

Informality, Poverty and Politics in Urban Bangladesh: An Empirical Study of Dhaka City

Md. Abul Hasam¹ Shahida Arafin² Saima Naznin² Md. Mushahid³ Mosharraf Hossain⁴ 1.Department of Humanities(Sociology), Primeasia University, Banani,Dhaka-1213,Bangladesh 2.Mphil.Research Fellow, Department of Sociology,University of Dhaka, Dhaka-1000,Bangladesh 3.Mphil.Research Fellow,Shahjalal University of Science& Technology,Sylhet-3114,Bangladesh 4.Senior Research Assistant,Nutritional Programe Evaluation Unit,ICDDR,B,Dhaka-1212,Bangladesh

Abstract

Urbanization is one of the inevitable feature in the process of development, but rapid expansion of the urban process in Dhaka city has brought with it incredible transformation of lifestyle. Quality of urban life in Dhaka city has become major aspect of urban political economy. The paper aims at studing to explain the situation of informal sector's worker's life condition; explore the relation with the creation of slum because of the rising of informal sector, politics are the cause of the rising of urban chaos and there poverty condition. Most of them settle in slum where extreme poverty exists. They have lack of access to fundamental social service and they are being used by political leader. This study tries to explore the relationship among them. The study has been conducted in Dhaka city which is experiencing rapid urbanization and informalization in recent decades. The study is based on both qualitative and quantitative methodologies. Urban ethnography has been used to conducted informal activities.

Keywords: Informality, Poverty, Marginality, Politics, Urban, Bangladesh

1.0 Introduction

1.1 Statement of the problem

The informal sector of a society comprises all activities that fall outside the formal net of registered, taxed, licensed, statistically documented, and appropriately zoned business enterprises (Thomas, 1988). According to International Labor Organization's (ILOs) employment mission in 1972 described the informal sector, as activities that are unrecognized, unrecorded, unprotected or unregulated by public authorities, was not confined to marginal activities but also included profitable enterprises (Becker, SIDA, 2004). The informal sector was able to incorporate activities that were earlier ignored in theoretical models of development and in national economic accounts into the discourse on development. As most activities in the informal sector are excluded from standard measures of economic production (Basant and Kumar, 1990). Informal sector can be traced to the tradition of economic accounting in addition to that of dualism (Peattie, 1987). Informal sector is also caused by the speared of the low or middle-income population to the cities' outskirts and the surrounding rural lands either by squatting on rural land or by seeking affordable land to develop self-made housing. However, urbanization plays a vital role in the development process (Pervin, 1997). Nowadays there is an ever-increasing demand for the collection, integration, management and sharing of reliable information related to informal economy and the relevant education, experience sharing and development of best practices. This growing demand is driven by some of the most important changes in society which in turn are magnified by rapid urbanization and the conditioned of the world's megacities. According to UN reports, the urban population increased from 220 million to 732 in 1900 to 1950. By 2007, 50% of the world population was living in cities. The global urban population is set to double from 2.6 billion in 1995 to 5.1 billion in 2030. Investigation show significant difference in urban population change between to more developed regions and the less developed regions.(UN, 1998). Cities are the centers of learning, innovation and sophistication. As cities expand beyond their administration boundaries they lack the financial or jurisdictional capacity to provide the necessary services to all inhabitants. The administration of the city becomes more complicated and bureaucratic in the less developed countries i.e. Bangladesh. Urban population particularly the migrants come to the towns in search of living. Low rate of unemployment in the urban area as urban people cannot survive without doing anything. Large-scale involvements of these people are mainly in the informal sectors (Rasheda, 1997). Crime that flourishes in crowed areas with insufficient job opportunity is also a common characteristic. It's truth that the slum situation changes are difficult and slow. As often reported in the Economist, the city administrations and the dwellers may enjoy benefits in some cases, for instance, many people make money from the informal sector, slums provide cheap labor that enables city to operate, politicians or civil servants or powerful person of society may be landlords in slums areas, poor rural people or immigrants are offered hope for employment in the formal economy or other standard employment of the city, slums are usually well placed near the city so if the poor do find jobs they can walk to work, it is easier for political leader to use slum people in various political functions. A large account of informal sector workers is in Bangladesh. Most of the informal workers are migrated from rural or sub-urban area. Dhaka is the capital city of Bangladesh and also its largest city. A huge number of



informal workers live in Dhaka City. Their income level is so poor, by which they cannot survive their daily life in a proper way. These poor workers for their settlements turn to slums. The condition of slum is; very poor environmental services, especially water and sanitation; very low socio-economic status; lack of security of tenure and so on. The socioeconomic status of slum area is defined by low income; as explained before, with the majority, or over 50 percent, of households having income below 5000 per month, the majority of the labor force in informal sector (e.g. rickshaw pullers, street vendors, domestic workers etc.) or very low paying formal sector positions (in organizations ranging from factories to office) and low levels of rent. These areas are socially perceived as ignorant area. Finally security of tenure is captured by vulnerability to eviction, fire explosion etc.

1.2 Importance of the study

Differences in the dynamism of informal enterprises as reflected in the difference between survival and growth of enterprises. Participants in many informal activities in developing countries earn a bare minimum level of income, and some of their enterprises survive times of crisis by relying on, and exploiting, family labor. In contrast, the small-scale informal sector in certain regions of some developed countries has shown a capacity for sustained growth and generation of high incomes (Solinas, 1982). The extent to which the informal sector is able to generate a surplus and undertake accumulation is a crucial factor in determining the long-run evolution of the informal sector both developed and developing countries. Urbanization plays a specific role in the process of development. According to the report of United Nations Centre for Human Settlements, over 50 percent of G.N.P. of developing countries is generated by towns and cities. The World commission Environment and Development suggests that a well-developed "urban system provides the backbone for national development (Report of the Task Forces, 1989). It is ironic that much of what were once considered the major advantages of the life in the city, like security, better housing conditions, and services provision have now become major disadvantages of urban life, like criminality, slums and lack of services. It is clear that sustainable development cannot be achieved without sustainable urbanization. But the Third World countries including Bangladesh are facing a peculiar situation in this regard. Over the last four decades there has been sustainable increase in urban population and the portion of informal worker (Rasheda, 1997). There are some significant trends in megacity; rising infrastructure costs means that investments is needed from all sectors of the economy, driving the needed for public/ private partnerships for infrastructure development and maintenance, transportation congestion is a major challenge; informal Workers are especially vulnerable and marginalized to the government policy, political leader's and law enforcement agency.

1.3 Objectives of the study

- a) To explore the patterns of new urban informality.
- b) To explore the new form of urban poverty and marginality.
- c) To study the informal politics highlighting survival and resistance of poor people.

1.4 Hypothesis of the study

- a) Informal sectors workers generally experience more sufferings and marginality.
- b) Informal politics is liable to create new form of urban poverty and slum.
- c) Informal poverty and politics are the cause of the rising of urban chaos.

The following are the common terms applied in this study. Urbanization is the movement of population into towns and cities, and away from the land (Giddens, 2006). Urbanization is one of the unavoidable and inevitable features in the process of development. This is an important element of modernization that is considered as an indicator of development. The factors designated as per-requisite of urbanization is the transition of productive activities from agriculture to industry to commerce, trade, administration and politics (Rasheda, 2005). There are two different ways to understanding poverty. Absolute poverty refers to a lack of the basic resources needed to maintain health and effective bodily functioning. Relative poverty involves assessing the gaps between the living condition of some groups and those enjoyed by the majority of the population (Giddens, 2006). City is an inhabited central place differentiated from a town or village by its greater size, and by the range of activities practiced within its boundaries, usually religious, military-political, economic, educational and cultural collectively, these activities involve the exercise of power over the surrounding countryside (Jary & Jary, 1999). Informal sector is a growing occupational sector for the less skilled people that ensure considerable amounts of employment (Nazmul, 2004). Informal worker who works in informal sector and workers who lack formal institutional skill and knowledge/ education to be able to enter in a formal job markets, and vulnerable and do not have any kind of facilities such as job security, training, hazards insurance, retirement pension etc. (Nazmul, 2004/1997). Megacity is one of the main features of third millennium urbanization. They are not defined by their size alone - although they are vast agglomerations of people - but also by their role as connection point's between enormous human populations and the global economy. Megacities are intensely concentrated pockets of activity through which politics, media, communications, finances and production flow (Castells, 1996), Informal



survivalism refers to aspects of economic activity that lie outside visible, official, and legally recognized forms of production, distribution, and consumption (The Cambridge Dictionary of Sociology, 2006). Informal employment refers to the absence of formal contracts, rights, regulations, and bargaining power (Davis, 2006).

1.6 Limitations of the study

- a) Due to lack of knowledge and capability, the present study may not fully represent the picture of entire education system and sense of moral values of the students of Dhaka University
- b) Recent political condition was full of too much apprehensive, which is responsible to make a complex situation in the campus. As a result that was more difficult living period for them than any other period, and it impacted on the study, because it was not common scenery but a special condition.
- c) Some interviewers were reluctant to give information about their personal consideration on some issues.
- d) As an apprentice, it is not competent enough to conduct a study on the political and sensitive issues.

${\bf 2.0\ Overview\ of\ Urbanization,\ Poverty\ and\ Informality\ in\ Bangladesh}$

2.1 Situation of Urbanization in Bangladesh

Bangladesh as historian country remains loyal to a rural-oriented model of development, placing the emphasis of poverty reduction on the development of the rural economy (World Bank, 2007). In addition, Bangladesh continues the country as 'rural' and such perceptions play an important role in maintaining a rural bias in poverty reduction. The political consists of the 1950s to the 1970s in Bangladesh which mean that "the favorite visual representation of the nation was a landscape of beautiful green fields dotted with rustic peaceful riverside villages" resulting the image of Bangladesh as rural in a deep pant of the ideology of political parties. (schendel, 2009). Impact image of rural country are based on objective information.74 percent of Bangladeshis total population in 2008 still lived in rural areas (World Bank 2009). In Bangladesh the first significant phase of urbanization started in 1947. During 1961 the urban during 1951-1961 population was 2.6 million people only 4.8 percent of the total population whereas in 1991 populations census that the urban population reached to 22.45 million from 2.6 million which is remarkable increase in this aspect. During the next two decade the urban population retained state(Dhaka: Ministry of planning, 2003).

2.2 Dhaka City

Dhaka city is centrally located in Bangladesh in the Southern part of the district of Dhaka. Its living population makes it a 'megacity'. The population growth of Dhaka stands at very high level. It is a city characterized by extreme inequality and poverty. Significant portion of the city's population live in slums and squatter settlements. The adverse surroundings of low income settlements, coupled with a highly dense population, give rise to a myriad of social, health and environmental problems (Siddique, et al 2000; World Bank 2007). In contrast, in the areas inhabited and frequent by the rich and the powerful there are extremely high standards of living. It may well be the only megacity in the world where the inequality between the rich and the poor is so high (Islam, 1996). It is noted for a serious shortage of housing facilities. The private sector provides 90 percent of the housing of the city. Here land is a scarce commodity and the price of land is increasing at a very rapid rate. For that the common people are unable to purchase land and build homes in the city (Siddique, et al. 2000). Dhaka city faces serious problems in almost all area of its infrastructure. The higher and middle income groups of the city have access to various facilities but most of the poor people do not have access to the urban facilities (Siddique, et al 1993). The urbanization process achieved tremendous growth to meet the needs of the newly independent countries capital. The primary cause of rural migration in the developing countries like Bangladesh is economic. The rural migrants come to the city in search of job in most causes for the sake of survival .this rural migrates invariably find themselves shelter less, the situation which compel them to live in slum. It is undeniable that rural urban migration plays a critical role in the urbanization process of Bangladesh (R. Asraf;2000).

