

**STREET VENDING AND POVERTY REDUCTION IN MINNA
METROPOLIS**

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ABSTRACT

Poverty is multidimensional in nature, and is a major problem facing almost all the countries. Countries all over the world have tried to reduce the rate of poverty using several measures, but little or no results yield. Therefore, this study aims to investigate the impact of street vending on poverty reduction in Minna metropolis. Using a set of structured questionnaire of 286 street vendors in Minna metropolis. The objectives of the are in two fold, firstly the study examine the poverty status of the respondents. Using regression analysis, the R^2 value of 0.13 shows that 13 percent variation in the dependent variable (poverty) is explained by the explanatory variables (street vending components), while the remaining 87 percent was accounted for with the variables not mention in the model the study shows that out of (8) eight factors considered for this study only (4) four were statistically significant, these are age, gender, household size and educational status. Secondly, the study examines the impact of street vending on poverty reduction, using regression analysis. The component of street vending considered were physical environment sustainability, social sustainability and economic sustainability, the study revealed that none of the components were statistically significant to poverty reduction, thus go contrary to our a priori expectation. Based on the result of this study, the following recommendation were suggested in other to improve the poverty status of the people of the study area. The government of the study area should try as much as possible provide a conducive environment for not only traders in the study area, but for all businesses in the area, this will go a long way in improving wellbeing of the citizen. It is also recommended that, provision of social amenities should be provided in the study area, this will also improve the welfare of the citizen of the study area, and it will reduce the spending of the little income generated from trading on servicing these amenities. There is need for the government to come to the aid of all petty traders inform of soft loan in the study area, this will also improve the wellbeing of the people in the study area and as well moving them out of poverty.

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CHAPTER ONE

3

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Evidences from previous studies show that a significant number of population in the world are living below the poverty line in spite of the attempts made by various government towards reducing the rate of poverty in their various countries (Ijaiya *et al.*, 2018). According to UNDP (2013), despite the greatest achievement recorded in the efforts of reducing poverty since the introduction of Millennium Development Goals (MDG's) by the United Nation (UN) in 2000, there is still a number of human poverty in the world. It is reported that the number of poor people dropped by 650 million in the last decade, but more than 1 billion people are still living in extreme poverty. Also, the World Bank (2014), reported that, over 1 billion people representing 14 per cent of the global population were living below poverty line as at 2011. Therefore, the problem of poverty is so dangerous that poverty eradication became number one of the eight Millennium Development Goal of the United Nation. To this end, poverty related studies and poverty reduction become very important because it has a major effects and influences on the whole existence of an individual. Poverty is one of the most vital problems facing the poor as well as the society. The study of poverty is inevitable because it is not merely specific to some countries, rather, almost all countries in the world are battling with the problem of poverty (Ijaiya, 2017).

Poverty is one the foremost universal problem generally perceived as the failure to reach minimum standard of living. Recently, World Bank (2014) defines absolute poverty as living on or below \$1.90 per day, this current Purchasing Power Parity

(PPPs) exchange revised by International Comparison Program (ICP) reflect the variation in the new data on differences in the cost of living across countries. Based on this new point of reference, the World Bank estimate 9.6% representing 702 million people of the world's population living in extreme poverty in 2015, down from 12.8% representing 902 million of the overall population in 2012.

Poverty situation is not different in Nigeria, it has been reveals from previous studies that the country is suffering from an extreme poverty (Balogun *et al.*, 2011); Balogun 2011; Ojimba, 2012, and Zaccheaus and Nwokoma 2012; Ijaiya *et al.*, 2018). Nigeria is endowed with huge minerals and natural resources, but the citizens are hungry and poor in the midst of abundance, despite the vast human and material resources that were put in place to reduce the level of poverty and the various economic policies introduced by the government since the 80's, such as, Austerity Measure and Structural Adjustment Program (SAP), Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI), Integrated Rural Development Projects, Better Life Program, Family Support Program, Mass Transit Program, National Directorate of Employment, Peoples' Bank, Family Economic Advancement Program, National Poverty Eradication Program, Subsidy Re-investment Program (SURE-P), the problem of poverty is still on the increase (Ijaiya *et al.*, 2018).

The trend of poverty can be traced back to the year of independence where about 15 percent of the population lived below poverty line. In 1980, with an estimated population of 64.6 million in Nigeria, the poverty level rose to 28.1 percent and subsequently rises to 69.1 percent in the year 2010. The percentage rate represents, in absolute term 112.4 million people from an estimated population of about 160 million people. The rate also rises to 70 per cent in the year 2011 and 2012 and slightly drop to 67 per cent in 2013 (Nigeria Bureau of Statistics, NBS, 2012).

Evidence shows that when the three Human Development Index components of poverty is used to measure poverty status, such as life expectancy at birth, access to education and per capita income, poverty rate in Nigeria shows no significant reduction. For instance, only per capita income witnessed an increase from US\$559 or ₦57,073.9 in 2004 to US\$757 or ₦71,674.2 in 2010, the life expectancy at birth has remained on the increase, with an increase from 47 years in 2007 to 52 years in 2012, and the level of illiterate stood at 38.7 percent in 2011 (Ijaiya 2017).

The incidence of poverty in Nigeria can be seen when looking at thirty seven (37) states including Federal Capital. This thirty seven states are further divided into six geo-political zones, which include, North East, North West, North Central, South-South, South East, and South West. However, evidence shows that there is a wide variation in the rate of poverty of these geo-political zones in Nigeria. Northern Nigeria, in which the study area belongs, has witnessed the highest poverty rate. Of the six geo-political zones, poverty rate in North East, North West and North Central was 35.6 percent, 37.7 percent and 32.2 percent in 1980 respectively, which increase to 77.5 percent, 78.1 percent, and 68.0 percent for North East, North West and North Central respectively in the year 2013. Niger State, the study area is part of North Central and its poverty rate as at 2014 stood at 61.20 percent. National Bureau of Statistic (NBS, 2014). This can be shown in Table 1.1

Table 1.1: Incidence of poverty in Nigeria

	1980	1985	1992	1996	2004	2010	2013
National	28.1	46.3	42.7	65.6	54.4	69.1	67
Urban	17.2	37.8	37.5	58.2	43.2	40.3	38.5
Rural	28.3	51.4	66.0	69.3	63.3	68.1	68.9
South- South	13.2	45.7	40.8	58.2	35.1	63.8	62.7
South- East	12.9	30.4	41.0	53.5	26.7	67.0	66.5
South-West	13.4	38.6	43.1	60.9	43.0	59.1	55.5
North- Central	32.2	50.8	46.0	64.7	67.0	67.5	68.0
North-East	35.6	54.9	54.0	70.1	72.2	76.3	77.5
North-West	37.7	52.1	36.5	77.2	71.2	77.7	78.1

Source: (FOS, 1980, 1985, 1993, 1997; NBS, 2004, 2014, 2011; AFDB, OECD, UNDP, 2014).

North Central region consists of seven (7) States, which includes FCT Abuja, Kwara State, Kogi State, Plateau State, Nassarawa State, Niger State, and Benue State. According to UN (2015), through the global multidimensional poverty index, the poverty rates of these states are shown in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2: Poverty Trends in North Central Region Between 2004 and 2014

States	2004- 2014
Benue State	59.20%
FCT Abuja	23.50%
Kogi State	26.40%
Kwara State	23.70%
Nassarawa State	52.40%
Niger State	61.20%
Plateau State	51.60%

Source: United Nation 2015

Table 1.2 shows the poverty rates of the states in North Central region of Nigeria, between the year 2004 and 2014. According to UN (2015), Niger State, in which we have Minna the state capital as the study area has the highest poverty rate between this periods with poverty rate of 61 per cent, followed by Benue State whose poverty rate was 59 per cent, then Nasarawa State, with poverty rate of 52 per cent. FCT Abuja has the least poverty rate in the region with poverty rate of 23.50 per cent, followed by Kwara State whose poverty rate was 23.70 per cent.

Among the causes of the endemic poverty in Nigeria as stated by the World Bank report include harmful economic and political systems, national conflict and violence, human rights abuses, government ineffectiveness and inefficiency, weak respect for rule of law, weak control of corruption, changes in environmental conditions, changes in population growth, lower level of social capital in terms of relationship between the rich and the poor and high rate of unemployment. All of these factors are easily identified in Nigeria but none of them would account for acute poverty in the country as that concerning weak control of corruption and high rate of unemployment (Ijaiya 2017).

Street vending is very common phenomena in many developing countries as well as some developed countries which hold an important share of urban informal employment. Notwithstanding, the differing scale of street vending between countries and cities (Bhowmik, 2005), this ancient activity is considered to be ubiquitous (Bromley, 2000) and increasing. The latter fact is tied to changes in the global economy associated with post-modernity (Cross, 2000). Accordingly, street vending, as an urban income-generating activity, has been studied in many settings. However, most empirical studies published in English focus on street trade in developing countries (Bhowmik, 2010), Middle and Latin American countries (Coletto, 2010;

Cross, 1998; Cutsinger, 2000; Harrison and McVey, 1997; Middleton, 2003) and Southern European countries (., Antonopoulos *et al.*, 2011; Bellinvia, 2013; Lazaridis & Koumandraki, 2003; Nelken, 2006). Given that Western societies have also experienced more contractual and short-term employment, higher levels of unemployment and a decrease of expenditure on metropolitan administration and welfare services, urban areas in these societies are deemed to be informalised (Williams & Windebank, 2001). We thus see no reason why street vending would not occur in these societies, which implies the need to fill this gap in the literature by assessing the impact of street vending on poverty reduction in Minna, Metropolis.

1.2 Statement of Research Problem

The prevalence of continuing increase in poverty level in Niger State of Nigeria created a set back to her improvement, security, and peaceful co-existence as related to current happening of revolt in the Middle East majorly caused by high rate of unemployment and poverty. In other to suggest a way forward in combating the problem of unemployment and poverty, necessitate this study. It is on this premise that the study intends to examine the impact of street vending on poverty reduction in Minna, Niger State, Nigeria.

Despite several programmes put in place by both the Federal and State Government in reducing the level of poverty, among them were; Community Bank (CB), National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP), Subsidy Re-Investment Programme (SURE-P), Youth Empowerment Scheme (known as Project YES), Life Rehab Foundation, and the Niger State Vision 3:2020, to mention but few increase in poverty still persist. This can be attributed to poor implementation of the programmes on the part of the government, absence of strict regulatory and monitory system which

cohabit corruption and dishonesty and this will continue since national resources which could be invested are being embezzled (Salami, 2013; Taiwo and Agwu, 2016). And secondly, due to illiteracy and lack of awareness people possess inadequate knowledge about the potentials of street vending on poverty reduction (Lawal *et al.*, 2014).

According to India National Policy of Urban Street vendors (2004), a street vendor is a person who offers goods for sale to the public without having a permanent built up structure but with a temporary static structure or mobile stall (or head load). Street vending forms an integral part of urban setting of the streets, adding socio-economic and cultural benefits and providing a means of livelihood to the poorer sections of society.

Evidence abound that street vending adopts labour intensive technology in its operation and requires little or no education which result in the creation of mass employment to people and improves more equitable distribution of income. Street vending emergence in all knock and crannies of developing countries fosters industrial dispersal and reduces rural and urban migration (Asikhia, 2010), and promote economic growth through economic diversification (Downes, 2010).

Considering the impact of street vending on poverty reduction was further expanded when the United Nation initiate MDGs in 2001. Street vending have been regarded as one of the fastest way of getting out of poverty (World Bank, 2017).

The example giving above shows clearly the need to address street vending challenges simultaneously from the following perspectives: (1) the role of street vending in economic development and poverty reduction; (2) the development of an enabling business environment and policies that will ensure the accomplishment of street

vending roles; (3) the effective internal management of street vending to ensure sustainability and poverty reduction through job creation and decent livelihood; (4) the personal development of street vending operators. Finally, the book underscores the need to contextualize the four perspectives identified above to reflect the African socio-cultural, institutional and economic contexts.

