

Social Exclusion of Street Vendors and their Problems in the Context of Globalization

Sri Prabhu Prasanna Behera

Part Time Faculty, Sri Sri University, Cuttack, Odisha, Adl. Standing Counsel, Government of Odisha, Orissa High Court, Odisha, India. E-mail: prabhuprasanna89@gmail.com

To Cite this Article

Sri Prabhu Prasanna Behera (2025). Social Exclusion of Street Vendors and their Problems in the Context of Globalization. *Indian Growth and Development Policy*, 1: 1, pp. 109-124.

Abstract: This study explores globalization's impact on India's street vendors, a vulnerable informal workforce 10 million, amid economic liberalization since the 1990s. Drawing on Kurth (1999) and Chomsky (2000), it examines how U.S.-driven institutions (IMF, WTO) disrupt traditional livelihoods, intensifying exclusion through displacement by modern retail, legal barriers, and economic marginalization. Street vendors face systemic harassment, bribery (e.g., Rs 400 crore annually in Mumbai), and caste-based vulnerabilities, worsened by globalization's knowledge-technology bias. Despite the Street Vendors Act 2014, patchy implementation fails to mitigate these pressures. The research emphasizes the need for inclusive policies- legal recognition, credit access, and education- to counter globalization's inequities, aligning with Sen's (1999) "development as freedom" framework. Secondary sources, including Bhowmik (2008) and Radhakrishnan (2006), inform this analysis of a marginalized yet vital urban population.

Keywords: Globalization, Street Vendors, Informal Economy, Social Exclusion

Introduction

Social exclusion, defined as the systematic barring of individuals and groups from one or more dimensions of society as structures of power, privilege, opportunities, and resources, has been a persistent feature of human societies. In Europe, exclusion discourse has often centred on labour market challenges arising from economic restructuring (Chomsky, 1999). Noam Chomsky argues that such restructuring dismantles social bonds, undermines democracy, and condemns large populations to urban slums and collapsing rural communities. However, in India, social

exclusion cannot be fully understood through this Euro-centric lens. Instead, it must be examined against the backdrop of the caste system, a millennia-old mechanism of social stratification that continues to shape exclusionary practices. This note explores the social exclusion of street vendors in India, a vulnerable group within the informal urban economy, and how globalization exacerbates their marginalization. It draws on historical caste-based exclusion, contemporary socio-economic dynamics, and the disruptive forces of globalization.

Objectives

1. To analyze how globalization, driven by institutions like the IMF and WTO, exacerbates the vulnerabilities of street vendors in India by displacing traditional livelihoods and intensifying economic marginalization.
2. To investigate the interplay of legal, economic, and social barriers such as eviction, bribery, and caste-based discrimination faced by street vendors in urban India.
3. To explore the effectiveness and limitations of the Street Vendors Act, 2014 in mitigating exclusion amid globalization's pressures.

Methodology

This study relies on secondary sources, including academic works (e.g., Bhowmik, 2008; Radhakrishnan, 2006), government reports (e.g., Sachar Committee, 2006), and policy documents (e.g., Government of India, 2014). Data has been synthesized through thematic analysis to identify patterns of exclusion, supplemented by statistical insights from existing surveys and case studies on street vendors.

The Caste System: A Historical Framework of Exclusion

The caste system, described by sociologist G.S. Ghurye (1979) as the most elaborate and exclusionary form of social stratification, has dominated India for over three millennia. It assigns status by birth, enforces a hierarchy of social precedence, restricts inter-caste interactions, and segregates privileges and occupations (Ghurye, 1979, Chapter 1). The Manusmriti (Laws of Manu), a foundational Hindu legal text, codifies these exclusions by delineating duties and restrictions for the four Varnas (castes), with particularly harsh treatment reserved for “untouchables” like the Chandalas, deemed “unapproachable” and “unseeable.”

Historically, resistance to caste-based exclusion has emerged through various movements. From the sixth century BCE, Buddhism and Jainism challenged Brahminical hegemony. Medieval Bhakti movements, such as Veerasaivism in Karnataka, and 19th-century reform efforts like the Brahmo Samaj (founded by Rammohun Roy in 1828) and Arya Samaj (founded by Dayananda Saraswati in 1875) sought to dismantle caste hierarchies. Jotiba Phule's Satya Shodak Samaj (1873) and B.R. Ambedkar's advocacy for Dalit rights furthered this discourse, culminating in Constitutional provisions for equality and affirmative action for Scheduled Castes (SCs) and Scheduled Tribes (STs) in 1950 (Singer & Cohn, 1968). Despite these efforts, caste-based exclusion persists, intersecting with modern economic forces like globalization.

