Urban Informality, Poverty and Politics: A case of Dhaka City

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List of Abbreviations

BBS Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics
BDT Bangladeshi Taka
CBN cost of Basic Needs
CUS Centre for Urban Studies
DCI Direct Calorie Intake
DCC Dhaka City Corporation
ILO International Labor Organization
IMF International Monetary Fund
MDG Millennium Development Goal
NGO Non-Government Organization
UN United Nation
US United States
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 has become major aspect of urban political economy. This study aims 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 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.
Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Statement of the problem

The informal sector 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 (ILO’s) 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). Researchers of the formal-informal sector dichotomy have not assumed a steady decline of the informal sector over time and in the course of development. A job in the informal sector may either be viewed as a stepping stone to another in the formal sector or as a desirable end itself. Today 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 (UN, 1998). Investigation show significant difference in urban population change between to more developed regions and the less developed regions. Despite their lower levels of urbanization, less developed regions have more than double the numbers of urban dwellers than the more developed (2.3 billion vs. .9 billion) (UN, 1998). In modern days culture and markets have become more important factors; visitors, but also investors and large international corruptions, are attracted by the largest cities worldwide for the museum, exhibitions, cultural events, fashion, theaters and art galleries. 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 (employment, space distribution, planning, water, electricity, situation, etc.) to all inhabitants. The administration of the city becomes more complicated ad bureaucratic in the less developed countries i.e. Bangladesh, where land administration is weak and new technology and necessary spatial tools are not implemented. According to UN statistics, one of every three of the world’s city residents lives in inadequate housing with few or no basic services. The world’s slum population is expected to reach 1.4 billion by 2020. Informal settlements, whether of good or bad construction quality have a common characteristic all over the world: they do not officially exist. For that reason government provides nothing, or very little in the best cases.
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. So there is shortage of housing quite acute as the prevailing situations fails to accommodate the rapidly growing population (Rasheda, 1997). As a result, slums in less developed areas, whether in Latin America, Africa, Asia, Ex-Soviet Asia or even in Europe have a few similar characteristics: unclear land tenure, poor quality and size of construction, no or poor access to services and violation of land-use zoning. Crime that flourishes in crowded areas with insufficient job opportunity is also a common characteristic. It is matter of miserable truth that the slum situation changes are difficult and slow. As often reported in the Economist, frequently both sides, the city administrations and the dwellers may enjoy benefits in some cases: Frequently, many people make money from the informal sector; slums provide cheap labor that enables city to operate; the situation may suit the authorities, since the economy of the city is supported and at the same time is an alternative to the missing social housing policy; 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; informal sector worker are needed to make comfortable the life of higher classes people of the city.

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. This causes an increase of informal real estate markets and loss of state revenue, illegal changes in the spatial organization of land uses and gradual environmental degradation. This sub-urban population commutes to the city centers every day consuming energy and increasing traffic and pollution problems. However, urbanization plays a vital role in the development process. At present, towns and cities have become the only center of industrialization, health, education and recreation (pervin, 1997). The concentration of major economic activities in urban areas produces economics benefits like employment, better access to health and education services, trade and cultural activities. While it is a matter of human rights that people are free to choose where they will live, all must bear the costs of the natural resources they consume, knowing that their competitors do the same. On the other side markets cannot function efficiently without reliable systems to secure land tenure and zoning and planning systems to define the regulations concerning private rights for the use of land and natural resources. There is great activity in most countries around the world to implement spatial data infrastructures, in some developed countries; spatial information infrastructure is provided by cadastral, planning and land development permitting authorities. This is a fundamental tool for sound decision-making, providing for the management of land in a holistic way, it is a matter of good governance to achieve sustainable urban growth, but this brings new challenge for land surveyors, planners, and governments.

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. In the case of some regions in Italy, for instance, the high demand for specific skills has allowed certain home workers to earn as much as those working in large firms (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. By most accounts, informal activities account for a sizable portion of the economy of developing countries.

Urbanization plays a specific role in the process of development. This true not only for the present day industrially developed countries of the West but also for the developing countries of Asia. 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. This is expected to increase further by the beginning of the next century. The World commission Environment and Development suggests that a well-developed “urban system provides the backbone for national development through the flows of information, energy, capital, commerce and people” (Report of the Task Forces, 1989).

Urbanization can be regarded as a pre-requisite for development. In other words, urbanization paves the way for overall development. The 20th century has seen the emergence of megacities. Such large population concentration in cities is a significant historic change. The number of megacities has risen from two in 1950 to twenty in 2005. Moreover, 17 out of 20 megacities in the world are located in the worlds less developed regions. Ancient mega polis, built by Epaminondas in 371-368 B.C., was the capital of the Arcadian alliance in Greece. It was considered to be the model of a prosperous, happy and peaceful city. Most current megacities but also metropolitan cities do not experience a similar quality of life, since global population growth is becoming an urban phenomenon mainly in the less developed regions. 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. Massive
displacement of people to megacities perpetuates environmental degradation and climate change resulting in the shrinkage of areas available for agriculture, and causing the loss of livelihoods based on agricultural and animal breeding. 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 \ Assumption 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.

1.5 Operational definition and concepts

   a) Urbanization:
   Urbanization is the movement of population into towns and cities, and away from the land. It is now a global process, into which developing countries are increasingly being drowned (Giddens, 2006). Urbanization and economic development seem to be linked (Berry, 1962). Urbanization is one of the unavoidable and inevitable features in the process of development. This is an important element of modernization and it 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).

   b) Informal politics

   c) Poverty:
   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)
d) Slum

e) City:
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). Cities, Harvey and Castells both emphasize, are almost wholly artificial environments, constructed by people (Giddens, 2006).

f) Informal sector:
Sector of economic transactions carried on outside the sphere of orthodox paidemployment (Giddens, 2006). Informal sector is a very important area for any developing country. This is a growing occupational sector for the less skilled people that ensure considerable amounts of employment (Nazmul, 2004).

g) 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).

h) Megacity:
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)

i) Informal survivalism:
This refers to aspects of economic activity that lie outside visible, official, and legally recognized forms of production, distribution, and consumption. Contemporary informalization is also disproportionately concentrated among women and ethnic minorities. It is thereby indicative of inequalities that markets have helped to create rather than alleviate. Overall, the persistence of the informal economy renders problematic theories of capitalism that focus solely on large rationalized production units and the public world organized interests (The Cambridge Dictionary of Sociology, 2006). Informal employment by its definition, as JanBreman reminds us, is the absence of formal contracts, rights, regulations, and bargaining power (Davis, 2006).

1.6 Limitation of the study:
Despite all attempts to make the study as a scientific one it has the following limitations:

a) Because of lack of knowledge and capability, think this study may not fully represent the picture of entire situation of the informal sector, its worker and life condition of slum dwellers.

b) Recent political condition was full of too much apprehensive, which is responsible to make a complex situation in informal sector and slum area. 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; it was a special condition.

c) Some interviewers were reluctant to give information about their personal consideration on some issues.

d) As an apprentice it was not competent enough to conduct a study on the political and sensitive issues.
Chapter Two

Overview of Urbanization, Poverty and Informality in Bangladesh

2.1 Bangladesh:

Urbanization is one of the unavoidable and inevitable features into process of development. This is has been a historical fact experienced globally (Report of the Task Forces; 2011). This is also an important element of modernization or it is considered as an indicator of development. The factors disgruntled as prerequisite of urbanization is transition of productive activities from agriculture to industry, from industry to commerce, trade, administration and politics. That is town and cities tend to play vital role in all such activities.