Though the influence of street vending on employment and poverty reduction has gained much empirical attention in the literature in Nigeria (Adedeji *et al.* 2014; Umar 2009; Metiboba and Kakwagh 2014; Chukuezi 2010; Amoo *et al.* 2012; Anetor). This notwithstanding, little or no is known about street vending in Minna, Niger State, specifically the impact of street vending on poverty reduction in Minna, Niger State; a good number of these studies do not emphasis on the main impact of street vending on poverty reduction which make its less significance; anti-poverty measures in Nigeria are usually based on income-consumption approach to the neglect of other welfare variables; these studies failed to reach out to the street vending operators particularly in Minna to get their view on street vending as an instrument for poverty reduction.

This is one of the major gap this study tends to fill, little or no evidences have been shown especially in Minna, the study area. However, the present study is one of its kind in the study area. Therefore, this study stands to provides answer to the following questions: what is the poverty status of the street vending in the study area; what is the impact of physical environment sustainability on poverty reduction in the study area; what is the impact of social sustainability on poverty reduction in the study area; what is the relationship between economic sustainability and household poverty status in the study area.

1.3 Aim and Objectives of the Study

The main aim of this study is to assess the impact of street vending on poverty reduction in Minna metropolis. In achieving this aim, the following specific objectives was formulated.

- 3 To examine the poverty status of the respondents in the study area.
- 4 To assess the impact of physical environment sustainability on poverty reduction in the study area
- 5 To assess the impact of social sustainability on poverty reduction in the study area.
- 6 To analyse the relationship between economic sustainability and households poverty status.

1.4 Significance of the Study

Report on poverty by National Bureau of Statistics, (NBS 2013), shows that the poverty rate in Nigeria is on the increase. The rate stood at 67 percent or approximately 112 million of the country's population lives below the poverty line in 2013, it was also reported that the figure might increase further if potential impact of several anti-poverty measure are not taking into account. This study on the impact of street vending on poverty reduction in Minna, Niger State, Nigeria can serve as one of the measures of anti-poverty.

The concept of street vending with its components such as physical environment sustainability, social sustainability and economic sustainability which have been observed as a missing link in the society have implication on the people's welfare. This situation thus provides a unique opportunity for scholars, researchers, politicians, policy makers, as well as, other concerned individuals and organizations to direct

search light on the impact of the street vending on poverty reduction in Minna, Niger state, which will provide relevant data for policy reforms that will address the problems.

Findings from this study can perhaps serve as an insight to government to implement decisions that will assist the poor in Minna, Niger State to be gainfully employed and improve their welfare.

1.5 Scope of the Study

Basically, this study focuses attention on the assessment of street vending on poverty reduction in Minna, metropolis, Niger State, Nigeria and the degree to which the street vending has fared in reducing poverty. The choice of this topic and the case study area can be attributed to the rising rate of poverty in Nigeria, most especially the Northern part of the country to which Niger State belongs.

The analytical focus of this study was on how street vending reduces poverty in Minna, Niger State, Nigeria. The study was carried out for a period of four (4) months, which is between the month of February and May 2019.

1.6 Definition of Terms and Variables

Poverty: Poverty is pronounced deprivation in well-being, and comprises many dimensions. It includes *low incomes* and the inability to acquire the basic goods and services necessary for survival with dignity. Poverty also encompasses low levels of health and education, poor access to clean water and sanitation, inadequate physical security, lack of voice, and *insufficient capacity and opportunity* to better one's life.

Poverty Reduction: Poverty reduction in relation to small enterprises development can be defined as a condition where people lack satisfactory material resources (food, shelter, clothing, housing), are unable to access basic services (health, education,

water, sanitation), and are constrained in their ability to exercise rights, share power and lend their voices to the institutions and processes which affect the social.

Street Vending: Street vendors are defined as business people who sell goods or offer services to the public in the open air rather in a store or shop. In everyday language, they are also known as street peddlers, hawkers, and informal traders

CHAPTER TWO

2.0

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Background of Street vending

It has been observed that street trading is an ancient and important occupation found in virtually every country and major cities around the world (Bromley, 2000). In the past, street trading has been viewed as an underground activity that undermines the healthy functioning of the formal economy, Mitulla (2003). She further argues that policies and regulations enforced on street and market traders owe their origin from colonial policies. Maas *et al.* (2007) South Africa is ranked low on entrepreneurial activities when compared to other developing countries such as Peru, Philippines, Thailand, Chile and Argentina. The study stated that only 5.29% of South Africans aged between 18-64 years are actively involved in starting or managing a business which they wholly or partly own and which is less than three-and-half years old. This means that from every 100 South African adults, only five manage their own businesses, compared to 10% of adult population of other developing countries such as Peru, Philippines, Thailand, Brazil and Argentina.

Street trading plays an important role in African economies according to Mitulla (2003). Citing Kenya as an example, she observes street trading which is considered as Small and Micro Enterprises (SME) contribute employment and income to about five million people in 2002. Contrary to the belief that street trading would dissipate with economic growth and development (Sethuraman, 1981), the informal economy has nevertheless become a permanent and important feature of developing economies. Motala (2002) estimates the number of people operating in the informal economy in South Africa to range from just under 2-4 million people. Small and medium

enterprise sector in South Africa is constituted of over 1.5 million self-employed, contributing about 40% of the country's total remuneration, (World Bank, 2014). There are roughly 118,660 informal enterprises in Limpopo accounting for R8, 175 billion expended on goods and services (Antonopoulos *et al.*, 2011). This number also includes the number of street traders that are operating in Polokwane. To understand the meaning and philosophy of street trading, the researcher has defined the concept and relates it into practice.

2.2 Concept of Street Vending and Poverty

2.2.1 Concept of street vending

The term street vending has attracted many definitions from different authors. The concept has been defined by various authors from different perspectives to accommodate different aspects of small business enterprises. Generally, street vendors are defined as businesspeople who sell goods or offer services to the public in the open air rather than in a store or shop. In everyday language, they are also known as street peddlers, hawkers, and informal traders (Kristina *et al.*, 2015). There are two main types of street vendors. The first one has a fixed stall that can be left on its site when not in operation, such as a kiosk. The other one is the mobile vendor who makes use of a cart, a cycle, or other means of transportation that can be removed from the street at the end of the business day (Bhowmik, 2010).

In order to get access to more business, street vendors mainly occupy the urban public areas with high pedestrian flows (Hays-Mitchell 1994). Popular locations for street vending are the places around parks and squares; transportation hubs like important road junctions, bus and metro stations; populous institutions such as universities and hospitals; and commercial districts with markets or shopping malls. They offer easy

access to a wide range of goods, ranging from prepared food to fresh fruit, from books to consumer electronics, from clothes to shoe repair. The working time of street vendors is flexible. Some of them do the business all day, like the food vendor around bus terminals. Some just appear in the morning or evening during peak commuting hours. Basing on different locations and goods they sell, street vending can be a full-time, part-time, seasonally, or occasionally job (Bromley, 2000).

As an integral part of urban economies, street vendors can be found in virtually every country around the world (Cross 1998; Bromley, 2000). However, their status is quite different between developed and developing countries (Bromley, 2000). The role of street vending is still to support the livelihood of the poor in developing countries rather than promote tourism or enrich the city's market (Bhowmik, 2012). In most countries of Latin America, Asia, and Africa, street vending is treated as an illegal activity, and vendors are constantly harassed by the authorities (Bhowmik, 2005).

Donovan (2008) defines street trading as “a form of entrepreneurship for those who cannot afford to buy or rent fixed premises”. They sell their merchants either on the pavement in order to attract customers who are mainly pedestrians, or move from place to place carrying their goods on carts as they do not have a permanent place for their trade (Bhowmik, 2010). Street trading according to Mitulla (2003: 3) is rampant and a source of employment and income for many urban dwellers.

Street trading is used interchangeably as informal enterprise (Stats SA in Antonopoulos et al., 2008). It is defined as the informal sector, consisting of those businesses that are not registered in any way. They are generally small in nature, run from homes, street pavements and other informal arrangements (Antonopoulos *et al.*, 2011). Researchers, in recent years have proposed entrepreneurship as the critical

solution to South Africa`s high unemployment and satisfactory level of poverty. They urge that S. A needs to imbibe a culture of entrepreneurship as it provides the engine for innovation and growth, which creates jobs and alleviates poverty (Antonopoulos *et al.*, 2011).

2.2.2 Street vending and sustainable urban development

Street vending forms an integral part of urban setting of the streets, adding socio-economic and cultural benefits and providing a means of livelihood to the poorer sections of society. Street vending adds image ability to public spaces which act as banners illustrating the different cultural components of the city like language spoken, what people like to eat, buy, etc. They form the first impression of the space which forms the honest view of the people who socialize, what is popular and what makes a place unique. To highlight this, in the study area we have documented to substantiate the role of street vending for a sustainable urban development

2.2.2.1 Sustainability

The term sustainable development was brought into common usage by World Commission on Environment and Development (The Bruntl and Commission) in 1987. The balancing of three major factors, the physical environment, economy and social equity leads to the development of streets and public realm spaces in a sustainable manner. The physical environment involves the efficient uses of spaces with respect to time and social equity facilitating the social interaction between different social, economic and cultural groups to promote the economic objective of livelihood through street vending

1.0 Physical environment sustainability

A street vendor is broadly defined as a person who offers goods for sale to the public without having a permanent built up structure but with a temporary static structure or mobile stall (or head load). Street vendors maybe stationary vender, mobile street vendor and peripatetic vendor. The study focused on the stationary and mobile street vendor in the study area.

2.0 Social sustainability

“Social equality is a state of affairs in which all people within a specific society or isolated group have the same status in certain respects, often including civil rights, freedom of speech, property rights, and equal access to social goods and services”(Source: Wikipedia). It is through social equity various social organizational features likes’ networks, norms and trust are coordinated and facilitated for mutual benefits. In today’s scenario, goods are manufactured at distinct spaces in which the goods and the consumers have no association with the workers and the place of manufacture. Under such scenario street vending drastically narrows the relationship between consumer and workers allowing the buyers to feel the goods, which brings about a better social interaction unlike the formal sectors where goods and services are streamlined in a robotic manner. The informal sector enhances the social interaction bargaining with prices and involves direct communication between seller and buyer. Traditional streets like Gandhi Bazar and Avenue road hold well for above statement. This concept brings flexible economy and the pricing can allow equity of sustainability for various socio-economical classes which reduces the differentiating class boundaries.

3.0 Economical sustainability

Economic sustainability refer to creation of local or regional self-reliant and community economics. The concept of street vending varies in terms of scale, location, time, and other specific factors which in turn vary with respect to the people and the types of goods sold. Each region comprises of definite or indefinite number of street vendors who use street trading as a secondary, seasonal, temporary or part time occupation.

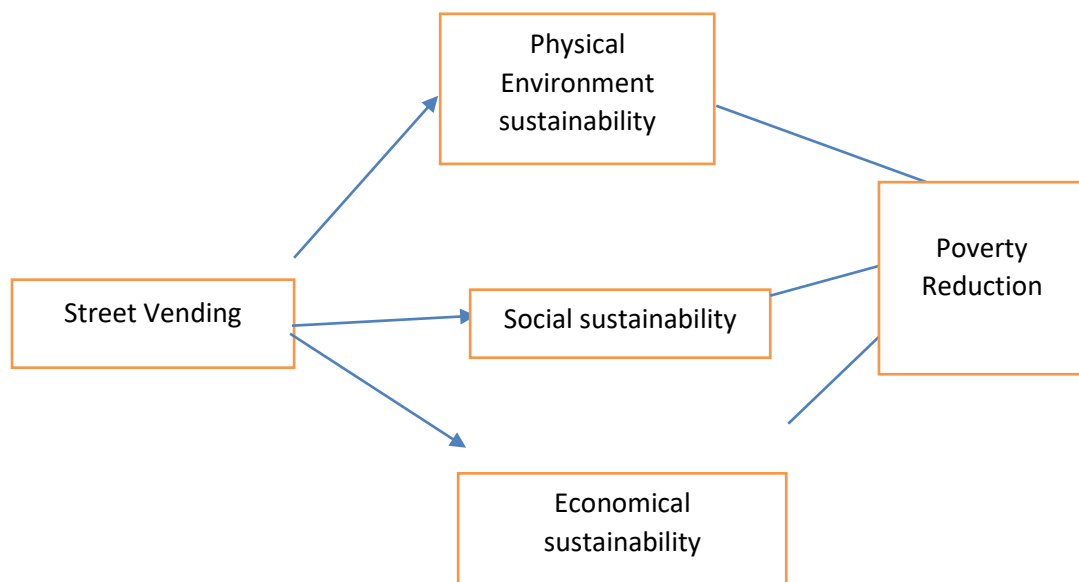


Figure 2.1 Conceptual framework of street vending and poverty reduction

2.3 Typology of Street Vendors

Street vendors are not one homogeneous group, but comprise various sectors, such as fixed-stall vendors who operate in front of their houses or from the street pavement and mobile sellers who vend from one location to another by carrying their wares on hand or on push carts. Iyenda (2005) has identified two main types of street vendors, the walking vendors and the fixed vendors. Walking vendors refer to those street

vendors who are mobile all the time, while fixed vendors on the other hand, are those who remain in particular locations for a certain period.

