

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A review of the previous studies on the status of women workers in the informal sector is necessary to know the areas already covered. Several studies have stated the contribution of women street vendors, their economic condition, health profile and the status of street vendors. This will help to find out new areas to be explored and to study them in depth. The important studies done earlier are classified under the following heads.

#### **2.1 Importance of Informal sector**

#### **2.2 Women employment**

#### **2.3 Status of Street vendors**

#### **2.4 Problems and Challenges faced by women street vendors**

#### **2.5 Related studies**

#### **2.1 Importance of Informal sector**

The low cost of entry makes street hawking and vending an agreeable option for women who need to earn their living. The female participation in the informal sector is majorly due to economic compulsion rather than by any change in the working ethos of the society. According to the National Sample Survey Office (NSSO 2019), almost 82 percentage of India's workforce is employed in the unorganized sector. The National Commission of women highlights that 94 percentage of the total female workforce is in the unorganised sector.

The informal economy acts as a crucial part of the economy as it provides employment, income, and services for majority of the citizens. **(Heinonen 2008)** Around 80 percent of the slum dwellers earn their income from informal sources. Many legislations, fines and penalties and emotional stress had created many obstacles in the process of development. He therefore argued for effective legal framework for the betterment of workers in informal sector.

Poverty and lack of profitable employment in the rural area drive the people to move towards the urban centres. These people are not educated or skilled so they cannot get into the highly paid jobs in the formal sector. They depend on the informal job mainly for their survival. This has resulted in the rapid growth of informal sector in the various cities. Unlike other formal sectors there is no need for much financial investment for under taking a business in informal sector **(Bhowmik 1998)**.

The first Indian National Commission on Labour (1966 - 69) defined unorganized sector workforce as those workers who have not been able to organize themselves in pursuit of their common interest due to certain constraints like casual nature of employment, ignorance and illiteracy, small and scattered size of establishments.

**Sethuraman (1976)** is of the view that informal sector or enterprises are located in or near slum areas. A vast majority of them either has no premises at all to carry on their business and their work is carried out in tents, shacks or other temporary structures. Most have no access to water or electricity. Frequently they are situated far from the market where they must sell their goods and services. In many countries the authorities have applied a variety of restrictive policies to this sector, forcing enterprise to move on account of over-crowding, health considerations, traffic congestion, environmental or aesthetic factors, because the land they occupy does not belong to them.

**Ghose (1983)** stated that informal sector accounts for a major share of employment. An estimate reveals that the income generated by a worker in the informal sector was Rs. 570/- in 1960 -61 and Rs. 2580 in 1979 – 80, where as in the formal sector it was Rs. 2333 in 1960 - 61 and Rs. 12391 in 1979 – 80.

Micro level studies on specific sectors and industries had shown that women's employment had increased mainly in the unorganized and informal sector activities and that they were concentrated in the lower rungs of employment (**Banerjee and Nirmala 1985**) observed an increase in the participation of women in the Kolkata labour force, due to a combination of high male unemployment, falling urban living standards and some increase in employment of a semi or unskilled kind for which women workers are positively preferred. He opines that precise effects of women's participation in wage work on the family based household have received little detailed attention until recently.

An attempt was made to relate women's participation and involvement in khadi industries and household situation particularly in terms of economic contribution by women, time use pattern and combination and conflict of khadi work with other productive work and household chores. (**Pande and Papola 1985**).

**Deshpande (1996)** conducted a study and pointed out the awful conditions of women workers in the informal sector. Ignorance, tradition bound attitudes, illiteracy, lack of skills, seasonal nature of employment, heavy physical work of different types, long hours of work with limited payment, sex discrimination in wage structures, lack of guarantee of minimum wages/comprehensive legislation/ minimum facilities; migration and disintegration of families, bondage and alienation etc are some characteristics of employment of women in this

sector. But these unattractive sectors still involve many women because they search these jobs for their livelihood **Cauvery et.al, (1993)** also analysed the awful condition of women labourers in the unorganized sector.

**Funkhouser (1996)** examined the patterns of employment and structure of earning in the urban informal sector in five Central American countries like Guatemala, El – Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua and Costa Rica. He established that the size of informal employment was between 60 – 75 per cent of labour force in the first three countries while in Costa Rica it was about 30 -33 per cent. In Nicaragua it varied from 45 to 63 per cent. There had been considerable returns to human capital and experience in the informal sector in each country.

**Tripathy (1996)** attempted a study on unorganized women workers. He points out that the activities of informal sector in which women employed in large numbers face seasonal nature of employment, heavy physical work and ignorance which are some of the commonalities of informal women workers. He emphasises the need to educate and organize the unorganized women labourers.

**Jeemol (1997)** in her article on women in the informal sector analysed the size and contribution of women to gross domestic product. Various dimensions of women at work were discussed and the paucity of statistics and the growing international recognition of their work were highlighted. The informal sector in Kerala depicted an increase in women's employment. The women's earning contributes substantially to the household. However, the women have to cope up with physical hardship which has an impact on their lives (**Eapen 2000**).

The urban informal economy plays an important role in employment creation and labour absorption in the urban areas and this helps in increasing the income and assets. It also plays a dominant role in poverty alleviation. They had only primary education and they lacked access to credit facilities and also faced regulations from the Government which limited their free functioning (**Reddy et al 2001**).

The informal sector operates with cheaper labour. Lack of labour protection, no minimum wage, no health insurance, no unemployment insurance, and no work safety standards makes their life miserable. **Bhowmik, (2003)** opines that worker whose jobs are now out sourced have no choice except to enter the informal sector.

**Helen and Sekar (2004)** conducted a study on “Vulnerabilities and Insecurities of Informal Sector Workers” to capture and identify better working conditions and other characteristics related to street vending in the city of Noida. The broad objectives of the study are specifically to identify and highlight the special needs of vendors, especially women and

child vendors, with a view to advice possible strategies to address their vulnerabilities and insecurities, as well as needs for support in the area of market access, vocational and life skills development for the enhanced employability, improving working conditions. The study found insecurities among the vendors and harsh treatment faced by them.

**Murray (2006)** notes that “informal workers, especially women, would benefit significantly from “empowering” skills, ranging from negotiation skills to knowledge of their legal rights, and organization skills so that they can participate in associations that can lobby on their behalf”.

**Drajit (2009)** wanted to measure the economic importance of the informal sector in Indian economy by its share, growth and composition from the year 1970 to 2006. Informal sector employment is generally a larger source of employment for women than for men in the developing world. The urban informal sector largely absorbs women workers.

**Tasnim and Rana (2009)** analyzed the contribution of informally employed women (for the age group of 16 – 60 years) to their household budget. It was found that women’s education and ownership of assets by women have a positive effect on their contribution. The burden of the large family size, household poverty, and loans availed by the households are shared by the informally employed women. Age of the women has a non – linear effect on woman’s contribution. The contribution first increases and then decreases by an increase in the age of the women. Married women and women living in nuclear families contribute more to the household budget. The household’s per capita income and number of children (5 – 15 years) in the households have shown a negative effect on the contribution of women to the household budget. The household’s economic vulnerability due to unemployment of husband and lower productivity caused by lower education of husband are also largely shared by the urban informally employed women, i.e., they struggle more for family survival. Majority of the women working in informal sector are mainly contributing in household budget due to pressure of unmet households so an increase in income and productivity of informally employed urban women may have trickle down effects on reduction of household poverty and burden on women.

A study on women in informal sector by **Geetha (2010)** focused on different types of socio – economic problems of female workers in urban informal sector. The study was based on primary data and the details were collected from 100 female workers working in various activities in the informal sector. Findings revealed that females in informal sector were overburdened with their work and many are exploited. It was recommended that policy

should be prepared and appropriate steps need to be taken to improve the working and living conditions of female workers in this sector.

**Alam (2012)** pointed out that in most cases women have to work more than 10 hours (54.8 percent) every day, 46 percent reported that they work almost seven days a week; they get only half a day as holiday per week. They only have the opportunities of governmental holidays, however holidays and vacation mainly depends on the temperament of the employer or the owner. He found that workers in the informal sector have no training and no safety precaution. They do not get the needed holidays and have to work 10 – 12 hours every day. The workers of the informal sector are the most exploited and they are not in a position of enjoying any decent work condition. In this study only 15 percent respondents were aware of their rights. A worker in the informal sector knows about the trade union and labour rights but they are not in any position of getting those facilities from their owner.

