, and have policy implications. It may be more difficult to try to encourage people to cycle to work in areas with hilly terrain.

The three areas with the greatest proportions cycling to work were all university towns in flat areas—Cambridge, York and Oxford. In Cambridge, a quarter of men and nearly a third of women cycled to work in 1991. Cambridge also had very similar proportions cycling to work in 1981 and 1991, and the falls in York and Oxford were rather less than the national average.

Students are not included in these data (unless they are also working), but it is likely that their traditionally high use of bicycles influences the usage of non-students, and that more facilities are available to cyclists in these areas. It is also possible that congested streets and parking difficulties in these popular tourist cities discourage car use. Section 6 considers cycling facilities in some areas with high cycle usage.

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Distance cycled to work

Table 7: Distance cycled to work by region of residence: 1991

	Total cycling to work	thousands/ cumulative percentage		
		'Crow-fly' distance		
		<2 km	<5 km	<10 km
GB total	696	50	85	96
males	453	41	81	95
females	243	67	92	97
Metropolitan areas				
Inner London	26	22	64	95
Outer London	32	36	73	90
Tyne & Wear	6	34	79	95
South Yorkshire	8	47	83	96
West Yorkshire	9	33	76	94
West Midlands (former met county)	19	34	81	97
Greater Manchester	21	35	75	94
Merseyside	11	43	82	96
Non-metropolitan areas				
Rest of Northern region	17	48	82	94
Rest of Yorks & Humberside	53	53	90	97
East Midlands	66	53	87	96
East Anglia	72	59	91	97
Rest of South East	168	55	87	96
South West	75	54	88	96
Rest of West Midlands	36	55	89	96
Rest of North West	34	48	85	96
Wales	15	49	81	94
Scotland	28	52	85	96

Source: 1991 Census, ONS

The distance travelled to work is also important. In Great Britain in 1991, half of all bicycle journeys to work by men, and two-thirds by women, had a crow-fly distance of less than 2 km. Bicycle journeys to work were longer in metropolitan areas, particularly inner London, probably because people usually live further from their workplace in these areas. In the non-metropolitan areas, the highest proportion of short journeys was in East Anglia. In outer London, 10 per cent of bicycle journeys to work were 10 km or more.

Relationship between car ownership and cycling to work

In most areas, high car ownership levels reduce the use of bicycles. For people who live in households with no cars, the proportion cycling to work in 1991 was about twice that in households with one car (see chart 3). Similarly, households with the use of two or more cars, had about half the proportion cycling to work of those with one car. The Great Britain proportions of those cycling to work in households with no cars, one car and two or more cars were 6.7 per cent, 3.7 per cent and 1.5 per cent respectively.

The exception was inner London. Not surprising, cycling levels still reduced with increasing household car ownership, but not so significantly as elsewhere. Inner London differs in many respects from other parts of the country; in particular, household car ownership levels are low, and public transport provision is very good.

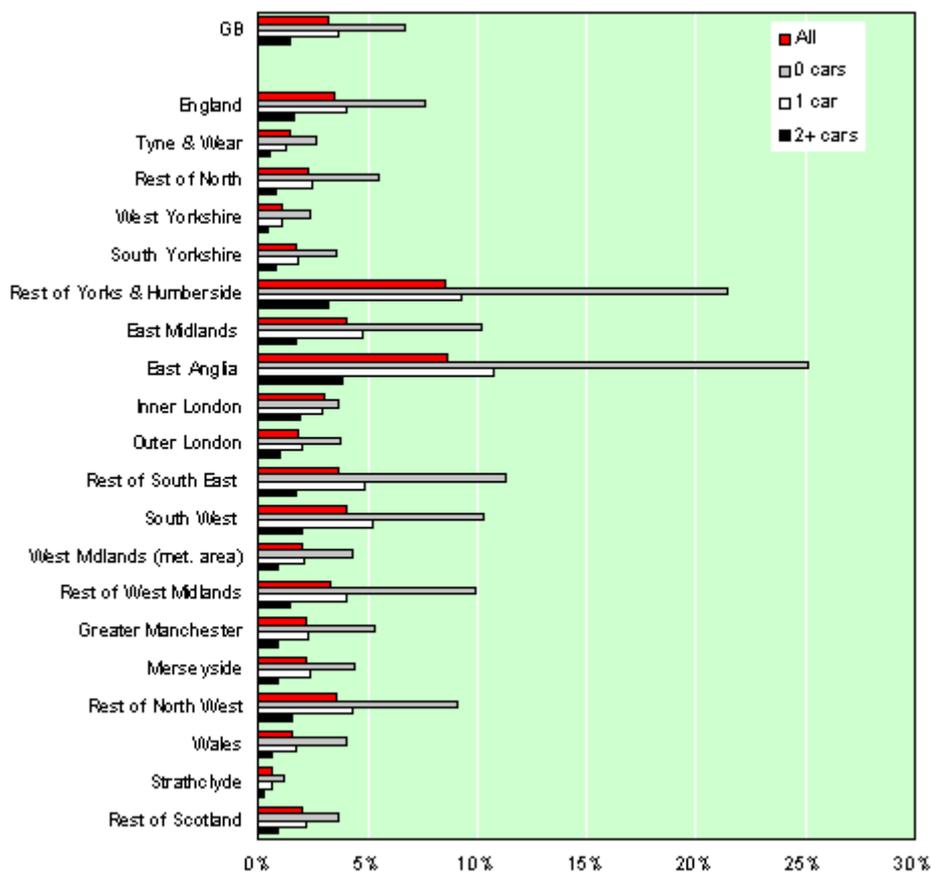
The proportions cycling to work in households with the same levels of car ownership stayed almost constant from 1981 to 1991. For example, in England and Wales in 1981, 7.5 per cent of people in households without a car cycled to work. This proportion was 7.4 per cent in 1991. For those in households with one car, 3.9 per cent cycled to work in both 1981 and 1991. However, there has been

2. Cycling in Great Britain

a large change in household car ownership. From 1981 to 1991, the proportion of those working in England and Wales who lived in households without a car fell from 21 to 12 per cent.