2.3 The trend of Urban Poverty in Bangladesh

Bangladesh is one of the world's most densely populated with 150 million people, 26 percent of whom live below the national poverty line of us\$2 per day. There are many problems like, poor infrastructure, political instability, corruption, and insufficient power supplies etc. but the Bangladesh economy has grown 5-6% per year since 1996. The World Bank announced in June 2013 that Bangladesh has reduced the number of people living in poverty from 63 million in 2000 to 47 million in 2010, despite a total population that had grown to approximately 150 million. This means that Bangladesh will reach its first United Nation-established Millennium Development Goal(MDG) that of poverty reduction, two years ahead of the 25 deadline Bangladesh is also making progress in reducing its poverty rate 2 percent of the population. Since the 1990s there has been a declining trend of poverty this year, fecundating to the 2016 household survey by the Bangladesh bureau of statistics, 17.6 percent of the population were found to be under the poverty line. Bangladesh is one of the



developing countries has made considerable progress during last few decades in respect of eradicating poverty and hunger along with number of other indication of Millennium Development Goals. According to HIES report 2010, 17.6% (25 million) of the total population are still living under the lower poverty line (BBS, 2011). They are the extreme poor people and struggling to manage two full meals per day. They are the most destitute, vulnerable and lead an in human life. More than 35 million people are living in various cities in Bangladesh (CUS & DSK, 2006). In every year 300,000 to 400,000 new migrants are coming to Dhaka from different corners (World Bank 2007). A large portion of the new migrants are poor and extreme poor .They are mainly staying in 4,966 slum of Dhaka city and their current number is more than 5 million. They are more than 37.41of Dhaka city population (CUS, & et al 2006). It is estimated that the population of Dhaka city will be increased in 22 million by 2025 (United Nation Habitat 2008). The phenomenon of slums and squatters in Dhaka city is as old as the city itself. But the city has experienced a profile growth of slums and squatters since the independents of the country in 1971 (Hossain, 2006). According to the International Organization for migration (IOM), some 70 percent at slum dwellers in Dhaka moved there after experiencing some kind of environmental hardship such as cyclones, flood, river erosion etc. (DSK, 2012).

2.4 Informal Sector

When the rural migrants and urban dwellers are not provided enough jobs of opportunities by the modern sector, they find employment in small scale, minor level production and distribution of goods and services in the informal sector. The informal sector consists of "small scale, self-employment activities, mostly at a low level of organization and technology with the primary objectives of generating employment and incomes. (Nazmul, 2004). Kabna (1995), stated thirty term including the survival sector, non-structural sector, and transitional activities which have been or are currently used to describe the informal sector. Amin (2012) complied several terms which have been used to represent the informal sector /economy by different authors. Informal sector is a very important economic area for any developing country. This is a growing occupational sector for the less skilled people ensure considerable amount of employment. The informal economy is continuously increasing in most developing countries, even in rural areas(Becker, SIDA, 2004). Despite the heterogeneity of the informal economy, workers of the informal sector can be growing into several employment categories: employer; semiemployed; wage workers .The informal economy is seen as comprised of all forms of 'informal employment', that is ,employment without formal contents, worker benefits or social protection, both inside and outside informal enterprise (chan, 2005). There are two characteristics mainly signify to the informal activities; they are Labor intensive; they avoid formal state supervision and regulation (Roberts, 1976). These two characteristics combine to reduce substantially the input cost of goods and services. People engaged in informal sector, situations are obscene of official protection and recognition, non-coverage by minimum wage legislation and social security system, absence of trade union, low income and wage and little or no job security. (Nazmul, 2004). The process of skill formation for informal sector is further challenged by inadequate capacity of the formal sector institution. One of the principle development challenges for Bangladesh is the creation of employment for new entrants into the labor force and a great many who are currently underemployed. The labor force is growing, at almost twice the rate of population growth. The Bangladesh bureau of statistics (BBS) forecast a 42.6% increase in the labor force between 1991 and 2005 for the entire population, with an increase in the 31.77 for males and a 126.5% increase in female participation in the labor force(BBS, 1996). To meet the country's employment needs by 2020, Bangladesh will have to create 2.25 million jobs every year (Mahmud, 1999). Labor market in Bangladesh constitutes three types of market; formal, rural informal and urban informal. The formal market is operated under the legal framework that follows the presence of the contractual employment relationships, labor laws and regulations and unions. Only about 30% of the labor force works and the legal formal labor market framework .On the other hand, protective labor regulations and unions do not cover the informal sectors, which dominants the labor market in Bangladesh (Jakir, 2012).

2.5 Urban Poverty

Bangladesh is one of the World's most densely populated countries with 150 million, 26 percent of whom live below the national poverty line of us\$2 per day. The center for urban studies (CUS) has conducted a number of micro level studies on the urban poor . These studies explain the partial scenario of urban poverty in Bangladesh (CUS, 1990). Two methods —the Direct Calorie Intake (DCI) and the cast of basic need (CBN) methods are currently used for measuring urban poverty by the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (Ministry of Planning, 2002.) The DCI method is traditionally used by the BBS for determining the poverty line. According to the method the urban poor are categorized as 'absolute poor' and 'hardcore poor' based on their daily calorie intake. The poor who take 2122 k .calorie per day, per person fall below poverty line -1 where are the poor who take 180.5k.cal per day person fall below poverty line -2 .Due to the problems of the calorie intake method, the BBS has used the CBN method .Unlike the traditionally used DCI method, the CBN method considers other basic needs for measuring poverty. The poor are categorized by an 'upper poverty line. This estimation is alarming the situation



of urban poverty in Bangladesh despite the overall improvement of the poverty situation at the national level. Poverty mainly concentrated in urban Dhaka due to the predominance of Dhaka city (Ministry planning, 2001). In south Asia much of important research on poverty focuses on the rural poor, because there numbers are so overwhelming .Policy makers have also focused alleviating rural poverty, with good reason. On the other hand, in South Asia, the percentage of the population living in urban areas is increasing. In many countries urban poverty is declining much slower than rural poverty, giving rise to the possibility of absolute increases in the numbers of urban poor .In the last 3 countries in South Asia (Pakistan, India, Bangladesh) significant proportions of the urban population live in very large cities .The rise of squatter settlements and slums in these large cities in a source of concern. Between 70-90 of every 100 new houses established in urban areas during the second half of the 1980 were located in slums (HAO and HAO 1998).

2.6 Slums in Dhaka City

The phenomenon of slums and squatters in Dhaka is as old as its history. It is well known slums people live in very unhealthy and inhuman situation and face continuous threat of evictions ,incidences of fires unemployment ,under employment ,hanger ,malnutrition ,disease, polluted water logging , lock and safe drinking water, sanitation and health care facilities ,and harassment from the local power structure (Arams, 1964) .But the city has experienced a prolific growth of slums and squatters since the independence of the country in 1971 (Gardian, 1975).By the end of 1976 only 10 slums existed with a population of 10,000 .The number increased to 2156 settlement with a population of 1.1 million in 1996 (CUS, 1996) In Dhaka city a large portion of new migrants are poor and extreme poor. They are mainly staying in 4,966 slums of Dhaka city and their current number is more than 5 million. They are more than 37.4% of Dhaka city population (CUS, 2006).

2.7 The Politics of the Urban Poor: Conflicting Images

How do the urban poor react politically to their daily struggle for jobs, shelter, and personal safety? Their political attitudes and behavior, like those of the peasantry, have been depicted in sharply conflicting ways (Nelson, 1979; Handelman, 1975). When political scientists and sociologists first noted the flood of city ward migration arid urban growth in the developing countries, many viewed the sprawling slums and squatter settlements as potential hotbeds of unrest or revolution. In one of the most influential early works on Third World politics, James Coleman warned that, "there exist in most urban centers elements predisposed to anomie activity" (Coleman, 1960). Samuel Huntington maintained that the first generation of urban migrants was unlikely to challenge the existing order, but their children often would: "At some point, the slums and shantytowns of Rio and Lima arc likely to be swept by social violence, as the children of the city demand the rewards of the city" (Huntington, 1968). And economist Barbara Ward, taking note of shantytown poverty and the rise of radical urban movements, insisted that "unchecked left to grow and fester, there is here enough explosive material to produce bitter class conflict erupting in guerrilla warfare, and threatening, ultimately, the security even of the comfortable West" (Ward, 1964). The urban poor have contributed to several recent third world revolutions. In addition, rioting over food prices and bus fares has shaken in cities as Algiers, Cairo etc. Nonetheless, the urban conflagrations that many had expected have been rare. For the most part, the poor have shunned violence. Indeed, they have been as likely to vote for right-wing or centrist political candidates as for radicals. Initial expectations of a violent or radicalized urban lower class were based largely on erroneous premises. To be sure, many urban migrants came to the cities with raised expectations and heightened political sensitivities. In fact, the urban poor are far more likely than their rural counterparts to enjoy different public services (Nelson, 1969). When early expectations of urban radicalism and violence generally failed to materialize, some scholars jumped to opposite conclusions. For example, based on studies of low-income neighborhoods in Mexico and Puerto Rico, anthropologist Oscar Lewis concluded that most of the urban poor are prisoners of a "culture of poverty". Lewis described a sub-proletariat that lacks class consciousness, economic and political organization, or long-term aspirations. While distrustful of government, they feel powerless and fatalistic about effecting change. The culture of poverty, Lewis argued, is inherently apolitical and, hence, quite unlikely to generate radical or revolutionary activity (Lewis, 1961; 1966). Consequently, many analysts perceived a vicious cycle in which the exclusion of the poor increases their political apathy, which, in turn, isolates them further. They demonstrate a "lack of active participation due to the fact that marginal groups make no decisions; they do not contribute to the molding of society" (Giusti, 1971). The literature exploring social organization of the urban poor is essential for understanding urban poverty and social marginality. The analysis of social organization of the urban poor is often neglected in conventional analysis of urban poverty based oh material dimensions (Hossain 2004; 2006). The social organization of the urban poor is a collection of family networks which assemble and disband through a dynamic process. Among the urban poor there is no official community structure; there are no local authorities or mechanisms of internal control. Co-operation within the family networks is the basic pattern of social interaction (Lomnitz, 1977). According to Peattie in Latin American cities 50% of households are made up of mothers and children (Peattie, 1968). The notion here



was that the woman owned the house and husbands attached themselves peripherally for long or short periods of time. Marris shows that this kind of household does not seem to face serious social disapproval (Marris, 1961). A few studies have, also noticed the emerging trend of multifocal families among the poor communities living in Dhaka City's slums (Das, 2000; Hossain, and Humphrey, 2002). Both economic and social factors contributing to multifocal families among the poor communities have been identified. Rural migrants mostly make the first move to a city where they expect to be deceived by relatives and friends. They will be offered shelter and food for a while, they will be introduced to the urban environment, and efforts will be made to find them an opportunity to earn their living (Gugler, 1992). The urban poor are often considered as politically passive and unaware of issues. But Perlman documents the complex political organization of the urban poor that the level of political awareness among the poor is higher than that found in rural areas (Perlman, 1976). Their level of direct participation in politics, through demonstrations or political meetings, is comparable with local and national administrative agencies. Her recent study reveals almost similar situation of the urban poor in Brazil (Perlman, 2004). Although the urban poor often participate into political activities in the cities of South Asia, especially in Dhaka City's slums, they are generally marginalized in terms of their integration into urban planning and policies. Due to their political marginality they sometime develop an 'informal' type of power structure. Without this, factionalism and conflicts are very much common among the poor urban communities, and are mostly based on economic and ethnic issues (Hossain, and Humphrey, 2002). Class based political organization did not develop among the urban poor due to kinship. The landlord-tenant relationship also plays a significant role in the community organization of the urban poor: that a sense of powerlessness, dependency or fatalism rather than self-efficiency prevails among the majorities of the urban poor (Islam and Zeitlyn, 1987). Beall argues that the responses of the urban poor themselves and the conditions under which collective action shifts from isolated or self-contained self-help activities to wider engagement in urban politics need to be explored for the pro-pool urban development policies in developing countries. Deception diet between different interests in the city signals one of the limitations of any policy approach to urban poverty reduction that focuses on poor areas alone, without recognizing how they link into the wider socio-politics of a city. (Beall, 2000). The most celebrated result of urban transformation will be the burgeoning of new megacities. In 1995 only one city (Tokyo) in the world had reached that threshold. Davis shows that by 2025, Asia alone could have ten or eleven conurbations that large, including Dhaka (25 million). Mumbai meanwhile is projected to attain a population of 33 million, although no one knows whether such gigantic concentration is biologically or ecologically sustainable (Davis, 2004). Considering the entity and number of inhabitants and also the accelerated development, megacities run the highest risks from manmade and natural disasters (Kotter, 2004). While it may be true that many poor city dwellers feel incapable of advancing their lives or influencing the political and economic systems-often with good reason-survey research suggests that they do not necessarily suffer from the apathy or helplessness that scholars such as Lewis ascribed to them. Levels of fatalism and optimism undoubtedly vary from place to place and from time to time, depending on both the community's cultural values and its socioeconomic experiences. In short, the level of fatalism or optimism among the urban poor varies considerably across nations and seems to correspond to objective economic conditions more than to any culturally embedded values (Happe and Schmit).

