Review of Literature
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The literature on the present study “An Empirical Analysis of Street Vendors in Coimbatore City” is discussed under the following heads:

2.1 Concept of street vendor

2.2 International studies on street vendors

2.3 Indian studies on street vendors

2.1 CONCEPT OF STREET VENDOR

Street vendors are also termed as street traders, hawkers, sidewalk traders and peddlers. The terms that describe them are based on time or place where they work. Their usages vary according to locality and region. Their terming also differs from state to state and from country to country.

Street Vendors act as distributors of goods and services at affordable rates to the customers with an option to assess the product according to their economic and social conditions. McGee (1973) divided vendors according to three main types of locations:

a. Vendors who sell in places where people assemble, such as markets and bus terminals.

b. Vendors who sell on the street. This type of vendor poses problems of congestion and obstruction.

c. Vendors who sell in a bazaar. A bazaar\textsuperscript{11} is equivalent to the seasonal or periodic market where vendors sell on a piece of public or private land.

\textsuperscript{11} According to McGee, a bazaar is a place for entertainment as well as a place for selling. It is the “department store” of a dual economy’s traditional sector.
According to Sharit Bhowmik (2001), street vending is “a natural market formed because of social needs”.

According to National Commission on Labour, street vendors are identified as self-employed workers in the informal sector who offer their labour for selling goods and services on the street without having any permanent built-up structure (Sharit Bhowmik, 2001).

Street Vendors may refer to vendors with fixed stalls, such as Kiosks, Vendors who operate from semi fixed stalls like folding tables, crates, collapsible stands, wheeled push carts that are removed from the streets and stored overnight, vendors who sell from fixed locations without a tall structure, displaying merchandise on cloth or plastic sheets, or mobile vendors who walk or paddle their bicycles through the streets as they sell (ILO, 2002).

The National Policy for Urban Street Vendors, 2004 defines a street vendor as “a person who offers goods or services for sale to the public without having a permanent built up structure but with a temporary static structure or mobile stall (or head load). Street vendors may be stationery by occupying space on the pavements or other public/private areas, or may be mobile in the sense that they move from place to place carrying their wares on push carts or in cycles or baskets on their heads, or may sell their wares in moving trains, bus etc. The term urban vendor in the policy includes both traders and service providers, stationary as well as mobile vendors and incorporates all other local/region specific terms used to describe them, such as, hawker, pheriwalla, rehri-patriwalla, footpath dukandars, sidewalk traders etc.

The revised National Policy for Urban Street Vendors, 2009 defined a street vendor as ‘a person who offers goods or services for sale to the public in a street without
having a permanent built-up structure.' There are three basic categories of street vendors: (a) stationary; (b) peripatetic and (c) mobile. Stationary vendors are those who carry out vending on a regular basis at a specific location, e.g. those occupying space on the pavements or other public places and/or private areas either open/covered (with implicit or explicit consent) of the authorities. Peripatetic vendors are those who carry out vending on foot and sell their goods and services and include those who carry baskets on their head/slung on their shoulders and those who sell their goods on pushcarts. Mobile street vendors are those who move from place to place vending their goods or services on bicycle or mobile units on wheels, whether motorized or not. They also include vendors selling their wares in moving buses, local trains etc. The term 'Urban Street Vendor' incorporates all other local/regional specific terms used to describe them, such as hawkers, pheriwallas, rehri-patri wallas, footpath dukandars, sidewalk traders, etc.

The Street Vendors (Protection of Livelihood and Regulation of Street Vending) Act, 2014 defines street vendor as a “person engaged in vending of articles, goods, wares, food items or merchandise of everyday use or offering services to the general public, in a street lane, side walk, foot path, pavement, public park or any other public place or private area or by moving from place to place and includes hawker, peddler, squatter and all other synonymous terms which may be local or region specific”. Street vendors constitute a subset of those engaged in retail trade, even a subset of those who are self-employed in retail trade. These self-employed vendors can be considered as micro-entrepreneurs.
2.2 INTERNATIONAL STUDIES ON STREET VENDORS

Francie Lund (1998)’s study on ‘Women Street Vendors in Urban South Africa: A Synthesis of Selected Research Findings’ is based on the women street vendors at Johannesburg CBD and Durban Metropolitan. The study revealed that the level of education among the street vendors in both the cities was very low. Gender disparity was found in the level of education. When compared to men, more number of women street vendors did not have any educational training. It was also found that in Johannesburg, migrant street vendors had higher level of education.

