

## Socio-economic Impact of Street Trade in Jimeta- Yola Adamawa State, Nigeria

Liman, A.

Department of Urban and Regional Planning, School of Environmental Sciences

Modibbo Adama University of Technology, Yola, Nigeria

Correspondence email: [aminuliman@mautech.edu.ng](mailto:aminuliman@mautech.edu.ng)

### Abstract

*This paper provides an overview of socio-economic impact of street trade in Jimeta-Yola. Research problem shows the indiscriminate street hawking in Jimeta-Yola leading to encroachment on right of way and traffic congestion. This occurs as vehicles and pedestrians cannot pass easily due to perpetual display of goods along road sides. The survey conducted among some 140 respondents randomly selected from 10% of the street vendors with the aid of stratified random sampling techniques. The vendors that squat along the major streets and open spaces around major markets and public places were selected as respondents. Data were obtained from the relevant respondents and establishments and the target population is 1,400 vendors. Ten percent of the target population is used as the sample size. Results show that inability of government to provide adequate utilities and spaces for street traders lead to road and drainage blockages. This study therefore recommends for a law regulating the distribution of street markets in Jimeta-Yola and provide sanctions to regulate the use of public spaces and roads to curb the nuisance.*

**Keywords:** Street Trade, Traffic, Road Setbacks, Urban Management, Urban Regulation

### INTRODUCTION

Urban planners and landscape designers and other environmentally conscious residents are becoming concerned about street trade that has gotten to a disturbing stage (Nurudeen *et al.*, 2014). Brown *et al.*, (2009) defines street traders as entrepreneurs, engaged in the transaction of goods and services along streets or publicly available space whose operation is outside the prevailing regulatory environment. The street traders sell their goods and services along streets to the passing pedestrians and motorists (Chamberlin, *al.*, 2014). They have account for 15 to 25% of informal employment in African cities. In Asian countries such as India, street trade cover 3% of the non-agricultural employment and account for 3.1 million traders (UN, 2011). In Latin America, such as Peru, they constitute about 9% of informal employment which account for 240,000 vendors (Herrera *et al.*, 2011). Schalk (2011) stated that most cities in developing nations are characterize by dilapidated structures, which is accompanied by an increase of informal traders in the cities. This study will identify the street trade problems with particular reference to Jimeta-Yola, Adamawa State. Akpan and Oluwabamide (2010), argued that street vending in Nigeria has exposed children to physical injuries, abandonment, sexual abuse and child labour. It is also argued that the non-regulation of street food vending in the country portends danger of outbreak of food poisoning (Nurudeen *et al.*, 2014).

street trading, began when people were no longer able to support themselves in the formal economy. They had to find means to make a living from informal businesses. It plays an increasing role in the creation of a livelihood to people in developing countries (Beccles, 2014). The causes

of street trading include low educational level, low capital and unemployment (Olanipekun *et al.* 2007). The street trade covers a vast number of commercial enterprises and consist of several unions who sells related goods on the urban streets (Pena, 2000). The petty trade is an integral component of urban economies and has become a common livelihood phenomenon in most of the developing countries (Msoka and Lyons, 2010). It has existed for hundreds of years as a cornerstone of many cities' historical and cultural heritage (Skinner, 2011). However, in Nigeria the street traders are lacking financial and institutional support that will enable them to improve on their businesses output (Brown, *et al.*, 2014).

Informal economic activity being an umbrella of street trade has been a subject of controversy. Local authorities tried to raise restrictions to control the street trade in developing nations but it is not successful (Hlengwa, 2016). The authorities were dismayed as the informal trade was yearly increasing in the developing nations (Pena, 2000). These traders often face tensions with persistent attempts by authorities to relocate them away from central sites of the cities (Bromley and Mackie, 2009). Firstly, the informal street trade was seen to be in conflict with the ideology of preserving the beauty of cities. Secondly, the street vendors were creating some unwanted competition for formal retailers. Thirdly vendor was regarded as a threat to public health and clean environment (Ademola, 2015).

Ouwamanam *et al.* (2007), argued that street traders engage with commercial activities in illegal structures or open spaces within the building lines. In the same view, Crosss (2000), describes streets traders are those people who offer goods and services for sale on primary streets or path of the highway of an urban area. The street trade sites are the busier urban zones which are key public places and a subject of various interests of development planning (Parnell and Pieterse, 2010). Mitullah (2004) identifies fixed and mobile vendors operating on the urban streets in developing countries, the street vendors often sell their goods and services on the street using temporary built-up structures and has caused disfigurement of aesthetics urban scenery (Ademola, 2015). Street trade is closely related to formal market *although* with different degrees of formality (Brown *et al.* 2009). If street traders are operating in plenty numbers they can be plan to constitute a recognized street market (Bromley, 2000).

