ISSN: 3006-7251(Online)
MBSTU Journal of Science and Technology
DOI: https://doi.org/10.69728/jst.v11.65
Journal Homepage: https://journal.mbstu.ac.bd/index.php/jst

Understanding the Roots of Child Labor in Tangail: A Socioeconomic Perspective

Md. Naim-Ul-Jannat Shoron[1], Shakil Mahmood Shaon[1], Md. Ariful Islam[1], Mehedi Hasan[1], and Sanjoy Kumar Saha[1*]

[1] Department of Economics, Mawlana Bhashani Science and Technology University, Tangail-1902, Bangladesh

ARTICLE INFO

Article History
Submission: 26 February, 2025
Revision: 27 May, 2025
Accepted: 01 June, 2025
Published: 21 June, 2025

Keywords
Child labor, Child developments, Exploitations, Poverty, Social security

ABSTRACT

Child labor is a worldwide problem that mostly affects countries with less developed infrastructure and economies. This study aims to evaluate the sociodemographic features and fundamental reasons of child labor in Tangail City. There are many different reasons why young people are entering the workforce, such as low socioeconomic status and family poverty, parent death, illness, or disability, a lack of social security and protection, or limited access to education. Every child's development is hampered by child work, as is the community and economy in which they reside. Global estimates place the number of youngsters working at 152 million (88 million boys and 64 million girls), or over one in ten of all children worldwide. Unfortunately, children from low-income families often withstand the worst of their suffering, which may push many weaker youngsters into situations where they are forced to work as slaves. According to the demographic data, 30% of child laborers have never attended school, and the majority of child laborers are young (13–17 years old). According to this research, educational programs for parents and kids will hasten the abolition of child labor.

1. Introduction

Child labour now days an important topic for the developing country like Bangladesh. In South Asia Bangladesh is a small country where the population is over 160 million. In the recent economic growth where poverty which is not controlled and poverty is the most important factor for the child labour problem.

Child labor remains a pressing socio-economic challenge in Bangladesh, affecting millions of children and undermining their fundamental rights to education, health, and overall well-being (UNICEF, 2021). Despite significant economic progress, the prevalence of child labor persists due to structural poverty, rapid urbanization, and inadequate enforcement of labor laws (Saha, 2025; Islam & Choe, 2013). According to the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS) Child Labor Survey (2019), approximately 4.8 million children aged 5–17 years are engaged in economic activities, with a substantial portion involved in hazardous work.

The persistence of child labor in Bangladesh is largely driven by socio-economic and demographic factors. Poverty is widely recognized as a primary determinant, compelling children from low-income households to participate in the labor force to supplement family income (Laskar *et al.*, 2025; Ray, 2000; Basu & Tzannatos, 2003). Moreover, household characteristics, such as parental education, employment status, and family size, significantly influence child labor participation (Saha & Saha, 2023; Edmonds, 2007). Studies suggest that children from large families with low parental education are more likely to be engaged in work rather than schooling (Akhi *et al.*, 2024; Saha *et al.*, 2022; Bhalotra & Heady, 2003; Khanam, 2008). Additionally, gender disparities play a crucial role, as boys are more likely to be involved in income-generating activities, while girls often engage in unpaid domestic labor (Saha, 2025; Rahman *et al.*, 2010).

Beyond economic factors, regional disparities and urban-rural differences are also critical in shaping child labor dynamics. Urban centers, such as Dhaka and Chittagong, witness high child labor participation, particularly in the informal sector, including garment factories, domestic work, and street vending (Lubna & Saha, 2024; Salmon, 2005). In rural areas, children are primarily engaged in agricultural activities, often as unpaid family laborers (Saha & Jeong, 2019; Kambhampati & Rajan, 2006). The accessibility and quality of education further influence child labor prevalence, as inadequate schooling facilities and high dropout rates contribute to early labor market entry (Saha, 2023; Beegle *et al.*, 2009).

From a policy perspective, Bangladesh has made strides in addressing child labor through legislative measures, including the Labor Act of 2006 and its subsequent

*Corresponding author: saha.sk2021@mbstu.ac.bd

amendments, which prohibit hazardous work for children under 18 years (Saha, 2022; Alam *et al.*, 2020; Rahman & Hossain, 2015). However, enforcement challenges, lack of social protection, and limited access to vocational training continue to hinder progress (ILO, 2020). Moreover, the COVID-19 pandemic has exacerbated child labor vulnerabilities, pushing many children out of schools and into exploitative labor due to economic shocks faced by their families (Saha, 2024; Ahmed *et al.*, 2021).

This study aims to examine the socioeconomic and demographic determinants of child labor in Bangladesh using survey data. By analyzing household characteristics, income levels, educational attainment, and regional disparities, this research seeks to provide evidence-based insights for policymakers to develop targeted interventions that address the root causes of child labor and promote sustainable child welfare policies.

There is many kind of informal sector such as domestic work, agriculture, business and small scale of manufacturing where most of the children work. Where poverty, lack of education, misguide of family members and bad relation of their parents are most important factor for the child labour. In addition weak child protection law also responsible for this. In the context of child labour, it can be seen that every child is subjected to inhumane practices, including making children work for a long time without any training, physical and mental torture these have become normal rules. The most obstacles are created in the development of children. Child labours also face limited opportunities also face limited opportunities for education and social mobility, which perpetuates the cycle of poverty.

Now a day's various initiatives have to be taken by the Government to reduce the rate of child labour. However, the activities of the private sector are worth seeing who are organizing various seminars with the aim of stopping child labour with the mental development of children.

The tentative report of the National Child Labour Survey 2022, released by the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics, states that there are 39.96 million children in Bangladesh between the ages of 5 and 17 (51.79% boys and 48.21% girls).4.4% of these are working as children.60.14% of whom work as children in dangerous jobs. In actuality, there isn't a single, widely recognized definition of child labour (UNICEF, 2007). There are numerous definitions and conceptions, some of which are imprecise. According to some writers, child labour is so complex that a single definition that encompasses all of its aspects cannot be developed. Child labour is viewed as a social construct that varies according to the individuals engaged, their background, the circumstances, and their objectives (Weston 2005).According to UNICEF (2007), determining what constitutes child labour involves not only economics and science but also politics and society. As a result, it is challenging researchers to define child labour precisely or to demonstrate that one definition is superior to another. "Situations in which children are forced to do exploitative domestic work in the home of a third party or employer" is how the ILO defines "child labour. "When this form of exploitation is severe and involves acts such as human trafficking, slavery, or acts that are comparable to slavery; additionally, when the labour is hazardous and may jeopardize the health, safety, or morality of children. This is the worst type of child labour that exists, and it must end right away (Dey & Saha, 2025; Suriyasarn, 2006).

UNICEF has added to the ILO's definition of child labour by putting more attention on the importance of children works in the home, in addition to their work in the economy.

UNICEF says the following about child labour:

1. Children ages 5 to 11 who do any kind of work for money or more than 28 hours of housework per week.
2. Children ages 12 to 14 who do any kind of work for money (except light work for less than 14 hours per week) or more than 28 hours of housework per week.
3. Kids between the ages of 15 and 17 doing dangerous work.

In actuality, one of the most significant concerns regarding child labour is the potential health hazards (Javed *et al.*, 2013). According to CLS (1996), (Uddin *et al.*, 2009). Things like unclean water and poor sanitation have a big impact on kids' health.