Infect urbanization has become a pre-requisite for development which cannot be denied, not only in the modern times but also in the ancient period of human civilization for instance Mohenjo-Daro, Harappa, Babylon, Assyria and the towns around the Mediterranean sea-Athens, Sparta bear the signs of wealth and prosperity and later on what we termed as the or sign of development. The evidence of well-built houses and buildings and underground water system which existed in the Mohenjo-Daro and Harappa demonstrated the fact that there was a very developed arrange of human habituation in the ancient seats of world culture and civilization.

Though these ancient towns were different from those of modern times the civilizations always urban a phenomenon. The development of this urban life has brought the human civilization in such a stage which the people cannot escape they long for situation.

2.2) Situation of urbanization in Bangladesh:

As with other countries agrarian, historian Bangladesh 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 the, the generation that presently governs, Bangladesh continues the country as ‘rural’ and such perceptions play an important role in maintaining a rural bias in poverty reduction. Van Sehendel (2009) traces the political consists of the 1950s to the 1970s which mean that “the favorite visual representation of the nation was a
Dhaka University Institutional Repository

landscape of beautiful green fields dotted with rustic peaceful riverside villages” (Schendel, 2009). As a result, image of Bangladesh as rural in a deep pant of the ideology of political parties.

Impact image of rural country are based on objective information; 74 percent of Bangladesh’s total population in 2008 still lived in rural areas (World Bank 2009). Between 1911 and 1921 there was only an 8.8% increases in the urban population plagues caused large scale depopulation in many urban cities during this period. Since 1921 there has been slow but steady growth – except when thousand lift the cities out of the fear during world war 11. But a famine which ensured soon pushed million from rural area back into urban areas. 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 (20.1510 of the total population) from 2.6 million which is revernable increase in this aspect. During the next two the urban population retained state. In the above content the nature and turned off urbanization in pretend in the table

Table 1: Urban population growth in Bangladesh (1901-2001)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Census</th>
<th>National population</th>
<th>Urban population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number (Million)</td>
<td>Growth Rate(%) annual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911</td>
<td>31.65</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921</td>
<td>33.25</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>41.99</td>
<td>1.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>44.17</td>
<td>1.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>55.22</td>
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<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>76.37</td>
<td>2.53</td>
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<tr>
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<td>89.91</td>
<td>2.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>111.45</td>
<td>2.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>129.25</td>
<td>1.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


2.3 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 (90 Percent) do not have access to the urban facilities. The limited access of urban poor to social services like health, education and recreation is characteristic of Dhaka city. The existing health care centers of the city have failed to cope with the rapid growth of the city population; similarly existing educational institutions have also failed to meet the demands of city dwellers. The number of private hospitals, Clinics and private schools, colleges and universities has significantly increased, but they are meeting demands of only an insignificant portion of the city population belonging to the upper class (Siddique, et al 1993).

The major center for the growth of urban population since independence of Bangladesh has been the capital city Dhaka where the number of population seem to increase continuously of 45% of total urban population Dhaka alone held 25% (Report of the Task Forces ;425) . Dhaka will be the ninth largest mega city in the world by the year 25, reports United Nation population fund (The Independent, 3rd June 1996)

The urbanization process archived tremendous growth to meet the needs of the newly independent countries capital. The city’s population suddenly increased to 2068,353 in 1974 . It began to expand in all directions including the low-lying areas of the east. Such as Jurain, Goran, Badda, khilgawn, Rampura and to the west including the area of Kamrangirchar, Shymoli, western Mohammadpur, Kallyanpur. 81. As very rapid urban growth started to take place a new structural plan was needed.

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 migrants invariably find themselves shelter less, the situation which compel them to live in slum. The capital city of Dhaka attracts a large segment of the migrant population in the last fifteen years; the population of Dhaka has more than doubled. It is undeniable that rural urban migration plays a critical role in the urbanization process of Bangladesh. (R. Asraf)
2.4 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, according 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. Poverty is an outrage against humanity. It robs people of dignity, freedom and hopes. Bangladesh is one of the developing countries that have made considerable progress during the last few decades in respect of eradicating poverty and hunger along with other indications of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Still some indications have been facing challenges to reach expected targets. 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 inhuman life. More than 35 million people are living in various cities in Bangladesh and it is estimated that, this number will be increased in 50 million by the year 2015 (CUS & DSK, 2006).

Dhaka is the capital city of Bangladesh and it is one of the most densely populated and rapidly expanded mega cities in the world. But unfortunately the expansion and growth are not well planned. 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 37.4% of 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 independence of the country in 1971 (Hossain, 2006). Most of the slums people are coming from different digester prone, river eroded and many affected areas such as northern chars, hoers, and coastal belt along with many other pockets of extreme poor communities from all over the country just with a better survival hope. 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 and drought related which has direct link to the climate change (DSK, 2012).
2.5 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. According to the ILO (1998, June) 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. These activities are usually conducted without proper recognition from the authorities and escape the attention of the administrative machinery responsible for in forcing laws of regulations. (Nazmul, 2004).

Kabna (1995), stated thirty term including the survival sector, non-structural sector, and transitional activities which have been and/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 concept of the informal sector has its origins in the beginning of the 1970s and has become so popular since then that it is nowadays being used for various purposes and with various meanings. The informal economy can however no longer be considered as a temporary phenomenon. Furthermore, the informal economy has been observed to have more of a fixed character in countries where incomes and assets are not equitably distributed. It seems that if economic growth is not accompanied by improvements in employment levels and income distribution, the informal economy does not shrink. The situation is therefore that the informal economy is continuously increasing in most developing countries, even in rural areas. Estimates show that the non-agricultural employment share of the informal workforce is 78% in Africa, 77% in Latin America and Caribbean, and 45-85% in Asia (Becker, SIDA, 2004).

Despite the heterogeneity of the informal economy, workers of the informal sector can be growing into several employment categories: employer; semi-employed; wage workers (Chan, 2005).

Where the formal sector are difficult to entry, imported technology, capital intensive, productive market, overseas inputs predominates, there in informal sector are ease to entry, adopted technology, labor intensive, unregulated and competitive market, traditional and indigenous inputs and predominates. In 2003, the International Conference of labor statistics adopted guidelines to expand the definition to include informal employment. Under the new definition, the informal economy is seen as comprised of all forms ‘informal employment’ – that is employment without formal contents, worker benefits or social protection – both inside and outside informal enterprise (Chan, 2005).

There are many debates about the definition and characterisation of the informal sector. Two characteristics mainly signify to the informal activities
(Roberts, 1976); they are labor intensive; they avoid formal state supervision and regulation.