Bogoro *et al.* (2012) observed that street vendors after selling their goods dump their wastes on the roadsides and drainage systems. The solid waste generated by the petty traders are seriously polluting the urban environment (Yankson, 2000). This is often resulting to blockage of the water ways and leading to flooding which occasionally causes health problems, loss of lives and properties (Benjamin, 2007). This pollution is not limited to the air we breathe or the water we drink, it can equally upset the eyes and the ears of the affected residents (Bromley *et al.*, 2008).

Ouwamanam *et al.* (2007) viewed street trade as a form of squatting for perpetual display of goods along road sides or at the intersection of major roads. The street hawking often leads to the reduction of roads width as the traders occupy the solders of the streets and the pedestrian path ways (Bhowmik, 2005). Although the street trade plays a great role in the distribution of goods and services however, it causes traffic congestion on urban streets and pavements (Brown, 2006).

**Study Area**

This study area covers Jimeta the headquarters of Yola-North Local Government area of Adamawa state, Nigeria. Jimeta was founded in 1912 as a model town of greater Yola. The commercial centre, port town and an administrative centre of Yola and the twin city forming the State capital of Adamawa State. It twin sister is Yola town the traditional seat of Adamawa emirate council (Adebayo and Tukur, 1999). Jimeta, it lies on latitude 9°N of the equator and on longitude 12° 28' E of the Greenwich meridian. Consisting of 11 administrative wards in the Yola-North local government area. Namely: Ajiya, Alkalawa, Doubeli Gwadabawa, Jambutu, Karewa, Limawa, Luggere, Nassarawo, Runde and Yelwa ward. The projected population of the metropolis is 301,437 people (UN population estimates, 2020). The street vendors sell their goods and services in major roads in Jimeta-Yola, such as those around the Jimeta modern and old market, Jimeta shopping complex others are the transportation hubs of the city such as Gladima Aminu way and Jambutu by-pass and a road leading Jambutu park, as well as the streets leading to Ribadu square and State / Federal secretariat complex. The highest population pyramid of the petty traders is found at Mohammed Mustapha and Ahmadu Bello Way whereas Galadima Aminu, Gibson Jalo road and police round- about formed their second hierarchy, while Mubi round-about, target junction and hospital road is their lowest population pyramid.

