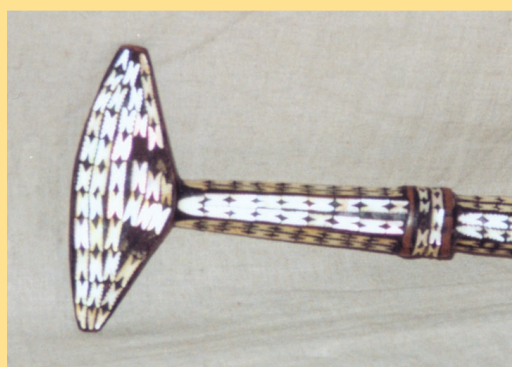




Solomon Islands

Human Development Report 2002 Building a Nation

Volume 1 Main Report



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Foreword by the Government of Solomon Islands

The Solomon Islands Human Development Report (SIHDR) 2002 is the first of its kind written and produced by Solomon Islanders themselves.

The purpose of the Solomon Islands Human Development Report 2002 is to contribute towards discussion on the efforts of individuals, households, the private sector, government, civil society as well as development partners in providing opportunities for people in Solomon Islands to achieve satisfying lives. At all levels of development the three essential capabilities are for the people to lead a long and healthy life, to be knowledgeable, and to have access to the resources needed for a decent standard of living. The report gives an overall human development status of the country. In doing so it touches on a lot of issues and development paths and options.

Furthermore, the SIHDR is aimed to be a policy-oriented document. For that reason, the preparation of the report has accommodated a high level of participation by those involved in policy formulation and the general populace, being the key focus of human development policies and strategies. Quite often, those who are involved in the implementation and the intended beneficiaries are not involved in the creation of development policies, strategies and programmes. As a result, there is a danger of not addressing the real needs of the stakeholders.

The Solomon Islands HDR 2002 provides information, ideas, guidance and possible solutions that can be used in Solomon Islands to further improve people's livelihood. The Solomon Islands HDR 2002 thus has a catalytic role. It is both analytical and prescriptive.

Given the ethnic conflict of the last few years, its main causes, and its political, social and economic consequences, national efforts now need to focus on building Solomon Islands as a nation. For this reason the theme "Building a Nation" is considered most suitable for the Solomon Islands HDR 2002.

As this is the first national human development report on Solomon Islands, it deals comprehensively with human development issues in Solomon Islands.

I wish to thank all the individuals and organizations that contributed to this report, and in particular the UNDP funded - Monitoring and Planning for Vulnerable Groups Project for compiling and producing the report.

Fred Iro Ganate
Permanent Secretary
Ministry of National Planning and Human Resource Development

Foreword by the United Nations Development Programme

Support for people-centered, equitable and sustainable development has always been an integral part of the work of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). As part of its endeavour in promoting this goal, UNDP has been commissioning annually the production of the global Human Development Report since 1990. Topics covered by the report range from improving human well-being, human capacity and quality of life, enlarging people's choices, and advocating social integration and human rights, to promoting equitable development, good governance, and sustainable social and economic development. Global HDRs also provide analysis on how to best address the challenges as well as the needs of developing nations in the current environment of globalization and information technology development, and have been useful in uncovering and re-addressing issues related to human development.

The first human development report for the Pacific was published by UNDP in 1994 subtitled "Putting People First". The second report, sub-titled "Creating Opportunity", was published in 1999. Both reports made a significant contribution towards developing human development agendas in the Pacific region. These reports provided prescriptive and challenging discussions on promoting sustainable and equitable development. Consequently a significant contribution was made towards promoting good governance, eliminating and alerting unsustainable development, and promoting people-centred development and poverty alleviation.

The Solomon Islands Human Development Report 2002 is a first for Solomon Islands. Like the global and regional HDRs, it focuses primarily on measuring and analyzing the human development situation and needs within the Solomon Islands communities. It has disclosed policy options for addressing the human development agenda for the 21st Century. It provides a benchmark analysis of the human development situation of Solomon Islands that could be of considerable importance for the Government in its effort to restore and recover from the damages of the recent past ethnic tension. I believe that the report will make a significant contribution to discussing and debating viable options towards revamping and rebuilding the Solomon Islands nation. Thus the sub-title "Building a Nation" was a self-suggesting thematic area for the report, which emphasizes the critical link between nation building and sustainable and equitable human development.

The UNDP is privileged to provide technical support to the Government of Solomon Islands in producing this thought-provoking report. I hope that the report will prove a useful tool for advocating sustainable human development and for developing policy and programmes that can assure a better future for the people of a truly happy island nation.

I warmly congratulate the contributors and the authors, who are mainly Solomon Islanders themselves, for this marvellous achievement at this difficult period of Solomon Islands history. A special thanks to the Solomon Islands Ministry of National Planning and Human Resource Development for its commitment, support and cooperation in the production of this report.

Peter Witham
Resident Representative, UNDP

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The preparation of the Solomon Islands Human Development Report (SIHDR) 2002 has been made possible by the invaluable support and contributions made by a large number of individuals and organizations, both within Solomon Islands and overseas. Their valuable contributions are sincerely acknowledged in this report.

SIHDR Process

The preparation of this report has been a wide-ranging process drawing in much local expertise. The report has incorporated the views of a wide section of Solomon Islanders from various walks of life. This was achieved in various ways. Firstly, Solomon Islanders were engaged to write background papers on important issues pertaining to human development. Secondly, provincial workshops were held to gauge the views and contributions of people in the provinces on human development issues. Thirdly, an essay competition was organised for Solomon Islands' secondary and tertiary students both within the country and overseas. The purpose of the essay competition was to obtain the views of young people in three major areas: (i) Managing our Environment, (ii) Rebuilding Solomon Islands for a Better Future and (iii) Good Governance and Peace. Fourthly, provincial governments, specialised government departments and special interest non-government organizations were invited to provide submissions on the issues of particular interest and importance. These invaluable comments have been taken into account in preparing the final report. Fifthly, brainstorming sessions were held on the type of human development needed for Solomon Islands' future and its priority areas.

SIHDR National Steering Committee

The SIHDR has been prepared under overall direction, guidance and coordination of a National Steering Committee (NSC). The NSC was chaired by Donald Kudu with membership from Haikiu Baiabe, Moses Biliki, Philip Funifaka, Donald Malasa, George Malefoasi, Denton Rarawa, Ethel Sigimanu, Belani Tekulu and David Tuhanuku.

SIHDR 2002 Core Team

The preparation of the SIHDR 2002 was carried out by a core team under the direction of the SIHDR National Steering Committee. The core team consisted of Donald Kudu (project director), Alvina Ereka, Solomon Ilala, Kassahun Mekuria, Augustine Meti, John Peter Peniop and John Rofeta (Advisor).

The following individuals were also part of the project team at the earlier stages: Ba'akai Iakoba, Betty Oti, Frank Pororara and Sam Vidanagachchi.

Contributors of Background Papers

The background papers for the report were contributed by the following persons: Obed Alemaena, Alvina Ereka, David Faradatolo, Tony Hou, Stanley Houma, Samson Maeniuta, Joe Rausi, Atabani Tahu and Junelyn Pikacha.

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Student Essay Competition

Secondary and tertiary students of Solomon Islands who participated in the essay competition provided important contributions to the report.

Secondary school students in Forms 1-3 who submitted essays included Ricky Nonorua and Jimmy Ramo, (Betikama Adventist College); Lois Ake, Mary Akwai, Wendi Beti, John Paul Nielsen, Jackson Sale, Frank Taeburi and Philma Zaku (Bishop Epalle Secondary School); Maxly Haohao (F.M. Campbell Junior High School); Gregory Suiga (Gwounatolo Community High School); James Fioru (Honiara High School); Clinton Hoasi, Kenneth Kevisi and Stephanie Sereni (King George VI Secondary School); Fredrick Kilatu (Koloale Community High School); Thomas Simon (Mbuavale Community High School); Henry Ham, Hudson Haroto, Harold Maesulia, Lenin Manubuasa and Joseph Walekwate (Su'u Secondary School); and Nezerlyn Japhlet Lucy and Obimae Salvatory (Waneagu Community High School).

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Chapter 7:

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Chapter 8:

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Abbreviations

ADB	Asian Development Bank
ARI	Acute Respiratory Infection
CBSI	Central Bank of Solomon Islands
CEMA	Commodity Export and Marketing Authority
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
DBSI	Development Bank of Solomon Islands
EU	European Union
GDI	Gender-related Development Index
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEM	Gender Empowerment Measurement
GRA	Guadalcanal Revolutionary Army
FSC	Family Support Centre
HCPI	Honiara Consumer Price Index
HDI	Human Development Index
HIS	Health Information System
HIES	Household Income & Expenditure Survey
HPI	Human Poverty Index
IFM	Isatabu Freedom Movement
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IMR	Infant Mortality Rate
MCH	Maternal and Child Care
MEF	Malaita Eagle Force
MoE	Ministry of Education
MNPHRD	Ministry of National Planning and Human Resources Development
MHMS	Ministry of Health and Medical Services
MPVG	Monitoring and Planning for Vulnerable Groups
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NPF	National Provident Fund
NNS	National Nutrition Survey
PPP	Purchasing Power Parity
RIPEL	Russell Islands Plantations Limited
SCFA	Save the Children Fund Australia
SICHE	Solomon Islands College of Higher Education
SICUL	Solomon Islands Credit Union League
SIDT	Solomon Islands Development Trust
SIPPA	Solomon Islands Planned Development Association
SISBEC	Solomon Islands Small Business Enterprises Centre
STI	Sexually Transmitted Infection
STL	Solomon Taiyo Limited
SWD	Social Welfare Division
TB	Tuberculosis
TPA	Townsville Peace Agreement

UNDP	United Nation Development Programme
UNICEF	United Nations Children’s Fund
UNFPA	United Nations Fund for Population Activity
WHO	World Health Organization
VDA	Village Development Worker

Currency

Unless otherwise stated, the currency referred to in this report is the Solomon Islands dollar.

The Framework for Human Development in Solomon Islands

Chapter 1

The Meaning of Human Development in Solomon Islands

1.1 The Concept of Human Development

'Human Development' refers to development that improves people's lives and their livelihoods and places human at the centre of all development efforts. It refers to the process of enlarging the range of people's choices – increasing their opportunities for education, health care, income and employment – and covers a full range of human choices, from a sound physical environment to economic and political freedom. It involves an accumulation of material wealth as well

The Concept of Human Development means putting people at the centre of all development efforts

as social capital. The concept of human development is designed to promote development which addresses the root causes of poverty and human deprivation.

1.2 Human as the Centre of Development

In the process of placing 'human' as the central focus of development, the Solomon Islands Human Development Report (SIHDR) looks at what shapes development goals and priorities, the need for a shift in development focus and how this is done in practice. People-centred development in Solomon Islands looks at *people* living in an *environment* of villages and towns throughout the country and earning their living by *working* through subsistence farming and fishing or in paid employment.

People

In considering the people around whom development is centred, consideration must

be taken of social conditions, living habits, history and religion that give identity to the people of Solomon Islands. Solomon Islanders have attributes which make them unique in the world and which also make them different among other Solomon Islanders. Predominantly Melanesians, Solomon Islanders are spread throughout the country in communities with a variety of cultural traditions. Solomon Islands is essentially a nation of many communities for which a shared identity as a nation has come relatively late in their history. Solomon Islanders are men, women, young people, old people, people with disabilities and people of many beliefs. Solomon Islanders have a variety of talents, education and skills and they all have contributions to make to the development of their country. Acceptance and appreciation of the diversity among Solomon Islanders are essential if they are to advance together as a nation.

Environment

The environment is where people live. Solomon Islanders are close to their natural environment and the environment shapes and transforms their livelihoods. The land tenure system, natural capital, population distribution and the pattern of settlement all impact of the environment. The health of that environment is therefore important for human development.

Work

The search for income, food, shelter, education and health for oneself and one's family is one reason why people work. It is also what causes the country to develop and is therefore a fundamental aspect of human development. Most

Solomon Islanders engaged in subsistence activities that sustain their livelihood and create self-sufficiency in supplying their daily requirements. Other Solomon Islanders work to contribute to national productivity, for economic growth and for capital accumulation now and for generations to come.

The issues of globalisation and the cash economy have provided human development with new challenges. Appropriate education and training in the formal and informal sectors are of paramount importance to human development. Skills development obtained through formal education and training is important for advancement and creating productivity in the national economy.

Work, whether in the formal, informal or subsistence sectors, is also important for human dignity. Through work we strive to achieve what we want in life – for ourselves, our family, our community and our nation.

The people/work/place relationship in a developing country such as Solomon Islands means that people will need and want to find work in gardens, farms, hunting grounds, factories, workshops and offices in a variety of places. People will need to be mobile and to communicate with each other in order to create employment that sustains human development.

People must have security of land tenure, be free to choose options, be free to express themselves politically and socially and be free to promote welfare and livelihood without fear or being suppressed. While Solomon Islands is a nation of diverse communities living in villages and towns, Solomon Islanders also need to be able to move freely from place to place seeking work. This will be come increasingly so as the nation and its economy modernizes.

1.3 The Relevance of Human Development

The concept of human development is more relevant to the country at this time than ever before. The recent ethnic tension shows that Solomon Islanders need to re-think their development strategy and focus. In the past the focus of development was biased toward achieving economic growth at all costs with little consideration given to the human dimension. This approach resulted in human dissatisfaction and destruction and created the grounds for conflict between Solomon Islanders. As important as economic growth is, it is only a means to serve human ends and must always be considered in that context.

Solomon Islands is lagging behind its regional neighbours in terms of human development indicators. The time has come when a new vision for national action and a new focus on development needs to be brought forward.

There is a fallacy in the idea that development must follow a single path and that all countries must imitate others by investing exclusively in physical capital. By focussing on the experience of others, they are forced to abandon their traditions. A human development focus means that emphasis is placed on the improvement of people's lives and the eradication of poverty while maintaining that which is unique to Solomon Islands' traditions and culture.

The relevance of human development is that it presents a new vision for global cooperation and national action, as well as addressing many development concerns of Solomon Islands. The SIDHR clearly documents the many negative impacts, inconsistencies and internal contradictions in the dominant development models that have been used over the past decades in the country. It constitutes a clear statement that we have reached a development crisis

which, if not addressed now, could be irreversible nationally and locally. The human development approach views the development of Solomon Islands from a multi-disciplinary and cross-sectoral perspective.

1.4 The Context of Sustainable Human Development

The UNDP Pacific Human Development Report 1999 defines Sustainable Human Development as the process of enlarging and sustaining the range of people's choices – increasing their opportunities for education, health care, income and employment and covering the full range of human choices, from a sound physical environment to economic and political freedom. The concept is designed to promote development which addresses the root causes of poverty and human deprivation, so that people are content with their lives, and promote the welfare of society and the country as a whole.

In Solomon Islands, the message of sustainable human development strikes a receptive and responsive chord. The concern for people and their welfare is embedded in the extended family system that is the foundation of Solomon Islands' cultures and societies. The pristine island environment, which plays a pivotal role in the lives of the people, is very fragile. Improvement in people's wellbeing and their quality of life must be the cornerstones of national development policies and strategies.

The SIHDR attempts to project the concept of development beyond the means – which is economic growth – to the ultimate end – which is ensuring and safeguarding the quality of human life. While the generation of income is important, the concept of sustainable human development stresses that it must be pursued for the benefit of people rather than people being the tools

used for income generation. The various sectors of the formal economy such as tourism, commerce, mining, fisheries, forestry, agriculture and manufacturing are important wealth and employment generators but they need to be viewed for the contributions they make to the quality of human life, not as ends in themselves.

Over the past decades of development interventions by government, growth-orientated programmes and technological strategies have focussed mainly on promoting exports, improving technology and increasing cash incomes facilitated by foreign loans, foreign aid and foreign investment. But they have not improved the real incomes of the poor in Solomon Islands. Recent population surveys have shown that while there have been improvements in health, life expectancy and primary education, there have also been increased income disparities between the rich and the poor, between genders, between urban and rural dwellers and between those living in different parts of the country. Solomon Islanders still face serious health problems and they still do not have universal access to education. Decision-making processes are severely gender-biased towards men, the wealthy, urban dwellers and people with political power or connections.

Human Development
means achieving
improvements in
people's wellbeing
& their quality of life

1.5 Poverty Reduction

While absolute poverty may not be obvious in Solomon Islands today, aspects of relative poverty are visible and on the rise. Relative poverty is where there is a marked distinction between the rich and the poor: where the resources available to the country are used to satisfy the wants of the few while the many do not even have their basic needs met. Relative poverty is essentially a social phenomenon and only secondarily a physical or material

phenomenon. To close the relative poverty gap, there needs to be a development strategy that meets basic human needs requirements. Appropriate human development meets basic human needs and enlarges people's choices and opportunities to enhance their quality of life. It allows for people to have a long and healthy life, to acquire knowledge and to have resources for a decent standard of living. The role of government in poverty reduction is in the provision of basic economic infrastructure so that the poor and disadvantaged in various parts of the country can improve their standard of living.

1.6 A Basic Needs Approach

Human development for Solomon Islands calls for a basic needs approach. To a certain extent, the basic needs approach is a refined version of a 'redistribution with growth' strategy. It calls for strategies, development plans and policies to have, as an explicit priority objective, the promotion of employment and the satisfaction of basic needs for the country's population. The basic needs identified should include two elements: (a) minimum requirements of a family for private consumption – adequate food, shelter and clothing, as well as certain household equipment and furniture, and (b) essential services provided for the community – such as safe drinking water, sanitation, public transport, health, education and cultural facilities.

This approach implies and requires the participation of the people which in turn involves a micro-project approach at the community level to maximise the participation of the people.

1.7 Appropriate Economic Development

Economic development is an important means of achieving sustainable human development. Solomon Islands must develop new export industries and

safeguard its existing economic base. However, while it is rich in natural resources, the country is in a weak economic position internationally. Solomon Islands is a price taker for all its exportable commodities. It has little or no influence over world markets as it produces relatively few goods and services and has an extremely limited local market for such products. Economic development has been hampered in the past because of an over-dependence on a narrow range of primary or only partially processed commodities for which prices have fallen dramatically in recent years. Such a dependent economy is highly vulnerable to external shocks.

In order to reverse these trends and to promote sustainable human development, there will need to be increased investment in innovative sectors of the economy with identified international and local markets. Such investment will require labour-intensive inputs as well as the development of technology and education and training appropriate to the circumstances. The purpose of this is to promote economic and political stability.

1.8 A Multi-dimensional Approach to Development

The focus of sustainable human development in Solomon Islands is to ensure that this multi-dimensional process results in the improvement of human wellbeing and quality of life of people now and for future generations. Development has to create opportunities for people to exercise choices that are important to them, including political, economic, and social freedom, the exercise of their human rights and personal self-respect and security.

To achieve equitable social outcomes, disadvantaged groups in society, including women, children, old people and the disabled, should receive special treatment, including being cared for by the



community and extended families. The churches have an important role to play in Solomon Islands' society, as they were the initiators of social services and the providers of basic services during the early missionary days. Because of the limited capacity of government in the provision of social services, churches, NGOs and the private sector will need to play an important role.

The environment for investment must be conducive, so that both local and

Human Development is about creating opportunities for people to exercise choices that are important to them

overseas investors can be trusting and confident and engage in activities that promote gainful employment. Foreign investment aimed at gainful employment and economic gain for the

country will be encouraged. Investment to advantage the few or to exploit natural and human resources should be prohibited.

Provincial governments in Solomon Islands facilitate the delivery of basic services to rural people. However they have a limited capacity to do so. The provincial service delivery system must be designed to meet the needs of people in rural areas and other communities remote from provincial capitals.

Disputes between communities in Solomon Islands are often resolved through traditional means. In the past, traditional methods of dispute resolution have delivered social harmony, tolerance, provided security for individuals and communities and improved standards of living. The present climate of social uncertainty is ideal for strengthening those communities where traditional practices have lapsed and for exploring how traditional methods of dispute resolution can be further integrated into contemporary institutions and practices of a modern society.

One of the areas that needs to be carefully examined is culture, which at times is given little attention in development planning. Although social indicators such as levels of literacy, education of women and life expectancy are featured in this Human Development Report, there has been little attempt to stress the importance of cultural indicators such as respect for elders, care for children, the importance of a variety of customs and traditions, the absence of armed violence and ethnic tolerance and acceptance. In order for human development to be sustained, Solomon Islands' unique cultural values need to be maintained and promoted.

1.9 Good Governance: A Condition for Sustainable Human Development

Sustainable human development in Solomon Islands is conditional on government implementing universal principles of good governance. These principles include inclusive development, maintenance of the rule of law, transparency of decision-making and accountability of public office holders to the people. Government in a democratic Solomon Islands must be responsible and responsive to all its citizens and not just the personal interests of office holders themselves or sectional interests in the community.

Good governance is where public resources are managed effectively, efficiently and in response to the critical needs of society. Popular participation, transparency, accountability and the effective use of resources by institutions and organizations in the society are fundamental to good governance and an important condition for sustainable human development. Without the participation of all Solomon Islanders in the making of decisions affecting their well-being, without transparent processes of decision-making, without the government being held accountable to the people for its policies

and actions and without the efficient and effective implementation of its policies, the government is not a government of all the people, and sustainable human development will suffer.

Respect for law and order, honesty and commitment to good leadership, maintenance of national unity and a political will to implement land reform and registration are mandatory to the survival of good governance both at provincial and national levels. These qualitative attributes are conditions to sustainable human development.

The maintenance of law and order is essential not only to protect the lives and property of Solomon Islanders, but also to attract local and international investment. Development partners, both private and government, are not interested in contributing to the development of Solomon Islands in the absence of a civil order where property and personal safety are at risk.

The maintenance of the principles of good governance is a matter for all Solomon Islanders, not just the government. The future of an effective and valued democracy in Solomon Islands depends on citizens ensuring that government adheres to its responsibilities and governs in the interests of all people – not to do so makes government remote from the people and for people to lose faith in the country's political institutions.

1.10 Threats to Sustainable Human Development

There are a few threats to sustainable human development that, if left unattended, may perpetuate deprivation and sustain poverty. The first is the persistence of *poverty* which is a factor in all other aspects of human deprivation.

- Poverty contributes to poor health from physical weakness as a result of food

shortage and malnutrition which in turn leads to low resistance to infection.

- Poverty also affects education through an inability to pay the costs of schooling.
- Poverty affects employment opportunities through an inability to afford to travel to look for work.
- Poverty creates economic vulnerability through a lack of assets to pay large expenses or to meet contingencies.
- Poverty contributes to powerlessness because low wealth goes with low status.

People in remote, isolated and marginal regions of Solomon Islands are more likely to be poor. Government must re-focus development in order to tackle poverty, particularly where the need is greatest.

Secondly, Solomon Islands needs to take care of its *subsistence sector* in order to maintain livelihoods in rural areas. The social safety net that has maintained livelihoods in the past is under severe stress due to the pervasive influence of the cash economy, the additional strains placed on families by returning migrants and the overall poor state of the economy. People in remote islands as well as in the main urban centres still need to maintain subsistence practices to sustain their livelihoods. The erosion and neglect of the subsistence sector is a threat to sustainable human development.

Thirdly, *corrupt government and political instability* is a strong threat to sustainable human development. There cannot be development without good governance and clear and clean leadership and vision by government. Political and economic stability are important factors in attracting both foreign and local investment and sustainable human development.

Fourthly, *inappropriate education* is a threat to sustainable human development. Some

models of formal education often alienate the young from the traditional human developmental wisdom of the past, only to replace it with imported, often ecologically and culturally insensitive education models. Community high schools and rural training centres introduce appropriate rural technology to students but are still not popular in the country as they are seen as inferior to overseas models. Steps must be taken to counter this impression.

Fifthly, *male domination* in the leadership and administrative areas of government, political parties, religious bodies and planning agencies must be checked. Gender imbalance is very marked in Solomon Islands and is a threat to sustainable human development. There are no female members of parliament and few women in positions of influence in the bureaucracy or other public positions. Plans of action must be devised to encourage women to participate more fully in public life and for girls' education to emphasise that *all* areas of employment are open to them.

Finally, *demographic problems*, such as high population growth rates, increasingly unfavourable age structures, increasing urbanization in Solomon Islands and limited land availability in some areas of the country are all very serious and will limit human development. Solomon Islands has a youthful population and grows at an annual rate of 2.8 percent, one of the highest in the world. Every effort must be made to address this important issue.



Chapter 2

People of Solomon Islands, From the Past to the Future

2.1 Introduction

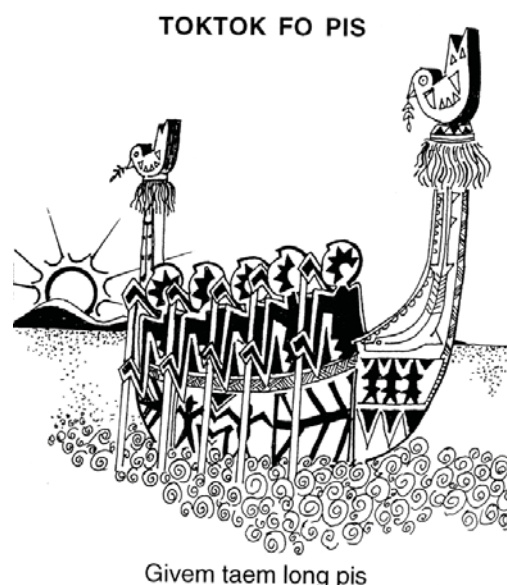
This chapter looks at people and society in Solomon Islands and the changes that have affected them over time. It discusses population changes through time; changes in traditional social, political and economic organizations and structures; contact with Europeans and others; the process of colonization and formation of a nation state, and the transition from subsistence to monetised society.

2.2 A Multi-ethnic People

The demographic figures used in this report are taken from the 1999 Census which counted just over 409,000 people in Solomon Islands. With an annual average population growth rate of 2.8 percent, the population is estimated to be over 432,000 in 2001.

The indigenous people of Solomon Islands are Melanesians and Polynesians. The largest group are the Melanesians who are the majority in the larger islands (Malaita, Guadalcanal, New Georgia and other islands in Western Province, Choiseul, Isabel, Gela, the Russells, Makira and Ulawa and some islands in Temotu Province), whereas the Polynesians are the majority in the smaller outlying islands (Rennell and Bellona, Ontong Java, Sikaiana, Tikopia, Anuta, Reef Islands and Duff Islands).

Solomon Islanders are also migrants and the descendants of migrants from elsewhere. The largest group of migrants are Micronesians, mostly immigrants from what is now Kiribati. There are also Asians, mostly Chinese, and Caucasians. There are also people of mixed ethnicity arising from intermarriages of people from the different ethnic groups. Foreign nationals made up



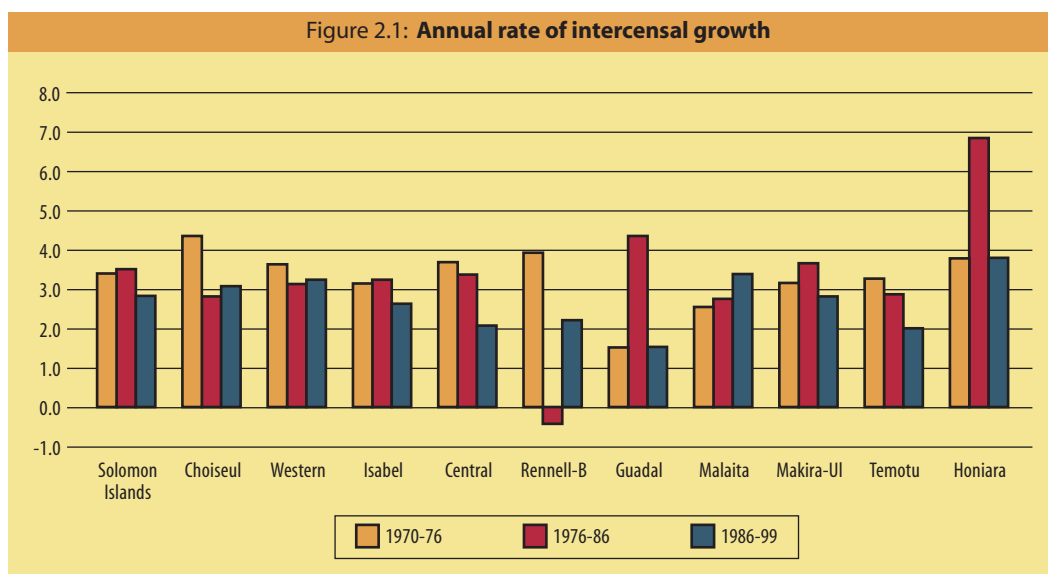
only a very small proportion – 2,166, or 2.8 percent, of the population in 1999. They are mostly from Australia, Papua New Guinea and some Asian countries, mainly Malaysia.

The settlement of these various ethnic groups is not spread evenly across the country. After the Second World War, the country's administrative and commercial hub was transferred from Tulagi, on the island of Gela, to Honiara, on the island of Guadalcanal. In time, Honiara and neighbouring areas of Guadalcanal, where a lot of economic activity was centred, became the hosts to a large-scale influx of people, mainly from Malaita, but also other provinces. The development of other commercial and administrative centres (more recently, Noro in Western Province) led to smaller-scale internal migration flows. Displacement caused by the social unrest of 1998-2000 forced large numbers of people to move from Guadalcanal and Honiara, mostly to Malaita but also to Temotu, Rennell and Bellona and elsewhere.

84 percent of
Solomon Islanders
live in rural areas

2.3 Spatial Distribution

A large majority (84 percent) of people live in rural areas. Of the urban population, the majority live in Honiara, the capital (Figure 2.2). Of the remaining provinces,



Source: 1999 Census Report

Malaita has the highest proportion of the population at 30 percent. Rennell and Bellona has the smallest proportion. Population density is highest in Honiara, whereas Rennell and Bellona is the most sparsely populated. In some islands there is relatively high population density.

2.4 Age/Sex Distribution

Age Structure

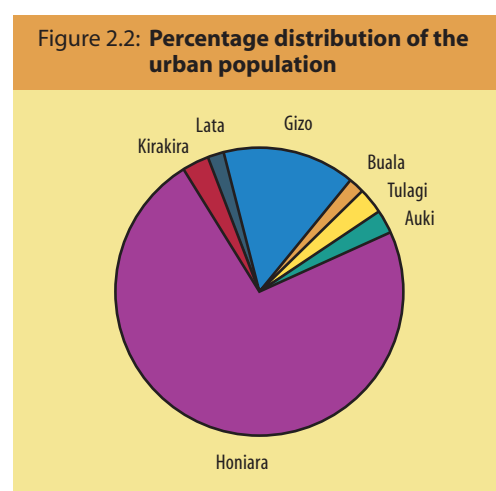
Solomon Islands has a young population with 0-14 year olds making up 41.5 percent of the population. There is a high youth dependency ratio of 75 per 100 in the working age group. The population aged 65 years and over make up just 3.4 percent of the population. The young population structure and high youth dependency are reflected in all provinces except Rennell and Bellona, where there is a small population size and high rates of migration.

The young population structure has an in-built momentum for continued population growth as a higher number of females enter childbearing age. Therefore, even if births are maintained at the replacement level, the population would continue to grow for some time to come.

Sex Structure

There are more males than females in Solomon Islands. The sex ratio (number of males for every 100 females) is 107. In the young age group 0-14 years, males comprise 52 percent, 15-49 age group 48.5 percent and 60 years and over 5 percent. It is generally expected that while boys outnumber girls at birth, the difference gradually narrows until in the later age groups where females outnumber males.

All provinces reflect the overall sex structure where males outnumber females except in Malaita and Temotu



Source: 1999 Census Report

provinces where it is reversed. This may be explained by migration of men for wage employment.

2.5 Population Movements

Population movements can be due to migration for social and economic reasons or displacement caused by natural disasters or man-made events.

Migration

Migration can either be within the country or cross-border emigration or immigration. In Solomon Islands, there is little cross-border movement of people and internal migration is largely from rural to urban areas, particularly to Honiara. There is also some rural-rural migration mainly between provinces for wage employment (for example, to the oil palm plantations to the east of Honiara prior to the forced displacements of 1998).

Displacement of People

Displacement of population in Solomon Islands has been caused by both natural disasters and man-made ones including the recent social unrest. In the past 20 years, there was one natural disaster, the earthquake of 1972, which caused population displacement where people

from the Weather Coast of Guadalcanal relocated to West Guadalcanal. Population displacement generated by man-made causes included the Bougainville Civil War where people of Bougainville sought refuge in Solomon Islands, particularly Western Province (due to geographical proximity) and Guadalcanal (due to the similar matrilineal social system).

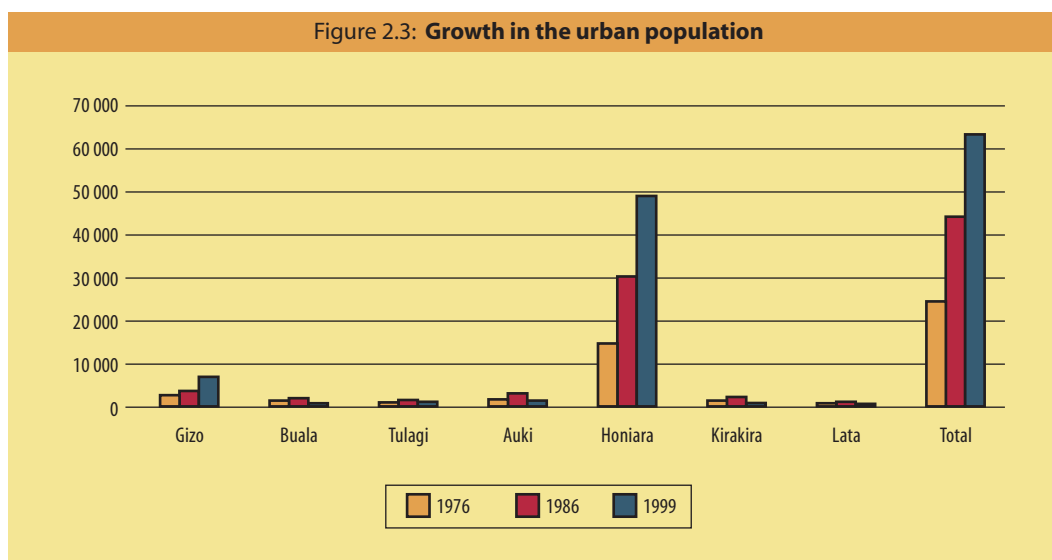
Internal displacement occurred in 1998-2000 during militant activity by the Guadalcanal Revolutionary Army/Isatabu Freedom Movement. People – mostly from Malaita, but also other provinces – were forced out of Guadalcanal, including from Honiara. The 1999 census showed that 35,309 people were displaced from Guadalcanal and Honiara, with over 20,000 of them from Malaita alone. The census also showed that 12,806 Guadalcanal people were displaced within Guadalcanal during the period of social unrest.