2.4 Driving Factors that Attract People to Street Vending

There are many reasons, economic or social, that push a person into the street vending sector. The following section explains some of the reasons that push people into street vending.

2.4.1 Economic driving factors

i. Search for employment

Many sub-Saharan African countries Nigeria inclusive have experienced rapid population growth and urbanization from natural population increase and high rates of migration into the cities and large towns.

According to Berner *et al.* (2008) and Gomez (2008), street traders do not start their business by choice but are forced into it because they cannot find wage employment or because of other economic shocks. Similarly, Nittaya (2014) showed that the suitable conditions for new entrants to street vending are a large pool of unemployed people.

ii. Escape taxes and government trade policy

In some countries, business registration procedures are costly and cumbersome; the taxation system is heavy while labour regulation is rigid. Due to this, small entrepreneurs' initiatives are limited and therefore forced to operate from the streets. It is, therefore, necessary to eliminate some of the entry barriers to the formal sector of the economy in order to improve conditions in the labour market.

iii. Other economic driving factors

This literature review shows that street traders undertake the business due to lack of enough capital and to avoid paying rent in the formal markets. Further, traders try to avoid the cost of formality in terms of strict rules and regulation, taxes, time and effort involved in complying with formal state procedures (De Soto, 1989). Others engage in street vending to supplement income earned elsewhere, or changing the jobs because the previous job working conditions were unsatisfactory (Turner & Laura, 2012).

2.4.2 Social driving factors

i. To be self-employed

According to Ndhlovu (2011), street traders undertake the activities as an easy means of setting oneself up as self-employed with low initial capital.

ii. Supporting family

Street vending provides earning opportunity and livelihoods to support the dependent family members. Because of the increasing vulnerability at the household level, one is supposed to support family members, for example, children, siblings and parents. Providing basic necessities to dependent family members becomes the responsibility of youths and adults. Many vendors work on the streets for the survival of their dependent family members. This has also been confirmed by Babere (2013) in his study about struggle for space: appropriation and regulation of prime locations in sustaining informal livelihoods in Dar-Es-Salaam City, Tanzania. She found that street traders take the role of providing for their household as the circumstances require, which makes them for any means possible for meeting the family daily needs.

iii. Limited education

Studies have showed that lack of education and training for employment in formal sector is one of the various reason that push people into street trading activities. This has also been confirmed by Ndhlovu (2011) in her study on street vending in Zambia, a case study of Lusaka District.

2.5 Concept of Poverty

Poverty remains a perpetual challenge for all societies, and has regularly been followed by widespread efforts to provide inclusive financial systems to cater for the poor. Although an income based poverty line is generally used in measuring poverty, one important component of these attempts both at national and international levels is the continuous debate over what poverty means. A more recent understanding of poverty is the idea that poverty is multidimensional in nature. This calls for a shift from a one-dimensional income based measure to a multidimensional understanding and approach to tackling poverty. Although this idea is widely accepted, its application or implementation in estimating poverty is rather implicit, as there are no universally specified poverty dimensions. Different conceptualization of and approaches to poverty influence the choice of indicators for measurement, the classification of who is regarded as poor and who is not and also the policies adopted for tackling poverty. This section presents a theoretical and empirical review of the three prominent approaches to poverty identified in the literature. They include the monetary approach, the capability approach, and the social exclusion approach. It is important to mention that each approach comes with certain strengths and drawbacks. Nevertheless, the capability approach is employed in this study and hence a greater portion of the discussion focuses on this approach. This is followed with a review of

the unresolved issues in the existing literature. Drawing on the review of the poverty approaches as well as the contending issues, the concluding section presents the conceptualization of poverty applied in this study.

2.5.1 Definitions of poverty

The concept of poverty is highly contested: there is no single clear-cut definition (Alcock, 2006). Traditionally, poverty is expressed in terms of ‘distributional issues: the lack of resources at the disposal of an individual or household to ensure a suitable standard of subsistence or living’ (Barnes, 2005). Beyond an individual’s ability to satisfy minimum living standards of food, clothing, shelter and fuel, it is also about ‘having what you need in order to have the opportunities and choices necessary to participate in society’ (Bradshaw *et al.*, 2008). Poverty reduction is a major goal for both national governments and international development agencies such as the United Nations and the World Bank. Two broad definitions of poverty include:

Fundamentally, poverty is a denial of choices and opportunities, a violation of human dignity. It means lack of basic capacity to participate effectively in society. It means not having enough to feed and clothe a family, not having a school or clinic to go to; not having the land on which to grow one’s food or a job to earn one’s living, not having access to credit. It means insecurity, powerlessness and exclusion of individuals, households and communities. It means susceptibility to violence, and it often implies living in marginal or fragile environments, without access to clean water or sanitation’ (United Nations, 1998 cited in Gordon, 2005).

Poverty is pronounced deprivation in well-being, and comprises many dimensions. It includes low incomes and the inability to acquire the basic goods and services necessary for survival with dignity. Poverty also encompasses low levels of health

and education, poor access to clean water and sanitation, inadequate physical security, lack of voice, and insufficient capacity and opportunity to better one's life' (World Bank, 2011).

These definitions encompass different dimensions of poverty. Poverty is seen to entail deprivation in income or monetary resources (monetary approach); deprivation in choices, opportunities and the capacity to better one's life (capability approach); and deprivation in the capacity to participate effectively in society (social exclusion approach). These approaches to poverty capture and place emphasis on different dimensions of poverty.

2.6 Approaches to Poverty

Following the work of Laderchi *et al.*, (2003), this section presents a review of the three main approaches to poverty: the monetary, capability, and social exclusion approach. It explores the theoretical underpinnings, criticisms and strengths as well as the challenges associated with operationalizing these approaches.

2.6.1 The monetary approach

This is the most commonly used approach in the identifying and measuring poverty. Welfare is measured by total consumption, proxied by either income or expenditure data, and poverty is described as a 'shortfall below some minimum level of resources', termed the poverty line. (Laderchi *et al.*, 2003:248). Besides the utility maximizing behaviour assumption, one main argument for the monetary approach is the minimum rights approach which considers it a human right to earn a certain basic income because of the freedom of choice this brings (Atkinson, 1989; van Parijs, 1992). Another is the assumption that beyond its ability to measure utility, monetary indicators may also be able to proxy other aspects of poverty and welfare. It is argued

that beyond the lack of resources, monetary indicators represent a convenient shortcut method for identifying individuals who are poor in other fundamental dimensions, such as health, nutrition etc. The assumption is that with appropriately devised measuring tools, uniform monetary metrics can be used to capture all possible inherent heterogeneity among individuals and their situations. One underlining problem with this approach is: how do we define the level of basic income. The validity of the utilitarian approach also depends partly on how well utility can measure well-being; how satisfactory monetary expenditure is as a measure of poverty; how well a shortfall in utility sufficiently captures all aspects of poverty; as well as the justification for any given poverty line (Laderchi *et al.*, 2003).

The poverty line can either be set as an absolute or a relative measure of poverty. Absolute poverty measures poverty in terms of minimum standards of living which everyone should have in spite of the country they live in (Lister, 2004; Spicker, 2007). Although this approach to measuring poverty allows for easier comparison of poverty rates in different countries across the globe, it is disadvantaged to the extent in which it becomes arbitrary in its application in different societies. However, for the purpose of cross-country comparisons and for consistent poverty indicators, the World Bank uses the absolute measure of poverty. First introduced by the World Bank in 1990, the \$1 a day poverty line has been recently revised to \$1.25 and \$2 a day, to measure extreme and moderate poverty respectively and are adjusted for application to local currencies using the 2005 purchasing power parities (PPPs). Global poverty rates measured as the number of people living below \$1.25 a day has declined significantly since the 1980s. The total number of extremely poor people fell from about 1.94 billion in 1981 to about 1.2 billion in 2010. This substantial reduction in poverty over the past three decades, however, disguises huge regional differences. The figures

show a decline in the number of the extremely poor across all regions, but SSA where the population growth rate exceeded the rate of poverty reduction, thus doubling the number of extremely poor people in the region over this period (World Bank, 2012). As mentioned earlier, these absolute poverty lines are controversial in their relevance to different societies. Most countries therefore apply national poverty rates which are relative and believed to better reflect the equality of opportunities in a given time and space.

Relative poverty is measured using a poverty line which is derived in money terms based on some 'basket of goods' which is recognized as being set relative to the society to which it relates. Here, 'Individuals, families and groups in the population can be said to be in poverty when they lack the resources to obtain the types of diet, participate in the activities and have the living conditions and amenities which are customary, or at least widely encouraged or approved, in the societies to which they belong. Their resources are so seriously below those commanded by the average individual or family that they are, in effect, excluded from ordinary living patterns, customs and activities' (Townsend, 1979).

This approach to measuring poverty based on a standard of living or level of income sufficient to satisfy basic needs (like food, water, clothing, basic health care, and housing), relative to what prevails in the society under consideration is often referred to as a measure of 'moderate poverty'. Particularly in the 1970s, this emphasis on relative poverty, inspired greater attention to a much wider conceptualisation of poverty beyond just income or expenditure. This period also saw a move from a narrow concept of 'income poverty' to a wider focus on 'unmet basic needs' including, the need for social relations and participation within the society.

Relative poverty can also be measured using a poverty line set as a percent of average income. For example, the European Union classifies as poor ‘those individuals who are employed and whose household equivalised disposable income is below 60% of national medium equivalised income’ (Laderchi *et al.*, 2003). The Nigerian National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) also adopts a relative measure of poverty set at two-thirds of the total household per capita expenditure (THPCE). With the above definition, if real income increases for everyone in the society, but income distribution remains the same, relative poverty will also remain unchanged. This relative measurement of poverty can sometimes produce strange results. For instance, if the median annual household income in a wealthy society is £1 million, then a household with annual income of £100,000 would be considered relatively poor, even if such a household can meet all of its basic needs. Further, if the median annual household income in a poor society is only 50 percent of what is needed to meet basic needs, then households with the median income would not be labeled poor, even though they are clearly poor on an absolute scale. Here, relative poverty decreases only with a more equal distribution of income regardless of how this is achieved. For instance, if income levels changed in a way that hurt high earners more than low ones, relative poverty would decrease even though everyone is worse off.

However, these monetary poverty indicators almost always consist of only private resources, and overlook social resources (a variety of resources and benefits provided publicly, . public health care, schools, the environment). This is likely to create an ‘implicit bias in policy choices in favour of the generation of private income as against public goods provision, and similarly, a bias in the identification of the poor for targeting purposes towards those lacking private income’ (Laderchi *et al.*, 2003). Additionally, nutritional requirements appear dominant in the justification for

defining the monetary poverty line. Yet, differences in metabolic rates, age, gender and size implies varying adequate nutritional requirements (Payne, 1993). Food prices and availability, as well as differing tastes also affect how much money is needed to achieve any given level of nutrition. Furthermore, poverty lines are typically drawn up at the household level even though the distribution of resources within the household may differ, resulting in differing individual nutritional levels. This suggests an inherent problem in drawing a unique poverty line based purely on nutritional requirements. A better approach would be to draw up a range of income levels, from a minimum poverty line below which everyone is poor, to a maximum poverty line above which no one is poor, in nutritional terms. A practical example of this is the common approach of setting the ‘poverty’ line and the ‘extreme poverty’ line.