Sharit Bhowmik (2005), in his study ‘Street Vendors in Asia: A Review’ examined the street vendors in Asian countries namely Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Bangkok (Thailand), Singapore, Kuala Lumpur, Manila, Hanoi, Cambodia, Seoul and India. The study analysed the magnitude of street vending in different countries. The assessment found that the number of street vendors in the countries was on an increase. The number increased because of shrinking of jobs in formal sector and with lack of employment in rural areas. This factor was common in Bangladesh, Nepal, Vietnam and Cambodia. In the Asian Tigers, Thailand, Singapore, Malaysia, Philippines, Korea, there was rapid increase in the number of street vendors after the monetary crisis of 1998. The governments of all Asian countries have more or less refused recognize street vending as a legal activity. Malaysia, Philippines and India have policies for regulating and protecting street vendors. Most of the street vendors in Asia are not unionized. Only Korea and India have federations or alliances of street vendors and in India NASVI has been more successful.
Narumol Niratham (2006)’s paper titled ‘Fighting Poverty from the Street – A Survey on Street Food Vendors in Bangkok’ was based on 744 street vendors and 385 buyers of street food from Klogtoey and Dindaeng districts in Bangkok Metropolis. The study revealed that about 88% of the vendors were migrants. Food vending was not the first occupation of most vendors. Many of them were previously engaged in other occupations like farming, manual labour and monthly wage work. About 56% were engaged in street vending as individual operators and 44% were family operators. About 48% got into food vending only because of need for more income. Around 22% street vended with a desire for autonomy. Around 97% felt that earning opportunity was high in vending. About 80% earned adequate income. And 86% were satisfied with their occupation. The findings on consumers of street food revealed that about 33.2% purchased food more than once in a day. About 43.5% purchased cooked food. They purchased food because of proximity of food vendors near home (44.7%) and because it was cheap (39.2%). The advantages and disadvantages of food vending were also analysed. The main advantage found was convenience (70.1%) and main disadvantage was, it caused obstruction for pedestrians (53.5%).

Ayeh Solomon, Bettie Emefa, Rudith Sylvana King and Isaac Decardi – Nelson (2007), in their paper on ‘Street Vending and the use of Urban Public Space in Kumasi, Ghana’ studied the reasons for choosing the particular location for vending. The study based on 517 street vendors revealed that ‘availability of customers’, ‘cost effectiveness’ and ‘limited options’ were the main reason for choosing the location. About 75% of the vendors paid some fees daily or monthly. As many 59% experienced eviction from city authorities and 41% were free from evictions.
Harlan Dimas (2008), in his paper on ‘Street Vendors: Urban Problem and Economic Potential’ discussed the roots of street vending phenomenon and suggested several street vending management solutions from best practices followed around the world. The paper revealed that street vendors were a big challenge for urban management. The city managers eliminated them as they defaced city sights. Repressive municipal policies toward street vendors with the deployment of the police have been a counterproductive one. The paper suggested a change in the mindset of urban decision makers. Formulation of a good policy like applying ‘trickle down effect’ in street vending, allocating scarce capital in the cities to alleviate poverty, micro financing, registration process of small businesses, etc. would make street vendors contribute productively to the society.

Ikechebelu, Udigwe, Ezechukwu, Ndinechi and Joe – Ikechebelu (2008)’s study was based on 186 juvenile female street hawkers in two urban settlements (Awka and Nnewl) in Anambra state, Nigeria. The study on ‘Sexual Abuse among Juvenile Female Street Hawkers in Anambra State, Nigeria’ brought to light that 69.9% of the hawkers experienced at least some form of sexual abuse while hawking. Among them, 93.1% experienced verbal abuses and 81.5% experienced inappropriate touches.