2.6 Population Growth

Growth Rates

The number of people in Solomon Islands increased by 123,866 between 1986 and 1999 a percentage increase in population of 2.8 percent. The natural

Figure 2.3: Growth in the urban population



Source: 1999 Census Report

rate of population growth during the period (which excludes migration) was 2.5 percent. There has been a slowing down of population growth since 1976. Population growth rates in the provinces generally reflect the national trend (see Figure 2.1). The increase in these provincial populations, especially in Malaita, was a result of the social unrest. This is reflected in the drastic fall in population of Guadalcanal and Honiara.

Future Population Trends

If the current population growth rate continues, the population of Solomon Islands will double – to more than 800,000 – by the end of the first quarter of the 21st Century, in 2025. What the actual population in a future time-period will be depends on natural growth (the difference between birth and death rates) and migration. The main indicator to assess population growth is the total

By the middle of the 21st Century, the population of Solomon Islands will be one million people

fertility rate, which has shown a declining trend from just over seven in 1976 to just fewer than five in 1999. As noted earlier, there is a strong in-built momentum

for population growth because of the high proportion of young people in the population. Therefore, the population of Solomon Islands will continue to grow for some time to come, but it is likely to grow at a slower pace.

Family planning programmes and improvements in economic and human development will reduce fertility rates and therefore population growth rates. In any case, there will be more people in the country at any time in the foreseeable future. By the middle of the 21st Century, at the present growth rate, Solomon Islands will be likely to have one million people.

2.7 The Relationship between Population Growth and Human Development

The increase in the number of people has a number of impacts on human development. And, conversely, progress in human development has an impact on the growth of population. The challenge for sustainable human development is, as the population increases, will opportunities also increase for people to at least maintain the current state of human development?

Solomon Islands can theoretically support a higher population given its strong natural resource base. While the population growth rate is high in comparison with growth rates of populations elsewhere, the population base is relatively small so that the absolute number of any population increase is not particularly high. The issue is whether Solomon Islands can manage its resources appropriately to cater for even a modest absolute increase in population.

2.8 Traditional Social, Cultural and Economic Organization

The Family

The family in Solomon Islands society is the basic social unit. Traditionally, a typical Solomon Islands family arrangement is based on an extended family consisting of two or more monogamous and polygynous families linked by a blood tie. However, an extended family is sometimes comprised of families linked through a sibling tie, called a 'joint' family. Rural Solomon Islanders live in small and scattered hamlets within their own or their clan's land. In some parts of the country, people practise either the patrilineal or the matrilineal system of inheritance.

Land

Ownership of land and coastal waters in Solomon Islands is vested in the clan, tribe or line. This customary land tenure system ensures that everyone within the clan has

access to land and the resources it holds. Such a right is determined through the genealogical links to those who control the land.

Land holds *tambu* (sacred) sites and monuments that represent the history of people's clans, lineage and society in general. It is because of these historical ties that land becomes an important link between the living and their ancestors. Politically, land is important because it binds people together as a landowning group. It is a source of political and economic power. Land is fundamental for Solomon Islanders' identity.

Economic Activities and Trade

Traditional societies are predominantly subsistence based. People are highly self-sufficient as each family grows its own food as well as building its own houses from locally available materials. Self-sufficiency and self-reliance are facilitated by access to land and the support of the kinship system which still largely protects people from absolute poverty.

Trade in subsistence societies is carried out largely by barter. Such a system promotes unity, friendship and peace between both parties as well as enabling people to have access to goods they lack and increase the organizational skills of those who arrange such events. Reciprocity (giving and taking without the use of money but with future expectation of return) is also another form of the distribution of goods and services. Giving and sharing of goods and services are performed on the understanding that the receiver is part of the social network and with the moral obligation to reciprocate in some form when the giver needs assistance in a future situation. The system is also used to reaffirm social relationships.

2.9 Traditional Political Organization and Conflict Resolution

The Solomon Islands' traditional political system is organized around tribes, clans, lineage and the family. Traditional political practices include both the *Big Man* and the *Chiefly* systems of leadership (see Chapter 4 for more details).

Traditional Conflict Resolution

The socio-political units of the tribe, clan, lineage and family also provide the basis for conflict resolution where decision-making is done on consensus basis. Dispute resolution can be either peaceful or violent. One of the most common peaceful methods used to settle disputes is through oaths and ordeal. An oath is the act of calling upon a deity to bear witness to the truth of what one says, where ordeal is a means used to determine guilt or innocence by submitting the accused to dangerous and painful tests believed to be under supernatural control.

The system encourages people to tell the truth so that reconciliation and compensation can be performed accordingly. The payment of compensation (in terms of shell money, pigs and goods) by the offender to the victim underscores the admission of guilt by wrong doers. It minimises hatred and ill feeling and promotes forgiveness to restore friendship, unity, peace, stability, confidence and respect amongst both sides.

2.10 European Contact and Colonialism

The first contact that Solomon Islanders had with Europeans was with the Spanish in the 16th Century. The Spanish gave the name to the country and to some of the islands. But the most significant contact was with missionaries and traders (including labour traders) from the mid 19th Century followed by, in 1893, the declaration of a British protectorate. European contact brought manufactured



goods such as clothes, metal tools and tobacco as well as the introduction of new religions and political systems.

The British Colonial Period

During the colonial period (1893-1978), British administrators assumed political and economic control over the country, controlled labour migration, introduced Western-style laws, imposed taxes and attempted to subdue the more militant communities in the country. To ensure more Solomon Islanders worked on the newly established coconut plantations, the colonial administration introduced a head tax policy. Consequently, many Solomon Islanders were forced to work on the Europeans' plantations for an income in order to pay the head tax and to buy imported goods. The Second World War was a catalyst in Solomon Islander demands for self-determination and the British Government's realization that

greater regional autonomy and devolution of political power must be made.

Indigenous Responses

Some colonial policies, such as taxation and the control of labour migration, were met with resistance. There were a number of political movements which agitated for greater autonomy, self-reliance, participation and decentralized development (Box 2.1). Indeed, much of the resistance to British rule was opposition to the centralization of political, administrative and economic government. The history of political movements seeking greater devolution and decentralization has continued into the independence era.

Political Developments Leading to Independence

During the Second World War, Solomon Islanders were involved as patrol leaders, scouts, coast watchers and general

Box 2.1

Social and Political Movements in Solomon Islands

The Fallowes Movement

The Fallowes Movement, spearheaded by former missionary Richard Fallowes in the late 1930s, claimed that the British administration had neglected the needs of rural people in terms of political autonomy including better schools and health services and better working conditions. The movement pushed for the establishment of a 'Native Parliament' to discuss problems and prepare demands for submission to the British administration (Laracy 1983:13-14). To contain this movement, the British administration deported Fallowes ending the movement. However one outcome was the establishment of native courts and sub-district councils, which were

viewed as a major historical move toward promoting empowerment and the emancipation of rural areas.

The Ma'asina Ruru Movement

The second movement towards decentralization and self-determination was spearheaded by Aliko Nono'ohimae from Are'are, Malaita in 1945. The underlying motives behind Ma'asina Ruru were decentralization and localization (Gegeo 1994: 69). The movement rapidly spread from Malaita to Ulawa, Guadalcanal, Marau, Isabel, Makira, Neggla, and the Western Solomon Islands (Worsley 1968, Laracy 1983:21-22).

In response to this movement, the colonial administrators jailed the chiefs and other leaders of

the movement. However, in 1947, the Government came to realize that it must respond positively to Ma'asina Ruru demands for greater political autonomy in order to prevent another socio-political movement (Worsley 1968, Mamaloni 1981).

The Moro Movement

The third movement, which came to be known as the Moro Movement, took place on Guadalcanal in 1957 (Davenport and Coker 1967 cited in Gegeo, 1994). Like the two previous movements, the Moro movement also articulated social, political and economic autonomy. The focus however, was based on preservation of indigenous culture and the environment.

labourers. They observed how Allied soldiers, including black Americans, were treated and how they were organized. They realized that the British Government was not as all-powerful as they had previously thought. After the war, they used some of the knowledge they gained and began to organize themselves to seek regional autonomy and self-determination. The colonial government acceded to calls for greater decentralization with the demarcation of the country into four main districts – Western, Central, Malaita and Eastern – and the establishment of district councils. This was the first time that Solomon Islanders of different clans had been organized outside of their clan, family and village groupings.

In 1960, the establishment of an Advisory Council, and later a Legislative Council and an Executive Council, enabled participation by indigenous people in government for the first time. The first national elections were held on a restricted franchise in 1965 and were followed by other elections for a greater number of elected positions in government. Progressive steps in self-government continued to be taken culminating in full independence in 1978.

On independence, a provincial system was introduced to replace the district system. In the years leading up to independence, there was debate about whether Solomon Islands should constitute a federal form of government. However, a decision was made to adopt the Westminster system as used in Britain but with relatively strong provinces capable of legislation in their own right in some circumstances. While some powers (for instance, the power to make regulatory ordinances) have been transferred from the national government to provincial level in recent years, control over financial resources remains largely with the national government.

2.11 Post-Independence Government and Politics

The System of Governance

Governance in Solomon Islands consists of the Governor-General as the Queen's representative as the Head of State, a National Parliament consisting of 50 members and a 20 member Cabinet of Ministers, headed by the Prime Minister. Members of Parliament represent single-member constituencies, with an average of 5,000 voters in each, using a plurality (or 'first-past-the-post') system of voting. Elections are held every four years and registration to vote is open to any citizen over the age of 18 years. At the December 2001 elections, some 288,000 people, or 70 percent of the population, registered to vote, a considerable increase over the 1997 election.

Contemporary Political Challenges

Post-colonial governments have been politically fluid as most political parties do not have a strong tradition of voting discipline. Governments often change as a result of fluctuating allegiances during the life of a parliament. There have been more than ten changes of government in 23 years of independence.

The most dramatic change of government in the history of the country occurred in June 2000 with a coup against the Ulufa'alu government by a group of militants supported by elements of the police. This added to the already high level of political instability in the country and, as some commentators put it, removed the innocence from Solomon Islands. At the end of 2001, new elections were held and a new government formed.

Solomon Islanders place great trust in their democratic system, as indicated by the record number of people who registered to vote for the 2001 elections. However, there is also evidence that they do not



share the same confidence in their political representatives and that they wish to see real political change. Over successive elections, voters have increasingly refused to re-elect many sitting parliamentarians. This adds to political uncertainty and fluidity as there is little experience among elected representatives in managing the affairs of the country. There is a feeling among many voters that elected officials are incompetent and do not have the interests of the people or the nation at heart and there have been allegations of personal misconduct on the part of some politicians.

Solomon Islanders have great faith in their democratic system but have lost confidence in their elected representatives

There is a crisis of trust in government in Solomon Islands. The constitution and the electoral system have failed to produce clean, competent and stable executive government; the provincial system has failed to

deliver decentralized power and effective government services to the majority of the people; the government has failed to ensure the maintenance of law and order with criminal elements operating freely without fear of prosecution; there is little commercial confidence and the 'system' has failed to restore security and prosperity. Answers are being sought by reviewing the constitution, including re-visiting the issue of federalism, and by reviewing the electoral system. Attempts are also being made to make public administration more effective and more efficient. Nevertheless, the ability of government to continue to provide health and education services and public utilities is in doubt.

2.12 Conclusion

Solomon Islands has a proud tradition of self-reliance and self-sufficiency with strong cultural values in an ethnically diverse society. The core cultural values

that characterize the country and give Solomon Islands its uniqueness (such as respect, sharing, patience, caring and generosity) are rapidly changing as a result of social, economic and political changes.

In the process of transformation from a traditional society to a modern one, old practices and habits are breaking down with little confidence that they can be effectively replaced by the modern system. There is a serious challenge to all Solomon Islanders which is that government at all levels, civil society and the commercial sector as well as communities, families and individuals need to work together to re-establish trust and confidence in the life of the country. The challenge is to rebuild a united Solomon Islands with strategies that are based on the principles of human development.

Solomon Islanders need to re-establish trust and confidence in the life of the country

Chapter 3

Overview of Human Development in Solomon Islands

3.1 Introduction

Considerable progress has been made with human development in Solomon Islands over the last decade. Solomon Islanders live in a democracy. They now determine their own future, having shaken off the shackles of colonialism. Their democracy has been tested at the dawn of the 21st Century but it has survived, testimony to the value that the people have placed in it. Solomon Islanders also live longer and continue to expand their capabilities and generally live in decent surroundings.

However, much still needs to be done to continue to progress along the path of human development. In the last three years this path has been tested with the social unrest and ethnic tension in Guadalcanal. The resulting social dislocation has affected the entire country as well as future progress in human development for all Solomon Islanders. The principles of democracy have survived and have given the people a window of opportunity to regain the progress that has been shaken and to move forward with renewed energy and determination to continue to improve their quality of living and life.

3.2 A Long and Healthy Life

Mortality and expectation of life

People want to have a long life and one with good health. Death is inevitable but people prefer to die of old age instead of premature disease and conflict. Solomon Islanders now live longer than in the past. The expectation of life at birth has been increasing and is now 61 years (Figure 3.1). Life expectancy for both males and females has increased, with male lives increasing by 6.3 years since 1986 and female lives by 6.6 years (Figure 3.2). For

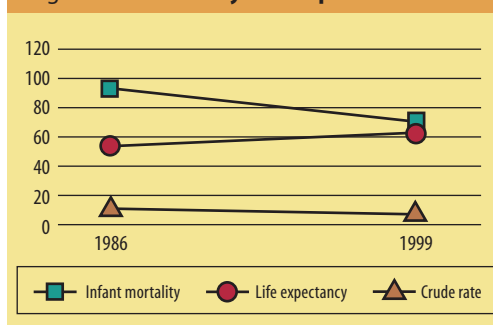


males this represents an increase of 10.7 percent and, for females, the comparable increase is 11 percent.

Three provinces (Central, Temotu and Honiara) have life expectancies above the national average and three provinces (Isabel, Guadalcanal and Malaita) have life expectancy below the national average. Honiara has the highest life expectancy whilst the lowest life expectancy is in Isabel province.

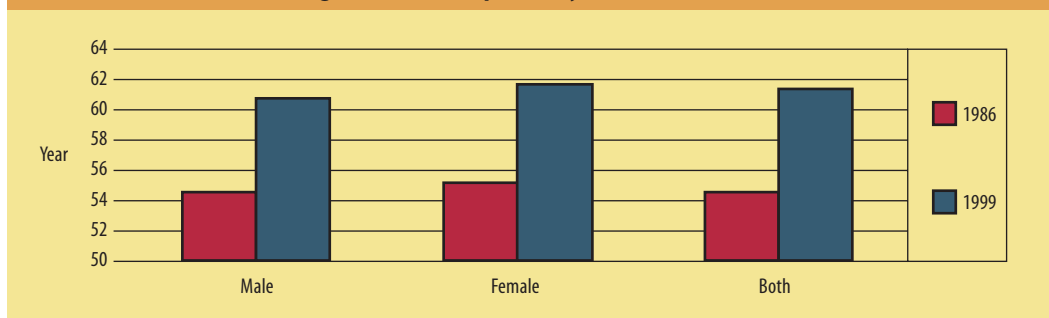
Life expectancy is an index of mortality. Others are the crude death rate (total

Figure 3.1: Mortality and expectation of life



Source: Solomon Islands Government Report on 1999 Population and Housing Census

Figure 3.2: Life expectancy, male and female



Source: Solomon Islands Government Report on 1999 Population and Housing Census

number of deaths per 1000 population in a year) and infant mortality rate (the number of deaths in the first year of life per 1000 live births). The infant mortality rate is often used as one of the key indicators of social development. There is also a correlation with adult mortality; if infant deaths are high, then deaths in the adult population are also likely to be high. In Solomon Islands these rates of mortality have been falling (Figure 3.1). This indicates an improvement in the health status of the population; however, these indicators, particularly infant mortality, remain high.

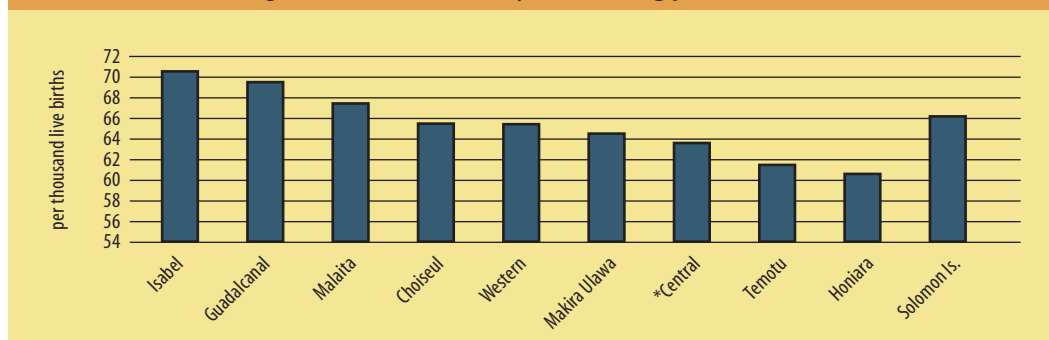
Morbidity

While assessing the increase in life span as an indicator of human development, it is also necessary to look at how well people live. The indices of mortality reviewed above are also indicators of people's

health. However, not all causes of ill health immediately lead to death. In general it is reasonable to assume that where the death rate is high then rates of non-fatal diseases are also high. This can also be discussed in terms the absence of health, or presence of ill health, by looking at patterns of disease and disability. The measures commonly used to assess ill health are disease incidence, prevalence, disability and severity. The availability of information about incidence and prevalence of disease among the population depends on access to and use of health services and facilities by people and the compilation and reporting of cases. Thus the health statistics available do not necessary reflect the actual health situation among the population.

Health issues are dealt with in more detail in Chapter 5. However, it can be generally summarized that the major

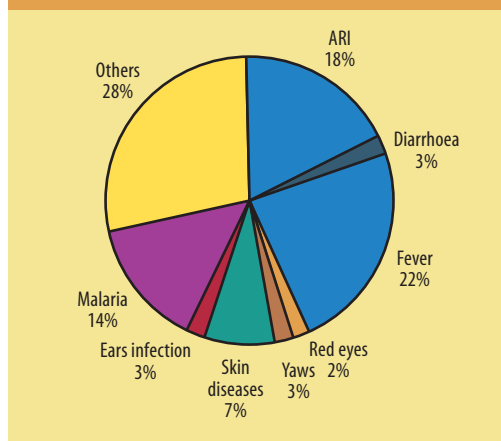
Figure 3.3: Infant mortality rates among provinces, 1999



*Central includes Renell Bellona

Source: Solomon Islands Government Report on 1999 Population & Housing Census.

Figure 3.4: **Prevalence of diseases causing morbidity among the population, 1995-1998**



Source: MHMS Health Information System Annual Report (various)

causes of ill health and death are infectious communicable diseases which are easily preventable (Figure 3.4). Life style diseases and non-communicable diseases are also on the increase. Thus for sustained improvement in longevity and good health, actions will need to address the emerging dual disease patterns.

3.3 Knowledge, Learning and Literacy

The second component of human development is knowledge. In assessing the progress of this aspect of human development, literacy rates and school enrolment ratios are used as indicators. However, before contact with Europeans and the introduction of schooling, people acquired knowledge, enhanced their

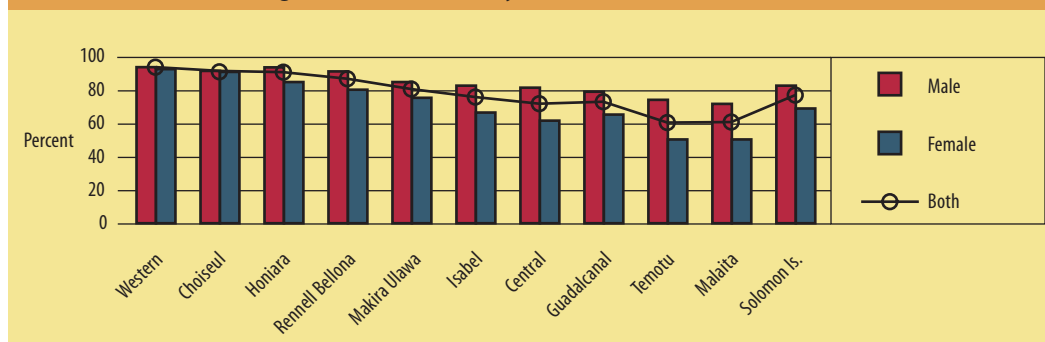
capabilities and lived their lives without knowing how to read and write. However, being able to read and write provides greater potential to increase a person's knowledge and capabilities, to access resources and interact with the physical, socio-cultural and economic environment to improve the quality of life. The traditional methods of capacity building are discussed in Chapter 6.

Literacy

The information available in Solomon Islands about literacy levels comes from the 1999 census and from a literacy survey carried out in 1991. The literacy rates in these two sources are not strictly comparable because of different methodologies used to collect them. The literacy levels reported in the 1999 census are based on self-reporting in response to the census question "Can you read and write a simple letter to a friend?" However the preferred method for assessing literacy levels is the use of literacy surveys and testing. Literacy levels from the 1991 literacy survey are based of tests on reading and writing in English and Pidgin. It is now imperative to carry out another literacy survey to determine the levels of literacy attained and progress that has been made in the quality of education.

The proportion of the adult population found to be illiterate was 31 percent for males, 44 percent for females and 38

Figure 3.5: **Adult literacy rates, male and female, 1999**



Source: Solomon Islands Government Report on 1999 Population and Housing Census.

percent for the total adult population. If the semi-literate were included with the literate, the overall literacy rate in 1991 would be 62 percent.

The 1999 census reported the adult literacy rate for Solomon Islands at 76 percent. That is over seven persons out of every 10 reported themselves as literate. Over eight out of every 10 males is reported as literate and for females under seven out of 10 are literate (Figure 3.5). The difference in literacy rates between male and female is about 15 percentage points.

Five provinces (Choiseul, Western, Rennell and Bellona, Makira/Ulawa and Honiara) have literacy rates above the national average. Western Province has the highest literacy rate at over 90 percent and Temotu the lowest with just over 60 percent of its population being literate, followed closely by Malaita.

Among males Western Province has the highest literacy rate for males and Malaita with the lowest rate (57.8 percent), followed closely by Temotu. Among the female population, Western Province again has the highest literacy rate and Temotu has the lowest rate with 49 percent, followed closely by Malaita with 51 percent.

The provinces can be clustered into three groups according to their literacy levels. At the top of the provincial literacy league table are Western Province, Choiseul and Honiara. At the bottom are Malaita and Temotu (Table 3.1).

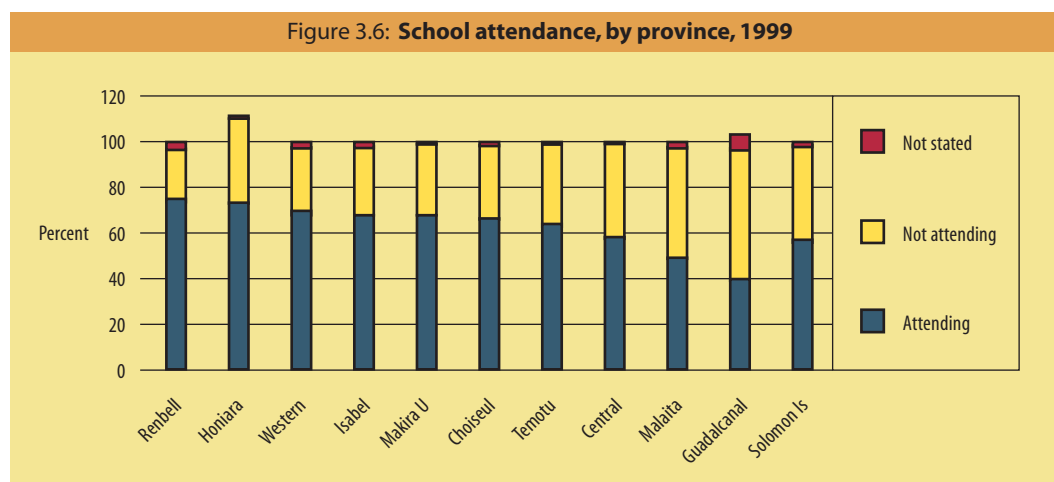
In terms of gender equality in literacy, Choiseul, Western Province and Honiara have greater equality in literacy between males and females. Temotu has the greatest gender inequality in literacy, followed by Malaita and Central.

Table 3.1: Provincial clusters by literacy levels and gender, 1999

Very High (>80 percent)	High (70-80 percent)	Medium (60-70 percent)	Low (50-60 percent)	Very Low (<50 percent)
Overall Literacy	Overall Literacy	Overall Literacy	Overall Literacy	Overall Literacy
Western Choiseul Honiara Rennell Bellona	Makira Ulawa Isabel Central Guadalcanal Malaita	Temotu		
Male Literacy	Male Literacy	Male Literacy	Male Literacy	Male Literacy
Western Choiseul Honiara Rennell Bellona Makira Ulawa Isabel Central	Guadalcanal Temotu Malaita			
Female Literacy	Female Literacy	Female Literacy	Female Literacy	Female Literacy
Western Choiseul Honiara Rennell Bellona	Makira Ulawa	Isabel Central Guadalcanal	Malaita	Temotu

Source: Report of 1999 Population & Housing Census, Basic tables and census description.

Figure 3.6: School attendance, by province, 1999



Source: Solomon Islands Government Report on 1999 Population and Housing Census.

It is not possible to really determine the progress made in increasing literacy levels in the past years as no subsequent literacy surveys have been done to date and also that the previous censuses did report on literacy.

School enrolment and attendance

Another indicator used for assessing human resource development, as a component of human development, is school enrolment and attendance. The most recent information of school attendance is from the 1999 census report, which provided data on school attendance for the age groups 5-29 years. Taking the age group 5-19, being the relevant age group from pre-school to the end of secondary school, 55 percent attended school and 43 percent reported not attending school; the remaining two percent did not state school attendance. Males constituted a higher proportion of those attending school and a higher proportion of those not attending school were female (Figure 3.6).

With regard to provinces, Malaita and Guadalcanal have half or more of their school-aged population not attending school in 1999. With its large population, the school-age population of Malaita not attending school accounted for over one-third (nearly 16,900 children age 5-14

years) of the total school age population not attending school. Guadalcanal, with the second largest number of school age population not attending school, accounted for about 18 percent (over 8,800 children 5-14 years) of the population not attending school.

With the exception of Choiseul and Western Province, all other provinces have a higher proportion of females than males not attending school in 1999. Guadalcanal, Malaita and Central have higher proportions of females than the national average not attending school. Both Guadalcanal and Malaita have more than half of their female population not attending school. Guadalcanal also had more than half of its male population of school age not attending school in 1999. The high proportion of the school age population not attending school in Guadalcanal and Malaita is explained in part by the Guadalcanal ethnic conflict, which led to the closure of schools in Guadalcanal and displacement of Malaita students from Guadalcanal and Honiara schools who could not be absorbed in the schools in Malaita.

The Ministry of Education collects school enrolment statistics for both primary and secondary schools. However, these

statistics are deficient because of the lack of complete reporting by all schools. School enrolment rates are discussed in more detail later in Chapter 6.

3.4 Income and a Decent Standard of Living

Sources and Distribution of Income

Most Solomon Islanders live in rural areas and engage in subsistence production for their livelihood. Those in rural areas also engage in export cash crop production as well as local market production mainly for sale in urban markets for cash incomes. They are self-employed in the production of goods and services for their own use and for sale for cash income. People in rural areas also engage in wage employment mainly in natural resource-based commercial enterprises. People in urban areas engage in wage employment, self-employment as business owners and cash-generating activities in the urban informal economy. Households in the urban areas engage in food production for their own use. Almost all Solomon Islanders depend on labour for their livelihood to produce goods and services, for their own use or for the market, and sale of their labour and skills as employees.

Others sources of income for people are income from investments and from the ownership of natural resources. Incomes from investment are dividends and interest incomes and housing rental incomes. Owners of natural resources get income from resource rents for land and forest resources. People also benefit from remittances and giving and sharing among relatives. People engaged in formal employment contribute to the National Provident Fund. Upon retirement or cessation of employment and if they meet the required conditions, they get the benefits from their savings and the contributions of their employers.

Livelihoods in the Rural and Informal Sectors

Production of food and housing in the subsistence sector is generally thought to be sufficient for the needs of the people in the villages. There is generally sufficient land for agriculture, forest resources and fisheries to sustain life in the rural sector. Surplus production is sold mainly in urban markets as a source of cash income. The term 'subsistence affluence' has been coined to describe this situation of food abundance and sufficiency and housing resources in the rural areas in the Pacific islands. However, 'subsistence affluence' is coming under stress in Solomon Islands particularly in areas with high population density and in remote and distant areas.

In rural areas, where there is high population density, food production based on 'slash and burn' agriculture is coming under strain as the fallow period required to regenerate the land is shortened and therefore reducing agricultural land productivity. In addition, obtaining housing materials from the forest is made more difficult as forest areas are being reduced and forest regeneration is curtailed as result of the shorter fallow periods.

Apart from production for own consumption, people in rural areas also produce surpluses of agricultural products and fish and some small livestock for sale in local rural markets and in urban markets, particularly in Honiara. Proximity to market and availability of transportation are the main factors. For those who have easy access to urban markets this is regular source of cash income to meet their needs for cash. The sale of local produce for cash in the urban market is an important source of income for the people who live the peri-urban areas and squatter settlements around Honiara. They grow vegetables around their settlements and in the surrounding areas for sale.

Apart from local produce marketing, cash crop production for export is an important source of rural incomes. These are mainly tree crops – particularly coconut for copra and coconut oil – and cocoa. Copra and cocoa have largely been produced by smallholder production. A copra price stabilization scheme has been in operation for many years by the Commodities Export Marketing Authority (CEMA), formerly the Copra Board.

Wage employment in the rural sector is largely provided by natural resource-based plantation enterprises in agriculture and forestry and fishing operations and, since 1998, mining. Large-scale operations on Guadalcanal – oil palm, cocoa and coconut plantation, timber log production and mining – have stopped operations as result of the Guadalcanal ethnic conflict. Fisheries operations (fishing and canning) have also been affected, but have resumed operations in Western Province. In addition, income from related and interlinked operations also ceased, including the incomes of landowners. Wage employment is discussed further below.

In compiling national income data, the Statistics Office makes an estimate of the value of subsistence production of food and housing. The most recent national income estimates are for 1994 but the Central Bank of Solomon Islands publishes more recent information on national income including estimates of subsistence production.

In the early 1990s, the Statistics Office carried out a series of surveys of household incomes and expenditures in Honiara (1991), the provincial centres (1992) and rural areas (1993). The results of the 1993 household income and expenditure survey (HIES) in rural areas showed that 84 percent of households had

a monthly income of less than \$50, 90 percent had monthly incomes of less than \$250 and 98 percent of rural households had monthly incomes of less than \$750. This refers to wage employment income only. The average monthly household income in rural areas was \$66 whilst per capita income was \$11. The bottom 84 percent of rural households accounted for just one half of one percent of total household incomes in rural areas.

Livelihoods in the Urban and Formal Sectors

In the provincial centres, 14 percent of households earned monthly incomes of less than \$250 and 72 percent earned incomes of less than \$750 a month. Estimating the household incomes by this method gives an average income for households in provincial centres of \$610.

In Honiara, 45 percent of households received monthly incomes of less than \$750. The average household income in Honiara was \$2,387 and per capita income was \$358. About 90 percent of Honiara households received less than the average amount. The bottom 45 percent of Honiara households received 8 percent of total household incomes. The top one percent received over 50 percent of total incomes. This highly skewed income distribution is a result of expatriate incomes which are seven times the income of Solomon Islander households. However, even among Solomon Islander households, the top 10 percent received over 50 percent of total incomes in their group.

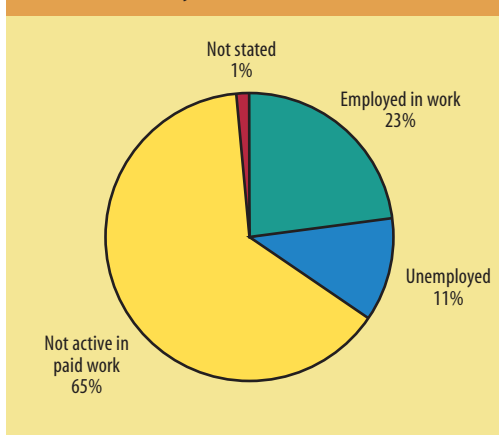
Employment and Work

The most recent and comprehensive information about employment and work is provided in the 1999 census. Of the total population of 14 years and over, 23 percent were engaged in paid work, 11 percent were unemployed and

65 percent were not active in paid work. The remaining did not state their status in paid work. Among the male population, 31 percent were in paid employment and 14 percent were unemployed (i.e. looking for paid work) and 54 percent were not active in paid work. Among the female population, the overwhelming majority (76 percent) were not active in paid work. In each activity category, more men than were in paid work or unemployed and over one half of those not active in paid work were women.

