



URBANIZATION AND INFORMAL ACTIVITIES IN OSOGBO, NIGERIA

***D.S. Ogundahunsi, S.B. Adedotun and O. Olayode**

Department of Urban and Regional Planning, Osun State University, Osogbo, Nigeria.

**Corresponding author's e-mail:: dele.ogundahunsi@uniosun.edu.ng.*

Abstract

The global trend of population growth in cities, referred to as urbanization, in recent times has been viewed with serious concern, especially, the resultant effect on the quality of life and urban environment. With almost 180,000 people added each day, it is estimated that urban population will increase to 61% by 2030 with over a billion living in poor conditions. This increase in urban population have created enormous challenges, one of which is the boom in the emergence of the informal sector such as street trading arising from the scramble for survival in the midst of biting socio-economic recession, spatial deprivation and reality of the city life. This study examines the effects of street trading activities on the road traffic environment and its implication for urban physical planning in Osogbo, Osun State, Nigeria. A total of 1,023 street traders were disaggregated into six clusters along the major axis of the city. A sample of 278 traders, disaggregated proportionately among the clusters, was selected for questionnaire administration to determine their socio-economic and demographic characteristics, the factors that contribute to their perseverance, the potentials and challenges of their activities. In addition, vehicle operators and pedestrians were enumerated to determine the impacts of their interaction with the street traders. The study sheds light on the socio-economic characteristics of the street traders, the implication of their activities on traffic flow, safety and urban management. It also provides an empirical basis for understanding the mechanics of street trading and enhance formulation of policy initiatives for dealing with the menace of street trading in developing countries.

Keywords: Informal sector, urbanization, urban sustainability, street trading, infrastructure, risks

Introduction

Urbanization, defined as a process of human agglomeration in multi-functional settlement of relatively substantial size (Mabogunje, 1985) and the growth both in size and numbers of urban centre (Ujoh et al, 2010), has attracted much global attention due to its recent rapid nature and impacts on the quality of life of urban dwellers and the urban environment. In the early 1950s, 70% of the world population lived in the rural areas, but in 2014, 54% live in urban centres (United Nations, 2014). With almost 180,000 people added each day, it is estimated that urban population will increase to 61% by 2030 (United Nations, 2004; UNFPA, 2007; Daramola & Ibem, 2011) with over a billion living in poor conditions below the poverty line of one dollar per day. The main concern globally is how to curtail the

unprecedented growth and expansion of urban centres occasioned by natural increase and rural-urban migration induced by industrialisation, globalisation and civilisation (Osasona et al., 2007).

As the world continues to urbanize, sustainable development challenges become increasingly concentrated in cities, particularly in the lower-middle-income countries where the pace of urbanization is fastest (Ogundahunsi et al, 2016). This has led to several global summits such as Millennium Development Goals Summits, the 2002 World Summit in Johannesburg, the 2005 La-Havana UN sustainable cities documentation of experience programme (UNDPI, 2008, Jiboye, 2011), the Rio+20 United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development, 2012 and UN Sustainable Development Summit 2015 where member nations

pledge their commitment to good and effective governance as a means of achieving sustainable development in the cities.

Africa has the highest urban growth rate in the world (Saghir & Santoro, 2018). While European and American countries have reached the fourth stage of the demographic transition theory characterized by population stabilization, and hence able to manage the challenges of sustainable development and ensure better urban quality of life, African countries, and of course, the developing countries have been incapable of evolving frameworks for grappling with the consequences of rapid urbanization. The African Planning Association (APA) observed that many African cities are unable to manage rapid urbanization using static blueprint master plans, insufficient and inadequately trained planning staff and other resource limitations. Nigerian cities are no exception.

The conclusions of a World Bank study in Lagos which revealed the failure of the Nigerian government to respond sufficiently to the increasing demand for urban infrastructural services (Lee and Anas, 1990) is still valid today as there has been no perceptible change as evidenced from Udou and Udoidem (2018). The consequences of the failure according to Onibokun & Faniran (1995), Turok & McGranahan (2013) and Obokoh & Goldman (2016) include

- a. adverse effect on the productivity of the economy of Lagos and of Nigeria in general.
- b. the quality of life in the city has deteriorated; conditions of living have worsened.
- c. most business and firms were negatively affected because they have to spend over 20 per cent of their capital outlay on providing their own infrastructure — electricity, water supply, transport, telecommunications, and waste disposal — which, under normal circumstances, should have been provided by the municipal authorities.

Urbanization is integrally connected to the three pillars of sustainable development: economic development, social development and environmental protection (UN, 2014). A proportionate development of these pillars leads to sustainable development but where any one of these pillars are lacking or disproportionately developed, sustainable development will be a mirage. The rapid increase in

human population in Nigerian cities accompanied by inadequate planning and lack of commensurate development in social services and infrastructure have created enormous challenges, one of such is the boom in the emergence of informal activities such as street trading which arises from the scramble for survival in the midst of biting socio-economic recession and reality of the city life.

This study explores informal trading activities in Osogbo as a consequence of spatial and economic deprivation resulting from unplanned urbanization and inability of existing economic, social and physical structures to meet the rapidly growing demand of urban population. It seeks to provide answer to questions such as who are the street traders, why are they engage in street trading, what factors attract them to their operating location and what are the consequences of their activities on traffic, environment and physical planning.

The Study Area

Osogbo metropolitan city is situated on latitude 7°40'0"N and longitude 4°37'31"E, and latitude 7°45'0"N and longitude 4°28'0"E southwest of Nigeria. It was founded in the late 17th century between 1650 and 1700 and originated as a traditional as well as cultural town. Due to its very rich arts and cultural heritage, the city has worldwide acclaim (Adenaike, 1991; Awe and Albert, 1995). It is 88km by road northeast of Ibadan, the capital city of Oyo State; 100km by road south of Ilorin, the capital city of Kwara State and 115km northwest of Akure, the capital city of Ondo State. Osogbo shares boundary with Ikirun, Ilesa, Ede, Egbedore and Iragbiji and is easily accessible from any part of the state due to its centrality.

