

Life and Livelihoods of Street Vendors: A Review

¹Meenu Saihjal, ^{*2}Ashish Saihjal and ³Shashi Kapoor

¹Assistant Professor, University Institute of Legal Studies, Panjab University, Chandigarh, India

^{2&3}Assistant Professor, University Business School, Panjab University Regional Centre, Ludhiana, Punjab, India

ARTICLE DETAILS

Article History

Published Online: 15 July 2019

Keywords

Urban Economy, Urban Public Space, Street Vendors, Unorganized Sector, Urban Policy.

Corresponding Author

Email: aksaihjal@ubsludhiana.com

ABSTRACT

The street vendors are a significant part of the urban economies in many parts of the world. Their contribution to the income generation and employment multiplication cannot be underrated. The present paper explores the vulnerability of street vending and its sustainability in over-populated congested urban spaces. This is a theoretical paper which examines how the definition of street vending/street vendors has evolved over the years and across the globe. The paper also delves into the problems associated with street vendors and their economic and social contribution towards the urban economies. The paper also deliberates upon the issue of rights over the urban public space and lastly, discusses the situation of street vendors in urban India.

Introduction

The attractions of the urban growth and the lack of opportunities for growth in the rural sector has stimulated the movement of the rural folk to the urban establishments. They move with the dreams of earning money and improving the lives of their families. Their dreams include getting jobs in the factories or offices, however, because of low educational attainment and being unskilled, they land up selling on the streets. The people who, try to earn their living with dignity and choose to earn money by selling on streets, are called as the street vendors. They sometimes sell essential or low-priced quality products and are perceived as the ones who block the roads and cause traffic congestion. They are considered a blot on the limelight of the cities as it is believed that the glamorous life of the cities is affected by the presence of the vendors (Anjaria, 2006), even though the vendors have been in existence since ancient times. Different civilizations have mentioned the accounts of travelers or people traveling from one place to another or from door to door to sell their different goods. However, in present times, street vending has been considered an element of unindustrialized, rural or backward economies. To simply put across, it was regarded as a phenomenon of developing countries. However, informalism has increased over the years and has made its presence felt in the developed countries. Thus, today street vending is a worldwide phenomenon although it is more prevalent in developing countries (Bell and Loukaitou-Sideris, 2014; Bromley, 2000). Considering the importance and growth of street vending across the globe and specially in developing countries, this paper attempts to highlight the significant aspects related to street vending. The second section of this study highlights the dynamics of street vending in informal economies across globe. Third section discusses the problems associated with vendors and their contribution to the economy. Fourth section discusses the controversy over the rights to public space. The fifth section of the study explains the situation of vendors in India and the legal regulations related to them are elaborated. The last section concludes the study.

Street Vending and the Dynamics of World Informal Economies

Street vendors are an integral part of informal sector. The term 'informal sector' has been used by Hart in 1973 (Chen, 2012). He has done a study of self-employed workers of Ghana in 1971. He has defined these workers as the ones who wanted jobs in the formal sector but could not succeed and hence, turned to the famous, 'informal' sector (Saha, 2009). Hart's study has revealed that the informal markets are flooded with such workers who are unskilled and perform low-income activities. However, he has concluded that this sector has the potential to multiply incomes and generate more employment opportunities (Chen, 2012). Later on, in 1972, International Labour Organisation has sent the first employment mission to Kenya to study the problem of unemployment, low incomes and equalities. The Kenya mission has freely used the term, 'informal sector' and established that the informal activities are economically efficient and source of generating incomes. This view of the report has been against the popular perception that the informal activities are inefficient. The report has also found that such activities are characterized by low capital, simpler technologies and has minimum contacts with the formal sector (ILO, 1972). There are others who have believed that the existence of informal sector is due to the preference of the entrepreneurs in the formal sector to reduce the cost of production to enhance their competitiveness in the markets. As a result, they have a preference to keep less labour and have more capital-intensive techniques. This view is called as the structuralist view and has been supported by Moser and by Castells and Portes (Saha, 2009). Another group of thought has always believed that the existence of the informal sector is because of the bureaucratic hurdles which increases the time and the costs for registration in the formal sector and thus, the workers who have low capital and do not have funds to cut the bureaucratic hurdles through bribes join the informal sector (Saha, 2009). Informal sector is different from the formal sector. It is not covered under the government regulations. No protection is given to the workers, the working hours are long, and the threat of eviction is continuous (Devlin, 2011).

