



Solomon Islands Government

2009 POPULATION & HOUSING CENSUS

Report on Economic Activity and Labour Force



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Foreward and acknowledgments

This report on economic activity and labour force provides in-depth analysis of economic behaviour among the population captured through the economic information available from the 2009 Population and Housing Census of the Solomon Islands.

This report and analysis is one in a series of special census monographs on topics that are of high demand including the report on urbanisation and migration, and a gender analysis report that is forthcoming. This report provides new information and analysis to complement the standard reports on basic tables and descriptions (volume 1), the national analysis report (volume 2), the 10 provincial reports (including Honiara) and the other special topic monographs stated earlier.

The report is a timely initiative of the Solomon Islands National Statistical Office (SINSO) within the Ministry of Finance and Treasury (MOFT) in collaboration with the University of Auckland, New Zealand, and made possible through the support of the United Nations Fund for Population Activities (UNFPA).

The information from this analysis is relevant also for policy and planning purposes, and the monitoring and evaluation of the country's National Development Strategy (NDS) 2011-2020, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and other sector policies and programmes.

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1. Introduction

The purpose of this report is to consider the “economic” information available from the 2009 Solomon Islands Census. There is no universal agreement as to the meaning of “economic”. In classical Western economics, the term usually refers to activities in which money changes hands, either literally or in some less visible way. However, in all countries, there are activities in which money does not change hands but which serve to further the wellbeing of the population, and in Solomon Islands these activities are very important. These “informal” or “subsistence” activities provide food, housing, and other goods and services for much of the rural, and some of the urban, population of Solomon Islands and so can be considered as “economic” but outside the cash economy.

There were two main aspects of economic activity for which information was collected in the 2009 Census of Solomon Islands. Part of each questionnaire asked a series of questions about the household, and many of these were related to economic activities. Households were asked if they were involved in growing food, and whether this was for own consumption (subsistence) or for sale. They were also asked if they grew a range of cash crops and if they had any livestock. A series of questions were asked about fishing for subsistence or cash, and about fish and shellfish consumption. There were two further questions which had not been on earlier censuses. One related to whether the household had received any remittances in the past 12 months and, if so, how much they had received. As well as this, the household was asked what the main source of income had been over the preceding year.

The census questionnaire also asked a series of questions about each individual member of the household. One section asked questions of all persons aged 12 and over, since this age group is considered to comprise the potential “labour force” of the country. The first question asked whether they had done any “work” in the week before the census, and if not, why not. Those who had worked, were asked what kind of work activity they normally did, ranging from working for pay to various kinds of unpaid work. They were then asked what their main occupation was and what “main industry” (industry sector) this work took place in. Finally, questions to establish the level of unemployment were asked relating to actively looking for work and being available for work. Within the debate about what comprises the “economic”, the concepts of “work” and “labour force” are also a matter of debate. In the census questionnaire, the question was structured to include work for subsistence activities such as raising crops but did not include “domestic” activities within the household.

2. Sectoral development of Solomon Islands economy 1999 to 2009

Before looking at the census data on economic activity and labour force, it is useful to consider the general changes in the Solomon Islands economy that took place between 1999 and 2009, with some reference back to the earlier intercensal period 1986-1999 as well. Export statistics are presented first, which give some idea of the changes happening in the macro economy over this period. This is followed by a consideration of the changes in some of the important economic sectors which impact both the “formal” (cash) economy and the

“informal” (subsistence) economy; the latter is important throughout the country but especially in the villages. In some cases graphs show trends since 1986, when an earlier census was held, to put the current intercensal decade into perspective.

2.1 The export economy 1999 to 2009

In 1999 the total export trade of Solomon Islands was just over \$600 million (Solomons dollars), a figure similar to the two years which preceded it. However the impact of the “ethnic tension” (from about 1998 to 2003) on the economy was even more severe in the three years that followed, so that exports fell to less than \$250 million in 2001 and then slowly started to rise again, reaching a peak in 2008 of \$1.64 billion. By 2009 exports had declined again to \$1.17 billion, a statistic that already reflected the impact of the global recession. Thus, when considering the economic context in the census year 2009, it should be noted that the Solomon Islands economy was well on the road to recovery from the period of the ethnic tension, but that the global economic downturn had already had an impact.

Figure 1 shows the main export commodities and their proportion of total export revenue in the years 1986 to 2009. The impact of the ethnic tension is obvious after 1999, with the cessation of copra and palm oil exports for several years and the decline of cocoa and fishing exports. Logs became the predominant export product, accounting for as much as 77 percent of exports by value in 2001. By 2009, logs still accounted for about two-thirds of exports, but other products were recovering, especially palm oil, copra and cocoa.

2.2 Change in economic sectors 1999 to 2009

Reports on the previous two censuses (1986 and 1999) contained assessments of economic change between each census and the immediately preceding one. This section continues that assessment for the intercensal period 1999 to 2009. Its focus is on cash-related activities, at the village level as well as at the larger scale of companies and government. This review should help to put the 2009 data on labour force and economic activities of both individuals and households into context. The following section on household production also considers subsistence production.

