

Supriya Srivastava

MIGRATION AND STREET VENDING: ANALYSIS OF STREET VENDORS IN SOLAN CITY OF HIMACHAL PRADESH

Abstract

From the ancient time, the informal sector has been an integral part of urban economy, in all over the world. However, in developing countries, like India, the informal sector plays an important role in urban economic development and providing livelihood to the large segment of population. During past couple of decades, rapid urbanization along with liberalization has opened up the opportunities to the bulk of rural population to earn their livelihood by working in different sectors of urban economy. This process has motivated the people of rural areas to move to urban areas in search of better livelihood, i.e. rural-urban migration. The process has made phenomenal increase in urban population and workforce as well. However, their lack of skill and education and shrinking of urban formal sector push them to engage in urban informal sector. Street vending is one of the common activities related to informal sector in urban areas. According to Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation, about 10 million people in India earn their livelihood through street vending. Although street vending provides job opportunities and means of livelihood to a large population in urban society, it is considered as illegal activity by Urban Local Bodies. The vendors live in vulnerable conditions. The main thrust of the present study is to examine the socio-economic profile of street vendors in H.P. This study is based on primary data for which the sample respondents were selected from 5 wards of Solan city through proportionate allocation of the sample to selected ward. The collected data was analyzed through different statistical tools by using SPSS 24.0 software. The study revealed that most of the respondents engage in street vending in study area are rural migrants and basically belong to lower strata of socio-economic hierarchy. Though they are engaged as functional assets of urban society, but, their own economic situation is deplorable.

Keywords: *Migration, street vending, urbanization, poverty.*

Received: 17th Feb 2019

Revised: 19th May 2019

Accepted: 20th June 2019

SUPRIYA SRIVASTAVA, Assistant Professor, Sociology, Faculty of Management Sciences, Shoolini University of Biotechnology & Management Sciences, Solan, E-mail: supriyasrivastav7@gmail.com

Introduction

Migration, a process that is as old as human history, is a part of man's search for better life and opportunities. The study of history of Indian urbanization reveals that migration is not a new phenomenon for our society. Till the colonial period rural-urban migration was selective and limited. Since after independence, rural-urban migration has increased considerably with rapid growth of urbanization. Every year a large number of people move to cities from village or less developed region, resulted in the growth of urban population. Rural-urban migration is the movement of people from rural to urban areas. It is a state where rural people change their residence from villages to cities permanently or temporarily. There are many reasons are responsible for this phenomenon. The most important reason is earning livelihood. In present scenario, urbanization-together with economic growth has opened up several opportunities to the people to earn their livelihood and hence, a large number of rural people attract towards cities in search of employment and better income. In addition, lack of gainful employment coupled with poverty in rural areas also push people out from their native place in search of a better existence. However, not all immigrants are in position to get a job in urban formal sector as majority of migrants do not possess the required skills or education. Hence, a large segment of people compelled to involve in economic activities, known as 'informal sector' (Bhowmik 1998, 2005; Mukherji 2006).

The informal sector encompasses a variety of economic activities which is broadly categorized into two sections - the self-employed and casual (non-permanent) labor. A major section of the self-employed workers engage as street vendors Mangana (2005). In cities of developing countries a substantial proportion of workers earn their livelihood by selling goods and services on the sidewalks as it requires low capital and skill and provides entrepreneurial opportunities to people who cannot afford even rent to pay for the place of selling their goods (Skinner 2011). As per report of MHUPA, in India, there are 10 million people earning their livelihood through street vending (Unni 2010). Observing the problems of street vendors, though some studies have been conducted by scholars in big and metropolitan cities, but not much work has been done in the perspective of migrants. The proposed study is an attempt to explore the relationship between migration and growth of street vending as an informal activity in urban areas. Apart from this backdrop, the paper has also undertaken to examine the socio-economic aspects of migrant street vendors which reflect their vulnerability in their place of origin as well as in destination.

Literature Review

Migration is a permanent or semi-permanent change of residence of an individual or group of people (Johnston and et al 2000) for the betterment of

life. There are several terminologies have been developed by scholars and criteria such as space, time and purpose of movement have been considered to define the concept of migration. Peterson (1958) developed a classification of migration in which he tried to distinguish between migration as a mechanism of changing the way of life as well as preserving it. According to his classification, a migration typology is distinguishable by i.e. temporary and permanent, distance i.e. short and long term, internal and international. Defining migration, the United Nations has defined that it is the change of residence from one civil division to another for a period of one year or more' (Hussain, Shanaz, 1996). And rural-urban migration is a state when the way of life of the people is changed by changing the residence from rural to urban area within a country. In India, since independence migration has become one of the main components of urbanization. The share of in-migrants to the total urban population is increasing every decade (NSSO 2010). Further, within rural-urban migration, there is an increasing importance of inter-state rural to urban migration for employment-related reasons (Bhagat 2010).

On the basis of migration pattern NSSO has classified this process into two basic categories 1. Seasonal or Temporary and 2. Permanent. Seasonal migrants are those who move for a short duration in the lean season from the place of origin. A seasonal/temporary migrant is defined as 'the household member who has stayed away from the village/town for a period of one month or more but less than six months during the last 365 days, for employment or in search of employment' (NSSO, 2010). In contrast, permanent migrants are those who move from one place to another and have no plans to return to their native place. They have no choice but to move from place to place in search of better income (ibid). The seasonal migration is predominantly (63 per cent) directed towards cities and urban centers (Keshri and Bhagat 2012). It has also been pointed out that seasonal/temporary migration is more prevalent among the socioeconomically deprived groups such as Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, and poorest of the poor and landless households (Deshingkar and Akter 2009; Keshri and Bhagat 2010). On the basis of the same criteria, the present study has also categorised sample migrants into two; seasonal and permanent.