2.8 Participation in Urban Politics of Urban Poor

The urban poor are often considered as politically passive and unaware of issues. But there is an expectation that an urban man will take an active interest not only in those matters, which touch his immediate life, but also in the larger issues facing his community. The allegiance of urban man is supposed to be extended beyond his family and friends to the state and nations (Inkless and Smith, 1974, Lerner, 1958). But the poor migrants are not interested in politics because of their disorganized nature of culture (Lewis, 1968). In rural Bangladesh people of lower state are not always politically conscious. They mainly became aware about politics during national election. Lower class people of urban areas are not seasonally conscious about politics. They are more or less always conscious about political matters due to wide participation in political activities like attending meetings of political parties, participation in picketing during political strike etc. The most of poor migrants (52.63%) of Dhaka city are politically conscious and they directly participate in different activities like meetings of political parties and picketing during political strike (Hossain, 2000).

3.0 Theorizing Urban Informality, Poverty and Politics

Many of the sociologists had a fascination with the city and urban life. The work of Georg Simmel and Ferdinand Tonnies provided two of the most important early constitutions to urban society. They influenced urban sociologist to study more about it, for instance, Robert Park, developed ideas which were for many years the chief basis of theory and research in urban society (Park, 1952). More recent theories urbanism have stressed that it is not an autonomous in relation to patterns of political and economic change. As a growing number of unskilled and agricultural workers migrate to urban areas, the formal economy often struggles to absorb the



influx into workforce. In most cities in the developing world, it is the important economy that allows those who cannot find formal work to make ends meet. A great many organizations, institutions and groups cross paths with in cities. Domestic and international business, potential investors, Government bodies, civic associations, professional groups, trade unions and other links can lead to joint action in which cities act as social agents in political, economic, cultural and media spheres. Mike Davis viewed that the state's capacity to create formal jobs and housing has been sacrificed to the golden calf of monetary stability under the current neoliberal regime of globalization. The corollary to this urbanization of world poverty is the extraordinary proliferation of slums. The brutal tectonics of neoliberal globalization since 1978 is analogs to the catastrophic processes that shaped a "Third World" in the first place, during the late Victorian imperialism age. At the end of the nineteenth century, the forcible incorporation into the world market of the great subsistence peasantries of Asia and African entailed the famine deaths of millions and the uprooting of tens of millions more from traditional tenures. The end result was rural "semi-proletarianization", the creation of a huge global class of immoderate semi-peasants and farm laborers lacking existential security of subsistence. As a result, the twentieth century became an age not of urban revolution, as classical Marxism had imagined, but of epochal rural uprising and peasant based wars of national liberation. The cities have become a dumping ground for a surplus population working in unskilled, unproductive and low-wage informal service industries and trade. The rise of informal sector is a direct result of liberalization. In the 1970s manual Castells and other radical critics could persuasively criticize the "myth of marginality" that correlated slum housing with economic informality by pointing to the large numbers of industrial-workers and public employers forced to live in substandard housing in cities such as Caracas and Santiago. Since 1980, economic informality has returned with a vengeance and the equation of urban and occupational marginality has become irrefutable and overwhelming informal workers .Small cities tend to be even more in formalized. Most of the jobs found in small towns and cities are in the informal sector: food stalls and restaurants, beauty parlors and barber shops, dressmaking salons, or petty trading (Davis, 2004). Altogether, the global informal working class is about one billion strong, making it the fastest-growing, and most unprecedented, social class on earth. Among that the 1980s crisis- during which formal-sector employment grew two to five times faster than formal-sector jobs- has inverted their relative structural positions, establishing in formal survivalism as the new primary mode of livelihood in a majority of Third World cities. In rapidly industrializing urban China, there has been a proliferation of rudimentary informal activities which means of survival to the urban poor. The end of the day, the majority of the slum-dwelling laboring poor are truly and radically homeless in the contemporary international economy. Increasing competition within the informal sector depletes social capital and dissolves self-help networkers and solidarities essential to the survival of the very poor- again especially women and children: politically, the informal sector, in the absence of enforced labor rights, is s semi feudal realm of kickbacks, bribes, tribal loyalties, and ethnic exclusion. The rise of unprotected informal sector has too frequently gone hand in and with exacerbated ethno-religious differentiation and sectarian violence. The informal sector is a living museum of human exploitation. A very large segment of the urban middle class in the Third World directly exploits poor children and teenagers. While poor urban children are still treated as slaves or indentured labor, some of their fathers remain little more than draught animals. The rickshaw has always been a notorious emblem of the degradation of labor in Asia. In Dhaka the rickshaws sector is the second-largest provider of employment in the city, second only to the million or so employed by the garment industry (Davis, 2006). It is the fact of today, over a half a century after the Bretton-woods accords more than half of the world's population lives in severe poverty. All there organizations are united in their concern with gaining secure tenure of land, adequate and durable housing, and access to elements of urban infrastructure, notably to electricity, transport, sanitation, and allied services. The Coalition of many parts of the world has created the horizon of politics and articulated new relations to urban governmentality. There has been undoubted growth in a "privatization" of the state in various forms. In other cases, the growing power in some national economies of multilateral agencies such as the World Bank and International Monetary Fund. There is some reason to worry about whether the current framework of human rights is serving mainly as the legal and normative conscience or the legal-bureaucratic lubricant of a neoliberal, packetized political order. Appadurai analyze the steady explosion of anti-Muslim politics by the Shiva Sena in Mubai, the radical inequality in access to living space in the city, and the transformation of its industrial economy into a service economy. Mumbai is the largest city in a country, India, whose population has just crossed the 1 billion mark. The city's population is at least 12 million. About 40 percent of the populations live in slum or other degraded forms of housing. Another 5 to 10 percent are pavement dwellers. This huge and constricted population of insecurely or poorly housed people has negligible access to essential services, such as running water, electricity, and ration cards for food steps. Equally important this population which we may call citizens without a city- is a vital part of the urban workforce. Some of them occupy the respectable low end of white-collar organization and others the menial low end of industrial and commercial concern. The poorest of poor in the city of Mumbai are cart pullers, rag pickers, scullions, sex worker, car mechanics assistants, petty vendors, small-time criminals, and temporary workers in petty industrial jobs requiring dangerous physical work. While men form the core of this labor pool,



women and children work wherever possible, frequently in ways that exploit their sexual vulnerability. Their slumlords may push them out through force or extortion. And their inability to document their claims to housing may snowball into a general invisibility in urban life, making it impossible for them to claim any rights to such things as rationed foods, municipal health and education facilities, police protection, and voting rights. In fact housing can be argued to be the single most critical site of this city's politics of citizenships. The Alliance is committed to methods of organization, mobilization, teaching and learning that build on what poor persons already know and understand. The principle of this approach is how to survive poverty than the poor themselves, is its vision of politics without parties. The strategy of the Alliance is that it will not deliver the poor as a vote bank to any political party or candidate. In Mumbai, the Shiva Sena, street-level control of urban politics, does not easily tolerate neutrality. The Alliance deals with these difficulties by working with whoever is in power; Alliance has developed a complex political affiliation with the various levels of the state bureaucracy. This group includes civil servants two conduct policy at the highest levels in the state of Maharashtra and run the major bodies responsible for housing loans, slum rehabilitation, rural estate regulation, and the like. The Alliance works also to maintain a cordial relationship with the Mumbai police- and at least a hands-off relationship with the underworld, which on deeply involved in housing finance, slum landlordism, and extortion as well as in the demolition and rebuilding of temporary structures. From those perspectives the politics of the Alliance is a politics of accommodation, negotiation, and long-term pressure rather than of confrontation or threats of political reprisal. Not all members of the Alliance view the state, the market, or the donor world in the same way. Savings is the term that takes on a special meaning in Alliance usage. Creating informal savings groups among the poora process that the donor establishment has recognized under the term microcredit- is a current technique for improving financial citizenship for the urban and rural poor throughout the world. By putting savings at the core of the politics of the Alliance, its leaders are making the work of poor women fundamental to what can be achieved in every other area. All state-sponsored slum policies have an abstract slum population as their target and no knowledge of its concrete, human components. Since these populations are socially, legally and spatially marginal- invisible citizens, as it were- they are by definition uncounted and uncountable, except in the most general terms. Human waste management, as it is euphemistically termed in policy circles, is perhaps the key issue where every problem of the urban poor arrives at a single point of extrusion, so to speak. Given the abysmal housing, often with no privacy, that most urban slum dwellers endure, shitting in public is a serious humiliation for adults. Shitting in the absence of good sewerage systems, ventilation, and running water all of which, by definition, slums lack- it is not only humiliating, it also enables the conditions under which waterborne diseases take hold and thus is potentially life threatening (Appadurai, 2002). Saskia Sassen examines three major nodes in the global economy: New York, London and Tokyo. She cites that global capital circuits and investment patterns requires a degree of analytical sophistication to understand. She was concerned about urban politics and city governance. Since cities are first and foremost sites of production, they will be shaped by larger changes in the nature and location of production. Some cities will lose investment while others gain, some urban neighborhoods will labor markets will also be affected. Saskia argues that earnings are increasing while the population of low-wage- workers becomes larger and more squeezed. These trends, she argues, foster a growing "informal economic sector, consisting of those who work without formal contracts or benefits. These three cities have undergone massive and parallel changes in their economic base, spatial organization, and social structure. To understand the puzzle of parallel change in diverse cities requires not simply a point by-point comparison of New York, London, and Tokyo, but a situating of these cities in a set of global processes. The territorial dispersal of current economic activity creates a need for expanded central control and management. Industrial homeworkers in remote rural areas are now part of that chain. The expansion of low-wage jobs as a function of growth trends implies a reorganization of the capital-labor relation. To see this, it is important to distinguish the characteristics of jobs from their sectorial location, since highly dynamic, technologically advanced growth sectors may well contain low-wage dead-end jobs. Backward sectors, such as downgraded manufacturing or low-wage service occupation, can be part of major growth trend in a highly developed economy. It is often assumed that backward sector express declining trends. Similarly, there is a tendency to assure that advanced sectors, such as finance, have mostly good, white-collar jobs in fact they contain a good number of low-paying jobs from cleaner to stock clerk. The informal economy has implications for theories on the postindustrial society. Much of the expansion of the informal economy in developed countries of has been located in immigrant communities; this has led to an explanation of its expansion as being due to the large influx of Third World immigrants and assumed propensities to replicate survival strategies typical of their home countries. Related to this view is his notion that backward, because of the availability of a large supply of cheap immigrant workers. Both of these views posit or imply that, if there is an informal sector in advance industrialized countries, the sources are to be found in Third World immigration and in the backward sectors of the economy .Third World immigration is causing in formalization and the entry of mothers into the labor force is causing the casualization of work. A wide range of industrial sector use informal work-apparel, general construction, special trade contractors, footwear, toys and sporting goods, electronic components; and accessories. Informal work is