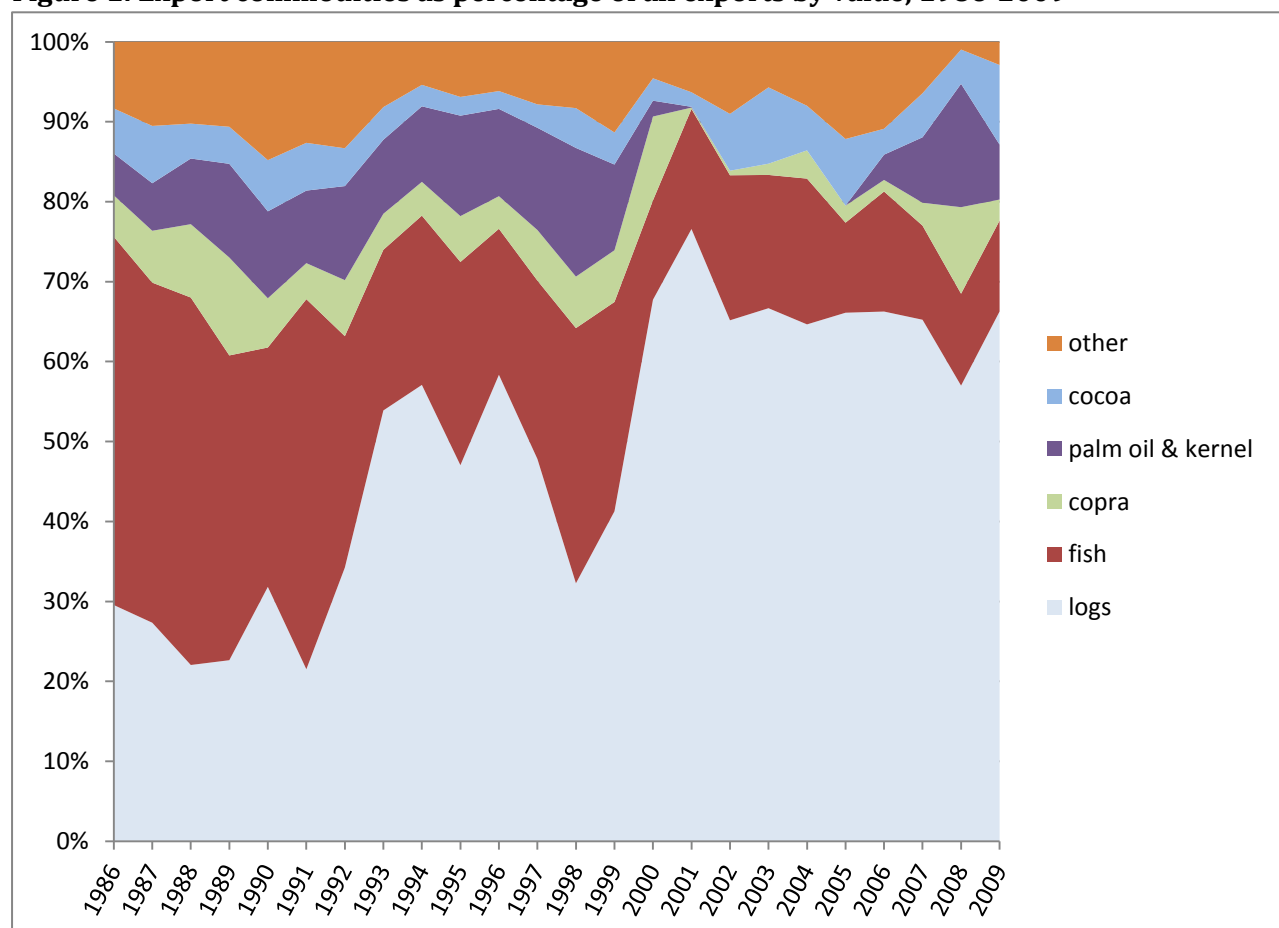
2.2.1 Agriculture

Coconut production

Coconut production is the most widespread and possibly the most important activity for rural households in Solomon Islands. Coconuts are important in both the subsistence and the cash economies. Copra, the dried meat of the coconut, is the most common product made from coconuts, and is traded internationally for use in the production of oil, soap and other products. Figure 2 relates only to cash production, and shows the great fluctuations in the production of copra over time, partly related to changes in price. It also shows that there was an increasing production of coconut oil, which returns more added value to the producer than

copra, in the 1990s, but that its production stopped during the ethnic tension. Copra production also nearly ceased as a result of disruptions to transport, and problems with the Commodity Export Marketing Authority (CEMA). Copra production resumed from 2003 onwards at levels closely related to the world price which was reflected in the price paid locally. The production of coconut oil started again in 2007 but by 2009 was still at a low level.

Figure 1: Export commodities as percentage of all exports by value, 1986-2009



Data source: CBSI Annual reports

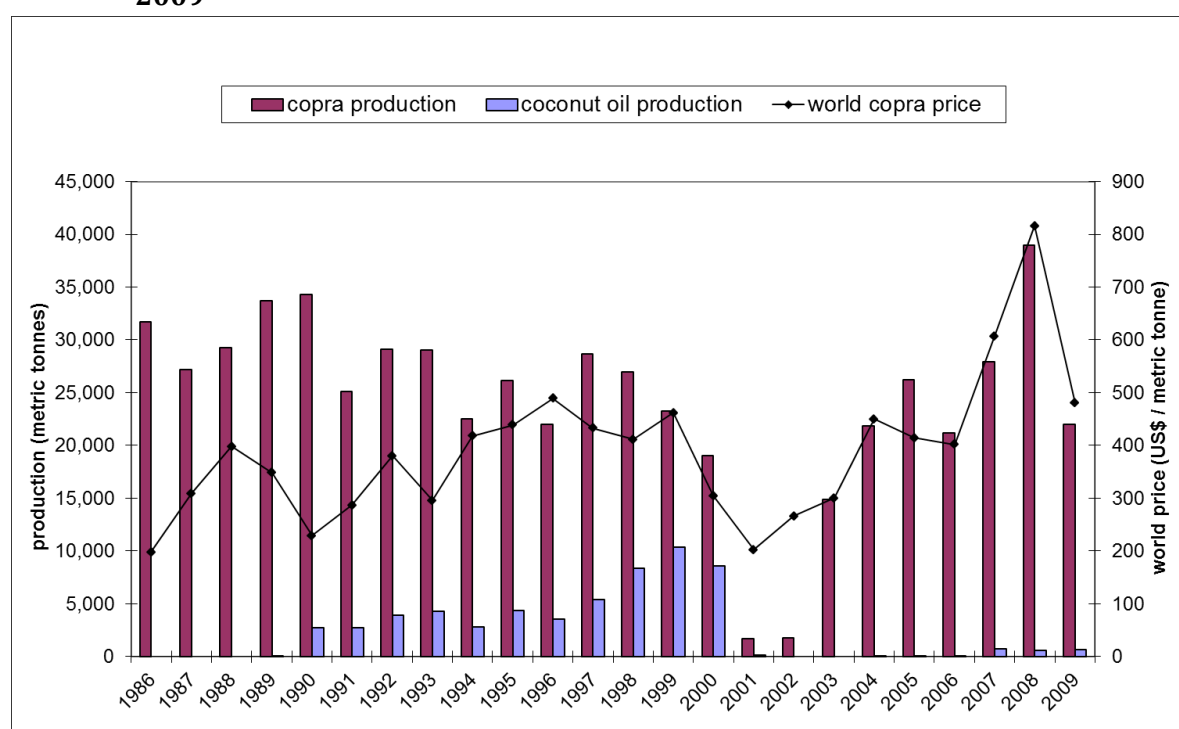
Cocoa production

Cocoa is produced at the village level by small-scale producers, and also on larger plantations. For village producers, small-scale fermentation and drying equipment are now available and these increase the sale price of the cocoa above that for wet beans. While there is some small-scale subsistence consumption of cocoa, it is mostly produced for sale. Figure 3 shows that cocoa production was reduced during the ethnic tension (and this was especially the case on Guadalcanal), but not to the extent that copra was. During the early 2000s, cocoa production increased markedly as the economy recovered, but also to some extent in response to the increased world price for cocoa, and the widening adoption of new technologies for processing the finished product.

