

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND
DEVELOPMENTAL MANAGEMENT



The Practice and Challenges of Street Vending in the City of Addis Ababa:

The Case of Lideta and Arada Sub-cities

**A Thesis Submitted as a Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for A
Masters Of Arts Degree In Public Management and Policy**

By: Edlawit Kiros Haileselassie

Advisor: Elias Berhanu (PhD)

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DEVELOPMENTAL MANAGEMENT

By: Edlawit Kiros Hailesselassie

Approved by:

Advisor: _____
Name Signature Date

Internal examiner: _____
Name Signature Date

External examiner: _____
Name Signature Date

Declaration

I hereby declare that this research project work titled “The Practice and Challenges of Street Vending in the City of Addis Ababa: The Case of Lideta And Arada Sub-cities” is based on actual work carried out by me under the guidance and supervision of my advisor Elias Berhanu (PhD). I further declare that the work reported in this project has not been submitted and will not be submitted for the award of any other degree in this institute or any other institute.

Edlawit Kiros

Name

Date

Signature

Certification

This is to certify that Edlait Kiros has carried out this project work on the topic titled “The Practice and Challenges of Street Vending in the City of Addis Ababa: The Case of Lideta And Arada Sub-cities” under my supervision. This work is original in nature and is suitable for submission for the award of Master of Arts in Public Management and Policy.

Elias Berhanu, PhD

Name

Date

Signature

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Acronyms

ILO	International Labor Organization
GNP	Growth National Product
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
CSA	Central Statistical Agency
UNDP	United Nation Development Program
UN Habitat	United Nation Habitat

Abstract

The practice of street vending is common practice in major urban centers around the world. In different parts of the city of Addis Ababa, street vending can be observed however studies that examine the practice demonstrate challenges and knowledge gap. By utilizing a mixed method descriptive research design, this study envisioned to provide clarity into the practice and challenges of street vending in the Lideta and Arada Sub-cities. The main objective of the study is to identify and assess the practices and the challenges of the street vending in urban areas of Ethiopia, with focus on Addis Ababa.

To achieve the aforementioned objective of the study, three questions were developed and attempted to respond. The questions this study set out to answer were: *What are the major causes for people to join street vending business in Addis Ababa? How do street vendors carry out their business in Addis Ababa and what are opportunities and treats posed by the street vending business? What is the contribution of Regulation number 53?*

To answer the questions the study used both primary and secondary sources. The primary data for the study was obtained through interviews, questionnaires and observation whereas the secondary data was obtained from books, journals and online sources. The data obtained was analyzed and interpreted to make sense of the phenomenon in light of the related literature review.

The study discovered; that street vending is an important income source often times on a daily subsistence basis for the vendors and that this is the major reason for joining the sector. Moreover, the small capital requirement of the business was another major factor to joining street vending. The other major sources for joining the sector this study discovered are lack of access to funding to join the formal business sector and lack of suitable and marketable space for vendors. The study also found out that street vending has an effect on the legal traders, traffic, the legal and tax system. The study also found out that the street vendors lack awareness about article 53 and its benefits such as obtaining badges and subsequently a trading area assigned. The study also discovered that finding a trading area has positive relation with increase in income.

Key Words: *Street Vending, Article 53, Code Enforcing, Informal Sector*

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1. Background of the Problem

In defining the concept street Naik (2013) describes it in the following ways “Street is where a marriage procession spontaneously celebrates a union. The street is where the unlicensed street vendor meets extreme police brutality as returns home after a long day's work. The street is where public demonstrations, traffic breakdowns, cycling critical mass demonstrations, carnivals, dinner-time shopping, snack urges, traffic offences, festival celebrations, crimes, prostitution, religious celebrations, public nationalisms, and a whole host of other infinitely varying activities create the component parts of the city street”. Thus, street is where multiple activities are performed with the participation of numerous informal traders and inhabitants.

In multifaceted activities that are exhibited in streets, street vendors are part of the of town events. With this, street vendors are peoples who sell everything in the street for pedestrians and irregular customers. In other words, street vendor means persons engaged in selling goods, wares, food items, second hand garments, electronics materials or merchandise of everyday use or service offering to the general public in streets, lanes, sidewalks, footpaths, pavements, public parks or any other public place or private areas, from temporary built up structures or by moving from place to place (Pinki, 2015). Street vending varies in term of scale, timing, location, remuneration, workforce and types of goods sold and services provided. It can be a full-time occupation, a part-time occupation, seasonal, or occasional and is often looked down as an undesirable activity undertaken by criminals which encroaches on the use of public space.

Street vending is an ancient and important occupation found virtually in every country around the world (Broomley, 2000). Street vendors add vitality to the streetscape and contribute to economic activity and service provision, but many people see them as free, open, unstop and safety risks, tax evasion and the sale of shoddy merchandise (ibid, 2000). Put differently, street vending is one of the informal sector and this sector is known by diverse nomenclatures such as Informal Economy, Black Market, Casual Work, Clandestine Activities, Community of the Poor, Family - enterprise Sector, Hidden Sector, Informal Opportunities, Informal Sector, Intermediate Sector, Invisible Sector, Irregular Sector, Lower-circuit of the Urban Economy, Non-Plan

Activities, Non Westernized Sector, One-Person Enterprise, Parallel Economy, People's Economy, Petty Commodity Production, Shadow Economy, Trade-Service Sector, Transient Sector, Underground Economy, Unobserved Economy, Unofficial Economy, Unorganized Sector, Unrecorded Economic Activities, Unremunerated Sector, Unstructured Sector, Urban Subsistence Sector. These naming informs that the sector cannot be relegated as irrelevant engagement.

On top of the above names, there are different viewpoints. For instance, according to Peter, Gutmann (1977) the term is described as 'subterranean economy' which means defining all process that 'escape from taxation'. Continuing the definition, Feige (1990) defines it as 'hidden economy', one that escapes domain of the current social measurement'. In addition, Del Boca Forte (1982) defines the 'parallel economy' as all those exercises which escape from the formal process (Maliyamkono and Bagachwa, 1986, quoted in Sisay Seifu, 2005).

ILO (1972) introduced the term informal sector which leads to part of an economy process because the economy included in the GNP. However, the sector is not engaged in taxation or because, it is not officially licensed by the pertinent government body, it is named as informal. The informal sector does not need permanent place, higher education, well organized training and high capital. Without these qualities, it is open for anyone.

A study attests that there is substantial increase in the number of street vendors in major cities of the world (Nsakanya & William, 2018). With these, the major factors identified as generic causes of street vending are: lack of gainful employment coupled with poverty in rural and urban areas that has pushed people to the selling of goods to the street and forced them to leave their villages in search of better existence in the cities (ILO, 2013). These migrants do not possess the skills or the education to enable them to find better paid, secure employment in the formal sector, rather, they settle for work in the informal sector. Consequently, because low productivity in agriculture forces them to migrate to the urban in search of employment and better life which forced millions of people in developing countries to engage in informal trade (Aryeetey, 2009). The other section of the population who are forced to join informal sector are workers who were employed in the formal sector and lost their jobs because of "closures downsizing or, mergers" in the industries (Dendukuri, 2014). This is how the sector is increasingly become perceptible to governments and dwellers.

In the course of the operations, the sector is embroiled with various challenges faced by street vendors. It includes many vendors in limited space, lack of business skill and less attention from government authorities as well while practicing or performing their works, they encounter harassment by code enforcing groups which include asking money, using abusive words and physical force (Bhowmik 2005: 2256). The same happens in Ethiopia, Addis Ababa.

Discussing the contribution of the sector, Jimu (2005) argues that street vending is not only seen as one of the options for earning a living in the face of increasing poverty, but it is also viewed as having a huge capacity to offset urban unemployment and poverty alleviation. Street vending, however, generally operates outside of the current formal legal framework, and is characterized by violation of zoning codes and noncompliance with labor codes and tax liabilities. Street vending is characterized by relatively low levels of income, ease of entry and those involved are self-employed. Consequently, it attracts a large number of people who do not have other means of earning a livelihood especially the urban poor. Even though, the income in the sector is low, the startup investment needed to is also low while the people engaged in the sector do not require special skills and training.

According to the International Labor Organization report (2002), 85% of all new employment opportunities around the world are created in the informal economy. Specifically, in North Africa, informal economy provides 48% of non-agriculture employment; 51% in Latin America; 65% in Asia; 72% in sub-Saharan Africa. The 2015 Kenya economic survey report confirms that the informal sector had the largest share of employment accounting for 82.7% of the total employment (Kenya, 2015). The informal economy sector does not only provide employment to the low-income group, but it also contributes largely to the overall GDP growth in different countries. For example, in 2005, it contributed up to 35.5% of GDP in South Asia, 41.5 % in Latin America and Caribbean about 42.3% in sub-Saharan Africa and 34.3% in Kenya (UN-Habitat, 2007).

Considering the contribution of street vending, in developing countries, Rwanda acknowledges street vending sector which plays a significant role in the urban setting by generating employment and providing income to a significant percentage of people, particularly those with no formally approved skills to obtain formal sector employment. Furthermore, the street vending sector provides goods and services at affordable prices for the poor strata of urban society. In this

regard, street vending provides a viable alternative for subsistence living in urban areas when formal employment is unavailable. It also acts as a barrier to anti-social practices like theft, prostitution, etc. (Bromley, 1998; Backer, 1994; Darrare, 2007). Taking the experience of other states of the world, the sector looks for consideration from government.