also present in lesser measure in particular kinds of activities, such as packaging notions, making lamp-shades, making artificial flowers, jewelry making. There is a strong tendency for informal work to be located in densely populated areas with very high shares of immigrants. Informal work in this instance represents an acute examine of exploitation. The existence of a rather diversified informal economy making use of a variety of labor supplies may lower entry costs for entrepreneurs and hence function as a factor inducing the expansion of the informal economy .There has been a great increase in part-time, casual, and sweated labor in construction, clothing, catering, and retailing, cleaning, and printing in London and in United Kingdom generally. The growth of unorganized and low-paid labor can drag down the pay and working conditions of the better-paid, organized workers. This is contributing to a further erosion of the socio-economic conditions of low-income workers. There is clearly a massive breakdown of the system that was supported to protect daily laborers and low-income residents. The distance between the world of the daily laborer and the rest of society, the world of regular, fulltime jobs, has grown immensely in only a few years (Sassen, 2007). Harvey wants to explore another kind of collective right that is the right to the city. This is important because there is revival of interest in Henri Lefebvre's ideas on the topic as these were articulated in relation to the movement of 68 in France, at the same time as there are various social movements around the world that are now demanding the right to the city as their goal. We live in world, after all. Where the rights of private property and the profit rate trump all other notions of right one can think. But there are occasions when the ideal of human rights takes a collective turn, as when the rights of labor. Women and minorities come to the fore. These struggles for collective rights have, on occasion. The city as the noted urban sociologist Robert Park wrote is: "Man's most consistent and on the whole, his most successful attempt to remake the world he lives in more after his heart's desire. But, if the city is the world which man created. It is the world in which he is henceforth condemned to live. Thus, indirectly, and without any clear sense of the nature of his task, in making the city man has remade himself" (Park, 1967). The freedom to make and remake ourselves and our cities is, Harvey argues, one of the most precious yet most neglected of our human rights. Urbanization has always been a class phenomenon since surplus has been extracted from somewhere and from somebody while the control over the disbarment of the surplus typically lies in a few hands. This general situation persists under capitalism, of course, but in this case there is an intimate connection with the perpetual search for surplus value that drives the capitalist dynamic. To produce surplus value, capitalists have to produce a surplus product. Since urbanization depends on the mobilization of a surplus product. Since urbanization depends on the mobilization of a surplus product an inner connection emerges between the development of the capitalism and urbanization. The politics of capitalism are affected by the perpetual need to find profitable terrains for capital surplus production and absorption. In this the capitalism faces a number of barriers to continuous and trouble- free expansion. If there is a scarcity of labor and wages are too high then either existing labor has to be disciplined or fresh labor forces must be found. This puts increasing pressure on the natural environment to yield up the necessary raw materials and absorb the inevitable wastes. Terrains for raw material extraction have to be opened up. The crisis of 1848 in Paris was one of the first clear crises of unemployed surplus capital and surplus labor side-by -side and it was European-wide. It struck particularly hard in Paris and the result was an abortive revolution on the part of unemployed workers and those bourgeois utopians that saw asocial republic as the antidote to the capitalist greed and inequality that had characterized the July Monarchy. The republican bourgeoisie violently repressed the revolutionaries but failed to resolve the crisis. The result was the ascent to power of Napoleon Bonaparte, who engineered a coup in 1851 and proclaimed himself emperor in 1852. Bonaparte brought Haussmann to Paris to take charge of the Public workers in 1853. Haussmann clearly understood that his mission was to help solve the surplus capital and unemployment problem by way of urbanization. He changed the city wholesale rather than retail. What he did in effect was to help resolve the capital surplus disposal problem by setting up a Keynesian-like system of debt-financed infrastructural urban improvements. The systems worked very well for some fifteen years and it entailed not only a transformation of urban infrastructures but the construction of a whole new urban way of life and the construction of a new kind of urban persona. Paris became 'the city of light' the grate center of consumption, tourism and pleasure- the cafes, the development stores, the fashion industry, the grand exposition all changed the urban way of life in ways that could absorb vast surplus through crass and frivolous consumerism. But then the overextended and increasingly speculative financial system and credit structure on which this was based crashed in 1868. Haussmann was forced from power, napoleon iii in desperation went to war against Bismarck's Germany and lost, and in the vacuum that followed arose the Paris commune, one of the greatest revolutionary episodes in capitalists urban history. The commune was wrought in part out of nostalgia for the urban world that Haussmann had destroyed and the desire to take back their city on the part of those dispossessed by Haussmann's works. But the Commune also articulated conflict forward looking visions of alternatives socialist modernity's that pitted ideals of centralized hierarchical control against decentralized anarchist visions of popular organization, that led in 1872 in the midst of intense recriminations over who was at fault for the debacle of the Commune, to the radicle and unfortunate break between the Marxist and the Anarchists that to this day still plague all forms of left opposition to capitalism (Harvey, 2003). In 1942 there appeared a lengthy evaluation of Haussmann's efforts in an



architectural journal. It documented in detailed what he has done, attempted an analysis of his mistakes but sought to recuperate Haussmann's reputation as one of the greatest urbanites of all time. The article was by none other Robert Moses who after World War II did to the whole New York metropolitan region what Hussmann had done to Paris (Moses, 1942). That is Moses changed the scale of thinking about the urban process and through the system of highways and infrastructural transformations, through suburbanization and through the total reengineering, not just of the city but of the whole metropolitan region; he absorbed the surplus product and thereby helped resolve the capital surplus absorption problem. For this to happen, he needed to tap into new financial institutions and tax arrangements that liberated the credit to debt-finance the urban expansion. As in all the preceding phases, this most recent radical expansion of the urban process has brought with it incredible transformations of lifestyle. Quality of urban life has become a commodity for those with money, as has the city itself in a world where consumerism, tourism, culture and knowledge-based industries have become major aspects of urban political economy. The postmodernist penchant for encouraging the formation of market niches, both in urban lifestyle choice and in consumerism habits, and cultural forms, surrounds the contemporary urban experience with an area of freedom of choice in the market, provided you have the money. Shopping malls, multiplexes and box stores proliferate as do fast food and artisanal market places and boutique cultures are considered as "pacification by cappuccino." Even the incoherent, bland and monotonous suburban tract development that continues to dominate in many areas now gets its antidote in a "new urbanism" movement that touts the scale of community and a boutique lifestyle as a developer product to fulfill urban dreams. This is s world in which the neoliberal ethic of intense possessive individualism and its cognate of political withdrawal of support for collective forms of action can become the template for human personality socialization (Carquist, Rand-Hendrikson, 2007). In the developing world in particular, the city: "Is splitting into different separated parts, with the apparent formation of many 'microstates'. Wealthy neighborhoods provided with all kinds of services, such as exclusive schools, golf courses, tennis courts and private police patrolling the area around the clock intertwine with illegal settlements where water is available on at public fountains, no sanitation system exists, electricity is pirated by a privileged few, the roads become mud streams whenever it rains, and where house-sharing is the norm. Each fragment appears to live and function autonomously, sticking firmly to what it has been able to grab in the daily fight for survival". (Balbo, 2003). Under these conditions, ideals for urban identity, citizenship and belonging, already threatened by the spreading malaise of the neoliberal ethnic, become much better harder to sustain. The privatization of redistribution through criminal activity threatens individual security at every turn prompting popular demands for police suppressions. Even the idea that the city might function as a collective body politic, a site within and from which progressive social movements might emanate, appears increasingly implausible. Yet there are in fact all manner of urban social movements in evidence seeking to overcome the isolations and to re-shape the city in a different social image to that given by the powers of developers backed by finance, corporate capital, and in increasingly entrepreneurially minded local state apparatus. Violence is required to achieve the new urban world on the wreckage of the old. Haussmann tore through the old Parisian slums, using powers of expropriation for supposedly public benefit and did so in the name of civic improvement and renovation. Here deliberately engineered the removal of much of the working class and other unruly elements from Paris's city centre where they constituted a threat to public order and political power. He created an urban form where it was believed sufficient levels of surveillance and military control were possible so as to ensure that revolutionary movements could easily be controlled by military power. Increasingly, we see the right to the city falling into the hands of private or quasi-private interests, indeed. The democratization of the right to the city and the construction of a broad social movement to enforce its will are imperative, if the dispossessed are to take back control of the city from which they have for so long been excluded and if new modes of controlling capital surpluses as they work through urbanization processes are to be instituted. Lefebvre was right to insist that the revolution has to be urban, in the broadest sense of that term, or nothing at all (David Harvey, 2003). Email Durkheim contends that the state is not an enormous coercive power but a vast and conscious organization capable of an action at once unified and varied, supple and extensive. Over the past three decades, that is, since the race riots that shook the ghettos of its big cities and marked the closing of the Civil Rights revolution, America has last launched into a social and political experiment without precedent or equivalent in the societies of the postwar West; the gradual replacement of a (semi) welfare state by a police and penal state for which the criminalization of marginality and the punitive containment of dispossessed categories serve as social policy at the lower end of the class and ethnic order. Americans have always viewed themselves as an autonomous people fundamentally rebellious to nay sup asocial authority- save for that of God. This is attested by the many articles in the Constitution that disperse and curb public powers, regarded ex hypothesis as potentially tyrannical, and the venomous antistatism of the national political culture. The American state is a decentralized network of loosely coordinated agencies whose powers are limited by the very fragmentation of the bureaucratic field and the disproportionate power the latter grants to local authorities. The sharing of budgetary responsibilities and attributions among the various levels of government (federal, state, county, and municipal) is a source of constant dissension and distortion. The result is that there is often an abyss



between the policies promulgated "on paper" in Washington and in state legislatures and the services actually delivered on the ground by street-level bureaucracies. Historically, the main beneficiaries of the "social insurance" side of the US social state, such as the Social Security retirement fund, have been men (as full-time workers and heads of households), whites (who have long cornered the lion's share of stable jobs in the industrial and service sectors), and the families of the labor aristocracy and the middle and upper classes. Although public assistance programs such as Aid to Families with Dependent Children reach a broad public that is majority white more than one American household in four was on the "welfare" rolls at some point during the 1980s in the popular imagination their clientele is essentially made up of urban minorities and dissolute women living off the nation in the manner of social parasites. Impaired by the administrative and ideological split between "welfare" and "social insurance" stigmatized by their close association with the demands of the black political movement, and tarnished by the notorious inefficiency of the agencies responsible for implementing them, programs targeted at the poor were the first victims of the socio political reaction that carried Reagan to power in 1980 and hen fostered the success of Clinton's "New Democrats. To hear the-chief ideologues of American sociopolitical reaction, Charles Murray, Lawrence Mead, and Daniel Patrick Moynihan, the pathological "dependency" of the poor stems from their moral dereliction. Absent an urgent and muscular intervention by the state to check it, the growth of "nonworking poverty" threatens to bring about nothing less than "the end of Western civilization. At the start of the 19905, several formerly industrial states with high unemployment and urban poverty rafter, such as Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, and Michigan, unilaterally put an end to General Assistance, a locally funded program of last resort for the indigent overnight in Michigan, after a brief transition period in Pennsylvania. This resulted in the dumping of one million aid recipients nationwide. The same trend applies to occupational disability, for which the rate of coverage dropped from 7.1 workers per thousand in 1975 to 4.5 per thousand in 1991. Likewise for housing: in 1991. according to official figures, one in three American families was "housing poor," that is, unable to cover both basic needs and housing costs, while the homeless population numbered between 600,000 and 4 million. Meanwhile, the federal budget for social housing plummeted from \$32 billion in 1978 to less than \$10 billion a decade later in current dollars, amounting to a cut of 80 percent in real dollars.39. The degradation of employment conditions, shortening of job tenures, drop in real wages, and shrinking of collective protections for the US working class over the past quarter-century have been brought about and accompanied by a surge in precarious wage work. The numbers of on-call staff and day laborers, "guest" workers (brought in through state-sponsored programs of seasonal importation of agricultural laborers from Mexico or the Caribbean, for instance), office- or service-workers operating as subcontractors, compulsory parttimers, and casual staff hired through specialized "temp" agencies have all increased much more quickly than other occupational categories since. Today one in three Americans in the labor force is a nonstandard wage earner: such insecure work must clearly be understood as a perennial form of sub employment solidly rooted in the new socioeconomic landscape of the country and destined to grow. Not surprisingly, the casualization of jobs affects and foremost women, the youngest and oldest workers, and finally unskilled blacks and Latinos living in the inner cities, for whom it has translated into an unprecedented social regression a draconian cut in incomes and decline in living standards, a reduction of social and medical coverage to a bare minimum, a severe narrowing of the temporal and occupational horizon, a fraying of social relations at work, the deskilling of jobs, and an almost total loss of control over one's activity. By fragmenting the workforce, the institutionalization of job insecurity also thwarts traditional forms of collective action and thus serves as a battering ram to further assault the social benefits of workers who are still protected.40 This means that insecurity eventually promises to seriously affect not only temporary employees but all wage earners, including the middle managers who currently defend it and are implementing it with zeal. The financial translation of this "great confinement" of marginality is not hard to imagine. As will be documented fully in chapters, to implement its policy of penalization of social insecurity at the bottom of the socio-racial structure, the United States massively enlarged the budget and personnel devoted to confinement, in effect ushering in the era of "cereal big government" just as it was decreasing its commitment to the social support of the poor. While the share of national expenditures allocated to public assistance declined steeply relative to need, federal funds for criminal justice multiplied by 5.4 between 1972 and 1990, jumping from less than \$2 billion to more than \$10 billion. It suffices, to discern the extra enological functions served by the out-sized extension of the US cereal apparatus even as crime plummeted for over a decade,60 to sketch in broad strokes the sociological profile of the "clientele" it accommodates at its entry point. Whence it turns out that the half-million detainees who glut the country's 3,300-odd jails on any one day and the fourteen million bodies that pass through their gates in the course of a typical year are essentially drawn from the most marginalized fractions of the working class, and especially from the sub-proletarian families of color in the segregated cities ravaged by the conjoint transformation of wage labor and social protection. Thus, recovering its historical mission of origin, incarceration serves above all to regulate, if not to perpetuate, poverty and to warehouse the human rejects of the market. In this regard, the gargantuan operation of punishment houses converges with and complements the aggressive rolling out of workfare programs (Loic Wacquant, 2006, 2009).



4.0 Methodology

4.1 Research Design and Method

The design of the study is comprised of mixed methodology. In this regard, both of qualitative and quantitative method has been followed to enhance more concrete analysis of the study. The qualitative portion helps to understand the real situation of urban informality, poverty and politics in Dhaka city. On the contrary, quantitative portion helps to understand how new urban informality, urban poverty and marginality, and informal politics are functioning. In this instance the qualitative method of textual analysis from the literature to provide a base for the quantitative method of survey designs. The study also followed the survey method for quantitative data collection. As it is a mixed method, then, the study formulated semi-structured questionnaire to collect quantitative and qualitative data for examining assumptions. Then some face to face in-depth interviews has been conducted to make a strong justification to the assumptions.