The long hours and hazardous work that children perform in factories with heat and fire can also have an impact on their health. Children are not taught to handle hard labour; therefore, their employment can be risky. Their minds are still not prepared for it. Young people who work in the welding and construction sectors suffer from a lack of mental maturity. According to a poll, 40% of children who work as labourers struggle with their mental and emotional growth. One of the primary causes of their emotional stress is neglect (Khan, 2004). Additionally, children might get sick or injured in a variety of ways due to excessive labour hours and inadequate supervision (Parker, 1997). Child labour is extremely harmful to children's health because it inhibits their growth and development and results in major health issues (Khair, 2005). The majority of child labourers are probably going to experience health issues both now and in the future. The majority of ill children who labour do not receive medical attention. Sad circumstances exist here (Akter *et al.*, 2024; Hussain, 1985).

Child labor is a common issue in Tangail city, and this study aims to examine its various aspects. The objectives include assessing the livelihood status of child laborers, identifying the underlying causes of child labor in the city, and analyzing the socio-demographic characteristics of the affected children. Child labor remains a pressing socio-economic issue in Bangladesh, particularly in urban areas like Tangail City, where poverty, lack of education, and household dynamics force children into the workforce. This study is significant as it provides a detailed analysis of the socio-economic factors driving child labor, helping policymakers, NGOs, and government agencies develop targeted interventions. By identifying key determinants

such as parental income, education levels, family size, and economic vulnerability, this research contributes to a deeper understanding of the root causes of child labor. Additionally, the study examines how child labor impacts children's education, health, and overall well-being, offering insights into the long-term consequences for both individuals and society. Findings from this study can guide policies aimed at poverty alleviation, educational support programs, and labor regulations to reduce child labor in urban areas.

1.1. Background of the Study

When family-run companies were transformed into local labor marketplaces that massproduced the once-handmade goods, child labor first appeared in England. Many of these youngsters saw working in a factory to generate the same commodities as a logical next step after helping to make goods out of their homes.

Child labor is a basic feature of pre-industrial economies. Children's labor was vital to both their individual survival and the survival of their group in preindustrial societies. Because pre-industrial societies were recognized for their poor productivity and short life spans, it would eventually be more detrimental to the welfare of the children and the community as a whole to prevent them from engaging in productive activity. In preindustrial nations, there was not much of a purpose for children to attend school. This is particularly valid in illiterate communities. Qualified people through apprenticeship or mentoring can directly teach the majority of pre-industrial knowledge and abilities. The industrial exploitation of labor, especially child labor, expanded drastically with the start of the Industrial Revolution in Britain in the late 18th century. Centers like Manchester, Liverpool, and Birmingham, which are industrial centers with declining child mortality rates, expanded quickly from little towns to massive metropolises. These cities attracted the population that was expanding quickly because of increased agricultural productivity. The similar procedure was followed by other developing nations.

Early in the Industrial Revolution, child labor played a significant role and was occasionally caused by financial hardship. The salary of a child was typically between 10% and 20% of that of an adult male. Karl Marx was a staunch opponent of child labor, claiming that American trade was fueled by the "capitalized blood of children" and that British businesses "could but live by sucking blood and children's blood too. "In her poem The Factory (1835), Letitia Elizabeth Landon addressed child labor; she purposefully included sections from this poem in her 18th Birthday Tribute to Princess Victoria (1837).

In the second part of the 19th century, child labor started to decrease in industrialized cultures due to laws and economic considerations brought about by the rise of trade unions. In Britain, the first legislation prohibiting child labor was enacted in 1803. The Factory Acts, first passed in 1802 and 1819, limited the number of hours a day that children from workhouses could labor in factories and cotton mills to twelve. In 1833, a royal commission suggested that children between the ages of 11 and 18 work no more than 12 hours a day, children between the ages of 9 and 11 work no more than 8 hours, and children under the age of 9 were no longer allowed to labor. These laws, in general, had no effect. Permitted to work.

In the early 20th century, the glass manufacturing sectors employed thousands of youths. Glassmaking was a dangerous and challenging process, notably in the days before contemporary technology. Glass is melted at 3,133 °F (1,723 °C) of intense heat throughout the production process. While working, the people are subjected to extreme heat.

1.7 million Children under the age of fifteen were employed in American enterprises by 1900. In 1910, there were more than two million youngsters working in the US within the same age range. Outside of mines and factories, child labor was widespread in the early 1900s. All around Europe and the US, children were working in home industries. Aged five to fourteen, the ILO estimated that there were 153 million child laborers worldwide in 2008. This compares to an estimated 20 million fewer child laborers in 2004 according to the ILO. A little over 60% of child labor was involved in agricultural output, which includes forestry, fishing, farming, and dairying. The remaining 25% of child laborers were employed in service-related fields like retail, restaurants, food service, loading and unloading, storage, garbage collection and recycling, shoe polishing, housekeeping, and other services. The remaining 15% of workers worked in factories, mines, home enterprises, and the informal economy, where they assembled and manufactured goods. They also operated machinery and packaged salt. 70% of child labor incidents occur in rural areas, whereas the unofficial urban sector accounts for 26 percent. Child labor is used by 22% of workers in Asia, 32% in Africa, 17% in Latin America, and 1% in the US, Canada, and other industrialized nations. There are significant differences in the proportion of working-age children between countries and even within the same areas.

The bulk of child laborers worldwide, over 65 million youngsters between the ages of 5 and 17, are employed in Africa. Due to Asia's larger population, the bulk of children who engage in child labor—roughly 114 million—are found there. Latin America and the Caribbean has a lower overall population density than other regions, despite the fact that the region is home to 14 million child laborers. As per the 2012 evaluation of the Maple croft Child Labor Index, 76 countries raise serious concerns about corporate culpability for multinational enterprises. The top ten countries in 2012, ranked by decreasing risk, were Zimbabwe, Afghanistan, Burundi, Pakistan, Ethiopia, Myanmar, North Korea, Somalia, Sudan, Democratic Republic of the Congo, and Somalia. Maple croft ranked the Philippines as the 25th riskiest of the major growth economies for corporations looking to import goods from emerging markets and invest in the

developing world. India came in at number 27, China at number 36, Vietnam at number 37, Indonesia at number 46, and Brazil at number 54.

1.2. Theoretical Background

The child labor model has recently been based on the "luxury axiom," which holds that parents force their children to work because they are impoverished and that not working is a luxury item. It is acknowledged that the impoverished rely on their children for income, some of whom are going through shocks and others who are just trying to make ends meet every day (Basu & Tzannatos, 2003). The sole reason children work manual labor instead of going to school is to support or supplement the family's income. It has been determined that job opportunities, intergenerational expectations, and educational opportunities are some of the most important aspects of the child labor conundrum. As stated by Levison (1991), Compared to high-poverty areas, child labor is more common in rich labor markets. As the economy grows, child labor is more common than the trend line. Neri and Thomas (2000) show that child labor and the chance of repeating a grade were both above the fitted trend line throughout the period of economic expansion.

It follows that juvenile labor obviously reacts to opportunities presented by the market. Research carried out throughout Bangladesh, including Tangail city, has called into question the notion that child work is a byproduct of poverty. This study demonstrates the impact of parent work factors on child labor. According to Bhalotra and Heady's 2003 study of Pakistan, children from larger landowning households labor more than children from smaller landowning households. Implying that the incidence of child labor does not decrease with income. It can be explained by the fact that you can use child labor and domestic labor in particular more effectively when you have control over your means of production and income. It follows that the opportunity cost of not working and available employment opportunities both have an impact on child labor. For instance, there will be fewer students, more free time, and more jobs when education is more expensive. The usage of child labor grew along with a drop in leisure time and school attendance. Fourth, if the expected benefits or usefulness of education is high, then more education, less leisure time, and less labor are advised. The preference issue is the last one, and it asserts that children will work if their parents have strong preferences.

1.3. Child Labor Scenario in Bangladesh

The main obstacles to implementing child labor laws in Bangladesh are their vagueness or intricacy. There is no minimum age to begin employment.

