

**ASSESSMENT OF LIVELIHOOD IMPACT OF STREET TRADING IN BIDA,
NIGER STATE**

BY

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**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL,
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ABSTRACT

Rapid population growth and the urbanization of poverty and unemployment have engendered the global growth in informal economic activities, including street trading. However, despite the livelihood advantages of street trade, several existing studies have focused on the adverse effects of the practice, thus tilting policies towards anti-street trading. Therefore, the livelihood impacts of street trading have been under-explored. This study fills this identified research gap. This study aimed at assessing the livelihood impacts of street trading in Bida with a view to determining the livelihood security of the traders and the objectives were to appraise the socio-demographic characteristics of street traders in the study area; examine the economic characteristics and nature of street trading; assess the spatial characteristics of street traders; evaluate the livelihood effects of street trading; and establish the relationship between participation in street trading and livelihood improvement. Descriptive research design was adopted for the study. Primary sources and methods of data collection were used. Purposive sampling was used to administer structured questionnaire on 420 street traders in the study area; while descriptive and inferential statistical techniques were used to analyse the data collected with the aid of Statistical Package for Social Sciences. It was found that street trading was dominated by the active labour force irrespective of the socioeconomic attributed of the traders. It was also found that access to formal support was considerably low among the street traders; although there was a statistically significant relationship between initial and current financial capital of the traders ($X^2 = 4728.563$, $p = <.0005$, $df = 750$). Furthermore, street traders experienced tenure insecurity of their trading spaces on the one hand, and inadequate trading spaces on the other. In addition, it was found that the length of participation in the trade was a significant determinant of livelihood asset accumulation ($R^2 = .811$; $df = 26$; $p = <.005$), livelihood diversification ($X^2 = 35.097$; $df = 15$; $<.005$) and business expansion ($X^2 = 117.967$; $df = 15$; $<.005$). The study therefore recommends provision of adequate organized and secure trading spaces for the traders; provision of formal support and enlightenment on livelihood diversification. The study concludes that street trade is a viable livelihood strategy whose formalization can reduce poverty and unemployment.

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CHAPTER ONE

1.0

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Rapid increase in global population and consequent urbanisation are some of the major defining features of the 21st century. It has been noted that for the first time in history, more than 50% of the global population is urbanised (Bloch *et al.*, 2015; Rouhana and Bruce, 2016). This rapid population growth and urbanisation are predicted to continue into the foreseeable future, with much of the increase envisaged to result in less developed countries, particularly in Asia and sub-Saharan Africa where population grows by 5% per annum, thus doubling every thirty years (Sanni and Ipingbemi, 2008). In Nigeria, more than

50% of the population is urban and this is projected to reach 57% in year 2025 (UNDP, 2010; Bloch *et al.*, 2015). However, urbanisation in Africa has been unplanned, a situation that involves the unprecedented growth of urban centres without commensurate level of infrastructural, human and economic development to improve the wellbeing and quality of life of urban residents.

The unprecedented rate of urbanisation in Nigeria is closely linked to lop-sidedness in development where emphasis has been laid on urban centres (Sanni and Ipingbemi, 2008; Adedeji and Ibem, 2010) which creates the perception that urban life is better; thus forcing rural dwellers to migrate to urban areas. In most cases, the expectations of the rural-urban migrants (about abundance of lucrative white-collar jobs and better living conditions) are always not translated into reality. This has resulted in the menace of urbanisation of poverty. In Nigeria, for instance, it has been reported that more than 74% of the population is poor

(Okpe and Abu, 2009); while the rate of urban poverty is estimated at 36%, up from 10.03% in 2003 and 34.1% in 2009 (World Bank, 2018). Similar problem to the menace of poverty is the problem of unemployment. For example, it has been estimated that Nigeria has an unemployment rate of about 49% (UNDP, 2010), while the figure is even higher if underemployment is taken into consideration. Adedeji and Ibem (2010) have noted, as a result, that only about 30% of the Nigerian urban population enjoys a good standard of living. Owing to the aforementioned low standard of living in Nigerian urban centres, Popoola *et al.* (2016) have argued that Nigerian urban centres are among the lowest in terms of Global Liveability Index. This has made the urban poor individuals and households create self-employment which manifests in form of street trading amongst others. Specifically, urban poverty and unemployment or underemployment pushes the urban poor into participating in informal sector activities such as street trading or vending in order to ‘eke-out’ a living.

Timalsina (2011a) emphasised that the livelihoods of the people is contextually determined by the prevailing circumstances around them. Lee (2008) pointed out that livelihood can only be considered as sustainable if the poor and vulnerable groups who operate in the marginal and informal sectors are protected. Consequently, the protection and recognition of the interests and rights of the informal sector employees is a vital strategy towards ensuring all-round sustainable development.

Street trading is the largest livelihood activity in the informal sector (Turner and Schoenberger, 2011). To buttress this claim, Mengistu and Jibat (2015) reported that street trading is the major employer of labour in Africa where over 50% of the urban labour force is employed in the informal sector. Similarly, Chukuezi (2010a) noted that majority of the

urban population in developing countries are employed in the informal sector, particularly in street trading. Street trading accounts for up to 70% of trading activities in Africa (Mazhambe, 2017); 90% of trading in Ghana (Clarke, 2005) and more than 40% of employment in Nigeria (Chukuezi, 2010a). This calls for concerted and in-depth research on the economic contributions of street trading to cities in Northern Nigeria in general, and Niger State in particular. Similarly, the foregoing arguments points to the need to study the livelihood impacts of street trading, especially in the context of street traders in Bida, Niger State, Nigeria.

1.2 Statement of Research Problem

Street trading is categorised in the literature and policy cycles as informal (Jimu, 2006; Chukuezi, 2010a; Abe, 2013; Steel, Ujoranyi and Owusu, 2014) and illegal (Anjaria, 2006; LaPorta and Schleifer, 2008; Timalina, 2011b; Timalina, 2012) economic activity. As a result, street traders lack policy support (Bhowmik, 2005), experience livelihood insecurity (Suharto, 2003), face recurrent harassments (Abe, 2013) and experience negative perception in the eyes of the public (Njaya, 2015). These are some of the practical problems faced by street traders in Bida in addition to consistent eviction and demolition of their structures by the Niger State Urban Development Board (NSUDB).

Similar to the aforementioned, most of the researches conducted on street trading are lopsided in presentation by focusing on the adverse effects while neglecting the potential values and contributions of street trading activities. For example, Adedeji *et al.* (2014) reported that street trading affects the free flow of traffic and leads to the erection of illegal structures; Umar

(2009) maintained that street trading can lead to girl-child abuse; while Nurudeen *et al.* (2014) contended that street food vending leads to the outbreak of epidemics. However, few studies have highlighted, although with less emphasis, the positive contributions of street trading. Such studies include Dipeolu *et al.* (2007), Adedeji and Ibe (2010), Amoo *et al.* (2012) and Yeboah *et al.* (2015). Notwithstanding, these few studies on the economic contributions of street trading did not give adequate attention to the practice of street trading as a means of livelihood. This bias in research on street trading may be partly responsible for the negative treatment they receive from physical planning authorities.

Furthermore, the practice of street trading has been studied along diverse perspectives. For instance, Evans (2006), Skinner (2008) and Amankwaa (2015) studied street trading from a gender perspective; Dipeolu *et al.* (2007) approached the issue of street trading, particularly street food vending, from the dimension of its income generating potentials; and Olurinola *et al.* (2014) studied street trading from the occupational health perspective. However, none of these studies devote their attention to the livelihood perspective of street trading.

To cover this important gap apparently neglected or under-explored in scholarly studies and advocacy on the benefits of street trading, this study seeks to investigate the livelihood impacts of street trading in Bida, with a view to contributing to knowledge on the benefits of street trading in Nigeria. This is particularly so because there is an apparent gap in knowledge on the livelihood impacts of street trading particularly in Northern Nigeria. This is despite the widespread practice of street trading in Nigerian cities, including urban centres in Northern

Nigeria where Bida is located. This study, therefore, seeks to close this observed knowledge-gap by assessing the livelihood impacts of street trading in Bida, Nigeria.

1.3 Aim and Objectives

1.3.1 Aim

The aim of this study is to assess the livelihood impacts of street trading in Bida with a view to determining the livelihood security of the traders.

1.3.2 Objectives

To achieve the aim stated above, the objectives of the study are to:

- i. Examine the socio-demographic characteristics of street traders in the study area
- ii. Appraise the economic characteristics and nature of street trading in Bida
- iii. Assess the spatial characteristics of street traders in Bida
- iv. Assess the livelihood impact of street trading in Bida

1.4 Hypothesis

H₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between the initial financial capital and the current financial of the street traders in Bida.

1.5 Scope

1.5.1 Area scope

This study focuses on street trading within the geographic boundaries of Bida, Niger State,

Nigeria. The study covers street trading across the twelve neighbourhoods of Bida, Namely: Eso, Ndazabo, Project Quarters, Poly Area, Bangbara, Dokodza, Banwuya, Banman, Bangaie, Government Reserve Area (GRA), Banyagi and Rahmatu Dangana. In other words, the study covers the geographic boundaries of Bida Local Government Area since the Local Government does not extend beyond the limits of Bida town.

1.5.2 Subject scope

- i. The location of street trading and the spatial distribution of street traders: The study considers spatial clustering of street traders and how this affects street trading. Similarly, the impacts of distance decay on street trading are investigated. It also examines the size of the street trading site, as well as the tenure security issues faced by street traders. For the purpose of comprehensiveness, itinerant street traders are excluded from this study.
- ii. The socioeconomic conditions of street traders: The study examines the socioeconomic characteristics of street traders and how these characteristics shape their livelihoods.
- iii. The economic characteristics and nature of street trading: The study investigates the types of products sold on the streets, the pricing of street products, street traders' selling pattern and the quantity of products displayed by street traders. Street trading activities that are of interest to this study are legitimate business activities, particularly food vending, clothes and shoes selling, cosmetics and household

wares. Consequently, street-based vocational activities such as cobbling, furniture and welding form part of the focus of the study. iv. Livelihood assets: This includes assets, ownership and control of livelihood assets and the extent of social capital among street traders.

1.6 Justification for the Study

Street trading has attracted considerable attention in recent scholarly and policy researches. Some of the researchers such as Umar (2009) proposes the total illegalisation and elimination of street trading; while others advocate for its incorporation into the urban governance and management frameworks (Timalsina, 2011a, 2011b; Adaawen and Jorgensen, 2012; Timalsina, 2012). Similarly, many scholarly researches are campaigning against the criminalisation of street trading owing to its contribution to job creation and poverty reduction (Holland, 2015; Anetor, 2015; Mengistu and Jibat, 2015; Yeboah *et al.*, 2015).

This research serves as an eye-opener to the urban policymakers, policy enforcement agencies and physical planners on the positive roles and values of informal economic activities in general, and street trading in particular. While highlighting the dangers and insecurity in street trading, it also enlightens a wide range of people, particularly the urban poor, unemployed and underemployed persons on the opportunities in the informal economic sector and how these opportunities can be explored to improve their economic status, and consequently, their wellbeing. Furthermore, the outcome of the study creates a reorientation of the negative public perception of street trading.

1.7 The Study Area

1.7.1 Geographic setting of Bida

1.7.1.1 Location of Bida

Bida town is located in North-Central Nigeria. It is located at latitude $9^{\circ}8'44''$ and longitude $6^{\circ}09'00''$ (Mohammed and Kawu, 2014). The location of the study area is presented in Figures 1.1-1.3. Encyclopaedia Britannica (2021) stated that Bida is located on the Gbako River which is a tributary of River Niger.

The northern part of the area has hills which move downward to the plain. The area is bounded to the west by Pichi village; to the east by Baddegi; to the north by Sabon-Gida Gwari; and Doko village to the south. The town is located at a distance of about 86 Kilometres from Minna; and about 189 kilometres away from Abuja (Maxlock, 1980).

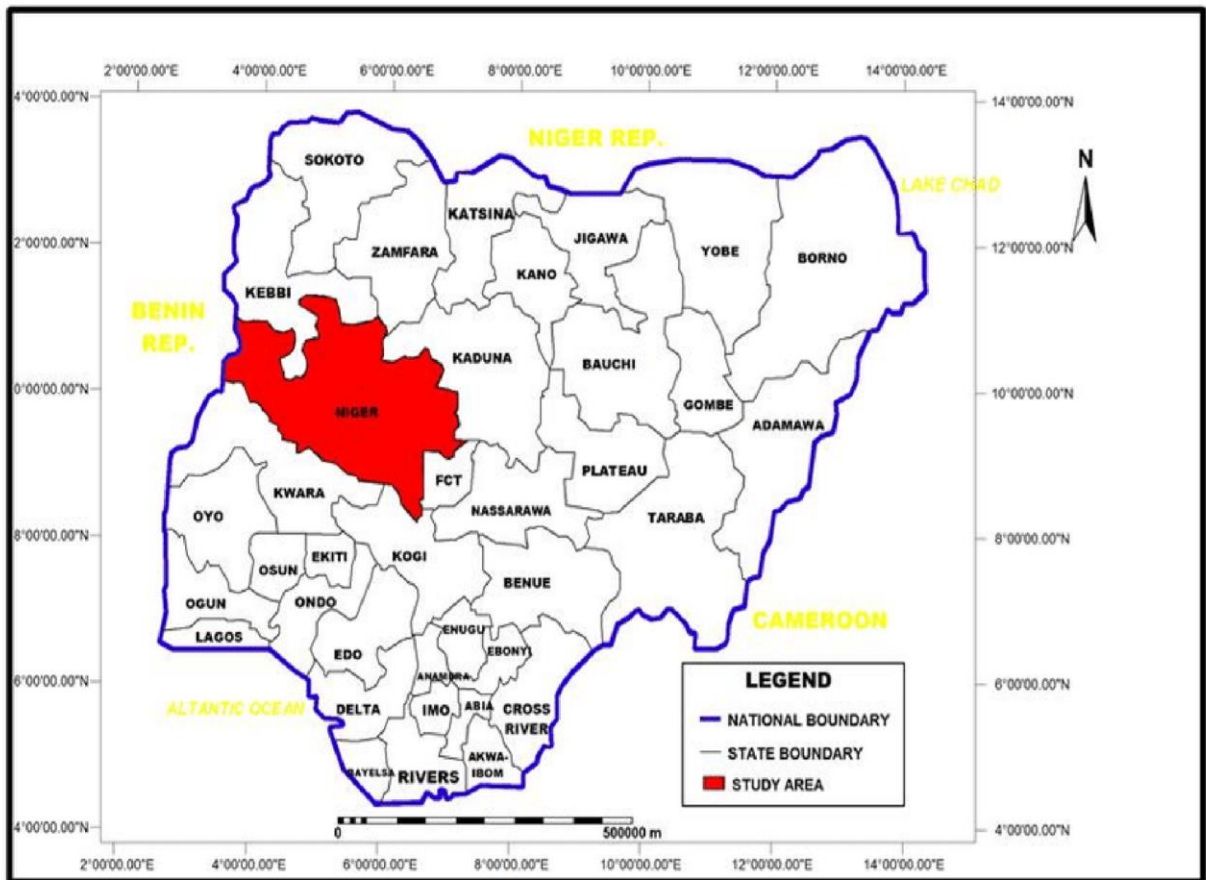


Figure 1.1: Location of Niger State in Nigeria

Source: Niger State Ministry of Lands (2013)

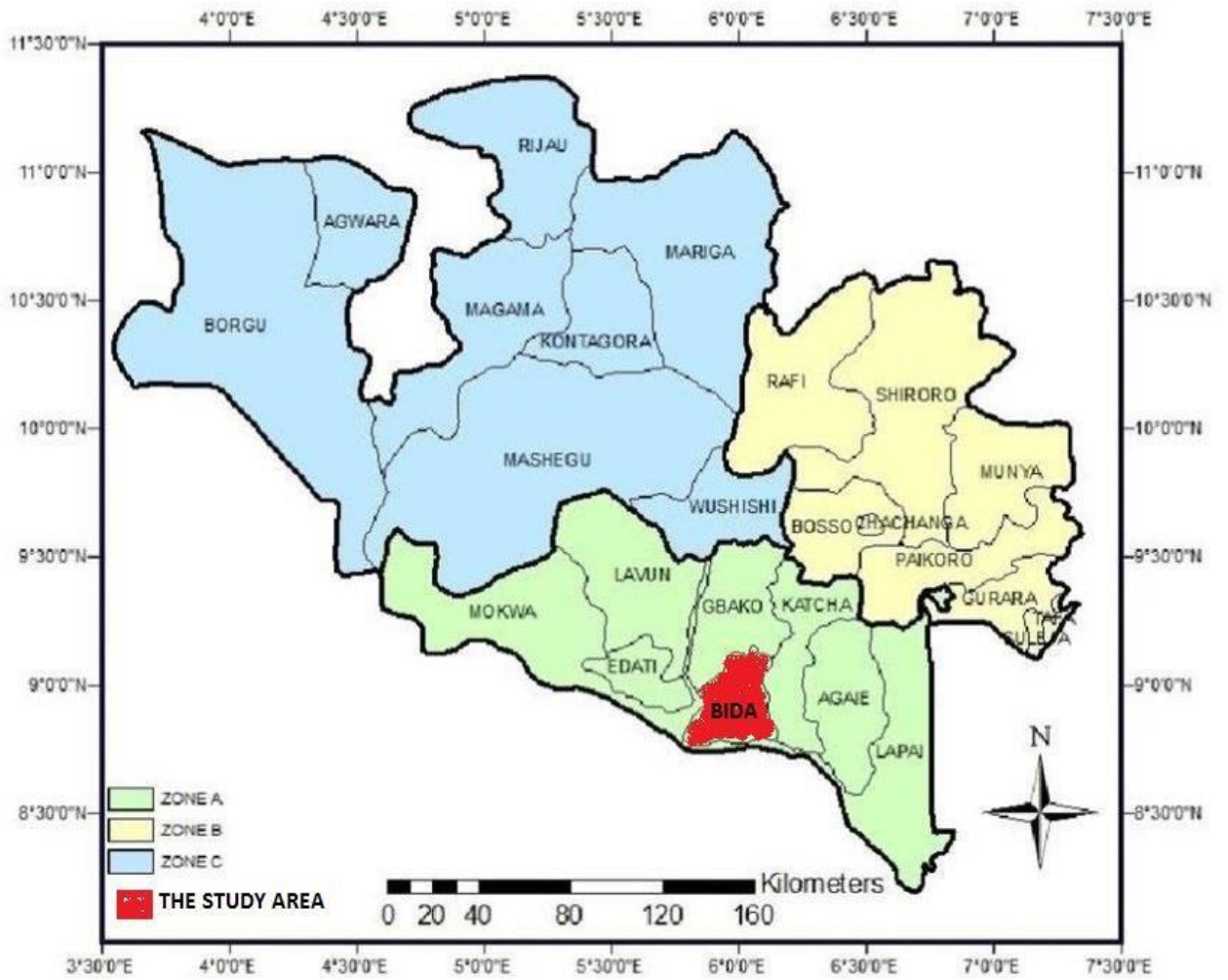


Figure 1.2: Location of Bida in Niger State

Source: Abdullahi (2020)

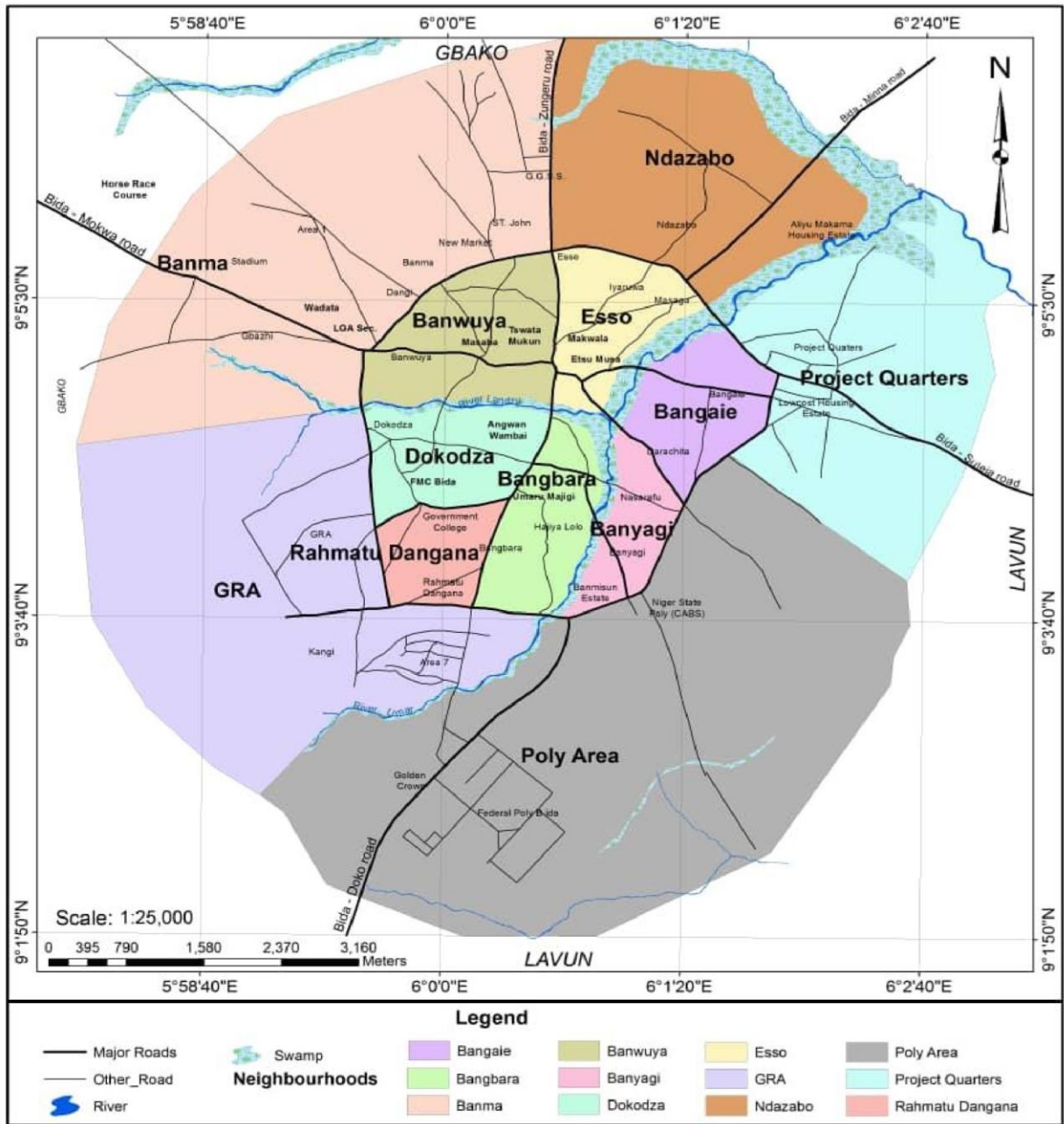


Figure 1.3: Street Guide of Bida

Source: Department of Urban and Regional Planning, Federal Polytechnic Bida (2016)

1.7.1.2 Brief historical background of Bida

Encyclopaedia Britannica (2021) historicised that Bida was originally captured by Tsoede around 1531 and was later captured by the Fulani Jihadists circa 1806. Encyclopaedia Britannica (2021)

further reported that Emir Masaba's second reign (1859-1873) when Nupe became the most powerful kingdom in central Nigeria; Bida's night market was constructed alongside the central mosque and three royal palaces. This engendered the establishment of trade relations with the Royal Niger Company in 1871. Bida has produced thirteen Emirs or '*Etsu*' since its inception – including the present Emir of Bida, Etsu

Yahaya Abubakar.

1.7.1.3 Climatic condition

The study area experiences distinct wet and dry seasons. Wet season begins in April and end in October with an average rainfall of 1,334mm; while the temperature ranges between 27°C and 40°C in the dry season (Maxlock, 1980). This seasonality enhances the practice of agriculture, and consequently, trade of agricultural produce in the study area.

1.7.2 Administrative setting

1.7.2.1 Local government

Bida is the traditional headquarters of the Bida Emirate and consequently, Nupe Kingdom. The town is also the administrative headquarters of Bida Local Government Area of Niger State, Nigeria. This blend of traditional and modern administrative capacities in the town has helped it create unique spatial management principles for the betterment of its citizens.

1.7.2.2 Public institutions

Bida town is home to several public institutions. The most noticeable public institutions in the town are the National Cereals Research Institute (NCRI), Badeggi; Federal Medical Centre (FMC), Bida; and National Institute for Oil Palm Research (NIFOR). These public institutions are vital pull factors that help in enhancing trade and commercial activities along the streets of Bida.

1.7.2.3 Educational institutions

The study area is a home to quite a number of educational institutions. Apart from several primary and secondary schools in Bida; the town also have higher educational institutions such as College of Administrative and Business Studies (CABS); Niger State School of Nursing, Bida; Federal Polytechnic, Bida; and Edusoko University, Bida. The locations of these educational institutions are viable sites for street businesses.

1.7.2.4 Security institutions

Bida is a considerably secure town with the presence of several security institutions. The most notable security institutions in Bida are the LITANI Barracks, Bida; the Divisional Police Headquarters, Bida; and the Nigerian Security and Civil Defence Corps (NSCDC), Bida Command. These security institutions attract business activities which include street trading.

1.7.3 Cultural capital of Bida

It is traditionally headed by the Etsu. The Etsu of Bida is generally regarded as the Etsu Nupe. This means that the study area is the traditional headquarters of Nupeland. The Etsu leads several annual and occasional festivals and Durbars which attracts diverse people from different locations across the country. This serves as a period of *genus loci* in which the visitors get acquainted with the economic terrain of the town. These cultural displays are vital tools for enhancing the economic viability of Bida for trading activities.

1.7.3.1. Ethnicity

Bida is a town that is gradually assuming a cosmopolitan status. The original dwellers of the town are the Nupes. However, with the passage of time and the growth of the town, Bida is currently inhabited by people of diverse ethnic groups such as Dibbo, Ebira, Yoruba, Igbo, Urhobo, Ijaw, Hausa, Gbagyi, Fulani, Ibibio and Kakanda. Notwithstanding this ethnic diversity in the study area, Bida is still dominated by the Nupe ethnic group.

1.7.4 Population of the town

Bida has a population of 185,553 persons (National Bureau of Statistics [NBS], 2011). This large population of the town is considered as very vital for the development of businesses (including street trading) in the study area.

1.7.5 Economic setting of Bida

1.7.5.1 Agricultural practices

Agriculturally, Bida is known for the production of sugarcanes, rice, sorghum, groundnuts and animals such as goats and sheep (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2019). The Bida is traversed by a number of streams. These streams are used for irrigation purpose by the people of the area; thereby encouraging the cultivation of sugarcane, vegetables and rice *inter alia*.

1.7.5.2 Industrial activities in Bida

Bida has a considerable number of rice mills. The most noticeable rice mill in Bida is the Onyx Rice Mills along Bida-Lapai road.

1.7.5.3 Traditional craft

Bida is also known for crafts such as metal products, brass works, glass, beads, raffia mats and pottery. These crafts are very old livelihood strategies of the residents of the town. The developments of these craft works have engendered the trade of the aforementioned products on the streets of some sections of Bida.

1.7.6 Form and structure of the town

Bida is a traditionally walled city with four main entrances or gates traditionally called 'Ebban' which are: Ban-Gaie; Ban-Wuya; Ban-Yagi; and Ban-Man. These are viable sites for trading. Bida displays an urban form similar to the 'sector model' as can be seen in Figure

1.3. The houses in the study area are mainly compound houses with a single entrance called *Katamba* (translated as entrance porch).

1.8 Definition of terms

Livelihood: Within the context of this study, livelihood refers to the daily engagements of the people through which they make a living. It involves the assets available to the individuals and households and how they harness these assets to improve their wellbeing and quality of life.

Street trade: This refers to the sale of goods and rendering of services on the streets of the city. Unlike other forms of trade, street trade occupies the streets and are usually carried out on the Right-of-Way (ROW). This confers on it the status of illegal and informal livelihood activities.

Stationary street traders: Stationary street traders refer to the street traders who practice their trading activities on a fixed location. This is different from itinerant street traders who are nomadic traders – moving from place to place.

Informal sector: This refers to the sector of the urban, sub-regional, regional, national, international and global economies whose records are not formally and legally determined. It is therefore called informal because it operates outside the confines of the formally established rules, regulations and standards.

1.9 Limitations of the study

The major limitation of this study was the absence of the exact population of stationary street traders in the study area. This prompted the adoption of non-probabilistic sampling technique. Therefore, the assumption of randomness cannot be fulfilled. The sample may not be a good representative fraction of the street traders in the study area. This may therefore affect the result. However, efforts were made to overcome this by involving a considerably large sample size for this study.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Conceptual Framework

2.1.1 Concept of livelihood

Mbaukaan and Sanusi (2018) viewed livelihood as the daily engagements of people which are undertaken in order to make ends meet. They argued that livelihoods allow people to obtain the basic necessities of making a living. UN-Habitat (2015) as cited in Mbaukaan and Sanusi (2018), argues that it is necessary to protect the livelihoods of the people owing to the inevitable nature of livelihoods to the survival of man. Therefore, engaging in and developing a profitable livelihood requires continuous capacity building (Rakodi and

Lloyd-Jones, 2002; Mbaukaan and Sanusi, 2018).

The multifaceted nature of livelihoods has been recognised in the literature. Hossain and Wadood (2020) argue that livelihoods transcend the means of securing or eking out a living

to include the practical ways of maintaining and managing the necessary requirements of life. This follows the argument of Alamgir *et al.* (2009) who maintained that livelihood (and consequently, livelihood strategies) is conceptualised in many ways. Thus, Hossain and Wadood (2020) conceptualised livelihood strategies as the ways and manners in which livelihood assets are accessed by individuals and households within a community.