In Ethiopia, the informal economy is estimated about 50-60% of the urban employment (UNDP, 2012) and about 42% of these informal sector operators earn their livelihoods from microenterprises (CSA, 2005). According to the Central Statistical Authority report (2012) the growth rate of urbanization in Ethiopia is about 4%, the national population growth is about 2.7%. The data confirms that the informal sector cannot be overlooked.

About 90% of rural-urban migrants to Ethiopian cities are not employed in the formal sector due to lack of skill and lack of working premises and lack of working capital. As a result, they are forced to engage in the informal sector (CSA, 2013). Even though, small entrepreneurs in the informal sector do not have the capacity to support and finance from formal financial institutions, instead they rely on saving and credit schemes for obtaining finance needed for business ventures. Those who works on these activities depends on families', friends, and a little saving by own (CSA, 2006). In general, the sector is under multiple challenges which are exacerbated by several factors. Amidst of these problems, the sector sustains in the streets.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Ethiopia and many other sub-Saharan African countries are experiencing rapid population growth as a result of increased urbanization rising through natural increase and high rates of migration into the urban cities and large towns. In cities and towns, most of these people find it difficult to get jobs in the formal economic sectors due to their limited education and lack of skills for formal employment. In their struggle for making a living, many of these people have limited choices other than taking to the streets by engaging into street vending activities.

Street vending is an important income generator for many people who live in poor status and of course, they can also be an additional income for the government revenue if they give much attention. However, it has not yet been integrated as a component of urban economies in most countries of the world, especially in the developing world which their number is increasing from time to time. The importance of this sector has therefore been underestimated, neglected, and

usually seen more as a liability rather than a potential resource of employment creation and a source of national income generation (Kusakabe, 2006). The result being that the operators of the sector face obstacles and its contribution to the socio-economic well-being is less understood and less recognized (Muiruri, 2010).

Those who practice street vending are considered as unlawful entities and are facing challenges such as harassment by civic authorities and code enforcing groups. During their activities, they also face lack of working place, harassment and eviction from selling place by police and private shop guardians, lack of market, non-profitability of the business, lack of credit, lack of freedom and social security during operation of their business and cleanness of the urban area is the other effect on both people of the surrounding and for the Addis Ababa City.

In Addis Ababa city, people join street vending to be free from dependence, to support their family and due to absences of opportunities to engage in the formal sector. Although the sector has not been accommodated by the city administration and street vending related policy, it provides employment opportunities as a means of income generation for the urban poor, especially for those who migrate from the rural areas. It also provides to consumers convenient and accessible retail options and forms a vital part of the social and economic life of a city.

Based on the global and national level experiences Teltscher (1994) and Bromley (1998) reported on lack of research and lack of correct data on the subject matter while other informal activities such as production and manufacturing have received more research attention. It is therefore difficult to obtain accurate and reliable information on the street vending sector, resulting in a lack of initiation and implementation of appropriate and policy interventions unlike other informal sectors. Following the above argument, Anjaria (2006) has alluded to the fact that there has also been inconsistent report among policy makers on how they perceive street vending activities. Street vendors are viewed as a nuisance, a menace and an eyesore which does not motivate to conduct research. According to ILO, 2002a; Mitullah, 2003; Adhikari, 2011, in recent year many countries around the world have realized the importance of street vending for the urban economies and considered it as a way of alleviating poverty reduction and started to conduct research as an appraisal of its contributions to socioeconomic and environmental perspectives.

In Ethiopia today, there has been limited information and research on this study since it is a growing sector that deserves careful research and a significance attention like any other economic activity. Based on the existing nature of the sector, this study was conducted and believed to have contributed a step forward towards filling the gap. Besides, the study attempted to examine and analyze the practices and challenges of street vending in urban areas of Ethiopia, with focus in Addis Ababa city.

1.3. Objective of the Study

1.3.1 General Objective

The general objective of the study was to identify and assess the practices and the challenges of the street vending in urban areas of Ethiopia, with focus Addis Ababa.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

- To identify the major causes or the driving factor for people to join the street vending business in selected areas of Addis Ababa;
- To spot practices and to discover major effects of street vending; and
- To review the contribution of Addis Ababa city administration produced regulation number 53.

1.4 Research Questions

- What are the major causes for people to join street vending business in selected areas of Addis Ababa?
- How do street vendors carry out their business in selected areas of Addis Ababa and what are opportunities and treats posed by the street vending business?
- What is the contribution of Regulation number 53?

1.5. Significance of the Study

In Ethiopia, significant efforts have been made to reduce unemployment and poverty, but it is continuously increasing despite the different programs and strategies designed and implemented by the government, non-governmental organizations, community-based organizations and individuals. The performance of structural adjustment, plan for sustainable development and eradication of poverty, MDG, different reform measures, growth and transformation plan can be identified as various interventions towards reducing poverty, inequality and unemployment (Misrak, 2017).

Even though the Ethiopian government exerted much endeavor in reducing poverty and the rate of unemployment, it does not consider the efforts, causes and practices of street vendors who are working towards reducing unemployment and alleviating dependency. Hence, this study attempted to examine the existing practices, the contribution of the regulation and the challenges of street vending on both sides, from the perspective of vendors and the government.

Considering the objective situation, the informal sector appeals formulation of appropriate policy, design effective and well-done strategic steps to address the informal sector. In addition, if the sector is well addressed, it eases the burden of code enforcing groups and benefits the city. The researcher believes the study will shed light on the area of the study and it contributed in producing a research paper that serves as a springboard for further studies.

1.6. Scope of the Study

This study was limited to street vendors in Addis Ababa, mainly in Arada and Lideta sub cities. It mainly deals with practices and challenges of street vendors in Addis Ababa. Besides, the study is limited to informal sector with focus to street vending and targets both male and female groups, without considering gender-based approach.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

This part of the study reviews literatures written by different writers and research works conducted by different scholars in relation to opportunities, Challenges, policy and regulations of street vending business; definitions, sources of street vending and its causes, its practices in different countries, theoretical frameworks, opportunities, characteristics, negative and positive impacts of street vending and practices of street vending in different countries.

2.1 Definitions

2.1.1 Informal Sector

The original use of the term ‘informal sector’ is attributed to the economic development model put forward by W. Arthur Lewis (1955) used to describe employment or livelihood generation primarily within the developing world. It was used to describe a type of employment that was viewed as falling outside of the modern industrial sector. An alternative definition uses job security as the measure of formality defining participants in the informal economy as those who do not have employment security, work security and social security. While both of these definitions imply a lack of choice or agency in involvement with the informal economy, participation may also be driven by a wish to avoid regulation or taxation.

2.1.2 Street vending

Many scholars have different definitions to identify street vending business; Street based self-employment: A poverty trap or a stepping stone for migrant youth in Africa (Bezu & Holden, 2015). Street vendors could be stationary and occupy space on the pavements or other public areas, or could be mobile, and move from one area to another carrying their wares in baskets on their heads, or could sell their wares in moving buses. The term “street vendor” in English is typically used interchangeably with “street trader,” “hawker,” and “peddler” (Moser, 1978).

Street vendors refer to persons who sell goods in public space as well as those who provide services in public spaces, such as hairdressers/barbers; shoe shiners and shoe repairers; and mechanics (ILO, 2013). A street vendor is a person who offers goods or services for sale to the

public without having a permanently built structure but with a temporary static structure or mobile stall (Chakraborty and Koley, 2018).

Street vendors are the largest sub-group of the informal workforce after home based workers. Together these groups represent 10-35% of the non-agricultural workforce in developing countries, in comparison with 5% of the total workforce in developed countries. Except in societies that restrict their mobility, women comprise 30-90% of street vendors in developing countries (ILO, 2002).

Finally, street vending as an informal type of business, which offers goods for sale to the public, without having a permanent built up structure (Bhowmik, 2005). Other scholars define street vending as all non-criminal commercial activity dependent on access to public space, including trade from unlimited locations and mobile vending (Lyons and Msoka, 2010).

2.2. Theoretical Framework

Theoretically, scholars such as (Skinner 2008, Ndhlovu 2011) have found the study of street vending difficult to categorize. The challenge emanates from the lack of analytical rigor and dearth of studies that independently look at urban street vending. As a result, there are competing theories regarding the role of street vending as an important economic activity. Since street vending is largely considered as a mere spectacle of the urban informal sector, most of the arguments on street vending are polarized into either the Reformist or Marxist theoretical discourses within the informal sector, (Jimu 2004, Bieler 2014).

2.2.1 Modernization Perspective

Scholars named Cross & Morales (2007) introduces that the street vending business was either seen as a residue from a pre-modern era that is gradually disappearing and it is as a part of the pre-modern economic order surviving only on the fringes of modern society. How could something think of as pre-modern be associated with, even revived by, modernity and completely at home with post modernity? the reasons for presenting with this conundrum was rooted in research on street vending in various countries – research initially rooted in the assumption that street vending should, by all logical criteria, eventually disappear. What we found, however, is that street vending, despite some problems and frequent attacks, is a thriving

and growing phenomenon ironically driven, we believe, by government policy, and rooted to modernity's economic successes and subsequent inequalities, and most fully appreciated in terms of contemporary global economic changes authors associate with post modernity.

Street vendors in this view are depicted as a residual labor category which as summarizes, is from this perspective viewed as unimportant and destined to disappear (Bromley, 2000). Traditional informal entrepreneurs (e.g. as part of entrepreneurial communities, carrying forward family line of work) where likely to be found: - Established markets - Established informal hawking zones (Williams & Gurtoo, 2012).

2.2.2 Structuralism Perspective: A Necessity-Driven Activity

Street vending business is an endeavor into which marginalized populations are driven out of necessity in the absence of alternative ways of securing a livelihood, such entrepreneurship is a direct by-product of the advent of a de-regulated open world economy (Castells and Portes, 1989).

