

Understanding Children's Economic Activities: Evidence from Financial Diaries of Cocoa Farmers in Ghana

Samuel Amponsah, Krishtee Seebaluck, Afolabi Balogun^{a,b,c}

^a*Institute for International Strategy, Tokyo International University, 4-42-31,
Higashi-Ikebukuro, Toshima-ku, 170-0013, Tokyo, Japan*

^b*Assets and Liabilities Management Analyst, SBM Bank (Mauritius) Ltd, Corporate
Office, SBM Tower, 1 Queen Elizabeth II Avenue, Port Louis, Republic of Mauritius*

^c*Department of Economics, Nigerian Army University Biu, PMB 1500, 1 Gombe
Rd, Biu, 603108, Borno, Nigeria*

Abstract

In the face of ongoing discussion on child labour, children from cocoa producing communities in West Africa are most often at the centre. This paper studies the economic activities of children using data from financial dairies of cocoa farmers in Ghana. A year long financial diaries survey was conducted for 360 households from 76 cocoa producing communities between July 2020 and February 2022. Results from our study shows that schooling holds the largest proportion of children's economic activities, followed by non-farm activities and farming activities taking the third position. Our results show a clear seasonal trend in children's work with majority of them engaging mostly in schooling between January and June, and having less schooling in July, August, September, and December. These findings highlight the significant impact of economic pressures and seasonal demands on children's work activities, labor hours, and household borrowing behaviours. In terms of hours of work, we find the highest monthly average hours of work to be about 15

hours, and it occurs between December and March.

Keywords: Child work, financial diaries, cocoa farmers, economic activities, schooling, Ghana

1 **1. Introduction**

2 Child labor continues to present a formidable challenge to global devel-
3 opment, impeding the fundamental rights of children and hindering their
4 physical, emotional, and cognitive development (ILO, 2017). Despite inter-
5 national efforts and legislative measures aimed at abolishing child labor, it
6 persists due to a confluence of economic, social, and cultural determinants
7 (Edmonds and Shrestha, 2014). To devise effective policy interventions and
8 strategies, it is imperative to comprehend the multifaceted dynamics of child
9 labor over time.

10 From a human rights perspective, child labor is unequivocally a viola-
11 tion of children’s rights as enshrined in international conventions such as the
12 United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) and vari-
13 ous International Labour Organization (ILO) conventions (UNICEF, 2020).
14 These frameworks recognize that every child has the right to be free from
15 economic exploitation, to receive an education, and to enjoy an adequate
16 standard of living. Addressing child labor through this lens emphasizes the
17 moral and legal imperative to protect children’s inherent dignity and their
18 rights to development and well-being.

19 Economically, child labor is both a consequence and a perpetuator of
20 poverty. Families in economically disadvantaged contexts may rely on their
21 children’s labor as a coping mechanism to meet basic needs (Basu and Van,

22 1998). However, this short-term solution often results in long-term socioe-
23 conomic disadvantages, as child laborers typically forgo education, limiting
24 their future employment opportunities and perpetuating cycles of poverty
25 (Beegle et al., 2009). Thus, understanding the economic underpinnings of
26 child labor is crucial for developing interventions that address not only the
27 immediate needs of families but also the structural factors contributing to
28 poverty and inequality.

29 Andvig et al. (2001) emphasize the importance of a comprehensive strat-
30 egy to address child labor, arguing that targeted approaches are insufficient
31 to tackle the complex problems linked to child labor and school attendance
32 in many African countries. They advocate for understanding child labor in
33 its totality—cultural, social, and economic—to design effective interventions.

34 Kielland and Tovo (2006), on the other hand, highlight the role of children
35 in household risk management and the need for social protection mechanisms
36 to support vulnerable children and their families. Their work underscores the
37 importance of integrating child labor issues into broader social protection
38 frameworks to ensure sustainable development and poverty alleviation.