There are causal factors behind the process of migration which can be explained under three different models drawn on the basis of the arguments of scholars. 1. dual economy model of rural-urban migration suggests that migration occurs because of reallocation of surplus labour force from agricultural to industrial sector where there labour force is required (Lewis 1954). This model advocates that migration occurs until surplus labor is absorbed by the modern sector (Lall *et. al* 2006). However, in the late 1960s, urban areas experienced high levels of unemployment how that the model does not tell the right story about rural-urban migration. 2. Todaro and Harris (1970) also model explains that urban sector draws labour from the rural sector

(Lall *et. al* 2006). According to Todaro (1969), individual migration decisions are based on the difference between the discounted expected income streams in urban and rural areas net of migration costs. Thus, urban job seekers evaluate his discounted expected income stream in the city taking into account the endogenous probability of being employed. 3. A recent model of migration i.e. new economic model emphasizes, migration entails a small chance of reaping a very high reward. For example, when utility is assumed to increase with comparative wealth or with the ranking of the individual in the income distribution of his group, he can choose to migrate to the city in the hope of possible to increase in the social status among rural residents and migrants (Vishwanathan 1991 cited in Lall *et. al* 2006). Besides the above discussion, some scholars explain the factor causing migration in terms of Push factors-tending to force migrants to leave the place of origin. The most common push factors are poverty, unemployment, land shortages etc. that force people to leave the rural area and move the place where they have better livelihood opportunity. There are some factors which attract migrants to urban areas in the expectation of improving standard of living in terms of job and better income opportunities, termed as pull factors (Lee 1966, Indrani Gupta and Arup Mitra 2002). Further, it is also found that push factors have been far more effective in inducing a large volume of mobility from rural to urban areas (Lee 1966 ; Mitra 2003).

Analyzing the impact of migration on urban sectors, it is found that rural-urban migration has immense contribution in urban development. In addition, the processes of liberalization, privatization, and globalization, especially since 1991, have also enhanced the pace of internal migration of skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled workers to urban areas (Pattanaik 2006). Nevertheless, the experience of developing countries including India is not always positive. The modern urban sector of this country absorbs only partially growth of the urban workforce (Harris 2003) into an employment ensuring decent working conditions. Hence, a substantial part of the increased labor force, likely to be absorbed in the informal sector, where there is lack of social security, economic support, and legal protection and earning is also inadequate (Harth 1973, Singh 2000). This sector encompasses largely unrecognized, unrecorded and unregulated small scale activities including; small enterprises, household enterprises, self-employed sectors such as street vendors, cleaners, shoe-shiners, hawkers etc.(Harth 1973). He informal sector is heterogeneous in nature, includes variety of economic activities (Chen 2007), where street vending is one of the most important and visible economic activity in all over the world (Mangana 2005, Bhowmik 2012).

A Street Vendor is broadly defined as a person who offers goods for sale to the public without having a permanent build-up structure from which to sell. They may be stationary in the sense that they occupy space on the pavements or other public/private spaces or, may be mobile in the sense that

they move from place to place by carrying their wares on push carts or in baskets on their heads (NPUSV 2004, Meneses and Caballero 2013). There are different types of street vendors who are broadly categorized into three; 1. those street vendors who carry out vending on a regular basis with a specific location, 2. those who carry out vending not on a regular basis and without any specific location, e.g. vendors who sell goods in weekly bazaars during holidays and 3. The Mobile Street Vendors (Bhowmik 2003, 2005). In this study, the term 'street vendors' includes both stationary as well as mobile vendors.

In major cities of the world, especially in the developing countries like Asia, Latin America and Africa there are substantial increase in the number of street vendors (Bhowmik 2005). In cities of Latin America street vendors account for 9% of the total informal employment and in African cities 15 to 25 % (Herrera et al. 2011, Skinner 2011) of the total informal employment account as street vendors. In India, street vending account for about 3% of the total non-agricultural employment, which translate to more than 3.1 million street traders nationwide (ILO 2002 cited in Unni 2010, NPUSV 2009). According to the Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation (MHUPA), 2009 there are 10 million street vendors in India, with Mumbai accounting for 250,000; Delhi has 450,000, Kolkata, more than 150,000, and Ahmedabad, 100,000. Apart from metropolitan cities, in almost every part of the country a number of people work as street vendors and earn their livelihood by selling goods and services on the sidewalks. However, several studies have been conducted by taking account of big and metropolitan cities.