A working paper on impact of current financial crisis on the employment of street vendors by **Dhungel (2011)** in their working paper on impact of current financial crisis on the employment of street vendors revealed that street vending was not just the source of occupation for the individuals who do not discover openings in different segments yet in addition an investment open door for the business visionaries to such an extent that the venture had an attractive return. There was a great deal of investors who enlisted representatives to get to the avenues and offer their goods. Countless sellers do not invest any personal capital and work as employees for their creditors. Investors see the street as a decent place to put resources into business. A considerable lot of the stores that sold comparative items enlist workers to go to the street and offer their products. Street vending was a tremendous opening for the small investors who don't have enough to set up a store.

**Fapohunda (2012)** stated that employment opportunities in the formal sector are often denied to women because of family responsibilities, lack of skills, social and cultural barriers. The informal sector is often the only possibility for women to get access to employment and to earn an income. Consequently women dominate the informal sector. Policies and developments affecting the informal economy thus have a distinctly gendered effect. The informal sector has a high labour – absorption capacity and there is the need to increase the level of stimulation of employment opportunities. He concluded that the informal sector has its challenges especially for women, such as inaccessibility of credit and other problems. Partnerships must be built with the emerging associations of women to women at affordable rates. With the private sector assisting government, efforts are needed to get credit to women.

A more enlightened, more equitable form of intervention that provides a more appropriate and flexible regulatory framework is needed.

A study on job satisfaction of women employees in unorganized sector with special reference to Tamil Nadu was carried out by **Vanitha (2012)**. Women are an element of source of income in modern society. The civilized pattern of life system needs the support of viable economic resources and that can be brought by more than one earning in every family. In this aspect unorganized sectors give economic support to women in terms of regular employment, but at the same time the job security and working environment in unorganized sectors do not facilitate the proper job satisfaction among the employees and especially women employees who undergo work pressure, poor work support, lack of lucrative wages, inconvenience and so on. Due to this the job satisfaction among women employees turned to be inconsistent. The study found that working environment related factors, work status, income and working conditions are poor. Under environmental related factors, the support of government, the attitude towards job and work life balance with respect to their jobs were identified as the factors that lead to job satisfaction among women employees working in unorganized sector.

**Mahadevia et.al, (2013)** in their study mentioned that 80 percent of vendors in Ahmadabad had an informal arrangement to secure space, which regularly involves week by week or monthly payments and it is difficult for new merchants to get space in the business sectors. New merchants can just go to the territory when a place is cleared. Further, it was specified that one merchant paid Rs. 5000/- to the mediators for a store, returnable when he takes off. He additionally paid a month lease of Rs.3000/- to the middlemen, which is expanded to Rs. 3500 during festivals. He imparts capacity to four other merchants which cost him Rs. 750/-a month. Therefore it is very hard for street vendors to continue in the business.

**Indira (2014)** observed that the non -agricultural employment share of the informal workforce is 78 percentages in Africa, 57 percentage in Latin America and 45-85 percentage in Asia. It has been found that self-employment comprises a greater share of informal employment than wage employment. It has been identified that there has been a mushroom growth in the number of street vendors in the major Asian cities especially after the financial crisis of 1998. The study further envisaged that although street vendors are prevalent in all countries and contributing significantly to the respective economies governments have not framed formal laws towards making the sector hassle free. These people usually have low skills and lack in the level of education required for the better paid jobs in the formal sector.

Besides, this protected jobs in the formal sector are shrinking hence even those have the requisite skills are unable to find proper employment (**Alfie 2014**).

**Muna Kalyani (2016)** found that the informal sector is not regulated by government under any statute, but its contribution to the economy, is quite visible and its strength in absorbing a huge portion of unemployed persons to whom the State is unable to provide adequate employment. It becomes the duty of the policy makers to device such policies which can take care of the problems faced by the informal sector workforce.

**Roberts (1991)** pointed out the multiplicity of reasons why the informal economy is growing and crucial for development. The informal economy retains a higher number of workers than the formal one because individual's utility of income is higher in the informal economy and there is a large market of cheaply produced goods and services. A capitalist also employs informal labour to reduce costs when compared to employing formal labour. With the development of globalization in developing countries, outsourcing in the informal economy creates dynamic sources for garments, foot wear and toy industries.

## **2.2 Women employment**

The female participation in the informal sector is majorly due to economic compulsion rather than any change in the working ethos of the society. According to the National Sample Survey Office (NSSO), almost 82 Percentage of India's workforce is employed in the unorganised sector. Therefore, it is natural that there exists a correlation between the vulnerable segments of society and the underprivileged.

Women remain concentrated in "invisible" areas of informal work, such as domestic labour piece-rate homework, and assistance in small family enterprises, which offer precarious employment status, low, irregular or no remuneration, little or no access to social security or protection, and limited ability to organize to ensure the enforcement of international labour standards and human rights (**ILO 2008**). Women in India in informal sector frequently adopts the role of domestic help and street vendor, involving in vegetable or fruit vending activities or maintaining or running a food corner in a street. These women face all the hardship. They earn their livelihood through their own meagre financial resources by selling products on the streets. In all Indian cities, street vendors provide a wide variety of goods of daily needs ranging from fruits and vegetables to clothes, utensils and many others at a low cost.

Women constitute a prominent disadvantaged social group, tend to particularly attract to street vending because a significant portion of the women belonging to the weaker and deprived section of the population look for employment in the informal sector because of lack of skill, maximum flexibility in terms of combining work and child care (**Chinchilla et.al, 1993**).

**Cohen Monique (1984)** pointed out that many street food vendors are women and many of these women are heads of households. In some cities this is the dominant activity for women. It requires skills that many women already have, minimal capital outlays, and trading in street foods allows for an accommodation of women's other responsibilities as reproducers and managers. 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 (**Bhowmik 2001**) Street vendors 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 merchandise on cloth or plastic sheets, or mobile vendors who walk or peddle their bicycles through the streets as they sell (**ILO 2002**).

**Jhabvala (2000)** described the conditions related to work of street vendors. **Monique et.al, (2002)** stated that the women traders is not much capable compared to men trader in areas like education, skill, income and employment and experience. Women lag behind men in these aspects.

Women have contributed directly and indirectly for productivity increase in Europe (**Jason et al., 2005**) comments about the direct contribution from workers in the paid economy. They contribute not only in terms of money but also in raising children and being productive in the economy.

**Kapunda and Mmolawa (2007)** showed that self – employment in Botswana was increasing which helped in poverty alleviation especially among women and the youth. The study showed that the income and welfare of those who joined the informal sector has improved. The study also urged to encourage the informal sector so that it can contribute to government revenue for general development of the economy.

**Bhowmik Sharit et al., (2007)** examined the reasons for people choosing street hawking as their profession, their fight for public space, various issues relating to organizing street vendors, the formation of various organizations supporting the right of street vendors,

credit and social security of street vendors. Whenever eviction drives are conducted their wares are confiscated or destroyed. In order to overcome these restrictions street vendors organize themselves into unions that enable them to continue their activities. In fact in all the larger cities trade unions representing different political hues try to mobilize street vendors. Some of these trade unions are independent organizations but most of them are affiliated of the larger trade union federations. It has been found that as street vendors are a part of the urban informal sector they have little or no access to institutional credit. This makes them dependent on private money lenders who charge high rates of interests or they depend on their savings as working capital.

**Dimas Harlan (2008)** in his paper on 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. **DebdulSaha (2009)** regards street vendors as the most deprived sections of the self - employed workers. He explained the financial conditions and the extent of indebtedness, the amount of bribes they have to pay, their working hours, the issues of public space utilisation, and the legal aspect of their activity. The study showed that the street vendors borrow from money lenders not merely for their economic activity but also for social security purposes at an exorbitant rate of interest, which, lead them to fall in debt-trap. The study also found that that they have long working hours and they do not have safety or security at the workplace. It is also heartening that they face constant harassment from the local authorities. All these result in deteriorating working environment as well as economic deprivation for street vendors.

