

**AN ASSESSMENT OF THE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES TO STREET  
VENDING: A CASE OF CHIPATA CITY**

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A Dissertation is submitted to the University of Zambia in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Master's Degree in Business Administration

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**DECLARATION**

I, Frank Mazani hereby declare that the work on which this dissertation is based is my original work (except where acknowledgements indicate otherwise) and that neither the entire work nor any portion of it has been, is being, or will be submitted for academic purposes to any university, tertiary institution, or examination body.

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**CERTIFICATION OF APPROVAL**

This dissertation of **Frank Mazani** has been approved as fulfilling the partial requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Business Administration at the University of Zambia.

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## **DEDICATION**

I am authentically thankful to my wife Leah Tuwele, whom I deprived of attention during the period of completing this dissertation. My wife, you have always been my comforter during stressful moments of combining academic, family, and secular work. You have always been my reminder that worshiping Jehovah is a priority, but you have hardly ever forgotten showing me a gesture of the value of education.

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## LIST OF ACRONYMS

<b>BIDs</b> -	Business Improvement Districts
<b>CBD</b> -	Central Business District
<b>CDF</b> -	Constituency Development Fund
<b>DES</b> -	Director Engineering Services
<b>FGDs</b> -	Focus Group Discussions
<b>CCC</b> -	CHIPATA City Council
<b>MLGRD</b> -	Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development
<b>MMD</b> -	Movement for Multiparty Democracy
<b>MSE</b> -	Medium and Small Scale Entrepreneurs
<b>PIDO</b> -	Principle Infrastructure Development Officer
<b>PRM</b> -	Public Relations Manager
<b>PPP</b> -	Public Private Partnership

## ABSTRACT

**Background:** street vending is a Globally practice differently in different countries. For example in china, it seems to be more structured because there are designated specific areas or markets for street vendors, providing them with permits and infrastructure stalls or kiosks, and such areas are often subject to regulations regarding hygiene, safety, and operating hours. In Zambia, it seems not have proper direction as weather it is allowed or not. Government is seldom being stiff by prohibit street vending yet at times compromised by political influence. This means even when formal places for street vending are pronounced, it remains on paper different from what is prevailing on the ground. The Study objectives were; 1) To ascertain the nature of players involved in street vending management. 2) To assess the management strategies that have been employed in street vending. 3) To recommend sustainable management approaches to street vending in Chipata CBD.

**Methodology:** The study employed a qualitative case study A purposive sampling criterion was used in the selection of 267 participants, of whom 2 were key informants and 265 streets vendors. A semi-structured questionnaire guide, audiotaping, and note-taking were used to collect data and NVIVO 12 software was used for data analysis.

**Results:** key major players in street vending management include vendors and city council. factors for street vending included Employment opportunities, Business convenience, Social capital, Inadequate training skills. Institutional strategies for managing street vending include Vending spaces, the Use of force by law enforcers and the issues Licensing system.

**Conclusion:** Addressing street vending issues in Chipata city and zambia as whole there is need of Mainstreaming of street vending support into national policy.

**Keywords:** *Street vending, S, Qualitative descriptive Research, Chipata central business district*

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## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1 Overview**

This chapter presents the background to the study and defines the problem that the study attempted to address. It states the purpose, objectives and research questions that needed to be answered. The chapter further reflected on the significance, limitations, operational definition of terms and provides the summary of the chapter.

#### **1.2 Background**

Looking at street vending from the *Zambian perspective*, the practice can be traced as far back as the earliest days of colonial Lusaka. As noted by Hansen and Vaa (2004), African residents developed informal work and housing initiatives in efforts to provide the goods and services that colonial governance did not provide. The writers further report that; much like the colonial rulings that guided the location and type of economic activity Africans could pursue in the city, post-colonial regulations on markets, trade licensing, town and country planning and public health restricted trading and small scale manufacture to established market places (Hansen and Vaa, 2004: 63, in Hansen, 1997).

Although traders were occasionally chased off from the city streets, they usually returned. That is to say, small scale traders and marketers throughout the city centre and the townships widely ignored the existing legal regulations. The major regulatory measure to street vending was the Markets Act of 1937 created by the colonial masters. Strictly, the Act did not allow street vending. For example, Section 5 of the Local Authority Market Regulations, Cap 295 Number 3 stipulates that ‘No person shall, in any public place within a radius of two miles from the centre of a market, sell any goods except in a market’.

Hansen and Vaa (2004), assert that the formalization process gained considerable momentum from the restrictive import and currency regime during most of President Kaunda’s Second Republic (1972-91). Street vending was referred to as ‘black marketing’ in the late 1970s and early 1980s, when shortages of basic commodities were a fact of everyday life. Soap, detergents, candles, cooking oil, bread and sugar were among the items that were frequently in

short supply in the legal retail outlets and were, therefore, sold on the black market. When prices of several essential commodities were decontrolled and some subsidies phased out under pressure from the International Monetary Fund (IMF) in 1982, the term black marketing became used in a more inclusive sense, referring to any illegal marketing activity, among others, unlicensed vending in streets, yards and homes', (Hansen and Vaa, 2004: 63). The writers further contend that the Second Republic could never have functioned without these informal activities because the command economy of the One Party State was unable to produce and distribute even necessities to satisfy the consumer.

Hansen and Vaa (2004) report that the adoption of the neo-liberal reform policies in the early 1990s by the Movement for Multiparty Democracy (MMD) under the then President Mr. F.T.J.

Chiluba, made street vending even more visible than ever before. This shift towards liberalisation brought many effects on the Zambian citizens. Privatisation of major national companies and downsizing of the civil service led to huge unemployment, leaving people without any other option but to join the informal sector. Muuka (2003) stresses that in 1997, out of a total labour force, which was estimated at 4.2 million workers, not more than 11 per cent were employed in the formal economy. The remaining 89 per cent of the labour force was either unemployed or employed in the informal economy, mainly in street vending activities with the majority of people being women and youths. It is important to note that the main players in street vending are the most vulnerable people in society, such as new migrants, the poor, the less educated, persons searching for jobs and individuals disadvantaged in various ways. Street vending serves as a main livelihood strategy for the poor or supplementary activity where, individuals in the formal economy employ it as a coping strategy when the economy is not doing fine (Msoka, 2006). However, literature by Hansen and Vaa (2004) states that management strategies after the 1990s have always taken a picture of force, 'Police occasionally undertook sweeps of the street vendors, confiscating their goods and imposed fines or prison sentences on them, but most marketers returned to the streets'.

Nonetheless, the study of street vending cannot be complete without the mention of the advent of the secondhand clothing market in Zambia. Hansen (2010) affirms that the import of secondhand clothing from the West began to grow rapidly in the late 1980s in Zambia.

However, there were calls in the early 1990s for banning this business because of the threat it allegedly posed to local industry. While this account was true in a general sense, it sidestepped several observations concerning Zambia's overall economic, political, and social environment. The growth of the secondhand clothing market was a response to an overall decline that also affected textile and garment factories. The writer further contends that, in the early 1990s when the MMD government introduced open market economic policies, many manufacturers closed down, because of their unstable state after many years of lack of innovation during the controlled economy. The new government was slow to improve the circumstances for industry. Where people were wage employed, it clearly demonstrated the importance of the secondhand clothing trade, referred to as *salaula* (a Bemba term, meaning 'selecting from a pile') or *Kontama boutique* (a Nyanja term which means 'bending over'). Others have also called it *bend over boutique*. Reduction in public and private employment and decline of manufacturing jobs attracted job seekers to secondhand clothing retail, distribution, and allied activities.

Despite this practice, the 1937 Markets Act still prohibited the practice of street vending. For example, Section 5 of the 1937 Act outlining the Lusaka Market By-Laws stipulates that 'No persons shall sell or offer for sell any produce in any street or in any public place within the market area other than in the market except with the permission of the local authority'. Additionally, the use of make shift stalls was also prohibited by the local authorities in any place, even in markets, as stipulated in Section 5 of the Act. A stall in this Act means '... stand, shelter, table, place or plot...' Number 14 of the same Section emphasises that 'No building, tent, booth or shelter shall be erected in any market without the consent of the local authority'. Despite revising the 1937 Markets Act in 2007, the 2007 Markets and Bus Stations Act does not give a clear view to street vending management. It is, therefore, the essence of this study to assess strategies to manage street vending in Chipata's Central Business District (CBD).

Literature (Hansen; 2002; 2004; 2010) has given a historical background of street vending. It has revealed various ways in which street vending has been managed and in some cases not managed. Literature has also shown that in some instances, the nature and management of these street vendors has been by use of force by local authorities.

### **1.3 Statement of the Problem**

Street Vending has been one of the major activity in the informal economy and the ever-growing population has led to an increase in the activity depriving Local Authorities of the much needed resource in revenue collection, contributing to overcrowding, dirty street theft in the street and many other vices associated with street vending. The problem can be traced back to the post-colonial era and became more pronounced after 1991 following the liberalization of the Zambian economy. During the Second Republic under president Rupiah Bwezani Banda on 8<sup>th</sup> December, 2010 people were urged to move to the markets and warned that the law would visit those who would be found defying the law and going back to the streets. In late 2017 and early 2018, Luaska and other towns like Chipata were faced with cholera outbreaks and at that time the president then Edger Chagwa Lungu engaged the military and the police to help remove street vendors and bring down the makeshifts in these cities. Despite the efforts being put in place in the management approaches, street vending has persisted. Additionally, Ndhlovu (2011) shows that there are instances when those selling in well-established markets or selling places desert those places in preference to selling along streets where they claim customers are found. The moment they find themselves in streets, they become street vendors. This has been the case in Zambia where many traders have deserted designated structures for trading in the streets. This lack of comprehensive information on proper street vending management strategies may misinform the managers and the general public, resulting in poor management. It is for this reason that this study intends to assess management strategies used by the local authorities in the management of street vending in Chipata's CBD.

### **1.4 Significance of the Study**

This study pays significant attention in identifying and assessing the management strategies to street vending, considering the fact that challenges with street vending management have persisted. There is need to establishing sustainable management strategies to street vending. The findings to this study might be useful to Councils as it may provide them with valuable information in promoting good and responsible citizenry for the development of the country. It may also contribute to the body of literature that exists in the field of street vending management. Additionally, some studies (Ndhlovu, 2011; Hansen, 2010; and Hansen and Vaa, 2004) have shown that managing street vending requires an informed citizenry. This is mostly done by considering the voices of the vendors willing to participate in the development

processes at both the local and national level. Therefore, the findings of this study may provide the relevant authorities with some general information and by so doing increase their awareness on the need to involve the vendors in the exercise of managing street vending. Furthermore, the findings and recommendations of this study may help the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development and the various stakeholders involved in the management of street vending institute strategies to improve on their planning, development and implementation of sustainable strategies to managing street vending at all times.

## **1.5. Research Objectives**

### **1.5.1 Main Research Objective**

To assess street vending management strategies in Chipata's CBD.

### **1.5.2 Specific Objectives.**

1. To ascertain the nature of players involved in street vending management.
2. To assess the management strategies that have been employed in street vending.
3. To recommend sustainable management approaches to street vending in Chipata CBD.

## **1.6. Research Questions**

1. What is the nature of the players involved in the management of street vending in Chipata CBD?
2. What management strategies have been employed in street vending for the Chipata CBD?
3. What could be the best approaches in sustainable management of street Vending going forward in Chipata CBD?



## **1.8 Limitations and Challenges**

The study will be conducted in Zambia, particularly in Chipata's CBD and as such, the findings may not be generalized to other CBDs across the country. To this effect, similar studies will need to be conducted in other CBDs. The main drawback of this research is that the process is time-consuming. Another problem is that the interpretations are limited. Personal experience and knowledge influence observations and conclusions. Thus, a qualitative research might take several weeks or months.

## **1.9 Operational Definition of Terms**

*Assessment* in this study means an evaluation of the nature, value of quality of something at a Specified level.

*Management* is the process of decision making, leadership, directing and facilitating the work of people organized in formal groups to achieve a desired goal.

*A Street Vendor* is a person who offers goods for sale to the public at large without having a Permanent built up structure from which to sell. Street vendors may be stationary in the sense that they occupy space on the pavements or other public/private spaces or, they may be mobile in the sense that they move from place to place.

*Street Vending* in this study is the exchange of goods and services that involve the lack of business permits, violation of zoning codes and legal guarantees in relation with suppliers and clients. The activity takes place from outside-enclosed premises or covered workspace on street pavements, sidewalks, and in other public places and usually characterized with the non-payment of tax.

*Central Business District (CBD)* is simply the postcard image of a city which contains an overabundance of tall buildings, high density, a lack of parking, transportation modes, a large number of pedestrians on the street and generally, just a lot of activity during the daytime.

### **1.1.0 Summary**

This chapter has presented the background to the problem. It has highlighted the advent and nature of street vending from the colonial era and its growth in Zambia due to Structural Adjustment Policies and consequences of the neo-liberal economies in the Second Republic. The chapter further presented the statement of the problem together with the research purpose, objectives, questions, significance and limitation of the study.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 Literature Review

This chapter attempted to give a theoretical aspect that stimulated the study. The study also brought out the reviewed literature in relation to street vending management drawn from different studies from the global perspective, Africa and further narrowed it to the Zambian perspective.

This study was aimed at deepening the current understanding of governing street and market vending by studying (i) how multiple rationalities within government shape diverse governing practices over time, (ii) how entanglements between vendors associations and government influence the governing of street and market vending, and (iii) how vendors' agency stretches across national and international space.