2.2.3 Neo-Liberal Perspective: A Rational Economic Choice

In recent years, however, participation in street entrepreneurship has been re-read either as a rational economic choice. For these neo-liberals, such entrepreneurs are heroes throwing off the shackles of a burdensome state and making a rational economic decision to enter street vending so as to escape over-regulation in the formal realm (Small Business Council, 2004). Voluntary informal entrepreneurs (e.g., selling unusual, nonperishable goods). Where likely to be found: Higher- and lower-income districts (Williams and Gurtoo, 2012).

2.2.4 Anomie Theory and Markets after Crisis

Illicit markets evoke consequences typically associated with crises: disorder, disintegration, and the rise of crime. In this picture, there is no chance to establish stability and order in the world of informal and illegal transactions. The historian Paul Steege, however, partially contradicts this all too quick assumption by describing a vital Berlin black market that emerged after the Second World War for the trade of food, cigarettes, and ration cards, which was made possible by growing personal connections that "mattered much more for individuals' efforts to locate themselves in postwar Germany's ambiguous moral terrain. These emerging understandings,

reached among desperate people who felt compelled to find, offer, and sell different types of goods, shaped a space with blurred boundaries that put into question the classical sociological explanation of crises and deviant behavior, the anomie thesis.

Although their understanding of anomie differs significantly (Hilbert, 1989) an anomic state of society for Durkheim and Merton is the result of the interplay between rapid social change and regulative institutions. From Durkheim's perspective, nevertheless, the making of a market would not coincide with widespread states of disorientation. The emergence of illegal markets shows affinity with Durkheim's diagnosis of the contemporary crisis only if it implies emerging shared justifications or values, understood as moral reintegration of society (Beckert, 2002, p. 82). As a consequence, illegal markets cannot be described in terms of anomie since their distinctive feature is not conflict and disorientation but a more or less peaceful exchange and order. Expressed in other terms, an anomic state of society would take place before new exchanges emerge.

Merton understands of anomie raises other kinds of questions. Revolving on Durkheim's observations about social states of disorganization and disorientation, he asserted that anomie comes from the discrepancy between extended cultural goals and the available means to achieve them. In this fashion, Merton claims that "aberrant behavior may be regarded sociologically as a symptom of dissociation between culturally prescribed aspirations and socially structured avenues for realizing these aspirations". This approach has led to an extensive literature on conceptual refinement and empirical research, chiefly concerned with "deviant behavior" in all its forms (Adler / Laufer, 1995). Following Merton's thesis, it could be possible to describe illegal markets as an anomic arena for the exchange of goods and services, as most of this body of literature until the 1970s did. Nevertheless, the claim that the formation of an illicit market is a case of anomie makes two implicit assumptions whose adequacy we need to assess. The first regards the cultural goals or ends, and the second is related to the structural opportunities or means.

2.2.5 Post-Modern Perspective

Entrepreneurs as cultural/social actors: Final perspective again depicts such entrepreneurship as voluntarily chosen but rather than view it as a rational economic decision, it is seen more as a

cultural endeavor. This is inspired by a small tributary of critical, post-colonial, post-structuralist, post-development and post-capitalist thought that moves beyond the conventional thin portrayal of economic endeavor as always purely market-like and profit-motivated and instead adopts thicker portrayals of the participation in economic endeavor which recognize the complex mix of logics, including social, community and cultural logics, often involved (Bourdieu, 2001)

Street vending has been practiced in many different ways. Most vendors sell goods, but some sell services, and some sell a mixture of the two. Some vendors are fixed in one location, using a kiosk or a heavy stall which remains in the same location for months or even years and is locked up and left under the supervision of a watchman when not in use. Others use heavy mobile stalls which are pushed from a storehouse into the sales position at the beginning of the working day and pushed back at the end. Still, others are fixed in location, but simply lay their merchandise out on the ground or on a sheet of cloth or plastic. Truly mobile vendors may push stalls on wheels, carry their merchandise on their persons, or operate a stall off a cart, a tricycle, or a motor vehicle. Some mobile vendors sell to passers-by, some do door-to-door delivery, and still, others hawk from building to building (Bromley, 2000).

Williams and Gurtoo (2012) also review Street entrepreneurs being viewed more as social actors; Firstly, attention has been drawn to not only how the social relations between street entrepreneurs differ to normal market relations in that business and friendship relations blur and there are greater community solidarity and reciprocity, but also how to exchange relations between street entrepreneurs and their customers differ to mainstream market relations in that without recourse to a legal contract, interpersonal relations and trust become more important. Secondly, there has been a focus on how such entrepreneurship is pursued as a choice because of the greater personal freedom and flexibility it affords and allows them to gain control over their lives and third and finally, how this endeavor is often in the eyes of participants an expression of community support which allows customers to source goods they otherwise could not afford. Voluntary entrepreneurs (e.g., only working in mornings or evenings, selling unusual or nonperishable goods) Where likely to be found: - Higher-income districts.

2.3 Debates of Street Vending Business

Chen, (2012) review conditions of work and the level of earnings differ markedly among those who scavenge on the streets for rags and paper, those who produce garments on a subcontract from their homes, those who sell goods on the streets, and those who work as temporary data processors. Even within countries, the informal economy is highly segmented by sector of the economy, place of work, and status of employment and, within these segments, by social group and gender. But those who work informally have one thing in common: they lack legal and social protection. Over the years, the debate on the large and heterogeneous informal economy has crystallized into four dominant schools of thought regarding its nature and composition, as follows

2.3.1 The Dualist School

This school thinks the informal business of the economy as comprising marginal activities different from and not the same formal business that provides income for the poor and a safety net in times of risk (Hart, 1973; ILO, 1972; Sethuraman, 1976; Tokman, 1978). This school argues that street vendors are out of modern economic opportunities due to the absence of balance between the growth rates of the population and of modern industrial employment, and a mismatch between people's skills and the structure of modern economic opportunities.

The Dualists accept to the notion that street vending business has small linkages to the formal business but, rather, operate as a distinct separate sector of the economy and that the street vendors assumed to be largely self-employed comprise the less advantaged sector of a dualistic or lined labor market. They give relatively little attention to the links between street vending and government regulations. But they recommend that governments should create more jobs and provide credit and business development services to street vending business operators, as well as basic infrastructure and social services to their families.

2.3.2 The Structuralism School

This school sees the street vending business as subordinated economic units (micro-enterprises) and workers that serve to reduce input and labor costs and, thereby, increase the competitiveness of large capitalist firms. The informal and formal business as intrinsically linked. They see both

informal enterprises and informal wage workers as subordinated to the interests of capitalist development, providing cheap goods and services. They argue that governments should address the unequal relationship between “big business” and subordinated producers and workers by regulating both commercial and employment relationships (Moser, 1978; Castells and Portes, 1989).

2.3.3 The Legalist School

The Legalist school sees the street vending business as comprised of “plucky” micro entrepreneurs who choose to operate informally in order to avoid the costs, time and effort of formal registration and who need property rights to convert their assets into legally recognized assets (Holden & Rajapatirana, 1995).

The Legalists argue that a hostile legal system leads the self-employed to operate informally with their own informal extra-legal norms. This school focuses on informal enterprises and the formal regulatory environment to the relative neglect of informal wage workers and the formal economy per se. But they acknowledge that formal firms what De Soto calls “mercantilist” interests collude with government to set the bureaucratic rules of the game. They argue that governments should introduce simplified bureaucratic procedures to encourage informal enterprises to register and extend legal property rights for the assets WIEGO Working Paper held by informal operators in order to unleash their productive potential and convert their assets into real capital (Chen, 2005).

2.3.4 The Voluntarist School

The Voluntarist school also focuses on informal entrepreneurs who deliberately seek to avoid regulations and taxation but, unlike the legalist school, does not blame the cumbersome registration procedures. The Voluntarists argue that street vendors choose to operate informally after weighing the cost benefits of informality relative to formality. The Voluntarists pay relatively little attention to the economic linkages between street vending business and formal business but subscribe to the notion that street vending business creates unfair competition for formal business because they avoid formal regulations, taxes, and other costs of production. They argue that street vending business should be brought under the formal regulatory

environment in order to increase the tax base and reduce the unfair competition to formal businesses (Chen, 2012).

2.4. Causes of Street Vending

According to Bhowmik (2005), people join street vending to have a source of income. Street vending is also employed as means of avoiding depending on others for economic purposes. Street vendors use their personal saving as start-up capital to begin street vending. Lack of gainful employment coupled with poverty in rural areas has pushed people out of their villages in search of a better existence in the cities. These migrants do not possess the skills or the education to enable them to find better paid, secure employment in the formal sector and they have to settle for work in the informal sector. In industrial countries the informal sector will appear due to lose of jobs because of closures, down-sizing or mergers in the industries they worked in and the employers or their family members had to seek low-paid work in the informal sector in order to survive.

The first category namely low skilled rural migrants exist in all countries of Asia but they are more prevalent in the poorer countries such as India, Bangladesh, Nepal, Cambodia and Vietnam. These countries did not have a strong industrial base and in the past too. The urban workforce was engaged mainly in the informal sector.

The second category, namely, workers who were earlier in the formal sector, exists in countries such as Philippines, South Korea, Thailand, Malaysia, Indonesia and India. The closure of several industries due to a variety of reasons outsourcing of work to the informal sector, mergers of some of the corporations, downsizing of the production units, etc. has resulted in large scale unemployment in these countries (Bhowmik, 2005).