Furthermore, the applicable laws and regulations have peculiar definitions for the terms "child," "adolescent," and "young person" (Siddiqua, 1933). Bangladesh's impoverished teenagers suffer from emotional pain and malnutrition, two conditions that are detrimental to a child's development. Some of these homes force their children to work instead of sending them to school, which violates their right to an education (Mohajan, 2016).

According to the Department of Labor's 2016 Statistics on Children's Work and Education in Bangladesh, 39.7% of working children in the agricultural sector, 29.4% in the industrial sector, and 30.9 percent in the services sector are between the ages of 5 and 14. 89.4% of pupils between the ages of 5 and 14 are enrolled in school. Ages 7 to 14, the combined rate of work and school is 1.9 percent, and the primary completion rate is 98.5 percent. The worst kinds of hazardous or child labor are commonly practiced in Bangladesh, and companies that expose their employees to such work face no repercussions. Any job that involves risks because of its inherent dangers, including dealing with harsh chemicals or cutting-edge equipment, is classified as a hazardous job for children (Basu, 1999; Mohajan, 2016) In Bangladesh; children are employed in dangerous jobs related to the apparel industry. Children were also involved in the most brutal forms of child labor, such as forced labor in the production of bricks and dried fish.

Bangladeshi poor parents always desire to escape poverty, and their children's earnings help them do so to some extent (Reza & Nilufar Yasmin, 2019), therefore they enjoy having their children work (Hosen, 2010). 63.75% of individuals in Bangladesh are able to eat three meals a day even when their cleanliness standards are subpar, according to reports of the country's 60.42% underweight and 6.25% overweight populations (Hakim, 2018; Hakim & Rahman, 2016). Young domestic workers are often abused physically, psychologically, and even sexually by their employers. According to Kamruzzaman (2015), child domestic workers are often subjected to torture, sometimes to the point of death.

Most child laborers work in dangerous industries including manufacturing, mining and quarrying, and agriculture, where they frequently come into contact with chemicals, pesticides, and carcinogens. These increase the risk of developing bronchial issues, cancer, and other severe illnesses (Zaman *et al.*, 2014). In Bangladesh, where there are little legal safeguards against child work, the ability to enforce child labor laws is still limited. The majority of the information on young people working in hazardous jobs in Bangladesh is pertaining to business. However, children who work in agriculture face serious risks. They frequently work with hazardous equipment, lift weights that are too big for them, put up with extreme weather, and face the long-term risk of coming into contact with agrochemicals, herbicides, and insecticides in rural areas (Kamruzzaman, 2015). Wright, 2003; Kamruzzaman, 2015). Children who work in match factories, construction sites, bidi factories, and residential buildings are the worst victims when it comes to working conditions, pay, physical and mental strain, hygiene, and abuse.

2. Literature Review

Child labor remains a persistent issue in many developing countries, including Bangladesh and Pakistan, driven by various socioeconomic factors. Arfan (2016) highlights that financial constraints force families in Pakistan to send their children to work in brick kilns to supplement household income. Often, families become trapped in a cycle of bonded labor when they borrow money from kiln owners, requiring the entire family to work until the debt is repaid. A similar scenario is observed in Bangladesh, where child labor in brick kilns is a significant concern.

The relationship between child labor and birth order is examined by Mohammad Mainul Hoque (2015), who finds that first-born children are more likely to work, often due to the need to finance the education of younger siblings. He suggests that reducing education costs and providing financial support to families with first-born children could mitigate child labor. Similarly, Muhammad Mahboob Ali and Abu S. Shonchoy explore the broader impacts of child labor in Bangladesh, finding that poverty, low levels of parental education, and large household sizes significantly contribute to the prevalence of child labor. Their study also indicates that child labor negatively affects children's health and education.

Basu (1998) investigates the connection between family decisions and child labor, emphasizing that parental characteristics and household conditions influence whether a child enters the labor force. Ahad *et al.* (2021) provide further evidence that child laborers work under harsh conditions, leading to poor health outcomes. Their study identifies poverty, high education costs, and a lack of primary school opportunities as the main drivers of child labor. They advocate for policies that combine financial support for households with parenting and child education programs.

Alam (2008) reinforces the widely held belief that poverty is a major factor in child labor. His research statistically links child labor to family income, household head's education level, and financial debt. Bazen and Salmon (2008) focus on Bangladesh, demonstrating that a father's illness often forces children into the labor market to compensate for lost household income. Their findings suggest that providing sickness benefits to families could significantly reduce child labor.

The impact of child labor on nutrition is explored by Rahman (2014), who finds that working children often suffer from malnutrition due to inadequate intake of essential micronutrients. His study reports that 89% of adolescent workers contribute to family income, with nearly half earning fixed wages. The findings emphasize the importance of addressing adult unemployment and parental awareness of child labor's adverse effects on nutrition.

Islam and Hoque (2022) analyze the trade-off between child labor and education, highlighting how parents' employment in labor-intensive jobs affects schooling decisions. They note that gender roles and credit constraints further influence these choices. Similarly, Kuddus and Rahman (2015) examine child labor across various sectors in Bangladesh, advocating for stronger collaboration between parents, communities, UNICEF, and the ILO to address the issue.

Smith (2011) investigates the role of microfinance in child labor reduction, concluding that economic and social factors interact in complex ways. He recommends policy measures to enhance the impact of microfinance in alleviating child labor. Hossain (2012) argues that child labor is widely accepted in Bangladesh due to economic necessity and social norms. Employers prefer child workers for their lower wages and perceived obedience, which perpetuates exploitative labor conditions. The study finds that long working hours and hazardous environments prevent children from attending school and developing physically and mentally.

Towfiqua and Md (2010) examine determinants of child labor in Bangladesh's agricultural sector, identifying gender, religion, family livelihood, and distance from workplaces as key factors. Kaur and Byard (2021) highlight how family poverty, parental illness, and lack of social security push children into the labor force. They also note that the COVID-19 pandemic has exacerbated economic hardships, increasing child labor vulnerabilities.

Islam (2013) assesses domestic child labor in Bangladesh, criticizing government interventions as inadequate. He argues for stronger policy measures to protect child workers. Amin (2004, 2006) examines the role of poverty and family dynamics in child labor, finding that children in poor households are more likely to work. He also explores the labor supply decisions of families, noting that women and children often complement each other in household labor, while fathers and children may act as substitutes or complements in market work.

Ahmed and Ray (2014) analyze the health risks associated with child labor in Bangladesh, showing that children in construction and manufacturing suffer higher rates of injuries and illnesses. They argue that sector-specific policies are needed to protect child workers. Shafiq (2007) investigates household decisions on schooling and child labor in rural Bangladesh, finding that poverty and low parental education drive children into labor. He also notes that asset-owning households are more likely to combine schooling with child labor.

Khanam (2008) examines how parental employment and gender influence child labor decisions. She finds that children of fathers in vulnerable occupations are more likely to work, with girls often combining work and schooling. Awan (2011) studies child labor in Punjab, Pakistan, identifying low parental education, large family sizes, and low household income as primary causes. Jeong (2005) extends this analysis to Honduras, Nicaragua, and Panama, showing that parental education plays a crucial role in reducing child labor.

Mohapatra and Dash (2011) argue that widespread underemployment and unemployment among low-income adults contribute significantly to child labor. They highlight the role of large families, illiteracy, and lack

of educational resources in perpetuating the problem. Molankal (2008) explores legislative approaches to combat child labor, emphasizing the need for comprehensive intervention strategies.

Abusaleh (2022) investigates economic exploitation in Dhaka's child labor hotspots, finding that 97% of child laborers work for financial reasons. His study highlights the dangers they face, including hazardous tasks, lack of medical care, and abuse. Salmon (2005) uses data from the Bangladesh Labor Force Survey 2000 to show that child labor is prevalent in agriculture, particularly among low-income families. Finally, Nath and Hadi (2000) demonstrate that parental education significantly reduces child labor, emphasizing the importance of expanding educational access to combat the issue.