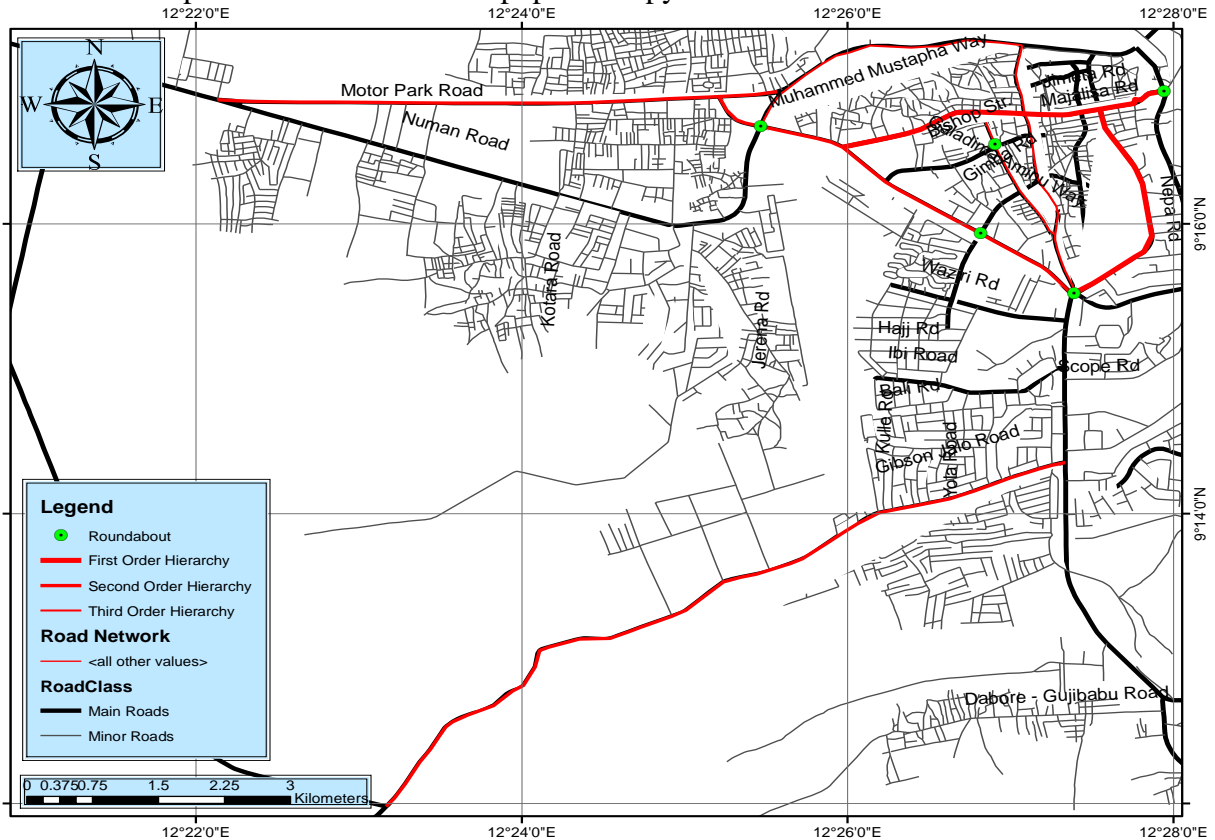


Figure 1: Street Guide Map of Jimeta-Yola Showing Roads Affected by Street Trade

**METHODOLOGY**

A total of 140 respondents were considered for this study. A stratified random sampling technique was used and questionnaires were administered proportionately to 9 petty traders’ unions

displaying their goods along the 9 major streets of Jimeta-Yola. These vendors are squatting along the streets nearby the commercial land uses and public places in Jimeta-Yola. At each of the 9 streets, the members of the informal traders’ union were sample as respondents and interviews were held with their leadership across the eleven (11) political wards in the study area. A total of 140 petty traders were sampled and this is supplemented by stakeholder analysis.

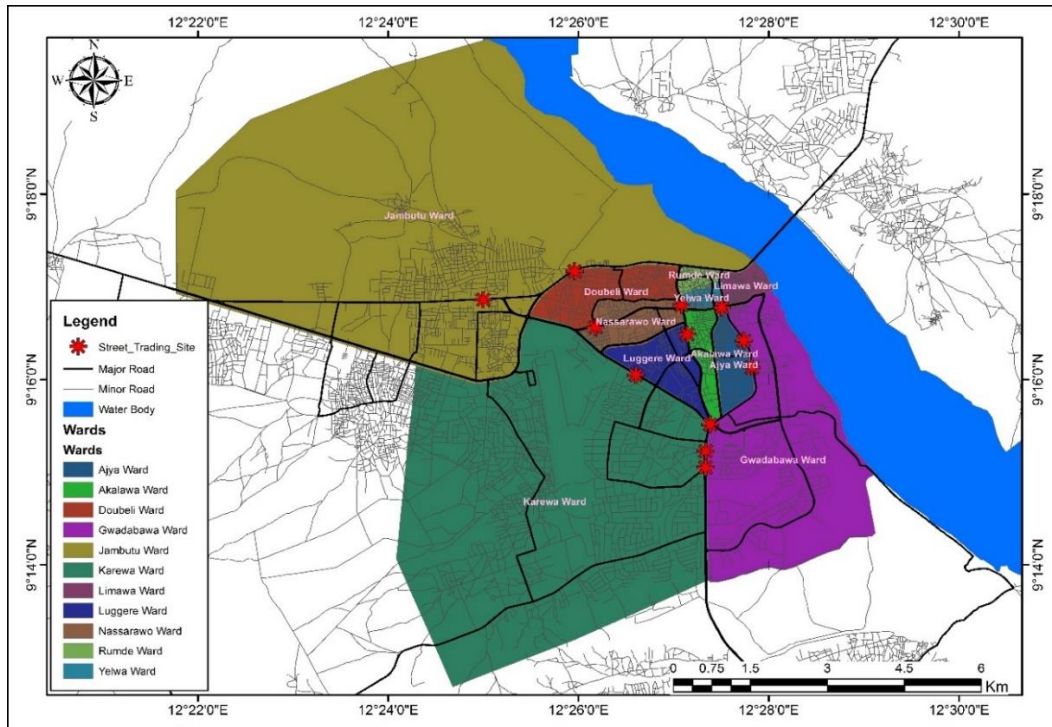


Figure 2: Political Map of Jimeta-Yola Showing Street Trading Sites

This research employed purposive sampling method and questionnaires were administered proportionately to the 140 street vendors (table 1). The target population is 1,400 vendors and 10% of the target population is used as the sample size. The questionnaires were administered only to the street vendors through identified trading inlets with the aid of stratified random sampling techniques. The sampling frame include: street vendors and staff of Adamawa State Ministry of Commerce, trade and Investment. The sample size was obtained in proportion to the study population using 95 percent confidence level (Krejcie and Morgan, 1970). The secondary data include the land use maps, petty traders’ unions data and population of the study area which were source from National Population Commissions, Jimeta market unions and Adamawa State Ministry of Commerce, Trade and Investment respectively. Descriptive statistics such as frequency, percentages and mean were use. Data were analyzed using (SPSS) version 21.