The driving forces of informal sector are different from one country to another that affected by culture, politics and economic backgrounds (Sibhat, 2005), informal sector theories are based on the relationship between formal and informal sector and also are different in countries or industries. Most of the factors are stated as following:

2.4.1 Lack of Growth

The dualist school belief that the informal sector is include of marginal activities but not related to the formal sector that provide income for the poor and a safety net in times of crisis (ILO, 1972; Sethuraman, 1976; Tokman, 1978 cited in Chen,2012). The pushing factor of informal activities is due to a slow rate of economic growth and/or a faster rate of population growth industrial. Basically, formal sector cannot create job opportunity for surplus labor. According to the dualist school causes of informal sector is lack of growth (Chen, 2012).

2.4.2. The nature of Capitalist Development

The structuralism school notion that the informal sector consider as subordinated for formal sector and also forms of production are connected and interdependent. And workers that serve to reduce input and labor costs and then increase the competitiveness of large capitalist firms. So, structuralism believes that the cause of informality in production relation is the nature of capitalist development (Moser, 1978; Castells and Portes, 1989). Monopolistic practice has own roll to increase informal operators that use street vendors to increase sales (Omar, 2006).

2.4.3 Government Rules and Regulations

The cause of increment of informal sector is tax burden, as anybody knows neoclassical economic model if marginal tax increase, substitution effect that people choices leisure than work as same as people substitute informal sector by reducing working time from formal sector (Belev, 2013). The legalist school is also notion that the informal sector considered as the reaction of micro-entrepreneurs (Soto, 1989).

2.4.4 Choice of Illegal Operation

The ill-legalist school subscribes to the notion that informal sector driving by entrepreneurs purposely want to avoided costs of formally operating that regulations fee, taxation water and electricity cost. So that the school belief that the causes of informality are entrepreneurs chooses operate illegally (Maloney, 2004 cited in Chen, 2012). Therefore, this tends to create more high skill service sector jobs than lower-skill manufacturing jobs. In such contexts, those without the skills to compete for high-tech formal jobs find work or continue to work in the informal

economy. The small business and micro-business sectors are create more jobs than the formal sector.

2.4.5 Economic Restructuring and Economic Crisis

Economic crises lead to increased unemployment through loss of jobs in the formal economy and to increased employment in the informal economy. Greater number of people who lost their job turned to vending as a possible source of income and in respond to inflation. That's why when enterprises are downsized or shut down, due to economic restructuring and economic crisis the workers who are laid-off and cannot find alternative formal jobs often end up working in the informal economy (Chen, 2012).

2.4.6 Globalization

John C.(2000) argue that current change in global economy is associated post modernity and postmodernism is more open to informal sector to function in the economy as incubators for 13 new businesses. When the global transformation from modern economy to post-modern economic system, informal sector also transfers from as inefficient to as source of growth and flexibility. The conditions of globalization favor and information links large companies and the competitive pressure encourages employment contract flexibilization by sub-contracting, workers to piece-rate or casual arrangements became shift formal wage workers to informal employment arrangements without minimum wages, assured work or benefits (ILO, 2002).

2.4.7 Rural to Urban Migration

Todaro (1981) argues many factors are for rural/urban migration in developing countries such as social factor, physical factors including climate, demographic factors including rural population growth, cultural factors and communication factors like improved transportation, modernization impact: Radio, Television and the Cinema also creation of one job in the formal sector is attracts more than one migrant. Due to push and pull factor of migration the rate of migration from the rural to the urban area will greater that of the number of jobs generated by the formal sector.

2.5 Characteristics of Street Vending Business

The characteristics of Street vending based on employment that the people engaged in the informal business and enterprise that the activities in the informal market (CSA, 2004).

Firstly, workers have lower levels of education and rates of literacy compared with the formal sector, reflecting that poor human capital increases the probability of participation in the informal sector.

Verick, (2006) characterized the differences in the educational level of workers in the South African informal and formal sectors 37 percent of workers in the informal economy in South Africa have not completed primary school education compared to only 16 percent for the formal business. Many African countries where school leavers seek a job in the public sector, but as consequence of, there are few opportunities. At the same time, these youths do not have appropriate skills for other forms of formal sector employment in industry or service activities. These youths, therefore, end up unemployed or working in the informal sector, with many of them still queuing go waiting for a job in the public sector.

Secondly, given that wages are usually much lower in the street vending business; rates of poverty are subsequently higher amongst workers and families who rely on informal employment. According to the ILO, wages are on average 44 percent lower in the informal sector (ILO, 2002).

El Mahdi and Amer, (2005) Egypt earns approximately 84 percent on average of what workers receive in the street vending business. However, such estimates do not control for occupation, which has been found in the gender wage gap literature to have a large impact on the disparity between female and male wages.

Thirdly, street vendors typically work longer hours in the week; results for Egypt suggest that the average number of hours worked in the informal economy was 51.6 in 1998, while it was only 44.6 in the formal segment of the economy (El Mahdi and Amer, 2005).

Other decent work deficits that are more prominent in the informal economy vis-à-vis the formal sector include poor health and safety, high job insecurity, no worker representation and few opportunities for skill enhancement (ILO, 2002).

World Bank characterize "Informal Sector in Transition Economies" Informal sector activities can be described as follows: Coping strategies (survival activities): casual jobs, temporary jobs, unpaid jobs, subsistence agriculture, multiple job holding, Unofficial earning strategies (illegality in business), Unofficial business activities: tax evasion, avoidance of labor regulation and other government or institutional regulations, no registration of the company; and underground activities: crime, corruption - activities not registered by statistical offices.

2.6 Negative and Positive Impacts of Street Vending

Street vending has a negative and positive impact on the street vendors in particular and on the broader society in general. Different literatures reveal out the impacts of street vending as negative and positive.

Street vendors are facing a lot of financial and non-financial obstacles and constraints. The greatest challenge facing street vendors is with the site of operation and right to trading space, environmental condition, security, transport, municipal services, affect local government, and finance (Sibhat, 2014). Beyond economic capability, street vendors are entrenched in a web of complex livelihood challenges, which go beyond self-empowerment (Joseph, 2011). Street vending is perceived as a major crisis and an eye-sore in the urban authorities and criticized for causing or contributing to a number of social ills that negatively affect cities (Palmer, 2007).

In Africa, Local Authorities were major challenges to the development of street vending activities. Most of them use restrictive policies, by-laws and regulations originally intended to control and regulate the growth of indigenous enterprises. The restrictions make vending principally illegal, and view vendors as responsible making cities dirty, obstructing traffic and therefore a public nuisance. The policies did not provide for any trade within the Central Business District (CBD), and most street trading activities that take place within the CBD had no legal provisions. The policies did not appreciate the role of street vending in an urban economy. For example in Uganda, the Local Government Act of 1997 does not engender review by-laws. The Act simply gives powers to Local Authorities to enforce laws and by-laws consistent with the National framework. This implies that the Local Authorities have to review their by-laws to be line with the 1997 Local Government Act (Rajabu, 2015).

The challenge of the New Urban Agenda is to position quality employment alongside quality habitat as pillars on which sustainable urbanization may take place. This challenge is significant when, in most regions of the global South, street vending accounts for more than half of total employment, and when self-employment outweighs wage employment. Within self-employment, street vending business is one of the most visible occupations, yet few cities successfully balance the need to support livelihoods with the need to manage public space is seen as a means of urban air pollution and then a cause of sick on neighborhoods. And also the cause of increase the formal sector payment for pollution imitation tax cause they create pollution higher than formal sector due to nature of activity on the other hand none taxed at all (Allen, 1999 and Sarbajit, 2006).

Like Mitullah (2003) seven challenges of street vending activities practically identified in Yeka sub-city of Addis Ababa are:

1) The areas vendors operating their activities are considered illegal since the areas have not been set aside for trade. In cases where they are allowed to operate, the areas are considered temporary and eviction occurs at the will of urban authorities. There are various conflicts relating to their sites of operation. A major conflict often arises when the vendors are required to move in order to give way for planned development. This brings them into direct confrontation with urban authorities and land developers. Most of the spaces the traders occupy have no tenure, and are not allocated and sanctioned by urban authorities. Most of the policies and regulations being enforced on street and market traders owe their origin to colonial policies, which were retrogressive with regards to small scale local enterprises. Street and informal traders require laws that recognize their economic activities as an important component of the urban economy, and ensure their right to trading space.

2) The areas occupied by vendors are open and expose traders to harsh environmental conditions. Most commodities of trade such as fruits, vegetables and clothes are affected by the rain and sun struck.

3) Municipal authorities have been the major source of insecurity for these traders. The authorities harass, beat and confiscate goods of street vendors without any warning. This does not only threaten the security of vendors but also their customers. A study of cities in South Africa has noted that an insecure environment results in loss of customers, frightens tourists,

cripples business, reduces incomes, and generally interferes with trading. During harassments traders lose their commodities with some closing their businesses after losing their capital goods.

4) Street vendors have difficult to transport their commodities from their homes and markets to their trading sites. This is because most transport systems do not service the areas where vendors live, and in cases where they do, the vendors can hardly afford the service. And they forced to carry their goods on their backs or to hire handcarts or human carriers to transport their goods. This is complicated further by lack of storage facilities, which makes the traders, carry back to their houses unsold commodities.

5) Sanitation is also not available to vendors and consumers. They operate without access to water and sanitation. The majority of vendors rely on unsafe water sources, unsanitary methods of refuse disposal and use of open spaces as sanitary facilities. Others obtain services from their homes or nearby residential areas. Even cleansing services provided by urban authorities are inadequate and do not cover trading areas of street vendors.