According to Bhowmik and Saha (2012) a street vendor is “a person who offers goods or services for sale to the public without having a permanent built-up structure”. On another not, Harlan (2007) describes street vendors as that group of workers who are “living on the edge of subsistence” because of the low profit margins that are realized by their trade. The researcher is of the opinion that street vending is but a simple response to the forces of demand and supply. The demand is filled by the poor urban dwellers who make their purchases from street vendors and depend on them for low and affordable prices. The supply side receives its sustenance from the unending influx into the cities of a pool of unemployed able bodied people who are desperate for an opportunity to earn a living. In Zambia, statistics indicate that up to 150 000 graduates arrive onto the labour market each year, only to be confronted with a situation that is offering few or no employment opportunities.

Additionally, Negatron (2006) describes the occupation of street vending as “survivalist strategy” for the less privileged people most of whom live on the edge of subsistence. The characteristics of the sector are identified by Jimu (2004) as including: being small scale, labour intensive, low fixed costs, use of simple technology, reliance on family labour, use of personal or informal sources of credit, non-payment of taxes and licences, easy to establish and exit.

Specifically, it sets out to analyse the initiatives available for managing street vending businesses; examine the extent of the participation of street vendors in the management process; establish the reasons for the success and failure of the management of street vending businesses, and propose viable ways that can be used to manage street vendors 'businesses. The study employed forbearance theory supplemented with informality views (exclusion and exit). It is purely a qualitative case study. The study used interviews, focus group discussions, observation and documentary review methods and questionnaires in the data collection.

Street vending has been on an upward trend in major cities across the World in recent times, particularly in the developing world. Studies have identified a myriad of reasons that have been associated with this phenomenal growth of street vending as a profession. The reasons include among others: unregulated operating environment, bureaucratic structures that hamper the processes involved in starting a new business, rural urban migration coupled with high levels of unemployment, shortage of rental spaces for business and where such spaces are available, high rentals make them inaccessible to many individuals seeking to start small businesses. Other studies have also linked this staggering growth of vending to the flexibility that is inherent in the occupation. This is said to be serving as a pull factor, particularly for women who are then able to combine their work with other household chores such as childcare. Furthermore, this form of occupation is characterised by low investment requirements, which makes it comparatively easier to start, hence more attractive for even the poor to enter the trade. Meanwhile, vending in the Cities all around the world is plagued by numerous problems that seem to be more or less common across the globe. Public authorities as problematic as they tend to take up space on the most prominent and busiest public and private spaces regard the vendors. These include: the sidewalks and pavements, street islands, bus termini, train stations, traffic intersections and shop fronts, where they display and sell their wares. In the process their activities unwittingly create substantial disruption and discomfort for both the owners and users of these spaces and indeed the traffic in the streets along which they carry out their work. In recent times, the streets of Chipata have become clogged with masses of street vendors displaying their wares on the floor, on makeshift tables, in push carts, vans or boots of various types of vehicles. The situation has become so dire motorists have rendered some streets unusable, particularly in the evening hours. Motorists and pedestrians seeking to make their way home after work have to navigate their way through the mayhem of displayed wares,

pushcarts and those standing at traffic junctions, all jostling for customers. Many people are quite frustrated by how a simple walk in the city has turned into a complex and arduous task of navigation. In some streets it has become impossible to walk straight without bumping into those coming from the opposite direction. In such cases people have to walk in the road, which makes both driving and walking in town a dangerous exercise. However, although street vending is providing one of the largest employment opportunities in Zambia at the moment, real incomes from the trade are said to be significantly low. Research shows that this is not peculiar to vendors in Zambia only, but that it is a general trend in this trade.

It is against this background that this paper investigated the issue of the efficacy of street vending as a means for achieving economic sustenance by those engaged in the *business*.

Street vending is an ancient and important occupation found in virtually every country and major city around the world. Street vendors add vitality to the streetscape and contribute to economic activity and service provision, but many observers also associate them with congestion, health and safety risks, tax evasion and the sale of shoddy merchandise. Numerous national laws, local laws and municipal ordinances apply to street vending or are specifically targeted at street vendors, and most countries have a long history of regulating their activity.

Since 1945, there have been waves of legislations on how to regulate street vending, ranging from restricting vending places and time to issuing licences to the vendors. Devlin (2006) argues that despite the heavy grips of legislations, street vending management continued to be a challenge in New York because of the heavy influx of immigrants during this period. One significant study to the management of street vending is that of Devlin (2006) in New York. Devlin comments that vending that occurs in New York City is no exception to vending in other cities around the globe. Vending serves an important economic and social role; it provides jobs, stimulates commerce and fulfils the needs of the population. These vending events are a part of life in neighbourhoods across the city. The researcher reports that the major source of the growth of street vendors was the influx of immigrants who engaged in the street vending trade. It can be deduced from this report that street vending management becomes a challenge when there is a massive immigration of people into a country. The fact that people involved in street vending come from various backgrounds may pose a challenge on the management of their businesses as they are likely to reason differently and even respond to policies and by

policies differently. The issue of assessing strategies to managing street vending was the focus of this study. Nonetheless, Devlin affirms that the status quo could not remain. New York City has made tremendous improvements in regulating street vending. One of the major management measures to street vending employed by New York is licensing. The Department of Consumer Affairs regulates and issues licenses for general merchandise such as crafts, pottery, jewellery and watches among others. The Department of Health regulates and issues licenses to vendors and permits for food-related street vending. Food vendors must take and pass a course on food handling. The person may take either the Food Protection Certificate course or the Mobile Food Vending Food Protection course. Items associated with Right to Free Speech Merchandise such as paintings, illustrations, photographs and books can be sold without obtaining a license as the First Amendment protects these items, guaranteeing free speech. However, the vendors of such works are still subject to other rules and regulations applicable to all street vendors (Devlin, 2006).

Furthermore, Ball (2000) notes that in New York, there are Green Cart permits available for people who want to vend whole, fresh fruits and vegetables in specific police confines throughout the city. Before applying for a Food Vending License, one must take and pass a course on food handling. The person may take either the Food Protection Certificate course, which is a fifteen-hour course that enables him or her to supervise food handling in a food service establishment or mobile food vending unit. Another option according to Ball is the Mobile Food Vending Food Protection course, an eight-hour food handling course designed specifically for mobile vendors, given by the Department of Health over a two-day period. In addition to having completed one of the food handling courses, the person must have either Tax Identification number and a social security number or Individual Tax Identification Number to obtain a mobile food-vending license. Despite all these measures street vending still persists hence the need to carry out this study.

Reflecting on the above management strategy, issuing of licenses seems to have proved a successful strategy to managing street vending Harvey (2005) agrees with the above statement as he stresses that licensing is one of the key components in better management of public spaces, though the critical issue is how many licenses as a proportion of the total number of traders are issued in order to realize revenue buildup. Therefore, if the local authorities properly employ this exercise, street vending can be sustainably be managed which is the core

of this study. Furthermore, since the practice of street vending also includes the selling of foodstuffs, food handling requires high levels of hygiene. The Food Protection Certificate course employed by the New York City is one good strategy that would regulate and deter massive numbers of street vendors who, at the expense of hygiene and promotion of proper sanitation to the massive populace, venture into street vending without putting such important aspects into consideration. Therefore, this study takes into account such important strategic management measures.

Houstoun (2003) notes that in New York, the Business Improvement District (BIDs) associations, which are non-profit making, shape policies regulating street vending significantly. They are a privatised form of urban governance, supplementing public services such as sanitation, security, maintenance and planning. BIDs utilise such strategies as streetscape design, planter placement, surveillance and close collaboration with local police to manage vending in their districts. With this in mind, the laws that have been put in place, training and the powerful efforts of the BIDs have proved a relative success in the management of street vending in New York. However, one pitfall of this report is that the writer does not give the methodological approaches used in the study. Hence was the need to carry out this study.

Another significant study to street vending is that of Rupkamdee *et al.* in Thailand. The writers reveal that the practice of street vending was mainly encouraged because of the economic recession after World War I. The local people were encouraged to take up the trade by the government. The unsteady labour regime under globalisation since 1980s worsened by the 1997 financial crisis and increased street vending. The practice became a favourable source of income generation. Because of the relatively higher possibility of earning more and the autonomy that vending offers, Rupkamdee *et al.* (2011: 41) noted that ‘street vending is not only a choice for the urban poor but is also becoming an attractive occupation for the educated middle class without formal employment.’ From this background, the fact that street vending is driven by such factors as effects of World Wars, unstable labour regimes in the global village and global financial crises, management in contemporary times may prove to be difficult. In such circumstances, massive numbers of people will resort to vending. This study

takes into consideration such aspects, as management of street vending is the sole purpose of it.

Against this background, Rupkamdee *et al.* (2011) reports that policies and all laws in Thailand prevent vending activities and punish vendors and hawkers working in public areas. Vendors are seen by policymakers as the cause of many problems such as pedestrian and traffic obstruction and making the city dirty. But for their part, vendors have to grapple with the uncertainty of laws and regulations. According to the researchers, several acts have been put in place to regulate street vendors. The first was the Cleanliness and Order of the City Act issued in 1992. This Act prohibited individuals from cooking and selling things in cars and carts on public roads and public areas. Rupkamdee *et al.* (2011) further explains that Section 9 of the same Act empowers local officials to prohibit vending activities. Thailand vendors are only allowed to sell products in certain zones and at particular times and days. Section 20 of the same Act specifies that vendors have to cease operations on Wednesdays or on any other designated day, and that they must be registered, have vending identification and licenses. The local officials are also authorised to monitor and maintain the cleanliness of vendors from the money realised through tax. Not only that, the Traffic and Land Transportation Act of 1992 and the Highway Act, 1993 prohibit any activity that obstructs traffic and pedestrian paths. This Act also empowers police officers and traffic officials to control the use of public roads. Thus, street vendors can be subject to punishment by both local officials as well as police officers (Rupkamdee *et al.*, 2011).

Reflecting on the above findings by Rupkamdee *et al.* (2011), the Thailand case hinges on regulation Acts. Prohibitions devised by the local authorities give good and sustainable management measures to street vending that can be of great help to the relevant authorities grappling with managing street vending in this study. Nevertheless, Rupkamdee *et al.* do not give an account of the extent to which the implementation of these Acts, laws and policies regulating street vending have been successful. Hence was the need to carry out this study.

Furthermore, Rupkamdee *et al.* (2011) reveals that the other management strategy employed in Thailand that brought a win-win situation to all the parties were relocating the vendors in private companies' housing estates. The private companies organise the markets in the premises and manage these markets. A rent is charged and high standards of hygiene,



orderliness and security are maintained. Though with resistance at first by the vendors, as the business at these markets boomed and the managers tried to persuade the vendors, gradually, the relocation was completed and the market flourished. Through renovations by the companies, the markets have good infrastructure, including restrooms and a car park. This has contributed to an increase in customers and consequently, an increase in income for vendors. The researcher reports that all these well-managed markets showed successful negotiations between vendors and market managers in reaching an agreement on relocation. The key to success is how much managers listen to vendors and accommodate their needs.

Analysing the findings of the study, though the mechanisms put in place to manage street vending are good, the findings fall short of information from vendors. Since the methodological design applied in the research was case study, primary data as an instrument of data collection is not reflecting. This, therefore, could have given the researchers a much deeper picture on the issues of street vending and subsequently, devise proper channels to address it. Not only that, the contextual relevance of the studies could have been profoundly founded. In this study, these are some of the aspects, which have been taken into account so that views of the vendors themselves are considered.

Sites (2003) explains that street vending is one of the major activities in the informal economy and it is known to be an old practice that has always had a presence in the composition of cities. The nature of street vending ranges from issues of property rights, relocation problems, bureaucratic regulations, lack of customer drawing power and street vendor organisations, among others. Street vending that exists in cities around the world takes many different forms, each of which complement and benefit the city and its population. Morales (2010) reveals that the management of street vending has been challenging. For most street vendors, trading has always been full of uncertainties. The local bodies conduct eviction drives to clear the streets of these encroachers and in most cases confiscate their goods. Confiscation of the vendors' goods entails heavy fines for recovery. Houstoun (2003) contends that generally, the most common ways city governments around the globe manage street vendors are: controlling the number of people, that is, giving out licenses and permits to the vendors, controlling urban public space; that is, designating special street vending zones or locations and building and relocating vendors to public market buildings. This reflection of a general struggle between the

vendors and the local authorities calls for sustainable management of street vending, of which this study takes the Centre stage of assessing the management strategies to street vending

A survey by Akharuzzaman and Deguchi (2010) in Dhaka city in Bangladesh gives an insight on street vending management. According to the researchers, Dhaka city was selected as suitable for their study because of being one of the high-density urban areas among Asian cities. The high population growth rate according to the researchers is due to the rural-urban migration and natural growth. Migration is one of the most important sources for population growth in central urban areas of Dhaka city as reported by the researchers. Not only that, the researchers note that Dhaka city has a large number of urban dwellers who are poor and have no formal skills to get jobs in the formal sector. Being a street vendor is one of the best job opportunities for them as an informal activity. In addition, poor urban dwellers cannot fulfill their basic needs without those informal activities in urban areas. Without street vending in urban areas, a large number of urban dwellers fall into a critical situation in their lives. Not only the low-income group, but also the middle-income group of urban dwellers depends on street vendors in their lives.

In relation to the above background, street vending management may be a challenge considering such factors as poverty, massive rural-urban migration and large numbers of urban dwellers without formal skills for formal sector jobs. Additionally, the fact that these vendors are less educated pose a great challenge when it comes to policy development and implementation as the vendors may not be able to respond to the policies appropriately. This study, therefore, considers such aspects because an assessment of street vending management is its focal point.

