The Effect of Street Vending on Household's Welfare: (Evidence from Urban Street Venders in Mizan-Aman Towns, SNPPR, Ethiopia)

A Thesis Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies of Business and Economics College, Jimma University, for Partial Fulfillment of the requirements for the Award of the Degree of Master of Science in Development Economics

BY FIRENESH BIRHANU

JIMMA UNIVERSITY

BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS COLLEGE

DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMICS

JULY, 2020

JIMMA, ETHIOPIA

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis entitled "The Effect of Street Vending on Household's Welfare: (Evidence from Urban Street Venders in Mizan-Aman Towns)", has been Carried out by me under the guidance and supervision of Dr. Leta Sera (PhD) and Mr. Gadissa Abera (MSC).

The thesis is original and has not been submitted for the award of degree of diploma any university or instructions.

Researcher's Name	Date	Signature
_____	_____	_____

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the thesis entities "The Effect of Street Vending on Household's Welfare: (Evidence from Urban Street Venders in Mizan-Aman Towns)" , Submitted to Jimma University for the award of the Degree of Master science in Development Economics and is a record of Valuable research work carried out by Mss. Firenesh Birhanu , under my guidance and supervision.

Therefore I hereby declare that no part of this thesis has been submitted to any other university or institutions for the award of any degree of diploma.

Main Adviser's Name	*Date*	*Signature*
_____	_____	_____

Co-Advisor's Name	*Date*	*Signature*
_____	_____	

ABSTRACT

This paper examines the effect of street vending on household welfare evidence from urban street venders in Mizan-Aman towns a sample of 272 street venders. The data generated to meet this objective were collected via semi structured questionnaires. The survey is cross sectional and also descriptive and explanatory research designs were used. This study is applied descriptive statistics and binary logit model to investigate the impact of street vending on urban street venders household poverty status (proxy to welfare) the logistic regression model has as dependent variable the poverty status (poor and non-poor). The explaining variables, age of street vender, gender, educational level, marital status, migration status, household size, year of selling and selling commodity of street vender. The result of the econometric model indicate that being poor are 49.8 percent higher for the street venders who are female as compared to the street venders who are male. The age between 18 to 29 years old are 8.667 times more likely being poor as compared to age below 18 years old. Being poor are 85 times higher for married as compared to single. Being poor are 78.9 percent higher for the street venders who are selling fruits as compared to who are selling vegetables, being poor are 59.5 percent higher for who migrate for new job from other areas as compared to the street venders born in the research area. However, there is no statistically significant evidence as whether the educational level, household size and year of selling in Mizan-Aman towns affects the street vender poverty status. This study recommends that appropriate measures must be taken to carry out agrarian reform as one of the important factors which increase agricultural production and promote the development of rural areas, hence reducing rural urban migration in the town.

***Keywords**: Poverty, street vender, Welfare, Household, Logistic Regression, Binary Logistic Regression*

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATION

GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ILO	International Labour Organization
GNI	Gross National Income
WB	World Bank
MoLSA	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
UN	United Nations
ROSCAs	Rotating saving and credit associations
CSA	Central statistical agency
IBM	International Business Machine
SPSS	Statistical Software for Social Science
VIF	Variance Inflating Factor
LR	Leaner Regression

CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces the research problems and associated research questions to be answered and objectives to be achieved. It includes background of the study, statement of the problem, research objectives, significance of the study, hypothesis of the study, scope and limitation of the study, definitions of key terms and finally organization of the paper.

1.1. Background of the Study

Historically, economists used financial indicators like household income, GDP, or consumer confidence as measures of welfare. However, it's become increasingly evident that there are an outsized number of individuals who are financially well-off but are still not proud of their situation in life. This question of welfare must be rethought and aimed towards measuring the perceived quality of one's situation in life (Joshua, 2011). This study uses this question as a foundation to access urban poor household welfare. It focuses on the households who are street venders in order to determine the impact which is contributed to his welfare

In 1993, the 15th International Conference of Labour Statisticians at the ILO (15th ICLS) defined the informal sector as a group of production units comprised of unincorporated enterprises owned by households, including informal own-account enterprises and enterprises of informal employers (typically small and non-registered enterprises). This definition limited the definition of informality to enterprises. One of informal sector enterprise is street vender.

Street vendor is a fundamentally portion of urban economies around the world, advertising simple get to a wide extend of products and service in publicly space. They sell everything from fresh vegetables to prepared food, from building materials to garments and crafts, from consumer electronics to auto repairs to haircuts. Most street vendors provide the main source of income for his or her households, bringing food to their families and paying school fees for his or her children. Despite their contribution, street vendors face many challenges, are often overlooked as economic agents and unlike other businesses, are hindered rather than helped by municipal policies and practice (IEMS, 2014). Recently, Los Angeles's city council voted to decriminalize

and subsequently, to fully legalize and regulate vending. Under a new permit system still being finalized, all street vendors will be eligible to purchase permits requiring them to pay taxes and abide by agreed rule: for instance, related to health and hygiene, sidewalk placement and prevention of pedestrian or traffic obstruction (Orleans, 2019).

Most African countries, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, the population continues to grow, and so does the number of people living in urban areas. A large number of people migrate to urban areas in search of better living conditions. However, the increasing urban population out passes the capacity of urban economies to absorb this flooded migration of rural population. Thus, people have been daily facing social and economic hardship here in urban areas. These facts are obliging urban residents to look for alternative livelihood means and employment opportunities in informal sectors, to mention some of street vending activities. The size of the informal economy as a percentage of Gross National income (GNI) ranges from under 30 percent South Africa to about 60 percent in Nigeria, Tanzania, and Ethiopia (World Bank, 2012). The size and role of the informal sector in the economy increase during economic recessions, economic adjustment, and transition.

In Ethiopia, as indicated in a document produced by Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs (MoLSA, 2013), of the shares of informal economy employment for the years 1999 -2010 had the proportion of working population in the informal sector with a significant decline from 72.8 percent in 1999 to 33.3 percent in 2010. Out of the total employed population in urban areas of the country, 34.1 percent were engaged in the informal economy. The highest percentage share who were working in the informal economy was found in the Somali region (46.5 percent) followed by the Gambella region (42.1 percent). The lowest proportion of people engaged in the informal economy was found in Addis Ababa City Administration (20.5 percent). The sector also provided most of the population with a means of livelihood or essential supplementary income. Most probably the sector is also the only reliable source of livelihood for women and the poor, for whom the formal sector has no accommodation for economic engagement.

In response to the street vending problem, the government of Ethiopian has been putting up formal market infrastructure across the country so that street vendors can trade in an orderly, safer and in a good environment. This was against the background of the various problems that the country has been facing with concerning street vending. The Addis Ababa trade bureau

which recently had a street trade policy approved by the city council told to capital magazine that it looked at every sub-city and identified 455 potential locations for street vendors to conduct business legally. They picked these places because they had low traffic congestion, asphalt roads, and open space. So far 19,000 vendors have registered to work in this place (Capital Magazine, 2018).

In today's context of economic scenario [as associated with privatization and liberalization], the informal sector has taken a new role of employment generation and a crucial source of alternative income for a large number of households, as a result of a substantial decline in formal employment. Aside from its significance as income and employment provider for millions of households, the sector is also a breeding ground of entrepreneurs too, which could flourish if not encountered with a multitude of troubles and uncertainties.

In Mizan-Aman towns, a large number of street vendors are earning their livelihoods on the street. Most of the people that are vending in the streets of the city are characterized by low skill, low investment capital and lack of formal employment opportunity. Those people tend to work in the sector particularly in street vending because there are no alternative options available for them than vending on the street and getting the survival of their livelihood. Thus, for those people, both men, and women, street vending is the best survival strategy for their livelihood. Thus, the current study sets out to study the effect of street vending on street vender household welfare in the case of Mizan-Aman towns.

1.2. Statement of the problem

As the urban population grows due to escalating rural-urban migration, the government and municipal authorities face unique challenges in their efforts to ensure the economic and social well-being of people residing in urban areas. In particular, they have to take into account changing ways of enhancing household livelihoods and food security through informal activities (Muiruri, 2010).

Street vending is a global phenomenon. It is the most important part of informal sector economic activities. In cities, towns, and villages throughout the world, many of people earn their living wholly or partly by selling a wide range of goods on the streets, sidewalks, and other public spaces. In the case of a least developed country like Ethiopia, the formal sector is very small to provide job opportunities to a large number of the labor forces. In cities and towns, most of these people find it difficult to get jobs in the formal economic sectors due to their limited education and lack of skills for formal employment. Therefore obviously a large percent of the people are being engaged in the informal economy for their livelihood and such a segment is considerable in the urban areas (Bhowmik, 2015).

In their quest for making a living, many of these people have limited choices other than taking to the streets by engaging in street vending activities. Street vending, however, has not yet been integrated as a component of urban economies in most countries of the world, especially in the developing world. Although the sector has not been accommodated within the city and national policies, it provides employment opportunities as a means of income generation for the urban poor, especially for those who migrate from the rural areas. It also provides consumers with convenient and accessible retail options and forms a vital part of the social and economic life of a city (Joseph, 2011).

The importance of this sector has therefore been underestimated, neglected, and typically seen more as a liability instead of possible resource of employment creation and a source of national income generation (Kusakabe, 2006). The result is that the obstacles that the operators of the sector face and the contribution to their socio-economic well-being are less understood and less recognized (Muiruri, 2010). It is therefore difficult to obtain accurate and reliable information on

the street vending sector, resulting in a lack of initiation and implementation of appropriate and timely policy interventions unlike in other informal activities such as manufacturing, mining, etc.

Since street vending is one of the most visible and important parts of the urban informal sector, investigations regarding the condition how they earn their living from it and their relation with government authorities, its role to livelihood security, the diversification strategy of income and their socio-economic background is important for further inquiries in the field. The main reason for this study's focus on street vending activities in Mizan town is, studies by different Researchers in other areas (by Getahun Fenta Kebede, at Addis Ababa , by Tamirat Mengistu and Nega Jirat at Jimma town) did not emphasize the aforementioned aspects of street vendors. Particularly, this study will try to give due consideration to address them.

While these general facts are clear, this study generally contribute to widening the horizon of our knowledge about the role of the informal sector to the society, and the specific role of street vending on the welfare of low-income families in the town. Hence, this research was tried to evaluate the impact of involvement in street vending activities on households welfare (proxy by poverty status), especially in Mizan-Aman town which is one of the towns affected by the problem and also this study mainly concerns itself on examining the direct impact of selling on urban streets on those households' welfare (poverty). So identifying the contribution of street vending on the welfare of low-income families will give a half solution for this chronic problem. Consequently, the results are aimed to provide information for designing relevant programs and strategies to reduce poverty as well as the problem of street vending in the study area.

There is a scarcity of literature directly touching on the impact of Street vending on household welfare on urban households. It is difficult to measure welfare on the household level, this study was tried to get the exact welfare status of urban street vender households through taking all variables (welfare indicators) on welfare proxy's poverty measurement. The most intensively studied household poverty and welfare status include age of the household, gender, marital status, education level, household size, dependency ratio, and so forth. This study was included other variables such as selling commodity, migration status and year of selling situation.

To the fact Street vending is one area that many poor people depend on to survive and its researchable area, since I am development economics student poverty issue bother me and also

its burden issue for me to do research. Recent estimate for global poverty are that 8.6% of the world or 736 million people, live in extreme poverty on $1.90 or less a day, and in Ethiopia as over 22 million people are living below the national poverty line according to (WB, 2018), so there is no reason not to do about poverty. Thus as they are actors in the economy, street vendors have to be engaged in decisions made by local government concerning their welfare (poverty). Purposive selection of the topic is due to the severity of the problem of street vending as a whole Ethiopia as well Mizan-Aman Town and to contribute to the available scanty literature on bringing out the voices of the street vendors that have been suppressed in many countries due to its illegality. Street vending problem affects the overall socio-economic aspects of a society, assessing such problem is important from development perspectives.

1.3. Objective of the study

The general objective of this study is to examine the effect of street vending on urban street venders household's welfare evidence from Mizan-Aman town.

The Specific Objectives includes:

- To assess the poverty status of street venders.
- To identify the economic effect of street vending on urban street vendors household's welfare.

1.4. Hypothesis of the study

In accordance with objective of the study the following hypothesis is formulated for investigation. Hypotheses of the study stands on the theories related to income generation on improving welfare that has been developed over the years by different researchers and past empirical studies related. Hence, based on the objective, the present study seeks to test the following null hypothesis.

H1: Age and gender has no significant impact on poverty status of street venders.

H2: Marital and migration status has no significant impact on poverty status of street venders.

H3: Year of selling and selling commodity has no significant impact on poverty status of street venders

1.5. Significance of the study

This study helps to identify whether street vending has any positive impact on household welfare or not. Trade constitutes an important part of the wealth of any given urban households. When street selling price and values appreciate, it is translated to the wealth of the street vender's provider directly or indirectly through various ways.

Therefore, the study is providing evidence to policy-makers so that appropriate interventions and correct choices would be made with regard to allocating resources to an area where a real difference is possible.

This study is targeted for the purpose of knowledge. As the matter under investigation is known for its resource scarcity, this research contributes a lot for the academic wealth by igniting the interest of other researchers to carry out similar studies at southern region as a whole. Therefore, the findings of this study give/serve as a wake-up bell for the stakeholders to find possible solutions.

The findings of the study were to identify the relevant impact of street vending on urban household welfare status in Mizan-Aman town. This helps the relevant regulatory bodies and policymakers in formulating appropriate policies that could enhance effective administration and management of informal street trade and pro poor programs in the town and the whole urban center of Ethiopia.

1.6. Delimitation/ Scope of the study

This study is delimited by problems of the effect of street vending on urban street venders household welfare evidence from Mizan-Aman town. The researcher selects this town purposively due to the living area and proportional large number of street venders based on observation by supposing the select town is representative enough to infer about the effect of participating on street venders on household welfare in the town. It is known that different

factors may influence the urban households. However, this paper has delimited only on the households who are involving on street trade.

Undertaking the research on street vending at international or country level is complex task since it requires huge finance, time and data source. Due to the above constraint the researcher is forced to undertake the city level in Mizan-Aman, which is one of the zones of south nation nationalities people regions. Mizan-Aman is a town in south western Ethiopia. The scope of the study covers street vending activities in the towns of Mizan-Aman , their economic contribution to the livelihoods of those who are engaged in street vending, their spatial effects, and challenges that street vendors experience in the course of running their activities within the city.

1.7. Limitation of the study

The major constraints include unavailability of adequate and up to date quantitative as well as qualitative information, lack of adequate source and information in proper recording and keeping of documents and files among town as well as the region. This was created exhaustion to the data collectors and huge financial cost to knock and check on houses in the select street. Additionally, some respondents were reluctant and unwilling to spare their time to give the necessary data.

This study focus on estimating poverty using only monetary measures the consumption expenditure approach at household levels because is most widely used when measuring poverty (welfare proxy by poverty). The reason that household welfare is difficult to measure is that it has many undefined indicators and many indicators which are difficult to measure. These are difficult to measure because they often rely on self-reported information which has a large bias due to the fact that people's perception often does not reflect reality. The researcher was doing best and Endeavour most to secure as much information need.

1.8. Meaning and Definitions of terms

Informal sector economy: "Economy action that by pass the cost and are exclude from the protection of laws and administrative rules covering" (Smelser and Swedberg, 1994: 428).