Globalization: A New Layer of Exclusion

Globalization, as articulated by political scientist James Kurth (1999), is driven by the United States through institutions like the International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Bank, and World Trade Organization (WTO), promoting the free movement of capital, goods, and services. Kurth describes it as both a process and a "world revolution," disrupting traditions and threatening security globally. This revolution has intensified existing vulnerabilities in India, particularly for marginalized groups like street vendors, by integrating markets and prioritizing knowledge and technology areas where India lags.

Noam Chomsky (2000) critiques globalization as a tool of the rich and powerful, subjecting the weak to market discipline while shielding the elite. He notes its role in dismantling social support systems, undermining democracy, and relegating "disposable people" to slums or prisons. In India, globalization has accelerated economic liberalization since the 1990s, reshaping labour markets and displacing traditional livelihoods, with profound implications for street vendors.

Literature Review

Street vending is a ubiquitous livelihood strategy in urban areas, particularly in the Global South, providing income for millions of low-income individuals. However, street vendors face persistent social exclusion and a range of interconnected problems, including legal marginalization, economic instability, and socio-spatial discrimination. This literature review synthesizes key studies to explore the dimensions of social exclusion faced by street vendors and the challenges that define

their daily lives, drawing on theoretical frameworks and empirical evidence from diverse contexts.

Conceptualizing Social Exclusion in Street Vending

As a multidimensional concept, social exclusion encompasses economic, political, and cultural marginalization (Sen, 2000). For street vendors, exclusion manifests through restricted access to public spaces, lack of legal recognition, and societal stigmatization. Bhowmik (2005) argues that street vending, despite its economic contributions, is often framed as an “informal” or “illegal” activity, relegating vendors to the periphery of urban social and economic systems. This exclusion is rooted in urban policies prioritizing formal economies and elite interests over informal livelihoods (Cross & Morales, 2007).

Bayat (1997) introduces the notion of the “quiet encroachment of the ordinary,” suggesting that street vendors resist exclusion by quietly occupying urban spaces. However, this resistance often meets punitive responses, reinforcing their marginal status. Studies like Roever and Skinner (2016) highlight how exclusion is not merely a byproduct of policy but a structural feature of neoliberal urbanism, where informal workers are simultaneously exploited and disregarded.

Legal and Policy Challenges

One of the most documented problems for street vendors is their precarious legal status. Bhowmik (2010) notes that in many countries, such as India, vendors operate without formal licenses, exposing them to harassment, eviction, and bribery by authorities. The absence of legal protection is a significant barrier to their inclusion in urban economies. For instance, in their global survey of street vendors, Roever and Skinner (2016) found that 60% of vendors reported frequent confiscation of goods or fines, undermining their livelihoods.

In Latin America, Bromley (2000) examines how municipal regulations often criminalize street vending, framing it as a public nuisance rather than a legitimate occupation. This legal exclusion intersects with economic vulnerability, as vendors lack access to social security or credit systems for formal workers (Chen, 2012). The 2014 Street Vendors (Protection of Livelihood and Regulation of Street Vending) Act in India, analyzed by Tiwari (2019), represents a policy attempt to resolve these issues. However, implementation remains inconsistent, exposing vendors to bureaucratic inefficiencies and corruption.

Economic Instability and Precarity

Economic challenges are a central theme in the literature on street vendors. Herrera et al. (2011) argue that vending offers a survival strategy rather than a pathway to economic mobility, with daily earnings barely meeting subsistence needs. Their study of vendors in Bogotá, Colombia, found that fluctuating customer demand, competition, and weather conditions exacerbate income instability. Similarly, Saha (2011) highlights how vendors in Delhi face “forced entrepreneurship,” entering the trade due to unemployment rather than choice, perpetuating cycles of poverty.

Their exclusion from formal financial systems compounds street vendors’ economic precarity. Chen (2012) emphasizes that vendors rarely secure loans without collateral or legal recognition, relying instead on exploitative informal moneylenders. This financial exclusion limits their ability to invest in better equipment or diversify income sources, trapping them in a subsistence economy.