However, Akharuzzaman and Deguchi (2010) report that the local authority of Dhaka city had no proper management and rehabilitation policy for their street vendors nor do the urban authorities have developmental policies to improve their vending system and to maintain the surrounding environment. Sometimes, the authority evicts the vendors from their area and they become jobless due to this eviction. As part of illegal and an informal sector, the researchers report that in 2007, the urban authority evicted the street vendors and as a result, they became jobless in Dhaka city. Based on their vending condition, most of them became extremely poor as they could not maintain lives without their daily street vending. After eviction, the local

government established a holiday market for street vending in some individual urban areas. But the researchers report that according to the vendors' opinion, the holiday market did not have enough space for the large number of street vendors in the city and sales were not good for the vendors. Secondly, the urban authority selected twenty spots permitted for vending in the city. However, street vendors were remained poor as they lacked the customer drawing power away from the central urban areas.

From the above survey, it is clear that lack of proper policies to manage street vending by the local authorities is a problem which may breed a number of challenges. These challenges range from poor environmental sanitation, crowded footpaths, loss of revenue through taxes by the local authorities to numerous conflicts between the vendors and the local authorities. Consequently, it worsens the poverty levels among the vendors who solely depend on street vending. Because an assessment of street vending management strategies is the focus of this study, the above issues were taken care of.

Furthermore, this study focused particularly on Chipata CBD unlike Akharuzzaman and Deguchi's (2010) survey that focused on Dhaka. A further contrast of the case of Dhaka to this study is drawn from the methodological aspect and focus. The above study was based on a survey to examine public management for street vendor problems in relation to environmental sanitation. But this study adopts a case study design to assess the strategies used in managing street vending.

Narrowing down to Africa, however, street trading is a core component of the informal economy across the continent for those with low levels of education among the many urban dwellers (Castells, 1989). As contended by Mitullah (2005), a number of studies suggest that there has been a surge in the numbers of street traders partly because of the Structural Adjustment Policies (SAPs). Vending attracts those who have limited opportunities for obtaining formal employment and/or prestigious business, and minimises chances of social exclusion and marginalisation. Street vending is increasingly becoming an option for many citizens. It is no longer limited to the lower social groups, especially the underprivileged who carve out a living in an environment full of uncertainty in terms of evictions by urban authorities. Street trade, however, has always been viewed as an underground activity that undermines the healthy functioning of the formal economy. Because of this situation, a call to

finding sustainable management strategies is a cornerstone to each and every government where this trend is being practised, hence was the purpose of this study.

In Kampala, Uganda, based on a case study conducted by Mitullah *et al.* (2005), its proper management was established that the local authority in Uganda is a major obstacle to street vending. Mitullah *et al.* reports that the local authorities use out-dated restrictive policies, by-laws and regulations. The restrictions make vending principally illegal and view vendors as responsible for making cities dirty, obstructing traffic and, therefore, a public nuisance. To this effect, the researchers reveal that such provisions and perceptions were for dealing with cities planned for colonial governors. Mitullah *et al.* further explain that the 1997 Local Government Act of Uganda does not engender a review of by-laws. It simply gives powers to local authorities to enforce laws and by-laws consistent with the national framework. The aspect of reviewing by-laws, policies and regulations is cardinal to street vending management. Considering such factors such as population growth in many cities, coupled with the effects of SAPs that saw a number of people offloaded from the formal job market in many African countries, it gives a call to undertake this study.

In relation to policies and regulations to street vending, the situation in Kampala revealed that street vendors are hardly consulted in the development of the by-laws and planning vending sites in respective urban areas. It was established by the researcher that many of the street vendors were not aware of the by-laws applicable to their operations and had no access to them. Additionally, Mitullah *et al.* (2005) further revealed that the few vendors who were aware of the by-laws indicated that the policies to regulate street vending were inappropriate, citing expensive daily charges, poor and insecure working locations, inappropriate hours of business, poor locations for business, constant harassment, confiscation and loss of goods by urban authorities and poor enforcement approaches by urban authorities.

Echoing from the above findings, it can be realised that it is of great importance to bring on board all the interested parties when devising developmental by-laws and policies regulating street vending and making them accessible to the vendors. Street vendors would engage more fully in the management of street vending if they feel ownership of the policies and by-laws; they would understand them and endorse their overarching aims. The position of the above study is similar to this study in methodology as it was based on a case study approach, which

used both primary and secondary data. Conversely, it was part of the six synthesis studies conducted in six different African countries. Its focal point was the assessment of constraints to business in the informal economy. This study assessed the management strategies to street vending in Chipata's CBD in particular.

Another case study by Kamunyori (2007) in Nairobi, Kenya reveals that while street vending is legal according to the by-laws that govern the Nairobi City Council, another by-law, that is the General Nuisance by-law, is often used to supersede this provision. Created during the colonial administration, the General Nuisance by-law allows city inspectorates to arrest any individual that they deem is creating a 'general nuisance' in public spaces. This by-law continues to provide the legal grounds on which city inspectors can evict street vendors. By claiming that they are a nuisance to the well-being of the public by obstructing the sidewalks and making a mess, the inspectors chase the street vendors off the streets (even when the vendors have paid their daily license), often arresting them and taking them to court. In the actual sense, Kamunyori (2007) stresses that this by-law was actually created in the 50s to protect the European and Asian housewives from being pestered by hawkers who used to come door-to-door selling wares. Though with contradictory by-laws governing street vending, Kamunyori (2007) reveals that the Nairobi City Council had been reviewing its outdated by-laws as a means of improving the uncertainty in their operations, for example, creating the Single Business Permit which replaced multiple business licenses with just one. While this has been taking place in Nairobi as reported by Kamunyori, this, therefore, justifies the undertaking of this study.

Furthermore, Kamunyori (2007) reveals that licensing of street traders is a major problem and has contributed to the confrontation between street traders and urban authorities. Few street vendors have licenses to trade. The prevailing situation is that many vendors are trading without any licenses. Some urban authorities charge daily fees, while others fear that this would attract more street vendors in the streets. The process of obtaining a license is cumbersome in most urban authorities and they issue very few vending licenses and, generally, have a negative attitude towards vending. Kamunyori work further established that in Nairobi, those who get a license have to either pay a bribe or are well connected to urban authorities or influential personalities. Obtaining a license does not give street vendors full trading rights. Vendors have to observe other trading requirements, for example, trading in approved or

designated areas, and observing health requirements. While this is appropriate, a majority of street traders are not aware of the details of the health requirements. This results in their licenses being confiscated for not observing health requirements. From this report, it can be established that cumbersome processes of obtaining street vending licenses may result in very few vendors having vending licenses. The fact that few vendors will acquire licenses and being charged daily fees by the local authorities creates a challenge to manage street vending. As seen in the above findings, a large number of vendors would resort to mobile vending, and those with licenses may resist being taxed, resulting in constant confrontations between the vendors and the tax collectors. This study therefore, took into consideration such aspects as its Centre stage in assessing the management strategies employed to street vending.

Beside the above measures, the Nairobi City Council (NCC) relocated the vendors from their trading sites as a measure to regulate and manage street vending. Kamunyor (2007) further reports that street vendor relocations that were done by the Nairobi City Council (NCC) in 2002 were often not successful because the new locations had lower pedestrian traffic and/or customers with lower purchasing power than in the CBD area. Additionally, the process encountered a number of problems, which affected the outcome. The relocation process involved many fights and constant placement of NCC enforcement officers in former street vendors' sites of operation aimed at ensuring that they do not continue trading. Therefore, despite the harassment from the city inspectors and the resulting high costs of being 'a nuisance' if caught (costs incurred either through bribes or through losing their stock that gets confiscated if they are caught), vendors soon returned to the CBD. Giving a run-down of the above account, it can be seen that the major determinant to street vendor relocation process as a management strategy is the location of the market; ideally, the new off-streets market should be visible and accessible to customers with high degree of customer drawing power, otherwise, if customers fail to follow the vendors, street vendors may return to the streets. Hence, this study focused on street vending management strategies taking into account concern of such matters.

The study also revealed that although the urban authorities collect revenue from vendors, street vendors hardly participate in important issues such as planning and management of urban development. There is poor communication between the urban authorities and street vendors. There is hardly any dialogue, and relationships are largely determined by favoritism, nepotism

and corrupt practices. Thus, the vendors have no influence on any policies developed for managing their operations, while the urban authorities hardly provide services nor are they accountable to vendors. This has affected potential joint action and impaired relationships between vendors and urban authorities. Since street vending management requires a coordinated action among the stakeholders, communication between the urban authorities and the street vendors themselves is cardinal to its management.

One other handicap deduced from the above reviewed study of Nairobi by Kamunyori (2007) is that the discussions of the findings seem not to give much information on the voices of the vendors, as part of the research undertaken. This does not bring out the reflexivity on the part of the researcher. As Creswell (2001: 37) emphasizes, ‘...the final written report or presentation includes the voices of the participants, the reflexivity of the researcher...’ Therefore, the absence of this reflects that there was no chance given to the vendors as part of the stakeholders to dig into the paradigms of the studies, this gap, therefore, is a contrast to my study.

Mitullah, Lund and Skinner (2005) in Durban, South Africa conducted another significant study on street vending. The study reveals that South Africa has initiated processes through its constitution that has potential for improving the business environment for Medium and Small Scale Entrepreneurs (MSE), providing services to communities and promoting social and economic development. The South African National Government is committed to creating a conducive environment for small informal economic activities, including street trading. In order to realize this, at national, provincial, and local levels, new laws are in place. The Business Act of 1991 changed the legal approach to informal trading. The Act acknowledged street traders as business people who contribute to the economy. The Act has provided the traders with the right to trade, whereby the local authorities merely regulate but cannot prevent traders from trading. Additionally, the White Paper on National Strategy for Development and Promotion of Small Businesses in South Africa of March 1995, commits the government to the creation of an environment that encourages and assists the development of all categories of the informal economy. The 1998 White Paper on Local Government requires that Local Government be committed to working with citizens and groups within the community to find sustainable ways to meet their social, economic and material needs and to improve the quality of their lives.

Mitullah, Lund and Skinner (2005)'s study reveals that the progress made in South Africa, differs across African cities, with Durban having the best environment for street vendor operations. Though it is also an example, according to Skinner (2011), of the on-going struggle that street vendors face such as sporadic evictions of street vendors due to international events, Durban municipality is often portrayed as an example of good practice. Durban has a Department of Informal Trade and Small Business Opportunities. The Council has also designed innovative private sector based approaches for managing street vending. The approach include street vendors Organisations leasing land from the Council and further leasing to traders on organisation's terms, property owners applying for sidewalk lease and public/private sector management of markets planned for street vendors. Some good examples of the vendors' Organisations in Durban are the Self-Employed Women's Union (SEWU), launched in 1994 and the Informal Trade Management Board, established in 1995. These lobbied and negotiated with the Durban local authorities to obtain infrastructure for street vendors. Their activities ensured the incorporation of vendors in city planning. In 2001, an acclaimed policy on Durban's informal economy, inspired by several pilot projects, was adopted (Castells, 1989). It made a number of suggestions for improving street vending with regards to, as Mitullah (2004) explains, registration (simplification of the registration process and reduction of its cost), site allocation (criteria for allocation should be negotiated with stakeholders and the allocation of sites should then be done by officials), and operating charges (different transparent fees should be set according to location, size and services provided; payment should be simplified). It also established a framework of principles for by-laws. Therefore, these street vendor leaders become alternative public service providers.

Cross (1998) adds that street vendors in Durban have developed social support networks. These social networks come into different forms and have their norms, rules and regulations that sometimes complement the efforts of the local authorities. These Organisations help increase its members' income potential through various supportive services that facilitate communication with the city government. These include more vending permits, relocation solutions, advocacy for more street vending zones and communication among vendors and with public policy stakeholders. In view of the above, since this study's main focus is street vending management, it is clear that understanding of the roles and functions of the street vendor Organisations and city government could design plans that are more in accordance with



the current situation and they would then have a higher possibility for success of street vending management.

Echoing from the above study, therefore, the successes of Durban benefits my study on a number of strategies to be used to make street vending management a success. The study of Durban was based on a case study; this is where the study approximates with mine. But it differed where it was part of a synthesis of six case studies conducted in six different African countries and its area of concentration was to assess the constraints of business growth in the informal sector in Durban as a city.

### **2.3 Zambian Perspective**

Street vending activities can be traced as far back as the creation of Northern Rhodesia and before colonization, the Zambian society used to trade in public areas mostly along important trading routes. In the late 1970s and early 1980s street vending was referred to as black market and products such as soap, detergent, candles, cooking oil, bread and sugar were among the items that were usually in short supply in the legal retail outlets and therefore sold on the black market (Hansen 2004 cited by Ndlovu, 2011).

The term black market was used to refer to any illegal marketing activity such as vending in streets, yards and homes. Police occasionally undertook weeps of the black marketers, confiscating their goods and imposed fines or prison sentences on them. But most marketers returned to the streets (ibid). However, during this time street vending was not so visible, it became more visible after the adoption of the neo liberal reform policies in the 1990s. This shift towards liberalization brought many effects on the Zambian citizens. Privatization of major national companies and downsizing of the civil service led to huge unemployment leaving people without any other option but to join the informal economy. It is estimated that the formal economy lost about 61,000 jobs between 1992 and 1995 (Global Policy Network 2001). Consequently, the reduction of the formal economy fueled the rapid expansion of the informal sector.

Hansen (2004) argues that during the 1990s, privatization of the economy and retrenchment of the civil service pushed many adults into the informal economy. The existence of adults in the more rewarding jobs limits young people's entry to low-level jobs that offer few prospects for

upward mobility and provide few skills that might lead to the acquisition of higher qualifications. He further argued that as a consequence, young women and men from poor backgrounds have fewer economic options in today's transformed urban space than their parents' generation enjoyed. Adult stand-holders hire young women and men as "workers" for a pittance. Plenty of young men work on the streets, selling anything from foodstuffs and hardware to copycat tapes and videos.

Street vending is a common phenomenon in most parts of the country; however, the practice is mainly rampant in the main towns like Lusaka, Ndola, Luanshya, Chililabombwe, Chingola, Chipata, Livingstone and others. These major towns do not have enough designated areas for street traders; hence vendors occupy shop corridors and other places which are mandated for other utilities. This creates an antagonistic relationship between the vendors and the local authorities (Muuka, 2003).

