

## Street Foods: Risk and Safety

Niki Kharel\* and Jyoti Prakash Tamang

Food Microbiology Laboratory, Sikkim Government College, Sikkim University, Tadong  
737102, Sikkim

(Received 11 October 2010; accepted 27 November 2010)

Street foods are defined as ready-to-eat foods and beverages prepared and sold by vendors and hawkers, especially in streets and public place (Hanashiro *et al.*, 2005). The street food industry plays an important role in the developing countries (Canet and N'Diaye, 1996). More than 30% of street vendors sell foods in different cities in India (Sudershan *et al.*, 2009). Street vendors are appreciated for their unique flavour and convenience, as well as for maintaining the nutritional nature of traditional preparations for the population. They also assure food security for low-income group urban population on one hand, and provide livelihood for a portion of the population in many developing countries (WHO, 1996). The consumers who depend on such food are more interested in their convenience and low cost, rather than on aspects related to its safety, quality and hygiene (Barro *et al.*, 2002b; Collins, 1997; Mensah *et al.*, 2002). Street vendors generally use stands and carts which are often of crude and inappropriate design; frequently running water is not accessible to them, and they are forced to use the same and limited water for hand and dish washing using the same bucket, sometimes even without using any detergent or soap. The waste water is usually discarded in the street, and the waste material or garbage is disposed at the nearest point. This provides ready food for street animals and also attracts insects and rodents. In areas where public toilets are not available, the vendors are frequently forced to get rid of even their body wastes in nearby places and return to the vending sites without properly washing their hands (Bryan *et al.*, 1988; Ekanem, 1998). Usually the pieces of paper used for serving the food items are newsprint materials. Even dried leaves are often used for serving the food which point towards the clear possibility of the existence of microflora on leaves and newsprints (Mensah *et al.*, 2002). Vendors are often with no formal education without a license, untrained in food hygiene and work under crude and unsanitary conditions. They have no or very little knowledge about the cause of food borne diseases (Barro *et al.*, 2007). Inadequate storage, processing and cooking facilities also contribute to contamination (Dawson and Canet, 1991).

The microbiological safety of street foods is a major concern (Moron, 1992). Biological contaminants such as bacteria, viruses, fungi, protozoa and helminthes, etc. are the major causative agents of food-borne diseases with varying severity, ranging from mild indisposition to chronic or life threatening illness, or both (Edema *et al.*, 2005). In some cases street-vended foods have been implicated in outbreaks of food borne diseases (Dawson and Canet, 1991). For instance, in Perak of Malaysia, 14 people died as a result of eating rice noodles brought from street vendors (Bryan *et al.*, 1992b). A cholera epidemic in Pune was related to street-vended sugarcane juice containing ice that was contaminated with *Vibrio cholerae* (Bryan *et al.*, 1992b). Food borne illness caused by the consumption of street vended foods has been reported in several places in India and elsewhere (FAO, 1989; Estrada Gracia *et al.*, 2004; Chumber *et al.*, 2007; Ghosh *et al.*, 2007). It has also been reported that street foods even contain pathogens and have been implicated in food borne epidemics, particularly in developing countries (King *et al.*, 2000; Kubheka, *et al.*, 2001; Azanza and Ortega, 2004). *Staphylococcus aureus* causes illness ranging from minor skin infection resulting

---

\*Corresponding Author

in pimples, boils, cellulites, toxic shocks syndrome, impetigo, and abscesses to fatal infections as pneumonia, meningitis, endocarditis, and septicemia (Soomro *et al.*, 2003; Masud *et al.*, 1988). *Listeria monocytogenes* is recognized as a food borne pathogen (Kaclikova *et al.*, 2001) and can cause serious diseases called listeriosis, particularly to pregnant women, newborns, very old and in people who are immune compromised (Fleming *et al.*, 1985). Contamination of food products with pathogenic bacteria can aid in the spread of certain harmful diseases like tuberculosis, gastroenteritis, brucellosis, salmonellosis, and staphylococcal food poisoning (Jay, 1987; George, 1981).

Food borne bacterial pathogens commonly detected in street-vended foods are *Bacillus cereus*, *Clostridium perfringens*, *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Salmonella* spp. (Bryan *et al.*, 1988; Bryan *et al.*, 1992a,b,c; Bryan *et al.*, 1997; Mosupye and von Holy, 1999; Umoh and Odoba, 1999). *Bacillus cereus* and *Staphylococcus aureus* are major pathogens found in poultry street foods like chicken noodles, chicken fried rice etc. in Hyderabad (Sudershan *et al.*, 2009). The foods sampled from street shops that had close proximity to heavy human or vehicular traffic were more contaminated than shops housed further away from roads (Tambekar *et al.*, 2008). Other studies showing some emerging food and water borne pathogens detected in food were *Listeria monocytogenes*, *Campylobacter jejuni*, *Yersinia enterocolytica*, *Salmonella*, *E. coli*, *Vibrio cholera* (Daga *et al.*, 2003).