The street vendors lead a susceptible life in urban society, though they play invaluable and function role in urban social and economic ecology by providing a major source of employment to a significant portion of population (Bhawmik 1998; 2000, Nirathron 2006, Adhikari 2011). By providing affordable products to local populations, street vendors also fill crucial needs of consumer demand that the formal sector cannot adequately serve. But, they are rarely treated with the dignity. They are marginalized by policy makers. Moreover, they are treated as irritants to urban planning and organization. Most of the street vendors have no any kind of identity cards for recognition or license to make their presence legal in urban society (Bhowmik 2000). The nature of employment of street vendors is full of uncertainty and insecurity. They are frequently evicted by police and the local bodies (Chen and Snodgrass 2001). Observing their problems and the arising challenges in urban development the national association of street vendors (NASV) began its journey in 1998 with the objective of ensuring livelihood, social security and financial supports. The nationwide mobilization of vendors influenced the Govt. of India to bring in National Policy for Urban Street Vendors (NPUSV) in the year 2004 with the following objectives: 1. to give vendors legal status and provide legitimate hawking zones in urban plans, 2. to promote organizations of street vendors, 3. to take measures to promote better future of street vendors, 4. to facilitate

social security (pension, insurance, etc.) and access to credit for street vendors. The policy has later revised as NPUSV, 2009 and marked several advancements over the older 2004 policy in the areas of provision of civic facilities. In the same year the MHUPA circulated a draft of bill titled, 'Model Street Vendors (Protection of Livelihood and Regulation of Street Vending) Bill, 2009', between all States and union territory governments for creation of state legislation, however it had no legal bindings, thus few governments made any progress in this regard. Recently, in the year 2014 the revised legislation for the Street Vendors came into the existence. The aim of this act is to regulate street vendors in public areas and protect their livelihood rights and also provide them social security. However, leaving some cities like Mumbai, Ahmadabad, Delhi, Bhubaneswar and Karnataka the government policy pertaining to urban street vending is rarely followed in spirit (Bhowmik 2012).

Objective

The present study specifically focuses on the following objectives: i. to identify the causes responsible for increasing street vending in urban area ii. to comparatively analyze the socio-economic status of different types of migrants, involve in street vending.

Methodology

The present study is descriptive in nature and primarily relied on the primary data. Primary data has been collected from Solan city in terms of accessibility of the surveyor. A random sampling has been performed for collection of data which is based on structured interview schedule. The interview schedule has designed on the basis of the objective of the study which constituted both close-ended and open-ended questions. Personal interview has also been conducted with randomly selected 150 street vendors. The collected data has been analyzed through some statistical tools like descriptive statistics by using SPSS 24.0 software.

For the study primary data collected from Solan, one of the twelve districts of H.P. The state lies in the Himalayan Mountain and spread on the area of 55,673 sq. km. It is bordered by Jammu Kashmir on the north, Punjab and Chandigarh on the west, Haryana on the south-west, Uttarakhand on the south-east and by the Tibet Autonomous region on the east. Although the state comes under the least urbanized state of the country with around 10 percent of total urban population, some of its cities always attract people from distinct places, resulted fast growth of urban population and urban informal sectors. Solan as a separate district of the state came into the existence in 1972. It has 2nd position in the state just after Shimla for its largest urban population. The district spread on the area of 1936 km² and surrounded by many big and populous cities such as Chandigarh, (joint capital of Punjab and Haryana) and Shimla (state capital), on the Kalka-Shimla National Highway-22. The city attracts people from distinct surrounding regions because of high

entrepreneurship opportunity and its beautiful climate. Besides, lack of job opportunities coupled with poverty in different rural and semi-urban areas inside the state also attract people to come out of the village in search of better existence in the city. However, with low skills and in most cases, no complete education, they are unable to find better paid and secured employment in the formal sector, and absorbed by informal sector, where of them work as street vendors. Migration from other state is also causing the extra burden to the population of this city. However, there is no data available that show a clear figure of migrants.

Secondary data, regarding the street vendors of the city has collected from municipal corporation, Solan. As per report of Municipal Corporation (2016), in the city there are total 156 street vendors, divided into different wards like in ward -2 (8 SV), ward no. – 3 (24), ward no. - 5 (21), ward no. – 6 (42), ward no. 8 (20), ward no. 12 (3), ward no. 13 (27) and 12 street vendors do not belong to any particular ward. In year 2016, according to a survey report of *Haryana NavYuvak Kala Sangam*, there were total 340 street vendors in Solan city. They were categorized into stationary (144), mobile (39) and seasonal (157). Locality wise they were found in different areas such as Saproon by pass, Sulogara, Near sabjimandi, Near railway fatakhambaghat, Ganjbazar, Bypass road, Chauk bazaar, Upper bazar, Mall road, Kotlanala, Old bus stand, Basantvihar, Near D.C. office and opposite to Axix bank. In total number of street vendors of the city only 94 street vendors are registered.

Table 1.1: Sample Spectrum of Street Vendors of Solan

<i>Place</i>	<i>Total no. of SV</i>	<i>Sample Size</i>	<i>No. of Sample (%)</i>
Chauk Bazar	86	28	10
Ganj Bazar	54	18	12
Mall Road	138	44	26
Old Bus Stand	58	19	17.3
Saproon Bypass	127	41	34.7
Total	463	150	100

Data Analysis & Findings

Distribution of Sampled Street Vendors by Migratory Aspects:

The data of the present study shows that more than one forth (76%) street vendors in the city are migrants while a small proportion (24%) street vendor is residential belong to Solan district. Out of all migrated street vendors, it is also found that 64 % are inter-state migrants. The leading source states of migrants are Uttar Pradesh followed by Ahmedabad, Haryana and Bihar. Apart from them, a small proportion of immigrants come Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and Kashmir regions. Followed by them intra-state migrants constitute 12 %, migrated from rural areas of different districts of H.P. like Hamirpur, Bilaspur, Mandi, Sirmaur and Una. Besides, 4 percent of the street vendors in the city are international migrants whose place of origin is Nepal. Street vendors in

the city who belong to Solan district, it is found that 58.4% belongs to Solan city who have their residential house in city while 41.6 %of them resides in rural areas. They come every day to sell their goods.