Street vender: "A person who offer goods for sale to the public without having permission built-up structure from which to sale… they may be stationary in the sense that they occupy

space the pavements or other public/private space or, they may be mobile in the sense they move place to place by carry their wares or pushcarts or in baskets on their hand…" (Bhowmik, 2005:2256).

Household: "Constitutes of a person or group of persons, irrespective of weather- related or not who normally live together in the same housing unit or group of housing units and who have common cooking arrangements" (CSA, 2012).

Household size: Is the total number of members of a household.

Household welfare: "Defining household welfare solely in terms of access to basic services is also not ideal. This would ignore other important components of welfare such as food intake, the consumption of various non-food goods and services, the consumption of housing services, and so on" (World Bank, 1998).

1.9. Organization of the study

This research report is organized in five chapters. Chapter one provides a general introduction to the whole study. Chapter two describes the review of related literature. Chapter three provides a detail description of the methodology employed by the study. Chapter four contains data presentation, analysis and interpretation. Finally, the last chapter concludes the total work of the study and gives a conclusion and relevant recommendations based on the findings.

CHAPTER TWO

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the literature related to street vending by focusing on the literature associated with the research topic. The purpose is to explore what other authors and scholars have written and been able to identify factors for analyzing the street vender's situation.

2.1. Definition and Measurement of household welfare

2.1.1. Definition welfare

The definition of welfare is according to Merriam Webster (Merriam-Webster 2018) "the state of doing well especially in respect to good fortune, happiness, well-being, or prosperity" and according to Dictionary.com (Dictionary.com 2018) "the good fortune, health, happiness, prosperity, etc., of a person, group, or organization; well-being: to look after a child's welfare; the physical or moral welfare of society."

2.1.2. Measurement of household welfare

Welfare is usually proxies by measures of consumption or income. Consumption expenditure is probably the most common and preferred welfare indicator; however, its measurement is a challenging and time-consuming task (UNICEF, 2012). Household expenditures will be as a proxy variable to check the welfare of the household (Okojie, 2002).

First of all, the wealth index provides a relative measure of welfare namely a household's wealth is measured relative to other households in the sample but does not quantify the household current levels of welfare or poverty (Filmer and Pritchett, 2001). In order to obtain a good measure of welfare, consumption should be comprehensive (Deaton and Grosh, 2000). Consumption usually includes food consumption, non-food items (including health, education and other non-food expenditures), housing expenditures (including rent and utilities) and consumer durables (UNICEF, 2012).

Consumption and income can be justified as measures of welfare since they both indicate an individual's ability to obtain goods and services. However, consumption is preferred because it contains smaller measurement errors compared to income, it fluctuates less than income and can,

therefore, provide a more accurate and less volatile measure of the individual's permanent income over time, and survey respondents are more willing to reveal their consumption than their income (Ravallion, 1996).

2.2. Poverty and its measurement

Over the last few decades, new perspectives on poverty have challenged the focus on income and consumption as the defining condition of poor people. These alternative perspectives have refocused the concept of poverty as a human condition that reflects failures in many dimensions of human life hunger, unemployment, homelessness, illness and health care, powerlessness and victimization, and social injustice; they all add up to an assault on human dignity (Sakiko Fukuda-Parr,2006). Alongside this shift in definition, there has been increasing emphasis on monitoring and addressing deficits in several dimensions beyond income, for example, housing, education, health, environment and communication (UN, 2010).

The monetary approach to the identification and measurement of poverty is the most commonly used. It identifies poverty with a shortfall in consumption (or income) from some poverty line; there is no theory of poverty that would clearly differentiate the poor from the non-poor. Relative poverty lines (one-dollar concept) can be determined by political consensus (Caterina Ruggeri Laderchi, *et al.*, 2003). World Bank (2001) also describes poverty to encompass 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 in its most extreme form is a lack of human needs such as adequate and nutritious food, clothing, housing, clean water and health services (Gupta *et al.*, 2007).

The first step in measuring poverty is defining an indicator of welfare such as income or consumption per capital. Income typically varies more significantly than consumption. In less-developed countries, most (but not all) analysts prefer to; use current consumption than current income as an indicator of living standards in poor countries (WB, 2005).

2.3. Opportunities offered by informal street trade

The primary market of the informal sector lies in the provision of basic consumer goods and services to people in the low-income categories (Akharuzzaman & Deguchi, 2010: 48;

Bhowmik, 2005: 2256; Companion, 2010; Tambunan, 2009: 41). Middleton (2003: 94-95) argues that as the purchasing power of the lower income classes declines, they tend to purchase lower quality goods at lower prices from street traders. Offerings in the informal trading, therefore, tend to be flexible, relative to its larger competitors, because it has to be able to rapidly adapt to changing market conditions (Tambunan, 2009: 41).

Collectively, informal trade tends to contribute significantly to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of developing countries (Bhowmik, 2005: 2258; Canagarajah & Sethuraman, 2001: 8; Hunter & Skinner, 2003: 309; Kusakabe, 2010: 120; Onyenechere, 2009: 86; Skinner 2008a: 12; Skinner, 2008b: 230; Soetan, 1997: 42). Informal street traders also rely on opportunities of collective bargaining. Cases exist where informal street traders used collective action (Skinner, 2008b: 239) and tax evasion (Cohen, 2010: 279; Skinner, 2008a: 27) as bargaining tools – if taxes were to be paid guaranteed services were demanded from the government. "[Joint] action is one of the few routes to secure gains for traders, since individually they are weak in the face of large [private sector] bureaucracies" (Skinner, 2008b: 239). Bhowmik (2005: 2257) calls this process of collective action, 'unionization' among street traders. In Bangladesh trade union action was used to legalize street vending. Many informal street-trading businesses are started with loans from social networks – friends and family – which emphasize the lack of formal financing (Canagarajah & Sethuraman, 2001: 2; Cichello, 2005: 23). Trading informally on the streets can function as a survival or coping strategy for the poor to avoid starvation by generating limited income (Fonchingong, 2005: 249; Kusakabe, 2010: 125-126; Tambunan, 2009: 40). Income accrued is used to supplement family income; expand businesses; make remittances to family; clothe, feed and educate children, and save money in informal rotating savings and credit associations (ROSCAs) (Akinboade, 2005: 263; Neves, 2010: 17; Skinner, 2008a: 25; Soetan, 1997: 43; Tambunan, 2009: 40). Informal Street trading can enhance the confidence levels of street vendors, because they feel a sense of economic independence by being able to take care of their family by earning small incomes (Kusakabe, 2010: 127). The entrepreneurial abilities of informal street traders are well demonstrated by one informal trader in Kusakabe (2010: 127) who indicated: "It is [dignifying]. I can earn money by myself. No one will look down upon [me]. [I am] independent. I am my own boss. I have money to pay for my house rent and to spend each day".

2.4. Constraints on informal street trading

Generally, informal street traders face four common constraints: economic pressures; sociocultural challenges; adverse political conditions and policies; and operational challenges (Tambunan, 2009: 46).

'**Economic barriers'** are the first hindrances people face to successfully enter informal street trading. Many people haven't any alternative but to enter informal street vending because they can't find employment within formal sector, or they earn insufficient income elsewhere, or they need large households to sustain, or a combination of the above (Akinboade, 2005: 257; Cohen, 2010: 279; Fleetwood, 2009: 23; Fonchingong, 2005: 243; Madichie & Nkamnebe, 2010: 305; Onyenechere, 2009: 85; Skinner, 2006: 130).

Finding start-up money through savings or loans is especially problematic for the poor (Ligthelm & Masuku, 2003: 37; Madichie & Nkamnebe, 2010: 307). Ownership rights are required as collateral for bank loans. If informal street vendors cannot provide collateral, they cannot obtain access to formal credit from banks for example. Consequently, they have to find alternative ways to obtain money to start their informal businesses (Cichello, 2005: 19; Fonchingong, 2005: 247; Kusakabe, 2010: 128-129; Soetan, 1997: 44; Tambunan, 2009: 48).

Alternative financing occurs through savings or loans from informal sources, including family or moneylenders. High interest rates are typically charged on such loans which the informal traders battle to repay thereby increasing their debt, often disastrously (Fonchingong, 2005: 247; Hansenne 1991: 28-29; Tambunan, 2009: 48).

'Sociocultural constraints' are disproportionately faced by women who experience gender-specific barriers to informal street trading (Akharuzzaman & Deguchi, 2010: 47; Akinboade, 2005: 257; Bhowmik, 2005: 2261; Fleetwood, 2009: 1; Fonchingong, 2005: 247; Onyenechere, 2009: 86). Informal traders, especially women, are often excluded from the labour market, resources, income, education, decisionmaking, social services and -networks (Companion, 2010: 167; Fonchingong, 2005: 245; Ligthelm & Masuku, 2003: 21; Madichie & Nkamnebe, 2010: 305; Soetan, 1997: 43).

Lack of technical, business and entrepreneurial skills deter informal street vendors from effectively conveying the opportunities of their informal businesses to financiers (Cichello, 2005: 26; Soetan, 1997: 44).

The lack of proper social and market knowledge is also often an inhibiting factor to informal street traders, because they often teach themselves how to do their jobs, or they learn from someone else who is unqualified (Companion, 2010: 87). However, the quality of training depends on the expertise of the instructor and his or her ability to communicate the knowledge effectively without exploiting the trainee (Hansenne, 1991: 29-30).

The street traders in Quito, Ecuador, indicated that improving skills allow them to take advantage of employment opportunities offered by the expansion of tourism in the country and assist them in expanding their informal street-trading businesses by setting up micro-enterprises (Middleton, 2003: 97).

'Political conditions and policies' often present difficulties to informal traders. Skinner (1999: 17) reported that South African policies tend to restrict informal trading operations rather than facilitating them, especially during the years of apartheid. The absence of appropriate policies (in the past and currently) can cause an escalation of taxation rates, increase income vulnerability, limit trading participation, constrain responses to expansion, and distort incentive structures (Canagarajah & Sethuraman, 2001: 5; Onyenechere, 2009: 97; Skinner, 1999: 17).

The absence of vital infrastructure such as good access roads, efficient and affordable public transport and accommodation, schools, hospitals, banks and post offices (Akinboade, 2005: 261; Canagarajah & Sethuraman, 2001: 25; Hunter & Skinner, 2003: 310; Ligthelm & Masuku, 2003: 58), and essential services comprising electricity, water, telephones, ablution and health facilities (Madichie & Nkamnebe, 2010: 310; Onyenechere, 2009: 99; Skinner, 2006: 136-137) severely limits the ability of informal street traders to do their work properly.

Wars and civil conflicts can initiate forced migration to areas of safety. Many foreign refugees have no alternative but to start street trading in order to survive (Akinboade, 2005: 260-261; Hunter & Skinner, 2003: 308). However, foreigners face additional barriers to participating in street trading because government policies are designed to first protect the interests of their own

communities (Hansenne, 1991: 36): a lack of recognition of their input as economic role players; absence of work permits or identification documents; lack of rights to trading sites, and threats of deportation (Hunter & Skinner, 2003: 310; Skinner, 2008b: 230).

Madichie & Nkamnebe (2010: 310) concluded that deprived **'operating conditions'** resulting from policy failures could deter informal traders from accessing informal trading. According to Hansenne (1991: 6), informal traders operate on the fringes of the law. They are often associated with criminal activities and are consequently subjected to harassment. Informal traders face major difficulties such as fear of violence, crime, theft of stock and (Cichello, 2005: 20; Ligthelm & Masuku, 2003: 58; Neves, 2010: 14; Skinner, 2006: 141-142). Foreigners have the added fear of xenophobic attacks (Hunter & Skinner, 2003: 311; Skinner, 2008b: 230).

In addition, street traders are inundated with permit fees to operate in demarcated areas (Neves, 2010: 14; Skinner, 1999: 22). Suppliers also have power over informal traders by not providing discounts because the street traders purchase products in small quantities. Higher purchase prices and limited product differentiation increase competition, especially for perishable commodities sold for lower prices to avoid loss through spoilage (Akinboade, 2005: 264; Kusakabe, 2010: 128; Ngiba et al., 2009: 472). Acquisition and security of storage facilities are often a predicament for informal traders who live far from their business sites or stalls. Some transport their goods in taxis or trolleys, while others pay fees to store their products and goods in storage facilities (Kusakabe, 2010: 128; Ngiba et al., 2009: 468; Skinner, 2008b: 235).

2.5. Empirical Literature

The studies of the household welfare and poverty have been modeled using two alternative approaches. The first approach employs probit/logit models to examine the probability of households being poor or not. This approach has been widely used in the empirical literature by previous scholars (see McKenzie, 2006; Mok et al., 2007; Akerele and Adewuyi, 2011; Edoumiekumo et al., 2013).

This study adopts consumption as a measure of welfare. The literature review shall, therefore, be limited to studies that have followed the same approach to analyze the household welfare or poverty (see Geda et al., 2005; Akerele and Adewuyi, 2011; Cheema and Sial, 2012; Sekhampu, 2013). They are commonly used in the second approach Ordinary Least Squares (OLS)

estimation procedure to regress household per capital consumption on a number of factors that contribute to one's welfare.

The empirical results from these approaches tend to yield similar results because factors that increase welfare measured by income or consumption should lower the probability of falling into poverty (Kabubuo-Mariara, 2002). The most intensively studied of the household welfare and poverty status include age of the household head, a gender of the household head, marital status, paid employment sector, household characteristics, household size, dependency ratio, and so forth.

Increasing household size raised the probability of being poor in Kenya (Geda et al., 2005) and South Africa (Sekhampu, 2013). There are findings of dependency ratio in explaining the poverty incidence and household welfare. For example, Edoumiekumo et al., (2013) found that higher dependency ratio significantly and positively increase the probability of households plunging into poverty (one more person increases in the household the probability that the household is poor by 0.0036 percent). The inverse relationship between household size and per capital consumption, and by implication the positive relationship between household size and poverty, is a common finding in the empirical literature (Datt and Jolliffe (2005); Gounder, (2012). Evgjeni xhafaj and Ines nurja (2014) they found increasing of household size, there is a decreasing per capital expenditure of consumption.

Fru Awah Wanka, (2014) and John C. Anyanwu (2014) supported the Andrea finding on his study the impact of educational attainment on household poverty. Finally, the result shows that when households head with primary or no educations are more likely to be poorer than those who head with tertiary education (a household with the head having an education is 32.79 percent, less likely to be poor than a household with the head having no education). The analysis suggests that there is a negative relationship between education and poverty, meaning the higher the level of education the lower the probability of being poor.

As epistemic lessons drawn from accommodating an inclusive view to street vending in a rapidly urbanizing Global South, we emphasize on the need to develop across-fertilized focus of thought(s) and method(s) among social science researchers to produce more of such narratives in

exploring the meeting of ‘informal’ with the ‘formal’ (and those working as part of it) in dynamically evolving urban ecosystems.

Wadzanai (2011) carried a study to investigate the impact of informal trade on poverty reduction in Zimbabwe. The findings show that the informal cross border trade contributes positively to poverty reduction. The contribution has been noticed through the improvement in the socioeconomic well-being of traders, traders to acquire assets, and improved food security. This calls for the government to develop policy and regulations for effective informal business operation, hence contribute to the national development. In sub-Saharan countries where formal employments are little and the level of education of many youth is minimal, informal business could serve as an alternative source of employment.