Furthermore, economists approach welfare from the level of the individual; hence, poverty defined as a shortfall in welfare is individualistic. Consumption and income data are however collected at the household level. This implies that some level of adjustment is necessary for estimating individual poverty from any given level of household resources; including how income and expenditure is allocated within the household. Estimating individual poverty involves both practical and theoretical problems. For instance, if we adopt a minimum rights perspective and assume equal rights for all individuals, then assigning different weights to individual needs would be inconsistent with the definition. Nevertheless, if these rights are perceived as relating to outcomes rather than resources, or, if a utility-based perspective is adopted, adjustments that take into account different individual needs are justified (Laderchi *et al.*, 2003).

Overall, beyond the challenges discussed above, the approach is daunted by some weaknesses. For example, the welfarist assumption that all relevant heterogeneity

applicable to humans can be controlled for, requires fairly strong assumptions. Moreover, this approach addresses individual achievements, but fails to take into account social resources – social interactions and interdependencies at the household and community level - that may significantly influence individual achievements. Despite significant methodological developments and the apparent ‘scientificity’ of poverty estimates under this approach, these estimates still require numerous value judgements and are therefore open to debates (Reddy & Pogge, 2002; Ravallion, 2002). These value judgements on what constitutes a necessity and hence qualifies to be part of the essential consumption basket are generally performed ‘externally’, . without the involvement of poor people themselves.

Although many of the methodological elements applied in estimating monetary poverty are borrowed from economic theories (. equivalisation techniques), recent debates in the development literature have argued that poverty is in itself not only an economic category. It is argued that non-monetary indicators can be as good as and sometimes better than monetary poverty measures; as income and consumption capture only certain dimensions of poverty (Addison *et al.*, 2009; Harris, 2002). This calls for the need to move beyond consumption and income measures of poverty to adopt other multidisciplinary measures and concepts that capture wider wellbeing dimensions. This is supported by growing consensus that an in-depth understanding of poverty requires the use of interdisciplinary approaches that bridge the gap between disciplines and combines quantitative and qualitative methods in the measurement and analysis of poverty. This is expected to bridge the divide between other social scientists (anthropology, sociology and politics) and economists. This chapter therefore turns to other poverty approaches that allows for a multidimensional and

interdisciplinary approach to poverty. Next, we explore the Capability Approach which applies a human development approach to measuring and analysing poverty.

2.6.2 The capability approach (CA)

This approach advocates that poverty be measured in terms of human development . the expansion of individual capabilities and not the maximization of income or utility (Sen, 1985, 1997, 1999). Here, the ‘freedom of individuals to live valued lives’ is considered to be a better measure of well-being than monetary resources. Poverty therefore refers to deprivation in terms of failure to achieve certain basic or minimal capabilities. ‘Basic capabilities refer to the ability to satisfy certain crucially important functionings (valuable achievements) up to certain minimally adequate levels’ (Sen, 1993). Well-being is therefore perceived as the freedom to live valued lives in terms of realizing human potential (referred to as individual capability).

This emphasis on characterizing the quality of human life by the ability to achieve ‘potential outcomes’, denotes a shift from monetary indicators to a focus on non-monetary measures for evaluating deprivation or well-being. Income is treated only as a means to increased well-being, and not the outcome of interest. In other words, monetary resources are only considered as a means to an end, and not an end in itself. It is argued that, monetary resources do not represent a reliable measure of capability outcomes because individuals face differences in transforming available resources into valuable attainments (functioning). These differences depend on individual characteristics such as: physical abilities, mental/intellectual abilities, differences in metabolic rates, as well as contextual differences in individual living conditions (. access to public services).

Based on these differences, an emphasis on final outcomes requires that poverty assessments consider the fact that certain individuals require more resources than others to achieve the same outcome. The emphasis is therefore on the adequacy of a combination of monetary and non-monetary resources to achieve certain capabilities rather than the sufficiency of these resources. It is important to note that contrary to certain criticisms, the CA considers the role of social goods and externalities in influencing an individual's capabilities. It is the utilization of commodities (physical and intellectual) acquired by income as well as those publicly provided that enables individuals to attain certain functionings. Besides private monetary resources and public goods and services, individual characteristics (including age, gender, and physical capacities) and the general societal context influence an individual's capability set and the use to which it is put, or the individual's functionings that can be achieved. Therefore, although monetary resources remain instrumental in the achievement of poverty reduction (or enhanced well-being), it is just one of the several factors that contribute to the different dimensions of well-being. While the above discourse represents the foundational tenets of the CA, three critical debates remain central to its application as an approach for poverty assessment. These debates are discussed below.

2.6.2.1 Operationalizing the capabilities approach

Key questions within the capabilities approach over which there remain certain uncertainties include: what are the relevant dimensions and by what process should they be decided. Sen generally characterises dimensions as 'beings and doings' and his stance with regards to this challenge is that: often only an incomplete measurement of multidimensional poverty is feasible, yet he holds that this incompleteness is by no means an embarrassment. He notes that capabilities can vary

‘from such elementary physical ones as being well nourished, being adequately clothed and sheltered, avoiding preventable morbidity, and so forth, to more complex social achievements such as taking part in the life of the community, being able to appear in public without shame, and so on’ (Sen, 1995). Yet, he neither defines a universal list of basic capabilities nor provides guidelines for developing such a list.

However, several attempts have been made to define such a universal list. The most influential attempt to draw such a list by Nussbaum (2000) encompasses ten capability measures of wellbeing. Although Nussbaum recognises that this list is open-ended and open for revision to suit different locations, she strongly supports and points to the benefit of drawing up a list of central capabilities. Inherent in this list of capabilities is an overwhelming importance on the quality of life an individual is ‘capable’ of achieving or has the ‘freedom’ to achieve. She argues that across different societies, there is an ‘overlapping consensus’ on what is needed to achieve a full human life. She therefore defends these capabilities as the moral entitlements of all humans and argues that in the absence of any of these ten capabilities, the human life becomes impoverished such that ‘it is not worthy of the dignity of a human being’ (Nussbaum, 2000).

In addition to the Nussbaum’s list, Sabina Alkire launched the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) dedicated to research about those poverty dimensions not yet sufficiently assessed in previous studies and data sources (Alkire and Foster, 2007). Additionally, the UNDP human development index (HDI) was derived from the CA. Here, poverty is measured as ‘... deprivation in three essential elements of human life...longevity, knowledge and decent standard of living ... (UNDP, 1997). The indicators of deprivation for developing countries include: life expectancy below 40 at birth; adult illiteracy; and an average of under-five mortality

and lack of access to improved water sources. Here, poverty is measured as ‘... deprivation in three essential elements of human life...longevity, knowledge and decent standard of living ... (UNDP, 1997). The indicators of deprivation for developing countries include: life expectancy below 40 at birth; adult illiteracy; and an average of under-five mortality and lack of access to improved water sources. Indicators for developed countries include: life expectancy below 60 at birth; lack of functional adult literacy; population with income below 50% of the national median disposable household income and the long-term unemployment rate. This implies that the choice of dimensions and benchmarks are arbitrary and likely to be revised with changing poverty levels in the country or region where poverty assessment is being made, as well as changes in global poverty rates (Laderchi *et al.*, 2003).

Although these lists have been widely used, the importance placed on international comparability goes contrary to the context sensitivity of the CA, which emphasizes inquiring about context specific dimensions for any particular country. In all, not much attention has been given to the possibility of a universal measure of capability poverty as most studies identify with the contextual relevance of this approach. A critical look at these lists also shows that no one of them is exhaustive of the various dimensions of poverty. This confirms Sen’s point that only an incomplete measurement of multidimensional poverty is feasible. Sen also recommends that in dealing with poverty in developing economies, certain basic capabilities (. ‘the freedom to be well nourished, well sheltered, and in good general health, the capability of escaping avoidable morbidity and premature mortality, the ability to move about freely’, and so forth) which are central to important functioning’s should be included (Sen, 1996). However, he also mentions that this depends on the domains or dimensions of interest as the selected capabilities cannot be independent of what

we intend to study. Additionally, the emphasis is placed on identifying and prioritizing freedoms in the domains that people value and have reason to value. These value judgements should also be determined by the subjects of interest and not externally imposed.

Sen (2004), has continued to argue against a universal list, claiming that the lack of specification ensures the relevance of the CA to different persons and cultures. He argues that the evaluative exercises (poverty, human rights, human development) for which capability sets are selected, vary greatly in practice, and so should be the capabilities (Alkire, 2002; Sen 2004). In his response to the call for a universal capability set, Sen replies,

‘The problem is not with listing important capabilities, but with insisting on one predetermined canonical list of capabilities, chosen by theorists without any general social discussion or public reasoning pure theory cannot “freeze” a list of capabilities for all societies for all time to come, irrespective of what the citizens come to understand and value. That would not only be a denial of the reach of democracy, but also a misunderstanding of what pure theory can do....To insist on a fixed forever list of capabilities would deny the possibility of progress in social understanding and also go against the productive role of public discussion, social agitation, and open debates...What we focus on cannot be independent of what we are doing and why (whether we are evaluating poverty, specifying certain basic human rights, getting a rough and ready measure of human development, and so on)’ (Sen, 2004).

He argues that an appropriate application of the CA as an evaluation technique must not only meet the relevance criterion (. be context-specific with a focus on what people value and relevant for the intended objective), but also the usability criterion (.

be usable for empirical analysis). However, he does not provide specific guidelines on how the CA can be implemented. Hence, researchers who attempt to operationalize the CA are faced with certain complexities.

Capabilities can also be selected from an ongoing deliberative process. Here, the goal is to extract information on the dimensions of poverty the poor value, using participatory approaches and group discussions. The attraction to this process is that ‘value judgements are made and revised directly by the community concerned’. Some drawbacks include the possibility that the process may be hijacked by the elite in the community. Additionally, in the absence of trust; discussions on ‘values’ may be misleading and superficial. It is also expensive and may be particularly unfeasible at a large scale. Nevertheless, Alkire (2008) argues that this approach is a preferred option when the researcher

- (i) intends to capture value issues in a reflective way
- (ii) can ensure that conflicting views are expressed safely
- (iii) can capture the views of all relevant groups without excluding certain people due to power balance.

Finally, capability dimensions can be selected and drawn from empirical analysis. For example, based on empirical evidence, some normative values required for a healthy human well-being have been articulated by a number of psychologists (Biswas-Diener & Diener, 2001; Inglehart & Baker, 2000). Drawing from 78 empirical Participatory Poverty Assessment (PPA) reports, surveys such as the ‘voices of the poor’ applied this method by gathering and synthesizing findings regarding the poverty dimensions the poor value (Narayan *et al.*, 1999). Although this method may be disadvantageous for side-lining the perspectives of the poor currently studied, combining this with a

deliberative or participatory method will ensure that the capabilities selected are relevant to the context. In all, there is no universally accepted capability set and the validity of the selected capabilities is likely to be improved when a combination of two or more selection techniques are applied, and when the process of selection is clearly made known. Beyond the challenge of selecting capabilities, another difficult task in operationalizing the CA is the translation of capabilities (. all potential achievements an individual may have) into something measurable.

2.6.3 Social exclusion (SE)

The concept of social exclusion (SE) was developed in developed countries to refer to the processes of deprivation and marginalization that can arise even in countries with comprehensive welfare packages. It has been applied to developing countries through the activities of the Social Summit and various UN agencies (Clert, 1999). The SE is defined as a ‘process through which individuals or groups are wholly or partially excluded from full participation in the society in which they live (European Foundation, 1995). This approach stems from the early work of Townsend who relatively defined the poor as those who ‘are in effect excluded from ordinary living patterns, customs and activities (Townsend, 1979). Hence, SE is socially defined; pertaining to groups (gender, age, racial or ethnic categories) rather than individuals. SE therefore involves a relative approach – exclusion from ‘normal’ activities - to the estimation and definition of poverty.