Table 1.2: Distribution of Sampled Street vendors on the basis of their Place of Origin

<i>Place of Origin</i>	<i>State / District</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Inter-State Migrants	Uttar Pradesh	29.3
	Ahmadabad	16.6
	Haryana	8
	Bihar	4
	Others	2
Intra-State Migrants (H.P.)	Hamirpur	5.4
	Mandi	2
	Bilaspur	2
	Sirmaur	1.3
	Una	1.3
Migrants outside the Country	Nepal	4
Residential	Solan	24
Total		100

It has been noticed that people generally move from villages to cities as they believe that economic opportunities and better life can be found in the cities Alfie (2014). In addition, it is also noticed that the permanent migrants move from village to cities in search of better lifestyle while the seasonal migration move to earn their survival as they are comparatively more deprived group of the society (Keshri & Bhagat 2010). The present study also divided all migrants into two category as discussed above and it is found that a large number (73.7 percent) of street vendors in the city are permanent migrant while 26.3 percent are seasonal migrants.

Regarding the reasons of their migration, it is found that poverty, unemployment and insufficient farming which is inadequate for their survival are the main reason of migration for 31.6% migrants and 20.1% moved from their native place to the city for better prospects in terms of income. Though a large proportion (48.3%) street vendors said that they moved after getting experience of family members, friends or relatives who already left the village and working in the city, economic constraint is the predominant reason of their migration, and in this group the proportion of permanent migrants is higher. It shows that even if social networking work as a motivational mechanism to encourage other family members or co-villagers to move from village to city areas (D' Souza 1978), but poverty, unemployment and economic limitation are the principal reason behind their migration. This is the reason that a large number of migrants leave their place of origin at an early age (table 1.3).

Socio-economic profile

In the city it is found that street vendors are primarily a male oriented occupation. The gender composition of the data demonstrates that an overwhelming majority of the total street vendors (85.3%) are male, whereas female constitutes only 14.7% share. Since vending profession is looked down upon by the society and also required hard work people of rural areas do not prefer the female member of the family to sit on the road side for selling. Female member of the family join this profession only when they have no choice or other member is working in the family. Besides, a higher proportion of street vendors in the city are rural migrates, coming to get higher profit. Migration from one place to other can easily be done by male than female. This is also one of the reasons that street vending is dominated by male.

Table 1.3: Distribution of sample Street Vendors by Social and Demographic Characteristics (Percentage)

Indictors		Seasona	Permanent	Total
Gender	Male	93.4	91.6	92.1
	Female	6.7	8.4	7.9
	Total	26.3	73.7	100
Age	15-24	46.6	7.2	17.5
	25-34	23.3	16.7	18.4
	35-44	13.4	38.1	31.6
	45-55	16.7	27.3	24.6
	Above 55	0	10.7	7.9
	Total	26.3	73.7	100
Civil (Marital) Status	Married	73.4	85.7	82.5
	Unmarried	26.7	7.1	12.2
	Widow /Widower/ Divorce	0	7.2	5.3
	Total	26.3	73.7	100
Family Size	Nuclear	0	63.2	46.6
	Joint	0	16.6	12.2
	Siblings/ co-villagers	56.7	7.1	20.2
	Single	43.3	13.1	21.0
	Total	26.3	73.7	100
	Family Size	1-4	30	38.1
6-7		60	39.3	44.7
7+		10	22.6	19.4
Total		26.3	73.7	100
Religion	Hindu	93.3	86.9	88.6
	Muslim	6.7	13.1	11.4
	Total	26.3	73.7	100
Caste	SC	73.4	42.8	50.8
	ST	0	2.4	1.7
	OBC	6.6	28.6	22.8
	General	20	26.2	24.5
	Total	26.3	73.7	100
Education Level	Illiterate	36.7	22.6	26.3

Contd...

Primary	53.3	58.3	57.1
High School	10	9.6	9.6
10+2	0	5.9	4.4
Graduation	0	3.6	2.6
Total	26.3	73.7	100

(Figures in parenthesis show row percentage)

The age composition of street vendors in the city shows that majority of them fall in the age group of 15 to 55 years, i.e. in the age of earning. Most of them (82.5%) lead their married life in the city. It also found that for these people street vending is the basic means of the survival for their family. Street vendors, who are not married yet, are generally seasonal migrants who prefer to move time to time from village to city in order to earn additional income during off season. In this group also most of the street vendors plan to move permanently from village to city after their marriage. It has been noticed that rural-urban migration also influences the traditional institution of Indian society (Gore 1968, Rao 1974). Vendors, who migrate from distinct place to the city, prefer to live in nuclear family as they are unable to afford the expenses of larger family. In the present study, nearly half of sample respondents reported that they live in nuclear family where higher proportions of them are permanent migrants. Besides, some of the migrant street vendors either live alone or with their siblings or friends (co-villagers). In this group, a considerable proportion of them are seasonal migrants whose purpose of migration is to earn survival for themselves and their families. Many of them reported that they came to city from poor rural background to earn money as they have no other source of survival in their native place. Time to time they send money to their family members as their survival in village depend upon them. Some of them doing very hard work by shifting place to place to sell their goods and earn better profit. They do hard work to build *pucca* shelter for their family in native place. This shows that for most of the migrant's rural-urban migration is associated only with their survival and better set up of life rural; it has not changed their spirit (Gore 1968, Sebarwal 1973) as even after migration they are associated with their native place.