In Great Britain as a whole, about one in eight people working at the time of the 1991 Census lived in households without access to a car. This proportion was as high as one in three in inner London, but only about one in twelve in East Anglia, the South West, and the South East (excluding London).

Chart 3: Proportions cycling to work by household car ownership



1995 Labour Force Survey data

Since 1992, data from the Labour Force Survey (LFS) has allowed monitoring of the change in numbers cycling to work between censuses (Table 8). Data are not absolutely comparable, since the LFS is a sample survey. Raw LFS data are grossed to give national data, using factors which allow for age and sex. In contrast, the available 1991 Census data do not allow for under-enumeration. Since under-enumeration was concentrated among young men, who cycle more than other people, it is likely that Census data understate the true cycling levels.

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Table 8: Cycling to work: 1991-95

	thousands / percentage	
	Total cycling to work in GB	Percentage
Census		
1991	696	3.2
Labour Force Survey		
1992	774	3.6
1993	753	3.6
1994	781	3.7
1995	823	3.8

Source: ONS

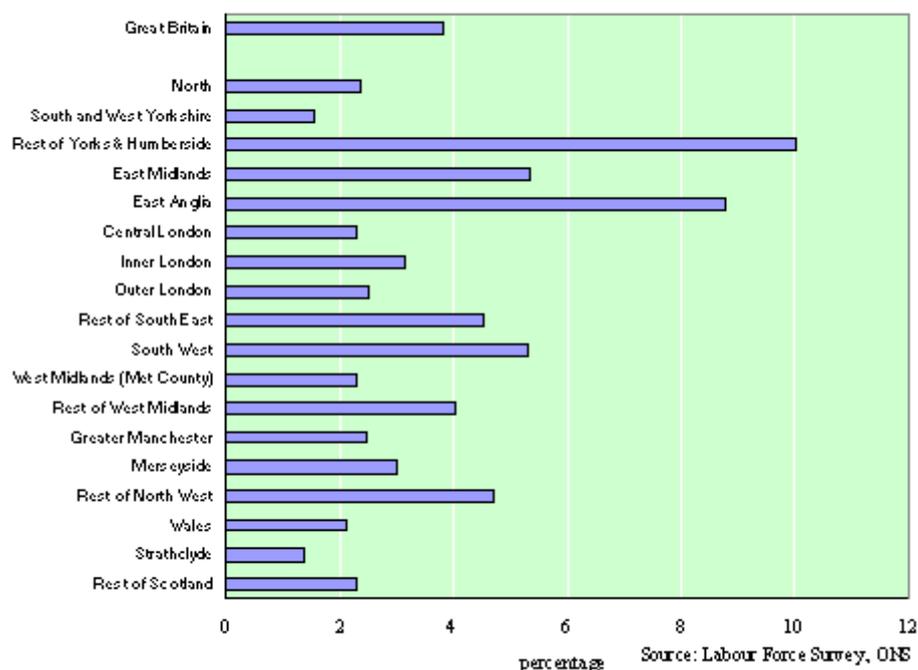
From 1994 to 1995, the estimated number of people who cycle to work in Great Britain increased by over 5 per cent, from 781 to 823 thousand.

The sample size of the LFS is such that data are generally available for regions, and also for the former metropolitan counties, and for inner and outer London. However, the sample sizes are too small in two metropolitan areas to show cycling data separately. Therefore Tyne and Wear has been combined with the rest of the North, and West and South Yorkshire have been combined in this analysis.

Chart 4 shows the proportions cycling to work by region of workplace in Autumn 1995. The proportions in East Anglia and the non-metropolitan areas of Yorkshire and Humberside are over double the Great Britain average. All the London and metropolitan areas have lower than average proportions, although a slightly greater proportion cycle to work in inner London than the other metropolitan areas.

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Chart 4: Proportions cycling to work by region 1995



The LFS also has data on the time taken to cycle to work (Table 9). On average, about a quarter of bicycle journeys to work take less than 10 minutes, and two thirds take less than 20 minutes. Journey times are longer in London and the metropolitan areas.

Table 9: Distribution of travel times¹ to work by bicycle: 1995

	Cumulative percentage				Mean time (minutes)	Number (thousands)
	<10 minutes	<20 minutes	<30 minutes	<40 minutes		
Great Britain	24	67	86	96	15	821
Area of workplace:						
North	26	67	86	96	0	26
South and West Yorkshire	26	42	76	95	0	20
Rest of Yorks & Humberside	24	67	92	98	14	62
East Midlands	27	71	84	92	15	83
East Anglia	28	79	96	99	12	73
Inner London	10	33	60	84	0	4.5
Outer London	17	57	81	93	18	33
Rest of South East	27	72	88	97	14	183
South West	28	70	89	99	14	95
West Midlands (former met. County)	14	60	87	95	18	24
Rest of West Midlands	26	71	90	99	14	39
Greater Manchester	12	52	81	97	18	23
Merseyside	20	69	82	97	16	13
Rest of North West	25	73	91	97	14	43
Wales	23	68	81	94	16	20
Strathclyde	20	54	78	89	18	11
Rest of Scotland	27	75	93	97	14	26

¹ Excludes people who work at home, or with no fixed workplace; those on Government-related related training schemes; and people whose workplace is not available.

Source: Labour Force Survey, ONS

2. Cycling in Great Britain

The mean time taken to cycle to work varies from 12 minutes in East Anglia to 25 minutes in inner London. The average bicycle time is less than other modes because bicycle is mainly used for shorter journeys to work (see paragraph 4.12). The mean all modes journey time to work in GB is 24 minutes, compared to 15 minutes by bicycle.