Species of *Salmonella* and *Proteus* can occur through poor quality water, sewage and soil, and improper handling by the workers (Adams and Moss, 2002). Assessment of the microbiological safety of salad vegetables and sauces from *kebab* take-away restaurants in the United Kingdom has revealed high bacterial counts and a high incidence of food borne pathogens. About 4.7% of 1213 salad vegetable samples were of unsatisfactory quality due to the presence of *Escherichia coli* and *Staphylococcus aureus* levels at  $\geq 10^2$  cfu/g, 0.3% of salad samples were of unacceptable quality due to *S.aureus* at  $\geq 10^4$  cfu/g. Cucumber was the most contaminated salad vegetable with regards to unsatisfactory levels of *E.coli* (6.0%) or *S.aureus* (4.5%). The 5% of sauce samples were of unsatisfactory levels due to *E.coli*, *S. aureus* at  $\geq 10^2$  cfu/g and *Bacillus cereus* and other *Bacillus* spp. at  $\geq 10^4$  cfu/g; 0.6% of sauce samples were of unacceptable quality due to *Bacillus* spp. at  $\geq 10^5$  cfu/g (Meldrum *et al.*, 2009). Microbiological studies of street vended foods in America, Asia and Africa have revealed high bacterial counts and a high incidence of food borne pathogens (Bryan *et al.*, 1988, 1992a, b, 1997; Ekanem, 1998). *Aspergillus* and *Rhizopus* spp. were found in street foods of Africa like *kokoro* and *kunu tsamiya* (Adegoke *et al.*, 2008). *Aspergillus niger* has been found to produce protecatheic and oxalic acids which are toxic metabolites in *kokoro* (Avdesh and Prakash, 1968). A large proportion of main dishes are contaminated with unacceptable levels of bacteria (Mensah *et al.*, 2002). The hygienic aspects of street food processing and vending operations are a major source of concern for the authorities connected with food safety and control. *E. coli*, *S. aureus* and *L. monocytogenes* have been isolated from milk products, such as curd and cottage cheese, sold at shops in the unorganized sector of Agra (Singh and Prakash, 2008). *E. coli* frequently contaminates food items and is a good indicator of fecal pollution (Soomro *et al.*, 2002; Benkerroum *et al.*, 2004).

Studies carried out in food safety in various part of India focused on various pathogenic organisms that were detected in a variety of foodstuffs which revealed the presence of *E. coli*, *Enterobacter* spp, *Shigella* spp in milk and milk products (Bhat and Rao, 1987; Bhat *et al.*, 1995, 1996), faecal coliforms and *E. coli* in vegetables (Bhat *et al.*, 1997; Bhat and Vasanthi, 1998), *Staphylococcus aureus*, *E. coli*, *Enterobacter* spp, *Salmonella typhi* in salad vegetables, fruit and sprouts and *Bacillus cereus* in cooked food (Bhat and Vasanthi, 2000). In street foods of India, the highest frequency of the occurrence of bacterial pathogens, such as *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in *samosa* (25%), *E. coli* (32%) and *S. aureus* in *kachori* (27%), *Salmonella* spp. in *samosa* (36%), *batatawada* (12%) and *pakode* (7%) has been recorded (Tambekar *et al.*, 2008). There was report of high incidence of *E. coli* in food items from the city of Amravati, which might be occurring through the use of contaminated water or through the poor practice of hand washing and/or on account of contaminated utensils (Tambekar *et al.*, 2006). This was followed by contamination with *Staphylococcus aureus*, which might be occurring through infected wounds, running hands through hair or scratching the scalp, cuts, burns and dirty clothing of the vendors (Muleta and Ashenafi, 2001; Ghosh

*et al.*, 2007). *E. coli*, *S. aureus*, coliforms and *Enterococci* were isolated from street foods of Karnataka (Gautami *et al.*, 1995; Girish *et al.*, 2002). Sudershan *et al.* (2009) pointed out that the critical control points of contamination of both street foods and water samples are poor during handling and prolonged storage conditions. In various parts of Tamil Nadu street foods such as fried fish, sugarcane juice, *gulab jamoon* (traditional sweet preparation made of cereal flour and dipped in sugar syrup) and *athirasai* (Indian traditional sweet preparation made of rice flour and sugar) contained *Vibrio* spp and *E. Coli* (Gugnani, 1999). In Madurai, street foods had highest total aerobic plate counts of bacteria showing that the food was not safe for consumption (Jacob, 1976; Sudershan *et al.*, 2009). In Coimbatore street foods showed high coliform count during the handling procedures (Sudershan *et al.*, 2009). Pineapple juice sold in Hyderabad showed *E. coli* indicating fecal contamination in the water used to make the juice (Kannan *et al.*, 1997; Kalra *et al.*, 1999). Bacterial profile of street foods in Mangalore eg., *bhelpuri*, *masalapuri*, *panipuri*, *sevpuri*, noodles, fried rice and lime rice were examined, the same were shown to be contaminated with bacteria (Bhat *et al.*, 2004). A study carried out to examine the quality and safety of street vended fruit juice in Vishakhapatman city revealed to be hygienically poor (Lewis *et al.*, 2006).