The distribution and rates of unemployment by provinces are shown in Figure 3.8. Those unemployed are

Figure 3.7: Activity status of population 14 years and over, 1999



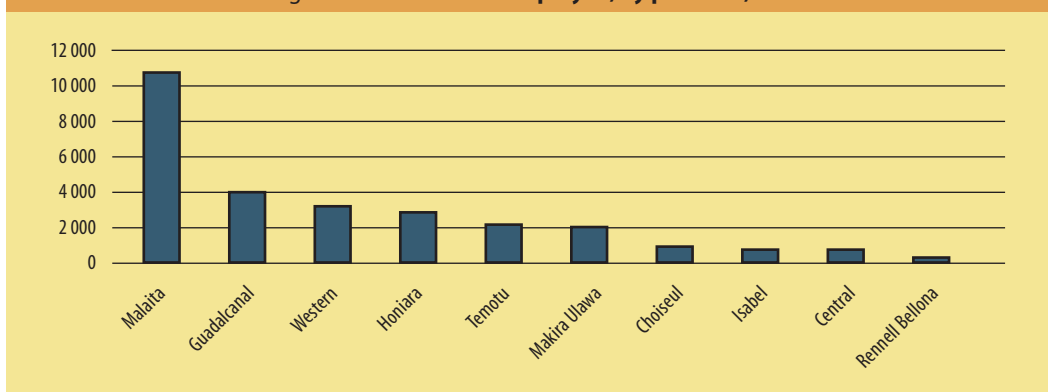
Source: Solomon Islands Government Report on 1999 Population and Housing Census.

defined as those who were not in paid work and were looking for paid work. Malaita province had the highest number of unemployed, over 10,000 unemployed people, with an unemployment rate of 15 percent, followed by Guadalcanal with just under 4,000 unemployed people, Western province and Honiara. Although Rennell-Bellona province showed the highest unemployment rate, the number unemployed is very small.

3.5 Personal Security, Participation and Rights

The above discussion deals with three main aspects of human development: to lead a long and healthy life, to have knowledge and to have access to resources for a decent standard of living. There are also aspects of the social, economic and political environment in which a person lives which are included in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and other international legal instruments. Human development contributes to the achievement of human rights and the promotion of human rights contributes to the three aspects of human development discussed above. The National Constitution of Solomon Islands embodies the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Figure 3.8: Number unemployed, by province, 1999



Source: Solomon Islands Government Report on 1999 Population & Housing Census.

Table 3.2: Solomon Islands Ratification of the Principle Human Rights Instruments		
Principle Human Rights Instruments	Ratification by Solomon Islands	Number of Countries Ratified (as of 16 Feb 2000)
International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD) 1965	Yes	155
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) 1966	No	144
International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) 1966	Yes	142
Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) 1979	No	165
Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT) 1984	No	119
Convention of the Rights of the Child (CRC) 1989	Yes	191

Source: UNDP, Human Development Report 2000, New York, 2000.

Sustaining Human Development in Solomon Islands

Chapter 4

Ensuring Good Governance, Public Participation and Empowerment

4.1 Introduction

Long before the arrival of the first Europeans to visit what we now know as Solomon Islands, local communities lived, as their ancestors had, under traditional and customary political systems. Many of these traditions and customs have survived into the modern age. Just as there is considerable ethnic diversity in Solomon Islands, there is also diversity of traditional political systems. Nevertheless, traditional systems are normally either inherited, as in the chiefly system, or acquired, as in village 'big man' system. Chiefs or big men have authority over the affairs of the tribe, clan, lineage and village communities.

Modern political systems were introduced to Solomon Islands progressively after the country was declared a British Protectorate in 1893, culminating in independence in 1978. Solomon Islands adopted the British-based Westminster system of parliamentary democracy and a British-derived judicial system. This chapter will describe how the system of governance is intended to work as well as outline some of the contemporary discussion concerning its shortcomings and whether some traditional methods of governance should be introduced.

4.2. The Meaning of Good Governance for Solomon Islands

In both traditional and modern systems, governance involves the exercise of power or authority – political, economic, financial, administrative and judicial – to manage the community's or country's affairs and

resources. Good governance comprises mechanisms, processes and institutions to hear citizens' opinions, to acknowledge and protect their interests and rights, to mediate any differences between them and to manage the affairs of the nation effectively and efficiently – all in a transparent, accountable and equitable manner.

Adherence to the Principles of Good Governance

Since independence, many of the principles of good governance outlined above have not been adhered to. This must be changed for Solomon Islands to address many of its social and economic problems and move ahead with prosperity and equity.

Openness and Transparency

There is a serious need for greater openness and transparency in the affairs of government. This means that all government action, especially in the allocation of expenditure, must be available for public scrutiny, including by the media. A government that is working within the laws of the country and in the interests of the people has nothing to fear. They should be proud of their record of service to the people and willingly subject themselves to the decision of the people at periodic elections and the scrutiny of the people in between elections. Such a participatory approach to government will ensure that the delivery of public services is done in a fair, efficient and effective manner.

Greater Accountability and Efficiency in Resource Use

There must be a greater degree of public accountability by government

There is a serious need for greater openness and transparency in the affairs of government



than at present. Government must be answerable to the people for their management of the nation's resources. All Solomon Islanders own the nation's resources and it is on their behalf that the government manages them. Therefore, the government must be answerable to the people. If resources are misused or misallocated then there are economic

Criminality is an abuse of democracy.
To protect democracy, crime must be brought under control

distortions, development imbalances, income disparities and inequitable distribution of resources. Efficiency of public administration is an important part of good governance. In Solomon Islands

today, the administrative capacity of the public service is deficient and needs to be reformed to provide for greater efficiency. The private sector should be given more encouragement and opportunity to manage the nation's resources, as economic growth is best achieved in an open and market-oriented economy.

Broad-based Participation.

Broad-based participation means that all Solomon Islanders, no matter where they live, must be given the opportunity and

the facilities to be involved in the political, economic or administrative spheres of decision-making. Solomon Islanders have always valued their vote in national elections but democracy means more than that. Government must provide the mechanisms and processes to facilitate popular participation on the expression of views on how government is run in between elections.

The Rule of Law

People must feel free to live their lives knowing that they have the protection of the laws of the country. Breakages of these laws must be dealt with effectively by the judicial system and the police. Upholding the Rule of Law is of paramount importance to peace, security and freedom. For criminals to run free and exert power through force and intimidation is to deny ordinary people the freedom to live their lives peacefully and is therefore a denial of democracy.

Fiscal Discipline

Fiscal policy relates to the way government collects its revenue and the way it allocates or distributes expenditure through the budget process. As highlighted in this



report, fiscal mismanagement over the years by successive political governments has been a root cause of the current economic crisis. The Audit Department has only audited Government Accounts up to 1994 – accounts for the period 1995 to 2000 have yet to be done. This is a very serious situation. Without proper accounts, there is no information publicly available about how government is performing.

Devolution of Power to Provinces or States

To give more opportunity for people to participate in the affairs of their government, more power should be handed to the provinces. While the provincial system has been in place since independence, the provinces have acted only as agents for the national government. The problem that this has given rise to is that people feel alienated from government. Government must be made more relevant and closer to the people that it serves. How this devolution of responsibility to provinces, wards and villages is to be done is currently subject to a constitutional review.

Role of NGOs and Civil Society

The call for better governance in recent years has been spearheaded by non-government organizations. They have emerged as strong avenues for people to express their views, interests and needs to the government. Government needs to acknowledge the role of civil society in developing its policies and in its development planning.

4.3 The Traditional System of Governance in Solomon Islands

The Big Man System.

Under this system, any man in the community can aspire to be the 'Big Man' where recognition and political power is achieved through one's personal ambitions with support from his own kinsmen and women and the extended *wantok* system.

There are no standard rules and criteria as to who is fit to be a Big Man but, in general, the qualifications include respect and seniority, humility and the possession of leadership qualities. In the old days, they also included the possession of wealth (shell money, pigs, gardens), religious power or magic, to have oratory skills, trustworthiness, care for kinsmen, honesty, generosity and to be a great warrior.

As leadership is not inherited, it is an open contest and anyone who could prove his worth in terms of the above qualities to his kinsmen and women becomes the Big Man whose leadership role can cover the clan, lineage and village families.

The Chiefly System

In chiefly communities, power and authority are inherited through the most senior male. The chief represents a stabilizing force in the community; he is thus respected and has great access to many privileges, such as free pigs and feasts. But the chief must work at being a chief if he wants to command the respect and support of his kinsmen and women.

Traditional Political Units

Traditional political units include the tribe, the clan, lineage and the family.

- The *tribe* comprises of a number of clans and family lineages. It is headed by the most senior chief who oversees a number of clans.
- *Clans* are usually matrilineal in nature and comprise a number of close family lineages within the broader tribe. Clan members live on their own land, and consider themselves one people. Clan members have common interests in land and in the marriage of any of its women. Unity is expressed through support in marriage feasts, death, gardening, dispute settlements or the building of the chief's house.



- The *lineage* comprises one family group of men, women and children that descend from one common ancestor. Here the most senior member of the group is the leader. They tend to live in houses next to each other in villages. The most senior of the families is the leader.
- The *family* is the basic household unit in the villages and normally comprises a man, a woman and their natural or adopted children.

Settlement of Conflicts

When conflicts between different tribes and clans over such issues as bride prices, land, adultery and stealing arise, they are generally resolved by a committee of the senior chiefs of the bordering tribes and clans.

Chiefs' Courts

In the present legal system the Chiefs' Courts have been recognized as having extra-judicial authority but are not regulated by the judiciary. Usually land is the main agenda item, largely due to population pressure on land and the need for land to provide for cash and livelihoods.

4.4 The Modern System

The National Constitution

The constitution is the basic law of Solomon Islands. It lays down how the country is to be governed, including the various institutions and procedures necessary for governance. The preamble to the constitution declares, in part that:

...all power in Solomon Islands belongs to the people and is exercised on their behalf by the legislature, the executive and the judiciary; and the natural resources of our country are vested in the people and the government of Solomon Islands.

The constitution pledges that:

...the government shall be based on democratic principles of universal

suffrage and the responsibility of the executive authorities to the elected assemblies; we shall uphold the principles of equality, social justice and equitable distribution of incomes; we shall respect and enhance human dignity and strengthen and build on our community solidarity; we shall cherish and promote the different cultural traditions within Solomon Islands; and we shall ensure the participation of our people in the governance of their affairs and provide within the framework of our national unity for the decentralization of power.

The constitution states that it is the government's prime responsibility to protect the fundamental rights and freedoms of all citizens. These include the rights to life and personal liberty, freedoms from slavery and forced labour, inhumane treatment and deprivation of property. They also include the right to privacy of home and property, the right to protection of the law, the right to freedom of conscience, the right to freedom of expression, the right to freedom of movement and from discrimination on the grounds of race.

The constitution outlines the functions, powers and workings of the three arms of government – the executive, the legislature and the judiciary – and prescribes the manner in which governance is to be undertaken in the interest of citizens.

The Executive

The executive comprises the Governor-General acting as the Head of State. Then there is a Cabinet of Ministers, which comprises the Prime Minister and other ministers. Ministers are members of parliament. Each minister is responsible for his or her ministry. Parliament appoints the Prime Minister who, in turn, appoints ministers. Currently there are twenty ministers.

The executive is the political and administrative government of the day which sets policies and strategies, manages and administers plans that aim to provide opportunities and a range of choices that improve people's capabilities, improve standards of living and the quality of people's lives. Since independence, no government has remained in power for the full four-year term or long enough to see the outcome of development intentions.

The Legislature

The national legislature is unicameral, which means that it consists of a single chamber, the National Parliament. The political grouping (which may be one party, a number of parties or a grouping of parties and independents) that commands a majority in parliament forms the government. It is their job to govern the country. The remaining members of parliament form the Opposition whose job is to ensure that the government is performing its job properly. There are 50 members of parliament. Parliamentary sittings are chaired by the Speaker, who is also the Chairman of the Electoral Commission and performs the functions of the Governor-General in the latter's absence.

The parliament is the link between the people and the government. It is meant to be representative of the population in all its diversity. The electoral system is meant to provide for the fairest means for the people to elect their representatives in parliament. In Solomon Islands, the electoral system in use is the plurality system, which means that, in each constituency, the candidate with more votes than his or her next rival wins. There are many other electoral systems and Solomon Islands will re-examine the relevance of its current system shortly.

The Judiciary

The judicial system consists of the High Court, the Court of Appeal and

subordinate courts. The Chief Justice and two local judges comprise the High Court. Appeals from the High Court on points of law go to the Court of Appeal which comprises the judges of the High Court and overseas judges. The President is an English Law Lord and there are two judges from Papua New Guinea, two from Australia, the Chief Justice of Tonga and a former Vanuatu judge.

There are also magistrates' courts and local courts. All appointments to these courts are Solomon Islanders. Local courts have primary jurisdiction in disputes involving ownership of customary land. Appeals from these courts go to the Customary Land Appeals Court. There are also Chiefs' Courts and the Trade Disputes Panel, which are not strictly courts.

4.5 Solomon Islands Governance in Practice

The Executive

There is a history of political instability in Solomon Islands, meaning that, since independence in 1978, there have been many short-lived governments. Because of this there has been poor continuity of development and a tendency for ministers to put their own short-term interests before the interests of the country and the people they are meant to represent. Being in government for short periods only, ministers have been overly concerned with maintaining their position and other members of parliament have been concerned with trying to become ministers. This diverts the attention of the government and the parliament away from the sound management of the country and creates conditions in which corruption can flourish.

There have been many examples of the misuse of political power. Some of these are as follows:

- the discretionary authority of the Minister of Finance in granting duty



remissions which, to year end 2001, will amount to \$80 million.

- governments have failed to provide timely financial information to enable the Auditor-General to report to parliament. The latest audit report on government accounts is 1994 – almost eight years ago
- there has been misuse of international aid funds; for example, the use of European Union STABEX funds to reduce government debt instead of being used on development projects
- there is some evidence that statutory organizations – which are responsible to parliament, not the government – have had their operations interfered with by government. Examples are the Development Bank of Solomon Islands (DBSI), the Solomon Islands National Provident Fund (NPF), the Commodities Export Marketing Authority (CEMA), the Solomon Islands Ports Authority (SIPA), the Solomon Islands Water Authority (SIWA), the Solomon Islands Electricity Authority (SIEA) and the Central Bank of Solomon Islands (CBSI).

The Legislature

The Speaker of Parliament has reported that there is poor performance by members in terms of attendance at parliamentary and committee meetings, understanding of parliamentary procedures, the capacity of members to comprehend legislation and their willingness to learn. The most important reason for this is the lack of guidelines for their conduct in office. A code of ethical conduct, based on the Leadership Commission's Code of Ethics, is thus required to promote integrity and an effective, accessible and accountable political system.

The Judiciary

There has been no overt attempt by the government to control the judiciary or

influence the decisions of the courts.

However, due to a shortage of funding, there are many examples of the judiciary being less effective than it should be. Some examples are:

- local courts and the Customary Lands Appeal Court rarely sit
- in some parts of the country, there are no magistrates or public solicitors
- in others, there is no public defender.

4.6 Governance Reform

A number of steps should be undertaken to reform the system of governance in Solomon Islands. These are:

The National Constitution

There needs to be careful consideration whether the current system of provincial government is still appropriate to the good governance of Solomon Islands.

Parliament

It is most important that incoming parliamentarians have basic capabilities to take part actively in debate and decision-making processes. To ensure its independence from the executive, parliament must be able to control its own funding.

Good Information

There is an urgent need to improve the accessibility and availability of information to the public and their representatives in civil society and the media. Good information is an indispensable prerequisite to good governance. There should be a citizenship education programme so that ordinary citizens become aware of their rights and responsibilities in their own governance.

Institutional Strengthening

There needs to be a strengthening of all audit and finance mechanisms including the Public Finance Committee,

the Leadership Code Commission, the Ombudsman's Office and appropriately resourced courts and the police.

Management and Accountability

Management accounting and reporting systems, particularly the Auditor-General's office, are outdated and must be modernized.

Independent Judiciary and the Rule of Law

To ensure the independence from executive government, the judiciary should be able to control its own funding. The police force must be reformed urgently to ensure its professionalism and its effectiveness in upholding the Rule of Law.



Chapter 5

Safeguarding Human Health and Wellbeing

5.1 Introduction

Improving the health and wellbeing of a society is at the core of sustainable human development. It provides the base for more productive society. It is also a fundamental human right and an essential aspect to the quality of people's lives. Good health encompasses many factors beyond the traditionally known meaning that relates to the absence of illness. Good health means the living of a long, healthy and productive life in a physically, psychologically and spiritually healthy environment.

Opportunities for good health are created by individuals, by the lifestyle choices they make, by society and the state in creating good public health standards and in providing adequate facilities and services. Health influences capability and many other choices and opportunities of life: malnourished children do not succeed at school, some diseases cause permanent physical and mental disability that detract from a fulfilling and productive life; and the early death of a breadwinner often has serious repercussions on his or her dependents.

Child abuse can result in physical and psychological impairment. An abused

child is vulnerable to all kinds of social ills. Likewise, violence – specifically against women – is a major factor for physical and psychological injury. In many instances it is a major factor for the dissolution of family units, the consequence of which could be damaging for dependents. Poor housing conditions, the lack of safe drinking water, poor sanitary practices, inadequate food and poor nutrition, unhealthy lifestyles, harmful traditional practices, unprotected and promiscuous sex, inadequate family planning, infectious and vector-borne diseases, genetically and lifestyle implicated health problems (such as disability, smoking and excessive alcohol consumption) are other factors challenging our good health.

Good health is everyone's business, and health improvement calls for the active participation of all stakeholders. For this reason, comprehensive health improvement policies and programs such as Primary Health Care (PHC) are developed and implemented effectively only if they involve all stakeholders in the planning and implementing process. A principal hindrance for adequate health care in Solomon Islands is the maintenance of primary health care centres. Structural, management and financial issues and the lack of skilled human resources are other issues.

5.2 Health Status and Outcomes

There have been significant achievements in the overall health improvement of the people of Solomon Islands. Solomon Islanders are now living longer and healthier. Life expectancy at birth increased from less than 55 years in 1986 to over 61 years in 1999, and infant mortality dropped from over 96 to about 66 per thousand over the same period. These are usually considered as the most robust indicators for assessing the overall improvement in health. Other indicators of longevity have





also shown significant improvement. The crude death rate has declined from about 13 in 1986 to about 9 per thousand in 1999. The maternal mortality rate, also still high by Pacific standards, has reduced from about 550 in 1992 to about 200 per 100,000 live births in 1997.

The incidence rate for infectious and vector-born diseases is declining. There have been no reported cases of measles for two consecutive years (1997 and 1998). These achievements are undoubtedly the result of health programs such as the Expanded Program for Immunization (EPI) and the

There have been significant achievements in the overall health improvement of the people of Solomon Islands

Malaria Control Program. The EPI coverage for most of the 1990s remained about 70 percent. The 1994-1998 anti-malaria plan of operation and the subsequent integrated malaria control programs have been implemented satisfactorily.

There are no recent studies to date to claim malnutrition is a major health problem in Solomon Islands. But it has been documented earlier (in 1989) that, while severe malnutrition was rarely a problem, the prevalence of mild to moderate malnutrition among children under five years was almost one in four. It is worth noting that the prevalence of underweight was highest (over 38 percent) among infants aged 9 to 15 months. These are the ages where most babies stop breast-feeding, and the incidence of high malnutrition is indicative of a lack of proper transition from breast-feeding to other diets. In the same study, it was indicated that women were at a higher risk for nutrition-related disorders. About 33 percent of women were classified as overweight and 11 percent as obese.

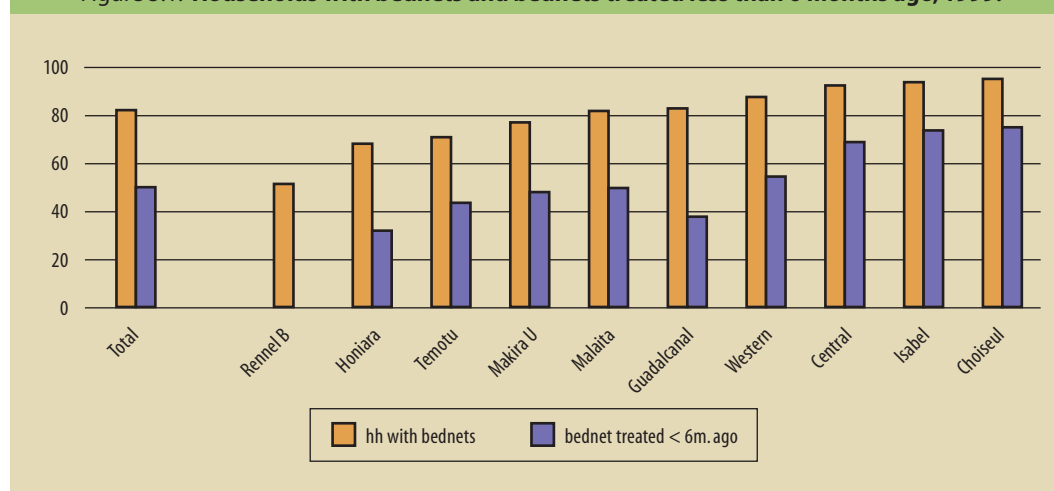
In general, the key health problems affecting the people of Solomon

Islands are malaria, maternal health (deaths, anaemia, complications), Acute Respiratory Infections (ARI), tuberculosis (TB), malnutrition, diarrhoea, sexually transmitted infections (STIs), and non-communicable diseases such as diabetes, hypertension, and skin diseases such as yaws. The health system in Solomon Islands has to cater for newly-rising non-communicable diseases, while at the same time tackling the old ones. Given the unfavourable economic condition that has been aggravated by the recent ethnic tensions and the continued rapid population growth, this will be particularly challenging, even to maintain the status quo, let alone improving the situation.

To this end it is worth mentioning that the overall monitoring and planning for health and related factors in Solomon Islands is severely limited by the availability of up-to-date and accurate data. For example, hospital records on recent causes of death and morbidity are not available, and this has hampered efforts to analyse the health status of the population. Analysis is limited to the Health Information System, whose coverage is limited to clinical service records. The need to coordinate and strengthen the health statistic information system is important and urgent.

5.3 Patterns of Sickness

The status of health in Solomon Islands is in an epidemiological transition phase. It is transiting from communicable and predominantly infectious and parasitic diseases to non-communicable disease (such as cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, cancer and accidents). The change in dietary habit is more evident in urban areas where people have shifted from traditional good high nutritional foods to cheap imported foods with high sugar and salt contents and of lesser nutritional balances.

Figure 5.1: **Households with bednets and bednets treated less than 6 months ago, 1999.**

Source: 1999 Population and Housing Census.

a. Communicable Diseases

Communicable diseases remain the leading causes of mortality. They accounted for about 33 percent of reported cases. The major causes of mortality are infections and parasitic diseases especially malaria, diseases of the respiratory system, in particular ARI and diseases of the digestive and circulatory systems. Nonetheless, there is a general declining trend in all communicable disease except for ARI and STIs (Figure 5.2).



Malaria

Malaria remains a significant public health problem in Solomon Islands despite four decades of control efforts. A National Malaria Conference held in 1991 marked the commencement of a new era in malaria control in Solomon Islands. Following the conference, malaria operations were decentralized and a new national control policy was drafted. This

policy was subsequently approved by the government in July 1993, and a five-year national plan of operation was developed.

Implementation of the five-year national plan of operation has been progressing very well, with most of the objectives achieved. Consequently there has been a steady reduction of malaria cases. Between 1992 and 1999 the prevalence rate was reduced by about three-fold (from about 455 to about 155 per 1,000). Nevertheless, presumably due the disturbance caused by the ethnic tension in Guadalcanal province, there was an increase in the incidence of malaria in 2000. This calls for the need to sustain the malaria control effort. Vector control was the most important component of the malaria control programme. Integrated vector control activities are conducted in all provinces. Insecticide treated mosquito nets are widely distributed (Figure 5.1).

Acute Respiratory Infections (ARI)

Acute Respiratory Infections remain the most important cause of health problems for children in particular, and there is no sign of decline in the annual number of reported cases. The clinical record on reported cases of ARI by the health information system shows an increase of

Box 5.1

Malaria in Solomon Islands

Malaria remains a critical public health problem in the Solomon Islands, despite more than 30 years of intensive efforts to bring it under control. Efforts at control began in the 1960s, with residual indoor spraying with DDT. The success of several pilot efforts resulted in the initiation of a national eradication project in 1970, with 1976 as the goal for eradication. Unfortunately, 1976 saw an upward trend in malaria prevalence, which peaked in 1983 at over 300 cases per thousand population. A critical factor in the reduced effectiveness of spraying was behavioural change in the main vector. In the 1980s, the objective of the malaria program shifted from eradication to control.

Residual spraying with DDT was supplemented, beginning in 1984, with mass anti-malaria drug administration. Initial results were promising, however, after the disruption of the program by cyclone Namu in 1986, its effectiveness dropped significantly, mainly due to the dramatic fall

in compliance. The program was discontinued in 1991 when the program strategy changed again as a result of a series of trials on the cost-effectiveness of permethrin treated bednets as a malaria control strategy, and the continued ineffectiveness of the residual spraying activities in malaria control. Treated bednets are now the main intervention. Larvacides are used in particular situations where breeding sites have been identified and close supervision of activities is possible. Treatment with drugs remains an important part of the strategy. Chloroquine is available through village health workers and all health facilities. The standard treatment regime includes provision for dealing with apparent drug resistance.

Chloroquine has been the treatment drug of choice. However, since 1980 chloroquine resistance of *P.falciparum* has been documented. The proportion of such resistant cases is increasing, but the level of the resistance is usually low (Grade 1). The poor

compliance in the latter period of the mass drug administration could have contributed to the emergence of the drug resistance. Drug resistance is likely to become more important in the future, and treatment regimes will have to take that into account. It is vital that levels of resistance are monitored on a routine basis and that results are used to modify standard treatment routines as appropriate. This monitoring activity is not well developed and needs much more attention than it is receiving now.

The control of malaria in Solomon Islands in the last 30 years has been one of continual adaptation to changing circumstances, new knowledge about the parasite, its vector and its interaction with the various means of control. Applied research has made an important contribution to the recent evolution of the program activities through evaluation of the existing activities and assessment of possible new control methods.

Source: Condensed from World Bank (1994).

over 55 percent among the population as a whole and by about 133 percent among children under the age five during 1992 and 1999 (Figure 5.2).

The important factors for the reduction of morbidity and mortality are proper diagnosis and management. Appropriate education and training of caregivers at all levels (health workers, mothers, house-girls, etc.) in the proper diagnosis, treatment, management of ARI is important and should be promoted.

Yaws

Following the highly successful campaign against Yaws in 1956–1958, subsequent

follow-up examinations indicated that yaws as a public health problem had ceased to exist. However, continued vigilance to ensure that resurgence did not occur was missing. Cases were diagnosed in 1981 and increased to epidemic proportions after 1988, peaking in 1992–1993 with an incidence rate of 150 per thousand population. The current situation is still significant with annual cases ranging up to 23,000.

Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs)

STIs continued to be an important health problem in Solomon Islands. The statistics on STIs are reported by the Health Information System (HIS) that

covers only clinical data. HIS normally does not include cases treated by private practitioners and the Referral Hospital. However, the trend in the total number of reported cases has been increasing steadily since 1992 (Figure 5.2).

The only case of HIV in Solomon Islands was in 1994 and since then a series of studies among STI patients and blood donors have revealed no new cases. But that should not at all be considered safe so long the people of Solomon Islands are in constant contact to the external world

Sexually transmitted infections are on the increase

and especially the increased rate of unprotected sex since the ethnic tensions. There is therefore an urgent need for redoubling efforts for controlling STIs.

Tuberculosis

There has been a remarkable improvement in addressing TB over the past 10 years. However, it is still a major health concern. There are no systematically compiled and published statistics but, as noted in hospitals records, the notification rate declined from 117 per 100,000 population in 1990 to about 94 per 100,000 in 1995 and further dropped to about 65 per 100,000 in 2000.

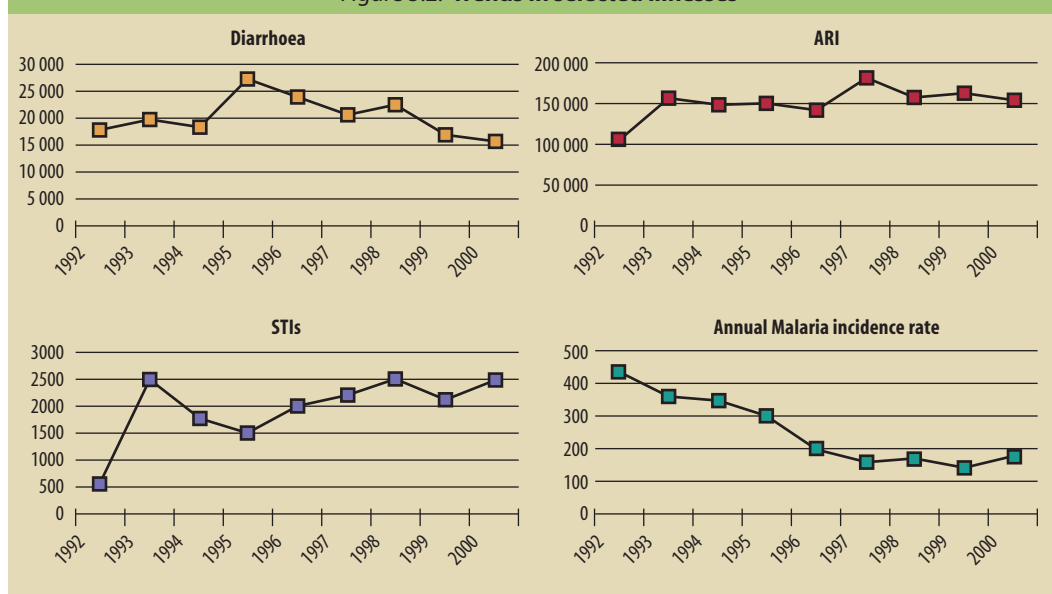
As a direct consequence of having a reasonably sustained and good coverage of BCG vaccine (over 60 percent), severe forms of childhood TB (TB meningitis and milliary TB) are also diminishing. There were only five new cases reported in 1997 and five in 1998.

Leprosy

Leprosy has been an important health problem in the past because of its debilitating effect, severe deformities and ineffective treatment. With the advent of more potent drugs and modern treatment regimens, leprosy has not been a major threat to health since 1997. The global target of the prevalence rate of one per 10,000 was achieved in 1995. The national prevalence rate in 1999 was two per 100,000.

Other important communicable health problems in Solomon Islands include diarrhoea, hookworms, febrile illnesses, red eye (conjunctivitis) and skin diseases that, by and large, can be prevented and controlled by simple primary health care approach (Box 5.2). The problem in most parts could be improved by proper health education, a heightened awareness of

Figure 5.2: Trends in selected illnesses



Box 5.2

Primary Health Care

WHO (1993) describes primary health care as being based on practical, scientifically sound and socially acceptable methods and technology made universally acceptable to individuals and families in the community through their full participation and at a cost the community and country can afford. It forms an integral part both of the country's health system, of which it is the central

function and main focus, and of the overall social and economic development of the community. Primary health care includes at least:

- Promotion of food supply and proper nutrition
- Education concerning prevailing health problems and the methods of preventing and controlling them
- An adequate supply of safe water and basic sanitation
- Maternal and child care, including family planning
- Immunization against the major infectious diseases
- Appropriate treatment of common disease and injuries, and
- Provision of essential drugs

hygiene, sanitation and nutrition, and by practicing simple but effective treatment such as oral rehydration for diarrhoeal diseases.

b. Non- Communicable Diseases**Diabetes**

Diabetes is the fastest growing disease in the country and is already becoming an important cause of mortality and morbidity. It is also becoming a burden to already overburdened health services in terms of hospital admissions. The cheapest and most effective means of controlling the disease is to employ community participation, education and awareness-creation strategies. The National Diabetes Control program has been in place since 1998, for the purpose of implementing public awareness programs and for promoting healthy life styles. Protective measures are not only preferable means for controlling the illness, but are also give sound and prudent economic returns.

Other Non-communicable Diseases

Reportedly, there are many other non-communicable diseases whose prevalence is increasing over the past two decades, but there are no systematically compiled and reported data for monitoring the situation. The following are therefore not based on

concrete data, but are noted from various hospital records:

- Hyperthyroidism, gout and hypertension are not uncommonly seen
- Cancer is becoming a major health treat. The trend is on the rise with respect to the following malignancies - cervical cancer, breast cancer, cancer of the thyroid gland, lymphomas, lung cancer, liver cancer, prostate cancer, and myeloproliferative diseases.
- Trauma and accidents are increasing
- Rheumatic heart disease is increasing. This group is quite important causing morbidity and mortality. It has become one of the most common causes of heart failure and the most common cause of heart surgery, especially valve replacement surgery
- Asthma is a common health problem both in children and adults.

The best health strategy for controlling non-communicable disease is to rigorously implement preventive healthcare strategies. As it was highlighted in the Medium Term Development strategy 1999-2001, there has been a strong indication of emphasising the preventive approach as against the



curative. Efforts have to be strengthened and broadened to mobilize communities at large.