Palm oil production

Palm oil and palm kernel production started on the Guadalcanal Plains in the mid-1970s and expanded considerably during the late 1980s and through the 1990s, mainly in Guadalcanal but also in some other areas. As Figure 4 shows, production totally stopped during the ethnic tension, primarily because much of the production was on the Guadalcanal Plains. Although rehabilitation of the palm plantations started earlier, it was not until 2006 that production was resumed and it has increased each year. By 2009 palm kernel production had returned to 1990s levels, however palm oil production had not (Fraenkel et al. 2010). During the process of plantation rehabilitation there were an estimated 2,500 workers in the palm oil industry on the Guadalcanal Plains, although this number is decreasing as the rehabilitation is completed.

Figure 2: Solomon Islands copra and coconut oil production and world copra price 1986-2009



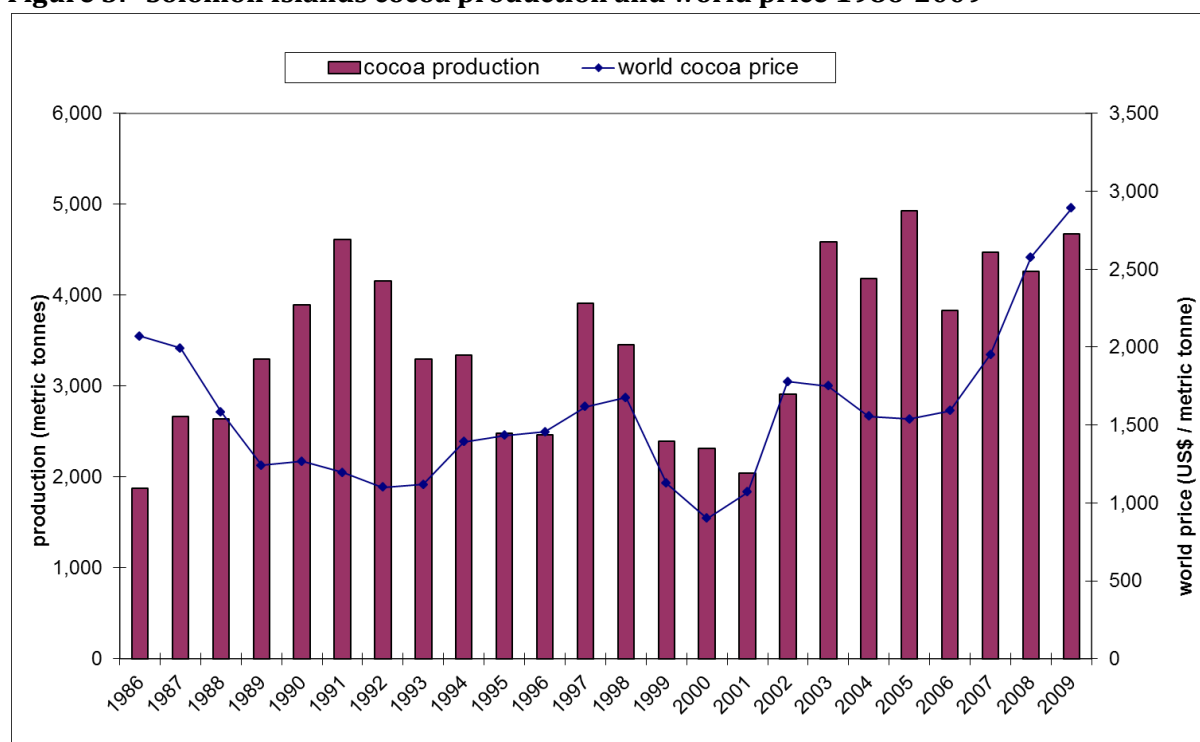
Data source: CBSI annual reports; CEMA annual reports

Other commercial agricultural activities

A range of other agricultural products are produced in the rural economy, some of which have both a subsistence and cash element, and some of which have been promoted mostly to generate cash income for villagers. For some of these, little or no data are available on their level of production, but the Census collected data at the household level for some. The production of vegetables, fruit and other food crops for market sale are important in some areas, especially near urban centres. Two other products enumerated in the census household schedule, betelnut and tobacco, similarly transcend the subsistence and cash sectors. Another crop enumerated was flowers, which tend to be grown for sale, but are sometimes collected

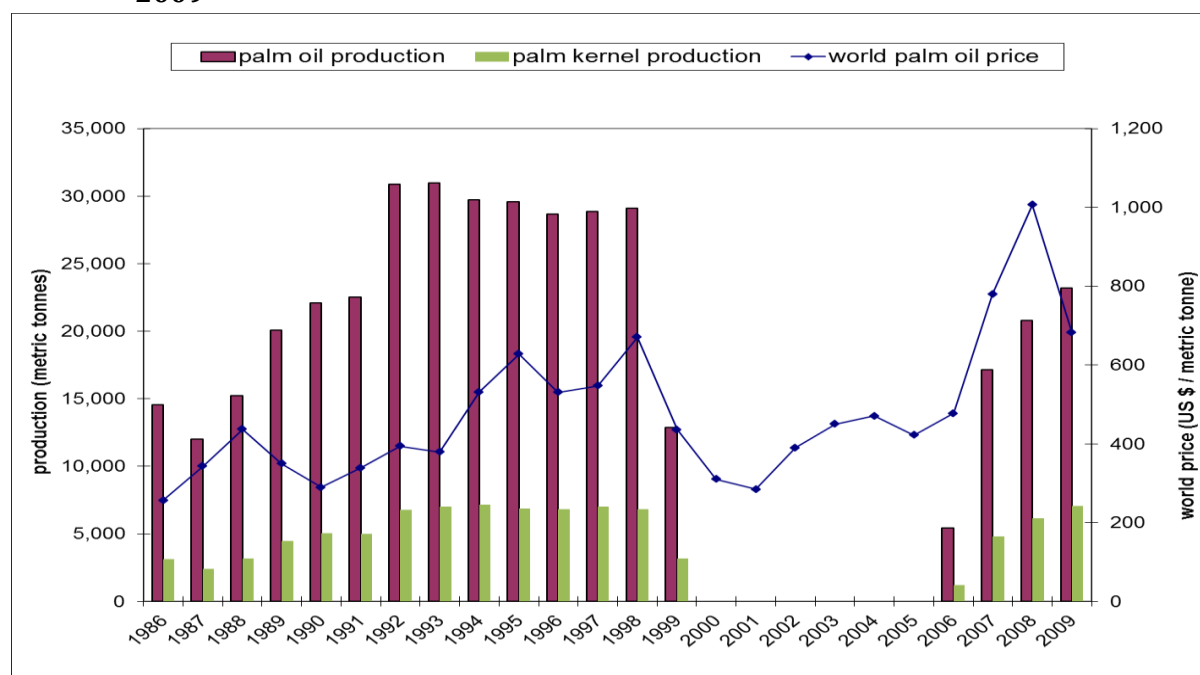
from wild sources. Data were also collected about whether households raised livestock, namely cows, pigs, goats, horses and poultry.