The term designated, or authorized, market refers to areas where urban retail is permitted under the Market Act. In the late 1990s Lusaka had about 40 designated city markets and 54 designated township markets. Proliferating and growing in size, these markets diversified their commodity base, service activities, and participants, including young people out of school, especially young men. Among these markets was Lusaka's largest, Soweto, which was developed in the late 1970s (Hansen, 2004).

Muuka (2004) argues that street vending is a form of black market, which is described as a state of affairs whereby commodities are sold in the exterior of the established legal framework. Consequently, an elucidation on the nature and dynamics of street vending cannot be comprehensive without reference to the informal sector, in view of the fact that many people recognize street vending as a manifestation, spill over and often a wasteful subset of the urban informal sector. The authentication of argument that street vending is a form of black market lies in the fact that street traders do not sale their products in places that have been designated for trading such as Soweto and city market, yet they do their businesses in areas which have been prohibited for such activities.

Street vendors do their business both in residential and commercial areas; however, the supreme focus of street vendors is in commercial areas, this is because it is where many people meet for distinguished purposes. Those in residential areas frequently situate themselves near

bus stops outside busy trading places and other open public places where customers can easily be trapped. Those found in town centers occupy all the corridors or the major roads in the Central Business District . Apart from the corridors of these busy roads, vendors occupy other open spaces of the town centers as well (Hansen, 2004).

Additionally, in residential areas, vendors mostly specialize in the sale foodstuffs both cooked and uncooked, examples include mangoes, tomatoes, groundnuts and others. Nevertheless, those in commercial areas, sale a variety of products including vegetables, fruits, fresh fish, meat, tomatoes, onion, cosmetics, electrical appliances, clothes, shoes, pots as well as the hardware materials(Ibid).

The main actors in the area of street trading are old women, young ladies and young men, but the old women and the young ladies specialize in selling foodstuffs (such as bananas, Tomatoes, vegetables, apples and many more), while the young men sell a wide range of products such as clothes, cell phones radios and others (Judai, 2002). Although some vendors display their goods on the ground, the majority of them have erected some portable makeshift stands made from planks and covered in plastics known as Tuntamba.

At this moment, it is imperative to note that Street vending acts as both a remedy and a problem in Zambia despite the fact that it is more of a problem than a solution. As a solution, the majority of street vendors do their businesses in the streets in order to make ends meet and also for the reason that they are unable to find employment in the formal economy; they get involved in street vending as their only employment alternative available (Muuka, 2004).

Thus, Hansen, (2004) affirms that street vendors are acknowledged for playing a significant role in the urban economy by creating employment, income and other items to the public. They sell various kinds of goods which include among others, second hand clothes known as salaula, vegetables, fruits, and a variety of household necessities, which are produced in small scale or home based industries. These products are usually cheap when compared to those sold in retail shops; hence the urban poor prefer to buy clothes and accessories from street vendors.

However, many local governments do not consider the informal economy (street vendors) as an important actor in the economy. Generally, work within the informal economy is usually not recognized or protected under legal and regulatory frameworks. As informal activities in

many countries are on the fringes of the law, authorities often confuse them with criminal activities and subject them to oppression (ILO 2002:3 as cited in Brown 2006). Street vending is mainly affected by policy and practice of both national and local governments such the licensing small scale traders. This is so because there are various problems which are associated with street vending.

Further, Muuka, (2003: 26) argued that, “street vending in Zambia is liable for contributing to environmental harms”. This is because street vendors erect structures which do not subscribe either to building codes, or zoning regulations. Street vendors from time to time take over the sidewalks and push people out into the street creating serious traffic problems. In addition, Street vendors also produce excess litter, which act as burden to the underfunded sanitation departments to carry out its mission of keeping the cities clean. Some street vendors as earlier mentioned sale food stuff, however, most of the food which they sell is sold in very unhealthy surroundings where food is just displayed right on the floor exposed to flies and dust particles. Under such circumstances diseases like cholera easily spread and this poses health risks, particularly the spread of food-borne diseases (Global Policy Network, 2001). Furthermore, (Hansen, 2003 cited by Kasalaba 2014) argues that “street vending is a security concern; it promotes crowding of people in the streets, thereby creating a haven for criminal activities. No wonder street vending is regarded as a social evil and an affliction to be purged.” This implies that street vending is perceived as an improper way of earning a living and contradictory to the ideals of economic life for urban areas.

According Muuka, (2003), argued that “street vendors do not pay money to the Council”; in view of the fact that they are numerous street vendors who do not make a payment to the council, the government is losing out a lot of probable revenue. Consequently, Councils are deprived of the money which they would have utilized in carrying out various fundamental services to residents. To worsen the matter, some traders who function within the parameters of the law even refuse to renew their licenses for the reason that they cannot compete with street vendors who do not pay anything to the council.

As earlier pointed out, the vendors have taken up most of the corridors along the busy roads in the town centers and as a result of this, free mobility of people along these corridors has been compromised. This is common at pick hours that is, in the morning when people are going for

their jobs and afternoon when they are coming from work. Under such situations, it is easy for thieves to carry out their deceitful activities because of over-crowdedness. Furthermore, some street vendors sell their products near the roadside of busy roads such as Cairo. This creates a danger to traffic both to the vendors and customers who are busy crossing the road trying to buy items from the vendors (Global Policy Network, 2001).

In response to these problems, new market associations have emerged that relate to the powers that be in the language of governance, demanding a place in decision making, including membership in new governance structures such as market boards. Aside from the Zambia National Marketeer's Association (ZANAMA) which manages several markets in the Copperbelt towns and parts of some markets in Lusaka such Chawama and Soweto. Most of these associations are trade specific groups, such as the secondhand clothes traders association, the fish traders associations, and the cross-border traders association. Although young vendors are highly visible in markets and on streets everywhere in Lusaka, they have no say in these associations (Hensen, 2010). The dissolved market boards, for example, did not include any specific youth representation.

Beveridge (1979) argues that the market management approach dealt with street vendors in passing, pertaining to them only by way of control rather than of assistance. Efforts to renovate old market structures, upgrade, or entirely replace them have not effectively contained the problem of street vending and the construction since the late 1990s of ultra-modern markets to enable street vendors to move to designated markets has been sluggish, or has delayed. In fact, some of the market upgrading, including the redevelopment project in Lusaka launched in the late 1990s by the European Union, were unfinished for several years and only completed in 2008.

The project involved the demolition of old market structures that pushed many traders away from the old markets. Market redevelopments, for example the Chinese financed upgrading of Lusaka's oldest market, Luburma (Kamwala) built during the colonial period, charged high rental fees that forced existing traders away. Similarly, the redevelopment of the Town Center market financed by a local consortium forced traders onto the streets because of the limited number of stalls and the high rental fees (Muuka, 2003). Consequently, many people moved to the streets.

In 1991 Movement for Multi-party Democracy (MMD) government had come into power with the promise of improving housing, social welfare, health, and education, yet rapid privatization of the para-statal companies did not benefit the general population. Because of the stressed economy, state intervention in marketing and street vending became a very controversial matter (Hansen, 2004). In the first MMD government in 1991, the minister of Local Government and Housing, Michael Sata, ordered City Councils to allow street vending (Zambia Daily mail, 1991). This decision prompted many traders to desert designated markets for streets and sidewalks. Many constructed *tuntemba* and others continued moving in corridors of the big stores.

In 1993 when the Lusaka City Council (LCC) with help of police and military undertook one of many sweeps of street vendors, it clashed with the vendors and a riot ensued. An angry President Chiluba intervened strongly on the vendors' behalf, reprimanded the City Council for not finding alternative places before forcing them off the streets (Bruce, 2004). Extending this vendor friendly environment, the president in December 1996 established a Vendors' Desk with a deputy minister at State House, a decision which implied that anyone could trade and erect a stand anywhere. And this is exactly what they did. By Christmas 1998, street vending in Lusaka had achieved anarchic proportions (ibid). Main streets, alleyways, and shop corridors in the city center, and many other places, had turned into one huge outdoor shopping mall with thousands of street vendors selling all manner of goods.

In order to harmonize the situation, in 1997 a new market was opened, it was called City Market, however it did little to halt these processes. Many stand-holders who had fought for space in the new market soon gave up their stands, complaining of lack of customers and high fees. A few days after the market's opening, the city council burned the *tuntemba* on its outskirts. Yet stand-holders continued to leave the new market for the streets resulting in ongoing conflicts between inside and outside traders, police, the LCC, management, and political cadres (Hansen, 2004).

In the pre-dawn hours of 28 April 1999, City Council staff, police, and paramilitary in riot gear razed the *tuntemba* in Lusaka's city center, extending the demolition the following night and weeks across the city, into the townships and, in June, to the Copperbelt and all the towns

along the line-of-rail (Zambia Daily mSail, 1999). This time, and unlike in 1993 when he supported the vendors, the president, who had approved this costly removal, kept quiet.

However this did not imply absolute removal of street vendors as they started doing their business secretly although President Mwanawasa and Sylvia Masebo launched the “Keep Zambia Clean and Healthy” campaign that included ridding streets and corridors of vendors and removing tumbledowns from the city center, street vending persisted (Judai, 2002).

In 2005 government decided to build New Soweto Market close to the CBD of Lusaka with 2,476 spaces which include shops and two market sheds in order to solve the problem of street vending. The biggest number being the market sheds with 1,428 stores allocated to the poorer traders who pay the minimal amount of rental charges. The site that was chosen by government for building the new market had illegal traders who established themselves with makeshift stores for many years. These traders had a market development committee that coordinated all the market affairs at the illegal site. Hence, when government decided to construct at that site they decided to work closely with the committee in order to convince the illegal traders to move from the site. The committee agreed to work with government to ensure that their traders could easily move to pave way for construction of the new market (Ndlovu, 2011). However, it was a very big challenge for the committee to convince their members to move because they did not have an alternative place to relocate the traders while waiting for the completion of the new market.

In addition, the traders refused to move from the site because they believed they were going to lose out in terms of ownership. Due to the fact that the market would be owned by the local government, the traders would be expected to pay monthly rentals. They did not like the idea of paying rent since they had complete ownership of the makeshift stores and would use their stores to get credit from friends or sell them when they needed to sort out family problems. Furthermore, the traders were afraid of losing their established customers and also not knowing where to trade from while they waited for the construction of the new market (Ndlovu, 2011).

Even so, after several discussions with their members, the market development committee succeeded in persuading them to move and pave way for construction. All the traders that had makeshift stores at the site where the new market was to be built were registered by the

committee and the local authority so as to give them first priority in allocation of the new stores upon completion. During construction, the traders moved to the streets (ibid).

In 2009, the construction of the new Soweto market was completed and the market development committee became the market committee for the new Soweto market in order to continue serving the needs of the traders in the market. All the traders that had makeshift stores were allocated new stores and the remaining stores were given to successful applicants that had applied to the local government. However, most traders that were allocated the stores did not occupy them instead they continued vending in the streets. One of the reasons that attributed to the non occupancy of the stores is high monthly rental charges by the local government (opcit).

In addition, Lusaka city council public relations manager alleged that the removal of street vendors from streets in the city of Lusaka continued to be a major challenge (Lusaka Times 2010). She added that there has not been any cooperation from the vendors who have continued to trade from the streets. She urged vendors who had been allocated stores in the new Soweto market to move in and trade from the market. She noted that too often people tend to leave the markets and start trading outside giving the impression that there is no trading space and yet there is adequate space (ibid). The local government has adequate market space in almost all the settlements in Lusaka and that most of the market stores are still empty because people have opted to trade on the streets.

In 2013 Zambia`s government under the Patriotic Front declared street vending in the country`s central business districts as legal soon after street vendors staged a mini protest to demand the dismissal of certain government officials who wanted the vendors removed from their trading areas. The post newspaper (2013) reported that “President Sata, who enjoyed massive support among street vendors in the run up to the September 2011 elections, immediately removed Professor Luo from her position to avoid antagonizing one of his biggest constituencies. The changes came a few days when street vendors staged a mini protest in Lusaka.”

Despite all the efforts by the government to remove street vendors, the situation has not changed there are still a lot of street vendors in the CBD of Lusaka. The new Soweto market development committee has continued working at the new market to meet the needs of their



members (traders) and they are also working closely with government in convincing the traders that have left for the streets to move back to the market (Ndlovu, 2011).

Additionally, there is lack of participation by street vendors in any decisions that local government makes concerning street vending. The survey that was carried out revealed that very few traders were engaged in consultations with the local authority during the construction of the new Soweto market. Brown notes that involving all relevant stakeholders in decision making would probably result in more appropriate and acceptable policies with greater chance of implementation and success (ibid).

## **2.4 Summary of the Reviewed Literature**

Though the reviewed studies were conducted in different countries of the world, it can be deduced that generally, government interventions in their management strategies lack coordination and have been ad hoc. Additionally, there seems to be emphasis that the practice of street vending is crucial and that a workable process of accommodating and proper management of street vendors in rapidly urbanising countries still remains elusive and not well understood. This has resulted in lack of enabling urban development policies and street vendor regulation. Therefore, a detailed and delicate consideration of the local culture, caring methods and negotiation processes is cardinal. Addressing the street vendor management issues requires a combination of a cultural, intra and inter-governmental integration approach and structural components, which this study proposes to look into.

## **2.5 Pragmatic Orientation of Research**

In response to this research, pragmatic philosophical approach was identified to guide knowledge development. As a researcher had understand, generate practical and real-world solutions with this research. The following is an explanation of the approach.