Disability

Disability is a major health problem, which has a depletion effect on the victim, from both social and economic development aspects. A study carried out on disability in 1991-1992 showed about 3.2 percent of the general population had some form of disability and 90 percent of them live in rural areas and are unable to access services. The 1999 Population and Housing census also revealed that about 2.7 percent of the population had some form of disability. The prevalence was remarkably higher among males (2.9 percent) than females (2.5 percent). There were variations between provinces. The highest percentage was in Rennell-Bellona (5.6 percent) followed by Temotu (3.5 percent) and the lowest was in Honiara (1.9 percent) followed by Isabel (2.4 percent) and Central (2.5 percent). Impairment of sight (32.1 percent) followed by hearing (18.5 percent) and crippling (17.1 percent) were the most common causes of disability.

In an effort to provide community assistance for people with disabilities, Community Based Rehabilitation (CBR) programmes have been developed with the following aims and objectives:

- Promote equal rights and the equal participation of people with disabilities in school, work, leisure and political activities within their communities
- Training of rehabilitation aides
- Early identification and detection and referral of disabilities
- Improve supply and distribution of essential adaptive equipment
- Improve coordination between government, NGOs and churches

- Promote organisational capacity of people with disability supporting DPRA
- Promote national and community awareness on disability

The program is progressing well, but is dependent on assistance provided by development partners. In Honiara, the Red Cross Society of Solomon Islands is providing education to disabled children. There is a need to expand services to disabled people and to extend existing services to cover provinces and rural areas. There are education services for blind people in the country.

Cardiovascular disease, diabetes and cancer are on the increase in Solomon Islands

Family Planning

The Family Planning Program advocates the use of contraceptives by women as a means of lowering parity and fertility. The fact that this program is focused more on women than on men may affect the impact of the program. Both women and men should be targets. The other main issue that limits the effective expansion of this program is the absence of recognising that improving the educational status of women and their employment opportunities is complementary to the health sector's efforts in promoting activities of the family planning program.

Although family planning coverage is said to be high, there are no adequate or reliable data. Like all programs of the division, there is currently no proper recording of family planning statistics and the services of the non-government sector, such as the Solomon Islands Planned Parenthood Association (SIPPA), lack the necessary data to complete the national statistics.

Reportedly, the recent increased trend of teenage pregnancies and sexual related illnesses amongst adolescents has posed public health concerns. The increase in STIs

Box 5.3

“Not Too Early, Not Too Late, Not Too Many, Not Too Close”

This is the catch cry of the Solomon Islands Family Planning Campaign.

Infant, child and maternal deaths are affected by the age of the mothers, the number of children borne by the mother and the length of intervals between births.

High-risk pregnancies:

- mothers less than 20 years old
- mothers older than 35 years old
- high birth intervals
- short birth intervals.

“Not Too Early” and “Not Too Late”

For mothers giving birth in their 20s, child mortality is the highest universally. Children of teenage mothers and mothers who are over 40 years have a reduced chance of surviving. Biologically, emotionally and economically, teenagers are less prepared for pregnancies. Women over 40 are less able to withstand the stress of pregnancy, delivery and breastfeeding.

“Not Too Many” and “Not Too Close”

Child mortality risks for children increase with higher birth orders. The highest mortality occurs at birth orders of six or seven and higher. Children born within birth interval of less than two years are twice as likely to die as children born at a birth interval of two or more years.

Source: CST (1996)

amongst this group questions the impact of the distribution and usage of contraceptives under the family planning program. If STIs are increasing, then it can be assumed that the distribution and usage of contraceptives - condoms in particular - is low.

The Expanded Programme for Immunization (EPI)

While the Expanded Programme for Immunization (EPI) is effective, problems such as vaccine storage, transport and distribution pose logistic problems associated with keeping the vaccines potent to the point of delivery to individuals.

Additionally, actual coverage rates of immunization are not fully known because of incomplete reporting. Data through the Health Information System may not be completely reflective of the situation or may be inaccurate. But the fact that EPI coverage remains high is encouraging and needs further verification through other source of data availability as in surveys.

Clean Water Supply and Sanitation

There have been significant developments in the provision of clean and safe water supply in both urban and rural areas. The 1999 population and housing census

report showed that about 69 percent of households have access to safe water supply.

Urban water supplies and solid waste systems including quality control of water are, however, ongoing problems. Water supply in major urban centres has never been reliable, and it was made worse in Honiara by the ethnic tension (reportedly, contamination of the water supply was a common occurrence). There are also indications that the national economic crisis is affecting the affordability of water treatment. There is a need for improving the quality and reliability of the water supply in major urban areas, starting with Honiara.

There are low levels of sanitation due to socio-cultural and behavioural factors. According to the 1999 census report, only one in every five households (or about 23 percent) had modern toilet facilities. A study carried out in 1992 also indicated that only about 9 percent of households in rural areas had sanitation facilities. There is a need, therefore, for increasing efforts aimed at improving sanitation in both urban and rural areas of Solomon Islands.

Nutrition and Household Food Security

The knowledge on household food security and proper nutrition is limited



due to the lack of a regular and appropriate nutrition surveillance system in the country. Availability of food is in general not a problem, but there are problems associated with equitable intra-household distribution, good feeding practices and balanced and adequate nutritional intakes by all. There is a high incidence and there are significant disparities in the provinces in the prevalence of sight disorders, which may have as their root cause, vitamin A deficiency.

5.4 Other Human Wellbeing Concerns

Human health and wellbeing is not only affected by sicknesses or accidental injuries but by many other factors including peaceful co-existence, helpful and hearty families, happiness, joyfulness, peacefulness and the like. To this end, crime, domestic violence and abuse are the most frequent factors, which have been disproportionately affecting the wellbeing of women and children in society.

Domestic violence

Domestic violence is a major factor affecting the family in general and women and children in particular. There is no statistics of national coverage but, according to the survey carried out in 1995 in Honiara and Guadalcanal, about 30 percent of the population covered by the survey have been victims of domestic violence and, of the victims, over 90 percent were women. About 85 percent of the victims had children. Violence against women was also higher in urban than in rural areas. Until most recently, the safety net system that catered for victims of domestic violence has been church organizations and, in some cases, the extended families and traditional systems. These systems do not cater for all. Currently the Family Support Centre in Honiara, an NGO, is assisting some victims, but most of their work is limited to urban areas.

Traditional causes for violence and crimes against the disadvantaged or the vulnerable are complex, but the recent ethnic tension and the subsequent lawlessness have had some compounding effects. During the tension and since, there have been increases in criminal activity, alcohol and drug consumption (especially by youth), family dissolution and hardship, school dropouts, unemployment, insecurity, increased promiscuity and unprotected sexual activity and trauma. These are all major impediments for improving the wellbeing of society, for which the people of Solomon Islands must address rigorously, cohesively and unequivocally.

Child Abuse

Children are often the innocent victims of domestic violence. Child abuse is not a subject that is talked about much in Solomon Islands. There is a lack of public awareness and understanding of what child abuse is and its possible consequences. The Family Support Centre is raising awareness on this issue among the people and policy-makers so that, by increasing awareness, this social disease can be prevented (Box 5.4).

As with violence against women, there have been no scientifically designed and executed national surveys on child abuse. The Social Welfare Division of the Ministry of Home Affairs and the Family Support Centre in Honiara compile statistics on child abuse including crimes committed against children, but both depend mainly on police statistics, and the coverage is limited to reported cases only. The most common crime committed against children is sexual abuse. This was reconfirmed by the ad hoc data collected by the Social Welfare Division during workshops held in the provinces. Other forms of abuse include emotional and physical neglect. The situation in Honiara is worse than elsewhere.

5.5 Health Education

There are several compelling reasons as to why a preventative is better than a curative health service approach. The economic and social benefit of preventive health care is enormous. Individuals are saved from impairment and the country has a healthy labour force with minimum expenditure on health. The Ministry of

Health and Medical Services has taken some initiatives to educate the public. Radio health programmes are broadcasted weekly covering a range of health related issues. Radio programmes are good for reaching out the populace, but they are not as effective as practical teaching through community participatory programmes for changing health practice.

Box 5.4

Child Abuse: Knowing to Prevent

The term “child abuse” refers to physical abuse, emotional abuse, sexual abuse and neglect. The abuse can be a one-off event or an escalating-pattern of behaviour and lifestyle over a period of time.

Type of abuse

Physical abuse: may include beatings, violent shaking, human bites, strangulation, suffocation, poisoning or burns. The results may be bruises and welts, broken bones, scars permanent disfigurement, long-lasting psychological damage, serious internal injuries, brain damage or death. Physical abuse of children is usually not limited to one physical attack on a child.

Emotional maltreatment: a pattern of behaviour that attacks a child’s emotional development and sense of self-worth, such as constant criticising, belittling, insulting and manipulation of the child; also providing no love, support or guidance.

Sexual abuse: this includes the sexual exploitation of a child by an older person, as in rape, incest, fondling of the genitals, exhibitionism or pornography. It may be done for the sexual gratification of the older person, out of a need for power or for economic reasons.

Neglect: the failure to provide a child with basic needs, including

food, clothing, education, shelter and medical care; also abandonment and inadequate supervision.

Physical abuse rarely occurs alone, emotional abuse occurs at the same time and accounts for many of the observed effects on the child’s emotional development.

Causes of Child Abuse

There is no single cause of any of the four types of child abuse. Research suggests that, in general, child abuse occurs in an environment where several factors (individual, familial, societal and cultural) combine.

Individual influences may include poor self esteem and problem solving skills, alcohol or drug abuse, ill health, unrealistic expectations of children, beliefs about the superiority of men and a lack of appreciation of and regard for women.

Family influences may include the ways in which families communicate and solve problems, parents’ belief in extremely harsh discipline, and domestic violence.

Community influences include poor access to public transport and health services, housing difficulties, isolation caused by living in a remote area, a isolation as a result of cultural differences.

Cultural influences: the high tolerance towards effects of abuse, violence in sport and personal violence, violence on TV and video and attitudes to or beliefs about men’s sexuality.

Effects of Child Abuse and Neglect

Child abuse affects the abused child, his or her family and neighbourhood, and the whole community, in far-reaching and often unexpected ways. The impact on children varies depending on a number of factors including the severity of the abuse, the length of time over which the abuse occurs, the age, gender and personality of the child, what other positive relationships the child may have, and the timing and the quality of intervention.

The Abusers

Most abusers are known to the child or have some sort of relationship with the child. Children are more in danger from someone they know and trust than from a stranger. The vast majority of reported abusers are adults. There are some variations in this overall pattern based on the gender of the child and the type of abuse.

Source: Family Support Centre, Honiara, Solomon Islands.

Box 5.5

Tobacco – Preventable but Still a Leading Cause of Illness

Smoking is probably the single largest preventable cause of premature deaths and disability worldwide. Yet, despite the overwhelming body of evidence linking smoking to over 40 diseases, tobacco consumption continued to increase in the Western Pacific. Already it is estimated that 60 percent of the men and eight percent of the women in the region smoke. These figures are much higher in some countries (the 1989 nutrition survey result showed that smoking among women in Solomon Islands was as high as 23 percent). In fact, according to the WHO regional report of 2000, the Western Pacific has the highest rate of increase in tobacco use than any other WHO region.

Smoking also harms non-smokers. Exposure to environmental tobacco smoke can cause death, disease and ill health. Women and children are particularly vulnerable. For example, a recent study in Australia has indicated that wives of smokers have up to a 20 percent increase in lung cancer from passive smoke. Among infants and children, the risk of reduced birth weight, sudden infant death syndrome, asthma, respiratory infection, reduced lung functioning, and middle-ear infection are increased by exposure to environmental tobacco smoking. The cost of tobacco use extends beyond health outcomes. It is a threat to human capital, and consequently

to sustainable socio-economic and environmental development.

In this respect, government is urged to improve its initiatives for controlling smoking in Solomon Islands. Appropriate legislation must be enacted and enforced to ban smoking in public places. The media should be used to promote anti-smoking campaigns. A more rigorous campaign is needed in awareness creation and in mobilizing communities, villagers and individuals for controlling tobacco use.

(Source: Reproduced from the WHO Report of the Regional Director, on the work of WHO in the Western Pacific, June 2000).

Healthy feeding practices, healthy environmental settings and health working conditions are best developed though community participation and local involvement in health-related policy making. Good health is everyone's business, and its improvement calls for the active participation of all stakeholders. Comprehensive health improvement policies and programs such as Primary Health Care (PHC) will have a lasting effect only if all stakeholders are involved. The situation is not very encouraging. Sanitary practices and access to sanitary facilities are limited to major urban areas.

Tobacco smoking is increasing and there are no programmes to discourage smoking despite compelling evidence that cigarettes have on damaging the health of smokers and non-smokers alike (Box 5.5). Taxation exemptions for cigarettes was common practice until recently, making the imported price of cigarettes lower

than that in their country of origin. The selling of cigarettes singly by street vendors encourages children to take up smoking.

5.6 Human Resources and the Health Service

Human Resources

A balanced health workforce is fundamentally important to the satisfactory delivery of health services. There has been a significant development in achieving a balanced distribution of middle level medical practitioners, specifically with regards to nurses. Throughout the nation, the nurse-per-population ratio varies from slightly below 300 (for small provinces like Rennell and Bellona) to over 500 (for larger provinces like Malaita). The national average nurse per population in 1999 was one per 455 (see Statistical Appendix Table A15). The disparity in the distribution of higher-level trained health practitioners is very high. The national level doctor-per-population ratio in 1999 was as high



as one per 9,500 and there was a large variation between provinces.

There are also few trained health managers, and most managerial posts are held by doctors who typically blend management and clinical responsibility. Nurses (there are about 900, of which about 400 are nurse aides) are the backbone of the health system, and a heavy reliance is placed on their clinical and practical skills.

Despite the desire for a better balanced health workforce, it has proved difficult to attract well-trained doctors to the public sector in general and to rural areas in particular. This is mainly due to low salaries, lack of incentives and good working conditions. The income disparity between doctors in Solomon Islands and neighbouring countries is about threefold, and most new doctors chose to stay abroad for this reason. This has led to the severe shortage of doctors and has to worsened rural/urban imbalances in the distribution of the health workforce, to the disadvantage of the rural population.

Health Facilities

Government is the main provider of health services in Solomon Islands, although the private sector also provides a significant proportion of the health services, specifically in Honiara. The health system consists of a referral system with five different levels of health facilities. At the apex is the central hospital in Honiara, which is also the national referral hospital, and at the lower level are seven provincial and two mini hospitals, 23 area health centres, 109 clinics, 114 nurse aid posts and more than 120 volunteer health worker posts. The government system is complemented by private and non-government (mainly church-based) health service providers.

Village health and nurse aid posts are at the basis of the system. Area health

centres are the first line of referral for more complicated treatment. At the top of provincial health service providers are the provincial hospitals offering paediatric, surgical and maternity services. Specialist services are available only at the referral hospital. The Central Hospital is the only National Referral Hospital (NRH) in Solomon Islands and currently has a bed capacity of 285. The bed capacity is expected to increase to 400 when the National Referral Hospital Project is complete. It is the only national hospital, which can provide all hospital-related services except for psychiatric, which are provided at Kiluufi Hospital on Malaita. It absorbs over 30 percent of the national recurrent health budget.

Rural health services are coordinated and delivered through provincial hospitals and a network of health facilities in rural areas. The network of health facilities includes Area Health Centres (AHCs), Rural Health Clinics (RHCs), Nurse Aid Posts (NAPs) and, in some cases, Village Health Worker Posts (VHWPps).

Accesses to health services have improved with upgrading of health facilities and establishing additional facilities throughout the provinces. By 1996, over 70 percent of rural communities were within one-hour's walking distance from the nearest health facility. The ratio of health facilities to the population in at least 50 percent of the provinces has reached about 1:800 in 1996 compared to 1:1,131 in 1992. However, as indicated in the medium term development strategy 1999-2001, many of the health facilities are grossly understaffed and in some cases lack essential equipment and drugs. Also reportedly there have been calls for concerted action towards renovating rural health facilities. Some of them have never been renovated since they were establishment some 20 to 30 years ago.

Box 5.6

NGOs Promoting Health

A number of NGOs in Solomon Islands are active in promoting, enhancing or providing health services. These main organizations are the Red Cross Society of Solomon Islands (RCSI), Solomon Islands Development Trust (SIDT), Soltrust, Disabled People Rehabilitation Association (DIPRA), Solomon Islands Planned

Parenthood Association (SIPPA) and Save the Children's Fund (SCF). The scope and range of services and activities provided by these organizations vary widely and include Family Health and Family Planning Programmes, Education Programmes through formal health education and drama groups, assistance in personal

health, health surveys, financing and production of health materials etc.. The organizations contribute greatly to the achievement of better health for the people of Solomon Islands. Their role is vital in capacity building, training villagers and channelling health education and development programmes to the grass root level.

Private and Non Governmental Health Services

The private health sector and church health services are an integrated part of the whole health services delivery system in Solomon Islands. They complement the government system to ensure a wider coverage of health services. Fifteen percent of all health facilities in the country are in the private sector. The scope of services provided by the non-government health services providers range from clinical and counselling services to training of health workers, nurse and nurse aids in particular. Quite a number of NGOs are also active in promoting health in Solomon Islands (Box 5.6).

Church Institutions

Churches are major contributors to the overall health services development in Solomon Islands. However, there is no clearly defined work relationship between church-run and government-run health services. There is a need for developing a framework of partnership to enhance and strengthen collaboration and partnership in health services delivery.

The Private Health Care Sector

The private health care sector constitutes a small part of the health delivery system and is mostly concentrated in Honiara. Out of the 43 medical practitioners in the

country, nine are operating in the private sector and five are specialists. This pool of doctors could be accessed and their expertise utilized in the public sector should the need arise.

5.7 Financing Health

The Solomon Islands Government is the major source of funding for health services at both the central and provincial levels. Successive governments have considered health a political priority and a right of its citizens. This has been reflected in the high proportion of the budget allocation to health (11 to 15 percent of the recurrent budget or about 3 to 5 percent of GDP), during the past few decades (see Statistical Appendix Table A14). This is quite generous at least by Pacific standards, but the health sector is facing a problem (like education) that it has inherited from colonial times – a system oriented towards publicly funded high-cost activity. These do not give best value for money and mostly benefit the fortunate few, rather than providing benefits equitably for the country as a whole.

Although in recent years there has been a paradigm move towards preventive rather than curative health system, a significant proportion of the budget is still absorbed by hospital-based curative health system.

For example, more than 30 percent of the recurrent budget is allocated to the central hospital in Honiara. The current health system represents the response to the disease pattern that was dominated by infectious disease and the dispersed settlement pattern of the country some decades ago.

5.8 Summary of Major Issues and the Way Forward

Notwithstanding the general level of improvement in the provision of health services over the past two to three decades, there are concerns that, unless addressed timely and adequately, may impede the prospect for further improvement and, in some cases, could hamper the sustainability already been achieved. In general, there is a pressing need for addressing the shortage of doctors in the country. Provinces are deprived of specialist services. There is a need for improving financial allocations, towards improving the health service delivery in the provinces.

Family planning services are not satisfactory. Reported new cases of STIs are increasing, and this should be an emergency alert, given the fact that the threat of HIV/AIDS is a major international health concern.

Supervision at all levels is inadequate, and the statistics being produced by the health information system does not cover hospitals and the private sector. Consequently it has not been possible to monitor essential information on non-communicable diseases and on leading causes of mortality. There are calls for concerted action for maintenance of health facilities and for addressing the situation of staff housing, in rural areas in particular. Private sector health services should be encouraged to play a greater role in providing health services. They should

participate in recording reporting and evaluation of health data.

The health system in Solomon Islands needs to address recurring infectious diseases as well as rising non-communicable diseases. It has been a challenge for government to sustain existing services, let alone catering for the new cases, given that the population growth rate is still among the highest in the Pacific and economic prosperity has been damaged by the recent ethnic tension. There is a continued reliance on development partners for funding health services. There is a concern that this may lead to a longer-term dependency. As an alternative, enhancing the role of the private sector in the providing basic health and introducing services charges will be possible option for speeding up the recovery and for sustaining good health of the society.

Lastly, there is pressing need for legislative powers to eliminate child abuse and to protect women from domestic violence in Solomon Islands. Child neglect is a growing concern, specifically in urban areas. Good parenting skills need to be promoted along other social development programs.



Chapter 6

Expanding Human Capabilities

6.1 Introduction

Expanding human capability is about widening people's capacities and choices for improving the level of their wellbeing. Limited levels of knowledge limit people's choice opportunities, their capabilities for attaining better standards of living and their productivity. Despite the abundance of untapped natural resources in the country, there is a lack of capability for



efficiently and sustainably developing these resources. This has limited the opportunities for improving wellbeing and enhancing standards of living.

Knowledge provides the means for expanding human capability. It goes beyond formal education. Both formal and non-formal education (including informal and traditional methods of acquiring skills) are means for expanding knowledge and for building human capital. This chapter analyses the means for acquiring knowledge and expanding and building human capital in Solomon Islands.

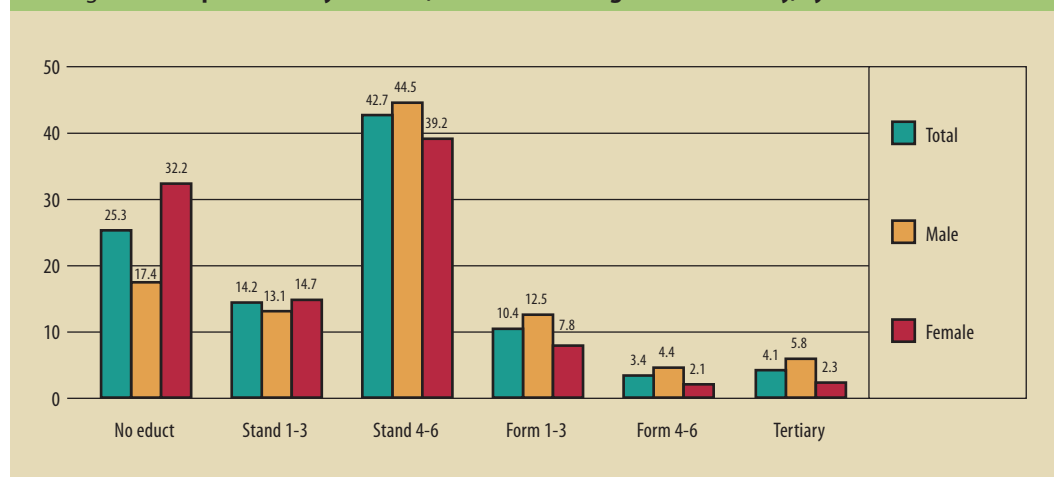
6.2 Educational Attainment

An outline of literacy in Solomon Islands, and its breakdown by gender, was given in Chapter 3. Measuring literacy is a difficult issue (see Box 6.1) and there is an urgent need for a new literacy survey. There is still a large number of illiterate people in Solomon Islands who are excluded from the world of reading and communication through written means and, consequently, they are deprived of one important means of gaining knowledge. This is particularly important considering that the world is entering the information age. The negative impact of the rate of illiteracy on the nation's potential growth and on the future societal wellbeing could be severe.

6.3 Access to Education

Education in Solomon Islands is not compulsory. Formal education refers to the

Figure 6.1: Population 15 years over, and not attending school currently, by level of education



Source: Compiled from notes on statistics in the global HDR, 2000 and Box 4 of Pacific HDR 1999.

Box 6.1

The challenge of measuring literacy

Literacy involves a continuum of reading and writing skills, often extended to basic arithmetic skills (numeracy) and life skills. The literacy rate reflects the accumulated achievement of primary education and adult literacy programmes in imparting basic literacy skills to the population. Because of the need to collect internationally comparable data, the concept of literacy is usually reduced to the standard definition – the ability to read and write, with understanding a simple statement related to one's daily life (UNESCO's definition of literacy), but those who can pass such a test are not necessarily functionally literate in the sense of being able to make productive use of literacy skills. Many developing countries (and this is particularly true of the Melanesian group in the Pacific) contains a number of groups speaking a wide variety of dialects

or languages, and an adult who is literate in the local dialect may not be literate in the national language.

Literacy ideally should be determined by measuring the reading, writing and numeracy skills of each person within the social context. Organizing such measurement during national population censuses may be too time-consuming, costly and complex. However some countries require census enumerators to administer a simple test by asking each person to read a simple, preselected text. However, enumerators usually determine literacy status on the basis of self-declaration by the head of the household. That sometimes gives rise to concerns about data reliability and thus comparability.

In Solomon Islands, the 1991 special survey by the national

literacy committee found that 47 percent of respondents claimed an ability to read and write in Pidgin, but only 16 percent were considered literate in Pidgin (only) when tested, and about 44 percent claimed literacy in English (only), but when tested only 28 percent could be accounted literate in English. Similarly only about 22 percent were literate in both Pidgin and English.

Some countries may equate never having attended school with illiteracy – or having attended school or completed grade 4 with literacy. But the latest UN recommendation advises against assuming any links between school attendance and literacy or educational attainment.

Source: Compiled from notes on statistics in the global HDR, 2000 and Box 4 of Pacific HDR 1999.

highly institutionalised, chronologically graded and hierarchically structured education system ranging from lower primary school to the upper reaches of university.

Early Childhood Education

Early Childhood Education (ECE) in Solomon Islands is a very recent development in this sector, compared to primary and secondary education. There are three levels of early childhood education – early childhood (ages 3–4), pre-school years (ages 4–5), and preparatory (ages 5–6). Preparatory classes are the first year of the formal education system, while the others are community based optional years. Many ECE centres are privately owned and operated. Some centres are attached to primary schools,

whilst others are operated separately.

Many rural communities in the provinces have started setting up centres for their children, at their own cost.

Pre-service ECE teacher training is currently offered by the Solomon Islands College of Higher Education (SICHE) with an annual intake of about 15 trainees. There are about 220 ECE centres participating in field-base training programmes in the country. The Education Sector Review 1999 estimated that there were some 14,000 children aged 5–6 enrolled in preparatory classes in 1998. Compared with the total eligible population of about 229,000, the total enrolment figure shown is only 26 percent.

Primary education

Primary education begins in Standard 1 and ends in Standard 6. In some instances

preparatory classes are classified in the primary level of education. The legal entry age for primary education ranges from 6 to 9 years. Primary education is free to all but not compulsory. In reality most, if not all, primary schools charge some form of fee to assist the operation cost of schools.

At the end of Standard 6, all students are required to sit for the Solomon Islands Secondary School Entrance Examination. With the establishment of Community High Schools the progression from Standard 6 to Form 1 has increased from less than 30 percent in 1992 to about 55 to 60 percent in 1997 and 1998. Nevertheless, the progression is still far from the level reached by other Pacific countries. The attrition rate is high for both boys and girls, but more pronounced for girls.

There has been a substantial increase in educational enrolment, noticeably during the early 1990s (Figure 6.2).

The gap in the level of school attendance between girls and boys is narrowing

Enrolment in primary schools increased at an annual average rate of about 7 percent from 1990–1993 and by about 4 percent from 1994–1997, with the 1998 data showing a decline by half of a percent. In 1999, the gross enrolment ratio at primary level of education has reached

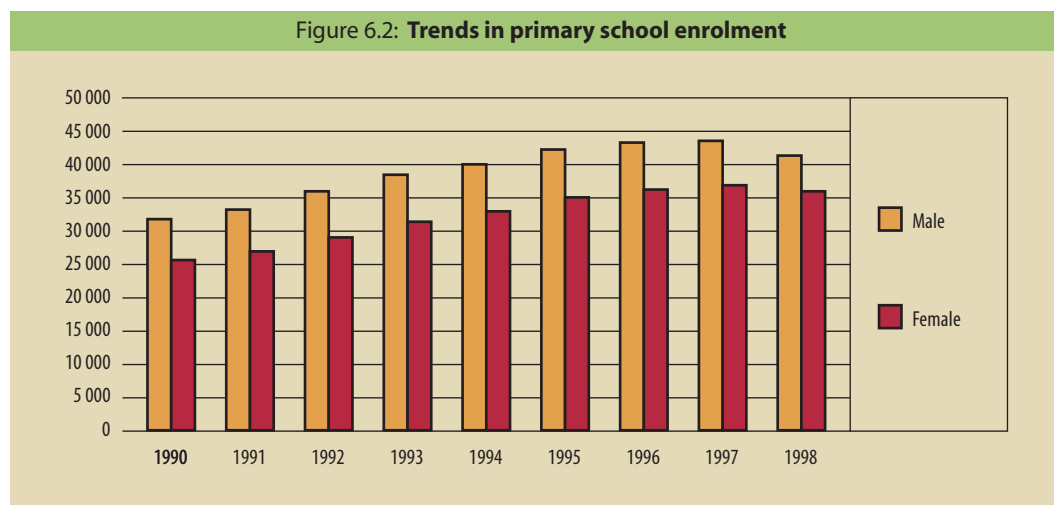
78 percent for boys, 75 percent for girls and 77 percent for the total (Figure 6.2).

Girls' enrolment at the primary level of education is also catching up with that of boys. The proportional share for girls' enrolment increased from less than 45 percent in 1990 to about 47 percent in 1998 (still less than their natural share of 49 percent).

Secondary education

In 1999, there were about 90 secondary schools operating throughout the country (nine National Secondary schools, 16 Provincial Secondary Schools and 65 Community High Schools). The original plan for Community High Schools was to provide education only up to Form 3 level, but they are currently being extended beyond capacity to cover Forms 4 and 5 to offer school education for those who would normally be 'pushed-outs' at the end of Form 3. Provincial Secondary Schools, which were initially established to offer vocational and technical subjects, are currently offering academic subjects similar to that of National Secondary Schools. All provincial and national secondary schools have established Forms 1 to 6. Only King George VI School has a Form 7 level of education.

Figure 6.2: Trends in primary school enrolment



Source: Ministry of Education Statistics, 1998.



Secondary school enrolment has increased throughout the period 1990 to 1997, and profoundly from 1995 to 1998. For some provinces, the increase was more than 100 percent (Choiseul 121 percent, Honiara 139 percent, Isabel 108 percent, Malaita 160 percent). The rapid increase in secondary school enrolment is the direct result of the establishment of the system of community high schools. In some instances, this trend has been at the expense of the quality of education. Nevertheless, only Honiara has more than half of the secondary age group population enrolled at secondary level education. Reportedly, enrolments in 1999 and 2000 were substantially lower than that of 1998 due to the closure of some secondary schools on Guadalcanal.

There was a noticeable increase in the proportional share of female enrolment in secondary education. Enrolment of girls increased at an annual average rate of 14 percent during 1990-1997 compared with that of 12 percent for boys. This trend is encouraging, for at least the lower level of secondary education. But at the upper level of secondary education enrolment is still dominated by boys. In the 1997 enrolment data, there was only one girl attending Form 7 among 41 boys. In the 1999 census data, the share of girls in Forms 4-6 was only 36 percent, compared to about 42 percent in Forms 1-3. As in the primary level, there are provincial differences in secondary school enrolment. But the differences, compared with the primary level, are marginal. The only province enjoying better secondary level education is Isabel.

Overall attendance

Based on school attendance data of the 1986 and 1999 censuses, enrolment increased from about 35 percent in 1986 to over 56 percent in 1999. The increase was higher for girls (23 percent) than boys (20 percent). Consequently, the gap

between the level of school attendance of girls and boys is narrowing, more specifically among the under 14 years. At the latter age, however, the difference remained high. In 1999, the peak of school attendance for both boys and girls was reached at about the age of 12, and remains at about 75 percent before it start diminishing at the age of 14. Then decline is faster for girls than boys. In most Pacific Island nations, attendance reaches its maximum point at a much earlier age and its peak is about 15 percentage points higher than that of Solomon Islands (Pacific HDR 1999, pp 38 – 39).

Also, despite developments in the general level of school enrolment and the improvement in girls' participation, disparities in the enrolment level for the various provinces are persisting. Attendance by the school age population in Guadalcanal, Central Province and Malaita was behind others. The difference is more pronounced in the level of school attendance by girls. Girls' enrolment is significantly lower than boys in Malaita, Makira, Temotu and Central provinces.

6.4 Tertiary Education

Since the Solomon Island College of Higher Education (SICHE) was established in 1985, it has become the main provider of post-secondary education in Solomon Islands. It has seven schools which offer a wide variety of proficiency, certificate and diploma award courses. A Bachelor of Business programme started in 1997 and a Bachelor in Teaching (Secondary) Degree started in the School of Education in 1999. The College enrolls a substantial number of students both pre-service and in-service in its courses. The average annual enrolment is about 2000 students.

Tertiary education is supplemented by an overseas scholarship scheme. Overseas enrolment usually accounts

for about 35 percent of the total tertiary level enrolment. The majority of students studying at tertiary level are on scholarships funded either by the Solomon Islands Government or by third country scholarship awards.

The University of the South Pacific (USP) Centre in Honiara offers both credit and non-credit courses through the distance education mode. The target groups are both school leavers who study full time and workers who study as part-time students. A small percentage of students are enrolled in New Zealand, Australian and Papua New Guinea universities and colleges. These are mostly at first degree and postgraduate award levels which currently cannot be offered by SICHE. There were 644 students pursuing overseas training in 1998, and approximately 20 percent were females. However, this figure reduced to 496 students in 2000. In 2000, about 180 students could not resume studies at the University of the South Pacific in Fiji, due to lack of finance from the government.

Despite its experience of a decade and half, some prominent weaknesses in the SICHE-offered courses remained to be solved. Scholarships, and hence the courses undertaken by students at SICHE, are heavily weighted in favour of government services, such as health and education. There is, for example, no specific training provided for the tourism and accommodation industry, food processing, small business development, timber processing and retailing – all surprising omissions given the importance of these sectors for the nation's future economic growth.

6.5 The Standard and Relevance of Formal Education

Improving the quality and standard of education is a major concern in Solomon

Islands. Quality assurance seems to rely on the network of school inspectors, who may visit a school once a year or not at all. That is normally attributed to limited availability of transport. There is no school-based quality assurance mechanism to evaluate performance of teachers and the school as a whole.