Figure 3: Solomon Islands cocoa production and world price 1986-2009



Data source: CBSI annual reports; CEMA annual reports

Figure 4: Solomon Islands palm oil and palm kernel production and world price 1986-2009



Data source: CBSI annual reports; CEMA annual reports

Several other “niche” agricultural products have become significant in recent years, however, while there is some limited data for some of these (CBSI 2009), they were not widespread

enough to merit inclusion in the census. The most important of these are honey, coffee, kava, vanilla and rice.

2.2.2 Forestry and logging

Logging activity has occurred for more than a century in Solomon Islands, but log exports have taken place mainly since the 1960s. Although there is some small-scale logging undertaken, and even some sustainable logging promoted by environmental groups, most log and timber production is by relatively large commercial operators. During the ethnic tension there was a downturn in log production, but this was relatively small in comparison to other sectors of the economy. As Figure 5 shows, there has been a steady increase in the volume of log production since 2001, reaching an all-time high of over 1.6 million cubic meters in 2008, before a decline in the census year 2009. The reasons for this steady increase include a regular increase in the world price for logs between 2001 and 2008, as well as the fact that the Solomon Islands economy has become increasingly dependent on log exports.

2.2.3 Fishing

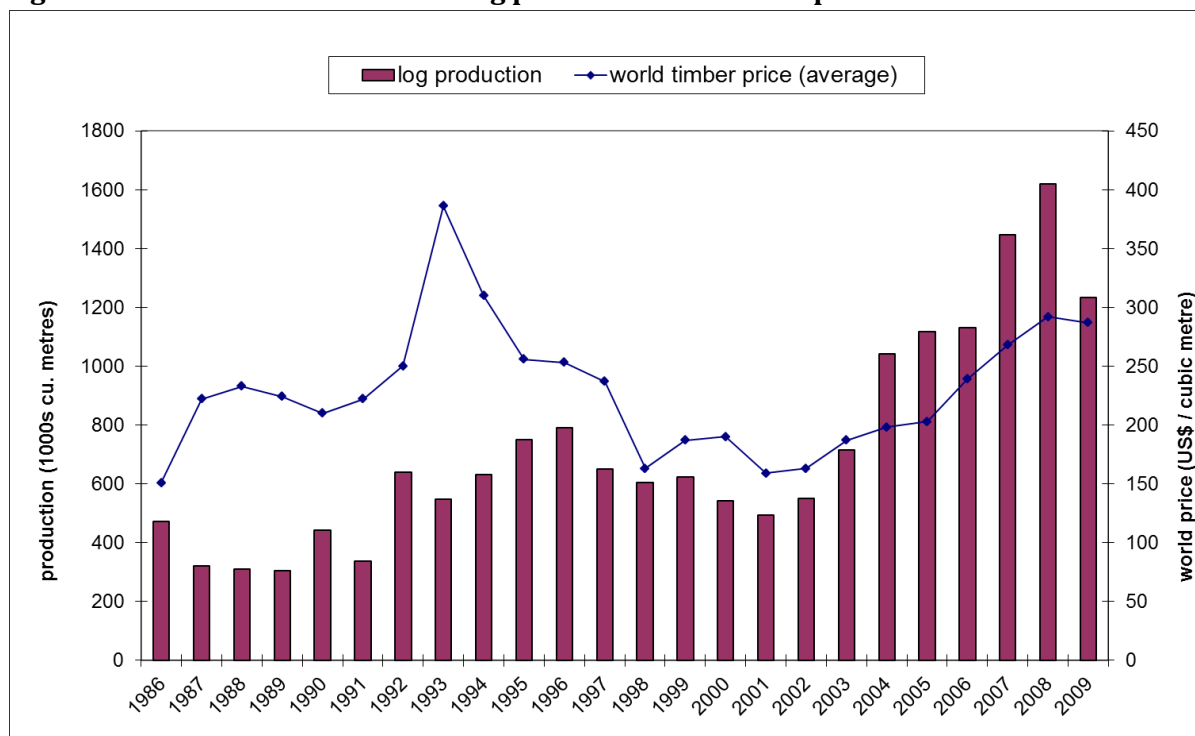
Data on fishing mostly relate to large-scale offshore fishing, and the levels of fish catch relate to both conditions within Solomon Islands and national and international corporate decisions. Figure 6 shows that there were relatively high levels of fish catch through the 1990s but that at the beginning of the twenty first century the catch was much reduced. A significant factor in this was the withdrawal of Japanese investment in Solomon Taiyo Ltd. in 2000, and the restructuring of that company to become the government-owned Soltai Fishing and Processing Ltd. (SFPL). The scale of operations of this new company and the National Fisheries Development (NFD) was reduced from the scale of the 1990s as a result of a variety of factors, including an ageing fishing fleet, high fuel prices at times, and issues related to investment capacity. This was despite the fact that world prices for fish were relatively high through this period, though they declined a little in 2009. A third, small company, Solgreen Fishing Company Ltd. has also been operating in Solomon Islands in recent years.

Small-scale fishing is also important in Solomon Islands, both at the subsistence level, and for cash. Data for these is scarce, so the census is the main source of information, and more detail is presented below in the section on the economic activities of households.

2.2.4 Mining

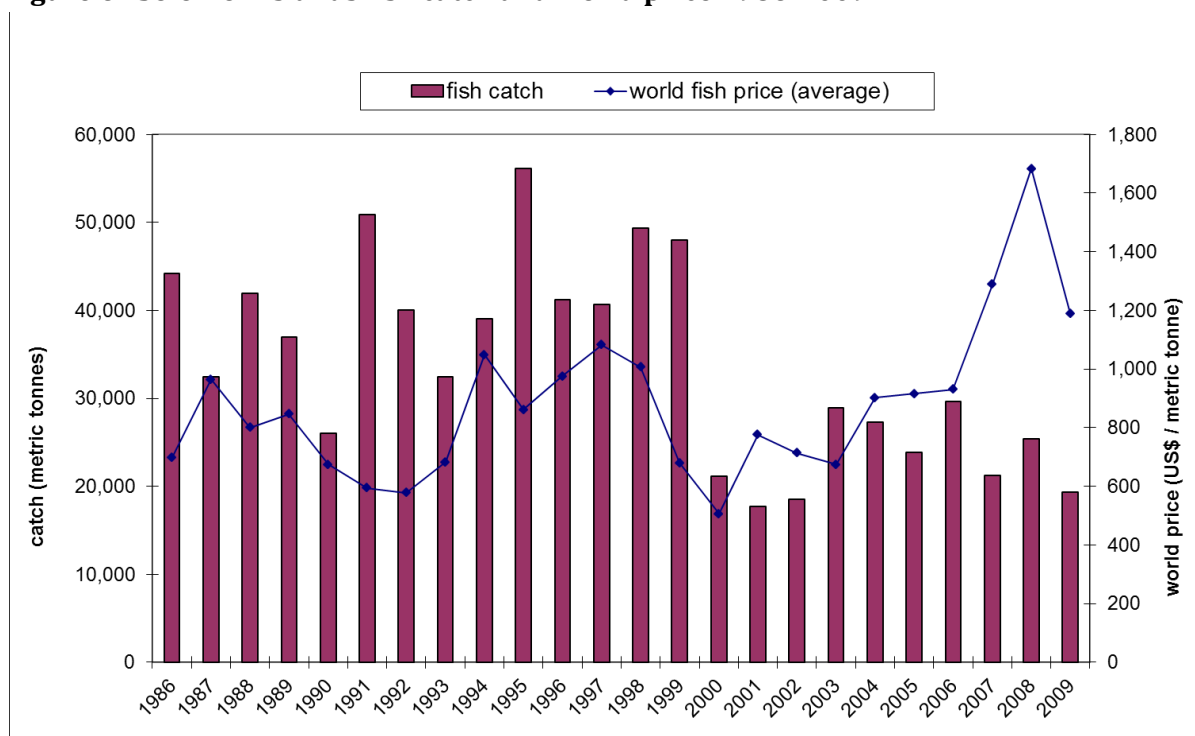
In the middle of 2000, the only significant mine in Solomon Islands, Gold Ridge Mining Ltd. ceased operations as a result of the deterioration of security on Guadalcanal. At the time of the 2009 Census, plans were well underway to reopen Gold Ridge, and it was opened in March 2011. During this interim, however, there was ongoing alluvial gold extraction in nearby rivers, and to a small extent in the Western Province, as well as mineral prospecting in various parts of the country.