In contrast with the previous approaches, SE pays more attention to the processes and dynamics that engender deprivation as well as the outcome of exclusion. SE is also expressed as a dynamic process, best described as descending levels: some disadvantages lead to some exclusion, which in turn leads to more disadvantages and

more exclusion and ends up with persistent multiple (deprivation) disadvantages (Eurostat Taskforce, 1998). Hence, multidimensionality – being subject to more than one and possibly multiple deprivations – is an essential feature of SE. This raises issues of aggregation as in the case of CA. Empirical studies also points to causal links between different dimensions of SE, . between income and employment; housing and employment; insurance and formal sector employment. SE has also been linked with monetary poverty as lack of income is both a cause of SE (exclusion from social relations) and an outcome (exclusion from productive opportunities).

Indicators of SE in developed countries normally include unemployment, minimal income and social relations, access to housing, and democratic rights. For instance, Townsend (1979) introduced the use of social indicators in establishing poverty thresholds. In the Townsend approach and other studies based on his approach, even when measures which could be seen as related to income such as the nutritional value of diet and participation (holding birthday parties for children) were included, they were mainly included as reflections of particular social customs. Applying these indicators to developing countries however raises difficult issues as the features of SE in these countries are likely to differ from those in developed countries. While these indicators remain highly relevant, it is difficult to find appropriate norms that can serve as benchmarks for SE in developing countries. In these countries, although high level of communality encourages and deepens social interactions, it however does not eradicate the very dominant ‘social class’ structures. Unemployment, poor living conditions, lack of social insurance etc. are characteristic of the majority of the population and do not indicate exclusion from normal social activities.

‘To the extent that the normal may not be desirable, what is “normal” may not be satisfactory in defining the benchmarks of exclusion’ (Laderchi, *et al.*, 2003). One

suggested solution is to adopt standards from outside the society, in this case developed countries (Room, 1999). However, in this case, one might ask: if external standards are adopted; then what is it that the poor are excluded from? Another suggestion is to derive context-specific indicators through consultation as suggested in participatory approaches. Still, it is empirically possible based on individual characteristics such as gender, race, caste etc., to identify which groups are correlated with multiple deprivations in other poverty approaches. This therefore suggests the failure of the SE in this case. For instance, this is the case in Nigeria where over 60% are relatively poor; living with a dearth of social amenities and basic infrastructure. In this case, the norm is not desirable. It is obvious from the above review that the SE approach 'defies clear definition and measurement' and is therefore the most problematic to interpret and the least well-defined conceptualization of deprivation (Micklewright, 2002). It is particularly difficult to apply the concept to developing societies because despite the possible conflict between what is desirable and what is normal, it is difficult to define 'normality' in these societies as well. The society-specific requirement also raises issues of possible discontinuities in the SE approach.

However, one issue which arises is often the suggestion with the social exclusion approach that the poor may be excluded on a long term basis, and sometimes leading into notions of a social underclass. Another issue that arises is which society individuals are being excluded from. In a divided society, a person may be included so far as own group (ethnic) is concerned but excluded from other groups. Social exclusion can occur (a) at the family level in terms of discrimination from access to and use of resources available in the family; (b) at societal level in terms of discrimination on the basis of caste, descent, ethnicity, gender, HIV status, religion, race, migrant status, sexual orientation or where they live; and (c) at the state and

policy level in terms of employment, welfare schemes, social security policies and their implementation (Media for Rights, 2011).

Nevertheless, advocates of the SE approach take pride in its emphasis on the processes and dynamics that engender deprivation; as well as its contribution to analysing structural characteristics within societies in terms of group deprivation. SE also encourages an emphasis on distributional issues - redistribution of opportunities and achievements - and points to the failure of the state to improve the situation of the excluded and incorporate all social groups. In contrast, the monetary and capability approaches are individualistic and do not place emphasis on distributional issues.

With these different approaches, it is obvious that there are some unresolved issues in the literature on poverty. First, what is the scope in which poverty or deprivation is defined and how is that scope captured by chosen indicators? Should poverty be restricted to the material aspects of life, or comprise of social, political and cultural aspects? Should poverty be measured in terms of resources/utility or in terms of the freedom to live 'valued' lives? What indicators would be considered appropriate for the different approaches? For instance, should indicators measure what individuals can achieve, the capacity to be and do a range of things, or what they actually achieve? Secondly, should we adopt universal definitions and measures of poverty that are applicable across different societies without serious adjustments? The CA approach is conceived with an initial focus on developing countries. As described earlier, this raises problems with their application to developed countries. In contrast, the monetary and SE approaches were conceived with an initial focus on developed countries, and the same problem applies. To some extent some approaches are more appropriate for certain contexts, and may need to be adjusted for better

implementation and relevance in particular societies. This creates problems with comparisons across different contexts.

Third is the question of the objectivity or subjectivity of poverty measures. Poverty statistics and remarks about poverty are often presented in a way that suggests objectivity, . the idea that poverty statistics capture a certain reality which is “out there”. However, as far as poverty measures are influenced by individual value judgements, they are subjective. This raises the question: who makes these value judgements? Is it done implicitly by statisticians or researchers who specialize in measuring poverty? Are these value judgements explicit so that they are readily available and subject to sensitivity analysis for evaluation? Are they made through a participatory poverty assessment process involving stakeholders and the poor themselves?

Fourth, is how to determine the poverty line that separates the poor from the non-poor? Two related issues arise: firstly, what is the justification for adopting any such line; and secondly, to what extent is the poverty line defined as relative to a given context or is intended to reflect some absolute standards of deprivation. From a relative point of view, the poverty line is defined with reference to some summary measure of the overall distribution. At the other extreme, a poverty line is set in terms of minimal requirements in the dimension of interest identified in absolute terms, . on the basis of some needs of the individual deemed as essential for survival. In reality it is difficult to identify such absolute needs irrespective of societal standards. None the less, the sense of deprivation or unhappiness caused by poverty is greatly influenced by average societal standards. In general, relative standards are mostly adopted in countries where it is assumed that all have access to the means to ensure survival,

while where the availability of a survival minimum is felt as a pressing issue (generally in developing countries), absolute standards are more often adopted.

A fifth issue concerns the *unit* over which poverty is defined at the individual or household level. While it is individuals who suffer or enjoy their lives, data, particularly of a monetary kind, normally pertain to households. Some resources (not only money income, but also sanitation, clean water) come via the household and it is difficult to ascertain the distribution of services they provide to the individual. Sixth, is the issue of *multidimensionality*. While the monetary approach argues that the monetary metrics either captures the essence of deprivation, or proxies all other deprivations, this depends on how well the relevant heterogeneity between individuals can be adjusted for, so that their monetary resources become comparable across individuals. On the other hand, Sen proposes the constitutive plurality of welfare assessments that do not present themselves in the form of a single index. However, in this case, how should each constituent dimension be measured and how should they be aggregated. By definition aggregation implies a loss of information, whose influence on the final results should be appropriately tested for (Laderchi *et al.*, 2003).

In conclusion, although it is unanimously agreed that poverty is a problem that needs necessary action to address it, there still remains a lot of uncertainty about the concept of poverty. Some unresolved issues include: what constitutes poverty, the unit of focus - individual or household level, the relative importance of the different dimensions of poverty, the need to distinguish and pay attention to the depth of poverty, the vulnerability of different groups to poverty and the gender and ethical dimensions of poverty. There are also different opinions about the causes of poverty and the relative importance of these causes, which in turn, results in different recommendations on how best to address poverty. Despite the agreement on the need

to address poverty, the degree of intervention is still not certain. For some advocates, the aim is poverty alleviation; for others it is poverty reduction; and for the very ambitious, it is poverty eradication.

This section reviews some of the poverty approaches – monetary, capability, and social exclusion - to conceptualizing and measuring poverty. It is evident that there is no clear definition or universally agreed conceptualization to poverty. Each approach holds different perspective of what constitutes a just society and a good life. They each involve methodological assumptions that are often unclear; which results in different estimates and categorization of the ‘poor’ and therefore different policy implications. With regards to measuring poverty, national income data and household consumer surveys have become more available over the years for estimating monetary poverty. In contrast, indicators of capability poverty often depend on one-off surveys as data for most capabilities are unavailable on a regular basis. Similar data deficiencies apply to the SE approach as some dimensions of SE may not be measured at all or maybe measured with deficient indicators.

Yet, the multidimensionality of human life advocates that poverty be approached from a multidimensional point of view. This has also been universally accepted in the poverty literature. Of the three approaches discussed in this section Amartya Sen’s capability approach provides a much wider human development approach to poverty. As Alkire (2008) puts it

‘The capability approach is a coherent framework that researchers can draw on in order to utilize diverse approaches to multidimensional well-being in a concerted and conceptually coherent fashion. It can be and, it is expected, will be applied differently

depending on the place and situation, the level of analysis, the information available, and the kind of decision involved (Alkire 2008).

Due to its broader focus on the development of human welfare, an emphasis on the ‘quality of life’ and the lack of specification which allows it to be tailored to context-specific differences, this study adopts a capability approach to poverty.

2.7 Street Vending and Poverty Reduction

Street vending is an attractive economic strategy and source of livelihood for the unskilled and illiterate new arrivals to the city, (Tshuma & Jari 2013). With increasing rural to urban migration and the contracting formal sector, street vending and other forms of informal employment become the most attractive means of survival for the urban poor, Chirisa and Muchini (2011), Adhikari (2012); Njaya (2015). According to Ray and Mishra (2011), vending has become an important source of employment for a large number of urban poor.

Timalsina (2012) argued street vending in Nepal maintained or improved resource productivity. This resulted in vendors securing ownership of and access to assets, resources and income-earning activities as well as ensuring adequate stocks, flows of food and cash to meet the vendors’ basic household needs.

Street vendors also provide low-cost basic goods and food items to other lower income groups within the cities. According to Natawidjaja *et al.* (2015), since the late 1990s, after the collapse of banks and industries due to the Asian economic crisis, street vending has played an important role by becoming a coping mechanism for low income households in the city of Surakarta.

Evidence shows that the monthly incomes from street vending are very low compared to the national average of formally employed individuals, (Roever, 2014). However,

according to Mengistu and Jibat (2015) most street vendors engage in street vending activities to supplement their low income or to cushion their spouse's low salary. Ray and Mishra (2011) also argued that despite the low incomes generated from vending activities, the simple fact that vendors do not wait for handouts and/or employment opportunities from the government or engage in begging, stealing or extortion is a clear sign that street vending is a form of income distribution with great economic potential.. Research also shows that through street vending, most women have taken the role of bringing food on the table (Amankwaa, 2015; Chingono 2016, Roever, 2016). Therefore, street vending does not only enable the formally marginalized" peddlers to meet their minimum daily food, but also teaches and inspires women and youths in particular to value work.

2.8 Meaning of Poverty Reduction

Poverty reduction is the primary objective and at the center of UNDP's work to support transformational change which brings about real improvements in people lives. UNDP invests nearly US\$1 billion every year in combating poverty and advancing progress towards the MDGs (UNDP, 2013).

Poverty reduction can be defined as a large scale development project aimed at reducing poverty and increasing the standard of living of the people in the country. In other word, it can be defined as the aid or support from either the government or donor agencies in reducing poverty level of the populace (Bank and Hulme, 2012; Imai *et al.*, 2014).

According to International Labor Organization, (ILO, 2006), Poverty reduction in relation to small enterprises development can be defined as a condition where people lack satisfactory material resources (food, shelter, clothing, housing), are unable to

access basic services (health, education, water, sanitation), and are constrained in their ability to exercise rights, share power and lend their voices to the institutions and processes which affect the social, economic and political environments in which they live and work

The International Labor Organization's (ILO) approach to poverty reduction is through small enterprise development based on the needs of poor people who are part of the micro and small enterprise economy, as owner/operators and workers, as their dependents, who are unemployed may benefit from job creation. The strategy is based on the promotion of the four elements of decent work, namely, productive, remunerative employment; rights at work; social dialogue; and social security (ILO, 2006).