There are largely three types of workers who work in informal sector. First and the second ones are: wage workers and self-employed workers who work in the informal sector. The wage workers include migrants, domestic workers, casual, temporary, and regular workers. Self-employed in the informal sector includes the workers working in the farm and non-farm activities. And these are working on own account which also covers the family members working as unpaid workers or they may also work with partners. These could also operate from home. Street vendors fall under this category. The third one is the wage workers working in the formal sector. Although the last category of workers works in the formal sector yet these are not protected by government laws (Saha, 2009).

Researchers have tried to define street vendors and street vending from time to time. However, finding any universal definition seems to be difficult because different street vendors in different countries depict different cultural, social, economic, political and geographic features. Mc Glee in 1977 has tried to define vendors in a comprehensive way. For him, the definition of the street vendors should cover the functional role that they play in the markets, the scale of their selling activities and the relevant legal definition prevailing in the concerned city (Ray and Mishra, 2011). Austin in 1994 has attached the string of racism to the concept of street vending. He has emphasized on how these vendors are discriminated because these are black. He has defined street vending as a true way of living for the black community and has believed that the vendors should be allowed to pursue this profession legally without the threat of eviction owing to their color (Austin, 1994). In 1997, Morales has identified street vending as a profession which is full of uncertainties. Such uncertainties emerge from outside forces i.e. the threat of eviction and in order to counter these, the vendors involve their household members. Thus, Morales has identified vendors with the uncertainties involved in their business.

Mitullah (2003) has defined vending in terms of social elimination and through vending, the vendors are reducing the inequalities caused by social elimination. Even Dimas (2008) has elucidated how these vendors are looked down upon and deemed as the creators of nuisance. This has reflected that the strong negative perceptions of the general public towards the vendors are so firm that even the existing literature despite having a soft side towards vendors, seems to be influenced by it. Morales (2000) has further emphasized that street vending is a result of the choices and the different social relationships. Here, he is referring to the discrimination and the lack of

opportunities for the street vendors because of which they are left with no option but to opt for vending.

However, Bhowmik (2003) has explored the other dimensions of the street vendors while defining the same. He has defined street vendors as the one who possess poor skills and low education because of which they fail to get jobs in formal sector. Thus, in this definition emphasis has been laid on the low level of skills and education which also elaborates the reason for the vendors to take up this profession. Further, Dalwadi (2010) has regarded vending as an efficient distribution network for articles of daily necessities. Even Bhowmik (2010) has defined vendor as the one who sells goods with no permanent built-up structure.

Many authors have tried to define the vendors through the difficulties that they face while working on streets. Carrieri and Murta (2011) while studying the relocation of the street vendors in Brazil by the government, has noticed that after relocating the vendors, the authorities disrupt the work of the vendors and increases the unwarranted political and social problems of the vendors. Here, he has referred to the vulnerable situation of the vendors. Brown et. al. (2010) has also elucidated that the street vendors are highly visible in the markets but their rights to function or operate are always kept at a bay. Recently, many authors have been prompted to debate on the existence, survival and legalization of the vendors (Roever and Skinner, 2016). Thus, initially vending has been perceived as an option for neglected class but gradually a change can be seen in the thought process of defining vendors. Now, the scholars have focused on the critical conditions under which the vendors work and earn a living. Earlier legalization of vending has been demanded because of the discrimination against the vendors but now it has been demanded because of the lack of job opportunities in the formal sector for the unskilled and semi-skilled workers.

As per the ILO report (2018), 'Women and Men in the Informal Sector: A Statistical Picture', roughly 2 billion workers which is 61 percent of all the employed workers are in the informal employment. The report further states that roughly 91 percent of the workers in the informal employment are found in the developing countries (thewire.in, 2018). Street vendors are a major component of informal sector. Some estimates of street vendors across globe are presented in table 1. The table clearly reflects the individual attempts by the researchers. These researchers have provided the estimates of vendors in different cities.