Another study by Misati (2007) in Kenya argues that the creation of wealth and poverty reduction in SSA is associated with informal sector particularly through the creation of employment. The study recommends that, policy in low income countries should include the role of informal sectors and the governments should improve the working conditions of the informal sector. In many African countries the working conditions of the informal sector are difficult and not regulated by the government policy and regulations.

Furthermore, it failed to address fundamental contradictions between current urban policies on micro-trade. Charles (2014) research aims to establish the antecedents and challenges of street trading in the Dares Salaam city. The findings show that, street traders in Tanzania experience serious challenges of eviction, limited access to capital, unstable security and unplanned policies on urban development. The study suggests that violent confrontations between the government and street vendors cannot address the challenge of street vending. Instead, careful planning, negotiations with and the involvement of vendors‟ organizations could facilitate relocation, formalization and order in running street trading.

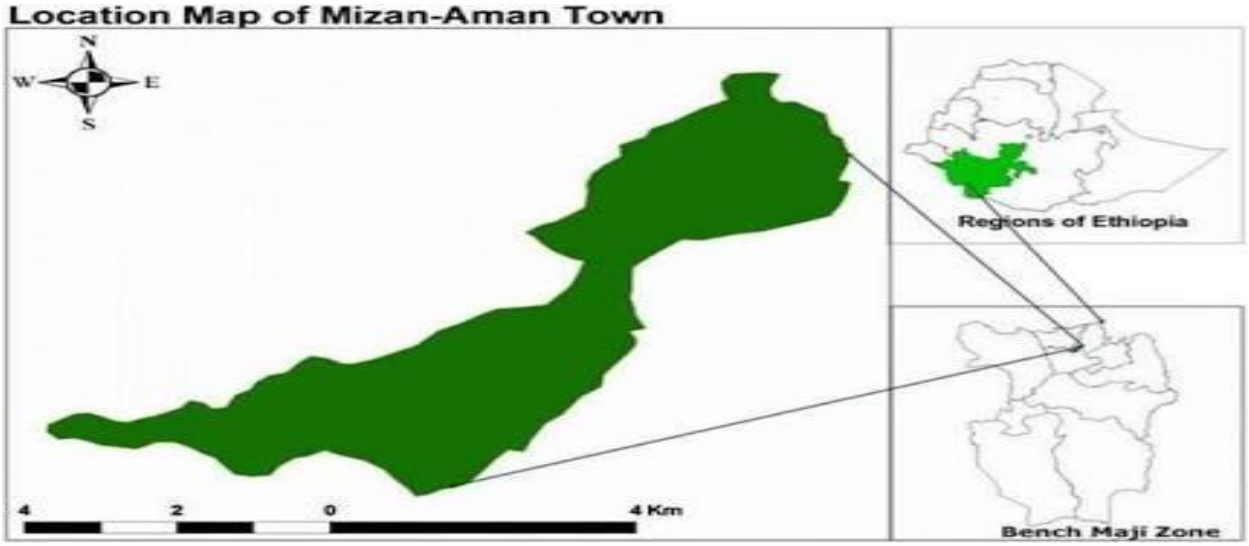
CHAPTER THREE

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the study area, data source, methods of data collection, sample size, research design, analysis tools, techniques, description of variables and econometric model used in the study.

3.1. Description of the study area

According to Ethiopian central statistics agency (CSA) 2007 report, Mizan is a town in south western Ethiopia. The largest town, and the administrative center, of the Benchi Maji Zone of the Southern Nations, Nationalities and People Region and located about 160 kilometers southwest of jimma, it has a latitude of 7°0'N 35°35'E and an elevation of 1451 meters. Mizan-Aman together with the neighboring town of Aman, forms integrated town called Mizan Aman. This is surrounded by Debub Benchi woreda. Based on the 2007 census conducted by the CSA, Mizan Aman has a total population of 34,080, of whom 18,138 are men and 15,942 women.



3.2. Target population

The population of this study is only Mizan-Aman town street vender households. The population of this study does not include all households who are involve in street trading in the town due to a limitation of resources such as time and money. The Cochran formula allows you to calculate an ideal sample size given a desired level of precision, desired confidence level, and the

estimated proportion of the attribute present in the population. So a random sample of 272 populations in our target population should be enough to give us the confidence levels we need.

3.3. Research strategy, approach and technique

The research strategy that was applied is qualitative and quantitative. Descriptive and explanatory types of research were used. Descriptive type of research was used because of the objective of the research which is intended to reveal the challenges of street venders household. The study is also explanatory to explain the impact of the street vending activity on urban household's welfare. The study was used cross-sectional method on the sense that first hand and relevant data are collected at one point in time.

3.4. Source of data

To achieve the objective of the study, quantitative and qualitative data are gathering from both primary and secondary sources. The primary data was obtained from households and administration offices through questionnaire and focused group discussion. This helps to get first-hand information from the participants and officials about street trade situation. The secondary data collection constitutes an extensive survey of literature from different sources including books, journals, official documents, websites and reports from the town trade office.

3.5. Method of data collection

Structured questionnaire: To gather information from selected street venders household a sample population of 272 household from unknown specific target population by using structured questionnaires with closed-ended questions from each streets. The structured questionnaires were organized into two main sections, the first section personal information of the respondents which includes gender and age composition, marital status, educational level, and the size of household members. The second section of the questionnaire was focused on obtaining the socio-economic condition of the sample households of selected road street vender respondents and impact of participating in street trade. It also concerns the problems of street vending which includes socio-economic conditions in terms of household's income level.

Focus group discussions (FGDs): Focus group discussions was conducted to capture qualitative data and to fill in the gap of information that not be covered by other methods of data collection

and to validate the findings. The discussion was conducted by giving special emphasis to the participation of street trade in street venders and welfare impacts and the solution suggestions with the same age groups men and women including officials, stakeholders and selecting respondent.

The data was collected by 10 enumerators under the supervision of the researcher. In order to facilitate data collection, the enumerators were trained regarding the objectives of the study, about contents and how to complete the questionnaire, and data collection procedure. The collected data was entered in to SPSS, version 26, software.

3.6. Sampling technique and Sample size

There is no accurate official data on the population size and the exact working place of the informal sector in the study areas; hence the study was used convenience sampling. A convenience sample is a type of non-probability sampling method where the sample is taken from a group of people easy to contact or to reach. where the population is unknown, the sample size can be derived by computing the minimum sample size required for accuracy.

3.6.1. Cochran's Sample Size Formula

The Cochran formula allows you to calculate an ideal sample size given a desired level of precision, desired confidence level, and the estimated proportion of the attribute present in the population.

The Cochran formula is:

$$n_0 = \frac{Z^2 pq}{e^2}$$

Cochran (1953).

Where:

- e is the desired level of precision (i.e. the margin of error),

- p is the (estimated) proportion of the population which has the attribute in question,
- q Is 1 – p.(p = 0.5 and q= 0.5)

Suppose we are doing a study on the inhabitants of a large town, and want to find out how many peoples are involve in street vending in Mizan town. We don't have much information on the subject to begin with, so we're going to assume that half of the traders are street venders: this gives us maximum variability. So p = 0.5. Now let's say we want 90 percent confidence, and at least 10 percent. A 90 percent confidence level gives us Z values of 1.645, per the normal tables from Z table. In social science study, if there is homogenous characteristics of the respondents, geographical challenge on data collection, if there is time and finance limitation 90 percent confidence level will be tolerated.

So we get

$((1.645)^2 (0.5) (0.5)) / (0.05)^2 = 272.$

So a random sample of 272 populations in our target population should be enough to give us the confidence levels we need.

3.7. Methods of data analysis

The main aim of the study was to analyze the effect of street vending on urban household welfare as measured by selected economic indicators. In an attempt to address the research questions, various descriptive indicators such as frequency distributions, averages, and percentages were reported and presented from the field survey data collected to draw appropriate inferences. Street vender's household demographic characteristics, socioeconomic and welfare profiles and information were examined using descriptive analysis. The results from the descriptive statistics also serve to develop and specify the appropriate variables to be used in the econometric analysis.

The studies of the street vender's household welfare and poverty have been modeled using logit models to examine the probability of Street vender's households being poor. The logistic distribution is more preferable than the others in the analysis of dichotomous outcome variable,

in that it is extremely flexible and easily uses a model from the mathematical point of view and results in a meaningful interpretation (Gujarati: 2004 pp 617).

The logit model is a maximum likelihood estimator that allows for estimating the probability that an event occurs or not by predicting a binary dependent outcome from a set of observable independent or predictor variables.

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots + \beta_n X_{ni} + \varepsilon i \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots (1)$$

Let us consider a linear regression of the form;

Y_i = the outcome variable predicted from the equation

X_i = a vector of explanatory variables representing household

β's = a vector of regression coefficients to be estimated

ε_i = the error terms

Logistic regression assumes meaningful coding of the variables. A logistic coefficient is difficult to interpret if not coded meaningfully. The convention for binomial logistic regression is to code the dependent class of interest as 1 and the other as 0.

3.7.1. Assumptions of Binary Logistic Regression

Unlike general linear models, binary logistic regression does not have many key assumptions; particularly it does not require a linear relationship between the dependent and independent variables, normality of the error distribution, homoscedasticity of the errors and measurement level of the independent variables. (http://www.statisticssolutions.com/assumptions-of-logistic-regression/) however logistic regression still requires other assumptions.

1. Binary logistic regression requires the dependent variables to be binary.

2. Since binary logistic regression assumes that that P(Y=1) is the probability of an event occurring, it requires that the dependent variable is coded accordingly.

3. The model should be fitted correctly. It means that all meaningful variables should be included. Also, it should not be over-fitted with meaningless variables included.

4. Binary logistic regression requires each observation to be independent. Also, it should have little or no multicollinearity, which means that independent variables are not linear functions of each other.

5. Binary logistic regression requires the linearity of the relationship between independent variables and log odds. Meanwhile, it does not require a linear relationship between dependent and independent variables.

6. Binary logistic regression requires quite large sample sizes. Studies with small sample sizes overestimate the effect measure. Also, the more independent variables are included in the model; the larger the sample size is required.

3.7.2. Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Although the logistic regression model looks like a simple linear regression model, the underlying distribution is binomial and α and β parameters cannot be estimated in the same way as for simple linear regression. The coefficients are usually estimated by the Maximum Likelihood Model (Park, Hyeoun-Ae, 2013). The likelihood is a probability to get observed values of the dependent variable given the observed values of independent variables. The likelihood varies from 0 to 1 like any other probabilities. The probability estimation of the dependent variable as applied by Gujarati: (2004) can be represented by;

$$\text{Prob}(Yi=1)=F(\beta'Xi)\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ (2)$$

$$\text{Prob}(Yi=0)=1-F(\beta'Xi)\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ (3)$$

Where:

$$Y_i = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if} - \text{HH poor} \\ 0 \text{ if} - \text{HH not poor} \end{cases} \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ (4)$$

The probability model involves regression of the conditional expectation of Y on X as given by:

$$E(Y|X) = 1[F\ (\beta'X)] + 0[1 - F(\beta'X)] = F(\beta'X)\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ (5)$$

The F-function represents that the logit model uses a logit cumulative distributive function. When an outcome variable is dichotomous or binary, the relationship between variables may be nonlinear and can be converted into linear ones through logarithmic transformation. Therefore, the logit regression equation from which the probability of the outcome variable (Y) is predicted is given by:

$$P(Y = 1|X) = \frac{e^{\beta' X}}{1+e^{\beta' X}} \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots (6)$$

$$P(Y = 0|X) = 1 - \frac{e^{\beta' X}}{1+e^{\beta' X}} = \frac{1}{1+e^{\beta' X}} \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots (7)$$

Where: P(Y) = the probability of Y occurring as defined in equation (4)

e = the base of natural logarithms

The logit regression in equation 6 and 7 are expressed in logarithm terms and overcomes the problem of nonlinearity. The result of the logit regression varies between 0 and 1: values closer to 0 indicates that the outcome variable (Y) is unlikely to have occurred and values closer to 1 indicate the probability of Y occurring is very high.

The output of the logit regression model explains the probability that the outcome variable (Y) changes when the independent variables change. Thus, a positive logit coefficient tells us that a change in the independent variable (X) increases the probability that (Y=1). A significant coefficient indicates that the positive effect is statistically significant. But the logit coefficient does not tell us by how much percentage the probability of (Y=1) change when the explanatory variable (X) changes by one unit. The logit coefficient shows the direction of the change not the magnitude of the change. The magnitude of the effect would be estimated by calculating the marginal effects.

According to Gujarati: (2004)

$$\frac{\partial E[Y_i|X_i]}{\partial X_i} = F(\beta' X)[1 - F(\beta' X)]\beta \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots (8)$$

It indicates how much percent the probability of (Y=1) changes when the X covariates change by one unit. SPSS software version 26 has an inbuilt system to compute the coefficients of the logit function and the marginal effects.

The poverty of the street vendor's households was measured through the poverty line. The people whose monthly per capita net incomes were less than (1.9$) 1710 Birr (International poverty line set at $1.9 per capita per day for underdeveloped World Bank, 2017) below the poverty line and assign poor and if above the poverty line then it was assigned non-poor (to calculate the per capita income, the total household income is divided by the number of people in this household or household size). Because the dependent variable poverty has two categories (if poor = 1, if not poor = 0), so binary logit is used here to check the impact of street vending on urban street vendor's household poverty status.

Compare the household total expenditure with the poverty line. Household's total expenditure divided for total household size than per capital expenditure less than the poverty line considered poor and those with costs greater than the poverty threshold was considered non-poor.

3.7.3. Evaluation of Binary Logistic Regression Model

3.7.3.1. Overall model evaluation

a) Likelihood ratio test

Due to the overall model evaluation, we can see how strong the relationship between all independent variables and the dependent variable is. If logistic regression with k independent variables demonstrates an improvement over the model without independent variables (null model), then it provides a better fit to data (Park, Hyeoun-Ae, 2013). This is performed using the likelihood ratio test, which compares the likelihood of the data under the full model with the likelihood of the data under the model without independent variables. The overall fit of the model with k coefficients can be accessed via a likelihood ratio test which tests the null hypothesis -2 log-likelihood of the null method is compared with 2 log-likelihoods of the given model. The likelihood of null method is the likelihood of obtaining the observation if explanatory variables have n4o impact on the outcome. The likelihood of the given model is the likelihood of obtaining the observation if all explanatory variables are included in the model. It

measures how well independent variables influence the dependent variable. If the p-value for the overall model fit statistic is less than 0.05, then decline *H*0 with the conclusion that at least one of the independent variables has an impact on the outcome or dependent variable.

b) Chi-square Goodness of Fit Tests

Chi-square goodness of fit test is a non-parametric test that is used to find out how the observed value of a given event is significantly different from the expected value. There are two hypotheses to test in relation to the overall fit of the model:

H0: In the Chi-square goodness of fit test, the null hypothesis assumes that there is no significant difference between the observed and expected value.

H1: In the Chi-square goodness of fit test, the alternative hypothesis assumes that there is a significant difference between the observed and expected value. If the p-value is less than the significance level, the null hypothesis is rejected.

c) Hosmer-Lemeshow test

Hosmer-Lemeshow test also measures how good the model is. The test evaluates whether observed event rates match expected event rates in subgroups of the model population. Divides subjects into 10 ordered groups of subjects and then compares the number actually in each group (observed) to the number predicted by the logistic regression model (predicted). If the H-L goodness-of-fit test statistic is greater than .05, as we want for well-fitting models, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference between observed and predicted values, implying that the model's estimates fit the data at an acceptable level (Hosmer and Lemeshow, 2000 pp 150).