Stresses, shocks and uncertainties in the formal economic sector engender the adoption and practice of informal livelihoods (Anyidoho and Steel, 2016). In the same vein, Diao *et al.* (2019) noted that rapid urbanisation and structural changes leads to the adoption of informal livelihoods. The role of perception in the advancement and conceptualisation of livelihood is not negligible. Abukari and Mwalyosi (2019) explained that perception of the people is a very valuable means of assessing the progress and values of a particular livelihood to selected target group. However, the assessment of public perception of a particular livelihood is context-specific. Thus, Eklund and Kabeza (2017) maintained that good governance strategies are imperative in dealing with poor people's livelihoods. More so, it has been argued by Diao *et al.* (2019) that social acceptability of livelihood policies and programmes play a significant role in ensuring the sustainability of livelihoods.

2.1.1.1 The sustainable livelihood framework

Carney (1999), de Satgé *et al.* (2002) and Erenstein *et al.* (2010) opined that a livelihood is considered as sustainable if it can cope with stresses and shocks while not undermining the natural resource base that supports it. The need to ensure the sustainability of livelihoods was first recognised by the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED,

1987) in its report titled ‘Our Common Future’.

The sustainable livelihood framework presents several advantages in assessing the livelihood strategies and livelihood outcomes of the people (Klain *et al.*, 2014; de Satgé *et al.*, 2019). It was further argued by de Satgé *et al.* (2019) that the framework helps in ensuring coherence and validity of livelihood analyses; enables participatory livelihood research; and enhances the integration of sustainability concerns in livelihood analyses, thereby encouraging funding from donor agencies.

It has been observed by Klain *et al.* (2014) Saha (2017) that the sustainable livelihood approach is the most holistic approach to measuring livelihoods in a pro-poor and peoplecentred way. This is in line with the arguments of de Satgé *et al.* (2002) that the approach places the indigenous and local practices of the people at the centre of its vision. The centrality of local practices to the adaptation and sustainability of livelihoods is shown in Figure 2.1. The Figure implies that sustainable livelihood is a product of favourable policies at all levels; effective adaptation strategies in form of possession of adequate livelihood assets and the knowledge to transform abstract ideas to real wealth; and relevant technologies and investment in line with the specific livelihood strategy of interest. De Satge *et al.* (2002), Moser (2008), Scoones (2009) and Chen *et al.* (2016) noted that a good interplay between these factors results in livelihood sustainability.

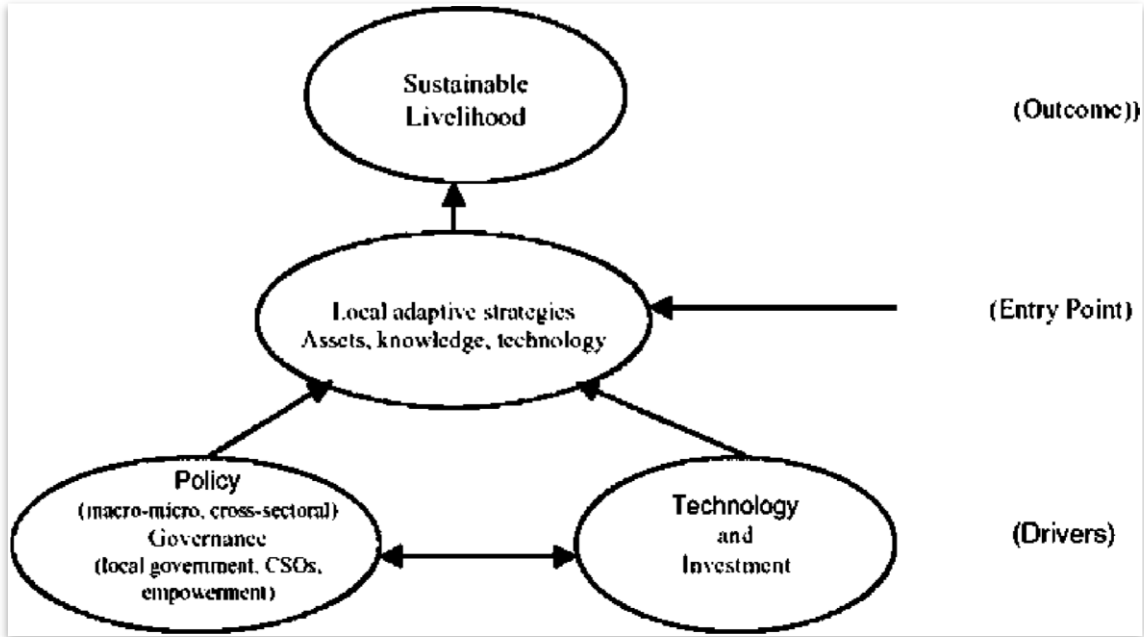


Figure 2.1: Sustainable livelihoods adaptation process

Source: de Satgé *et al.* (2002).

Serrat (2017) observed that the goal of the sustainable livelihood approach is to provide a holistic framework for addressing poverty. He maintained that the approach attempts to appraise the ways that the poor and vulnerable groups make their living. The approach helps in identifying practical priorities in order to inform policies and programmes (Moser, 2008; Erenstein *et al.*, 2010; Chen, Roever and Skinner, 2016). Technically, therefore, the sustainable livelihood approach engenders the formulation and implementation of pro-poor and people-centred policies and programmes, *inter alia* (Hossain and Wadood, 2020). It was observed by Serrat (2017) that the approach is dynamic, responsive and participatory, thereby leading to result-oriented livelihoods analyses.

The sustainable livelihood framework emphasises the primacy of assets, policies and institutions (Moser, 2008; Serrat, 2017). Figure 2.2 portrays the interplay between assets,

vulnerabilities, policies, institutions, livelihood strategies and livelihood outcomes. As Figure 3 indicates, a positive relationship between these factors leads to sustainable livelihood; while a negative relationship among them threatens the sustainability of livelihoods. As Lee (2008) argued, the primary priority of the sustainable livelihood approach is the poor. The vulnerability context takes into cognisance issues of livelihood stresses and shocks. These stresses and shocks could include eviction, arrests and seizure of livelihood resources by city management bodies on the one hand; and exposure to harsh weather elements and pollution on the other hand. The implementation of the sustainable livelihood framework produces desirable livelihood outcomes such as improved income and wellbeing; reduce vulnerability and consequent improvement in livelihood security; and a sustainable natural resource base. This framework therefore presents a holistic view of livelihoods in economic, environmental, and socio-legal terms.

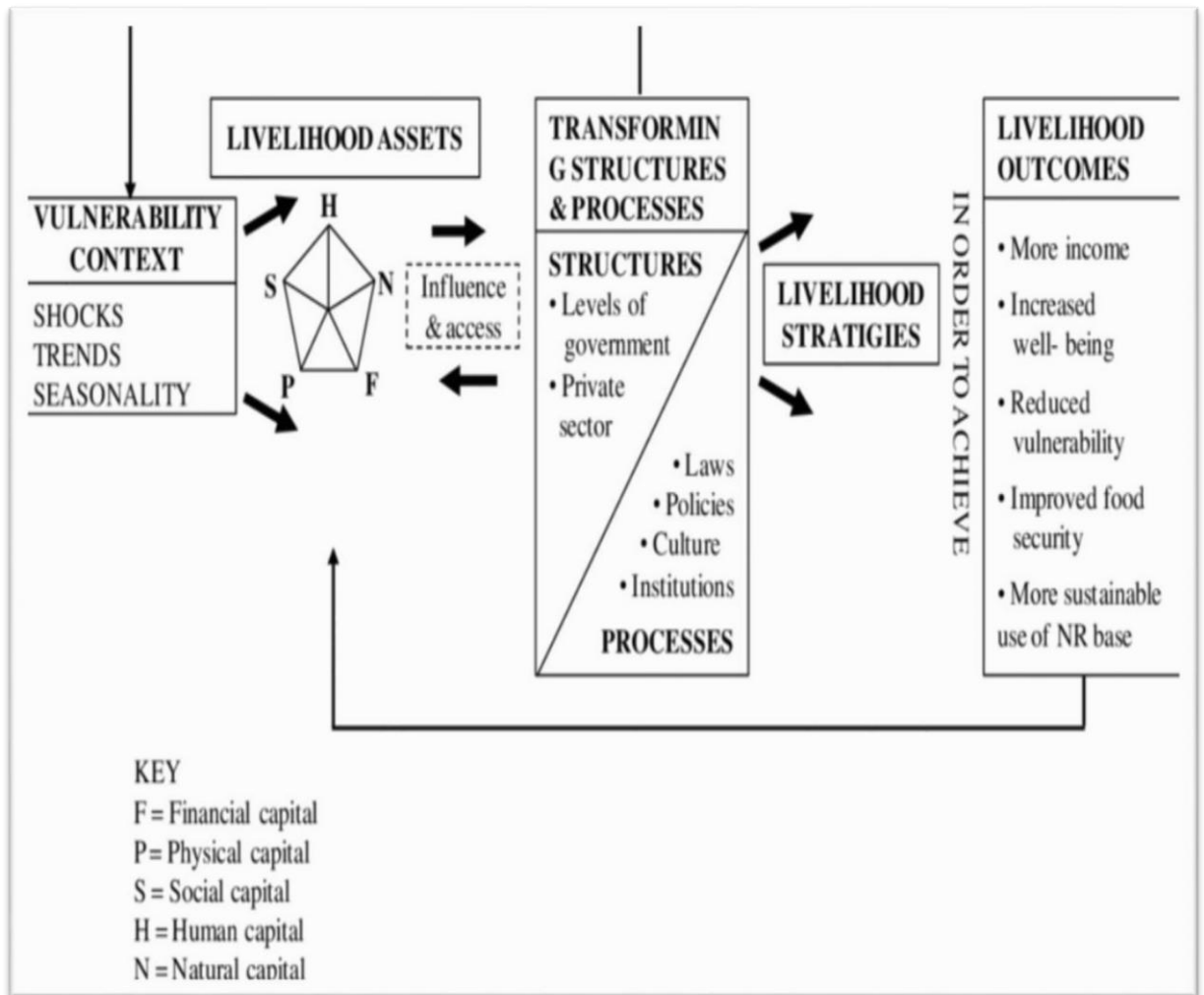


Figure 2.2: The sustainable livelihood framework

Source: UNDP (2002)

2.1.1.2 Assets

In livelihoods analysis, assets are also called capitals. Ellis (2005) Erenstein *et al.* (2010) and Morse and McNamara (2013) identified five broad livelihood assets or capitals, namely: human capital, social capital, physical capital, natural capital and financial capital.

These capitals or assets are usually represented in the form of an assets pentagon as shown in Figure 2.3.

In the view of Erenstein *et al.* (2010), livelihood assets are the natural and man-made factors that determine how an individual or household makes a living. It is therefore important to address the issues of livelihood assets and the functions they perform. Following this argument, Timalsina (2011a) and Dendukuri (2014) noted that spatial context shapes the kind of assets the poor and vulnerable groups can access and exploit. He further argued that social and political contexts also determine how, where, when and who can have access to certain livelihood assets.

The importance of assets have been identified by Erenstein *et al.* (2010) who noted that assets are indispensable requirements for expressing adaptive capacity and resilience to stresses and shocks – an indication that assets are predictors of livelihood sustainability. Yeboah *et al.* (2015) therefore observed that assets are major requirements for moving out of poverty because they determine whether an individual or household remains in the web of poverty and ill-being or stay out of it.

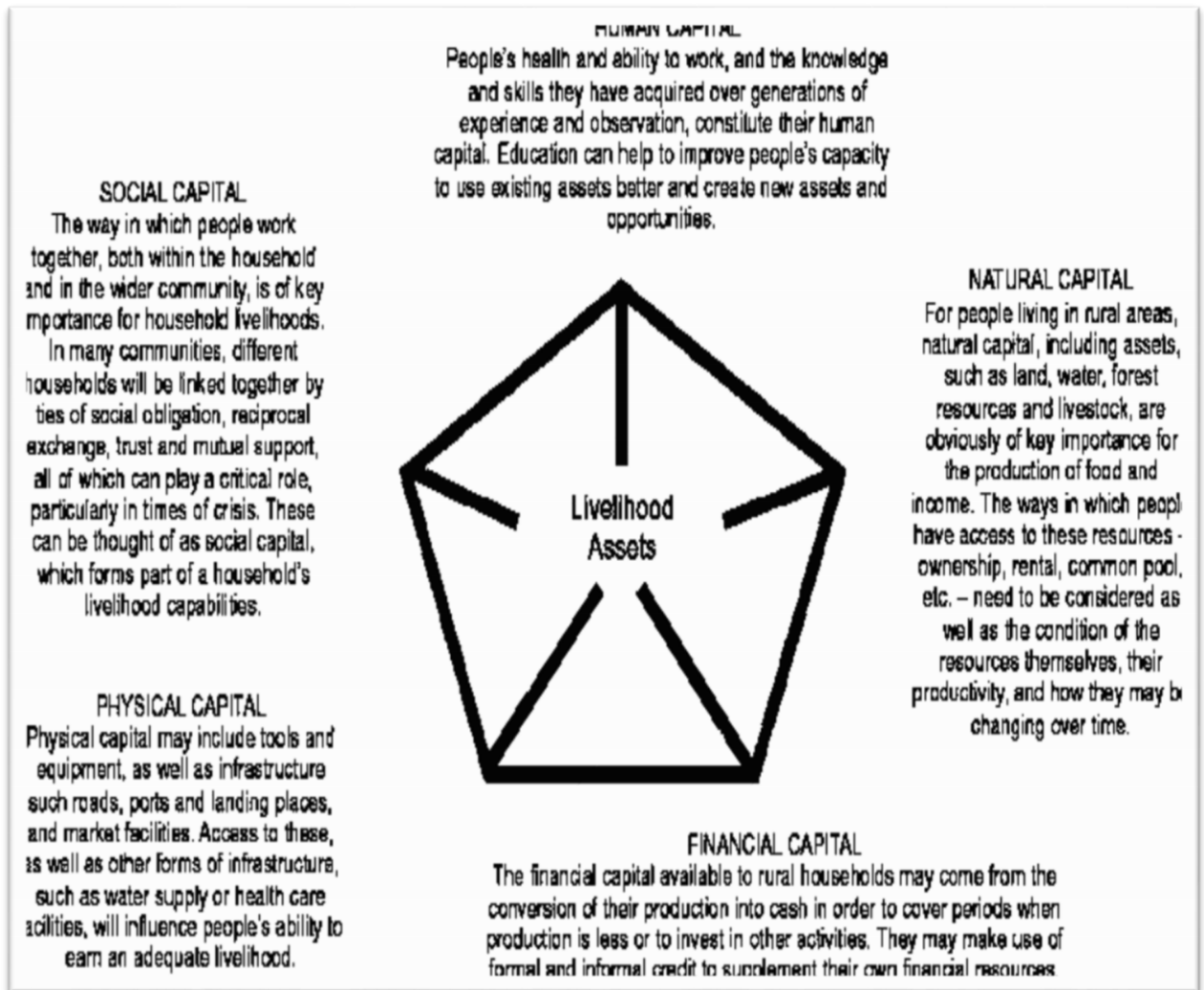


Figure 2.3: The livelihood assets pentagon

Source: Morse and McNamara (2013)

Erenstein *et al.* (2010) explained that natural capital involves the things that are naturally occurring such as forests, rivers and soils which can serve as a source of livelihood. On the other hand, the physical capital comprises the anthropogenic constructions that enhance livelihoods such as roads, buildings, water station, telephone masts and cars. Furthermore,

Serrat (2017) noted that financial capital covers money and any other accepted medium of exchange. However, in the opinion of United Nations Development Programme (UNDP, 2015), human capital involves the knowledge and skills available to an individual upon which he or she can leverage as a source of living. UNDP (2015) further noted that the concept of human capital is captured in the Human Development Index. Therefore, human capital is a significant dimension of human development; and thus, requires consistent capacity building. Erenstein *et al.* (2010) and Timalsina (2011a, 2011b) viewed social capital as the relationships, networks, ties and connections from which an individual or household derive help in time of need.

The significance of livelihood assets theory lies on the footing that sustainable poverty reduction can be achieved by improving or enhancing the assets base of the people (Erenstein *et al.*, 2010). Sustainable poverty reduction, therefore, must take into cognisance the livelihoods assets of the urban poor, including street traders and other informal sector workers (Serrat, 2017). This requires the incorporation of the ideals of Corporate Social

Responsibility into livelihoods in order to guarantee livelihood sustainability (Narula *et al.*, 2017).

Narula *et al.* (2017) opined that the creation of enabling environment for the actualisation of sustainable livelihood opportunities for the poor is a core responsibility of democratically elected representatives of the people. This is an expression of the role of capacity building in livelihood sustainability (Ellis, 2005).

2.1.2 Concept of urbanisation of poverty

Contemporary studies of urban settlements have revealed the alarming rate of urbanisation of poverty (Sanusi, 2006; Omar and Ishak, 2016). Cobbinah *et al.* (2015) noted that one of the associating features of Africa's urbanisation is the high rate of poverty in urban areas. More

so, Chukuezi (2010a) observed that third world cities are characterised by high rate of unemployment and increasing rate of poverty and inequality. Mengistu and Jibat (2015) argued that urbanisation of poverty is closely associated with the urbanisation of informality. In other words, the phenomenal expansion of the informal sector is linked to the rising incidence of urban poverty and formal sector unemployment on the one hand, and informal employment opportunities on the other (Timalsina, 2007; Abe, 2013; Nakisani and Ongori, 2013; Mramba, 2015). Ngome and Mulinya (2018) have predicted that 70% of the global population will be resident in cities by year 2050, while specifically emphasising that this consistent rise in urban population size will be accompanied with commensurate level of unemployment in the formal sector.

Urbanisation of poverty is a manifestation of poor physical and economic planning (Omar and Ishak, 2016). Omar and Ishak (2016) maintained that poorly planned urbanisation is associated with poverty, unemployment and a plethora of other social and economic problems. The highest rate of urban poverty is recorded in Africa where the pace and extent of urban poverty has assumed a worrisome proportion (Majale, 2002; Sanusi, 2006; Mengistu and Jibat, 2015). Specifically, urban poverty in Africa is intensified by the policies and actions of urban authorities (Tipple, 2001; Yahya, 2001; Nwajiuba, 2005; Sanusi, 2006, 2007; Baah-Boateng and Ewusi, 2013). Furthermore, Diao *et al.* (2019) noted that inadequate formal jobs intensifies the propensity to take up informal jobs in urban areas, thereby entrenching and strengthening the cycle of urban poverty. In fact, Sanusi (2007) and Diao *et al.* (2019) argued that urban residents often have stronger ties with the informal sector than the formal sector, especially in the face of deepening urbanisation of poverty.

Globally, Africa has been identified as the only continent with consistent increase in the percentage of population below the poverty line (Chandy *et al.*, 2013). Chandy *et al.* (2013) established that by year 2030, about 82% of Africa's population will be poor. With reference to urban poverty, UN-Habitat (2008) reported that about 43% of the urban residents in Africa are multidimensionally poor. This is an indication that poverty is a problem that does not recognise national boundaries (Sanusi, 2006). Boadi *et al.* (2005) and Watson (2009) noted that the situation of urban poverty in Africa is worsened by the continent's rapid and unprecedented population growth.

In Nigeria, Olajide *et al.* (2018) noted that more than 40% of the urban population is categorised as poor. They noted, however, that urban poverty in Nigeria is a resultant effect of colonial planning ideologies. Similar arguments have been advanced by Adama (2020) who maintained that anti-poor urban planning in Nigeria creates urban poverty on the one hand, and intensifies it on the other.

2.1.3 Concept of urban informal economy

As observed by Hart (2008), the concept of informal economy was first developed by Hart in 1973 in Ghana to describe the economic activities that take place at the margin or outside the boundaries of the formal sector of the economy. Chukuezi (2010b) and Rooever argued that the economy of less developed countries and their cities are situated at the periphery of global capitalism. She conceptualised the informal sector as a small-scale enterprise where the operation and management functions lie in the hands of small number of people who act in

administrative capacity in the enterprise. This definition is synonymous with an earlier definition of informal economy offered by International Labour Organisation (ILO, 1972).

The phenomenal rate of urbanisation of informality has been recognised by Mengistu and Jibat (2015). They argued that the expansion of the informal sector is linked to its ability to create employment opportunities for the poor. It has been estimated that the informal sector contributes up to 72% of secondary jobs, 50-80% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and 90% of total employment in Africa (Bromley, 2000; ILO, 2004a, 2004b; Brown, 2005; Bromley and Mackie, 2009; Benjamin *et al.*, 2014). Specifically, Mengistu and Jibat (2015) noted that more than 50% of the total workforce in Africa and South-East Asia are employed in the informal sector. With specific reference and comparison to other economic sectors, Racaud (2018) observed that up to 72% of non-agricultural jobs emanates from the informal sector of the economy.

The informal sector of third world economies has consistently experienced rapid growth as a result of high rate of unemployment and poverty (Roever, 2005, 2006a, 2006b; Timalisina, 2011b). Timalisina (2011b) conceptualised informal economy as any economic activity that is both unregulated and unrecorded. As a result, he maintained, the working conditions of informal sector employees is always poor. Furthermore, the informal sector is also characterised by job and tenure insecurity, small-scale production and small-medium-scale service delivery (Timalisina, 2012; Bouhali, 2018). Interestingly, Majale (2002) argued that the existence of informality symbolises policy failures, poor regulatory approaches and poor urban governance.

In the opinions of Nwajiuba (2005) and Brown (2015), unemployment, underemployment, unsatisfactory livelihoods and poverty instigates migration, which in turn, instigates participation in informal economic activities through the adoption of informal livelihood strategies. He argues that urbanisation and population growth contributes to the problem of inadequate formal jobs in less developed countries. New immigrants, in particular, take up informal jobs which are characterised by low entry requirements and start-up capital (Sabatini, 2006; Roever, 2010; Timalina, 2011a, 2011b).

2.1.3.1 Dilemma of definitions and the politics of inseparability

Dialogues on alternative economic activities (otherwise referred to as informal economic activities) have persisted both in Global North and Global South (Turner and Schoenberger, 2011). In recent times, informal economy is the major contributor to the characterisation of cities as engines of regional and national economic growth (Bostic *et al.*, 2016; Diao *et al.*, 2019). Marginal employment, especially in street trade, increases the ‘consumption of cities’ (Gollin *et al.*, 2013).

The dualistic views on the concept of informality have been subjected to several criticisms (Verhage and Shapland, 2013). For example, Boels (2013) noted that it is practically not tenable to draw a clear distinction between the ‘formal’ and the ‘informal’. In other words, the formal economy and the informal economy exist in a continuum with a non-distinctive boundary separating between them. As Timalina (2011b) argued, the informal sector complements the formal economy by ensuring the direct delivery of goods and services to the

consumers at a relatively cheap and affordable price level. Owing to its inevitability, Neuwirth (2013) argued that the only way to survive in third world cities is through informality. This follows the argument of Roy (2005) who saw urban informality as an emerging culture in cities. However, as Neuwirth (2013) observed, there may be some hidden reasons why governments are afraid of the growth of the informal economy in general, and street trading in particular.

Neoliberal economic reforms have engendered the expansion of the informal sector in the last three decades (Yeboah *et al.*, 2015). Yeboah *et al.* (2015) reported that in Ghana, for instance, more than 90% of the active labour force is employed in the informal sector which is dominated by street traders. It is important to stress that the categorisation of informal businesses and small and medium-scale enterprises is based on their level of assets and resources that they command (Timalsina, 2012; Boels, 2013, 2014). Neoliberal reforms such as the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) of the International Monetary Fund (IMF[1986-2008]) in most parts of the less developed countries led to the marginalisation of the urban poor (Turner and Schoeberger, 2011; Kumi *et al.*, 2014). In effect, the access of the urban poor to formal employment is limited, especially in the face of their weak competitiveness (Diao *et al.*, 2019). Yeboah *et al.* (2015) contends that the foregoing has led to the continuous influx of the urban poor and unemployed into the informal sector to seek means of livelihood.

Urban informality is usually considered as antithetical to modern urban planning and development (Roy, 2005; Adama, 2020). However, the survival of the urban poor is closely bound-up with the

existence of the informal sector (Timalsina, 2007; 2011a; Yeboah *et al.*, 2015). Lombard and Meth (2017) noted that contemporary analogies of the politics of urban space is dominated by the examination of the links between the growth of urban informality and a reduction in the rate of unemployment on the one hand, and poverty on the other. Evidences suggest that the street is an indispensable asset for informal smallscale traders because it contributes significantly to the sustainability of their livelihoods (Timalsina, 2011b; Neuwirth, 2013; Olajide *et al.*, 2018). Adama (2020) observed that the economically disadvantaged residents of cities rely on the informal sector for their continuous existence.

Olajide *et al.* (2018) explained that there is a growing need to integrate the formal and informal sectors of the economy. They, however, argued that the struggle for integration into the global economic system have resulted in the physical transformation and restructuring of many cities in sub-Saharan Africa. Erenstein *et al.* (2010) noted that informal economic activities are a reflection of ‘urban informalisation’. In other words, informal settlements breed informal economies, vice versa (Meneses, 2013; Meneses-Reyes and Caballero-Juarez, 2013).

Gamielien and van Niekert (2017) observed that the urban poor take up informal entrepreneurial livelihoods in the face of growing unemployment in the formal sector. They maintained that street traders are best considered as credible entrepreneurs who require the support of the society to grow. Reciprocally, the entrepreneurial activities of the urban poor contribute to the growth of the society in particular, and the economy in general (Williams, 2011; Williams and Gurtoo, 2012; Williams and Nadin, 2012; Adama, 2020).

The entrepreneurial prowess of the informal sector livelihoods have been identified by Steel *et al.* (2014) who argued that formal businesses will hardly reach their target clientele, but for the existence of informal businesses. With reference to the economy of Ghana, Hart (2008) maintained that informal small-scale traders will determine the future of the nation's economy.

Informal entrepreneurs occupy the centre of the city because of the viability of city-centres to their livelihoods (Lindell, 2010; Lindell and Ampaire, 2016; Abukari and Mwalyosi, 2019). In this regard, Mehanna and Mehanna (2019) noted that city-centres play very important roles in the economic life of urban areas. They contend that, traditionally, commercial activities take place on the streets at the centre of urbanised spaces. Owing to the business boom on the streets at the city-centres, these areas require special attention. It has been observed that commercial streets represent the most vital element in the cultural and economic heritage and landscape of the city (Sati, 2014; Eklund and Kabeza, 2017). Generally, commercial streets are the home to several informal livelihood activities, especially street trading (Meagher, 2013; Meagher and Lindell, 2013; Mehanna and Mehanna, 2019). Informal street markets define the urban streetscape and they are the most active part of the city (Gamielien and van Niekert, 2017; Lindell, 2018). Gamielien and van Niekert (2017) concluded that the entrepreneurial livelihood of the poor residents of the city depends to a large extent on the availability of street markets.

2.1.4 Concept of street trading

Street trading is a major component of urban economies globally (Anetor, 2015). By definition, street trading involves the selling of goods and rendering of services on the street without using a permanent structure (Bhowmik, 2005). Skinner (2008) emphasised that street trading is regarded as the cornerstone of the existence of many cities in the Global

South. Economically, street trading is the largest informal employer of labour globally (Anetor, 2015). Anetor (2015) further argued that street trading is considered as a cultural heritage because it has existed for many centuries. In the opinion of Skinner (2008), street trading brings goods and services closer to the consumers, while offering the traders some level of flexibility in hours of operation. Despite these positive values of street trading, however, Anetor (2015) observed that street traders continuously encounter persecution from public agencies.

Steel *et al.* (2014) noted that the establishment of Central Business District (CBD) in a city provides several opportunities for street trading. They noted that public space is significant for the daily hustle and survival of the urban poor. Mengistu and Jibat (2015) specifically emphasised that the value of street trading transcend he economic perspective to include tremendous levels of social and political values. Therefore, it is important to stress that contrary to popular opinion that street trading is a survivalist livelihood strategy, daily experience has revealed that it is also embarked upon as an entrepreneurial activity or strategy (Ndhlovu, 2011; Njaya, 2014; Mengistu and Jibat, 2015).

Witts (2008) and Abe (2013) observed that although street trading is the largest contributor in the informal economy, it is still beset by a number of tragedies. Firstly, street traders are vulnerable to vehicular accidents which can lead to severe injuries, loss of properties and even loss of life (Witts, 2008). Secondly, urban planners and policymakers consistently persecute street traders under the guise that they are operating informally and illegally (Abe, 2013). As a result of these tragedies, street traders have been marginalised, excluded and abandoned in the process of urban policymaking (Witts, 2008; Abe, 2013).

Olurinola *et al.* (2014) observed that unlike formal working environments where occupational health and safety of the workers is ensured, informal working environment is characterised by a lot of job hazards. The operation of informal employment is usually

‘without binding official regulation’ (Ogbonna *et al.*, 2016). Majority of informal sector workers do not possess or use personal protective equipment (Olurinola *et al.*, 2014). As a result, informal sector workers are vulnerable to injuries, and sometimes, even death (Roy, 2009). It therefore follows that since trading is the largest contributor to the informal economy; *inter alia*, street traders are exposed to a broad range of occupational and health hazards (Dorman, 2000; Olurinola *et al.*, 2014).

Ogbonna *et al.* (2016) observed that street traders are resilient to evictions from the street by municipal authorities. Although street traders often lack permanent built structure, they can be nomadic or stationary depending on traffic flow and the level of patronage (Saha, 2017). Evidently, street economy has grown beyond the small-scale or marginal economic activities characterisation (Berner *et al.*, 2012). Apart from the proximity narrative, street traders have

gained continues and growing patronage because they sell and render assorted goods and services at affordable price level to the consumers (Ogbonna *et al.*, 2016). Their occupation of public space is linked to the understanding that public spaces of the city are the 'lifeblood of the city' (Roy, 2005, 2009; Verhage and Shapland, 2013; Olurinola *et al.*, 2014; Watson, 2014; Ogbonna *et al.*, 2016). As Berner *et al.* (2012) noted, street traders display their wares in these public places, thereby helping in defining the life of the city.

Ogbonna *et al.* (2016), however, noted that contrary to the views of Berner *et al.* (2012) and Saha (2017) that street trading is undertaken by survivalist entrepreneurs who are less concerned about growth, evidences abound that street traders are, in fact, pro-growth.