39 All these facts indicate that without a thought, there exist a trade-off
40 between school attendance and child labor. However, in trying to provide an
41 explanation for this trade-off, studies usually relied on cross-sectional data.
42 We see this as a gap in the literature because the reliance on cross-sectional
43 data does not help us to capture to the fullest the dynamics of children ac-
44 tivities. Therefore, this study employs a financial diaries methodology to
45 elucidate the prevalence, and ramifications of child labor. Financial diaries
46 involve detailed, frequent tracking of household financial activities over an

47 extended period, providing granular insights into income flows, expenditure
48 patterns, and financial decision-making processes (Vincent and Cull, 2011).
49 This methodological approach facilitates the examination of variations and
50 trends in child labor by observing the financial behaviors and circumstances
51 of households, thereby yielding a nuanced understanding of the factors per-
52 petuating or mitigating child labor.

53 The rest of the paper is structured as follows. Section 2 discusses the lit-
54 erature review. Section 3 describes the data used in the study. The empirical
55 results is presented in Section 4, while Section 5 concludes.

56 **2. Literature Review**

57 Child labor has been an issue that gained considerable attention since the
58 early 2000s, emerging as a significant topic of discussion due to its pervasive
59 nature and the socio-economic factors that contribute to it. ILO estimates
60 that approximately 160 million children are involved in child labor world-
61 wide, underscoring the urgent need for effective intervention ILO (2021).
62 Ghana stands out in this global context, with one of the highest child labor
63 rates worldwide. Ghana Living Standards Survey (GLSS) 6 reports that ap-
64 proximately 21% of Ghanaian children are engaged in some form of labor,
65 sparking significant concerns about the impact on their well-being and future
66 prospects. Among Ghanaian children aged 5 to 14, about 10.9% participate
67 in the labor force while remaining out of school. Notably, this rate is slightly
68 higher for boys (11.2%) than girls (10.5%). Additionally, a rural-urban dis-
69 parity is evident, with rural children (15.4%) far more likely to engage in
70 labor than urban children (2.9%).

71 In Ghana, child labor spans several sectors, most prominently agricul-
72 ture, followed by services and industry. The agricultural sector alone employs
73 79.2% of child laborers aged 5 to 14, with these children involved in activi-
74 ties such as cocoa farming, livestock herding, and fishing (Pugmire, 2022).
75 Further research by the Ministry of Manpower, Youth and Employment in
76 Ghana has identified hazardous agricultural activities such as independent
77 work in the fields, use of machetes, use of pesticides, etc. FAO (2010). House-
78 hold chores also absorb a significant portion of children’s time, with 88.3%
79 of those aged 5 to 14 engaged in non-economic tasks. This participation rate
80 is even higher for girls (over 90%) than for boys (85%) (IPEC+ 2024).

81 Several studies have identified the factors contributing to child labor at
82 the individual, household, and community levels. Abebe and Fikre, 2021,
83 studying rural Ethiopia, found that female children are more likely to par-
84 ticipate in child labor than their male counterparts, highlighting gender dif-
85 ferences in labor engagement. On the household level, factors such as family
86 income, agricultural land ownership, literacy level of the household head, and
87 family size significantly influence child labor rates. Community-level influ-
88 ences include education access, government oversight, and awareness-raising
89 initiatives, which are shown to mitigate child labor prevalence.

90 Cultural factors further complicate child labor interventions. Research
91 by Takyi (2014) illustrates how cultural norms that value hard work play
92 a substantial role in sustaining child labor in Ghana, with children often
93 introduced to various work-related tasks as part of their socialization process.
94 This cultural orientation promotes a strong work ethic but also obscures the
95 line between acceptable child work and exploitative child labor, especially in

96 agricultural and household settings. Moreover, differing cultural definitions
97 of child labor across demographic groups complicate enforcement of child
98 protection measures Gamlin et al. 2015.