**Orly May (2010)** highlighted that across the developing world, women in the informal economy, unprotected by government provisions and exploited by patriarchal structures, work relentlessly to earn a living for themselves and their families. Within these treacherous conditions, the Self Employed Women's Association (SEWA) emerged and developed into a powerful force in India and beyond. Drawing on social movement theory, she put forth a three - phase framework that allows one to theoretically understand SEWA's emergence. The three phases – providing selective incentives, creating a common identity and shared purpose, and ensuring continuity – each depend on both organizational inputs and environmental factors. Street vending sector is an important sector that is providing employment and income to the rural poor people in urban sector. **Dipak et al., (2011)** examined whether the income from business of the people doing street business in Kathmandu Metropolitan city increases with

the rate of increase in investment, education and labor supply. In this study all the variables chosen to explain the incomes of the street vendors of Kathmandu Metropolitan city are highly significant. There is positive relationship between dependent and independent variables. Generally street vending requires less investment and the income from that investment is satisfactory for at least sustaining a family in the city. This study found that even though the level of income and profit in this sector's activities are lower than from other business, more people are involved into the vending business. It is because of the lack of employment opportunities in other sectors in the economy. The widely involved population in the street vending business is the rural population. The rural population by and large is involved in agriculture. As each individual possesses a small area of land to cultivate, it becomes difficult to sustain the family as it grows. Therefore large number of population is involved in trade in the street to earn livelihood. If street vending can be brought under the legality, and if the taxes can be collected it will groom as one of the best forms of entrepreneurship that make sizeable contribution to the economy.

**Gupta et al., (2011)** asserted that there are limited opportunities available to women and that too in mostly low paid, low – status jobs in the informal sector and these jobs do not have any possibilities of betterment, advancement of efficiency or training, to enable them to enter better jobs at a later stage. In the overall state of unemployment and lack of opportunities, women hold a secondary place to men in the race of employment. It has been observed that women find it difficult to enter the structured system of organized sector. It is also found, that there is no economic reason for paying lower wages or giving only a particular type of work to women workers. When they work for themselves, their wages and work is quite comparable with those of male workers for example in case of vendors. There is discrimination in wages, nature of work, and availability of work on the basis of sex. Bargaining power is mostly with the employers, so exploitation is naturally the fate of these poor workers. They come from that section of the society which must work to earn their livelihood and which is socially, economically and traditionally backward and least privileged.

There is absence of job security in the private sector. **Joseph (2011)** pointed out that 60 percent of the workers searched for occupations in the formal area before taking part in street vending. Most of the respondents (50.6 percent) demonstrated that street vending was the main option left for them in the wake of neglecting to secure wage business.

**Balasubramanian et al., (2012)** conducted a study by taking a sample of 68 women street vendors in Thanjavur. The study revealed that it is the poor economic condition of

women which makes them engage in street vending. The study suggested that there is a possibility to see some good to this community if they follow certain regularization as suggested in the National Policy on Urban Street Vendors.

**Goswami and Chandra (2012)** in their research paper on empowering women street vendors through micro – financing focused on the problem faced by them in procuring financial resources. The researchers used snowball sampling method and selected 50 vendors. The study explained that most of the women invested own money for their business and 30 per cent of the vendors are saving money in bank accounts and other financial institutions. This study suggested that the vendors can improve their business if the vendors are given the formal education.

**Millman Heather (2012)** highlighted that women vendors often establish a more intimate interaction with their clients than their male counterparts.

**Raman and Rakesh (2012)** conducted a study on women food and vegetable vendors in northern India and found that most women vendors are socially backward and economically deprived sections of the society. They are characterized by illiteracy, a low resource base, lack of opportunities for growth and exploitation. Women are forced to work for 12 – 14 hours a day for earning meagre amounts. In this low amount which is not sufficient to make both ends meet, let alone ensure proper upbringing of their children and provide a decent life for them, the largely unorganized women vendors are totally unprotected. They face all kinds of exploitation from all possible agencies including harassment and beatings; their belongings are snatched, and they are often dislocated and forced to face uncertainty of business without any social security or support women vendors is complicated by the absence of basic civic amenities in the market.

**Sharma Khema (2012)** investigated the changing scenario of employment of women in informal sector in India. Much of female employment in India is self - employment and unpaid work (in family owned enterprises). Their contribution in terms of income generation turns out to be less than their male counterparts, which means almost half of the population, contribute to less than half to the national income. But the share of wage employment in total female employment is rising in all regions, but very slowly. Informal employment in the form of own account and unpaid work therefore may have declined slightly, but it is still important for women in India. Many of the workers identified are engaged in petty trading, services repairs, transport and small manufacturing activities which are independent, self – employed producers, some of whom employ family labour or a few additional workers. The most comprehensive set of statistics now available on aspects of employment in the informal

economy relates to these self – employed workers. In the absence of direct measures of those employed in the informal economy, self – employment provides an indicator of a major component of employment in the informal economy. New government measures are required which give priority to the development of the informal sector, supported by the integration of informal sector initiatives into existing government policies. Similarly, policies relating to income generation for women need to be interlinked with general government policies rather than risk marginalization by adopting women specific policies in quality of employment.

**Zona Bhuyan and Mohapatra (2012)** pointed out a strong relationship between the demographic attribute and the economic characteristics of the women in informal sector. They revealed that women belonging to lower socio economic status were more prone to enter into the informal sector however those who are already in the informal sector were able to improve their socio economic status.

The streets of every city in the country are not only home to thousands of working poor and destitute men and women; they are also vibrant hubs of livelihood for impoverished people, and reliable sites for cheap and affordable retail. On city pavements, women and men energetically hawk variety of goods including fruit and vegetables, clothing, toys, books, household utilities and newspapers. **Bhat and Aasif (2013)** studied the lives of the street vendors who are regularly offering their service from dawn to dusk in the Kashmir valley. Convenience sampling has been used to collect the data from 200 respondents. The study revealed that most of the respondents enter into street vending from poor illiterate families and were working seven to ten hours daily. There was no significant difference between the earnings of male and female and majority of them were satisfied with their occupation. The study revealed that most of the street vendors were in the age group of 25 to 45 years old. However despite variety of occupations and long working hours, they were satisfied as they were earning enough to meet their family needs. The study pointed out that vending is a profitable business and contributes to the economy in a huge way besides being a form of self – employment which brings down the number of unemployment in the country.

**Rao and Suryanarayana et al., (2013)** consider that with the entry of younger women in the export processing zones, market segmentation is being accentuated; female dominated jobs are being devalued, degraded and least paid. Though this does not augur well for women from contributing to family survival, and studies do not want which highlight that it is women who settle down in the labour market as flower/ fruit vendors, domestic servants and allow the men to find suitable job leisurely or improve their skill.

**Tavonya Njaya (2014)** highlighted factors influencing the vendors and also reported

their problems by taking a sample size of 145 street vendors in Zimbabwe. The factors that made them to venture into street vending were quick and easy avenue to make a subsistence income as there are limited jobs in the formal economy. The study pointed out overcrowding as a major obstacle which led to other issues in the open area.

**Jaishankar and Sujatha (2016)** selected street vendors who were selling vegetables and home appliances through vehicles. The objective of the study was to identify the causes behind street vending, challenges faced by street vendors, highlight the importance of street vendors and measures taken by the Government to prevent the harassment of street vendors by police and other authorities. The author suggested improvement in the working conditions, social protection and life skill development to improve the level of profitability.

In this modern world, street vendors are playing an important role in satisfying the consumer's day to day needs, states **Mohamed and Ramya (2016)**. Most of the Consumers are dependent on them. In earlier days, men only took part in the business but nowadays women also take part in it and they also face lots of problem than men. Majority of the street vendors have started the business on their own owing to self-motivation and interest with their own minimum capital investment.