**RESULT AND DISCUSSION**

Results show that 56% of respondents are female while 44% are male, indicating that most of the petty traders are women who struggle for a living. This results collaborated with the findings of (ILO)2002 which stated that women and children are the main groups involved in petty trading. In addition, 18% of the respondents do not have formal education (figure 3), 36% have only primary School certificate, while 30% have SSCE whereas 12% and 4% has Diploma/NCE as well as

Degrees respectively and the results indicates majority of the petty traders are illiterates who are not employable by government. The findings of this study is supported by Olanipekun *et al.* 2007 which stated that the causes of street trade are low educational level, low capital and unemployment. The petty traders needed training of some apprentices' skills so that they can be self-reliance in order to afford for better shops. The results of this study also verified with Crossa(2009) which indicated that Majority of the street traders are migrants to cities with low educational qualifications involved in hawking as a desperate means of survival when they loosed hopes of getting *white color jobs*.

Figure 4a shows the duration of time of running the businesses. About 45% of the respondents have been trading for less than a year and 33% are trading between 1-3 years while 15% and 7% have been trading for 3-5 years and above 5 years respectively. The results indicated that majority of the respondents engaged in street hawking temporally before getting a better place of business or change their occupations. This results supported the findings of Bromley (2000) which indicated that street traders are engaged in part-time businesses, with seasonal practices and they are being run by one or more employees. The outcomes of this study further affirmed that majority of the vendors are looking for busy roads with potential customers which makes them clustered in some streets and sparsely display in the others with low volume of traffic. However, integrating them in to the city plan will go a long in addressing some planning issues, improve their livelihood and consequently leads to economy development of the city.

Table 1: Questionnaire Distribution

S/N	Streetname/ Location	Street Traders Group	No of Traders	No Respondents	Percentage (%)
1	Mohammed Mustapha (Modern Market axis)	Provision Sellers/medicine/herbs	431	43	30.7
2	Galadima Aminu(Modern Market axis)	Textile Sellers	210	21	15.0
3	Jambutu by- pass(Commodity Market axis)	Grains /Root /Tubers Sellers	200	20	14.2
4	Police round about	Vegetables/Fruits/Beverage Sellers/ assorted food sellers	100	10	7.14
5	Hospital road /Target Junction	Meat/Fish sellers/Medicine/ Fruits/Beverage Sellers	51	5	3.57
6	Ahmadu Bello way (Old market axis)	Second hand clothes Sellers	59	6	4.28
7	Atiku Abubakar Road /Shopping complex	Plastic/stationaries/electrical/ shoe sellers	69	7	5.0
8	Aliyu Mustapha way to Yola Town	Food Vendors/assorted food/ Second hand clothes Sellers	80	8	5.7
9	Jambutu park road/ Gibson Jalo road	Table waters/soft drinks Sellers	200	20	14.2
Total			1400	140	100

Source: Adamawa State Ministry of Commerce, Investment and Trade and Field Survey (2020).

Figure 4b shows that 51% were the owners of the business, and 11% manage their family business while 37% of the respondents were employees. Majority of the respondents manages their own personal business to sustain their families' basic needs. The results show that 62% of the respondents manage their own business as means of their livelihoods. The outcome of this study collaborated with the results of Beccles (2014) which viewed street trade as sources of livelihood to many families in developing countries. Whereas Skinner (2008) further clarifies existence of a thin line between street trade and poverty. In other words, street trade in most African cities is directly proportional to poverty line in the countries. That is to say that street trade is an important source of survival for thousands of people across the globe, many of whom belong to low income families, and have little access to other forms of livelihood (Milgram, 2009). This means without an alternatives sources of livelihoods the vendors would resist all the pressures by the government to take them off the urban streets. This assertion was also supported by Bromley and Mackie (2009) which stated that the petty traders often resist pressures by authorities to relocate them away from the heart of the cities in developing countries.

Figure 5a show that 46% of the respondents makes N5000 and below weekly, 27.50% earn N6000 -N10,000 weekly, while 16% earned N11,000-N15,000 and 10.50% get N16,000 and above respectively. The result shows 75% of the respondents earned less than a dollar per day which goes with the findings of Bogoro, et al., (2012) which stated that majority of the petty traders struggle in businesses with low capital just to earned a living. Though majority of the respondents are poor but they are still earning above the new minimum wage of (N30, 000) as approved by the government. This indicates that if the government supported the petty traders' they will earn better income and generate more revenue to the government The street vendors are business oriented people who need support from government to integrate them into the city plan by providing them affordable shops in form of neighborhood markets. If the government created an enabling environment for their business to thrive it would improve the economy of Adamawa state and change her narrative as a civil service state.