The nexus between urbanisation and the proliferation of street trade has been recognised by Ngome and Mulinya (2018). They opined that the symbolic high rate of urbanisation has been accompanied with high rate of poverty and unemployment. Ngome and Mulinya (2018) argued that the employment capacity of the formal sector in Africa has been exceeded as a result of rapid population growth; thus, the informal sector continues to witness the influx of newcomers. Although governments are aware of street trading in Africa, municipal authorities have consistently adopted the illegalisation of street trading as their operational mantra (Sonah, 2014; Ngome and Mulinya, 2018). This is antithetical to the argument of Gibson-Graham (2008) that economies perform better if they are open, liberalised and diverse. Turner and Schoenberger (2011) maintained that street trading reflects the daily realities faced by marginal people in urban scenes. With specific reference to evidence from Hanoi, Vietnam; Turner and Schoenberger (2011) noted that street trading is the predominant urban livelihood in developing countries.

Street trading is a significant contributor to the progress in eradication of (extreme) urban poverty (Timalsina, 2011a). However, the continual persecution of street traders by municipal authorities has engendered conflicts between street traders and urban planning agencies or officials (Timalsina, 2007, 2011b, 2012). Ngome and Mulinya (2018) observed that although street traders may constitute some visual problems to the cityscape, they also have the right to trade as citizens. In recognition of this, Timalsina (2011b) suggested the need to provide street traders with adequate space in a proper setting where they can exercise their legitimate right to trade.

In the opinion of Olajide *et al.* (2018), street trading enhances the social and economic strength of the poor, which is the primary goal of livelihoods. With reference to its status as a sustainable livelihood, Olajide *et al.* (2018) argued that street trading is capable of solving the financial problems of the poor while not undermining the supporting natural resource base. By improving economic opportunities, street trading contributes to the social, financial and psychological wellbeing of the traders (Mengistu and Jibat, 2015). In defence of the street traders' livelihood strategies, Olajide *et al.* (2018) argued that any urban policy and development approach that does not provide ample opportunities for pro-poor livelihoods is largely unsustainable.

Gamielien and van Nierkert (2017) have considered street trade as a credible entrepreneurial activity while emphasising that street trade is the most popular form of selfemployment and income generation among low income and poor individuals and

households. However, they noted that street traders face negative attitude from the police, urban planners and the general public. Notwithstanding these negative encounters, Mengistu and Jibat (2015) noted that street traders have maintained considerable level of resilience with recorded success, thereby experiencing growth in their business.

Timalsina (2012) contended that street trading is one of the visible results of rural-urban migration. He observed that unemployment and poverty force rural dwellers to move out of their local communities to the cities with the hope of acquiring new jobs. As Timalsina (2011a) argues, however, these migrants are usually low-skilled or no-skilled and therefore, unable to compete in the formal job market. Formal sector employment opportunities are limited in developing countries (International Labour Organisation, 2004a, 2004b, 2013). This has resulted in strong competition for the few available formal jobs (Timalsina, 2012). The poor capacity and weak competitive ability of the new migrants places them in a disadvantaged position in the strife for formal jobs (Gamiieldien and van Nierkert, 2017). However, Timalsina (2007, 2011b) argued that the survival of street traders is nonnegotiable and their rights to the social and economic spaces of the city are inalienable. The desire for alternative means of self-employment is responsible for the expansion of street trading in the cities of developing countries (Mengistu and Jibat, 2015).

Adaawen and Jorgensen (2012), following the foregoing arguments, argued that street trading emerges out of the search for alternative means of livelihood. In their view, street trading is more dominant in the urban centres of developing countries than in the developed ones. As LaPorta and Schleifer (2008) noted, what makes a firm or business venture informal is tax evasion. They argued that even if an enterprise is formally and legally registered and

recognised by a regulatory body, its operation is still considered as informal if such business venture do not pay tax.

Although street trading is more pronounced in the Global South, it is a global practice

(Bhowmik, 2005). Njaya (2015) reported that more than 33% of the population of Zimbabwe are engaged in street trading as a means of livelihood. Despite these monumental contributions of street trading, Mazhambe (2017) reported that street traders have not been accorded the attention and priority they deserve.

Mazhambe (2017) noted that the three most important theories on street trading that are of interest to street trading analysts and researchers are the structuralist theory, the neoliberal theory and the rational choice theory. The structuralists believe that street trading is a survivalist approach to meeting basic needs (Williams and Gurtoo, 2012). This usually arises from social and economic structural failures manifested in the unavailability of alternative livelihood strategies; thus, they (that is, street trade) are adopted out of the necessity for survival (Mazhambe, 2017). The neoliberals, however, believe that street trading arises as a result of the need for employment and the need for goods and services that can be accessed at a minimal distance from the homes (Bhowmik, 2010; Williams and Gurtoo, 2012). Bhowmik (2010) therefore argues that street trading is an activity that is driven by necessity. According to Mazhambe (2017), the rational choice theorists believe that street traders are engaged in street trading because it is their choice to do so. As such, Mazhambe (2017) continued, they can also choose not to trade on the streets.

Nsakanya and Phiri (2018) opined that the number of street traders continues to increase owing to the global population increase and urbanisation. In their opinion, street trading

involves all business activities carried out in open street environments. Nsakanya and Phiri (2018) argued that one major factor that is responsible for the growth of street trading in urban areas of developing countries is the phenomenal rate of the urbanisation of poverty.

Adaawen and Jorgensen (2012) maintained that street trade has proven to be a sustainable livelihood for the urban poor in sub-Saharan Africa because of its capacity to create employment for the traders, thereby lifting them out of poverty. However, despite these economic and social benefits accruing from participation in street trading, the activity is still considered as illegal by most municipal authorities in sub-Saharan Africa (Nsakanya and Phiri, 2018). As a result, Mazhambe (2017) observed that street traders in the region encounter unnecessary persecution ranging from arrest to eviction and imprisonment.

Street traders are some of the most hardworking and dedicated citizens in the cities of developing countries (Neuwirth, 2013). However, government and its agencies continue to treat the issue of street trading with utmost disdain (Abe, 2013; Ogbonna *et al.*, 2016). In fact, Neuwirth (2013) reported that in Mumbai and Chennai in India, the municipal authorities have declared war on any form of street-based and informal livelihood. He also noted that Chengguan is the most violent development control agency that attacks and arrests street traders in Guangzhou, and sometimes, even confiscate their wares. Neuwirth (2013) further reported that in Lagos, Nigeria, street trading has been criminalised by the state government; they are often evicted and their stalls or sheds are demolished. However, it is evident that it is the informal jobs (especially in street trading) that aid the economic growth of the nation (Olurinola *et al.*, 2014).

It has been observed by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2002a, 2002b) that more than 50% of the global workforce is employed in the informal sector where street trading is the largest livelihood strategy. Neuwirth (2013)

maintained that street trading is very important towards fighting unemployment and poverty on the one hand, and improving the standard of living and quality of life of urban residents on the other. He noted that in Lagos, the share of informal sector employees grew from 32% in year 2000 to 52% in year 2005, and ultimately, 68% in year 2010. This is an indication that informal street trading is a vital strategy towards ensuring sustainable employment.

Street trading and other informal sector activities share the attributes of informal settlements (Watson, 2014). Basically, they lack security of tenure, occupy makeshift structures and are often located in disaster-prone areas (Obeng-Odoom, 2011; Kohli *et al.*, 2012). As a result, they are often subjected to forced evictions and displacements (Nikuze *et al.*, 2019). Such displacement, Ababe and Hasselberg (2015) and Vickery (2017) argues, results in livelihood shocks and stresses, thereby acting as threats to livelihood

sustainability.

City centres play very important roles in the economic life of urban areas (Mehanna and Mehanna, 2019). Traditionally, commercial activities take place on the street at the centre of urbanised spaces as a result of the business boom in such locations (Vickery, 2017; Mehanna and Mehanna, 2019). Commercial streets represent the most vital element in the cultural and economic landscape of the city (Kohli *et al.*, 2012; Nikuze *et al.*, 2019). It has further been argued by Nikuze *et al.* (2019) that commercial streets are the he to several livelihood activities, especially street trade.

Mehanna and Mehanna (2019) recorded that commercial streets were originally regarded as heritage markets. They opined that such street markets result from the aggregation of smaller trading units to form large and heterogeneous informal market structure on the sidewalks and major traffic nodes of the city. Kohli *et al.* (2012) observed that street markets are located at the edge of the streets with minimal distance from the carriageway; thus, they define the streetscape of the city. Meneses-Reyes and Caballero-Juarez (2014) maintained that street markets are the most active part of the city. They also argued that street trade brings ease to life by allowing urban residents and passers-by to acquire their needs with minimal stress and at the cheapest or lowest price possible.

It has been observed by Mehanna and Mehanna (2019) that in many Arabian nations, commercial streets are an integral part of the economic development of cities. Commercial activities that take place on the street are necessary for the daily life and livelihood of the teeming urban population (Menese, 2013). It is a very significant contributor to poverty reduction and improvement in standard of living (Ogbonna *at al.*, 2016; Adama, 2020). However, despite these positive economic, social and political contributions of commercial streets, they are still perceived and treated as undesirable and unacceptable by the municipal authorities in third world countries (Ojong, 2011; Abe, 2013). As MenesesReyes and Caballero-Juarez (2013) maintained, street traders in developing countries are severely penalised when caught, with the argument that to they constitute a nuisance and create irregularities in the urban streetscape.

In Egypt, street trading has been characterised as a traditional affair and the effort to legalise the activity has proven to be futile (Mehanna and Mehanna, 2019). Kohli *et al.*

(2012) argues that street traders are seen by citizens as promoters of inner-city heritage. Hernandez-Rodriguez (2017) reported that there is a growing recognition to draw useful livelihood insights from the underdeveloped markets that exist at the bottom of the marketing pyramid. Street markets exhibit homogeneous characteristics irrespective of their location, structure, size and age (Alarcón and Sato, 2019). Their primary purpose is to provide the traders with a means of sustenance, although they may be created for investment and entrepreneurial development purposes (Hernandez-Rodriguez, 2017). Therefore, the marketing niche created through street retailing is referred to as subsistence marketing (Coletto, 2013; Gamieldien and van Niekert, 2017).

Sinclair and Pertiera (2012) noted that street retailing has continued to experience tremendous growth and expansion globally. Their basic advantage is that they help urban residents to overcome the monopolistic tendencies that are created by formal businesses (Owusu, 2006, 2012; Onyango; 2012; Delclós, 2018). The bottom of the pyramid is occupied by the urban poor who cannot meet up with the financial requirements to consume formally traded goods (Sinclair and Pertiera, 2012). The location of informal markets on the street is linked to the viability of such locations and the chances of high patronage, high profit margin and low running cost (Boels, 2014).

In Mexico, for instance, Hernandez-Rodriguez (2017) reported that there is a growing trend in the adoption of itinerary mobile street markets. The economic diversity of these mobile

street markets is evident in the heterogeneous nature of goods sold, and these markets guarantee the availability of almost every consumption good (Delclós, 2018). It is important to note that unlike traditional markets, mobile street markets are legal entities developed by the government and allocated to the traders at a subsidised rate (HernandezRodriguez, 2017). The competition between mobile street markets and formal retailing outlets is so intense that the former threatens the continuous existence of the latter (Gamieldien and van Niekert, 2017; Racaud *et al.*, 2018). As a result, Alamgir *et al.* (2009) reported that efforts to transform and legalise informal trading outlets are increasingly made.

In the opinion of Callaghan (2014), retailing activities on the street is exacerbated by the rate of migration. Specifically, he noted that most migrants that come to the city with the hope of securing highly paid white-collar jobs are disappointed with the realities of formal sector employment limits. Furthermore, Nwajiuba (2005) argued that most migrants lack the required skills, experience or academic qualifications to secure formal jobs. He maintained that as part of the quest for survival and financial improvement, they take up entrepreneurial opportunities in the informal street markets.

Lata *et al.* (2019) opined that informal street trading is usually characterised by resistance and resilience to formal planning regulations and other forms of complexities. They argued that these resistance and complexities engenders the struggle for urban space. The planners' vision of the city is tampered with by the street traders, much as the street traders' vision of livelihood opportunities is tampered with by the urban planners and policymakers (Lata *et al.*, 2019). This creates conflicting rationalities, ambiguities and contest for the consumption of urban

space (Steel *et al.*, 2012). In fact, Roever (2016) reported that street traders in the Global South have devised effective means of defending their livelihoods.

The notion of informal economy has created a sort of dynamism in the understanding of the concepts of legality and illegality, legitimacy and illegitimacy, and permitted and nonpermitted ventures (Roy, 2005, 2009). Regarded largely as informal, street traders have continuously encountered the arbitrary denial of their right to use urban public place (Racaud, 2018). Kim (2016) opined that most urban planning and development agencies in developing countries adopt the Nordic notions of 'clean versus unclean' and 'ordered versus unordered' city. Gillespie (2016) noted that this tends to practicalise the Lefebvrerian conceptions of 'conceived space' and 'lived space'. In other words, adoption of such regulations will create a discord between the space produces by town planners and the desired space for daily living and interaction by the residents of the city (Meneses-Reyes and Caballero-Juarez, 2014).

Street retailing is a major defining feature of many cities globally, although the practice is both widespread and extreme in the cities of the Global South (Omar and Ishak, 2016). Omar and Ishak (2016) argued that many employment and livelihood opportunities in developing countries are street-based; thus, street retailing is the dominant livelihood strategy on the streets of third world cities. Racaud (2018) argued that street retailing is seldom accommodated in the urban master planning process; as a result, street traders are excluded from the legal city ventures. More worrisome is the fact that this exclusion has led to the inevitable illegalisation of street trading activities (Omar and Ishak, 2016).

Contemporary studies on urban settlements have revealed the alarming rate of the urbanisation of poverty, urban food insecurity, and urban human security challenges (Omar and Ishak, 2016). Sustainable livelihoods are required to tackle these burgeoning issues and to enhance the liveability of cities in the 'century of urbanisation' (Steel, 2012). Sustainable livelihoods, *inter alia*, are seen as livelihoods that are capable of coping with stress and shocks for a very long period of time without affecting the ecosystem where it is undertaken (Saha, 2017). Lee (2008) argues that the primary priority of sustainable livelihoods approach is the poor.

Street retailing has grown from the traditional survival haven for the poor and unemployed segment of the population to become the fastest growing entrepreneurial enterprise for small-scale businesses (Omar and Ishak, 2016). It is actively competing with the business activities in the formal sector of the economy in developing countries (Devlin, 2011a). Devlin (2015) also noted that street trading serves as a very productive livelihood activity for the poor and those who are deprived of formal jobs. In the same vein, Omar and Ishak (2016) contended that street retailing is one of the most sustainable livelihood strategies in developing countries. This is a deviation from Ligthelm's (2013) assertion that street retailers are small business owners whose goal is survival, and therefore, are unproductive. The literature suggests that street traders are, in fact, very productive and growth-oriented business owners whose only difference from formal business owners is security of tenure and legal status (Lee, 2008; Devlin, 2011b; Coletto, 2013; Boels, 2014; Adama, 2020).

2.2.1 Global trends in street trading

Timalsina (2011a, 2011b) evaluated urban informal livelihoods in Nepal with emphasis on street trade. The study was aimed at investigating the livelihood opportunities on the streets of Nepal with a view to establishing the role of good urban governance in enhancing street livelihoods. Adopting the descriptive approach, Timalsina (2011a, 2011b) discovered that street trading contributes significantly to the livelihood security and sustainability of the urban poor individuals and households in Kathmandu, Nepal. It was also discovered that there is a persistent tension between street traders and urban authorities with regard to the issues of encroachment, taxation and licensing. Timalsina (2011a, 2011b) concluded that despite the critical role of street trading in employment creation, income generation and poverty reduction; it is still not recognised as a legal venture in the existing urban planning and poverty reduction policies. It was recommended that street trading should be seen as an integral part of urban development process, and that planning policies and practice should recognise street trading as a necessary part of the urban development process.

Timalsina (2012) attempted to contextualise the livelihoods of migrant street traders in the urban centres of Kathmandu, Nepal. The aim of the study was to appraise the contributions of street trading to the livelihoods of the residents of Kathmandu metropolis. Timalsina (2012) adopted the case study approach. Comparative analysis of access of migrant street traders to livelihood assets between their original rural communities and their new urban destination was carried out. It was discovered that majority of street traders have enhanced their social capital, strengthened their human and political assets bases, experienced improved financial capital and enjoyed better physical capital. Timalsina (2012) concluded that the street traders

expressed willingness to continue their economic activities undisturbed. He, therefore, recommends the adoption of the concept of inclusiveness in urban planning and development.

Similar results and recommendations were presented by

Joshi (2018) in his study of street traders' citizenship in India.

Omar and Ishak (2016) evaluated the occupational behaviours of street food hawkers in Malaysia. The study was aimed at profiling the behaviours of food hawkers in metropolitan Malaysia. Omar and Ishak's (2016) study adopted the non-probabilistic sampling approach to sample only five respondents for their study, and the oral interview method was adopted for data collection. Descriptive analysis was conducted and it was discovered that the people engaged in street trading because of its relative ease to entry, high patronage and high profit margin. To justify the income-earning capacity of street retailing, majority of the traders reported that they were employers of labour with employees to whom they pay wages from the proceeds of their businesses. Some of the respondents emphasised that they earned above average formal sector workers and are therefore satisfied with their current job on the street. It was, therefore, recommended that street retailers should be given the enabling environment to operate their livelihoods through the provision of viable and adequate trading space. Similar findings were reported in Greece by Antonopoulos *et al.*

(2011).

Delclós (2018) appraised the needs of informal street traders in Barcelona. The study aimed at appraising the practical social needs of the street traders. The purposive sampling approach was used to select the respondents for the study. Interviews were conducted with the street

traders in Barcelona. Descriptive and content analysis techniques were adopted for the study. It was discovered that street trading improves the livelihoods asset base of the traders. It was also discovered that street traders in Barcelona insist on their rights to work and trade in the city. In addition, majority of the street traders in Barcelona were found to be former formal sector employees who were adequately educated. Delclós (2018) concluded that street traders tend to be satisfied with life generally, and with their livelihoods in particular. Therefore, he recommended that enabling environment should be given to street traders in order to practice their livelihoods undeterred.

2.2.2 Street trading in Africa

Adaawen and Jorgensen (2012) analysed the livelihood effects of urban regulations on street trading in Accra, Ghana. The study aimed at evaluating the effects of space regulations on the livelihoods of hawkers in the streets of Accra. Qualitative research approach was adopted and it was shown that eviction of street traders from their primary place of trade affect their livelihood outcomes negatively. Furthermore, street traders in Accra exhibit considerable level of resilience to eviction because they tend to return to their original location in the shortest possible time. It was suggested that more holistic and inclusive physical and economic planning measures such as job creation, provision of accessible credit facilities and provision of adequate and satisfactory trading spaces will help to minimise the proliferation of traders on the streets of Accra. Similar findings and recommendations were presented by Lyons and Titus-Msoka (2010) in their study of Tanzania.

Steel *et al.* (2014) investigated the reason for the resilience of street traders to evictions in Accra, Ghana. They adopted the non-probabilistic sampling technique to administer structured questionnaires to street traders in two street market areas in Accra. Descriptive analysis was carried out and it was discovered that street traders realise higher profits at congested areas of the Central Business District; thus, they tend to return to these locations in the shortest possible time irrespective of the incessant evictions. In other words, street traders in Accra are extremely resilient to evictions from municipal authorities. Steel *et al.* (2014) therefore recommended the need to adopt improved urban planning and consultative models that will accommodate street trading within the planning and regulatory framework

of cities.

Awatey (2014) studied the effects of street trade on the livelihoods of street children in Kumasi, Ghana. The study aimed at examining the impacts of 'streetism' on the living conditions of street children in the study area. The study adopted the cross-sectional survey method to collect both qualitative and quantitative data; while key informants interview was used to collect some sensitive and inherent data from street traders in Kumasi. Descriptive analytical techniques were used and it was discovered that street children are survivalists who are either on the streets by themselves or have been sent to the streets by their parents or guardians to help out in the family upkeep. It was recommended that orientation agencies should embark on preventive services to help overcome the menace of streetism among children in Kumasi, Ghana.

Mengistu and Jibat (2015) appraised the contribution of street trading as a safety net for the financially disadvantaged people in Ethiopia. The study by Mengistu and Jibat (2015) aimed at investigating the economic conditions of street traders in the study area. Their objectives

were to analyse the socioeconomic characteristics of street traders; appraise the environmental and working conditions of the traders; and analyse the contributions of street trading to the livelihood of the participants. The study was substantially based on focused group discussion, key informants interview and personal observation. Descriptive analysis was carried out and it was discovered that the dominant participants in street trading are people of low socioeconomic status and the unemployed. Consequently, Mengistu and Jibat (2015) asserted that poverty and unemployment are the major reasons for involvement in street trading. Interestingly, it was discovered that the street traders perceived that their occupation enhances their financial, human and social capital bases. It was therefore recommended that there should be a policy that guides the establishment and operation of street business in Ethiopia for the purpose of ensuring orderliness.

Gamielidien and van Niekert (2017) assessed the entrepreneurial values of street trading in South Africa. The aim of the study was to examine the extent of investment by the street traders in South Africa on the streets of the cities. Maximum variation sampling technique was adopted to distribute semi-structured questionnaires to the street traders. Descriptive and content analysis were carried out and it was discovered that street traders are resilient to vulnerable street situations. It was recommended that transformative approach to livelihood development and enhancement should be adopted in the case of street trading instead of outright illegalisation.

Mazhambe (2017) assessed the contributions of street trading to the economy of Zimbabwe. The aim of the study was to evaluate the contributions of street trading to the nation's city economies in particular and national economy in general. Non-probabilistic sampling

approach was used to administer structured questionnaires to the street traders in Harare, Zimbabwe. Descriptive analysis was conducted and it was discovered that 80.6% of street traders in Harare had no alternative livelihood. It was also discovered that street trading contributes to the economic development of Zimbabwe through sustainable employment generation, and consequently, poverty reduction. However, as elsewhere, it was found that municipal authorities in Harare consistently harass the street traders, thereby discouraging them from pursuing their livelihood. It was recommended that street trading, through appropriate policies, should be legally recognised as integral part of the urban economy and a valid and viable contributor to the economic development of Zimbabwe.

Ngome and Mulinya (2018) appraised the challenges in integrating street trading into urban development planning in Kenya. The study aimed at identifying the obstacles to the integration of street trading into the urban planning and management frameworks of cities. Mixed methods research approach was adopted where a combination of probabilistic and non-probabilistic sampling techniques were used to administer questionnaires to the respondents. Data were analysed using descriptive statistics and it was found that poor infrastructure, inadequate marketing space and high competition for customers occasioned by high patronage are the major factors responsible for the growth of street trading in Kenya. Consequently, these factors militate against the integration of street-based livelihoods into the formal sector of the Kenyan economy. A more realistic urban planning and policymaking that reflects the daily experiences of the urban residents in Kenya was recommended. The need for adequate and effective collaborative planning between town planning bodies and the residents and traders was also recognised. Similar results and recommendations were presented by Hasan and Alam (2015) in their study of street traders in Dhaka, Bangladesh.

Nsakanya and Phiri (2018) examined the emerging issues in street trading in developing countries using Zambia as a case study. The study aimed at assessing causes of street trading in Zambia. Descriptive research design approach was adopted. Questionnaires were purposively administered to street traders in Kalulushi, Zambia. Data analysis was conducted using descriptive techniques and it was discovered that unemployment is the major reason for participating in street trading in Zambia. It was also found that high profit margins and lack of or inadequate market infrastructure encourages traders to dominate the streets for their businesses. It was, therefore, recommended that there should be concerted efforts towards creation of adequate formal jobs and marketing spaces in order to discourage the growth and proliferation of street trade.

2.2.3 Street trading in Nigeria

Dipeolu *et al.* (2007) evaluated the livelihood potentials of street food vending in Ogun State, Nigeria. The study aimed at investigating the potential of street food vending to generate adequate income for the traders in the study area. Dipeolu *et al.* (2007) administered structured questionnaires to 180 street food traders which were randomly samples along major streets in selected cities in Ogun State, Nigeria. The data collected were basically socioeconomic and demographic in nature. Descriptive analysis techniques were adopted and it was discovered that the highest educational attainment of majority of street food traders in the study area is primary education. It was also discovered that street food traders earn above N28,000 monthly, enjoy over 12% profit margin and achieve more than 13% return on investment. They therefore concluded that street food vending in urban areas of Nigeria is a highly profitable business enterprise. However, they identified poor hygiene practices and inadequate monitoring as the main factors militating against the quality of street food vending

environments which consequently expose the consumers to food poisoning. They suggested continuous education, training and retraining of street food traders on safe preparation, handling and supply of street vended food.

Omiyinka and Festus (2010) investigated the role of social capital in street-based livelihoods of children in Ibadan, Nigeria. The aim of the study was to assess the effects of social relationships on the livelihood of street children in Ibadan. Data collection was done with the aid of structured questionnaires and focused group discussion. Omiyinka and Festus (2010) analysed the data collected with the aid of inferential statistics. It was found that there is a very strong and positive correlation between poverty and involvement of children in street livelihoods. It was therefore recommended that government should take swift actions to eradicate child street labour in Nigeria.

Chukuezi (2010b) assessed the role of the informal sector in employment or job creation in cities of the Global South. The study aimed at appraising the impacts of the informal economy on job creation in urban areas. Chukuezi's (2010b) study was based on an extensive review of literature on informal sector in Nigeria and other selected third world countries. Therefore, the study adopted the content analysis technique. Part of the findings of Chukuezi's (2010b) study was that the informal sector is a panacea to the problems of unemployment and poverty. She, therefore, recommended that informal employment should be viewed as a legitimate venture considering its positive contributions to the development of the national (and city's) economy of third world countries.

Ugochukwu *et al.* (2012) examined the socio-demographic attributes of child-street traders in Nnewi, Nigeria. The study was aimed at profiling the social and demographic attributes of children who sell goods on the streets of city. Cross-sectional survey was conducted and structured questionnaires were administered to children between 8-19years old. The study discovered that child street labour is more pronounced among children who live with relatives or guardians. However, it was also discovered that parents with poor financial status has high propensity to initiate their children into child labour on the streets. Ugochukwu *et al.* (2012) concluded that involvement of children in street trading is capable of depriving them of their right to education, which in turn, affects their human capital development. The study therefore recommended the outright illegalisation of child involvement in trading (especially during school hours) with strict sanctions attached for offenders.

Abe (2013) investigated the problems of street trading in Ibadan, Nigeria. The study was aimed at identifying the dilemmas faced by street traders in the city. Abe (2013) adopted the mixed methods research approach to determine the practical problems associated with street trading in Ibadan metropolis. Questionnaires were administered using purposive sampling technique and oral interview was conducted where necessary. Descriptive analysis was carried out and it was discovered that street traders are exposed or vulnerable to traffic accidents. It was also discovered that despite the dangers associated with street trading, street traders still view it as their only source of survival. Abe (2013) therefore recommends that ample organised trading spaces should be provided for the street traders in order to enhance their livelihood.

Olurinola *et al.* (2014) investigated the health and safety of street traders in Nigeria. The aim was to appraise the occupational health issues encountered by street traders in Nigeria. Olurinola *et al.* (2014) obtained the required data for their study from relevant secondary sources. Descriptive and binary logistic regression analyses were conducted. They discovered that more than 25% of street traders have suffered injuries, while more than 49% experience recurrent persecution from public or government officials. Quite interestingly, they also found that street trading contributes significantly to the financial capacity of the participants. They therefore recommended the provision of alternative business space for the street traders. They proposed mass job creation as a panacea to the continuous expansion of street trading.

Anetor (2015) investigated the economic value of street trading in Lagos, Nigeria, with the aim of ascertaining the livelihood effects of street trading. She administered structured questionnaires to street traders in ten major traffic routes in Lagos where street is dominant. Purposive or convenience sampling technique was adopted. Descriptive analysis was conducted and it was found that street trading contributes to the economic and social capital of street traders. It was therefore recommended that street trading should be incorporated into the existing and future urban planning and management paradigms. It was also suggested that subsidised shops should be provided in a proper or appropriate setting for the traders to occupy.

Ogbonna *et al.* (2016) evaluated street traders' resilience to municipal authorities in Aba, Nigeria. The aim of the study was to measure the level of resilience of street traders to urban planning and management agencies in the study area. Survey design approach was adopted

for the study and simple random sampling technique was used to administer questionnaires to street traders in Aba. Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to analyse the data obtained from the study. It was discovered that street traders have the tendency to continue in their trade even if other alternatives were made readily available. It was also found that street traders in Aba are not discouraged by the job hazards in the enterprise. Specifically, it was discovered that there is a strong and positive correlation between the size of business and the extent of resilience of the street traders.

However, the nature of product sold by the street traders was not found to be positively related to the level of the traders' resilience. The study recommends inclusive urban planning, development and management policies as a panacea to the age-long street traders versus urban planners' rift in the city. It was also suggested that the creation and establishment of separate zone for their trading will minimise their presence on the streets of the city.

Olajide *et al.* (2018) assessed the effects of urban development vision on the livelihood of street traders in Lagos. The sustainable livelihood framework was used as the theoretical underpinning of the study. Mixed methods research approach was adopted and data was collected with the aid of personal observation and oral interview. The study discovered that there is a serious mismatch between urban planning policies and the daily experiences of the urban poor in Lagos. Olajide *et al.* (2018) concluded that urban development in Lagos is not pro-poor because it reduces their livelihood opportunities, and sometimes, completely deprived them of their livelihoods. Olajide *et al.* (2018) therefore recommended that there should be inclusive urban development where the concerns of the poor are included in the urban planning and development process.

2.3 Street Trading and Urban Planning

Graaff and Ha (2015) have reported that governments and their agencies in many parts of the world are expressing strong determination to eradicate street-based livelihoods. Specifically, Martinez *et al.* (2018) noted that although street traders are the largest subgroup in the informal sector and although street trading is the largest employer of labour in Africa, the daily operation and the security of the livelihoods of street traders is shrouded in uncertainty. Street traders suffer incessant exclusion from the urban planning and development process; yet, they are citizens who have both a right to the space of the city and the right to livelihood (Meneses-Reyes and Caballero-Juarez, 2013; Huang *et al.*, 2014; Xue and Huang, 2015; Adama, 2020).