Osogbo became the capital of Osun state after its creation in 1991, it consists of two local governments which are Osogbo and Olorunda with headquarters at Oke Baale and Igbonna respectively. Based on the 2006 Population Census (provisional result) Osogbo has a population of about 287,156 and the total land area is about 47 km².

Osogbo became a commercial town with the arrival of railway in 1907 which brought the colonial government of then to the threshold of the town and the establishment of seedcotton ginnery by the British Cotton Growers Association and other industrial concern boosted its economy. Osogbo became a major trading and distribution centre for people within and outside its immediate

environment. Its position as a state capital coupled with other factors led to the influx of people from other towns and villages, thus giving it the status of a twin city, that is, a traditional as well as a modern city. (Adenaike, 1991; Egunjobi, 1995).

Farming is the traditional and major occupation of the people of Osogbo and the people grow various food crops and cash crops. Apart from this, Osogbo people are well-known for commercial activities in handmade traditional woven cloth *Aso Oke*, batiks, cloth-dyeing and pottery. In addition, they are globally famous for their unique creations of art works of different cadre, painting, carving, bead-work, and sacred art works. This ever-increasing reputation in contemporary African arts raised Osogbo to a prominent spot in the world map - as far as arts and antiques collections are concerned.

The city is now a bursting commercial town; people from different places in Nigeria migrate to the city to provide labour, while others especially from the south-eastern and south-western parts of the country congregate for commercial purpose. As one of the regional centres of trade in the south-western part of

Nigeria, the city like most cities in Nigeria can be divided into three regions; the first being the traditional core comprising the palace area, Oja-Oba (King's Market), Isale Osun and Olu-Ode districts. The intermediate region consists of Station road, Okefia, Old Garage, Ajegunle, Olaiya, Alekunwodo, Jaleymi, Hospital road, Igbona, Ayetoro and Sabo. This region contains three major markets namely Adenle, Old Orisunmbare and New Orisunmbare, and a street market; Alekunwodo market. It has witnessed remarkable growth and development in the last three decades. The Old Garage and Okefia axis have become another centre of activity due to the intensity of commercial activities aided by the railway station and convergence of road network. The third region which is the newly developing peripheral area comprise of Ogo-Oluwa, Halleluyah Estate, Powerline/Ota-Efun, Oke-Bale, and Dada Estate districts. The first and the second regions feature higher concentration of informal trading activities than the third especially Oja-Oba, Ajegunle, Ayetoro and Okefia areas.

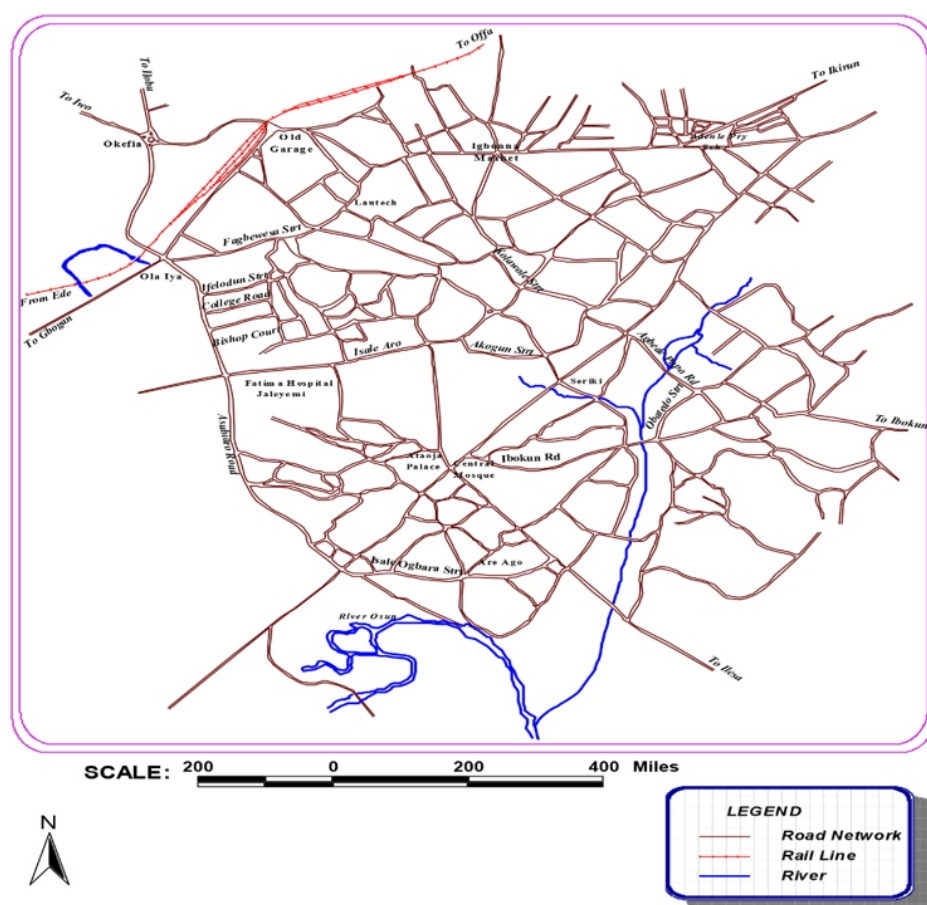


Figure 1: Transportation Network of Osogbo
Source: Ministry of Land and Physical Planning, Osogbo

The Informal Sector

The informal sector is the part of an economy that operates partially or fully outside government regulation, taxation and observation. It is also called other names such as the grey economy, shadow economy, black market and underground economy. Unlike the formal economy, activities that are engaged in the informal economy are not included in the Gross National Product (GNP) And Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of a country. It is characterised by easy entry, lack of stable and formalised employer-employee relationships (Meier and Rauch, 2005), no fixed wages or fixed hours of work, small scale of operations and skill acquisition outside the formal education system (Fundsforngos, 2009).