Figure 5: Solomon Islands timber log production and world price 1986-2009



Data source: CBSI annual reports

Figure 6: Solomon Islands fish catch and world price 1986-2009



Data source: CBSI annual reports

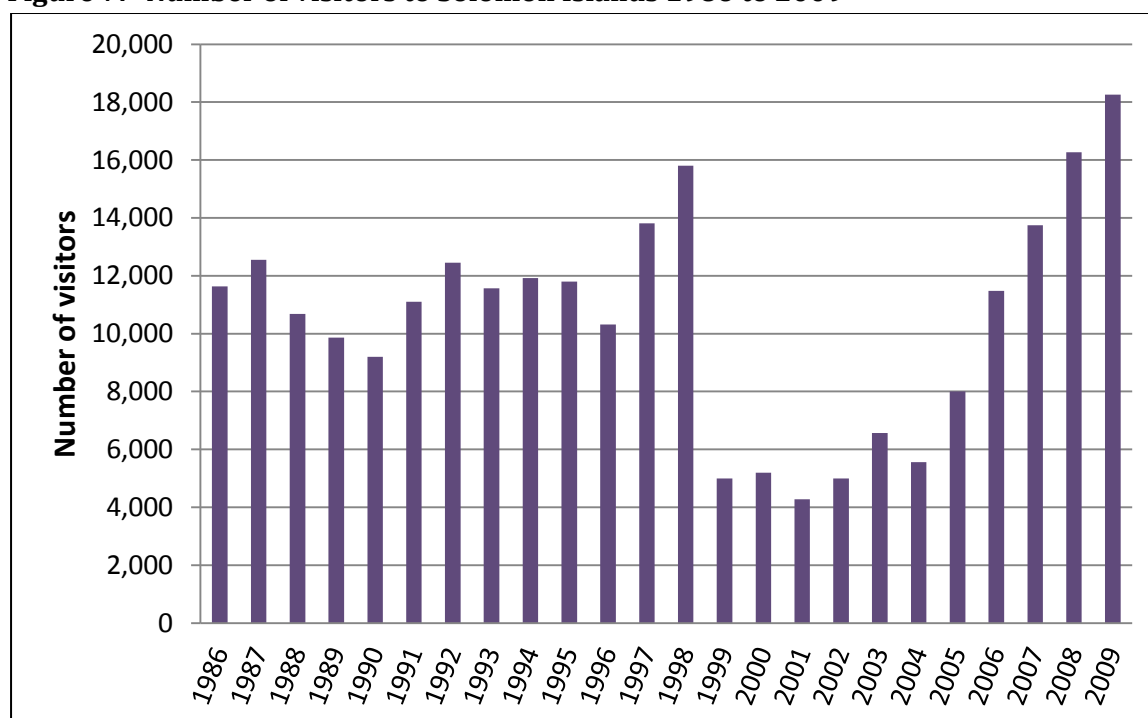
2.2.5 Manufacturing

Manufacturing has never been a significant part of the export economy of Solomon Islands, but over recent decades it has grown to cater for the local market in areas where import substitution is viable. These include food processing, beer, furniture, construction materials and various other small scale activities. Traditional handicrafts for sale to tourists and for export include woodcarvings, weaving and shell ornaments.

2.2.6 Tourism

At the time of the last census in 1999, the ethnic tension had resulted in a major downturn in tourism. Through the 1990s, the number of international visitors averaged just under 12,000, but the number in the first five years of the 2000s was less than one-half of this (Figure 7). Most of these were not tourists, but were businesspeople, international aid workers and RAMSI staff. From 2005 onwards, visitor / tourist numbers have been steadily increasing to levels above those of earlier periods. This is a result of ongoing promotion by the Solomon Islands Visitors Bureau (SIVB), an increase in the number of airlines and flights arriving in Honiara, and the expansion of the accommodation sector. By 2008 there were nearly 700 people working in the accommodation sector, with most of these in Honiara and the Western Province (CBSI 2008).

Figure 7: Number of visitors to Solomon Islands 1986 to 2009



Sources: Solomon Islands Statistical yearbooks, CBSI Annual Reports, SI Visitors Bureau

Note: For some years full year data are estimated (1999, 2001, 2002, 2005)

3. Economic activities of households

3.1 Main sources of household income

One of the questions on the household questionnaire was “What was the main source of **income** for this household over the past 12 months” (underlining and bold font on questionnaire). For many households this would have been a difficult question to answer since some aspects of “income” are not easy to quantify, and many (most?) households would have a range of income sources. For example, the sale of food and other items is often sporadic and related to surpluses in subsistence production or an opportunity to ship goods to town, so few households would keep accounts of how much they earned from such activity. Similarly, remittances often comprise goods, rather than cash, so are difficult to quantify. Nevertheless, the question does give a useful impression of the sources of household income.

In terms of numbers and proportions of households involved, the most important source of income in 2009 was the “sale of fish, crops, and / or handicraft”, with about 45 percent of all households stating that this was their main source of income (Table 1). Some of these activities were specifically enumerated in the census, such as the sale of food crops, betelnut, copra, cocoa, flowers, timber, tobacco and fish, and are discussed further below. Across the provinces there is some consistency in the proportions receiving their main income from these sources, with proportions ranging from 36 percent in Rennell-Bellona to 58 percent in Temotu. As expected, less than five percent of Honiara households have the sale of fish, crops or handicrafts as their main source of income. Figure 8 shows the distribution by ward of the percentage of households which received their main income from sale of fish, crops and handicrafts.¹ Most areas of the country have more than 40 percent of households with this as their main source of income. The main exceptions include urban and adjacent areas where paid work opportunities are greater, although in some more remote areas, the percentage is also low.