The recent report on the means and percentages of those 'at risk' in the Pacific Islands Literacy Level (PILL) English Literacy and Numeracy test for Solomon Islands showed a substantial decline in Class 4 literacy (by 15 percent) and numeracy (by 9.5 percent) between 1993 and 1999. It was further noted that the decline occurred at the same time as, and is probably at least partly caused by, a catastrophic decline in operational grants to schools, and also possibly due to larger class sizes caused by enrolment increases. There is an urgent need to re-examine the equity and adequacy of teaching across all provinces and the quality of teaching in newly established schools in rural areas.

From the PILL analysis, it was noted that Class 4 students in 1999 were clearly less literate and numerate than those in 1993 in almost every province. The decline was significant in almost all provinces, except for Temotu, where school expansion in the last decade was lower than others.

Over 40 percent
of students are
'pushed out' at
the completion
of Standard 6

However, performance at the upper secondary level appears encouraging. The performance of Solomon Island students according to the scaled mean score for Pacific Senior Secondary Certificate examination results of 1999 was above the regional average. On average, Solomon Islands students scored about 10 percent above the overall mean with particularly strong results in Biology, English, Physics, Agriculture and Development Studies.



Nevertheless, it should be noted that Solomon Islands students in upper secondary constituted only a small number of students (349) out of a cohort of 8,400 – a mere 4 percent survivals to Form 6 level. The scaled mean scores are therefore for the top 4 percent, as compared to that of other Pacific nations where typically 10 to 20 percent survive to Form 6 level. There is a strong indication that, had it been not for limitation of access, many more Solomon Island students could have progressed and performed well in to the senior secondary level of education.

It has also been noted that boys consistently scored above girls in all subjects except English and geography. Boys do better in history and mathematics than girls. In fact, the reports showed that gender

differences for Solomon Islands are more noticeable than any other country in the region. There is clearly a need for improving not only access, but also the learning environment to improve the performance of girls in Solomon Islands. Education of girls has more reward not only for girls themselves but also for the community and the county as a whole (Box 6.2).

The other aspect of education that has been of increasing concern for both students and parents alike relates to relevance – ‘education for what?’ It has become a serious problem in rural areas in particular. Some schools do not have adequate curricula for the teachers, many schools do not have complete facilities (including water, toilets, reading rooms, security), some teachers are not trained

Box 6.2

Social and economic benefits of girls’ education

The international evidence is that education of women makes strong economic sense. There is a direct relationship between female education and GDP, and almost always, gender disparities in educational attainment have a reducing effect on the GDP.

Greater schooling of mothers leads to better hygiene, improved nutritional practices, and grater effectiveness in caring for their family’s health. Additional schooling gives the mother more control over the frequency and spacing of children, and to better access to health services. Mothers’ education improves the education of children. It has a larger impact on children’s schooling than fathers’ education and exerts much more effect on the schooling of daughters than boys.

In countries of the South Pacific, investment in women’s education,

in addition to directly improving the welfare of women, is likely to show benefits in two important areas. First, the education of women is likely to result in improvements to health. Much of the sickness and disease in Vanuatu, Solomon Islands and PNG, especially for children, is a result of a few communicable diseases, which often involve the interaction of infection and malnutrition. Major improvements could be achieved through simple and inexpensive methods such as provision of health and nutrition education for females. All the evidence for developing countries suggests that there is likely to be a substantial pay-off in improved family and child health from investing in the education of females.

The second major pay-off is likely to result from the correlation between women’s education and

reduced fertility. At the present level of growth (2.8 percent per annum) the population of Solomon Islands will double in less than 25 years, and the consequence for employment, schooling and the provision of health services will be enormous. A major piece of international evidence is the finding that there is a threshold effect for women’s schooling and fertility reduction: -only when women have at least completed primary school is there a significant correlation between schooling and fertility reduction. Policies to increase the quantity and quality of schooling received by girls are vital, and probably indispensable, part of policies for population control, and the need for such control for Solomon Islands is urgent.

Source: Reproduced (with modification) from Pacific HDR



or qualified, teachers spend substantial numbers of working days coming to provincial centres for salary payment, schools do not have operational funds, and in some cases class are not operated on a continuing basis. This can contribute to lower performance, loss of interest and involuntary dropouts at primary school level. Over 40 percent of students are pushed out at the completion of Standard 6, and some are not made adequately literate, let alone acquiring the necessary skills to join the work force. In this respect, a concerted action is required to enhance the quality and relevance of education, for at least basic education.

6.6 Non-formal Education

Non-formal, and/or informal, education includes any organized or systematic educational activities carried out outside of the framework of the formal system to provide selected types of learning to particular subgroups of the population, adults as well as children. Various forms of non-formal educational tools, mechanisms or methods have been used to equip people with knowledge. These cover Community Development, Adult Education, Basic Education, Informal Education, Adult Basic Education and Non-formal Youth Education.

In community development, education that is carried out is normally aimed at encouraging people to take control of their lives, to develop fully their human potential and to promote community empowerment. This involves people coming together in groups to identify their collective needs and to develop programmes to meet these needs. Those involved in this area of learning see the way the work is carried out as important as the programme being undertaken. The process in this instance stresses the need to develop community awareness,

engender group cohesiveness, and promote self-reliance and collective actions. Most women's groups, resource management groups, churches and NGOs are active players in this area. Very little data is available on what areas are covered by what organization.

Informal training activities are being carried out in the area of Adult Education (including formal tertiary education, literacy, primary health care and some home craft skills, education and training for the formal and informal sectors of the economy, cultural and political education). Church organizations, the government and NGOs have been active in this area of learning. Again, important as it may be in the building of human capacity in Solomon Islands, there is very little data available in this area. Very little research has been carried out to find out what is going on and the impact that this has in empowering communities.

There has also been informal education, mainly carried out by women at the community level to educate their children on the lifelong process by which they acquire and accumulate knowledge, skills, attitudes and insights from daily experiences and exposure to the environment at home, at work and at play. Much of this education in Solomon Islands at a young age is started by the parents, the community and further assisted by the formal and informal sector in their various programmes. This form of acquiring knowledge and skills will remain a very important area in Solomon Islands for many more years to come, given the fact that there will continue to be many people left out from the formal sector due to many reasons, one of which is access.

Adult Basic Education of limited scope is also provided by NGOs, community organizations, churches, women's groups,



and indigenous organizations in various provinces. It encompasses organized training that meets the basic learning needs of adults, in general knowledge, skills, values and attitudes that they require to survive and develop their capacity and living standards. These organizations are mainly women's organizations, councils of chiefs, resource owners' organizations and tribal communities that operate in the various provinces. These forms of acquiring knowledge are particularly important for indigenous groups. The importance lies in the relationship that indigenous people have with their environment and land. Indigenous people of Solomon Islands are people who have physical as well as spiritual attachment to their land and their environment. They are also people who have resources, aspirations, and the potential to achieve a better standard of living giving the opportunity to acquire knowledge and to make informed changes. Further research will be needed to explore this further.

In an attempt to cater for the needs of school 'push-outs', non-formal youth education has been provided. The sectoral ministries, NGOs and church organizations

have been implementing educational programmes which assist and are aimed at enhancing personal, social, and political development of young people. This, in effect, has complemented the defined school curriculum and is implemented primarily by voluntary youth organizations and groups, working with NGOs. Such programmes however do not reach the majority and are mostly confined to urban centres, mainly due to resource limitation.

Non-formal education is also provided by government departments as part of their service to the community, and by statutory agencies in terms of their in-house training programmes for their employees, as well as education for public awareness of the services they are providing. Apart from these, regular non-formal education is provided by community based groups, rural training centres, NGOs and by a few private sector organizations

There are 41 Vocational Training Centres (VTCs), 24 of which are residential and eight are currently not operational. All RTCs are owned and operated by church authorities. In addition, there are 13 Village Based Centres (VBC) and four

Box 6.3

Community Based Groups

Non-formal education at the village level is carried out by community groups. Many of these are organized according to their church affiliations such as the Mothers Union (Church of Melanesia), Dorcas Welfare (Seven Day Adventist), United Church Women's Fellowship (United Church) and youth groups. Others, such as women's clubs, are organized more on the basis of common interest for upgrading of knowledge and skills of the

ordinary village people, as well as raising the standard of living in the villages generally.

These groups effectively reach village people as they operate amongst them on a daily basis. They educate village people through their village-based programmes about such skills as literacy, village based technology, health and nutrition issues and vegetable gardening. Many of these education programmes are

integrated as part and parcel of village life; therefore the clients easily put the knowledge and skills into their daily village routine and plans for improving their life styles. Interestingly, many of the initiators, strong advocates and leaders of these groups are women. As one woman put it 'I spend time with the women's group because its activities and training programmes relate well into our daily lives as women in our struggle to develop our families.'

Box 6.4

Other Examples of Informal Skill Training

A number of private sector organizations are providing basic skill training for their clients. Business management courses are provided by the Solomon Islands Small Business Enterprises Centre (SISBEC). The centre has a full-time trainer in Honiara and eight part time trainers in the provinces. Willies Skills Electrical Centre (WSEC) is providing basic electrical skill training. Non-government

organizations such as, Solomon Islands Development Trust (SIDT) is active throughout the provinces in providing education in areas of sanitation, eco-forestry, seaweed farming, butterfly ranching, and "supsup" gardening. Solomon Islands Planned Parenthood Association (SIPPA), through its network of community-based distributors, is providing reproductive health education.

The Literacy Association of Solomon Islands (LASI) and the Solomon Islands Translation Advisory Group (SITAG) are providing training for local training educators, who, in turn, provide literacy training for community groups. And the Solomon Islands Credit Union League (SICUL) provides training on operating and managing credit, and on how to start and develop business.

Village Based Education Programs (VBEP). These are all operated by communities. The latter typically provide short courses, without a building infrastructure, while RTCs offer residential courses varying in length from 1-3 years.

RTC curricula include motor mechanics, electronics, agriculture, building and joinery and home economics. The curriculum is complemented by centre-based small enterprises, e.g. bee-farming/honey managed by the students.

The RTCs are a critical component of the non-formal education sector. They are not designed to provide an alternative strand for 'pushed out' students but offer broad-based life skills for people of all ages to improve the livelihoods of communities and villages. The total number of students enrolled in residential RTCs that are operating in 2001 was 1,024, of which 70 percent were males. The capacity of residential RTCs is reported at around 1,800.

6.7 Education Financing

The overall share of the education budget in the total recurrent expenditure in Solomon Islands is high, at least by Pacific standards. Despite the government's financial difficulties, the share of the

education budget remained over 15 percent. Despite the generosity of the allocation, the cost-effectiveness of financial allocations has always been in question (Box 6.5). The operational cost allocation is disproportionately skewed towards higher levels of education – at the expense of lower levels.

Approximately 10 percent of the operation cost in the 1999 actual recurrent expenditure was allocated for primary education, compared to 20 percent for secondary education and 70 percent for tertiary education (i.e. SICHE). Consequently, schools – especially at primary level in Solomon Islands – are operating under tight and inadequate finance resources. In many cases, primary schools do not receive their school grants on time to prepare for the school term – or do not receive them at all because they are channelled through provincial authorities and had been used for other services. This is depressing the morale of teachers and obstructing parental desires for sending their children to school.

This was made worse in the last two years by the social unrest in Guadalcanal province. Schools have not received grants from the national government since,

Box 6.5

Education Budgeting Not Effective

Because too much public money has been allocated to the upper and post-secondary levels, Solomon Islands has not achieved outcomes in education that are commensurate with its public spending. The outstanding public response to the community high schools is testament to the huge demand for junior secondary schooling. Increased coverage and quality of basic education are major priorities for the next 10 – 15 years.

It is not difficult to understand the importance that Solomon Islands has attached to training high level nationals and to do so at mostly public expense. At independence,

the government had to grapple with what has been described as “a population barely exposed to modern standard of education (with) a negligible share trained at secondary and post secondary level”. Given the geography of Solomon Island, and the scattered population, those selected for secondary schools were educated in boarding schools often located in different provinces. The fortunate few who secured enrolment in prestigious national high schools received high quality education at considerable public cost.

Reducing the proportion of public expenditure allocated to the upper

secondary and post-secondary levels does not mean the training of high-level staff ceases to be important. It means, instead, that a greater share of the costs of higher education must be borne by students and their families rather than by government. Estimating the exact scope for user charges in national secondary schools and SICHE will require a detailed implementation study focusing on the scope for raising revenue and how this can be done equitably. This study has a high priority.

Source: Reproduced from ADB, Solomon Islands 1997 Economic Report.

and have shortened their school terms significantly. In 2000 and 2001, schools have been operating on grants provided by the New Zealand Government.

SICHE is experiencing the worst financial crisis in its history, and has not been able to start semester 2 for the 2001 academic year. Teachers and lecturers, like other government employees, have not been paid their salaries on schedule. The fees and allowances of many SIG sponsored students studying both in country and overseas have not been paid and this has negatively impacted the moral of many students.

6.8 Educational Management

The Ministry of Education comprises various units whose long-term initiatives need better integration and coordination. There are no clearly articulated plans and strategies to guarantee such integration and coordination at present. For example, there is no timely exchange of information between the Program Implantation Unit and the Examinations Administration

Unit, and SICHE seems to be operating in isolation to the Ministry of Education.

Inspectors are not visiting schools on a regular basis, and enrolment data that were supposedly to be collected by inspectors are always behind schedule. There is a serious shortcoming in the way salaries are paid for teachers. In some instances, teachers are wasting as much as a week of working days per month for coming to the provincial centres to collect their salaries.

As it was convincingly argued by a recent EU rehabilitation feasibility study report¹ that there is no clear line of communication between the educational authorities of the national and provincial governments and schools. Divisions of the Ministry of Education have no clear duties. Duplication of tasks exist and responsibilities amongst divisions (e.g. it is not clear who is responsible for compiling enrolment, examinations and post secondary training and non-formal education data.

¹ EU consultant feasibility study report, 1999, Rehabilitation program for the education sector in Malaita and Guadalcanal provinces (1).



At present, stakeholders are unclear about what functions they perform (for example, as an employer, the ministry should be responsible for providing accommodation for teachers. But currently, communities are building staff houses and the government is paying housing allowances). Likewise, there is uncertainty in the part of stakeholders as to who is responsible for maintaining facilities. The condition of some schools is very poor. There are shortcomings to do with management, a lack of accountability and transparency at the Ministry of Education, and there is a clear need to examine how to improve the performance, efficiency and cohesiveness of the various divisions and stakeholders of education in the country.

6.9 Major Challenges and the Way Forward

Making education relevant

Knowledge and skills transmitted through traditional education will continue to have important survival and added market value in Solomon Islands. It is vital in sustaining and developing village life. The knowledge and skills transmitted through traditional education can be used to develop and sustain the basis for food security in rural areas and supplement food supply in urban areas. Traditional education can also play an important role in fostering national unity and identity. This may take the form of enforcing common values shared by all ethnic groups in the country.

Currently, there is a missing link for bridging modern education, traditional skills and customary values. At present, barely one in two Solomon Islands students completes Form 1-3 level of education. Most are pushed out at Standard 6. Most of these children have the capacity and the desire for pursuing further education, but are deprived of this right. These children are not able to follow their parents in acquiring the necessary

traditional skills – nor do they have the desire – for survival in traditional village life. Many children are therefore pushed out of the formal education system before acquiring the necessary skills for survival or even before they reach the adulthood, but are attracted by urban lifestyles. As a result, many of these children are cut off from the traditional way of life, and are becoming dissatisfied with life in general. Many are ended up as urban wanderers – and many are seduced into crime.

Curriculum Development and Materials

In the absence of up-to-date and relevant curriculum, the standard and quality of education being offered will be in question. Reportedly, there are serious bottlenecks in curriculum production at the MoE. Apart from funded projects producing materials for primary English and Mathematics, other subjects at the primary level have not produced and distributed any curriculum support materials since the 1980s. Although the Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) has produced many of the required Form 1-3 student books under overseas funding assistance, many Community High Schools do not have Library, Science Laboratory, Industrial Arts and Home Economics facilities. Curriculum materials for Forms 4-5 have not been re-supplied to schools since they were first produced in the 1980s.

Improvement of Teachers Training

The other major constraint in the education system is the shortage of trained teachers. According to the teacher education and training report 2001, one in four primary and CHS teachers are trained. The main weakness of having untrained teachers is their lack of teaching skills and their inability to prepare effective lesson plans to cover the whole syllabus. The problem will continue to prevail until a coordinated and sustained teachers' training program is established. The present teachers training

program of SICHE is not adequate to solve the problem.

Improve National Co-ordination and Monitoring

School administration and management also have problems. Much of the operational system has not changed from its original set-up by the colonial administrators. There is a lack of progressive work towards an articulated vision. The Planning, Implementation and Research Unit (PIRU) works merely to administer one education project after another. There is a need for improving and speeding up data collection and dissemination for monitoring and planning purposed.

Improving Access

From the foregoing analysis on the education returns of the 1999 census, it is obvious that a significant proportion of the school age population remains outside of the formal education school system. Even at the peak enrolment ages of 12 to 14 years, one in four remain outside the school system. The gross enrolment of the population in the age group 5-19 is about 56 percent. The situation is worse for girls than for boys and worse in certain provinces than others. About 40,000 children in the age group 5 to 14 year were not attending school at the time of the census. As a first priority, there is an urgent need for a strategy for catering for basic education of at least primary level for these young people. Furthermore, the fact that children in some areas are less able to pursue education than others needs immediate attention. Secondly, girls should not be denied of their right for equal education at all level.

Access is further hindered by affordability, especially at the high school level. Fees for secondary education vary according to the type of secondary school, but the cheapest

annual fee for CHSs range between \$500 and \$1,000. All rural training centres charge fees ranging from \$100 to \$1,455 per student annually. These are simply too much for the majority of the rural population where monthly cash incomes are only about \$50.

Building new schools, and the expansion of existing ones, need proper coordination. This would help to solve the issue of distribution and therefore fairness in access. The distribution of new schools should be based on regional school access data in order to create fair access and avoid under-utilization of school facilities.

Access to education, and tertiary education in particular, will only be improved if a mixed mode delivery system is adopted. SICHE should adopt a mixed-mode model as its standard delivery mode, determine a preferred mix (which will vary according to the particular need) and prepare a plan to implement it. It may be that an initial mix of 50 percent face-to-face and 50 percent distance education would be appropriate in terms of client satisfaction, educational effectiveness and cost efficiency.

The radio spectrum continues to be a significantly under-utilised medium for increasing the access of students and teachers to different levels of education. A National Schools Broadcasting Program, remembered fondly by many adults, was discontinued several decades ago. Current use appears to be limited to some programs by USP and SICHE and a regular program by SIARTC of three fifteen-minute broadcasts each week. A committee has recently been established to develop a proposal for the re-establishment of a National Schools Broadcasting Program.

Quality and relevance must be a factor of life in the provision of educational services. This begins from early childhood to tertiary education. Close monitoring



and audits must be carried out regularly to ensure that schools are maximum learning environments by providing sufficient school resources, good school leadership, and trained committed teachers. Curricula should be re-evaluated for their relevance. There should be regular appraisal of teacher performance and analysis of examination performance trends, skill development and vocational training by schools and the Ministry of Education to ascertain the quality and standard of educational services offered.

There is a need for rigorously address gender imbalances more specifically at upper secondary and higher levels of education.

Chapter 7

Improving Livelihoods

7.1. Introduction

Economic activity in Solomon Islands has been dominated by the primary exporting sector involving large-scale commercial tree crop plantations, large-scale commercial fishing and large-scale commercial logging. There has also been a large public sector that only has just started to undergo structural transformation, a small private sector unable to compete and a subsistence sector that provides the main source of livelihoods for over 85 percent of the population.

From the 1999 Census, out of a population of 409,042, a total of 354,310 people (175,781 males and 169,529 females) were resident in rural areas and about 63,014 people were in urban and administrative areas. In view of this large rural based population, the major concern of government has been employment and income-generation, especially as the urban formal employment sector was not

absorbing new entrants into the labour force.

From 1994 to 1997, economic growth was artificially dependent on unsustainable large-scale harvesting of logs, and high prices for oil palm and fish. So, when economic activity declined due to low cyclical world prices, later to be reinforced by the social unrest, there was no fallback position. By the end of 2000, the economy had shrunk by 10 percent. As many as 10,000 people previously employed by on the Solomon Island Plantation Limited (SIPL) palm oil plantations, logging companies on Guadalcanal and in the Western Provinces, and Solomon Taiyo Ltd (STL) were laid off their jobs.

Given the poor record of recent decades, the challenge for the Solomon Islands economy is to re-structure it in order to create satisfying employment for more people and to satisfy the twin needs of income generation as well as subsistence living. It also needs to be decentralized across the entire country. It needs to be not as dependent as it has been:

- on an unsustainably large public sector
- on only a few commodities
- on crops which attract consistently low world commodity prices
- on large-scale commercial extractive industries requiring large-scale labour migration and concentrated in a few locations.



7.2 The Rural Subsistence Sector

Crops

In Solomon Islands the basic economic unit is the family household within which many individuals operate. In 1999, there were 65,014 households with an average of six people per household. In rural areas in the country, subsistence production is largely confined to agricultural crops,



especially food crops, which are grown for home consumption and the surplus sold for cash income in nearby markets. The 1997 Village Resources Survey ranked sweet potatoes and cassavas as the commonly grown subsistence food crops. This was followed by yam, sugar, taro and betel nut. Two years later, the 1999 Census indicated that banana has become the most favoured crop with 86 percent of all households growing it. This was followed by root staples, such as sweet potatoes and cassava at 84 percent, pana at 66 percent, yam at 65 percent and taro at 62 percent.

In villages, these key staple crops are grown based on shifting cultivation practices. This traditional practice involves growing crops sometimes two to three times a year on the same area of land. After three years of cultivating the same crops on the same patch of land, soil fertility declines. The household then shifts to another location or merely expands cultivation boundaries. Due to increasing population pressure on arable land, in some areas, such as Malaita, steep slopes or hilly non-arable land are increasingly being cultivated. The amount of available arable agricultural land in Solomon Islands, therefore, is under stress. Guadalcanal remains the only area that can provide for large-scale lowland cropping.

Livestock

The main types of livestock in the informal and subsistence sector are pigs and poultry, with cattle being only a recent introduction. Poultry and cattle are raised by 37 percent of households. Chickens are traditionally reared free-ranged. Few cattle are kept as they need to be kept in fenced pastures but, as they require large areas of land as there is inadequate pasture management, only a few households who have primary rights to large tracks of land rear cattle.

Pigs, on the other hand, are raised by 45 percent of all households. Pigs

traditionally play an important role in feasts and other customary ceremonies. Increasingly, as cash is increasingly needed in villages for immediate household needs, pigs are sold for cash to meet many household needs. There are significant differences in pig rearing between provinces. In Temotu, Malaita and Guadalcanal, 66 percent, 61 percent and 58 percent of households respectively raised pigs against only 27 percent in Choiseul and Western Province.

Fish

Fish represent a very strong presence in the dietary habits of households. About 62 percent of households catch fish for consumption, 39 percent consuming shellfish. In Western Province, 87 percent of households eat fish most of the time, in Temotu it is 85 percent. The prominence of fish in dietary habits of households in Western and Temotu Provinces relates to the ease with which households access the sea as a common resource compared to, say, Malaita, where it is much lower.

Barter

In the old days, bartering involved exchanging one set of food staples (normally crops) for fish or pigs and it has a very strong role in maintaining social cohesion and relative peace in between villages. It is still practised in some areas of the country. In Malaita, it involves the exchange of food crops for fish between the 'bush people' and the 'salt water people'.

7.3 The Rural Informal Sector

Coconut and Copra Production

The importance of coconuts as a source of food and cash income in copra terms to rural households varies from 63 percent of households in Choiseul, 58 percent in Makira/Ulawa, 54 percent in Western, 55 percent in Temotu, 53 percent in Isabel, 45 percent in Guadalcanal, 46 percent in Central, 39 percent in Renbell to 34



percent in Malaita. Large-scale commercial copra production earned about 80 percent of total foreign exchange earnings in the 1970s and early 1980s but, by 1999, its importance has reduced to 3 percent. Its importance is now confined to the village informal economy.

The Copra Board was set up in 1953 to organize the buying of copra from villages, transport it to central locations and export it to overseas markets. In 1985 the Copra Board changed its name to the Commodities Export Marketing Authority (CEMA) to include cocoa and to improve domestic marketing and undertake more sustainable development. Total household copra production achieved an historical high in 1985-1986 of 42,000 metric tonnes. Since then, it has reduced substantially and, in 1999, annual production has been ranging between 25,000 and 30,000 tonnes.

A CEMA review of the factors that determine production showed that it is a function of good prices, good coastal transport, good coastal storage, and a good flow of information. In 1987-1988 CEMA embarked on the setting up buying points, improved the copra pricing system, and got involved directly in coastal transport to ensure it met its commitments on annual overseas contracts. By 1999, CEMA had set up 50 buying points and 55 ports of call. Originally, this marketing network was funded from STABEX Funds but, increasingly as government development funds became scarce, CEMA had to use its 'domestic price stabilization funds' (DPSF) to fund this network including the purchase of three vessels. CEMA is now in severe financial difficulties and the nationwide infrastructure network needs improving to enable increased participation by smallholders as entrepreneurs. If government plans are to privatise the industry, smallholders would require access to credit and business training.

CEMA, under its coconut development programme 1990-2000, embarked on small-scale copra crushing to add value to the raw material, with better prospects for the sustainable development of the coconut as a cash crop for the growing rural population. New small-scale product technology, new skills, and ways of doing things were introduced and, by 1998, six small mills were set up nationwide in Temotu, Makira, Malaita, Western, Guadalcanal and Choiseul. Households near to these mills receive a regular income source, as the mills require a consistent supply of copra. In addition they also have access to the by-product copra cake, which can be fed to pigs. Given the growing rural population, the challenge for government is to ensure sustainable development of the coconut. This requires more participation by households, either as individual entrepreneurs or in small companies, in adding value to the coconut.

Copra is labour intensive and is still the pre-dominant activity and source of incomes in rural areas. Over 60 percent of the rural population is involved directly in copra production. Increasingly, households need to look at adding value to the crop, in a small-scale and in the village environment.

Cocoa Production

Cocoa ranks second to copra as an important source of cash income. Household plots range from 0.2 ha to 0.5 ha with 1000-1100 trees per hectare. It takes three years from planting to first harvesting and trees can remain productive up to 20 years or more provided basic upkeep and maintenance is undertaken. Production periods on Guadalcanal and Malaita are on average in a normal year between February-July and again in October-November. Most farmers sell wet beans to local buyers who ferment and dry the beans.

Cocoa has considerable cash-earning potential as indicated by its low volume high value performance. According to the Ministry of Agriculture, estimates based on the strength of export performance in late 1980s were that, by 2002, the country should be producing and exporting 20,000 to 25,000 metric tonnes of dry cocoa annually. Exports today average only about 4,000 tonnes. Bottlenecks include the poor availability of information on research findings, low funding, low price, poor transport, a shortage of responsible local buyers, inadequate storage and the lack of an international image for Solomon Islands' cocoa.

A Gender Division of Labour

Time spent by men and women based on the 1985 Agricultural Survey showed that women spent more time than men in food gardens, but men spent more time than women on the production of copra and cocoa. In food gardens women spend between 60 percent to 80 percent of their time on gardening (planting, weeding and harvesting) and preparing food for consumption. Men spend between 60 percent and 75 percent of their time on copra making and women between 40 percent and 25 percent. A similar pattern applies for cocoa.

Forestry

From village resource surveys, other small-scale economic activities undertaken for cash included logging and timber milling, fishing and village businesses including stores. Logging and sawmilling involved 131 villages out of a total of 4,174 villages. Chainsaw operations occupied 1,239 households. Small-scale village-based forestry-related activities are common in Malaita, Guadalcanal, Western, Makira and Choiseul.

There is potential for further development of timber milling and other timber

products. To increase the level of participation, there would need to be improvements in access to credit for the purchase of chainsaws, business training, the availability of reasonably priced coastal transport and ease of access to market outlets.

Village Businesses

The following table shows the types of businesses engaged in by the rural informal sector:

The development of the small enterprise sector was actively spearheaded under the small business development and cooperatives scheme between the 1970s and 1990s. However the focus and commitment of resources by government

Types of business	Number of households
Trade stores	3 405
Vegetable growing	2 803
Fuel depots	1 054
Transport	504
Fishing	343
Copra buying	154
Credit unions	113
Cocoa buying	101
Liquor outlets	59
Video outlets	50
Other businesses	267

Source: 1997 Village Resource Survey

diverted instead to large-scale logging, large-scale commercial tree crops and fishing as promising better alternative sources of employment, income and livelihoods saw the decline of small enterprise development. The Ministry of Commerce, through its small business development scheme under the auspices of UNDP, has attempted to re-activate



the sector but it needs commitment on the part of government if any measure of success is to be achieved.

Household Incomes

There are six main sources of village household incomes. Ranked in order, they are garden crops, copra, cocoa, saw milling, village businesses and wages. The importance of wages as a contributing source of income varies considerably depending on access to opportunities within the village, close proximity to big employment centres and to provincial administrative centres such as Honiara, Gizo, Auki or Kirakira. In the more remote areas, the importance of wages is low. The potential of food non-food crops to generate cash and as a source of livelihood clearly exists but, to harness this potential in real job employment and cash terms, requires commitment.

7.4 The Rural Formal Sector

The rural formal sector in Solomon Islands has, for a number of decades, been made up primarily of large-scale commercial logging, tree crops and fisheries. This sector has been provided the main source of employment and wage incomes for almost 37,000 people and their extended families. During the last three years, low world prices, the impact of the Asian financial crisis on logging, and the recent social unrest has brought these industries to almost a complete stop.

Copra and Cocoa

Russell Islands Plantations Limited (RIPEL), a subsidiary of CEMA, employed 1,200 workers. With dependents, the total number of people relying on that company for income and basic livelihood was up to 4,000. CEMA also has been badly affected by the tension, however a major cause of its financial problems relate to the poor management performance and the misallocation of funds. No working capital

is currently available to buy copra from producers. Considering the dire economic circumstance of the government, the only way appears to be privatization – if only a buyer could be found.

Palm Oil and Kernels

Solomon Islands Plantations Limited (SIPL) used to employ just over 2,500 people on their estate in eastern Guadalcanal. In addition, other allied services were provided both to employees and landowners such as schools and clinics, as well as rents and royalties, grants, and other related services. SIPL has now closed as result of the social tension and most of its labour force, who were from Malaita, were forcibly repatriated. As facilities have been destroyed and there is as yet no solution to the underlying causes of the tension, it is unlikely that SIPL will re-open.

Fisheries

The large-scale fisheries industry was dominated by Solomon Taiyo Ltd (STL). STL employed about 3,000 workers and economic spin offs in the form of rents, royalties to reef owners and other services provided to the provinces and surrounding communities amounted to \$12 million annually. Again the spill-over effects of the social tension on Guadalcanal resulted in the temporary closure of STL. Operations have re-started but it will take time to reach pre-tension production levels, as new workers will need time to acquire new skills.

Timber and Logs

Large-scale logging activity provided the impetus for economic growth in 1994-1996, but at the cost of the environment as extraction levels were unsustainable. There were many breaches of the codes and standards established under the Timber Act 1996 designed to regulate extraction. Logging employed a large number of local people, and so was an important source of job employment, cash incomes and

livelihood. It also provided government with its main source of tax and duty revenue for its recurrent expenditures. As most logging companies were from Asia, the Asian financial crisis affected them greatly and the industry has now ceased.

7.5 Urban Formal and Informal Sectors

Urban Formal

Formal wage employment is largely provided by government. In the secondary and tertiary sectors, the private sector provides a range of services.

Employment by government and the private sector in 1986 and 1999 showed the following comparison:

The increase in total urban formal sector employment over the 12 year period, 1986-1999, was more than 10,000 or 42 percent. There was a small increase in public sector employment (9 percent), but the main source of increased employment was from the private sector (65 percent).

Urban Informal

Honiara is the only real urban centre in Solomon Islands. Until the social conflict, the rate of 'urban drift', or migration to Honiara from other parts of the country, had grown at an astonishing rate. There were corresponding reductions in the populations of other semi-urban centres, with the exception of Gizo in Western Province (see Figure 2.3 in Chapter 2). The most common reason given by people to

migrate to Honiara was for employment and education of their children. According to the 1999 Census, 63,732 persons were resident in Honiara, with 18,000 in formal employment and the balance of 31,100 comprised of family member, school push-outs, 'lius', and visiting *wantoks*.

The impact of the social unrest has resulted in increased unemployment and also loss of regular income. Most families now subsist daily on the fringes and, to make ends meet, many family households have taken on a number of informal economic activities. These include betel nut selling, black market alcohol outlets, fish selling, taxis and buses, and prostitution. A walk-in interview of a betel nut seller revealed that he receives \$500 per week. Out of this he pays for food, electricity, and school fees in Honiara, and remits some to his home village. While he did not reveal his profit, he stated he is doing well. There are serious social problems associated with some of this informal sector activity, including drug and alcohol addiction, domestic violence, crime, unwanted pregnancies and an increase in sexually transmitted infections.

7.6 Distribution of Income

Gross Domestic Product

Up to 1996, about 70 percent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was provided by primary exporting industries. Nearly 20 percent of GDP was derived in non-cash informal sector overwhelmingly in subsistence food production. During the

Table 7.2: Urban Formal Employment

	1999	1986
Central Government	8 700	7 274
Provincial Government	1 034	1 468
Semi-Government	1 055	1 119
Total Government	10 787	9 861
Private	23 418	14 165
Total	34 207	14 165

years 1980-1994, rapid exploitation of natural forests to unsustainable levels plus good harvests for palm oil and fish products resulted in huge export gains to the country. Despite this, the rate of growth of GDP per capita remained around a miniscule 0.7 percent per annum. Real GDP growth during 1992-1996 was about 5 percent, but it has fallen to minus 10 percent a year by the end of 2000.