6) Financial constraint is the most problem of the informal sector, both insufficient capital and no source of credit.

7) Lack of technology, the required human and financial capacity informal sector lack information but information is necessary for capital building, product improvement and managing the marketing strategies.

2.7 Challenges Faced by the Government

Different scholars and researchers tried to point out challenges faced by the government across the globe due to street vending business practiced by street vendors in developed and in developing countries. Street vending had challenges such as; congestion, cleanliness and hygiene which have led urban services to be stretched beyond their limits resulting in inadequate supplies of potable water and sewage disposal (Njaya, 2014).

Bromley (2000) introduces the following challenges which are more of the same practice in this study area; the first one is through vendors in the roadway and the lively activity of street sales, crowded sidewalks, and pedestrians displaced onto the roadway may block motorist's sight lines at intersections and may distract motorists from their driving. And then street vendors may cause

traffic accidents, increase the levels of vehicle-generated air pollution, and delay the flow of police, fire, ambulance and other emergency vehicles.

The next argument was, like Megenagna area, street vendors activity where entrance and outdoor from crowded buildings like theaters, stadiums and department stores, may block actions increasing the scale of the misfortune in the event of a major fire, explosion, or other hazardous circumstances. The other argument was Street vendors may attracting potential purchasers as they walk into a concentration of off street business customers and activity by catching them attention. Furthermore, some pedestrians and many motorists prefer to change direction from locations of street vending to walk or drive due to disturbed, irritated and worried by street vendor's solicitations. Major problem like rapid increase in number attribute to such causes; may not benefit from the dynamism of the formal economy, economic crises, excessive migration from rural areas, Street vendors may cause of decline tourist attraction that city cleanliness, beauty and silence, on the street may generate a lot of noise with their announcements, and their customers often leave garbage on the streets.

2.8 Opportunities of the Street Vending

Street vending plays an important role in employment creation, income generation and poverty reduction in many countries, especially developing like Ethiopia and transition countries. Statistics on the street vending activities are needed as an evidence-based tool for research and policy-making. They enhance the visibility of the many workers in the street vending business and of their economic contribution (Husmanns, 2004).

Street vending business, in urban plans is essential for good economic governance and urban management (Skinner, 2008; Chen, 2004). Street vending business is Tool for Poverty reduction, analyses that the importance, definition and the problems of the informal sector (Wilson, Velis & Cheese man, 2006). In a developing country like Ethiopia, where the pressure of urban population is overall on the increase, the development of street vending business in employment generation and consequent eradication of poverty.

Street vending is an important source of income for much poorer segment of the society in the urban area. However, the operators are considered as unlawful entities and are subjected to continued harassment by Code enforcers and Community police. In Addis Ababa city people join

street vending to be self-reliant, to support their family and due to absences of opportunities to engaged in the formal sector. Providing free-space, regulating the street vendors by issuing a license, providing training and credit, developing small-scale agro-industries in rural areas, including permanent markets and working places in the master plan of a city is important for improving the livelihood of the vendors (Yared, 2016, as cited in Habte B, 2019).

Research shows that even in developed economies, street vendors continue to play a big role in the informal economy (Davis, 2012). In the US, for example, vendors fill voids that organized businesses cannot enter, such as providing food in low-income neighborhoods of color (Benson, 2006). Vending also provides entrepreneurial opportunities to migrants who would otherwise seek state support (Street Vendor Project, 2011). In some areas, street vendors also keep the neighborhood clean and ensure that the streets are safe (Benson, 2006). In some cases, street vending has actually lifted the profile of the place and organized retail businesses have profited from this (Benson, 2006).

Market forces such as price, quality and demand will determine the number of vendors that can be sustained. Such a demand cannot be unlimited. To make street vendors a special component of the urban development/ zoning plans by treating them as an integral and legitimate part of the urban distribution system. Promote self-compliance amongst street vendors and organizations of street vendors e.g. unions/ co-operatives/ associations and other forms of organization to facilitate their empowerment. To set up participatory mechanisms with representation by urban vendors' organizations, (unions/ co-operatives/ associations), Voluntary organizations, local authorities, the police, Residents Welfare Association (RWA) and others for the orderly conduct of urban vending activities. The policy is important to support child vendors by making appropriate interventions for their rehabilitation and schooling. The policy will be facilitating social security and access to credit for Street vendors through the promotion of co-operatives or federations micro-finance institutions (MFIs) (Sundaram, 2008).

2.9 Economic Importance of Street Vending to Street Vendors

Street vending is an attractive economic strategy and source of livelihood for the unskilled and illiterate new arrivals to the city, with increasing rural to urban migration and the contracting formal sector, street vending and other forms of informal employment become the most

attractive means of survival for the urban poor, (Chirisa & Muchini (2011). According to Ray and Mishra (2011), vending has become an important source of employment for a large number of urban poor. Timalsina (2012) argued street vending in Nepal maintained or improved resource productivity. This resulted in vendors securing ownership of and access to assets, resources and income-earning activities as well as ensuring adequate stocks, flows of food and cash to meet the vendors' basic household needs. Street vendors also provide low-cost basic goods and food items to other lower income groups within the cities. According to Natawidjaja (2015), since the late 1990s, after the collapse of banks and industries due to the Asian economic crisis, street vending has played an important role by becoming a coping mechanism for low income households in the city of Surakarta. Evidence shows that the monthly incomes from street vending are very low compared to the national average of formally employed individuals (Roever, & Skinner, 2016).

However, most street vendors engage in street vending activities to supplement their low income or to cushion their spouse's low salary. Ray and Mishra (2011) also argued that despite the low incomes generated from vending activities, the simple fact that vendors do not wait for handouts and/or employment opportunities from the government or engage in begging, stealing or extortion is a clear sign that street vending is a form of income distribution with great economic potential. Research also shows that through street vending, most women have taken the role of bringing food on the table, (Roever, & Skinner, 2016). Therefore, street vending does not only enable the formally, marginalized peddlers to meet their minimum daily food, but also teaches and inspires women and youths in particular to value work. However, despite the widespread occurrence of street vending by most households in Harare, its contribution to household income as a source of livelihood is still not clear. Street vending has not been studied extensively to show its contribution to the state economy. This has resulted in limited appropriate policy interventions to harness the economic potential from this form of entrepreneurship (Roever, & Skinner 2016).

2.9.1 Economic and Social Importance of Street Vending to the State Economy

According to Fletcher and Ahmed (2011), street vending activities play three fundamental roles in the economic systems of cities. The first essential role of street vending is that it is an important form of employment to a substantial number of the urban and migrant population. In

Zimbabwe, with conservative figures pegging unemployment rate at 90%, Civil Society Organizations estimated that street vendors account for two-thirds of the population in the major cities, (Gcumeni and Reeler 2015). Street vending also indirectly sustains jobs of other employees who work in industries which manufacture or produce the wares sold by the street vendors, (Chen (2002). As such it is not only the livelihood of vendors which relies on street vending but also the farmer, small scale producers and other home-based industries who lack the resources to market their own product. The second important economic contribution of street vending according to Flaming (2015) is that the activities of street vendors have a cascading effect across the local economy. This is shown when street vendors sell their products to passers-by, as their profits accumulate; it leads to higher demand for more goods and services from local suppliers. The end results are increase of their stock levels and sales. Demand from suppliers in this chain enables the more employment opportunities in the upstream supplier chain thereby broadening the tax revenue base for the state. (Flaming 2015). Thirdly, Ray and Mishra (2011) stated that street vendors offer a low-cost, decentralized and highly efficient system of distributing products required on a daily basis. These are goods such as fruits and vegetables, a market which the formal sector cannot adequately serve.

The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) has also acknowledged the important role played by street vendors in promoting access to food at low prices, (FAO 2016). In Surakarta, the street vendors have also been seen as tourist attraction aiding to the state's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) contribution, (Natawidjaja, 2015).

2.9.2 Economic Value of Street Vending

In a study which quantified the multiplier effects of vendor sales on economic output, job creation, and public revenue in Los Angeles economy, Flaming (2015) found that expenditures by vendors generated \$517 million in economic stimulus from \$504 million spent within a year. This implies that for every \$1 earned by a street vendor, \$1.02 in economic output is stimulated. In Cambodia, Kusakabe (2006) showed that street vendors earn on average USD25.70 per day, and spend USD24.20, leaving a profit of USD1.48. In a study carried out in Thailand, Kusakabe (2006) reported that more than 70% of vendors earned a daily profit of more than 200 baht. Given that the minimum wage of Bangkok was 169 baht in 2004, the income from street vending was relatively high such that street vending is no longer a survival strategy for the urban poor but

a more attractive occupation for the educated middle class, (Kusakabe 2006). In Zimbabwe, despite the proliferation of street vendors in almost every street, the economic value of street vending remains unknown.

2.10 Challenges Caused by Street Vendors on the Government

Street vendors cause many challenges on the operation of different institutional tasks by local government. Most people have not a clear image about street vendors and pedestrians are annoyed by their encroachment of sidewalks. At some places it is difficult to walk straight. People then will have to pass the narrow aisles between seller stalls walking sideways. When the sidewalks are too crowded people are forced to step onto the road to walk which is a very dangerous exercise. Drivers and other road users dislike them for their road encroachment. Store-owners hate the street vendors for their illegal use of the shops 'front sidewalks, which the street vendors then modify to suit their own needs. This modification often involves semi-permanent roof to protect their wares from the sun and rain, usually in the form of blue/industrial plastic tents, which obstructs sun light from shining on the stores and hampers the flow of fresh air. All this robs the sidewalk of its convenience and deters walking traffic into the stores, hence reducing the stores 'business. Furthermore, in a minority of cases where the street vendors are selling similar goods to the shops, then the shops 'business is directly threatened. They view street vendors as direct and unfair competitors, since street vendors steal their customers out in front, before the customers enter the market. In fact, street vendors oppose other counterparts, rejecting government attempts to relocate them unless other street vendors were also relocated simultaneously. Otherwise they would lose business (Harlan, 2008).