Small Enterprise Development Agency (SEDA) (2008), in its paper on ‘Informal Street Trading Policy Framework for Metropolitan and Local Municipalities’ brought to light the constraints that negatively impacted street traders in South Africa. The main challenges faced by them were lack of access to financial services such as credit and saving, limited access to training, and improper linkages and improper supplies from formal businesses. The municipal challenges in dealing street traders were also found.
It revealed that instability in informal traders’ representation and association, and proliferation among informal trading organization in the form of fight for recognition, support and power were the major problems they had to face with regard to street vendors.

Nana Yaa Gyane Boakye (2009)’s study on ‘The Street is Only a Stepping Stone: Street Vendors Account of Goals, Strategies and Obstacles’ found the street vendors reason for entry in to the activity. The study is based on 400 street vendors in 6 towns in Ghana namely Accra, Tema, Adoagyiri, Akuse, Atinpoku and Kasoa. The study revealed that the vendors chose this occupation as it needs no skill and needs only less capital. They also entered because it was the only job available for them. The vendors were found to suffer from health problems such as constant fatigue, tiredness, catarrh and sore throat.

Molefe Coper Joseph (2011), made a study ‘Beyond Modernist Planning: Understanding Urban Street Vending in Botswana’ based on 160 street vendors and 40 customers in Gaborone City. The study revealed that 49.4% of the street vendors were previously engaged in wage employment, 43.1% were working in the private sector and 26.3% were previously unemployed. Many of the previously employed had lack of security of employment in the private sector. Reason for leaving the previous job was retrenchment, underpayment and the quest for self employment. About 50.6% of the vendors chose street vending as it was the only available alternate and for 41.3%, it was very easy to get into street vending. About 67.5% used personal savings as their source for start-up capital.

Sally Roever (2011) studied the working condition, constraints and risks of street vendors in Africa, Asia and Latin America. The study entitled ‘Livelihood Profile: Street
Vendors’ studied on three criteria namely physical environment, policy environment and social environment. The study revealed that, in case of physical environment, the street vendors’ place of work lacked proper infrastructure such as running water, toilets and solid waste removal systems. In case of policy environment, most of the local government authorities forcibly removed them from the streets or confiscated their merchandise. And in case of social protection, only a small percentage got access to state sponsored social protection regimes.

The International Labour Organisation (2013), in its paper on ‘The Regulatory Framework and the Informal Economy’ studied the good practices that support street vendors in Thailand and Dar Es Salaam. It revealed that street vendors in Dar Es Salaam were issued licenses and were allowed to operate. Shelves and tables have been standardized and guidelines were been adopted for managing street vending. In Thailand, street vendor market was organized and managed by private company. A high rent was charged and high standards of hygiene, orderliness and security were maintained. The market had good infrastructure including rest rooms and car parking which was a reason for the increase in customers and thus resulting in increase in income of the vendors. Vendors were also willing to pay high rent.

Robertson Tengeh and Cyprian Lapah (2013) studied the ‘Socio-economic trajectories of Migrant Street Vendors in Urban South Africa’. About 208 immigrant vendors from other African countries who street vended at 5 suburbs namely Bellville, Parow, Wynberg, Mitchells Plain and the CBD (Cape Town Central) were selected for the study. The findings revealed that the immigrant vendors received both financial (23.6%) and moral (23.6%) support from the residents of Cape Town.
accommodation in the city for an immigrant was a big problem. Around 49% of the vendors strongly relied up on their family relations for accommodation in their initial stage of vending. They borrowed capital from friends and relatives for their start-up. Around 42.7% acquired the trading space by applying through council. About 55.3% had previous experience in their line of activity. About 54.8% were not associated with any street vendor associations.