4.2 Questionnaire Survey

In the present study, a draft questionnaire has been developed. The draft questionnaire is pre-tested and on the basis of field experience, necessary corrections are made. Then the final questionnaire has been made. The main contents of the questionnaire are as follows: a) Income, b) Rural-urban migration, c) Expenditure, d) Problem in living and working place, e) Pressurized group, e) Way of solution & f) Form of political participation .During the pre-testing of this survey instrument the following issues were strongly considered: a) The probing techniques, b) The languages necessary to address specific issues, c) The sequencing of question, d) The technique for documenting responses & e) Providing appropriate skips in the questionnaire.

4.3 The Study Area and Target Population

At first, the residential areas of Dhaka University are selected as the study area purposively. Later, two halls have been selected namely 'Bangladesh Kuwait Maitree Hall'& 'Sir A F Rahman Hall'. The target population of the study is the male and female informal workers and slum dwellers reside near the said halls. Selected informal workers and slum dwellers were interviewed using a detailed semi-structured questionnaire. The sub-sample of the informal worker and slum dwellers was drawn from different place of the city. Who were more concerned to provide detailed information about their experiences in the work and living place, the present researchers have collected information only from them. They were interviewed in a more detailed platform using a checklist drawn from the questionnaire. Although the sample population does not fully represent the target group, this paper concentrates primarily on informal worker and slum dwellers to collect data and information which they experience in their in their everyday life to serve the objectives of the study. Every informal worker and slum dweller is considered as unit of analysis.

4.4 Sampling and Sample Size

The purposive sampling is used in the study. It is used primarily in survey research, content analysis, and nonreactive research. Time frame and budget was limited to complete the study, therefore purposive sampling has been chosen to conduct the survey. The sample size is 120 different types of informal workers and slum dwellers in Dhaka city. A purposive sample was drawn from different points in the city, and all age groups were included

4.5 Technique and Procedure of Data Collection

To collect data, quantitative method and survey technique is followed. Both structural and unstructured questions are incorporated in the questionnaire. The questionnaire is supplemented by qualitative data because some feelings, speeches, experiences and perspective cannot be mentioned numerically. Data is collected from very busy respondents through rapport building. Data has been collected from August 2016 to February 2017(Time frame). Semi-structured interview has also been used to gather data. Moreover secondary sources i.e. books, journals, documents, articles, internet, Research paper and different national and international newspapers have been used to collect relevant important information.

4.6 Data Processing and Analysis

Data obtained from the study are transferred in to SPSS program in order to enhance best analysis. Quantitative data have been analyzed by means of statistical interpretation using univariate technique e.g. frequency and percentage. Quantitative data are processed in different ways. A questionnaire survey is conducted to collect data from 120 respondents. Result are presented through different tables and therefore interpreted. Frequency tables express the percentage of the variables. Again, cross-tabulation has been generated to observe the difference of proportion between two variables. However, for the quantitative result, when the variable of interest is a categorical variable, the significance of difference has been evaluated by using Pearson's Correlation test.



4.7 Ethical Consideration

Ethical consideration is an important aspect in this research work, because this research is sociologically and economically very important work. Ethics begins with and ends with the research. The researcher of this research was concern all the time about ethical consideration. The researcher had to make promise that the information and views of the respondents will be kept hidden. The researcher was very conscious about selecting language to show proper respect to the respondent.

5.0 Findings

5.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Without knowing a clear image of respondents' age, sex, religion, and marital status the study would be quite vague to explore the real situation of the respondents. To maintain a detailed demography of the respondents' it is important to require age as a factor. In the present study, the highest percentage (60 Percent) of age category is 21-30 Years. Simultaneously, 11-20 years age category represents 5 percent, 31-40 years represent 20 Percent, 41-50 years represent 12 Percent, year 51-60 years represent 6 Percent, and above years represent 2 Percent. Though the number of female informal worker and slum dweller are highly growing gradually but in the present study the vast respondents are male .Most of the informal worker and slum dwellers are Muslim. From the respondents 98 percent are Muslim and 1.08 percent is Hindu, and a very negligible number respondent is from others. That is 0.98 percent. More than 58 percent of the respondents are married, about 41 percent are unmarried, and only 0.3 percent is divorced. A significant number (36.3) of the respondents are in "no education" group. In education status, 12.6 percent sharply falling in "class one-three" group. Exactly 27.9 percent of the respondents is class "four-six" group, while some 11.7 Percent 'class Seven- Eight' group, only 8 percent of the respondents completed S.S.C, A negligible proportion (3.5) have completed H.S.C. Work location of the respondent includes the highest density of slum area informal market, office area, bus terminal and educational institute etc. i.e. Kamrangir Char, newpaltan, lalbag, Aumbagan slum, Kali mondir gate, 3 leaders Mazar gate, Azimpur, Shibbari, Nilkhet, Newmarket, Mohakhali, Dhaka college, Dhaka university and Dhanmondi lake (See detals in table 01).



Table-01 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Table-01 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents							
Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)					
1. Age							
11-12	6	5					
21-30	72	60					
31-40	24	20					
41-50	14	12					
51-60	4	1					
61-above	0	0					
Total	120	100					
2.Religion							
Islam	118	98					
Hindu	1	1					
Others	1	1					
Total	120	100					
3.Marital Status	<u> </u>	<u> </u>					
Married	69	57.4					
Unmarried	50	41.3					
Divorced	1	1.3					
Total	120	100					
4.Educational Qualification	1						
No education	44	36.3					
1-3 class	14	12.6					
4-6 class	33	27.9					
7-8 class	14	11.7					
S.S.C	10	8.0					
H.S.C	5	3.5					
Total	120	100					
5.Work Location of Informal	worker and Slum Dwellers	<u> </u>					
Kamrangir Char	23	19.60					
newpaltan,	9	7					
Lalbag	5	4					
Aumbagan slum	9	8.30					
Kali mondir gate	3	2.90					
3leaders Mazar gate	4	3.60					
Azimpur	7	6.40					
Shibbari	16	13					
Nilkhet	18	15					
Newmarket	17	13.20					
Mohakhali	9	7					
Total	120	100					

5.2 Urban Informal Survivalism, Poverty and Politics in Dhaka City

Most of the worker is rickshaw pullers, street vendor and past informal worker. The percentage of the rickshaw puller is 42 and the percentage of the street vendor is 36.6 and the percentage of the past informal worker is 13.4, and others are exactly 8 percent. More than 74 percent of the respondents are migrated from the rural Bangladesh to Dhaka city to meet their economic crisis and less than 26 percent are not migrated to Dhaka city. It gives us a picture of our rural Bangladesh having no significant productivity which can provide a financial security to the mass population of rural area of the country. Sixty percent respondents migrated to Dhaka city to meet their economic crisis Approximately 11 percent of the informal workers are migrated to fulfill their personal dreams, other 4.5 percent worker are to follow others and only 1.8 percent reported uncategorized different reasons to migrate in Dhaka city to explore a better financial support to live and maintain their family. Migrated people cannot enter in the informal sector of Dhaka easily. As Dhaka is a megacity it has some of its own patterns in informal sector which functions in very predictable way. The migrated people penetrate flexibly to settle down in the work and living place. There are political leaders, local goon, police and even the other workers create problem. A significant number of the respondents are migrated to the city through Kith and Kin, 11.8 percent are get their involvement through their friends, more than 21.8 percent are via indirectly known persons who are



already settled Dhaka and only 9.1 percent in the through neighbors. Most of the respondents are in their current work for >-1 years (55.5%), 2-5 years (15.5%) and others 6-10 years (9.15), 11-above years (20%). The monthly average incomes of the respondents are ranged from 5000 BDT to 5000 above. A significant proportion percent of the respondents are limited to >-5000 BDT, and then 36.4 percent respondents earn 6000-10000 BDT. Only 20 per cent earns 11000-above BDT. Therefore .9 percent respondents do not intendant to share their monthly income as they thought that it's their very confident and personal matter. They did not want to disclose their privacy. It is a very important finding that most of the respondents (70.9%) are very happy that they are able to maintain their families. Though it is 27.1 percent who cannot maintain their families with their earning but it's significant percentage who are fighting in the street and providing subscription to the political leader, local goon, and police to earn their bred. But they cannot maintain. Every month they have to manage loan to bear their family expenditure. Only 1.8 percent of the respondents do not agree to share this information. Another data give a more précised information about the monthly family expenditure and family income which concludes that 50 percent of the total respondent's monthly average family expenditure is 1000-10000 BDT, while 44.5 percent shows 11000-20000 BDT, some 3.6 percent respondent's monthly family expenditure is 21000-30000 BDT and only 1.8 percent above 31000 BDT. On the contrary a significant number of the total respondent's monthly average family income (75.5 percent) is 5000-10000 BDT (See detals in table 02).

Table-02 Urban Informal Survivalism, Poverty and Politics in Dhaka City						
Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)	
1.Pattern of working in the informal sector		5.MonthlyAverage	5.MonthlyAverageIncome of Respondents			
Rickshaw Puller	51	42	>-5000 BDT	51	42.7	
Street Vendor	44	36.60	6000-10000 BDT	44	36.4	
Past Informal Workers	16	13.40	11000-above BDT	24	20	
Others	9	8	Not answered	1	.9	
Total	120	100	Total	120	100	
2.Rural-urban Migratio	on Status		6.Family Maintenance of the Respondents			
Yes	89	74.5	Yes	85	70.9	
No	31	25.5	No	33	27.1	
Total	120	100	Not answered	2	1.8	
3.The Reasons to Migrate in Dhaka City		Total	120	100		
To meet economic crisis	72	60	7.Monthly Family Expenditure of the Respondents			
To fulfill personal dreams	13	10.9	1000-10000 BDT	60	50	
To follow the others	5	4.5	11000-20000 BDT	53	44.5	
Others	3	1.8	21000-30000 BDT	4	3.6	
Not applicable	27	22.7	above 31000 BDT	3	1.8	
Total	120	100	Total	120	100	
4.Duration of Work		•				
>-1 year	67	55.5				
2-5 year	19	15.5				
6-10 year	10	9.1				
11-above year	24	20				
Total	120	100				

5.2.1 Analysis of the Relationship among Informal Work, Poverty and Politics

In Dhaka City, rising informal sector is challenging and to some extend difficult to the informal worker and slum dwellers whose experience many difficulties to do work and live. They suffer in a diversified way. More than 60 percent of the total respondents agree that they are facing problems doing working in the work place and another 31.67 percent say that they are not having any problem and 8.33 percent does not provide the information as he requires the right to not tell. As the present study followed mixed method, some analysis has been made on the basis of urban ethnography. And in these cases the observation tells that the respondents are scared to express their real words because of the insecurity. If respondents say something against patrons, whose control their work and living area and, anyhow, they may know. And if they know that they have expressed some confidential information which may fall them into big problem. They may pressure them to quit his work or living place. Therefore they say that they have no problem. They are quite ok with this system. And another significant observation that is, somehow, they are happy. Because they think that they have no good education, professional knowledge to find a formal job in the mainstream of the social structure of Bangladesh. And moreover they are habituated with this system in informal sector of the city. As it has been saying the informal poor worker who



especially live in slum are frightened, habituated with the system and to some extent they are happy. Despite of a significant proportion (41.8 percent) of the total respondent reported they do not know who controls their work and living area but some 29 percent reported against police and of the remaining 6.4 percent against local goon. They do not want any trouble by any outsider or intruder. The data shown below represents the reality of the ethnographic data .Significant percent (55.5) answers that police makes trouble for the informal work and local leader for slum dwellers. More than 44 percent reported that police do not make any trouble to them. But it is very interesting with these 55.5 percent workers who experience trouble from the policies they do that because their security. Therefore they can do work and live safely. In most of the cases slum dwellers face problem by political leader to involve various type of political function. To make secure their living, they are bound to do the lead of political leader and to do various types of work without money, of local leader. If there is very negligible percent (1 percent) who strictly answered that they do not face problem, 28.7 percent have not answered and 70.1 percent faced problem (See details in table 03).