3.7.3.2. Statistical significance of individual regression coefficients

After evaluating the overall model, the next step is to assess the significance of every independent variable. The coefficient of i-th explanatory variable indicates the change in the predicted log-odds for one unit change in the i-th explanatory variable when all other explanatory variables remain unchanged.

a) Likelihood ratio test

As mentioned above, the likelihood ratio test is used to evaluate the overall fit model. The test is also used to evaluate the statistical significance of individual predictors.

b) Wald statistic

The Wald statistic is used to test the significance of individual coefficients in a given model (Bewick et al., 2005). The statistic is the ratio of the square of the regression coefficient to the square of the standard error of the coefficient.

Cox and Snell's R-Square and Nagelkerke's R2 is part of SPSS output in the 'Model Summary' Table and is the most-reported of the R-squared estimates. The result indicates the relationship between the predictors and the prediction.

3.7.3.3. Validation of Results

At this stage, the validation sample used to assess the external validity and practical significance of the model. The predictive power of the fitted model is assessed by comparing the correct classification percentage for the two samples. If the model produces almost the same classification accuracy for the model fitting sample and the validation sample then the models are said to be accurate/ valid.

3.7.4. Selection of dependent and independent variables

Table3. 1 Description of variables

Variables	Variable description	Type	Symbol	Expect sign
Dependent variables				
Poverty status	1 if poor and 0 if not poor	Binary	PS	
Explanatory variables				
Age of the Street vender	18-29 years old	Categorical	AGE	Positive/Negative
	30-40 years old			
	41-50 years old			
	Above 51 years old			
Gender of Street vender	0=Female, 1=Male	Binary	GEN	Positive/Negative
Marital status of Street vender	0= if single, 1= if married	Binary	MS	Negative
Migration status of street vender	0= if migrant, 1= if non-migrant	Binary	MIGS	Negative

Household size	Total number of members in families	Continuous	HS	Positive
Education of Street vender	Illiterate	Categorical	EDU	Negative
	Primary school level			
	Secondary school level			
	Tertiary level			
Street vender income or expenditure	< 3500 Birr	Categorical	HI/ HE	Negative
	3501-5500 Birr			
	5501-7500 Birr			
	7501-9500 Birr			
	> 9501 Birr			
Selling commodity	Fruits	Categorical	SC	Positive/Negative
	Vegetables			
	Cloths			
	Others			
Years of street vending	< 1 year	Categorical	TE	Positive
	2-3 years			
	3-4 years			
	Above 4 years			

3.7.5. Definition and measurements of variables

3.7.5.1. Measurement of household welfare

Welfare is usually proxies by measures of consumption or income. Consumption expenditure is probably the most common and preferred welfare indicator; however, its measurement is a challenging and time-consuming task (UNICEF, 2012). Household expenditures will be as a proxy variable to check the welfare of the household (Okojie, 2002).

First of all, the wealth index provides a relative measure of welfare namely a household's wealth is measured relative to other households in the sample but does not quantify the household current levels of welfare or poverty (Filmer and Pritchett, 2001). In order to obtain a good measure of welfare, consumption should be comprehensive (Deaton and Grosh, 2000). Consumption usually includes food consumption, non-food items (including health, education and other non-food expenditures), housing expenditures (including rent and utilities) and consumer durables (UNICEF, 2012).

Consumption and income can be justified as measures of welfare since they both indicate an individual's ability to obtain goods and services. However, consumption is preferred because it contains smaller measurement errors compared to income, it fluctuates less than income and can, therefore, provide a more accurate and less volatile measure of the individual's permanent income over time, and survey respondents are more willing to reveal their consumption than their income (Ravallion, 1996).

Poverty (Dependent variable): This study was focused on estimating street vendor welfare status using poverty monetary measures the consumption expenditure approach at household levels because is most widely used when measuring poverty. Common practice starts by identifying a single monetary indicator of street vendor welfare. This tends to be either total expenditure or consumption or total income over some period. Income or consumption can be defined in many ways, some far preferable to others and it is widely agreed (Ravallion, 1992). Households with per capita consumption expenditure less than the poverty line were considered poor and those with costs greater than the poverty threshold was considered non-poor.

Independent (Explanatory) variables

The choice of independent variables is largely guided by the empirical literature on the determinants of household welfare and poverty. The independent variables were used in this study are defined in Table. These variables are broadly grouped into household characteristics:

Age of the street vendor: The age of the street vendor is an important demographic factor that potentially affects productivity, income and thus consumption. The household age increases the poverty status of the household increase due to reduce productivity, large family size and income level (Datt and Jolliffe, 2005).

Gender of the street vendor: In societies where tradition plays a dominant role in the allocation of various tasks, gender has also implications for generating income and education. Custom and tradition also exert differential power relations between men and women which further suppress asset ownership by women. In Kenya (Geda et al., 2005) Female-headed households were more likely to be poor than male-headed households. In other finding households headed by females, reduce the probability of being poor (Evgjeni xhafaj and Ines nurja 2014), inverse finding in

Nigeria Male-headed households were more likely to be poor than female-headed households John C. Anyanwu (2014).

From such a perspective, the effect of gender on being poor or not is indeterminate or ambiguous depending on contextual factors governing gender issues. The gender of renters is male's 78 percent higher than women (Dzangmah, 2012).

Marital status of the street vendor: Married couples will be expected to be more concerned about household welfare and food security and the need to maintain a minimum consumption threshold would lead them to decide to not participate in the street vendors. Moreover, married couples are less mobile and the joint cosigning and responsibility between them could increase the probability of getting a formal job. Based on generating income married couples have less probability of being poor (White and Rodgers, 2000).

Household size: A household with more members will be expected to be exposed to consumption shocks and needs additional resources to stabilize their consumption which indicates that when the numbers of people in a room increase then there per capital education expenditures decreased. This is because of the large family size with the probability of having more dependents positively related to being poor. Household size has the significant negative effect on the welfare status of a household Geda et al., (2005); Datt and Jolliffe (2005); Gounder, (2012); Sekhampu, (2013); Evgjeni xhafaj; Ines nurja (2014) and John C. Anyanwu (2014).

An education level of the street vendor: It was expected that household heads with more education will gain better income and be more efficient than those with less education. The education status of household heads increases than their educational expenditures also increase the positive relationship between education of household head and whole family's education expenditures and educational status of the household positively related to welfare status of the households Kabubuo-Mariara (2002); Geda et al., (2005); Mok et al., (2007); Akerele Adewuyi (2011); Gounder, 2012); Fru Awah Wanka, (2014) and Edoumiekumo et al., (2014).

Street vendor income/expenditure: income/expenditure represents the amount of income earns or total expenditure either daily or monthly. It is the amount of income/ expenditure (in Birr)

generate from work and any activities. It will be expected that the availability of income/expenditure is positively related to welfare status.

Selling commodities: types of selling commodities based on supply and demand self-employed business gain much more income and the probability of being poor reduce, therefore, the probability of being poor will be high so indeterminate or ambiguous depending on the products which seller are bring in the street market.

Years of street vending: total experiences determine the business achievements if someone highly experienced in specific business activities transaction cost of doing business will be decline then the probability of being poor will be rare.

3.7.6. Ethical considerations

Participants of the research were clearly informed about the major objectives of the research emphasizing that the data was used only for the academic purpose. The data was collected using questionnaire distribution techniques and doing with the full willingness of the participants. A statement that clearly indicates their participation is only on a voluntary basis and they are advised not to include their names and address on the questionnaire. Also, focus group discussion was conducted upon the respondent's willingness and collaboration. Careful attention was given in respecting the rights, needs, and values of the participants; and maintaining confidentiality of the data and acknowledging sources of information.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

The total target population was 272 street venders based on 90 percent confidence level 272 street venders were selected 100 percent response rate. The information captured using the household questionnaires (from February first up to march first 2020 for one month) which covered demographic data, economic activity, and employment, sources of income, housing situation, and monthly expenditure (health, education, rent fee, food and non-food) during the last 12 months, employment earnings and regular payments (monthly). Data collecting period spend 2 months including enumerator orientation.

4.2. Poverty line calculation

The per capital expenditure for each street venders were obtain by adding the total expenditure spent on education, rent fee, food and non-food, for each of the sampled street venders. The amount divided for household size here is the assumption of all gender and age group household members consume the same and equal amount of reported expenditure, which was used as a measure of welfare.

International poverty line set at $1.9 per capital per day for underdeveloped world Bank, 2018 which is approximate 1824 Ethiopian Birr per month converted into the current official exchange rate (1$ = 32 Birr). A household whose per capital expenditure was below its poverty line was categorize as being poor and that is per capital expenditure was higher than its poverty line was classified as non-poor.

4.3. Descriptive analysis of survey data

4.3.1. Socioeconomic characteristics of the respondents

This section of the paper describes the percent and frequency distribution of the respondents with age and gender group of street venders.

Table4. 1 Descriptive summery for gender and age

Gender of street vender * Age of the street vender						
		Age of the street vender			Total	percent
		Below 18 year	18-29 year	30-40 year		
Gender of street vender	Female	25	113	1	139	51.1
	Male	3	84	46	133	48.9
Total		28	197	47	272	100.0

Source: Researcher's own calculations using survey data 2020.

In this survey out of the total 272 street venders, 51.1 percent of the respondents were female, while 48.9 percent were male. The 18 percent street vender females are below 18 years old (under national youth age category) and 81.3 percent street vender females are on their early economically active age (between the ages of 18 to 29 years old). On the other hand, only 2.2 percent of male street venders are on their age below 18 years old (34.58 percent males are involved on street vending on their age of above 30 years old). Out of the total 272 respondents, majority of respondents which are 72.4 percent (197 respondents) are involved on street trade on their early economically active age, which means on the age of between 18 to 29 years old. This summary implies that genders are a different effect (99.2 percent females are spending their economically active age to trade on street) but only 65.4 percent of strong males involve on street trade on their early economically active age in Mizan-Aman towns.

In this section the percent, frequency, distribution and cross tabulation of marital status with their poverty status of street venders were described.

Table4. 2 Descriptive summery for marital status and poverty status

Marital status of street vender * Poverty status of street vender in terms of expenditure					
		Poverty status			
		Poor	Non-poor	Total	percent
Marital status of street vender	Single	53	92	145	53.3
	Married	63	64	127	46.7
Total		116	156	272	100.0

Source: Researcher's own calculations using survey data 2020.

Based on the above Table 4.2, 46.7 percent of respondents are married and 53.3 percent were unmarried. The 46.68 percent single respondents are poor on their expenditure status and the 54.3 percent married couples were poor. This implies that marital status has impact to get much more income (expenditure) than street venders who are single or never married.

Almost 2/3 of the respondents were literate, according to table 4.3 below. More than 97% of the respondents had finished primary school and beyond. Only 2.9% of the respondents had not attended to school (illiterate).

Table4. 3 Descriptive summery for street vender education level

Education of street vender			
		Frequency	Percent
	Illiterate	8	2.9
	1-8 grade	148	54.4
	9-12 grade	105	38.6
	Tertiary level	11	4.0
	Total	272	100.0

Source: Researcher's own calculations using survey data 2020.

An education level of the respondents is presented in the above Table 4.3; out of 272 total respondent street venders, 2.9 percent (8 respondents) were illiterate. The 54.4 percent respondents were under primary education level (between grades 1 to 8). 38.6 percent respondents were under secondary school education level (between grades 9 to 12), 4 percent respondents had either a college diploma, bachelor degree and above. This implies that education

enrolment rate had positive impact to involve on street trade in Mizan-Aman towns (93 percent street vender respondents were under secondary school education level). This number implies that bachelor degree above qualification holding was guarantee for not having job on street trade. There is logical relationship between college graduation and available better job opportunity. Education is a key determinant of individual opportunities, attitudes and economic and social Status; Education becomes very important when it comes to children.

The venders' social bonds (marital status) are depicted in this section of the paper.

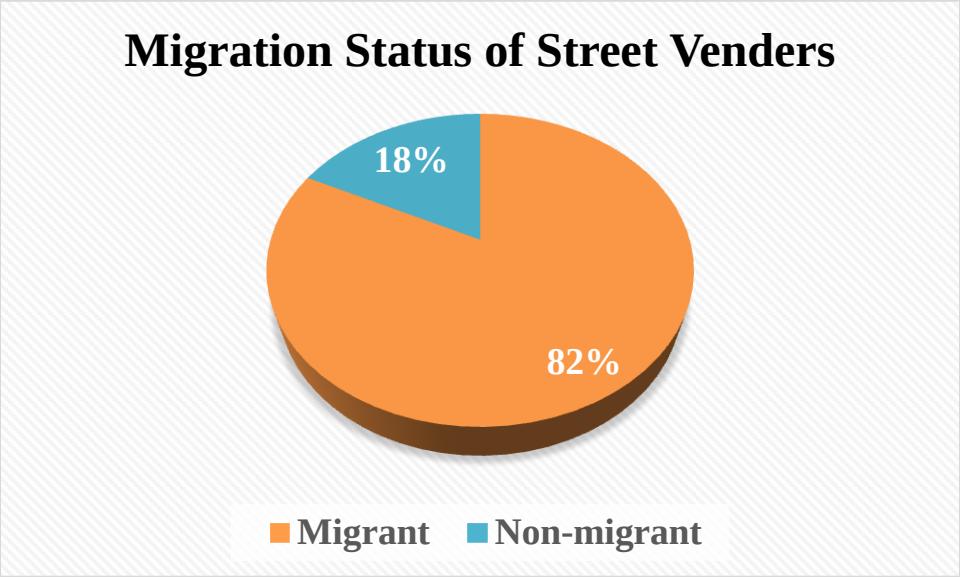


Figure4. 1 migration status of street venders in Mizan town

Out of 270 respondents in study area 82 percent are moving to Mizan-Aman towns to searching jobs and involve on street trade sector but only native people who are living in Mizan-Aman towns are engage on street trade. This implies that majority of street vending respondents who are involve on informal street trade are the youths coming from rural areas on expecting better job on urban center.

The research try to examine the relationship between the total periods of living in town had comparative advantage to get formal job or not then, the majority of 89.1 percent street vender's parent educational backgrounds are under grade 8 and illiterate. The 41.5 percent of street venders parents were involve on farming sector and 80.1 percent parents were poor (earned less

than 1800 birr). This implies that the street venders who are involved on the street of Mizan-Aman towns are coming from the background farmers, poor and illiterate.

Table4. 4 Descriptive summery for household size of street venders

Household size of street venders			
		Frequency	**Percent**
Household size of street venders	**If 1 member**	**40**	**14.7**
	2 to 3 members	**63**	**23.2**
	3 to 4 members	**80**	**29.4**
	Above 4 members	**89**	**32.7**
	Total	**272**	**100**

Source: Researcher's own calculations using survey data 2020.

It was also observed that 14.7 percent of the respondents are living alone, 23.2 percent of the respondents had household sizes of 2-3 members, 29.4 percent had 3-4 members and 32.7 percent had more than 4 members, respectively. The average household size was 1.8 members. This finding implies that involving on street vending does not determine having family and supporting other dependent family members.

4.3.1.1. Reasons for Business Start Up

For the questioned why the street vender choose to join street vending rather than doing something else 43.3 percent respondents are involve in street trade due to make themselves independent to generate income and the 23.9 percent respondents are prefer to involve on street vending because of lack of other formal job opportunity. This implies that 66.9 percent of respondents involve on street vending considering as basic employment sector.