Distributional Consequence of Poor Growth

There are marked distributional consequences of poor growth particularly between Honiara, provincial centres and rural villages, and between the rich and the poor, and between men and women. The gap between the rich and the poor is extraordinary. Rural Areas Household Income and Expenditure Survey in 1993 and the Honiara Income Distribution Survey in 1995 showed that 93 percent

from as follows: own sources \$30.30, gifts and remittances \$33.79, all others \$633, making a total of \$694.09.

Wage Employment

The trend in formal wage employment between 1986 and 1989 showed that government was the biggest single employer. In 1986, total employment by government was 9,861 persons and in 1999 its total workforce was 10,786 persons. The private sector as a group employed 14,165 persons in 1986 and by 1999 it was 23,418 persons. This showed that over the 12 year period, growth of job employment in the public sector or government was almost static, whereas growth in the private sector was an average of 5 percent per annum over the same period (see Table 7.2).

Employment by Industry and Gender

In 1986 there were 29,178 males to

Table 7.3: **Honiara household income sources**

Source of Income	Average Household Monthly Income (\$)	Percentage of Household Monthly Income
Own garden produce	253.00	40.8
Sale of other produce	216.53	34.9
Wages	65.75	10.6
Sale of own produce	27.81	4.5
Remittances	32.34	5.2
Other	23.18	3.7
Total	619.62	100.00

Source: 1997 Honiara Income Distribution Survey, 1995

of households receive 22 percent of total income while the top one percent of Solomon Islands households received 52 percent of income.

In Honiara, Solomon Islanders receive on average \$1,443.32 a month and expatriates \$10,769.92 per month. The average between both was \$2,386.91 a month. Provincial average incomes were

10,032 females employed in Honiara but, by 1999, there were 39,761 males against 17,711 females. Male employment therefore, over the 12 year period, rose by only 3 percent per annum whereas the rate of increase of female employment was 6 percent per annum. However, for females the sectoral changes that attributed to the increase in employment growth were in the

Table 7.4: **Employment by Occupation and Gender**

	1986		1999	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Legislative				
Management	563	15	2085	417
Professional				
Technician	4016	1517	6562	2996
Services	2061	988	1155	1446
Skilled	3287	1479	4902	2924

services and tertiary sector, especially in the wholesale and trading services sectors – i.e. lower paid jobs and of lower status.

The key issue of concern here is the large unequal distribution of job opportunities, and other related economic opportunities nationwide between genders and between provinces. Development planning must ensure that increased equitable development is undertaken across genders and across geographical areas. The social unrest provided very strong evidence of the need to provide more economic opportunities in islands of origin; otherwise people will increasingly feel marginalized in their own respective islands, as is the case on Guadalcanal.

7.7 Natural Resource Use and Management Options

Improving the management of natural resources is the key to sustainable human development and livelihood. The natural resource base of the country has enormous potential in terms of products, wage employment, diversified sources of income and spin-offs of these benefits to the rural sector. Over 70 percent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is due to primary producing and exporting industries.

Forestry

Less than 10 percent of the total land area of Solomon Islands is available to

commercial forestry. About one-third of available timber has been removed by logging operations. According to the Asian Development Bank (ADB), only 10 years of commercial logging operations remain. This is clearly unsustainable.

It has been stated by the ADB that the unscrupulous and unsustainable logging in Solomon Islands is due to four reasons:

- ineffective policing of logging methods to minimize environmental damage
- lack of effective participation by resource owners
- transfer pricing
- no commitment to re-forestation

Given the magnitude of lost incomes to government resource owners, prudent management of this resource is immediately required in four key areas: strengthening of the monitoring capacity of government, the code of practice for timber harvesting must be implemented and backed by the courts, the moratorium on the issue of new licences should continue, and the effective implementation of the new Forestry Act. In addition, there must be development of downstream and value-added processing industries.

Agriculture

a. Small-scale Copra and Cocoa.

Firstly, new funds would need to be made available to CEMA or the private sector

to re-activate the production and buying processes, and to bring back confidence to farmers and rural dwellers.

b. Large-scale Commercial.

RIPEL should be privatised to allow it to proceed with downstream processing of coconuts. This would need to be done through international competitive bidding to avoid local corruption and to ensure that producer funds invested in RIPEL are returned to where they belong: the producers.

c. Rural Integrated Network.

Improved farming systems comprising a mix of subsistence and cash crops should be introduced in order to gain maximum benefit to rural people where they live.

d. Fishing.

Prudent management fisheries requires up-to-date information on exploitation and use, increased involvement by Solomon Islanders especially to enable them to acquire new skills and new knowledge, new employment opportunities, downstream processing to improve productivity and value, and knowledge about markets to gauge economic prospects.

7.8 Private Sector Development

The 1989 CBSI Report highlighted that one of the key underlying problems despite well meaning efforts by governments was the persistent failure in the public sector to recognise private sector needs for a competitive structure of costs and revenues. Government's role is to encourage sector development and the confidence of investors and commercial banks by creating an enabling public policy environment. Private sector development is important as the government reduces the numbers of its employees. The private sector must be encouraged to take up this surplus labour.

Enabling Conditions for Private Enterprise Development

Government in the first instance must recognize the strategic role of the market and to promote and encourage private enterprise development, as the key to sustained economic growth. The private sector will not undertake any form of investment in the country if public security and confidence are not restored. The resumption and maintenance of law and order are therefore a first priority as is the disarmament of former militants.

7.9 Finance and Capital

Government Finances

The financial sector essentially comprises of the CBSI at the apex, and pegged to it are the commercial banks and related financial institutions. The CBSI Act and the recently passed Financial Institutions Act provide for sound management of financial system.

Commercial Banks

Commercial banks in Solomon Islands are the ANZ, the National Bank of Solomon Islands and Westpac.

Development Bank of Solomon Islands (DBSI)

The DBSI was set up to fund development in the rural sector both, formal and informal, however much of its lending has been to areas with little return on investment. The DBSI already has a nationwide infrastructure network and is well placed to fund the private sector in rural areas. The bank would need, however, to sort out its cash flow problems, obtain immediate injection of fresh funds, and a high performing management team to recommence its operations in the provinces. Like the commercial banks, the DBSI also needs economic, fiscal, financial and monetary support, as it would be venturing into areas that are uneconomical. Currently,



its lending portfolio is constrained by the above factors plus the continuing effects of the ethnic tension on Guadalcanal and other provincial centres.

Due to the social unrest, DBSI's total outstanding arrears stood at \$18 million. The bank's lending activities were drastically reduced in 2000, and no sizeable injection of funds was made during the year except for \$2 million credit line from the Republic of China. The Bank has established a 'Mani-Grou' Scheme with total deposits of \$3.2 million, and with deposit rates of 8.5 percent-10 percent, with maturity dates spread over 12-36 months.

National Provident Fund (NPF)

Members' contributions fell by 3 percent in 2000, largely due to the social unrest. Large redundancy payments and payment of members' contributions by employers were greatly reduced. Members' savings are not earning the return on investment as expected. In addition a large portfolio is tied up in government bonds and Treasury Bills, totalling \$55 million. A review is underway to assess tighter withdrawal procedures and investment portfolio.

Credit Unions

Set up under the Credit Union Act, this credit scheme was set up with the assistance from the International Fund For Agricultural Development (IFAD) and bilateral donors. At the onset in 1992 there were 93 credit unions with 12,000 members controlling deposits of \$5.6 million. All the Credit Unions were affiliated to the Solomon Islands Credit Union League, which assisted in their establishment, training, auditing and supervision. Sixty-two percent (62 percent) of credit unions were rural-based with 6,000 members, accounting for \$600,000 (11 percent) of deposits and \$300,000 in loans. The other 38 percent were in

Honiara and other administrative centres, and accounting for the balance.

EU Micro-Projects

Since commencement two years ago, this Project has injected \$5.9 million into both economic and social development projects. Performance to-date has been satisfactory and should be adopted as a model for funding project related investments in the private sector. The purpose of this scheme is to ensure that investment is made in income generating activities. In this way, more job opportunities are created, diversify sources of cash incomes are made available and a more robust rural informal sector will ultimately immersed.

Chapter 8

Guiding Economic Management

8.1 Introduction

Solomon Islands is characterised by its large geographic dispersion, a small and open economy largely dependent on primary export industries, heavily reliance on imports and international aid flows, reliance on the public service to provide goods and services constituting a large part of national output, a relatively ineffective private sector with an inability to compete with government, a history of short-lived governments reflecting political instability, and breakdown in the nation's social cohesiveness, cultural and ethnic tolerance and values. Because of its spread, high unit costs of transport and communications are incurred to deliver services nationwide. This dispersion itself is a constraint on government attempt to create unity out of the country's enormous diversities.

8.2 Economic Performance

Over the 23 years since independence, economic performance has been lacklustre. The Central Bank of Solomon Islands (CBSI), international financial institutions and development partners have proffered advice to the government on issues of economic performance and management and suggested appropriate policies to deal with them, but this advice has either not been accepted or implemented without much impact.

The CBSI assessed economic performance as characterised by:

- A steady worsening balance between government revenue and expenditure, which has led to unsustainable levels of domestic borrowing that cannot be managed by revenue
- A high level of recurrent expenditure that must be cut rather than offloading

it on the private sector and relying on international aid flows

- A chronic deterioration in the terms of trade that has eroded the buying power of export incomes
- A pervasive psychological dependence on international aid to match domestic saving and foreign receipts
- Failure in the public service to recognise the crucial role of the private sector and its ability to compete
- An ineffective and inefficient public service that consumes a large amount of scarce public resources.

The CBSI suggested key pre-requisites for sustained economic growth and social development:

- Small government that consumes less and allocates resources efficiently
- A more diversified, competitive and profitable private sector that creates more new jobs



- A pro-active financial and monetary system that encourages increased savings and investments
- A realistic exchange rate policy that promotes exports and a comfortable level of external reserves

The government which came into power in September 1997 began a programme of policy and structural reforms. However, the ethnic conflict that began in 1998, and led to the coup on 5 June 2000, saw the abandonment of this programme.

In May 2001, the CBSI declared that the economy was in deep trouble, and attributed the underlying problems as being due to two sets of factors:

- Exogenous factors, due to the openness of the economy (price fluctuations, the Asian financial crisis and fuel prices)
- Self-inflicted factors (excessive logging, uncontrolled spending and related fiscal imbalances, lack of support to the private sector, lopsided and unrealistic socio-economic policies which are insensitive to issues of land as a resource and the lack of opportunities available to resource owners to enhance their wellbeing and livelihood and the ethnic conflict).

The CBSI urged the government, as it had been doing for some time, to address the immediate as well as the longer term economic and the underlying social and institution causes of the crisis.

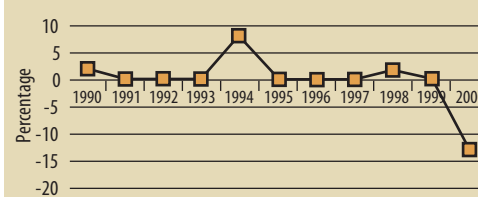
Gross Domestic Product

Over the last 11 years, GDP grew at an average of 1.7 percent per annum, against a population annual growth rate of 3.3 percent. From a high of 5.3 percent in 1990-1995, largely due to good log prices, GDP then tapered off to around 1.6 percent in 1996, then experienced a dramatic fall since 1997. This was largely due to the impact of weak commodity prices, the Asian crisis, and the ethnic conflict that closed down the large-scale primary exporting industries of copra and coconut oil, oil palm, fisheries, logging and mining. GDP per capita has continued to decline, from \$1,000 to \$610. Based on actual household income and expenditure

surveys, there are wide disparities between Honiara, the provinces and rural areas and between genders.

The continuing knock-on effects of the ethnic conflict have continued to adversely impact on the private sector. The productive or real sector is stagnant. STL (fisheries) has re-opened, RIPEL (copra, coconut oil and cocoa) is operating marginally, and some logging companies have re-commenced operations but it will take some time for these operations to return to pre-1998 operating and productive levels. The future of SIPL and Gold Ridge Mine are uncertain, and more so the future of large-scale developments and operations.

Figure 8.1: Real GDP Annual % movement

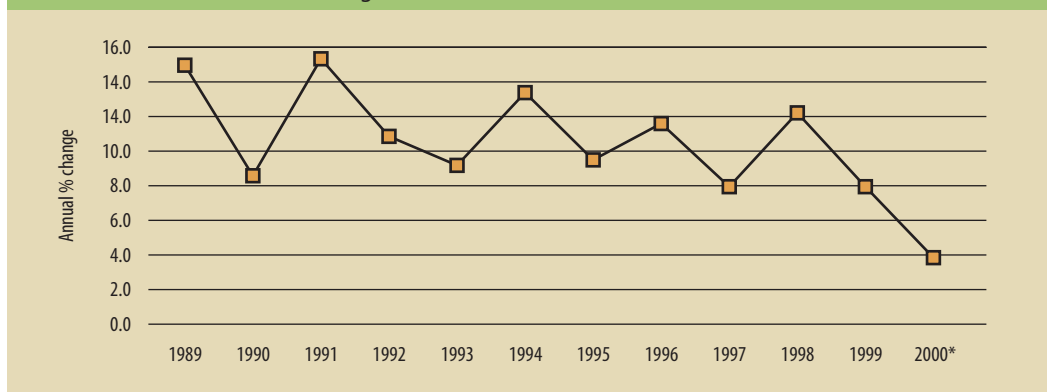


Labour and Employment

Formal employment increased from 26,100 in 1990 to 34,000 in 1998 largely in the manufacturing, forestry and fisheries, and in wholesale and retail sectors. Total employment by females was 23 percent out of which 25 percent were in education and health. In 1999 economically active males were 71.2 percent and females 59.8 percent of formal employment (1999 census). In 2000, due to the ethnic conflict, about 8,000 employees lost their jobs.

The country faces a huge task in creating employment opportunities, especially for its fast growing young population. More opportunities clearly lie in the informal rural sector of the country. This underscores the need to promote more broad-based vocational, hands-on education for self-employment.

Figure 8.2: Honiara Retail Price Index



Prices and inflation

During the 1990s the Honiara Retail Price Index increased at an annual average rate of 10.7 percent, with the highest annual increase of 15.2 percent in 1991 and lowest of 8 percent in 1999. The annual average increase of local items was 11.5 percent during the 1990s and imported items averaged 9.3 percent annually. The high level of annual inflation badly affected the basic living standards particularly of households with low and fixed incomes.

Government Finance

From 1990-1997, governments operated an expansionary fiscal policy, where government expenditures have been repeatedly higher than revenues. The shortfall in revenues has been largely financed by CBSI and NPF borrowings. Because of this, CBSI adopted a reactionary policy measure to contain this lack of fiscal discipline and conspicuous consumption by government. The side effects of this conspicuous consumption or uncontrolled spending are high imports, high inflation, and a crowding out of the private sector.

In 1997, the government set out to institute financial discipline and to activate the securities and money market. However the measures were shelved immediately after June 2000 by the new government, as its focus was on two pressing issues directly related to the ethnic conflict: law

and order and peace. However, despite the signing of the Townsville Peace Agreement (TPA) in October 2000, law and order problems have continued unabated. Law and order problems and the evident lack of control over expenditure, re-enforced by continuing granting of duty remissions have all accelerated the emptying of the government treasury, resulting in the worsening of an already unsustainable fiscal situation. In turn, this has also resulted in continuing erratic payments of public sector employees (including public servants, teachers, doctors and nurses) salaries, much needed education and health services, and unprecedented hardships nationwide.

The country faces a huge task in creating employment opportunities, especially for its fast growing young population

In 2001 the budget was estimated to be \$264 million. But duty remissions of \$55.5 million (Jan/Aug) meant revenue loss. At this rate \$80 million in revenue would be lost through duty remissions. Expenditure on salaries is expected to reach \$190 million by December 2001. A large component of which is for danger allowances, special constables (de-mobilized militants) and making and retaining unnecessary political appointments. So the borrowing from CBSI increased and, by August 2001, this had exceeded the ordinary ceiling by \$98 million and enhanced the ceiling for advances by \$131 million.



Government Debt

As government was borrowing to finance current budget deficits, it was continuously also piling up debt and not repaying its commitments. By the end of 2000, public debt had reached \$851 million and, by end of 2001, it will be heading towards the one billion-dollar mark. This is many times the total capacity of the economy to produce in any one year. It is in this debt-ridden and cash-trapped situation that the nation is now in and it is unable to meet its commitments and provide essential services.

International Aid

External aid flows increased from \$132 million in 1990 to \$210 million in 2000. In 2001 the budget of \$699 million (\$219 million in borrowings, \$480 million in grants, \$181.3 million in cash and \$298.5 million in non-cash) was to be from external sources. The total amount of aid flows over the 10-year period is a massive \$1.91 billion (Rarawa and Moveni, 2001). Over the last 10 years, despite heavy aid flows per capita, incomes have remained low, the real export sector has not grown, imports continue to rise and there are no import substitutes. Well over 40 percent of the recurrent budget and almost 100 percent of the capital budget is met from aid flows.

The Monetary and Financial Sector

Government finances and policies influence monetary and financial policies. Money supply growth has been largely driven by trends in domestic credit from banks and financial institutions. Total money supply increased from \$141.4 million to \$460 million in 2000. A noticeable trend has been the level of domestic credit absorbed by government. This has grown substantially, with growth accounted for by the provision of credit to fund the growing budget deficit. There is little doubt that excess borrowing has had an adverse impact on private sector credit growth. There are, however, structural and physical factors that

restrict viable private sector lending such as low workforce skills, limited and high cost infrastructure, and small and geographically dispersed markets.

Because of heavy borrowings the commercial banks' lending and deposit rates have accordingly changed. In 1990 interest rates on loans were 16.4 percent and deposits at 9.4 percent, a margin of 7 percent. By 2000 loan rates were 15.1 percent and deposit rates at 3 percent, a margin of 12.1 percent. The increased margin from 7 percent to 12 percent reflects the risk of lending, growth in liquidity and bank reluctance to lend due to the poor economic climate.

Balance of Payments

During the 1990s the trade and services account balances and the current account balance sustained deficits. The capital account has generally showed surpluses. The overall balance of payments fluctuated between surpluses and deficits and consequently increasing or reducing the external reserves accordingly. The impact of the ethnic conflict during 1999-2000 was the closure of the main exporting industries. In addition there have been major outflows in private transfers, especially in 2000, and the reduction in inflows of official transfers, investment and long-term capital flows to both the government and private sector. This had led to the country's external reserves being reduced to precariously low levels.

Exchange Rates

Exchange rate policy objectives have been to protect reserves and promote exports. The Solomon Islands dollar is pegged to a trade-weighted basket of currencies, and soundly managed to ensure a sustainable trade position. This has meant a steady depreciation in the nominal rate to offset impact of falling commodity prices and relatively high domestic inflation rate.



Economic Policy

Economic policies need to create an environment that is conducive to sustainable human development. Government has adopted expansionary fiscal policies to finance government deficits, as its revenue cannot match expenditure. There are factors that are attributable to low revenues and high expenditures and have been discussed. It is the human factors that are the real problem, and they point clearly to the need for good governance, especially transparency and accountability in the manner government conducts itself.

As discussed, monetary policy objectives are to promote exports and protect or conserve reserves. Monetary policy has been reactionary because there was no fiscal discipline by government. In the ensuing years, this policy will continue to ensure that financial climate is conducive for real development to take place. Monetary policy would be integrated with fiscal, exchange and other related policies to restore:

- A healthy balance of payments
- Private sector growth
- A reputable banking system
- Good governance and management practices
- Confidence in law and order

8.3 Conclusion

To rebuild the shattered economy and promote real economic growth as a means to enhance sustainable human development, several macro-economic policy and structural reforms are required. These include:

- Macroeconomic Stability
- Public Sector Reform
- Political and government system reform
- Private sector Reform

- Improve basic trade skills
- Enhancing labour absorptive and employment prospects
- Enhancing the benefits of trade agreements and globalisation.

Solomon Islands Human Development Agenda in the 21st Century

Chapter 9

An Agenda for Solomon Islands Human Development in the 21st Century

9.1 Introduction

The overall objective for Solomon Islands' development is to achieve a sustainable growth rate in the economy together with a more equitable distribution of consequential benefits.

9.2 Issues and Challenges

The key issues and that pose great challenges to the economic, financial and social status and future development of Solomon Islands include the following.

Immediate

- The need to establish immediate stability in government finances, and social and political stability.

Medium-Term

- Restoring the country's productive and export potential.
- Repairing and upgrading the country's public infrastructure.
- Revitalising the country's social and human development.
- Focus on increased financing of provincial programmes.

Underlying all the above is the need to continue with public sector reforms.

9.3 Strategies, Programmes and Activities

Immediate: Stabilisation of Budget and Reserves

Firstly, the urgent need is to stabilize government finances.

This essentially means government can only spend what it is able to collect in revenues. This would require the immediate instillation of fiscal and monetary discipline so that the budget deficit can be reduced and, most importantly, to protect external reserves so that international trade can continue to take place. Immediate action to be taken includes:

- Mopping up excess liquidity in the financial system that may find themselves into increased imports through the issues of treasury bills, development bonds, and strict adherence to the liquid assets ratio (LAR)
- Tighter foreign exchange controls to protect outflows and subsequent impact on the reserves
- Stop all credit to the government from the Central Bank, so that it does not find its way into payroll and other charges

Secondly, government needs to restructure the financial sector. The financial sector comprises the commercial banks, CBSI, NPF and credit unions. This is to stop government from resort to these sources of finance

Thirdly, law and order needs to be enforced. This is so that personal and public security is enhanced, including investor and donor confidence in the future of the country.

9.3 Medium-Term to Long-Term

a. Restoration of the Productive Sector and Export Potential

Restructure and Medium Term Strategy. The thrust would be to maximize

participation by resource owners, and therefore small to medium-scale economic capacity. Large-scale commercial enterprise should be pursued only on merit.

The Ministries of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry need to formulate and compile coherent development strategies in early 2002

Agriculture. This would involve privatising CEMA and its subsidiary companies, and the revitalization of the primary crops sector (coconuts, cocoa, food staples) through increased family household participation, liberalise marketing, and enhance value-addition through downstream activities. Care need to be taken as people rely on this sector for basic livelihoods.

Forestry. Action should involve increased monitoring capacity, adherence to codes of practice for harvesting and that they codes are backed by the courts, a freeze on the issue of licenses, improved management of the new forestry act, and downstream processing to add value.

Fisheries. This involves reviewing the current tax and fee structures provided to existing companies and increased participation by households

To ensure success of projects, donors and provincial authorities involvement in project management, implementation and evaluation is crucial.

Environment Related Activities. This relates to tourism-related activities such as agro-tourism and eco-tourism and is another potential source of income for resource owners. A new set of investment guidelines needs to be formulated and implemented.

b. Infrastructure and Communication

Structural and Medium-Term

Strategy. The Ministry of Transport and Telecommunication should formulate

a joint strategy in early 2002. This relates directly to improving marketing efficiencies and establishing economies of scale. This has been the biggest bottleneck to enhancing productivity. Improvements need to be instituted in shipping, road and air transport.

Shipping. The urgent need is the provision of funds for building more new local ships and their upkeep. Activate the new Shipping Act. An association of ship owners should be established.

Roads. Upkeep of roads is a big problem. Before new roads or existing ones are extended, upkeep must be considered and economic considerations should prevail.

Water Supply and Electricity. The current agencies (SIWA and SIEA) should be overhauled and restructured, capacities should be expanded to enhance a nationwide reach.

Telecommunications. Solomon Telekom is the premier medium which can bring technology to improve the lives of people in rural areas.

Air Transport. This is to be very crucial for the travelling public if investment and employment are to be focused more in the rural areas where the natural resource base is located.

c. Employment Opportunities and Income Generation

Improving Livelihoods. Greater focus must be made on the informal subsistence and semi- subsistence, because this where the bulk of the population lives. Currently about 345,000 comprise the population in the rural areas, and are projected to increase.

Land. Land is going to feature very prominently in all development efforts especially as population pressure on land increases. The use of land is a key factor of production and must be wisely used. The

strategy should therefore be to increase productivity of the land by the adoption of small-scale technologies and introducing new farming systems to boost yields. To realize a return on investment, the investor needs a guarantee or security. About 95 percent of land is under customary ownership. Relevant policies relating to property rights and rentals must be established to provide confidence both to the investor and the landowner.

The second important factor of production is people. There is abundance of people in rural areas. Women and youth especially must be mobilized to participate fully in all income-generation and employment opportunities.

The third factor is finance and capital. Based on the review of all financial institutions, increased access to the use of bank finance by the private sector must be a priority. The focus would be to ensure the existing infrastructure nationwide is re-activated. Overall factor prices (tax, interest rates, rents and royalties, wages) are reasonably priced so that the private sector can be competitive.

The Ministries of Commerce, Employment and Industries, Agriculture, Fisheries, and Forestry should jointly formulate an Immediate to Medium-Term Strategy 2002-2004 as a policy response to enhance livelihoods.

d. Health, Population and Education

Education. The Medium-Term Strategy would need to be prepared by the Ministry of Education in very early 2002, backed by a work programme. Key aspects of this strategy would involve education receiving a higher percentage of government expenditures in the Plan Period, 2002-2004.

More focus on broad-based education in primary and vocational schools with specific emphasis on gender balance (boys

and girls); improvement in teacher quality and availability of teaching materials; community high schools to be increased; and that higher education or academic learning to be on merit and on a user-pays basis; adult literacy programmes to be increased; and management, implementation and evaluation be a key pre-condition. Increasingly the role of donors, NGOs, civil society and churches must be reflected in the strategy.

Healthcare and Medical Services. An Immediate to Medium-Term strategy 2002-2004 should be finalised in early 2002 by the Ministry of Health and Medical Services, supported by a work programme.

As for education, a higher percentage of resources needs to be allocated to health. Emphasis would be on more broad-based preventive healthcare services. Increased public education and awareness of the various communicable and non-communicable diseases should expand especially at the rural household level. Issues of adequate food and balanced nutrition, adequate water supplies and sanitation and a decent standard of housing must be addressed; access and use of healthcare would need to be considered and a formula to introduce the concept of cost-sharing be undertaken.

Above all, good management, implementation and evaluation especially at the provincial levels must be strengthened and should be a key pre-condition.

Specific responses to gender balance issues would be effected through the assistance of NGOs, church groups, youth and women's groups.

Population Growth and Distribution.

A fertility reduction programme that aims to educate people about the virtues of an appropriate sized family should be adopted. The Ministry of Health and

Medical Services needs to coordinate the teamwork necessary to finalize the programme. Given the large base of the age-structure, emphasis should be on containing the population growth at 2.6 percent per annum. This would involve family planning, education, and public awareness through workshops and to demonstrate the positive impact on general standards of living for the family household. A networking of NGOs, SIPPA and SICHE would need to be set up.

e. Women and Youth

Women and Society. The Medium-Term Strategy 2002-2004 should be reviewed. Strategies and activities should highlight the important roles of women in the traditional as well as modern lives and should encompass equal access to education. Improving health and literacy standards in villages, enhancing the involvement of women in politics and business, making finance readily available, running special courses in simple business training and skills should be introduced. In terms of making credit available, the EU Micro-Projects Scheme is to be adopted.

Poor data and information on women's specific needs in business have been major problems. This must be alleviated by undertaking detailed surveys to compile the necessary databases. Government support to all women groups (WDD, SIWNET, church groups) has been erratic and must be regularized.

Youth of the Future. Like women, youth are another disadvantage group. The Immediate to Medium-Term Strategy 2002-2004 needs to be reviewed in the light of the fact that 45 percent of entrants into primary school are pushed out each year, plus the effects of the recent tension. Strategies must incorporate skills training, counselling, more informal vocational schools and assistance in

business development. Improved funding opportunities should be made available through such venues as the EU Micro-Project, which has proved successful. Government commitment to youth and employment programmes is the key to addressing youth problems.

f. Good Governance and Human Development

Good Governance. The role of good governance is fundamental to achieving economic growth and the equitable distribution of the benefits realized throughout the nation. Good governance is based on five broad principles of transparency, accountability, efficient allocation of resources, participation, law and order. They all relate to flaws in policy management, implementation and reporting, which deprive people of many opportunities.

Economic Policy and Management. Action needs to be taken include liberalizing the economy so that the private sector could become more active. The tax and tariff structure of government should be simpler and more effective backed by the courts. Macro-economic stability should prevail if the country is to go forward. The public sector must be reformed, the public service should become more facilitative and less regulatory.

Financial Management and Controls. Financial management of the government budget must be reformed to enhance control and accountability. Focus should be more on increased provincial participation.

The Auditor-General's Department should be strengthened and there should be more transparency, for example in the award of government procurement and tendering.

Judiciary. The capacity of the judiciary must be strengthened. It must remain

independent at all times from political interference and its presence should be felt in the Provinces.

Administration and the Public Sector. The public service must continue to be reformed so that it reduces in size and cost and its efficiency improved. Its functional purpose is to facilitate development, not to stifle it. The pre-tension public service totalled 8,000 employees. In 2000 there were 10,000. The public service payroll consumed almost 90 percent of total recurrent revenue due to nepotism, the employment of special constables who are ex-militants, and related bogus overtime charges.

Public Participation. The role of parliament must be understood by the public; as such the role of NGOs, the press, and civil society in ensuring that the parliament is for people and acts in a transparent and accountable manner, especially at Budget Sessions is fundamental to the principles of democracy and good governance.

Decentralise and Democratise Structures. Parliament needs to decentralize the existing laws and break down artificial structures to allow people to participate in the decision-making process at the ward and provincial levels. The Office of the Prime Minister should formulate policy and procedures as part of the overall strategy of improving government performance, especially financial performance. NGOs, civil society and the public should also be consulted in formulating strategy and action.

g. Law and Order

Return of Guns. No new government will feel safe with the 500 guns still at large. Outside peacekeeping assistance should be sought to assist the police.

Police and Community Policing. Technical assistance to the police to

increase capacity on field should be sought, especially at the senior management level. The police service needs to be strengthened to become more professional. The need to have the capacity and the will ensure law and order is maintained.

The public should be involved on a self-help basis, recognition would need to be provided by way of regular visits. This must also include all foreign companies and all village leaders.

Courts and Prosecution. International assistance is required to improve coverage and effectiveness.

Public Solicitors and Private Lawyers. Their role is strategic to the enforcement of law and order. The Public Solicitor's office needs to be strengthened to effectively assist the public.

Leadership Code. Current legislation needs to be activated and its capacity improved and backed by the courts.

Information on Crime. The police need to improve in this area, as it is currently not available in any useful manner.

Social Tension issues. The issues of state government and land use would need to be addressed by Parliament so as to avoid a repeat of the events of the last three years.

Social Cohesion and Unity. This needs to be addressed as part of the school curriculum -primary, secondary and tertiary.

9.4 Development Planning, The Budget, Implementation and Monitoring

a. Implementation

The Legislature, Executive and Judicial instruments of government all have a very strategic role to play in the implementation of human development policies, strategies, programmes and projects. These instruments of policy include Parliament, ministries and departments, various

statutory bodies, paralegal institutions both at the national and provincial levels of the entire government system. The National Parliament's role is to ensure that the annual budget process is facilitated on time, to ensure that all necessary resources are approved and are made available and to ensure timely implementation of human development policies and strategic actions.

The Cabinet's role for to ensure that legislative action is brought to bear on the human development agenda and the passage of the budget in Parliament. It must also ensure that the public service is efficient, effective and has the capacity to implement the development agenda.

The Public Service has a staff of 10,000. An efficient and effective public service is a pre-condition for effective planning and implementation. The current on-going reforms must be aggressively pursued and completed by a specific date so that the public service is limited to its facilitative function only, reduced in size and cost, and must learn to live within its means. In fact this is now an opportune time to actually lay off workers in view of the erratic revenue situation. Aid funds would then only be used on the development budget and re-construction of the productive base of the economy and social sectors.

One Ministry of Economic Development. The number of Ministries should be cut to ten functional area responsibilities only. The hub of development planning should be under one strong central Ministry of Economic Development. To be strong, the Ministry of Economic Development would need to be structured to enable it have specific powers to draw on resources and assistance. Powers of sanction need to be incorporated.

Other Ministries, Departments and Statutory Authorities must have their respective sectoral areas of responsibility

clearly established. In the development agenda, key sectoral goals and the key resultant areas should be addressed and policy action should be taken to reach the goals. The policy actions must comprise specific programmes and related project activities, to be undertaken over a specific duration

Provincial Development Emphasis.

Development should be more focused on the provinces, based on specific programmes and projects. In this way an equitable distribution of development funds will be allocated to all provinces. Special consideration will need to be made to ensure that the spread of development funds from development partners, World Bank, IMF, ADB, other official sources is fair between and directed to the provinces.

b. The Annual Budget

The Ministry of Economic Development.

In the planning and compilation of the development budget, the lead Ministry of Economic Development will provide the impetus and standards expected from all ministries, statutory bodies and stakeholders. All will ensure that the sectoral programmes and projects under each key resulting area must be according to the development agenda. In addition, the Ministry will also be assisting the Ministry of Finance with the preparation of the recurrent components.

The Ministry of Finance on the other hand will take the lead role for the preparation of the recurrent budget component, in line with set priorities and to ensure that funding is available for programmes. In the past, recurrent budget planning has suffered from totally unrealistic budget planning, causing problems to the implementation in the development budget component. A repeat of this past practice must not be repeated, as it relates to the whole subject of poor management of government finances.

c. Monitoring and Evaluation

A **monitoring and evaluation system** that links policy assessment reports and the supervision of implementation of programmes and project activities to the development goals should be set up under the auspice of Cabinet and the Ministry of Economic Development and Ministry of Finance.

Specific human development sector reports would be undertaken by each implementing agency of government on its specific area of responsibility and control to indicate progress made during each reporting interval.