Table-03 Analysis of the Relationship among Informal Work, Poverty and Politics

Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1.Facing Problem	ns in the work pla		3.Troubling by police and local leader to the work and place		
Yes	72	60	Yes	67	55.5
No	38	31.67	No	53	44.5
Not Answered	10	8.33	Total	120	100
Total	120	100	4. Facing problem by slum dwellers		
2.Controlling of work and living area by patron		Yes	84	70.1	
Political leader	35	29.1	No	1	1
Police	16	13.6	Not answered	35	28.7
Local	8	6.4	Total	120	100
Mastan(Goon)					
Don't know	50	41.8			
Not answered	11	9.1			
Total	120	100			

5.2.2 Analyzing the Relationship between State and Informal Work

Most of the respondents (61.8 percent) said that they face the pressure to quit living place in this regard; they are pressurized by police (39.1 percent), political leader (7.3 percent), and local goon (15.5 percent), not answered 0.9 percent. The remaining 38.2 percent says that they are not pressurized to quit their living place. As police is a law enforcement agency it is their duty to serve the policies initiated by the government or state. And by analyzing the above data it can be identified that government is not aware of the informal sector i.e. rickshaw pullers, street vendors etc. And therefore they face two sided vulnerability and marginality. Firstly, police and local goon or political leader and make trouble for them, sometimes evict them from the living place/slum and won place. Secondly the informal worker try to kickback and liaison with the police and local political leader and that is what already cited-monetary transaction (bribe). It is a very significant data which shows that whatsoever the Dhaka City Corporation (DCC) is the informal worker and slum dwellers do not aware of the work sector and slum areas in City. Only 15.5 percent of the total respondents say that they have a minimum interaction with the DCC and another 84.5 percent have not any interaction with the DCC. More than 50 percent of the total respondents give money as subscription. This provided information that enhances an analysis that shows that 17.3 percent say that they give the subscription directly to the Police, 16.4 percent to the political leader, and 8.2 percent to the local goon, and others 9.1 percent. Of the remaining 42.7 percent respondents say that they do not give subscription to anybody. Significant number (42.7 percent) of the total respondents does not face trouble when the government functions. Only 23.6 percent face trouble in the case of government function. A signification number (28.2 percent) does not having the experience of it. A significant proportion of the sample (49.1 percent) expect help from the government for the betterment of their living and working condition, while some 48.2 percent do not expect any help from the government . This data does not provide a clear sense about their expectation from the government but another data provides a more transparent view on their thinking about the government level initiatives to flourish their working sector and to improve likelihood. A significant number (46.4 percent) of the total respondents express their thinking/believing regarding government level initiatives that government should take proper initiatives. Only 35 percent of the respondents do not think that government should take any steps on this matter. An alarming percent (19.1 percent) of the respondents do not know whether the government should take any initiative to flourish their working sector and to improved living condition or not and 2.7 percent not agreed to provide information against this equation .Final question was does they think/believe one day the current situation will be changed and government will make policy for your



working sector and for their life security. A significant proportion (50 percent) of the total respondents think that yes, one day the current vulnerable, miserable and marginal situation of the informal worker and slum dwellers will be changed and government will make policy for their working sector and livelihood and ensure life security, other 30.9 percent do not think that this situation will be changed, some 5 percent do not know what will happen and of the remaining 13.6 percent do not responses in this issue (See details in table04).

Table-04 Analyzing the Relationship between State and Informal Work

Table-04 Analyzing th			Variables	E	D
Variables	Frequency	Percentage	variables	Frequency	Percentage
1.Pressurize to quit living place		6.Contribution to the Urban Society			
1.11 cssurize to quit ii	iving place		o.Contribution to th	ic orban society	
Yes	67	61.8	Yes	106	88.1
No	53	38	No	6	5.5
Total	120	100	Don't know	8	6.4
2. Responsible Group which insist to quit living			120	100	
place			Total		
Political leader	9	7.3	7.Expectation from the Government		
Police	47	39.1	Yes	59	49.1
	18	15.5	No	58	48.2
U	1	.9	Don't know	3	2.7
	45	37.3	Total	120	100
* *	120	100			
Total	120	100	8.Thinking on government should initiative informal workers and slum dwellers		
3.Interaction with Dh	aka City Corpo	ration			
	co.y co.ps		Yes	56	46.4
Yes	19	15.5	No	38	31.8
No	101	84.5	Don't know	23	19.1
Total	120	100	Not answered	3	2.7
4. Giving Subscri	bing money	to minimize		120	100
harassment	•		Total		
			9. Thinking about the changing probability of the		
			current situation by government/ Believing		
	61	50.9	policy will be made	by Government	
	51	42.7	Yes	65	50
	8	6.4	No	34	30.9
	120	100	Don't know	7	5.5
5.Directly Subscription Receiver		Not Answered	14	13.6	
	20	16.4	Total	120	100
	21	17.3			
8	9	8.2			
	11	9.1			
Not applicable	59	49.1			
Total	120	100			

5.5 Case Studies

Case-1

Rickshaw Puller Mr. Ibrahim. Age: 34. Home District- Pirghacha, Rangpur. He pulls rickshaw in especially in the area of University of Dhaka. He lives in Kamrangirchar slum with his family. In past, he was a vegetables seller in his village. But he could not meet the financial maintenance because of his increasing family-expenditure. Then he came to Dhaka city in 2002 to search for a better profession. One of his neighbors stayed in Dhaka city. He helped Mr. Shahidul to get a work as Fruit seller. After some couple of months he thought to change his working pattern and he got his chance to start a new wok- to pull rickshaw. Mr. Shahidul used to reside in rented- room in Lalbag first five years. He was pulled rickshaw in the same place. For last six years he is pulling in the area of the University of Dhaka. Ha pulls rickshaw 9 am to 7 pm. He says, 'sometimes I pull longer duration when health condition is favorable to me. My average monthly income is approx. 12000 BDT. He can meet the family-expenditure with this earning. He added, 'Now I am able to take meal in three times'. He says that to pulls rickshaw, he has to face some problems in the rainy season it is severe problem to him, because he has cold allergy. On the other hand, local mastans pressurize him to subscribe. He complains to me if he had



not to pay this subscription to the local mastans he could deposit some money in every month. He added, 'I could not file any complain to anybody'. He never thought any help from the police. Because then it happens that police charges him and want money, that is another harassment. He is very aware of license though he knows nothing about the Dhaka City Corporation (DCC). But he thinks, 'if the government takes some initiatives policy it will be better for them'. Therefore he emphasized that he does not hope that practically government will make any policy in favor to them. Because in his living place, he faces different types of problem by political leader. He has to do work for them without money. He thinks, 'there is no one who can hear their problem'. He dismally complains that strike is harmful their work and life. But the political parties do not listen to them. They call for strike. And in the other hand, many poor informal worker like to risk their lives to make some money for subsistence. That's why Mr. Shahidul does not any help from the political leaders. He dreams of a day when he will be able to bring his full family in Dhaka city. But his insufficient earning is the only obstacle to belong together.

Case-2

Prodip kumar Das is a cobbler. He is 45 years old. He works in front of BDR 3 No. Gate at Philkhana. He occupies his current occupation from last 22 years. He stays in Shibbari along with his family his family. His family is migrated from Noakhali to Dhaka When he was child, and it is 1969. Due to chronic poverty his family could not effort his educational expenses and after competing H.S.C in a very hard way he got involved with his father's business as a helping hand. Then after some couple of years he starts his present occupation. Every day at dawn he comes to BDR Gate and starts his work. His monthly Average Income is approx. 10000 BDT. But it is not sufficient for hos monthly maintenance. He has to borrow money from others; otherwise it is tough to pass the daily life. In this situation, another severe problem for him to give subscription for the work place to the local mastans. He has to weekly subscribe an amount of money to the worker then the total collection goes to the political powerful persons who control the area. Some time he has repair shows for free to the local mastans. Police does not demand subscription and do not help the worker to get rid of problems. Basically they avoid police. Strike brings a very harmful impact to his work. Because in strikes sufficient income is not earned. He thinks that the government is fully unconscious about general people. Government only thinks about its comfort. So he is very hopeless to government. But he hopes one day it will change. But he does not know, in which way it will occur?

Case-3

Mr. Hadi Molla. Age-48 years. He is and old-book-seller in Nilkhet. He collects and buys original (old) text books for engineering, medical, accounting, finance, marketing, banking and so on. He owns the business and it is his permanent business. He says, 'I am here in this place for the last 22 years!' He added, 'I am in the Dhaka City sin my childhood'. His family is migrated from Shariyetpur to Dhaka approx. three decades ago. Since his young-age he is involved in this vending. He earns approximately 25,000-30,000 BDT per month. Mr. Shahabuddin says that his income is enough to maintain his family. During the last 16 years he is occupying the business-place. He has to face some common problems i.e. in summer it's very uncomfortable to selling books in the open sky, in rainy season it's hard to business because of excessive rain which also create mud; sometimes the customer stole his books; increasing pressure of subscription; when suddenly subscription is increased by the leader of the area, he rapidly goes on saying his problem to me. And of course sometimes I had to make a break when he has to bargain with his customer who comes to him to buy old-books. It has been observed the most of his customers are young and students of different Universities i.e. University of Dhaka, Bangladesh University of Engineering and Technology (BUET), Dhaka Medical College, Sir Solimullah Medical College, Dhaka College, Eden College and more. He is not pressurized to quit his business due to his long-duration of staying in this place. When I wish to know the patterns of the subscription -collection from the street vendors he says to me that a politically affiliated person named Jashim maintains the Nilkhet area. He gives daily 70 BDT as subscription to the lineman of this Nilkhet area. Mr. Shahabuddin added that recently the subscription has been increase 10 BDT. The name of lineman is "Shohid". The line-man is responsible to collect money to the political person who controls the Nilkhet area. Police is paid a high percentage of the weekly-collected money. OC of New Market Thana is paid differently i.e. a net amount of money per month. A specific percentage is given to the Welfare Association of Nilkhet Market. There is always a confliction among the street vendors to make their bread. He thinks that it's a great contribution to the city-dwellers, specially, the University-students, medical students, the university-teachers, scholars abd researchers that they are able to buy books by very reasonable price. He also thinks that it would not be possible for a student to buy the new-original books in such a lowprice, he concludes. Mr. Shahabuddin does not think that government will practically think about the street vendors and the things will be changes. He says that in one side Police and local authorities evicts them but after few days the Police demand for larger amount of money. And the subscription also goes the pocket of ruling party leaders. Area-basis they control these street vendors.

Case-4

Mr. Ibrahim Mia, a Pirated-Book-seller, works together with his elder brother. He is migrated from Norshingdi



with his brother for searching of a better future. He is occupying this current business position for the last 6 years. He uses to decorate his books in an iron shelf. Though it's not big but his daily sale is good enough to maintain his family. He resides with his elder brother and sister-in-law in a congested two room apartment. He is actually a helping hand of his elder brother. But he says that his contribution is big to the business. Because he maintain all the necessary things to do for the business. He earns approximately 10,000-12,000 BDT per month. Mr. Faisal says that his income is not fully enough to maintain his family. There are some common problems he has to face i.e. increasing pressure of subscription, competition, risks to sell pirated books, eviction etc. His customers are from all ages. Because he sells mostly the popular Bangla Novels, English Novels, Translated Novels from English to Bangla, Story Books, Science Fiction, Collected Poems and more. From all over the city customers come to purchase novels, poem, story books, and science fiction from him. Because the rest of city does not able to sell in such low price. But they can. Because they have a contractual press who binds book in low-quality papers and inks. Mr. Faisal says that he is not pressurized to quit his business. Because he maintain the liaison with the line-man and other political powerful persons. He gives daily 50 BDT as subscription to the lineman of this area. He believes that he is contributing to the mass population by providing different kind of popular books in such a low-price.

Case-5

Md. Fahmidul Islam is an artisan who sells tea- cigarette by his foot. Age- 25. Home District- Sirajganj (a disaster-prone area of Bangladesh). His one eye is dysfunctional since his childhood. Due to member of an extended family he could not able to study after Class Two. In the early time he had a tea-stall in Ullapara Railstation at his home town. I asked him what brought you here in Dhaka City. He says, 'brother' due to different family problems and financial problem I've come to Dhaka two years age. He uses to live in Jhigatala in tin-shed rented house along with other street vendors from his home district. He has done his business in Ullapara Railstation, Sirajgonj 8/10 years. Now he is in Dhanmondi area since his coming. He sought to business in this area by the suggestion from his familiar persons. He says that Dhanmondi area is good for his business. In the other hand Dhanmondi 15 no. is near to his residence. So it's convenient for his transportation. His monthly income is 8,000 BDT on an average. Mr. Saiful says to me that sometime he money-orders to his village after maintaining his monthly expenditure. And if business goes well he can deposit some money. He does not know anything about trade license. Police does not make trouble for him. He uses two flasks for tea and some polythene bags for biscuits, cigarette and chocolate. Nobody wants subscription from him as he sell by his foot. His sale is high in front of keyari Plaza. Because the location is filled with many private universities i.e. Stamford University, University of Liberal Arts of Bangladesh (ULAB), United International University (UIU), Eastern University and so forth. Therefore he belongs to Dhanmondi 15.Bus Stand form the morning to night till 10 pm. But in public holydays he move different places. He emphasizes that in strikes he does come out to do business. Because recently the strikes are being so violating. He fears if any vandalism takes place in this business.