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Cycling in London

London Area Transport Survey

Respondents to the 1991 London Area Transport Survey (LATS) Household survey were asked whether they had used a pedal cycle within the last 12 months. Results are shown in Table 10. Overall, one in five said they had cycled in the last 12 months. The proportion was slightly lower in inner London than in outer London, mainly because children, the age group most likely to cycle, cycled much less in inner than outer London.

Table 10: London residents who had cycled within last 12 months, by age and sex: 1991

	percentage					
	Inner London		Outer London		All London	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Age group:						
5-16	43	32	57	44	52	40
17-24	31	20	29	17	30	18
25-44	24	15	23	14	23	14
45-59	14	7	16	10	15	9
60-64	8	4	13	6	11	6
65 or over	4	1	7	2	6	2
All ages	23	14	25	15	25	15

Source: LATS

On a typical weekday, about 2 per cent of London residents used bicycles, and between them made about 285 thousand cycle trips (Table 11). About a third of these were trips to and from work. Twenty per cent were for leisure purposes, 16 per cent for shopping (or personal business) and 13 per cent for education.

Table 11: Number of cycle trips, by purpose, on a typical 1991 weekday: London residents

Trip purpose:	thousand trips				
	Inner London	Outer London	All London	Fest. of outer area ¹	All LATS area
To and from work	43	53	96	15	111
Employer's business	15	14	29	3	32
Shopping	14	32	46	10	56
Education	13	23	36	7	43
Leisure ²	25	33	58	10	68
Other	8	13	21	5	26
All purposes	118	168	285	50	335

¹ The area between the London boroughs' boundary and the M25 orbital motorway

² Includes leisure, entertainment, sport and social trips

Source: London Area Transport Survey, DoT

There were considerable variations in the use of cycles in different parts of London (Table 12). Cycling tended to be most common in the South and West of London, and least common amongst the residents of Central London and Docklands. LATS uses a conventional division of the London area into ten Sectors. The Outer West Sector had the highest proportion of cyclists, followed by the Outer South and Inner West. These three sectors also recorded the highest numbers of cycle trips (0.06 to 0.08) per person per day.

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Table 12: Percentage of cyclists, and distances cycled, by LATS Sector

Sector ²	Percentage cyclists ¹	percentage/kilometres	
		Cycle distance per person per weekday (kms)	Cycle distance per cyclist per weekday (kms)
Central London	16	0.08	0.51
Docklands	16	0.12	0.77
Inner South	19	0.17	0.90
Inner West	23	0.18	0.79
Inner North	16	0.16	1.02
Outer South East	20	0.08	0.40
Outer South West	22	0.14	0.62
Outer West	26	0.17	0.64
Outer North West	18	0.10	0.54
Outer North East	15	0.07	0.49
All London	20	0.13	0.67

¹ People (excluding children under 5) who have used a cycle in the last 12 months

Source: London Area Transport Survey, DoT

² See footnote for sector definitions

Although fewer people in inner London claimed to cycle, those that did tended to cycle further. The sectors with the highest mean distance per cyclist were the Inner North, the Inner South and West, and Docklands.

Central London is the area roughly bounded by the main-line railway termini. It includes the whole of the City of London, and parts of Westminster, Southwark, Lambeth, Kensington & Chelsea, and Camden.

Docklands: parts of Southwark, Newham, Tower Hamlets, Lewisham, Greenwich

Boroughs in remaining sectors exclude those parts in central London and Docklands

Inner South: Lewisham, Southwark, Lambeth, Wandsworth

Inner West: Hammersmith & Fulham, Kensington & Chelsea, Westminster, Camden

Inner North: Haringey, Newham, Tower Hamlets, Islington, Hackney

Outer South East: Bexley, Bromley, Greenwich

Outer South West: Croydon, Sutton, Kingston upon Thames, Merton

Outer West: Richmond upon Thames, Hounslow, Hillingdon, Ealing

Outer North West: Brent, Harrow, Barnet, Enfield

Outer North East: Havering, Barking & Dagenham, Redbridge, Waltham Forest

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Table 13: Cycletrips per person per weekday, by age group, by household car ownership

	Households without cars	Households with cars	All households
Age group:			
5-16	0.031	0.063	0.054
Inner boroughs	0.020	0.025	0.023
Outer boroughs	0.046	0.077	0.072
17-24	0.086	0.052	0.063
25-44	0.085	0.038	0.050
45-59	0.076	0.035	0.045
60-64	0.025	0.034	0.031
65 or over	0.015	0.012	0.014
All ages	0.054	0.041	0.045

Source: London Area Transport Survey, DoT

Adults in households without cars were more likely to cycle than those in car owning households (Table 13). Those in the 25 to 59 age group in households without cars made more than twice as many cycle trips per person than in those households with cars. However, over London as a whole, children in households without cars cycled less than those in car-owning households. This is probably because children's cycling is very dependent on the area where they live, and tends to be least common in the inner city areas where car ownership is also relatively low.

London Journey Times Survey

Table 14 shows results from the first complete cycle of the London Journey Times Survey (JTS). The same journeys were surveyed by car and by bicycle (and also by public transport). Door-to-door journeys in central and inner London took less time by bicycle than by car. The difference was most marked in central London, where the car journeys took nearly half as long again as the same bicycle journeys.

In all cases, the on-road car speed was higher than the equivalent bicycle speed. However, for car journeys in inner London, a significant part of the total journey time (over a third in central London) was spent walking to and from parking places at the beginning and end of each journey. Thus the bicycles advantage in inner London traffic is not its greater speed but the fact that bicycles can usually be left close to a journey's destination. There is scope for further improvement with the provision of more safe places to leave bicycles in central London.