Many food products are highly perishable. They are easily contaminated when produced in an unhealthy and unclean environment. In fact, food is a very good indicator of environmental pollution and is quite often used to monitor the state of the environment (Francis, 1979). Enterotoxin producing *Staphylococcus aureus* is most dangerous and harmful for human health. About 50% strains of *S. aureus* are able to produce enterotoxin associated with food poisoning (Payne and Wood, 1974). Salmonellosis accounts for the greatest proportion of food borne disease outbreaks in industrialized countries, and is mostly due to *Salmonella enteritidis*, which is transmitted mainly through contaminated eggs and food containing eggs and poultry, and due to *Salmonella typhimurium* (Fisher, 1997). An analysis of data from the WHO covering 21 European countries during 1992-1993, indicated that, whenever the agent for the food borne disease outbreak was identified, *Salmonella* caused 84.5% of investigated outbreaks. In other cases, *S. enteritidis* (50.9%), *Staphylococcus aureus* (3.5%), *C. perfringens* (3.0%), *C. botulinum* (1.1%), *Trichinella* (1.5%), mushroom intoxication (1.3%), and *B. cereus* (1.0%) were attributed to all outbreaks (Todd, 1997). Infection with *E. coli* serotype O157:H7 was first described in 1982, which mainly causes bloody diarrhea and acute renal failure that can be fatal (Potter *et al.*, 1997). Outbreaks of severe food borne intoxications involving some hundreds of school children have repeatedly been reported in some African countries (FAO, 1989). Street food has also been recognized as an important vehicle for the transmission of cholera and other food borne diseases in Asia and Latin America (El-Sherbeeney *et al.*, 1985a). Foods though heated sufficiently to kill the microbes; spore-forming bacteria can be a major concern because ordinary cooking does not kill all spores (Bryan *et al.*, 1992a). Instead, anaerobiosis is enhanced, and spores are heat activated which stimulates them to germinate when environmental conditions become favorable for pathogenic growth (Bryan *et al.*, 1992a). Haryani *et al.* (2008) reported that in Malaysia the risk of disease transmission caused by *E. cloacae* through street foods is possible. Use of raw materials, temperature abuse during vending, inadequate cooking and use of leftovers are responsible for high microbial counts found in ready to eat foods sold in the Philippines (Azanza, 2005).

The growing concern about food safety by public health authorities and consumers based on media reports of food borne outbreaks (Board and Tranter, 1986) has provided the impetus for the application of a system of Hazard Analyses and Critical Control Points (HACCP). The HACCP system is defined by the Codex Alimentarius Commission (CAC) as a system which identifies, evaluates, and controls hazards which are significant for food safety (Motarjemi, 2001). Street food safety management needs a system of Hazard Analysis Critical Control Points (HACCP) to instill professional face to the street food operators (Bryan *et al.*, 1988). CAC (2004) formulated a concept of Food Safety Objective (FSO) proposed by (Gorris, 2005), and applicable to all food preparations for the production of safe food (Barro *et al.*, 2007). HACCP is a continuous, comprehensive food safety monitoring system that is designed to prevent hazards from developing and thus ensures a high degree of food safety (NACMCF, 1992). The HACCP system was initially developed in 1960 as a system for

use by food processors for preventing food-borne hazards. Nowadays it is being promoted internationally as a standard for food trade. It is an action-oriented programme to identify and reduce food-borne diseases. The HACCP system consists of the following seven principles: (i) Conduct a hazard analysis; (ii) Determine the Critical Control Points (CCPs); (iii) Establish critical limits; (iv) Establish a system to monitor control of the CCP; (v) Establish the corrective action to be taken when monitoring indicates that a particular CCP is not under control; (vi) Establish procedure for verification to confirm that the HACCP system is working effectively; and (vii) Establish documentation concerning all procedures and records appropriate to these principles and their application (Gupta *et al.*, 2010). The HACCP approach would be a good tool to gain more knowledge about the causes of high microbial counts (Freese *et al.*, 1998). Studies that use the HACCP system to detect possible ways for contamination showed that holding food more than 4-6 h was one of the main contributing factors of high contamination (Bryan *et al.*, 1988a, b; Bryan *et al.*, 1992a, b, c, d; El-Sherbeeny *et al.*, 1985a, b., Michanie *et al.*, 1987; Michanie *et al.*, 1988a, b). Often temperature below 54.4° C can lead to growth of pathogens, and high microbial load can be detected if consumed without reheating (Bryan *et al.*, 1992a, b).