Informal economic activities in Nigeria comprise a wide range of small-scale, largely self-employment activities such as traditional occupations and methods of production (Ekpo and Umoh, 2015). Others include financial and economic endeavours of subsistence nature as: retail trade, transport, restaurant, repair services, financial inter-mediation and household or other personal services. Activities in the informal sector in Nigeria are difficult to measure; they are highly dynamic and contribute substantially to the general growth of the economy and personal or household income. Prominent among the informal activities in Nigerian cities is street-trading, street vending or roadside hawking defined as the selling of any goods or the supplying or offering to supply any service for reward, in a public road, or public place, by a street trader. A street trader is a person selling goods or services in public spaces in fixed stalls, such as kiosks; semi-fixed stalls, like folding tables, crates, collapsible stands, or wheeled pushcarts that are removed from the streets and stored overnight. It also includes traders who sell from fixed locations without a stall structure, displaying merchandise on cloth or plastic sheets; or those who walk or bicycle through the streets as they sell (Skinner, 2011)

In most urban centres across the country, street trading has persisted despite efforts by the government to eradicate it due to its adverse effects and unsafe environments in which it operates. It has become a means of earning a living or coping strategy by the unemployed, under-employed and traders who are unable to rent shops in the cities. While, their activities have profound positive effects on the economy it also has adverse effects on vehicular and pedestrian traffic, the quality of life, the

urban environment, especially, the central business district, physical planning and urban management. It is difficult to determine the number of street traders in a city but Adeyinka et al (2006) stated that informal economy in Nigeria accounted for a third of the 50 million labour force out of the 123.9 million people in 1999, who are actively engaged in mostly retail trading such as, the operation of front shops, stalls, kiosks, or hawking (Simon, 1998). The number obviously has been increasing steadily in the face of the rapid urbanization, rising unemployment rate and unstable economic climate in the country. According to IMF, the Nigerian informal sector accounted for about 65% of Nigeria's gross domestic product (GDP) in 2017 (BOI, 2018)

Urbanization and Urban Sustainability

The concept of urbanization is related historically to specialization, industrialization and economic development. McGranahan and Satterthwaite (2014) contended empirically that a higher level of urbanization is associated with higher per capita income implying that urbanization is integral to economic growth (Spence, Annez and Buckley, 2009). Rural-urban migration responds to economic development brought about by industrialization in the urban areas; migrants move to take advantage of the socio-economic opportunities and thereby help to boost the urban economy. The urbanization process in the developed world was slow which allowed for appropriate planning and investment in basic urban infrastructure to accommodate the increasing population and the evolution of a socio-political and economic order to manage the challenges of the growth (Turok, & McGranahan, 2013). However, the experience in the developing world differs; the rapid nature of urbanization and the lack of preparedness coupled with inability to invest in basic urban infrastructure and services have created a hostile environment for the survival of the migrants. Allen (2009) asserted that contemporary process of urbanisation in the developing world is characterised not just by a shift in the focus of poverty – from rural to urban – but more significantly compounded with the 'urbanisation of poverty and social exclusion' that derive from socio-economic, gender and ethnic inequalities. This is what Agbola (2005) referred to as “false urbanization” which is driven by demographic forces rather than economic and industrial forces.

The concept of urban sustainability draws from “true urbanization” rather than “false urbanization”. Allen (2009) outline five urban sustainability

dimensions to assess whether any given practice, policy or trend is approaching urban sustainability. These are economic sustainability, social sustainability, ecological sustainability, physical planning or built environment sustainability and political sustainability. The five dimensions are the five pillars whose interactions determine the effectiveness of urban management. The political component manages the other four to ensure social equity and justice. Unfortunately, in developing countries, robust interaction among the five components is grossly lacking with the resultant effect of the prevalence of unmanaged informal developments such as booming street trading. Cassim (1982) described the informal sector participation as a trap associated with impoverishment while Habib (2005) referred to it as the survivalist responses of marginalised persons with no alternative. This agrees with the contention of this study that spatial and economic deprivation resulting from unplanned urbanization and inability of existing economic, social and physical structures to meet the rapidly growing demand of urban population provide the environment for the flourishing of street trading in the Nigerian urban space.

Methodology

Primary data for this study was acquired through structured questionnaire administered to a sample of 278 traders out of a frame of 1,023 street traders. The sample frame was disaggregated into six clusters along the major axis of the city which are Old Garage, Station, Igbonna, Olaiya, Oke Baale and Oja Oba roads to determine their socioeconomic and demographic characteristics, the factors that contribute to their perseverance, the potentials and challenges of their activities. In addition, accidental samples of 98 vehicle operators and 121 pedestrians

were interviewed to determine the impacts of their interaction with the street traders. The data were collated with the aid of SPSS software and subjected to descriptive statistical analysis.

Data Presentation and Analysis

Demographic and socio-economic characteristics of respondents

The demographic and socio-economic characteristics considered in this study are age, gender, nativity, marital status, family size and level of education. Of the effectively sampled 278 respondents, a significant 74.5% are within the productive age bracket of 18 – 45 years. 7.6% are less than 18 years while the remaining are of age 46 years and above as shown in Table 1. 60.1% of the total respondents are males and 39.9% are females as denoted in Table 2. The preponderance of males is obviously due to the nature of the activity which often involve carrying their merchandise and running after customers in moving vehicles. Only in Oja-Oba area are the genders equally represented and this evidently results from the fact that the area is occupied by a traditional market and the road is narrow. Hence, vehicles have to slow down while passing through thereby reducing the stress traders go through. This is unlike Old Garage area (the CBD) with a lot of vehicular and pedestrian traffic where males dominate with 58.2%.