Table-1: Estimates Regarding Number of Street Vendors

Sr.No.	Source	Number of Vendors (approx.)	Time Period	Area/City (Country)
1	Bhowmik (2003)	2,50,000	2000	Mumbai (India)
		2,00,000		Kolkata (India)
		80,000		Ahmedabad (India)
		80,000		Patna (India)
2	Bhowmik (2005)	90,000	2004-2005	Dhaka (Bangladesh)
3	Bhowmik (2005)	8,000-10,000	2004-2005	Columbo, (Sri Lanka)
4	Bhowmik (2005)	50,000	2005	Singapore
5	Bhowmik (2005)	35,000	2000	Kuala Lumpur
6	Bhowmik (2005)	50,000	2001	Manila
7	Bhowmik (2005)	80,000	2004	Seoul
8	Kusakabe (2006)	3,90,600	1997-2000	Thailand (Bangkok)
9	Sundaram (2008)	3,50,000	2006	Mumbai (India)

		2,00,000		Delhi (India)
		1,50,000		Ahmedabad (India)
		1,00,000		Kolkata (India)
10	Indira (2014)	1,00,000	2001	Thailand (Bangkok)
11	Alva (2014)	10,00,000	2013	India
12	Xue (2015)	19,00,000	2004	China
13	Xue (2015)	4,07,000	2004	Guangzhou
14	Roever (2016)	1,00,000	2009	Sao Paulo, (Brazil)
15	Roever (2016)	5,00,000	2009	Nairobi, (Kenya)

Street Vendors: An Unwanted Child or A Decisive Fragment of the Economy?

Although the vendors have been in existence since ancient times, yet these are regarded as a separate segment or are treated like an unwanted child in almost every economy. The question then arises that something which has been present since long, either should have been eliminated, if its undesirable, or merged into the system, if its desirable. But this has not happened yet. The reason is the difficulties that arise with the presence of vendors in the city. Bromley (2000) and Gaber (1994) have put forward that the vendors are despised as these are not located at one place and are scattered over the whole of the city because of which the disturbances and inconveniences are also distributed.

Further, due to their presence, roads become congested which leads to traffic congestion and chaos and makes it difficult for the pedestrians (Gaber, 1994; Bromley, 2000; Anjaria, 2006; Kusakabe, 2006; Carrieri & Murta, 2011). Also, many authors have believed that these vendors also try to avoid government regulations making it difficult for the government to control or regulate their growth (Stillermen, 2000; Mitullah, 2003; Bhowmik, 2005; Anjaria, 2006; Yatmo, 2009). Likewise, several researchers have pointed out that due to the presence of the vendors on the roads, the streets become a nuisance and unsafe which also leads to criminal activities (Bromley, 2000; Yatmo, 2009). The vendors specially food vendors leave a lot of garbage which makes the streets unclean and unhygienic and although the local people enjoy the food, yet they feel uncomfortable with the clutter (Nattrass, 1987; Dimas, 2008; Sundaram, 2008; Yatmo, 2009; Carrieri & Murta, 2011).

Due to their infiltration streets have become messy and create chaos and so many have come to believe that the multiplication of the vendors reduces the growth of the cities. This view has been largely held by the upper class and the middle class who fancy to have huge malls rather than the vendors (Gaber, 1994; Bromley, 2000; Dimas 2008; Sundaram, 2008; Carrieri & Murta, 2011). Their presence has also caused a reduction in the value of the properties around the vending areas because of which the locals are always in favor of the eviction or relocation of the vendors (Gaber, 1994). Not only the residents but also the local shop-owners are always up in arm against the vendors as they face competition from the cheap substitutes of their products being offered by them. Shop-owners are not able to attract the customers as they stay inside the shops and the vendors through the regular announcements and swift display of products, catch the customers more quickly. Due to these reasons the local shop-owners have largely gone against the street vendors (Nattrass, 1987; Gaber, 1994; Stillermen, 2000). Carrieri and Murta

(2011) have also pointed out that these vendors largely sell goods without government authorization and recognition.

Due to the problems created by the vendors or the so-called perception of the people about the vendors, the authorities have tended to act against these. The most common form of action is eviction and confiscation of the goods of the vendors by the authorities. The question now arises is that if there are so many difficulties attached with them then why they still exist in urban economies. This is because vendors have contributed to the economy of the cities by generating employment opportunities. Such opportunities have been generated for the people who are unskilled or fail to find jobs in the formal sector. This activity has also offered solace to the people who are retrenched from the formal sector by providing them ways to earn a living. As there is no rent to be paid, therefore, it has become an inexpensive investment for the already cash – starved people. Thus, street vending has been a generator of employment opportunities and thus, also increases incomes in the economy (Bhowmik, 2005; Anjaria, 2006; Kusakabe, 2006; Saha, 2009 & 2011; Maneepong and Walsh, 2013; Forkuor, 2017). This profession has also provided jobs and income earning opportunities to women. Saha (2017) in a study of 10 Indian cities has found that 28 percent of the vendors are women, and the proportion of women vendors is higher in metro cities. He has also revealed that women have participated in vending to supplement the family income.