In India, quality control with regard to food products is being enforced through various regulatory mechanisms like the Prevention of Food Adulteration Act (PFA), Agriculture Grading and Marketing (AGMARK), Fruit Products Order (FPO), *etc.* The Bureau of Indian Standards (BIS) has recently launched a HACCP certification programme for the food industry. While efforts are being made to implement HACCP in the organised sector of the food industry, there is a need to implement HACCP in the unorganised sector also as it accounts for 70-80% of food produced and processed in India (Bhat *et al.*, 2000). A study on the application of HACCP in the unorganised sector of the food industry such as the production of *khoa* (partially desiccated milk), traditional Indian milk, *paneer* (a coagulated product of milk) and *mushroom* was carried out. Studies carried out in different parts of India indicated that *khoa* is often contaminated with pathogenic organisms such as *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Bacillus cereus* and has been implicated in many food-borne diseases. The critical Control Point for the deterioration of *paneer* was identified as contamination due to food handlers using bare hands to remove the excess water in *paneer* (Bhat *et al.*, 2000).

Various ethnic foods and alcoholic beverages constitute an important part of the local diet in Sikkim (Tamang, 2010). The urban population of Sikkim consumes a good amount of street foods. The vendors prepare food locally at their homes and the same is then sold on the streets, public places, busy market places, school areas, and near college campus and the taxi stand, *etc.* Table 1 shows common street foods sold in Sikkim markets. The most common ready to eat foods are *momo*, *chowmein*, *alu-cheura*, *samosa*, *kachori*, *pyazi*, *alu-dum*, *jhaal-muri*, *faaley*, *selroti*, ice-creams, *pakoda*, *puchhka*, *chana-chola*, *etc.* Microbiological assessment, determination of risk factor and safety measures of street foods of Sikkim using HACCP system for quality assurance is being carried out (unpublished Kharel and Tamang).

**Table 1. Street foods sold in markets, tourist spots and busy places in Sikkim**

<b>Food</b>	<b>Major Ingredients</b>	<b>Common Place</b>
<i>Alu cheura</i>	Potato, beaten rice ( <i>cheura</i> ), spices	Market places, taxi stands, school and college areas
<i>Jhalmuri</i>	Puffed rice ( <i>murai</i> ), spices, onion	Petrol pumps, taxi and bus stands, market places, tourist spots
<i>Chana items</i>	Different types of grams	Market places, taxi stands, school and college areas
<i>Puchhka</i>	Flour, potato, tamarind, rock salt, spices	Market places, taxi stands, bus stop
<i>Vegetable Momo</i>	Flour, cabbage, mono-sodium glutamate, onion, spices	Taxi stands, bus stop, market places, tourist spots, school and college areas
<i>Pork Momo</i>	Flour, pork meat, mono-sodium glutamate, onion, spices	Taxi stands, bus stop, market places, tourist spots, school and college areas, road sides
<i>Beef Momo</i>	Flour, beef, mono-sodium glutamate, onion, spices	Taxi stands, bus stop, market places, tourist spots, school and college areas
<i>Samosa</i>	Flour, potato, onion, spices, oil	Market places, tourist spots, school, college areas, road sides
<i>Alu faaley</i>	Flour, potato, onion, spices	School and college areas
<i>Sya faaley</i>	Flour, beef, onion, spices, oil	School and college areas, taxi stands, bus stop
<i>Pyaaazi</i>	Gram flour, onion, chilli, oil	School and college areas, taxi stands, bus stop, market places
<i>Beef Kofta</i>	Gram flour, beef, onion, chilli, mono sodium glutamate, oil	School and college areas, taxi stands, bus stop, market places, tourist spots
<i>Alu dum</i>	Potato, onion, spices, oil	School and college areas, taxi stands, bus stop, market places, tourist spots
<i>Ice candy Chola</i>	Water, sugar, different types of grams, potato, onion, spices, oil	School and college areas School and college areas, taxi stands, bus stop, market places, tourist spots
<i>Bread chop</i>	Bread, potato, chilli, spices, oil	Taxi stands, bus stop, market places, tourist spots, school and college areas
<i>Kachori</i>	Flour, gram flour, spices, oil	Market places, tourist spots
<i>Murai ko dalla</i>	Puffed rice, jiggery	Market places, busy areas
<i>Jalebi</i>	Gram flour, sugar, oil	Market places, busy areas
<i>Khurma</i>	Flour, sugar, oil	Market places, busy areas
<i>Nimki</i>	Flour, salt, oil	Market places, busy areas, taxi stands, bus stop
<i>Noodles</i>	Flour, different types of vegetables, onion, salt, oil	School and college areas, taxi stands, bus stop, market places, tourist spots
<i>Bhujia</i>	Gram flour, oil, salt, spices	School and college areas, taxi stands, bus stop, market places, tourist spots
<i>Selroti</i>	Rice, sugar, oil	Taxi stands, Bus stop, market places, tourist spots
<i>Egg pakoda</i>	Egg, gram flour, oil, chilli, spices	School and college areas, taxi stands, bus stop
<i>Nimbu pani</i>	Lemon, water, rock salt	Market places, busy areas