2.8.1 Poverty reduction strategies in Nigeria

Poverty reduction strategy in Nigeria begins by the first civilian administration both at national and regional levels in which it carried out various entrepreneurial development initiatives aimed at combating poverty in Nigeria. These are in support to the national development plans. The First Development plan was between 1962-1968, the Second Development plan was between 1970-1974, the Third Development plan was in 1975-1980, the Fourth Development plan was in 1981-1985 and the Fifth Development plan, while also the three yearly National Rolling Plans was between 1990-1999.

However, Ogwumike (2001) and Ilesanmi *et al.* (2015), in their work stressed further by grouping the poverty reduction strategy in Nigeria into three eras, that is, the pre-SAP era, the SAP era, and the democratic era. According to them, in the pre-SAP era, the measures that were predominant were the Operation Feed the Nation, the River

Basin Development Authorities, the Agricultural Development Programmes, the Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme, the Rural Electrification Scheme and the Green Revolution. In the SAP era, the following poverty reduction measures were introduced: the Better Life for Rural Women, the Directorate of Employment, the Family Support Programme, the Peoples' Bank of Nigeria and the Family Economic, Advancement Programme, while the democratic era witnessed the following: Poverty Alleviation Programme (PAP), this was designed to provide employment to 200,000 people all over the country on a yearly basis. It was also aimed at inculcating and improving better attitudes towards maintenance culture on highways, urban and rural roads and public buildings.

By the year 2001, Poverty Alleviation Programme (PAP) as a strategy was phased out and replaced by newly created National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP), which was an integral part of the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS). Apart from being a poverty reduction strategy, NEEDS that was initiated in 2004 had other objectives which includes: wealth creation, employment generation and value orientation (NPC, 2004).

2.9 Theoretical Review

With the contributions of Douglas North, legal institutions, including the law, are seen as the rules of the game that can reduce transaction costs and improve the development of a particular society. The idea that one can identify the institutions that can promote or hinder development is the main field of study of the New Institutional Economics, which in contrast to classical economics, considers that the market is not only defined by the rationality of supply and demand. Instead this school of thought asserts that institutions, like legal norms, customs or traditions influence the

performance of actors in the market and therefore are essential to promote economic development. These theories are interesting for this research because they help to understand the relation between legal norms and economic improvements.

The theory of Hernando De Soto is part of the New Institutional Economics and his work represents an important contribution to that field. With the publication of the books *The Other Path* in 1989 and *The Mystery of Capital* in 2000, De Soto brought the importance of institutions such as property and business rights for economic development. He argues that in many countries the assets of the poor do not enjoy property rights and therefore are not protected by the law. These assets are regulated outside the legal system in what De Soto calls, "a parallel economy driven by local practices and norms that allow poor entrepreneurs to do business in the shadows of their nation's legal system." Extra-legality is what holds back poor entrepreneurs like street vendors, and therefore De Soto suggests a change in the legal system in order to cover them under the rule of law.

Street vendors need to formalize their businesses to be able to reach all the economic potential they have. De Soto used the example of street vendors in Lima to show the hidden economic value they have in their businesses, a value that is not recognized by the law and that he calls the 'special right of ownership.' Additionally, their merchandise is not protected and therefore, it can be confiscated at any time by police authorities. De Soto insists that having a proper legal right can empower informal entrepreneurs to access credit and other forms of capital. In that sense, street vendors could gain the power to improve their life after formalization because they could use their own assets and efforts to access credit and lift themselves out of poverty.

De Soto's theory attests that formalization can cause empowerment because vendors could improve their freedom, invest more in their businesses, access credit, and improve their lives. The logical sequence of empowerment is:

Formalization Increase Economic Freedom Empowerment Life Improvements

However, the concept of legal empowerment includes more than economic change and for that reason; this research complements De Soto's theory with a broader definition of empowerment. Legal empowerment is broadly defined as the use of legal institutions including: law, access to justice, legal aid, or legal knowledge, to improve the control that poor people have over their lives. It emphasizes the increase in people's freedom and the possibility to live without fear. This view of empowerment is based on the idea of Nobel Prize winner in economics Amartya Sen's about 'development as freedom'. According to Sen (2004), "quite often economic insecurity can relate to the lack of democratic rights and liberties' and therefore development cannot only be measured in terms of needs but instead in terms of capabilities.

In the case of street vendors, they are deprived of some of the most basic freedoms. They cannot work freely since their job is considered illegal and they have constant fear of eviction from the police. They also fear harassment from the owners of formal businesses, from other street vendors competing for space, and overall some have lost their self-respect and confidence, feeling that what they do for living is a criminal activity. They lack of intrinsic empowerment, they lack of basic freedoms, 'feeling self-confident, walking with dignity, and feeling respected, living without fear'. This is what Martha Nussbaum calls, one of the negative freedoms that are basic for people to escape poverty and consist on the possibility to live without fear.

Both the theory of De Soto about the economic empowerment that comes after formalization and the more broad perspective of Amartya Sen are used in this study to understand the effects of formalization for street vendors and how it has helped improving the well-being of the household in Minna, Niger State, Nigeria.

2.10 Empirical Studies on Street Vending and Poverty Reduction

Elvira (2012) in his study explore the livelihoods of formal, semi-formal and informal female food and beverage vendors in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. This exploratory research study is based on qualitative semi-structured interviews with 16 women vendors in the suburbs of Dares Salaam. The study incorporates purposive sampling because the aim is not to generalise findings, but rather to increase the contextual understanding of livelihoods. The main findings reveal that women vendors draw primarily on labour assets and social capital in order to construct livelihoods. However, engaging in food or beverage vending is in itself not sufficient for securing livelihoods or even survival. The importance of labour assets and social capital in the urban context is in general consistent with previous research. In addition to previous research, this study has revealed that informal vending space in residential areas, accessed through private contacts and social capital, is an important livelihood asset. By avoiding vending in public spaces such as by main roads, visible streets and around market areas, the women vendors avoid bribe payments and police harassments which decreases livelihood constraints.

Idowu. (2017).this study examined the phenomenon known as road side vending within the spatial arena of Gaborone city of Botswana. The study employed a 15-item inventory on the one hand, to elicit the factors that accounted for the recent phenomenal surge in road side vending in Gaborone and on the other hand, to

highlight the expectations of the actors of this sector of the economy. The findings revealed that between 2012 and 2014, road side vending grew by 50% in Gaborone and 74% of Gaborone road side vendors were aged between 38-54 years, suggesting that this market is currently run by mature adults. The findings equally revealed that the growth of road side vending in Gaborone coincided with an era when unemployment began to be discussed within government circles, the press and in the streets of Botswana. This finding is supported by the literature which states that in general, the informal sector of the economy of less developed countries tend to grow under the impulse of unemployment and increasing poverty rate. The study ended with one major recommendation that called on the Gaborone city Council to use the instrumentality of learning to bring about the change it desires for Gaborone without excluding road side vendors from its Gaborone developmental blueprint.

Claudine, (2013) Street vending activities contribute to the livelihoods of millions of people and to national wellbeing at large, especially in developing countries. The objective of this study is to analyze the contributions of street vending activities on the livelihoods of urban poor in Kigali City. The study used a non-experiment design, a purposive sampling method and participant observations to collect data for this research. Ninety street traders were sampled. Survey questionnaires instruments with both closed and open ended questions were administered to them. Semi-structured interview with key informants were also undertaken in the city of Kigali, Rwanda. The study found that failure to secure employment in formal establishments, the need to support family, and dissatisfaction with previous employment conditions were among the major factors that pushed people into street vending business. Data analysis showed that the average daily income generated was Rwf 5092 (USD 7.3) while the average daily expenditure for those interviewed was Rwf 2487 (USD 3.5).

Meaning that besides meeting urban poor daily needs, there is a small surplus that is saved for a rainy day and for further investment. On monthly basis, street vendors generate Rwf 127, 300 (USD 182) which is above the poverty line of Rwanda (Rwf 118, 000 (USD 169) and the salary earned by some of the low cadre employees in the formal sector such as the cleaners (Rwf 20,000/ month; USD 29). Street vending is not temporary; it is an alternative to job creation and a source of livelihood to the urban poor.

Ijaiya *et al.* (2018). In their study examines the impact of street vendors on household's poverty reduction in Niger State, Nigeria. A set of household data was generated from the administration of structured questionnaire to 479 households in Niger State. Structural equation modelling approach (AMOS) was developed and applied for data analysis. The results obtained shows that street vendors has significantly improved the living standard of the study area, thus, fulfilling our a priori expectation that street vendors has positive impact on household's poverty reduction in Niger State, Nigeria. This result notwithstanding, Niger State Government should, as much as possible, come up with a policy in supporting the street vendors, this will go a long way in improving the welfare of the citizen as well as further reducing the level of poverty in the area.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

There are different types of research method that could be used when doing research. The methods include qualitative research, quantitative research and a mixture of both qualitative and quantitative research respectively (Williams, 2007).

In order to answer the research study questions, this study adopted the quantitative research approach. In this study semi-structured and structured questionnaire were used to gather data and information for the study. Quantitative research helps to obtain the insights about the phenomena in question.

3.2 Description of the Study Area

Minna the Niger State capital is located some 740 kilometers from Lagos and 140 Kilometer from Abuja the Federal Capital of Nigeria and on latitude North 6o.301 and longitude East 8o.801of the equator. Minna is divided into two local government areas that is Bosso Local Government Area and Chanchaga Local Government Area. By 2006 census, it has an estimated population of about 253,125 people (NPC 2006).

Minna is the state capital of Niger State, and the States belong to the North central region of Nigeria, and its poverty rate as at 2014 stood at 61.20 percent. The causes of poverty in the State can be attributed to high rate of unemployment, high level of adult illiteracy, lack of access to basic needs, such as, food, shelter, drinkable water, health, sanitation, epileptic electric power supply among others (NBS, 2014; UN 2015). Above all, agriculture is the main occupation of the people in the State, over 80 percent of the population are either on-farm or non-farm agriculturists. The effects

of increase in the rate of poverty in the state can lead to poor nutrition and physical health problems, which will eventually lead to malnutrition and starvation, infectious disease, mental illness and drug dependence related crime and violence, as well as increase in the rate of “Almangiri” menace (Ijaiya, *et al.* 2018).

Over the years, the Niger State government in collaboration with non-governmental agencies such as Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES), and Life- Rehab, have at one time or the other developed and implemented several measures or program in reducing the level of poverty in the state. Such measures as housing scheme, transportation scheme, and Vision 3: 2020 among others, were all geared towards poverty eradication

Despite all these measures, poverty high rate still persists in the state. Failures of all these measures make it appears to be a universal opinion among scholars and policy makers that the development and promotion of the street vending will go a long way in addressing the poverty situation in the state. It is the desire to ascertain out whether or not this general belief is valid that prompted this study.

3.3 Population

Population is the entire group of people or elements that the researcher wants to study (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). An element is an individual member of the population. The population for this study consist of street traders in both local government of Minna, metropolis, that is Bosso Local Government and Chanchaga Local Government, which the researcher might not be able to ascertain the population.

3.4 Sampling Procedures

A stratified sampling method was used in selecting the respondents. To have an unbiased selection of samples (. the respondents), a multistage sample design was

used to collect cross sectional data from street vendors in the study area. The first stage was to identify the sample areas which comprise two (2) local government areas, these include: Bosso LGA and Chanchaga LGA. The second stage identified the number of street vendors and population in each study area, while the third stage of the sampling involves purposive sampling which was based on the characteristics of the population, however, one hundred and forty three (143) street vendors was selected from each local government by picking every first two elements on the list leaving the third, this continued until the sample size of 143 was achieved on each street, that is Bosso LGA and Chanchaga LGA. In all a total sample of two hundred and eighty six (286) street vendors were randomly selected to respond to the questions in the questionnaires.

For the instruments that was used, apart from the use of secondary materials such as textbooks, journals and internet, a structured questionnaire was used, in determining the effect of street vending and poverty situation in Minna, Niger State.

1.11 Sample Size

The sample size adopted for this study was 286 from the total population of street vendors in the study area, this number which is the lower number of responses from the respondents to maintain a 95% confident interval.