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Table 14 Bicycle and car journey time and on-road speed by area of London

Year	Central	Inner		Outer		Radial
		Short	Long	Short	Long	Short
	1993	1994	1994	1994	1995	1993
Average journey time (minutes)						
Bicycle	19.0	18.0	48.3	20.3	40.6	37.0
Car	27.8	22.1	49.6	17.7	32.0	40.1
Mean on-road speed (mph)						
Bicycle	8.4	10.0	10.1	9.7	11.0	8.9
Car	9.1	10.5	11.0	13.2	16.9	10.4
Mean crow-fly distance (miles)						
	1.7	2.1	5.7	2.3	5.4	3.9
Total number of journeys						
	240	160	160	160	140	160

Source: Journey Times Survey, DoT

Other London data

The number of people who cycle into central London during the morning peak period (7-10 am) has been recorded in annual surveys since 1969. The number recorded fluctuates slightly from year to year, but the level in the early 1990s (9 thousand a day) has been about three times as high as it was in the early 1970s (about 3 thousand).

In contrast, in the early 1970s, about 170 thousand people entered central London by car, and 10 thousand by motorcycle. Both these modes showed increases in the early 1980s, but since the peak in 1982, the numbers entering by both car and motorcycle have declined, to 145 and 11 thousand respectively.

24-hour traffic flows are also recorded for all vehicles across cordons around central London, inner London, and the boundary of Greater London. Numbers again fluctuate from year to year, but bicycle traffic in London has not followed the national downward trend noted in paragraph 2.2.

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Districts with high bicycle use

Data on travel to work (section 4) highlight the large differences between different areas in the numbers of people who cycle regularly. Some of these differences may be attributable to factors such as topography and climate which are outside the control of the local authorities. However, some authorities have policies in place to help the cyclist, although a possible problem in urban areas is the conflict between the needs of cyclists and pedestrians. The Cyclists Touring Club (CTC) has collected some case studies, which suggest ways in which cycling may be encouraged.

Cambridge is well known as a cycle-friendly city, and is also flat. It has many schemes in place, including some footways shared with pedestrians, cycle lanes with and against the flow of other traffic, and a £2.8m bridge for use by cyclists and pedestrians to cross railway tracks and divert cyclists to safer routes. Against the downward national trend, cycle use remained constant from 1981 to 1991. However, increasing cycle casualties give cause for concern.

The proportion of cyclists in all traffic crossing a cordon around Oxford city centre rose from 9 per cent in 1972 to 21 per cent in 1982. However, the proportion of city centre trips by bicycle fell from 26 per cent in 1984 to 19 per cent in 1994. As well as aiming for general traffic reduction, Oxford actively promotes cycling, with cycle routes and parking facilities. It also has a target to increase cycle use by 50 per cent by 2000. Oxford is reasonably flat.

In York, which is also reasonably flat, cycle use has been fairly constant in the last decade, and cycle accidents have declined by a third. York City Council is concerned about the growth in commuting by car, and aims to reduce this from 35 per cent in 1991 to 31 per cent in 2000. This would be achieved by increasing the proportions walking and cycling.

Nottingham is a hilly city, with a proportion cycling to work in 1991 of 3 per cent, slightly less than the national average. However, this proportion was maintained from 1981. It has an extensive and generally popular cycle network, but there is recognition that a general programme of traffic restraint is necessary for a significant modal shift to cycling.

Leicester is moderately hilly, but had a proportion cycling to work in 1991 which was similar to the national average of 4 per cent, and which it maintained since 1981. Recent progress is encouraging, with a 54 per cent increase from 1989 to 1995 in the number of cyclists passing through the city's central cordon, and a decline in cycle casualties.

Purpose-built cycle ways

Each highway authority in Great Britain submits an annual return of road lengths to the Department of Transport. These returns include the length of purpose-built cycle ways. These do not include routes marked off for cyclists as part of the road carriageway. Of the 117 highway authorities in England and Wales, 48 had no purpose-built cycle ways in 1995. The total length in England and Wales was 1131 km. In absolute terms, Shropshire had the greatest length of cycle way (130 km), followed by Durham (88 km) and Berkshire (80 km).

The average ratio of cycle ways to local roads was 0.4 per cent. Table 15 shows the areas with a ratio of 1 per cent or more. Half of these were in London, or the other metropolitan areas.

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Table 15: Purpose-built cycle ways

Rank		Purpose-built cycle ways (kilometres)	<i>percentage of local roads</i>
1	Salford	30.3	4.2
2	West Glamorgan	62.6	3.2
3	Berkshire	80.0	2.4
4	Shropshire	130.0	2.3
5	Durham	88.0	2.3
6	Mid Glamorgan	61.0	2.1
7	Newham	7.6	2.1
8	Ealing	10.5	2.0
9	Cleveland	40.1	1.8
10	Isle of Wight	12.8	1.6
11	Newcastle	15.3	1.5
12	Enfield	7.8	1.5
13	Cambridgeshire	63.5	1.3
14	Hammersmith	2.8	1.3
15	Oxfordshire	49.8	1.3
16	Trafford	8.8	1.3
17	Avon	55.9	1.2
18	Hertfordshire	50.5	1.1
19	Kensington and Chelsea	2.0	1.1
20	Merton	3.4	1.0

Source: Road Lengths in Great Britain, DoT

Accidents involving cyclists

Measures of safety

The number of people killed or seriously injured provides a very simple measure of the danger of travel by a particular mode of transport. However, it makes no allowance for the number of people using the particular mode of transport, or the distance travelled. These can be taken into account by calculating casualty rates. The most commonly used rates are based on the two measures of exposure which are generally readily available: numbers in the population and vehicle-kilometres. Other rates are also used; such as per trip or per hour, but reliable data are less readily available.