Regular sweeping operations breed antagonism among the street vendors. This is reasonable in light of property seizure and/or destruction. Sometimes street vendors organized themselves to repel the sweeps and some sweeps were cancelled due to the violent resistance. However, the municipal government would come back later with stronger force and the street vendors were swept off the streets and sidewalks, for the time being. They always returned and the Admin Police would have to mount another sweep. It is safe to assume that this harassment policy to deal with street vendors is counterproductive, not to say inhuman. They are not the only victim in the sweeping process. The Admin Police personnel suffered also. They were ordered to perform a task that is against human decency, that is harassing street vendors who are not really criminals.

They knew that the street vendors were only trying to survive. They realize that the street vendors were simply attempting to feed their families. The accumulated effects of constant sweeping operations, more so if many ended in violence will either breed brutality among the Admin Police personnel or make them feel alienated. Thus, over time it looks as if this harassment tactics is a no win or lose-lose policy (Harlan, 2008 as cited in Amsale A, 2017).

2.11 Policies and Regulations on Street Vending in Different Countries

Policies are tools for setting standards in the provision of public goods and services. Policies protect consumers, investors and the general public, while by-laws set controls that ensure that urban areas are safe and clean. In the area of street vending, by-laws set standards in the provision of public goods and services provided by the street vendors and the expected manner of operations. They also enable the Local Authorities to collect revenue for payment of services such as refuse collection and management of vending sites. (Winnie V. Mitullah 2003)

The situation in the cities of Kenya, Uganda, Zimbabwe, Ghana and Cote D'Ivoire is almost the same. The policies and regulations are not appropriate for street vendors while and the street vendors are hardly consulted in the development of the by-laws and planning vending sites in respective urban areas. Additionally, except for Kenya and Uganda, street vendors are not aware of the by-laws applicable to their operations. (Winnie V. Mitullah 2003).

Research conducted in Zimbabwe shows that many street vendors are unaware of the existence of by-laws, and have no access to them, while others know but choose to ignore them. This is made worse by the lack of effective street vendors associations to expose vendors to policies and regulations and to lobby for the review of policies, by-laws and integration of vending activities in urban development. This is a major obstacle to the growth of street vending activities in Africa. (Winnie V. Mitullah 2003)

In many cities, the legal and regulatory environments governing street vending impede, rather than enable, the development of a healthy informal sector in which street vendors can meet the demand for their products.

Street vendors may work from a fixed location (such as a kiosk or sidewalk table) or they may be mobile. Some combine fixed and mobile vending. Each type of work involves different

regulatory challenges. Local permitting laws may restrict market entry. Zoning ordinances often restrict street vendors to areas that are inconvenient to both vendors and their customers.

Laws on street vending in different countries:-

- Argentina: Ley No. 1166 de la Ciudad Autónoma de Buenos Aires (concerning trading on public roads);
- Brazil: Lei No. 6586 (classifying street vendors for the purpose of labour and social security law);
- Canada: City of Vancouver Guide to Street and Sidewalk Use for Business Activities;
- Colombia: Bogotá Res DG-08807 (concerning the street vendors' association);
- Hong Kong: Dept. of Food & Environmental Hygiene, Hawker Control Policy;
- India: Street Vendors (Protection of Livelihood and Regulation of Street Vending) Bill, 2012;
- India: Special Provisions Act of Delhi, 2009;
- India: Overview of Law, Regulations, and Rights of Street Vendors in Ahmedabad;
- New Zealand: Waipa District Public Bylaws;
- Philippines: City of Taguig Ord. No. 45 of 2007 (Registration of Hawkers);
- Philippines: Trinidad, Bohol Market Code (2007);
- UK: Bristol Street Trading Policy;
- UK: Stratford-on-Avon Street Trading and Collections Policy;
- UK: Street Trading Act of 2001 for Northern Ireland;
- UK: Wyre Forest Street Trading Legislation;
- United States: New York City General Vendor License Page

2.11.1. Street Vending in India

According to the Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation report, done in India, indicated that there are 10 million street vendors; Mumbai accounts 250,000; Delhi 200,000, Kolkata more than 150,000 and Ahmedabad 100,000. Most of them are immigrants or laid-off workers. On the average each of them may spend 10–12 hours a day, but they remain impoverished. Inappropriate license ceiling in most cities, like Mumbai which has 14,000 licenses, means more vendors hawk their goods illegally, which also makes them prone to the bribery and extortion culture under local police and municipal authorities, besides harassment,

heavy fines, sudden evictions. In Kolkata, the profession was a cognizable and non-billable offense (Lok Sabha, 2012 as cited in Amsale Alebachew 2017).

Over the years the street vendors have organized themselves into trade unions and associations, plus numerous NGOs have started working for them. In fact, the National Association of Street Vendors of India (NASVI) based in Delhi, is a federation of 715 street vendor organizations, trade unions and non-governmental organizations. Street Vendors (Protection of Livelihood and Regulation of Street Vending) Bill, 2012 is a proposed Indian legislation aimed to regulate street vendors in public areas and protect their rights. It was introduced in the Lok Sabha (Lower House of the Parliament of India) on September 6, 2012 by the Union Minister of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation (Lok Sabha, 2012).

2.11.2. Street Vending in Ethiopia

In the year 2002 study by the Association of Ethiopian Microfinance Institutions estimated that the informal sector in Addis Ababa to be fifty one percent (51%) of the productive economy (UN, 2006). While the informal economy in Ethiopia is considerably large, for every ten registered firms there are almost four non-registered firms (Enterprise Survey, 2014). This number is significantly lower

compared to Ethiopia 's regional counterparts. For instance, the average for Sub-Saharan Africa is 7.5. Ethiopian entrepreneurs also indicated one of the lowest rates of firms identifying competitors in the informal sector as a major constraint (only 11%). This number is over three times higher in Sub-Saharan Africa (37%).

A survey conducted by the Central Statistical Authority (CSA), in year 1997, showed that there were 584,913 informal sector activity operators and 2,731 small-scale manufacturing industries, employing a total of 739,898 people. The survey indicated that activity is concentrated in the manufacturing and trade (47%) and services sectors (42%). According to the 1997 data by the CSA, the size of labor force engaged in informal sector activities and small-scale manufacturing industries was eight times larger than that of the medium and large-scale manufacturing industries (EBDSN, 2014). Recent estimates of the informal sector in Ethiopia place the sector at 69% in Addis Ababa, compared to the national average, which lies below 15% (World Bank, 2014, cited in Amsale A, 2017).

From the informal sector economic activity, street vending comprises a widespread economic activity in Addis Ababa. The urban poor are typical involved in the activity. Street vending in the city, significantly contribute to the city employment. An integral part of the urban economy, they provide a wide variety of good at bargain prices. One finds street vendors and their markets in almost all the district of the city selling goods and service without obtaining permit giving receipts or paying taxes. Some of vendors operate at sidewalks busy roadways and intersection where large number of people gather or at bus stop, especially at first and last stop. Other walks around the city selling goods or services without a fixed place to operate (Girma, 2004; cited in Girma, 2009).

Chapter Three: Methodology of the Study

3.1 Research Design

The study applied descriptive research design to garner a wealth of information as descriptive study enables the research access a huge amount of information on a relatively less studied phenomenon. In addition, the study employed performance feedback research to spot out the opportunities brought by the sector and to come up with possible solutions.

3.2 Sources of Data & Data Collection Methods

The study utilized primary sources and secondary sources in course of gathering data. Primary sources included: interview, questionnaire and observations. Secondary sources included: hard copy books, internet sources, journals and newspapers. The researcher also used mixed methods: qualitative and quantitative approaches by way of interviews, administering questionnaires and observation.

3.3 Population of the Study & Sample Size

The area under study was in Addis Ababa, Lideta and Arada sub-cities vendors working areas not in a specific location. For street vendors, the sample size is 30 in each sub city which will add up to total of 60 respondents. A total of 70 registered vendors were available for filling questionnaires out of which 60 were selected randomly with a margin of error +/- 5.

The study also targeted code enforcing groups, city administration and Addis Ababa Chamber of Commerce pertinent authorities, and Addis Ababa Trade and Industry Bureau and *Wereda* offices for interviews. A total of 8 interviews were conducted with the aforementioned stakeholders. Two of the interviews were done with code enforcing groups, two with personnel from Addis Ababa Chamber of Commerce, two interviews with Addis Ababa industry Bureau officials and the other two interviews were *wereda* officials.

3.4 Sampling Method

The study employed random sampling for questionnaires to be filled by street vending. The study also employed convenient and purpose sampling method for interviews and observation

as a consequence of the nature of the sector which vendors lack permanent venue and data is accessed through multiple efforts demanding cooperation from target groups

3.5 Method of Data Analysis and Interpretation of Data

Using qualitative and quantitative methods, the data was organized, interpreted and analyzed. For quantitative data analysis, IBM SPSS version 26 was used. For the analysis of data manual triangulation was used. Interview responses were first transcribed and coded for thematic analysis. Consequently, findings of the study were identified. Moreover, the questionnaire was also transcribed and coded before analysis was done. Data from observation was then tabulated with the interview and questionnaire responses. For quantitative data analysis, IBM SPSS version 26 was used.