The researcher used Taro Yamame method for sample size calculation. This method was formulated by the statistician Taro Yamame in 1967.

Below is the mathematical formular for Taro Yamame method.

$$n = \frac{N}{1+N(e^2)} \quad (3.1)$$

n = Signifies the sample size

N = Signifies the population under study

e = Signifies the margin error (it could be 0.10, 0.05 or 0.01).

3.6 Sampling Technique

There are many techniques that could be used to determine the sample size (Kotrlík and Higgins, 2001). However, the researcher adopts simple random sampling, which gives every unit in the population equal treatment and selection.

3.4 Instrumentation

The research adopted or used questionnaires as an instrument for collecting data. This is done by way of administering questionnaires to targeted respondents for reliable responses.

3.5 Instrument Validation

Validity refers to the extent of accuracy of the results of the study. Validity of the results can either be internal or external. Internal validity refers to the analysis of the accuracy of the result obtained. While external validity refers to the analysis of the findings with regards to whether they can be generalized (Gauri & Gronhaug 2005). The researcher validated the instrument used for this study by giving the questionnaire to some professional and lecturers in the department to validate the instruments.

In this study, validity was taken into consideration, because the questionnaire was based on the World Bank's Living Standards Measurement Study (LSMS) and the Federal Office of Statistics' National Integrated Survey on Households (NISH). According to (Grosh & Glewwe, 2000), the LSMS survey is designed to: produce a comprehensive monetary measure of welfare and its distribution; describe other aspects of welfare; describe patterns of access to and use of social services, and

describe how households behave in response to changes in the economic policies of the government. (World Bank, 2012).

3.9 Reliability of the Instrument

Reliability refers to the stability of the measure used to study the relationships between variables (Ghaari & Gronhany 2005) The question in the questionnaire were designed taking into consideration the issues related to the problem and goals of the study and theories on the subject. It is therefore believed that the responses and results from this study are reliable. This was based on the result obtained from a pilot study that was conducted three months prior to the main study. This was used to test the reliability, validity and practicability of the research instruments. The results of the pilot study, according to Ferguson and Takane (2005), when the Cronbach's alpha > 0.70 is an indication that the item is adequate, consistent and reliable for the study, while, items that is less than 0.70 Cronbach's alpha were deemed to have inadequate, and were not considered for the analysis. The result from the pilot study helped us to redesign the questionnaires, based on the recommendation of (Ferguson & Takane 2005).

3.10 Procedure for Data Collection

In data collection, only primary data was collected during this study. Primary data is data collected directly from first-hand experience. The only primary source of data employed in this study is the questionnaire. A structured questionnaire comprising some related questions designed and administered to street vendors in the study area. The purpose of the questionnaire is to investigate the effect of street vending on poverty reduction.

The questions in the questionnaire are made short and clear in order to ensure that it takes the respondents not more than 15 minutes to answer and therefore encourage participation. The questionnaire included a cover letter. This cover letter sent out to the respondents has a number of objective: first, to provide respondent with brief information about what they were being requested to respond to and, second to motivate them into participating in the questionnaire.

3.11 Procedures for Data Analysis

Multiple regression analysis was used in determining the factors that affect household poverty status in Minna, metropolis of Niger State as stated in the objective one of this study.

$$Pov = F (Age + Gen + Mst + Hs + Es + Tf + Hf + Aw) \quad (3.2)$$

Equation (3.2) can be rewrite in a regression form as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LogQ} = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{LogAge} + \beta_2 \text{LogGen} + \beta_3 \text{LogMst} + \beta_4 \text{LogHs} \\ & + \beta_5 \text{LogEs} + \beta_6 \text{LogTf} + \beta_7 \text{LogHf} + \beta_8 \text{LogAw} + e_i \end{aligned} \quad (3.3)$$

Where:

Age=Age of household head (Years)

Gen=Gender of the household head (D=1 for male, D=0 for female)

Mst=Marital status (D=1 if Married, D=0)

Hs=Household size

Es=Educational status of household head (years)

Tf = Toilet facility (Yes=1, 0 = No)

Hf = Health facility (Yes = 1, 0 = No)

Aw= Access to water (Yes=1, 0=No)

β_0 = intercept

$\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_{12}$ = parameter estimate or coefficient associated with the influence of the household characteristic on poverty reduction in Niger State.

e_i = error term

The a-priori expectations or the expected behavior of the Logs of the independent variables (Log age, gen, mst, hs, es,tf, ef, aw) on the Log of the dependent variable (Log POVR_i) in the model will therefore be greater than zero.

2.8 Model Specification

In determining the influence of street vending on poverty reduction in Minna, metropolis, an econometrics model of regression analysis was built around the indicators of street vending and poverty reduction, as stated in the main objective of the study. The model was used in estimating the impact of these indicators on the poverty reduction in Niger State, Nigeria. The variables considered are as follows: physical environment sustainability, social sustainability and economical sustainability.

These can be represented in the following model:

$$\text{PovR} = F(\text{SV}) \quad (3.4)$$

Where:

$$\text{SV} = \text{PES} + \text{SS} + \text{ES} \quad (3.5)$$

When substituting equation 3.4 into equation 3.3, then equation 3.5 becomes

$$\text{PovR} = F(\text{PES} + \text{SS} + \text{ES}) + U_i \quad (3.6)$$

Where:

PovR = Poverty reduction of the heads of household in the study area

PES = Physical environment sustainability of the heads of household in the study area.

SS = Social sustainability of the heads of household in the study area.

ES = Economical sustainability

U_i = Error terms.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Descriptive Statistics of the Respondents

Summary of the descriptive statistics of the respondents is shown in Table 4.2.1

Table 4.1: Descriptive statistics of the respondents

Variables	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Age	286	35.42	11.08	19	50
Sex	286	0.84	0	1	
Mstatus	286	0.71	0.46	0	1
Hhsize	286	4.56	0.24	1	10

Source: Survey 2019

Table 4.1 shows the descriptive statistics of the respondents in the study area, total number of two hundred and eighty six respondents was observed, it is shown that the mean of the respondents is 35 years, while the mean for the household size is 4 members, while the minimum age stood at 19 years and maximum age stood at 50.

The age distribution of the respondents is presented in Table 4.2.2

Table 4.2 shows the age of the respondents in the study area. For instance 9.7 percent of the respondents were under the age of 21 years. While 55.5 percent were between the age of 21 and 30years. The mean age group of the respondents is 35 years.

Table 4.2: Age Distribution of the Respondents

Factors	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
Age (years)			
Less than 21	28	9.7	
21 – 30	159	55.5	
31 – 40	59	20.6	35 years
41 -50	40	13.9	

Source: Survey 2019.

The result of this study shows an indications that most of the under this study are in their economic active age, meaning that at this age they are to be more efficient and productive which is likely to impact positively on their livelihood and move them out of poverty. This result is in agreement with the work of Ibitoye & Odiba (2015), in their study found that economic active age of the heads of household make them more efficient and productive which gave them a higher chance to overcome poverty than those of the older and younger age.

The Gender distribution of the respondents is shown in Table 4.3

Table 4.3: Gender of the Respondents

Factors	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	241	84.3
Female	45	15.7
Total	286	100

Source: Survey 2019

Table 4.3 shows the gender of the respondents, out of 286 respondents of the entire study, 84.3 percent were male, while, 15.7 percent were female. This indicates that more male are into street trading in the study area, this can be attributed to the culture of the study area, where female are not encouraged to work, here most women are full house wife, whose major work is to take care of the children and the husband. This result is in agreement with the work of Ibitoye & Odiba (2015), who also have more

male heads of household than female heads of household in their study, which was as a result of labor intensive.

The Marital Status of the respondents is shown in Table 4.2.4

Table 4.4: Marital Status of the Respondents

Factors	Frequency	Percentage
Marital Status		
Single	203	71.0
Married	76	27.6
Widow/Widower	4	1.4
Total	286	

Source: Survey 2019

Table 4.4 shows marital status of the respondents, majority 71.0 percent of the respondents were single, 27.6 percent were married, and also only 1.4 percent were either widow or widower. An indication that more single people were under this study. This can be attributed to the fact most people under study were in their economic active age. This result is in agreement with the work of Ibitoye and Odiba (2015) and Marx *et al.* (2012), who were of the view that more single people engaged more in trading.

Distribution of the household size of the respondents is shown in Table 4.2.5

Table 4.5: Household Size of the Respondents

Factors	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
Household Size			
Between 1 – 3	36	12.6	5
Between 4 – 6	181	63.0	
Between 7 - 10	69	24.1	
Total	286	100	

Source: Survey 2019

Table 4.5 shows the household size of the respondents, the survey indicates that 12.6 percent of the respondents had a household size between one and three people in the

study area. Also, household sizes of between four (4) and six (6) were 181 respondents, representing the majority, 63.0 percent of the respondents, while household sizes of between seven (7) and ten (10) were 69 respondents, which represents 24.1 percent of the respondents. The mean household size in the study area was five (5). An indication that there are more dependents in the study area, which may affects the poverty status of the households positively. This result is in agreement with the result of Ojimba, (2012), Balogun *et al.* (2011), who were of the opinion that increase in the household's size will increase the incidence of poverty. But at variance with Omonona (2001) who reported that the higher the size of the household the lesser the incidence of poverty.

4.3 Results of the Determinants of Respondents Poverty Status

In examining the poverty status of the respondents in the study area, regression analysis was used. Table 4.3.1 shows the regression result of poverty status among the respondents in the study area. The results shows that all variables included in the model are jointly and statistically explained variation in the poverty status of the respondents in the study area. The model is statistically significant at one (1) per cent level, (P-value = 0.000), this indicates that the model had a good fit to the set of data used.

Table 4.6: Regression Result on the Poverty Status of the Respondents

Variable	Coefficient	t-value
Constant	-33.00344	-0.461
Age	1.466404***	0.007
Gender	-59.88149***	-0.000
Mstatus	-6.733601	0.541
Hhs	-7.475426***	-0.001
Edustatus	2.822917*	0.079
Tf	4088242	0.637
Hf	-9.253028	-0.598
Aw	34.08329	0.267
R ²	0.13	
Prob > F	0.0000	

Source: Computed from Regression Analysis (STATA). Asterisks indicated

significance level: ***1 %, **5%; *10%

Regression result on the poverty status of the respondents is shown in Table 4.6, out of eight (8) variables tested only four (4) were statistically significant, these are age of the respondents, gender of the respondents, household size of the respondents and educational status of the respondents. The R² value of 0.13 shows that 13 percent variation in the dependent variable (poverty) is explained by the explanatory variables (street vending components), while the remaining 87 percent was accounted for with the variables not mention in the model. Age of the respondents had the coefficient of (1.46) and statistically significant at 1 percent probability level, and it is also positively related to poverty reduction. The variable goes in line with our a priori expectation which stated that an additional age of the respondents will have a significant impact on poverty reduction in the study area. This result goes in line with the work of Ojimba (2012), who said that an increase in age of the heads of household is strongly associated with increase in incidence of poverty.

Gender of the respondents had estimated coefficient of (-59.88) and statistically significant at 1 percent probability level but negatively related to poverty reduction.

An indication that gender of the respondents can leads to about 57.58 percent reduction in poverty incidence in the study area. The results also goes in line with our a priori expectation which stated that male respondents has the possibility of reducing the level of poverty in the study area, while female respondents may increase the incidence of poverty in the study area. The results obtained here is in agreement with the work of Dhungana *et.al* (2004), who were of the opinion that male headed household has tendency of reducing the level of poverty status.

Household size of the respondents had an estimated coefficient of (-7.47) which is statistically significant at 1 percent probability level, but negatively related to poverty reduction. An indication that a unit decreased in the size of households in the study area led to 7.47 percent reduction in poverty incidence. The result of this study is in line with our a priori expectation that the lesser the size of households the lesser the incidence of poverty. This result is similar to the work of Balogun *et al.* (2011), who were of the opinion that increase in the household's size will increase the incidence of poverty. But not in agreement with the work of Omonona (2001) who reported that the higher the size of the household the lesser the incidence of poverty.