6.0 Discussion towards Understanding Urban Informality, Poverty and Politics

Urbanization is one of the most overdramatic global social transformations of the current century. From an overwhelmingly rural dominance in 1920, with only around one-fifth of urban population, the world is rapidly transforming into a predominantly urban-based society. South Asia's demographic situation is dominated by highly populated developing countries including Bangladesh. Bangladesh has the lowest level of urbanization but it also has the highest growth rate of urban population in South Asia (Afsar, 2000). It is time to reflect upon precisely what problems and opportunities are generated by rapid urban growth and by rising informal sector, which is more responsible to rural-urban migration and over urbanization in city. The quest for a livelihood, a better income, a better job seems to be compared with a deteriorating rural economy, lack of land for a cultivation, lack of employment opportunities, coupled with poverty in rural areas has pushed people out of their villages in search of a better existence in the cities (Begum, 1999). There is another section of the population in the country which forced to join the informal sector. They are workers who were earlier employed in the formal sector. They lost their jobs because of closures, down-sizing or mergers in the industries they worked in and they or their family member had to seek low-paid work in the informal sector in under to survive. Amin found that 70 per cent of the informal sector is composed of migrants and those with unfavorable resource endowment end up with the least rewarding occupations at the urban end. He comments that lack of upward mobility among the urban poor working in the informal sector and the length of duration of their stay after migration have no independent influence on earnings (Amin ;1986). Rapid urbanization is a key feature of Bangladesh's recent development, and has led to an increasing proportion of Bangladesh's population living in urban areas. From the mid-1960s to the mid-1990s, the urban population growth rate of Bangladesh was over six percent per annum, much higher than the national population growth rate of 2.5 percent per annum over this period (Islam et al., 1997). Urban areas or places refer to the municipality, civil lines, cantonment and any continuous collection of houses inhabited by not less than 5000persons (BBS, 1984). For better citizen facility people live in urban area like Dhaka city. The majority of urban residents lead marginal lives in slums and squatter settlement, and



minority on pavements. It is clear that not all migrants prosper in the city, nor can the city provide full-time employment to all, particularly in relation to the predominant city of Bangladesh, Dhaka. Their poverty is so obviously at variance with the image of modern urbanism, and a constant reminder to the government of its inability to meet the basic requirements of its citizens, either in the town or village. Urban poverty in Dhaka city is closely linked with the participation in the informal sectors of the economy. Most of the urban poor are involved in various types or informal works such as rickshaw pulling, domestic works, street vending, and small trading and so on. The poor are mostly involved in informal activities as they are excluded from the formal sectors of the economy. Employment in the informal sectors is generally characterized by a low level of income and a high level of vulnerability in terms of risk and harassment. Educational qualification and rural-urban migration are closely associated. This research finding also shows that who have in lack of education, especially the rural migrant people who have very less experience about formal economic condition and are less skilled, those are try to involve in informal sector to maintain life. Because of lack of information they do not know what to do in what time. Mike Davis argued that in slum area where people are always fighting with their daily life, there is easy to the emergence of religious activities. It is very clear for Dhaka city. The present researchers observe that a large number of religious institutions are situated at near of slum area. Informal worker and lowpaid formal worker whose are in extreme poverty do not get proper salary due to exploitation of powerful group or owner group after doing hard work. They live in slum area, street or other miserable place. The present study expresses that most of the respondents are migrated from rural Bangladesh. There are a great percent of the respondents are migrated from rural area whose are mostly informal worker and living slums in Dhaka city. As Dhaka is the center of the country, people come to the city to explore better financial support and better living. Migrated people cannot enter in the informal sector of Dhaka so easily. As Dhaka is a mega city it has some of its own patterns in informal sector which functions in very predictable way. The migrated people cannot enter flexibly to settle down in the city to work. A large number of rural-urban migrations give us a picture of our rural Bangladesh having no significant productivity which can provide a financial security to the population of rural are of the country. Therefore they migrated in the Dhaka city to explore a better financial support to live and maintain their family and got their in informal sector as mike Davis analyzed in his Planet of Slum. The scene is clear that because of poverty, people cannot complete their minimum education and therefore, they cannot qualify in public sector to get a formal employment. And rural Bangladesh is not satisfactorily enough to provide employment which pushes them to Dhaka city which patron a big and potential informal sector. Rural-urban migration is made by increasing productivity in the agriculture sector which leads to a decreasing demand for agriculture workers and subsequently enables agricultural workers to migrate to non-agricultural sectors (Lewis, 1954). If the agriculture sector fails to provide sufficient employment for a growing number of workers, and in the agriculture sector fails to provide sufficiently high household incomes to cope with a growing number of dependents, people can be encouraged to seek employment outside agriculture. Though there is very low payment in informal work, but there is very high competition in the informal sector in Dhaka city. It is very important finding that most of the respondents are satisfied with their life. But it is very hard to make moneyhigh competition, excessive temperature, sunlight, monsoon rain, dust, congested space, crowd of customers are some common problem to them. There are political leaders, local goon, police and various group who give surety to give them good condition create different types of odd and miserable condition for them. The political parties try to use them and it is a common feature and open secret. In this research there is a significant number (55.5 Percent) answers that police make trouble to them. In most cases slum dwellers face problem by political leader to involve various types of political function. Appadurai cites that this is vision of politics without parties. The strategy of the alliance is that it will not deliver the poor as a vote bank to any political party or candidate. This is tricky business in Mumbai, where most grassroots organizations, especially unions, have a long history of direct affiliation with major political parties (Appadurai, 2002). Most of the informal workers are settled in slum and street, resulting, it is easy to use them. To make secure their living, in several period of time they have to do work of local goon and leader without money. There is 1 percent of respondents strictly answered that they do not face problem. 28.7 percent of the respondents not answered about that, and 70.3 percent face problem. In this regard, Davis cites that politically, the informal sector, in the absence of enforced labor rights, is a semi-feudal realm of kickbacks, bribes, tribal loyalties, and ethnic exclusion (Davis, 2006). A large portion of informal worker or slum dwellers are engaged pulling rickshaw. The rickshaw was found to make the highest contribution to the national economy of Bangladesh. Rickshaw is more available and popular vehicle even now. It is more profitable to pull rickshaw in Dhaka then another place. That's why rural poor attracted to migrate in Dhaka city. Another informal work as vending in the street is minimal profitable sector. Competition is very high in the street of Dhaka. Urban dwellers come to buy products in cheap price. But a large proportion of the city dwellers purchase a variety product from the street. Domestic work is another informal work. A significant proportion of the respondents (49.1 percent) expect help from the government for the betterment of their work sector, while other (48.2 percent) proportion do not expect any help from the government or not. A significant number (46.4 percent) of the total respondents express their thinking regarding



government level initiatives that government should take proper initiatives. The findings overall tend towards the understanding of the informal sector articulated by Davis (2006), in which existing niche opportunities disappear as new capital formation captures market demand. There are mechanisms by which the displaced informal worker and slum dwellers enter the expanded labor market without this being an basic quality of their working skill condition. Urban poverty needs to be understood in relation to urban government and urban polices. The informality of Dhaka City has been largely shaped by urban policies in relation to reshaping the urban space. Urban clearance, which often serves the interests of powerful sectors of the city, seriously affects the lives of poor in formal workers communities. The regulation of informal activities seriously impacts on the lives of poor communities in Dhaka City. This serves the interest of affluent urban classes who are not dependent on these informal activities. The exclusion of millions in sputter communities from urban policy-making and planning is related with global capitalism, creating social inequality and injustice through its local allies, who are powerful and undertake policies at a local level (Castells, 1983).

7.0 Conclusion

This research paper has surveyed the form of rising informal sector and the situation of informal worker who mainly living in slum areas in Dhaka city and the relationship between informal sector and poverty, politics with them. Urbanization is more intertwined with the intense development of Dhaka City which has developed as a politico-administrative centre. Here rapid urbanization is happening without proper planning of development and has led to the formation of a big sector in informal economy, where urban extreme poverty is in the melodramatic rise because of vast migration from the rural Bangladesh in recent decades, household organization, participation in the informal sector of economy, lack of access to urban land, poor housing and services, and restricted participation in social, cultural and political activities. Dhaka's infrastructure is inadequate and unable to keep up with growing urban pressures. Significant portions of the city population are living in slums and squatter settlements and are experiencing extremely low living standards, low productivity and unemployment. This research paper deals with the informal sector in Bangladesh focusing on growth of informal worker, slum and poverty and political occurrence with them in the Dhaka city. This study has focused on the working condition in informal sector and who are the informal worker, their living place and pattern especially of slum areas where is lacking access to basic social services extensive poverty and exploitation and the absence of state provided support and infrastructures. It conceptualizes that informal workers and slum dwellers experience vulnerability and marginality. Urban space has changed because of the rising of new informal economy. This study concentrates on the informal workers and their work life and living place and standard. In this conclusion concisely reviews the central issues of the study and relates them to the research findings. It also discusses the implications of the research findings at both theoretical and practical levels and outline for future research from a sociological perspective.

7.1 Highlighting on the Findings

The rural-urban migration has created severe pressure on existing infrastructures and its absorbing capacities of Dhaka City. A significant proportion of the informal workers are migrated from rural Bangladesh. The urban ethnographic data captured that most of the workers are from Rangpur, Noakhali, Kishoregoni, Comilla districts which are easily communicable to Dhaka. But a significant number of informal workers are for Northern Bangladesh responding to both pull and push factors including low incomes in rural areas, river erosion of the agriculture land, and job opportunities. Migrated people cannot enter in the informal sector of Dhaka so easily. As Dhaka is a megacity it has some of its own patterns in informal sector which functions in very predictable way. The migrated people cannot penetrate flexibility to settle down in the street, slum and others place to live and work. There are political leaders, local mastans, police and even the other co-worker who create problem. Social capacity plays a significant role to make a small room for the new comer in the City. In fact, there is a long term migration pattern of the urban poor to Dhaka City. Poor communities initially migrate as singles, and then if all go right later they bringing their families to the city. Most of the respondents are migrated from the rural Bangladesh to the Dhaka City to meet their economic crisis. Educational qualification and rural-urban migration closely associated. A significant number of the respondents are in "no education" group. And of course, poverty is the root cause of this high rate of illiteracy and no higher-level education and consequently they migrate to Dhaka City. Urban poverty in Dhaka City is closely linked with the participation in the informal sectors of the economy. Most of the urban poor are involved in different types of informal work and especially, live in slum. Most of them earn very poor level, by which they cannot lead their own and family life in a proper way. Besides this a significant number of them settle in slum, where life style is very miserable. The poor are mostly involved in informal activities as they are excluded from the formal sectors of the economy through lack of education and employment training. Employment in the informal sectors is generally characterized by a low level of income and a high level of vulnerability in terms of risk and harassment. These employment activities are also characterized by frequent changes of employment and underemployment lack of access to education and



training is another important feature of urban poverty. The poor people are mostly illiterate and have limited access to the training required for jobs in the formal sector of the economy. Therefore most find employment in the informal sectors, resulting in a lower level of income and higher level of deprivation. Education is a vital vehicle for cross-generational social mobility without an education; people will not be able to change their social status in their lifetime. In Dhaka City, informal sector is not only reshaping the urban space but also the future of a large proportion of semi-proletariat. Emergence of vast informal sector create extreme poverty in urban side, who are migrated from rural to urban centres for decades, the upshot being the doubling of the number of slums since independence. Living in abject condition generally no daylight and the first victims of load shedding if at all served by electricity, no fresh air, no water, no hygiene, no health service, no privacy, no security of tenancy, no facilities for children, no social status or security the sufferings of slum dwellers have to some extent been migrated by the NGO's working with them. Crime and drugs are associated with slums, either a source for city targets or as the playing field of criminals. Police raids, labeled as fruitless and gallery show, are not uncommon for various reason. Fire has occasionally reduced some slums to ashes, some deliberately lit to evacuate the tenants and some due to carelessness and lack of awareness, but most of them have sprung back to life. The resolve to survive among these poorest of the poor is that much strong.