Modern urban planning evokes the notions of orderliness and disorderliness in the urban space (Morales and Cross, 2007; Molefe, 2011; Lombard and Meth, 2017). As Lyons and Snoxell (2005) and Devlin (2015) observed, street trading and other forms of urban informal livelihoods are characterised in the planning milieu as contributors to disorder in cities. However, from the Lefebvrerian perspective, Graaff and Ha (2015) argues that street traders have been deliberately and arbitrarily denied their rights to trading space because of the 'commoditisation and privatisation of public space'. Because they cannot afford the commoditised spaces of the city, street traders are exposed to recurrent harassment from State officials (Etzold, 2015).

It has been argued by Majale (2002) that urban poverty in Africa is intensified by the policies and actions of urban authorities. He maintained that the livelihoods of the urban poor in developing countries are negatively affected by the existing regulations. Similarly, Tipple

(2001) and Neuwirth (2013) submitted that physical planning regulations negatively affect both the life and livelihoods of the urban residents in the Global South. Similar argument has been advanced by Yahya (2001) and Njoh (2006) who maintained that physical planning in Africa hinders or constrains the livelihoods of the poor majority. Elsewhere (such as in India), pro-poor policies and regulations have been evolved to offset these issues (Majale, 2002; Sharit, 2005; Antonopoulos *et al.*, 2011; Shatkin, 2014). These pro-poor policies and regulations take into account the realities of the vulnerability context of poor people's livelihoods (Tipple, 2001; Antonopoulos *et al.*, 2011; Neuwirth, 2013; Chen *et al.*, 2016; Chingono, 2016).

Adama (2020) argues that master planning approach to urban development does not serve public interest *per se*, but the interests of a specific section of the public. This follows the argument of Yahya (2001) that the regulations of master plans are highly unrealistic, especially for the urban poor, unemployed and vulnerable groups. Adama (2020) further contends that (master) planning is the most visible instrument of socio-spatial exclusion of the urban poor, including street traders. To further justify street traders' experience of exclusion, Ebo (2013) and Omoniyi (2013) reported that the street retailers in Abuja are subjected to consistent inhuman arrests and criminalization by the police and urban planning authorities. As a result, street traders have adopted the ready-to-run approach in resilience to the arrests and violent confrontations they experience with the public agencies (Olabisi, 2013). Similar findings were reported in a study of Hanoi by Eidse *et al.* (2016). It is apparent from the foregoing that physical planning in developing countries has not been favourable to the street traders' livelihood.

2.4 Street Trading and Security of Tenure

Sustainable Development Goal 2 aims at "making inclusive and resilient cities" (Crossa, 2015; Kamalipour and Peimani, 2019). It is important to stress that inclusive cities must consider the priorities of the urban poor and economically disadvantaged groups such as street traders (Meneses-Reyes and Caballero-Juarez, 2013; Adama, 2020). Kamalipour and Peimani (2019) argued that because of its ability to accommodate the poor and skill-less majority of urban residents, street trading is now considered as integral to the functionality of cities. However, owing to their status as illegal occupants of public space, and because they lack security of tenure, street traders are largely nomadic traders who run with their wares at the sight of municipal authorities (Steel *et al.*, 2014; Omar and Ishak, 2016; Adama, 2020; Hossain and Wadood, 2020).

Olajide *et al.* (2018) observed that because the urban poor are engaged in informality, they often lack security of tenure or face difficulties in an attempt towards ensuring the security of their land tenure status. As a result, they argued, urban planning policies and the livelihoods of the poor are usually in conflict. In similar terms, it has been argued by Gillepsie (2016) and Mazhambe (2017) that urban authorities have the tendency to deliberately harass street traders and see them as a nuisance to the urban streetscape. He maintained that, for instance, although street traders in Harare are effective tax payers, there has not been any public policy effort aimed at legalising the activity.

Kamalipour and Peimani (2019) noted that insecurity of tenure can lead to livelihood insecurity. Furthermore, Nwajiuba (2005) argued that insecure livelihoods can lead to a wide

range of social, economic and health challenges such as food insecurity, crimes, illhealth, low life expectancy and proliferation of slums and squatter settlements. Existing urban development policies in Nigeria, for instance, contributes to the livelihood vulnerability and insecurity among urban poor residents (Olajide *et al.*, 2018; Adama, 2020).

It has been noted by Neuwirth (2013) and Sarpong and Nabubie (2015) that municipal authorities are sentimental and biased in their attack on street traders. Their selective attack is evident from the fact that they mostly target the poor and new immigrants whose businesses are relatively small (Omoniyi, 2013); while large businesses are left to operate freely on the street (Neuwirth, 2013; Chauke *et al.*, 2015). As Meneses-Reyes and Caballero-Juarez (2013) observed, eviction of street traders is engendered by selfish interests. This is seen in the case of Brazil during the World Cup of 2014 and Rio Summer Olympics of 2016 (Omar and Ishak, 2016; Kamalipour and Peimani, 2019).

In recognition of the dilemma encountered by the street traders and their disfavoured identity, UN-Habitat (2016) advocated for the integration of the informal economy into the formal economy for the purpose of achieving inclusive and participatory urban governance. However, Adama (2020) maintained that the potential flaws and complexities in such integration efforts are the reductionist approach to the formalisation exercise and the insensitivity to the needs of the beneficiaries of the process.

The colonial tradition of creating Central Business District (CBD) often creates traffic problems at the city centre even in the absence of any cognate business activity (Steel *et al.*, 2014). Generally, African cities have persistently adopted the colonialists' spatial planning approach that encourages socioeconomic class-based spatial segregation (Hart, 2008; Steel *et*

al., 2014; Mengistu and Jibat, 2015; Olajide *et al.*, 2018). Apparently, the Central Business District provides multiple opportunities for street trade (Steel *et al.*, 2014; BernalTorres *et al.*, 2018). However, it has been reported that the livelihoods of street traders are vulnerable to failure owing to their insecure tenure status (Olajide *et al.*, 2018).

2.5 Gender Dimension of Street Trading

The informal sector is permeated with issues of the inherent importance of gender (Adama, 2020). This implies that there is persistent inequality in access to space, jobs and economic production for males and females (UN-Habitat, 2016). Olabisi (2013) reported that women in Lagos suffer more challenges because they generally have low financial capital to acquire or pay for shops. Similarly, where the running capital of women is confiscated during raids, they tend to experience difficulties in obtaining new working capital (Adama, 2020).

Dunn (2015) maintained that gender had a significant impact on the choice of location and the kind of goods traded on the streets of third world cities. Furthermore, Cupers (2015) observed that women are mostly involved in street food and food products vending. Similarly, ILO (2015, 2016, 2018) and Njaya and Murangwa (2016) noted that women are mostly involved in trading perishable and low profit products on the streets.

Alarcón and Sato (2019) opined that urban authorities and the general public owe women the moral duty to uphold and protect their micro-scale livelihoods. Maintaining the moralists'

viewpoint, Peterson (2014) emphasised that the society requires practical 'moral codes' towards working-class women whether such women are employed in the formal sector or in the informal sector. Implementation of strict regulations on informal livelihoods has severe and irreversible consequences on the financial capital of women whose majority are engaged in informal economic activities (Alarcón and Sato, 2019).

2.6 The Rights Approach to Street Trading

Crossa (2009), Sankaran (2012) and Samara *et al.* (2013) reported that street traders in some cities have made concerted efforts to overcome the uncertainties that characterise their use of urban public space. Similarly, Martinez *et al.* (2018) reported that street traders in Colombia have obtained legal status through continuous negotiation and rights-based claims. As such, it is currently illegal to evict street traders in Colombia; and street traders must be adequately compensated where the need to relocate them arise (Hunt, 2009; Hummel, 2017; Martinez *et al.*, 2018). Same rights have also been accorded to street traders in Mexico (Crossa, 2009) and some parts of India (Jhabvala, 2010; Salés, 2018).

Oftentimes, in many parts of the world, street traders encounter forced eviction from public spaces which is sometimes accompanied with the arrest and humiliation of street traders and confiscation of their wares (Linares, 2018). Linares (2018) further noted that in most cases, street traders cite their rights to work and right to the space of the city. However, in the case of street traders in Lima, it was declared that the right of municipal authorities to regulate activities in the city supersedes the individual rights of street traders to trade and work in the

city space (Roever and Linares, 2008). Conversely, however, Hummel (2017) argued antithetically that the rights of street traders to free enterprise is protected by existing legal documents and international covenants, although such rights must not be exercised in a manner that breach the rights of others. Hummel (2017) contended that there is little (if any) evidence to suggest that street trading affects the exercise of the rights of other residents of the city.

Meneses-Reyes and Caballero-Juarez (2013) observed that labelling of activities in urban areas as informal and illegal had three broad perspectives. Firstly, the legalistic perspective uses legal language to illegalise those activities and maintain the supremacy of the rule of law (Hummel, 2017). Secondly, the regulatory perspective emphasises the objectivity of rules and regulations that aims at minimising negative impacts (Delaney, 2010). The third perspective is the critical perspective that sees informal activities as an approach to the management and consumption of space (Devlin, 2011a). These three viewpoints are highly indispensable in analysing the rights of street traders (Meneses-Reyes and Caballero-Juarez, 2014). Nevertheless, in developing countries, the popular belief among regulatory agencies and municipal authorities is that street trading constitutes a breach of law (Meneses, 2013). It has been argued that citizens have the right to trade goods and services in public spaces and on the streets (Hummel, 2017); although such right is highly contested in the policy arena (Mitchell, 2003). Such contest has to do with a redefinition of rights owing to the ideological conflict between the right to work and trade on the street and the right to free movement of commuters (Delaney, 2010; Devlin, 2011b). However, practical evidence suggests that the right to work on the street has been commoditised, and is therefore, subject to the affordability

of the traders (Meneses, 2013). For instance, in Mexico, there is a distinction between authorised and unauthorised street traders (Meneses-Reyes and Caballero-Juarez, 2014).

Authorisation of street trading is subject to the payment of stipulated levies after which the full right to trade and work on the street of the city is granted (Meneses-Reyes and Caballero-Juarez, 2014). Once the permit to trade on the street is obtained, the question of interference with free flow of traffic no longer arises (Meneses, 2013). This is an evidence of the prevalence of 'double-standards' in the existing urban planning and regulatory frameworks. Bellinvia (2013), therefore, argues that urban planning and management policies in developing countries are targeted towards 'punishing the poor'.

Holland (2015) and Morange (2015), however, observed that owing to their consistent experience of eviction and arrests, street traders have developed resilience to enforcements. He noted that street traders lay claim to their right to the space of the city, their right to work, and their right to the city. The strict and inflexible urban policies and regulations create a scenario of 'they versus us' between street traders and municipal authorities (Hummel, 2017). The legality, formality and appropriateness of street trading, inter alia, are subjectively determined. With regards to their dynamics in the space of the city, Coletto

(2010, 2013) attempted to investigate the level of legality of trading in public spaces; while Bellinvia (2013) traced the evolutionary trends of planning regulations on street selling.

Saha (2017) observed that street traders provide more affordable and diverse products to the urban poor, while ensuring easy access and proximity to products than formal markets.

Since production is incomplete except the products are consumed (Mengistu and Jibat, 2015), street trading is an indispensable phase in the production process (or chain of production). More so, its entrepreneurial nature can help in ensuring the actualisation of better livelihood outcomes for the traders (Gamiieldien and van Niekert, 2017). Furthermore, street trading is capable of enhancing the visual quality of urban streetscape, while at the same time ensuring the establishment and maintenance of strong social capital among urban residents (Mitullah, 2003, 2005; Kamalipour and Peimani, 2019).

Kamalipour and Peimani (2019) observed that classical theories of location choice points out that people choose to occupy locations which they adjudge to be of 'prime' value for satisfying their daily living. The choice of location by street retailers and entrepreneurs relies on a number of factors; the most important factor being the rate of traffic flow (Brown, 2006; Taheri, 2018). The use of urban space for entrepreneurial activities is negotiated by street traders between themselves on the one hand, and between them and other users of public spaces and roads on the other (Kamalipour and Peimani, 2019). Street traders generally occupy traffic nodes, intersections and other public spaces where the chance of patronage is high (Saha, 2017). In most cases, as Taheri (2018) argues, they are strong competitors to the shop-owners in such prime locations. Therefore, the shopowners instigate the municipal authorities to evict the street traders 'to restore sanity' to the city (Devlin, 2011a; Taheri, 2018; Adama, 2020). Bénit-Gbaffou (2016) and Adhikari (2012, 2017) maintained that the legal status of street trade is contested, thereby exposing street traders to tenure insecurity. He

noted, however, that the adoption of the human rights approach by the street retailers has yielded positive results.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

This study adopts a descriptive research design approach to study the livelihood impact of street trading in Bida, Niger State. Table 3.1 summarises the research process in the light of the data required to achieve the objectives of the study. It also shows the instruments and methods of collecting and analysing the survey data towards achieving these objectives. Finally, it illustrates the techniques that were utilised for data presentation to ensure comprehensiveness. Specifically, the first column presents the objectives of the study; the second column specifies the data that are required to achieve the stated objectives; the third column points out the instruments that were used to collect the needed data; and the fourth column shows the techniques of data analysis for each of the stated objectives of the study.

The required socio-demographic data collected for this study were the age of the street traders, their marital status, gender, educational attainment and family size. These data were collected with the aid of structured questionnaire; while descriptive and inferential analytical techniques were applied to analyse the socio-demographic data collected.

Similarly, the required economic data of the street traders were the types and nature of products, selling pattern, quantity of products displayed, source of the products, form of sale, mode of display, duration of practice, daily hours of operation, number of days worked and access to official support. These were collected with the aid of physical observation, digital camera and questionnaire and analysed using descriptive techniques.

Furthermore, the spatial data required were the Geographic coordinates of the locations and distribution of street traders, the size of land occupied by street traders, minimum setback, mode of space acquisition, nature of shed, security of tenure, and perceived impact of distance decay. These data were collected with the aid of Handheld Geographic Positioning System (Garmin eTrex 10), personal observation and questionnaire. These spatial data were analysed using ArcGIS point mapping and frequency analysis. Stationary street traders formed the focus of this study. This follows the argument of Steel (2012) and Taheri (2018) that itinerant street traders have the tendency of providing duplicity of data.

Finally, the livelihood data required to evaluate the livelihood effects of street trading in Bida were data on assets, social capital, earnings, savings, livelihood diversification, initial financial capital and current financial capital. These were collected with the aid of

wellstructured questionnaire. These livelihood data were analysed using descriptive (percentages and mean) and inferential (Chi-square and Correlation analysis,) techniques.

Table 1: Study objectives, required data, instrument for data collection and methods of analysis

OBJECTIVES	DATA REQUIRED AND COLLECTED	INSTRUMENT OF DATA COLLECTION	DATA ANALYSIS
Examine the sociodemographic characteristics of the street traders in the study area	Age, marital status, gender, education and family size	Questionnaire	Descriptive analysis
Appraise the economic characteristics and nature of participation in street trading in Bida	Types and nature of products, selling pattern, quantity of products displayed, source of the products, form of sale, mode of display, duration of practice, daily hours of operation, number of days worked and access to official support	Personal observation, digital camera and questionnaire	Descriptive analysis
Assess the spatial characteristics of street trading in Bida	Geographic coordinates of the locations and distribution of street traders, the size of land occupied by street traders, minimum setback, mode of space acquisition, nature of shed, security of tenure, and perceived impact of distance decay	Handheld GPS (Garmin eTrex 10), personal observation and questionnaire	ArcGIS point mapping, Pearson correlation and descriptive analysis
Assess the livelihood impact of street trading in Bida	Assets, social capital, earnings, savings, livelihood diversification, initial financial capital and current financial capital, length of participation, assets, livelihood diversification, business expansion	Questionnaire	Descriptive (percentages and mean) and inferential (Chisquare and Correlation analysis,) techniques

3.2 Sources and Methods of Data Collection

The required data were collected by the researcher directly from the field using personal observation, oral interview as well as structured and Likert-Scale questionnaires respectively. The data that were collected for the study through the aforementioned techniques included socioeconomic data such as data on income, expenditure and alternative livelihood strategies; perceptual data such as data on the perceived risks, causes and benefits of participation in street trading; and demographic data such as data on age, gender and marital status of the street traders in the study area. These data were used to measure the rate of street trading in the area as well as the perception of street trading as a livelihood activity by the traders in Bida.

Relevant data were also sourced from published and unpublished sources. This comprises all the information obtained from relevant and up-to-date literature and the existing data sources that were useful for this study. This gives the readers of this study vivid and concise information on the direction of the study beforehand. It also gives the researcher a holistic overview of the phenomenon of street trading.

3.3 Sampling Approach

3.3.1 Sampling technique

The study adopted non-probabilistic sampling technique to select the respondents for the study. Specifically, the respondents for this study were selected using purposive sampling technique. The choice of purposive sampling is based on the fact that data on the exact population of street traders in Bida is difficult, if not impossible, to obtain.

3.3.2 Sampling size

Since the sampling frame of the study population (that is, street traders in Bida) is not available, the study purposively sampled 420 respondents for the study. This is based on the assumption that this sample size is enough to provide information on the livelihood impacts of street trading in the study area. For a similar study elsewhere, Dipeolu *et al.* (2007) sampled 180 respondents. As such, the study used the data from the selected sample size to generalise on the livelihood impacts of street trading in Bida.

3.4 Data Presentation Techniques

The data collected and analysed were presented in forms of tables, charts and graphs. Specifically, the outputs from Chi-Square test and correlation analysis were presented in tabular form, while other data (particularly the socioeconomic data of street traders) were presented using charts, graphs, tables and frequency polygons. The spatial location of clusters of street traders in Bida was presented using point maps.

3.5 Data Analysis Techniques

Data collected were analysed with the aid of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Frequency analysis was conducted on the socioeconomic variables or attributes of street traders and the mean and standard deviation was used to analyse definite variables such as age and income of street traders and minimum setback observed by street traders in the study area. Correlation analysis was used to measure the relationship between participation in street trading and socioeconomic variables such as gender and household size of the respondents. Similarly, Chi-Square (X^2) test of independence was used to determine the relationship between socioeconomic variables such as gender and education

and the spatial attributes of the street traders. Furthermore, X^2 was used to measure the relationship between initial financial capital and current financial capital of the street traders in the study area. The inclusion of inferential statistics in this study is predicated on similar studies by Olurinola *et al.* (2014) and Ogbonna *et al.* (2016).

ArcGIS 10.0 was used to map the locations and clusters of street trading activities in Bida.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 Socio-Demographic Attributes of Street Traders in Bida

4.1.1 Gender

The result presented in Figure 4.1 shows that more than 63% of the street traders in Bida are males, while more than 37% are females. This indicates that there is gender disparity in the practice of street trade in the study area. This corroborates the findings of Njaya and Murangwa (2016) in their study of Harare, Zimbabwe; where it was found that street trading is a considerably gender-biased livelihood strategy. However, the involvement of more than 39% of women in street trading indicates that the activity serves as a vital livelihood strategy for a considerable number of women in the study area. This may have significant positive effects on the reduction of feminisation of poverty and unemployment.

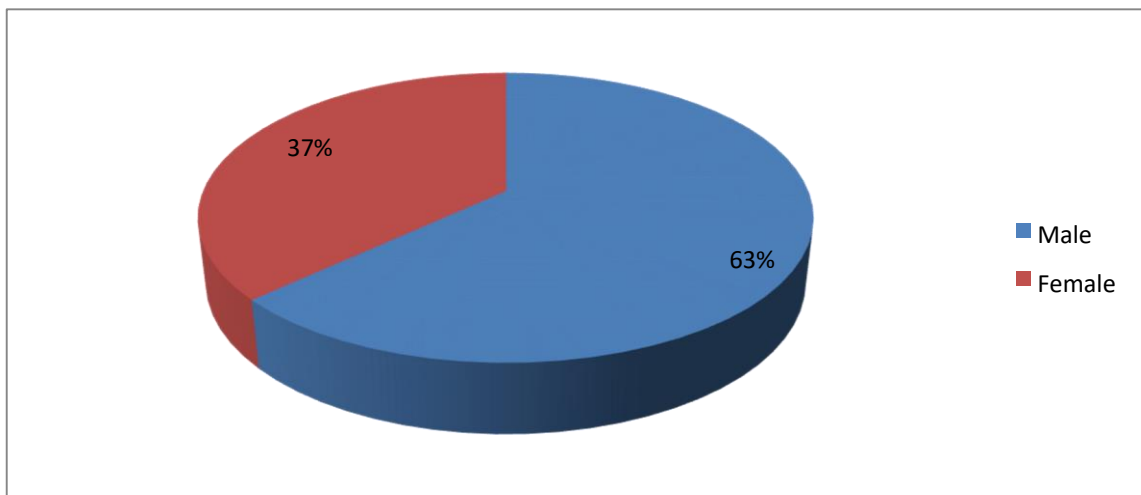


Figure 4.1: Gender

4.1.2 Marital status

Figure 4.2 shows the marital status of the street traders in Bida. While more than 31% of the traders reported that they were single, about 64% stated that they were married.

However, the street traders who reported that they were divorced and widowed were considerably low in number, accounting for about 3% and 2% of the traders respectively. This indicates that they engage in street trading to eke out a living and support their families.

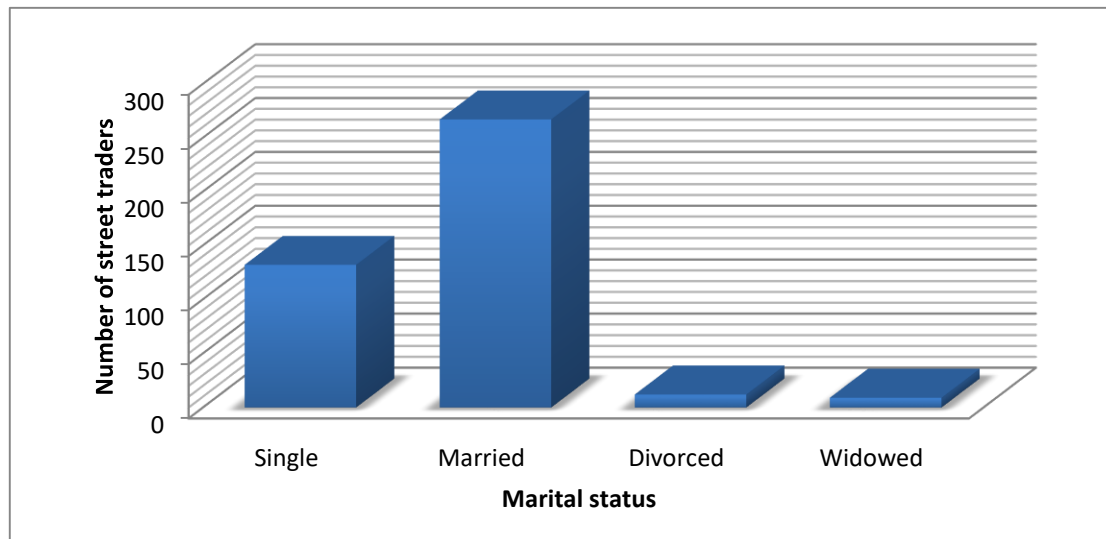


Figure 4.2: Marital status

4.1.3 Education

The result presented in Table 4.1 shows that more than 3% of the street traders in Bida did not possess any formal education; while less than 1% of the traders only attained primary education. Interestingly, however, more than 46% of the traders have acquired secondary education. It is equally interesting to note that more than 14% and about 9% of the street traders have attained postsecondary education with National Diploma or

National Certificate in Education and Higher National Diploma or Degree respectively. This means that street vending serves as a livelihood strategy to both formally educated and uneducated residents of the city. A similar study of Barcelona by Delclós (2018) reported similar finding.

Table 4.1: Educational qualification

Educational qualification	Frequency	%
None	14	3.3
Quranic education	111	26.4
Primary school	2	.5
Secondary school	195	46.4
Diploma or National Diploma or National Certificate in Education	60	14.3
Higher National Diploma or Degree	38	9.0
Total	420	100.0

The study further probed into the number of years spent schooling. The result presented in Table 4.2 shows that, on the average, the street traders in Bida have acquired 9years of formal education; while the median value for the number of years spent schooling is 12years. It is important to also note that the minimum number of years spent schooling among the street traders in the study area is 0years; while the maximum number of years spent schooling among the street traders in the study area is 16years. This implies that both people with zero formal education (or no formal education) and people with up to 16years formal education (graduates of polytechnics and universities) find livelihood opportunities in street trade.

N	Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum
420	9.05	12.00	0	16

Table 4.2: Years spent schooling

4.1.4 Age

The age distribution of the street traders in Bida is shown in Table 4.3. The result shows that more than 32% were less than 30years old; about 33% were between 30-39years old; about 29% were between 40-49years old; less than 4% were between 50-59years old;

while less than 2% of the traders were up to 60years and above. The implication of this is that street trade is mostly engage in as a livelihood strategy by people below

60years old. What this means is that there is the tendency to retire from street trading among the street traders in the study area as they grow older. A further observation reveals that people between 25-49years of age have a higher propensity to practice street trade, accounting for about 93% of the street traders in the study area.

Further analysis in Table 4.3 reveals that the average age of the street traders in Bida is about 36years old, with the median age of the traders placed at 35years. It was also discovered that the minimum age of the street traders in the study area is 24years; while the maximum age of the street traders in the study area is 65years. The implication of this is that street traders in Bida have a very low tendency of engaging children in street labour. This is contrary to the findings of Omiyinka and Festus (2010) in Ibadan and Ugochukwu *et al.* (2012) in Nnewi, Nigeria; and Awatey (2014) in Kumasi, Ghana where it was found that street trade is engaged upon by underage children. This is quite interesting; given that child street labour in particular and child labour in general is a social problem. The result also shows that the aged and elderly in Bida have an extremely low tendency of engaging in street labour, indicating that street trade is a livelihood strategy of the ‘active population’.

Table 4.3: Age distribution

Age distribution		Frequency	%
	20-29	136	32.4
	30-39	138	32.9
	40-49	122	28.9
	5-59	16	3.8
	60 and above	8	1.9
	Total	420	100.0
Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum
35.75	35.00	24	65

4.1.5 Family size

Table 4.4 shows the family sizes of the street traders in Bida. It can be seen that up to

31% of the street traders had a one-person family. This may be connected to the fact that a considerable proportion of the street traders in the study area are single. It was also found that more than 21% of the street traders in the study area had a family size of between 2 and 5 persons. These street traders' family sizes falls within the Nigerian national average household size of 5 persons per household. Further observation revealed that about 31% of the street traders in Bida had a family size of between 6 and 8 persons, placing these street traders' household sizes considerably above the national average. It is quite worrisome, however, to note that more than 10% of the street traders had a family size beyond the national average, recording between 9 and 10 persons in their household. The implication of this is that they are engaged in street trading to improve the wellbeing of their families because of their family sizes.

Table 4.4 further shows the average family size of the street traders in the study area. The result shows a mean household or family size of 4.81 and a median of 5.00 persons per household. Furthermore, it was observed that the minimum family size of the street traders in the study area is 1; while the maximum family size is 10. Surprisingly, however, this is quite diverse from the finding in Table 4.4 which shows that only about

52% of the street traders in Bida had a family size of less than 6 persons.

Table 4.4: Family size

		Frequency				%
1-3		144				33.3
4-6		132				31.4
7-9		130				30.9
10 and above		14				3.3
Total		420				100.0
N	Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum		
420	4.81	5.00	1	10		

4.2 Economic Characteristics and Nature of Participation in Street Trading

4.2.1 Type, nature and source of products sold

Table 4.5 shows the type of product sold by the street traders in the study area. The result shows that about 41% of the street traders in Bida were specialised in selling household consumables. Specifically, about 9% were foodstuff traders; 16% were minirestaurant operators; while about 11% were meat sellers. On the aggregate therefore, while about 19% of the street traders in the study area were raw food sellers, 16% sold processed food. This corroborates the assertions of Nurudeen *et al.* (2014) and Omar and Ishak (2016) that the streets of the city are viable locations for the trade of food. It was also found that about 24% of the street traders sold clothes and shoes, indicating that the street is also a viable location for the trade of fashion. Similarly, about 10% of the street traders in Bida sold household wares or accessories such as furniture, mattresses, wallpapers and curtains; while about 6% of them sold phone accessories and electronics. Furthermore, about 20% of the street traders in the study area sold other items such as kitchen utensils, brass work, fruits and automobile parts.

Table 4.5: Product type

	Frequency	%
Foodstuff	36	8.6
Cooked Food	67	16.0
Meat	45	10.7
Vegetables	22	5.2
Cloth	55	13.1
Shoes	46	11.0
Electronics	5	1.2
Phone accessories	19	4.5
Household Wares	43	10.2
Others (Specified)	82	19.5
Total	420	100.0

The nature of products sold by street traders in Bida is presented in Table 4.6. It shows that while about 45% of the street traders are engaged in the sale of perishable products, more than 55% are engaged in the sale of non-perishable products. This may be linked to earlier findings presented in Table 4.6 which shows that more than 40% of the street traders in Bida are engaged in street food and food products vending. There is therefore, diversity in the nature of products sold among the street traders in the study area. **Table 4.6: Nature of product**

Nature of product	Frequency	%
Perishable	188	44.8
Non-Perishable	232	55.2
Total	420	100.0

Figure 4.3 indicates that more than 42% of the street traders in the study area bought their products from outside the town. However, it was found that about 35% of the street traders in Bida produced their resources by themselves; while about 23% source their products from within the town. The implication of this is that street trade serves as both a primary and secondary livelihood strategy in Bida.