Table4. 5 Descriptive summery for who push the street vender to be street vender

Who push the street vender to be street vender			
		Frequency	**Percent**
Who push the street vender to be street vender	**Friend**	**73**	**26.8**
	My self	**199**	**73.2**
	Total	**272**	**100.0**

Source: Researcher's own calculations using survey data 2020.

Majority of the total respondents 73.2 percent (199 respondents out of 272 respondents) are involve in street trade on Mizan-Aman town based on their own observation and initiation to create job for themselves and the 26.8 percent are engage on the pressures of their friends. This implies that street vending is easy business for migrants in the study areas.

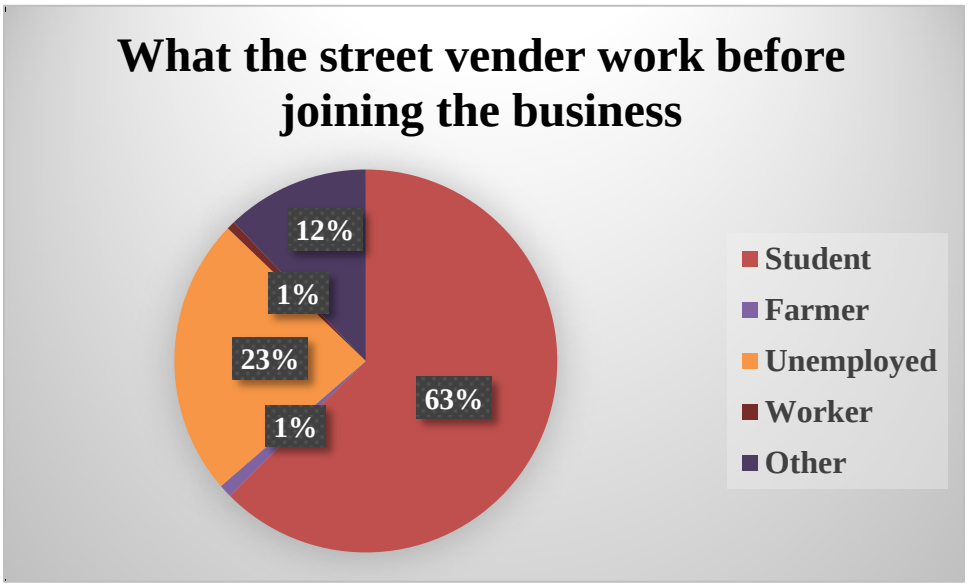


Figure4. 2 Former work status of the street venders in Mizan town

The current street venders in Mizan town both female and males were students (62.5 percent) and 23.5 percent respondents were unemployed. This implies easy doing street business pushes; the students to drop out from school and street vending were the first choice for unemployed peoples.

This section of the paper elucidates about the vendors' average annual income they get from the business in addition to the years of selling that they stay in this business.

Table4. 6 Descriptive summery for average annual income and years of street vending

Average annual income of street vender * Years of street vending							
		Years of street vending				Total	Percent
		Below 1 year	2-3 year	3-4 year	Above 4 year		
Average annual income of street vender (Birr)	Below 36,500	72	56	16	7	151	55.5
	36,501-54,750	10	41	23	0	74	27.2
	54,751-91,250	1	10	3	0	14	5.1
	91,251-127,750	18	9	0	0	27	10

	127,751-164,250	**0**	**3**	**0**	**0**	**3**	**1.1**
	Above 164,250	**3**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**3**	**1.1**
Total		**104**	**119**	**42**	**7**	**272**	**100.0**

Source: Researcher's own calculations using survey data 2020.

The 38.23 percent of the respondents spend less than one year on street vending in Mizan-Aman towns and 43.75 percent respondents stay between 2 to 3 years in the business. The majority 55.5 percent of the street venders earned less than 36,500 birr per year.

Based on the survey data 53.3 percent of street venders both females and males are prefer to sell cloths and jewelry and 15.8 percent respondents wants to sell fruit to get enough profit based on the market demand.

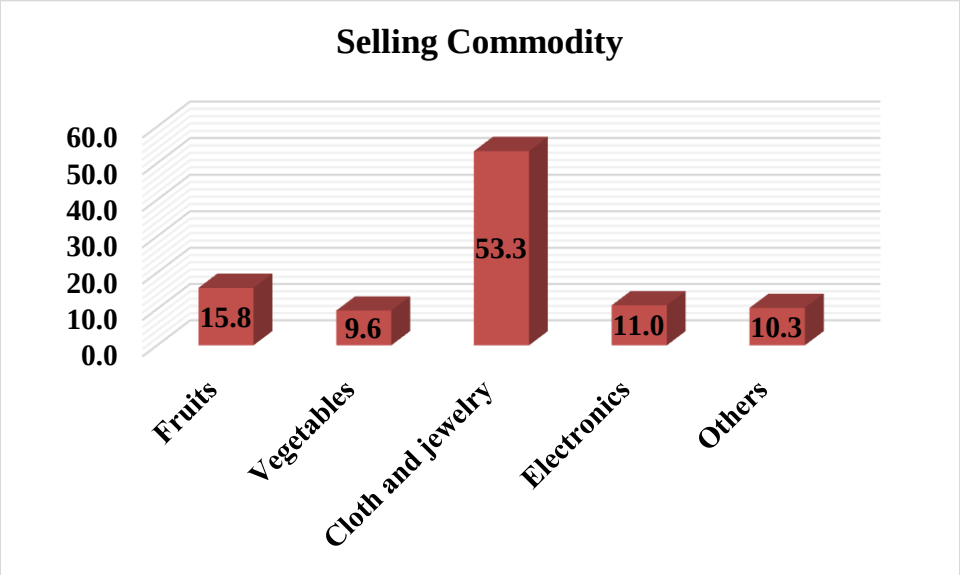


Figure4. 3 preferable selling commodities in Mizan town

Based on the survey data 53.3 percent of street venders both females and males are prefer to sell cloths and jewelry and 15.8 percent respondents wants to sell fruit to get enough profit based on the market demand.

The specific day and hour that the street venders sell their product depicted as follow.

Table4. 7 Descriptive summery for operational days and operational hours street vending

Operational hours of the business * Operational days of the business			
	Operational days of the business	**Total**	**Percent**

		Ordinary day	Tuesday and Saturday		
Operational hours of the business	**Morning**	**3**	**2**	**5**	**1.8**
	Afternoon	**39**	**92**	**131**	**48.2**
	Night	**3**	**69**	**72**	**26.5**
	Afternoon and night	**23**	**41**	**64**	**23.5**
Total		**68**	**204**	**272**	**100.0**

Source: Researcher's own calculations using survey data 2020.

The researcher tried to identify the specific day based on selling volume and number of customer in Mizan town. The local community trade days are Tuesday and Saturday and the large volume 75 percent sale was facilitate during those two days. Based on the respondents afternoon (48.2 percent) and night (26.5 percent) was peak hours to sell too much and earned better profit.

In this section, the communities which are categorized with age and gender group and that purchase commodity from street vender are described below.

Table4. 8 Descriptive summery for age group and gender that buy the commodity from street venders

Age group that buy the commodity * Gender group that buy the commodity						
		Gender group that buy the commodity			**Total**	**percent**
		Female	**Male**	**Both**		
Age group that buy the commodity	**Young**	**97**	**21**	**19**	**137**	**50.4**
	Adult	**19**	**60**	**8**	**87**	**32**
	Elders	**3**	**0**	**0**	**3**	**1.1**
	Both young and adult	**18**	**2**	**25**	**45**	**16.5**
Total		**137**	**83**	**52**	**272**	**100.0**

Source: Researcher's own calculations using survey data 2020.

Majority of the community in Mizan town purchase from street venders based on survey data 50.4 percent customers are younger, 40 percent are adults. The 50.35 percent customers are females and 38 percent were male customers. This data implies that the products, which are selling on street, were major choice for females and young age groups in Mizan-Aman towns.

Average daily income that gained from the selling of commodity at street is describes as follow.

Table4. 9 Summary statistics of the average daily income

Average daily income			
		Frequency	Percent
	below 100 Birr	151	55.5
	100-200 Birr	77	28.3
	201-300 Birr	14	5.1
	301-400 Birr	27	9.9
	above 501 Birr	3	1.1
	Total	272	100.0

Source: Researcher's own calculations using survey data 2020.

The findings in the above Table 4.9 showed that 55.5 percent of total respondents were earning on average less than 100 Ethiopian Birr per day (and 36,500 birr annually) and 28.3 percent street venders earned between 100 to 200 birr per day (between 36,501-54,750 birr annually). This implies that involving on street vending was guaranty to venders to earn enough money in Mizan-Aman town.

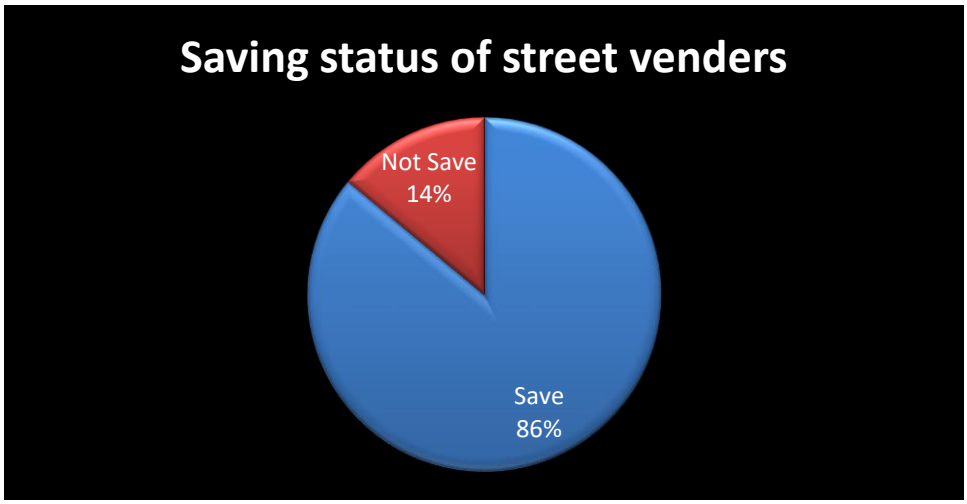


Figure4. 4 Saving status of street venders

Saving is difficult decision in the poor household's situation but 86 percent of the total street vender respondents had saving portfolio based on their income proportion. The 76.5 percent

save in the formal bank sector and 78.3 percent save the proportion of between 500 birr to 1000 birr per months. This implies that a street vender was expecting to change their business carrier for the future.

In this section of the paper asset accumulation of physical capital (television, radio/tape, satellite dish, sofa set, refrigerator, closet (kumsatin), and bed) are discussed

It was also observed that there is a similar percentage of asset accumulation between them such as television, satellite dish, sofa, closet, refrigerator cooking stove and bed. 83.1 percent street venders has television and satellite dish, 96.7 percent street venders has no refrigerator on their home, 98.2 percent street venders has no sofa, 84.9 has no cooking stove and 45.6 percent street venders has no even bed. This implies that, at the end; accumulate necessary home types of equipment serious concern for street venders.

Finally based on the survey data, out of 272 street vender respondents during the research all respondents are not happy doing business on such street environment in Mizan-Aman town.

4.4. Gini Coefficient

The Gini index or coefficient is a simple measure of the distribution of income across income percentiles in a population. A higher Gini index indicates greater inequality, and few individuals are receiving much larger percentages of the total income of the population.

Global inequality as measured by the Gini index increased over the 9^{th} and 20^{th} centuries, but has declined in more recent years. Because of the data and other limitation, the Gini index may overstate income inequality and can obscure important information about income distribution.

A Gini of 50 means a country that literally consisted of haves and have-nots in 50-50 spilt.

The Gini coefficients main advantages is that it is a measure of inequality by means of a ratio analysis, rather than a variable unrepresentative of most of the population, such as per capital income or gross domestic product. It can be used to compare income distribution across different population sectors as well as countries, for example the Gini coefficient for urban areas differs from that of rural areas in many countries. It is sufficiently simple that it can be compared across and be easily interpreted. GDP statistics are often criticized as they do not represent changes for

the whole population; the Gini coefficient demonstrates how income has changed for poor and rich. If the Gini index is rising as well as GDP, poverty may not be improving for the majority of the population. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gini_coefficent

Data on household income allow researchers to express poverty on a per-capita basis, at least if information is available for researchers to adjust income for household size (Fields 1994:89). The Gini coefficient can be used to indicate hoe the distribution of income has changed within a country over a period of time, thus it is possible to see if income inequality is increased or decreased in countries as well as in Mizan-Aman towns.

The following table shows that the overall income inequality in a sense Gini coefficient or index of street vender in Mizan-Aman towns.

Table4. 10 Inequality measure of income

Inequality measure of annual income	
Relative mean deviation	.1766029
Coefficient of variation	.49586655
Standard deviation of logs	.37415248
Gini coefficient	.20954411
Mehran measure	.25328463
Piesch measure	.18767384
Kakwani measure	.05186665
Theil entropy measure	.09880616
Theil mean log deviation measure	.08437326

In the above table 4.10 the **Gini coefficient of** overall income inequality between street venders is **0.209.** This means that there is almost good income equality (**relatively equitable distributions**) between **street venders** in Mizan-Aman towns since the value is **close to zero**.

1. **Gender**

The Gini coefficient of female **street vender** was **0.175 and for** male was **0.288.** Both estimates reflect **relative equitable** income **distribution** amid two gender cohorts; however, **the income** inequality within them is not equal. The income disparity of male respondents is higher than female counterparts, **See in the Appendix.**

2. **Marital Status**

The Gini coefficient of single **street vender** was **0.235 and for** married one was **0.171.** Both appraise deliberate **relative equitable** income **distribution** amid two marital Status cohorts; however, **the income** inequality within them is not equal. The income disparity of single respondents is higher than married counterparts, **See in the Appendix.**

3. **Migration status**

The Gini coefficient of migrant street vender was **0.211 and for** non-migrant was **0.189**. Both appraise deliberate **relative equitable** income **distribution** amid two migration Status cohorts; however, **the income** inequality within them is not equal. The income disparity of migrant respondents is higher than non-migrant counterparts, **See in the Appendix.**

4. **Education**

The Gini coefficient of illiterate street vender was **0.146 and for** literate was **0.211**. Both appraise deliberate **relative equitable** income **distribution** amid two education cohorts; however, **the income** inequality within them is not equal. The income disparity of literate respondents is higher than illiterate counterparts, **See in the Appendix.**

5. **Saving**

The Gini coefficient of saver street vender was **0.221.** This estimates reflect **relative equitable** income **distribution and for** non-saver was and 0 (this is because much of street venders are saver), **See in the Appendix.**

6. **Selling Commodity**

The Gini coefficient for street vender who sells fruit, vegetables, cloth and jewelers, electronics was **0.161, 0.267, 0.208, and 0.115** respectively. All appraise deliberate **relative equitable** income **distribution** amid all selling commodity cohorts; however, **the income** inequality within them is not equal. The income disparity of vegetables and cloth and jewelers seller respondents is higher than fruits and electronics counterparts, **See in the Appendix.**

4.5. Binary logistic regression with all independent variables

In this thesis, the IBM SPSS version 26 software was use to conduct logistic regression. Let us see what happened when we used all seven explanatory variables as predictors in our model. Before estimating the models, it was necessary to check for multicollinearity. The reason for this is that, if multicollinearity turns out to be significant, the simultaneous presence of the two variables was attenuate or reinforces the individual effects of these variables. The problem of multicollinearity was checked by variance inflation factor VIF (variance-inflating factor) based on the test for each variable was 1.38 (see Appendix Table 1.2) which is less than 10 then there is no multicollinearity problem (Gujarati, page 366).