Sally Rover (2013)’s study on ‘Informal Economy Monitoring Study Sector Report: Street Vendors’ was based on 502 street vendors in 5 cities around the world namely Accra in Ghana, Ahmedabad in India, Durban in South Africa, Lima in Peru and Nakuru in Kenya. The study revealed that for 68% of street vendors, vending was their main source of income. They faced problems in the form of harassment by police, arbitrary confiscation of merchandise, demand for bribes and physical abuse. They lacked secure place to work. About 70% reported that their supplies had become more expensive. They were unable to fix high prices to customers because of intense competition.

Lafortezza, Jared James, Manalo, Gandrose and Tan Joel (2014) studied the accounting practices and strengths, weakness, opportunities and threats of street vendors in Davao city in Philippines. The paper entitled, ‘Determinants of Accounting Practices among Street Food Vendors’ was based on 30 street food operators. It was found that 66.67% of the vendors maintained separate accounting of personal expenses. The strengths of street vending revealed by them was ‘small capital requirement’, their weakness was ‘poor business management of vendors’, opportunities was ‘wide and diversified market’ and the important threat found was ‘strong market competition’.
Tavonya Njaya (2014), in the paper on ‘Challenges of Negotiating Sectoral Governance of Street Vending Sector in Harare Metropolis, Zimbabwe’ analysed the influencing factors and problems of street vendors in Harare based on 145 samples. The factors that promoted street vendors to take up the activity was ‘quick and easy avenue to earn subsistence income’ and ‘failure to find jobs in the formal economy’. The problems at their work place were ‘overcrowding’ and ‘obstruction by fellow street vendors’.

The various studies enumerated above covered different dimensions. Based on the literature reviewed it was inferred by the researcher that the earlier studies had not concentrated much on the activities and performance of street vendors. This research gap made the investigator to thoroughly analyze the activities and performance of street vendors.

2.3 INDIAN STUDIES ON STREET VENDORS

Chakravarty and Canet (1996)’s study on ‘Street Foods in Calcutta’ was based on 911 consumers of street foods and 300 street food vendors in four locations in Kolkata namely the College Square, the Sealdah area, Dalhousie Square and the Gariahat shopping and residential area. The study found that about 33% of the consumers purchased foods on a daily basis and spent ₹ 40 to ₹ 400 per month on street foods. It revealed that a sizeable number of vendors were commuters. They often carried their wares by train, travelling distances of 25 to 30 kilometres on a daily basis. Their daily sales amounted ₹1500 to ₹4000. Vendors worked only 10 months in a year by obtaining an income of ₹25000 per year. The study examined various hazards to foods safety. The food contained bright non-permitted colours and contained heavy metals. The water used for drinking, cooking, washing of fruits and vegetables, dishwashing, hand washing, etc. was found to be contaminated.
TISS\textsuperscript{12} and YUVA\textsuperscript{13} (1998), in its ‘Census Survey of Hawkers on BMC\textsuperscript{14} Lands’ in all 23 wards in Greater Mumbai brought to light that about 38.2\% of the street vendors sold agricultural products. About 94.6\% of the vendors were not licensed. Only 4\% practised street vending in more than one place. About 98.5\% were self-employed and 1.5\% hawked for others. Around 65.9\% sold their goods on footpath by displaying their goods in open pitch (35.4\%). About 25.3\% of the vendors’ hawking place was 6 to 10 square feet in size. Almost 70.6\% pursued their activity for all the 7 days in a week and 52.2\% involved in selling for most of the day. About 47.7\% had goods with them worth ₹500 and 70.1\% were single member from a family to involve in street vending activity. Around 46\% earned ₹50 to ₹100 daily and 43.9\% stored their materials at their residence. About 79.6\% were not members of any street vendor union. About 44.4\% were willing to move to hawking zones but expected a proper location.