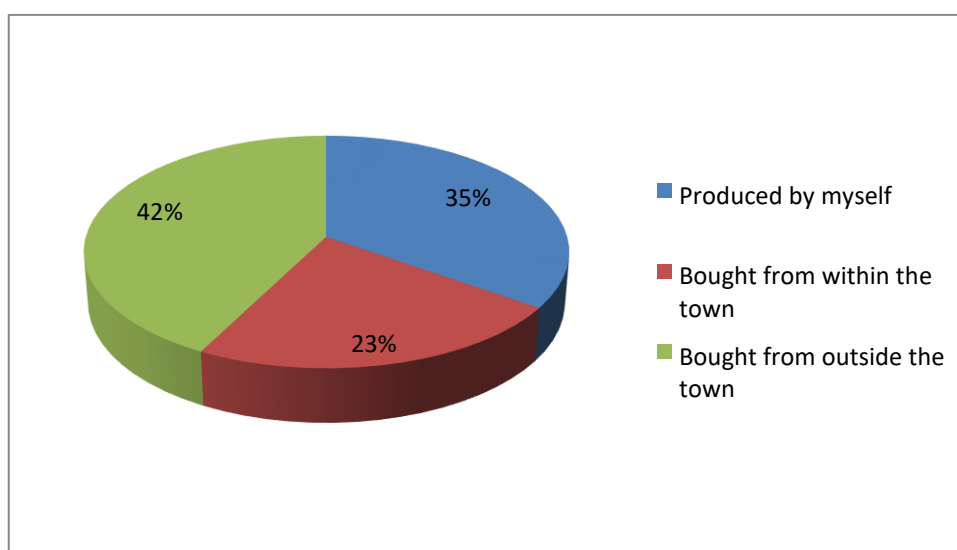


Figure 4.3: Source of product

4.2.2 Selling characteristics

In this subsection, the selling characteristics of the street traders such as their selling pattern, the quantity of products they display for sale, the form of sale they adopt and the mode of display of their goods are examined. Table 4.7 presents the selling pattern of the street traders under study. All the street traders in this study were stationary traders. Itinerary, mobile and nomadic traders were not included in the study. This was with a view to ensuring mutual exclusivity of the participants of the study and reducing double responses from same participant which may be the case if mobile street traders were included.

Furthermore, the quantity of products displayed for sale among the street traders in the study area is also presented in Table 4.7. It was found that about 96% of the street traders in Bida displayed all their goods for sale; while more than 4% only displayed few products, leaving the remainder of their products in their stores. Similar findings were reported in a study of Hanoi by Eidse *et al.* (2016). The implication of this is that those street traders who displayed only few of their products for sale may require the provision of adequate trading space in order to enable them display all their goods for sale.

The form of sale adopted by the street traders in Bida is shown in Table 4.7. It was found that about 61% of the street traders in the study area were retailers; while about 33% are engaged in both wholesale and retail activities. Interestingly, however, more than 6% of the street traders in Bida were engaged in only wholesale activities. This implies that contrary to the perception of street trade as a survivalist livelihood strategy, street trade serves as a very vital and viable livelihood strategy for a considerable number of street traders in Bida.

Table 4.7: Selling characteristics of the street traders

Selling Characteristics		Frequency	%
Selling Pattern	Stationary	420	100.0
	Itinerary	0	0.0
Quantity Displayed	Few	18	4.3
	All	402	95.7
Form of sale	Wholesale	255	60.7
	Retail	27	6.4
	Both	138	32.9

Figure 4.4 shows the mode of display of the street-vended goods in the study area. It was found that about 54% of the street traders in Bida displayed their goods on the floor; more than 12% sold their goods on wheelbarrows; while about 6% adopted other forms of display for their goods such as display in car booths and hanging under umbrellas. Personal observation showed that those that sold their goods on wheelbarrows included those that sold vegetables, fruits, meat and phone accessories. However, more than 28% of the street traders in Bida displayed their goods in their shops and kiosks. The implication of this is that the street traders in Bida do not have secure and adequate trading space.

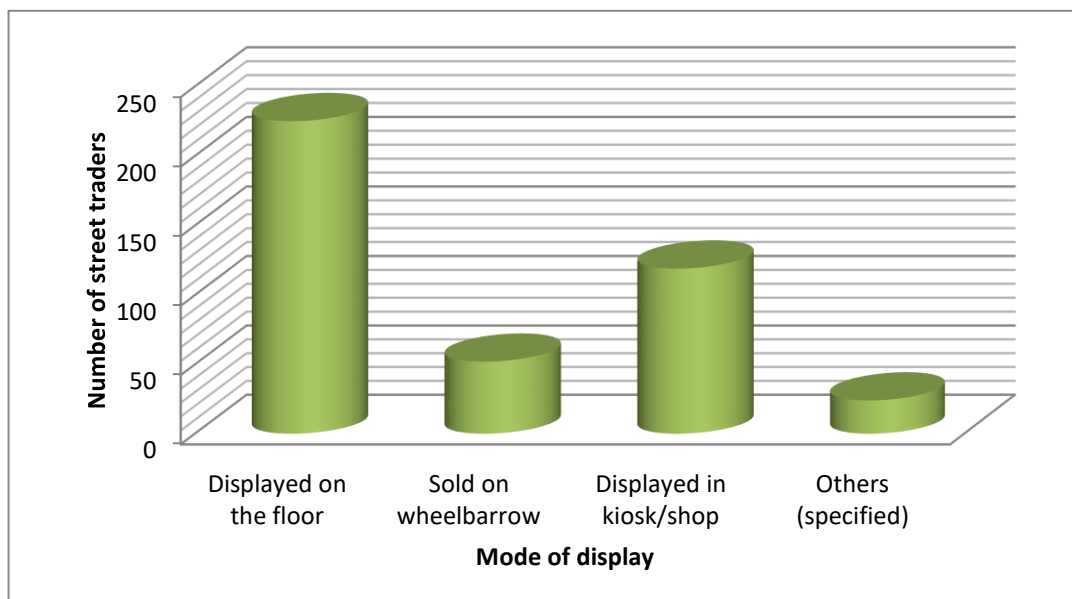


Figure 4.4: Mode of display

4.2.3 Trend of the street trading

This subsection considered issues such as the year of starting, duration of practice, and daily starting time, daily closing times and number of days worked weekly. Figure 4.5 shows the experience of the street traders in Bida in terms of the length of practice of the trade. It was found that less than 1% of the street traders in Bida started engaging in street vending as a livelihood strategy before year 1999; about 11% started the livelihood activity between years 1999 and 2009; while more than 87% of the traders started engaging in street vending as their livelihood strategy between years 2010 and 2019. However, the results shows that there has been considerably decline in street trade enlistment since year 2020 because only about 1% of the street traders in the study area reported that they started engaging in street vending from year 2020 till present. The implication of this is that there may be a possible decline in street trade in Bida the future.

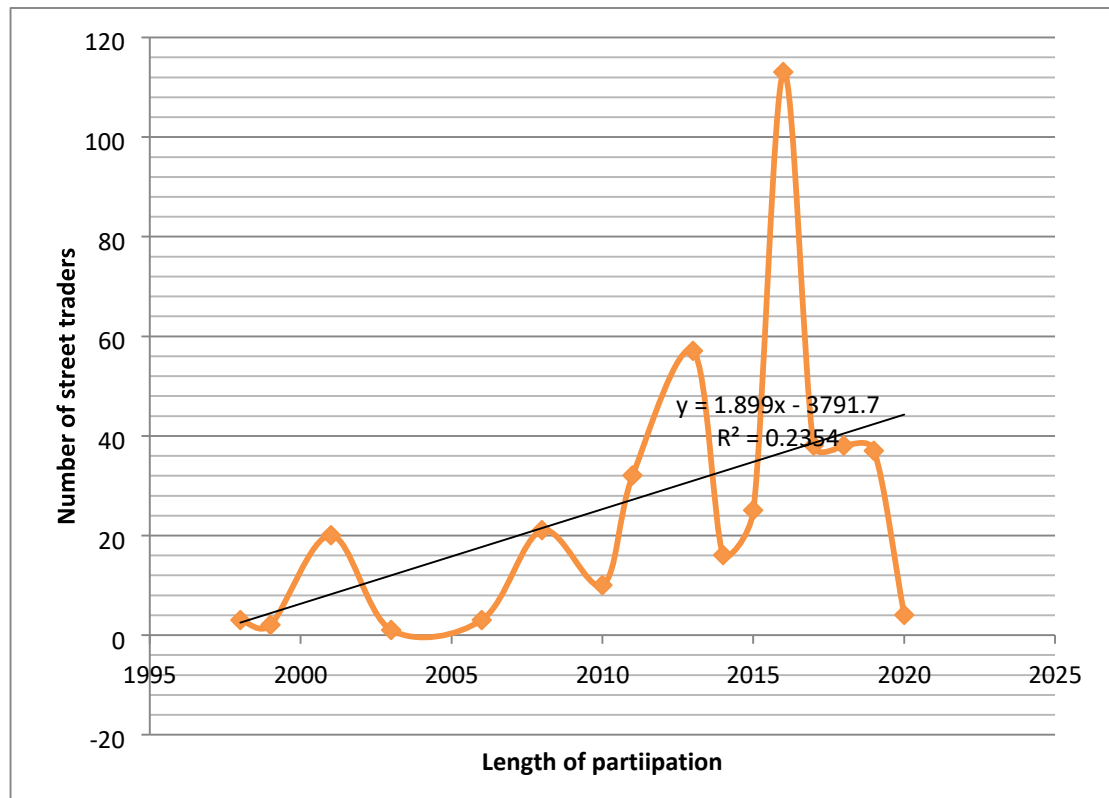


Figure 4.5: Length of participation

The relationship between the length of participation in street trading and the socioeconomic characteristics of the street traders was tested using the standard multiple regression analysis technique. The result in Table 4.8 shows that there is a strong and positive relationship between the socioeconomic characteristics and the length of participation in street trading ($R^2 = .562$; $df = 6$; $p = <.005$). In other words, how long the street traders engage in their livelihood activities on the streets is a function of their socioeconomic attributes. Similar result was reported by Mengistu and Jibat (2015) in their study of street traders in Ethiopia.

Table 4.8: Relationship between length of participation and socioeconomic characteristics

<u>Model Summary</u>				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.750 ^a	.562	.556	3.030

a. Predictors: (Constant), Family size, Gender, Educational qualification, Marital status, Age, Years spent schooling

Table 4.9 shows the daily time of practice of street trading by the street traders in Bida. It was found that up to 96% of the street traders in Bida practice their livelihood strategy in the morning. However, more than 3% of the street traders practice street trade as a livelihood activity in the evening; while less than 1% practices street trade in the afternoon. On the aggregate, only about 4% of the street traders in Bida practice do not start street trading in the morning. This indicates that street trade serves as the primary livelihood strategy of the majority of street traders in the study area.

Table 4.9: Daily time of trading

	Frequency	%
Morning	403	96.0

Afternoon	3	.7
Evening	14	3.3
Total	420	100.0

An investigation of the daily time of starting of street trading livelihood among the street traders in Bida was conducted. Table 4.10 shows that about 96% of the street traders in the study area resume their street trading livelihood in the morning; less than 1% start trading in the afternoon while more than 3% of the traders start their trade in the evening daily. This corroborates earlier finding in Table 4.9 which shows that majority of the street traders in Bida start their daily street trading livelihood activity in the morning.

Table 4.10: Daily time of starting

Time	Frequency	%
7am	33	7.9
8am	370	88.1
11am	3	.7
4pm	14	3.3
Total	420	100.0

Table 4.11 shows the daily time of closing for the street traders in Bida. It was found that about 10% of the street traders in the study area close from their street livelihood in the morning; while more than 6% closes from street trading in the afternoon in the study area. However, it was reported by about 84% of the street traders that they close from street trading in the evening daily. Comparing this with an earlier finding in Tables 4.9 and 4.10, it can be deduced that about majority of the street traders in Bida have no other livelihood strategy other than street trading.

Table 4.11: Daily time of closing

	Frequency	%
10:00am-11:59am	16	3.8
12:00pm-1:59pm	27	6.4
2:00pm-3:59pm	0	0.0

4:00pm-5:59pm	3	0.7
6:00pm-7:59pm	348	82.9
8:00pm-9:59pm	0	0.0
10:00pm-11:59pm	26	6.2
Total	420	100.0

Table 4.12 shows the number of days worked among the street traders in Bida. It was found that about 41% of the street traders in Bida worked for 6days per week; while more than 59% worked for 7days per week. No street trader in the study area reported to have worked less than 6days weekly. Furthermore, the minimum number of days worked by the street traders weekly is 6days, while the maximum number of days worked per week is 7days. The fact that majority of the street traders in the study area worked for the 7days of the week corroborates the assertion that being poor is being always tired.

Table 4.12: Number of days worked weekly

	Frequency	%
6days	171	40.7
7days	249	59.3
Total	420	100.0
Minimum	Maximum	N
6	7	420

Source: Author's Field Survey (2021)

4.2.4 Official support system for street traders

Issues discussed here cover access to formal support, the types of support accessed and the amount accessed from named support facilities such as N-Power and Bank Loan. Figure 4.6 shows access to formal support system. It was discovered that less than 25% of the street traders in Bida receives official support for their trade; while about 76% of the traders have not received official support for their livelihood activity.

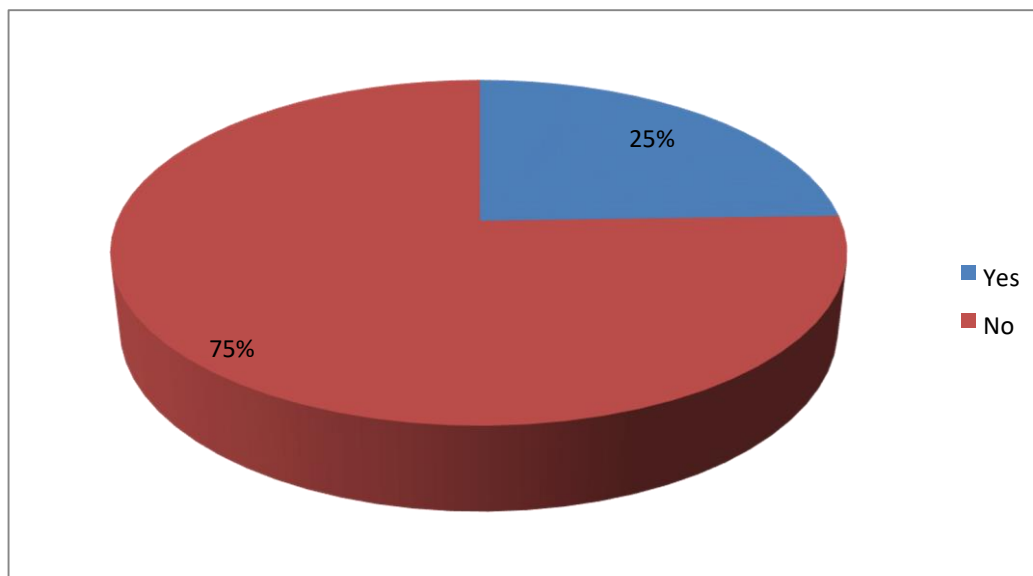


Figure 4.6: Access to official support

Table 4.13 shows the specific official support received by the street traders in Bida. It was found that only about 12% of the street traders receiving official support in the form of N-Power; while about 12% also reported having received loans from banks. This implies that the street traders in the study area have limited opportunity for business expansion.

Table 4.13: Specific official support received

Support scheme	Yes		No	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
TraderMoni	0	0	420	100.0
Young Entrepreneurs of Nigeria (YEN)	0	0	420	100.0
YouWIN				
Subsidy Reinvestment and Empowerment Programme (SURE-P)	0	0	420	100.0
Youth Initiative for Sustainable Agriculture (YISA)	0	0	420	100.0
Youth Entrepreneurship Support Programme (YES-P)	0	0	420	100.0
Presidential Youth Empowerment Scheme (P-YES)	0	0	420	100.0
Project YES	0	0	420	100.0
N-Power	51	12.1	369	87.9
Bank Loan	52	12.4	368	87.6

The amount of financial support gotten from N-Power among the street traders in Bida is shown in Table 4.14. It can be seen that the recipients or beneficiaries of N-Power received a uniform amount. This is not surprising owing to the fact that N-Power is a government's social investment scheme with a uniform amount paid into the account of beneficiaries. However, it must be noted that the ₦720,000 aggregate amount of financial support received is the total sum of the payment gotten throughout the twoyears span of the programme/scheme.

Table 4.14: Received N-Power

				Frequency	%
₦720,000				51	51
Total				51	100.0
Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum	N	
720000.00	720000.00	720000	720000	51	

Table 4.15 shows the financial support obtained through bank loans among the street traders in Bida. The result shows that less than 36% of the street traders in the study area have been able to access up between ₦500,000-₦1,000,000 (which represents the maximum loan amount accessed) to enhance their street trading livelihood. Although very few of the street traders in the study area have accessed bank loans; opportunities exist for others too to access the loans.

Table 4.15: Accessed Bank loan

				Frequency	%
₦100,000-₦500,000		33	64.71		
₦500,000-₦1,000,000		19	35.29		
Above ₦1,000,000		0	0.0		
Total		51	100.0		
Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum	N	
469230.77	450000.00	300000	1000000	52	

4.2.5 Established other branches/business expansion

Figure 4.7 shows the street traders that have established their business in other branches. It was reported by more than 21% of the street traders that they have established other branches for their business. The implication of this is that these street traders have experienced growth in their businesses.

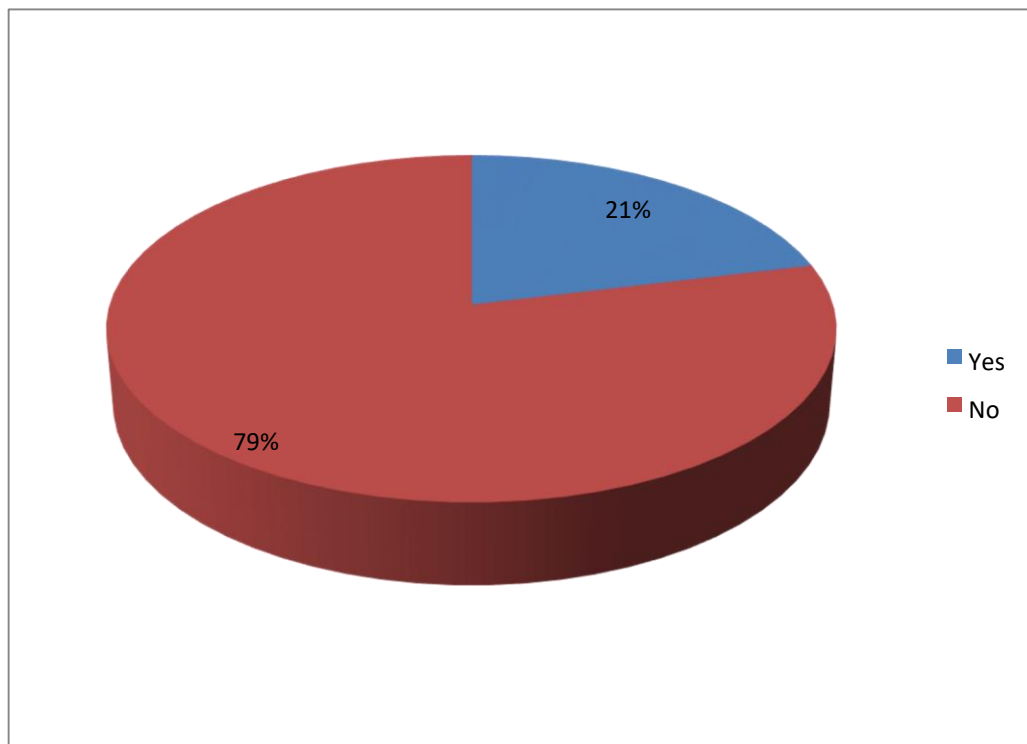


Figure 4.7: Established other branches

4.2.6 Registration with Corporate Affairs Commission

Figure 4.8 shows the street traders' registration with Corporate Affairs Commission (CAC) of Nigeria. It was found that more than 36% of the street traders in Bida have legally registered their business, and are by virtue of such registration, legal enterprises. This rate of registration of the street businesses by the street traders is a commendable effort, indicating the likelihood of a rise in such registrations in the foreseeable future.

This is a deviation from the general belief that street businesses are essentially unregistered and illegal business ventures. The implication of this is that there is a possibility for the formalisation of street trading livelihoods.

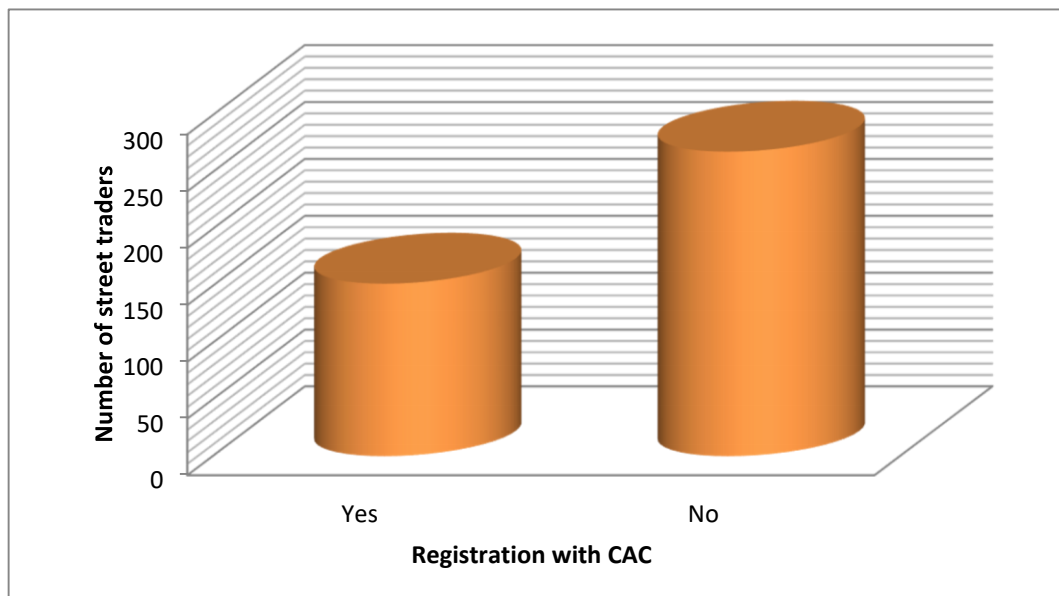


Figure 4.8: Registered with CAC

The willingness of the unregistered street traders to register their business enterprises is considerably high. Table 4.16 shows that all of the street traders who have not registered their businesses with CAC are willing to register their businesses. Overall, none of the unregistered street traders in Bida expressed unwillingness to register their businesses.

Table 4.16: Willingness to register with CAC

	Frequency	%
Yes	268	63.8
No	0	0.0
Total	268	100.0

Figure 4.9 shows the factors impeding business registration by the unregistered street traders in Bida. It was found that the most serious obstacles to business registration among the street traders in the study area were the financial cost and the rigour of the process

which accounted for about 63% and 30% of the obstacles to business registration respectively. However, additional important factors militating against business registration among street traders in Bida were the time involved and other factors such as apathy and disinterestedness which accounted for about 6% and 1% of the obstacles to business registration among street traders in the study area. These factors impede street traders' registration of their businesses regardless of the high level of willingness to register their businesses with CAC.

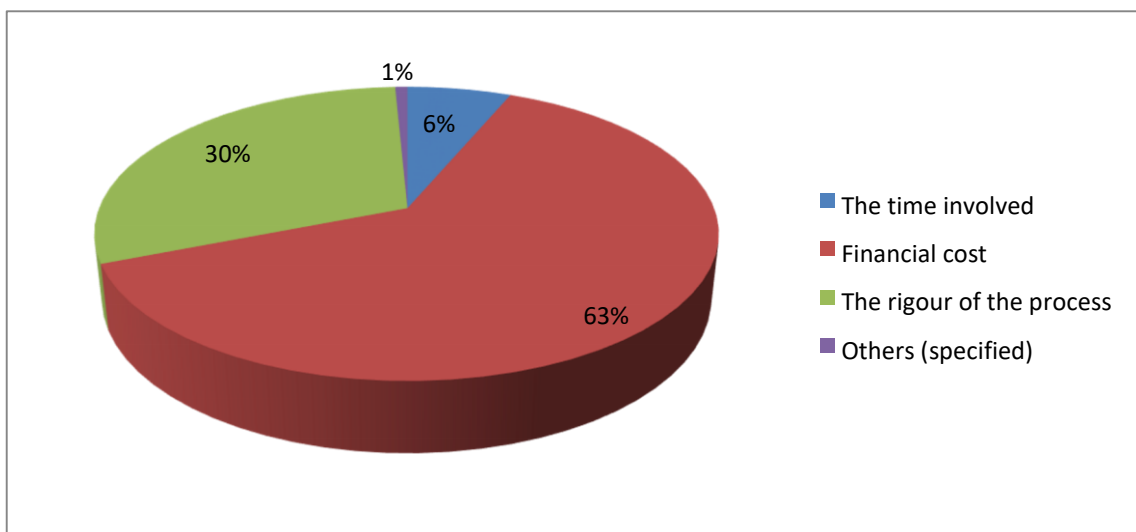


Figure 4.9: Obstacles to registering with CAC

4.2.7 Business challenges experienced

Table 4.17 shows the street traders' experience of health challenges. It was found that less than 3% of the street traders experiences recurrent health challenges. However, this figure still calls for concern given that street vending is a quite tasking livelihood activity. The implication of this is that the street traders who experience recurrent health challenges may require regular medical attention.

Table 4.17: Experience recurrent health challenges

Frequency	%
-----------	---

Yes	10	2.4
No	410	97.6
Total	420	100.0

Figure 4.10 shows the actual recurrent health challenges faced by the street traders who reported that they experience frequent health challenges. It was found that about 30% each of the street traders experience asthma, waist pain and back pain; while about 10% of the street traders were epileptic. The experience of waist pain and back pain may not be unconnected to the burdensome and tasking nature of street trading livelihoods; given that stress and back pain on the one hand, and waist pain on the other are medically related. Viewed from another perspective, they may be associated with the street traders whose ages were advanced as shown in Table 4.3. However, it is quite worrisome that asthmatic and epileptic patients participate in street trade. The implication of this is that there may be a need for discouraging this class of street traders from participating in street trade through the provision of alternative livelihood strategies.

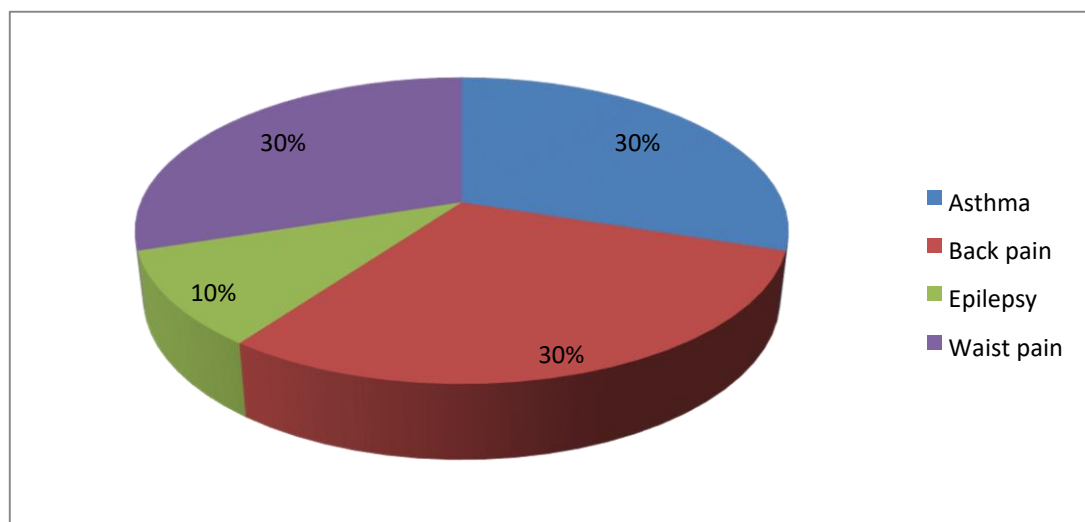


Figure 4.10: Actual health challenges frequently experienced

The street traders in Bida were also queried whether they have sustained injuries as a result of their participation in street trade as shown in Table 4.18. Surprisingly, about 53% of the street traders have experienced injuries from the practice of their livelihood strategies on

the streets of the city. The implication of this is that street trade makes the participants vulnerable to injurious accidents. Therefore, there may be a need for establishing first-aid medical outlets in areas occupied by street trade.

Table 4.18: Gotten injury from the trade

	Frequency	%
Yes	226	53.8
No	194	46.2
Total	420	100.0

Street traders' encounter and experience of challenges in Bida was further examined. As shown in Table 4.19. It was found that about 98% of the street traders in the study area experience diverse business, social and administrative challenges that impact negatively on their businesses; while only about 2% of the street traders reported that they do not experience challenges in carrying out their livelihood activities on the streets of Bida.

Table 4.19: Facing challenges

	Frequency	%
Yes	410	97.6
No	10	2.4
Total	420	100.0

The specific challenges faced by the street traders in the study area were further explored. Figure 4.11 shows that the major challenges faced by about 80% of the street traders in Bida are related to the administration of the city. Specifically, about 79% experienced incessant harassment from security agents; while about 1% considered trading regulations as challenging to their livelihood development. However, about 10% of the street traders in the study area considered poor accessibility as the major challenge facing their livelihoods on the streets of Bida; while less than 11% of the street traders cited other factors such as theft; and vulnerability to accidents and harsh weather conditions as the major challenges they experience in exercising their daily livelihood on the streets. This may not be unconnected to the high level of street traders' experience of tenure insecurity as shown in Table 4.23. These findings confirm the arguments of (Etzold, 2015) and

Kamete (2017) that street traders are subjected to incessant harassment and violation of right to livelihood. The implication of this is that there may be a need for the Local Government and Urban Board to provide enabling environments for the exercise of street-based livelihoods in Bida.