These two characteristics combine to reduce substantially the input cost of goods and services, thereby cheeping the price of the outputs. 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/no job security. There also have inadequate access to health insurance, unemployment compensation, and old age pension characterize the sector (Nazmul, 2004).

The activities of informal sector are unregulated in competitive market, reliance of locally available resource labor intensive and adopted technology, and absence of institutional credit or other supports and production.

The Informalization of the labor market with concurrent changes in the concepts of employability risks exclusion from employment for those without appropriate skills. 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 survey (1996) status that the country has nearly 56 million people in the labor force, of which 347 million (64%) are male and 213 million (38%) are female (BBS, 1996). 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. 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 of 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 dominates the labor market in Bangladesh (Jakir, 2012).

2.6 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 main source of information for most of the available studies on urban poverty. These surveys have limitations due to diversity in the method of imputation, lack of data at the household level, uniform methods of recording the data flow and of time sampling, faulty memory recall methods, and problems of missing causes (Khaundker Mahmud Sen and Ahmed, 1994) Despite the limitations of data of HES these are nonetheless mainly relied on the measuring the extent of urban poverty. Besides these, 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 (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 DCL 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 1805.5k.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 (along with food) for measuring poverty. The poor are categorized by an ‘upper poverty line. This estimation pluvial the alarming 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).

Table 2: Urban population in Bangladesh below the poverty line (DCI Method)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Year</th>
<th>Poverty line -1 Absolute poverty (2122 k. Cal per day per person)</th>
<th>Poverty line -2 Absolute poverty (1805 k. Cal per day per person)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number (Million)</td>
<td>% of Pop.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988-1989</td>
<td>49.7</td>
<td>47.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991-1992</td>
<td>51.6</td>
<td>47.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995-19996</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td>47.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>55.8</td>
<td>44.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 3: Recent trends in urban poverty in Bangladesh (CBN Method)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Upper Poverty Line (%)</th>
<th>Change (Upper line)</th>
<th>Lower Poverty Line (%)</th>
<th>Change (Lower line)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1995-96</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>-1.2</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>49.8</td>
<td></td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>+7.2</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>+5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td></td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 (HAQ and HAQ 1998).

2.7 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, hunger, malnutrition, disease, polluted water logging, lock and safe drinking water, sanitation and health care facilities, and harassment from the local power structure (DSK-5). The phenomenon of slums and squatters in Dhaka is as old as the city itself (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).

2.8 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 of Mexico and Puerto Rico 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 hartal etc. (Hohssain, 2000). 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 hartal.
Chapter Three
Theorizing urban informality, poverty and politics

3.1 Theorizing urban informality

Many of the early 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 deployed influenced later urban sociologist to study more about it. For example, Robert Park, a key manner of the Chicago school. A number of writers associated with the University of Chicago from the 1920s to the 1940s, especially Robert Park, Earnest Burgess and Louis Wirth, developed ideas which were for many years the chief basis of theory and research in urban society (Park, 1952). Many other theorists were more concerned with the development of the city changed the social as well as physical environment. The degree to which the contemporary world may be said to be ‘urban’ is not fully or accurate measure by the proportion of the total population living in cities. 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. From informal work in manufacturing and construction to small-scale trading activities, the unregulated informal sector offers earning opportunities to poor or unskilled workers. 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 collective and joint action in which cities act as social agents in political, economic, cultural and media spheres.
3.2 Mike Davis:

According to UN demographers 90 percent of the increase in world population over the next generation will be accommodated by the urban areas of less-developed regions. By 2030, in other words, two billion more people will struggle for survival in cities, especially in the teeming metropolitan complexes of Africa and Asia. This urban population explosion will be almost completely delinked on “disincorporated” – from industrial growth and supply of formal jobs. This outcast proletariat is the fastest growing and most novel social class on the planet. By and large, the urban informal working class is not a labor reserve army. The ranks of the informal proletariat are ceaselessly expanded and the urban crisis deepened, the UN authors emphasize, by international economic regulation (Davis, 2004).

Structural adjustment programs decimate public employment; destroy import-substitution subsidized agro capitalism of rich countries.

The UN reports draws somber but straightforward lessons: “The collapse of formal urban employment in the developing world and the rise of the informal sector is seen as a direct function of liberalization … Urban poverty has been increasing in most countries subject to structural adjustment programed, most of which are deliberately anti-urban in nature. 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 new urban poor are unincorporatable: a surplus humanity. 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 era of late- Victorian imperialism (1870-1900). At the end of the nineteenth century, the forcible incorporation into the world market of the great subsistence peasants 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.

Structural adjustment has recently worked an equally fundamental reshaping of human futures. 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”. Some Brazilian sociologist call this process – analogous to the semi-
proletarianization of landless peasants – passive proletarianization, involving the “dissolving of traditional forms of production which for the great majority of direct producers does not translate into a salaried position in the formal labor market (Davis, 2004).

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, according to the United Nations, constitute about two-fifth of economically active population of the developing world. Small cities tend to be even more informalized. According to AproicioLaquian, “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. Even 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 (Davis, 2006).

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 a 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.

In the informal sector, is not the brave new-world envisioned by it neoliberal enthusiasts, it is most certainly a living museum of human exploitation. Worldwide, however, the largest sector of urban child labor is unquestionably domestic service. 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. Invented in Japan in the 1860s, it
allowed “human animals” to replace mule carts and horse-drawn carriage as the chief means of transportation in the great cities of East and South Asia. The ILO has estimated that there are more than 3 million rickshaw pullers on the streets of 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.

3.3 Arjun Appadurai

After falling of the Soviet order it is clear to world about widening global inequality and ubiquitous presence of United States. The defeat of the Soviet Union has created the condition for global peace or equity two great paradigms for enlightenment and equity seem to have become exhausted—one is the Marxist vision, in all global variants. The other grand vision was that of modernization and development. The first vision promised to the transformation of bourgeois politics by proletarian will, but 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 (Appadurai, 2002).

The city of Mumbai, in the state of Maharashtra, in Western India, – there are various organization, such as SPARC, NSDF and CBO; they are working with urban poor. All there organizations, which refer to them collectively as the Alliance, 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 Alliance has created the horizon of politics and articulated new relations to urban govermentality.

In many parts of the world, 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, marketized political order.

Mostly in the activities of India’s major urban xenophobic party, the political economy of deindustrialization, and the spectral politics of housing in Mumbai (1990). Appadurai analyze the steady explosion of anti-Muslim politics by the Shiva Sena, 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 (one-sixth of the world’s population). 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 (Appadurai, 2002).

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. But many are engaged in temporary, physically dangerous, and socially degrading forms of work. 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.

Housing is at the heart of the lives of this army of toilers. Their everyday life is dominated by ever-present forms of risk. Their temporary shack may be demolished. Their slumlords may push them out through force or extortion. The torrential monsoons may destroy their fragile shelters and their few personal possessions. Their lack of sanitary facilities increases their need for doctors to whom they have limited access. 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. Housing- and its lack-set the stage for the most public drama of disenfranchisement in Mumbai. In fact housing can be argued to be the single most critical site of this city’s politics of citizenships

The evolves fundamentally populist and anti-exporting vision of the Alliance of SPARC, Mahila Milan, and the National Slum Dweller’s Federation function within the complex politics of space and housing in Mumbai. SPARC, NSDF &Mahila Milan have also agreed upon a radical approach to the politicization of the urban poor that is fundamentally populist and anti-expertise fundamentally populist and anti-expert in strategy and flavor. 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 that no one knows more about how to survive poverty than the poor themselves (Appadurai, 2002).