## REFERENCES

- Adams, M.R. and Moss, B. (2002). *Bacterial agents of food borne illness*. New Delhi: New Age International Limited.
- Adegoke, G.O., Egunjobi, O., Agbola, S.O., Olatuberu, C.O., and Moy, G. (2008). Hazards and Critical Control Points of Ready-to-Eat foods and an abattoir examination in a typical tropical market. *International Journal of Food Safety, Nutrition and Public Health* 1 (1): 58-67.
- Avdesh, N. and Prakash, O. (1968). Toxic metabolites of *A. niger* and its role in onion rot disease. *Indian Phytopathology* 21: 217-220.
- Azanza, M.P.V. (2005). Aerobic plate counts of the Philippines ready-to-eat foods from take-away premises. *Journal of Food Safety* 25: 80-97.
- Azanza, M.P.V. and Ortega, M.P. (2004). Microbiology of day-old chicks: a Philippine street food. *Food Control* 15: 245-252.
- Barro, N., Nikiema, P., Ouattara, C.A.T. and Traore, A.S. (2002b). Evaluation de l'hygiene et de la qualite microbiologique de quelques aliments rue et les caracteristiques des consommateurs dans les villes de Ouagadougou et de Bobo-Dioulasso (Burkina Faso). *Revue Scientifique et Technique* 25: 7-21.
- Barro, N., Bello, A.R., Itsiembou, Y., Savadogo, A., Ouattara, C.A.T., Nikiema, P.D.S.C. and Traore, A.S. (2007). Street vended foods Improvement: Contamination Mechanism and Application of food safety objective strategy: Critical Review. *Pakistan Journal of Nutrition* 6 (1): 1-10.
- Benkerroum, N., Bouhal, Y., Attar, E.A. and Marhaben, A. (2004). Occurrence of Shiga toxin-producing *E. coli* O157:H7 in selected diary and meat products marketed in the city of Rabat, Morocco. *Journal of Food Protection* 67: 1234-1237.
- Bhat, R.V. and Rao, R.N. (1987). Foodborne diseases in India. *Indian Journal of Pediatrics* 54: 553-562.
- Bhat, G. K., Bhaskar, J., Usman, M. and Smitha, S. (2004). Bacteriological Profile of Street Foods in Mangalore. *Indian Journal of Medical Microbiology* 22 (3):197.
- Bhat, R.V., Sudershan, R.V., Pokkunuri, Y. and Siddula, G. (1995). Foodborne disease outbreak due to consumption of rancid biscuits. *Clinical Toxicology* 33(3): 219-222.
- Bhat, R.V., Vasanthi, S., Sasidhar, R.B., Rao, R. N. and Sudershan, R.V. (1996). Aflatoxin B1 contamination in groundnut samples collected from different geographical regions of India: a multicentric study. *Food Additives and Contaminants* 13(3): 325-331.
- Bhat, R.V., Shetty, P.H., Amruth, R.P. and Sudershan R.V. (1997). A foodborne disease outbreak due to consumption of moldy sorghum and maize containing fumonisin mycotoxins. *Clinical Toxicology* 35(3): 249-255.
- Bhat, R.V. and Vasanthi, S. (1998). Mould damaged coffee: its implication on human health and prevention through HACCP system. *Indian Coffee* 62(7): 3-4.
- Bhat, R.V. and Vasanthi, S. (2000). Meeting international trade requirements of agricultural produce by a quality evaluation approach. *Indian Food Industry* 19(2): 137-138.
- Bhat, R.V., Sudershan, R.V. and Kashinath, L. (2000). Application of hazard analysis and critical control point for improvement of quality of processed foods. *Indian Council of Medical Research Bulletin* 30(5): 47-50.
- Bhat, R.V. and Vasanthi, S. (2005). Natural Occurrence of Ochratoxin in Indian Coffee. *The Indian Journal of Nutrition and Dietetics* 42: 106.
- Board, R.G. and Tranter, H.S. (1986). The Microbiology of Eggs. In: *Egg Science and Technology*, eds. Stadelman, W.J. and Cotterill, O.J., 75-96. AVI Westport, CT.
- Bryan, F.L., Michanie, S.C., Alvarez, P. and Paniagua, A. (1988). Critical control points of street-vended foods in the Dominican Republic. *Journal of Food Protection* 51: 373-383.
- Bryan, F.L., Michanie, S., Vizcarra, M.M., Navarros, O., Taboada, D., Fernandez, N.M., Requejo, E.G. and Munoz, B.P. (1988a). Hazard analysis of food prepared by inhabitants near Lake Titicaca in the Peruvian Sierra. *Journal of Food Protection* 51: 412-418.
- Bryan, F.L., Michanie, S., Fernandez N., Vizcarra M.M., Taboada D., Navarros O., Alonso A.B. and Requejo, E.G. (1988b). Hazard analysis of food prepared by