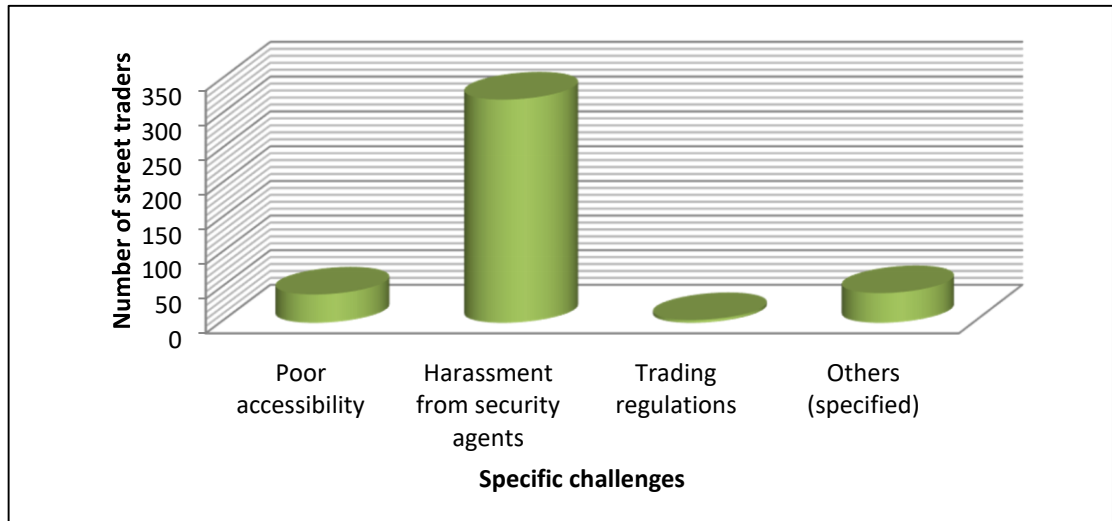


Figure 4.11: Specific challenges faced

Table 4.20 shows the street traders that have experienced loss of their livelihood. It was found that about 93% of the street traders in Bida have ever lost their goods. **Table 4.20: Ever lost goods**

	Frequency	%
Yes	390	92.9
No	30	7.1
Total	420	100.0

Figure 4.12 shows the specific nature of the loss of goods experienced by the street traders in Bida. It was found that more than 79% of the street traders have lost their goods to law enforcement agencies of the city; while about 16% have experienced the loss of their goods to theft. However, less than 5% of the loss of the goods of the street traders in Bida resulted from exposure to harsh weather elements and irregular daily return. These latter groups of street traders may be the sellers of perishable commodities.

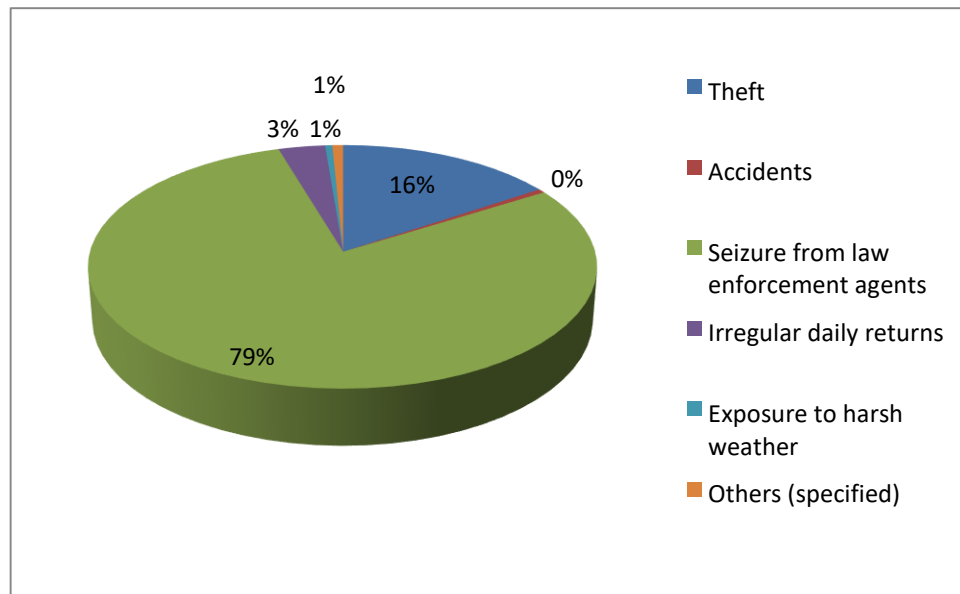


Figure 4.12: Specific nature of loss

4.2.7.1 Intensity of challenges faced by street traders

The seriousness of robbery in the study area was further examined. Table 4.21 shows that about 95% of the street traders in Bida did not consider robbery as a serious problem. However, more than 5% of the street traders only considered robbery as somehow serious.

Furthermore, street traders' experience of theft was examined. Table 4.21 shows that less than 19% of the street traders considered theft as a serious problem; while about 23% stated that theft is somehow serious. However, more than 58% of the street traders did not consider theft as a serious challenge to their livelihood.

Table 4.21 shows the street traders' experience of accidents in Bida. More than 96% of the street traders in Bida reported that accident is not a serious problem to their livelihood activities; while about 4% considered accidents as only somehow serious.

Table 4.21 shows the perception of the seizure of their goods by law enforcement agencies in Bida. For more than 83% of the street traders in the study area, the problem of seizure of goods by law enforcement agencies was considered as serious. This means that street traders in the study area experience high rate of seizure of goods by security officials.

Table 4.21 examined the problem of irregular daily return experienced by street traders in Bida. It was found that more than 90% of the street traders in Bida did not consider irregular daily returns from their businesses as a serious problem.

Table 4.21 examined the harassment of the street traders by motorists. It was found that less than 4% of the street traders considered harassment from motorists as a serious problem to their livelihood.

The problem of street traders' exposure to harsh weather elements was also examined. Table 4.21 shows that more than 44% of the street traders in Bida considered their exposure to harsh weather elements as a serious problem. The implication of this is that the street traders may be in need of adequately sheltered trading spaces on the streets of Bida.

The street traders' exposure to pollution was further assessed. Table 4.21 shows that none of the street traders considered their exposure to pollution as a serious problem. This is not surprising given that informal livelihood environments share similar traits with informal settlements where pollution is one of the main characteristics.

Table 4.21: Challenges faced by street traders

Challenge	Most serious		Serious		Somehow serious		Less serious		Not serious	
	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P
Robbery					22	5.2	374	89.0	24	5.7
Theft	24	5.7	55	13.1	96	22.9	226	53.8	19	4.5
Accidents			2	.5	15	3.6	384	91.4	19	4.5
Seizure by law enforcement agents	199	47.4	108	25.7	43	10.2	59	14.0	11	2.6
Irregular daily returns	8	1.9	36	8.6	162	38.6	200	47.6	14	3.3
Harassment from motorists	6	1.4	9	2.1	148	35.2	238	56.7	19	4.5
Exposure to harsh weather			16	3.8	170	40.5	221	52.6	13	3.1
Exposure to pollution							392	93.3	28	6.7

Note: F=Frequency; P=%

4.3 Spatial Characteristics of Street Trading in Bida

4.3.1 Spatial locations of street trading activities in Bida

Issues considered under this subsection are the spatial distribution of street trading locations and the perceived impacts of distance decay. Figure 4.13 and Figure 4.14 shows the spatial distribution of the location of street trading activities in Bida and the density or intensity of street trading activities in each neighbourhood. Esso Neighbourhood had the highest number of street trading clusters in the study area with ten street trade areas. However, Banwuya and Banman neighbourhoods had four street trading locations each. These neighbourhoods are located at the centre of the town and have considerable number of markets and junctions. Interestingly, street trading activities were not present in Niger Poly Area, Banyagi Area and Government Reserve

Figure 4.13: Spatial Distribution of Street Trading Locations in Bida

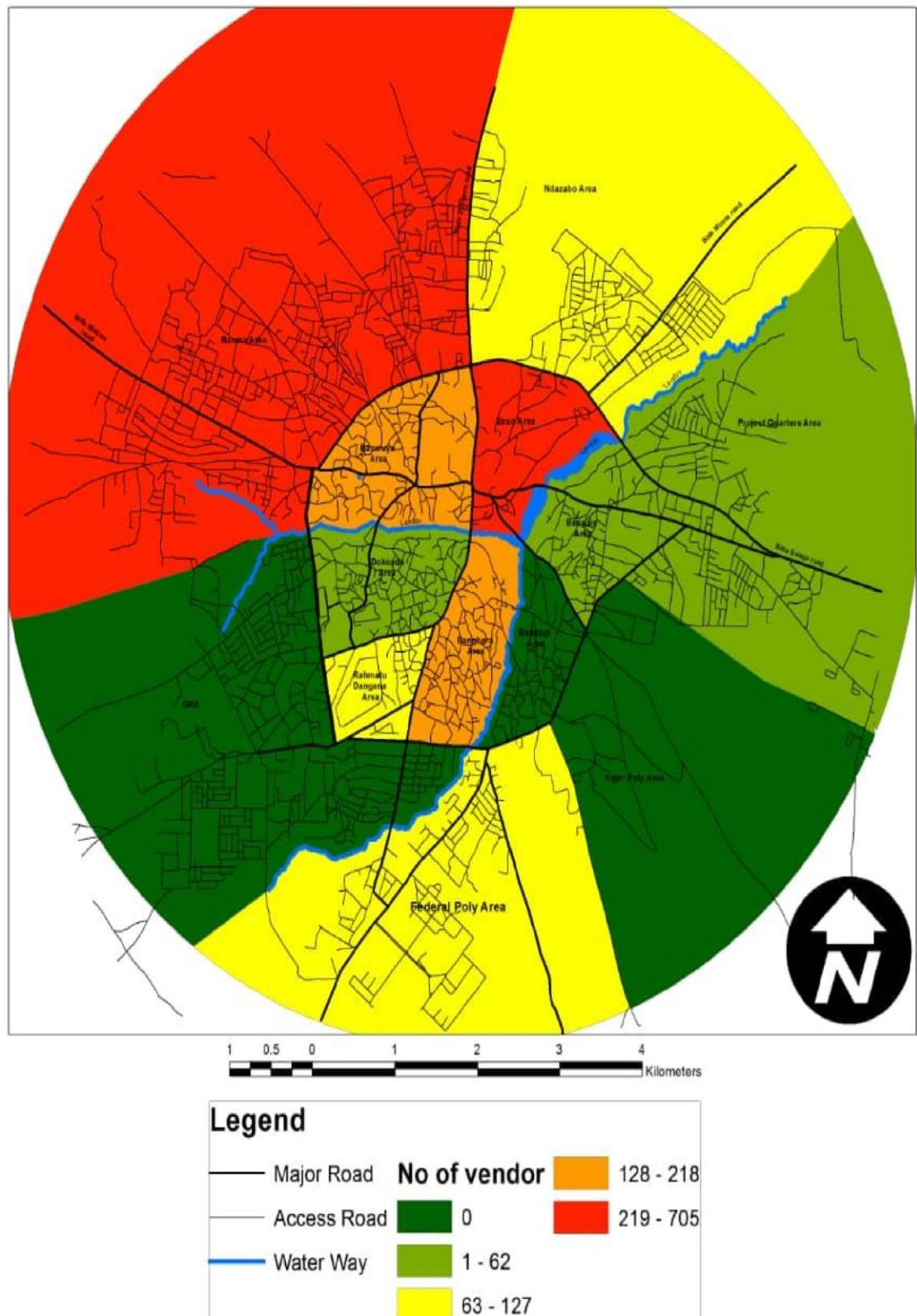


Figure 4.14: Intensity of street trading across the neighbourhoods

The perception of the street traders in Bida about the effects of distance decay on their businesses is shown in Figure 4.15. It was reported by more than 26% of the street traders in Bida that distance decay cause low patronage for them. Similarly, more than 26% of the street traders in the study area perceived that distance decay causes low sale. Consequently, about 40% of the street traders perceived that distance decay affects their profit margin. Surprisingly, however, about 16% of the street traders in the study area reported that distance decay reduces the tax burden on them. This implies that about 16% of the street traders in Bida are prospective tax evaders. This corroborates the assertion that street traders are tax evaders.

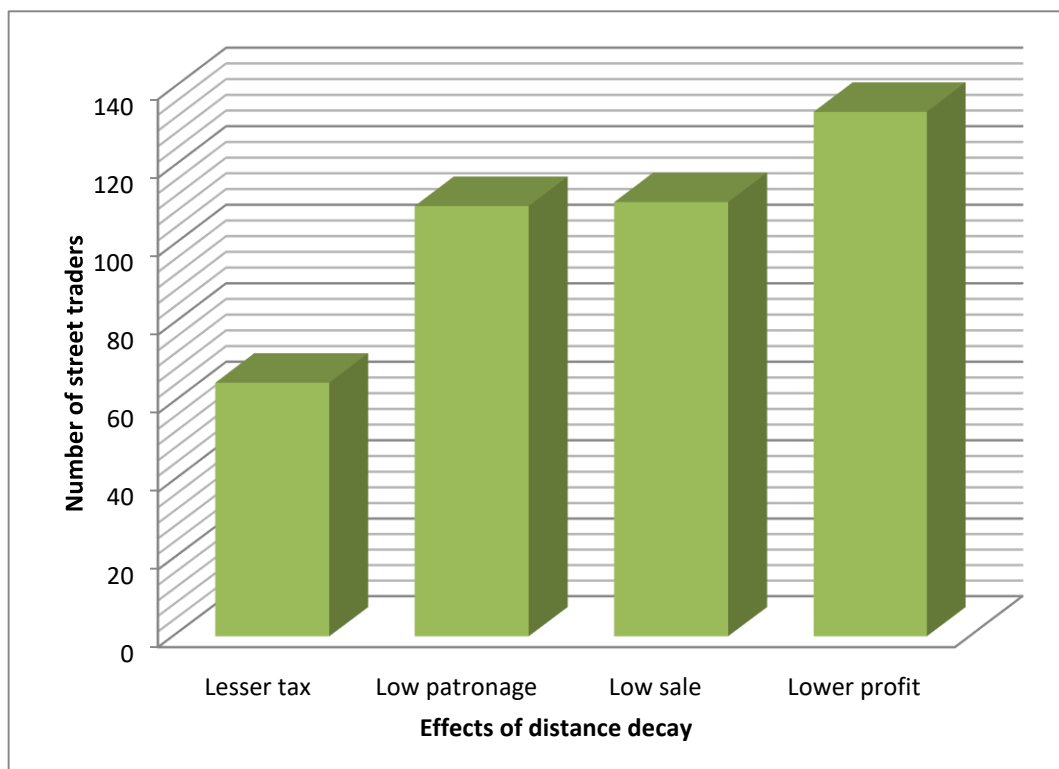


Figure 4.15: Effect of distance decay

4.3.2 Space appropriation practices of the street traders

This subsection examined issues such as mode of space acquisition, perceived security of tenure, nature of shed occupied by the street traders, size of land occupied by the street traders and the street traders' experience of eviction. The mode through which the street traders in Bida acquired their trading space is shown in Figure 4.16. It was found that more than 56% of the street traders in the study area are squatters. This corroborates the argument of Kamalipour and Peimani (2019) that majority of street traders are illegal occupants of the streetscape. In addition, more than 11% are carrying out their trade on spaces they inherited. Less than 2% of the street than traders bought their space from community heads or land and real estate agents. However, more 31% of the street traders acquired their trading spaces through other modes, especially through renting. It is however worrisome to note that no street traders in the study area reported that they obtained their trading space from the Urban Board. The implication of this is that majority of the street traders in the study area may be experiencing tenure insecurity.

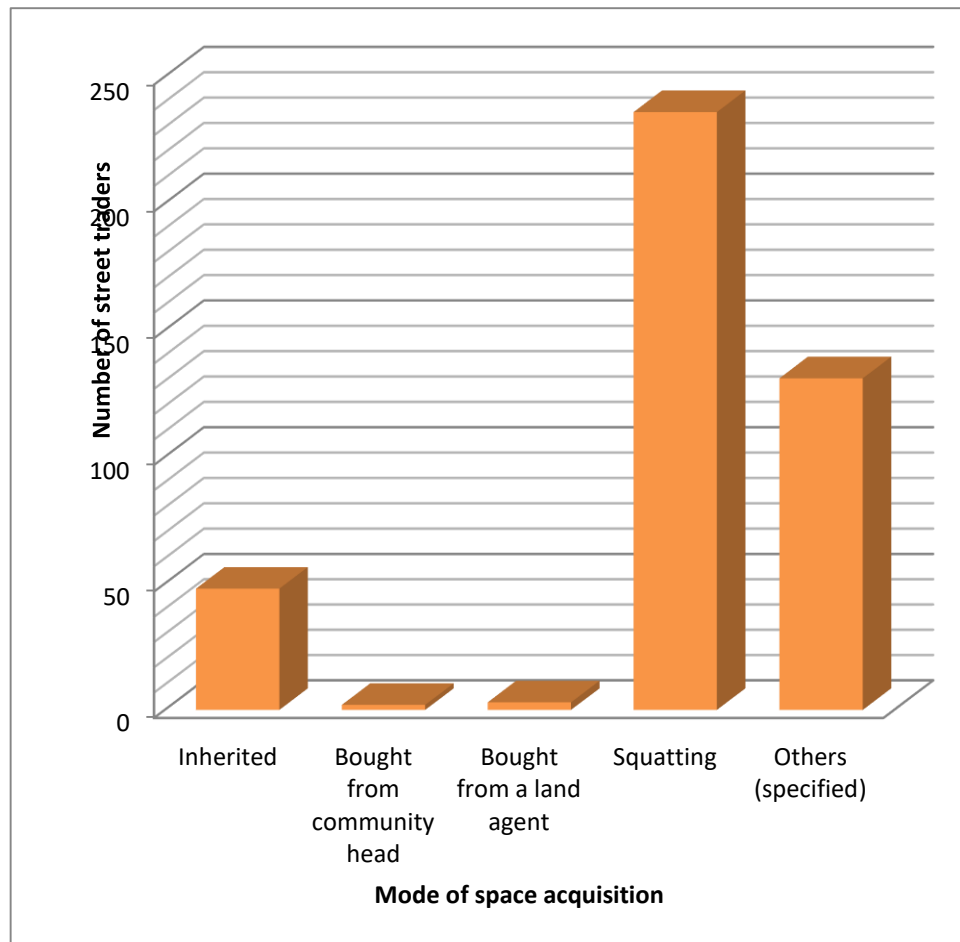


Figure 4.16: Mode of space acquisition

Following the nature of the sheds occupied by the street traders in the study area, the security of tenure among the street traders was assessed. Table 4.22 shows that only about 17% of the street traders in Bida claimed to have security of tenure of their trading spaces. This may not be unconnected to the nature of sheds they occupy and their modes of space acquisition as stated in figure 4.16 and Table 4.23. However, the difference in the proportion of street traders occupying permanent structure and the acclaimed secure street traders (18% and 17% respectively) may mean that some of the permanent structures were illegally built.

Table 4.22: Security of tenure

	Frequency	%
Secure	72	17.1
Not secure	316	75.2
Cannot say	32	7.6

Total	420	100.0
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The nature of the sheds of street traders in Bida shown in Table 4.23 indicates that more than 21% of the traders were without shed; while about 61% adopted makeshifts and detachable sheds such as umbrellas and zink. Only about 18% of the street traders in the study area occupied permanent structures. The implication of this is that street traders in the study area are vulnerable to easy eviction; while their structures are exposed to the constant risk of removal or demolition.

Table 4.23: Nature of shed

	Frequency	%
No shed	89	21.2
Umbrella	140	33.3
Zink	114	27.1
Permanent structure	77	18.3
Total	420	100.0

The relationship between the nature of shed of the street traders in Bida and their forms of sale was tested using Pearson Correlation technique. The result is shown in Table 4.24. It was found that there is a medium and positive correlation between the nature of shed of the street traders in the study area and their forms of sale ($r = .316$, $p = <.0005$, $n = 420$). The implication of this is that the street traders who occupied permanent structure had a higher tendency of adopting wholesaling as their form of sale. The null hypothesis that there is no statistically significant relationship between the street traders' form of sale and the nature of their sheds was therefore rejected.

Table 4.24: Relationship between form of sale and nature of shed

		Form of sale	Nature of shed
Form of sale	Pearson Correlation	1	.316**

		Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
		N	420	420
Nature of shed		Pearson Correlation	.316**	1
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
		N	420	420

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed) .

The size of land occupied by the street traders in Bida is shown in Table 4.25 it was found that the street traders in the study area occupies considerably small spaces. On the aggregate, about 57% of the street traders in the study area occupy less than 9m² of land for their trading. Only about 13% of the street traders occupied retail spaces that meet the stipulated space standards of NUDB (2019). This is an indication of space inadequacy for the street traders in the study area. In other words, the street traders in

Bida experience space poverty.

Table 4.25: Size of land occupied in square metres

Size of land occupied (m ²)	Frequency	%	Required Standard (m ²)
1-3	167	39.8	12
4-6	70	16.7	
7-9	127	30.2	
10-12	56	13.3	
>12	0	0.0	
Total	420	100.0	
N	Mean	Median	Minimum
420	6.91	6.00	4
			12

As can be seen in Figure 4.17, only about 11% of the street traders in Bida have not experienced eviction. On the other hand, more than 89% of the street traders in the study area have experienced eviction from their trading spaces. This may not be unconnected to their modes of space acquisition (Figure 4.16) and the nature of sheds they occupy (Table 4.23). The eviction of street traders in the study area may expose their livelihoods to vulnerable situations and consequent livelihood loss.

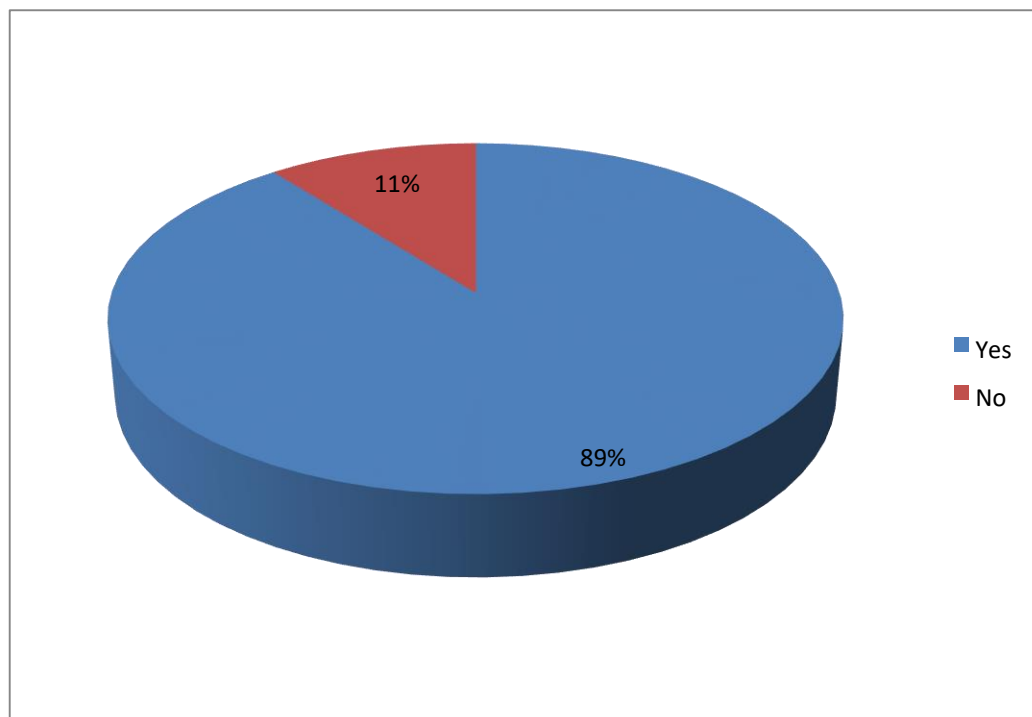


Figure 4.17: Experienced eviction

4.4 Livelihood Impact of Street Trading in Bida

4.4.1 Financial capital base

4.4.1.1 Monthly earning from the trade

Table 4.26 shows the daily earnings of the street traders from engaging in street trading as a livelihood strategy. It was found that on the aggregate, about 23% of the street traders in Bida earn below the ₦40,000 monthly; about 67% earned between ₦40,000 and ₦196,000 monthly; while more than 10% of the street traders earned more than ₦200,000 monthly. This high earning of the street traders in the study area may not be unconnected to the

earlier finding in Table 4.7 that more than 39% of the street traders in the study area adopt both wholesale and retail forms of sale. It is, however, interesting to note that none of the street traders in Bida earned less than ₦7,000 per month; thus, the lowest aggregate monthly earning of the street traders in the study area was ₦28,000 per month. This is an indication that the lowest earning street traders in Bida earned almost the minimum wage of Nigeria which is pegged at ₦30,000 per month. This is in consonance with the findings of Dipeolu *et al.* (2007) in their study of the income-generating potentials of street trading in Ogun State, Nigeria where it was found that street traders earned considerably above the national minimum wage. The implication of this is that street trade is a viable livelihood strategy that is capable of lifting the participants out of the poverty trap.

Table 4.26: Monthly earning from the trade

	Frequency	%
₦1,000-₦20,000	0	0.0
₦21,000-₦40,000	219	52.1
₦41,000-₦60,000	9	2.1
₦61,000-₦80,000	27	6.4
₦81,000-₦100,000	5	1.2
₦101,000-₦120,000	23	5.5
₦121,000-₦140,000	50	11.9
₦141,000-₦160,000	36	8.6
₦161,000-₦180,000	8	1.9
₦181,000-₦200,000	40	9.5
₦201,000-₦220,000	0	0.0
₦221,000-₦240,000	3	.7
>₦240,000	0	0.0

	Total	420	100.0
Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum
21433.33	10000.00	0	60000
			N
			420

4.4.1.2 Possess alternative livelihood strategy

Further investigation was conducted to ascertain whether the street traders in Bida had any alternative livelihood as shown in Figure 4.18. It was found that only about 11% of the street traders had an alternative livelihood strategy. Similar finding was reported for Harare, Zimbabwe; where it was found by Mazhambe (2017) that majority (that is, about 81%) of street traders do not possess alternative livelihood strategy. This explains the daily operation schedules of the street traders in Tables 4.9, 4.10 and 4.11 where it was found that majority of the street traders resumes work in the morning, closes from work in the evening and work for 6 to 7 days weekly. The street traders in the study area may therefore need education and enlightenment programmes on viable livelihood diversification strategies in order to enable them mitigate livelihood vulnerabilities.

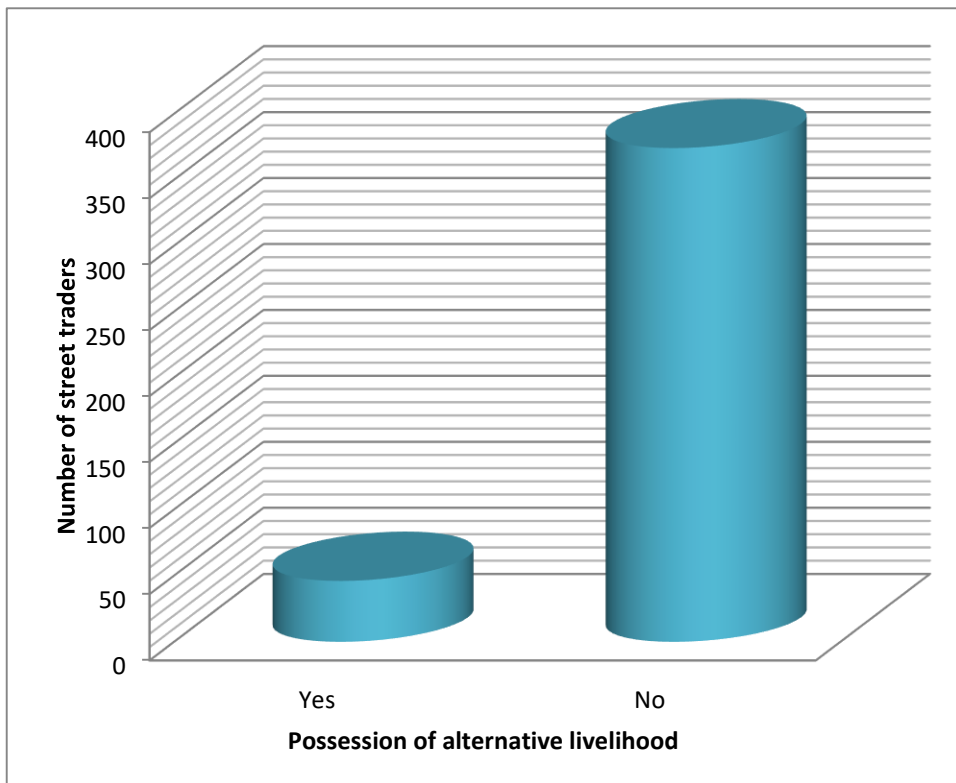


Figure 4.18: Possess alternative livelihood strategy

4.4.1.3 Earning from alternative livelihood

Further analysis was conducted to determine the street traders' daily earnings from their alternative livelihoods as shown in Table 4.27. It was discovered that about 9% of the street traders who possessed alternative livelihood strategies earned below ₦8,000 from such livelihood strategies; while about 74% of them earned between ₦8,000 and ₦20,000 monthly from their alternative livelihoods. The mean monthly income from alternative livelihoods of the street traders in the study area was ₦19,304. This means that street traders in the study area who had alternative livelihood strategies earned considerable income from livelihood diversification. The implication of this is that those street traders who did not possess alternative livelihoods were probably unaware of the crosscutting and multidimensional benefits of livelihood diversification.

Table 4.27: Monthly earning from alternative livelihood

	Frequency	%		
₦1,000-₦5,000	2	4.3		
₦6,000-₦10,000	23	50		
₦11,000-₦15,000	10	21.7		
₦16,000-₦20,000	3	6.5		
>₦20,000	8	17.3		
Total	46	100.0		
Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum	N
19304.36	8000.00	4000	80000	46

4.4.1.4 Specific alternative livelihoods of the street traders in Bida

An examination of the specific alternative livelihood strategies of the street traders in Bida was carried out as shown in Table 4.28. It was found that more than 21% of the street traders who rear goats had 6 goats; more than 14% had 10 goats; while about 64% of

them had 20 goats. Surprisingly, all of the street traders who practiced poultry farming reported that they had up to 120 birds each. It is also interesting to note that some of the street traders engaged in other forms of sales trading as their alternative livelihood strategy. A probe into the amount of the wares or the street traders' alternative sales trade shows that about 23% of the street traders had other trades worth ₦120,000; while the worth of the wares of about 41% of the street traders was ₦200,000. Similarly, more than 27% of the street traders' alternative sales trade were worth ₦350,000; while the worth of the wares of more than 9% was ₦500,000. The implication of this is that the adoption of livelihood diversification gives room for multifaceted growth for the street trader.