Pragmatism according to Dewey (1931) and Peirce (1992) is an action-oriented philosophy of science. It studies the link between action and truth, practice and theory. Dewey (1931: 31) defines pragmatism as ‘...the doctrine that reality possesses practical character’. Pragmatists see the world as a set of practical actions that are born from thinking. The concept of truth is a key area in pragmatic thinking. Peirce emphasised the verifiability of truth, that is that interpretation must agree with the known facts. Pragmatist philosophy exists in reality, where

change is constantly taking place and man is an active agent and conductor of transformations, either by thought or by action.

According to Creswell (2001), the pragmatic focus on the outcome of research, that is the actions, situations and consequences of inquiry. The important aspect of research in this philosophy is the problem being studied and the questions asked about the problem. In practice, this paradigm enabled the researcher use multiple methods of data collection to best answer my research question, which is, what management strategies are used for street vending in Chipata's CBD? Pragmatism provided the directions for the best ideas, among them individual researchers have the freedom of choice in the methods, techniques and the procedures of research that best meet their needs and purposes; pragmatists believe that research always occurs in social, historical, political and other contexts. In relation to the topic under study, the practice of street vending occurs in the social environment. Historically, street vending in Zambia has been in practice since colonial times and its management strategies have been devised with the advent and departure of each political regime. This philosophy further allowed the researcher not to see the world as an absolute unity. Instead, it allowed the researcher take many approaches to collecting and analyzing data rather than ascribe to only one way.

## **2.7 Theoretical Framework**

### **2.7.1 Introduction This part discussed a theory that guided the study in answering the main research objective.**

According to Lassa & Enoh (2000), a theoretical framework refers to a set of theoretical perspectives on a phenomenon. One of the major functions of the theoretical framework is to set the limits and scope of the study, provide its context and meaning, and interpret and integrate the research findings (Masanyiwa, 2014).

### **2.7.2 Towards the management of street vending: The forbearance theory**

To understand the management of street vending, the study employed an Electoral Theory of Forbearance (ETF), which tries to explain why governments tolerate the violation of their laws and regulations and when they enforce them (Holland, 2014). The term —forbearance has been used differently in different fields of study. In finance, the term forbearance refers to a

special agreement in which the lender attempts to recover the balance of a loan from a borrower who has stopped making payments to the lender. With forbearance, the lender and borrower reach an agreement, i.e., an arrangement. In most cases, the lender gives the borrower time to catch up with the repayment schedule rather than enforcing their legal rights. Holland (2014) introduced the concept of forbearance in political science when studying squatting and unlicensed street vending in three Latin American capital cities of Santiago, Chile; Bogotá, Colombia; and Lima, Peru. The term describes the intentional non-enforcement of laws and regulations that the poor tend to violate when in the electoral interest (Holland, 2014).

The concept is differentiated from forms of weak enforcement capacity that prevent actors from enforcing the law. In forbearance cases, the capacity to enforce exists, but the intent to do so is absent. Enforcement preferences differ between the design actors and those who implement a law or policy. Another core definitional element is that forbearance is revocable. The state reserves the right to enforce the law, and offenders believe the rules can carry a credible sanction. This insecurity differentiates forbearance from cases of amnesty, pardon or legalization.

Revocable decisions, on the other hand, are open to revision and are more likely to be negotiated informally. The ability to go back on an enforcement decision also separates forbearance from alternative concepts of —benign neglect‖ or —standoffish‖ state behavior (Dorman, 2007; Slater & Kim, 2013). Forbearance shares much in common with the concept of selective policy implementation but is distinguishable from it. The literature on selective policy implementation assumes that the actors choose which type of policies to enforce and which to ignore (Holland, 2014). Forbearance can be divided into several sub-types, based on its distributive effects and mode of distribution (see Figure 2.2). Progressive forbearance occurs when lower portions of the income distribution receive greater absolute or relative benefits through the tolerance of law-breaking than the upper one. Regressive forbearance implies that upper portions capture greater benefits.

The second dimension distinguishes particularistic from universalistic modes of distribution. Forbearance can be provided in a particularistic manner to individuals or groups as a reward depending on payment in the form of campaign contributions, bribes, votes or turnout.

Forbearance serves as a strategy for channeling resources to less advantaged groups. Though the poor lack legislative, financial or personal influence on secure exemptions from justice, poor voters are numerically important, particularly in poor and unequal democracies. Forbearance can, therefore, be provided to the poor, contingent on political loyalty, as a form of clientelism, or in an unbiased fashion, as an informal welfare policy, but forbearance can also be extended in a transparent and unbiased way. This model is distinguished as universalistic.

Politicians are often open about their beliefs that certain laws should not be enforced, particularly when offenders are somehow sympathetic. However, forbearance is an informal policy that tends to be communicated outside the formal political channels. When legal exemptions are provided to specific wealthy individuals, forbearance amounts to a standard form of corruption. It often proves to be the flipside of targeted enforcement against political enemies. Forbearance then functions as a classic form of corruption or, when the powerful as a class stand above the law, it can slide into the —unrule of law (O'Donnell's, 1999). Source: Holland (2014)

Politicians often deny sanctions to maximize votes. Revocability is important because it permits a form of dependent exchange in which those who violate the law require a politician's continued kindness. Holland (2014) argues that, as with other distributive goods, politicians often allocate enforcement in ways that maximize their electoral or personal goals. Yet, unlike many other distributive goods, forbearance can be revoked and provided outside the normal budgetary process. It can also target resources towards the most vulnerable, willing to bear the costs of illegality. These features make forbearance ubiquitous yet inefficient for politicians to alter the distribution of resources and win votes.

Holland further pointed out that, in much of the developing world, the legal rules are ignored, businesses dodge the tax and labour regulations, and unlicensed street vendors block the city streets. This gap between the written law and lived reality is often a sign of a weak state with a limited capacity to monitor and sanction (Holland, 2016; Levitsky & Murillo, 2009). Particularly, Holland (2014) argues that forbearance towards the laws that the poor violate is more prevalent in developing countries because the social policy remains inadequate and hard to expand locally. In the absence of welfare alternatives, forbearance is an attractive tool for

mobilizing voters, whereas enforcement carries high electoral costs. A politician must act in some way to change the enforcement outcome, be it an attempt to demote bureaucrats who enforce or to stall sanctions for a type of offense or group (Holland, 2016). As Scott (1969, p. 1142) comments, A large portion of individual demands, and even group demands, in developing nations reach the political system, not before laws are passed, but rather at the enforcement stage. Forbearance can also apply to the group of poor to win a coalition in the manner of politicians who require the support of the poor to win office (Luna, 2010). This study employs progressive forbearance, which occurs when lower income distribution groups receive greater absolute or relative benefits through the tolerance of law-breaking than the upper tranches.

The poor support forbearance and candidates who advocate for it; politicians block enforcement on electoral grounds even after bureaucrats perform their roles; meanwhile, enforcement choices vary with politicians' core constituencies (Holland, 2014). Zambia's presidential candidate Michael Sata, for instance, pledged to stop enforcement against all street vendors and squatters to appeal to the urban poor in 2006. Sata justified his position thusly, If you fail to provide for the poor, don't bring punitive measures against them (Resnick, 2013, p.78). Forbearance functions as an informal welfare policy when directed at the poor as a class. Voters need a politician to take office to receive forbearance, and a politician can withdraw forbearance at any point if voters break their poll promises, even after elections.

The literature reports that a major reason for weak and inconsistent enforcement is that many informal operators constitute an important political constituency. Therefore, local and national politicians tend to pretend to be on their side, especially when elections approach. As a result, they relax the enforcement of bylaws that disallow business activities in the streets or other areas not designated for business (Olomi & Charles, 2016). Similarly, Steel et al. (2014) and Olomi and Charles (2016) found that the exercise of collecting tax from informal operators becomes particularly poor near national and local elections when politicians prevent local government officials from implementing strict measures against street traders.

## **2.7 Summary**

This chapter has given the theoretical aspects that stimulated the study. It has also brought out the reviewed literature in relation to street vending management drawn from different studies

from the global perspective, Africa and further narrowed it to Zambia. Finally, the chapter presents the pragmatic orientation of the research.

## **2.8 Philosophical Approach**

The ontological constructivism philosophical underpinnings were used to serve as the foundation for this study's qualitative design. Using a semi-structured questionnaire guide, the constructivism qualitative investigations enabled the researcher to gather data in a natural context through in-person from and focus group discussions (Newcomer and Wholey, 2015). The method assisted in the creation of contextual knowledge regarding the experiences of street vending phenomena in Chipata town (Sassen, 2013). The constructivism approach was appropriate for this study because it revealed the feelings and emotions of street vendors operating in the Chipata Central Business District (CBD). The constructivism approach enabled street vendors and key informants to provide in-depth contextual explanations about the research questions around the assessment of the management strategies for street vending in Chipata. This was necessary as it enabled the researcher to decode the meanings of the data collected in relation to the phenomenon of participants' different interpretations of street vending (Borowska-Beszta, 2017; Nickerson, 2022).

The use of the constructivism research paradigm in this study is further justified in the study (Adom, Yeboah and Ankrah, 2016) which indicated that individuals have the ability to construct their own understanding and knowledge of the world, and that that reality is socially constructed through individual experiences, interactions, and interpretations (Proctor, 2001). The implication is that street vendors expressed subjective meanings to their experience of trading on the street. They were consciousness of their situations; thus, they were allowed to explain social reality (street vending) based on their own different perceptions and subjective meanings in a natural setting. Hence, the constructivism paradigm was interested in examining the subjective and shared meanings of street vendors in Chipata. This did not only enable researcher to embrace the complexity and explore the nuanced ways in which street vendors make sense of their understanding, but also actively involved participants in data collection, interpretation, and analysis, gained deeper insights into their perspectives and ensure that findings resonate with their experience of trading on the streets ( Sharma and Bansal, 2017; Mann and MacLeod,2015

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Overview**

The population for this study consisted of street vendors in the Chipata central business district and key informants, who were the Town Clerk and Director Planning. The sample consisted of 265 street vendors operating in the central business district of Chipata and two key informants from the Chipata City Council. The qualitative method was used (Frankel and Devers, 2000). The descriptive research design was used because it provided accurate and valid representation of the factors or variables that pertain to and that were relevant to the research questions (Van Wyk, 2012). A descriptive study enabled the researcher to investigate the socio-economic issues relating to well-being of the street vendors such as what, when, where and how thus enabling a detailed description of the nature of their livelihoods. In Additionally, primary data was collected using a semi-structured questionnaire guide and audio recordings during interview sessions for the purpose of accuracy and data transcription (Leech, 2002). Therefore, the main purpose of this study was to assess the management strategies used to combat street vending in Chipata's CBD. In order to accomplish this task, this chapter presented the research design; sampling design, target population; sampling procedure; sample size; methods of data collection; Methods of data analysis; data validity, ethical considerations and philosophical understanding of the study as well as challenges to the study.

#### **3.2 Research Design**

The study used of a qualitative research methodology to collect data from street vendors, market vendors and key informants from Chipata city council. There are different types of Qualitative research design given as narrative research, phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography and case studies, but this research specifically adopted the case study design. This helped the researcher to collect in-depth information on the management of street vendors and understand how complex was the phenomena of street vending (Creswell (2001: 73). It further enabled the researcher to examine reasons why people trade in the street other than in the designated place and challenges street vendors face regarding street vending in Chipata central business (Bennett, 2004).

### **3.3 Sampling design**

The study used a purposive sampling criterion in selecting both key informants and street vendors. Street vendors were selected and placed in three groups of six for a focus group discussion. Hence, the judgment of selection was based on participants who were key players in addressing street vending (Ray, 2020). On the other hand, the purpose of using focus group discussions was to give participants enough platform to express their thoughts, opinions, and experiences, which assisted the researcher in generating new insights and ideas for further investigation (Nyumba, Wilson, Derrick, and Mukherjee, 2018). Other than that, purposeful sampling was utilized due to its cost effectiveness and time efficiency; this was so because the researcher was required to complete the study within a short allocated time (Vaughn, Schumm, Sinagub, and Sinagub, 1996).