The finding regarding social background of street vendors in the city in terms of their caste has also supported the notion that migrants who come from rural to urban areas, engage in urban informal economic sector generally belong to socially underprivileged section of the rural society (Dandekar and Rath 1971). Though the migration of this group of people helps them to uplift their economic situation, in the urban areas also they belong to lower strata of the urban society. Thus, the rural-urban migration play a crucial role in transformation of rural poverty into urban and growth of urban informal sector (Singh and D' Souza 1980, Shah 2002). However, not all the street vendors belong to lower caste group. One-fourth of the total migrant street vendors belong to general caste groups. It shows that street vending occupation as a means of survival not only attracts people from poor social background but

also from higher castes group of the villages if they have lack of required skill and education to work in organized sector of the urban society. In the finding, most of the street vendors are either illiterate or have attend school up to primary level, but very few of them are found who could hardly read or write their name. The situation shows their lack of skill and education to get job in organized sector of urban society and hence they have to engage themselves as sidewalk vendors. Most of the street vendors in the city also reported that since they belong to the family of poor economic background they were unable to complete their education or learn any occupational skill. This situation shows that their situation of deprivation is not accidental but historical which is passing from generation to generation and they are unable to break the shackle of poverty and deprivation.

Economic Status: Economic status of migrant street vendors in the city has been explained in terms of the nature of their work and their working conditions. It is found that the proportion of self-employed is higher than wage employed (83.4 vs. 16.6 percent). Most of them street vendors in the city either work on other's license or without license. Generally, permanent migrant arrange license from other to work as vendors. In return of license or the place of vending, these vendors have to pay a major part of their income to the actual license holders. Those who work without license are mostly seasonal migrants. They illegally occupied a small place on the sidewalk, arrange their stall and start working as street vendors in the city without any license. Sometimes they cause congestion on the main pathways. Some of the seasonal vendors are those whose family members or co-villager already engage in similar occupation in the city. Some of these vendors try to collect money and planning to start a small business at their native place. Though a substantial proportion of migrant in the city are working without license but the type of vending can categorize then stationary as most of the time they are using same place for vending. These vendors have a semi- permanent method of vending. This means, they use temporary and unfixed things such as tables, picnic umbrella, polythene sheet etc. for vending. Some of them sit on floor or on the stairs of other's shops or stand whole day to sell their goods. However, seasonal migrants have no fixed place of vending and they have categorized as mobile street vendors. Period of working of street vendors in the city indicates that for these people street vending is an important part of their life. This is the way of life for them where the proportion of permanent migrants is higher as street vending is only means of their survival.

Table 1.4: Distribution of Street Vendors by their Employment

		Related Characteristics (Percentage)		
Economic Status		Seasonal	Permanent	Total
Employment Status	Self Employed	63.4	90.4	83.4
	Wage	36.6	9.6	16.6
	Employed			
	Total	26.3	73.7	100
Nature of Work	Full time	100	96.4	97.4
	Part time	0	3.6	2.6
	Total	26.3	73.7	100
Types of Street Vending	Stationary	23.4	85.7	69.3
	Mobile	76.6	14.3	30.7
	Total	26.3	73.7	100
License for Street Vending	Own license	0	22.5	16.7
	No license	90	1.1	32.4
	Other's license	10	65.4	50.9
	Total	26.3	73.7	100
Years spend in present occupation	0-5	40	5.9	14.9
	6-10	60	13.0	25.4
	11-15	0	15.5	11.5
	15+	0	65.6	48.2
	Total	26.3	73.7	100
Working Days in Month	15-20	53.3	11.9	22.8
	21-25	43.3	67.9	61.4
	26+	3.4	20.2	15.8
	Total	26.3	73.7	100
Working Hours	5-8 hours	46.6	35.7	38.6
	9-10 hours	30	36.9	35.1
	11or More	23.4	27.4	26.3
	Total	26.3	73.7	100
No. family members engaged with chief vendor	One	43.3	28.6	31.6
	Two	0	16.7	13.2
	Three or more	0	8.5	7.0
	None	56.7	45.2	48.2
	Total	26.3	73.7	100

(Figures in parenthesis show row percentage)

The working condition of street vendors in terms of working hours reveals that they have to work more than eight hours in a day which is considered as average working period Tamirat (2012). From a survey report, it is found that at an average a street vendor spends up to 15 hours every day in his or her activities in order to earn a hundred or two hundred rupees (CUE

Report, 2014). The study also suggests that street vendors in the city spend averagely about 10 hours per day at street. Working hours of street vendors also depend upon the goods of selling. The fruits and vegetable sellers have to start doing work from early morning. They visit to whole sell market to buy fruits and vegetable in bulk. Thereby later they have to spend time in its storing, cleaning. They arrange these items to maintain them for longer time and at the end of the day store them properly though most of them have lack of proper storing space. Similarly, those who sell cooked food said that they wake up early in the morning to prepare the selling food material. They have to stand throughout the day to sell their goods that sometimes affects their health. In several cases street vending needs more working hand. Thus, in maximum cases one or more family members engage as helper with chief street vendor. Sometimes whole family engages in the same occupation. For instance, the migrants who engage in selling second hand cloth on the footpath, their whole family member including children below the age of 14 engage in vending. The chief vendor engages in selling utensils on door to door in return of old cloths. Some other members involve in washing and iron of these clothes and prepare them for selling and lastly rest of the family members engage in selling. Thus, street vendors work very hard for their two times meal. Table 1.5 shows category-wise distribution of migrant street vendors. It is found that a highest proportion of street vendors are fruits or vegetable sellers in the city. On income level also this is the category who earns better income.