3.6 Reliability and Validity

Reliability and validity are concepts used to evaluate the quality of research. They indicate how well a method, technique or test measure something. Reliability is about the consistency of a measure, and validity is about the accuracy of a measure. In the case of this study, reliability was ensured via internal consistency test. Internal consistency assesses the correlation between multiple items in a test that are intended to measure the same construct. For this study, Cronbach alpha coefficient for the items is .839, suggesting that the items have relatively high internal consistency. In terms of validity, construct validity is about ensuring that the method of measurement matches the construct you want to measure. In the case of this study, construct validity was ensured since the measurement is adopted from a body of knowledge that has in the past studied the topic.

3.7 Ethical Consideration

In terms of research ethics, the researcher gave due emphasis to the ethical standards of empirical studies. The first ethical consideration given due emphasis by the researcher was the principle of “no harm to the participants”. This was particularly important so as not to expose the participants to economical and physical damages during data gathering and observation due to the hectic and rush nature of the sector. Moreover, the information they provided was all kept in secret and anonymously.

The researcher also gave due emphasis to the sources used in this study and that all necessary credit given to the people and organizations whose work is used in this study in line with academic expectations of the Addis Ababa University. All citation, in text citation and references are done as per the requirements of APA style; 6th edition.

Chapter Four: Data Analysis

4.1 Data Source and Data Type

The data used in this study was collected from both primary and secondary sources. For primary data; questioners were administered for 60 vendors, informal interviews were done and observed data was used. For secondary data, the researcher used bulletins, magazines and reports from different stakeholder organizations.

4.2 Primary Analysis of Vendors in study

Here the researcher tried to organize respondent background in terms of gender, educational status, place of origin (migrant or native to the city).

Gender composition of vendors

Male	52
Female	8
Total	60

Among the 60 vendors contacted 52 were male almost 87% and the remaining 8 were female vendors around 13% which implies the sector is relatively dominated by male vendors.

Respondent educational status	tally
Zero (no education)	5
Grade 1 – 6 (primary ed)	28
Grade 7 -10 (secondary ed)	21
Preparatory and higher ed	6
total	60

Among the 60 vendors contacted only 6 were found to have higher than high school level education which implies the vendors lack proper standard education there by creates business knowledge gap.

Furthermore, 58 vendors were found to have come from outside Addis Ababa and currently reside here on rental basis which implies the sector is predominantly supporting migrant youth from different parts of the country who have left their home town in hope of finding better living conditions in the capital.

4.3 Major Reasons to Join the Sector

Different reasons compel people to join this sector. Below the researcher tried to see some of the major reason’s respondents mentioned; The major ones are presented as follows

4.3.1 Income Source

One of the key reasons as mentioned by respondents is the income generated by the business. Vendors support their livelihood through the daily income generated from vending in the streets of Addis Ababa. As can be inferred below, 20% of respondents generate 50birr income and 33% of respondents generate 100birr income. 30% of respondents generate 200birr income and 17% of respondents generate 300birr income. Implying the sector supports vendors as an income source.

Respondents daily income average in birr	Freq.
<= 50 birr	12
<= 100 birr	20
<= 200 birr	18
<= 300 birr	10
total	60

Table 4.1 Respondents Daily Income in birr

4.3.2 Relatively Smaller Capital Nature of the Business

Another reason stressed by respondents for joining the sector was the small capital nature of the business. Majority of respondents were found to have a capital of less than 1000birr. A small

group of respondents were found to have a capital of less than 5000 birr. A very few stated they have a capital close to 10,000 birr and those were vendors who sold relatively bigger items like clothing and home appliances.

Ranging from that vendor who sells plastic sanitizer boxes for 10birr to that one who sells a trouser for 300 birr, their trading capital falls somewhere between 200birr – 10,000birr, which implies the stakes are low and in a legal trading environment, according to the vendors, these capitals will not jump paperwork payments let alone commercializing.

4.3.3 Lack of Capital Funding to Start Trading Normally

All respondents do not have fixed property of value to be held as collateral therefore do not have access to finance. Lack of financial access like credit facilities and work loans make another reason for vendors to join the sector and stay through street vending until they are able to save the bare minimum required to even think of becoming a legal trader.

4.3.4 Lack of Suitable and Marketable Trading Spaces or Facilities

According to the respondents another basic reason for vendors to join and stay in street vending is lack of suitable and commercially viable trading outlets or shops. This affects the income they generate and whenever it is available it is much costly for the likes of vendors forcing them to stay in the street.

4.4 Major Forms and Effects of Street Vending

Here in this section the researcher tried to analyze the different forms of street vending and its effect as well.

4.4.1 Forms of Street Vending

In the selected areas (study sites) of Addis Ababa one could witness three different forms of street vending based on the nature of their application. These are presented and discussed below in section **4.4.1.1 - 4.4.1.3**.

4.4.1.1 Legal Semi-permanent Vending

The researcher observed and interviewed some vendors. Here the vendors are recognized to sell their products at a particular place, usually by the sidewalks of the city, designated by Wereda trade office until the place is snatched by its rightful owner or city investor. The vendors enjoy some form of peaceful trading spree for uncertain period of time. Although relatively stable these vendors are there for a limited amount of time and the uncertainty of their stay in a place for a long time adversely affects their potential to secure repeat customers.

4.4.1.2 Illegal Semi-permanent Vending

Here the vendors sell their products at a particular place without getting any permit from government body. Vendors owe the trading space to the owner of that road side establishment and whenever that space is needed the vendor will have to find somewhere to go. The uncertainty factor increases in this category from the aforementioned category of vendors, creating barriers to success and productivity.

4.4.1.3 Street Vending

The researcher found out this form of vending is relatively well known and hence the term street vending where the seller of the product just holds his/her items by hand using some wide plastic sheet and try selling it where ever people are abundant. This form of vending is relatively wide spread and risky for both traders and buyers. And it is in pure violation of many laws like traffic laws, trade laws and health law, thus law enforcement groups are in constant chase for vendors and while vendors often risk their lives to accident and sometimes to police brutality.

4.4.2 Effects of Street Vending

Here the researcher tried to assess the general effects (both positive and negative) of street vending in the study area.

4.4.2.1 Product Accessibility and Price

Street vendors usually do not have to pay custom tariff or trading taxes therefore the price of majority of products are lower as compared to the same product price found in a regular shop. The researcher observed the price variations on some products.

Variations on selected products between street vendors and shop owners:

	Vendors price	Shop price	difference
Banana	15br /kg	20-25br/kg	5-10br
Shirt	150-225/pc	250-300	25-100br
Trousers	200 – 350br	300-500	150-300br
Electric coffee boilers	450	600	150br

As can be inferred from the above table there is a considerable price difference on the same products in favor of the street vendors. Many people prefer to buy from the streets for this reason.

4.4.2.2 Effect on legal Traders

As was mentioned above, vendors do not pay taxes so have the luxury of selling products for much lower price than regular legal traders which results in reduction in sales volume of the latter as people will usually prefer cheaper products with comparable quality. This puts a toll on profitability of legal taxpaying traders. Therefore, the researcher observes there is an unfair advantage in the side of vendors which needs to be checked for healthy functioning of the market system.

4.4.2.3 Effect on Buyers

The researcher observed another effect of street vending on buyers to be the fact that one cannot return the product purchased in case of defect as the vendor is in constant run away from code enforcing groups. Often times, low quality and faulty products are sold on the streets and there is seldom effort made by buyers to return the product or request refund. Such nature of the business exposes buyers to fraud and mischief.

4.4.2.4 Effect on Traffic

The researcher observed one of the major effects of street vending in Addis Ababa is the disruption in vehicle and people traffic. As the vendors usually trade on sidewalks, when it gets crowded people tend to get in to the main road dedicated to cars creating a possibility of traffic jams and accident in some cases. Moreover, vendors run from code enforcers who mercilessly

take everything they confiscate with no compromise, to the main street there by inviting accidents to pedestrians and themselves.

4.4.2.5 Effects on the Legal System

The observation of the researcher showed another effect of street vending is the illegal nature of the business and huge cost it entails to the government.

The government loses tax payment which could have been collected had the transactions took place legally, incurs costs of operating offices like the code enforcing unit in *Kebele* and *Wereda* structures and the practice invites a lot of legal traders to join this sector where you could disguise as a low capital seller and avoid tax payments. One such way this is done by using the vendors or a group of vendors as a sort of market outlet by established business, who would distribute the products to vendors who would sell those products in different locations across the city enabling the business avoid taxation. Moreover, the products sold on the streets are often times come through a contraband channel.

4.5. Effect of Article 53

The general objective of article 53 is to give guidelines as to how one can operate on legal basis while trading in the streets with registration and identification badge. Here the researcher tried to assess the effects of article 53 on street vendors.

4.5.1 Positive Effects of Article 53

A great deal of benefits will be obtained upon the execution of the article. The first is that the vendors can obtain a badge ascertaining the fact that they are recognized traders by the government which gives them some sense of calmness while trading avoiding the tension from code enforcers and thereby creating favorable conditions for them to be more productive.

Although it needs further study into the matter, interviews with registered vendors indicated the probability of a positive correlation with generating more income on regular basis and registration. When asked if whether they say registration actually boost their income, majority of them answered positively. Since registered, their income started growing regularly and some of them even joined daily *Ekub* in their vicinity.

Another benefit is the possibility of obtaining a regular designated trading spaces for those who are registered. The interviewed respondents stated that the regular trading space provided by the government enabled them to conduct their business in organized manner where vendors of similar products arranged in a pattern for buyers to easily spot, choose from and trade.