Immediate-2002. A Reform and Restructure Committee approved by Cabinet needs to be set up immediately. Co-hosted by the Ministry of Economic Development, the Ministry of Finance, the CBSI and working through other working sub-committees, the committee's role will be to supervise the implementation of immediate reforms. This committee should also include members of the public, NGOs and civil society.

Immediate to Medium-Term, 2002-2005. The Ministry of Economic Development will responsible for coordinating the overall monitoring process that starts with each respective ministry, department or agency. Monitoring reports would be received from each ministry, department, statutory body or instrument, which would then be forwarded to a national development consultative council, which should include members of the civil society and NGOs.

Part IV

Statistical Tables

Table A1: Population Distribution by Province, 1970,1976,1986 & 1999

			Population		Person per Km ²		Rate of Annual increase		
	1970	1976	1986	1999	1970	1999	1970 - 76	1976 - 86	1986 -99
Solomon Islands	160,998	196,823	285,176	409,042	5	13	3.4	3.5	2.8
Choiseul province	8,017	10,349	13,569	20,008	2	5	4.3	2.8	3.0
Western province	24,214	29,980	41,681	62,739	3	8	3.6	3.1	3.2
Isabel province	8,653	10,420	14,616	20,421	2	5	3.1	3.2	2.6
Central province	9,418	11,683	16,655	21,577	15	35	3.7	3.4	2.0
Rennell-Bellona province	1,504	1,893	1,802	2,377	2	4	3.9	-0.5	2.2
Guadalcanal province	23,996	31,677	49,831	60,275	4	11	1.5	4.3	1.5
Malaita province	51,722	60,043	80,032	122,620	12	29	2.5	2.7	3.3
Makira-Ulawa province	12,390	14,891	21,796	31,006	4	10	3.1	3.6	2.7
Temotu province	9,078	10,945	14,781	18,912	10	22	3.2	2.8	1.9
Honiara town council ¹⁾	12,006	14,942	30,413	49,107	549	2,244	3.7	6.8	3.8

¹⁾ Including ships sailing to and from Honiara

²⁾ Persons per square kilometre

³⁾ Annual growth rates for the period 1986-1999 may not reflect the typical rates due to the effect of the ethnic tension displaced people.

Source : 1999 Population and Housing Census report

Table A2: Trends in Selected Population Indices

		1976	1986	1999
Total Fertility Rate		7.3	6.1	4.8
Life Expect. at birth				
	Male		54.3	60.6
	Female		55.0	61.6
	Total		54.6	61.0
Infant Mortality Rate				
	Male		98.0	67.0
	Female		94.0	65.0
	Total		96.1	66.0
CBR per 1000			42.0	34.1
CDR per 100			12.6	9.0
Annual growth per 100		3.4	3.5	2.8

Source : 1999 Population and Housing Census

Table A3: Percentage Distribution of the Population by Broad Age-Group, Dependency Ratio and Sex Composition

		1976		1986		1999	
Age -Group	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
0 – 14	94,134	48.5	135,173	47.4	169,801	41.5	
15 – 64	95,793	49.3	140,877	49.4	225,303	55.1	
65 +	4,312	2.2	9,126	3.2	13,938	3.4	
Age Dependency Ratio*	102.8		102.4		81.6		
Child/woman ratio**	107		90		70		
Males per 100 females	109.1		107.5		106.9		

* Calculated as all persons in age categories 0-14 and 65+ per 100 persons in age category 15-59

**Calculated as all children in age category 0-4 per 100 women in age category 15-44

Source : 1999 Population and Housing Census report

Table A4: National Population Projection - Medium High Variants

	<i>Men</i>			<i>Women</i>			<i>Total</i>		
	2004	2009	2014	2004	2009	2014	2004	2009	2014
Total	237,626	267,704	298,179	222,484	250,617	278,966	460110	518321	577145
0-14	96,159	104,646	109,569	88,163	95,826	100,275	184322	200472	209844
15-44	109,628	125,643	143,907	104,976	119,152	135,230	214604	244795	279137
45-59	19,673	24,083	29,302	18,580	22,865	28,135	38253	46948	57437
60+	12,166	13,332	15,401	10,765	12,774	15,326	22931	26106	30727
Median age	19.3	20.3	21.4	19.7	20.8	21.9	19.5	20.5	21.6

Source : 1999 Population & Housing Census Report

Table A5: National Population Projections for Selected Sector Topics

	Medium-high variant ('000)			
	2004	2009	2014	
In working age (15-59)	253	292	337	
With paid employment (25%)	63	73	84	
Unemployed (12%)	30	35	40	
Not in paid employment (63%)	159	184	212	
In schooling age (5-19)	167	183	199	
Attending school (60%)	100	110	120	

Source: 1999 Population & Housing Census Report

Table A6: Human Development Indices (using 1999 estimate of GDP @ PPP)

	Life Expect.	Life Expect.	Adult	Literacy	Enrolment	Enrolment	Educational	Real GDP	GDP		
	at birth	Index	Literacy	Index	' 5 - 19	Index	Index	pc @ppp	Index	HDI	Rank
National	61.1	0.60167	76.6	0.766	56.3	0.563	0.69833	1940	0.49492	0.598	
Choiseul	61.6	0.61000	92.2	0.922	63.4	0.634	0.82600	1940	0.49492	0.644	3
Western	61.6	0.61000	94.0	0.940	65.4	0.654	0.84467	1940	0.49492	0.650	2
Isabel	60.4	0.59000	75.2	0.752	66.2	0.662	0.72200	1940	0.49492	0.602	6
Central	62.1	0.61833	72.0	0.720	56.6	0.566	0.66867	1940	0.49492	0.594	7
R & B	62.1	0.61833	73.9	0.739	72.4	0.724	0.73400	1940	0.49492	0.616	5
Guadalcanal	60.7	0.59500	73.1	0.731	41.1	0.411	0.62433	1940	0.49492	0.571	9
Malaita	61.1	0.60167	61.4	0.614	49.1	0.491	0.57300	1940	0.49492	0.557	10
Makira & Ulawa	61.9	0.61500	81.0	0.810	65.2	0.652	0.75733	1940	0.49492	0.622	4
Temotu	62.6	0.62667	60.6	0.606	61.5	0.615	0.60900	1940	0.49492	0.577	8
Honiara	62.8	0.63000	90.5	0.905	67.6	0.676	0.82867	1940	0.49492	0.651	1

Table A7: Human Development Indices Using Nominal GDP

	Life Expect.	Life Expect.	Adult	Literacy	Enrolment	Enrolment	Educational	GDP pc	GDP		
	at birth	Index	Literacy	Index	' 5 - 19	Index	Index	at nominal	Index	HDI	Rank
National, 1999	61.1	0.6017	76.6	0.7660	56.3	0.563	0.69833	863	0.360	0.553	
National, 1986	54.6	0.4933	48.8	0.4880	34.8	0.348	0.4413	701	0.325	0.420	
Choiseul	61.6	0.6100	92.2	0.9220	63.4	0.634	0.82600	863	0.360	0.599	3
Western	61.6	0.6100	94.0	0.9400	65.4	0.654	0.84467	863	0.360	0.605	2
Isabel	60.4	0.5900	75.2	0.7520	66.2	0.662	0.72200	863	0.360	0.557	6
Central	62.1	0.6183	72.0	0.7200	56.6	0.566	0.66867	863	0.360	0.549	7
Rennell Bellona	62.1	0.6183	73.9	0.7390	72.4	0.724	0.73400	863	0.360	0.571	5
Guadalcanal	60.7	0.5950	73.1	0.7310	41.1	0.411	0.62433	863	0.360	0.526	9
Malaita	61.1	0.6017	61.4	0.6140	49.1	0.491	0.57300	863	0.360	0.511	10
Makira & Ulawa	61.9	0.6150	81.0	0.8100	65.2	0.652	0.75733	863	0.360	0.577	4
Temotu	62.6	0.6267	60.6	0.6060	61.5	0.615	0.60900	863	0.360	0.532	8
Honiara	62.8	0.6300	90.5	0.9050	67.6	0.676	0.82867	863	0.360	0.606	1

Note: All component data for the provinces are for 1999

Source: CBSI annual report and 1999 population & housing census

Table A8: Human Poverty Indices (HPI)

	Percent not survive to 40	Percent illiterate	Percent without safe water	Percent without access to health services	Percent underweight under 5yo	HPI	Rank
	1999	1999	1999	1999est.	1989est.		
National	17.8	23.4	31.5	25.3	23	23.2	
Choiseul	17.8	7.8	31.3	29.3	32	22.8	4
Western	17.7	6.0	19	26.9	32	19.8	2
Isabel	19.1	24.8	15.3	29.3	35	23.9	6
Central	17.2	28.0	16.6	28.1	29	24.1	7
Rennell Bellona	17.2	26.1	15.3	30.0	29	23.3	5
Guadalcanal	18.8	26.9	58.4	28.5	26	29.8	6
Malaita	18.3	38.6	39.7	29.6	20	31.1	8
Makira & Ulawa	17.5	19.0	34.2	29.1	21	22.5	3
Temotu	16.6	39.4	27.1	29.4	15	29.8	6
Honiara	16.3	9.5	5.2	0.0	14	12.2	1

Note: Access to health was estimated based on recent health reports which stated the health coverage as 100% for urban areas and 70% for rural areas. A household is considered as having access in that it is located within one hour's travelling time regardless of the mode of travelling.

Source: 1999 Population & housing census, health information system and 1989 nutrition survey

Table A9: Gender-related Development Index (GDI)

		Share in the population	Life expect at birth	Percent literate	5 – 19 enrolment	Share in ec activity	GDI	RANK
National	male	51.7	60.6	83.7	58.1	51.4	0.596	
	female	48.3	61.6	69.0	54.3	48.6		
Choiseul	male	51.2	60.6	93.2	62.9	50.4	0.640	4
	female	48.8	61.6	91.1	64.0	49.6		
Western	male	52.9	60.6	94.8	65.3	53.4	0.646	2
	female	47.1	61.6	93.1	65.6	46.6		
Isabel	male	51.0	59.6	83.1	67.2	50.5	0.598	6
	female	49.0	60.4	67.3	65.0	49.5		
Central	male	51.9	61.0	81.7	59.8	51.9	0.587	7
	female	48.1	62.1	61.6	53.2	48.1		
Rennell Bellona	male	51.7	61.0	77.6	72.3	51.9	0.604	5
	female	49.3	62.1	69.9	71.4	48.1		
Guadalcanal	male	52.1	59.8	79.7	42.5	52.1	0.566	9
	female	47.9	60.7	65.9	39.7	47.9		
Malaita	male	49.9	60.2	72.4	52.2	48.1	0.550	10
	female	50.1	61.1	51.3	45.9	51.9		
Makira & Ulawa	male	51.4	60.8	86.5	66.7	50.8	0.618	5
	female	48.6	61.9	75.4	63.6	49.2		
Temotu	male	48.4	61.5	73.6	64.9	46.4	0.569	8
	female	51.6	62.6	49.6	58.0	53.6		
Honiara	male	55.8	61.7	94.0	68.9	57.4	0.647	1
	female	44.2	62.8	85.8	66.1	42.6		

Source : All component data are from 1999 population & housing census

Table A10: Gender Empowerment Measure

			Percentage Share of Women in					
		Population	Parliament	Admin & Managerial	Prof & Tech.	Ec active	GEM	Rank
National	male	51.7	98	83.2	69.7	51.4		
	female	48.3	2	16.8	30.3	48.6	0.593	
Choiseul	male	51.2	100	95.1	66.1	50.4		
	female	48.8	0	4.9	33.9	49.6	0.410	10
Western	male	52.9	100	84.5	68.3	53.4		
	female	47.1	0	15.5	31.7	46.6	0.584	2
Isabel	male	51.0	100	91.2	67.5	50.5		
	female	49.0	0	8.8	32.5	49.5	0.475	8
Central	male	51.9	100	85.0	80.0	51.9		
	female	48.1	0	15.0	20.0	48.1	0.535	4
Rennell Bellona	male	51.7	100	89.5	71.0	51.9		
	female	49.3	0	10.5	29.0	48.1	0.489	6
Guadal Canal	male	52.1	87.5	89.1	68.5	52.1		
	female	47.9	12.5	10.9	31.5	47.9	0.511	5
Malaita	male	49.9	100	84.7	72.8	48.1		
	female	50.1	0	15.3	27.2	51.9	0.555	3
Makira & Ulawa	male	51.4	100	89.9	73.1	50.8		
	female	48.6	0	10.1	26.9	49.2	0.483	7
Temotu	male	48.4	100	92.9	72.9	46.4		
	female	51.6	0	7.1	27.1	53.6	0.423	9
Honiara	male	55.8	100	78.4	67.4	57.4		
	female	44.2	0	21.6	32.6	42.6	0.679	1

Table A11: Alternative Human Development Index (AHDI)

	Leading Long live		Education / knowledge					Access to Economic Asset				
	Life expt. at birth	Life expt. Index	% Literate 15 +	Literacy Index	Enrolment 5 - 19	Enrolment Index	Knowledge Index	% in paid employ. ment	employ. Index	% Economy Active	Eco. Act. Index	Econ. Index
National	61.1	0.6017	76.6	0.7660	56.3	0.5630	0.6983	23.1	0.2310	65.6	0.6560	0.3727
Choiseul	61.6	0.6100	92.2	0.9220	63.4	0.6340	0.8260	22.7	0.2270	64.1	0.6410	0.3650
Western Isabel	61.6	0.6100	94.0	0.9400	65.4	0.6540	0.8447	35.1	0.3510	67.8	0.6780	0.4600
Central	60.4	0.5900	75.2	0.7520	66.2	0.6620	0.7220	22.0	0.2200	72.2	0.7220	0.3873
Rennel Bellona	62.1	0.6183	72.0	0.7200	56.6	0.5660	0.6687	28.4	0.2840	68.6	0.6860	0.4180
Guadalcanal	62.1	0.6183	73.9	0.7390	72.4	0.7240	0.7340	12.6	0.1260	68.1	0.6810	0.3110
Malaita	60.7	0.5950	73.1	0.7310	41.1	0.4110	0.6243	18.5	0.1850	70.0	0.7000	0.3567
Makira & Ullawa	61.1	0.6017	61.4	0.6140	49.1	0.4910	0.5730	12.4	0.1240	65.1	0.6510	0.2997
Temotu	61.9	0.6150	81.0	0.8100	65.2	0.6520	0.7573	12.5	0.1250	68.0	0.6800	0.3100
Honiara	62.6	0.6267	60.6	0.6060	61.5	0.6150	0.6090	12.1	0.1210	59.5	0.5950	0.2790
	62.8	0.6300	90.5	0.9050	67.6	0.6760	0.8287	44.5	0.4450	57.8	0.5780	0.4893

Source : All component data are from 1999 population & housing census

Table A11: Alternative HDI, Continued

	Better Living Condition									Combined	
	% with Safe Water	S. Water Index	% w. Modern Toilet	T.Facility Index	% with elec-tricity	Ac. Elect. Index	% with W. Radio	Info. Ac. Index	L. Cond. Index	CHDI	Rank
National	68.5	0.6850	23.0	0.2300	15.7	0.1570	41.2	0.4120	0.3710	0.511	
Choiseul	68.7	0.6870	13.2	0.1320	7.9	0.0790	33.7	0.3370	0.3088	0.527	3
Western Isabel	81.0	0.8100	28.2	0.2820	19.9	0.1990	40.5	0.4050	0.4240	0.585	2
Central	84.7	0.8470	15.9	0.1590	11.9	0.1190	39.4	0.3940	0.3798	0.520	4
Rennell Bellona	83.4	0.8340	10.9	0.1090	14.5	0.1450	40.7	0.4070	0.3738	0.520	4
Guadalcanal	84.7	0.8470	21.8	0.2180	1.4	0.0140	45.8	0.4580	0.3843	0.512	5
Malaita	41.6	0.4160	14.9	0.1490	8.3	0.0830	38.6	0.3860	0.2585	0.459	6
Makira & Ulawa	60.3	0.6030	12.3	0.1230	4.2	0.0420	36.4	0.3640	0.2830	0.439	9
Temotu	65.8	0.6580	9.6	0.0960	5.0	0.0500	27.8	0.2780	0.2705	0.488	7
Honiara	72.9	0.7290	8.3	0.0830	3.2	0.0320	26.1	0.2610	0.2763	0.448	8
	94.8	0.9480	87.9	0.8790	72.5	0.7250	78.6	0.7860	0.8345	0.696	1

Table A12: Basic Human Development Indicators for the Pacific Island Nations

Country	Population	Annual	Life		Infant			Combined		GDP per	Human	
	Size*	Population	Expectancy at		Mortality	Adult		Gross		Capita	Development	
	('000)	Growth	birth		Rate	Literacy		Enrolment		(\$US)	Index	
			Male	Female		Male	Female	Male	Female			
Cook IS	16.2	-1.8	71	74	11	93	94	84	86	4947	0.822	16.5
Fiji IS	805.0	0.9	65	69	16	95	91	80	83	2684	0.667	797.8
FSM	116.5	2.1	64	67	46	77	66	71	71	2070	0.569	114.1
Kiribati	86.9	2.1	59	65	67	94	91	67	69	702	0.515	85.1
Marshall IS	63.3	3.6	63	67	63	79	69	72	72	1882	0.563	61.1
Nauru	11.8	2.4	55	62	11	95	95	79	80	3450	0.663	11.5
Niue	2.1	-1.0	74	74	18	98	97	81	87	3714	0.774	2.1
Palau	18.9	2.4	64	74	20	94	88	83	84	8027	0.861	18.5
PNG	4522.7	2.5	55	54	77	35	21	30	27	1196	0.314	4412.4
Samoa	176.9	1.2	65	67	22	96	96	84	88	1060	0.590	174.8
Solomon Is	409.0	3.2	61	62	66	84	69	69	66	863	0.553	417.8
Tokelau	1.5	-0.8	68	70	38	92	90	85	92	na	na	1.5
Tonga	98.3	0.3	65	71	19	99	99	82	84	1868	0.647	98
Tuvalu	11.3	3.0	64	70	51	95	95	74	75	1157	0.583	11
Vanuatu	187.4	2.7	64	67	45	37	30	60	55	1231	0.425	182.5

Note: All Entries for Solomon Islands and the population size are estimates for the year 1999.
All other entries are 1998 estimates

Source: UNDP, Pacific Human Development Report 1999 and Staff Estimates

Table A13: 1999 Solomon Islands Population and Housing Census, summary of major findings

	All Provinces	Choiseul	Western	Isabel	Central	Rennell-Bellona	Guadalcanal	Malaita	Makira-Ulawa	Temotu	Honiara
Total population	409,042	20,008	62,739	20,421	21,577	2,377	60,275	122,620	31,006	18,912	49,107
Inter-censal annual growth rate	2.8%	3.0%	3.2%	2.6%	2.0%	2.2%	1.5%	3.3%	2.7%	1.9%	3.8%
Sex ratio (male per 100 female)	107	105	112	104	108	107	109	100	106	94	126
Life expectancy at birth : males	60.6	60.6	60.6	59.6	61	61	59.8	60.2	60.8	61.5	61.7
Life expectancy at birth: females	61.6	61.6	61.6	60.4	62.1	62.1	60.7	61.1	61.9	61.9	62.8
IMR	66										
CBR	34	36	34	33	34	29	36	38	37	33	29
CDR	9	10	9	10	10	13	9	10	10	11	7
Total Fertility Rate	4.8	5.3	4.8	4.8	4.9	4.9	5	5.4	5.1	4.1	3.4
Number of households	65,014	3,142	9,992	3,556	3,625	432	10,399	18,606	4,926	3,415	6,921
Average household size	6.3	6.4	6.3	5.7	6	5.5	5.8	6.6	6.3	5.5	7.1
Population aged 14 and over, doing paid work	57,472 (23%)	2,668 (23%)	13,497 (35%)	2,721 (22%)	3,740 (28%)	184 (13%)	6,740 (19%)	8,713 (12%)	2,342 (13%)	1,407 (12%)	15,460 (44%)
Males	39,761 (31%)	1,858 (31%)	9,209 (45%)	1,975 (32%)	2,686 (39%)	150 (20%)	4,555 (24%)	5,964 (18%)	1,631 (17%)	944 (7%)	10,789 (54%)
Females	17,711 (15%)	810 (14%)	4,288 (24%)	746 (12%)	1,054 (17%)	34 (5%)	2,185 (13%)	2,749 (8%)	711 (8%)	463 (7%)	4,671 (32%)
Population aged 14 and over, doing unpaid work	111,329 (45%)	5507 (47%)	15,985 (42%)	6,993 (56%)	6,409 (49%)	756 (52%)	20,310 (56%)	36,369 (52%)	10,516 (56%)	5,295 (46%)	3,189 (9%)
Self-reported literacy, pop. 15 +	77%	92%	94%	75%	72%	87%	73%	61%	81%	61%	91%
Males	84%	93%	95%	83%	82%	92%	80%	72%	87%	74%	94%
Females	69%	91%	93%	67%	62%	81%	66%	51%	75%	50%	86%
5-19 years of age attending sch.	56%	63%	65%	66%	57%	72%	41%	49%	65%	62%	68%
Males	58%	63%	65%	67%	60%	73%	43%	52%	67%	65%	69%
Females	54%	64%	66%	65%	53%	71%	40%	46%	64%	58%	66%
Disabled population	2.7%	2.8%	2.8%	2.3%	2.5%	5.5%	2.7%	2.9%	2.6%	3.5%	1.9%
Population using bednets	53%	68%	54%	64%	59%	26%	60%	53%	48%	42%	36%
Pop. displaced due to ethnic tension (1999)	35,309	316	1,140	331	486	32	12,806	12,676	584	599	6,339
Household amenities											
Access to modern toilet facility	23%	13%	28%	16%	11%	22%	15%	12%	10%	8%	88%
Acc. to SIWA/RWSS water sup.	60%	56%	61%	86%	61%	1%	40%	57%	65%	43%	95%
Households with electricity	16%	8%	20%	12%	14%	1%	8%	4%	5%	3%	73%
Households with working radio	41%	37%	40%	39%	41%	46%	39%	36%	28%	26%	79%

Source : 1999 Population & housing census

Table A14: Public Expenditure on Education and Health (\$m)

		Health			Education	
	Recurrent budget	As percent of total gov exp	As percent of GDP	Recurrent budget	As percent of total gov exp	As percent of GDP
1991	20.5	12.6	3.7	34.2	15.1	6.2
1992	24.3	11.6	3.7	35.6	17.6	5.8
1994	34.4	13.5	3.8	46.9	18.3	5.2
1997	48.8	11.8	3.6	63.5	15.4	5.3
1998	48.7	13.4	2.8	64.3	17.2	3.6
1999	53.2	11.5	3.1	77.7	16.8	4.5
2000	61.5	16.2	4.4	88.5	23.3	6.3
2001	66.9	14.9	5.9	90.1	20.1	8.0

Source : Solomon Islands Government annual recurrent budget estimates

Table A15: Selected Basic Health Service and Health Status Indicators

Indicator	Year	All Provinces	Choiseul	Western	Isabel	Central	Rennell & B	Guadalcanal	Malaita	Makira & U	Temotu	Honiara
Life Expectancy at Birth	1986	54.6										
	1999	61.1	61.6	61.6	60	61.5	61.5	60.2	60.7	61.3	62.1	62.2
Infant Mortality Rate	1986	96.1										
	1999	66.0	65.4	65.5	70.4	63.4	63.4	69.4	67.4	64.4	61.4	60.5
Child Mortality Rate	1986											
	1999	9										
Maternal Mortality Rate	1992	550										
	1997	209										
Low birth weight	1994	13.2										
U5 % underweight	1989	23										
U5, clinic det. underweight	1998	12	15	18	17	7	---	14	12	16	12	12
Population per Doctors	1999	9513	20008	15685	20421				30655	31006	18912	1637
Population per Nurses	1999	455	417	380	340	385	264	942	524	500	411	317
Population per bed	1999	515	500	1141	524	1079	---	na	1333	361	411	na
% immunized DPT3	1998	67	69	70	52	70	49	67	62	72	55	74
	1994	66	68	71	55	70	70	61	56	68	56	62
Family Planning Cov(%)	1998	8	7	11	8	6	3	7	10	7	14	8
Ante natal coverage(%)	1998	63	59	80	55	55	47	66	71	66	54	78
Post natal coverage(%)	1998	35	25	49	34	29	9	29	36	45	35	61
% with safe water supply	1999	69	69	81	85	83	85	42	60	66	73	95
% Modern toilet	1999	23	13	28	16	11	22	15	12	10	8	88
% With electricity	1999	16	8	20	12	15	2	8	4	5	3	73

Sources: Health Information System annual reports and 1999 Population and Housing Census

Table A16: Total Number of New Cases by Type of Diseases, 1993-2000

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
ARI	104901	155953	142658	145436	139598	182259	157700	165481	153509
Diarrhoea	17528	19685	18417	27194	23985	20182	22332	16331	15386
Fever	215550	293402	286383	241536	187975	174585	163335	131116	129481
Yaws	33548	34110	23547	22674	24688	19113	23516	18182	22875
STIs	530	2539	1819	1491	1994	2198	2527	2116	2507
Malaria					225587	106812	118507	106866	135251
Others	278260	319252	335803	359232	365077	342938	373891	324207	360506

Source: Health Information System Annual Reports

Table A17: Under 5 New Cases by Type of Disease, 1993-2000

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
ARI	68977	66214	68829	67106	84539	81508	107123	75806
Diarrhoea	8989	8407	15283	11734	10164	10718	8280	8248
Fever	83761	87005	81568	67821	68389	63931	51933	50768
Red eyes	5384	6551	8589	8702	5496	6673	5806	5508
Yaws	6003	4810	4522	4799	3490	4463	3434	4954
Skin Dis.	26989	23050	20623	17161	14122	15401	11405	12665
Ears inf.	7132	7740	8429	8816	10675	8922	8111	7810
Measles	523	271	7	7	0	0	5	21
Others	26067	31748	37143	38501	35792	39165	35586	38554

Source: Health Information System Annual Reports

Table A18: Prevalence* of low weight for age among children under 5, 1993-2000

Nutrition Status	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Weighed children - U5	7401	7789	7933	8799	9993	9594	6276	6662
Malnourished children - U5	1042	1016	998	1120	1101	1140	709	733
% malnourished children - U5	14.1	13.0	12.6	12.7	11.0	11.9	11.3	11.0

*clinically detected

Source: Health Information System Annual Reports

Table A19: EPI Coverage for under one & pregnant women, 1995 – 2000

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
BCG	69.1	58.1	71.5	62.1	69.4	49.5
Measles	64.7	63.8	67.5	64.1	65.2	54.6
DPT1	72.8	71.9	70.8	82.8	72.4	63.2
DPT3	67.4	68.6	69.8	66.7	68.6	57.8
TT1	20.3	20.5	20.1	20.8	19.5	16.7
TT2 +	64.1	56.1	57.3	55.9	54.8	47.3
Polio1	72	71.3	69.2	72.7	71.5	62.6
Polio3	66.7	69	68.2	66.8	69.2	57.8
Hep B1	66.1	57.7	69.3	61.3	70.1	47.1
Heb B3	62.5	68.3	72.1	69.6	69.6	51.4

Source: Health Information System Annual Reports

Table A20: Percentage distribution of disabled people by type of disability and province

	Percent Disabled	Distribution by type of disability						
		<i>Seeing</i>	<i>Hearing</i>	<i>Speaking</i>	<i>Moving</i>	<i>Gripping</i>	<i>Mental</i>	<i>Multiple</i>
Solomon Islands								
Both sexes	2.7	32.1	18.5	6.7	17.1	3.8	5.7	16.2
Males	2.9	31.2	18.9	6.8	17.7	4.2	5.7	15.6
Females	2.5	33.3	17.9	6.6	16.4	3.3	5.7	16.9
Choiseul province								
Both sexes	2.8	30.4	14.8	7.0	17.9	3.9	7.2	18.8
Males	2.8	29.5	13.5	7.3	19.8	4.2	9.4	16.3
Females	2.8	31.4	16.2	6.6	15.9	3.7	4.8	21.4
Western province								
Both sexes	2.8	29.4	18.5	6.0	16.6	3.3	7.5	18.8
Males	3.0	28.6	18.6	5.8	16.8	3.8	7.8	18.6
Females	2.7	30.3	18.5	6.1	16.4	2.6	7.1	19.0
Isabel province								
Both sexes	2.4	23.6	18.8	9.2	19.4	5.0	5.6	18.4
Males	2.6	23.0	18.5	9.4	21.1	5.7	4.9	17.4
Females	2.1	24.3	19.2	8.9	17.3	4.2	6.5	19.6
Central province								
Both sexes	2.5	30.2	19.5	5.5	16.0	2.4	4.4	22.0
Males	2.7	30.3	17.7	6.3	15.7	3.3	5.7	21.0
Females	2.4	30.1	21.7	4.4	16.5	1.2	2.8	23.3
Rennell-Bellona province								
Both sexes	5.6	17.6	16.0	3.1	12.2	9.9	3.1	38.2
Males	5.6	13.2	22.1	4.4	8.8	10.3	2.9	38.2
Females	5.5	22.2	9.5	1.6	15.9	9.5	3.2	38.1
Guadalcanal province								
Both sexes	2.7	30.9	19.8	5.5	21.1	4.1	5.3	13.3
Males	3.1	29.4	20.8	4.4	21.9	5.1	5.4	13.0
Females	2.3	33.1	18.2	7.2	19.8	2.7	5.2	13.7
Malaita province								
Both sexes	2.9	34.3	17.4	7.8	16.4	3.6	5.3	15.3
Males	3.1	32.7	17.9	8.4	17.2	3.6	5.2	15.1
Females	2.8	36.0	16.8	7.1	15.5	3.6	5.4	15.5
Makira-Ulawa province								
Both sexes	2.6	24.3	26.1	6.1	16.9	4.3	6.6	15.7
Males	2.8	21.8	27.1	6.4	18.0	4.4	6.0	16.2
Females	2.4	27.5	24.9	5.6	15.4	4.2	7.3	15.1
Temotu province								
Both sexes	3.5	36.4	11.9	6.5	17.2	3.6	6.5	17.8
Males	4.1	35.6	12.8	6.7	17.9	4.0	5.9	17.1
Females	3.0	37.5	10.8	6.3	16.3	3.1	7.3	18.8
Honiara town council								
Both sexes	1.9	43.4	19.9	6.2	13.7	3.5	3.8	9.6
Males	2.2	44.3	19.8	6.4	13.1	4.1	3.3	9.0
Females	1.6	41.8	20.0	5.9	14.7	2.4	4.7	10.6

Source: Compiled from 1999 Population & Housing Census

Table A21: Literacy status by gender, 1991

			Male	Female	Total
Literate in English & Pidgin			27	17	22
Literate in Pidgin (only)			20	12	16
Literate in English (only)			35	22	28
Illiterate			31	44	38

Source: *Literacy & Language Survey, 1991.*

Table A22: Trends in Primary School Enrolment by Gender

	Male	Female	Total
1990	31902	25818	57720
1991	33198	27061	60259
1992	36048	29057	65105
1993	38641	31462	70103
1994	40081	33039	73120
1995	42306	35126	77432
1996	43316	36354	79670
1997	43735	36968	80703
1998	41337	36074	77411

Source: *Ministry of Education, IPU records*

Table A23: Trends in Primary Enrolment by Province: 1990-1997

Province	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Choiseul	2802	3119	3573	4055	4133	4316	4285	4401
Western	8819	9079	9875	10203	10593	10943	11166	11808
Isabel	3002	3090	3413	3512	3755	4019	4065	4037
Central	3883	4058	4123	4715	4278	4475	4535	4415
Guadalcanal	9087	10099	10691	10953	11051	13571	14041	15293
Honiara	5493	5371	6430	6584	6708	11775	7245	6455
Malaita	15976	16470	18269	19835	20706	16346	21873	21643
Makira	5436	6194	6005	6193	6781	6998	7512	7472
Renbell	0	0	0	0	1391	4375	4381	642
Temotu	3222	2779	3646	3080	3724	614	567	4537
Total	57720	60259	66025	69130	73120	77432	79670	80703

Source: *Statistics Office, SOI 1993 Statistical Yearbook, Ministry of Education, IPU records, and Statistics Office data*

Table A24: Trends in Secondary School Enrolment by Gender

Year	male	Female	total
1990	3568	2068	5636
1991	4094	2469	6563
1992	4305	2450	6755
1993	4693	2658	7351
1994	4871	2940	7811
1995	5265	3245	8510
1996	6389	4049	10438
1997	7955	5154	13109
1998	9261	5911	15172

Source: Ministry of Education, IPU records

Table A25: Gross Enrolment Ratio during the 1999 Census

	Primary			Secondary			Tertiary		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Solomon IS	76.5	78.2	74.6	29.3	33.6	24.8	4.1	4.9	3.3
Choiseul	85.6	84.6	86.7	24.2	25.5	22.6	2.8	2.7	2.9
Western	88.7	88.7	88.7	27.3	28.2	26.3	1.8	2.4	1.1
Isabel	85.9	87.6	84.0	37.4	41.0	33.5	3.3	4.6	1.9
Central	81.9	85.7	78.0	21.0	26.2	15.4	1.4	2.0	0.9
Rennel & – Bellona	100.4	106.0	94.5	26.9	33.5	17.6	2.0	2.9	1.3
Guadalcanal	55.3	56.8	53.6	22.6	26.0	18.9	1.7	2.1	1.3
Malaita	66.3	68.9	63.5	22.3	27.5	17.3	1.9	2.4	1.4
Makira & Ulawa	96.2	97.8	94.3	22.3	25.3	19.0	2.7	3.5	2.0
Temotu	86.8	90.3	83.2	20.8	23.5	18.1	4.6	5.7	3.8
Honiara	90.4	91.8	88.9	65.1	72.5	56.5	12.9	13.4	12.2

Source: Approximated from 1999 census result on school attendance and highest level completed

Table A26: Change in Population Economic Activity during 1986 and 1999

			1986	%	1999	%	Change
Total Population 14+							
	Total		156327	193.990 2	249,168	194.702	59%
	Male		80585	100	127,974	100	59%
	Female		75742	94	121,194	95	60%
Not in the Labor Force							
	Total		22829	209.037 6	87,708	230.434 6	284%
	Male		10921	100	38,062	100	249%
	Female		11908	109	49646	130	317%
Economically Active Population							
	Total		133498	191.631 3	161460	179.575 6	21%
	Male		69664	100	89912	100	29%
	Female		63834	92	71548	80	12%
Of which							
Village Work Only*							
	Total		95335	230.455 9	93,609	214.247 5	-2%
	Male		41368	100	43,692	100	6%
	Female		53971	130	49,917	114	-8%
Money & Village Work							
	Total		19416	150	17976	158	-7%
	Male		12946	100	11379	100	-12%
	Female		6470	50	6597	58	2%
Work for Money Only							
	Total		18747	122	39496	139	111%
	Male		15354	100	28382	100	85%
	Female		3393	22	11114	39	228%
Seeking paid work (unemployed)							
	Total		na		27,652		17%
	Male		na		17,957		20%
	Female		na		9,695		14%

* The 1999 figure includes unpaid workers looking for paid work

Source : 1986 and 1999 Census Reports.