Sharit Bhowmik (1999)’s ‘Urban Responses to Street Trading: India’ was a survey conducted on seven cities in India namely Mumbai, Ahmedabad, Kolkata, Imphal, Patna and Bhubaneshwar. The study found that except in Kolkata, all other municipalities have provisions for providing licenses for street vending. In cities that have provisions for issuing licenses, municipal authorities were most reluctant to issue them, or the provisions were such that it makes it almost impossible for most vendors to avail licenses. Most of the female street vendors in these cities were subjected to all forms of harassment by the police and the municipal authorities as they do not process licenses. Their incomes were more or less the

\textsuperscript{12} Tata Institute of Social Sciences  
\textsuperscript{13} Youth for Unity and Voluntary Action  
\textsuperscript{14} Brihanmumbai Municipal Corporation
same in all the cities. It ranged from ₹50 and ₹100 for males and ₹35 to ₹40 for females. Corruption in the form of bribery and extortion prevailed.

Sharit Bhowmik (2001)’s study on ‘Hawkers and the Urban Informal Sector: A Study of Street Vending in Seven Cities’ was based on 2100 street vendors from Mumbai, Ahmedabad, Calcutta, Imphal, Patna, Bhubaneswar and Bangalore. It studied the problems of street vendors in urban areas. It found common features in all the seven cities. The income of the street vendors ranged from ₹50 to ₹100 for males and ₹35 to ₹40 for females. They were persecuted by the municipal authorities and the police. The situation of Patna was worst where bribery was high. The working condition of the hawkers was very poor and most lead a very hard life. They worked for more than 10 hours a day to earn a meagre income.

India Centre for Human Rights and Law (2003) studied the problems of blind street vendors at railway stations in Mumbai through its paper on ‘Disability and Right to Employment’. The study based on 315 blind street vendors revealed that majority of them were blind from their childhood and most of them were educated up to 9th standard. About 68.25% were married and 60% of them earned an amount of ₹51 to ₹100 daily. Most of them were more than 10 years in trade and experienced a fall in income during monsoon due to unfavourable weather. Many sold several goods according to season. Most of them preferred to sell in local trains and rail over bridges. About 56.83% were aware of government schemes and its accessibility. Most of them have chosen this employment option as they had no other job available in private and public sector. They were subject to all kinds of harassment.
Jonathan Shapiro Anjaria (2006), in his paper on ‘Street Hawkers and Public Space in Mumbai’ studied the life of street vendors in Mumbai. It was revealed that in the central districts of Mumbai, many former mill workers and their families have been compelled to take up hawking. Many street hawkers were migrants from rural areas. It was because of ease of entry and the limited requirement of capital, they have entered street vending. It was also because of lack of other employment opportunities, individuals have taken up street vending. Many hawkers make a regular payment to the police and the BMC in the form of money or in kind.

Debdulal Saha (2008), in his ‘Conditions of Decent Working Life of Street Vendors in Mumbai’ studied the indebtedness of street vendors within the framework of ‘decent work’. The study was based on 200 samples from locations such as Dharavi, Jogeswari, Kandival, Powai and Ville Parle in Mumbai. If found that street vendors borrowed mainly for ‘social security (44.72%). About 51.39% borrowed an amount of ₹1000 to ₹20000 and 20.83% an amount of ₹40000 to ₹60000. Among them, 30.56% borrowed money to meet family health care and medicine and 25% borrowed to meet their child education needs. About 38.89% paid 2 times multiple of the principal amount and 36.11% paid only one time multiple of the principal amount.

Randhir Kumar and Arbind Singh (2009), in their work on ‘Empowering the Street Vendors in Changing Indian Cities’ analysed the status of street vendors in Bhubaneswar (Orissa) after implementation of vending zone. The study based on 372 vendors from 32 vending zones revealed that 67% of the vendors experienced an increase in the number of customers and 61% experienced increased sales and 84% of
street vendors had an increase in quantity of goods stocked for sales after dislocating to vending zones. A micro-finance scheme for the vendors and their family was started for them. A micro-pension scheme was also been launched. Micro finance organisations collected money from various vending zone and disbursed petty loans to street vendors ranging from ₹10000 to ₹20000.