The researcher further observed registered street vendors would also enjoy a tax holiday period until they reach a certain level of financial stability for the caliber of business they are in. This gives vendors the opportunity to get used to formal trading ways there by prepare themselves and the business for the next phase in the business ladder.

4.5.2 Negative Effects of Article 53

Here the researcher tried to assess the negative effects of the article on vendors. Lack of awareness about the article is the first problem with regards to vendors benefiting from all the positive effects mentioned in the previous section. The majority of street vendors do not have the basic knowledge regarding requirements of operating based on the guidelines put to govern the street vending avenue. This creates a problem whenever code enforcing groups try to enforce rules and big number of vendors lose their property for not being abide by the rules.

As can be seen below, 41.5% of the respondents do not have any idea about article 53 or they have not heard about it. Another equal number of vendors do have knowledge of the article but do not get registered for reasons of not having Kebele ID and do not trust the registering body to give them ideal trading spaces

Awareness level of vendors about the article 53:

Awareness level	Freq.
Never heard of it	25
I know it but am not registered	25
I know it and am registered	10
total	60

Moreover, it is observed that that majority of vendors are not permanent residents of the city which creates a problem when they try to obtain Kebele ID, one of the basic requirements to

operate as a registered street vendor. Because of these vendors are not able to obtain registration badge consequently end up vending illegally in the streets.

Majority of vendors interviewed stated that there is lack of coordination between different government stakeholders that are involved in the street vending venture. This creates a problem for registered vendors as they are usually termed a menace in the eyes of code enforcing groups and those with their own guidelines to follow like the city cleaning and beauty office, police commission, traffic police office and the like. Furthermore, the situation hinders vendors to register as they deem the treatments to be the same whether registered or not.

Chapter Five: Conclusion and Recommendation

5.1 Conclusions

Up on conducting thorough study the researcher has come up with the following conclusions:

The first thing the researcher concluded is with regard to reasons as to why people join the street vending sector and the major factors were found to be the sectors potential as an income source, smaller capital requirement nature of the business, lack of formal financial access like credit and work loans and last but not least there is lack of suitable and viable trading space in the city.

The second thing the researcher concluded is with regard to forms and effects of street vending.

There were three forms found:

- legal semi-permanent vending where there is particular trading place and registration of vendors and it gave them some form of organized nature of trading which contributed a lot to their income.
- Illegal semi-permanent vending where there is a trading place but no permit which poses uncertainty to the business.
- Street vending as the name implied where vendors try to sell products in the street with no actual structure what so ever and it posed both benefit and costs to vendors.

The effects of street vending were found to be both positive and negative. The positive ones were cheap priced products who are bought in shops can be found in the street for much lesser cost and vendors can sustain their livelihood off it. The negative effects were found to be: the return policy is not there in wake of defective products bought from vendors, legal shop owners will suffer from reduced demand because of the reduction in price in the streets, street vending creates crowded sidewalks that affected traffic flows and invited accidents and also there are laws broken which will be forced with huge cost from the government side.

The last thing the researcher concluded from the study was the effects of article 53 on vendors which again were both positive and negative. The positive effects are found to be: the productivity and income increment because of the registration and not having to move from

place to place to sell products, accessibility for buyers as registered vendors could be found in a designated selling spaces and the other is the tax holiday period enjoyed by vendors.

5.2 Recommendations

Based on the above conclusions from the conducted study, the researcher recommends the following to be taken in to consideration.

- The sector supports significant number of people being source of income. So, it needs much attention and support.
- There has to be a mechanism to provide financial access to the vendors to capacitate them to grow and eventually join the formal business sector.
- Measures should be taken to organize the vendors and provide them with permanent trading space which will solve the traffic issues thereby creating some certainty to their existence which will enable them to flourish and contribute even more to the society as they are key elements of the latter.
- The government through its appropriate offices should enhance knowledge of Article 53 to the street vending mass so as to encourage them to register and gradually follow the formal route to trade. In line with this notion, there has to be some registration mechanism for the majority of vendors without Kebele ID which happens to be a key requirement in accessing a vending badge.
- There has to be works done to further clarify links and communications between stakeholders and government offices and capacity building trainings should be given to code enforcing groups to better handle any unlawful practices in a trained manner.

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Annexes

A.1 English Questionnaire and Interview Guide

Questioners on street vending opportunities and treats

Dear respondent the following questions were formulated to find out some information regarding street vending in Addis Ababa city, Arada and Lideta area. The information you give will be kept confidential and would only be used for academic purposes.

Thank you for participating.

Instructions: Please put (/) mark on your choice.

1. Sex

Male Female

2. What is your educational status?

Zero (No education) Grade 1-6 (primary Ed.)

Grade 7-10(secondary Ed.) Preparatory& higher

3. Are you originally from Addis Ababa?

Yes No

4. How much do u say your daily income on average is? .

5. How much is your working capital? .

6. Have you ever applied for bank /credit association loan?

Yes No

If yes, what was the result? If No? Why not?

7. Do you have a shop or regular selling space?

8. Do you have knowledge of Article 53 (Informal trade administration and control regulation)?

Interview Questions on Street Vending Opportunities and Threats:

Dear respondent the following questions were formulated to find out some information regarding street vending in Addis Ababa city, Arada and Lideta area. The information you give will be kept confidential and would only be used for academic purposes.

Interview questions 1, 2 & 3 are for registered vendors with a badge

Interview question 4 is for any vendor selected.

Interview question 5 is for unregistered vendors.

Thank you for participating.

- Q1. How do you compare working in the street with having a permanent selling space?
- Q2. What are the basic advantages you gained because of your registration?
- Q3. Do you say there is a considerable generated income difference between vending in the street and having permanent selling space?
- Q4. What are the major problems that you encounter while working?
- Q5. Why have you not registered?

A.2 Amharic Questionnaire and Interview Guide

የጎዳና ላይ ንግድን የሚሚለከቱ ጥያቄዎች

ውድ መልስ ሰጪ በአዲስ አበባ ከተማ፣ በአራዳ እና በልደታ አካባቢ የጎዳና ላይ ሽያጭን አስመልክቶ ጥቂት መረጃዎችን ለማግኘት የሚከተሉት ጥያቄዎች ተቀርፀዋል። የሚሰጡት መረጃ በሚስጥር የሚጠበቅ እና ለአካዳሚክ ዓላማ ብቻ የሚያገለግል ነው።

ስለተሳተፉ እናመሰግናለን?

መመሪያዎች- እባክዎ በመረጡት ላይ ይህን (/) ምልክት ያድርጉ

1. የታ ወንድ ሴት

2. የትምህርት ደረጃዎ ምንድነው?

ዜሮ አመት 1-6ኛ ክፍል ክፍል

መሰናዶ ወይም ከፍተኛ ትምህርት

3. እርስዎ መጀመሪያ ከአዲስአበባ ነዎት

አዎ አይደለሁም

4. በአማካይ የቀን ገቢዎ ምን ያህል ነው ይላሉ? _____

5. የሥራ ካፒታልዎ ስንት ነው? _____

6. ለባንክ / የብድር ማህበር ብድር አመልክተው ያውቃሉ? _____

አዎ አላውቅም

ከላይ በተራ ቁጥረ 6 ላይ ለቀረበው ጥያቄ መልስዎ አዎ ከሆነ፤ ውጤቱ ምን ነበር ?

ከላይ በተራ ቁጥረ 6 ላይ ለቀረበው ጥያቄ መልስዎ አይ አላውቅም ከሆነ፤ ለምን ?

7. ሱቅ ወይም መደበኛ የመሸጫ ቦታ አለዎት?

8. ስለ አንቀፅ 53 (መደበኛ ያልሆነ ንግድ አስተዳደር እና ቁጥጥር ደንብ) ዕውቀት አለዎት?

የጎዳና ላይ ሽያጭ ላይ የቃለመጠይቅ ጥያቄዎች

ውድ መልስ ሰጪ በአዲስ አበባ ተማ፣ በአራዳ እና በልደታ አካባቢ የጎዳና ላይ ሽያጭን አስመልክቶ ጥቂት መረጃዎችን ለማግኘት የሚከተሉት ጥያቄዎች ተቀርፀዋል። የሚሰጡት መረጃ በሚስጥር የሚጠበቅ እና ለአካዳሚክ ዓላማ ብቻ የሚያገለግል ነው።

የቃለመጠይቅ ጥያቄዎች 1 ፣ 2 እና 3 ባጅ ላላቸው ለተመዘገቡ ሻጮች ነው።

የቃለመጠይቅ ጥያቄ 4 ለተመረጠው ለማንኛውም ሻጭ ነው።

የቃለመጠይቅ ጥያቄ 5 ያልተመዘገቡ ሻጮች ነው።

ስለተሳተፉ እናመሰግናለን

ጥያቄ 1. በጎዳና ላይ መሥራት ቋሚ የመሸጫ ቦታ ካለው ጋር እንዴት ያወዳድራሉ?

ጥያቄ 2. በምዝገባዎ ምክንያት ያገኙአቸው መሠረታዊ ጥቅሞች ምንድን ናቸው?

ጥያቄ 3. በጎዳና ላይ በመሸጥ እና በቋሚ የመሸጫ ቦታ መኖር መካከል ትልቅ የመነጨ የገቢ ልዩነት አለዉ ይላሉ?

ጥያቄ 4. በሚሰሩበት ጊዜ የሚያጋጥሙዎት ዋና ዋና ችግሮች ምንድን ናቸው?

ጥያቄ 5. ለምን አልተመዘገቡም?