Further, vendors offer the goods at reasonable prices or at cheaper rates which is much lower than what is offered at the big shopping malls and hence, are out of the reach of the poor people. Thus, it has provided an alternative to the consumers as well. Also, the street vendors offer the different varieties of a product which increases the welfare of the consumer as the availability of more types of a product widens up the horizon of the 'choice' of the consumer and alleviates the satisfaction level of the consumer. Street vendors are not only a benefit for the customers but are also a big boost for the small-scale industries. Street vendors sell the products of the small factories like bangles, toys, clothing, utensils, etc. (Bhowmik, 2001; Saha, 2011). Such factories prefer to sell through the vendors as these vendors margin is low owing to their low investment and have a wider customer base owing to their direct contact with them. These vendors while working in the cities also run the economies of their village as these vendors send back a proportion of their money to their families back in the village. Thus, they are a notable connect between the urban and rural economies.

Another significant contribution of the vendors has been towards the society and towards the social relations. The vendors owing to their presence on the roads and because they offer goods and articles of daily need, develop a close

connect with their customers. Many studies have elucidated that the daily passer-byes or the regular visitors develop a bonding with the vendors which affects their purchase decision and the quantity of purchase. Thus, social relations proliferate due to street vending. Bromley (2000) has even explained that these street vendors have an additional social contribution. He has believed that these vendors bring joy and life to the dull streets of the cities which makes the streets more entertaining.

One more social contribution of vending is that this profession reduces tensions and sustains families as this profession provides employment opportunities to those who fail to find jobs in the formal sector or are chucked out of the formal sector and to women who join this profession either to supplement their family's incomes or to earn money due to the failure of their drunkard spouses to do so. Therefore, this profession sustains the families and may reduce tensions owing to the lack of opportunities to work. Further, these vendors cater to the needs of all the classes, be it the urban upper class or the urban middle or lower class. It is generally believed that only the urban lower class is highly dependent on the vendors, but the urban middle class and the upper class are equally dependent on them for the purchase of items like vegetables at their door-step.

Thus, whereas the shop-owners do not cater to the lower class or to the poor people, the vendors social relations have a wide coverage from the poor to the upper class. Thus, these are the powerful source of connection with all the classes and may become a significant tool for the government for implementing policies. Anjaria (2006) also believes that these vendors also provide security to the passer-byes. Also, politically, these vendors, once they have the requisite documents, become a key figure in the political elections of the urban cities.

There is no doubt that the vendors are an integral part of the urban economies. The survival of the urban cities, of the different classes whether upper, middle, or lower is not possible without the vendors. However, authorities and residents have followed a policy of opposition against them.

Public Space: Who has a right over it?

Due to their persistent harassment, vendors are forced to resort to giving 'bribes' to authorities or they prefer to escape and resurface after some time (Bromley, 2000; Bhowmik, 2005; Anjaria, 2006; Alva, 2014; Forkuor et. al., 2017). Largely, for many years the Government, administration, residents have believed that these vendors perform an illegal activity. Such a perception of street vendors and of street vending is almost universal and some countries have taken extreme steps to evict the vendors. For example, Bhowmik (2010) has mentioned that the government of South Korea hires gangsters to evict the street vendors. Even in countries like Bangladesh, India, Sri Lanka, Nepal although street vendors are partially recognized yet they are discriminated in many cities. This reflects the bias against the vendors. Vendors continuously work under the threat of 'eviction'. Many a times these frictions have taken an ugly turn and are resolved in the court of law.

The evictions of the vendors have taken the researchers towards the discussion on the right to public spaces. Public spaces are the places used for public activities like the sidewalks, pedestrian areas, beaches, parks etc. The street vendors sell their goods or do their business in public spaces. The reason for their occupation of public spaces is zero rent. However, many authors have pointed out that the rights of the vendors over the public spaces are always contested with the result that these operate constantly under threat. The government authorities tend to view vendors as the ones who congest the markets and create traffic chaos and are a blot on the beauty of the urban areas. Various authors (Bhowmik, 2001 & 2005; Donovan, 2008; Delvin, 2011; Saha, 2011; Bella, 2014; Xue, 2015; Batreau & Bonnet, 2016; Forkuor, 2017) have elucidated that the attitude of the government officials towards the vendors is full of negativity and they are always eager to evict them. The vendors in order to evade eviction, use bribe as a weapon.