### **3.4 Target Population**

Best and Kahn (2006), explain population in research as a group of individuals with at least one or more characteristics, which distinguishes one group from the rest of individuals and the group should be of interest to the researcher. My target population was all the street vendors in Chipata's CBD, all the market traders from the Market, and two officials from Chipata city council, as key informants, and these were targeted because they were directly affected by a phenomenon. The key informants were affected in that they were law enforcers of street vending, while street vendors were affected by law enforced (Mwiinga, 2016)

### **3.5 Sampling Procedure**

Sidhu (2012: 253) defines sampling as 'the process of selecting sample from the population, Specifically, homogenous purposive sampling was used to select a group of people that had the characteristics of what was being studied in this case (street vending) and this had enabled the researcher to conduct focus group discussions (Ritchie, Lewis and Elam, 2013). The researcher used the market masters to identify participants from different business components, that is those from agro, foods or clothing. On the other hand, a self-selected sampling was employed especially from vendor's perspective. For example; when some vendors from agro, and foods saw the first focus group discussion being conducted, they asked the Market master if at all they could join. This technique was good because it enabled to



researcher to get highly motivated participants and enhanced their active engaged in the research process (Gregory et al., 2010)

### 3.6 Sample Size

As per the records of street vending, street vendors are found in different parts of the city. The geographical spread is very wide and their vending activities are very diverse. Taking into consideration of the central active market area roads, If all Central Active Market Area Roads, population of the street vendors is estimated to be 800 as per the municipal records. Hence, a sample size of 2 key informants and 265 street vendors was considered, giving a total of 267, out of which 265 was divided in 3 focus groups. Hence, this sample size has been arrived at by a means of a formula below;

**Taro Yemene formula  $n=N/ (1+N (e) ^2)$ . Where  $n$  = Sample size,  $N$ =Population under study (800),  $e$  = margin of error (0.05),  $n=N/ (1+N (e) ^2)$**

$$n=800/(1+800(0.05)^2)$$

**$n=800/ (1+800(0.0025))$ ,  $n=800/1+2$ ,  $n=800/3$   $n=266.66$  there for  $n$  is which is the sample size is 267**

#### Classification of Sample Respondents:

The data collected in the study was be put into six categories based on the street vending operations

Category of Vending Activates	Number of Respondents	Percentage (%)
Food Products	99	37%
Entertainment	5	2%
Health Products	13	5%
Clothes	98	37%
Agro - products	52	19%
Others	0	0%

### **3.7 Methods of Data Collection**

The study used a semi-structured questionnaire guide to facilitate data collection during in person interviews sessions with 2 key informants, and to 265 who were put in groups of 3 to facilitate focus group discussions. An audio tape recorder was used to collect data in order to establish the validity, effectiveness, and transparency of the content. The recorded information was played back immediately after each interview for purposes of accuracy or data transcription (Back, 2020). Tape recording was done simultaneously with notes taken during the interviews, as a backup in case audio tape data could be corrupted or lost (Muswazi and Nhamo,2013). Participants were requested to sign audio tape recordings consent form in order to guarantee their dignity, rights, safety, and wellbeing as primary considerations and to help them understand what they were volunteering for (Nnebue, 201)

### **3.8 Data collection procedure**

The market master from new Saturday market was engaged, who later called a meeting with market committee members. The researcher explained to the team about study and requested them to assist him organize the participants. when the participants were organized following day, focus group discussion interviews were conducted using semi structured questionnaire. Before that, the consent was read to the groups, and were asked if they agreed to sign a consent. Since they agreed to consent, all participants signed on one consent form. The signing on one consent was done to minimize too many papers that could cause too much work for the research. After signing of consent form was done, each participant was assigned a number from 1 to 6, and they were advised to be mentioning their names by numbers whenever they needed to make contributions as any question was asked during the meeting. During the meeting, data was also collected using a tape recorder and notetaking were used to enhance validity in study.

### **3.9 Data Analysis**

The data collected was transcribed using Creswell's approach to data organization, data reduction into themes, and condensation of data (Creswell and Poth, 2016). In order to ensure privacy, participants were coded with any numbers from 1 to 6, and the information provided were grouped into themes for easy data coding. Sentences, statements, and phrases significant

to the study were coded using NVIVO software. The software was used for purposes of time and efficiency because it used a large data set (Paré and Trainer, 2020; Edwards-Jones, Andrew, 2014). The study used elements of inductive data analysis. The use of this approach helped to condense raw textual data into a brief and summarized format. The approach helped to determine a clear link between study objectives, theory and findings derived from the raw data, and the important themes in the study were described in order to attach meanings to participants' understanding of management of street vending in Chipata (Hackett and Strickland, 2018; Morgan and Nica, 2020).

### **3.10. Data Validity and Reliability**

Validity and Reliability in qualitative research is crucial to maintain the credibility and trustworthiness of the study findings (Fitzner, 2007; Thanasegaran, 2009). Therefore, to ensure validity and reliability, the researcher hoped to conduct participant validation, by sharing findings of the final document with a few participants. The validity was also maintained through the use of both note taking and audio taping, and audio taped was played back immediately after data was collected to validate the true information about their answers (Lambert and Lambert, 2012).

### **3.11 Ethical Issues and Considerations**

This study considered common ethical research issues and that collecting data was only made possible after the research proposal was approved from University of Zambia ethics review committee. Other research ethical protocols such as informed consent, privacy, and confidentiality were also put into consideration. *Informed consent*, means assuring participants of their voluntary participation and study purpose. This involved reminding participants of the protection of their rights to participate or not in the study as their choice and them opting out of participation would not affect their access to market services including street vending (Manti and Licari, 2018; Mandal and Parija, 2014).

On the other hand, *confidentiality* and *privacy* were critical ethical considered. The participants were assured that their real names and personal identifiable information would remain anonymous through just numbers assigned to them. In order to guarantee privacy, a room free from disturbances was secured through support of the Market master in order to

conduct interviews within the market (Ethicist, 2015; Lawrence, 2012). Participants had their names assigned numbers. The data was stored on a disk of which only the researcher would have access to it, and after the five-year period, the data would be destroyed.

### **3.12 Summary of the Chapter**

This chapter has shown the overview of methodology, the kind of research design, sampling design, Target population, sampling procedure and sample size. It also showed methods of data collection, data analysis, data validity and reliability and ethical issues and consideration.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

#### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter highlights specific objectives and shows how overarching study themes are in line with each specific objective. The study findings and themes are presented and discussions were done simultaneously, this was so to avoid a temptation of repeating narratives.

#### 4.2 Specific objectives with overarching themes

It was imperative to visit specific objectives and ascertain how each theme was aligned to each objective and the overall main objective;

##### **Specific objectives with overarching themes**

It is imperative to visit specific objectives and ascertain how each theme is aligned to each objective and the overall main objective;

#### **1. To ascertain the nature of players involved in street vending management.**

##### (i) Key players in street vending

- Street vendors
- City Councils

##### (ii) Factors for street vending

- Employment opportunities
- Business convenience
- Social capital
- Inadequate training skills

#### **2. To assess the management strategies that have been employed in street vending.**

##### (i) Institutional strategies for managing street vending

- Vending spaces
- Use of force
- Licensing system

##### (ii) Implementation challenges

- Limited space
- Political Interference

(iii) Mainstreaming of street vending support into national policy

- Constituency Development Funds-street vending
- Small scale and medium enterprise-street vending
  - Informal economy
  - Business innovations

### 3. To recommend sustainable management approaches to street vending in Chipata CBD

(i) Measures to address street Vending-Vendors perspectives

- Advocacy
- Empowerment

#### 4.3 Characteristics of Respondents

The response rate in this study was 100%, as all the respondents were interviewed. This chapter presents the characteristics of respondents (Table 1), major and sub-themes as they emerged from participants' responses (Table 2)

**Table1: Characteristics of Respondents**

Variable Name	Frequency	Percent
<b>Age</b>		
18 – 30	111	41
31 – 40	160	59
41+	41	15
<b>Total</b>	<b>267</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Gender</b>		
Female	60	22
Male	207	78
<b>Total</b>	<b>267</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Marital Status</b>		
Never married	180	67
Married	87	32
<b>Total</b>	<b>267</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Education Level Attended</b>		
Primary or below	210	79
Secondary	33	12
Tertiary	22	8
	2 (Key Informants)	
<b>Total</b>	<b>267</b>	<b>100</b>

The above table (Table 1) presents the characteristics of street vendor and key informants. The researcher collected data from all 267-targeted respondents. Of all participants, the majority of respondents ( $n = 111$ ) were in the age group of 18–30 years of whom ( $n = 60$ ) were females, while ( $n = 207$ ) were males and ( $n = 2$ ) were key informants. In relation to marital status, the study found that the majority ( $n = 180$ ) were never married and only ( $n = 87$ ) of respondents were reported to have been married. On an educational level, the study discovered that most respondents ended on primary level or below ( $n = 210$ ), with a sizable number of tertiary ( $n = 22$ ) of whom ( $n=2$ ) were key informants.

From the above characteristics of respondents, it could be said that the study opted to select and interview the majority of street vendors compared to a marginal number of key informants. This is so because they often have direct day-to-day experience with and understanding of the local environment, market dynamics, and needs. Their perspectives provide valuable and on-the-ground insights that might be omitted by key informants (McAlearney, Walker, Moss, and Bickell, 2016; Muyanja, Nayiga, Brenda, and Nasinyama, 2011). However, the views of key informants provide information that helps to give road maps on the policy direction; in other words, the transformation of policies into action is based on the actions of Local Authorities, and this is realized through the views of key informants (McKenna and Main, 2013; Kumar, 1989). Besides, key informants possess specialized knowledge, expertise, or experience relevant to street vending in Chipata district. Their insights provide a deeper understanding of the complex issue of street vending, hence contributing to the overall quality and depth of the study (Homburg, Klarmann, Reimann, and Schilke, 2012).

Majority of the people engaging in street vending are usually men. This could be attributed to societal stereotype traditional gender norms that may dictate that certain economic undertakings should be suitable for men, to this effect, Street vending might be perceived to be not physically demanding but also potentially risky, hence, the preference for men engage in such activities (Pozarny, 2016). This is not different from findings in another studies which state that more men ( 79%) dominate street vending compare to women who accounted for a marginal of (21%) only (Madziba, 2017; Shinigami, 2013). However this, is contrary to findings in other studies which indicate that other women would wish to venture into street

vending, but they are limited by access to resources such as capital, information, and market networks that are critical to starting and sustaining street vending businesses. It is seldom hard for women to access credit or own property, which makes it difficult for them to venture into entrepreneurial activities on the street (Dowla, 2006; Scott, Dolan, Johnstone-Louis, Sugden, and 2012). This is a direct contrast to previous studies in which women were traditionally known to make up the larger number of street vendors, while men, on the other hand, were found to have preferred to work in formal settings because their high levels of education demand them to be formally employed (Manyanaire, 2007; El-Azzazy., 2019).

However, other studies account for low education levels among street vendors due to Rural Urban Migrations that create educational disruptions as youth drop out of school due to the huddles of relocating to urban areas (Husain, Yasmin, and Islam, 2015). In some cases, early marriages or pregnancy among young girls limit their educational attainment by widening opportunities for informal employment opportunities in street vending (Jones et al., 2014; Kabeer, 2018). In countries like Nigeria, people cover street vending with tertiary education compared to primary or below because of unemployment or underemployment levels in the country. For example, the total combination of employment and underemployment rates increased from 40% in 2017 to 43% in 2018, of which the phenomenon in urban areas was reported to be at 23% and rural areas at 21%. In 2016, for example, the country had 303,522 tertiary education completions for both males and females. This picture, however, should tell a story as to why the most educated people in the country tend to be street vendors. This is so because the country might not be adequately able to manage offering employment to all its citizens as large country populations have educated people (Kale and Doguwa, 2015; Akeju and Olanipekun, 2014). Other studies, nonetheless, indicated that the spirit of entrepreneurship is a reason; however, they were still hindered by a lack of capital or resources to start a formal business. Opting for street vending for the most educated was reported to be relatively cheaper because it allowed them to use skills and knowledge learned from school to earn a living (Osunde, 2014; Aun and Salami., 2022).

Most of street vendors in Zambia have a primary school highest level of education. This means that street vending is explored mainly by a group of people who have not been formally employed and view street vending as sources of income for their living (Jongh, 2021). In



some studies, 50% of street vendors have no educations (Harahap, 2017). This has been contrasted in the findings of study conducted by (Effiong, 2019.) which indicated that 56% of street vendors had primary education, and 33.6% had secondary education, and these findings are not too different from this study which has reported 33% of street vending with secondary educations qualification. The study reported Street vendors to be mostly less educated, this could be due low income backgrounds attributed to hardly access to quality education because of financial challenges (Daka, 2022; Ndhlovu, 2011). Others studies have looked at this from poverty point of view as barriers to their access to educations because their families struggled to make ends meet. Other than catering for educational needs, their efforts were sufficing for other necessities like food, shelter and minimal aspects of clothing (Al-Jundi, Ali, Latan and Al-Janabi, 2020).

**Table 2: Themes and Sub-themes**

Themes	Sub-themes
1. Key players in street vending	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Street vendors</li> <li>• City councils</li> </ul>
2. Factors for street vending	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Employment opportunities</li> <li>• Business convenience</li> <li>• Social capital</li> <li>• Inadequate trainings skills</li> </ul>
3. Institutional strategies for managing street vending	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Vending spaces</li> <li>• Use of force</li> <li>• Licensing system</li> </ul>
4. Implementation challenges	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Limited space</li> <li>• Political interference</li> </ul>
5. Mainstreaming of street vending support into national policy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Constituency development funds-street vending</li> <li>• Small scale and medium enterprise-street vending               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Informal economy</li> <li>▪ Business innovations</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
6. Measures to address street vending-Vendors perspectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Advocacy</li> <li>• Empowerment</li> </ul>

#### **4.4 Key players in street vending**

1. It was established under the first objective; *To ascertain the nature of players involved in street vending management that key players in the issue of street vending are street vendors themselves and the Council Officials*. A question asked; *How long have you been involved in street vending?* From this question, following sub themes below;

- Street Vendors
- City Councils

It was established that the situation of street vending, brings all actors together to appreciate their role in various faces, hence it is imperative to have deeper understanding of the roles of each of these actors

##### **4.4.1 Street vendors**

Street vendors have been identified as key actors in the phenomena of street vending in Chipata. They were asked a question about how long have they been involved in street vending, and do they think government should support street vending, and all their response were as follows;

*“We have been here for many years and some us we have been on the street while going to school. We have been supporting ourselves by selling anything. That is why we need to be consulted when there is a decision made by the government. Besides we are the one who are even voting, we need to be supported, if they do not support us, we will not vote for them. If you want anything you want to buy, you will find it with us”* (Participant 3)

*“In fact, they should make it legal. We should not be chased out of the street this is our means of living for ourselves and children”* (Participant 2)

##### **4.4.2 City Councils**

The question was asked, *“Are you in any way involved in managing street vending in Chipata?”* The City Councils as institutions are most important key players in management of street vending because they create and enforce laws, hence, views of the Council key informants were critical during data collections;

*“We are actively involved in managing street vending. We work with other stakeholders, particularly the street vendors themselves. We advise them to follow Council regulation of working in designated places and providing that they need to operate with (services). But the issues are that they don’t comply”* (Key informant)

From the above data, it can be concluded that street vendors should be engaged in decision-making. It gives definition to the economy because it brings goods and services to the local people (Mazhambe, 2017). These findings are not different from those in the literature reviewed for the current study (Munkoyo, 2015), which states that vending serves are an important economic and social role, for it is not only provides jobs but also stimulates commerce and fulfills the needs of the population. On the other hand, it seems to have some political connotations, for it dictates political influences. This is so because street vendors have sizable populations, especially in countries like Zambia, and politicians usually seek their votes during elections by promising good policies and programs for them. Besides, they have the potential to mobilize votes and negotiate power through agencies like Local Authorities (Mete, Tomaino, and Vecchio, 2013; Morales, 2010).