Table 4.28: Specific alternative livelihoods of the street traders in Bida

Specific alternative livelihood	Number	Frequency	%	Total	
				Frequency	%
Keeping of Goats	6	3	21.4	14	100
	10	2	14.3		
	20	9	64.3		
Poultry farming	120	10	100	10	100
Sales trading	Amount (N)			22	100
	N120,000	5	22.7		
	N200,000	9	40.9		
	N350,000	6	27.3		
	N500,000	2	9.1		

4.4.1.5 Practices daily saving

The street traders were investigated whether they adopt the culture of savings. Figure 4.19 shows that less than 3% of the street traders in the study area do no practice daily savings. This means that there is a substantial level of savings awareness among the street traders in the study area.

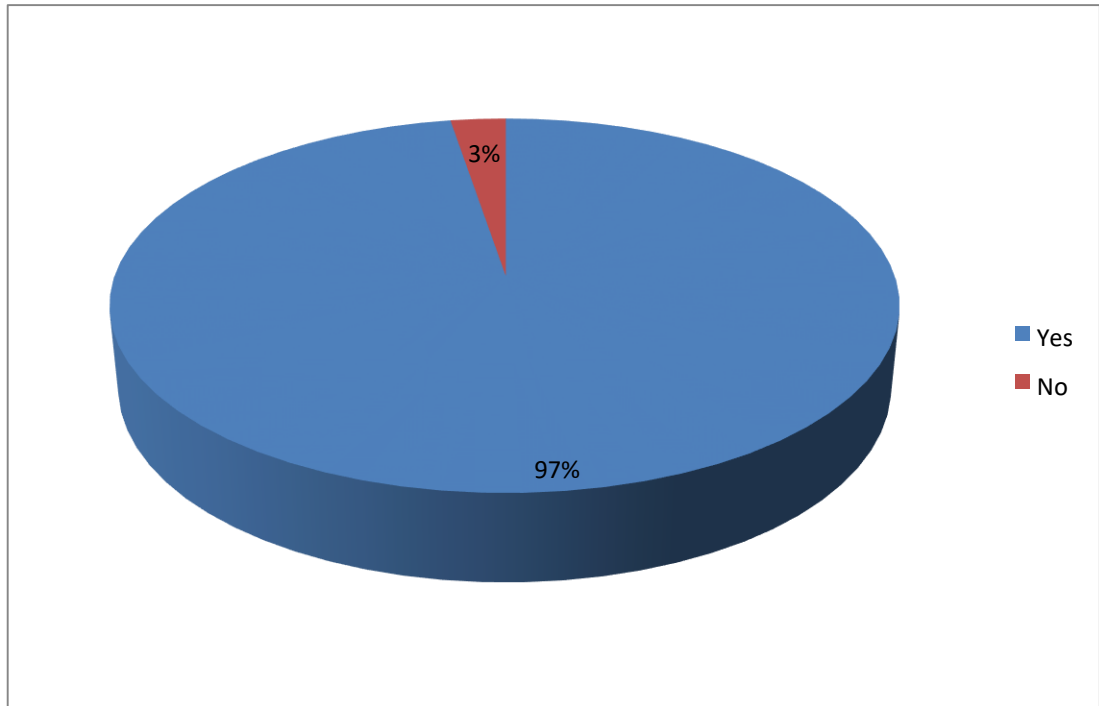


Figure 4.19: Practices daily saving

Table 4.29 shows the amount of money saved daily by the street traders who adopt the habit of daily saving. It was found that the minimum amount saved by the street traders daily is ₦1,000; while the maximum amount saved daily was ₦5,000. The implication of this is that the least street trader saves up to the minimum wage of average Nigerian formal sector employee which is pegged at ₦30,000 monthly. This indicates that street trade is capable of lifting the participants out of poverty, *inter alia*. **Table 4.29: Daily savings amount**

Amount Saved Daily	Frequency	%
₦100-₦500	0	0.0
₦600-₦1,000	64	15.2
₦1,100-₦1,500	64	15.2
₦1,600-₦2,000	125	30.6
₦2,100-₦2,500	14	3.3
₦2,600-₦3,000	92	22.5
₦3,100-₦3,500	0	0.0

N3,600-N4,000		16	3.8	
>N4,000		34	8.1	
Total		409	100.0	
Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum	N
2340.48	2000.00	1000	5000	420

4.4.1.6 Initial and current financial capitals

Table 4.30 shows the initial and current financial capitals of the street traders in Bida. It was found that the initial financial capital of about 74% of the street traders in the study area was less than N200,000; while about 24% of the street traders in the study area had an initial financial capital of between N200,000 and N400,000. Only about 2% of the street traders had an initial financial capital above N400,000. On the aggregate, the mean initial financial capital of the street traders was N109,450; while the minimum and the maximum initial financial capital were N2,000 and N500,000 respectively. The implication of this is that street trade requires low start-up financial capital. This may provide an explanation for the global growth of street trading livelihoods as established by Hernandez-Rodriguez (2017).

Table 4.30 also shows the current financial capital of the street traders in Bida. It was found that about 40% of the street traders had a current financial capital below N200,000. This was against the earlier finding that revealed that up to 74% of the street traders had an initial financial capital below N200,000. Similarly, about 44% of the street traders had a current financial capital between N200,000 and N1,000,000; while more than 17% of the street traders had between N1,200,000 and N2,000,000 as their current financial capital. Furthermore, it was observed that the mean current financial capital of the street traders in Bida was N580,667; while the minimum and maximum current financial capital

of the street traders stood at ₦35,000 and ₦2,000,000 respectively. This implies that street trading impacts positively on the financial capital base of the participants.

A comparison was further carried out to determine whether there are changes in the financial capital base of the street traders in Bida since they started engaging in street trading as a livelihood strategy. Table 4.30 shows that there is a considerable change in the financial capital base of the street traders in the study area. While the mean initial financial capital was ₦109,450; the mean current financial capital was reported as

₦580,667. Similarly, while the minimum and maximum initial financial capital stood at ₦2,000 and ₦500,000 respectively; the minimum and maximum current financial capital of the street traders in the study area was ₦35,000 and ₦2,000,000 respectively. The implication of this is that street trade is a sustainable livelihood strategy capable of improving the income level of the urban dwellers.

Table 4.30: Initial and current financial capitals

Financial Capital (₦)	Initial (a)		Current (b)	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1,000-100,000	235	55.8	62	14.7
101,000-200,000	119	28.3	112	26.6
201,000-300,000	48	11.5	54	12.8
301,000-400,000	11	2.6	0	0.0
401,000-500,000	7	1.7	3	0.7
501,000-600,000	0	0.0	10	2.4

601,000-700,000	0	0.0	3	0.7
701,000-800,000	0	0.0	62	14.7
801,000-900,000	0	0.0	3	0.7
901,000-1,000,000	0	0.0	43	10.2
>1,000,000	0	0.0	68	17.2
Total	420	100.0	420	100.0
	a		b	a-b
Mean	109450.00		580666.67	471,216.67
Median	40000.00		300000.00	260,000.00
Minimum	2000		35000	33,000.00
Maximum	500000		2000000	1,500,000
N	420		420	

Chi-Square (X^2) test of independence was used to test the relationship between the initial financial capital of the street traders in Bida and their current financial capital as shown in Table 4.31. It was found that there is a statistically significant relationship between the initial financial capital of the street traders in Bida and their current financial capital ($X^2 = 4728.563$, $p = <.0005$, $df = 750$). The implication of this is that the initial financial capital of the street traders in Bida is a statistically significant determinant of their current financial capital. Put differently, the street traders who had higher initial financial capital had a higher tendency or chance of having a higher current financial capital in the study area.

Table 4.31: Relationship between initial financial capital and current financial capital

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4728.563 ^a	750	.000
Likelihood Ratio	1559.698	750	.000
N of Valid Cases	420		

a. 795 cells (98.6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .00.

4.4.2 Social capital base

4.4.2.1 Membership of trade association

Figure 4.20 shows the street traders' membership of trade associations. It was found that only about 14% of the street traders in Bida are members of related trade associations. The implication of this is that the street traders may be unaware of the immeasurable benefits of such associations. Low membership of trade associations undermines networking and social capital formation.

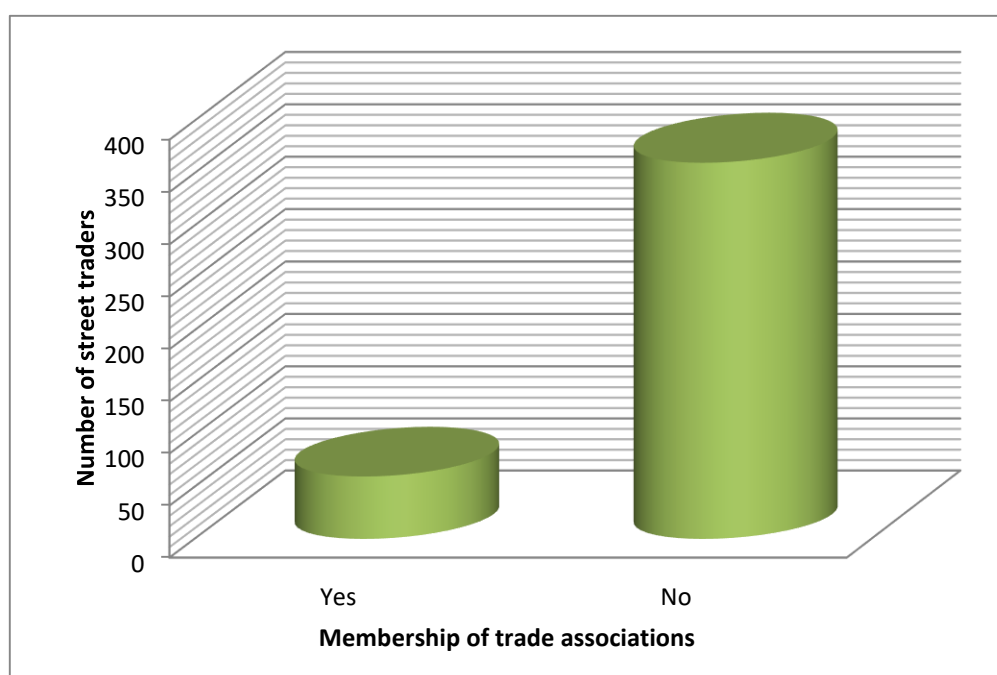


Figure 4.20: Membership of trade association

The number of trade associations in which the street traders in Bida are members was also examined as shown in Table 4.32. It was found that none of the street traders in the study area identified with more than one association. The implication of this is that the associations may be vocational and trade-related.

Table 4.32: Number of trade associations identified with

		Frequency		%
1.00		60		100.0
Total		60		100.0
Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum	N
1.0000	1.0000	1.00	1.00	60

Investigation was further carried out to ascertain whether the street traders make financial contributions to their associations. As shown in Table 4.33, all of the street traders who were members of trade unions in the study area reported that they make financial contributions to their associations.

Table 4.33: Contributes financially to the trade associations

		Frequency		%
Yes		60		14.3
Total		420		100.0

In terms of the amount contributed, Table 4.34 shows the amount of financial contribution by the street traders to their respective associations per month. It was discovered that about 30% of the street traders that were members of associations contributed N1,000 to their trade associations while about 70% contributed N1,500 to their associations.

Table 4.34: Amount contributed to the association per month

		Frequency				%
N1,000		18				30.0
N1,500		42				70.0
Total		60				100.0
Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum		N	
1366.67	1500.00	1000	1500		60	

Table 4.35 shows the benefits that the street traders in Bida derive from their associations. It was found that about 92% of the street traders obtained monetary loans from their associations; while about 18% have benefited material gifts from their associations. This indicates that membership of trade associations among the street traders in the study area contributed to their livelihood improvement. This is in consonance with the findings of Timalsina (2010, 2011a) in his studies of Kathmandu, Nepal where it was reported that street traders benefit materially and monetarily from their social organisations.

Table 4.35: Benefits derived from association membership

	Frequency	%
Monetary Loan	49	81.7
Material Gifts	11	18.3
Total	60	100.0

4.4.3 Physical assets

Table 4.36 shows the physical capital base of the street traders in Bida. About 76% of the street traders have built a acquired plots of land from the proceeds of street trading; more than 56% have built a house; while about 44% of the street traders have acquired a car. The implication of this is that street trade is a viable livelihood strategy which has the

potential of improving the physical capital base of the participants. It is quite worrisome, however, that none of the street traders in Bida have purchased farmland. This is surprising, given that some of the street traders adopt livestock and poultry farming as alternative livelihood strategies. This indicates that the street traders keep their domestic animals in the same environment where they reside – a situation which may have adverse health effects.

Table 4.36: Physical Capital Development

Physical capital development	Response	Frequency	%
Obtained a residential plot of land	Yes	318	75.7
	No	102	24.3
Built a house	Yes	237	56.4
	No	183	43.6
Acquired a car	Yes	183	43.6
	No	237	56.4
Purchased farmland	Yes	0	0.0
	No	420	100.0
Purchased livestock and poultry	Yes	11	2.6
	No	409	97.4

In terms of other fixed assets, Figure 4.21 shows the street traders' acquisition of plots of land in the study area. It was reported by about 76% of the street traders that they have acquired a plot of land from the proceeds of their business. However, none of the street traders have acquired more than one plot of land. Housing ownership of the street traders in the study area was examined. It was found that about 56% of the street traders in Bida have built a house through street trading livelihood.

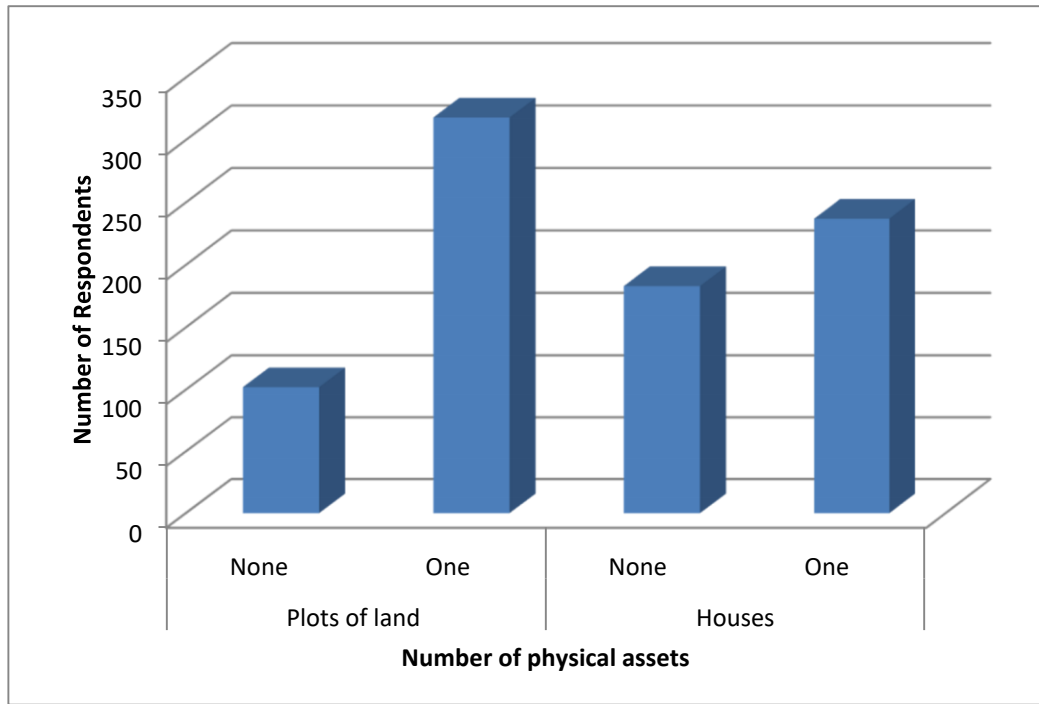


Figure 4.21: Physical assets of the street traders

With respect to the mobility assets of the street traders, bicycle ownership among the street traders in Bida was also investigated. The result in Figure 4.22 shows that less than 4% of the street traders owned a bicycle. This may be an indication of street traders’ unwillingness to own and ride bicycles in spite of the benefits of cycling. However, about 75% of the street traders reported that they have acquired at least one motorcycle from the proceeds of their participation in street trading. Interestingly, about

45% of the street traders in the study area owned a car.

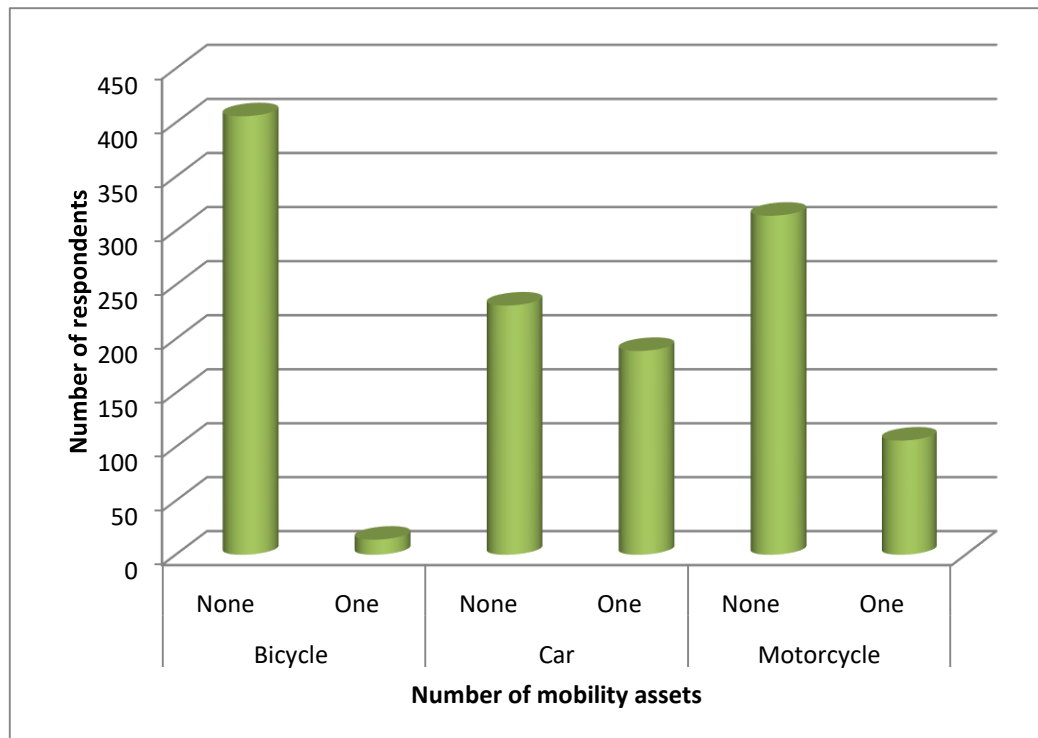


Figure 4.22: Mobility assets of the street traders

Further examination on household based assets was conducted (Figure 4.23). The result revealed that about 95% of the street traders owned a fridge; while less than 33% had a freezer purchased from the proceeds of street vending. Information was also found to be a crucial desire for the street traders owing to the fact that more than 74% of the street traders owned radio sets; while about 97% owned television sets. More than 47% of the street traders in Bida also owned entertainment gadgets such as home theatres. In terms of energy wellbeing, it was found that about 86% of the street traders in Bida had generators sets; while about 30% have acquired cleaner energy source such as solar energy panels. With regard to household accessories, less than 9% of the street traders reported that they do not own plates or kitchen utensils respectively. This is not surprising, given that the marital status of a considerable proportion of the street traders (more than 31%) was single. However, more than 97% of the street traders owned household furniture.

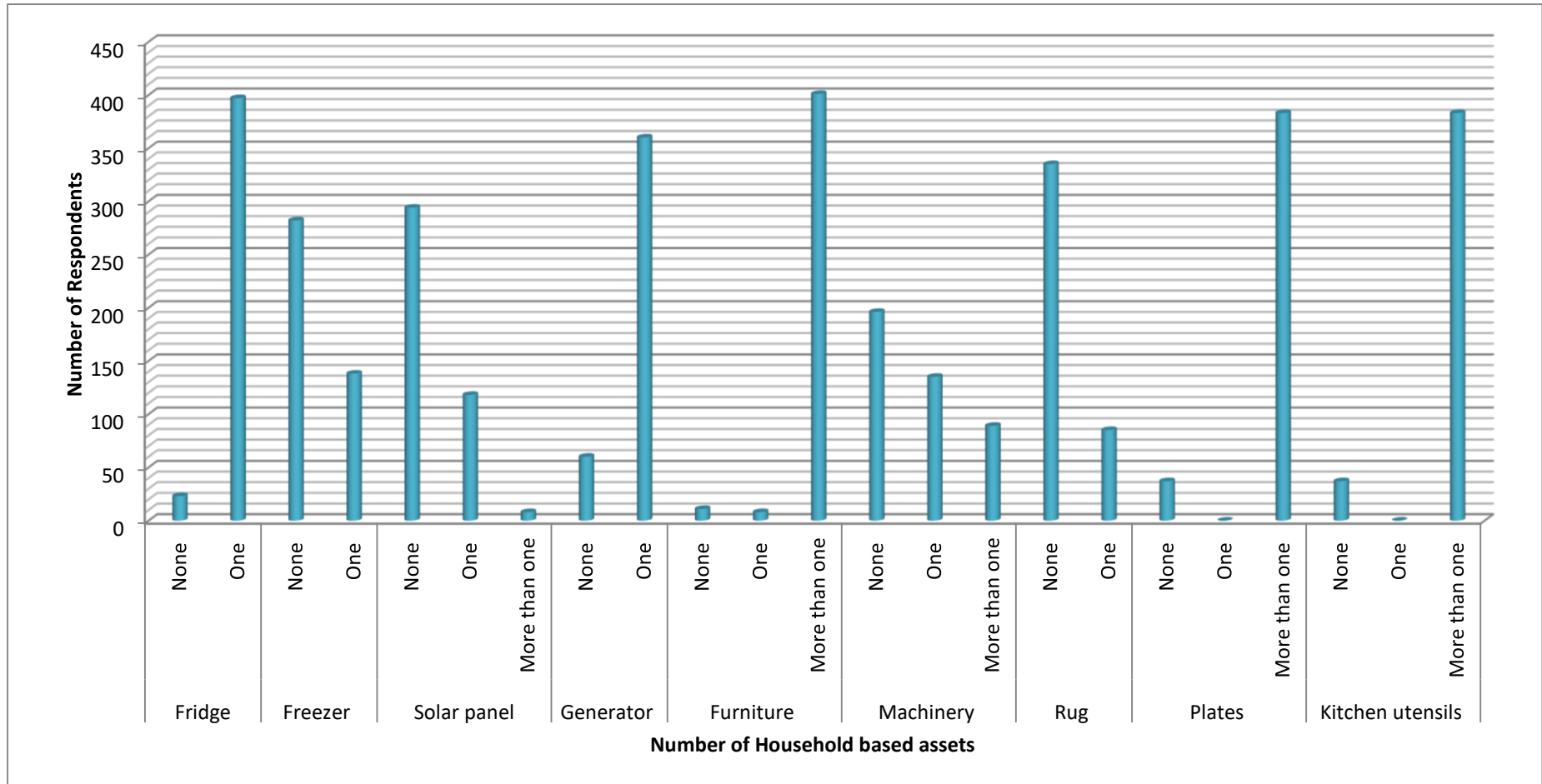


Figure 4.23: Household-based assets of the street traders

With respect to information assets, the street traders in the study area were also found to own modern Information and Communication Technology (ICT) devices (Figure 4.24).

For instance, more than 88% of the street traders owned internet-enabled devices (android phones); while the ownership of non-internet enabled devices among the street traders in the study area was above 95%. Similarly, more than 21% of the street traders in Bida owned a Personal Computer (PC). The implication of this is that participation in street trade improves the physical capital base of the street traders in the study area, thereby improving their livelihood status.

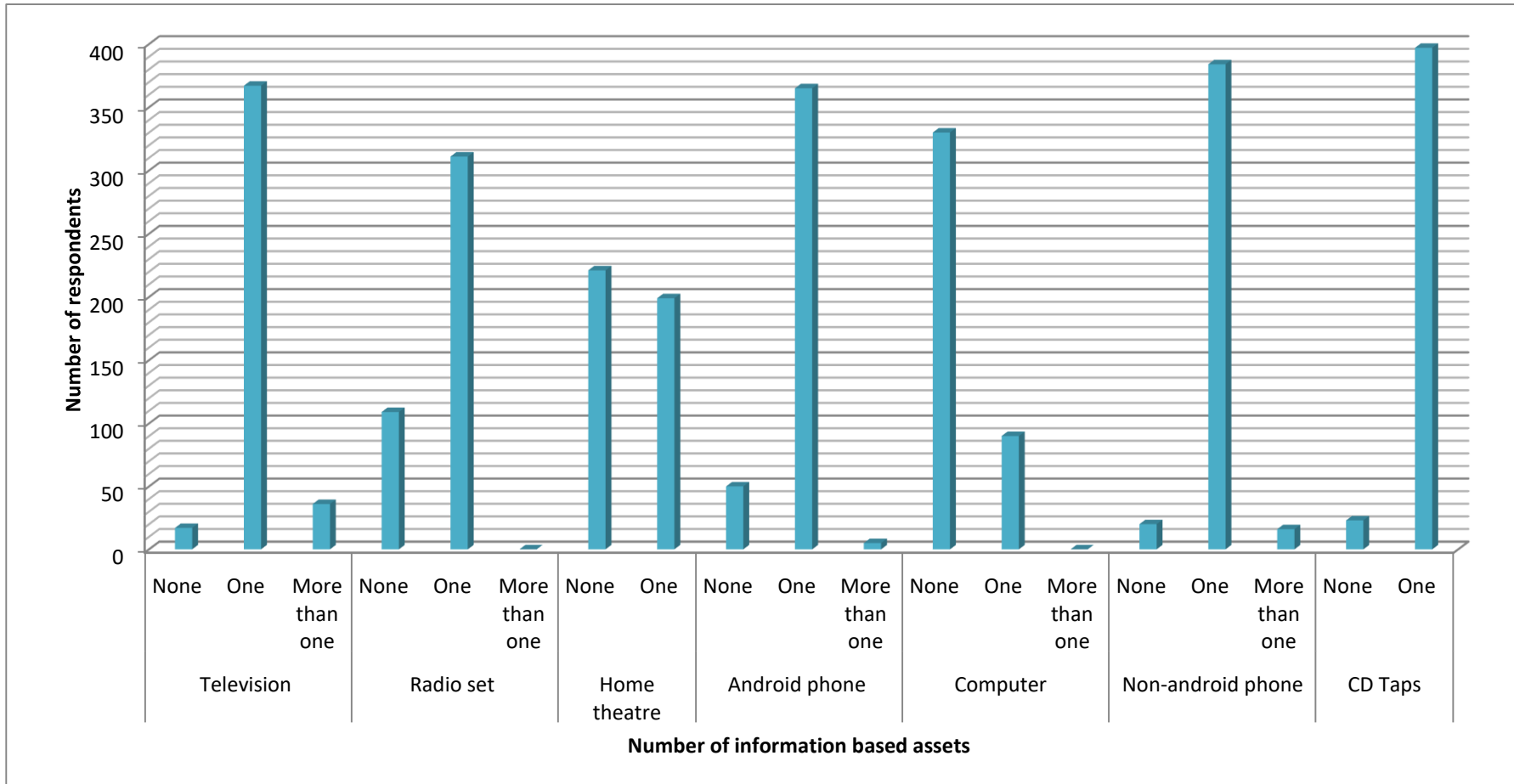


Figure 4.24: Information-based assets of the street traders

4.4.3.2 Aggregate Specific physical capital

Further assessment of the specific physical capital owned by the street traders in the study area is presented in Table 4.37. The results show that the mean livestock ownership in the study area was 13 livestock and the minimum and maximum number of livestock owned was 6 and 20 respectively. Similarly, the mean poultry owned by the street traders involved in poultry farming in the study area was 120 poultry per street trader. Furthermore, mean worth of the trading wares of the street traders who engaged in sales trading as alternative livelihood strategy in the study area was N250,000; while the minimum and maximum worth of the wares were N120,000 and N500,000 respectively. The study also shows that on the aggregate, street traders in Bida owned at least one each of plot of land, house, fridge, TV set, radio set, internet-enabled phone, non-internet enabled phone, generator set and CD tape. However, the aggregate number of pieces of furniture owned by the street traders is 4; while the aggregate number of plates and kitchen utensils owned by street traders in the study area was 20 and 31 respectively. The implication of this is that street trading has crosscutting positive effects in the physical capital development of the participants.

Table 4.37: Aggregate specific physical capital

Specific physical capital	Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum	N
Livestock rearing (Number)	13.12857	20.0000	6.00	20.00	14
Poultry farming (Number)	120.00	120.00	120	120	10
Sales trading (Amount in Naira)	250000.00	200000.00	120000	500000	22
Plot of land	.7571	1.0000	.00	1.00	420
Houses	.5643	1.0000	.00	1.00	
Bicycle	.0333	.0000	.00	1.00	
Fridge	.9452	1.0000	.00	1.00	
Freezer	.3286	.0000	.00	1.00	
Car (taxi)	.4500	.0000	.00	1.00	
Farmland (Ha)	.0000	.0000	.00	.00	
Television set	1.0452	1.0000	.00	2.00	
Radio set	.7405	1.0000	.00	1.00	
Home theatre	.4738	.0000	.00	1.00	
Video game players	.0000	.0000	.00	.00	
Internet-enabled phone	.8929	1.0000	.00	2.00	
Face mask	1.0571	1.0000	.00	2.00	
Solar panel	.3571	.0000	.00	4.00	
Furniture	4.1857	4.0000	.00	6.00	
Non- Internet-enabled phone	.9905	1.0000	.00	2.00	
Computer	.2143	.0000	.00	1.00	
Machinery	.8429	1.0000	.00	3.00	
Generator set	.8571	1.0000	.00	1.00	
CD Tapes	.9452	1.0000	.00	1.00	
Rug	.2024	.0000	.00	1.00	
Plates	20.3952	18.0000	.00	74.00	
Kitchen utensils	31.3095	30.0000	.00	85.00	

4.4.4 Human capital base

Figure 4.25 shows the proportion of the street traders in Bida that have acquired livelihood skills related to their vocations. It was found that about 66% of the street traders have acquired related

livelihood skills. However, more than 33% of the street traders have not acquired any skill related to their livelihood strategies. This is quite worrisome given that the possession of livelihood skills contributes significantly to human capital development in particular and livelihood sustainability in general. The implication of this is that there may be a need for organising skill acquisition and training programmes for the street traders who have not acquired related livelihood skills.