Table 1.5: Category-Wise Distribution of Migrant Street Vendors (Percentage)

Street vendors Category	Seasonal	Permanent	Total
Fresh Fruits & Vegetable			
Fruits	16.6	29.6	26.3
Vegetables	0	9.5	7.1
Fruits and Vegetables	0	3.5	2.6
Dry fruits	6.6	0	1.7
Total	23.3	42.8	37.7
Readymade food items			
Cooked food/ <i>Panipuri</i> / <i>Momos</i> /ice-cream	3.3	11.9	9.6
<i>Bhelpuri</i> / <i>Corn</i> / <i>Gram</i>	23.3	5.9	10.5
Total	26.6	17.8	20.2
Clothing			
Old cloths	0	20.2	14.9
Ethnic Cloths	13.3	1.2	4.3
Cloths dye	0	2.4	1.7
Total	13.3	23.8	21.1
Leather and Plastic Items/ Miscellaneous Items			
Leather items (Shoes or <i>Chappal</i>)	20	7.1	10.5
Cobbler	6.6	1.2	2.6
Toys/Plastic material/ladies fashion items	10	5.9	7.0
Miscellaneous Items (String, naphthalene, Balloons)		0	1.2
0.8			
Total	36.6	14.3	21
Total	26.3	73.7	100

(Figures in parenthesis show row percentage)

Sometime seasonal migrants who migrate generally in summer engage in fruit selling with their relatives. Some other come from surrounding regions like Kalka, Chandigarh and Kashmir to sell dry fruits in the city and earn better profit as these items are comparatively in high demand. The second largest group is of second hand cloth sellers. In this category migrants of Gujrat region are engaged. The group of Gujrati migrants reported that they lost their land in flood. Their earlier generation shifted from Gujrat to Solan and from years they are engage in same kind of occupation to earn their livelihood. Next category is the group is of ethnic cloth sellers. This is the group of migrants who moved from Rajasthan. During summer they move from one to other places to sell ethnic cloths in hope of getting high profit. The third category is the vendors of readymade or cooked food items. The scope of ready to eat food on the street is also broad. Different items like *paanipuri*, *chaat*, momos, ice-cream, *bhelpuri*, corn are in high demand which provide good opportunity to earn livelihood basically to the migrants. Some other vendors engage in selling plastic or leather items which are used in daily life. In order to get high profit, most of the migrants buy the selling goods from Delhi or Chandigarh at low-priced price to earn better profit. Rest few others sell miscellaneous item like strings, naphthalene balls, balloons etc. just for their survival. Sometimes group of members of family of friends arrange the selling items on separate place selling the items easily and earn separate income.

Table 1.6: Income Wise Distribution of Migrant Street Vendors (Percentage)

Income Category	Seasonal	Permanent	Total
0-5000	13.3	3.6	6.1
5001-10000	40	42.8	42.2
10001-15000	33.3	36.9	35.9
15001-20000	6.7	11.9	10.5
20001-35000	6.7	4.7	5.3
Total	26.3	73.7	100

Generally, migrants move from village to cities for getting better source of income. Many of them earn better livelihood and lead comparatively better life in the city than their counterparts. But, in the city their income is hardly enough for leading life according to the standard of urban society. The average income of street vendors in the city is 11096.9¹. The average income of permanent migrant is comparatively higher than seasonal (11310.0 vs. 10500.4¹), though there is not considerable difference between them. The vendors do not get regular opportunity of earning. Sometimes they earn better or more than their hope and sometimes they are not able even to return the debt, taken from whole seller. In this situation they must have any supplementary source of income. But, survival of permanent migrants depends only on street vending. They have no other source of income. However, in case of seasonal migrants, it is found that they also have other source of livelihood (table 1.8).

Since the livelihood of maximum Street vendors depends upon their daily income they hardly save money for their future. In many cases, respondents said that their daily income is just enough to sustain their basic needs such as food and shelter, and therefore there is no chance of saving. In case, if they save some amount of income then they have to spend on the day when the income is zero. Nevertheless, it is found that a large proportion of street vendors save some amount of income in nearest co-operative bank namely Baghat and Rajinder Bank. Although they have no high amount of saving, but they try to save for their future.

Table 1.7: Access of Economic Security(Percentage)

Supplementary				
Source of Income		Seasonal	Permanent	Total
	No any other Source	0	86.9	64
	Agriculture	83.4	8.4	28
	Small shop in native place	6.6	4.7	5.3
	Salaried on others shop	10	0	2.7
	Total	26.3	73.7	100*
Saving status		Seasonal	Permanent	Total
	Bank/Co. Bank	60	61.9	61.4
	Saving in House	10	8.3	8.8
	No Saving	30	29.8	29.8
	Total	26.3	73.7	100*
Source of Investment		Seasonal	Permanent	Total
	Bank /Co-operative bank	0	8.3	6.2
	Self-Saving /Relatives	36.7	16.7	21.9
	Whole seller	63.3	75	71.9
	Total	26.3	73.7	100*
Indebtedness		Seasonal	Permanent	Total
	Whole Seller	30	45.2	41.2
	Nearest shop	2	27.5	25.4
	Rural Committee / Relatives	0	5.9	4.4
	Bank / Co-operation bank	0	2.3	1.8
	Not indebted	50	19.1	27.2
	Total	26.3	73.7	100

(Figures in parenthesis show row percentage)