The study revealed that 55.0% of the road-side traders sampled are indigenes of Osogbo; the remaining 45.0% could be regarded as migrants from both the immediate neighbouring towns and distant ones. A consideration of the ethnic composition revealed that 65.3% are of Yoruba descent, 31% of Ibo ethnic descent and 3.7% of Hausa ethnic descent. Sixty-seven percent of the sampled population are married.

Table 1: Age of Respondents

Street	under 18 yrs	19-45 yrs	46-55 yrs	above 55 yrs	Total
Old garage road	16	90	16	0	122
Station road	5	62	12	3	82
Igbonna road	0	23	3	1	27
Olaiya road	0	8	1	1	10
Oke-Baale road	0	15	5	3	23
Oja-Oba road	0	9	3	2	14
Total	21	207	40	10	278
% of Total	7.6	74.5	14.4	3.6	100

Source: Field Survey, 2018

Table 2: Gender of respondents

Street	Male	%	Female	%	Total
Old garage road	71	58.2	51	41.8	122
Station road	50	41.0	32	26.2	82
Igbonna road	17	13.9	10	8.2	27
Olaiya road	7	5.7	3	2.5	10
Oke-Baale road	15	12.3	8	6.6	23
Oja-Oba road	7	5.7	7	5.7	14
Total	167		111		278
% of Total	60.1		39.9		100

Source: Field Survey, 2018

Of these, a significant 42.3% has a family size of 4 – 6, 40.5% has a family size of 1 – 3. Both categories constitute about 83% of the total respondents. At the extreme, 1.8% has a family size of more than 12.

About ninety-four percent of the respondents have formal education; secondary education dominates with 52%, followed by primary education with 33.5% and tertiary education with 8.7%. The dominance of secondary education reveals an apparent lack of access to education beyond the secondary school, a situation which may have pushed them into street trading because of limited opportunities for their level of education.

Reasons for Involvement

Ayeni (1980) attributes the cause of involvement in street trading to unemployment. While it is reasonable to expect that people engage in informal activities because formal employment opportunities are no more abundantly available, this study reveals a deeper side of the story. Table 2 shows that only 11.2% of the respondents reported unemployment as the reason for their involvement while 2.2% reported that the activity is their primary occupation. However, 20.9% reported survival strategy, 18.3% said they got involved because of the prohibitive cost of getting retail space while a significant 47.5% stated that the opportunity to make quick sale without overhead cost is the main attraction. About 35% of the respondents claimed ownership of retail space (shop) which they use for storage because they were not getting enough patronage. This implies that 68.4% of the respondents are probably engaged in other occupation; they get involved in street trading to enhance their income in order to make ends meet.

Articles sold

The articles displayed along road-sides, pavements or road median, temporary structures, wheel barrow by

traders are varied. They are categorized into foodstuffs, electronics, shoes/bags, clothing materials, stationeries and household devices. Old Garage area features the highest collection of items because it is the main central business district of the town and features the highest concentration of business concerns, and highest vehicular and pedestrian traffic.

Length of Engagement and Choice of Location.

The length of engagement in road-side trading reveals the number of years the traders have spent selling by the road-side. Table 3 shows that more than half of the respondents have been engaged in the activity for two to five years, 25.3% of the respondents claimed to have spent 6 – 10 years in the sector while 21.3% indicated that they are just less than a year and an insignificant 0.7% reported they have been in the business for more than 11 years.

On a descending scale, respondents reported the reason for their choice of location as patronage (67.6%), centrality (16.9%), transport cost (10.1%) and accessibility (5.4%) as expressed in Table 4. It is clear and makes economic sense that the overriding reason for choice of location is patronage which is a function of profit.

Profit of Street Traders per day

Businesses are carried out with the ultimate goal of making profit. In other words, profit to a large extent determines the sustainability of the business. Figure 4 has shown that the overriding factor in street trading activity is financial reward just as every other business engagement. Table 5 reveals an interesting scenario; the highest average profit was reported in Old Garage, the central business district and which generates the highest traffic flow of vehicles and pedestrians. This also confirms the assertion that street traders are attracted to locations where they

could get high profit. Station road, Oke Baale, Oja Oba and Olaiya areas followed respectively. The calculated average profit per day for all the sampled population was N4,367.81; which translates to a monthly average of over N100,000. This is quite significant even though studies show them as low-income earners, but their daily profit margin shows that their income is relatively high compared to a civil

servant whose minimum wage is N-30,000 monthly. The standard deviation of 670.71 indicates wide dispersion from the mean which implies variability in the profits of the respondents. This is obvious from the fact the locations with high traffic of people such as the Old Garage will generate more patrons and profit than other locations with less traffic.

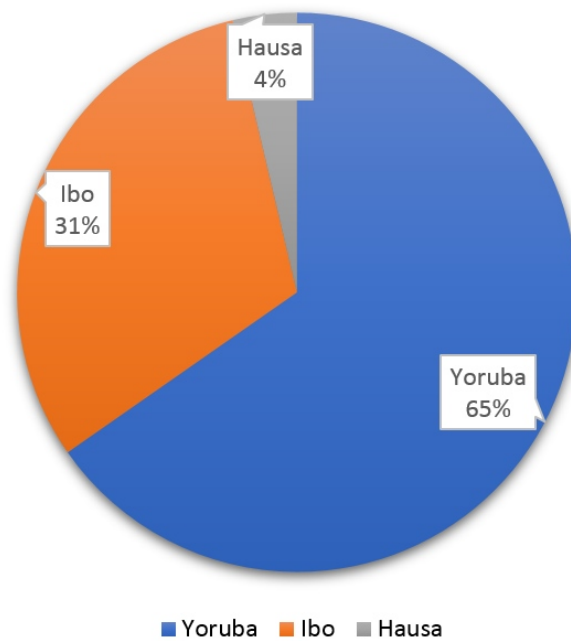


Figure 2: Ethnicity of Respondents
Source: Field Survey, 2018.