The second most important source of household income was wages and salaries, with about one-quarter of all households in this category (Table 1). Many waged jobs are in urban areas, with 78 percent of Honiara households having this as their main source of income. As Figure 9 shows, high percentages were also in this category in areas near Honiara as well as in the smaller urban centres of Auki, Tulagi, Gizo and Noro. Further details on the characteristics of the wage and salary sector in Solomon Islands are given in the section on “Labour force: economic activities of individuals” later in this report.

¹ All maps in this report show Ward level data. The key to Wards, including those represented by boxes on the maps because their areas are too small to be visible at this scale, is shown in a separate map at the end of this report.

Table 1: Main Source of household income by province

Source of income	Solomon Islands	Province									
		Choiseul	Western	Isabel	Central	Rennell Bellona	Guadalcanal	Malaita	Makira Ulawa	Temotu	Honiara
Total no. of households	91,251	4,712	13,762	5,143	4,905	688	17,163	24,421	7,173	4,303	8,981
Sale of fish/crop/handicraft	40,591	2,443	7,518	2,900	2,518	244	7,702	11,075	3,293	2,505	393
Wages/Salary	21,866	892	3,732	907	665	147	3,978	2,942	1,007	612	6,984
Own business	5,113	206	618	310	373	40	868	1,290	459	166	783
Remittances	1,984	206	410	174	88	82	182	584	90	120	48
House rent	577	16	48	18	5	13	102	154	28	14	179
Land lease	133	6	8	4	1	1	20	15	14	10	54
Other source	17,954	855	1,246	738	1,189	47	3,773	6,957	1,967	717	465
<i>No income</i>	<i>3,033</i>	<i>88</i>	<i>182</i>	<i>92</i>	<i>66</i>	<i>114</i>	<i>538</i>	<i>1,404</i>	<i>315</i>	<i>159</i>	<i>75</i>
Percentage of all households	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sale of fish/crop/handicraft	44.5	51.8	54.6	56.4	51.3	35.5	44.9	45.4	45.9	58.2	4.4
Wages/Salary	24.0	18.9	27.1	17.6	13.6	21.4	23.2	12.0	14.0	14.2	77.8
Own business	5.6	4.4	4.5	6.0	7.6	5.8	5.1	5.3	6.4	3.9	8.7
Remittances	2.2	4.4	3.0	3.4	1.8	11.9	1.1	2.4	1.3	2.8	0.5
House rent	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.1	1.9	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.3	2.0
Land lease	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.6
Other source	19.7	18.1	9.1	14.3	24.2	6.8	22.0	28.5	27.4	16.7	5.2
<i>No income</i>	<i>3.3</i>	<i>1.9</i>	<i>1.3</i>	<i>1.8</i>	<i>1.3</i>	<i>16.6</i>	<i>3.1</i>	<i>5.7</i>	<i>4.4</i>	<i>3.7</i>	<i>0.8</i>

3.2 Production for own consumption (subsistence)

Most households in Solomon Islands produce at least some of the food they consume. Eighty nine percent of all households grew some of their own food, and 60 percent of households caught fish for their own consumption over the year preceding the census. These proportions were even higher in rural areas, averaging 96 percent for food and 69 percent for fishing, but even in urban areas significant proportions of households participated in subsistence food production. For example, in Honiara 42 percent of households said they had produced food, though only about eight percent had caught fish.

Figure 10 shows the distribution of households within wards which produced food only for own consumption (“subsistence only”). It is difficult to generalise about the location of these households, but in some cases they are located in areas remote from urban areas and thus lack marketing opportunities. For example, on the Weather (south) Coast of Makira, most households did not market food, and this may reflect the fact that the three formal markets on Makira are on the north coast (Allen et al 2006:71). This may also explain high proportions of “subsistence only” households in parts of Guadalcanal and Malaita. At the same time, some relatively remote areas do have small local markets where food is sold.

While most households participate in the subsistence sector i.e. “produce food or catch fish for own consumption”, the great majority *also* produce something for the cash sector. For those who might be inclined to produce crops only for sale, subsistence production is a useful buffer for changing commodity prices and other “institutional challenges” (Warner 2007:76). Only 14 percent of households do not produce any crop for sale (Table 2), and if we consider only rural areas, 93 percent of all households have some cash income from the sale of crops of some sort.

Figure 8: Percentage of households with sales of fish/crop/handicraft as main income