Saha (2017) estimated that on an average a street vendor pays roughly 10 percent of their income as bribe. Some have even paid more than twenty percent of their income. Mitullah (2003) has even pointed out that as women vendors are easy targets and are unable to move each time eviction drive occurs, therefore, some of these are forced to offer sexual favor to the officials. This clearly reflects the harassment of the vendors. Thus, the vendors constantly work under threat and have to keep huge money to be given as bribe. This situation has emerged as the urban people and the authorities have a perception that these vendors are largely migrants and thus, have no right over the streets whereas they (urban people and the authorities) belong to the cities and have complete rights over the streets. Anjaria (2006) points out that most of these vendors have been living in the cities from the past fifteen to twenty years and even their children who were small at the start of vending have now taken over their parent's business. Hence, he contests the argument of street vendors being only migrants and establishes their claim over the public spaces. He has even elucidated that parking of vehicles by the city residents outside their homes is equally an unauthorized activity. Therefore, the researchers have tried to establish the case of vendors over the public spaces.

Street Vendors in Urban India

India, at the time of independence, had limited resources and income earning opportunities which led to the responsibility of attaining self-reliance. There were scores of responsibilities in terms of development of the people, area, sectors, classes etc. At that time, Indian planners believed that developing the modern industrial sector would absorb the excess labour supply from the traditional sector which comprised of agriculture, small scale industries etc. This has to be done by offering modern job opportunities by the industrial sector. It is expected that gradually, the labour supply would increase and once the whole supply would be absorbed then it would lead to an increase in wages. This approach has been considered the best approach to fix the problems of India. Hence, it has been expected that initially urban incomes would increase, and the rural incomes would also follow suite. In this trajectory of growth, industrial sector has been supposed to generate employment opportunities (Chen, 2012). One peculiar feature

of this sector is that it absorbs the skilled, semi-skilled as well as the unskilled workers i.e. educated or partially educated or illiterate. Workers which are unskilled, and illiterate can find only limited employment in the service sector and thus, it has been expected that the industrial sector would be the reservoir to absorb the transition of labour from the rural sector. However, this has failed to happen.

On one hand, the Indian industrial sector has shown poor growth of employment opportunities which led to huge implications for the overall economy, sectors, regions, and people. On the other hand, rising populations due to extensive disease control programs under the health Mission have increased the supply of labour. Also, shrinking farm incomes and the attractions of the urban areas motivated people to migrate to these cities to find jobs in formal sectors. However, the opposite happened as there are no or very few jobs for them in the formal sector and even these jobs are largely available for the skilled workers. Hence, the unskilled or the semi-skilled or illiterate have no option but to resort to informal sector. In India almost 93 percent of the labour force is employed in the informal sector. Out of this, a significant chunk is captured by the street vendors as it is a very lucrative occupation in terms of low initial investment and zero rent. This has led to the mushrooming of the vendors on urban roads in India which has caused severe reactions from the administration, residents and governments. The friction between the two sides has forced either of the sides to move to court.

In *Sodan Singh and others Vs New Delhi Municipal Committee* (1989) held that the right of the vendors to earn a living by working on the streets is limited to till they interfered with the rights of the others (Sundaram, 2008). This judgement has suggested that vending could coexist with the condition that others are not affected by it. However, this has been interpreted in a totally opposite way. After the judgement the authorities or the officials have carried out the eviction drives with full force as it has been interpreted that the vendors could be evicted as they have been interfering with the rights of the others.

In 1985, in *Municipal Corporation of Delhi vs Gurnam Kaur*, the vendors have put forth that their removal from the street would cause a threat to their life. However, the court has not accepted this argument and has concluded that there is no threat to their life but the court has suggested that hawker's and no hawker zones may be created in order to keep the city clean on one hand and protect the rights of the vendors on the other hand (Sundaram, 2008). Even in 1985, in *Bombay Hawkers Union and others vs BMC*, the Supreme court has asked the government to frame guidelines regarding street vending and for the creation of vending zones while also restricting the vendors from creating any permanent structure on the roads (Anjaria, 2006). Although the court has given certain positive judgements for creating vending zones but these have been created in selected areas or cities and that too has been done very late. However, such judgements have created a positive change in the attitude of the people / government towards the vendors and the street vending.