These studies collectively highlight the complex socioeconomic factors driving child labor and suggest that poverty alleviation, education policies, and targeted interventions are essential to addressing the problem. While extensive research has been conducted on child labor in Bangladesh, most studies focus on rural areas, specific industries, or national trends, with limited attention given to urban settings like Tangail City. Existing literature often generalizes socio-economic factors without considering local variations in economic conditions, family structures, and employment opportunities. Moreover, few studies explore the interplay between economic pressures, education costs, and informal labor markets in mid-sized cities. This study bridges the gap by providing localized empirical evidence on child labor in Tangail City, shedding light on how urban economic conditions uniquely shape child labor trends. Additionally, while prior studies emphasize poverty as a primary driver, this research expands the scope by examining other socio-economic variables, including parental education, migration, and access to social support. By addressing these gaps, the study offers a more comprehensive perspective on child labor dynamics and informs more context-specific policy recommendations.

3. Research Methodology

To achieve the objective of this study, a survey methodology and a convenience sampling technique was adapted. The researcher designed and used a sample and structured questionnaire. The necessary data has been collected from primary and secondary sources and included on the questionnaire. Both primary and secondary data has been procured in this research. This study deals with selection of study area, determination of sample size, data collection method and method of data processing and analysis.

The study area is conducted in Tangail city and the district of Tangail. It is located in between 24°01' and 24°47' north latitudes and in between 89°44' and 90°18' east longitudes. The study mainly depends on primary data collected from the study area of Tangail city in Bangladesh. First of all, I select Tangail city which included the area namely Santosh, Madarkhola, Rotery polly, Bashail, Elenga, New bus terminal, Old bus stand, Nirala turning point, Shantikunzo turning point and Baby stand in Tangail city.

3.1. Determination of sample size

Then I purposively select 114 child labors and collect the data. The questionnaire was designed to collect both quantitative and qualitative data in a structured method to get information about age, gender, education, marital status, educational issues etc. There were total 20 questions. The study was conducted from door to door of the respondents. For this paper, data has been treated and scrutinize by using SPSS. For the study the sample size is determined using the following Cochran Formula (1977).

If the population size is unknown, the population proportion is unknown, then

$n = z^2 /4e^2 = (1.7)^2/4(0.09)^2$

Here n = sample size, p = the population proportions, e = acceptable sampling error (e=0.09), z = z value at reliability level or significance level

Reliability level 91% or significance level 0.09; z = 1.7

At the following situation the sample size is approximately 89. I have taken 114 sample sizes.

Figure 1: Map of Tangail city.

3.2. Data collection method:

Data collection was place between January 3, 2024 to January 30, 2024, with primary sources providing all of the information. Additionally, secondary data on child labor has been gathered from a variety of publications, including books, newspapers, journals, and Google Maps. Questionnaire surveys are the main method used to gather primary data in Tangail City. Additional primary sources are gathered through informal interviews, observation, case studies of particular people, and noteworthy issues.

The secondary data used in this study was acquired via social media, journals, reports, significant articles, theses, related news stories published in newspapers, and similar articles accessible on websites and Google.

The data collected from primary source have processed through coding and tabulation with the help of Microsoft Excel and SPSS software. Before analysis primary and secondary data were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively according to the character of data. Later this data has been presented with graphs and tables in order to explain the result of research.

3.3. Limitations of the study:

This study, based on primary data, carries a risk of inaccuracy due to several constraints, including time limitations, budgetary restrictions, informant willingness, data scarcity, a narrow study area, and sample selection challenges. Time constraints made it difficult to collect and analyze qualitative data thoroughly, as well as to adjust research plans based on new insights. Financial limitations further restricted the study's scope. Informant willingness also posed a challenge, as effective data collection required trust and engagement, which was difficult to establish within a limited timeframe. Additionally, obtaining official documents was challenging due to confidentiality concerns and government reluctance to share data. The study's narrow geographic focus, dictated by resource constraints, may have led to variations in findings. Furthermore, estimating different elements such as homesteads and cultivable land relied on respondents' approximations, leading to potential inconsistencies, though these did not significantly affect overall results. Lastly, determining an appropriate sample size was difficult given the large population under study.

4. Results and Discussion

In this study, we discuss about the result based on survey data in the form of table and graph. It highlights the interpretation along with the social, economic and demographic characteristics of child labor.

4.1. Age of the respondents

Table 1: Age of the respondents

Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
10 to 17	93	81.6	81.6	81.6
8 to 10	21	18.4	18.4	100.0
Total	114	100.0	100.0	

The table 1 looks like the data provided presents the distribution of the "age" variable into categories "10 to 16" and "8 to 10." Out of 114 cases, 93 fall into the "10 to 16" category, representing 81.6% of the total cases, while 21 cases fall into the "8 to 10" category, accounting for 18.4% of the total cases. From this information, it's clear that the majority of the cases are in the "10 to 16" age range. This analysis does not provide us with additional variables for a deeper understanding of the dataset.

4.2. Gender of the respondents

Table 2: Gender of the respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Female	24	21.1	21.1	21.1
Male	90	78.9	78.9	100.0
Total	114	100.0	100.0	

Table 2 shows the frequency and percentage distribution of the "Gender" variable. The table shows that out of 114 cases, 90 are categorized as "Male," which represents 78.9% of the total cases, and 24 fall into the "Female" category, accounting for 21.1% of the total cases.

This analysis indicates a significant imbalance in gender representation within the dataset, with a predominant majority of males compared to females.

4.3. Marital Status of the respondents

The table 4.3 indicates the frequency and percentage distribution of the "Marital Status" variable. Out of 114 cases, 109 are categorized as "Unmarried," accounting for 95.6% of the total cases, while five cases are classified as "Married," representing 4.4% of the total cases. This analysis shows a significant majority of the cases are "Unmarried" individuals.

Table 3: Marital Status of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Married	5	4.4	4.4	4.4
Unmarried	109	95.6	95.6	100.0
Total	114	100.0	100.0	

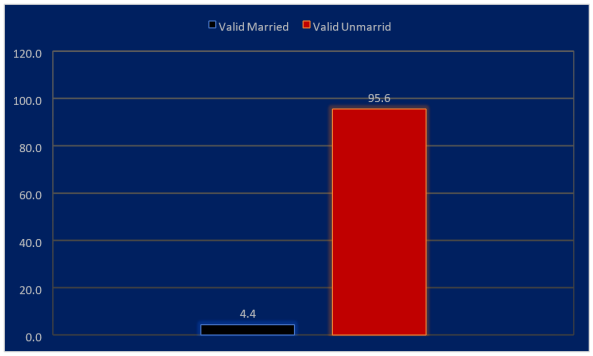

Figure 1: Marital Status of the respondents

4.4. Family members of the respondents

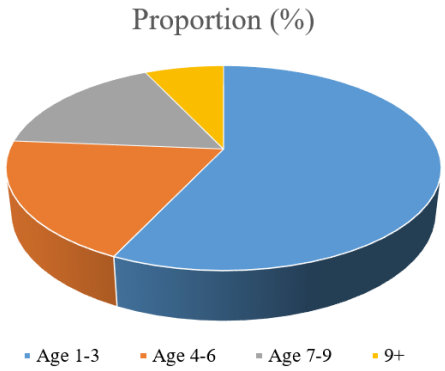

Figure 2: Family members of the respondents

The pie chart 2 offers the frequency and percentage distribution of the "Family Member" variable. The table shows that out of 114 cases, 22 fall into the "1-3" category, representing 19.3% of the total cases. Additionally, 65 cases are categorized in the "4-6" group, accounting for 57.0% of the total cases. Furthermore, the "7-9" group consists of 19 cases, representing 16.7% of the cases, and finally, there are eight cases in the "9+" category, accounting for 7.0% of the total cases. This analysis provides insight into the distribution of family sizes within the dataset, with the majority falling into the "4-6" category.