**Njaya and Stanley (2016)** observed that women vendors try to keep up with stiff competition from other street vendors. They have to take key responsibilities in child care and other household chores while men occupy bigger vending space and more strategic vending area; low investment of start-up capital or investment during their course of business. Most women opting for perishable goods like vegetables and fruits for vending are some of the contributing factors of low income for women vendors. Women enter this venture as a survival strategy when they have no other venture that they can rely on as they required low capital investment, rather only working capital.

**Rani and Monisha (2016)** focused on the women working in the unorganized sector. Women household workers have a double burden and there is greater demand for their skills as caregivers and service workers outside but they also work inside doing the same work which is unpaid. The author points out that India's labour legislation need to be shaped for the betterment of the women.

Women street vendors in Cuddalore town play a very important role by accelerating employment and income generation. The reason behind the increase of women street vendors now – a – days may be seen as a means of survival and livelihood strategy, states **Manickavasagam (2018)**. Though they are exposed to many challenges in vending, some officials and welfare associations help the smooth functioning of vending activities. In spite of

different forms of harassment and lack of protection, female vendors contribute to overall urban economy in terms of employment and cheap availability of goods and services.

### **2.3 Status of street vendors**

A significant proportion of the female global workforce earn their livelihood in the informal economy, e.g. As dependent wage earners in informal and formal enterprises, and as self-employed or own-account entrepreneurs in a wide range of workplaces (i.e. at home, in shops, on streets). They include, inter alia, domestic workers, construction workers, street vendors, waste pickers, home-based workers and day labourers. While work in the informal economy can take various forms, women tend to be employed in or occupy the most vulnerable and the lowest-paid jobs. The unorganised sector covers most of the rural labour and a substantial part of urban labour activities carried out by small and family enterprises, partly or wholly with family labour. In this sector wage-paid labour is largely non-unionised due to casual and seasonal nature of employment and scattered location of enterprises. This sector is marked by low incomes, unstable and irregular employment, and lack of protection either from legislation or trade unions. Street vending is an informal sector where vendors offer their labour to sell goods and services on the street without having any permanent structure of their own. Various studies have shown that it is one of the marginalized sections of the urban poor as this occupation is widely seen in urban public spaces. To an average income earning person, this profession allows dynamic role in the economy providing all the necessary durables at cheap and affordable rates. This helps to generate employment and income and sustain the economy. It is growing because it not only provides employment, but also provides services to the urban population. Urban youth prefer to buy clothes and accessories from street vendors because the products the vendors sell are typically cheaper than those found in formal retail outlets.

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 viz: vendors who sell in places where people assemble, such as markets and bus terminals. Vendors who sell on the street who poses the problems of congestion and obstruction and vendors who sell in a bazaar or periodic market where they sell on a piece of public or private land.

**Perdigon (1986)** in his study noted that the daily net income of the food vendors ranged from a low Rs.10 per day to as higher than Rs.500 per day. Street vending was found to be a

source for family needs. Majority of the vendors were married. They were income earners and food provider. The vending places were congested. The vending operation was assisted by their kin or some hired workers. The vendors sold food every day of the week, putting in 12 or more hours of work per day. The working capital was taken from the operator's personal savings.

**Mukherji and Neelam (1987)** identified the factors determining socio-economic backwardness in women with the sample survey conducted at Bhagalpur Town among the age group of 15-35 years. The schedule consisted of the indicators of social, educational, economic and other categories of women. The findings of the study are that the lower class of urban women are not so lagging behind in social status when compared to rural women and the economic status of lower class women considerably go down due to their lack of training and skill. The business class women received more government financial aid. The studies suggested starting various training centres and also intensifying adult education programmes.

A study on the socio-economic conditions of women domestic workers in slums of Pudur by **Ravichandran (1987)** revealed that 50 per cent of the women workers were illiterate and another 44 per cent had primary education. **Francie (1998)** conducted a study on women street vendors in urban South Africa, and found that female vendors had low level of education. **Cross (1998)** found that the street vendors are 'exposed to weather fluctuation, poor income, boredom, long working hours, and long and inconvenient trips to purchase merchandise.

**Alizon Draper (1996)** pointed out that street food trade expansion is linked with urbanization and the need of urban populations resort to street vending for both employment and food.

**Rajeev and Sharma (2000)** made a socio-economic analysis on women and work in Urban India. The objective of the study was to explore the socio-economic correlation of the female labour force participation rate and the regional variation and the analysis of the trend and pattern of female employment in urban areas. As compared to men, the rate of women participation is quite low in India. There is a significant increase in the casual female labours than male. Share of self-employment has declined for Urban females. Female participation is higher in informal sector while male domination continues in formal sector.

According to **Tiwari (2000)** vendors often locate themselves at places which are natural market for pedestrian who attract street vendors. Often, side roads and pedestrian paths are occupied by people selling food, drinks and other articles which are in demand by road users. Vendors work in free market principles. If their services were not required at those

locations, they would have no incentive to be there. The city authority however, views their existence as illegal.

A street vendor is broadly defined as a person who offers goods for sale to the public without having a permanent built-up structure from where to sell. Street vendors may be stationary in the sense that they occupy space on the pavements or other public/private spaces or they may be mobile in the sense they move from place to place by carrying their wares on push carts or in baskets on their heads. **Bhowmik (2005)** claims street vendors to be the most visible segment of the urban informal economy, it is indisputable that there are thousand's – and in some cases, tensor hundreds of thousands – of street vendors in most big cities of the developing countries.

**Kyoko Kusakabe (2006)** states that street vending is an economic activity which acts as a sponge that absorbs large number of surplus labour especially women. When urban management policies allow vendors to conduct their trade, positive impact results on several fronts: on poverty, employment, entrepreneurship, social mobility and peace and order. On a similar vein **NPUSV (2006)** also states that street vending is one of the most visible important sustainable occupations in the urban informal sector in India. Street vendors are identified as self – employed workers in the informal sector who offer their labour to sell goods and services on the streets without having any permanent built up structure.

**Shapiro and Jonathan (2006)** stated that Street hawking is generally considered as a hazard that prevents the development of Mumbai as a world-class city. This article highlights the fact that the state continues to threaten the hawkers by demanding bribe and therefore suggest to make license available to all hawkers so as to continue their business. The experiences of hawkers in Mumbai, as elsewhere in India, have taught them not to fear a regulatory state, but a predatory one, a state that constantly demands bribes and threatens demolition, against which a license provides security.

**Pang and Toh (2008)** explored the socio – demographic factors affecting food safety strategies of hawkers in an urban and less urban setting of Malaysia. It was found that, all types of hawkers with higher educational levels and hawkers in urban setting scored the highest on food safety knowledge. This study found inadequate guidelines for hawkers, uncertainties with licensing procedures, and weaknesses in training programmers.

**Sarkar and Manjari (2009)** discovered poor financial status and poor education level among the road sellers. They do not have any organisation to voice their rights. They lack any help from the administration. They were powerless towards a wide range of provocation. They were liable to instalment of unlawful lease or cash for assurance to neighbourhood authorities,

police and goons. There were occurrences of sexual misuse. These street vendors were also subject to several illness.

**Debdulal Saha (2009)** regards street vendors as the most deprived sections of the self - employed workers. He explained the financial conditions and the extent of indebtedness, the amount of bribes they have to pay, their working hours, the issues of public space utilisation, and the legal aspect of their activity. The study also found that that they have long working hours and they do not have safety or security at the workplace. It is also disheartening that they face constant harassment from the local authorities. All these result in deteriorating working environment as well as economic deprivation for street vendors.

**Dinda Soumyanda (2010)** made a study about the socio -economic conditions of street vendors across 28 towns in Bihar and found that this people contribute considerably to the overall urban economy as far as employment and in terms of goods sold. Their own earning was low that extends from Rs. 100 – Rs. 150 every day. They work under difficult condition for long periods of time and were vulnerable to harassment from government authorities and the local police personnel. The urban sector gives employment opportunity to unskilled workers and more than two percent of the city based population by and large relies on street hawking for their livelihood. Contraste to its involvement and its indispensability, street vending sector has been among the slightest distinguished segments of the economy. The street sellers, need to be consolidated in the inclusive economic development model free from alienation that they currently face.