The street vendors are as poor as they have nothing in terms of investment to start their business(Bhowmik 2005). They have scarce resources. They work on daily turnover basis for their survival. (Jhabvala 2000; Bhowmik 2001).It has also been noticed that vendors initially worked as construction labor and worked on daily wage basis. Some of them worked with their family member who engage somewhere on daily wage basis. After spending several

year there they started their own business. However, most of them are indebted. In many cases they have to borrow money from elsewhere as their earned income is generally inadequate. It is also found that most of the vendors borrow from the whole seller in the form of selling goods. After working throughout the day, at the end they return the debt. In the situation when they are not able to earn sufficient amount of income to repay the debt and next day again they have to borrow from them. This situation makes them overburdened with high amount of debt. Thus, they are continuous in debt trap which is not easy for them to break out. Due to inadequate income and economic constraint they are unable to get financial support particularly from the financial institutions (Bhowmik 2001, Jhabvala 2000), if they needed. Therefore, they borrow from different sources not only for economic activities but also for the purpose of social security. The study reveals that more than three-fourth street vendors fall into debt trap due to high indebtedness where most of the vendors from whole seller for continuing their business. Apart from this, fulfilling daily needs is also the reason that encourages them to borrow from nearest shop or relatives, rural committee or in few cases from co-operative bank. This situation also causes their indebtedness. The study also suggests that proportion of indebtedness is lesser in case of seasonal migrants than permanent migrants. If seasonal migrants borrow, then they borrow either to sustain their business or to complete their personal needs. But the permanent migrant street vendors also borrow for other social purposes such as children education (3.6%), marriage (2.6%) etc. However, continuing economic activity (40.3%) and sustaining daily needs (26.4%) are the basic reason of indebtedness. The finding reveals that street vending is a very important means of survival for poor and unemployed rural migrants. But their earned income is hardly sufficient to complete their basic needs. They can survive every day, but since the budget is limited they are unable to compete with the people of urban society.

Conclusion

From the above analysis it can be concluded that the processes of rural-urban migration and street vending are closely interlinked. The migratory aspect of the study reveals that street vending in the city is primarily done by rural migrants, coming from different parts inside and outside the state. It shows that rural-urban migration is an important of increasing informal sector in urban areas, particularly in the form of street vending. There are several reasons which influencing people to move from rural to urban areas, but the predominant reasons is rural poverty associated with rural unemployment, lack or inadequate land for farming etc. including push factors. Though pull factors like better standard of living etc and sometimes social network of immigrants also encourages them to leave the native place at an early age, but the dominating reason is economic constraint of rural people. In addition, cities, especially in hilly areas provide higher opportunity of entrepreneurship that also motivates the intensity of migration of rural unskilled people to the city.

In the study all migrant street vendors are divided into two groups, permanent and seasonal where majority of them fall into the former category. The socio-economic perspective of the study shows that there is no considerable difference between these two categories of migrant street vendors. Both of the categories belong to socially and economically underprivileged section of rural society. People move towards city in search of livelihood. Seasonal migrants also have other source of income while for permanent migrants street vending is their only source of livelihood. However, most of the seasonal migrants plan to leave their native place permanently and start a small business in the city. Sometimes permanent migrant also encourage seasonal migrant to shift permanently.

It seems that street vendors who are permanent migrants initially came in the city as seasonal migrants. As they got opportunity of earning they came permanently in the city. The situation of continuous flow of migrants in the urban areas resulted several urban problems such as urban unemployment, underemployment, poverty, congestion and overcrowding and high growth informal sector etc. The socio-economic analysis of the street vendors bring out the conclusion that though migrant street vendors live comparatively better life in the city, in the informal sector like street vending in the city it thrusts on them a low standard of living and eventually they are situated in lower strata of socio-economic hierarchy. Thus, migration of these rural migrants though helps them to improve their survival strategies but not be capable to improve their socio-economic conditions to an immense extent. The situation of economic constraint associated with inadequate income does not allow them to compete with the standard of urban living.

A large number of street vendors engage in the occupation without having legal identity. They have no legal status to conduct their business. These vendors illegally occupy public or private place of pavement for vending. The situation creates several problem such as congestion, overcrowding, road block and poor and unhygienic habitat and poverty etc. in the city. Despite, they are accepted by the large society as they play invaluable role in urban economy by providing varieties of affordable products to local population. They satisfy the demand of consumers belong to different class that the formal sector cannot adequately serve. However, their own social and economic conditions are deplorable. Thus, there is dare need to regulate street vending properly and protect their livelihood. There is need to implement the street vending act, 2014 successfully with necessary changes to uplift their standard of living and to eliminate the feeling of alienation among them.

REFERENCES

- Adhikari, D. B.
2011. "Income generation in informal sector: A case study of the street vendors of Kathmandu Metropolitan City", *Economic Journal of Development Issues*, 13&14(1-2). Combined Issue.[Online] Available <http://www.nepjol.info/index.php/EJDI/article/viewFile/7193/5822>(Nov 29, 2018)
- Alfie.
2014. *Mangalore: Kankanady Market Merchants Association Want Street Vendors Out of Their Area*, [Online]Available at<http://www.mangalorean.com/news.php?newstype=broadcast&broadcastid>
- Andringa,K.
1989. *Street food hawkers in Southeast Asia*.Utrecht, Wageningen: Agricultural University Wageningen, Netherlands.
- Anjaria, S. J.
2006. "Street hawkers and public space in Mumbai", *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 41(21)
- Bhowmik, S.K.
1998. *Hawkers And The Urban Informal Sector: A Study of Street Vending In Seven Cities* Prepared by for NASVI.