Earlier, the vendors have been regarded to be the 'creators of nuisance' and a blot on the cities but now many people have gradually realized that street vendors are a decisive part of social, economic, and political structure of the cities. As a result, the National Policy on Urban Street Vendors, was introduced first in 2004 and then in 2009. Both the policy documents have recognized the importance of street vending in providing the meaningful employment and valuable products & services for wide range of people. The policy introduced in 2004 has created a provision for earmarking vending zone and no vending zone whereas policy document issued in 2009 has advocated the division into three categories viz free vending zones, restricted vending zones and no vending zones. This policy has provisioned for three different types of street vending like stationery, peripatetic and mobile. There has been no provision for issuing licenses for street vending in 2009 policy and it has also failed to provide any regulations regarding allotment of space or site for stationery vendors (Sinha & Roeber, 2011). It is evident that government policy pertaining to regularizing the street vendors has been rarely followed in letter and spirit in the past. Even majority of authorities itself have remained oblivious of their obligations under such policies and no execution took place on the ground. Although Orissa has been an exception to this which recognized the street vendors in its state capital Bhubaneswar. Authorities in Bhubaneswar have clearly earmarked one third of space on pavements for street vendors and two third for the pedestrians (Bhowmik, 2010).

After years of struggle and resentment, a change has been witnessed in the Indian economy. In 2014, the Government of India introduced the Street Vendors (Protection of Livelihood and Regulation of Street Vending) Act. Introduction of this act tracks back to the year 2010 when verdict of a division bench of Supreme Court of India reiterated the right to street vending as a fundamental right protected under Article 19(1)(g) of the Constitution of India. It also mandated that a legislation be introduced by Government of India within a reasonable time period (Naik, 2013). This ruling caused a change in the perception about street vendors from nuisance creator to contributors to economy and provider of goods and services to a large section of society as per their convenience (Mathur, 2014).

The Street Vendors (Protection of Livelihood and Regulation of Street Vending) Act, 2014 aims at creating a social and economic environment which is conducive for pursuing street vending as livelihood. It is the first legislation which recognizes the contribution of street vendors and is applicable uniformly throughout the country. This Act 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, footpath, pavement, public park or any other public place or private area, from a temporary built up structure or by moving from place to place and includes hawker, peddler, squatter and all other synonymous terms which may be local or region specific; and the words "street vending" with their grammatical variations and cognate expressions, shall be construed accordingly" (GOI, 2014). It provides for setting up of town vending committees under the local authorities. This committee is to be

chaired by Municipal Commissioner and comprises of at least 40 percent members from street vendors. The other members of committee are appointed by government representing planning authority, medical and health department, traffic police, market associations, associations of street vendors, local NGOs etc. Town Vending Committee is responsible for registering the street vendors; publishing their charter; maintaining records of street vendors; issuing identity cards and certificates for street vending; and also, to conduct a survey of street vendors once in a period of 5 years. In order to ensure social and economic upliftment of under privileged sections of society, this act has created provision for preference of issuing certificates for street vending to persons belonging to scheduled casts, scheduled tribes, other backward casts, persons with disabilities, women and minority communities (GOI, 2014).

This committee is responsible for earmarking the area or space as free vending zone, restricted vending zone and no vending zones. While preparing street vending plan, town vending committee has to ensure that not more than 2.5 percent of the population of area is accommodated in the plan for street vending. It has to consider the right of commuters to move freely and has also to create the provision of a reasonable area or space for street vending. This act recognizes primarily two types of vending – stationary and mobile but at the same time legislation is flexible enough to consider any other category also.

The certificate of vending issued by Town Vending committee would specify the vending zone, category of vending, days and timings allotted to vendor (Mathur, 2014). This act gives right to street vendors to carry out the vending in accordance to terms & conditions mentioned in the certificate of vending but are not at all permitted to carry any such activities in areas earmarked as no vending zones. Under the provisions of the act, street vendors are responsible to remove their goods from site at the end of vending period, maintenance of cleanliness, public

hygiene, and civic amenities in the vending zone. They may require paying maintenance charges as well for amenities provided by local authority (GOI, 2014). To ensure social upliftment of street vendors, this act has created provision for extension of social security schemes for street vendors registered with town vending committees. In addition, registered vendors are entitled for availing credit from banks under different schemes of government of India.

This Act seems to alter the fate of street vendors. However, the actual picture is too dark which has made open the reality of the false claims of government of emancipating the lives of street vendors and underlines the agony and distress of the street vendors despite having an Act for their welfare.