Figure 5b shows distribution of rental prices for trading bays ,12% of the respondents do not pay rent at all whereas 46% pay N2000 and below monthly as rents, while 25% and 17% of the respondents were renting their business bays for N3000-N4000 and N5000 and above respectively. The results show that 82% of respondents are paying rentals for their businesses premises, signifying that if government constructed utility spaces for the small and medium traders they will earn more incomes and pay for higher rents which in turn will improve the government revenue. The results also illustrate that significant amount is being paid as rent by street traders across Jimeta which outlines a broad picture of the financial costs involved in running an informal trading venture. During an interview some respondents narrated their ordeal with some revenue collectors who force them to pay taxes on a weekly basis unlike the formal shops owners who pay their revenues monthly. Moreover, they have complaint that, they don't have stores to keep their goods after closing for the day as authorities will not allow them to build stores at their business bay spots since it fall within the road reserved area.

Figure 6a shows 41% of the respondents selected their location because of easy access to their customers, while 22% selected their locations due to the low cost of rentals. And 24% of the respondents selected their sites because of proximity of the business spot to their residence or places of work which help them to maintain surveillance on their shops and to economies the high rate of transport fares. While 13% of the respondents selected their places because of their inability to acquire a shop in Jimeta modern market. Some respondents have decried bureaucracy involved

in acquiring a shop in the modern market due to the long procedures involve such as the activities of middlemen, paying agent fees which has push them to the informal business spots. The results indicated that majority (41%) of the respondents selected sites of businesses bays because of access to customers it means distribution of alternative Neighbourhood markets could take them away from the streets. This result has verified the findings of Brown et al. 2009 which stated that majority of street vendors sell their goods and services in regulated street markets, transportation hubs due to easy access to customers, despite these business inlets were posing some challenges to both motorists and pedestrians.

Figure 6b indicates 14% of respondents operate between 8-10 am whereas 31% and 47% of respondents operate between 10-12 mid-day and 12-3pm respectively, while 9% operate between 4pm-12 Mid-night. The results clarify that street trade in Jimeta-Yola is a daily business of elastic hours of operation which do not necessary function in formal market area, every group follow their own time with regards to their customers' timely demand. Some vendors visit their trading bays early in the morning, most especially those that sales light food for breakfast, the next in schedule are fruit and vegetable sellers who runs from 8am everyday while the food stuff sellers as well as provision sellers and textiles sellers do come out from 9am daily. The results suggested that since street trade is a flexible working activity the utility space can be plan according to the fixed working hours of traders groups. Most of the vendors who operate by day closes in the evening and other different vendors replaced them at night to sells different goods and services. According to some respondents the night vendors include food vendors, assorted foods sellers, meat and fish sellers as well as drugs sellers who operate till 12 mid-nights daily.

**Gender and Educational Qualifications of the respondents**

The respondents are 56% female while 44% are male. The results show that street hawking in Jimeta is dominated by women. Figure 3 shows that 18% of the respondents have no any academic qualifications, 36% were primary School certificate holders while 30% have SSCE whereas 12% and 4% own Diploma/NCE as well as bachelor degrees respectively.

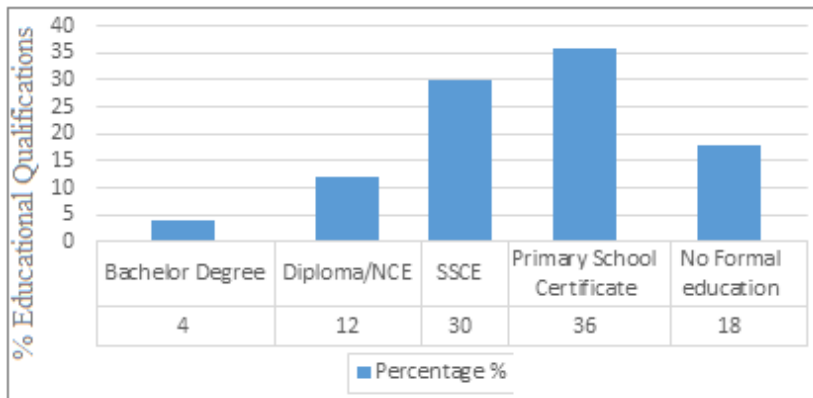


Figure 3: Educational Qualifications of the respondents

**Duration of Business and Ownership Status**

Figure 4a) shows duration of business operations, 45% of the respondents have been on street trade for less than a year only and 33% were on businesses between 1-3 years while 15% and 7% have been trading for 3-5 years and above 5 years respectively. Majority of the respondents practice the street trade temporarily before getting

better shops or change their business. Figure 4b) shows that 51% of the respondents own their business and 11% sells family business while 37% were employees. The results show that majority of the respondents manage their own businesses.