- migrants living in a new settlement at the outskirts of Lima, Peru. *Journal of Food Protection* 51: 314-323.
- Bryan, F.L., Teufel, P., Riaz, S., Roohi, S., Qadar, F. and Malik, Z. U. R. (1992a). Hazards and critical control points of vending operations at a railway station and bus station in Pakistan. *Journal of Food Protection* 55: 534-541.
- Bryan, F.L., Teufel, P., Riaz, S., Roohi, S., Qadar, F. and Malik, Z. U. R. (1992b). Hazards and critical control points of street-vending operations in a mountain resort town in Pakistan. *Journal of Food Protection* 55: 701-707.
- Bryan, F.L., Teufel, P., Riaz, S., Roohi, S., Qadar, F. and Malik, Z. U. R. (1992c). Hazards and critical control points of street-vended *chat*, a regionally popular food in Pakistan. *Journal of Food Protection* 55: 708-713.
- Bryan, F.L., Teufel, P., Roohi, S., Qadar, F., Riaz, S. and Malik, Z. U. R. (1992d). Hazards and critical control points of food preparation and storage in homes in a village and a town in Pakistan. *Journal of Food Protection* 55: 714-721.
- Bryan, F.L., Jermini, M., Schimitt, R., Chilufya, E.N., Mwanza, M., Matoba, A., Mfume, E. and Chibiya, H. (1997). Hazards associated with holding and reheating foods at vending sites in a small town in Zambia. *Journal of Food Protection* 60: 391-398.
- CAC (Codex Alimentarius Commission) (2004). Report of the twentieth session of the codex committee on general principles, Paris, France 3-7, ALINORM 04/27/331 appendix II pp. 37-38.
- Canet, C. and N'Diaye, C. (1996). L'alimentation de rue en Afrique. *Food Nutrition and Agriculture* 17(18): 4-13.
- Chakravathy, I. (1995). Urban street foods in Calcutta. *Proceeding of Nutrition Society of India*, p.42.
- Chumber, S.K., Kaushik, K. and Savy, S. (2007). Bacteriological analysis of street foods in Pune. *Indian Journal of Public Health* 51(2): 114-116.
- Collins, J.E. (1997). Impact of changing consumer lifestyles on the emergence/reemergence of foodborne pathogens. *Emerging Infectious Diseases* 3: 471-479.
- Daga, M.R., Malhotra, P. P., Sarein, M. L., Amin, M.G., Nighavan, V. K., Dewan, V.K. and Rastogi, N.K. (2003). *All India Prevention of Food Adulteration Journal* 109-110.
- Dawson, R.J. and Canet, C. (1991). International activities in street foods. *Food Control* 2: 135-139.
- Edema, M. O., Omemu, A. M. and Bankole, M. O. (2005). Microbiological Safety and Quality of ready-to-eat foods in Nigeria. In: *Abstract of the 29<sup>th</sup> Annual Conference & General Meeting on Microbes as Agents of Sustainable Development*, organized by Nigerian Society for Microbiology (NSM), University of Agriculture, Abeokuta, p. 26.
- Ekanem, E. O. (1998). The street food trade in Africa: safety and socio-environmental issues. *Food Control* 9: 211-215.
- El-Sherbeeny, M. R., Saddik, M. F. and Bryan, F. L. (1985a). Microbiological profiles of foods served by street vendors in Egypt. *International Journal of Food Microbiology* 2: 355-364.
- El-Sherbeeny, M. R., Saddik, M. F., Aly, H.E.S. and Bryan, F. L. (1985b). Microbial profiles and storage temperatures of Egyptian rice dishes. *Journal of Food Protection* 48: 39-43.
- Estrada-Garcia, T., Lopez-Sancedo, C., Zamarripa-Ayala, B., Thompson, M.R., Gutierrez-Cogco, L., Mancera-Martinez, A. and Escobar-Gutierrez, A. (2004). Prevalence of *Escherichia coli* and *Salmonella* spp in Street-vended food of open markets (tianguis) and general hygienic and trading practices in Mexico City. *Epidemiology and Infection* 132: 1181-1184.
- FAO (1989). *Street foods*. Report of an FAO expert consultation, Yogyakarta, Indonesia. December 1988. FAO. *Food and Nutrition Paper* no.46.
- Fisher, I.S.T. (1997). *Salmonella enteritidis* and *S. typhimurium* in Western Europe 1993-1995: a surveillance report from Salm-net. *Europosurveillance* 2(1): 1-3.
- Fleming, D. W., Cochi, S. L., Macdonald, K. L., Brodum, T., Hayes, P. S., Plikaytis, B. D., Holmes, M.B., Audurier, A., Broome, C.V. and Reingold, A. L. (1985). Pasteurized milk as a vehicle of infection in an outbreak of Listeriosis. *New England Journal of Medicine* 312-407.
- Francis, F. J. (1979). Consumer confusion. *Journal of Food Protection* 42: 679-682.