Despite many problems doing work and living place, most of respondents are very happy that they are able to maintain their families by their income. Politically the informal worker and slum dwellers are vulnerable as the government has no such policy to patron the informality. Lack of urban policy and exploitation in informal sector and slum dwellers has a close link. It creates a different dimension of exploitation to them. It is a farce to the informal worker and slum dwellers that they are unprotected by the state but protected invisibly by power-party political leaders. But it cost much for them because the informal worker and slum dwellers provide subscription to the political leader, police, local mastan (protected by political leaders). Police evict the informal worker in daylight and receive subscription in the dark of night what a farce, indeed. Though a significant proportion face problem doing work in the working sector but simultaneously a high percentage of the informal workers are happy I some regards. Law enforcement agency and disturbance in the work sector in Dhaka City are clearly revealed through urban ethnography how liaison is performed. Sometimes Police creates trouble to the street vendors and therefore liaison is made by the worker himself or in some cases by helping of other coworkers or even political leader/ local mastan. A higher percentage gives money as subscription to law enforcement to law enforcement agency (police, political leader and local mastans).

Social networks play significant support roles in migration and the poor's integration into the city. Poor people maintain both kin and non-kin based social networks in Dhaka City. Beside blood and marriage based networks, village based fictive networks also play significant roles in the migration and adaptation. Moreover, village based networks are more important for the hardcore poor due to their higher level of vulnerability. After their move to the City poor migrants gradually develop non-kinship social networks, which also play a significant role in their social life. The urban poor after provide and/ or receive assistances from their relatives, friends and neighbors to help them cope with their poverty and vulnerability. There is no significant difference between the recent and long term migrants in terms of social networks as they all maintain these networks. In fact, social networking generally works as "social capital" in urban integration of poor migrates, who have limited access to formal sources and support and proper living place.

Poverty has a definite impact on the behavioral and cultural life of informal worker and slum dwellers. Poor people living in Dhaka City often become angry with their families and neghbors due to stress resulting from economic constrains.

Living in an urban environment has a limited impact on cultural life of the communities. Visiting urban shrines, planning sacrifices to God, showing public devotion to charismatic religious leaders are common practices among the informal workers communities. The urban poor generally have a lower level of knowledge and still remain strongly attached to their traditional rural values. The practice of family planning is not still widely common among the slum communities as they believe that it challenges the authority of God. Informal worker are often fatalistic and unable to make plans for the future, but there are socio-demographic differentials in the future of the urban poor. The younger poor engage in making plans because they are still optimistic about life. Males make more ambitious plans because of their wider social and economic horizons. And the literate poor are able to make better plans due to a higher level of knowledge and understanding.

Informal worker, slum dwellers and Dhaka city dwellers are interconnected. Needless to say that most of the urban-middle-class people and some cases upper-class people frequently dependent on the informal workers. A significant proportion of the informal workers of Dhaka city believe that they are contributing to urban people in various ways in their urban way of life. Though approximately half expect help from the informal worker and slum dwellers already forgot to expect from the government but other half expect help from the government for a transparent, logical, Practical and economical-friendly betterment of their working and living condition. A significant number of informal worker think that government should take proper initiative for better policies to flourish their work sector. Despite of different political unrests, chaos and uneven development majority



informal worker and slum dwellers believe in changes. Sill they believe that this rusty, uneven, unbalanced and empirical situation will be over and good time will be enhanced and the government will initiate better urban policy emphasizing on their informal economy. They can even dream in the broken boulevard for a better urban society where they will not be excluded from the mainstream of the development.

This study has focused on sociopolitical questions with its economic questions, seeking to contribute to the development of sociological knowledge about informality in the context of Dhaka. As a megacity of the South, Dhaka has experienced a rapid increase in informal sector as its population has expanded enormously through rural-urban migration, resulting in urbanization without development. The Generalization that have developed based on this research on Dhaka city may well be applicable to other fast-growing megacities of the South. These generalizations are: (a) Rural-urban migration significantly contributes to rapid urbanization in megacities like Dhaka, (b)Urban politics are rigorously inconsequential and to some extent unincorporated to the development of informal economy. The local authorities of the urban space are not associative to flourish informality in global south megacities. Therefore the policies indirectly patron illegal subscription which goes to the representative of the government and law enforcement agency inconspicuously,(c)Informal sector also growing as the necessary outcomes of the increasing demand of the urban population and therefore informality has become an important urban way to life,(d)Poor income level liable to create slum in urban area, where life standard is extremely miserable. To ensure their living they have to dependent on powerful persons. Because of their dependency it is easy to use them in various purposes whether it is right or wrong, and (e) Slum is profitable for some people, who are powerful. So they intentionally create slum situation in the city.

7.2 Implication of the Findings

The research findings have implications for a theoretical understanding of poverty both in Dhaka city and other megacities of the South. The issues of slums and poverty in megacities need to be understood in terms of the huge rural displacement and rural-urban migration. In many instances urban transformation has displaced millions of poor from their rural origins. Even in the late twentieth century many rural people in the Subcontinent still had only limited contact with urban centers. One big change has been the way rural village has become linked to the metropolis through rural-urban migration. Material issues and concerns with consumption have become prominent in traditional rural society and rural life has been seriously challenged. Uprooted rural migrants have come to the city with huge expectations of findings a better life, only to find themselves forced to live in slums because of measure incomes gained in the informal sectors of the economy. Despite their unfulfilled lives in the city, they are often unable to return to their rural areas where their lives were also full of uncertainties and misery. Moreover, migration changes expectations, and they find it difficult to meet these new aspirations in the economic structure of rural society. The urban poor are often sentimental about their rural past, but they are unable to return to their home villages on a permanent basis.

One implication of the low level of interaction with the local authorities is that the informal worker and slum dwellers had little conception of any form of social contract between the informal worker and authorities. Informal worker were quite sanguine about the freedom they felt in their lives and the fact that they did not pay any taxes or meet any other requirements. If the authorities wish to make policies to improve the situation of the informal worker and enable them to move further from the threat of poverty, then there is a need to introduce to the informal workers concept that authorities can provide facilities and resources which may enable them to become more profitable and to have more sustainable operations and, while that demands some obligations in return, this is nevertheless a win-win situation for both sides. Achieving this would be quite a large task in that it requires a quite different attitude by any governmental officials than has been required of them in the past. Intermediaries from NGOs might have a useful role in this case.

Urban poverty has implications at a behavioral level. The lack of integration of the urban poor has an impact on the individual's sense of autonomy. Poor urban communities sometimes refuse to accept the terms on which they are forced to participate in the economy of the city, resulting in violence in urban slums. Poor communities in Dhaka City, creating serious unemployment and underemployment. This serves the interest of affluent urban classes who are not dependent on these informal activities. The exclusion of millions in squatter communities from urban policy-making and planning is linked with global capitalism at large, creating social inequality and injustices through its local allies, who are and undertake policies at a local level (Castells, 1983).

It would be difficult to justify the level of investment that would be required to create any kind of large-scale facility for informal worker and slum dwellers. Monitoring some continued research into the nature of informal worker and slum dwellers livelihood and, indeed, the retail sector as a whole should help the local authorities to determine when such an investment might become justified. In any case, the planning for the future should aim to preserve the close relationship between workers and customers, since these appear to be valued to some extent by both parties and, also, because it would help retain the working interaction as the vibrant and memorable experience. Slum dwellers will be able to survive in a proper way if they are able to offer some kind of advantage in a changing environment. It will be difficult for them and for informal worker to take the good



side of the advantage if they lack the education and training to understand present competitive time. From the perspective of development, it is apparent that the informal economy of Dhaka city is not yet linked coherently with the mainstream economy in the Bangladesh. The local economy remains dominant, although there is clearly scope for its expansion in terms of scope and sophistication. Informal sector need to be incorporated in urban policies for the development of their work. Without a strong coordination among government-level, urban authority-level and elected urban bodies this sector will not be benefitted from the development activities of Bangladesh. Friendly urban policies need to be taken for a sustainable development, where is the surety of a proper life for informal worker, and demolition of slum condition from the city, because it is not a normal condition, it is a symbol of backwardness of a society, where discrimination is very clear.

References

Afsar, R. (2000). Rural-Urban Migration in Bangladesh: Cause, Consequences and Challenges. Dhaka: The University Press Limited.

Appadurai, Arjun (2002). 'Deep Democracy: Govern mentality the Horizon of politics, Public Culture, 14.

Azad, T. M. (2011). 'Study on the Urban slum Context: Bangladesh Perspective'. DSK

Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (1998). Analysis of Basic Needs Dimensions of Poverty, Vol.3 Dhaka: Ministry of planning.

Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (1997). Bangladesh Population Census 1991, Urban Area Report. Dhaka: Ministry of Planning.

Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (2003). Bangladesh Population Census 2001, National Report. Dhaka: Ministry of Planning.

Bangladesh National Population Census (1974), Dhaka: Ministry of Planning.

Begum, a. (1999). Urban Migration: Expectations and Reality. Dhaka: The University Press Limited.

Castell, M. (1996). The Rise of the Network society. Oxford: Blackwell

Castell, M. (2010). The Power of Identity. Maiden (MA): Wiley-Blackwell.

Center for Urban Studies (1976). Squatters in Bangladesh Cities: A Survey of Urban Squatters in Dhaka, Chittagong and Khulna-1974. Dhaka: CUS.

Center for Urban Studies (1979). The Urban Poor in Bangladesh. Dhaka: CUS.

Center for Urban Studies (1979). Slum in Dhaka City. Dhaka: CUS.

Center for Urban Studies (1990). The Urban Poor in Bangladesh. Dhaka: CUS.

Center for Urban Studies (1993). Survey of slums in Dhaka Metropolitan Area-1991. Dhaka: CUS.

Davis, M. (2004). 'The Urbanization of Empire: Megacities and the law of Chaos' in Social Text 81, Vol.22, No. 4. Winter.

Davis, M. (2006). Planet of Slums. London: Verso.

Davis, m. 2006. 'SAPing the Third world' in planet of slums. London: Verso.

DSK Report on Evidence Towards Eradication of Extreme Poverty at The Slums in Dhaka City, 2012.

Giddens, A. (2006). Sociology. Malden: polity.

Harvey, d. (2003). Paris, Capital of Mordanity. New York: Rout ledge.

Hossain, S. (2004). 'Urban poverty and household adaptations in Dhaka City, Bangladesh', in 'Revising Institutions: Change in the 21st Century', The Australian Sociological Association (TASA).

Hossain, S. (2006). 'Social Characteristics of a megacity: a case of Dhaka City, Bangladesh', Referred Conference Proceedings 2006, The Australian Sociological Association (TASA).

Hossain, S. (2006). Urban Poverty and Adaptation to Urban Life in Dhaka City, Bangladesh. PhD thesis, University of New South Wales, Sydney.

Hossain, S. (2006). 'Poverty and Vulnerability in Urban Bangladesh: The Case of Slum communities in Dhaka City' in International journal of Development Issues, 6 (1).

Hossain, S. (2006). Urban poverty in Bangladesh: Slum communities, Migration and Social integration, New York: I.B. Tauris & Co Ltd.

Hossain, S. (2011). 'Overview of Dhaka City: Its Nature, Growth and Poverty' in Urban Poverty in Bangladesh: Slum communities, Migration and Social integration. London & New York: IB Tauris.

Hossain, j. & Mahmud, R. A. (2003). 'Learning for skills Formation and Employability: A Strategic Framework for Informal Sector in Bangladesh'. Journal of the Institute of Bangladesh Studies, Vol. - 25.

Hossain. S. (2005). 'The Socio-spatial Differentials of Political Behavior of the Urban Poor in Bangladesh', Bangladesh e-journal of Sociology, Vol.-2.

Humprey, M, and Hossain, S. (2010). 'Expanding Urban Slums' in Denmark, Robert (eds.), The International Studies Encyclopedia. Wiley-Blackwell: Malden (MA) & Oxford (UK).

Jary, D and Jary, J (1999). Dictionary of Sociology. Glasgow: Harper Collins Publisher.

Nasir, R. I. & Pervin, F.R. (1997). 'Urbanization and Over urbanization: Bangladesh Situation'. Social Science Review, Vol.15, University of Dhaka.



Nazmul, M.A. (2012). 'A Socio-economic Study of Sector Workers of Dhaka city'. Bangladesh e-journal of Sociology. Vol.-9.

Park, R. (1976). On Social Control and Collective behavior. Chicago: Chicago University Press.

Sassen, S, (2007). Overview and economic restructuring as class and spatial polarization. London: politics Reader.

The Cambridge Dictionary of Sociology 92006). Turner, Bryan S. Cambridge University Press.

UN- Habitat (2003). The Challenge of the Slum: Global Report on Human Settlements London: Earth scan.

United Nations (1998). World Urbanization Prospects: The 1996 Revision. New York: United Nations.

Wacquant, Loicj.d. (2006). Punishing the poor: The New Government of Social Insecurity. Durhum, NC: Duke University Press.

Wacquant, Loic (2009). 'The Criminalization of poverty in the Post-Civil Rights Era' in punishing the Poor: The Neoliberal Governance of Social Insecurity. Durham: Duke University Press.