**Nidan (2010)** found that 92 percent of the sample street vendors in Patna took up vending as a profession as they did not get other jobs. It was observed that 67 percent of the street vendors do not possess any skill. Other essential reasons behind picking this profession were easy, entry and lesser investment. He also pointed out that the working conditions of the street vendors are very tough.

A study on the socio-economic status of the street vendors in the unorganised informal sector at Tiruchirappalli town, Tamil Nadu, was undertaken by **Robert and Palanivelu (2010)**. The size of the sample was 300. The findings of the study revealed that there is no significant relation between the expenditure and the nature of the business of the street vendors. All the street vendors are facing harassments in the study area. The research study proposed that sustained and continuous efforts are needed to improve education, health and employment conditions of the street vendors. The government can create a separate ministry or a special cell under the Ministry of Labour to look after the welfare of the workers in the

unorganized sector.

**Adhikari (2011)** identified the income impact of the street vendors through literacy level, labour supply and investment. Findings of the study showed that majority of the respondents who were highly educated were found to earn around 70 percent more than illiterate respondents in this activity.

The socio economic profile and food safety knowledge practice and awareness of street food vendors in the city of Guwahati, was analysed by **Choudhury et.al (2011)**. The study covered nearly 80 vendors. The average daily income of the mobile food vendors is between Rs. 200 and Rs. 600. It was also noted that only 30 to 37 percent vendors were aware of hygienic practices of food handling and a mere 8 to 11 percent of food vendors understood the biological sources of food contamination. This study found that there was a high degree of association between procurement practices with the type of vendor's ownership status and average income.

**Timalsina (2011)** concentrated on the street vending activities of Kathmandu Metropolitan city in order to examine the livelihood opportunity to poor or challenges for urban governance in the urban informal economy. The main objectives of the study were to analyze the income and employment opportunities of street vendors and the livelihood opportunity of urban poor. This study used both primary and secondary data. The main findings of this study were: rural migrants having low level of education and skills, who are forced to involve in the informal economy for their scanty livelihood. Street vending activities has become an easy access to those migrants vendors in Kathmandu. Those vendors see street vending as an opportunity in informal economy, vendors are providing goods at cheaper price to another section of urban poor that otherwise would be impossible to provide by the urban authorities or by the urban governance system. Thus street vending has become an opportunity of marketing space to most of the urban poor in Kathmandu Metropolitan City.

A case study of Street Vendors of Surat City by **Mishra and Ray (2011)** analysed the socio- economic condition of the street vendors and suggested that they develop a strategy for its inclusion into formal planning process focussed on the socio – economic profile of the street vendors. The data revealed that more than 60 percentages of vendors are sellers of various types of clothes. Other vendor consists of those selling stationary/ bag (7 percent), wooden items (7 percent), and miscellaneous good (10 percent). Around 10 percent of the vendors also sell food items to the customers. Local dadas comes and collects Rs.100 which many vendors call it as gunda tax. Data regarding migrated vendors living in the Surat shows that maximum (36 percentage) vendors are living here for more than 15 years and 23 percent

for more than last 10 years. This study reported that relocation or accommodation of vendors in these markets can be done through participatory process as suggested in the National policy.

To analyse the income, employment and services rendered by street vendors in Dhaka city, **Sayma and Farhana (2012)** took 300 samples. Finding of the study was that most of the vendors' monthly income was from Rs.6,000 to 10,000 (31 percentage). It has been observed that in a typical month a food vendor earns about Rs. 4,105, a newspaper/book vendor earns Rs.1826, a consumer product vendor earns Rs. 1,256, a jewellery item vendor earns Rs. 1,140, a flower vendor earns 1025 and other/s earn Rs. 2,280 from vending. Vendors have the freedom to choose their working hours and they have few constraints on their movements and are self- employed. It is seen that 25 percentage vendors worked at designed type market while 32 percentage work at un-designed, market and 43 percentage were mobile vendors. Around 37 percentage were financially independent. The study found that 15 percentage were semi dependent vendors in un-designed market.

**Chauhdhary Chandrahas (2013)** estimated the number of Street vendors in India to be 10 million. Street vending is an economic reality that works to the advantage of both sellers and consumers, providing productive employment for many and cheap goods and services for the urban poor.

**Tengeh and Lapah (2013)** studied the Socio-economic plight of Migrant Street Vendors in Urban South Africa. The findings revealed that the immigrant vendors received both financial (23.6 percent) and moral (23.6 percent) support from the residents of Cape Town. About 55.3 percentages had experience in their vending activity. The study found out that 54.8 percentages were not members of any street vendor associations.

**Shyamali Banerjee (2014)** has attempted to study the socio-economic condition of vegetable vendors in Ranchi. The data revealed that nearly 38.71 percentage were women vegetable vendors, and 61.29 percentage were male vendors. The average monthly income of male vendors was Rs. 5026/-. Women's average monthly income was Rs. 3583. Physical and mental strain is a major problem of women. Due to lack of basic civic amenities many suffer from health problems. Public toilet has an adverse effect on women's health and many suffer from various infections and 18.75 percentage of women think that they have no social support. Nearly 4.16 percent feel that due to absence of union protection, they are always harassed, and dislocated by the municipal authorities and the police.

By making use of SWOT analysis **Laforteza et.al, (2014)** studied the accounting practices of selected 30 street vendors in Davao city in Philippines. The strengths of street vending was small capital requirement, while their weakness was poor business management, however the opportunities were found to be wide and diversified market and the threat they faced was market competition.

**Destombes (2010)** suggested that in most of the households of these vendors, women tend to contribute a major or equal part of the income as their husbands or other income contributors in the family. When women earn and have control over their household spending most of the money spent is targeted towards household needs. Women tends to pay back loans faster, and the share of money spend within the family is more fair (**Thompson, 2011**). Their roles not only end in providing livelihoods for their family but they play an integral part in the economy in which they exist.

**Kumar Pradeep (2015)** studied the socio - economic features of street vending enterprises in Kerala. Street vendors face constraints like lack of access to credit, infrastructure, social security coverage and many other resources. The study also found that the street vendors depend on the money lenders for credit accessibility as well as for social security purposes. The result showed that the street vendors are forced to borrow at exorbitant rate of interest more so for the social security purposes that lead them to fall into a debt-trap situation, also revealing the need for vendor's social protection. All vendors were surviving either by their savings or by borrowing from others at high rate of interest. The study also revealed poor working condition in terms of excessive working hours in a day in addition to unhealthy and unsafe conditions at work place.

**Begari (2017)** conducted a study to understand the educational level of the vendors and to examine the impact of education on performance of street vending activity of vendors in Hyderabad city. The study was based on secondary and primary data. The study found that 53.3 percentage vendors were non – migrant and 43.8 percentages were illiterates. The migrants, (46.3 percentages) were earning Rs. 200 – 500 per day. Around 57.4 percentages of vendors have not taken loan. There is no guarantee of job and incomes of street vendors are very poor.

To comprehend the routine life of road side vendor and to identify their problems, **Kumar and Janani (2017)** collected data from 50 vendors of Coimbatore City. Result of the study pointed out that among the vendors 50 percentages were male, 46 percentages belonged to the age group of 36-40, 84 percentages were married, 42 percentages were vegetable vendors, and they sell the goods from 4-6 pm and nearly 60 percentages were earning above

500 per day. Majority of the street vendors face the problem of competition (66 percentages) and lack of storage (70 percentages). However 48 percentages, had no registration of vending, but they continued their business.

**Chakraborty and Koley (2018)** attempted to examine the socio – economic condition of women street vendors in Jamshedpur. The data had been collected from 64 respondents and anthropological methods were used. Analysis revealed that 67.19 percentage respondents were married. Around 35.9 percentage respondents belonged to the age group of 15 – 24, 29.6 percent were illiterate. The daily Income of 35.9 percentage women were between Rs. 101 - 200 per day, 43.7 percentage vendors earned Rs. 2500 to 4000 per month. Majority (54.6 percentage) had been selling vegetables, 28.13 percent were selling flower, 7.8 percent were selling fruits and cooked foods 9.38 percent and vendors were working for 3 -6 hours.