- Freese, E. Maria-Eugenia, R.A., Solomons, N. W. and Rainer G. (1998). The microbiological safety of typical Guatemalan foods from street vendors, low-income homes and hotels. *International Journal of Food Sciences and Nutrition* 49: 27-38.
- Gautami, S., Rao, R.N., Raghuram, T.C., Rajagopalan, S and Bhat, R.V. (1995). Accidental Acute Sodium Nitrite Poisoning. *Clinical Toxicology* 33(2): 131-133.
- George, J.B. (1981). *Basic Food Microbiology*. Abridged Textbook Edition. Westport, Connecticut: AVI Publishing Company, INC.
- Ghosh, M., Wahi, S. and Ganguli, K.M. (2007). Prevalence of enterotoxigenic *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Shigella* spp. in some raw street vended Indian foods. *International Journal of Environmental Health Research* 17(2): 151-6.
- Girish, R., Broor, S., Dar, L. and Ghosh, D. (2002). Foodborne outbreak caused by a Norwalk virus. *Indian Journal of Medical Virology* 67(4): 603-7.
- Gorris, L.G.M. (2005). Food Safety Objective: an integral part of food chain management. *Food Control* 16: 801-809.
- Gugnani, H.C. (1999). Some emerging food and water-borne pathogens. *Journal of Community Diseases* 31(2): 65-72.
- Gupta, A., Sharma, P.C. and Verma, A.K.(2010). Application of food safety management system (HACCP) in food industry. *Indian Food Industry* 29(2): 39-46.
- Hanashiro, A., Morita, M., Matte, G.R., Matte, M.H. and Torres, E.A.F.S. (2005). Microbiological quality of selected foods from a restricted area of Sao Paulo city, Brazil. *Food Control* 16: 439-444.
- Haryani, Y., Tunung, R., Chai, L.C., Lee, H.Y., Tang, S.Y. and Son, R. (2008). Characterization of *Enterobacter cloacae* Isolated from Street Foods. *ASEAN Food Journal* 15(1): 57-64.
- Jacob, T. (1976). *Food Adulteration*. New Delhi: The MacMillan Company of India.
- Jay, J.M. (1987). *Modern Food Microbiology*, 3<sup>rd</sup> Edition. New Delhi: CBS Publishers and Distributors.
- Kaclikova, E., Kuchta, T., Kay. and Gray, D. (2001). Separation of *Listeria* from cheese and enrichment media using antibody-coated microbeads and centrifugation. *Journal of microbiological Methods* 46: 63-67.
- Kalra, R.L., Kaur, H., Sharma, S., Kapoor, S.K., Chakraborty, S.S., Kshirsagar, R.B., Vaidya, R.C., Sagade, R.B., Shirolkar, S.B., Dikshith, T.S., Raizada, R.B., Srivastava, M.K., Singh, V., Nagaraj, K.V., Appaiah, K.M., Srinivasa, M.A., Rani, M.U., Rao, S.N., Toteja, G.S., Dasgupta, J., Ghosh, P.K. and Saxena, B.N. (1999). DDT and HCH residues in dairy milk samples collected from different geographical regions of India: A multicentric study. *Food Additives and Contaminants* 16(10): 411- 417.
- Kannan, K., Tanabe, S., Gisey, J.P. and Tasukawa, R. (1997). Organochlorine pesticides and polychlorinated biphenyls in foodstuffs from Asian and Oceanic countries. *Reviews of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology* 152: 1-55.
- King, L.K., Awumbila, B., Canacoo, E.A. and Ofosu-Amaah, S. (2000). An assessment of the safety of street foods in the Ga district of Ghana; implication for the spread of zoonoses. *Acta Tropica* 76: 39-43.
- Kubheka, L.C., Mosepye, F.M and Holy, A.V. (2001). Microbiological survey of street-vended salad and gravy in Johannesburg City, South Africa. *Food Control* 12: 127-131.
- Lewis, J. E., Thompson, P., Rao, B.V.V.B.N., Kalavati, C. and Rajanna, B. (2006). Human Bacteria in Street Vended Fruit Juices: A case Study of Visakhapatnam City, India. *Journal of Food Safety* 8: 35-38.
- Masud, T., Bari. A. and Shah, A.M. (1988). Enterotoxigenic of *Staphylococcus aureus* isolated from milk and milk products. *Indian Journal of Nutrition Dietetics* 26: 239-242.
- Meldrum, R .J., Little, C.L., Sagoo, S., Mithani,V., McLauchlin and Pinna de, E. (2009). Assessment of the microbiological safety of salad vegetables and sauces from kebab take-away restaurants in the United Kingdom. *Food microbiology* 26: 573-577.
- Mensah, P., Yeboah-Manu, D., Owusu-Darko, K. and Ablorde, A. (2002). Street foods in Accra, Ghana: how safe are they? *Bulletin of the World Health Organization* 80(7): 546-54.