Educational status of the respondents had an estimated coefficient of (2.82) and statistically significant at 10 percent probability level, this results shows that the variable has a positive influence on poverty reduction, an indication that an additional year in the educational level of the respondents will have positive influence on the poverty status by 2.82 percent, this result goes in line with our a priori expectation. The result is similar to the work of Tenzin *et al.* (2013), who reported that human capital in form of education increases access to information and ability to gain employment opportunity.

4.4 Analysis of the Impact of Street Vending on Poverty Reduction in Minna, Metropolis

In analyzing the impact of street vending on poverty reduction in Minna, metropolis, an econometrics model of multiple linear regression model was built around the components of street vending (independent variable) and poverty reduction (dependent variable).

However, the result of multiple regression analysis conducted at 5% percent level of significance are presented in Table 4.4.1.

Table 4.7: Regression results on the impact of street vending on poverty reduction

Variables	Coefficient	t-value	Significant
Constant	404111.4	0.000	Significant
PES	-3293.951	-0.143	Not significant
SS	-25740.33	-0.706	Not significant
ES	-3155.22	-0.492	Not significant
R ²	0.45		
Prob > F	5.76		

Source: Computed from regression model (STATA)

Looking at the model, it is shows that the model is of good fit because it has an R² of 0.45, which shows that 45% variation in the dependent variables (poverty) is explained by the explanatory variables (street vending) while error term taken care of the remaining 55% which are variables in the study that cannot be included in the model because of certain qualitative feature. At 5% level of significance, the F-statistics show that the model is useful in determining if any significant relationships exist between poverty and street vending in Minna, as the computed F-statistic which is 5.76 is greater than the tabulated F-statistic value at 1.47.

Assessing the individual variables, all independent variables that is, street vending components, was statistically insignificant, and an indication that the model is acceptable. Physical Environment Sustainability (PES) has a coefficient of -3293.051, and t-value of -0.143 was negatively related to poverty reduction in the study area, an indication that physical environment sustainability has not contribute to poverty reduction in the study area, this might be as a result of unfavorable business environment for the street traders in the study area. This result goes contrary to our a priori expectation. Social sustainability (SS) has coefficient of -25740.33 and t-value of -0.706 which is negatively related to poverty reduction in the study area, an indication that social sustainability has contributed little or no to poverty reduction in the study area. This can be attributed to lack of social amenities in the study area, which is a major indicators in measuring poverty. Economical sustainability (ES) has coefficient of -3155.22 with t-value of -0.492 which was negatively related poverty reduction in the study area. Despite the fact that the respondents in the study area engaged in economic activities, which is expected to remove them out of poverty, but the result goes contrary. These results goes contrary to our a priori expectation and also in variance with the work of Pavanika *et al*, (2016). Who were of the view that street vending components such as physical environment sustainability, social sustainability, and economical sustainability have positive impact on poverty status of the heads of household in Bangalore Metropolitan Area.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusion

This study carried out regression analysis in analyzing the poverty status and impact of street vending on poverty reduction in Minna, metropolis. It was concluded that out of eight variables considered in analyzing the poverty status of the respondents only four were statistically significant, these are the age of the respondents, gender of the respondents, and households' size of the respondents and lastly educational status of the respondents. Also, in assessing the impact of street vending on poverty reduction in the study area, the study concludes that all components of street vending considered for this study (physical environment sustainability, social sustainability and economic sustainability) were all statistically insignificant, meaning that the components contribute little or no impact to the reduction of poverty in the study area.

5.2 Recommendations

Despite the contributions made by this study, the researcher identified the following limitations based on the context of this study.

Firstly, the focused of this study is on the poverty status and how street vending can improve the poverty level of the people in the study area; therefore, the scope of the study is limited. Secondly, availability of data, though data was collected on poverty status and impact of street vending on poverty reduction. Thirdly, the study was also limited by time and financial constraint, thereby, restricting to only Minna, metropolis. Therefore, the results of this study is suggestive to the impact of street vending on poverty reduction in Minna, metropolis.

Based on the result of this study, the following recommendation were suggested

Firstly, the government of the study area should try as much as possible provide a conducive environment for not only the trader in the study area, but for all businesses in the area, this will go a long way in improving wellbeing of the citizen.

Secondly, it is also recommended that, provision of social amenities should be provided in the study area, this will also improve the welfare of the citizen of the study area, and it will reduce the spending of little income generated from trading on servicing these amenities.

Thirdly, There is need for the government to come to the aid of all the petty traders inform of soft loan in the study area, this will also improve the wellbeing of the people in the study area and as well moving them out of poverty.

And finally, further research can look into the impact of street vending on household welfare in other part of the state and even in other regions of Nigeria, given the differences in socio-cultural of the region in Nigeria. Secondly, the results from this study indicates that all components of street vending were not significant to poverty reduction in study area. Further research can look at the impact of this component in another region and compare its result with the findings of this study. Thirdly, further study is also needed to compare the impact of street vending rural households' poverty and urban household poverty in Niger State.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX

INCIDENCE OF POVERTY AND HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT IN THE RURAL AREAS OF KWARA STATE, NIGERIA

Section A: Background of the Respondent

1. Description of the study area:
 - (a) Village ()⁰
 - (b) Hamlet ()¹
 - (c) Homestead ()²
 - (d) Farm settlement ()³
2. Age of Respondent (State in complete years)
3. Gender of the household head: Male ()¹ Female ()⁰
4. Marital status
 - (a) Single ()⁰
 - (b) Married ()¹
 - (c) Divorced/Separated ()²
 - (d) Widow ()³
5. Household size
6. Primary occupation
 - (a) Agriculture/fishing ()⁰
 - (b) Trade ()¹
 - (c) Transportation ()²
 - (d) Technical/professional ()³
 - (e) Civil Servant ()⁴
 - (f) Construction ()⁵
 - (g) Handcrafts ()⁶
 - (h) Others (specify)(.....)⁷
7. Secondary occupation
 - (a) Agriculture/fishing ()⁰
 - (b) Handcrafts ()¹
 - (c) Trade ()²
 - (d) Transportation ()³
 - (e) Construction ()⁴
 - (f) Technical/professional ()⁵

- (g) Government service ()⁶
 (h) Others (specify)()⁷
 8. Consumption-expenditure of household respondent per month.....

Section B: Kindly read through the statements below and tick (✓) the appropriate answer provided below.

Educational/Training Attainment

9. Do you have access to formal education?
 (a) Yes ()¹
 (b) No ()⁰
10. If yes, what was the highest grade obtained?
 (a) Primary education (incomplete) ()⁰
 (b) Primary education (complete) ()¹
 (c) Junior secondary education (incomplete) ()²
 (d) Junior secondary education (complete) ()³
 (e) Senior secondary education (incomplete) ()⁴
 (f) Senior secondary education (complete) ()⁵
 (g) Post secondary education (incomplete) ()⁶
 (h) Post secondary education (complete) ()⁷
11. If the answer to (10) is no, are you in any form of training?
 (a) Yes ()¹
 (b) No ()⁰
13. Do you face any difficulty during the period of your training?
 (a) Yes ()¹
 (b) No ()⁰
14. If the answer to (13) is yes, what is the nature of difficulty faced?
 (a) Lack of access fund ()⁰
 (b) Lack of access to tools to work ()¹
 (b) Lack of access to food ()²

(c) Lack of access to workshop ()³

15. Is any child in your household of school-aged not attending school?

(a) Yes ()¹

(b) No ()⁰

16. If the answer to (15) above is yes, why?

(a) Due to lack of fund ()⁰

(b) Due to ill-health ()¹

(c) Due to distance from home ()²

(d) Due to ignorance of the respondent ()³

(e) Others (specify) (.....)⁴

Health Care Facilities

17. Do you have access to health care services?

(a) Yes ()¹

(b) No ()⁰

18. In case of illness of the household members, where does the consultation usually take place?

(a) The home of the patient ()⁰

(b) The home of the traditional healer ()¹

(c) Dispensary ()²

(d) Clinic ()³

(e) Maternity ()⁴

(f) Others (specify) (.....)⁵

19. Have any member of your household suffer for any illness/injury that resulted into lost of life in the past 3months?

(a) Yes ()¹

(b) No ()⁰

20. How long does it take you from your house to the health centre?

(a) Less than 30 meters ()⁰

(b) 31 – 40 meters ()¹

(c) 41 – 60 meters ()²

(d) 60 meters and above ()³

21. How long does it take your household to obtain medical services from the health centre?

- (a) Less than 30 minutes ()⁰
- (b) 60 minutes ()¹
- (c) 120 minutes ()²
- (d) More than 180 minutes ()⁴

Household Feeding and Nutrition

22. How often does the household member take a meal (breakfast, lunch, dinner) per day?

- (a) Once ()⁰
- (b) Twice ()¹
- (c) Thrice ()²

Housing and Environment

23. Do you own a house at all?

- (a) Yes ()¹
- (b) No ()⁰

24. If yes, what is the nature of your dwelling?

- (a) One room apartment ()⁰
- (b) Two rooms apartment ()¹
- (c) Three rooms apartment/flat ()²
- (d) Bungalow/duplex ()³

Access to Sanitation

25. Do you have access to sanitation facilities?

- (a) Yes ()¹
- (b) No ()⁰

26. How does your household dispose most of its garbage?

- (a) dumped ()⁰
- (b) burned ()¹
- (c) buried ()²
- (d) collected by a garbage truck ()³

27. Does your household have any toilet facilities?

- (a) Yes ()¹
 - (b) No ()⁰
28. If yes, what types of toilet facilities does your household possessed?
- (a) Bush/River banks ()⁰
 - (b) Pit latrine ()¹
 - (c) Flush toilet (water closet) ()²
29. Is this toilet facilities shared by your household only, or do other household members use it?
- (a) Household member only ()¹
 - (b) Shared ()⁰

Access to Electricity

30. Does your household have access to lighting facilities?
- (a) Yes ()¹
 - (b) No ()⁰
31. If yes, what is the main source of lighting in your household some 3months back?
- (a) None ()⁰
 - (b) Candles, flashlights, gas or oil lamps ()¹
 - (c) Gas ()²
 - (d) Electricity ()³
32. How many hour per day do you get your electricity supply?
- (a) Less than one hour ()⁰
 - (b) 2 – 5 hours ()¹
 - (c) 6 – 10 hours ()²
 - (d) More than 10 hours ()³

Access to Cooking Fuel

33. What kind of fuel is most often used by your household to prepare meals in the last 3months?
- (a) Charcoal ()⁰
 - (b) Firewood ()¹
 - (c) Gas ()²
 - (d) Electricity ()³

- (e) Others (specify) (...) ⁴
34. If the answer to (27) above is firewood, how long does it take you to get there from your home?
- (a) Less than 30 minutes () ⁰
- (b) 60 minutes () ¹
- (c) 120 minutes hours () ²
- (d) More than 180 minutes () ³

Access to Water

35. How does your household member get their source of drinking water in the last 3 months?
- (a) Rain water () ⁰
- (b) River, lake, spring, marsh () ¹
- (c) Water vendor () ²
- (d) Well without pump () ³
- (e) Well with pump () ⁴
- (f) Outside tap water () ⁵
- (g) Indoor tap water () ⁶
- (h) Others (specify) (.....) ⁷
36. What is the distance of your dwelling to this supply source?
- (a) Less than 30 meters () ⁰
- (b) 31 – 40 meters () ¹
- (c) 41 – 60 meters () ²
- (d) 60 meters and above () ³
37. Is this supply source used by your household only or shared with others?
- (a) Household member only () ¹
- (b) Shared () ⁰
38. What is your perception about poverty?.....
39. What do you think could have caused it? And what are its effects?.....
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40. What are the challenges you are facing for not going to school?.....

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41. What are the major challenges you are facing in the course of your training?.....

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42. What are the challenges you are facing for not getting a proper health-care services?.....

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43. What strategy have your community been doing to address the problem of:

- Poverty.....
- Education/Training.....
- Health-care/ services.....

44. In what ways do you think government can assist to reduce/eradicate these problems facing your community?

- (a)
- (b)
- (c)
- (d)