To understand the socio – economic status of Muslim woman vendors in Vijayapur city, **Laxmidivi and Athani (2018)** made a study and found that majority of the respondents were in the age group of 50 to 60 years, 80 percentages of the respondents were illiterate and this they found to be the result of patriarchal system of the society. A probe into the health status revealed that 92 percentages of the respondents had body pain and 86 percent of respondents had Psychological problems. The constant and strenuous work both at home and market place results in health issues.

**Kambara and Mutharayappa (2018)** carried out a study on female street vendors in Bangalore city, by relying on primary and secondary sources. Finding of the study revealed that one-fourth of women vendors belong to the age group of 31 to 50 years. The vendors sell different items like vegetables, fruits and flowers on the ground or a push cart or on a makeshift stand. While some of them had financial support from family members many vendors have borrowed from private financiers. The street vendor's earnings vary between Rs.100 to Rs.1500 per day, and they have long working hours. The women suffer from work related health problems and most common problems was perpetual headache, hand pain, leg and knee pain, backache, body pain etc., The study found out that most of the vendors do not seek any treatment for their health problems but they rely on self-medication and Over the Counter (OTC) medicines, as they lack money to consult doctor, or go to a hospital to seek health care.

**Mohan et al., (2019)** aimed to study socio-demographic profile, causes for addiction, and morbidity pattern among street vendors, and health problems faced by street vendors in Shahgunj. The study found that about 29.6 percent vendors belongs to age group of 30 – 39 years. Most of the vendors belongs to nuclear family, 71.25 percentage vendors migrated

from other cities to seek employment, 73.6 percentage vendors works with no holiday in a week. Vendors are addicted to tobacco chewing (27 percent), pan (6 percent) and cigarette (6 percent). About 30 percentage vendors were having health issues and a maximum number had musculoskeletal issue.

As revealed in this section women have poor social protection and their working condition on the streets expose them to variety of health and safety issues. According to study done by ILO it is found that about 85 percentage of the street vendors have to face health hazards. These hazards include diseases like migraine, acidity problem, increased depression, high blood pressure, increased blood sugar and alike. Apart from these health problems women street vendors also have to face problems related to sanitation. The women street vendors also complain about the inadequacy of space, threat of eviction and the problem of security.

#### **2.4 Problems of street vendors**

Women vendors form the lowest rungs among street vendors. In most cases they take to this trade due to poverty and because the male members in the family do not have jobs to fetch an income to take care of the family. Women street vendors work for long hours, under unhygienic conditions and without proper food and adequate rest. Though the efforts they put to carry on their work is very exhausting their earnings are very less compared to their counterparts in other sectors. A recent study on domestic servants and construction workers brings home the fact that they earn more than this group. The domestic servants are in a much better position in terms of wages (both money and real) but also in the way they are treated by the family members. They are to be held in high esteem; otherwise they move out even without prior notice. The only advantage of street vendors are that they are free to be on leave without getting anybody's consent or they can abstain from carrying out this work for a day or two in case of any emergency or health issues, at the cost of missing out their daily earnings. It is an established fact that there is prevalence of high unemployment rate among women compared to men in the unorganized sector and the working conditions were unfair are Poor wages leading to poverty, unequal distribution of income, illiteracy, disparity and male dominance results in landing them in vulnerable conditions (**Sundarm and Satya, 1996**). A study by **Devasthali Veena (1998)** found out that women workers faced many problems like continuous harassment from vendors, shop owners and traffic police, absence of regular work, insecurity about the work, seasonal fluctuation in work availability. Demographic, social and economic characteristics of women vendor's migration and earnings were demonstrated by

**Renu (2005)** who pointed out that women are victimized by politicians, local authorities and police when they sell out various products on the streets. The negative and lethargic attitude of the local authorities towards women street vendors in providing licence is also to be noted. Around 95 percentages of the women street vendors are subject to continuous harassment through extortion or eviction.

Home based female workers who are self -employed forms an important category of women workers in informal sector. **Saradmoni and Schenk (1995)** states that those women workers are exposed more to the risk of sexual harassment and exploitation. Again she found that the economic and social conditions of the female workers are very deplorable.

**Naik and Narulla (1964)** found that women workers were facing inadequate facilities and therefore there should be provision of drinking water facilities, urinals, latrines and rest rooms.

A study by **Qadeer and Dunu Roy (1989)** reveals that some hazardous and dangerous tasks are given to unskilled contract and casual workers in developing countries. Both men and women work for 10 to 12 hours daily. Insecurity of jobs led not only to their economic exploitation but also exposes them to a variety of occupational diseases and accidents. A majority of women reported headache, back pain and pain in the limbs. About 56 percent of women and 16 percent of men reported injuries resulting in work loss.

**Saran and Sandhwar (1990)** studied the problems of the women workers engaged in informal sectors of Bihar and West Bengal. It was revealed that the women working here were exploited, less paid, work for long hours i.e, 14-16 hours in the case of migrants and 8-10 hours in the case of local workers. There prevails mass illiteracy and the women workers belong to scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and backward classes. Indebtedness is common. Further rebuking, cheating, threatening, beating and sexual abuses are very common features reported by women working in informal sector.

**Chatterjee et al., (2004)** examined the status of street hawkers in Kolkata, and suggested the civil authority to provide and promote a supporting environment for earning livelihoods to the street hawkers that if hawking is properly regulated and the awareness to environment is created it can be a positive contribution to city life. A framework of registration could have advantages in terms of recognition of the occupation of street vending as a legitimate employment arena in the eyes of law but the implementation of the same has had quite the contrary perverse effects (**Shah and Mandava, 2005**).

**Anjaria and Jonathan (2006)**, in his paper on ‘Street Hawkers and Public Space in Mumbai’ contemplated the life of road merchants in Mumbai. Numerous road sellers were

transients from provincial regions. It was a direct result of simplicity of section and the restricted necessity of capital, they have entered street vending. It was likewise a direct result of absence of other business openings; people have taken up sales on road. Numerous sellers make a consistent instalment to the police and the BMC as cash or in kind.

**Kumar and Arbind (2013)** did a study on “Empowering the Street Vendors in Changing Indian Cities” and concluded that the innovative partnership model for developing model markets for street vendors is indeed a pioneering step in securing the livelihood of the street vendors and their families. Through innovative models - Aesthetic and organized shops, prime locations, clean surroundings, provision of electricity and above all imparting peace of mind and sense of security among the street vendors would help them and if implemented in larger scale in the Indian cities then street vending will become a dignified job and a source of sustainable livelihood.

**Cohen et al., (2000)** described the conditions related to work of street vendors. The study gives a contemporary overview of street vending around the world and major issues related to them. **Crossa (2009)** points out that “The daily life of many street vendors entails long hours and hard work. Street vendors deal with ‘exposure to the weather, fluctuating income, boredom, long working hours, and long and inconvenient trips to purchase merchandise’.

**Sruthi et al., (2010)** made brief study of street vendors in the city of Bengaluru. The study identified that the biggest problem faced by street vendors is the police and corporation authorities who continuously force them to pay bribes. To overcome this, committee has to be formed in each state, and based on the recommendations by the committee members can frame its own policy in order to direct street vendors as per the National street vendor policy.

Women street vendors have restricted trade activities which cause traffic congestion, garbage accumulation and the vending activity is done in public place against the laws (**Ramachandran 1989**).

**Rahmad Dawood et.al, (2010)** carried out a study on awareness of applications to keep up the mobile food sellers in the developing world and concluded that the main reason for vendors was to find buyers.

An article by **Shailly et.al, (2010)** explored the street vendors vulnerability. Data were collected from street vendors at Paharganj who had 10 years of experience Majority of the small vendors paid money between Rs. 500 and Rs. 800 per month to the Municipal Corporation and Delhi police as bribe. It results in a major loss of their income. Also the study found that there is constant economic and Physical assaults which destroy their dignity.

The growing violence and insecurity is an important reason why very few women take to vending and hawking in cities like Delhi. The authors appealed to the citizens of Delhi whether policy – makers or administrators to make Delhi a bride – free, terror – free city.