Based on the "Case Processing Summary" output it is visible that 272 cases used (100 percent cases included).

Table4. 11 Case-Processing Summary

Case Processing Summary			
Unweighted Cases[a]		**N**	**Percent**
Selected Cases	**Included in Analysis**	**272**	**100.0**
	Missing Cases	**0**	**.0**
	Total	**272**	**100.0**
Unselected Cases		**0**	**.0**
Total		**272**	**100.0**
a. If weight is in effect, see classification table for the total number of cases.			

The case processing summary simply tells us about how many cases are included in our analysis. The dependent variable encoding reminds us how our outcome variable is encoded '0' for 'poor' and '1' for 'Non poor' (see Appendix Table 1.3: dependent variable encoding). The category is assigned the value zero is called the reference category. When interpreting results, all comparison made with references to this category (see Appendix Table 1.1: Table all variable categorical Tables).

Table4. 12 Classification Table (block model)

Classification Table[a,b]					
			Predicted		
			Poverty status of street vender in terms of expenditure		
	Observed		Poor	Non-poor	Percentage Correct
Step 0	Poverty status of street vender in terms of expenditure	Poor	244	0	100.0
		Non-poor	28	0	.0
	Overall Percentage				89.7
a. Constant is included in the model.					
b. The cut value is .500					

According to the above Table 4.12, the model with just the constant is a statistically significant predictor of the outcome. However, it is only accurate 89.7 percent of the time! The reason we can be so confident that our baseline model has some predictive power (better than just guessing).

4.5.1. Omnibus tests of model coefficients

The omnibus tests of model coefficients next Table give the result of the Likelihood Ratio (LR) test, which indicates whether the inclusion of this block of variables contributes significantly to model fit. A p-value (sig) of less than 0.05 for block means that the block 1 model is a significant improvement to the block 0 model.

Here the chi-square is highly significant (*chi-square=57.083, df=15, p<.001*) so our new model is significantly better. The *Sig.* values are $p < .001$, which indicates the accuracy of the model improves when we add our explanatory variables.

Table4. 13 Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficient

Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients				
		Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step 1	Step	57.083	15	.000
	Block	57.083	15	.000
	Model	57.083	15	.000

4.5.2. Model summary

Model summary has values shown in the next Table 4.14 indicate how good the model fits the data.

Table4. 14 Model Summary

Model Summary			
Step	**-2 Log likelihood**	**Cox & Snell R Square**	**Nagelkerke R Square**
1	**123.251[a]**	**.189**	**.391**
a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 20 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.			

In this summary -2 Log likelihood (goodness of fit test) is 123.251. By itself, this number (is not very informative) this statistic measures how poorly the model predicts the decisions (Karl L.Wuensch, 2014). The p-value for our overall model is less than 0.05, which means that null hypothesis rejected and there is evidence that at least one of the explanatory variables contributes to the prediction of the outcome.

Cox & Snell R square and Nagelkerke R square are both methods of calculating the explained variation. The Cox & Snell *R2* can be interpreted like *R2* in a multiple regression but cannot reach a maximum value of 1. The Nagelkerke R2 can reach a maximum of 1(Karl L.Wuensch, 2014). For our model, the explained variation ranges from 0.189 to 0.391 depending on whether we reference Cox & Snell R square or Nagelkerke R square, respectively. Nagelkerke R square is the modification of Cox & Snell R square and is more preferable to use. From the above Table 4.13, we can conclude that between 18.9 percent and 39.1 percent of the variation in poverty status of the street venders the model can explain situation. In our case, it is 0.391, indicating a moderately strong relationship of 39.1 percent between the predictors and the prediction.

Table4. 15 Classification Table

Classification Table[a]					
			Predicted		
			Poverty status of street vender in terms of expenditure		
	Observed		Poor	Non-poor	Percentage Correct
Step 1	Poverty status of street vender in terms of expenditure	Poor	239	5	98.0
		Non-poor	17	11	39.3
	Overall Percentage				91.9
a. The cut value is .500					

The classification Table 4.15 tells us how good the fitted model is for prediction purposes. Based on the previous Table 4.13 SPSS output result 272 street venders included in the analysis, 91.9 percent of them (or 239+11=250) classified correctly based on their characteristics.

This Table 4.15 is the equivalent to that in Block 0 (Appendix 1.4: Table) but is now based on the model that includes our explanatory variables. As you can see, our model is now correctly classifying the outcome for 91.9 percent of the cases compared to 89.7 percent in the null model.

4.5.3. Hosmer and Lemeshow Test

The Hosmer-Lemeshow test shown in the next Table 4.16 explores whether the predicted probabilities are the same as the observed probabilities. An overall goodness of fit of the model indicated by p-values > 0.05 (Hosmer and Lemeshow, 2000 pp 150). This model produced a significant difference between the observed and predicted probabilities indicating a poor model fit.

Table4. 16 Hosmer and Lemeshow Test

Hosmer and Lemeshow Test			
Step	Chi-square	Df	Sig.
1	2.310	8	.970

The null hypothesis of this test is that the model fits the data well. As can be seen from the Table4.15 the Chi-square test statistic is insignificant p-value 0.970 (as the p-value exceeds 5 percent). Thus, we can conclude that the model fits the data well.

Table4. 17 Variables in the Equation

Variables in the Equation							
		B	S.E.	Wald	Df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1[a]	Gender of street vender(1)	-.689	.397	3.009	1	.083***	.502
	Age of the street vender			8.241	2	.016**	
	Age of the street vender(1)	2.159	.781	7.654	1	.006*	8.667
	Age of the street vender(2)	.713	.434	2.703	1	.100	2.041
	Marital status of street vender(1)	-4.450	1.754	6.441	1	.011**	85.663
	Education of street vender			3.274	3	.351	
	Education of street vender (1)	-3.699	3.534	1.095	1	.295	.025
	Education of street vender (2)	-3.377	2.020	2.796	1	.095	.034
	Education of street vender (3)	-2.740	2.226	1.515	1	.218	.065
	Migration status of street vender(1)	-.904	.516	3.066	1	.080***	.405
	Household size			1.042	3	.791	
	Household size(1)	-.113	.865	.017	1	.896	1.119
	Household size(2)	-.525	1.020	.265	1	.607	1.691
	Household size(3)	-.668	1.433	.217	1	.641	.513
	Selling commodity			8.295	4	.081***	
	Selling commodity(1)	-1.554	.923	2.837	1	.092***	.211
	Selling commodity(2)	-3.273	1.156	8.019	1	.005*	.038
	Selling commodity(3)	-1.671	.788	4.495	1	.034**	.188
	Selling commodity(4)	-1.383	.981	1.987	1	.159	.251
	Year of selling			7.695	3	.174	
	Year of selling (1)	1.652	1.525	1.173	1	.279	5.215
	Year of selling (2)	.961	1.460	.433	1	.510	2.615
	Year of selling (3)	1.161	1.411	.678	1	.410	3.194
	Constant	-.036	2.921	.000	1	.990	.965

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Gender of street vender, Age of the street vender, Marital status of street vender, Education of street vender, Migration status of street vender, Household size, Selling commodity and years of selling.

Source: Model output

*** Significant at 10 percent; ** Significant at 5 percent; * Significant at 1 percent

4.5.4. Interpretation of the model

The above Table4.20 provides the regression coefficient (B), the Wald statistic (to test the statistical significance) and the all-important Odds Ratio (Exp (B)) for each variable category. If the odds ratio Exp (B) is less than one (i.e., the estimated regression coefficient is negative), then this means that the odds (or the likelihood) of being poor is higher for the reference category. If Exp (B) is greater than one, then the odds are higher for a particular category as compared to the reference category.

1. **Gender**

The variable gender of the street venders is significant at the 10 percent level of significance (p-value 0.083). The odds ratio for gender of street venders (1) is 0.502 since the coding gender (1) refers to the street venders are male. The reference category gender (0) refers to the street venders who are female. Thus, the odds of being poor are 49.8 percent (0.498=1-0.502) higher for the street venders who are female as compared to the street venders who are male, keeping all other covariates constant.

2. **Age**

The variable age situation is significant at the 1 percent level of significance (p-value 0.006). The odds for the age (1) is 8.667 since the coding age (1) refers to the street venders who are the age between 18 to 29 years old. The reference category age (0) refers to the street venders on the age below 18 years old and the Exp (B) is greater than one. The implication is that the street venders who are the age between 18 to 29 years old are 8.667 times more likely being poor as compared to the street venders who are below 18 years old, keeping all other covariates constant.

3. **Marital status**

The variable marital status of the street vender is significant at the 5 percent level of significance (p-value 0.011). The odds ratio for the marital status (1) is 85 since the coding marital status (1) refers to the street venders who are married. The reference category marital status (0) refers to the street venders who are single and Exp (B) is greater than one the implication is that the household who are married in the street vender is 85 times more likely being poor as compared

to the street venders who are living alone, keeping all other covariates constant. These findings are not consistent with those of (White and Rodgers, 2000) marriage reduces the risk of falling into poverty and unmarried individuals and single-parent families are more likely to be poor than their married counterparts. In economic terms, since marriage generally adds a potential earner to the household, it seems obvious that marriage should increase the economic well-being of members of the family, including the children.

4. Migration status

The variable migration status is significant at the 10 percent level of significance (p-value 0.080) and has odds ratio equals to 0.405. The reference category is street venders migrate from other areas. Thus, the odds of being poor are 59.5 percent (=1-0.405) higher for the street venders who migrate for new job from other areas as compared to the street venders born in the research area, keeping all other covariates constant.

5. Selling commodity

The variable selling commodity is significant at the 10 percent level of significance (p-value 0.081). The category selling commodity (1) (selling vegetables) is significant at 10 percent level (p-value 0.092) and an odds ratio equals to 0.211. The reference category is street venders who are selling fruits. Thus, the odds of being poor are 78.9 percent (=1-0.211) higher for the street venders who are selling fruits as compared to the street venders who are selling vegetables, keeping all other covariates constant.

The category selling commodity (2) (selling cloth and jewelries) is significant at 1 percent level (p-value 0.005) and has an odds ratio equals to 0.038. The reference category is street venders who are selling fruits. Thus, the odds of being poor are 96.2 percent (=1-0.038) higher for the street venders who are selling fruits as compared to the street venders who are selling cloth and jewelries, keeping all other covariates constant.

The category selling commodity (3) (selling electronics) is significant at 5 percent level (p-value 0.034) and has an odds ratio equals to 0.188. The reference category is street venders who are selling fruits. Thus, the odds of being poor are 96.6 percent (=1-0.034) higher for the street

venders who are selling fruits as compared to the street venders who are electronics, keeping all other covariates constant.

However, there is no statistically significant evidence as whether the educational level, household size and year of selling in Mizan-Aman towns affects the street vender poverty status.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND POLICY RECOMMENDATION

5.1. Summary

In this study, an attempt has been made to explore the demographic and socio economic Impact of Street Vending on Urban Streets Vender Households' Welfare in Mizan-Aman town, the Benchi Maji Zone of the Southern Nations, Nationalities and People Region. The survey is cross sectional and also descriptive and explanatory research design was used, and largely used primary data obtained through conducting household survey. In order to assess the Impact of Street Vending on Urban Streets Vender Households' Welfare, data on the determinant of street vender were collected from 272 respondents (street vender). The information captured using the household questionnaires (from February first up to march first 2019 for one month) which covered demographic data, economic activity, and employment, sources of income, housing situation, and monthly expenditure (health, education, rent fee, food and non-food) during the last 12 months, employment earnings and regular payments (monthly). Data collecting period spend 2 months including enumerator orientation. The sample was selected by using Cochran's Sample Size Formula and the data were analyzed by using descriptive and econometrics methods.

5.2. Conclusion

The distribution of sample respondents by sex shows that 51.1 percent of the respondents were found female and 48.9 percent were male. Out of the total 272 respondents 72.4 percent (197 respondents) are involve on street trade on their economic active age, which means on the age of between 18 to 29 years old. With regard to educational level of respondents, in Mizan town, 93 percent street vender respondents were under secondary school education level. Regarding marital status of street vender, 46.7 percent of respondents are married and 53.3 percent were single or never married. The 46.68 percent single respondents are poor on their expenditure status and the 54.3 percent married couples were poor. The migration status of the respondent demonstrate that 82 percent are moving to Mizan-Aman towns to searching jobs and involve on street trade sector but only18 native people who are living in Mizan-Amans town since their

birth date are engage on street trade. Data on household size was also observed that 14.7 percent of the respondents are living alone, 23.2 percent of the respondents had household sizes of 2-3 members, 29.4 percent had 3-4 members and 32.7 percent had more than 4 members, respectively. For the questioned why the street vender choose to join street vending rather than doing something else 66.9 percent of respondents involve on street vending considering as basic employment sector. The current street venders in Mizan-Aman town both female and males were students (62.5 percent) and 23.5 percent respondents were unemployed. The majority (55.5 percent) of the street venders earned less than 36,500 birr per year. Based on the survey data 53.3 percent of street venders both females and males are prefer to sell cloths and jewelry and 15.8 percent respondents wants to sell fruit to get enough profit based on the market demand. Saving is difficult decision in the poor household's situation but 86 percent of the total street vender respondents had saving portfolio based on their income proportion. Concerning the poverty status of street venders in terms of their expenditure, 89.7(243 respondent) percent of the respondents were found poor and 10.3(29 respondent) percent were non poor at the time of survey.

The differentials of street vender's poverty status were also analyzed in relation to determinant variables using cross tabulation analysis. As far as sex is concerned, females were at disadvantage in their poverty status. When compared with male, the percentage of poor (45.22 percent) female was higher. High poor was observed among migrant respondent (73.16 percent) than non-migrant respondents. With regard to street vender educational level, respondents who had primary and secondary level of education were poor. Street vender who are in between 18-29 and 30-40 were poor than others who are below 18 and above 40. In relation to household size, being poor was higher among street vender who had household size 2-3,3-4 and above 4 compared to others who live alone. The sample respondents who had Average annual income of less than 36500 birr were poor.

The multivariate analysis shows that five of the independent variables found they are significantly determine the probability of being poor. Those are gender, age, marital status, migration status, and selling commodity influence the probability being poor whereas, there is no statistically significant evidence as whether the educational level, household size and year of selling of the street venders in Mizan-Aman towns affects the street vender poverty status.

The result of the econometric model indicate that being poor are 49.8 percent (0.498=1-0.502) higher for the street venders who are female as compared to the street venders who are male. The age between 18 to 29 years old are 8.667 times more likely being poor as compared to the street venders who are below 18 years old. Being poor are 85 times higher for the street venders who are married as compared to single. Street venders who are selling vegetables is 78.9 percent (=1-0.211) higher for the street venders who are selling fruits as compared to the street venders who are selling vegetables, being poor are 59.5 percent (=1-0.405) higher for the street venders who migrate for new job from other areas as compared to the street venders born in the research area. However, there is no statistically significant evidence as whether the educational level, household size and year of selling in Mizan-Aman towns affects the street vender poverty status.

5.3. Policy Recommendation

In urban center lack of adequate job, extreme rapid population growth, rural-urban migration from all over the country, poor education system, income inequality, shortage of land and sever corruption problem most residents, as a result there is a huge gap on income distribution and poverty status basically on street venders in Mizan-Aman town..