On the other hand, without City Councils, there can be corruption in society. From the data above, it has been observed that Councils in Zambia play a role in providing services to the community, including street vendors. This is so because they offer spaces for street vendors to trade. They also ensure provisions for regulations and the compliance of members of the community, including street vendors. For example, the issuance of business licenses or permits and the registration and licensing of street vendors (Jongh, 2021). This understanding is similar to other studies (Kaur and Lodhia, 2018), which state that the success of this is dependent on the Council's ability to collaboratively involve vendors to understand their needs, concerns, and challenges. This means there is a need to balance the interests of vendors with Councils' expectations (Greco, Sciulli, and D'Onza, 2015; McAfee, 2009).

#### **4.4.3 Factors For Street Vending**

In line with same first objective, the respondents were asked a question, (*What factors do you think lead people engage in street vending?”, and what are the main reasons you are on the street?*) Their responses were highlighted in the following sub themes as shown below.

- Employment opportunities,
- Business convenience,
- Social capital and;
- Inadequate trainings skills

#### **4.4.4 Employment opportunities**

*“Against the current economic hardship, Street vending can be a way for men and women to generate their own sources of income especially that it is difficulty for government to employ everyone”* (Key informant 2)

#### **4.4.5 Business convenience**

All the street vendors confirmed that conducting business on the street is actually good and easy and this is what they had to say;

*Trading in the street is very good. Because you can work anytime and anywhere so long, there are people. You can do your chores home, there after one can go and sell on the street* (participant 5)

*“Aaaaa.... people are found around town centre; why should we go very far* (Participant 6)

#### **4.4.6 Social capital**

One street vendor appreciated to be working on the street because it helped him meet some friends from the Countryside and other countries like Malawi and acknowledged to have learnt kind of products they sell and available markets. She responded as follows;

*“Yesterday I met friends who brought fresh maize and fish from the village. He shared with me some. He was happy to see me after a long time. They buy and bring these products to town, sometimes they exchange with cloths, plates, pots, and sell maize with more profits especially this time “*(participant 1)

#### **4.4.7 Inadequate trainings skills**

Some street vendors attributed their being on the street to lacking skills to help them do other things other than street vending, and their stories are as follows:

*“ I have not gone to school. I just went up grade 2 and stopped when my parents died. I cannot do any course like carpentry and electrical “(participant 3)*

*“I just hear people are being trained in bricklaying, carpentry and so forth, but me I don't have a grade 12, even grade 7. So, us, we just sell these things like this” (participant 4)*

Therefore, Street Vending is treated as a source of income for most people engaging in street vending. This is so because they are not formally employed (Gadzala, 2010). Street Vending is a rewarding convenience for the vendors because it is flexible. Such understanding emanates from one's ability to use time to do work at home and have the chance to go on the street (Handoyo and Setiawan, 2018; Gerald and Gayathri, 2017). Other than that, it can be said that street vending has the potential to connect people to opportunities through others by means of what is called social capital (Njaya, 2015). This means that Street Vending has the potential to create social networks, relationships, and interactions that facilitate collective actions that bring opportunities for resources, benefits, and advantages (Kebede, 2015; Pangestika et al., 2021). On the other hand, studies also indicate that access to training and skills is possible among people who received some levels of education; hence, this has put most Street Vendors at a disadvantage (Kham, 2019). This view is consistent with the findings in the current literature reviewed in the current study, which indicate that most street vendors have a primary school's highest level of education or may have not received any form of education, posing a challenge to being engaged in skills training (Jongh, 2021). This resonates with other studies that show that 50% of street vendors have no education, (Harahap, 2017).

#### **4.5 Institutional strategies for managing street vending**

Apart from ascertaining the players involved in the management of street vending, questions were also asked around management strategies employed to manage street vending and the question was asked as *“What management strategies has the Council employed to manage*

*street vending? Have they been successful and to what extent. And their responses came out in the theme below;*

- Vending spaces
- Use of force
- Licensing system

#### **4.5.1 Vending spaces**

One key informant revealed that there has always been exercise of relocating the vendors to Saturday markets somehow away from the Central business, the whole process has just been a temporal measure, and both key informants have this to say;

*“We have a designated vending place like Saturday market and others. We do this exercise at least on a month, we face challenges. They seem not necessarily complying. We have few days in week to enforce because of the same problem of compliance, we are sometimes applying minimum force, and this has caused most them start complaining to the area politicians” (Key informant 1)*

When asked how sustainable the move to relocate the street vendor to specified vending space, the response are as follows;

*“Sustainability is guaranteed, because we have plans to improve more infrastructure through the CDF support of government. Our aim really is to attract these vendors and sensitize the community to make use of the area to access services” (key informant 2)*

#### **4.5.2 Use of force**

A follow up question on the use of force was asked regarding its effectiveness. The two most of key informants confirmed it to be temporal, as though is just massaging the problem, they narrated;

*“Using force seems to work and there is at lease good response. This sometimes become expensive because we have to request the police to help us because our Council Police Officers are very few. So it became very difficult for us to sustain that and slowly and with time vendors kept coming back to the streets, hence success is a challenge” (Key informants 2)*

### 4.5.3 Licensing system

Implementation of licensing system for street vendors, was observed to be a strategy of managing Street Vending in Chipata, this is confirmed in the views of the key informants;

*“Yes other than putting force and opting for relocation of vendors, we also issue licenses for Street Vendors and encourage them to operate formally and follow Council regulations” (Key informants” (key informants 1)*

When asked about the *challenge they face regarding licensing system*, their response included;

*“Yes even when facilitating licenses for the vendors, compliance is still a challenge (Key informants 2)*

Looking at how the above data has come out on measures by the Council to relocate vendors into designed spaces for trading, licensing, and application of force, it can be said that engagement with street vendors has been weak. Rocio (2022) submits that if Councils properly engage vendors, they are eye-marked for conflict resolution. It allows the Councils to mediate the concerns of the street vendors and show them the benefits of compliance with local authority regulations. According to other studies (Mizes, 2023), engaging vendors gives opportunities for the Councils to leverage ideas and identify the vulnerabilities of street vendors, such as poverty, and scales up high-impact interventions like linkage to skills training and soft loans; hence, it becomes possible for them to be integrated into the formal market system where others have been relocated. This study is in contrast with other studies that look at street vending as a right on the street, for they are mandated to make use of the environment to make ends meet (Meneses-Reyes and Caballero-Juárez, 2014).

It is worth noting that although the use of force is acceptable in situations of violence (Gerber and Jackson, 2017; Goode, 1971), maximum force, on the other hand, becomes a human rights violation. This is so because a forceful relocation often involves the use of physical violence and, to some extent, coercion against the will of the vendors, which violates their fundamental rights and, in most cases, results in injuries, trauma, and psychological stress (Silove, 1999; Farnsworth, Drescher, Nieuwsma, Walser, and Currier, 2014). The submission by Sharma (2022) is in line with the findings of this study on human rights concerns in street vending. The study maintains that male and female street vendors should not be observed in isolation from human rights. Negotiating their lives on the street should not involve all aspects of human rights violations. It is from this understanding that the use of force is categorical to the human

rights aspects because it is ignored by the law enforcement agency stakeholders in addressing street vending in Zambia (Roever and Skinner 2016).

#### **4.6 Implementation challenges**

This major theme address Second objective which says; *To assess the management strategies that have been employed in street vending*. Under this objective, a question of *challenges to managing street vending* in Chipata was asked and the answers to this question was addressed through responses that came out in the following themes emerged;

- Limited vending space
- Political interference

##### **4.6.1 Limited Vending Space**

In this study, findings indicate that key informants complained about limited space for vending. Their aspiration was to have enough land close to town in order to attract people vending the streets. Their remarks are highlighted below;

*“We can say that spaces we have but they are far from main town where vendors are many. We can say we are just like some without spaces because what we have is small. Therefore, it becomes somehow difficulty to convince the vendors. Sometimes street vendors refuse to move saying the place is too far”* (Key informant 2)

*“Space sir. is worrying us. If we can have enough space or many of them within one place. I think vendors can be managed well”* (Key informant 2)

##### **4.6.2 Political interference**

Both key informants revealed that the main reason why challenges with street vending management was due to no proper complete condemnation of street vending especially politicians in power.

*..You see, it is our role to address Street Vending in our town; we politics sometimes put us with limitations. You remove vendors in the street, the same vendors go to area of Politicians and complain, and they come to engage us and reverse the decision. This was very common especially during Patriotic Front, but at least now.* (Key informant2)



*“This makes us and the police to have limited power to enforce law” (Key informant1)*

The fact that Chipata is challenged by limited space for vending entails that it matters where it is located. Meaning that the location of the vending places affects the behavior of vendors to comply or fail to comply (Onodugo, Ezeadichie, Onwuneme, and Anosike, 2016). It has been observed from the way the data came out that street vendors are not engaged when it comes to the preferences of vending spaces. Engagement is important because it creates a sense of ownership among street vendors, especially if participation is appropriate, because their voices become a dialogue with decision-makers. This initiative enables both parties, i.e., decision-makers and street vendors, to have the capacity to buy into the ideas of each other (Mramba, Apiola, Sutinen, Haule, Klomsri, and Msami, 2015). This understanding resonates with the idea submitted by Carol and Ongori (2013), which indicates that without the engagement of street vendors, it is difficult to identify their concerns regarding compliance with City Council regulations. This must have led to a failure by city Councils to adequately address the phenomenon of street vending in Chipata town. (Onodugo, Ezeadichie, Onwuneme, and Anosike, 2016)

Furthermore, based on the above findings, political interference hinders compliance with local authority regulations (Mhlomi, 2022). On the other hand, if politicians had political will in the management of street vending, vendors would have been easily controlled. Vendors comply with the voices of politicians. This evidence is in harmony with the results of the study done by Mungoyo (2015), which highlighted that politicians are very important because the community listens to them. This means that they have the capacity to make work for Local Authorities easy or difficult. They have the power to facilitate dialogue and collaboration between Local authorities and vendors to address the concerns of both parties. As a result, if they choose to work with the Local Authorities and vendors to address the concerns of both parties, compliance with street vendors becomes much easier (Wang, 2018); however, if they choose to work with the vendors for political propaganda, it becomes hard for the enforcement of laws. This is as well confirmed even in the study conducted in Kenya, which indicated that street vendors should not undergo any mistreatment at the hands of local authorities; if so, politicians usually intervene (Good fellow and Titeca, 2012).

#### **4.7 Mainstreaming of Street Vending Support into National Policies**

This theme was also developed under objective number two; *“To assess the management strategies that have been employed in street vending”*. A question was asked. *Are there any new and strategic methods that the institution is or has devised to address the issue of street vending sustainably?* The interest of the participants was to have street vending being mainstreamed in CDF. Their responses are found in the themes below;

- Constituency Development Funds-Street Vending
- Small Scale and Medium Enterprise-Street Vending

##### **4.7.1 Constituency Development Funds-Street Vending**

Both from key informants and street vendor perspectives, responses were common to advocate for CDF to empower street vendors;

*“For now it is difficulty. But my suggestion is that since the government has allocated more money in CDF, as street vendors we want to be remembered by boosting our businesses”* (participant 1).

*“If It were allowed, guided, we could have been using CDF to support the vulnerable street vendors, given that they are perceived to be poor”* (Key informant 2)

##### **4.7.2 Street vending -Small scale and medium enterprise**

When a similar question was further asked, the response was recommending Small Scale and Medium Enterprise to targeting Street Vendors with empowerment and one key informant had to say;

*“Street vending has been there even before us started working. The government has to just accept and allow, but most importantly, consider them as business entrepreneurial target. They hold a bigger role in the economic development of the Country* (key informant 1)

When asked to explain the meaning in economic development roles of Street Vendors in society, in the narration of key informants, two sub themes were identified:

- Informal economy

- Business innovations

#### **4.7.2.1 Informal economy**

One key informant mentioned by saying;

*If in our country Zambia, and our city Chipata inclusive, depend improving our economy through formal economic venture, we will struggle to develop. For example; current issue of mealie meal high cost, it is difficulty”* (key informant 2)

The Council Director Planning when interviewed also made his contributions by saying:

*“Actually street vending is the avenue of business innovation. A vendor can learn what is demanding on the market through interacting with many different customers from different places”* (Key informant 1)

The above data can be discussed from a policy-mainstreaming point of view (Halpern, Jacquot, and Le Galès, 2008). Mainstreaming of policy simply involves the integration of specific policies, objectives, or considerations into broader policy frameworks, strategies, or programs (WWellstead and Stedman, 2015). In the context of street vending, as indicated in the data, although there are efforts by the government to recognize the role of informal economy such as street vending and efforts to transform it into action, the nation still underscores numerous bottlenecks of actively recognizing street vending (Mwiinga, 2016). Notably, other studies recognize limited enforcement and implementation of policy at the local level as challenges. Hence, this in itself has resulted in a lack of consistency in the implementation and enforcement of efforts in all City councils in Zambia, including Chipata in our Country (Tangworamongkon, 2014).