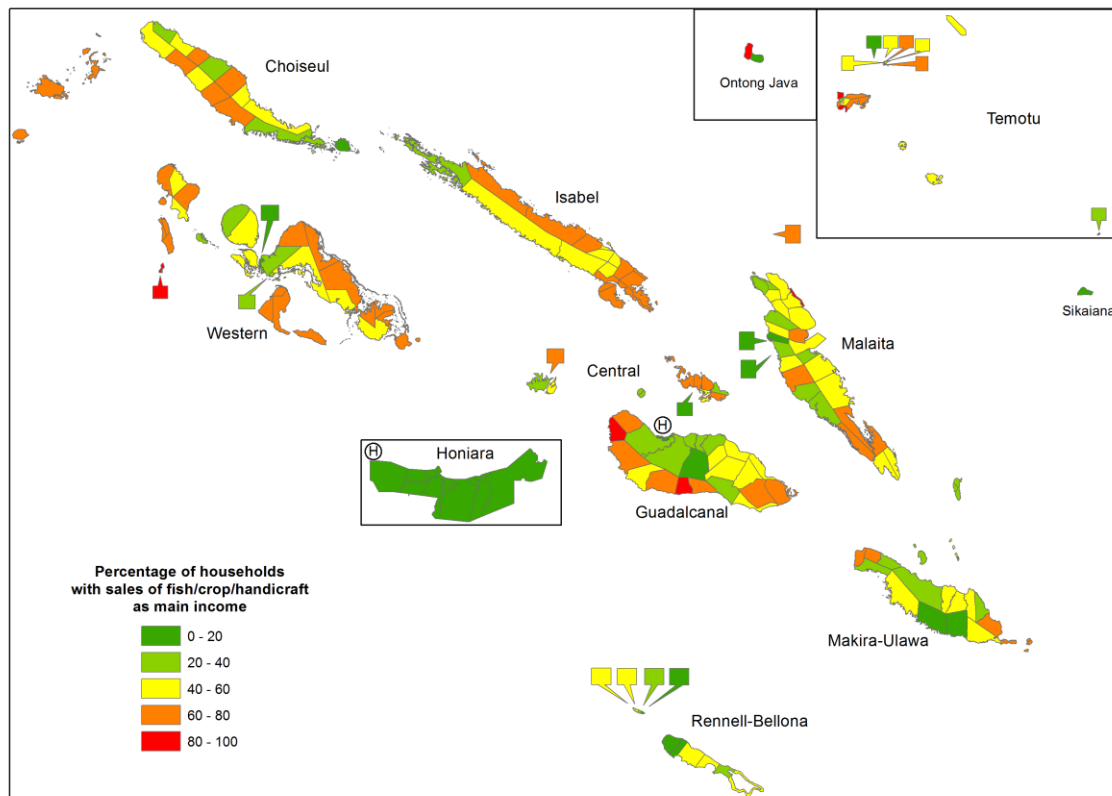


Figure 9: Percentage of households with wages or salary as main income

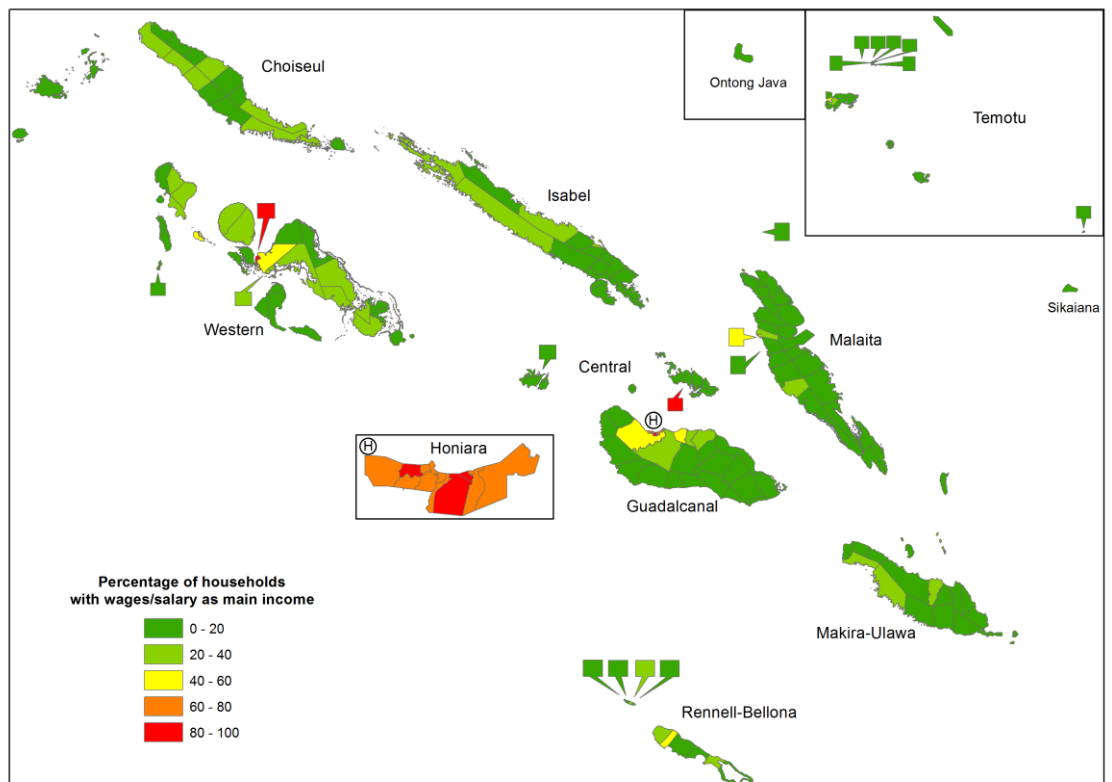
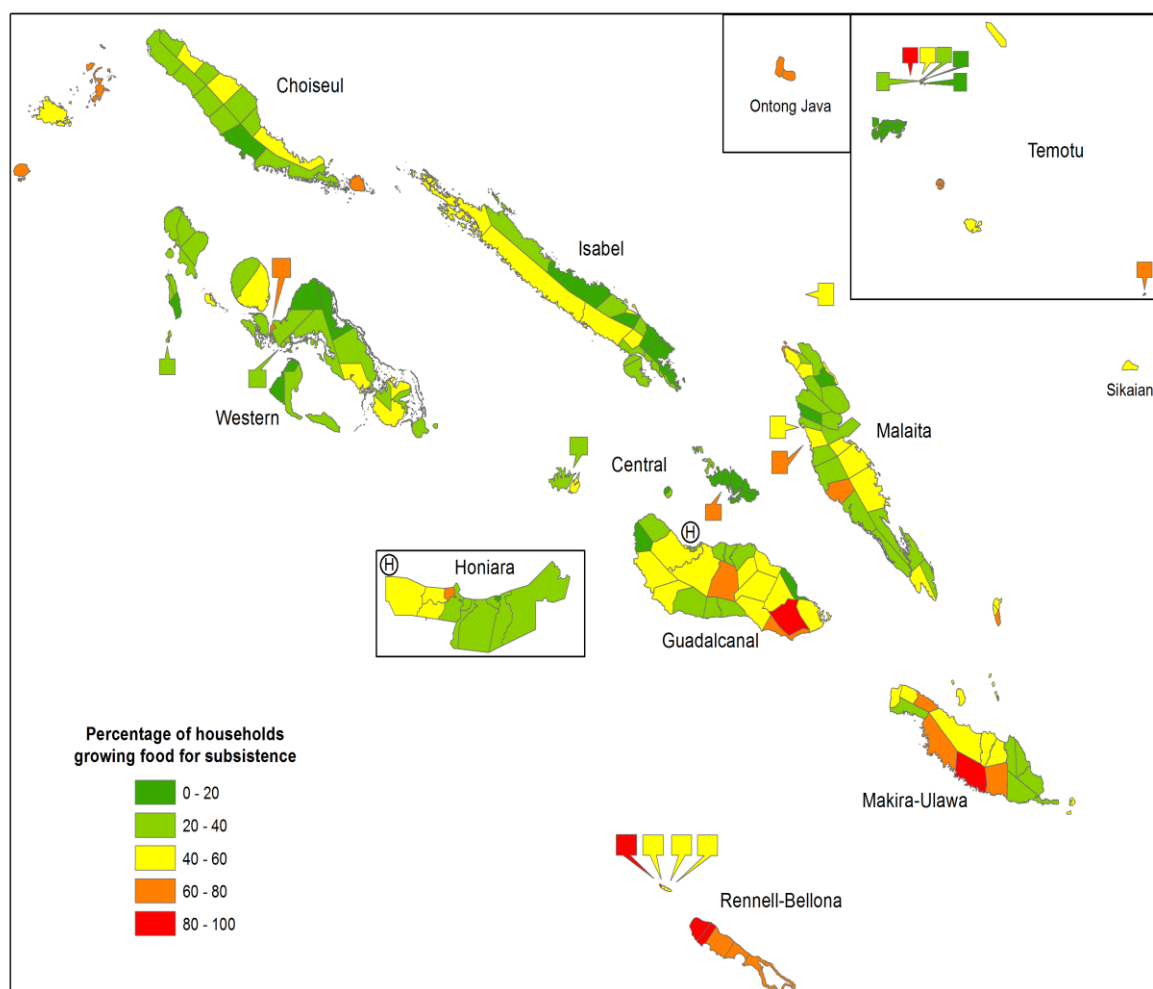