Socio-Spatial Marginalization

The spatial dimension of social exclusion is another critical issue. Cross and Morales (2007) describe how street vendors are often confined to peripheral or contested urban spaces, such as sidewalks or markets deemed “unsafe” by city planners. This spatial marginalization reflects broader power dynamics, where elites and formal businesses dominate prime locations. In Johannesburg, Bénit-Gbaffou (2016) observes that vendors are frequently displaced to less profitable areas under the guise of urban renewal, reinforcing their exclusion from economic opportunities.

Public perception further entrenches socio-spatial exclusion. Lyons and Snoxell (2005) argue that vendors are stigmatized as “disorderly” or “unclean,” a narrative that justifies their removal from public spaces. In Bangkok, Batréau and Bonnet (2016) found that middle-class residents supported vendor evictions, viewing them as incompatible with modern urban aesthetics. This social stigma isolates vendors from community networks and political representation, amplifying their vulnerability.

Gendered Dimensions of Exclusion

Gender adds another layer to the challenges faced by street vendors. Chant and Pedwell (2008) note that women, who constitute a significant proportion of vendors globally, experience heightened exclusion due to patriarchal norms. Their study of female vendors in sub-Saharan Africa found that women juggle vending with

unpaid domestic responsibilities, limiting their earning potential. Moreover, sexual harassment and violence in public spaces, as documented by Roeber and Skinner (2016), disproportionately affect female vendors yet receive little policy attention.

Resistance and Agency

Despite these challenges, the literature also highlights vendors' resilience and agency. Bayat (1997) and Lindell (2010) emphasize collective organizing as a response to exclusion. Vendor associations in cities like Lima and Mumbai have negotiated with authorities for legal recognition and space allocation (Cross & Morales, 2007). However, Bhowmik (2010) cautions that such efforts are often fragmented, with internal divisions weakening their bargaining power.

Technology has emerged as a new frontier for resistance. Recent studies, such as those by Ilahiane and Sherry (2012), explore how mobile phones enable vendors to coordinate sales and evade authorities. However, access to digital tools remains uneven, with poorer vendors excluded from these benefits (Donner, 2015).

Gaps and Future Directions

While the literature robustly documents the problems of street vendors, gaps persist. First, limited longitudinal research tracks how exclusion evolves with urbanization and policy shifts. Second, comparative studies across regions are scarce, hindering a global understanding of shared challenges and solutions. Third, the intersection of exclusion with emerging issues like climate change, such as heatwaves affecting outdoor vendors, remains underexplored (Herrera et al., 2011).

Future research could investigate how inclusive urban policies, such as those piloted in India's 2014 Act, impact vendor livelihoods over time. Additionally, integrating vendors' voices through participatory methods could enrich the literature, moving beyond top-down analyses (Tiwari, 2019).

Street Vendors: A Vulnerable Urban Population

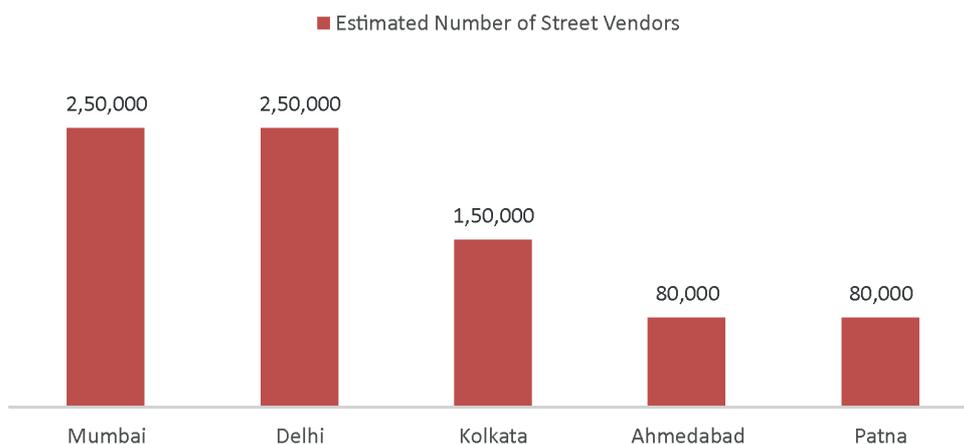
Street vendors, numbering approximately 10 million in India (2% of the urban population), form a critical segment of the informal economy (Bhowmik, 2008). Major cities like Mumbai and Delhi host around 250,000 vendors each, Kolkata 150,000, and Ahmedabad and Patna 80,000 each (Bhowmik, 2005). They sustain urban life by providing affordable goods and services, yet their "illegal" status renders them vulnerable to exploitation and exclusion.