Rates per population are useful when comparing casualties by age and sex, or casualties by geographical area, because they show the extent to which the number of casualties is a result of different sizes of population. Their main limitation is that they make no allowance for the relative use made of a mode, and do not properly reflect the exposure to the risk of a road accident. In addition, regional comparisons can be distorted because of the confounding influence of other factors such as vehicle ownership, variation in road types, and climate. Bicycle use varies widely by age, sex and area, as has been shown in earlier sections of this report.

Rates per vehicle-kilometre are more useful when considering the relative safety of operation of a particular type of vehicle (or their drivers) and in comparisons of casualties by road type (major and minor roads; built-up and non built-up areas). However, from the perspective of passenger safety, such rates do not allow for differences in vehicle passenger capacity nor differences in occupancy.

An assessment of passenger safety for different modes of passenger transport is better based on estimates of passenger exposure (passenger-kilometres) to accident risk rather than on vehicle exposure (vehicle-kilometres). Estimates of passenger-kilometres for cars, motorcycles and bicycles are derived by applying average occupancy rates for each of these modes from the NTS and other sources to the traffic census estimates of vehicle-kilometres.

Trends in cyclist casualties

Although it is known that many serious cycling injuries are not reported to the police (see paragraph 9.12), the level of reporting of these injuries may not have changed significantly in recent years, and trends in casualties may not be unduly biased. Table 16 and Chart 5 show killed and seriously injured (KSI) totals since 1970.

2. Cycling in Great Britain

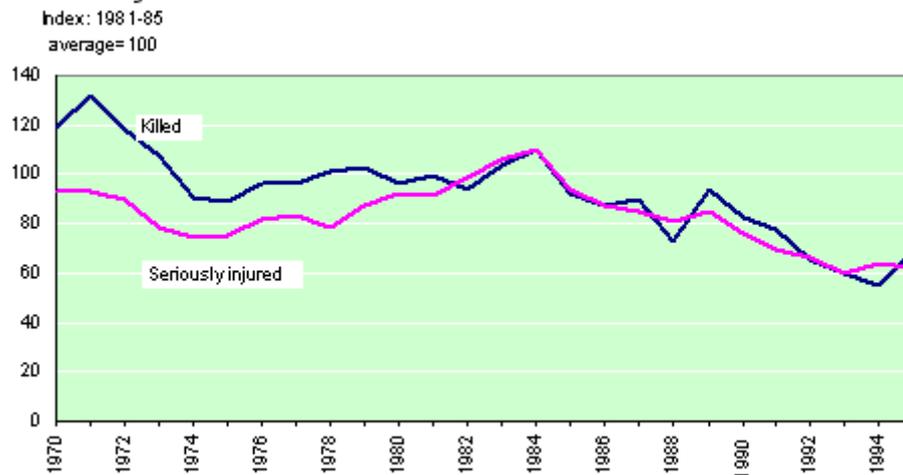
Table 16: Pedal cyclist casualties by severity: 1970-1995

	Killed	Seriously Injured	Total KSI	Percentage of those killed in KSI	KSI rate per 100 million km
1970	373	5,253	5,626	6.6	129
1975	278	4,286	4,564	6.1	103
1980	302	5,234	5,536	5.5	109
1985	286	5,366	5,652	5.1	93
1990	256	4,344	4,600	5.6	88
1991	242	3,946	4,188	5.8	81
1992	204	3,787	3,991	5.1	85
1993	186	3,610	3,796	4.9	84
1994	172	3,828	4,000	4.3	91
1995	213	3,753	3,966	5.4	89
1981-85 average	312	5,711	6,023	5.2	98
<i>Percentage change from:</i>					
1970 to 1995	-43	-29	-30		-32
1981-85 baseline to 1995	-32	-34	-34		-20

The number of cyclists killed on the roads of Great Britain declined by 31 per cent between 1970 and 1990, and fell in every year from 1990 to 1994, before increasing sharply in 1995. The total fall from 1970 to 1995 was 43 per cent. The fall for those seriously injured was rather less, totalling 29 per cent from 1970 to 1995.

The proportion killed out of those who were either killed or seriously injured (KSI) has fallen from about 7 per cent in 1970 to about 5 per cent in 1995, perhaps because of the use of cycle helmets, better hospital treatment, or the reduction of vehicle speeds in urban areas.

Chart 5: Bicycle casualties 1970-95



As Chart 1 shows, bicycle traffic was similar in 1970 to 1995 (although it was higher in the 1980s). The KSI casualty rate per 100 million bicycle kilometres fell by nearly a third over this period.

In 1987, the Government set a national target to reduce road casualties by one third by the year 2000, using the 1981-85 average as the baseline. This target has been achieved for KSI cycling casualties.

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Table 17: Pedal cyclist casualties killed or seriously injured by age and sex: 1993-95 average

Age	Average casualties per year			Casualties per million population		
	Male	Female	Total ¹	Male	Female	Total
0 to 4	20	3	23	11	1	6
5 to 7	137	20	157	119	18	70
8 to 11	321	75	396	224	54	139
12 to 15	526	107	634	364	78	225
16 to 19	330	59	388	246	46	149
20 to 24	318	83	401	155	42	100
25 to 59	1,237	303	1,540	92	23	58
60 and over	253	77	330	51	11	28
All ages ²	3,180	740	3,921	115	26	69

1. Excludes sex not reported

2. Includes age not reported

Source: Road Accident Statistics Great Britain, DoT

Cyclist casualties are not evenly distributed by age and sex (Table 17). Male casualties outnumbered female casualties by four to one overall and by five to one for those aged under 20. The highest casualty rate is between the ages of 12 and 15: 364 per million for boys and 78 per million for girls. Both these figures are three times the average all ages rate per head of population for their sex.