Availability of enough strategy and open trade place for the large number of youths and females of urban population is the main point to which the government and every stakeholder have to give attention. The results and analyses above suggest that policy interventions are necessary to reduce poverty status and vulnerability of sever poverty in Mizan-Aman town and southern region in general.

The descriptive results of the study indicate that there is no difference between being poor and the education ladder. Government and private company human resource focuses related to only experience, there is huge number of illiterate, migrant, females, youths, new graduates, less job opportunities and minimum wage rate, so necessary action from town administration expect to change the situation through new reform on labor intensive sectors and regulation in organization selection system to converge education status with each vacancy.

1. The descriptive results of the study indicate the 46.68 percent single respondents are poor on their expenditure status and the 54.3 percent married couples were poor then that marital status has impact to get much more income than street venders who are single or never

married. The results of the study indicate that marital status of the household head significantly and positively affects the household status of being poor the situation related to generating single income source (either from husband or wife) and the possibility of having children, so necessary action from city administration expect to diversified employment opportunity (basically for women's) to solve such kind of problems also the town administration must have to give concern for young male and female through providing job and income means even through micro and small-scale enterprises to improve their creativity and living conditions.

2. The cross tabulation of the study also shows that, since sex is concerned, females were at disadvantage in their poverty status. When compared with male, the percentage of poor (45.22 percent) female was higher. Therefore, governments should ensure that women are free to participate in the labour force and are neither restricted from, nor forced to participate in, the labour force for reasons of demographic policy or cultural tradition. Further, the biological role of women in the reproductive process should in no way be used as a reason for limiting women's right to work. Governments should take the initiative in removing any existing barriers to the realization of that right and should create opportunities and conditions such that activities outside the home can be combined with child-rearing and household activities.
3. The descriptive analysis also shows that high poor was observed among migrant respondent (73.16 percent) than non-migrant respondents. Hence, rural development programs should be primarily directed towards increasing rural production and efficiency, raising rural incomes and improving social conditions and rural welfare, particularly for small peasant producers and rural women. Governments should therefore improve the accessibility of basic social services and amenities to scattered populations, regularize land ownership, facilitate access to credit, new technology and other needed inputs, and adopt pricing policies geared to the needs of smallholders. Appropriate measures must be taken to carry out agrarian reform as one of the important factors which increase agricultural production and promote the development of rural areas, hence reducing rural urban migration in the town.
4. The study recommends that the concerned bodies should try to improve the employment opportunities to rural in order to reduce rural-urban migration. Because migrants are more likely, create huge labor force in urban center.

5. Moreover, the study recommended that the concerned bodies should try to create suitable environment condition through identify employment opportunities.
6. Finally, the government should be facilitate formalization of familiar employment sector to motivate more street venders to engage in different activities and increase the availability of startup capital for business areas and provision of practical training for urban street venders to be engaged at their own business. which reduce the problem of street vending especially on skilled and educated youth in urban areas and efforts should be made to increase the availability of initial working capital, the identification of profitable (market gap) business areas and provision of practical training for urban street venders to be engaged at their own business.

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APPENDIXS

Appendix A. Survey Instrument

The Structured Questionnaire of the study participant

Introduction to the respondent:

This questionnaire is design by a postgraduate student in the Department of Economics, Jimma University to collect require primary data so as to undertake a study entitled **as 'The Impact of Street vending on urban street venders Households Welfare: A case of Mizan Town, SNNPR, Ethiopia'** in 2020. Your responses will be kept confidential and have a great deal of importance increasing the accuracy and reliability of the study so as to draw policy recommendations.

Firenesh Birhanu

Thanks a lot!

NB. Circle the relevant option and fill the specific information

I. Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

1. Sex 0= female 1= Male
2. Age
   0=under 18 year 1= 18-29 years old 2 = 30-40 years old 3= Above 51 years old
3. Marital status
   0= ever married (includes currently married, divorced, widowed and separated)
   1= never married (single).
4. Migration status

   0= migrant 1= non-migrant
5. Education Status
   0=illiterate 1= primary (1-8) 2= secondary (9-12) 3= above secondary education (includes college, university level education)

Section II: Family status

6. Family size _____
7. What is your family education status
   0=illiterate 1= primary (1-8) 2= secondary (9-12) 3= above secondary education (includes college, university level education)
8. What is your family employment sector?
   0 = own business employed 1 = Government employed 2= privately employed

3 = NGO employed 4 = unemployed

9. What category best describes your total family monthly income (In Birr)? 1 = ≤ 1590
   0 = 3501-5000 1= 5001-7500 2 = 7501-9000 3 = >9501
10. What is family source of income? (More than one answer is possible).
    1=Salary 2= Rent 3= from relatives 4= other (pension)

Section III: Socio-economic characteristics

11. Who push you to join street vending business?
    0= Friend 1= Family 2= Relatives 3= other people
12. Why did you choose to join street vending rather than doing something else?
    0=Lack of formal employment
    1=I am too old
    2=It gives me better income/higher profits than other products or services
    3=to supplement the income that I earn else where
    4= I prefer to work for myself (sense of independency)
    5=No options are available than selling on street
    6=It is the profession that I know
    7= Family tradition
    8= other (specify) _____
13. What did you do before you join street vending business?
    0=I was student
    1=I was farmer
    2=I was unemployed
    3=I was worker
14. How much year did you stay in this business?
    0= < 1 year
    1= 2-3 years
    2= 3-4 years
    3=above 4 years
15. What type of good you sell in the street?
    0=fruits
    1=vegetables
    2=cloth and jewelries
    3=electronics
    4= other (specify)
16. What type of is more profitable?
    0=fruits
    1=vegetables
    2=cloth and jewelries

3=electronics
4= other (specify)

17. Which operational **time** is more favorable to sale goods?
    0=morning
    1=afternoon
    2=night
18. Which operational **day** is more favorable to sale goods?
    0=Monday
    1=Tuesday
    2=Wednesday
    3=Thursday
    4=Friday
    5=Saturday
    6=Sunday
19. Which **age group** mostly purchase from you?
    0=young
    1=adult
    2=elders
    3=both young and elders
20. Which **Gender group** mostly purchase from you?
    0=female
    1=male
    2=both
21. Did the working condition of street vending if good?
    0=Yes 1= No
22. If your answer for question 21 is **yes** why?
    0= it makes me to have job
    1= it makes me to have better income
    2= being able to know different people
    3=other (specify) _____
23. If your answer for question 21 is **No** why?
    0=the income is not good
    1=the working condition is not safe
    2=there is respect from peoples
    3=prohibition of government
    4=other (specify) _____
24. What is your average monthly income from the business?
    0= <=100 Birr
    1=100-200 Birr
    2=201-300 Birr

3=301-400 Birr
4= 401-500 Birr
5= above 500 Birr

25. Your average monthly expense for **food**?
    0= <= 450 Birr
    1= 451-1000 Birr
    2= 1001-1500 Birr
    3= 1501-2000 Birr
    4= above 2001 Birr
26. Your average monthly expense for **house rent**?
    0= <=200 Birr
    1= 201-500 Birr
    2= 501-1000 Birr
    3= 1001-1500 Birr
    4= 1501-2000 Birr
    5= above 2001 Birr
27. Your average annual expense for **cloth**?
    0= <= 450 Birr
    1= 451-1000 Birr
    2= 1001-1500 Birr
    3= 1501-2000 Birr
    4= above 2001 Birr
28. Your average monthly expense for **education**?
    0= <=200 Birr
    1= 201-500 Birr
    2= 501-1000 Birr
    3= 1001-1500 Birr
    4= 1501-2000 Birr
    5= above 2001 Birr
29. Did you save money?
    0= Yes 1= No
30. If your answer for question 29 is yes, which type of saving method do you use?
    0= bank
    1= ikub
    2= home
    3= other (specify) _____
31. How much do you save monthly?
    0= below 500 Birr
    1= 500-1000 Birr
    2= 1000-2000 Birr

3= above 2000 Birr

32. Asset accumulation

Furniture and household durables	Yes=1	No=0
Television		
Satellite dish		
Refrigerator		
Sofa set		
Closet (‘kumsatin’)		
Stove		
Beds (wooden/metal)		

33. Do you want to be out of this business?
    0= Yes 1= No
34. If your answer for question 33 is yes, what is to be done to be out of this business?
    0=government has to be inform us about other type of jobs
    1= training has to be given about entrepreneurship
    2=credit access
    3= space should be provided
    4= other (specify) _____
35. If your answer for question 33 is No, why?
    0= the income is good
    1= the working condition good to me
    2=other (specify) _____

Thank you!!!

If you have other suggestion please specify _____-
_____
_____

Email address: birhanfre15@gmail.com

የጅማ ዩኒቨርሲቲ

ቢዝነስ እና ኢኮኖሚክ ኮሌጅ

በኢኮኖሚክ ት/ት ክፍል

መንገድ ላይ ለሚሸጡ ነጋዴች መረጃ መሰብሰቢያ መጠይቅ

ውድ የጥናቱ ተሳታፊ,

ይህ ዳሰሳ ጥናት መጠይቅ በደቡብ ክልል ሚዛን አማን ከተማ አስተዳደር ውስጥ በሚኖሩ መንገድ ላይ በሚሸጡ ሰዎች ዙሪያ የተዘጋጀበት ዓላማ በከተማችን የመንገድ ላይ ንግድ ምን ያህል ነጋዴዎችን ከድህነት እያወጣ ይገኛል ወይስ አይደለም የሚለውን ለማወቅና ችግሮችን ቀርፎ የተሻለ ሥራ ለመስራት እንዲያስችል ነው፡፡ ለዚህም ይረዳን ዘንድ ይህን መጠይቅ አዘጋጅተናል፡፡ ስለሆነም ለዳሰሳ ጥናቱ ውጤት ማማርና መፍትሄ ለማምጣት እርስዎ የሚሰጡት መረጃ ትልቅ አስተዋጽኦ ስላለው እባክዎ በኃላፊነትና በጥንቃቄ ይሙሉት፡፡

በመጨረሻም ሁለንም ጥያቄዎች በመሙላት እንዲሳተፉ ትብብርዎን እየጠየቅን የሚሰጡንን ማንኛውንም መረጃ ሆነ አስተያየት ሚስጥራዊነቱን በመጠበቅ ለዳሰሳ ጥናት አገልግሎት ብቻ የሚውል ይሆናል፡፡

ማሳሰቢያ፡- ከዚህ በታች ለተዘረዘሩት የተለያዩ ጥያቄዎች በተቀመጠላቸው መስፈርት መሠረት ለእያንዳንዱ ጥያቄ ማግኘት የሚገባውን የ "√ " ምልክት በማድረግ የተለመደውን ትብብርዎን እንዲሰጡን እንጠይቃለን፡፡

የመጠይቅ ቁጥር _____

የመረጃው ሰብሳቢ ስም _____ፊርማ_____

መረጃው በትክክል መሞላቱን ያረጋገጠው ኃላፊ ስም _____ፊርማ——

ለፍቃደኝነትዎ በቅዴሚያ እናመሰግናለን!

እባክዎትን ተከታዮቹን ጥያቄዎች ይሙሉ

ክፍል አንዴ: አጠቃላይ መረጃ

1. ጸታ ሴት ☐ ወንድ ☐

2. እድሜ ከ 18 አመት በታች ☐ 18-29 አመት ☐ 30-40 አመት ☐

ከ41 አመት በላይ ☐

3. የጋቢቻ ሁኔታ

ያገባ ☐ ያላገባ ☐ የተፋታ ☐ አግብቶ የሞተበት ☐ ሌላ ☐

4. ማንበብና መጻፍ ትችላለህ/ሽ/? አዎ ☐ አልችልም ☐

5. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 4 መልስዎ አዎ ከሆነ የትምህርት ደረጃ?

ከ1-8ክፍል ☐ ከ9-12 ክፍል ☐ ዲፕሎማ ☐ ድግሪ ☐ በላይ ☐

6. የሚዛን ከተማ ነዋሪኖት አዎ ☐ አደለሁም ☐

7. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 6 መልሶ አዎ ከሆነ ሚዛን ከተማ ላይ ለምን ያህል ዓመት ኖሩ?

ከተወለድኩጀምሮ☐ 1 ዓመትበታች ☐ ከ1-3 ዓመት☐ ከ3-5 ዓመ ☐ ሌላ ☐

ክፍል ሁልት፡ የቤተሰብ አስተዳዳሪ ሁኔታ

8. የቤተሰብ ብዛት----------

9. የቤተሰቡ አስተዳዳሪ ማን ነው?

አባት ☐ እናት ☐ እህት ☐ ወንድም ☐ እኔ ☐ ሌላ ☐

10. እርሶ በቤተሰቡ ውስጥ ያሎት ድርሻ?

አባወራ ☐ እማወራ ☐ የቤተሰብ አባል ☐ ሌላ ☐

11. የቤተሰቡ አስተዳዳሪ ማንበብና መጻፍ ይችላል?

አዎ ☐ አይችልም ☐

12. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 11 መልስዎ አዎ ከሆነ የትምህርት ደረጃ?

ከ1-8ክፍል ☐ ከ9-12 ክፍል ☐ ዲፕሎማ ☐ ድግሪ ☐ በላይ ☐

13. የቤተሰብ አስተዳዳሪ የስራ ሁኔታ?

ሰራተኛ ☐ ስራ አጥ ☐ ጡረተኛ ☐ ሌላ ☐

14. መልሶዎ "ሰራተኛ " የሚለው ከሆነ የቤተሰብ አስተዳዳሪው የሚሰሩበት የስራ ዘርፍ?

የግል ስራ ☐ የመንግስት ሰራተኛ ☐ የግል ድርጅት ሰራተኛ ☐ መንገድ ላይ መሸጥ ☐ አርሶ አደር ☐ ሌላ ☐

15. ከበተሰቦ አባል በዝህ ስራ የተሳተፈ? አለ ☐ የለም ☐

16. የቤተሰቡ አስተዳዳሪ የገቢ መጠን በወር?

1590 ብር በታች ☐ ከ1600-3500ብር ☐ ከ3501-5000ብር ☐

ከ5001-7500ብር ☐ ከ7501-9500ብር ☐ ከ9501ብር በላይ ☐

ክፍል ሦስት፡ ማህበራዊ እና ኢኮኖሚያዊ ጉዳዮች

17. ይህንን ስራ የጀመሩት ማንን አይተው ነው?

ጓደኛየን ☐ ቤተሰቦቸን ☐ ሌሎች ሰዎችን ☐ ሌላ ☐

18. በመንገድ ላይ ንግድ እንዲሳተፉ ምን አነሳሳዎት? (ከአንዴ በላይ መልስ መመለስ ይቻላል)

የተሻለ የስራ እዴል ማግኘት ባለመቻሌ ☐

ሰዎች ሲሰሩ በማየቴ ☐

ለግዜው መቆያ እንድሆነኝ ☐

አቅመ ደካማ ስለሆንኩ ☐

ከሌላው ስራ የተሻለ ገቢ/ ትርፍ ስለማገኝበት ☐

እራሴን ለማሳደግ (እራሴን ለመቻል) ☐

ሌላ አማራጭ ስሌሌኝ ☐

የማውቀው ስራ ይሄ ብቻ ስለሆኔ ☐

ሌላ ☐

19. መንገድ ላይ መሸጥ ከመጀመሮ በፊት ምን አይነት ስራ ይሰሩ ነበር

ተማሪ ነበረኩ □

አርሶ አደር ነበርኩ □

ስራ አጥ ነበርኩ □

ሠራተኛ ነበርኩ □

ሌላ □

20. መንገድ ላይ መሸጥ ከጀመሩ ምን ያህል ዓመት ሆኖት?