Table A27: Change in Paid Employment by Industry during 1986 and 1999

	Year of census						Sectoral change 1986-1999					
	1986			1999			Additional jobs			Percent change		
Industry (ISIC groups)	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
ALL INDUSTRIES	39,210	29,178	10,032	57,472	39,761	17,711	18,262	10,583	7,679	46.6	36.3	76.5
Agriculture	12,149	7,805	4,344	11,859	6,313	5,546	-290	-1,492	1,202	-2.4	-19.1	27.7
Forestry and logging	1,823	1,766	57	3,375	3,143	232	1,552	1,377	175	85.1	78	307
Fishing	4,059	3,313	746	3,367	2,935	432	-692	-378	-314	-17	-11.4	-42.1
Mining and quarrying	703	472	231	574	488	86	-129	16	-145	-18.3	3.4	-62.8
Manufacturing	2,273	1,685	588	7,237	5,387	1,850	4,964	3,702	1,262	218.4	219.7	214.6
Electricity and water	426	407	19	530	490	40	104	83	21	24.4	20.4	110.5
Construction	2,206	2,140	66	2,997	2,948	49	791	808	-17	35.9	37.8	-25.8
Whole Sale & trade	2,781	2,246	535	7,275	4,263	3,012	4,494	2,017	2,477	161.6	89.8	463
Hotel & Restaurants	519	311	208	865	417	448	346	106	240	66.7	34.1	115.4
Transp, store & comm.	2,014	1,893	121	3,239	2,978	261	1,225	1,085	140	60.8	57.3	115.7
Financial intermediations	453	311	142	581	308	273	128	-3	131	28.3	-1	92.3
Rel. state & b. services	97	67	30	994	840	154	897	773	124	924.7	1153.7	413.3
Public admin., social security	3,062	2,638	424	4,337	3,480	857	1,275	842	433	41.6	31.9	102.1
Education	2,093	1,366	727	4,324	2,673	1,651	2,231	1,307	924	106.6	95.7	127.1
Health and social work	1,406	749	657	1,830	872	958	424	123	301	30.2	16.4	45.8
Other services	1,405	1,177	228	2,122	1,542	580	717	365	352	51	31	154.4
Private hh employees	1,316	540	776	1,065	67	998	-251	-473	222	-19.1	-87.6	28.6
Extra territorial org.	96	55	41	208	133	75	112	78	34	116.7	141.8	82.9
Industry n.s.	329	237	92	693	484	209	364	247	117	110.6	104.2	127.2

Source : 1986 & 1999 Census Report

Table A28: Change in Paid Employment by Major Occupation during 1986 and 1999

	1999						1986						Change		
	Total	%	Male	%	Female	%	Total	%	Male	%	Female	%	Total	Male	Female
ALL OCCUPATIONS	57,472	100	39,761	100	17,711	100	39,208	100	29,176	100	10,032	100	47%	36%	77%
Legislators & Managers	2,502	4	2,085	5	417	2	580	1	563	2	15	0	331%	270%	2680%
Professionals & technician	9,558	17	6,562	17	2,996	17	5,547	14	4,016	14	1,517	15	72%	63%	97%
Clerks	2,301	4	1,155	3	1,146	6	3,056	8	2,061	7	988	10	-25%	-44%	16%
Services & Sales	7,826	14	4,902	12	2,924	17	4766	12	3287	11	1479	15	64%	49%	98%
Skilled agric & fishery	15,220	26	9,626	24	5,594	32	15,059	38	10,023	34	5,002	50	1%	-4%	12%
All others	21732	38	16714	42	5018	28	10257	26	9226	32	1031	10	112%	81%	387%

Source : 1986 & 1999 Population censuses

Table A29: Real Gross Domestic Product

	(Index Numbers) (1985 = 100)									
Industry	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Agriculture	103.8	97.1	113.7	113.1	116.5	125.5	125.1	138.0	132.7	103.5
Forestry, Logging, Sawmilling	113.3	82.7	142.4	156.7	170.6	196.1	209.9	195.8	134.9	153.0
Fishing	101.8	165.9	150.6	125.9	148.2	205.1	151.4	156.7	176.6	170.9
Mining & Exploration	118.3	78.1	57.6	53.9	53.1	58.1	74.9	124.2	-449.7	-1262.5
Manufacturing	134.6	135.1	146.0	156.8	215.3	227.7	235.1	237.8	245.7	246.0
Electricity and Water	157.4	168.6	178.6	192.2	211.8	235.2	232.4	249.7	263.4	276.9
Construction	96.0	75.7	77.9	80.2	90.7	218.3	289.8	189.5	103.9	75.1
Retail and Wholesale Trade	103.4	109.2	120.4	127.1	129.5	135.9	146.9	146.6	159.8	149.7
Transport and Communications	109.6	111.6	119.3	137.0	155.9	163.8	164.0	152.0	170.7	179.3
Finance	157.5	174.7	184.4	201.8	227.0	249.5	303.2	281.6	243.9	247.6
Other Services	136.0	141.9	153.5	155.6	169.6	169.6	170.7	171.2	182.2	175.9
Index of Monetary GDP Production	117.0	120.5	133.8	138.4	151.9	169.4	171.8	168.9	170.9	169.2
Annual % movement	1.5	3.0	11.1	3.4	9.3	11.5	1.4	-1.7	1.2	-1.0
Index of Primary Production	105.4	109.4	128.0	125.2	135.1	158.5	149.0	154.5	143.0	129.1
Annual % movement	1.5	3.8	17.0	-2.2	7.7	17.3	-6.0	3.7	-7.4	-9.7
Non-Monetary: Food	113.5	116.5	119.6	122.8	126.0	129.4	132.8	136.3	139.0	143.6
Non-Monetary: Construction	114.8	117.0	119.3	121.5	123.9	126.3	128.7	131.1	133.7	136.2
Non-Monetary GDP Index	113.6	116.5	119.6	122.7	125.8	129.1	132.4	135.9	139.4	143.0
Index of Total GDP Production	118.5	122.0	133.6	135.3	146.7	161.5	164.1	162.6	164.7	163.8
Annual % movement	1.9	3.0	9.5	1.3	8.1	10.1	1.6	-0.9	1.3	-0.5

Notes: * Provisional

Source: CBSI Annual Report 1996,1999 and 2000

Table A30: Estimated real GDP (\$ million, 1985 price)

Industry	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Agriculture	51.1	56.4	54.3	42.3	31.7
Forestry	32.3	30.1	20.8	23.6	20.4
Fishing	24.5	25.4	28.6	27.7	15.9
Mining & Exportation	-1.1	-1.9	6.8	19.2	9.3
Manufacturing	16.6	16.8	17.4	17.4	13.9
Electricity & Water	5.0	5.4	5.7	6.0	4.1
Construction	17.3	11.3	6.2	4.5	3.1
Retail and Wholesale Trade	30.4	30.3	33.1	31.0	27.8
Transport and Communications	14.0	13.0	14.6	15.3	12.3
Finance	20.1	18.7	16.2	16.4	15.9
Other Services	75.5	75.7	80.6	77.8	76.6
GDP at 1985 Price(Mntry)	285.8	281.3	284.2	281.1	230.9
Index (1985 = 100)	171.9	169.2	170.9	169.1	138.9
Annual % movement	1.4	-1.6	1.0	-1.1	-17.9
Omitting mining Expro.	287.0	283.2	277.3	261.9	221.6
Index (1985 = 100)	171.0	168.8	165.3	156.1	132.1
Annual % movement	1.5	-1.3	-2.1	-5.6	-15.4
Primary Prodn (Mntry)					
- 1985 Price	108.0	111.9	103.6	93.6	68.0
Annual % movement	-6.6	3.7	-7.4	-9.7	-27.4
Non-Monetary : Food	50.0	51.3	52.7	54.1	55.5
Non-Monetary : Constr.	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.7
GDP at 1985 Price (all Prodn) in SI\$	340.1	337.0	341.3	339.7	291.1
Annual % movement (Real)	1.6	-0.9	1.3	-0.5	-14.3
Per capita estimates	903.6	870.9	857.9	830.5	692.2

Source : CBSI Annual Report, 1999 and 2000

Table A31: Foreign Exchange Receipt (in million SBD) for Major Exports

Type						Year					
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Copra	11	10	21	19	20	29	28	18	39	39	35
Fish	53	106	88	83	99	168	157	182	194	159	41
Logs	60	54	110	232	277	301	366	309	196	251	224
Palm O. & K.	19	21	36	38	44	63	67	57	98	65	7
Cocoa	11	14	14	17	13	16	18	45	30	24	9
All others	22	25	34	24	21	21	21	37	50	69	15

Table A32: Honiara Retail Price Index (1985=100)

Period		Drink &	Clothing &		Housing &	Misc	Local	Imported		Annual
Average	Food	Tobacco	Footwear	Trans	Utilities		Items	Items	All Items	% Change
Weight	510	100	49	66	125	150	463	537	1000	(All items)
1989	170.6	241.6	146.4	164.7	120.3	162.3	166.9	171.2	169.3	14.9
1990	185.0	251.4	152.4	200.7	134.1	174.7	177.9	188.8	183.8	8.6
1991	216.0	275.9	182.8	256.9	147.2	193.0	203.6	218.8	211.8	15.2
1992	240.8	313.4	201.9	300.1	149.3	207.4	222.3	245.1	234.5	10.7
1993	262.7	354.3	210.3	350.0	159.0	232.8	245.5	264.2	256.0	9.2
1994	292.3	380.5	231.9	460.3	177.7	264.2	287.5	285.7	290.1	13.3
1995	313.4	437.1	253.8	486.1	188.7	301.0	313.7	304.4	317.9	9.6
1996	355.3	445.8	261.5	516.5	230.0	345.1	363.3	333.9	355.3	11.8
1997	394.8	534.0	265.2	537.1	237.8	368.1	399.8	350.5	384.0	8.1
1998	445.4	585.5	282.0	666.3	262.4	397.3	447.1	396.4	431.3	12.4
1999	493.7	576.2	284.0	709.4	291.2	371.8	494.1	412.7	466.1	8.0
2000*	518.6	641.5	286.7	725.0	301.8	392.5	521.8	436.3	492.5	6.1

* Data available only up to May 2000

Source: CBSI Annual Report 2000

Table A33: Summary of Macroeconomic Aggregate

Variable	Unit	1990	1991	1993	1995	1997	1999	2000
Population	('000)	319	328	346	366	387	409	421
GDP - Real	SI\$ mil.	233.3	243	281.4	334.8	337	339.7	291.1
-Nominal	SI\$ mil.	440	470	829.4	1250	1390.8	1739	1412
Primary								
- Industry	% GDP	31.7	31.2	31.9	34	33.1	27.6	23.4
Non -Monetary output	% GDP	18.3	18.2	17.9	15.8	16.3	17.3	20.7
Wage Employment	('000)	26.1	26.6	29.6	33.1	33.3		
Balance of Trade								
Export	SI\$ mil.	178.1	226.5	411.4	467.9	648.7	569.6	331.3
Import	SI\$ mil.	233.2	298.8	443.6	526.3	616.9	538.4	472
Trade Balance	SI\$ mil.	-55.1	-72.3	-32.2	-58.4	31.8	31.2	-140.7
Current account	SI\$ mil.	-60.8	-101.5	-23.5	-42	-54	-48	-60
External Dept								
Gross	SI\$ mil.	421	473	639.3	519.3	756	833.8	851.7
Government	% Debt	56	52	46.6	55.5	67.4	71.6	72.5
External Reserves	SI\$ mil.	43	21	61.7	53	150.4	255.1	159.8
Gross dept/GDP	%	95	100	77	42	54	48	60
Government finance								
Total Expenditure	SI\$ mil.	162	219	294	360	365	479	459
Capital	%	14.3	10					
Total Revenue	SI\$ mil.	135	146	222	309	315	559	450
Grants	%	15.2	9.7		11.7	10.1	14	30
Govt. Deficit	SI\$ mil.	31	74		51	50	-80	-80
Foreign loans	%	29	5.4			19.3	58.8	254
Banking								
Money Supply(M3)	SI\$ mil.	141	173	218	340	418	458	460
Interest Rates								
Deposits	%	9	10	8.4	7.4	2.8	3.2	3
Overdrafting	%	16.4	17.3	17.5	16.9	15.7	14.1	15.1
Saving/GDP	%	17.9	19.7	15.3	14.1	15.3	11.2	15
Inflation (Honiara)	%	8.6	15.2	9.2	9.6	12.4	8.0	6.1
Exchange Rate	(SI/US)	2.61	2.79	3.2	3.42	3.73	4.93	5.13

Source: Central Bank of Solomon Islands

Technical Note – *Computing the Indices*

The Human Development Indices (HDI)

The human development index measures the average achievements in a country in three basic dimensions of human development indicators– longevity, as measured by life expectancy at birth, knowledge / educational attainment as measured by adult literacy (two-third of the weight) and gross 5 –19 years enrolment* (one-third weight), and descent standard of living, as measured by real GDP per capita**.

To construct the index, fixed minimum maximum values have been established for each of these indicators:

- Life expectancy at birth: 25 years and 85 years
- Adult literacy rate (for age 15 +): 0% and 100%
- Gross enrolment ration: 0% and 100%
- GDP per capita: US\$100 and US\$40000

For any component of the HDI, except income individual indices can be computed according to the general formula:

$$\text{Index} = \frac{\text{Actual value} - \text{minimum value}}{\text{Maximum value} - \text{minimum value}}$$

Constructing the income index is a little more complex. Income entries in the HDI as a surrogate for all the dimension of human development not reflected in a long and healthy life and in knowledge – in a nutshell, it is a proxy for decent standard of living. The basic approach in the treatment of income has been derived by the fact that achieving a respectable level of human development does not required unlimited income. To reflect this, income is discounted in calculating the HDI according to the following formula:

$$W(y) = \frac{\log y - \log y_{\min}}{\log y_{\max} - \log y_{\min}}$$

The HDI is the simple average of the life expectancy at birth index, educational attainment index the adjusted GDP per capita index.

Alternative Human Development Index

In the foregoing human development index descent standard of living is measured by the per capita GDP. In Solomon Islands to date GDP is compiled and tabulated at national level, and this was a major shortcoming in our computation of provisional level HDI. In our effort of gauging the provincial differences of human development, we have calculated an alternative HDI that does not have income as its variable, by substituting GDP by

* Used instead of combined primary, secondary & tertiary enrolment - as in the global HDR - which is less applicable for provincial comparison for present level of development in Solomon Islands.

** In the absence of GDP per capita (in PPP\$) estimate for each province, provincial GDP was approximated by the national nominal per capita GDP. Which means, whatever difference depicted in HDI by province will be due to differences other than income.

other conventional measures of living standard. We substituted income by the following variables for computing the alternative, "conventional" human development index – more appropriate HDI in the absence of income data:

- Access to economic asset index estimated by the simple average of % in paid employment index and % economically active.
- Better living condition index estimated by the simple average of % with access to safe water index, % with access to modern toilet facilities index, % with access to electricity index, % with working radio index.

After calculating indices for each of the above and for longevity and knowledge using same formula as in the standard HDI, a simple average was computed to arrive at the conventional HDI.

The Human Poverty Index (HPI)

The human poverty index concentrates on deprivations in three essential dimensions of human life already reflected in the HDI – longevity, knowledge and a decent standard of living. The first deprivation relates to survival – vulnerability to death at relatively early age. The second relates to knowledge – being excluded from the world of reading and communication. The third relates to a decent living standard in terms of overall economic provisioning*.

In constructing the HPI, the deprivation in longevity is represented by the percentage of people not expected to survive to age 40 (P_1), and the deprivation in knowledge by percentage of adults who are illiterate (P_2). The deprivation in living standard is presented by a composite (P_3) of three variables – the percentage of people without access to safe water (P_{31}), the percentage of people with out access to health services (P_{32}) and the percentage of moderately and severely underweight children under five (P_{33}).

The composite variable P_3 is constructed by taking a simple average of the three variables (P_{31}), (P_{32}) and (P_{33}). Thus

$$P_3 = \frac{(P_{31} + P_{32} + P_{33})}{3}$$

The Human Poverty Index is then calculated as follows:

$$HPI = [1/3 (P_1^3 + P_2^3 + P_3^3)]^{1/3}$$

The gender-related development index (GDI)

The gender-related development index takes into account the level of equity between women and men in measuring the level of development achieved by the society. In doing so, the GDI uses the same variables as HDI, but adjusted for gender equity. The GDI adjust the average achievement in life expectancy, educational attainment and income in accordance with the disparity in achievement between women ad men. For this gender-sensitive adjustment a weighing formula that expresses a moderate aversion to equity was used, setting the weighing variable, β , equal to 2. This is the harmonic mean of the male and female value.

The GDI also adjusts the maximum and minimum values for life expectancy, to account for the fact that women tend to live longer than men. For women the maximum value is 87.5 years and the minimum value 27.5 years; for men the corresponding values are 82.5 and 22.5 years.

Equally distributed life expectancy index is given by

$$\{[\text{female population share} \times (\text{female life expectancy index})^{-1}] + [\text{male population share} \times (\text{male life expectancy index})^{-1}]\}^{-1}$$

Where female and male life expectancies are calculated same formula as in HDI.

Similarly the equally distributed educational attainment index is given by

$$\{[\text{female population share} \times (\text{female educational attainment index})^{-1}] + [\text{male population share} \times (\text{male educational attainment index})^{-1}]\}^{-1}$$

Calculating the index for is fairly complicated. Values of per capita GDP for women and men are calculated from the women share (s_f) and male share (s_m) of earned income. These shares, in turn, are estimated from the ratio of the female wage (w_f) to the male wage (w_m) and the percentage shares of women (ea_f) and men (ea_m) in the economically active population. In the absence of reliable wage data by gender, we used 75% (the weighted average value for developing countries). The estimates female and male per capita income, in the same way as income is treated in the HDI and then used the following formula to compute the equally distributed income index.

$$\text{Female share of the wage bill} = \frac{w_f/w_m \times ea_f}{(w_f/w_m \times ea_f) + ea_m}$$

Assuming that the female share of earned income is exactly equal to share of the wage bill

$$s_f = \frac{w_f/w_m \times ea_f}{(w_f/w_m \times ea_f) + ea_m}$$

If it is now assumed that the total GDP is also divided between women and men according to s_f , the total GDP of Y going to women is given by ($s_f \times Y$) and the total GDP to men by [$Y - (s_f \times Y)$].

Per capita GDP of women is $y_f = s_f \times Y/N_f$, where N_f is the total female population.

Per capita GDP of men is $y_m = [Y - (s_f \times Y)]/N_m$, where N_m is the total men population.

Treating income the same way as in the construction of HDI, $W(y_f)$ is given by:

$$W(y_f) = \frac{\log y_f - \log y_{\min}}{\log y_{\max} - \log y_{\min}}$$

The adjusted income for men, $W(y_m)$, is given by:

$$W(y_m) = \frac{\log y_m - \log y_{\min}}{\log y_{\max} - \log y_{\min}}$$

* HPI for industrialized countries had a fourth dimension that relates to non-participation or exclusion, and is measured by the rate of long-term (12 months or more) unemployment.

Then the equally distributed income index is given by

$$\{[\text{female population share} \times (\text{adjusted female per capita PPP US\$ GDP})^{-1}] + [\text{male population share} \times (\text{adjusted male per capita PPP US\$ GDP})^{-1}]\}^{-1}$$

The indices for life expectancy, educational attainment and income are added together with equal weight to derive the final GDI value.

The Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM)

The GEM measures the extent of women direct participation in political leadership and in line management and decision-making as well as power on economic resources. In doing so, the GEM uses variables constructed explicitly to measure the relative empowerment of women and men in political and economic sphere of activity. These are the “Equally Distributed Equivalent Percentage (EDEP)” indices for economic participation and decision-making; political participation and decision-making power; and power over economic resources.

The first two variables chosen to reflect economic participation and decision-making power are women’s and men’s percentage shares of professional and technical jobs. These are broad and loosely defined occupational categories. Because the relevant population for each is different, we calculate a separate index for each and then add the two together. The third variable, chosen to reflect political participation and decision making power, uses women’s and men’s percentage shares of parliamentary seats.

For all three of these variables we use the methodology of population-weighted $(1 - \epsilon)$ to derive the EDEPs for both sexes taken together. Each variable is indexed by dividing the EDEP by 50%.

The fourth, an income variable, is used to reflect power over economic resources. It is calculated in the same way as for the GDI except that unadjusted rather than adjusted GDP per capita is used.

The three indices – for economic participation and decision-making, political participation and decision-making, and power over economic resources are added together to derive the final GEM values. The following are the step-by-step formulas for calculating the GEM:

1. EDEP for parliamentary seats representation

$$= \{ [\% \text{ female in the population} (\% \text{ of female in Parliament})^{-1} + \% \text{ of male in the population} (\% \text{ men in Parliament})^{-1}]^{-1} \} / 50$$

2. EDEP for administrative and managerial position

$$= \{ [\% \text{ female in the population} (\% \text{ of female in admin. and managers.})^{-1} + \% \text{ of male in the population} (\% \text{ men in admin. and manag.})^{-1}]^{-1} \} / 50$$

3. EDEP for professional and technical position

$$= \{ [\% \text{ female in the population} (\% \text{ of female in prof. \& tech.})^{-1} + \% \text{ of male in the population} (\% \text{ men in prof. \& tech.})^{-1}]^{-1} \} / 50$$

4. Calculate EDEP index for female and male income

$$s_f = \frac{w_f/w_m - e a_f}{(w_f/w_m - e a_f) + e a_m} \quad \text{as in GDI}$$

Female GDP = s_f x Total GDP

Male GDP = Total GDP – Female GDP

Per capita Female GDP

= Female GDP/Female population

Per capita male GDP

= male GDP/male population

Index of per capita female GDP

= (per capita female GDP – 100)/40,000 – 100

Index of per capita male GDP

= (per capita male GDP – 100)/40,000 – 100

EDEP for Income =

{ [% female in the population (index of per capita female GDP)⁻¹ + %of male in the population (index of per capita male GDP)⁻¹]⁻¹ }/50

Finally the GEM is calculated using:

GEM = [EDEP for parliamentary seats representation + (EDEP for administrative and managerial position + EDEP for professional and technical position)/2 + EDEP for Income]/3

Glossary of Terms

Absolute & relative poverty

Absolute poverty refers to some absolute standard of minimum requirement, while relative poverty refers to falling behind most others in the community. With respect to income, a person is absolutely poor if his or her income is less than the defined income poverty line, while he or she is relatively poor if he or she belongs to a bottom income group (such as the poorest 10 percent).

Births attended

The percentage of births attended by physicians, nurses, midwives, trained primary health care workers or trained traditional birth attendants.

Budget surplus/deficit (overall surplus/deficit)

Central government current and capital revenue and official grants received, less expenditure and net government lending.

Central government expenditures

Expenditures, both current and capital, by all government offices, departments, establishments and other bodies that are agencies or instruments of the central authority of a country.

Compulsory education

The existence of laws that stipulate that children, unless exempted, must attend a certain number of grades between designated ages.

Concept of human development

The process of widening people's choices and the level of wellbeing they achieve are at the core of the notion of human development. Such choices are neither finite nor static. But regardless of the level of development, the three essential choices for people are to lead a long and healthy life, to acquire knowledge and to have access to the resources needed for a decent standard of living. Human development does not end there, however. Other choices, highly valued by many people, range from political, economic and social freedom to opportunities for being creative and productive and enjoying self-respect and guaranteed human rights. Income clearly is only one option that people would like to have, and an important one. But it is not the sum total of their lives. Income is a means, with human development being the end.

Contraceptive prevalence rate

The percentage of married women of childbearing age who are using, or whose husbands are using, any form of contraception, whether modern or traditional.

Crude birth rate

Annual number of births per thousand population.

Crude death rate

Annual number of deaths per thousand population.

Current account balance

The difference between (a) exports of goods and services (factor and non-factor) as well as inflows of unrequited transfers but exclusive of foreign aid and (b) imports of goods and services as well as all unrequited transfers to the rest of the world.

Deforestation

The permanent clearing of forest lands for shifting cultivation, permanent agriculture or settlements; it does not include other alterations such as selective logging.

Dependency ratio

The ration of the population defined as dependent – those under 15 and over 64 – to the working age population, aged 15-64.

Disability

As defined by the International Classification of Impairments, Disabilities and Handicaps (ICIDH) issued by the World Health Organization (WHO), disability is a restriction or lack of ability (resulting from impairment) to perform an activity in the manner or within the range considered normal for a human being. Impairment is defined as any loss of psychological, physiological or anatomical structure and function. The World Programme of Action concerning disabled persons monitors the implementation of national action to enhance the socio-economic opportunities and integration of disabled persons.

Economically active population

All men or women who supply labour for the production of economic goods and services, as defined by the UN System of National Accounts, during a specified time period.

According to this system, the production of economic goods and services should include all production and processing of primary products (whether for the market, for barter or for own-consumption), the production of all other goods and services for the market and, in the case of households that produce such goods and services for the market, the corresponding production for own consumption.

Education expenditure

Expenditure on the provision, management, inspection and support of pre-primary, primary and secondary schools; universities and colleges; vocational, technical and other training institutions; and general administration and subsidiary services.

Employees

Includes regular employees, working proprietries, active business partners and unpaid family workers, but excludes homemakers.

Enrolment ratio (gross and net)

The gross enrolment ratio is the number of students enrolled in a level of education – whether or not they belong in the relevant age group for that level – as a percentage of the population in the relevant age group for that level. The net enrolment ratio is the number of students enrolled in a level of education who belong in the relevant age group, as a percentage of the population in that age group.

Exports of goods and services

The value of all goods and non-factor services provided to the rest of the world, including merchandise, freight, insurance, travel and other non-factor services.

Female-male gap

A set of national, regional and other estimates in which all the figures for females are expressed in relation to the corresponding figures for males, which are indexed to equal 100.

Fertility rate (total)

The average number of children that would be born alive to a woman during her lifetime, if she were to bear children at each age in accord with prevailing age-specific fertility rates.

Gender empowerment measure

Indicates whether women are able to actively participate in economic and political life. It focuses on participation, measuring gender inequality in key areas of economic and political participation and decision-making. It thus differs from the GDI, an indicator of gender inequality in basic capabilities.

Gender-related development index

Measures achievements in the same dimensions and variables as the HDI does, but takes account of inequality in achievement between women and men. The greater the gender disparity in basic human development, the lower a country's GDI compared with its HDI. The GDI is simply the HDI discounted, or adjusted downwards, for gender inequality.

Government consumption

Includes all current expenditure for purchases of goods and services by all levels of government. Capital expenditure on national defence and security is regarded as consumption expenditure.

Gross domestic product (GDP)

The total output of goods and services for final use produced by an economy, by both residents and non-residents, regardless of the allocation to domestic and foreign claims. It does not include deductions for depreciation of physical capital or depletion and degradation of natural resources.

Gross national product (GNP)

Comprises GDP plus net factor income from abroad, which is the income residents receive from abroad for factor services (labour and capital), less similar payments made to non-residents who contribute to the domestic economy.

Health expenditure

Public expenditure on health comprises the expenditure, both current and capital, by all government offices, departments, establishments and other bodies that are agencies or instruments of the central authority of a country on hospitals, clinics and maternity and dental centres with a major medical component; on national health and medical insurance schemes; and on family planning and preventive care.

Health services access

The percentage of the population that can reach appropriate local health services on foot or by local means of transport in no more than one hour.

Human development index

Measures the average achievements in a country in three basic dimensions of human development – longevity, knowledge and a decent standard of living. A composite index, the HDI thus contains three variables: life expectancy, educational attainment (adult literacy and combined primary, secondary and tertiary enrolment) and real GDP per capita (in PPP\$).

Human poverty index

Measures deprivation in basic human development in the same dimensions as the HDI. The variables used are the percentage of people expected to die before age 40, the percentage of adults who are illiterate, and overall economic provisioning in terms of the percentage of people without access to health services and safe water and the percentage of underweight children under five.

Human priority areas

Basic education, primary health care, safe drinking water, adequate sanitation, family planning and nutrition.

Infant mortality rate

The annual number of deaths of infants under one year of age per thousand live births. More specifically, the probability of dying between birth and exactly one year of age times 1,000.

International reserves (gross)

Holdings of monetary gold, Special Drawing Rights (SDRs), the reserve positions of members in the IMF and holdings of foreign exchange under the control of monetary authorities expressed in terms of the number of months of imports of goods and services these could pay for at the current level of imports.

Life expectancy at birth

The number of years a newborn infant would live if prevailing patterns of mortality at the time of birth were to stay the same throughout the child's life.

Literacy rate (adult)

The percentage of people aged 15 and above who can, with understanding, both read and write a short, simple statement on their everyday life.

Low-birth weight infants

The percentage of babies born weighing less than 2,500 grams.

Maternal mortality rate

The annual number of deaths of women from pregnancy-related causes per 100,000 live births. According to the Tenth International Classification of Diseases, a maternal death is defined as the death of a woman while pregnant or within 42 days of termination of pregnancy, irrespective of the duration and the site of the pregnancy, from any causes

related to or aggravated by the pregnancy or its management, but not from accidental or incidental causes.

Part-time employment

Refers to people who usually work less than 30 hours a week in their main job. Data include only people declaring usual hours.

Population

Includes all residents regardless of legal status or citizenships – except for refugees not permanently settled in the country of asylum, who are generally considered part of the population of their country of origin. Data refer to midyear estimates.

Population density

The total number of inhabitants divided by the surface area.

Primary education

Education at the first level (International Standard Classification of Education – ISCED – level 1), the main function of which is to provide the basic elements of education, such as elementary schools.

Primary intake rate

Number of new entrants into first grade, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population of official admission age for the first level of education.

Primary school completion rate

The proportion of children entering the first grade of primary school who successfully complete that level in due course.

Private consumption

The market value of all goods and services, including durable products (such as cars, washing machines and home computers), purchased or received as income in kind by households and non-profit institutions. It excludes purchases of dwellings but includes imputed rent for owner-occupied dwellings.

Purchasing power parity (PPP\$)

The purchasing power of a country's currency is the number of units of that currency required to purchase the same representative basket of goods and services (or a similar baskets of goods and services) that a US dollar (the reference currency) would buy in the United States. Purchasing power parity could also be expressed in other national currencies or in Special Drawing Rights (SDRs).

Real GDP per capita (PPP\$)

The GDP per capita of a country converted into US dollars on the basis of the purchasing power parity of the country's currency. The system of purchasing power parities has been developed by the United Nations International Comparison Programme (ICP) to make more accurate international comparisons of GDP and its components than those based on official exchange rates, which can be subject to considerable fluctuation.

Reforestation

The establishment of plantations for industrial and non-industrial uses; it does not, in general, include regeneration of old tree crops, although some countries may report regeneration as reforestation.

Rural-urban disparity

A set of national, regional and other estimates in which all the rural figures are expressed in relation to the corresponding urban figures, which are indexed to equal 100.

Safe water access

The percentage of the population with reasonable access to safe water supply, including treated surface water or untreated but uncontaminated water such as that from springs, sanitary wells and protected boreholes.

Sanitation access

The percentage of the population with reasonable access to sanitary means of excreta and waste disposal, including outdoor latrines and composting.

Secondary education

Education at the second level (International Standard Classification of Education – ISCED-levels 2 and 3), based on at least four years of previous instruction at the first level and providing general or specialized instruction or both, such as middle school, secondary school, high school, teacher training school at this level and vocational or technical school.

Tax revenue

Compulsory, unrequited, non-payable receipts collected by central governments for public purposes.

Tertiary education

Education at the third level (International Standard Classification of Education – ISCED-levels 5, 6 and 7), such as universities, teachers colleges and higher professional schools, - requiring as a minimum condition of admission the successful completion of education at the second level or evidence of the attainment of an equivalent level of knowledge.

Under-five mortality rate

The annual number of deaths of children under age five per 1,000 live births averaged over the previous five years. More specifically, the probability of dying between birth and exactly five years of age expressed per 1,000 live births.

Underweight (moderate and severe child malnutrition)

The percentage of children under age five who are below minus two standard deviations from the median birth weight for age of the reference population.

Unemployment

All persons above a specified age who are not in paid employment or self-employed, but are available and have taken specific steps to seek paid employment or self-employment.

Unpaid family workers

Household members involved in unremunerated subsistence and non-market work.

Urban population

Percentage of the population living in urban areas as defined according to the national definition used in the most recent population census.

Vulnerability

Vulnerability has two faces: external exposure to shocks, stress and risk; and internal defencelessness, a lack of means to cope without suffering damaging loss.

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