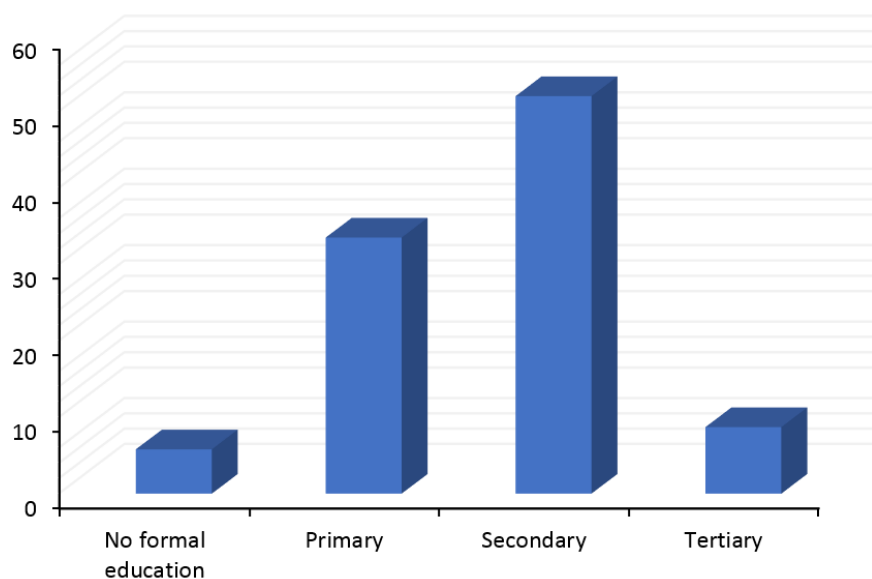
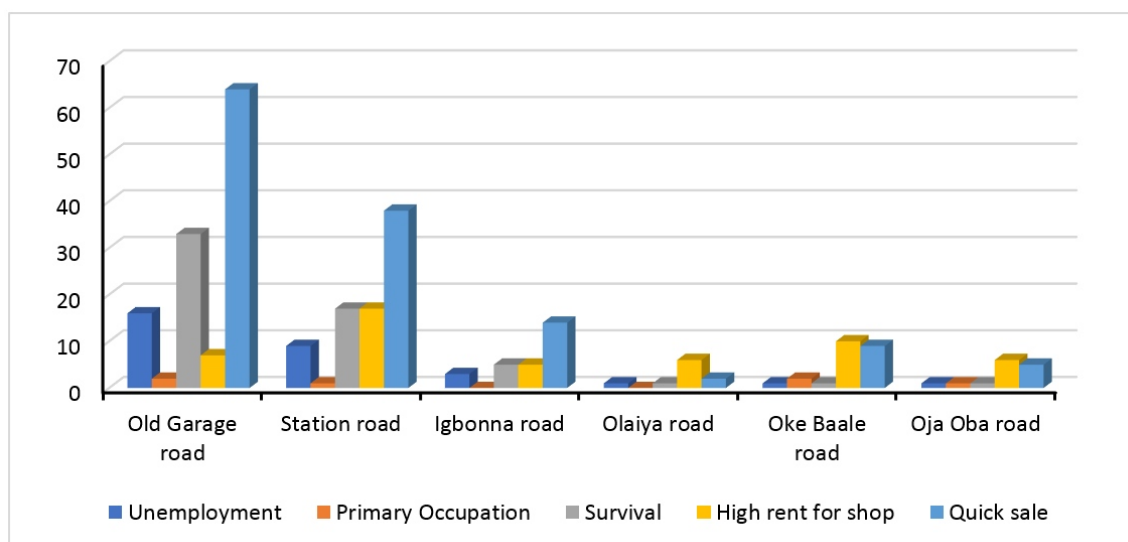


Figure 3: Educational Status of Respondents
Source: Field Survey, 2018.

**Figure 4:** Reason for involvement

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 3: Length of Engagement in Street Trading

Street	1 yr	2-5 yrs	6-10 yrs	Above 10 yrs
Old garage road	12	67	40	3
Station road	22	45	15	0
Igbonna road	8	14	5	0
Olaiya road	5	4	1	0
Oke-Baale road	8	9	6	0
Oja-Oba road	4	7	3	0
Total	59	146	70	3
% of Total	21.2	52.5	25.2	1.1

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4: Reason for Choice of location

Reason	Freq	%
Accessibility	15	5.4
Centrality	47	16.9
Patronage	188	67.6
Transport Cost	28	10.1
Total	278	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 5: Average Profit of Respondents per day

Street	Profit (₦)
Old Garage	5,135.25
Station Rd	3,923.78
Igbonna Rd	3,305.56
Olaiya Rd	3,500.00
Oke Baale	3,858.70
Oja Oba	3,785.71
Standard Deviation (σ)	670.71

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Payment of Tax

One of the civic responsibilities and obligations of every citizen is to pay tax. Table 6 shows that 82.4% of the respondents reported that they do not pay tax, while 17.6% claimed to pay tax. A closer examination showed that the traders had varied views about the tax. Some made reference to a mandatory daily ticket fee paid to the local government; while others gave varied amount ranging from ₦200 – ₦1000 monthly paid to the alleged owners of property on which they traded; these in essence guarantee the stay of the traders in these locations. The payments were not really the government tax expected from the traders. In actual fact, they constitute a significant part of the informal sector that has not been captured in the tax regime of the country