A crucial and controversial feature of this approach 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 who 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 (Appadurai, 2002).

Patience as a long-term political strategy is especially hard to maintain in view of two major forces. One is the constant barrage of real threats to life and space that frequently assail the urban poor. The other force that makes patience hard to maintain is the built in tension within the Alliance about different modes and methods of partnership. Not all members of the Alliance view the state, the market, or the donor world in the same way. Thus, every new occasion for funding every new demand for a report, every new celebration of a possible partnership, every meeting a railway official or an urban bureaucrat can create new sources of debate and anxiety within the Alliance.

Savings is the term that takes on a special meaning in Alliance usage. Creating informal savings groups among the poor- a 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. The Alliance is also keenly aware knowledge-and ability-gives it in its dealings with local and central state organizations. 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.

Housing exhibition are the second organized technique through which the structural bias of existing knowledge processes is challenged, in the politics of the Alliance, Since the materialistic of housing- its cast, its durability, its legality, and its design- are of fundamental concern to slum life. Housing exhibitions are deep exercises of the Alliance in subverting the existing class structure of India.
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).

In a country like India where poverty reduction is a direct principle of the national constitution and the tradition of social reform and public principle of the social reform and public service is woven into nationalism itself, the Alliance can play the politics of conscience to considerable effect. The spread of savings, housing, citizenship and participation and like that model produces poor communities able to engage in partnerships with more powerful agencies- urban, regional, national, and multilateral – that purpose to be concerned with poverty and citizenship. Concerned with poverty and citizenship, we can begin by recalling that one crucial condition of possibly for deep democracy is the ability to meet emergency with pertinence.

3.4 Saskia Sassen

The ebb and flow of the global economy continually shaped the local political economy. In the Global city: New York, London, Tokyo, Saskia Sassen explores the multiple urban dimensions of global economic change, she examines changes in how things are produced, where they are produces them in the late twentieth-century global economy, and explores how these shifts are manifested locally. To this end, she examines three major nodes in the global economy: New York, London and Tokyo. Her arguments can seem abstract and complex. The investigation of global capital circuits and investment patterns requires a degree of analytical sophistication to understand and can seem far removed from the day-to-day concerns of urban politics, but her arguments have a straightforward relevance to 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, as demand for those at the top and bottom ends of the skills hierarchy institutions associated with industrial workers shrink and play less of a role in the urban political arena(Sassen, 2007).

Saskia argues that there has been a bifurcation of ways, with mergers and professionals increasing their earnings 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. But this parallel development is a puzzle. 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 (Sassen, 2007).

The territorial dispersal of current economic activity creates a need for expanded central control and management. Though large firms have increased their subcontracting to smaller firms, and many national firms in the newly industrializing countries have grown rapidly form of growth is ultimately part of a chain. Even 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. Furthermore, the distinction between sectorial characteristics and sectorial growth patterns is crucial: 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.

There has been a pronounced increase in casual employment and in the informalization of work in New York City and London. This trend is also emerging, in Tokyo where the increase in the number of causal workers has led the government to express alarm publicly. Part-time, temporary and seasonal jobs are more common among women than among men in all these cities. The informal economy has implications for theories on the postindustrial society. The literature on the informal sector has mostly focused on third world countries and has assumed that as a social type, such sectors are not to be accepted in advanced industrialized countries. Much of the expansion of the informal economy in developed countries of has been located in immigrant communities; this has led to an explanations 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 – a Third World import or a remnant from an earlier phase of industrialization (Sassen, 2007).

Third World immigration is causing informalization and the entry of mothers into the labor force is causing the casualization of work. In Japan, rapid industrialization, immensely rapid urbanization, and culture have created very specific condition, and culture have created very specific condition. The growing participation of women in the labor force has assumed the form of a rapid growth in part-time and temporary jobs.

On the basis of fieldwork the following profile of the informal economy in the New York City area –
1) A rather wide range of industrial sector use informal work-apparel, general construction, special trade contractors, footwear, toys and sporting goods, electronic components; and accessories.

2) 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. Distribution activities, photoengraving, manufacturing of explosive, etc.

3) There is a strong tendency for informal work to be located in densely populated areas with very high shares of immigrants.

4) There is an emergent tendency for ‘traditional’ sweatshop activity to be displaced from areas undergoing partial residential and commercial gentrification (Sassen, 2007).

An examination of what engenders the demand for informal production and distribution indicates several sources:

1) One of these is competitive pressures in certain industries, notably apparel, to reduce labor costs to meet massive competition from low-wage Third World countries. Informal work in this instance represents an acute examine of exploitation.

2) Another source is a rapid increase in the volume of renovations, alterations, and small-scale new construction associated with the transformation of many areas of the city from low-income.

3) The inadequacy of formal provision involves mostly low-income individuals or areas.

4) The existence of a cluster informal shop can eventually generate agglomeration economics that induce additional entrepreneurs to move in.

5) 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 (Sassen, 2007).

There has been a great increase in part-time, casual, and sweated labor in construction, clothing, catering, and retailing, tourism, cleaning, and even 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. These workers, mostly women, have no sick pay, no overtime pay, no holiday pay, and no job security, yet the work as much as a regular worker.

The life and job condition of Tokyo’s daily laborers is that –there are four major hiring halls for daily laborers in the country, two in the Tokyo-Yokohama area and one each in Nagoya and Osaka, The largest of these hiring halls in the Taito ward in Tokyo. It has a reputation for being a rather dangerous place. The Japanese versions of western-style gangsters or Mafia, the Yakusa, “are known to control all four of the large hiring halls in
3.5 David Harvey

Harvey want to explore another kind of collective right, that of 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 of. 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, yielding some results. Then a question arises-what might the right to the city mean…

The city as the noted urban sociologist Robert Park (1967) once 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, 19670).

If the Park is correct, then the question of what kind of city we want cannot be divorced from the question of what kind of people we want to be, what kinds of social relations we seek, what relations to nature we cherish, what style of daily life we desire, what kinds of technologies we deem appropriate, what aesthetic values we hold. The right to the city is, therefore, far more than a right of individual access to the resources that the city embodies: it is a right to change ourselves by changing the city more after our heart’s desire. It is moreover, a collective rather than an individual right since changing the city inevitably depends upon the exercise of a collective power over the processes of urbanization. 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 (Harvey, 2003).

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. New means of production in general and new natural resources in particular must also 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 conflictualforword lookingvisions of alternatives socialist maodernties 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 urbanists 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 re-engineering, 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, boutique cultures and, as ShasonZukin cutely put it, “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 a 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 (incorrectly as it turned out in 1871) sufficient levels of surveillance and military control were possible so as to
ensure that revolutionary movements could easily be controlled by military power. Actually it took more than a hundred years to complete the embourgeoisment of central Paris with the consequences that we have seen in recent years of uprisings and mayhem in those isolated suburbs within which the marginalized immigrants and unemployed workers and youth are increasingly trapped. 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.