99 Socio-economic factors, particularly household income, are significant de-
100 terminants of child labor. A study by ILO/Internation Labour Organization
101 Global Glaship Proqramme (IPEC+) Ghana (2001) found that economic
102 hardships, exacerbated by declining household income, increase parental re-
103 liance on child labor to meet basic family needs, including educational ex-
104 penses. This economic strain has also shifted family structures, with a grow-
105 ing focus on nuclear rather than extended family networks, representing a
106 departure from traditional values emphasizing collective family support. The
107 literature establishes a strong correlation between poverty and child labor.
108 For instance, Blunch and Verner (2001) assert that poverty drives child labor,
109 a finding further explored by Maitra and Mani (2017), who examined how
110 negative income shocks compel impoverished families to depend on children's
111 earnings. Limited access to credit is another critical factor, with researchers
112 like Jacoby (1994) demonstrating that in Peru, children from poorer house-
113 holds are more likely to drop out of school than their wealthier peers. Menon
114 (2004) expanded on this issue in Pakistan, showing that while improved credit
115 access could alleviate poverty, it may not necessarily translate into better
116 educational outcomes if families prioritize investments over education. Geo-
117 graphic factors and accessibility to schools also contribute to the substitution
118 effect between schooling and child labor. Adonteng-Kissi (2018) interviews
119 with 60 rural Ghanaian families revealed that long distances between schools
120 and rural communities often lead parents to engage their children in agricul-

121 tural work instead of sending them to school. Krauss (2013) further identifies
122 geographical disparities within Ghana, where child labor is more prevalent
123 in the Northern regions, suggesting that location has a stronger impact on
124 labor participation than household welfare.

125 Economic theory offers insight into the relationship between income changes
126 and child labor. Duryea and Arends-Kuenning (2003) argue that income has
127 both an income and a substitution effect on child labor. An increase in
128 parental income may reduce child labor hours and increase schooling hours;
129 however, children whose earnings support their family's consumption may
130 work more when household income rises, reflecting the substitution effect.
131 Krauss (2013)'s study collaborated with the notion and discovered that in
132 Northern and rural Ghana, the even for petty-services, the opportunity costs
133 associated with schooling are significantly high for family engaged in sub-
134 sistence farming. Schooling is therefore viewed as a luxury rather than a
135 necessity, leading to a lower school participation. Gender differences in labor
136 participation and school participation are also evident. Wolf et al. (2016)
137 found that Ghanaian boys are more likely than girls to miss school for work,
138 underscoring how gender roles shape educational and labor outcomes in the
139 country.

140 Birth order has also shown evidence of its effect on child labor. Seid and
141 Gurmu (2015) found that lower birth order correlates with decreased labor
142 participation, though a reduction in child labor does not necessarily result in
143 increased school attendance. Furthermore, the relationship between child la-
144 bor and broader economic factors such as unemployment has garnered schol-
145 arly attention. Using autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) bound testing,

146 Shahateet (2022) examined child labor’s impact on unemployment in Jordan
147 from 1993 to 2018, finding a significant relationship between child labor and
148 unemployment but little correlation with overall labor force participation.
149 To conclude, the literature reveals a complex interplay of factors that drive
150 child labor, ranging from individual characteristics and household economics
151 to cultural norms and community influences. In addition to that, in Ghana,
152 socio-economic constraints, educational barriers, and geographical disparities
153 exacerbate the prevalence of child labor, especially in rural areas.

154 **3. Data and Methods**

155 *3.1. Study Area*

156 This study is based on data from household survey conducted in selected
157 cocoa producing districts in Ghana with cooperation from the Economics
158 Department of the University of Ghana (see Figure 1 in Appendix A). The
159 selected districts were mostly in the southern part of the country with lati-
160 tudes $32^{\circ}12'$ and $0^{\circ}37'$, and longitudes $4^{\circ}54'$ N and $7^{\circ}10'$ N, which covers the
161 following regions: Ahafo, Ashanti, Bono Ahafo (Bono, Bono East), Central,
162 Eastern, and Western (Western North and Western South).

163 The agro-climatic conditions of the study area in Ghana include; a trop-
164 ical climate characterized by weak temperature amplitudes ranging between
165 26°C and 30°C , and high humidity that ranges between 80 percent and 90
166 percent. According to Snoeck et al. (2010), the mean annual rainfall for
167 the cocoa growing districts in Ghana ranges between 1,200 mm to 2,000
168 mm. Statistics from GCB (2022) indicate that the studied regions produced
169 about 99 percent of the total 766,977 tonnes of the annual cocoa purchased

170 in 2019/2020, with the Western region contributing 43 percent, followed by
171 the Ashanti (22 percent), Eastern (12 percent), Brong Ahafo (12 percent),
172 and Central (11 percent).