Although Table 17 describes the age and sex characteristics of the casualties, it does not provide information on the risk of injury that cyclists expose themselves to or their propensity to be injured. These two concepts cannot be separated from available data, even when different levels of cycle travel are accounted for. A high rate per vehicle-kilometre may be the result of cyclists using more dangerous roads, or an inability to cycle safely. In order to compare age and sex groupings, relative data are given in Table 18, in index form, with the overall number of casualties per bicycle-kilometre set at 100.

For males the trend is clear - young children suffered the most injuries per kilometre and then the rate declined with increasing age, with those aged 60 or more having a slightly higher risk of injury than other adults. A similar pattern occurred for females, with the exception of those aged 20 to 24. This exception may well be due to small sample bias for this age group.

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Table 18: Relative pedal cyclist KSI rates by age and sex: 1995

The number of casualties KSI per cycle-kilometre for both sexes and all ages = 100

Age	Male	Female	All ¹
0 to 4 ³	107
5 to 7 ³	709	..	626
8 to 11	343	161	287
12 to 15	123	174	130
16 to 19	109	75	105
20 to 24	78	107	89
25 to 59	74	56	71
60 and over ³	101	..	94
All ages ²	105	82	100

1 Excludes sex not reported

Source: DoT

2 Includes age not reported

3 Data insufficiently reliable for some cells

Table 19 shows the different rates of injury per passenger-kilometre for five modes of travel. Motorcycles were the most dangerous mode in this respect, with 1,510 KSI casualties per billion passenger-kilometres. Walking and cycling were about half as dangerous, with car, taxi and bus travel many times safer.

Table 19: Passenger killed and seriously injured rates by mode: 1994

	Number KSI	Billion. passenger -kilometres	Rate: KSI per billion pass. kms
Pedal cycle	4,000	4.4	910
Walk	12,924	18.2	710
Motorcycle	6,665	4.4	1,510
Car and taxi	23,891	570.7	40
Bus and coach	752	43.0	20

Source: DoT

Accidents with other road users

Table 20 shows details of accidents involving cyclists and other road users. Most casualties were caused in accidents involving cars, which accounted for 44 per cent of those killed and 73 per cent of those seriously injured. Accidents involving heavy goods vehicles were much more likely to be fatal. In 1994, 4 per cent of KSI casualties were killed, but 24 per cent of KSI casualties involving a heavy goods vehicle were killed.

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Table 20: Other vehicles involved in bicycle accidents: 1994

	Killed		Seriously injured	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Total cyclist casualties	172	100	3,828	100
No one else involved	12	7	331	9
Accidents with a pedestrian	0	0	14	0
Accidents with one other vehicle:				
Bicycle	1	1	37	1
Two-wheeled motor vehicle	1	1	72	2
Car	76	44	2,799	73
Bus or coach	7	4	66	2
Light goods vehicle	14	8	191	5
Heavy goods vehicle	43	25	134	4
Other vehicles	3	2	26	1
Accidents with two or more other vehicles	15	9	155	4

Cycle helmets

Research into the wearing of cycle helmets was carried out on behalf of the Transport Research Laboratory in 1994. Overall, about one in six cyclists observed in roadside surveys wore helmets. 17 per cent of females wore helmets, but only 15 per cent of men. Children were more likely to wear helmets - about 16 per cent of boys, and nearly 22 per cent of girls wore helmets.

Usage was much higher than average in London, where 38 per cent wore helmets.

About 400 cyclists were interviewed about wearing helmets. Although 55 per cent owned a helmet, only 46 per cent ever wore one. Of those who ever wore a helmet, about half wore it at all times when cycling.

Both ownership and wearing of helmets varied with age. Children were more likely to own helmets (about 60 per cent) than adults. Less than half of those aged 24 or less who ever wore a helmet, wore it all the time, compared with over three quarters of those helmet-wearers aged 25 or more.

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Bicycle crime

Data on thefts of bicycles are available from the British Crime Survey. In 1993, it is estimated that there were over 6 bicycle thefts per 100 bicycle owners. This amounted to a total of nearly 600 thousand thefts, nearly three times more than were recorded by the police. Only 15 per cent were recovered.

Between 1981 and 1993, bicycle thefts increased by 175 per cent, substantially more than the increase in bicycle ownership over this period (see Table 2). It is likely that the types of bicycles which have become fashionable over this period are more attractive to thieves - larger BMX and mountain bikes were about twice as likely to be stolen.

Most bicycle owners also own locks, but do not use them all the time. About a quarter of bicycles were generally left unlocked, and about a half of all bicycle owners admitted leaving bicycles unlocked for short periods.

However, locking bicycles does not guarantee security; 37 per cent of bicycles stolen in 1993 were locked, and a further 5 per cent were in locked premises. Bicycles fitted with the more secure D/U type locks were also stolen - about 8 per cent of the total.

About a third of bicycles stolen had been post-coded. 17 per cent of their owners had their bicycles returned, compared with 13 per cent of those without coding.

Nearly half of daytime thefts, and over three quarters of night-time thefts, were from inside or near the home. About a quarter of thefts were of bicycles left on the street, although few bicycles were left on the street for long periods of time.

Data sources

Traffic Census

The Traffic Census provides estimates of traffic volumes (vehicle-kilometres) by road class and vehicle type. Off-road travel is excluded from the survey. Estimates of traffic are built up from counts of vehicles at randomly selected points on the road network. These are converted into estimates of annual average daily flows and then, using data on road lengths, into vehicle-kilometres.

Road Length Survey

The Department collects annual data on road lengths for each highway authority. These are used in conjunction with the Traffic Census in estimating traffic. In addition, data are collected on purpose-built cycle ways.