Chapter Four
Methodology

4.1 Research pattern in social science

The general term ‘social science’ refers to the scientific study of human behavior ‘social’ refers to people and their behavior, and to the fact that so much of that behavior occurs in a social context ‘science’ refers to the way that people and their behavior are studied. It the aim of (all) science into build explanatory theory about its data, the aim of the social science is to build explanatory theory about people and their behavior. This about human behavior is to be based on and is to be tested against, real world data (keith Punch, 1998). But most of the time it is difficult to address the problem very specifically because human behavior is changing. There are many problems which cannot identify with the quantitative method. Many in depth issues are there that can be very sensitive or personal what only can get through in depth interview, case study etc. Research in social science focuses on describing, understanding, analyzing and likely prediction of the social phenomena. From the methodology point of view there are main two types of research qualitative and quantitative. Each of these two methods has its own special strength and weakness. This study has been conducted by using both quantitative and qualitative methodology to enhance more concrete analysis of the study.

4.2 Rational of choosing the methodology
The design of this study is comprised of mixed methodology. Mixed methodology allows the researcher to expand on the ideas or findings of one method with another. In this instance the qualitative method of textual analysis from the literature to provide a base for the quantitative method of survey designs. By combining the two methods better analysis can be drawn from the data than if only one were to be chosen. The qualitative portion allows the reader to understand the real situation of the informal survivalists in Dhaka city. It allows a more comprehensive grasp of the theoretical principals surrounding the issues and relets to the heart of the problem. The quantitative portion allows the readers the ability to look at the pattern how the informal survivalism is functioning in Dhaka city. By only providing a quantitative portion, readers would miss why this is necessary for rhetorical understanding. In order to complete both sides of the rhetorical spectrum, a mixed methods approach is most useful.

4.3 The initial stage

It was the preparatory stage. It includes the following steps:

4.3.1 The research area

The research was conducted in some slum area and in some important areas which are connected with the informal workers of Dhaka city. Such as New market Nilkhet, Dhanmondi Lake, Dhaka University area, kamrenigchanaumbagan etc.

4.3.2 Technique of data collection

In the stage the method is quantitative and to collect data survey technique is followed. Both structural and unstructured questions are incorporated in the questionnaire. The questionnaire data are supplemented by qualitative data because some feelings, speeches, experiences and perspective cannot be mentioned numerically. It is intended to explore some sociological meaning of their emotions, thinking and cognitions.

4.3.3 Survey Method

The survey is highly valuable for studying some problems, such as public opinion, and worthless for others (Linniger, 1976). It is the best method in quantitative data collection methods. Using this method a scientific study can be conducted. As it is required to reach a generalized result this technique has been chosen.

4.3.4 Target Population

Population is the total group of people who meets certain criteria of interest to the researcher is called the target population (Linninger, 1976). Therefore, the population of the study consists of the slum dwellers and workers who are involved with informal sector in Dhaka city.

4.3.5 Unit of Analysis
The purposive sample can also use the (rather than a group) as the sampling unit, the researcher subjectively defines a “typical” case and then tries to select those individuals which best reflect this definition. Here again there is no guarantee that the researcher had identified the most representative cases, nor that his or her definitions of “typical” are accurate. The purposive sample is clearly a non-probability approach, and the possibility exists that the sample is biased because the selection is not random.

4.3.6 Questionnaire Survey

A sample survey brings together three different methodological areas: sampling, designing, questions and interviewing. Each of these techniques has many applications outside of the same surveys, but their combination is essential to design a good survey.

In this case 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  
f) Way of solution  
g) 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

4.4 The second stage

The second stage of the study is completely devoted to field data collection. Steps follows in this stage are:

4.4.1 Sampling

Sampling is based on statistical theories. It is a powerful technique with wide applications. In social research, it is used primarily in survey research, content analysis, and nonreactive research (Neuman, 1997). Sociologists tend to study large number of individuals in formulating propositions concerning groups, organizations, institutions, and societies. It is usually not possible to observe the behavior of entire collectivity. Sampling is the process of choosing a representative
proportion of population; like random assignment, sampling is a process of systematically selecting cases for inclusion in a research project (Neuman, 1997).

If the survey’s respondents sample is not properly drawn, the findings cannot legitimately be generalized. Therefore, sampling procedure is an important step in conducting a scientific research. A researcher gets a set of causes, or a sample, from sampling that is more manageable and cost effective to work with than the pool of cases. If well done, sampling lets are researcher measure variables on the on the smaller set of cases but generalize results accurately to all cases. It is an academic research project without having institutional budget. Time frame was limited to complete the study therefore purposive sampling has been chosen to conduct the survey.

4.4.2 Study Instrument

As it is a mixed method study semi-structured questionnaire has been formulated to collect quantitative and qualitative data examine assumption. Then some face to face in-depth interviews has been conducted to make a strong justification to the assumption.

4.4.3 Data Collection Procedure

4.4.3.1 Rapport Building

It is tough for a researcher to collect information from any place especially where even the respondent remain busy from the morning to late night and tempted on their livelihood. Therefore rapport building is the only key to communicate with the respondents. Without rapport building it is just a nightmare to collect data from the respondents. It was possible to build strong communication while the data was being collected.

4.4.3.2 Data Collection

Data has been collected from June 2013 to November 2013. To fulfill the requirements of the study and gather the data from a natural setting semi-structured interview has been used. 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.

4.5 The Third Stage

The third stage of the study is completely devoted to data processing and analysis. Steps followed in this stage are:

4.5.1 Data Processing and Analysis
Once the data are gathered, the researcher faces another important task, namely to organize the “raw data” in a form in which they can be analyzed systematically and to find the most suitable techniques for the analysis. Data analysis is often equated with statistical analysis but this is quite unfortunate, because the process of data analysis is much more complicated than performing statistical operation of the data. The data received from respondent usually need considerable organization before any meaningful analysis can be carried out of them. They need to be properly coded, transferred to a form that machines, usually computers can understand and transformed before the statistical analysis can take place. The task of coding, transferring and transforming in many cases, takes more time and effort on the part of the researcher than does statistical analysis of the data. Data obtained from this 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.

4.5.1.1 Univariate Distribution of Data

In this study univariate distribution collected data have been conducted which looks at each of the variables separately and reports the result through the statistics. In addition, simple frequency distribution of the variables has been conducted to summarize and in term of frequency and percentage. As quantitative is collected for the study, they 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. But they do not express the correlation between two variables. Therefore cross-tabulation has been generated to observe the difference of proportion between two variables of when and whenever required for systematic measures are employed. 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.

4.6 The Fourth Stage

This stage includes the following steps:

4.6.1 Ethical Consideration

The ethical issues are the concerns, dilemmas, and conflicts that arise over the proper way to conduct research. Ethics define what is or is not legitimate to do, or what “moral” research procedure involves (Neuman, 19970). All social researchers involves ethical issues or considerations with the growth of interest in mixed methods, recognition and consideration of ethical issues have become a bigger feature of social science research (Punch, 1998). 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.
A research’s personal moral code is the strongest defense against unethical behavior (Neuman, 1997). The researcher of this research was concerned all the time about ethical considerations. The researcher had to make a 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.