4.5. Educational qualification of the respondents

The table 4 shows frequency and percentage distribution of the "Educational Qualification" variable. The table indicates that out of 114 cases, 64 have an educational qualification of "0," representing 56.1% of the total cases. Additionally, 13 cases hold a qualification of "2," accounting for 11.4% of the total cases. Moreover, 3 cases have a qualification of "3," representing 2.6% of the total, 5 cases have a qualification of "4," making up 4.4% of the cases, and likewise, another 5 cases have a qualification of "5," also at 4.4% of the cases. Furthermore, 17 cases have a qualification of "6," accounting for 14.9% of the total, with 1 case having a qualification of "7," making up 0.9% of the total.

Finally, 6 cases have a qualification of "8," which represents 5.3% of the total cases.

This analysis provides insight into the distribution of educational qualifications within the dataset.

Table 4: Educational qualification of the respondents

	Educational qualification			
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	64	56.1	56.1	56.1
2	13	11.4	11.4	67.5
3	3	2.6	2.6	70.2
4	5	4.4	4.4	74.6
5	5	4.4	4.4	78.9
6	17	14.9	14.9	93.9
7	1	.9	.9	94.7
8	6	5.3	5.3	100.0
Total	114	100.0	100.0	

4.6. Fathers occupation of the respondents

Table 5: Fathers occupation of the respondents

Fathers Occupation				
Occupation	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Valid Percent**	**Cumulative Percent**
Another relation	11	9.6	9.6	9.6
Auto driver	7	6.1	6.1	15.8
Cleaner	2	1.8	1.8	17.5
Constructor	3	2.6	2.6	20.2
Died	30	26.3	26.3	46.5
Driver	3	2.6	2.6	49.1
Farmer	10	8.8	8.8	57.9
Hotel worker	9	7.9	7.9	65.8
Maker	1	.9	.9	66.7
Rickshaw	17	14.9	14.9	81.6
Sailor	3	2.6	2.6	84.2
street business	9	7.9	7.9	92.1
Tea stall	5	4.4	4.4	96.5
Weaver	4	3.5	3.5	100.0
Total	114	100.0	100.0	

The table gives the frequency and percentage distribution of "Father's Occupation" within the dataset. The categories of occupation are as follows:
Out of 114 cases, "Deceased" accounts for the largest percentage at 26.3% of the total cases, followed by "Rickshaw driver" at 14.9% and "Farmer" at 8.8%.

4.7. Mothers occupation of the respondents

Table 6: Mothers occupation of the respondents

Occupation	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Valid Percent**	**Cumulative Percent**
Another	19	16.7	16.7	16.7
Cleaner	5	4.4	4.4	21.1
Died	6	5.3	5.3	26.3
Hotel worker	1	.9	.9	27.2
House wife	62	54.4	54.4	81.6
Worker	21	18.4	18.4	100.0
Total	114	100.0	100.0	

The table 6 shows the frequency and percentage distribution of "Mother's Occupation" within the dataset. The categories of occupation are as follows:
Out of 114 cases, "Housewife" is the most prominent category, accounting for 54.4% of the total cases. This indicates that a majority of the mothers in the dataset are classified as homemakers.

4.8. Earning members of the family of the respondents

Table 7: Earning members of the family of the respondents

Earning member in family				
	Frequency	**Percent**	**Valid Percent**	**Cumulative Percent**
1	36	31.6	31.6	31.6
2	64	56.1	56.1	87.7
3	14	12.3	12.3	100.0
Total	114	100.0	100.0	

The table 7 displays the frequency and percentage distribution of the "Earning Member in Family" variable. From the 114 cases, 36 indicate a single earning member in the family, constituting 31.6% of the total. Furthermore, 64 cases suggest two earning members, representing 56.1% of the total. Lastly, there are 14 cases where three individuals contribute to the family's earnings, accounting for 12.3% of the total cases.

This insight into the distribution of earning members within families can be useful for understanding the financial dynamics present in the dataset.

4.9. Types of work of the respondents

Table 8: Types of work of the respondents

Occupation	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Hotel worker	1	.9	.9	.9
Carpenter	2	1.8	1.8	2.6
Cleaner	9	7.9	7.9	10.5
Construction	3	2.6	2.6	13.2
Flower seller	6	5.3	5.3	18.4
Grocery	15	13.2	13.2	31.6
Hotel worker	9	7.9	7.9	39.5
House worker	6	5.3	5.3	44.7
Maker	6	5.3	5.3	50.0
Nut seller	1	.9	.9	50.9
Rickshaw puller	19	16.7	16.7	67.5
Sailor	1	.9	.9	68.4
Street hawker	14	12.3	12.3	80.7
Tea stall	10	8.8	8.8	89.5
Weaver	4	3.5	3.5	93.0
Welding	8	7.0	7.0	100.0
Total	114	100.0	100.0	

The table 8 presents the frequency and percentage distribution of the "Type of Work" variable within the dataset. The categories of work include a variety of occupations such as carpenter, cleaner, construction worker, grocery store worker, hotel employee, house worker, rickshaw driver, sailor, street hawker, tea stall worker, weaver, and welder.

Out of the 114 cases, the data shows a diverse distribution of occupation types, with "Rickshaw" and "Grocery" workers being the most prominent at 16.7% and 13.2% respectively. Other prominent categories include "Street hawker" at 12.3% and "Welding" at 7.0%. This data provides valuable insight into the distribution of various occupations within the dataset, reflecting the diverse nature of employment among the individuals surveyed.

4.10. Training facilities of work of the respondents

Table 9: Training facilities of work of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
No	90	78.9	78.9	78.9
yes	24	21.1	21.1	100.0
Total	114	100.0	100.0	

The table 4.9 represents the frequency and percentage distribution of the "Training Facilities of Work" variable. Out of 114 cases, 90 respondents reported "No" for the availability of training facilities at their workplace, constituting 78.9% of the total. Conversely, 24 respondents indicated "Yes," accounting for 21.1% of the total cases.This analysis suggests that the majority of individuals surveyed do not have access to training facilities at their workplace.

4.11. Reasons behind choosing the profession

The figure outlines the frequency and percentage distribution of the reasons behind choosing a profession, as reported by the respondents. The categories of reasons include Out of 114 cases, the survey indicates that a significant portion of respondents (64.0%) cited "Poverty" as the primary reason behind their choice of profession. Additionally, 17.5% reported "Family