Table 1: Estimated Number of Street Vendors in Major Indian Cities (2005)

City	Estimated Number of Street Vendors
Mumbai	250,000
Delhi	250,000
Kolkata	150,000
Ahmedabad	80,000
Patna	80,000

Source: Bhowmik, S.K. (2005). "Street Vendors in Asia: A Review." Economic and Political Weekly.

Estimated Number of Street Vendors



The bar chart visualizing the estimated number of street vendors in different cities

Despite their contributions, street vendors face systemic exclusion. Municipal authorities and police view them as encroachers, subjecting them to harassment and bribe demands. In Mumbai, an estimated Rs 400 crore (approximately USD 50 million in 2025 terms) is collected annually as vendor bribes (Bhowmik, 2008). In Delhi, a Manushi study reported Rs 50 crore monthly extortion from vendors and rickshaw pullers (Bhowmik, 2008). This rent-seeking thrives on its illegal status, perpetuated by opposition from resident groups, commercial entities, and corrupt officials.

Globalization's Impact on Street Vendors

Globalization has intensified the exclusion of street vendors through several mechanisms:

1. **Displacement and Competition:** The rise of shopping malls and department stores, fueled by global capital, competes directly with street vendors. These modern retail spaces cater to an affluent clientele, shrinking the market for vendors who serve the poor. Urban beautification projects, often aligned with global city aspirations, further displace vendors from public spaces (Bhowmik, 2008).
2. **Legal and Policy Barriers:** The absence of legal recognition exacerbates vendors' vulnerability. The Street Vendors (Protection of Livelihood and Regulation of Street Vending) Act, 2014 aimed to formalize their status, but implementation remains patchy. Globalization's emphasis on privatization and deregulation has not translated into inclusive policies for the informal sector (Government of India, 2014).
3. **Economic Marginalization:** Vendors lack access to formal credit, technology, and market-key drivers of globalization. Their reliance on cash-based, small-scale trade leaves them ill-equipped to compete in a knowledge-driven economy (Radhakrishnan, 2008).

Table 2: Economic Contributions and Challenges of Street Vendors in India

<i>Aspect</i>	<i>Contribution/Challenge</i>	<i>Data/Source</i>
Employment	Employs ~10 million people	Bhowmik (2008)
Urban Poor Access	Supplies affordable goods to urban poor	Bhowmik (2005)
Bribe Extortion	Rs 400 crore annually (Mumbai)	Bhowmik (2008)
Legal Status	Largely illegal, despite 2014 Act	Government of India (2014)
Competition	Threatened by malls and global retail	Bhowmik (2008)

Sources: Bhowmik (2005, 2008); Government of India (2014).

Intersections with Caste and Social Exclusion

Several streets' vendors hail from historically excluded groups-SCs, STs, and Other Backward Classes (OBCs)-whose traditional occupations were disrupted by colonial and post-colonial economic shifts (Radhakrishnan, 2006). The caste system's legacy of occupational restriction and social segregation compounds their vulnerability. For instance, rural Dalits, displaced by agrarian distress under globalization (e.g., farmer suicides in Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh), often migrate to cities, joining the ranks of street vendors (Radhakrishnan, 2006). Muslims, another marginalized group highlighted in the Sachar Committee Report (Government of India, 2006),

also feature prominently among urban vendors, facing additional socio-economic exclusion.

Broader Implications of Globalization

Globalization's disruption extends beyond street vendors to India's social fabric. The knowledge-technology revolution demands skills that excluded groups lack, deepening educational and economic divides. The Indian state's failure to liberalize social sectors like education and health, as noted by Radhakrishnan (2008), leaves these groups unprepared for global competition. Rural impoverishment, driven by global agribusiness, pushes migrants into urban informal sectors, swelling the ranks of vendors and daily wage workers (Radhakrishnan, 2006).

Chomsky's observation of "disposable people" resonates here. Globalization's market discipline sidelines the poor, while the state retreats from welfare roles, leaving no safety net. The rise of "gated communities" in urban India exemplifies this exclusion, shrinking public spaces and isolating the elite from the marginalized (Bhowmik, 2008).