Confrontation by Law Enforcement Agents

Bhowmik (2008) observed that in India, road-side traders conduct their business amidst insecurity. Whenever eviction drives are conducted their wares are seized or destroyed. Even where street vending is permitted by the municipality, the police have the authority to remove them. In Nigeria, the situation is not different as road-side traders experience all kinds of confrontations from the security agents as seen in Lagos and some other cities where legal backing by

the law to seize and confiscate the wares of traders that violates the street trading law has been made (Ogundahunsi *et al*, 2016). Table 7 reveals that more than half of the respondents (54.7%) reported confrontation with law enforcement agents multiple times asking them to vacate the road sides or the pedestrian walkway. However, these attempts were met with stiff resistance by the traders who claimed they had paid the daily ticket fee which granted them the right to occupy the space.

Respondents' Awareness of Risks Involved in Street Trading

A significant 84.2% reported that they were aware of the risks involved in their activities while the remaining 15.8% reported that not much risk was involved. At the street levels, the data reveal very high levels of awareness (between 80% and 93%) in Old Garage and Station roads while the other streets recorded between 70% and 79% (See figure 5). This is obviously to be due to the higher traffic flow of pedestrians and vehicles in Old Garage and Station roads than the other areas. The identified risks are: being hit by vehicles (BHV), loss of goods (LGDS), exposure to high concentration of air pollutants (EHCP), exposure to hot sun and inclement weather (ESIW), crime and theft (CRMT), sexual harassment (SXH) and kidnapping (KDNP).

Table 6: Tax Payment

Street	Yes	%	No	%	Total
Old Garage	26	53.1	96	41.9	122
Station Rd	8	16.3	74	32.3	82
Igbonna Rd	5	10.2	22	9.6	27
Olaiya Rd	2	4.1	8	3.5	10
Oke Baale	6	12.2	17	7.4	23
Oja Oba	2	4.1	12	5.2	14
Total	49		229		278
% of Total	17.6		82.4		

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Table 7: Confrontation by Law Enforcement Agents

Street	Yes	%	No	%	Total
Old Garage	95	62.5	27	21.4	122
Station Rd	18	11.8	64	50.8	82
Igbonna Rd	21	13.8	6	4.8	27
Olaiya Rd	9	5.9	1	0.8	10
Oke Baale	4	2.6	19	15.1	23
Oja Oba	5	3.3	9	7.1	14
Total	152		126		278
% of Total	54.7	0.0	45.3	0.0	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2014

Problems Traders Cause as a Result of their Location

Apart from the problems street traders encounter, they also constitute challenges to the traffic flow, the pedestrians and the immediate environment. Some of the problems identified manifests in the form of traffic congestion, waste management, unhealthy competition over customers and accidents as expressed in Table 8. 52.5% of the problems created are related to traffic congestion; followed by 34% accidents; 7.8% are of unhealthy competition amongst themselves while 5.7% are waste generation and poor sanitary environments. The waste generated by the activities of street traders defaces the street and clog drainages.

It was observed from the study that road-side trading causes traffic congestion based on the responses of other road users. As Ogundahunsi *et al*, (2016) observed that street trading causes traffic congestion because traders congregate at points along the roads where pedestrian and vehicular traffic is heavy. Congestion can also be attributed to the narrowing of the width of traffic lanes due to structures put there by the traders. The practice of road-side trading also poses problems of hygiene and sanitation because traders dealing in food items usually expose them to flies and display them under unsanitary conditions. Closely related to this is the unkempt nature of the environment in which they carry out their trading activities.

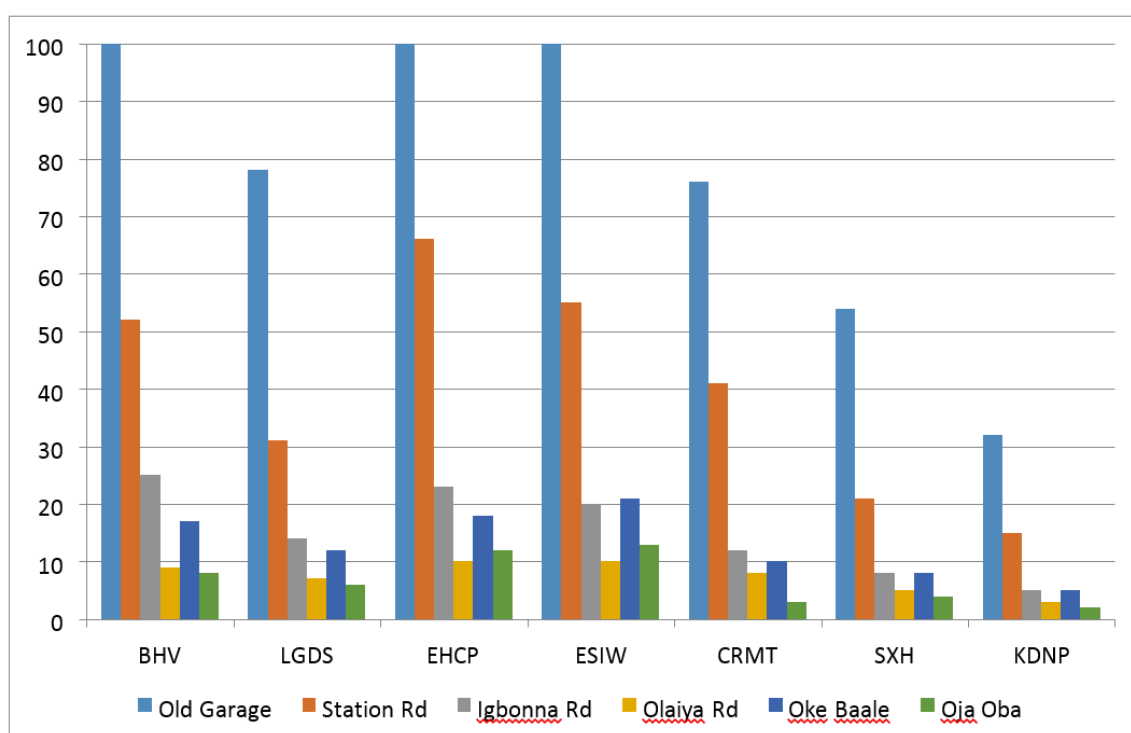


Figure 5: Reported Vulnerability to Risks

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 8: Problems caused by Traders