A study by **Varghese (2016)** on the Livelihood Issues of Vendors in urban setting with special reference to Kochi' revealed that street vendors worked overtime to earn their livelihood. Nearly 83 percentages worked more than nine hours and 16.7 percent worked more than 11 hours and since most of them didn't have ID cards, they can be thrown out by civic authorities anytime. And more than 66.7 percentages have faced eviction one or more times. In shifting to a new place and getting familiarized their takes time due to which there business is affected. More than 53 percentages were often disturbed by goons. The author recommended for permission of mobile vending, installation of vending spaces at right place, issuing of ID cards, and formation town vending committees.

**Walsh (2010)** found that a common problem faced by vendors were excess of stock of goods like fruits and vegetables at the end of the day. He also pointed out that since some of the goods being traded are seasonal in nature, the vendors are subject to poverty.

In his critical analysis of National Policy for Urban Street Vendors of 2009, **Bandyopadhyay (2011)** identified many shortcomings. He was of the opinion that this national policy on street vendors is more spatial than that of social implication and did not pay attention to the internal hierarchies within the street vending sector. Although, the policy ensured that more than 40 percent of the members of TVCs must be from the street vendors association it remained silent on the fact that only a meager proportion of street vendors in India fall under the fold of unions. Representing such a large number of non-unionized street vendors in the TVCs is not practically possible.

**Bobodu (2010)** tried to identify the internal and external challenges faced by the food street vendors in Accra. It was revealed that 63 percentage of the vendor's capital was too small and 24 percent of their family had to face internal obstacles. Nearly 47 percentages of the vendors were harassed by government authorities and 20 percent of the vendors did not get support from government and business and 15 percent of the vendors faced other problems and external obstacles which led to stagnation.

**Ayikai (2013)** focused on the health status of the street vendors in Accra. The study aimed to determine the awareness, and protective strategies used by vendors. The study revealed that out of the 400 participants, 93.5 percentages had adverse health condition during vending. Musculoskeletal disease (82.7 percentages) was the most frequent health condition

reported followed by infectious diseases and headaches (73.9 percentages), behaviour problems (58.4 percentages), respiratory disease (41.1 percentages), cardiac and acute vascular events (34.3 percent) and finally skin disease (28.8 percent). However, 41.1 percentages of the vendors were observed to have with good health and 29.8 percent reported that their health changed for the worse after engaging in street vending.

Street vendors mainly depend on money lenders for their economic and social security purposes. There is no safety for the street vendors in their work place. They have to face severe harassment from the local authorities (**Debdulalaha and Bhowmik 2013**).

**Haorei (2013)** carried out a study on employment conditions and risk among the street sellers in the city of Madurai. The study revealed that in terms of years of business as street vendors 27.5 percent had 16 – 30 years experiences 22 percent had 1-5 years, 21.5 percent had 6 – 10 years and one respondent had 45 years of experience. An employment status showed 87.55 percent were independent and self – employed, 6.25 percent were semi – dependent were dependent employees. Further, 68.75 percent had risk of goods perishing as they do not have proper storage place, 61.25 percent had competitive pressure from the other competitors and 38.75 percent had income risk due to seasonal variation in the price of their goods. A high proportion of the street vendors had risk due to confiscation of merchandise (Perishable goods). The study revealed health risk among the street vendors in many ways such as 7.5 percent faced due to operations near open drainage, 23.75 percent due to movement without any protection from sunlight and 23.75 percent faced due to lifting and pulling of heavy loads.

**Monney Issac et al., (2013)** surveyed the awareness on the practices among the street food sellers in schools and colleges in Ghana and reported that, 77 percent of the street sellers have some level of knowledge on the legal rights regarding the food hygiene, whereas the remaining respondents have no knowledge about it.

Trading in the streets involves small earning, high risk, especially for highly perishable goods, regular occupational and physical problems because of unhygienic market condition. More so, peddlers are greatly susceptible to political conflicts and economic downturns **ILO and Weigo, (2013)**.

**Joglekar and Bhoi (2013)** in their research paper on a study on personal hygiene of the street food sellers in Raipur found that only 76 percent vendors had a neat and clean appearance. No seller was found wearing cap on head. Just 3.5 percent of vendors wear hand gloves. The majority of the vendors (93.3 percent) were not utilizing hand gloves while cooking or serving the food. 100 percent of vendors had a propensity for spitting irregularly

and they sweat profusely during work and 76.6 percent vendors kept the napkin in their pocket and used to wipe their hands while all the selected vendors seem to ignore the ill effects of their illness.

**Taranga and Bhattacharjya (2013)** from their study on knowledge of washing hand and the street food vendors food handling practices in Agartala, found that 54.7 percent of sellers were utilizing channel water, provided through the district despite the fact that 36.3 percent and 8.5 percent were utilizing water from pipelines and ponds individually to prepare food and cleaning the dishes. This practice was common among the urban street hawkers. Nearly 32.1 percent and 44.9 percent of the vendors had primary and secondary levels of education. They realized that the unhygienic practices and dishes can transmit ailments when serving street foods. Around 85.5 percent of the street hawkers were using the low quality or unbranded oil and just 14.5 percent were using good quality marked oil for preparing foods and 71.4 percent of the vendors laid more accentuation on taste, 20.9 percent paid attention to keep up the quality of food 42.3 percent of the sellers expressed that it is troublesome for a customary roadside food hawker to better quality, and healthy food.

**Nageswara et al., (2015)** tried to portray the working conditions of street vendors in Ahmadabad and their quality of life. The study made use of data from fifty respondents through random sampling. The findings of the study on street vendors revealed precarious conditions of work and life, involving an extensive workload, very low sales and profits, and no guarantee as to safety and security.

According to **Rajul (2015)**, the sight of street vendors being harassed at the hands of municipal authorities or police officials remains a common occurrence. The street vendors are made to cough up considerable sums of money, monthly or even weekly, so that they may be allowed to use these public places for the purpose of earning a livelihood. However, it must be borne in mind that these bribes do not guarantee any protection from civic authorities taking action against them. The purported action may include eviction of the vendor, imposition of fines, confiscation of the saleable goods or confiscation of their equipment like weights and measures. **Kumar and Pillai (2017)** studied on 'Problems of street vendors in Kollam district. According to their study, Economic instability, Social insecurity, Weather fluctuations, Barriers towards credit facility, Health issues, Discrimination, Working instability, Deciduous implementation of Government policies and programs, Lack of awareness about legal rights etc. are the major issues faced by street vendors.

The qualities of work and life of street vendors of Khanna were studied by **Harpreet and Sanpreet (2017)**. The study indicates that 86 percentages were earning less than Rs. 500 per day, majority (46.66 percentages) were vegetable sellers and 26.66 percent were fruit sellers followed by toy and fast food sellers (13.33 percent). Their profession required standing for 8 -16 hours. The study stipulates an emerging problem of lack of credit sources to the street vendors.

Street vendor were person who offers goods for sale to the public at large without having a permanent built-up structure from which to sell. Street vendors may be stationary in the sense that they occupy space on the pavements or other public/private spaces, or are mobile in the sense that they move from place to place by carrying their wares on push carts or on their heads. The study by **Selvan and Ramalakshmi (2017)** pointed out the major problems faced by street vendors and they were also subject to raids and confiscations of their merchandise, harassment and exploitation, Poor social protection, Constant fatigue caused by spending long hours in the sun, lack of public utilities, lack of organisational strength and voice.

Though street vending plays a vital role in assuring livelihood to a large underprivileged and marginalized section of the society, its contribution is seldom recognized by the city administration or urban planning agencies. The problem faced by these groups is well documented by scholars across the nation. Whether the economy is developed or developing it is a common sight to see the vendors selling variety of items on the streets. Woman forms a lion share as street vendors. They all face series of problems in their worksites and at homes. Continuous work, long hours of standing or sitting in the same place, lack of nutritious food and water and lack of rest, inadequate toilet facility and related health issues and above all the constant threat from police and authorities are the impediments or barriers that they face in their day to day vending activities.

## **2.5 Related studies**

The status of women in India has been subject to many great changes over the past few millennia. With a decline in their status from the ancient to medieval times, to the promotion of equal rights by many reformers, their history has been eventful. Women's rights under the Constitution of India mainly include equality, dignity, and freedom from discrimination. Women are treated as living things of the house following all the old cultures, traditions and restrictions of the society.