4.6.2 Reliability and Validity
Quantitative method is used in the study and survey. Technique is taken in data collection and purposive sampling procedure is strictly followed. The total procedures are scientific, deep attention is given, sufficient information is collected. Then it can be verified using various statistical methods. In spite of some limitations it is anticipated that the result of the study is reliable and will be valid.

4.7 Role of Documents
Documents play a very fundamental role in any research work. To analyze the concept of research work, the researcher has to collect different document sectors. The researcher has collected different books, articles, magazines, newspapers, and internet in connection to the urbanization, city, urban space, slum, informal economy, poverty and politics and Dhaka city from different libraries to analyze the concept of the research.

4.8 Field Notes
Field notes play a significant role in enriching a research work. A researcher should remain conscious of taking field notes (Huda, 2004). Therefore in the field necessary caution has been considered while taking field notes.

Chapter Five
Urban Informal Survivalism, Poverty and Politics in Dhaka City

This study is based on a sample of 120 different types of informal workers and slum dwellers at the time of survey (June 2013 – November 2013) in Dhaka city. A purposive sample was drawn from different points in the city, and all age groups were included. 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 places of the city. Who were more concerned to provide detailed information about their experiences in the work and living place, I 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 everyday life to serve the objectives of the study.

5.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents
The following section covers the demographic analysis of the respondents:

5.1.1 Analyzing the Situation of the Respondents and their Families

First of all the study requires a more details demography to understand the overall situation of the informal worker and the slum dwellers in the Dhaka city. Without knowing a clear image of their 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. Because children and aged, both of them were seen at work at same work place.

A. Age and Sex

The highest percentage (60 Percent) of age category is 21-30 Years. As the data has been analyzed 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 high gradually but in this research paper the vast respondents are male (Figure- 1 see).

Figure-1: Age category of Respondent
B. Religion and Marital Status

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 (Figure-2. see).

Figure-2: Show the Religion of the Respondents

More than 58 Percent of the respondents are married, about 41 percent are unmarried, and only 0.3 percent is divorced (Figure-3see).

Figure-3: Marital Status of the Respondents
C. Educational Qualification

A significant number (36.3) of the respondents are in “no education” group. With 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 (Figure-4 see).

Figure-4: Educational Qualification of the Respondents
D. Location
Location of work 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 (Figure-35 see).

Figure-5: Shows the Location Informal worker and Slum Dwellers

5.2 Pattern of working in the Informal Sector

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 (Figure-6 see).
5.3 Rural-urban Migration

More than 74 percent of the respondents are migrated from the rural Bangladesh to meet their economic crisis and less than 26 percent are from 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. 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 (Table-..., Figure ..see)

Table- : Migration from Rural District

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rickshaw Puller</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>42.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Street Vendor</td>
<td>36.60%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past Informal Workers</td>
<td>13.40%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6: Pattern of working in the Informality
A. The Reason to Migrate in Dhaka city
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 mastans, police and even the other workers create problem (Figure-8).

Figure-8: The Reason to Migrate in Dhaka city
B. Duration of work

A significant number of the respondents are migrated to the city through Kith and Kin, another 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%)(Figure-9see).

Figure-9: Duration of work

C. Income, Expenditure and Family Maintenance
The monthly average incomes of the respondents are ranged from 5000 BDT to 15000 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 (Figure-.10.see).

**Figure-10: Monthly Average Income**

![Monthly Income (Average)](image)

**Figure 11: Monthly Family Maintenances**
It is a very important finding that most of the respondents (68.7%) are very happy that they are able to maintain their families. Though it is 27.3 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 mastan, 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 (Figure-12, see).

**Figure 12: Monthly Family Expenditure of the Respondents**
5.4. Analysis of the Relationship among informal work, poverty and politics

Rising informal sector in Dhaka City is challenging and to some extent problematic to the informal worker and slum dwellers who experience many difficulties to do work and live. They suffer in a diversified way.

5.4.1 Problem in the work place and living place

More than … percent of the total respondents agree that they are facing problems doing working in the work place and another … percent say that they are not having any problem and … percent does not provide the information as he requires the right to not tell.

Table-5: Facing Problems in the work place

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>38</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Answered</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it is a mixed method some analysis has been made on the basis of urban ethnography. And in these cases the observation tells that the respondents are, kind of, scared to express their real words because of the insecurity. If they say
something against them who controls the 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, hey 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 mastan (Figure-13, see). They do not want any trouble by any outsider or intruder. The data shown below represents the reality of the ethnographic data.

**Figure 13: Controlling of work and living area**

![Bar chart showing controlling of work and living area]

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 (Figure-14). 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 70.3 percent faced problem (Figure-15, see).

**Figure 15: Facing problem by slum dwellers**
5.4.2 Analyzing the relationship between State and Informal work

Almost some percentage of the total respondents experience opposite view regarding the pressure to quit living place. When 61.8 percent says that they are pressurized by police (39.1 percent), political leader (7.3 percent), local mastan (15.5 percent), not answered 0.9 percent (Figure: ) and of the remaining 38.2 percent says that they are not pressurized to quit their living place (Table:6, see).

Table-6: Pressuring to quit living place

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>61.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>38.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 mastan 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 I have 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(Figure:17 )
5.4.3 Money Subscribing Status

More than 50 percent of the total respondents give money as subscription (Figure: ) has 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 master, and others 9.1 percent (Figure). Of the remaining 42.7 percent respondents say that they do not give subscription to anybody (Figure-18, see ).
Significant number (42.7 percent) of the total respondents does not face trouble when the government functions. The reason (I think from my observation, during the time of taking interview, they intentionally avoid that answer.). 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 (Figure 19, see ).

Figure 19: Directly Subscription Receiver
5.4.4 Contribution to the City Dwellers

A significant data has been drawn from the analysis that most of the worker and slum dwellers (88.2 percent) think that they are contributing to the city dwellers by their work, and other 6.4 percent say that they do not know (Figure:21, see).

Figure-21: Contribution to the Urban Society
5.4.5 Expectations from the Government

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 and from the government or not (Figure:22, see).

Figure 22: Expectation from the Government

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expectation from the Government</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>I do not know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>49.1</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>2.7</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Through the previous data (Figure:22) does not provide a clear sense about their expectation from the government but the below data (Figure:23, see) 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 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 (Figure:23, see)

Figure 23: Thinking on Government Initiatives
5.4.6 Believe in Changes

Final question was does they think one day the current situation will be changed and government will make policy for your working sector and your 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 (Table:7, see )

Table-7: Believing better policy will be made by Government

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>30.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not know</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Answered</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 24: Thinking about the changing probability of the current situation
Chapter Six

Towards Understanding Urban Informality, Poverty and Politics

Urbanization is one of the most dramatic global social transformations of the present 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. Writing on the World Environmental day, Stantly (1988) commented that ‘the global landscape is becoming city space’. For more and more people the horizon is turning from green to gray, Asia’s demographic situation is dominated by five highly populated
developing countries, viz, China, India, Indonesia, Pakistan and Bangladesh. Together they hold nearly three-quarters of Asia’s urban population, two-thirds of Asia’s urban population and a third of the world’s urban population of these five countries, Bangladesh has the lowest level of urbanization (only about one-fifth) but it also has the highest growth rate of urban population in the region (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.