- Michanie, S., Bryan, F.L., Alvarez, P. and Olivo, A.B. (1987). Critical control points for food prepared in households in which babies had salmonellosis. *International Journal of Food Microbiology* 5: 337-354.
- Michanie, S., Bryan, F.L., Alvarez, P., Olivo, A.B. and Paniagua, A. (1988a). Critical control points for food prepared in households whose members had either alleged typhoid fever or diarrhea. *International Journal of Food Microbiology* 7: 123-134.
- Michanie, S., Bryan, F.L., Fernandez, N.M., Vizcarra, M.M., Taboada, D., Navarros, O., Alonso, A.B. and Santillan, M.L. (1988b). Hazard analysis of food prepared by inhabitants along the Peruvian Amazon River. *Journal of Food Protection* 51: 293-302.
- Moron, C. (1992): La venta callerjera de alimentos y la epidemia del colera en America Latina. *Archivos Latinoamericanos de Nutricion* 42: 36-40.
- Mosupye, F.M. and Holy, V.A. (1999). Microbiological quality and safety of street-vended foods in Johannesburg city, South Africa. *Journal of Food Protection* 62:1278-1284.
- Motarjemi, Y. (2001). An introduction to the Hazard Analyses and Critical Control Points (HACCP) systems and its application to the fermented foods. In: *Fermentation and Food Safety*, eds. Adams, M.R. and Nout, M.J.R., 53-70. Gaithersburg, Maryland: An Aspen Publication.
- Muleta, D. and Ashenafi M. (2001). Bacteriological profile and holding temperatures of street vended foods from Addis Ababa. *International Journal of Environmental Health Research* 11: 95-105.
- NACMCF. (1992). Hazard analysis and critical control points system. The National Advisory Committee on microbiological criteria for foods. *International Journal of Food Microbiology* 16:1-23.
- Payne, D.N. and Wood, J.M. (1974). The incidence of enterotoxin production in strains of *Staphylococcus aureus* isolated from food. *Journal of Applied Bacteriology* 319-25.
- Potter, M.E., Motarjemi, Y. and Kaferstein, F.K. (1997). Emerging foodborne disease. *World Health* 1: 16-17.
- Singh, P. and Prakash, A. (2008). Isolation of *Escherichia coli*, *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Listeria monocytogenes* from milk products sold under market conditions at Agra region. *Acta Agriculturae Slovenica* 92(1): 83-88.
- Soomro, A.H., Arain, M.A., Khaskheli, M. and Bhutto, B. (2002). Isolation of *Escherichia coli* from raw milk and milk products in relation to public health sold under market condition at Tandojam. *Pakistan Journal of Nutrition* 1(3): 151-152.
- Soomro, A.H., Arain, M.A., Khaskheli, M., Bhutto, B. and Memom, A.Q. (2003). Isolation of *Staphylococcus aureus* from milk products sold at a sweet meat shop of Hyderabad. *Online Journal of Biological Sciences* 31: 91-94.
- Sudershan, R. V., Rao, P. and Polasa, K. (2009). Food safety research in India: a review. *Asian Journal of Food and Agro- Industry* 2(03): 412-433.
- Tamang, J.P. (2010). *Himalayan Fermented Foods: Microbiology, Nutrition and Ethnic Values*. New York: Taylor and Francis Group.
- Tambekar, D.H., Hirulkar, N.B., Banginwar, Y.S., Rajankar, P.N. and Deshmukh, S.S. (2006). Water Hygiene Behaviors in Hotels and Restaurants and their Effects on its Bacteriological Quality. *Biotechnology* 5(4): 475-477.
- Tambekar, D.H., Jaishwal, V.J., Dhanorkar, D.V., Gullhane, P.B. and Dudhane, M.N. (2008). Identification of microbiological hazards and safety of ready-to-eat food vended in streets of Amravati City, India. *Journal of Applied Biosciences* 7: 195-201.
- Todd, E.C.D. (1997). Epidemiology of foodborne diseases: a worldwide review. *World Health Statistics Quarterly* 50(1/2): 30-50.
- Umoh, V. J. and Odoaba, M.B. (1999). Safety and quality evaluation of street foods sold in Zaria, Nigeria. *Food Control* 10: 9-10.
- WHO (1996). Essential Safety Requirements for Street Vended Foods (revised edition). Geneva: World Health Organization, pp. 2-11.