**Alvas Rohan (2014)** were of the view that, street vendors bill, in its current form, may prove to be disadvantageous to the cause and interests of street vendors. It has been sought to be shown that several problems still existed in the street vendor bill, both structural and constitutional, which throw doubts in the ability of the bill to succeed in its endeavour for helping the street vendors. The number of street vendors who could be allotted to a particular vending zone is limited, and if there are more street vendors than a particular vending zone can hold, then the certificate of vending will be distributed by a lottery system and many street vendors will be forced to abandon their best-suited selling spaces because they could not make it in the draw of lots. Of them, a few might find that business at their newly assigned places limit their earnings, forcing them to look for other, more rewarding, alternatives and thus again opening the door for abuses/manipulations by the civic authorities and the police.

**Bhowmik (1999)** laments that 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 possess licenses.

**Bromely (2000)** puts it rightly by stating that regulating street vendors, or offering promotion and support, require interaction with dozens of local officials and thousands of vendors, which may have enormous potentials for misunderstandings, avoidance and deception. In the absence of such rigorous exercise, attempts made by the local authorities at regulating street vending may not end up in benefiting vendors much. Secondly, in the absence of any clearly specified law safeguarding the vendors, the implementation of spatial restrictions and the registration mechanism will give the governments an informal flexibility to favour powerful lobbies and local-level regime functionaries. This may cause a series of brutal internal displacements. Concerns regarding loss of income and the rise of powerful lobbies that will determine future policies with regard to street vendors are, however, not addressed in this act. Further, the author pointed out the critical aspect of licenses and permits for street vending spaces that could, despite legal prohibitions, be lent for a tariff or sold at a premium.

A study conducted jointly by **SNDT –ILO (2001)** on Mumbai street vendors stated that more number of street vendors suffered from stress related diseases. Around 85 per cent of the street vendors complained of stress related diseases—Migraine, hyper acidity, hyper tension and high blood pressure.

**Shibulal (2018)** examined the issues of visually impaired road merchants at railroad stations in Mumbai. The investigation took 315 visually impaired road merchants. Around 60 percent earned an income Rs.51 to 100 per day. A large number of them had over 10 years of experience and encountered a fall in wage amid rainstorm because of troublesome climate. Around 56.83 percentages were mindful of government plans and its availability. The greater parts of them have picked this work as they had no other activity accessible in private and open segment. **Mohan Iyer (2018)** examined the socio-economic conditions of street food vendors of Dindigul area. Aim of the study was to understand the life of the street vendors in terms of level of income, accessibility of finance and working hours. Primary data was collected from 125 samples. The study pointed out that the various influential factors like 'financial factors', 'legal factors' and 'environmental factors' were significant with the expectation level of the respondents. Recent ILO studies highlight the need for vocational training to take a more holistic approach, through incorporating training in more general life and work skills, and focusing on empowerment [**Gallart and Maria (2002); Lijmatainen, (2002); Silveira and Matosas, (2003); Murray, (2006)**]. As **Haan (2007)** comments, “there is growing awareness that the informally employed, and especially casual and home workers, also need other skills since their absorption and mobility in the labour market is limited by their illiteracy, lack of core work skills and lack of employment”.

**Kalhan and Anuradha (2007)** in her study investigated the impact of malls on small shops and hawkers in Mumbai. The sample was randomly chosen from 82 small retail shops and establishments and from 30 hawkers within about one – kilometre radius of a mall in Mumbai. The study indicated that impact on hawkers is quite clearly damaging. Only 14 percent were able to upgrade their services or respond to the changed circumstances. An escalation of competition from corporate retail and FDI hasten their decline. The study suggested the dangers of monopoly capital in retailing for geographically distributed small producers who are not in a position to bargain for a fair price with these bulk buyers.

**Debdulal Saha (2008)** examined the working life of street vendors in Mumbai. The study is based on 200 sample respondents. The street vendors depend on the money lenders for their economic activity as well as for social security purposes. The result showed that they are forced to borrow mainly for social security purposes at exorbitant rate of interest (amounting to 5-10 percentage per month) rather than economic activities. They work for (around 14-18 hours per day). These retailers face constant harassment from local authority such as local police and Municipal Corporation. This study showed that there are different stakeholders such as trade unions or member based associations who are trying to organize

them by providing social security and credit and others but the problem is they are very few. The rate of unionization among vendors in Mumbai is low and the heterogeneous nature of street vending activity further retards the unionization process. However **DebdulSaha (2011)** has appreciated the work of certain organizations which are working actively toward the provision of social security for vendors in addition to the provision of formal credit through cooperative credit society. These organizations are most active in securing the vendors rights to public space utilization. The author has commended that the organizations are promoting the social dialogue process by mobilizing the vendors toward realizing their rights at work.

The study by **Selvan and Ramalakshmi (2017)** focused on the impact of liberalization, privatization and Globalization on Street vendors in Kanyakumari District, in Tamil Nadu. The major problems faced by street vendors are raids and confiscations of their goods and articles, harassment and exploitation, standing in the sun or rain for long hours or walking or pulling the cart makes them tired and they also lack social protection. They remarked that there is no organisational strength and voice.

In India, where aggregate female labour force participation was already at a low 26 percent (having declined from 36 percent over a decade ago), **Sonalde Desai et al., (2021)** conducted an urban monthly employment survey examining the impacts of the COVID-19 lockdown on employment in areas surrounding Delhi between March 2019 and May 2020 and found that while both men and women suffer large losses in employment (~35 percent), wage employment in particular declined by 72 percent among women compared to 40 percent among men. **Surbhi Kesar et al., (2021)** conducted a survey of 5,000 respondents across 12 states in India and found that women informal workers experienced employment loss by an additional four percentage points in their sample compared to male informal workers (68 percent among women versus 64 percent among men).

In these provisions establish the right to equal protection before the law (subject to reasonable restrictions), the right to practice any business, the State's duty to minimize income inequalities, and the right to a livelihood (**GOI, 2009**).

The National Policy on Urban Street Vendors also underlines the marked change in the official perception of, and attitude towards, street vending/hawking – from “prohibition” to “regulation” (**Kumar, 2010**).

Women of unorganized sector face several problems like low remuneration, conditions of work, health, safety, education, sexual exploitation, lack of access to property and caste discrimination. Though they work for long hours their wages are taken by their spouse. They

are also subject to poverty and exploitation (**Omvedt Gail, 1992**).

National Policy on Urban Street Vendors 2009 echoes the Supreme Court of India's judgment that the street vendors play an essential role in urban retail distribution networks. The key elements of this policy were designed to reinforce that role (**Sinha et al., 2010**).

To protect these marginalized sections of society, there is need to start an effective policy formulation, making of favourable legislations and rights based social protection programmes. In this line of thinking, the Street Vendors "Protection (Protection of Livelihood and Regulation of Street Vending) Act, 2014 in India has been passed in India. This has become an important national level regulatory framework on the street vending which has been left to the Indian states to adopt and implement in their respective jurisdictions (**Abhigyan 2012**).

The Supreme Court of India through her important judgment has without any doubt recognized street vending as an important source of livelihood and directed the Indian government to work out on a central legislation. Indian state unveiled a draft bill to the public on an attempt to address the shortcomings of the 2009 Bill, a revised bill was drafted with the help of the National Advisory Council and was introduced in the Lok Sabha (Lower House of the Parliament of India) on Union Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation, (**GOI, 2012**).

The Street Vendors" Act of 2014, which came into existence after the National Policy on Urban Street Vendors, 2009, aimed at creating a social and economic environment that is conducive to the pursuance of street vendors" livelihood. However, the provisions of the National Policy as well as of the Act has been reviewed critically on the grounds that this legislative have ignored many pressing issues and the act has the potential to curtail the freedom of informality and flexibility vendors and hawkers had been enjoying so far. The act has been criticized for excessive delegation of powers to the municipal authorities by providing for certain provisions to be specified in the relative 'schemes' and several provisions under registration and certification have been left to be determined by local authorities who could lead to harassment and exploitation of street vendors (**Srivastava, et al., 2014**).