Despairing of any hope for a better life in the countryside and seeking new opportunities for themselves and their children, millions of villagers leave the world they have known for the uncertainties of the city (United Nations, Development of Economics and Social Affairs, population Division, 2003).

The quest for a livelihood, a better income, a better job seems to be juxtaposed 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. These migrants do not possess the skills or the education to enable them to find better paid, secure employment in the formal sector and they have to settle for work in the informal sector (Begum, 1999). There is another section of the population in these countries 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. The low skilled ruralmigrants exist in all countries of Asia but they are more prevalent in the poorest countries such as India, Bangladesh, Nepal, Cambodia and Vietnam.

The distinction between formal and informal activities emerged from the attempts of scholars to apply the dualism framework to labor markets in urban areas of developing countries. The emphasis on urban labor markets derived from dissatisfaction with development policies that were slow to trickle down and that left a large pool of visibility unemployed. Problems of urban unemployment and underemployment, of the working poor, of the large numbers of self-employed persons, were factors that motivated several studies on informal sector activities (ILO, 1970; Joshi and Joshi, 1976). In his study, Amin (1986) 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 acknowledges that activities of the disadvantaged group in the labor force. His says Lack of upward mobility among the urban poor working in the informal sector. They found that the length of duration of stay after migration has no independent influence on earnings.

The term “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. Lisa peattie argues that the term informal sector can be traced to the tradition of economic accounting in addition to that of dualism (Peattie, 1987). The study of the informal sector also draws attention to the condition of women workers. A large number of women workers are employed in the informal sector and they constitute a significant proportion of all women workers(Singh, and Kelles-Viitanen, 1987). Estimates of women in the informal sector, however, are not very reliable as many women workers are engaged in home-based activities, which tend to be omitted from official records and statistics. Within the informal sector, it has been argued, women workers tend to be in low
paid jobs (Bromely and Gerry. 1979). 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). Its urban population continues to grow at over 3.5 percent annually (CUS et al., 2006). Much of the description of analysis of urbanization depends upon the definition of urban places adopted by various countries (UN, 1999). The definition of urban place has demonstrated a ‘bewildering variety’ ans as a result, makes the comparison between countries difficult. This problem is further complicated by the changes in the classification of urban areas due to rapid urban growth of population surrounding or in adjoining urban places. Between 1951 and 1974, a consistent definition of urban areas was followed in the censuses of Bangladesh (BBS, 1977). According to that definition, an urban area included the municipality, civil lines, cantonment and any continuous collection of houses inhabited by not less than 5000persons (BBS, 1984).

Dhaka city’s importance as a manufacturing, administrative, educational and commercial centre can be seen from the significant output from large scale industries, the transport sector and professional as well as specialized services. (Afsar, 1995). For better citizen facility people live in urban area like Dhaka city. This city is not well planned. Internal infrastructure has developed in a much unplanned way; as a result various types of hazed are faced by the city dwellers, especially in communication sector, and proper living place. There are large opportunities to larger income, preferable environment and living conditions-climate, housing, schools, other community facilities in the city, thinking that, rural people migrate to the city area. Of those who remain in the city, the majority lead marginal lives in slums and squattersettlement, andminority on pavements. For the former, their temporary structures are congested and unsanitary, lacking adequate supplies of electricity, running water, paved roads and means of garbage disposal (Anwara, 1999). It is clear that not all migrants thrive in the city, nor can the city provide full-time employment to all, basic questions are raised concerning the process of migration, particularly in relation to the predominant city of Bangladesh, Dhaka. The focus rests mainly on the city since these are the ones viewed as parasites. 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.

It is argued that rapid urbanization in Bangladesh has serious implication for the level of productivity. The state of infrastructure is poor and unable to take growing urban pressures as the cities do not generate enough surpluses to investment in basic urban services, such as, housing, transportation, water supply, sanitation and solid waste collection and distribution. Inadequate provision of water and poor sanitation result in serious environmental damage. It leads to air pollution, environmental degradation, negative impact on health and productivity. In Bangladesh urbanization was neither preceded by industrialization, nor by concomitant development of an urban infrastructure.

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 i.e., rickshaw pulling, domestic works, street vending, petty trading and so on. 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 change of employment and underemployment.

Educational qualification and rural-urban migration are closely associated. A significant number of the respondents are in “no education” group, with percent sharply falling in “class One-Three” group. Exactly percent of the respondents is “Class Four-Six” group. While some percent “Class Seven-Eight” group, more than percent in the “Class Nine- S.S.C” group. A very negligible per cent of the respondents completed H.S.C (Figure- , see). The statistics gives a cause-effect relationship between educational background and involvement in informal sector. Mike Davis, in his article, articulated that in informal economy those people are engaged who are unskilled. 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. As a result they are used by various groups. Indicate that, 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. In research period, it is my observation that a large number of religious institution are situated at near of slum area. Informal worker and low-paid formal worker, who are in extreme poverty, though they do hard work but do not get proper salary, because of exploitation of powerful group or owner group. They live in slum area or street or other miserable place. They are excluded from social service, for this reason it will be a matter of their revolt against society. So, powerful group try to divert their sense. As a result they establish more religious institution in the nearest area of slum to turn their mind into religion.

As Philip Amis emphasize: “there are berries to entry in terms of capital, and often political terms, which create a tendency towards monopoly in the successful areas of the informal sector; these are difficult to get into” (Phillip, 1995). Most of the respondents are migrated from rural Bangladesh. There are percent of the respondents are migrated from rural area (Figure- , see). The urban ethnographic data captured that most of the informal worker and slum dwellers are from rural area of the Comilla, kishorgonj, Norshingdi, Noakhali, Faridpur districts which are easily communicable to Dhaka. There also a significant number of informal workers are from the Northern Bangladesh who mostly involved to the rickshaw pulling in the city. As Dhaka is the center of the country, people come to the city to explore better financial support and living, as argued in the various parts in this research. 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 penetrate 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. The classical dual-economy models (Lewis, 1954) explain rural-urban migration 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. But a weak agricultural development can also act as a push factor for rural-urban migration. 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 money - high competition, excessive temperature, sunlight, monsoon rain, dust, congested space, crowd of customers are some common problem to them. As one of the respondents expresses his problems to pull rickshaw in the University of Dhaka in an in-depth interview:

During last 10 years I am pulling rickshaw in this place. I face some common problems and it is very harmful for my health, because, I have cold allergy. In Rainy season it is too much uncomfortable to pull rickshaw in the heavy raining. Sometimes I face bitter situation, it is that many person force me to pull without money. Increasing pressure of subscription is another problem especially when suddenly subscription is increased by the leader of the area of my living place (Case Study ….).