ከ1 ዓመት በታች □ ከ1-3 ዓመት □ ከ3 ዓመት በላይ □

21. የሚሸጡት ምን አይነት እቃ ነው?

ፍራፍሬ □ አትክልት □ ልብስ እና ጌጣጌጥ □ የኤሌክትሮንክስ እቃዎች □

ሌሎች አይነቶች ካለ እባክዎን ይጥቀሱ_____

22. ምን አይነት ምርት መሸጥ የተሻለ ትርፍ አለው ብለው ያስባለ?

ፍራፍሬ □ አትክልት □ ልብስ እና ጌጣጌጥ □ የኤሌክትሮንክስ እቃዎች □

ሌሎች አይነቶች ካለ እባክዎን ይጥቀሱ_____

23. ከፍተኛ ሽያጭ ያሎት መቼ ነው?

በሀይማኖት በዓላት □ በአዘቦት □

24. የትኛው ወር የተሻለ ሽያጭ አለው ብለው ያስባለ? ---------- (ከአንድ በላይ ወር መጥቀስ ይችላለ)

25. የትኛው ወር የተሻለ ሽያጭ የለውም ብለው ያስባለ? ---------- (ከአንድ በላይ ወር መጥቀስ ይችላለ.)

26. የትኛው ወቅት የተሻለ ገበያ አለው ብለው ያስባለ?

በጋ □ ፀዮይ □ መህር □ ክረምት □

27. የትኛው ቀን የተሻለ ሽያጭ አለው ብለው ያስባለ?

ሰኞ □ ማክሰኞ □ ረቡዕ □ ሐሙስ □ ዓርብ □ ቅዳሜ □ እሁዴ □

28. የትኛው ሰዓት የተሻለ ሽያጭ አለው ብለው ያስባለ?

ጠዋት □ ከሰዓት □ ማታ □

29. የትኛው የእድሜ ክልል ያለ ሰው በብዛት ይገዛዎታል?

ወጣት □ ጎልማሳ □ አዛውንት □

30. የትኛው ጾታ በብዛት ይገዛዎታል?

ሴት □ ወንድ □

31. መንገድ ላይ መሸጥ ጥሩ ነው ብለው ያስባለ?

አዎ □ አይደለም □

32. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 31 መልሶ አዎ ከሆነ ለምን?

ስራ እንዲኖረኝ አድርጓል □

የተሻለ ገቢ እንዲኖረኝ አድርጓል □

ከሰዎች ጋር እንድተዋወቅ አድርጎኛል □

ሌላ □

33. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 31 መልሶ አይደለም ከሆነ ለምን?

ገቢው ጥሩ ስላልሆነ □

የስራ ሁኔታው ጥሩ ስላልሆነ □

ሰዎች ስለማያከብሩን □

መንግስት ስለማይፈቅድልን □

ሌላ □

34. መንገድ ላይ በመነገድዎ ምን ያህል ገቢ በቀን ያገኛለ?

100ብር በታች □ ከ100-200ብር □ ከ201-300ብር □

ከ301-400ብር □ ከ401-500ብር □ ከ500ብር በላይ □

35. ወርሀዊ ለምግብ የሚያወጡት ወጪ በብር?

ከ450 በታች ☐ ከ451 — 1000 ☐ ከ1001 — 1500 ☐

ከ1501 — 2000 ☐ ከ 2001 በላይ ☐

36. ለቤት ኪራይ የሚያወጡት ወርሀዊ ወጪ?

ከ 200 በታች ☐ ከ201 — 500 ☐ ከ501 — 1000 ☐

ከ1001 — 1500 ☐ ከ 1501 — 2000 ☐ ከ 2001 በላይ ☐

37. ለልብስ የሚያወጡት አመታዊ ወጪ?

ከ1000በታች ☐ ከ1001 — 1500 ☐ከ1501 — 2000 ☐

ከ 2001 በላይ☐

38. ይሄን ስራ እየሰሩ ይማራለ?

እማራለሁ ☐ አልማርም ☐

39. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 38 መልሶ እማራለሁ ከሆነ ለትምህርት ቤት የሚያወጡት ወርሀው ወጪ?

ከ 200 በታች ☐ ከ201 — 500 ☐ ከ501 — 1000 ☐

ከ1001 — 1500 ☐ ከ 1501 — 2000 ☐ ከ 2001 በላይ ☐

40. ይቆጥባሉ?

እቆጥባለሁ ☐ አልቆጥብም ☐

41. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 40 መልሶ እቆጥባለሁ ከሆነ የሚጠቀሙት የቁጠባ ዘዳ?

ባንክ ☐ እቁብ ☐ ቤቴ አስቀምጣለሁ ☐ ለላ ☐

42. በወር ውስጥ ስንት ይቆጥባሉ?

500- 1000 ብር ☐

1000-2000ብር ☐

2000 ብር በላይ ☐

43. ያጠራቀሙት (ያከማቹት) ዋጋ ያለው ንብረት

የቤት እና የቤቴሰብ ዘላቅ እቃ	አለኝ	የለኝም
ቴሌቪዥን		
ሳቴላይት ድሽ		
ማቀዝቀዣ(ፍርጅ)		
ሶፋ		
ቁምሳጥን		
ስቶቭ		
አልጋ (የእንፌት ስራ ቁሳቁሶች)		

44. ከመንገድ ላይ ንግድ መላቀቅ ይፈልጋለ?

አዎ □ በጭራሽ □

45. ከመንገድ ላይ ንግድ ለመላቀቅ ምን ቢደረግ ጥሩ ነው ብለው ያስባለ?

ስለ ሌሎች ስራ መረጃ ቢሰጠን □

የስራ ፈጠራ ስልጠና ቢሰጠን □

የስራ እድለን መንግስት ቢፈጥር □

ብድር ቢቀርብልን □

ቦታ ቢዘጋጅልን

ሌሎች □

46.ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 44 መልሶ በጭራሽ ከሆነ ለምን?

ገቢው ጥሩ ስለሆነ □

የስራ ሁኔታው ስለተመቸኝ□

ሌላ□

ተጨማሪ አስተያየት ካሎት አባክሆን ያስቀምጡልን----------

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Appendix B Percentage distribution of socio economic characteristics of the respondents

Appendix C Annex to the logistic regression results

AppendixTable1. 1 Categorical Variables Coding

Categorical Variables Codings						
			Parameter coding			
		Frequency	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Selling commodity	Fruits	43	1.000	.000	.000	.000
	vegetables	26	.000	1.000	.000	.000
	cloth and jewelry	145	.000	.000	1.000	.000
	electronics	30	.000	.000	.000	1.000
	Others	28	.000	.000	.000	.000
Education of street vender	Illiterate	8	1.000	.000	.000	
	1-8	148	.000	1.000	.000	
	9-12	105	.000	.000	1.000	
	Tertiary level	11	.000	.000	.000	
Household size	if 1	40	1.000	.000	.000	
	2-3	63	.000	1.000	.000	
	3-4	80	.000	.000	1.000	
	above 4	89	.000	.000	.000	
Age of the street vender	below 18 year	28	1.000	.000		
	18-29 year	197	.000	1.000		
	30-40 year	47	.000	.000		
Migration status of street vender	Migrant	224	1.000			
	non-migrant	48	.000			
Marital status of street vender	Single	145	1.000			
	Married	127	.000			
Gender of street vender	Female	139	1.000			
	Male	133	.000			

AppendixTable1. 2 Multicollinearity result

Coefficients[a]								
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.031	.083		.375	.708		
	Gender of street vender	-.092	.044	-.152	-2.094	.037	.596	1.679
	Age of the street vender	.135	.042	.231	3.231	.001	.615	1.625
	Marital status of street vender	-.190	.040	-.311	-4.766	.000	.737	1.358
	Education of street vender	.060	.029	.123	2.107	.036	.923	1.084
	Migration status	-.006	.047	-.008	-.133	.895	.899	1.112
	Household size	-.030	.019	-.105	-1.645	.101	.764	1.309
	Selling commodity	.032	.019	.117	1.698	.091	.658	1.519
a. Dependent Variable: Poverty status of street vender in terms of expenditure								

AppendixTable1. 3 Dependent Variable Encoding

Dependent Variable Encoding	
Original Value	**Internal Value**
Poor	**0**
non-poor	**1**

AppendixTable1. 4 Classification Table (block model)

Classification Table[a,b]					
			Predicted		
			Poverty status of street vender in terms of expenditure		
	Observed		Poor	Non-poor	Percentage Correct
Step 0	Poverty status of street vender in terms of expenditure	Poor	244	0	100.0
		Non-poor	28	0	.0
	Overall Percentage				89.7
a. Constant is included in the model.					
b. The cut value is .500					

AppendixTable1.5. Contingency Table for Hosmer and Lemeshow Test

Contingency Table for Hosmer and Lemeshow Test						
		Poverty status of street vender in terms of expenditure = poor		Poverty status of street vender in terms of expenditure = non-poor		
		Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	Total
Step 1	1	28	28.000	0	.000	28
	2	27	26.973	0	.027	27
	3	26	25.939	0	.061	26
	4	29	28.840	0	.160	29
	5	29	29.367	1	.633	30
	6	25	24.210	1	1.790	26
	7	24	25.333	5	3.667	29
	8	24	25.058	6	4.942	30
	9	25	23.282	4	5.718	29
	10	7	6.998	11	11.002	18

AppendixTable1. 5 Inequality measure of annual income if GEN=female

Inequality measure of annual income if GEN=female	
Relative mean deviation	.13947753
Coefficient of variation	.41411586
Standard deviation of logs	.31749168
Gini coefficient	.17525111
Mehran measure	.21389849
Piesch measure	.15592742
Kakwani measure	.03675686
Theil entropy measure	.06942405
Theil mean log deviation measure	.05955625

AppendixTable1. 6 Inequality measure of annual income if GEN=male

Inequality measure of annual income if GEN=male	
Relative mean deviation	.21061548
Coefficient of variation	.55267188
Standard deviation of logs	.23687951
Gini coefficient	.28853039
Mehran measure	.21105407
Piesch measure	.06580874
Kakwani measure	.12415853
Theil entropy measure	.12415853

Theil mean log deviation measure	.10775277

AppendixTable1. 7 Inequality measure of annual income if MS=single

Inequality measure of annual income if MS=single	
Relative mean deviation	.2007816
Coefficient of variation	.54373985
Standard deviation of logs	.42035815
Gini coefficient	.23528759
Mehran measure	.28601903
Piesch measure	.20992187
Kakwani measure	.06407614
Theil entropy measure	.12061282
Theil mean log deviation measure	.10496946

AppendixTable1. 8 Inequality measure of annual income if MS=married

Inequality measure of annual income if MS=married	
Relative mean deviation	.13395327
Coefficient of variation	.41444524
Standard deviation of logs	.31262330
Gini coefficient	.17142314
Mehran measure	.20930176
Piesch measure	.15248383
Kakwani measure	.03604602
Theil entropy measure	.06866538
Theil mean log deviation measure	.05830807

AppendixTable1. 9 Inequality measure of annual income if MIGS=migrant

Inequality measure of annual income if MIGS=migrant	
Relative mean deviation	.18197941
Coefficient of variation	.50616881
Standard deviation of logs	.38143999
Gini coefficient	.21144996
Mehran measure	.25414399
Piesch measure	.19010294
Kakwani measure	.05404969
Theil entropy measure	.10294265
Theil mean log deviation measure	.08787807

AppendixTable1. 10 Inequality measure of annual income if MIGS=non-migrant

Inequality measure of annual income if MIGS=non-migrant	
Relative mean deviation	.15183561
Coefficient of variation	.45140361
Standard deviation of logs	.33950436
Gini coefficient	.18914908
Mehran measure	.23548686
Piesch measure	.16598019
Kakwani measure	.04163096
Theil entropy measure	.07972560
Theil mean log deviation measure	.06779382

AppendixTable1. 11 Inequality measure of annual income if EDU=illiterate

Inequality measure of annual income if EDU=illiterate	
Relative mean deviation	.11820331
Coefficient of variation	.31432525
Standard deviation of logs	.28300356
Gini coefficient	.14657210
Mehran measure	.19490413
Piesch measure	.12240609
Kakwani measure	.02329634
Theil entropy measure	.04055236
Theil mean log deviation measure	.03821477

AppendixTable1. 12 Inequality measure of annual income if EDU=literate

Inequality measure of annual income if EDU=literate	
Relative mean deviation	.17857826
Coefficient of variation	.50063442
Standard deviation of logs	.37729521
Gini coefficient	.21107017
Mehran measure	.25494157
Piesch measure	.18913446
Kakwani measure	.05280630
Theil entropy measure	.10064530
Theil mean log deviation measure	.08590393

AppendixTable1. 13 Inequality measure of annual income if SAVING=yes

Inequality measure of annual income if SAVING=yes	
Relative mean deviation	.18782128
Coefficient of variation	.49915586
Standard deviation of logs	.39028643
Gini coefficient	.22162811
Mehran measure	.27394062
Piesch measure	.19547186
Kakwani measure	.05476562
Theil entropy measure	.10259493
Theil mean log deviation measure	.08963543

AppendixTable1. 14 Inequality measure of annual income if SAVING=no

Inequality measure of annual income if SAVING=no	
Relative mean deviation	0
Coefficient of variation	0
Standard deviation of logs	0
Gini coefficient	0
Mehran measure	0
Piesch measure	0
Kakwani measure	.4.799e.08
Theil entropy measure	0
Theil mean log deviation measure	0

AppendixTable1. 15 Inequality measure of annual income if SC=fruit

Inequality measure of annual income if SC=fruit	
Relative mean deviation	.13750871
Coefficient of variation	.31664579
Standard deviation of logs	.29563653
Gini coefficient	.16153661
Mehran measure	.22224900
Piesch measure	.13118040
Kakwani measure	.02691484
Theil entropy measure	.04626958
Theil mean log deviation measure	.04716370

AppendixTable1. 16 Inequality measure of annual income if SC=vegetables

Inequality measure of annual income if SC=vegetables	
Relative mean deviation	.25626860
Coefficient of variation	.54884324
Standard deviation of logs	.52548904
Gini coefficient	.26710582
Mehran measure	.36618555
Piesch measure	.21756596
Kakwani measure	.08011609
Theil entropy measure	.13821996
Theil mean log deviation measure	.13857532

AppendixTable1. 17 Inequality measure of annual income if SC=cloth and jewelers

Inequality measure of annual income if SC=cloth and jewelers	
Relative mean deviation	.17538639
Coefficient of variation	.50307286
Standard deviation of logs	.37679896
Gini coefficient	.20864494
Mehran measure	.25543138
Piesch measure	.18525171
Kakwani measure	.05286224
Theil entropy measure	.10102282
Theil mean log deviation measure	.08586903

AppendixTable1. 18 Inequality measure of annual income if SC=electronics

Inequality measure of annual income if SC=electronics	
Relative mean deviation	.10994118
Coefficient of variation	.48046481
Standard deviation of logs	.27856022
Gini coefficient	.11511028
Mehran measure	.12211651
Piesch measure	.11160717
Kakwani measure	.03456313
Theil entropy measure	.07593958
Theil mean log deviation measure	.05519495