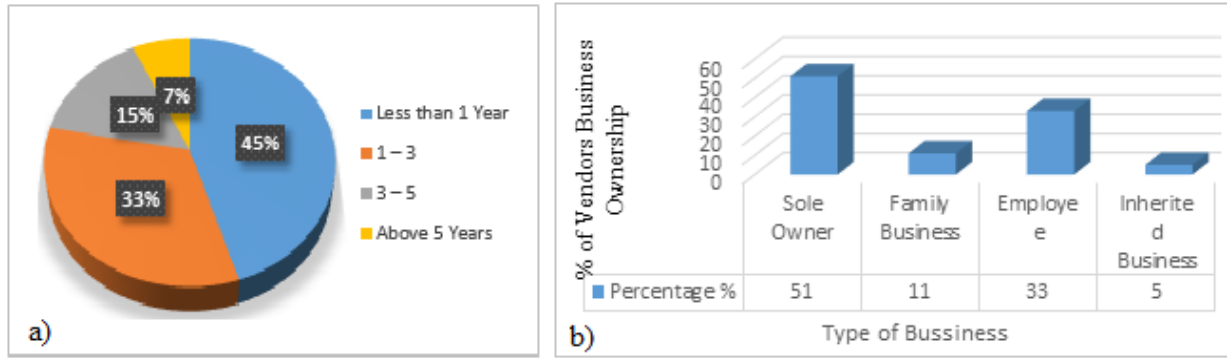


Figure 4: a) Duration of business, b) ownership status of respondents

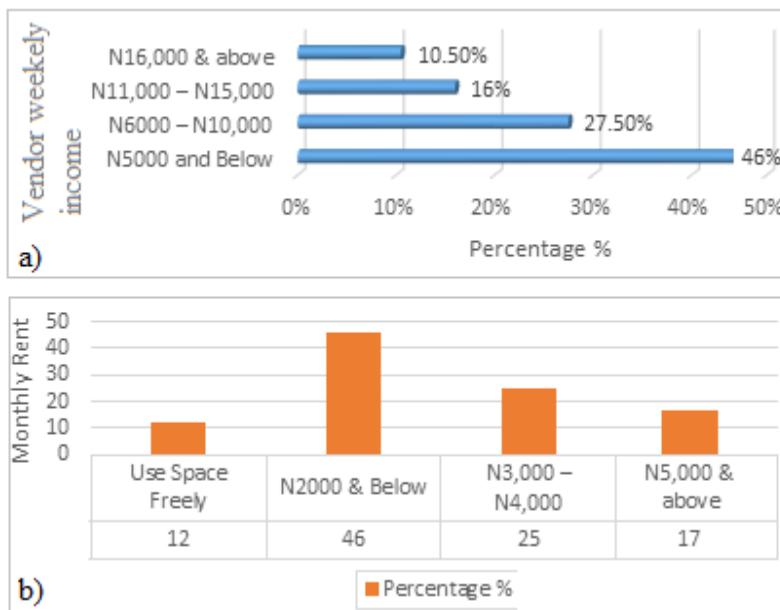


Figure 5: This figure shows a) weekly income distribution of respondents, b) monthly rent of business premises.

**Weekly Income Distribution and monthly rent**

a) About 46% of the respondents get N5000 and below weekly, 27.50% made N6000-N10,000 in a week, while 16% earned N11,000-N15,000 and 10.50% generate N16,000 and above separately.

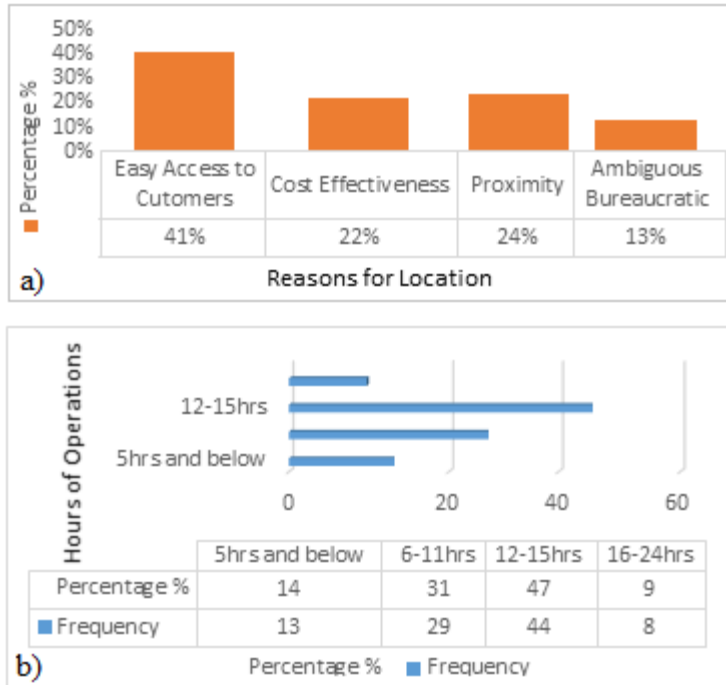
b) The distribution of rental price shows that 12% of the respondents do not pay rent for their trading bays while 46% rent theirs for N2000 or less, whereas 17% pay N5000. The results shows that most of the respondents pay rentals for their business bays in Jimeta-Yola.