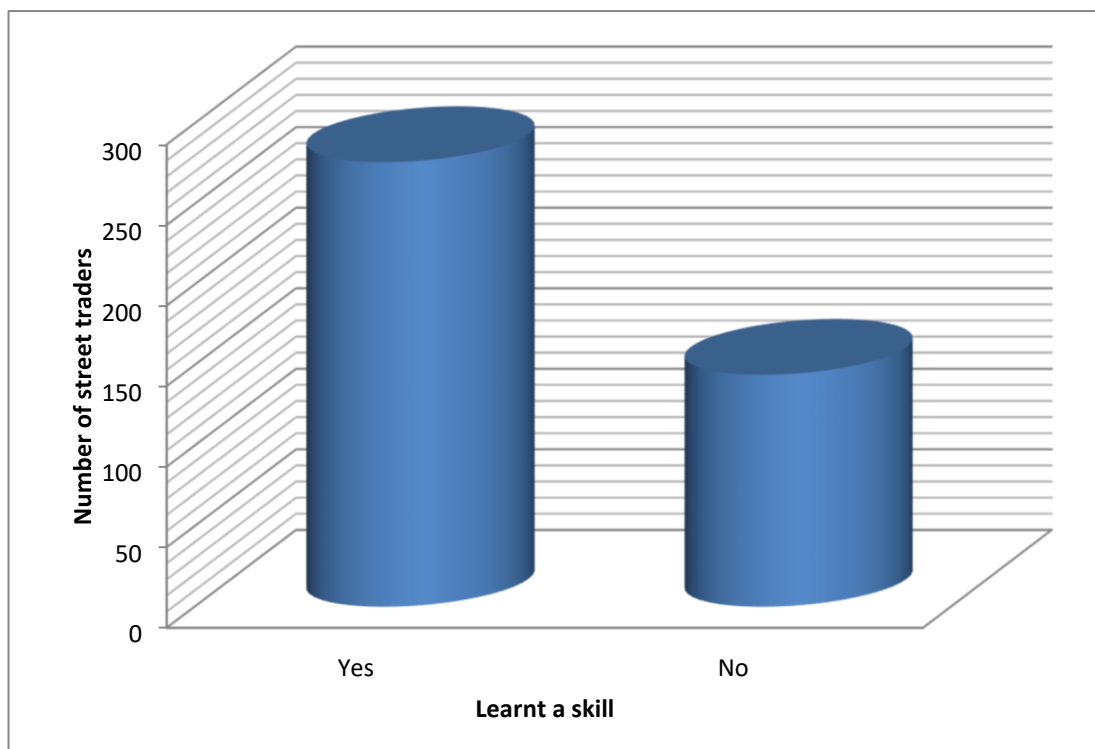


Figure 4.25: Learnt a skill

The specific types of skill acquired by the street traders who reported that they possessed livelihood skills are shown in Figure 4.26. The result shows that carpentry, catering and brass work accounted for the highest amount of skills acquired by the street traders in the study area which about 23%, 18% and 14% respectively. On the other hand, tailoring, shoe making, phone repair and bags making skills were moderate with about 9%, 9%, 7% and 5% skill acquisition respectively. The lowest skills acquired by the street traders in Bida were satellite

installation, fashion design and electronics repairs with each of them accounting for less than 1% of the proportion of the street traders with livelihood skills. The implication of this is that street traders in Bida are skilled workers who practice their skill-based livelihoods on the streets of the city.

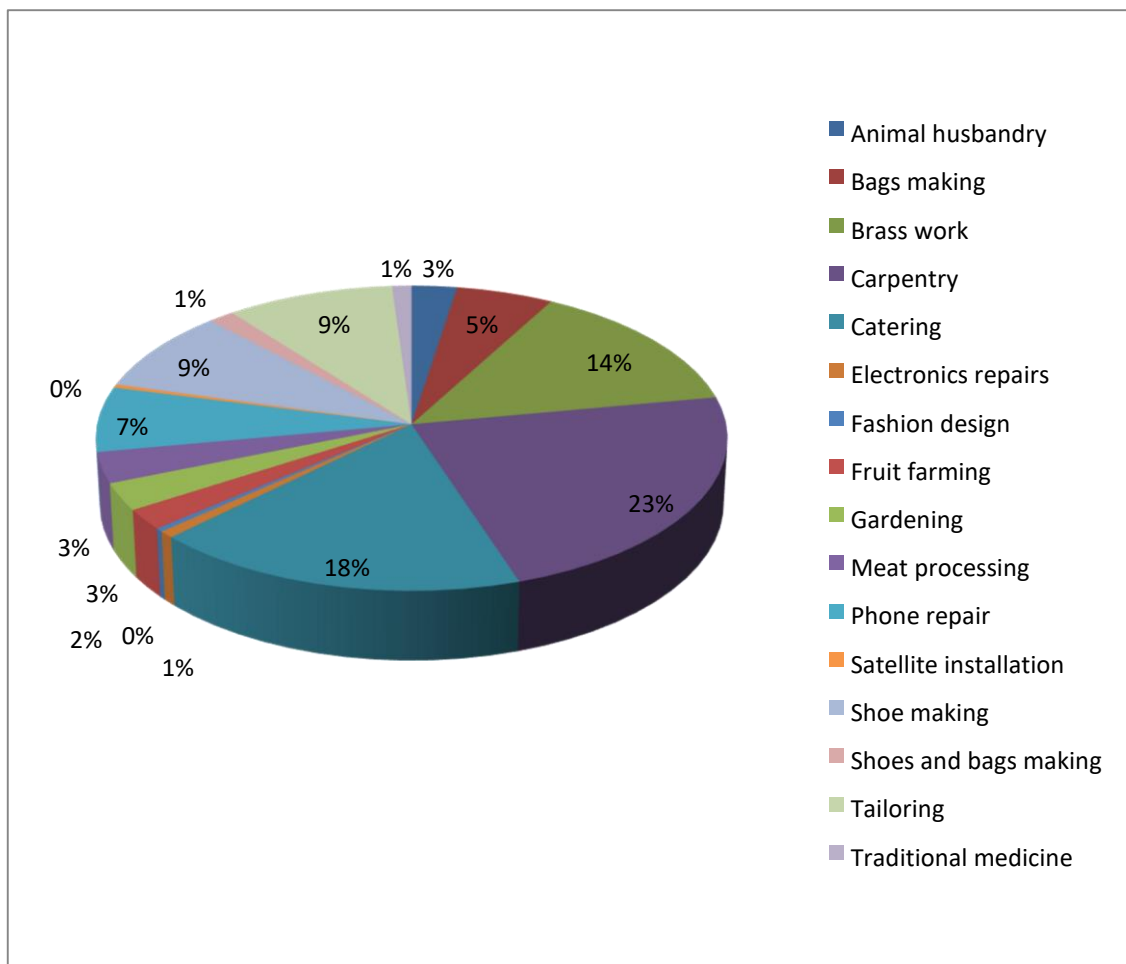


Figure 4.26: Type of skill

Table 4.38 shows the street traders' certification status. It was found that more than 47% of the street traders in Bida have been certified. However, it is quite worrisome to note that about 53% of the street traders in the study area have not been certified. This is capable of exposing the street traders to harassment from professional associations and the public

agencies. The implication of this is that the street traders may require less bureaucratic and subsidised or free professional certification programmes.

Table 4.38: Gotten certified

	Frequency	%
Yes	198	47.1
No	222	52.9
Total	420	100.0

Table 4.39 shows the years of certification of the street traders who reported that they have been certified on their trade. The result shows that more than 69% were certified between 1 and 5 years ago; while more than 20% of the street traders have had between 6 and 10 years post- certification experience in street trade. However, about 11% of the street traders have had more than 10 years post-certification experience in street trading. The result shows that the minimum and maximum years of post-certification experience in street trading were 1 and 16 years respectively.

Table 4.39: Years of certification

Years	Frequency	%		
1-5	137	69.2		
6-10	40	20.2		
>10	21	10.6		
Total	198	100.0		
Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum	N
5.70	4.00	1	16	198

The willingness of the uncertified street traders to be certified was also examined. Table 4.40 shows that about 99% of the uncertified street traders expressed willingness to be certified on their livelihood activities. However, it is quite worrisome that more than 1% of the street

traders were unwilling to be certified. The implication of this is that this latter category of street traders may be unaware of the benefits of acquiring trade and vocational certification. The street traders who were unwilling to be certified may therefore require enlightenment on the need for certification on their profession.

Table 4.40: Willingness to be certified

	Frequency	%
Yes	219	98.6
No	3	1.4
Total	222	100.0

4.5 Relationship between Participation in Street Trading and Livelihood Improvement

This section appraises the relationship between participation in street trading and livelihood improvement. Issues considered here include the relationship between the length of participation in street trading and livelihood assets accumulation, livelihood diversification and business expansion.

Standard linear regression analysis technique was used to assess the relationship between participation in street trading and livelihood assets formation and accumulation. The result is shown in Table 4.41. It was found that there is a strong and positive relationship between participation in street trading and livelihood assets accumulation ($R^2 = .811$; $df = 26$; $p = <.005$). The null hypothesis was therefore rejected. The livelihood assets framework of DFID (2000) presupposes that livelihood sustainability is, to a very large extent, determined by the possession of adequate livelihood assets. This indicates that participation in street trading improves the assets base of the traders.

Table 4.41: Relationship between participation in street trading and livelihood assets or capital accumulation

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Change in F	Statistics	df1	df2	Sig.	Error of Estimate
1	.900	.811	.790	2.434	.811	39.7	26	.000 ^a	.05

a. Predictors: (Constant), Gotten certified, Bicycle, Solar panel, Face mask, Obstacles to registering with CAC, Machinery, Television set, Acquired a car, Fridge, Generator, Computer, Kitchen utensils, Houses, Home theatre, Android phone, Radio set, Learnt a skill, CD Tapes, Freezer, Plot of land, Furniture, Non-Android phone, Rug, Established other branches, Plates, Car (taxi)

Further analysis was carried out to determine the relationship between participation in street trading and livelihood diversification using the Chi-Square (X^2) technique. The result is shown in Table 4.42. It was found that there is a statistically significant relationship between the length of participation in street trading and the diversification

of livelihoods by the street traders ($X^2 = 35.097$; $df = 15$; $<.005$). Livelihood diversification is a core requirement for livelihood sustainability (Ellis, 2005). Therefore, longer participation in street trading improves the sustainability of the street traders' livelihood.

Table 4.42: Relationship between length of participation and livelihood diversification

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	35.097 ^a	15	.002

Likelihood Ratio	34.811	15	.003
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.729	1	.188

N of Valid Cases 420

a. 19 cells (59.4%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .11.

X^2 was also used to evaluate the relationship between length of participation and business expansion. Here, establishment of other branches was considered as an indicator of business expansion. As shown in Table 4.43, a statistically significant relationship between the length of participation in street trading and the diversification of livelihoods by the street traders ($X^2 = 117.967$; $df = 15$; $<.005$) was established.

Table 4.43: Relationship between length of participation and business expansion Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	117.967 ^a	15	.000
Likelihood Ratio	127.244	15	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.322	1	.250

N of Valid Cases 420

a. 14 cells (43.8%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .21.

4.6 Summary of Findings

This study has made a number of important findings. These findings could engender a paradigm shift in the policy and perceptual approaches to the issue of street trading. The major findings of this study are listed in the ensuing paragraphs.

- i. In terms of the socio-demographic characteristics of the street traders, street trading is a gender-neutral livelihood strategy. However, men have a higher likelihood of engaging in street-based livelihoods than women. Married people have higher propensity to participate in street trading more than single-status persons. People who have attained higher educational qualifications have lower tendency of engaging in

street trading as their livelihood strategy. However, this does not mean that they do not participate in street trading. For instance, the result shows that there were graduate street traders; although they were comparatively lower in proportion to those with lower formal education. Street trading is a livelihood strategy dominated by those in the active labour force. The elderly have very low tendency of taking street trading as their livelihood strategy. On the aggregate, the street traders in the study area have considerably maintained the national average in terms of household size. This is quite surprising, given that the family size of households in Northern Nigeria is more than the national average. This result is therefore commendable.

- ii. With regards to the economic characteristics and nature of participation, several products were traded on the streets of the city – both perishable and non-perishable. A statistically significant relationship was established between the gender of the street traders and the types and nature of product they sold. Women had higher tendency of trading on foodstuffs, cooked food and perishable commodities. Street trading in Bida witnessed its highest influx in year 2015. However, there was consistent decline in employment into the livelihood strategy between years 2016 and 2020. The street traders who formed the focus of this study were basically stationary and majority of them displayed all their goods for sale. It was also found that street trade has spread, backwash and trickle-down effects. This is specifically so because some of the street traders obtain their products from outside the study area. Some of the street traders in the study area were specialised wholesalers. These economies of scale mean that an assault on street traders in Bida has tremendous effects that transcend the study area. The street traders in Bida confirms the notion that ‘being poor is being always tired’. This is so because majority of the street

traders resumed work daily in the mornings; closed from work in the evening and worked for 7 days weekly. This implies that they had less time for leisure and relaxation. Despite this dedication to work, however, it was found that majority of the street traders did not have access to official support for the improvement of their livelihoods. This notwithstanding, minimal support was found for educated street traders in the study area in form of Bank loans and government social security scheme such as N-Power. That is, the higher the level of education of the street traders, the higher the likelihood of their access to official support, vice versa.

- iii. From the point of view of the spatial characteristics of street trading, majority of the street traders in Bida experienced tenure insecurity; acquired their spaces from informal sources; occupied makeshift structures and therefore, experienced consistent eviction. The wholesalers tended to occupied more permanent structures.

The street traders' experience of tenure security problem was not related to their gender. Similarly, their experience of eviction was irrespective of gender. Street traders in the study area occupied small areas or spaces and reported various effects of distance decay on their livelihoods. The street traders faced a variety of challenges. However, the highest challenge to livelihood security of the street traders in the study area is consistent harassment from security agencies. Consequently, majority of the street traders have suffered loss of their goods; with most of such loss attributed to seizures by security agencies and theft. Therefore, the most serious problems experienced by street traders in the study area were seizures by law enforcement agents, theft and harassment from motorists. These problems are exacerbated by the inadequate trading spaces occupied by the street traders.

- iv. Taking into account the livelihood effects of street trading, the mean lowest income of the street traders in the study area was more than the N30,000 minimum wage of Nigerian formal sector employees. The street traders' income was daily; therefore, they practiced daily savings. However, the education of the street traders was a significant determinant of their practice of daily savings. Surprisingly, the street traders who earned more income were more likely to save less of their income – indicating a lapse in savings culture with commensurate increase in earnings among the street traders. Overall, it was found that participation in street trading increased the financial capital base of the street traders considerably. The street traders in Bida also maintained good social capital. For instance, majority of them catered for the needs of relatives; contributed substantial amount of their income to charity daily and are members of trade associations as a result of their involvement in street trading as a livelihood strategy. The most noticeable benefits derived from membership of trade associations among the street traders were loans and gifts for the improvement of their livelihoods. Interestingly, participation in street trading has created additional social ties for the street traders in the study area.
- v. A further examination of the livelihood effects of street trading reveals that street trading has also contributed to the development of the physical capital base of the street traders in Bida. For instance, a substantial proportion of the street traders in the study area have acquired plots of land; built houses and bought cars from the proceeds of their participation in street vending. Furthermore, contrary to popular view that street trade is informal and largely illegal, it was found that a considerable proportion of the street traders in Bida were registered with CAC. However, those that were not registered cited the financial cost, the bureaucratic procedure and time factor as the major obstacles to the registration of the businesses. Furthermore, the

human capital base of the street traders was found to be considerably enhanced through their participation in street vending. Majority of the street traders in Bida have learnt diverse livelihood skills. However, a sizeable number of the street traders did not possess relevant certification in their vocations.

Minimal proportion of the street traders experienced recurrent ill-health such as epilepsy, asthma and pains. It is quite worrisome, however, that a high proportion of the street traders have sustained injuries and scars from the practice of their livelihood strategies on the streets of Bida.

- vi. In terms of the relationship between participation in street trading and livelihood improvement, this study established that long-term participation in street trade engenders the tripartite benefits of assets accumulation, livelihood diversification and business expansion. Jointly, these benefits of participation in street trade result in livelihood sustainability. Participation in street trading is therefore a viable approach towards livelihood improvement of the urban dwellers.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusion

Livelihoods are very vital to the wellbeing and economic sustainability of urban areas. Nations and cities have consistently aimed at formalising their economies. Such efforts have been geared towards stereotyping against the informal sector workers. Owing to their multiplicity in the spaces of the cities of less developed countries, street traders have been the worst hit urban residents. However, street trade contributes significantly to urban liveability and livelihoods because it makes daily household needs easily accessible and affordable.

This study assessed the livelihood impacts of street trading in Bida, Niger State, Nigeria. The study established that participation in street trade has multifaceted positive effects on the livelihood assets base and consequently, the wellbeing of the street traders. It reduces poverty through the development of the financial capital base of the participants.

Similarly; street trade contributes to a reduction in the rate of unemployment.

Street trade is a gender-neutral livelihood strategy. Contrary to the paradigm that street vending is a livelihood strategy of the less educated urban residents, this study proved that street trade is engaged upon as a livelihood strategy by urban residents of higher as well as lower academic qualifications alike. Surprisingly, street traders maintain family size below national and regional averages. This is commendable owing to global efforts to control human population.

Drawing from the findings of this study, however, street traders are subjected to acute space poverty and violation of rights to the city on the one hand, and rights to livelihood on the other. This notwithstanding, street traders have persistently engaged in the ‘social production of space’ and claiming their rights to urban citizenship through squatting and other informal forms of space acquisition. This consequently calls for the need for formal production of space.

5.2 Recommendations

- i. A retirement trust should be created for the street traders where they can contribute fractions of their incomes with a view to earning retirement benefits like formal sector employees. This could further help in the formalisation of of the informal sector. The envisaged long term positive effects of such trust scheme could also reduce the elderly dependency ratio. In addition, measures should also be put in place to ensure a reduction in losses arising from the perishability of the products of the street traders (particularly women) who sell perishable commodities. Such measures should therefore be targeted at women who are the major traders of perishable commodities on the streets of urban areas. Similarly, the decline in involvement in street trade from year 2016 is remarkable. Further measures to ensure the continuity of such decline are required. This can be achieved through the provision of alternative market spaces closer to their current locations that can substitute for their accustomed trading environments.

- ii. Street traders should be given adequate official support irrespective of their educational qualifications. This is predicted to improve their livelihood security in particular and livelihood sustainability in general. Such official support could be in

forms of loans, grants and gifts from established government agencies, banks of industry and commerce, non-governmental organisations and philanthropists.

- iii. Tenure security exercise should be embarked upon for the street traders in Bida. This can be done through the provision of new formal business spaces, legalising their existing locations (when such locations do not violate regulations on orderliness) and providing permanent structures for the street traders' livelihoods. This is with a view to reducing evictions, and consequently, reducing livelihood vulnerability. Organised spaces should also be provided for the street traders for the purpose of displaying their goods for easy sale. This will minimise the exposure of the street traders to harsh weather elements on the one hand and reduce the perishability of their products on the other. It will also help in minimising harassment from motorists. Furthermore, this will guarantee long-term participation and consequently lead to livelihood improvement.
- iv. There is also a need for the encouragement and enlightenment of the street traders to further develop their livelihood assets bases for the purpose of ensuring sustainable livelihood development on the one hand; and orientation of the security agencies in the study area on the negative impacts of harassment of street traders on their livelihoods and possible consequent or attendant influence on the surge of unemployment and poverty rates on the other hand.
- v. In line with the finding that long-term participation in street trading leads to livelihood improvement and sustainability, permanent retail shops should be provided for the traders to carry out their livelihoods undeterred. This will minimise poverty and unemployment among the residents of the city.

5.3 Contribution to Knowledge

Previous studies on the phenomenon of street trading have adopted the negative narrative of the practice. Little have been done to establish the positive contributions of street trading to the urban economic landscape. This study therefore assessed the impact of street trading to the livelihoods of urban residents using Bida, Niger State as a case study. The study deviates from the existing trend of legalistic approaches to the study of street trading to adopt a more inclusive and advocacy approach to the study of street trading. The study shows that street traders have both the right to the city and a right to livelihood.

Furthermore, previous studies on street trading did not give adequate attention to the practice of street trading as a means of livelihood. This bias in research on street trading may be partly responsible for the negative treatment they receive from physical planning authorities. This study covers this apparent gap in knowledge. To cover this important gap apparently neglected or under-explored in scholarly studies and advocacy on the benefits of street trading, this study investigated the livelihood impacts of street trading in Bida, and contributed to knowledge on the benefits of street trading in Nigeria. This was particularly necessary because there is an apparent gap in knowledge on the livelihood impacts of street trading particularly in Northern Nigeria. This is despite the widespread practice of street trading in Nigerian cities, including urban centres in Northern Nigeria where Bida is located. This study, therefore, closed this observed knowledge-gap by assessing the livelihood impacts of street trading in Bida, Nigeria.

In addition, it also enlightens a wide range of people, particularly the urban poor, unemployed and underemployed persons on the opportunities in the informal economic sector and how

these opportunities can be explored to improve their economic status, and consequently, their wellbeing.

5.4 Proposition for Further Research

This study focused on the livelihood effects of street trading in Bida. There is a need to replicate the study at larger scales, namely at state and national levels. There is also a need to study the contribution of street trading to the state and nation's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) rate.

Further studies are also required to investigate the environmental, health, social, political considerations in relation to the phenomenon of urban street trading. Finally, there is a need for an in-depth analysis of the planning impacts of street trading in the study area.

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APPENDIX A (QUESTIONNAIRE)

Dear respondent,

This researcher is a Master Degree student of the Department of Urban and Regional Planning, Federal University of Technology, Minna. He is conducting a research on the livelihood impact of street trading in Bida, Niger State, Nigeria. Be assured that all information provided will be used for academic purpose and your anonymity is guaranteed.

Thanks in anticipation of your honest responses.

SECTION A: SOCIOECONOMIC ATTRIBUTES OF STREET TRADERS

1. What is your gender? (A) Male (B) Female
2. What is your marital status? (A) Single (B) Married (C) Divorced (D) Separated (E) Widowed
3. What is your highest educational qualification? (A) None (B) Quranic education (C) Primary School Certificate (D) Secondary School Certificate (E) Diploma or National Diploma of National Certificate in Education (F) Higher National Diploma or Degree (G) Masters Degree (H) Doctorate Degree
4. Age.....

SECTION B: ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS AND NATURE OF STREET TRADING

5. Type of product sold (A) Foodstuff (B) Cooked Food (C) Meat (D) Vegetables (E) Cloth (F) Shoes (G) Electronics (H) Phone accessories (I) Household wares (J) Others (please, specify).....
6. When did you start this trading business?.....
7. Nature of product sold (A) Perishable (B) Non-perishable
8. Selling pattern(A) Hawking (B) Stationary

9. Quantity of products displayed for sale (A) Few (B) All
 10. Source of the product (A) Produced by myself (B) Bought from within the town
 (C) Bought from outside the town
 11. Form of sales (A) Wholesale (B) Retail (C) Both
 12. Mode of display of your goods (A) Display on the floor (B) Hawked on head (C)
 Sold on wheelbarrow (D) Displayed in kiosk/shop (5)
 13. Duration of practice (A) Morning (B) Afternoon (C) Evening (D) Night
 14. When do you start work daily?.....
 15. When do you close daily?
 16. Number of days worked Weekly?.....
 17. Do you receive any official support? (A) Yes (B) No
 18. If yes, kindly tick which aid scheme you obtained the support from, the amount and date in the table below:

Aid Scheme	Amount secured	When
TraderMoni		
N-Power		
Bank loan		
Young entrepreneurs of Nigeria (YEN)		
YouWIN		
Subsidy Reinvestment and Empowerment Programme (SUREP)		
Youth Initiative for Sustainable Agriculture (YISA)		
Youth Entrepreneurship Support Programme (YESP)		
Presidential Youth Empowerment Scheme (PYES)		
Project YES		

SECTION C: SECTION B: SPATIAL CHARACTERISTICS OF STREET TRADING IN BIDA

19. Mode of space acquisition (A) Inherited (B) Bought from the community head
 (C) Bought from a land agent (D) Received as a gift (E) Acquired from the
 Urban Board (F) Squatting (G) Others (please, specify).... ..

20. Nature of shed (A) No shed (B) Umbrella (C) Sack (D) Zink (E) Permanent structure

21. Security of Tenure (A) Secure (B) Not secure (C) Cannot say

22. If not secure, have you ever been evicted? (A) Yes (B) No

23. How do you think distance decay affects your business?

.....

CHALLENGES FACED BY STREET TRADERS

24. Are there any challenges in this business? (A) Yes (B) No

25. If yes, what are the challenges faced in the business? (A) Poor accessibility (B) Accidents (C) harassment from Security agents (D) Trading regulation (E)

Others, specify.....

26. Have you ever lost your goods? (A) Yes (B) No

27. If yes, how? (A) Robbery (B) Theft (C) Accidents (D) seizure from law enforcement agents (E) Irregular daily returns (F) Harassment from motorists G) Exposure to harsh weather elements (H) Exposure to pollution (I) Others,

specify.....

28. Rank the main problems affecting your business by using the following variables

1 – 5

Problem	Ranking				
	1	2	3	4	5
Robbery					
Theft					
Accidents					
seizure from law enforcement agents					

Irregular daily returns					
Harassment from motorists					
Exposure to harsh weather elements					
Exposure to pollution					

1= Most serious problem, 2= Serious problem, 3= somehow serious, 4= Less serious, 5= Not serious

SECTION D: LIVELIHOOD EFFECTS OF STREET TRADING IN BIDA

Section D (i) :: Financial Capital Base

29. How much do you earn (averagely) from this trading daily?

30. Do you have any alternative livelihood? (A) Yes (B) No

31. If yes, how much do you earn (averagely) daily from your alternative livelihood?

.....

32. Indicate which other livelihood activity you have started as a result of savings from street trading

Business type	Size of business	Year started
Farming (hectares)		
Keeping goats (number)		
Poultry farming (number)		
Sales trading (volume of ware in Naira)		

33. Do you save some part of your daily income? (A) Yes (B) No

34. If yes, how much (on the average) do you save daily?

35. What was your initial financial capital?

36. What is your current financial capital?

Section D (ii) :: Social Capital Base

37. Aside your immediate household, how many relations do you cater for?.....
38. Do you pay money to charity/orphanages? (A) Yes (B) No
39. If yes, how much do you spend on charity daily?
40. Do you receive financial aid from friends and family? (A) Yes (B) No
41. If yes, how often? (A) Daily (B) Weekly (C) Monthly (D) Quarterly (E) Yearly (F) Sometimes (G) Always
42. Has this business contributed in creating more relationships for you? (A) Yes (B) No
43. Are you a member of any trade association? (A) Yes (B) No
44. If yes, how many trade associations are you a member of?.....
45. If your answer to question 37 above is yes, do you make financial contributions to the associations? (A) Yes (B) No
46. If yes, how much do you contribute?.....
47. If your answer to question 37 is yes, what have you benefitted from the association (A) Loan (B) Grant (C) Gifts (D) Others (please, specify).....

Section D (iii) :: Physical Capital Base

48. Have you been able to obtain a plot of land from the proceeds of your business? (A) Yes (B) No
49. Have you built a house from the proceeds of your business? (A) Yes (B) No
50. Have you acquired a car/automobile from the proceeds of your business? (A) Yes (B) No
51. Have you purchased farmland(s) from the proceeds of your business? (A) Yes (B) No

52. Have you purchased livestock/poultry for rearing from the proceeds of your business?

(A) Yes (B) No

53. Business.....

54. Indicate assets you have acquired through this work

Assets	Number/units
Plot of land	
Houses	
Bicycle	
Fridge	
Freezer	
Car (taxi)	
Farmland (hectare)	
Television set	
Radio set	
Home theatre	
Video game players	
Handset (Android)	
Face mask	
Solar panel	
Furniture	
Phone (not android)	
Computer	
Machinery	

Generator set(s)	
CD Tape(s)	
Rug	
Plates	
Kitchen utensils	

55. Do you have other branches where you have established your business? A) Yes

(B) No

56. Is your business registered with corporate affairs commission? A) Yes (B) No

57. If no, would you like to have your business registered? A) Yes (B) No

58. If your response to question 48 above is no, what hinders you from registering your

business? (A) The time involved (B) Financial cost (C) The rigour of the

process (D) Others (please, specify).....

Section D (iv) :: Human Capital Base

59. Have you learnt a skill related to your trade? A) Yes (B) No

60. If yes, what kind of skill is it?.....

61. Have you been certified? A) Yes (B) No

62. If yes, for how long?.....

63. If no, would you like to get certified on your vocation? A) Yes (B) No

64. Do you have any recurrent health challenge? A) Yes (B) No

65. If yes, could you please mention it/them?.....

66. Have you ever had physical injury from the practice of your trade? A) Yes (B)

No

THANK YOU FOR VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME AND RESPONSES!

NB:

Physical observation was used to carry out on the following:

1. GPS

Coordinates.....

2. Size of land occupied.....