Granted, the aforementioned findings are consistent with the results of a study done by Cross (1998), which states that integration of street vending into national policy is hampered by regulations that tend to be too complex at all levels of implementation, i.e., at national, provincial, and local levels. For example, national policy strives to recognize the role of Street Vending by providing a framework for supporting and formalizing informal economic activities and advocates for the protection of vendors' livelihoods and integrating them into urban development plans. However, the vendors are still compelled by the Public Health Act

to meet health standards of operations (Chileshe, 2020). Still more, at the provincial level, the rights of vendors in the informal economy to trade are still limited by the establishment of designated vending zones, which restrict places of operation (Daka, 2022). This really should cause decisions to be made about the position of vendors in the policy framework, whether they have rights to access the informal economy or not.

Even though there are, efforts by the government of Zambia to recognize street vending, on the other hand, the existing statutory instrument No. 44 of the 2007 Local Government Act, Cap. 281, is put to question (Jowell and Oliver, eds., 2007). We ought to challenge such an act for providing penalties even for activities that the government does not seem to be clear about. For example, street vendors are being fined for selling local produce in any public place other than a market established by the Council, except with the permission of the Council; hence, this action goes against people's rights to the informal economy (Timalsina, 2011). However, if such action is integrated, it then calls for public health issues, and public health awareness is required. For example, if vendors have absolute rights to street vending, then public nuisances are reported like throwing litter on or along a street or prescribed road, defecating in any unauthorized place, passing urine in any unauthorized place, spitting or vomiting on or along a street or prescribed road, singing an obscene song, or saying obscene words in a street are not acceptable. This means the question of whether they should leave or not at the vending place is not necessary (Rauch and Schleicher, 2015; McGruder, 2007). This understanding is not different from the findings in the literature of this study reviewed in an African context, in Uganda. The Country also views street vending as illegal and accounts for cities dirty, obstructing traffic, as well as a public nuisance (Mitullah et al., 2005).

#### **4.8 Measures to Address Street Vending-Vendors perspectives**

This major theme was developed in line with objective number 3, which says, ***"To recommend sustainable management approaches to street vending in Chipata CBD.*** The question says', *What suggestions would you recommend to ensure proper management of street vending.* From this question, a theme inform of measures was developed, breeding the following sub themes;

- Advocacy
- Empowerment

#### **4.8.1 Advocacy**

Two street vendors when asked measures they would love to see Councils support their business, they responded as follows;

*“It seems there is no any support from the government. No proper laws support us. Even when the police arrest you there is no support of our business on the street” (participant 6)*

*“They need to make it clear and come out in public that they support us street vendors not just come and address us when they know they want votes. Let them tell the community that our businesses is legal (participant 5)*

#### **4.8.2 Empowerment**

Under this sub theme, when they were asked about similar question, the following were narrations;

*In most cases we don't have money to begin big businesses. That's why I am asking that the government should remember us with small loans to boost whatever small business we have. It can go a long way (participant 3).*

*We just here there is Constituency Development Fund...CDF, but some of us, we don't benefit. They just build schools and other service provision. How about us who have not gone to school. The best is to support our business (participant 5).*

This data can be discussed directly from the conceptions of advocacy and empowerment. Advocacy simply denotes an act of publicly supporting or recommending a particular course of action, policy, or idea (Mitullah, 2003). In the face of street vending, it takes some form of political will to champion the idea of supporting the businesses of Street Vendors regardless of whether they comply to leave the street or not because they are citizens with rights to being supported by a policy (Caramaschi, 2023; Roever, 2016). The study conducted in the United States by Alpuche Caceres (2019) has a similar view. However, the scholar maintains his support for the legalization and formalization of street vending activities by developing clear

regulatory frameworks that balance the needs of vendors with the objectives of cities. This is consistent with the current literature outcomes in the scholarly work of Muuka (2003), who argues that all vendors, regardless of business background, must comply with Council regulations that support their wellbeing, including hygiene practices, and are protected by law, to operate their businesses in a safe environment.

From an empowerment perspective, a study done by Pineda Duque and Castiblanco Moreno (2022) in Colombia views empowerment as capacity-building initiatives and entrepreneurial training programs targeted at empowering vendors with the skills and knowledge needed to manage their businesses effectively, comply with regulations, access finance, and innovate in response to market demands. This approach is in support of other studies (AAdekola and Dokubo, 2017), which understand empowerment for poverty reduction and economic development among street vendors at the local level. This claim is strengthened by Vandenberg and Creation (2006), who related poverty reduction to employment opportunities. The scholar emphasizes the importance of targeting street vendors with limited formal education to help not only improve their livelihoods but also potentially create jobs for others and, as a result, reduce unemployment burdens in the country.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATION

#### 5.1 Conclusion

This study attempted to assess the management strategies to street vending in Chipata city. The achievement of this assessment was based on establishing ascertaining the nature of players involved in street vending management, assessing the management strategies that have been employed in street vending. To recommend sustainable management approaches to street vending in Chipata CBD. It was established that key major players in Street Vendors management include vendors themselves and City Council. Mainly it was established that factors for Street Vending included Employment opportunities, Business convenience, Social capital, Inadequate-training skills. The study further established Institutional strategies for managing street vending which included issues of Vending spaces, the Use of force by law enforcers and the issues Licensing system. Addressing street vending issues in Chipata City and Zambia as whole there is need of Mainstreaming of Street Vending support into national policy for example; the Constituency Development Funds-street vending and Small Scale and Medium Enterprise-Street Vending

The global, Sub-Saharan, and national-level literature was reviewed to establish the management strategies for street vending. It also heightened some key players, what motivates people to venture into Street Vending and their challenges while working on street. Vending. The application of the theoretical framework forbearance helped to understand the management of street vending, and tried to explain why governments tolerate the violation of their laws and regulations and when they enforce them (Holland, 2014). The use of descriptive qualitative research methodology helped the researcher to deeper understanding of the characteristics, behaviors, attitudes, and experiences of key players in the street vending. It allowed the researcher to describe and explore complexity of street vending in detail, providing insights into various ways of address it.

## **5.2 Recommendations**

According to the findings of this study, challenges related to management of street vending included lack of motivation to be in vending zones, inadequate training skills, limited vending spaces, political interferences and lack of cooperation to adhere to street vendors' regulations, therefore, remedial actions would be required to address the aforementioned challenges. The following are some recommendations from the student's point of view:

### **5.2.1 Set up Unique Public-Private Partnership (PPP) Model**

Since the study notes a challenge for Street Vendors to cooperate with the Local Authority regulations, a PPP model would be needed (Matraeva et al., 2016). The PPP model is simply a collaborative arrangement between the government and private sector to deliver public infrastructure services. (Gerrard, 2001). In order to motivate more vendors to be in the designated vending spaces, the set-up and engagement of PPP would not only bring expertise on the kinds of constructions that attract vendors but also assist in the management. Since inadequate training skills were also noted to be a challenge in the study outcome, therefore, the role of the model would include identifying the needs of Street Vendors. They would support the offering of training for street vendors in areas of business skills and development and compliance with local authority regulations (Plummer, 2013). This means that there is a need to designing a PPP policy framework which would bring all the relevant stakeholders together for joint planning and then to implement it through collaborative partnership among themselves. The Local Authority should engage in participatory discussions between the vendors' organization and other partners, a model involving dedicated Vending Zones collectively agreed upon and legally sanctioned, aesthetically pleasing standard trading spaces to be constructed in the Vending Zones and handed over to the vendors working in the area.

### **5.2.2 Political Interference**

Since it was observed that politicians do not have strong political will over street vending in Zambia, legal and regulatory frame work must be clear. Hence, there is a need to establish clear and comprehensive laws and regulations governing street vending that are based on principles of fairness, equity, and respect for the rights of vendors. Ensure that these frameworks are developed through inclusive consultation processes involving relevant stakeholders, including street vendors, local communities, civil society organizations, and the private sector (Young,



2017). It would also be ideal depoliticize the management and regulation of street vending by establishing independent regulatory body or mechanism responsible overseeing vending activities in Chipata and other cities in Zambia. Such bodies should be scrutinized to ensure that they represent the public other than political considerations (Tafti, 2019.)

### **5.2.3 Lack of Cooperation To Adhere To Street to Vendors' Regulations**

Lack of cooperation to adhere to Street to Vendors' Regulations is a challenge. This paper would recommend strengthening Street Vendors' engagement. This means that there is a need to foster an engagement with Street Vendors to understand their perspectives, concerns, and challenges regarding Vending Regulations. By involving vendors in the development of regulations and policies that affect them to ensure that their needs and interests are taken into account. Provide opportunities for vendors to participate in decision-making processes and contribute to finding solutions to issues related to street vending (Recio, 2022). There is also a need to think around aspect of incentive compliance. This means that vendors could be motivated by providing them with incentives for simply complying with regulations such as access to designated Vending Zones with better infrastructure, security, and amenities. Recognize and reward vendors who demonstrate good compliance records through preferential treatment, discounts on permit fees, or opportunities for business support and development (Kohn, 1993)

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## APPENDICES

### **Appendix 1: Informed Consent Form (Audiotape) – Focus Group discussions and key informants**

#### **Consent Form for participating in the Research by Audio taping and Transcribing Interviews**

**Study Title:** *An Assessment of the Management Strategies to Street Vending: A case of Chipata Central Business District of Zambia.*

#### **Introduction and Purpose**

My name is **Frank Mazani** I am a [Post graduate student in business Administration under the faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences] at the University of Zambia (UNZA), Department of Business studies I am working with my faculty Supervisor Mr. Kingskely Namangala I would like to invite you to take part in my research study, which looks at *the (An Assessment of the Management Strategies to Street Vending: A case of Chipata Central Business District of Zambia).*

#### **Procedures**

This study involves the audio taping and note taking of your interview with the researcher. Transcripts of your interview may be reproduced in whole or in part for use in presentations or written products that result from this study only. If you choose not to be audio taped, I will take notes instead. If you agree to be audio taped but feel uncomfortable or change your mind for any reason during the interview, I can turn off the recorder at your request. If you don't wish to continue, you can stop the interview at any time. Tape recordings shall be immediately erased, if you wish to withdraw your consent to taping or participation in this study.

#### **Confidentiality**

Your name will be in form of a number that will be assigned you or just mention key informant. Only the researcher will be able to listen to the tapes. The tapes will be transcribed by the researcher and erased once the transcriptions are checked for accuracy. Neither your name nor any other identifying information (such as your voice) will be used in presentations or in written products resulting from the study.

**BENEFITS**

There is no direct benefit to you from taking part in this study. However, it is hoped that the research will help inform policy makers to enforce *Management Strategies to Street Vending in Chipata central business district*. It will also allow other potential researchers to build on the study findings in response to issues involving street vending.

This consent for taping is effective until Date. On or before that date, the tapes will be destroyed. By writing your details below will mean consenting to audio taping

- 1) Participant's Signature.....Date.....signature.....
- 2) Participant's Signature.....Date.....signature.....
- 3) Participant's Signature.....Date.....signature.....
- 4) Participant's Signature.....Date.....signature.....
- 5) Participant's Signature.....Date.....signature.....
- 6) Participant's Signature.....Date.....signature.....

**NOTE: For key informant, only one allocation below for signing**

- 1) Participant's  
Signature.....Date.....signature.....



## **Appendix 2: Key Informants Interview Guide**

### ***Section A. Demographic characteristics of the key informants***

- (i) Sex
- (ii) Age
- (iii) Marital status
- (iv) Level of education

### ***Section B: Nature of the players involved in the management of street vending in Chipata CBD***

1. What is your current position?
2. Generally, what are your roles in the organization?
3. If the answer in question is yes, what are the specific roles that you perform in relation to street vending management
4. Are you in any way involved in the management of street vending in Chipata?
5. What factors do you think lead people to engage in street vending

### ***Section C: Management strategies have been employed in street vending for the Chipata CBD***

6. Are there management strategies that have been employed by the Chipata city council in the management of street vending? If the answer is yes  
*What management strategies does Council employ to manage street vending?*
7. Have these strategies been successful? And to what extent?
8. Have there been any challenges in the implementation of these strategies to manage street vending?
9. If the answer to the previous question is yes, then what have been challenges?
10. How have the challenges been addressed to ensure proper implementation of the strategies to street vending management?
11. Are there any new and strategic methods that the institution is or has devised to address the issue of street vending sustainably?
12. If the answer is yes to question 12, what are these new strategies? How and how are they going to be implemented in order to address the issue of street vending?

### ***Section D: Approaches in sustainable management of street Vending going forward.***

13. What suggestions would you recommend to ensure proper management of street vending

### **Appendix 3: Street vendors**

#### ***Section A. Demographic characteristics of the key informants***

- (i) Sex
- (ii) Age
- (iii) Marital status
- (iv) Level of education

#### ***Section B: Nature of the players involved in the management of street vending in Chipata CBD***

1. How long have you been involved in street vending?
2. Are any reasons for you to get involved in street vending? If yes,
3. What are the main reasons for you to get involved in street vending?
4. Do you think the government should support street vending?
5. What is the biggest problem you face regarding the Councils efforts in managing street vending?

#### **What could be the best approaches in sustainable management of street Vending going forward in Chipata CBD?**

8. *What suggestions would you recommend to ensure proper management of street vending*

**Appendix 4: Timelines**

**GANTT CHART SHOWING STUDY PERIOD AND ACTIVITY**

Activity	Feb 2023	March 2023	Aug 2023	Sep 2023	Oct 2023	Nov 2023	Dec 2023	Jan 2024	March 2024	April-2024
Topic conceptualization										
Literature review										
Proposal writing										
Submission of proposal to UNZA ethics committee										
Pretesting of data collection tools										
Data collection										
Data analysis										
Report writing										
Research submission										
Research defense										

## Appendix 5: Budget

S/N	DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITY/ITEM	QTY	UNIT PRICE	AMOUNT
01	Transport refunds to participants	21	50	3150
02	Fuel	80	15.98	1200
07	Printing	3	95	475
08	Editing	1	1000	1000
09	Binding	5	20	100
	Ethical approval	1	500	500
<b>Total</b>				<b>K6, 425</b>