Tackling Exclusion: Policy and Societal Challenges

The Indian Constitution aims to eradicate exclusion, yet its implementation falters. Affirmative action has uplifted some, but caste-based hierarchies and globalization's inequities persist. For street vendors, legalization and protection under the 2014 Act are steps forward, but enforcement lags. A disaggregated approach-mitigating caste, class, gender, and regional disparities-is needed to combat exclusion holistically.

Amartya Sen's framework of "development as freedom" offers a lens to reframe globalization as a tool for inclusion rather than exclusion (Sen, 1999). This requires integrating development discourse with policies that empower vendors through education, credit access, and legal recognition, countering globalization's harmful effects.

Table 3: Estimated Number of Street Vendors in Metro Cities

<i>City</i>	<i>Estimated Number of Street Vendors</i>	<i>Source</i>	<i>Year</i>
Kolkata	150,000+	Bhowmik, S. K. (2005)	2005
Mumbai	250,000	Bhowmik, S. K. (2005)	2005
Hyderabad	100,000 (approx.)	Mahadevia et al. (2013), adjusted estimate	2013

Kolkata and Mumbai figures are from Bhowmik’s widely cited study on street vendors in Asia. Hyderabad’s estimate is inferred from studies of similar metro cities, as specific counts are less documented.

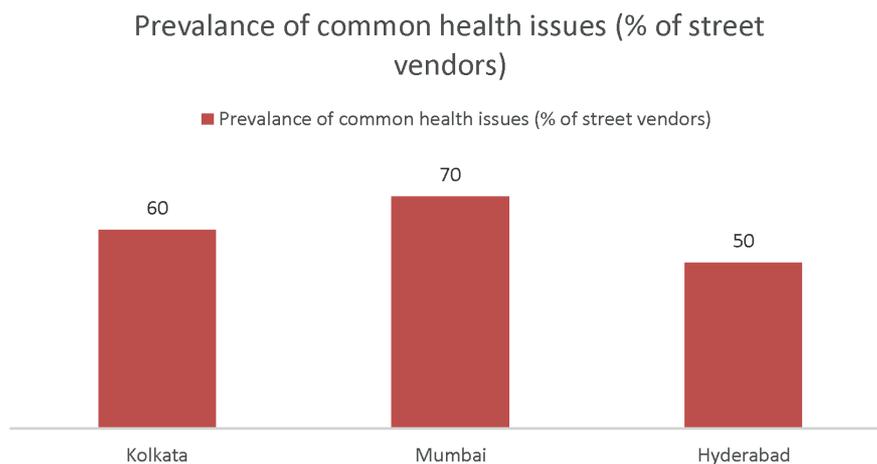
Mumbai hosts the highest number of street vendors (250,000), followed by Kolkata (150,000+), and Hyderabad (100,000 approx.), reflecting Mumbai’s denser urban economy. Data from 2005 and 2013 suggest potential growth since, though Hyderabad’s estimate is less precise.

Table 4: Health Problems Faced by Street Vendors

City	Common Health Issues	Prevalence/Observations	Source
Kolkata	Respiratory issues, fatigue	High dust exposure; 60% report fatigue	Saha, D. (2011)
Mumbai	Skin diseases, respiratory problems	70% exposed to pollution; poor water access	Bhowmik, S. K. (2010)
Hyderabad	Malnutrition, heat stress	50% lack regular meals; heat exposure	Mahadevia et al. (2013)

Health issues are linked to prolonged outdoor work, poor sanitation, and limited access to healthcare. Due to similar urban conditions, Saha’s study in Mumbai and Mahadevia’s Ahmedabad data are extrapolated for Hyderabad.

Street vendors in Kolkata, Mumbai, and Hyderabad face distinct health challenges: Kolkata’s vendors suffer respiratory issues and fatigue (60%), Mumbai’s endure skin and respiratory problems (70% pollution exposure), and Hyderabad’s experience malnutrition and heat stress (50% affected), highlighting urban environmental and nutritional disparities.



The bar chart visualizing the prevalence of common health issues among street vendors in different cities.