Sumitha Sarkar and Manjari Srivastava (2009)’s study on ‘Women Hawkers in New Economic Environment: A Case of Navi Mumbai’ was based on 108 women street vendors on the roads/footpaths in Vashi and Belapur nodes. The study analysed the working status of women engaged in micro-entrepreneurship, working as hawkers/vendors in the areas of Navi Mumbai. It found poor socio-economic status and poor literacy level among the vendors. They did not have any collective association to voice their rights. They have not got any support from the government. They were vulnerable towards all sorts of harassment. They were subject to payment of illegal rent or money for protection to local officials, police and goons. There were incidents of sexual exploitation. The study revealed that women vendors suffered from various kinds of ailments due to hard labour, ignorance and malnutrition. About 82% suffered from gynaecological problems like miscarriage, infections, excessive bleeding, and irregular menstruation. About 50% had joint pains and body aches. About 77% had gastritis and ulcer.

The Environmental Support Group (2010)’s paper ‘A Brief Study in Street Vendors in the City of Bengaluru’ was based on 80 street vendors form Lalgagh, Avenue Road, MG Road, Brigade road, Maleeshwaram, Tannery road, Ulsoor lake and CMH road. The study revealed that most of the street vendors belonged to Karnataka. And a
few were from TamilNadu, Bihar, Andra Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal. The study also revealed that 40% of the respondents knew at least 2 languages, 56% were from family size with below 5 members, 49% travelled to their work place by bus, 72% spent more than 8 hours at work and many suffered because of increasing pollution in the city. All the street vendors paid bribe regularly.

‘Study on Street Vendors at Patna (Bihar)’ by Nidan (2010) was based on 600 street vendors in 72 wards in Patna. It found that most of the respondents chose vending as a profession because ‘there were no other jobs available’, ‘entry was easier’ and ‘investment was low’. The problems faced by them were ‘hard work’, ‘meagre income’ and ‘high rates of interest’. In also found the problems faced by female street vendors and revealed that ‘lack of protection’ and ‘lack of basic facilities such as toilets and crèches for their children’ were the major constraints faced by them. In addition to street vendors, 150 consumers were also studied. It revealed that the upper income group spent ₹2500 on products from hawkers every month. Middle income group spent ₹4000 and lower income group spent less than ₹1400 a month. Most of the consumers preferred to buy from vendors as buying from them ‘was convenient’ and ‘saved time’.

‘Working Life of Street Vendors in Mumbai’ by Debdulal Saha (2011) portrayed the working life of street vendors in Mumbai. It brought to light that 57.20% depended upon ‘money lenders’ for their source of capital to start their economic activity. For 26.04%, the amount of borrowing ranged from ₹15000 to ₹30000. About 41.3% paid ₹20 to ₹50 as bribes to local authorities on a daily basis. Exactly 54.5% worked for long hours from 8 to 12 hours with no safety and security conditions in their workplace.
Kamala Sankaran and Roopa Madhav (2011), in their paper on ‘Informal Economy: Law and Policy Demands’ made an overview of regulatory frameworks impacting selected occupational groups in India. They made a study on regulatory framework among forest workers, fish workers, waste pickers, street vendors and domestic workers. Insight on street vendors brought to light that there was no effective protection of wages or working conditions for them. State Police Acts and State Laws determined access to urban land and water.

Ray and Assem Mishra (2011)’s study on ‘Vendors and Informal Sector – A Case Study of Street Vendors of Surat City’ was based on street vendors in 23 selected markets within Surat Municipal Corporation. The study made a comparison of street vendors with the vendors in Ahmedabad, Vadodara, Bangalore, Delhi, Kolkata and Patna. The study revealed that the street vendors in all these cities worked in more or less same situation. It found that street vendors entered into the activity mainly because street vending was their family occupation. They were facing problems of harassment by authorities, problem of eviction and problem of conflict with pedestrians. Most of them did not wish to relocate from original place of vending if they were shifted to nearby places. It was also found that they borrowed money from money lenders on high interest rates for business.