National Travel Survey

The National Travel Survey is a household survey which provides information about personal travel and the factors which may affect it. Information about the household, the individuals in it, and the vehicles they own are collected by interviewers. Each member of the household also completes a diary of their travel for seven consecutive days.

Between 1965 and 1986, the NTS was conducted five times on an ad hoc basis. Since July 1988, it has been a continuous survey; around 3,500 households (achieved sample) are surveyed annually in Great Britain with three years' data being combined in order to produce reliable results. Certain types of travel are excluded from the survey: these include children's play; travel while making commercial deliveries (for instance, by cycle couriers or mail deliveries) and travel off the public highway.

General Household Survey

The General Household Survey includes data on participation in sporting activities, including cycling, every three years.

Population Census

The population censuses collect data on mode of transport to work every ten years. Because the postcode of the workplace is collected, data are available by ward of workplace, and also in matrix form by both area of residence and area of workplace.

For these questions a sample of 10 per cent of completed forms was coded. No other data source has as much area detail, but cycling statistics in areas with small populations may be unreliable because of the sample coded.

Those who had a paid job in the week before census night in April 1991 were asked to tick a box to show how the longest part, by distance, of the persons daily journey to work is normally made. For a person using different means of transport on different days, show the means most often used.

Readily available published tables from the 1991 Census include mode of transport to work by sex (including hours worked for females) by:

- district of residence or district of workplace
- region by crow-fly distance travelled
- region by household car ownership

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Labour Force Survey

Since 1992, the autumn quarter of the Labour Force Survey has included questions on mode of transport to work, and the time taken to travel to work. Results are available by region of residence and region of workplace, and also for the metropolitan areas of the regions. Although this is a large survey (60,000 households per quarter), numbers are too small in some regions to give reliable estimates of the less frequently used modes, such as cycling.

Respondents not working at home are asked:

How do you usually travel to work? with a list of possible modes offered. They are also asked

How long in total does it usually take you to travel from home to work?

Road accident statistics

The police collect information about road accidents on the public highway where at least one person is injured. Bicycle casualties on off-road cycle ways are not included.

Information recorded includes details about general matters relating to the accident, such as road type, together with details about each vehicle involved in the accident, and each person injured.

Injuries are categorised by severity into fatal, serious and slight. A fatal injury is one where the victim dies within 30 days of the accident. A serious injury is one where the victim requires hospital treatment. Other minor injuries, such as sprains, cuts and grazes are classified as slight injuries.

Many road injury accidents are not reported to the police. This is particularly true for accidents involving pedal cycles. A hospital-based study of casualties was carried out by the Transport Research Laboratory in 1984-85. It found that 74 per cent of slight injuries and 61 per cent of serious injuries sustained by pedal cyclists were not reported to the police, though no fatalities went unreported. Given that the situation is certainly worse for non-hospital injuries, the data in this paper relate to casualties who were killed or seriously injured only.

London Area Transport Survey

The 1991 London Area Transport Survey consisted of two core surveys: a large household survey (about 2 per cent of households within the M25 area) and roadside interview surveys. In addition, there were surveys of passengers on public transport, and a programme of traffic counts. The LATS study area for the Household survey extended out to the M25, but most results in this report are restricted to the London boroughs.

The large sample size means data are available for smaller areas in London than from any other source, with the exception of travel to work data from the population census.

This survey followed similar exercises in London in 1962, 1971 and 1981.

London Journey Times Survey

This is a new survey, conducted for the first time in 1993. It is intended to provide a basis for monitoring long-term trends in average door-to-door journey times in different parts of London. The same journeys are travelled by car, bicycle and public transport.

British Crime Survey

The British Crime Survey (BCS) is a face-to-face survey of about 15,000 people aged 16 or over living in private households in England and Wales. The first survey was in 1982 and is now every two years. The survey asks about victimisation in the previous year and other crime related issues.

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Acknowledgements

Sections 2, 3 and 7 of this report are based on a paper prepared by Jim O'Donoghue for the 1993 Velo-City conference, which was published in the conference papers.

We are also grateful for data and advice provided by colleagues in other branches of the Strategy and Analysis Unit, particularly in STC2, STC3, STC5, STD1 and STD5.

2. Cycling in Great Britain

References

- Department of Transport, Accident Fact Sheet No. 8: Pedal Cycle Casualties
- Department of Transport, Journey Times Survey 1995, HMSO
- Department of Transport, Road Accidents Great Britain 1996, HMSO
- Department of Transport, Road Lengths Great Britain 1995 edition, HMSO
- Department of Transport, Road Traffic Statistics Great Britain 1996 edition, HMSO
- Department of Transport, The 1993/95 National Travel Survey Report, HMSO
- Department of Transport, Transport Statistics Great Britain 1995, HMSO
- Department of Transport, H. Collings Comparative accident rates for passengers by mode of transport
Transport Statistics Great Britain 1979-89, HMSO
- Department of Transport/ London Research Centre, Travel in London, HMSO
- Home Office, British Crime Survey 1994, (unpublished analysis)
- Mathew D, More bikes- Policy into Best Practice, Cyclists Touring Club 1995
- Nottinghamshire County Council, 1993 Velo-City conference papers
- OPCS, 1991 Census Workplace and Transport to Work, HMSO (3 volumes)
- OPCS, 1993 General Household Survey, HMSO
- Taylor SB, Halliday ME Cycle helmet wearing in GB Transport Research Laboratory Report 156,
1996
- Travers Morgan, Cycling on the Continent, Paper for Local Authority Cycle Planning Group, October
1992

Annex: The National Cycling Strategy

Key Strategic Outputs

The vision - more cycling

Objective: To increase cycle use

Mechanism The implementation of the National Cycling Strategy

The central target: Double the number of trips by cycle (on 1996 figures) by end 2002

Quadruple the number of trips by cycle (on 1996 figures) by end 2012

Local targets: Local authorities and other transport providers and trip generators to set local targets which will contribute to the central targets to increase cycle use