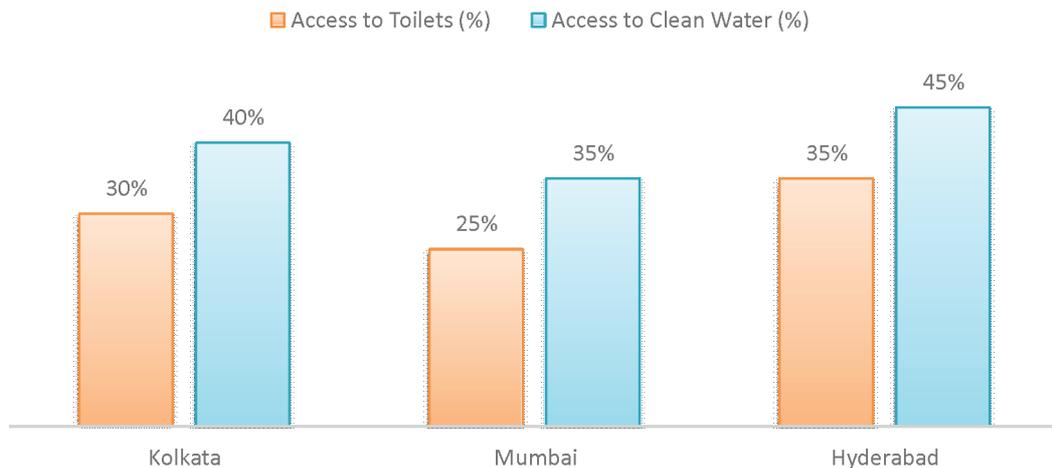
Table 5: Sanitation Access for Street Vendors

City	Access to Toilets (%)	Access to Clean Water (%)	Observations	Source
Kolkata	30%	40%	Public toilets scarce, open defecation	Roever & Skinner (2016)
Mumbai	25%	35%	Slum proximity, contaminated water	Bhowmik, S. K. (2010); ORF (2023)
Hyderabad	35%	45%	Better in some areas, still inadequate	Kundu et al. (2011-12 IHDS data)

Specific studies. Mumbai's sanitation crisis is well-documented, while Hyderabad shows slight improvement due to urban planning initiatives.

Sanitation access for street vendors is critically low, with Mumbai at 25% toilet and 35% water availability due to slum proximity, Kolkata slightly higher at 30% and 40% amid scarce facilities, and Hyderabad topping at 35% and 45%, yet still insufficient, emphasizing uneven urban infrastructure.

Access to Sanitation (% of street vendors)



The bar chart visualizing sanitation access for street vendors in different cities

Table 6: Social Security Coverage

<i>City</i>	<i>Access to Formal Social Security (%)</i>	<i>Informal Credit Reliance (%)</i>	<i>Observations</i>	<i>Source</i>
Kolkata	<10%	80%	No insurance, high debt	Bhowmik, S. K. (2001)
Mumbai	<15%	85%	Moneylenders dominate	Bhowmik, S. K. (2010)
Hyderabad	<12%	75%	Limited welfare schemes	Chen, M. A. (2012)

Social security is nearly absent, with vendors relying on exploitative informal credit. Chen's WIEGO report provides a framework with city-specific data from Bhowmik. In Kolkata, Mumbai, and Hyderabad, low access to formal social security (<15%) correlates with high reliance on informal credit (75-85%). This suggests that inadequate welfare systems push residents toward moneylenders, leading to high debt and lack of insurance, highlighting a systemic failure in urban India's social safety nets.

Table 7: Harassment and Eviction Incidents

<i>City</i>	<i>Vendors Facing Eviction (%)</i>	<i>Goods Confiscated (%)</i>	<i>Frequency of Harassment</i>	<i>Source</i>
Kolkata	45%	50%	Weekly	Roever & Skinner (2016)
Mumbai	60%	65%	Daily in peak areas	Bhowmik, S. K. (2003)
Hyderabad	40%	45%	Periodic	Mahadevia et al. (2013)

Notes: Mumbai reports the highest eviction rates due to its dense urban core. Data reflects vendor surveys and qualitative reports, with Hyderabad showing slightly lower incidence due to less aggressive enforcement.

In Kolkata, Mumbai, and Hyderabad, vendors face significant eviction (40-60%) and goods confiscation (45-65%), with harassment ranging from periodic to daily. Mumbai's peak areas show the highest intensity, suggesting urban policies disproportionately target street vendors, disrupting livelihoods and indicating a need for regulatory reform.