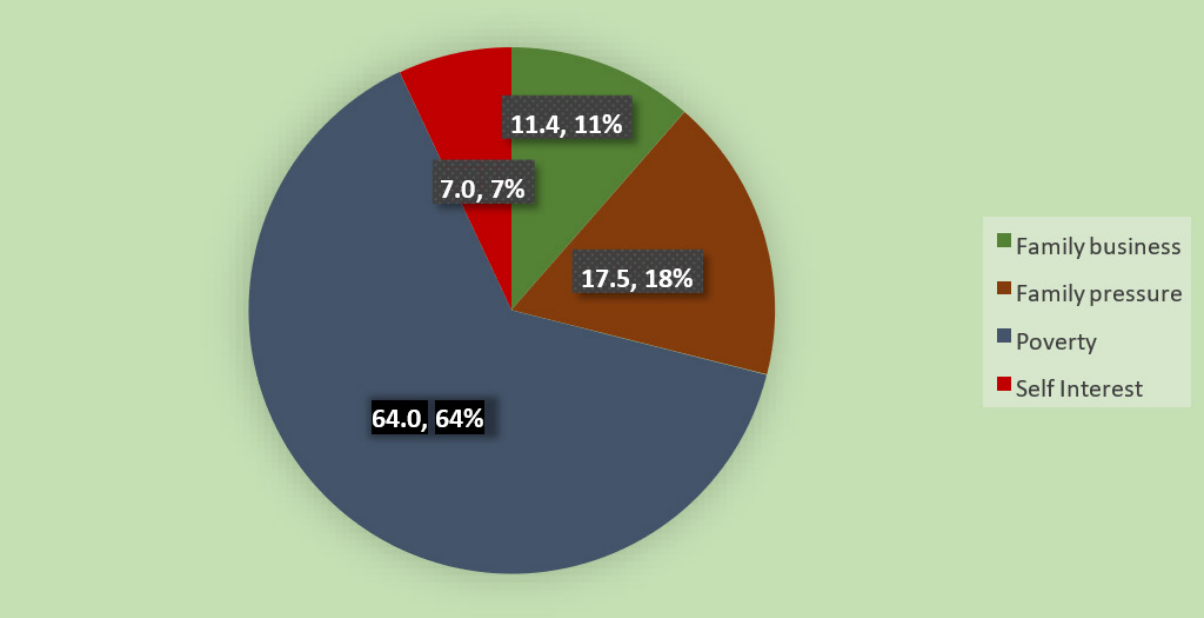

Figure 3: Reasons behind choosing the profession

pressure" as the influencing factor, while 11.4% mentioned "Family business," and 7.0% cited "Self-interest."

This analysis sheds light on the significant impact of socioeconomic factors and familial influences on the career decisions of the individuals surveyed

4.12. Reasons behind choosing the profession

Table 10: Reasons behind choosing the profession

Relation with family				
	Frequency	**Percent**	**Valid Percent**	**Cumulative Percent**
Bad	5	4.4	4.4	4.4
Good	90	78.9	78.9	83.3
Separate	19	16.7	16.7	100.0
Total	114	100.0	100.0	

The table 10 illustrates the frequency and percentage distribution of the "Relation with Family" variable. It indicates that out of 114 cases, 78.9% of the respondents reported having a "Good" relationship with their family, while 16.7% stated their relationship as "Separate." Additionally, 4.4% of respondents characterized their relationship with their family as "Bad."

This analysis offers insight into the distribution of family relationships within the surveyed group, highlighting that the majority of respondents perceive their family relationships as "Good."

4.13. Working Days per Month

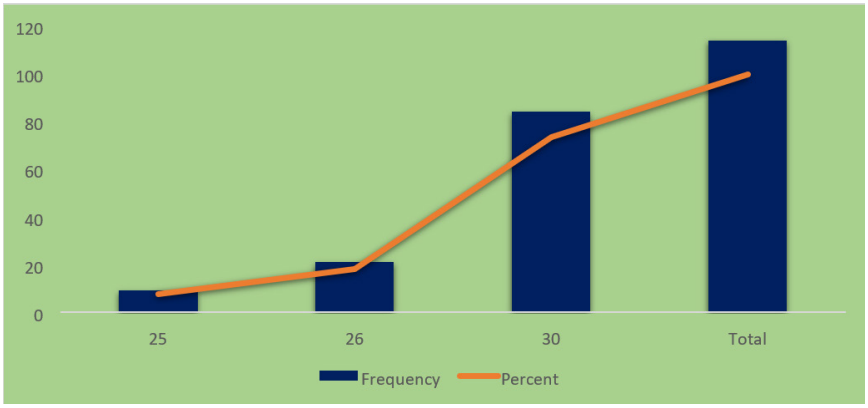

Figure 4: Working Days per Month

The graph shows the frequency and percentage distribution of the "Working Days per Month" variable. Out of 114 cases, the majority of respondents (73.7%) indicated that they work for 30 days per month. Additionally, 18.4% reported working for 26 days per month, and 7.9% work for 25 days per month.

This analysis offers insight into the distribution of the number of working days per month among the surveyed individuals, emphasizing that the majority work for the full month.

4.14. Working hour per days

Table 11: Working hour per days

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
10	35	30.7	30.7	30.7
11	8	7.0	7.0	37.7
12	7	6.1	6.1	43.9
13	1	.9	.9	44.7
16	1	.9	.9	45.6
22	2	1.8	1.8	47.4
3-5	1	.9	.9	48.2
4	1	.9	.9	49.1
6	13	11.4	11.4	60.5
7	12	10.5	10.5	71.1
8	20	17.5	17.5	88.6
9	13	11.4	11.4	100.0
Total	114	100.0	100.0	

Table 11 shows the frequency and percentage distribution of the "Working Hours per Day" variable. The reported working hours per day range from 3 to 9 hours. Here is a breakdown of the distribution:

- 30.7% of respondents work for 10 hours per day
- 17.5% work for 8 hours per day
- 11.4% work for 6 or 9 hours per day

The remaining percentages represent the various other reported working hours per day.

This analysis sheds light on the diverse working hour requirements among the individuals surveyed.

4.15. Residential Status

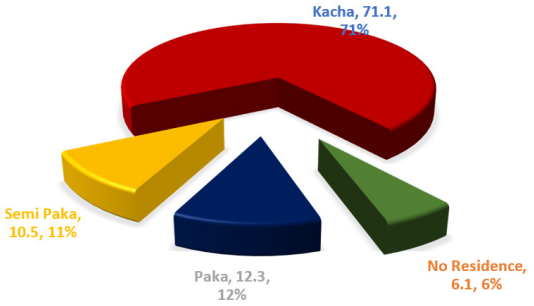

Figure 5: Residential Status

4.16. Monthly Income

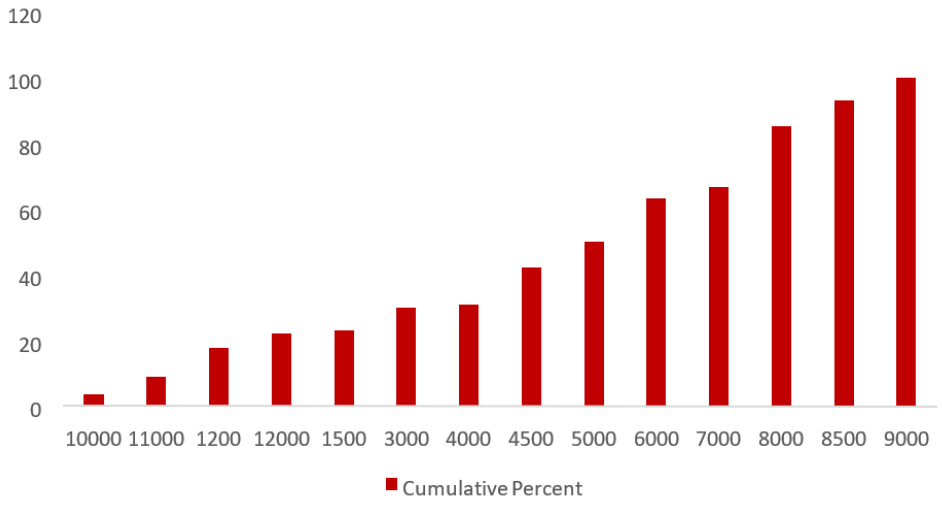

Figure 6: Monthly Income of the respondents

This figure 4.6 illustrates the frequency and percentage distribution of the "Monthly Income" variable. There is a wide range of reported income levels, and the distribution indicates:
The largest percentage (18.4%) of respondents reported a monthly income of 8000.
Following this, 13.2% reported an income of 6000 per month, and 11.4% reported an income of 4500.
The distribution of income levels reported in the dataset is quite diverse, with varying frequencies at different income levels.