173 *3.2. Sampling Technique*

174 Our sampling selection in Ghana started from obtaining information on
175 regional and district cocoa production in the country from COCOBOD. The
176 data we obtained had information on cocoa production in the six regions
177 mentioned above and sixty-eight cocoa producing districts across Ghana.
178 Using this information, a three-stage sampling technique was employed to
179 select sample respondents for the interviews. In the initial stage, from the
180 available sixty-eight cocoa producing districts across the regions; four from
181 the Ashanti region, three from the Eastern region, three from the Brong
182 Ahafo region, and nine from the Western region were randomly selected.
183 In the second stage, we randomly selected the number of communities to be
184 studied within the district based on unequal probability sampling method. A
185 total of 76 communities were selected from the nineteen districts. In the third
186 stage, simply random sampling was employed to select respondents for the
187 interviews. Within each district, the Cocoa Health and Extension Division
188 (CHED) manager provided us complete membership lists of the cooperatives.
189 The number of farmers per community was then determined proportionally
190 to the size of the community. Under probability sampling, the simply random
191 sampling was employed to select 360 cocoa farmers from these communities.

192 4. Empirical Results

193 This section presents the empirical results for our study. We begin by
194 examining the type of economic activities undertaken by children in the cocoa
195 farming communities then we will proceed to investigate the hours of work
196 by these children, and the borrowing behaviour of their households.

197 4.1. Types of Economic activity undertaken by children:

198 The results show that schooling dominates across both age groups, ac-
199 counting for highest percentage of activities for children under 12 and below
200 with 44.03% and for children under 15 and below with 39.13%. This un-
201 derscores the importance of education in the lives of children, though the
202 slight reduction as they age indicates a potential trade-off where older chil-
203 dren prioritize work over education. This pattern underscores the compet-
204 ing demands on children's time, particularly during peak farming seasons.
205 Non- farm activities are the second highest activity for both age groups with
206 29.79% and 27.47% respectively, followed by collection. The rise in agricul-
207 tural labor and household maintenance tasks with age suggests that as chil-
208 dren mature, they are increasingly relied upon to contribute to household and
209 economic productivity. While this may be essential for family livelihoods, it
210 raises concerns about the long-term impact on educational outcomes. The
211 slight decline in non-farm activities for older children further indicates a nar-
212 rowing focus on specific labor roles.

213 The least undertaken activities are spraying pesticides (0.679% and 0.13%)
214 and harvesting(1.22% and 1.67%). When comparing children under 12 with
215 those under 15, there are notable shifts in activity distribution. Weeding,

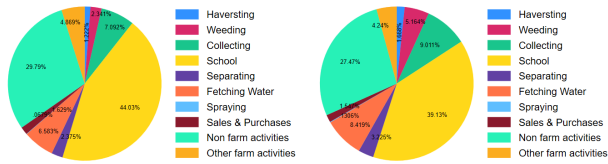


Figure 1: Types of Economic Activity Undertaken by Children

Notes: This figure plots the economic activities of children. The pie chart on the left is illustrate the economic activities of children aged 12 and below, while that of the right is for children aged 15 and below.

216 for example, increases significantly from 2.34% to 5.16%, and fetching water
 217 also rises by nearly 2%. These changes suggest that as children grow older,
 218 they take on more physically demanding tasks, particularly in agriculture
 219 and other farm related activities.

220 4.2. Economic Activities by Month

221 The seasonal patterns reflected in the pie charts show a clear and strong
 222 relationship between agricultural cycles and the allocation of children's time
 223 between farm work and schooling for both age groups. During the peak
 224 months of January, and December, a significant portion of children's time is
 225 dedicated to farm activities such as harvesting, weeding, and fetching water.
 226 These months align with critical agricultural periods, likely the planting and
 227 harvesting seasons, when the demand for labor is at its highest. As a result,
 228 children are expected to contribute substantially to their households' farming
 229 activities. The charts indicate that during these times, farm work takes up a
 230 dominant share of their time, reducing the time available for other activities,
 231 especially schooling. This suggests that economic necessity drives children's
 232 involvement in labor, highlighting the role they play in supporting household

233 survival during these key seasons.