Conclusion

Street vending is an imperative economic activity which is most visible and a vibrant segment of informal economy. Studies in India and across the globe highlight significant growth in the number of people involved in street vending. They are the marginalized citizens with no or very low level of education. It is the most lucrative employment opportunity for unskilled urban poor as well as rural migrant labour. Negligible investment, informality of work, and own choice of schedule for selling makes street vending as most viable employment in urban areas. In India, the Street Vending Act has overthrown the benefit of informality as now one cannot street vend without getting registered with town vending committee. This disadvantage still comes with a package of other benefits like being regularized as street vendor will lead to overall opportunity for social and economic upliftment. Street vendors are now in position to save themselves from the exploitation in the hand of enforcement agencies and local residents. One of the biggest concerns about this legislation is the implementation at the ground level to ensure that livelihood and fundamental rights of street vendors are adequately and equally protected.

References

- Alva, R. J. (2014). The Street Vendors (Protection of Livelihood and Regulation of Street Vending) Bill, 2013: Is the Cure Worse Than the Disease? *Statute Law Review*, 35(2), 181-202. doi:10.1093/slr/hmt021
- Anjaria, J. S. (2006). Street Hawkers and Public Space in Mumbai. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 41(21), 2140-2146. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/4418270>
- Austin, R. (1994). "An Honest Living": Street Vendors, Municipal Regulation, and the Black Public Sphere. *The Yale Law Journal*, 103(8), 2119-2131. doi:10.2307/797041
- Batreau, Q., & Bonnet, F. (2016). Managed Informality: Regulating Street Vendors in Bangkok. *City & Community*, 15(1), 29-43.
- Bell, J. S., & Loukaitou-Sideris, A. (2014). Sidewalk Informality: An Examination of Street Vending Regulation in China. *International Planning Studies*, 19(3-4), 221-243. doi:10.1080/13563475.2014.880333
- Bhowmik, S. K. (2001). Hawkers and the urban informal sector: a study of street vending in seven cities. *Prepared for National Alliance of Street Vendors in India (NASVI)*. Retrieved from <http://wiego.org/sites/wiego.org/files/publications/files/Bhowmik-Hawkers-URBAN-INFORMAL-SECTOR.pdf>
- Bhowmik, S. K. (2003). National Policy for Street Vendors. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 38(16), 1543-1546. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/4413453>
- Bhowmik, S. K. (2005). Street Vendors in Asia: A Review. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 40(22/23), 2256-2264. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/4416705>
- Bhowmik, S. K. (2010). Legal Protection for Street Vendors. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 45(51), 12-15. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/25764233>
- Bromley, R. (2000). Street Vending and Public Policy: A Global Review *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 20(1/2).
- Brown, A., Lyons, M., & Dankoco, I. (2010). Street Traders and the Emerging Spaces for Urban Voice and Citizenship in African Cities. *Urban Studies*, 47(3), 666-683. doi:10.1177/0042098009351187
- Carrieri, A. d. P., & Murta, I. B. D. (2011). Cleaning up the City: A Study on the Removal of Street Vendors from Downtown Belo Horizonte, Brazil. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences / Revue Canadienne des Sciences de l'Administration*, 28(2), 217-225.