Planning - to make places accessible by cycle

Objective: To achieve convenient cycle access to key destinations

Mechanism: A broader and more robust application of the Planning Policy Guidance Note 13 (PPG13) philosophy

Output 1: Department of the Environment /Department of Transport, in association with local authorities and other Government Departments, to develop further advice and best practice on location of developments and provision for cycling

Mechanism: Maximise opportunities for combining cycling with public transport

Output 2: Partnerships between operators and local authorities to ensure provision for the secure parking and carriage of cycles

First steps - improving safety

Objective: Improve cycle safety

Mechanism: Focus action through new road safety targets. Review the options for a realistic cycling safety target

Output 3: Identify in the forthcoming consultation on road safety targets beyond the year 2000, the possibility of having a target for cycling safety (by exposure) which is consistent with the central aim of increasing cycle use

Mechanism: Local Safety Scheme programmes to provide for cycling and identify and address hazards confronting cyclists

Output 4: The overall content of the Local Safety Scheme programmes to reflect the extent of casualties to vulnerable road users, and to include assessments of vulnerable road user casualty patterns

Getting there - road space and priority

Objective: Provide for increased cycle use within all local highways and traffic management schemes

Mechanism: Apply a recognised "Cycle Audit" procedure to all schemes

Output 5: Initial guidance to local authorities on "cycle audit" by end 1997

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Objective: Design for safe and convenient cycle use of the road network

Mechanism: All relevant guidance to reflect the principles of "Cycle-friendly Infrastructure"

Output 6: A commitment to conduct an ongoing review and revision of all design guidance

Objective: Reallocate road space to cycling

Mechanism: Review the current road network in all urban areas and produce an implementation plan for a cycle-friendly environment

Output 7: Local highway, planning, and public transport authorities to conduct strategic cycle reviews and produce "Local Strategies for Cycling" by end 1999

At the destination - cycle parking

Objective: Cycle parking facilities to be available at all major destinations, including town centres, shopping developments, educational establishments, hospitals and leisure facilities.

Mechanism: Local authority provision of parking, in partnership with the private sector

Output 8: Local authorities to concert a programme of cycle parking provision to be completed before 2002

Output 9: Private sector establishments to review their cycle parking arrangements

Objective: Cycle parking facilities to be available at all major destinations

Mechanism: Planning requirements for cycle parking provision

Output 10: Local planning authorities to establish cycle parking standards for development plans by the end of 1998

Security - tackling cycle theft

Objective: Reduce cycle theft - by improving cycle security

Mechanism: Develop a standard for cycle security devices

Output 11: Agree a set of graded standards for cycle security devices by the end of 1996

Objective: Reduce cycle theft - by improving recovery

Mechanism: Commercial bicycle registration schemes to be included in the police directory for access by Police Forces via the Police National Computer

Output 12: Establish a working group on cycle registration in 1996 to report to the National Cycling Forum by the end of 1997

Culture shift - changing attitudes

Objective: Raise awareness and expertise amongst transport providers, service providers and employers

Mechanism: "Think Bike" in other transport, environment and quality of life programmes

Mechanism: Promotion of proven good practice in cycling provision through professional training and development courses

2. Cycling in Great Britain

Output 13: All relevant professional institutions to review training courses and ensure that entry requirements and Continuing Professional Development include an understanding of cycling issues

Output 14: Establish the collection and dissemination of examples of good practice in cycling provision

Objective: Raise the status and awareness of cycling - amongst potential cyclists and other road users

Mechanism: Use publicity and participation events to spread the message that cycling is a practical, safe and enjoyable form of daily transport

Output 15: Extend cycling promotions such as National Bike Week, Green Commuter Plans, "Travelwise" and other relevant public campaigns

Objective: Encourage and enable cycling among school children

Mechanism: Improve traffic management and safety measures on routes to schools, and provide supporting cycle training programmes

Output 16: Double the number of children cycling to and from school

Objective: Fully recognise and encourage cycle use for business trips

Mechanism: Establish a fair and agreed cycle allowance rate

Output 17: Issue new guidelines to employers for an agreed cycle allowance rate

Resources - The drive-chain of change

Objective: Unlock financial resources to meet the Strategy objectives

Mechanism: Funding mechanisms to reflect current objectives for environmental improvement and health. Cycling plans to be rewarded, particularly where they form part of an overall transport strategy which will encourage transfer from the private car

Output 18: Monitor, maintain and develop the cycling rewards in transport and other funding mechanisms

Objective: Unlock staff resources to meet the Strategy objectives

Mechanism: Shift in staffing to take responsibility for cycle policy and audit of related works

Output 19: Every local authority to consider responsibilities and staff time for cycling policy and provision

Output 20: Department of Transport to consider the staff resources required to meet the new policy objectives

Objective: To make best use of existing infrastructure and resources and to integrate cycling into other programmes

Mechanism: Ensure cycling is considered in other transport, regeneration, and environmental programmes

Output: 21 Central Government, Government agencies, local authorities, transport providers and large organisations to consider the impact of their activities and expenditure decisions on travel choice

2. Cycling in Great Britain

The road ahead - directing and monitoring action

Objective: Progress the National Cycling Strategy

Mechanism: Establish a standing group to steer and monitor progress on the Strategy

Output 22: Set up a National Cycling Forum, chaired by the Minister for Local Transport, to produce an annual progress report

Output 23 All local authorities to liaise with local cycling groups and regularly assess progress towards local cycling targets

Objective: Monitor the results of the National Cycling Strategy

Mechanism: Establish reliable methodologies for surveying cycle use, measuring its determinants and monitoring sustainable mobility

Output 24: Review the data sources on cycle use, the range of determinants and indicators of sustainability, and make improvements by end 1997