There are political leaders; local mastans, police and even 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. They are bound to do that, otherwise their work, even life will be insecure. ArjunAppadurai says in his article: “A crucial and controversial feature of this approach 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. This is tricky business in Mumbai, where most grassroots organizations, notably unions, have a long history of direct affiliation with major political parties. In Mumbai, the Shiva Sena, with its violent, street-level control of urban politics, does not easily tolerate neutrality” (Appadurai, 2002). Most of the informal workers are settled in slum and street, for this reason it is easy to use them. To make secure their living, in several period of time they have to do work of local mastan and leader without money. Ther 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 (Figure…, see). It reminds some few words of Mike Davis who says:

“Politically, the informal sector, in the absence of enforced labor rights, is a semi-feudal realm of kickbacks, bribes, tribal loyalties, and ethnic exclusion. Urban space is never free. A place on the pavement, the rental of a rickshaw, a day’s labor on a construction site, or a domestic’s reference to a new employer: all these require patronage or membership in some closed network, often an ethnic militia or street gang”. (Davis, 2006).

A quarter heads of informal worker or slum dwellers are engaged in the transport sector, mostly as rickshaw pullers. The rickshaw was found to make the highest contribution to the national economy of Bangladesh, compared to other vehicles. Rickshaw is generally condemned as “slow moving vehicle, as the root cause of traffic jams and road accidents and as a symbol of underdevelopment. Rickshaw pulling is considered to be inhuman, unhealthful and degrading. Despite the above cause 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. On the other informal work 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. Though Dhaka is a very densely populated city, domestic worker is very regular here, in solvent household, student hostel, bachelor quarter and so on. Like above various types of informal works are existed who are contributing city dwellers.

A significant proportion of the respondents (…. percent) expect help from the government for the betterment of their work sector, while other (…) proportion do not expect any help from the government or not. A significant number (… 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 920060, in which existing niche opportunities disappear as new capital formation captures market demand. The existing informal worker find themselves competing for decreasing income and their prospects dim. There are mechanisms by which the displaced informal worker and slum dwellers enter the expanded labor market without this being an intrinsic quality of their working skill condition.
This research paper has explored 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 interlinked with the intense development of Dhaka City which has developed as a politico-administrative centre. Here rapid urbanization is occurring 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 dramatic rise because of massive 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 briefly 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, Kishoregonj, 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 co-workers or even political leader/ local mastan. A higher percentage gives money as subscription 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 neighbors 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:

1) Rural-urban migration significantly contributes to rapid urbanization in megacities like Dhaka
2) 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.
3) 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.

4) 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.

5) 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.

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The Daily Star Newspaper


Wikipedia

QUESTIONNAIRE
Part 1: Personal Information

1. Name:
2. Male/Female:
3. Age:
4. Living Place:

Part 2: Demographics

1. Religion:
2. Marital Status:
3. Educational Qualification:
4. Migration Status:
5. Working Condition:
6. Monthly Income:
7. Monthly Expenditure:

Part 3: Situation of Informal Workers

1. Are you migrated from your local area?
   a) Yes  b) No
2. If yes, then what is the reason behind it?
   …………………………………………………………………………………
   ….
   …………………………………………………………………………………
   ….
   …………………………………………………………………………………
   ….
3. How long you are in this city?
   a) > -1 years  
   b) 2-5 Years  
   c) 6-10 Years
   d) 11-above
4. Here, what is your working sector?
   a) Permanent  
   b) Temporary  
   c) Others………………………………
5. What is your income level (Per Month)?
   a) >-5000 BDT 
   b) 6000-10000 BDT
   c) 10000-above
   d) Not answered
6. Is your income sufficient to lead you & family?
   a) Yes  b) No
7. If not, then what do you do to fill up that lacking’s?
   …………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………
   …
8. Do you think you are contributing the city dwellers through your work?
   a) Yes
   b) No
   c) I don’t know
   d) Not answered
9. Do you face any problem in your working sector?
   a) Yes  b) No
10. If yes, then what kind of problems do you face in your working sector?
    …………………………………………………………………
    …………………………………………………………………
    …………………………………………………………………
   ………
11. Does anyone control your working area?
    a) Yes
    b) No
    c) Not answered
12. If yes, then who controls your working area?
    a) Political leader
    b) Police
    c) Local leader
    d) I don’t know
    e) Not answered
13. Does police make any trouble for you?
    a) Yes  b) No
14. If yes, then why?
    …………………………………………………………………
    …………………………………………………………………
    ………
15. Do you give money to anybody for your work/job?
    a) Yes
    b) No
    c) Not answered
16. If yes, whom you give money?
    a) Political leader
    b) Police
    c) Local leader
    d) Others………………………………..
    e) I don’t know
    f) Not answered
17. Where do you live in?
    …………………………………………………………………
    ………
18. How long you are in this place?
    a)> -1 years
    b)2-5 Years
    c)6-10 Years
d) 11-above

19. Do you face any problem in your living place?
   a) Yes   b) No

20. If yes, then what kind of problems do you face in your living place?
   …………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………
   ……

21. Does anyone control your living place?
   a) Yes
   b) No
   c) Not answered

22. If yes, then who controls your living place?
   a) Political leader
   b) Police
   c) Local leader
   d) I don’t know
   e) Not answered

23. Are you pressurized by them to do anything?
   a) Yes
   b) No
   c) Not answered

24. If yes, then what to do?
   …………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………
   ……

25. Are you satisfied with your livelihood?
   a) Yes   b) No

26. Do you give money to anybody for your living place?
   a) Yes
   b) No
   c) Not answered

27. If yes, whom you give money?
   a) Political leader
   b) Police
   c) Local leader
   d) Others
   e) I don’t know
   f) Not answered

28. Why do you give money?
   …………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………
   ……

29. In which way, do you manage such problem?
   …………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………
   ……
30. Do you have forced to participate any political function?
   a) Yes  b) No
31. If yes, then what kind of function?
   …………………………………………………………………
32. Does anyone pressurized to attend political or any types of function?
   a) Yes  b) No
33. If yes, why they can do that?
   …………………………………………………………………
34. If you want to avoid functions, then what to do?
   …………………………………………………………………
35. Do you face problem, if you want to avoid political function?
   a) Yes  b) No
36. If Yes, then what kind of problems?
   a) Physical torture
   b) Eviction from living place
   c) Others……………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………
37. Whom are you complain to save you from this situation?
   a) Political leader
   b) Police
   c) Local leader
   d) Others………………………………..
38. Do you expect any helping from the government for the betterment your life condition?
   a) Yes  b) No
39. What is your expectation?
   …………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………............
   …
40. Do you think that one day the present situation will be changed?
   a) Yes
   b) No
   c) I don’t know
41. If yes, what is your demand?
   …………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………
   …

Contact Address:

Present Address:
Case Study-3

Name- Mr. Shahabuddin Molla. Age-48 years. He is an 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 and 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 low-price, 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 Study-4

Mr. Ibrahim Mia, a Pirated-Book-seller, works together with his elder brother. He is migrated from Noakhali with his brother for searching of a better future. He is occupying this current business position for the last 8 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 15,000-20,000 BDT per month. Mr. Ibrahim 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. Ibrahim says that he is not pressurized to quit his business. Because he maintain the liaison with the line-man and