Problems	Freq	%
Accidents	94	33.8
Traffic Congestion	146	52.5
Unhealthy Competition	22	7.9
Waste generation/unsanitary environment	16	5.8
Total	278	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Summary

The study revealed that variation exists in the socio-demographic characteristics of the roadside traders. Based on the sample studied, there are more males engaged in the activities than females. The sample is dominated by persons within the age group of 18–45 years recording 74.5% of the entire respondents. This implies that the activity is undertaken by the productive agile young men and women in their prime. Men dominate in the trading activity because running after vehicles, crisscrossing the road in heavy traffic and bracing the odds of the weather is more suited for men than women.

The study also reveals that a significant proportion of the street traders became involved in order to meet-up with their economic inadequacy as only 11.2% of the respondents reported unemployment as the reason for their involvement while 2.2% reported that the activity is their primary occupation. Others move to street sides because they are unable to afford a retail space while those that could afford it get involved because of low patronage. The study equally revealed that the choice of location made by the traders was mainly based on patronage and they make an average profit of ₦4,367.81 with a standard deviation of 640.7. The analysis of risk awareness of the respondents reveals that a significant proportion (84.2%) were aware of the risks involved in their activities and most reported risk was exposure to high concentration of air pollutants such as carbon monoxide and dust particles and exposure to the sun and inclement weather.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study has revealed that informal trading activities in Osogbo are a consequence of spatial and economic deprivation resulting from unplanned urbanization and inability of existing economic, social and physical structures to meet the rapidly growing demand of urban population. It also underscores the consequences of the roadside trading on traffic flow, health status of the traders and the environment.

Recommendations

Having examined some of the findings of the study,

the following recommendations are put forward that could possibly help to handle the problem of uncontrolled road-side trading at the CBD of the Osogbo.

- The street traders form an integral part of the informal economic sector which contributes significantly to the economy of the nation. Hence, they should be recognised and integrated into the economic system instead of the current animosity towards them.
- Street trading delivers low-cost goods and services in extremely small quantities and enables poor households to consume what they otherwise would not be able to. The flexible hours, levels of activity, and work locations associated with street trading enable the working poor to earn an income while simultaneously meeting needs for dependent care and unpaid household work. Therefore, the traders need to be protected through government sponsored initiatives and the enforcement of the existing traffic safety measures.
- One of the major factors for the presence of the traders on the road is the shortage of retail space and the lack of accessibility to the existing ones due to cost. Government should evolve a framework to partner with private and corporate organizations in the provision of lock-up shops and retail space at affordable cost. This could be by expanding the markets in the identified locations where street trading takes place.
- The state government should provide a comprehensively planned alternative location for markets solely for the road-side traders through public participation in deciding such location. Such location should have high connectivity and accessibility in order for the traders to have adequate patronage comparable to the one they have in their present locations.
- Another way to reduce the number of people selling by the road-side is for the authorities to bring down the cost of renting shops, which presently goes between ₦300,000 and ₦500,000 annually in the Ayegbaju Modern Market within the CBD of the study area.