Suneetha, Manjula and Baby Depur (2011) made a ‘Quality Assessment of Street Foods in Tirumala’ and investigated microbiological quality of street foods in Tirumala, India. Analysis of samples was on breakfast items like idli, poori, dosa, masala dosa, lemon rice and fruit juices like orange juice and pineapple juice from 6 locations. It revealed high loads of bacteria. The contamination of masala dosa was found to be high
and its presence was found to be because of contamination of processing water and unhygienic conditions that prevailed in food stall locations.

Balasubramaniam, Srinivasan and Vaidhyasubramaniam (2012), in their study on ‘Being Powerless or to be Empowered: A Case of Women Street Vendors at Thanjavur, TamilNadu’ found that about 70.6% of women vendors worked for more than 8 hours. Around 57.1% preferred a fixed place for selling their products. About 31% had their spouses addicted to alcohol. Almost 73.8% preferred to work near their residence within 5 kilometers. Their difficulties revealed that 58.2% did not have a permanent location and 29.5% suffered from hard weather condition. About 49.6% expected support from their local government in the form of loan and health care facilities.

Colin Williams and Anjula Gurtoo (2012) made a study on ‘Evaluating Competing Explanations for Street Entrepreneurship: Some Evidence from India’. The study was based on 323 women engaged in four occupations out of which 161 women were working as domestic help, 54 as office helpers, 32 as shop assistants and 76 as street entrepreneurs from the cities of Mumbai, Bangalore, Delhi, Nagpur, Jhansi, Jodhpur and Gulbarga. The researchers analysed the street entrepreneurs’ main reason for migration and the reason for choosing their present employment option. The study also aimed to compare the income level of street entrepreneurs with that of women employed in other areas of informal employment. The study brought out that women street entrepreneurs migrated to the present cities mainly ‘to find better employment opportunities’ and chose street entrepreneurship as their employment option since they found it as the ‘best way of making money’, as its ‘income was greater than other jobs’, because of ‘lack of competition from larger businesses’, it needed ‘limited
expertise’, required only ‘low set-up costs’ and because of ‘lower regulation of formal economy’. The income of women street entrepreneurs was found to be significantly higher than those of women engaged in informal wage employment.

Colin Williams and Anjula Gurtoo (2012)’s study ‘Evaluating Competing Theories of Street Entrepreneurship: Some Lessons from a Study of Street Vendors in Bangalore, India’ was based on 871 street vendors. The study revealed that 51% of the vendors had been in their current location for over 5 years. Nearly half (47%) spend 14 hours at work every day and nearly all worked all days in a week. About 74% operated from a fixed location and 26% were mobile street entrepreneurs. Most of them earned between ₹35 to ₹100 per day. Many took loans from moneylenders to pay for their license. The street entrepreneurs who sold through fixed stalls frequently faced harassment from the police and municipal authorities. The reasons for participation in street entrepreneurship revealed that 56% street vendor found vending as the best option to make money, it was easy to establish themselves, required low investment and expertise and there was lack of competition from larger businesses.

Mohan Raj (2012), in his paper on ‘A Study on Roadside Food Stalls in Tiruchirappalli Corporation with special reference to Food Industry and Hotel Industry’ found that more number of industrial employees and daily wage earners preferred to eat from roadside stalls. The study based on 537 customers of roadside food stalls found that 47.11% of them felt roadside foods were not good for health and 47.71% were dissatisfied with the credit facilities offered to loyal customers and 29.42% were dissatisfied with the services of roadside stalls.
Randhir Kumar (2012), in his paper on ‘The Regularization of Street Vending in Bhubaneswar, India: A Policy Model’ brought out how a policy model for street vendors was successfully framed and implemented in Bhubaneswar. The paper analyzed its critical success factors. The paper revealed that all the relevant stakeholders were brought together for joint planning and implementation of the policy. The success factors identified were ‘the political will among authorities to acknowledge vending as a legitimate profession and address the concerns of the vendors’, ‘able leadership from vendors’ side in organizing movements and negotiating with authorities’, ‘consensus building and allowing multiple voices in debates’ and ‘joint survey for identifying space and beneficiaries’ and ‘financing the construction’. These helped vendors in gaining an opportunity for sustainable source of livelihood.