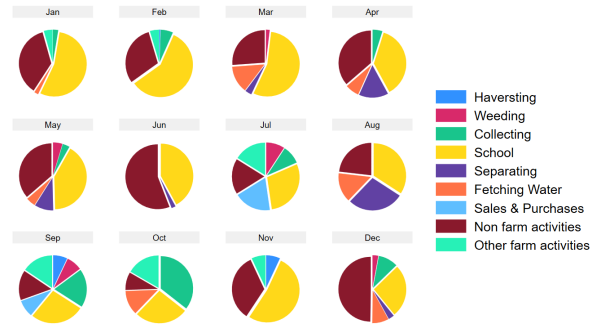


Figure 2: Monthly Economic Activities Undertaken by Children Aged 12 and Below

Notes: This figure plots the monthly economic activities of children aged 12 and below.

234 In contrast, during the months of June through August, when agricul-
235 tural activities slow down, children’s engagement in farm work significantly
236 decreases. The reduction in work hours during these months provides chil-
237 dren with more opportunities to attend school, which is reflected in the pie
238 charts by an increase in the proportion of time spent on education. How-
239 ever, despite the relative increase in schooling time during the off-season, the
240 data still shows that farm activities are a regular part of children’s routines
241 year-round. This fluctuation between high work hours and school attendance
242 demonstrates a delicate balance that children must navigate, where education
243 often takes a back seat during times of intense agricultural work.

244 This seasonal pattern underscores the economic pressures that families
245 face, where children’s labor is crucial to household income, especially during
246 the peak agricultural months. These months are not only critical for farming
247 but also coincide with times when children should ideally be focusing on their
248 education. However, the need for labor in the household often forces children

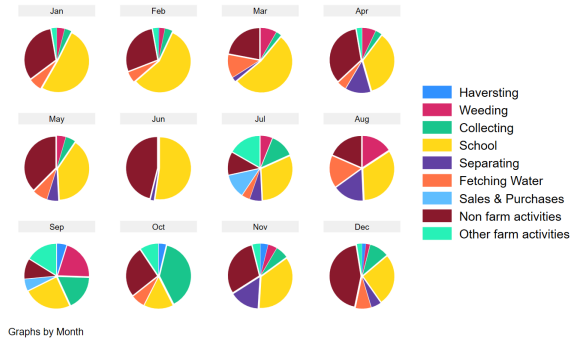


Figure 3: Monthly Economic Activities Undertaken by Children Age 15 and Below
Notes: This figure plots the monthly economic activities of children aged 15 and below.

249 to miss school, potentially affecting their long-term educational development
 250 and well-being. The seasonal nature of these activities also highlights the
 251 broader issue of child labor in agricultural economies, where children’s con-
 252 tributions are often prioritized over their education and personal growth.

253 The clear seasonal division between high work hours and schooling fur-
 254 ther points to the trade-offs that children and their families must make. The
 255 economic necessity of child labor during peak agricultural periods means that
 256 children are often pulled away from school to contribute to farming tasks,
 257 affecting their educational continuity and physical well-being. The charts
 258 indicate that, while schooling is more prevalent during the agricultural off-
 259 season, it is often insufficient to overcome the negative impacts of long work
 260 hours during peak seasons. This reinforces the need for policy interventions
 261 that can reduce the dependency on children’s labor during these periods,
 262 allowing children to pursue their education without the constant conflict
 263 between economic needs and personal development. Financial support for
 264 families or alternative income-generating activities during peak farming sea-

265 sons could help ease the burden on children and give them the opportunity
266 to balance both school and work responsibilities more effectively.