2001. *Hawkers in the Urban Informal Sector: A Study of Street Vendors in Seven Cities*. Research Paper, NASVI [Online] Available at <http://www.karmayog.com/hawkers/hawkersnasvi.htm>.

2003. Urban Responses to Street Trading: India, (Paper for Urban Research Symposium on Urban Development for Economic Growth and Poverty Reduction, World Bank, Washington, D.C), [Online] Available at <http://www.wiego.org/publications/wiego.php>.
- Bhowmik, S.
2005. "Street Vendors in Asia:A Review" *Economic and Political Weekly*,Vol. 40 (2).

2006. "Social Security for Street Vendors", *Seminar*, 568 (December), [Online]Available at http://www.india-seminar.com/2006/568/568_sharit_k_bhowrnik.htrn

2007. "Street Vendors in Urban India: The struggle for recognition", in A. Morales and J. Cross (Eds.), *Street Entrepreneurs: People, Place and Politics*. New York: Routledge.

- .
2010. *Street Vendors in the Global Urban Economy*. London : Routledge Publication
- Bromley, R.
2000. "Street Vending and Public Policy: A Global Review", *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*. 20 (1). [Online] Available: <http://www.emeraldinsight.com/journals.htm?articleid=850310> (March 10, 2014).
- Cross, J. C.
1998. "Co-optation, Competition, and Resistance: State and Street Vendors in Mexico City", *Latin American Perspectives* 25(2).
- Chen, M. A., Jhabvala, R. and Lund, F.
- 2002 *Supporting Workers in the Informal Economy: A Policy Framework*, Working Paper on the Informal Sector 2002/2, Employment Sector, Geneva: International Labour Organization.
- Chen, M. A.
2007. *Rethinking the informal economy: Linkages with the formal economy and the formal regulatory environment*. [Online] Available at www.un.org/esa/desa/papers/2007/wp46_2007.pdf, March 2010.
- Hart, K.
1973. *Informal income opportunities and urban employment in Ghana*. *Journal of Modern African Studies*.
- Herrera, J., Kuépié, M., Nordman, C., Oudin, X., & Roubaud, F.
2011. Informal Sector and Informal Employment: Overview of Data for Eleven Cities in Ten Developing Countries. In WIEGO Urban Policies Resource Document [Online] available at www.wiego.org.
- International Labour Organization.
1972. *Employment, incomes and equality: A strategy for increasing productive employment in Kenya*, Geneva: International Labour Organization.
- International Labour Organization.
2002. ***Women and Men in the Informal Economy: A Statistical Picture***, International Labour Organization, Geneva, International Labour Organization, 90th Session.
- Khanam, M.
2008. *Gender inequality: the earning gap between men and women street vendors in Dhaka city*, *Journal of The Asiatic Society of Bangladesh (Humanities)*. Vol. 53 (2).
- Mukherji, S.
2006. *Migration and Urban Decay, Asian Experience*, New Delhi: Rawat publications.

National Policy on Urban Street Vendors.

2004. [Online] Available at nceus.gov.in/Street%20Vendors%20policy
- NCEUS.
2006. *National Policy on Urban Street Vendors*, New Delhi: National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganized Sector [Online] Available at: <http://nceus.nic.in/Street%20Vendors%20policy.pdf>, (March 2010).
- NCEUS.
2007. *Report on Comprehensive Legislation for Minimum Conditions of Work and Social Security for Unorganized Workers*, New Delhi: National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganized Sector [Online] Available at: http://nceus.gov.in/Report_Bill_July_2007.htm, (March 2010).
- Nirathron, N.
2006. *Fighting Poverty from the Street: A Survey of Street Food Vendors in Bangkok. Informal Economy, Poverty and Employment*. Thailand Series Number 1. ILO [Online] Available at <http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/-asia/-ro-bangkok/documants/publication>
- Raman, R.
2012. *Agony and Angst on the Streets: Women Fruit and Vegetable Vendors in Northern India*, the Indian Journal of Labour Economics, Vol. 55 (3).
- Skinner, C.
2011. *AAPS planning education toolkit: the informal economy*. Cape Town: African Association of Planning Schools.
- Suraiya, S., and Noor, F.
2012. "An Analysis of Socioeconomic Conditions of Street Vendors: A Study on Dhaka City", *Daffodil International University Journal of Business and Economics*, 6(1 & 2).
- Timalsina, K.
2011. "An Urban Informal Economy: Livelihood Opportunity to Poor or Challenges for Urban Governance", *Global Journal of Human Social Science*, 11(2), version 1.0. [Online] Available at https://globaljournals.org/GJHSS_Volume11/4-An-Urban-Informal-Economy.pdf
- Tiwari, G.
- (2000). "Encroachers or Services Providers?", *Seminar*, Vol. 491.
- Unni, J.
2010. "Inclusive Cities: The Indian Case," Draft report commissioned by WIEGO (Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing).

Yatmo, Y. A.

2008. "Street Vendors as 'Out of Place' Urban Element", *Journal of Urban Design*, 13 (3).

Huq-Hussain, Shanaz.

1996. *Female Migrant's Adaptation in Dhaka: A Case of the Process of Urban Socio-Economic Change*, Urban Studies Programme, Department of Geography, University of Dhaka.

Mitra, A.

2003. *Occupational Choices, Networks, and Transfer: An Exegesis Based on Micro Data from Delhi Slums*. Delhi: Manohar Publication