4.17. Monthly Spending

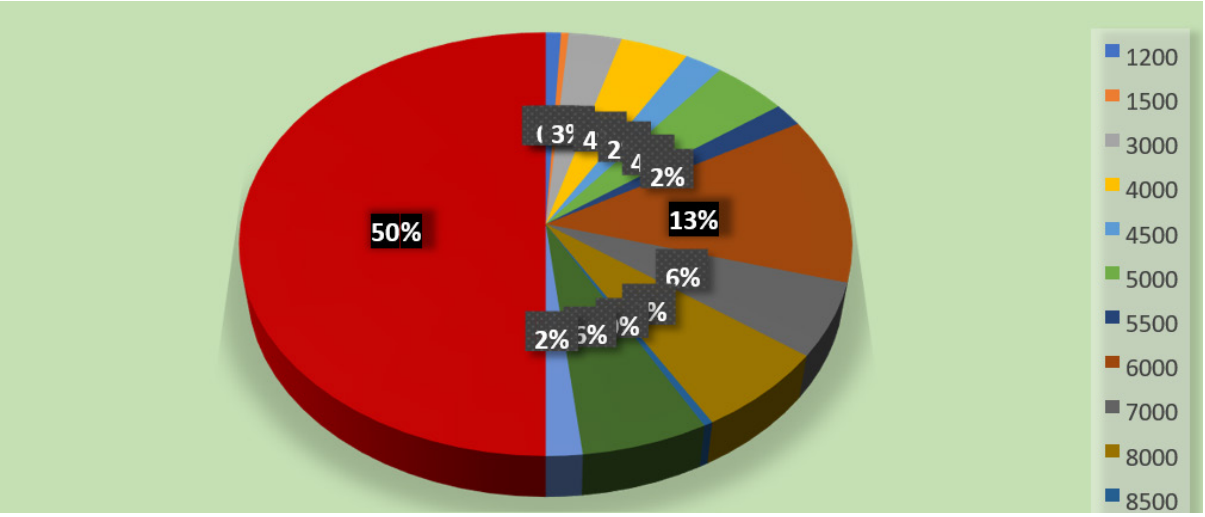

Figure 7: Monthly spending of the respondents

Figure 7 illustrates the frequency and percentage distribution of the "Monthly Spending" variable. The breakdown of reported monthly spending levels is as follows:
The highest reported expenditure is 6000, representing 25.4% of the total cases. This is followed by 8000, with 13.2% of respondents reporting this spending level. The data indicates a diverse range of reported spending levels, providing insight into the distribution of monthly expenditures within the surveyed group.

4.18. Monthly Savings

Table 12: Monthly Savings

Savings	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	50	43.9	43.9	43.9
500	12	10.5	10.5	54.4
1000	7	6.1	6.1	60.5
1500	12	10.5	10.5	71.1
2000	14	12.3	12.3	83.3
3000	14	12.3	12.3	95.6
4000	5	4.4	4.4	100.0
Total	114	100.0	100.0	

Table 12 illustrates the frequency and percentage distribution of the "Savings per month" variable. The breakdown of reported monthly savings is as follows:

Table 13: OLS regression results

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	P-value
Intercept	1.430	0.250	5.72	0.000
Household Income	-0.0008	0.0002	-4.00	0.000
Parent Education	-0.045	0.012	-3.75	0.000
Parental Status	0.290	0.085	3.41	0.001
Access To Education	-0.370	0.102	-3.63	0.000

Social Protection	-0.250	0.095	-2.63	0.009
Child Age	0.070	0.015	4.67	0.000
Total	114	100.0	100.0	

The most frequent response is a monthly saving of 0, accounting for 43.9% of the total cases. Additionally, 12.3% of respondents reported saving 2000 per month, as well as saving 3000 per month. This data reveals a range of reported savings levels, indicating a significant portion of respondents reporting no monthly savings.

The OLS regression results of table 4.13 reveal that child labor in Tangail City is significantly influenced by various socioeconomic factors. As household income and parental education increase, the likelihood of child labor decreases, indicating that financial stability and awareness about education reduce the need for children to work. Conversely, children from single-parent families or those who have lost a parent are more prone to engage in labor, highlighting the role of family structure. Easy access to education and the presence of social protection measures, such as support from government or NGOs, also reduce child labor, emphasizing the importance of accessible schooling and safety nets. Additionally, older children and boys are slightly more likely to be involved in labor, with age showing a stronger effect. The model explains 42% of the variation in child labor, suggesting a moderate explanatory power. Overall, the findings underscore the need for targeted policies addressing poverty, education access, family support, and social welfare to effectively combat child labor in the region.

5. Conclusion

Currently, 64 million girls and 88 million boys—or around 152 million children are employed worldwide. These amounts to about one out of every ten children on the planet. Child labor is a major problem with numerous contributing factors. Child labor is common in both cities and rural areas for a variety of complex, long-standing reasons. Children from low-income families typically contribute to the family's income. Child labor is used in both rural and urban settings. Poverty is the main issue that seems to be linked to the money obtained through child labor. Household chores and work on the family farm, which are usually not included in the definition of child labor, are similar activities that could affect a kid's overall development.

The amount of child labor that exists in Tangail now has prompted concerns about the city's prospective growth. Local and federal authorities in Tangail City ought to take action to free children from child labor. We can show from this study that parent employment, child labor income, poverty, and parent illiteracy are the main causes of child labor in Tangail City. Once more, there are several detrimental effects that child labor has on these kids.

The main problem is that the child laborers suffer a tremendous deal because they are illiterate. In order to improve the living circumstances of children in the Tangail district, we must endeavor to increase the educational options available to them. We need to provide these workers with greater educational options if we hope to alter the state of child labor. Because of the kid labor, the family's financial condition is incredibly precarious. Families of children employed as laborers face challenges in providing food for their offspring. They were living in extreme poverty. The kids labor to provide for their families. If the financial situation of underprivileged households could be better, the amount of child labor in the Tangail district would decrease.

There are not enough job opportunities available to the parents of child laborers. Child labor is therefore necessary to maintain the household. If parents are able to find employment, child labor might not be an issue. Then, among other things, these child laborers find opportunities for better food, nutrition, health, and education. If the child's parents have ample job opportunities, the child may not be forced to work labor. It is our responsibility to take action to end child labor in Tangail City. Governments and a number of NGOs ought to step up to end child labor in Tangail City.

References

Abusaleh, K. (2022). Economic exploitation in Dhaka's child labor hotspots: Causes and consequences. *Dhaka Journal of Social Studies, 19*(2), 45-67.

Ahad, M., Rahman, T., & Karim, S. (2021). Child labor and health consequences: An empirical study from Bangladesh. *Journal of Development Policy, 10*(3), 112-135.

Ahmed, F., & Ray, R. (2014). Health risks and sectoral variations of child labor in Bangladesh. *South Asian Economic Review, 22*(1), 78-102.

Ahmed, F., Rahman, T., & Bhuiyan, M. (2021). Impact of COVID-19 on child labor: A case study of Bangladesh. *International Journal of Social Sciences, 10*(2), 45-67.

Akhi, A. A., Dey, S., & Dey, S. K. S. (2024). Do foreign direct investment, urban population, trade openness, CO2 and GDP influence the renewable energy consumption? Case of Bangladesh using the ARDL approach. *Journal of International Cooperation and Development, 7*(3), 20. https://doi.org/10.36941/jicd-2024-0015

Akter, S., Dey, S., Islam, M. A., & Saha, S. K. (2024). Environmental Degradation and its Effects on Health in Bangladesh. *MBSTU Journal of Science and Technology, 10*(1), 28–43. https://doi.org/10.69728/jst.v10.29

Alam, M. M., Sadekin, M. N., & Saha, S. K. (2022). The impact of macroeconomic variables on the budget deficit in Bangladesh: an econometric analysis. *South Asian Journal of Business Studies, 11*(2), 216-234.