267 *4.3. Hours of Work*

268 The analysis of work hours for both age groups clearly illustrate the influ-
269 ence of seasonal agricultural cycles and the demands they place on children's
270 labor. For children aged 12 and below, the highest average work hours are
271 recorded in February, with an average of around 14 hours. This suggests that
272 February might align with a particularly labor-intensive period in the agri-
273 cultural cycle, possibly related to the peak harvesting or planting seasons.
274 The data shows a significant decrease in work hours from March to October,
275 where average hours fluctuate but generally decrease to their lowest point,
276 hovering around 8-10 hours. This decline may reflect the off-season for agri-
277 culture, where the need for labor is reduced, and children have more time for
278 other activities like schooling or rest. However, the work hours do not reach
279 zero, indicating that even in the off-season, children continue to contribute
280 to household chores or minor agricultural tasks, though at a lower intensity.

281 The significant rise in work hours during December and January, reach-
282 ing levels similar to February (around 15 hours), suggests that these months
283 coincide with another peak in agricultural activity. This seasonal fluctuation
284 reflects the cyclical nature of agricultural work, where children's labor is re-
285 quired during critical periods such as the harvest or preparation for planting,
286 aligning with the higher work hours recorded during this time.

287 For children aged 12 and above, the work hours follow a similar seasonal
288 pattern but at a slightly higher intensity. From January to February, they
289 work the most, with an average of 15 hours per week. This mirrors the pat-

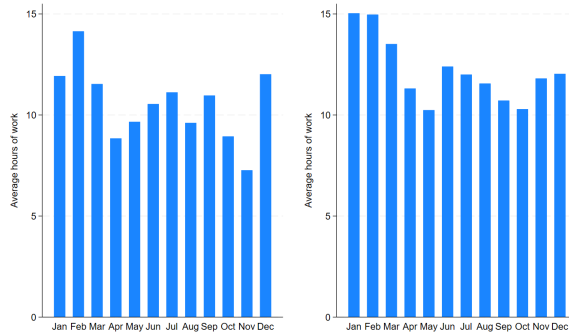


Figure 4: Monthly average hours of work by children.

Notes: The sample is divided by age status. The figure on the left is for subsample of children aged 12 and below, whilst that of the right is for those aged 15 and below.

290 tern seen in the younger age group, indicating that the agricultural season's
 291 demands are the primary factor driving these high work hours. Just like their
 292 younger counterparts, children aged 12 and above see a decline in work hours
 293 from March to October, with fluctuations but an overall drop to an average
 294 of around 10 hours. This decrease suggests that the off-season impacts both
 295 age groups, similarly, reducing the need for child labor during these months.

296 In November and December, work hours for children aged 12 and above
 297 steadily rise, mirroring the seasonal increase seen in the younger group. This
 298 rise towards 15 hours during these months signals another peak agricultural
 299 period, perhaps linked to post-harvest tasks or preparations for the upcom-
 300 ing planting season. The trend suggests that both age groups face similar
 301 seasonal demands, though children over 12 may experience slightly more re-
 302 sponsibility or have more hours allocated to their tasks.

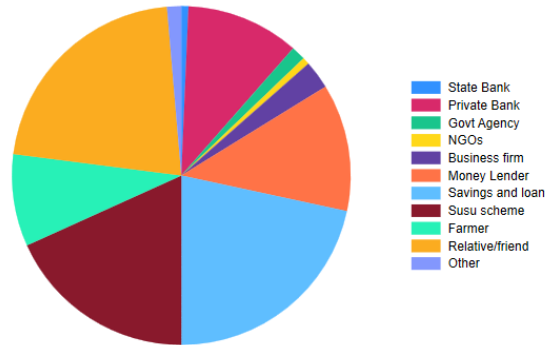


Figure 5: Sources of loan

Notes: This figure plots the sources of loan for households.

303 4.4. Loans- Sources and Purposes

304 Further analysis on the sources of loans and the purposes for which house-
 305 holds utilize borrowed funds reveals the diversity in loan sources, with state
 306 banks being the most prominent lender, accounting for the largest share of
 307 loans. This indicates a reliance on formal financial institutions for borrow-
 308 ing, likely due to accessibility or favourable terms. Private banks also play
 309 a notable role, though less significant compared to state banks, reflecting
 310 their reach in the community. Informal sources such as money lenders and
 311 relatives or friends constitute a considerable portion of borrowing, empha-
 312 sizing the role of social networks and traditional financial mechanisms in the
 313 borrowing landscape. Savings and loan groups, often community-based, pro-
 314 vide another key source, underscoring the importance of collective financial
 315 efforts. Marginal contributions from NGOs, business firms, and other minor
 316 sources suggest that these avenues are either less accessible or less preferred.