**Reasons for business location and hour of operation**

The distribution of reasons for business location shows 41% of the respondents select their location because of easy access to customers (figure 6a), 22% are because of the low rentals, 24% are due to short distance of their business spots to residence or places of work and 13% has selected their spots because bureaucracy of acquiring a shop in Jimeta modern market.

The distribution of hour of operation shows that 14% of the respondents run their businesses between 8-10hours (figure 6b) whereas 31% and 47% operate between 10-12hours and 12-15hours respectively. About 9% work between 16-24hours. This indicate that street trading is a flexible working business based on different trade groups.





**CONCLUSION**

Based on the results the prevalence of street trades in Jimeta-Yola is accompanied by an exponential increase in reduction of the road width, blockage of the water way, especially on the near-absence of regulatory legislations on the informal streets trading. Managing and control of street trade in Jimeta-Yola is a step forward in realising sanity and sustainability in the informal trade in the city, this study has shown that the street trade can be planned and managed without compromising to existing commercial land uses in the city’s Masterplan as well as the traders’ welfare. Like any other casual groups, vendors are trying to make ends meet and should be given the

Figure 6: This figure shows a) Reasons for business location b) hours of operation

opportunities and support they needed. Thus, the authorities should continue to work with all the relevant stakeholders and vendors’ groups to come up with improved initiatives, through engaging and dialoguing between one another among the vendors unions and the relevance authorities.

Results obtained from the analysis of distribution of rental prices for trading bays in Jimeta-Yola indicated that 82% of respondents are paying rentals, suggesting that if government constructed utility spaces for the small and medium traders they will pay for rents. The petty trader unions have a key role to play in ensuring effective enforcement of regulated street trade in Jimeta-Yola. The need to review the state urban investments regulations, laws and policies, in order to incorporate the opinions of the street vendors. As a matter of urgency, it is suggested that the investors must have a voice in planning, zoning and design of commercial land uses for the petty traders. The Adamawa State Urban Planning and Development Authority and Yola-North Local Government council should expand the alternative road connecting Jimeta Modern market and consider flexible hours of business operations by the vendors ‘unions in distribution of periodic street markets across the metropolis. Proper and affordable shelters should be provided to the vendors to display their goods. Financial institutions and NGO’s should offer soft loans to hawkers’ user groups in order to enable them improve their own capitals. The planning authorities should effectively enforce street trading by-laws to regulate the street market activities across the metropolis, and to ensure that these rules are been complied with.

## References

- Ademola, O. O. (2015), Street Trader Displacements and the Relevance of the Right to the City Concept in a Rapidly Urbanising African City: Lagos, Nigeria <https://orca.cf.ac.uk/72513/1/Ademola%20Omoegun%20Thesis.pdf>. Accessed on 21/12/2019.
- Akpan, N. and Oluwabamide, A.J. (2010). The menace of child abuses in Nigeria: A case study of street hawking in Uyo, Akwaibom State. *J. Soc. Sci.* 24(3):189-192.
- ASMCTI (2020). Adamawa State Ministry of Commerce, Trade and Investment, Data of Petty Traders Unions in Jimeta-Yola; Nigeria.
- ASUPDA (2020). Adamawa State Urban Planning Development Authority, Report of Task Force on Illegal use of streets Commercial Outlets, in Jimeta-Yola, Nigeria.
- Benjamin, O. O. (2007), The Urban Street Commons Problem: Spatial Regulation of Informal Economic Units in Accra [https://etd.ohiolink.edu/rws\\_etd/document/get/ohiou1180940316/inline](https://etd.ohiolink.edu/rws_etd/document/get/ohiou1180940316/inline). Accessed: 21<sup>st</sup> December, 2019.
- Bhowmik, S. (2005). Street Vendors in Asia: A Review. *Economic and Political Weekly* May 28-June (4):2256-2264.
- Bhowmik, S., (2012). Street vendors in the Global Urban Economy. *Routledge*, 1(15): 68-87.
- Bogoro, A. G., Ali, C. and Bukar, A. G. (2012). Women and Solid Waste Segregation in Bauchi Nigeria. *International Journal of Environment and Earth Science*. (2.): 25-45
- Bromley, R. (2000). Street Vending and Public Policy: A Global Review. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy* 20(1/2): 1-28.
- Bromley, R. (2007). Foreword. In: Cross, J. and Morales, A. eds. *Street Entrepreneurs: People, place and politics in local and global perspective*. London: Routledge, pp. 15-17.
- Bromley, R. D. F. and Mackie, P. (2008). Identifying the role of children in informal trade: evidence for urban policy. *International Development Planning Review* 30(2):113–31.
- Bromley, R. D. F. and Mackie, P. (2009). Displacement and the New Spaces for Informal Trade in the Latin American City Centre. *Urban Studies* 46(7):1485-1506.
- Brown, A. Lyons, M. and Dankoco, I. (2009). Street Traders and the Emerging Spaces for Urban Voice and Citizenship in African Cities. *Urban Studies*, pp. 47(3):1-18.
- Brown, A. Msoka, C. and Dankoco, I. (2014). A refugee in my own country: Evictions or property rights in the urban informal economy? *Urban Studies*, pp. 1-16.
- Brown, A. (2006). Contested Space: Street Trading, Public Space, And Livelihoods in Developing Cities Lansing, USA. University of Michigan printing press.
- Chamberlin, J., Nicholas J., Auckland K., Lubungu, M., and Tembo, S. (2014), An Analysis of the Incentives and Obstacle to Improved Vertical and Horizontal Marketing Arrangements, *Indaba Agricultural Policy Research Institute (IAPRI) Lusaka, Zambia*.
- Cross, J. (2000). Street vendors, modernity and postmodernity: conflict and compromise in the global economy. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy* 20(1/2): 29-51.
- Crossa, V. (2009). Resisting the Entrepreneurial City: Street vendors' Struggle in Mexico City's Historic Centre. *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research* 33(1):43-63.
- Daniels, P. (2004). Urban Challenges: The Formal and Informal Economies in Mega-Cities. *Cities* 21(6): 501-511.
- Herrera, C., Grossman, J. B., Kauh, T. J., & McMaken, J. (2011). Mentoring in schools: An impact study of Big Brothers Big Sisters school-based mentoring. *Child Development*, 82,346-361.
- Hlengwa, S. P. (2016), Street vending and the use of Urban Public Spaces in Tomgaat Central Business District, Master's Thesis, University of KwaZulu Natal, South Africa.