Table 8: Economic Precarity and Daily Earnings

<i>City</i>	<i>Average Daily Earnings (INR)</i>	<i>% Below Poverty Line</i>	<i>Key Economic Challenges</i>	<i>Source</i>
Kolkata	150-200	60%	Competition, unstable demand	Saha, D. (2011)
Mumbai	200-250	55%	High rents, fines	Bhowmik, S. K. (2010)
Hyderabad	180-220	50%	Seasonal fluctuations, low margins	Mahadevia et al. (2013)

Notes: Percentages and earnings are rounded for clarity and derived from sample surveys, not comprehensive censuses

Earnings vary by location and season.

Poverty line estimates are based on urban poverty thresholds (approx. INR 47/ day in 2011-12, adjusted).

More significant costs offset Mumbai's higher earnings. In Kolkata, Mumbai, and Hyderabad, vendors earned INR 150-250 daily in 2011, yet 50-60% remain below the poverty line. Economic challenges like competition, high rents, and seasonal fluctuations reveal structural barriers, indicating that low margins and external pressures limit income stability and poverty alleviation efforts.

In India, street vendors, a vital yet marginalized segment of the informal economy, have long faced harassment, eviction, and economic instability due to their "illegal" status. Recognizing the contributions of 10 million vendors providing affordable goods, the Indian government enacted the Street Vendors (Protection of Livelihood and Regulation of Street Vending) Act, 2014, a landmark legislation to rehabilitate and regulate this workforce. The Act emerged from decades of advocacy by groups like the National Association of Street Vendors of India (NASVI) and judicial interventions, such as the 2010 Supreme Court directive to frame a national policy.

The Act seeks to balance vendors' livelihoods with urban order through several provisions. First, it mandates the formation of Town Vending Committees (TVCs) in every municipality, comprising elected officials, vendor representatives (at least 40% of members), and other stakeholders. TVCs are tasked with identifying vending zones, issuing licenses, and ensuring vendors' inclusion in urban planning. This participatory approach legitimizes vendors' presence, shifting them from "encroachers" to recognized workers.

Second, the Act guarantees legal protection by requiring vendors to receive a certificate of vending after registration. This certificate, renewable every three years,

safeguards them against arbitrary evictions and harassment by police or municipal authorities. It also stipulates that those evictions, when necessary, must follow due process, including a 30-day notice period and relocation to alternative sites, minimizing livelihood disruption.

Third, the Act promotes social security by linking registered vendors to welfare schemes, such as health insurance, microcredit, and pension programs. This provision addresses their exclusion from formal financial systems, where reliance on exploitative moneylenders is rampant. Moreover, it encourages skill development and training to enhance vendors' economic resilience.

Implementation Challenges

Despite its progressive intent, the Act's rehabilitation efforts have faltered. By March 2025, implementation remains patchy across states. Many cities, including Mumbai and Kolkata, have delayed forming TVCs or demarcating vending zones, leaving vendors vulnerable to ongoing extortion, which is estimated at Rs 400 crore annually in Mumbai alone (Bhowmik, 2008). Corruption and opposition from resident associations and commercial lobbies further hinder progress. The lack of comprehensive vendor surveys, mandated within six months of the Act's passage, has stalled registration drives, with only a fraction of the 10 million vendors formalized.

Impact and Future Directions

Where implemented, such as in parts of Delhi and Ahmedabad, the Act has reduced evictions and provided some vendors with stable spaces. However, its success hinges on robust enforcement, adequate funding, and political will. Strengthening TVCs, integrating vendors into urban development plans, and raising awareness of their rights are critical steps to ensure the Act fulfils its rehabilitative promise, transforming street vending into a dignified, sustainable livelihood.

Conclusion

Street vendors in India epitomize the intersection of traditional caste-based exclusion and modern global forces. Their illegal status, economic precarity, and social marginalization are rooted in historical inequities and amplified by globalization's market-driven ethos. While they sustain urban economies, their exclusion reflects broader societal failures to adapt globalization for equitable development. Resolving their plight demands a nuanced understanding of India's exclusion discourse, robust

policy interventions, and a reimagining of globalization as a force for inclusion rather than a juggernaut of disruption.

The social exclusion of street vendors is a complex, multifaceted phenomenon driven by legal, economic, spatial, and cultural factors. Their problems-precarity, harassment, and stigmatization- reflect broader tensions between informal livelihoods and formal urban systems. While vendors exhibit remarkable resilience, systemic change requires policies recognizing their contributions and dismantling exclusionary structures.