- doi:10.1002/cjas.207.
13. Chen, M. A. (2012). *The Informal Economy: Definitions, Theories and Policies*. Working Paper, No-1. Women in Informal Employment Globalizing and Organizing. Manchester, United Kingdom.
 14. Dalwadi, Shreya. (2010). 'Integrating Street Vendors in City Planning: The Case of Vadodara' in Bhowmik, S. (2010). *Street Vendors in the Global Urban Economy*. New York: Routledge.
 15. Devlin, R. T. (2011). 'An area that governs itself': Informality, uncertainty and the management of street vending in New York City. *Planning Theory*, 10(1), 53-65. doi:10.1177/1473095210386070
 16. Dimas, H. (2008). Street Vendors: urban problem and economic potential. *Fakultas Ekonomi Universitas Padjajaran. Bandung*.
 17. Forkuor, J. B., Akuoko, K. O., & Yeboah, E. H. (2017). Negotiation and Management Strategies of Street Vendors in Developing Countries: A Narrative Review. *SAGE Open*, 7(1), 2158244017691563. doi:10.1177/2158244017691563
 18. Gaber, J. (1994). Manhattan's 14th Street Vendors' Market: Informal Street Peddlers' Complementary Relationship With New York City's Economy. *Urban Anthropology and Studies of Cultural Systems and World Economic Development*, 23(4), 373-408. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/40553272>
 19. GOI. (2014). *The Street Vendors (Protection of Livelihood and Regulation of Street Vending) Act, 2014* Government of India. New Delhi.
 20. ILO. (1972). *Employment, Incomes and Equality: A Strategy for Increasing Productive Employment in Kenya*. Retrieved from International Labour Office, Geneva: https://www.ilo.org/public/libdoc/ilo/1972/72B09_608_engl.pdf
 21. Indira, D. (2014). A study of street vending across the globe. *International Journal of Advanced Research in Computer Science and Software Engineering*, 4(9), 514-519.
 22. Kusakabe, K. (2006). Policy issues on Street Vending: An Overview of Studies in Thailand, Cambodia and Mongolia. *International Labour Office, Bangkok*. Retrieved from http://www.oit.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/documents/publication/wcms_bk_pb_119_en.pdf
 23. Maneepong, C., & Walsh, J. C. (2013). A new generation of Bangkok Street vendors: Economic crisis as opportunity and threat. *Cities*, 34, 37-43.
 24. Mathur, N. (2014). The Street Vendors Bill: Opportunities and Challenges. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 49(10), 22-25. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/24479222>
 25. Mitullah, W. V. (2003). *Street vending in African cities: A synthesis of empirical finding from Kenya, Cote d'Ivoire, Ghana, Zimbabwe, Uganda and South Africa*. Background Paper for 2005 World Development Report. Institute for Development Studies, University of Nairobi. Kenya.
 26. Morales, A. (1997). Uncertainty and the Organization of Street Vending Businesses. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 17(3/4), 191-212. doi:10.1108/eb013305
 27. Morales, A. (2000). Peddling policy: street vending in historical and contemporary contest. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 20(3/4), 76-98.
 28. Naik, A. (2013). Contextualising urban livelihoods: Street vending in India. Available at SSRN: <https://ssrn.com/abstract=2238589>.
 29. Nattrass, N. J. (1987). Street trading in Transkei—a struggle against poverty, persecution, and prosecution. *World Development*, 15(7), 861-875.
 30. Ray, C., & Mishra, A. (2011). *Vendors and informal sector: A case-study of street vendors of Surat City*. Centre for Urban Equity. Working Paper-15. CEPT University.
 31. Roever, S. (2016). Street Vendors and Legal Reform in India, South Africa, and Peru Informal Trade Meets Informal Governance. *Cityscape*, 18(1), 27-46. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/26328239>
 32. Roever, S., & Skinner, C. (2016). Street vendors and cities. *Environment and Urbanization*, 28(2), 359-374. doi:10.1177/0956247816653898
 33. Saha, D. (2009). Decent work for the street vendors in Mumbai, India—a distant vision! *Journal of Workplace Rights*, 14(2).
 34. Saha, D. (2011). Working life of street vendors in Mumbai. *The Indian Journal of Labour Economics*, 54, 301-325.
 35. Saha, D. (2012). *Street Vendors in Mumbai: An Exploration Within the Framework of Decent Work*. (Ph. D). Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Mumbai, India.
 36. Saha, D. (2017). *Informal Markets, Livelihood and Politics: Street Vendors in Urban India*. New York: Routledge.
 37. Sinha, S., & Roever, S. (2011). *India's National Policy on Urban Street Vendors*. Wiego Policy Brief (Urban Policies). Policy Brief (Urban Policies) No - 2. Women in Informal Employment Globalizing and Organizing. Manchester, United Kingdom. Retrieved from https://www.wiego.org/sites/default/files/migrated/publications/files/Sinha_WIEGO_PB2.pdf
 38. Sundaram, S. S. (2008). National Policy for Urban Street Vendors and Its Impact. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 43(43), 22-25. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/40278095>
 39. thewire.in. (2018). Nearly 81% of the Employed in India are in the Informal Sector: ILO. Retrieved from <https://thewire.in/labour/nearly-81-of-the-employed-in-india-are-in-the-informal-sector-ilo>
 40. Xue, D., & Huang, G. (2015). Informality and the state's ambivalence in the regulation of street vending in transforming Guangzhou, China. *Geoforum*, 62, 156-165.
 41. Yatmo, Y. A. (2009). Perception of street vendors as 'out of place' urban elements at daytime and night time. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 29(4), 467-476.