- International Labour Organization. (2002). Women and men in the informal economy: a statistical picture. Geneva: ILO.
- Jason, A., (2008). Organizing informal workers in the urban economy: The case of the construction industry in Dares Salaam, Tanzania: *Habitat International* 32: 192–202.
- Krejcie, R. V. and Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining Sample Size for Research Activities. *Educational Psychological Measurement*.30:607-610.
- Mitullah, W. (2004). A Review of Street Trade in Africa. In proceedings of International Conference of women in informal employment globalization and organizing (WEIGO).7-9 May 2004.Harvard University, Cambridge, USA.
- Mitullah, W., (2003). Street vending in African cities: synthesis of empirical findings from Kenya, Cote D'Ivoire, Ghana, Zimbabwe, Uganda and South Africa: Geneva WIEGO.
- Adebayo, A.A. and Tukur, A.L. (1999). Adamawa State in maps publication Department of Geography, Federal University of technology Yola, in Co-operate with Paraclete publications. A division of Paraclete and sons Nigeria.
- Msoka, C. and Lyons, M. (2010). The World Bank and the street: (How) Do 'Doing Business' Reforms Affect Tanzania's Micro-traders? *Urban Studies* 47(5) pp. 1079-1097.
- NPC (2019) National Population Commission, Nigerian Population and Housing Data, 2016. Yola, Nigeria.
- Nurudeen, A. A, Lawal, A. O., Ajayi, S. A. (2014). A survey of hygiene and sanitary practices of street food vendors in the Central State of Northern Nigeria. *Journal of Public Health and Epidemiology*. Vol.6(5): 174-181
- Olanipekun, J.A, Oyenyi, P. and Konwea, P.E. (2007).Assessment of Solid Waste Management Techniques in Ekiti State Urban Area. *Nigerian School Health Journal* 19(2) 75-82.
- Parnell, S. and Pieterse, E. (2010). The 'Right to the City': Institutional Imperatives of a Developmental state. *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research* 34(1):146-162.
- Pena, S. (2000). Regulating Informal Markets: Informal Commerce in Mexico City. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy* 20(10):37-67.
- Pratt, N. (2006). Informal Enterprise and street trading: A Civil Society and Urban Management Perspective. In Brown, A. ed. *Contested Space: Street Trading, Public Space, and Livelihoods in Developing Cities*. Rugby: ITDG publishing, pp. 37-53.
- Skinner, C. (2008). *Street trade in Africa: A review, Women in Informal Employment Globalizing and Organising (WEIGO) Working paper, No 5*. Cambridge: WEIGO.
- UN-HABITAT. (2011). Taking forward the right to the city: The "urban advantage" for all. State of the World's Cities 2010/2011 Bridging the Urban divide. Nairobi: UN-HABITAT.
- United Nations (2020) Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division 2020.
- Yankson, P. W. K. (2000). Accommodating informal Economic Units in the Urban Built Environment. *Pretty Commodity Enterprises in the Accra Metropolitan Area, Ghana, Third World Planning Review*, 22(3): 313-33.



© 2021 by the authors. License FUTY Journal of the Environment, Yola, Nigeria. This article is an open access distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).