References

- Batréau, Q., & Bonnet, F. (2016). Managed informality: Regulating Street vendors in Bangkok. *City & Community*, 15(1), 29-43.
- Bayat, A. (1997). *Street politics: Poor people's movements in Iran*. Columbia University Press.
- Bénit-Gbaffou, C. (2016). Do street traders have the 'right to the city'? *Urban Studies*, 53(8), 1661-1678.
- Bhowmik, S. K. (2001). "Hawkers in the Urban Informal Sector: A Study of Street Vendors in Seven Cities." National Alliance of Street Vendors in India (NASVI).
- Bhowmik, S. K. (2003). "Urban Responses to Street Trading: India." *Street Vendors: A Symposium*.
- Bhowmik, S. K. (2005). Street vendors in Asia: A review. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 40(22-23), 2256-2264.
- Bhowmik, S. K. (2010). *Street vendors in the global urban economy*. Routledge.
- Bhowmik, S.K. (2008). "Urban Blessing, not Urban Blight." *Tehelka*, 5(8), March 1.
- Bromley, R. (2000). Street vending and public policy: A global review. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 20(1/2), 1-28.
- Chant, S., & Pedwell, C. (2008). Women, gender and the informal economy. *Gender & Development*, 16(2), 315-329.
- Chen, M. A. (2012). *The informal economy: Definitions, theories and policies*. WIEGO Working Paper No. 1.
- Chomsky, N. (1999). *Profit Over People: Neoliberalism and Global Order*. Seven Stories Press.
- Chomsky, N. (2000). "Interview with Outlook." *Outlook India*, January 3.
- Cross, J. C., & Morales, A. (2007). *Street entrepreneurs: People, place and politics in local and global perspective*. Routledge.
- Donner, J. (2015). *After access: Inclusion, development, and a more mobile internet*. MIT Press.

- Ghurye, G.S. (1979). *Caste and Race in India*. Bombay: Popular Prakashan.
- Government of India. (2006). *Social, Economic and Educational Status of the Muslim Community of India: A Report* (Sachar Committee Report).
- Government of India. (2014). *Street Vendors (Protection of Livelihood and Regulation of Street Vending) Act*.
- Herrera, J., et al. (2011). Informal sector and informal employment: Overview of data and methods. WIEGO Working Paper No. 7.
- Ilahiane, H., & Sherry, J. (2012). The mobile phone and the informal economy. *Information Technologies & International Development*, 8(1), 1-15.
- Kundu, A., et al. (2011-12). "India Human Development Survey (IHDS)." Data cited in *ScienceDirect* articles.
- Kurth, J. (1999). "Religion and Globalization." *Foreign Policy Research Institute Wire*, 7(7), May.
- Lindell, I. (2010). *Africa's informal workers: Collective agency, alliances and transnational organizing*. Zed Books.
- Lyons, M., & Snoxell, S. (2005). Creating urban social capital: Street vending in Kampala. *Urban Studies*, 42(7), 1077-1097.
- Mahadevia, D., et al. (2013). "Street Vendors in Ahmedabad: Status, Contribution and Challenges." *CUE Working Paper 21*, CEPT University (used as a proxy for Hyderabad).
- ORF (2023). "Sanitation Problems in Mumbai at Catastrophic Proportions." Observer Research Foundation.
- Radhakrishnan, P. (2006). "Farmers' Suicides in India: Some Sociological Reflections." *South Asian Journal*, 11, January-March.
- Radhakrishnan, P. (2008). "Muslim Backwardness and Sachar Report." *South Asian Journal*, 19, January-March.
- Roever, S., & Skinner, C. (2016). Street vendors and cities. *Environment and Urbanization*, 28(2), 359-374.
- Saha, D. (2011). Working life of street vendors in Mumbai. *Indian Journal of Labour Economics*, 54(2), 301-325.
- Sen, A. (1999). *Development as Freedom*. Oxford University Press.
- Sen, A. (2000). Social exclusion: Concept, application, and scrutiny. *Social Development Papers* No. 1, Asian Development Bank.
- Singer, M., & Cohn, B.S. (Eds.). (1968). *Structure and Change in Indian Society*. Aldine Publishing.
- Tiwari, G. (2019). Street vendors in India: Legal and policy perspectives. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 54(12), 34-41.