References

- Adenaike, F. (1991). *The Pioneers*. Ministry of information, Osun State of Nigeria.
- Adeyinka, S.A., Omisore, E.O., Olawumi, P.O. and Abegunde, A.A. (2006) "An Evaluation of Informal Sector Activities and Urban Land Use Management in South Western Nigeria" TS 35- Informal Settlements: Policy, Land Use and Tenure, Shaping the Change, XXIII FIG Congress, Munich, Germany, October 8-13, 2006.
- Agbola, T. (2005) *Urbanization, Physical Planning and Urban Development in West Africa* Proceedings of Commonwealth Association of Planners Congress Agenda Setting Workshop on Urbanization, Physical Planning and Urban Development in West Africa held at Millennium Hotel, Sokode Crescent, Wuse Zone 6, Abuja, Nigeria pp 40-67.
- Allen, Adrianna. (2009). Sustainable cities or sustainable urbanisation? Summer 2009 edition of 'Palette', *Journal of Sustainable Cities*. www.ucl.ac.uk/sustainable-cities. Retrieved February 9, 2015
- Awe, B. and Albert, O. (1995). Historical development of Osogbo. In: *Model of Growing African Town*. C. O. Adepegba (Ed). Institute of African Studies University of Ibadan, Nigeria.
- Ayeni, O. O. (1980), "Street Trading in Ibadan, Focus on Lebanon-Amunigun-Feleye Agbeni and Gege Streets". Department of Town Planning and Estate Management, The Polytechnic, Ibadan.
- Ayeni, O.O. (1980), "Street Trading in Ibadan, Focus on Lebanon-Amunigun-Feleye Agbeni and Gege Streets". Department of Town Planning and Estate Management, The Polytechnic, Ibadan.
- Bank of Industry (BOI) (2018), Economic Development through the Nigerian Informal Sector: A BOI perspective. *Working Paper Series: No. 2, Strategy & Corporate Transformation Group*
- Bhowmik, K.S (2003), "Urban Responses to Street Trading: India". Paper for panel entitled "Urban Responses to Street Traders: A Comparative Perspective from India, Kenya and South Africa" at the Urban Research Symposium on Urban Development for Economic Growth and Poverty Reduction, World Bank, Washington, D. C., December 2003.
- Cassim, F. 1982. 'Labour market segmentation: The theoretical case', *South African Journal of Economics*, 50(4): 240–247.
- Daramola, A. & Ibem, E. O. (2010) Urban Environmental Problems in Nigeria: Implications for Sustainable Development. *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa*. 12 (1), 124144.
- Egunjobi, L. (1995). Aspects of urbanization, physical planning and development Osogbo. In: *Model of Growing African Town*. C. O. Adepegba (Ed). Institute of African Studies, University of Ibadan, Nigeria. pp.13–28.
- Ekpo, I A. H. and Umoh, O. J. (2015). *The Informal Sector*. Online Nigeria Community Portal of Nigeria. www.onlinenigeria.com. Retrieved March 15, 2015.
- Fundsforngos, (2009). *Specific characteristics of the formal economy and informal economy*. www.fundsforngos.org/development-dictionary/specific-characteristics-of-the-formaleconomy-and-informal-economy/. Retrieved March 15, 2015.
- Gordon McGranahan and David Satterthwaite. (2014). *Urbanisation concepts and trends*. IIED Working Paper. IIED, London. <http://pubs.iied.org/10709IIED>. Retrieved February 17, 2015
- Habib, A. 2005. 'State-civil society relations in post-apartheid South Africa', *Social Research*, 72(3): 671–690.
- Jamal Saghir and Jena Santoro (2018). *Urbanization in Sub-Saharan Africa: Meeting Challenges by Bridging Stakeholders*. Washington DC, Center for Strategic and International Studies. <https://www.csis.org/>. Retrieved June 3, 2020.
- Jiboye, A. D. (2011). Shelter for the Urban Homeless: The Challenge for Sustainable Cities' development in Nigeria. *The Built & Human Environment Review*. 4 (2), 14-21.
- Lee, K. S. and A. Anas. (1990). *Impact of Infrastructure Deficiencies on Nigerian Manufacturing: Private Alternatives and Policy Options*. A Research Monograph. Infrastructure and Urban Development Department, The World Bank, 298 pp.
- Mabogunje, A. (1985). Towards an urban policy in Nigeria. In, P. Onibokun. (Ed.). *Housing in Nigeria. A Book of Readings*. Ibadan, Nigeria. NISER.
- Meier, Gerald M and Rauch, James E. (2005). *Leading Issues in Economic Development* (8 ed.). New York: Oxford University Press. pp. 371–375.
- Obokoh, L.O., Goldman, G. (2016) Infrastructure deficiency and the performance of small- and medium-sized enterprises in Nigeria's Liberalised Economy. *Acta Commercii* 16(1), a339. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/ac.v16i1.3>
- Ogundahunsi D. S., Adedotun, S. B. and Adejuwon, S. A. (2016) Safety Awareness of Roadside Traders in Osogbo Township, Osun State, Nigeria. *WIT Transactions on The Built Environment*, Vol 164, WIT Press. pp 93-104. doi:10.2495/UT160091.
- Onibokun, A., & Faniran, A. (1995). Urbanization and urban problems in Nigeria. In *Urban Research in Nigeria*. IFRA-Nigeria. doi:10.4000/books.ifra.544
- Osasona C., Ogunshakin L. & Jiboye A. (2007). "The African Woman's right to security through sanitation. From the dwelling unit to the neighbourhood". Conference proceeding on, *Right to Live in Africa*. Trieste, 9 – 10 November. University of Trieste, Italy.
- Simon, P. B. (1998), "Informal Responses to Crisis of

- Urban Employment: An Investigation into the Structure and Relevance of Small-Scale Informal Retailing in Kaduna, Nigeria". *Regional Studies* 32 (6).
- Skinner, Caroline (2011). *AAPS Planning Education Toolkit: The Informal Economy*. <http://wiego.org/resources/aaps-planning-education-toolkit-informal-economy>. Retrieved March 5, 2015.
- Spence, M., P.C. Annez, and R.M. Buckley eds. (2009). *Urbanization and Growth*. Washington: World Bank.
- Turok, I., & McGranahan, G. (2013). Urbanization and economic growth: the arguments and evidence for Africa and Asia. *Environment and Urbanization*, 25(2), 465–482. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0956247813490908>
- Udoudo Francis P. and Udoidem John O. (2017) Urban Infrastructure Provision in Nigeria: A Critique of the Funding Strategy. *Saudi Journal of Business and Management Studies*, Vol. 2, Iss. 3, pp256-263. DOI: 10.21276/sjbms.2017.2.3.18.
- Ujoh, F. Kwabe, I. D. & Ifatimehin, O. O. (2010). Understanding urban sprawl in the Federal Capital City, Abuja: towards sustainable urbanization in Nigeria. *Journal of Geography and Regional Planning*. 3 (5). 106-113. [Online] Available: <http://www.academicjournals.org/JGRP> (July 19, 2011).
- United Nations Department of Public Information (UNDPI). (2008). *Achieving the Millennium Development Goals in Africa. Recommendations of the MDG Steering Group*. [Online] Available: <http://www.mdgafrica.org>. pdf. Retrieved March 18, 2015.
- United Nations Population Fund for Population Activities. UNFPA (2007). *State of the World Population 2007, Unleashing the Potential of Urban Growth*. New York.
- United Nations, (2014) *World Urbanization Prospects: The 2014 Revision, Highlights (ST/ESA/SER.A/352)*. New York.
- United Nations. (2004). *World Population Policies 2003*. New York. USA.