‘Street Vending in Ten Cities in India’ – a study by Sharit Bhowmik and Debdulal Saha (2012) was based on 200 street vendors each from Bhubaneswar, Delhi, Imphal, Indore, Lucknow, Mumbai, Patna, Jaipur, Bengaluru and Hyderabad. The study found that street vendors did not stay at the place of vending. Over 88% of them in all ten cities stayed within 5 kilometers from their workplace. The most common modes of travel used by the vendors to reach their workplace were being on foot, by bus or by bicycle. Majority of the vendors used their home as storage spaces. About 74.5% of the vendors in Bhubaneswar, 65% in Delhi, 92% in Hyderabad, 62% in Indore (62%) and 65.7% in Mumbai (65.7%) used their savings for business. A large section of the vendors lived in one room tenements. Around 60% to 70% of the vendors in all cities paid bribes to the authorities on a regular basis. Their bribes ranged from ₹2 to ₹100 per day.
Abhayraj Naik (2013) in his paper on ‘Contexualising Urban Livelihoods: Street Vending in India’ discussed the arguments that justify and oppose proliferation of street vending and brought to light that the most heated debate in all cities and countries was conflict-zones of agglomeration or hyper-agglomeration. The paper insisted that before flexible, adaptable, experimenting and multiple-governance models of regulation are put in place, a careful empirical study within the context of its applicability must be made.

Bhat, Aasif Hussain Nengroo (2013), in their study on ‘Urban Informal Sector: A Case Study of Street Vendors in Kashmir’, based on 200 street vendors from 4 main markets namely Lal-chock, L D Market, Batmallo and Hazartabal in Srinagar brought to light the reasons for choosing street vending as their employment option. The results showed the main reasons for choosing street vending was ‘lack of employment opportunities (33.5%)’, ‘absence of earning member in the family (16.5%)’ and it ‘needed less investment (13%)’. About one third of the vendors had invested their own money. Most of them were immigrants from Tibet, Bihar and Assam. Most of them often had to reduce the price of their products to attract the customers from other vendors or in order to retain regular customers.

‘Quality of Life among Street Vendors in Tiruchirappalli City, TamilNadu, India’ – a study by Karthikeyan and Mangaleswaran (2013) brought out the quality of life of street vendors based on 56 respondents. The study was based on 4 dimensions of quality of life namely ‘physical health’, ‘psychological health’, ‘social relations’ and ‘environment factor’. The results revealed that 55.4% of the respondents had low level of ‘physical health’, 51.8% had low level of ‘psychological health’, 73.2% had low level ‘social relationship’ and 55.4% of the respondents had low level of quality of life in terms
of ‘environmental factor’. Overall quality of life of street vendors denoted that 50% of them had low level and another 50% had high level of quality of life.

Kirit Patel, David Guenther, Kyle Wiebe and Ruth-Anne Seburn (2013) through their study ‘Food Sovereignty: A Critical Dialogue’ analysed the constraints faced by millet porridge vendors in Madurai, TamilNadu. The study was among 90 street food vendors. It found that women in street food vending industry faced marginalization in the form of having only a few customers and lower profits than their male counterparts. They also underwent harassments, forced shutdowns and payment of bribes to police and authorities. Female labourers working under street vendors received their daily wages 3 times lesser than their male counterparts. The female porridge vendors revealed higher desire to expand their enterprise than their male vendors.

The various Indian studies enumerated above covered varied dimensions. By making an in-depth study on the above literature, the researcher found that the earlier studies have not thoroughly analysed the functioning of street vendors. Utilizing this research gap, the investigator made a detailed analysis on the socio-economic background and assessed the quality of life of the street vendor households. In addition to conducive and compulsive factors that led an individual to enter street vending, the pre and post status of street vendors after entering street vending was analysed. A detailed study on work related and general problems faced by the vendors during their course of work were done. Their work performance was also assessed.