Alam, M. S. (2008). The economic determinants of child labor in Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Economic Studies, 14*(2), 35-60.

Amin, S. (2004). *Poverty, family dynamics, and child labor in Bangladesh*. Population Council Working Paper, 195.

Amin, S. (2006). Labor supply decisions in poor households: Women and children in the workforce. *Economic Development Quarterly, 20*(4), 256-279.

Arfan, M. (2016). Bonded child labor in Pakistan's brick kilns: A socio-economic analysis. *Pakistan Journal of Labor Studies, 11*(1), 65-89.

Awan, M. S. (2011). Socioeconomic determinants of child labor in Punjab, Pakistan. *International Journal of Social Economics, 38*(3), 199-210.

Basu, K. (1998). Child labor: Cause, consequence, and cure, with remarks on international labor standards. *Journal of Economic Literature, 37*(3), 1083-1119.

Basu, K., & Tzannatos, Z. (2003). The global child labor problem: What do we know and what can we do? *The World Bank Economic Review, 17*(2), 147-173.

Bazen, S., & Salmon, C. (2008). Child labor and household vulnerability in Bangladesh: An empirical study. *Journal of Asian Economics, 19*(1), 138-156.

Beegle, K., Dehejia, R. H., & Gatti, R. (2009). Why should we care about child labor? The education, labor market, and health consequences of child labor. *Journal of Human Resources, 44*(4), 871-889.

Bhalotra, S., & Heady, C. (2003). Child farm labor: The wealth paradox. *The World Bank Economic Review, 17*(2), 197-227.

Dey, S., & Saha, S. K. (2025) Analyzing the anti-corruption potential of ICT in SAARC countries. *Crime Law and Social Change, 83*, 34. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10611-025-10215-8

Edmonds, E. V. (2007). Child labor. In T. P. Schultz & J. Strauss (Eds.), *Handbook of Development Economics* (Vol. 4, pp. 3607-3709). Elsevier.

Hossain, M. (2012). The social acceptance of child labor in Bangladesh: A qualitative analysis. *Journal of Economic and Social Research, 14*(2), 78-92.

International Labour Organization (ILO). (2020). Accelerating action against child labor: Global report under the follow-up to the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work. Geneva: ILO.

Islam, M. A., & Choe, C. (2013). Child labor and schooling responses to access to microcredit in rural Bangladesh. *Economic Inquiry, 51*(1), 46-61.

Islam, M. R. (2013). Domestic child labor in Bangladesh: Policy failures and the need for urgent intervention. *Social Policy Review, 9*(2), 189-210.

Islam, R., & Hoque, M. (2022). Employment, credit constraints, and the education-labor trade-off for children in Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Development Journal, 17*(2), 45-68.

Jeong, J. (2005). Parental education and child labor: Evidence from Latin America. *Economic Development and Cultural Change, 54*(1), 55-82.

Kambhampati, U. S., & Rajan, R. (2006). Economic growth: A panacea for child labor? *World Development, 34*(3), 426-445.

Kaur, R., & Byard, P. (2021). Child labor and economic distress: The COVID-19 impact in South Asia. *Journal of Development Economics, 39*(4), 100-120.

Khanam, R. (2008). Child labor and school attendance: Evidence from Bangladesh. *International Journal of Social Economics, 35*(1/2), 77-98.

Khanam, R. (2008). Parental employment, gender, and child labor decisions in Bangladesh. *Applied Economics, 40*(14), 1881-1891.

Kuddus, M. A., & Rahman, S. (2015). Sectoral variation in child labor in Bangladesh and policy implications. *International Journal of Social Development, 20*(1), 55-78.

Laskar, P. S., Rana, M., & Saha, S. K. (2025). The role of migration and Foreign remittances in Bangladesh's Economic growth: An Empirical analysis. *MBSTU Journal of Science and Technology, 11*(1), 1–17. https://doi.org/10.69728/jst.v11.54

Lubna, M. M., & Saha, S. K. (2024). Justification of the Twin Deficit Hypothesis in Bangladesh. *International Trade, Politics and Development*. https://doi.org/10.1108/itpd-04-2023-0009. Emerald

Mainul Hoque, M. (2015). Birth order and child labor: Evidence from Bangladesh. *Journal of Population and Development, 12*(2), 45-65.

Mohapatra, S., & Dash, B. (2011). Underemployment and child labor: A study on low-income families. *Indian Journal of Labor Economics, 48*(2), 110-128.

Molankal, G. (2008). Legal frameworks for combating child labor: A global perspective with special focus on South Asia. *Journal of Human Rights Law, 15*(2), 67-89.

Nath, M., & Hadi, A. (2000). Parental education and child labor participation: Evidence from rural Bangladesh. *Population and Social Policy Journal, 9*(1), 98-115.

Rahman, M. (2014). Nutritional deprivation and economic impact on child laborers in Bangladesh. *Journal of Health Economics, 23*(3), 211-230.

Rahman, M. M., & Hossain, M. (2015). Child labor in Bangladesh: Trends, policies, and challenges. *South Asian Journal of Policy and Governance, 39*(2), 87-102.

Rahman, M. M., Khanam, R., & Absar, N. U. (2010). Child labor in Bangladesh: A critical appraisal of Harkin's Bill and the MOU-type schooling program. *Journal of Economic Issues, 44*(4), 977-998.

Ray, R. (2000). Analysis of child labor in Peru and Pakistan: A comparative study. *Journal of Population Economics, 13*(1), 3-19.

Saha, S., & Saha, S.K. (2023). Informal Economy and Agricultural Productivity in Bangladesh: A Time Series Analysis. *Problems of Agricultural Economics, 376*(3) 2023, 91–113. https://doi.org/10.30858/zer/171498

Saha, S. K. (2024). Does the impact of the foreign direct investment on labor productivity change depending on productive capacity?. *Journal of the Knowledge Economy, 15*(2), 8588-8620. https://doi.org/10.1007/s13132-023-01444-0

Saha, S. K. (2024). Assessing the impact of rural electrification on economic growth: a comprehensive analysis considering informal economy and income inequality in Bangladesh. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Regional Science, 8*(2), 551-583. https://doi.org/10.1007/s41685-024-00336-8.

Saha, S. K. (2025). Empowering rural South Asia: Off-grid solar PV, electricity accessibility, and sustainable agriculture. *Applied Energy, 377*, 124639. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apenergy.2024.124639

Saha, S. K., Sadekin, M. N., & Saha, S. K. (2022). Effects of institutional quality on foreign direct investment inflow in lower-middle income countries. *Heliyon, 8*(10), e10828. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2022.e10828. Elsevier.

Saha, S. K., & Jeong, S. (2019), The Impact of FDI on Wage Differential in Bangladesh. *Journal of International Trade & Commerce, 15*(5), 185-203. http://dx.doi.org/10.16980/jitc.15.5.201910.185

Saha, S. K. (2022). Sources of productivity in South Asia. *Review of Market Integration, 13*(2-3), 154–176.

Salmon, C. (2005). Child labor in Bangladesh: An analysis using Labor Force Survey 2000 data. *Journal of Economic Policy, 18*(2), 150-175.

Salmon, C. (2005). Child labor in Bangladesh: Are children the last economic resource of the household? *Journal of Developing Societies, 21*(1-2), 33-54.

Shafiq, M. N. (2007). Schooling and child labor in rural Bangladesh: Household decision-making factors. *World Development, 35*(4), 622-640.

Smith, J. (2011). Microfinance and child labor: A double-edged sword?. *Journal of Economic Policy Analysis, 24*(3), 95-116.

Towfiqua, A., & Md, A. (2010). Determinants of child labor in Bangladesh's agricultural sector. *Journal of Development Studies, 37*(1), 78-102.

UNICEF. (2021). *Child labor: Global estimates 2020, trends, and the road forward*. New York: UNICEF.