317 The second chart highlights the purposes for which households allocate
 318 their borrowed funds. Day-to-day expenses dominate, indicating that many

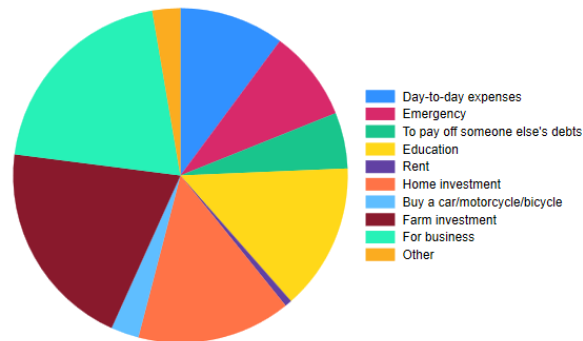


Figure 6: Purpose of loan

Notes: This figure plots the purpose of loan.

319 households rely on loans for basic subsistence rather than investment. This
 320 dependence points to economic vulnerability and an inability to meet rou-
 321 tine expenses without external financial support. Emergency expenses are
 322 the second-largest category, showing that unexpected crises frequently neces-
 323 sitate borrowing. Other significant allocations include business investments,
 324 farm-related expenses, and home improvements, indicating attempts to en-
 325 hance livelihoods or assets despite limited resources. Borrowing for education
 326 and vehicle purchases also reflects aspirations for better living standards,
 327 while smaller portions for rent and debt repayment underline the cyclical
 328 nature of financial constraints in these households.

329 The two charts collectively suggest that while households access a mix
 330 of formal and informal loan sources, their borrowing is often driven by im-
 331 mediate needs rather than long-term investment. This reliance on loans for
 332 survival and emergencies highlights the economic pressures on these house-
 333 holds, suggesting a need for financial inclusion policies that promote sustain-
 334 able income sources and reduce dependence on borrowing for basic needs.

335 5. Conclusion

336 This study highlights the significant impact of economic pressures and
337 seasonal demands on children’s work activities, labor hours, and household
338 borrowing behaviors. The data shows that children, both older and younger,
339 are involved in agricultural activities. This suggests a high dependency on
340 child work within the surveyed households, potentially due to economic ne-
341 cessity. These periods of increased labor likely conflict with schooling and
342 personal well-being, underscoring the trade-offs between economic contribu-
343 tions and children’s development. The reliance on child labor during peak
344 agricultural periods suggests that families are economically dependent on
345 children’s work to sustain household. There is a clear need for policies and
346 interventions that address the economic pressures leading to high child la-
347 bor. Providing financial support or alternative income sources during peak
348 seasons could reduce the burden on children.

349 Analysis on household borrowing patterns reveal the financial strains that
350 drive these dynamics. Loans are predominantly sourced from state and pri-
351 vate banks, with savings schemes and informal lenders also playing signif-
352 icant roles. Borrowing is largely directed toward meeting daily expenses,
353 managing emergencies, and funding farm or business investments, reflecting
354 the economic dependence on children’s labor during peak seasons. Further
355 research will needed to explore the relationship between emergency borrow-
356 ing and children’s work hours to better understand how financial pressures
357 perpetuate child labor and identify potential policy interventions.

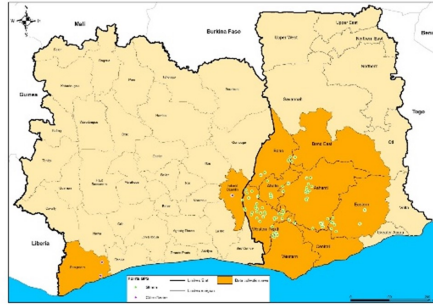


Figure A.7: Study Area in Ghana

358 **Appendix A. Appendix: Study Area in Ghana**

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