Figure 10: Percentage of households growing food for subsistence only



NOTE: For all maps, see key to Ward names at end of report

Table 2: Number and percentage of households growing crops for cash, by province

No. and % of Households (HHs) growing crops	Solomon Islands	Province									
		Choiseul	Western	Isabel	Central	Rennell Bellona	Guadalcanal	Malaita	Makira Ulawa	Temotu	Honiara
Total no. of HHs	91,251	4,712	13,762	5,143	4,905	688	17,163	24,421	7,173	4,303	8,981
HHs with veggies/food crop	64,747	3,843	11,239	4,141	4,237	557	12,088	17,652	4,827	3,802	2,361
% of all HHs	71.0	81.6	81.7	80.5	86.4	81.0	70.4	72.3	67.3	88.4	26.3
HHs with betelnut	39,810	2,808	5,823	3,937	3,281	10	7,574	9,401	4,006	2,875	95
% of all HHs	43.6	59.6	42.3	76.6	66.9	1.5	44.1	38.5	55.8	66.8	1.1
HHs with coconut/copra	28,828	2,414	4,509	1,559	2,277	126	4,518	8,229	3,137	1,786	273
% of all HHs	31.6	51.2	32.8	30.3	46.4	18.3	26.3	33.7	43.7	41.5	3.0
HHs with cocoa	24,122	422	1,992	277	736	-	6,392	10,219	3,547	517	20
% of all HHs	26.4	9.0	14.5	5.4	15.0	0.0	37.2	41.8	49.4	12.0	0.2
HHs with flowers	12,779	574	4,105	884	243	153	1,428	3,328	373	500	1,191
% of all HHs	14.0	12.2	29.8	17.2	5.0	22.2	8.3	13.6	5.2	11.6	13.3
HHs with timber	9,285	932	2,897	712	180	12	569	2,087	598	1,270	28
% of all HHs	10.2	19.8	21.1	13.8	3.7	1.7	3.3	8.5	8.3	29.5	0.3
HHs with tobacco	8,166	121	684	890	451	1	1,045	2,486	1,064	1,418	6
% of all HHs	8.9	2.6	5.0	17.3	9.2	0.1	6.1	10.2	14.8	33.0	0.1
HHs with other crop	6,819	112	1,220	1,818	222	33	816	1,159	135	1,146	158
% of all HHs	7.5	2.4	8.9	35.3	4.5	4.8	4.8	4.7	1.9	26.6	1.8
HHs which don't grow any crops	13,175	402	1,488	395	322	104	1,977	2,432	305	220	5,530
% of all HHs	14.4	8.5	10.8	7.7	6.6	15.1	11.5	10.0	4.3	5.1	61.6

3.3 Raising of livestock

In the census, households were asked whether they had livestock, specifically cows, pigs, goats, horses or poultry, though they were not asked whether these were for their own consumption/use or if they were being raised for sale. Pigs and poultry were the most common livestock, with well over one-third of all households raising these (Table 3). Goats and cows were much less common, with only 0.8 and 0.5 percent of households having these. Households with horses were rare--only 0.1 percent of households kept horses.

Table 3 shows that about 38 percent of all households raised pigs, a decline from 1999 when the census showed that 45 percent of households had pigs. Figure 11 shows that the concentration of pig raising varies through the country, and reasons for this are both economic and cultural. Although pigs are raised in many places to be sold for cash, they also have important cultural and ceremonial roles within Solomon Islands through their use during events such as marriages and religious festivals. The main exception to this is the prohibition on production and consumption of pork by the Seventh Day Adventist church, so villages where this religion is predominant do not have pigs. In Rennell and Bellona, where about half the population belongs to the SDA faith, there are very few pigs, and Western and Choiseul provinces, which have the next highest proportions of SDA adherents, also have low proportions of households raising pigs. The variable distribution of pigs through the country shown in Figure 11 is a result of other factors as well. Malaita and Guadalcanal are the main suppliers of pork to the Honiara market (Jansen et al. 2006:32), but distant Temotu is also a significant supplier to Honiara with one study in 2006 estimating that it supplied 200 to 300 pigs a month, despite the expense of shipping (Allen et al. 2006:117).

There are slightly fewer households raising poultry than pigs, with 37 percent of all households having poultry and no province with less than 32 percent, though only a few

households in Honiara were involved (Table 3). Within and between provinces, poultry appears to be more widely spread through the country than pigs (Figure 12). In most places, chickens scavenge through villages and in the bush and so require relatively little attention, although around Honiara there are commercial operations using enclosures and imported feeding systems (Jansen et al 2006:35-36).

Table 3: Number and percentage of households with livestock, by province

No. and % of Households (HHs) with livestock	Solomon Islands	Province									
		Choiseul	Western	Isabel	Central	Rennell Bellona	Guadalcanal	Malaita	Makira Ulawa	Temotu	Honiara
No. of private HHs	91,251	4,712	13,762	5,143	4,905	688	17,163	24,421	7,173	4,303	8,981
HHs with cows	446	13	50	12	11	-	57	240	28	15	20
% of all HHs	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.2	-	0.3	1.0	0.4	0.3	0.2
HHs with Pigs	34,830	1,144	2,448	2,122	1,669	23	6,872	13,502	3,679	3,010	361
% of all HHs	38.2	24.3	17.8	41.3	34.0	3.3	40.0	55.3	51.3	70.0	4.0
HHs with Goats	765	8	43	20	52	-	257	191	90	64	40
% of all HHs	0.8	0.2	0.3	0.4	1.1	-	1.5	0.8	1.3	1.5	0.4
HHs with Horses	63	1	5	3	8	-	6	20	4	1	15
% of all HHs	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	-	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.2
HHs with Poultry	33,975	2,616	5,717	3,151	1,882	371	5,500	9,160	2,734	2,524	320
% of all HHs	37.2	55.5	41.5	61.3	38.4	53.9	32.0	37.5	38.1	58.7	3.6

3.4 Catching fish for subsistence and for sale

Fish are important in both the subsistence and cash economies throughout most of Solomon Islands. At the time of the 2009 Census, about 60 percent of all households were involved in catching fish for their own consumption, and about half of these households also sold fish. The distribution of households catching fish only for their own consumption (subsistence) is shown in Figure 13, with the highest proportions in relatively remote areas such as the weather coasts of Makira and Guadalcanal as well as in Temotu. The distribution of those fishing for both subsistence *and* sale is shown in Figure 14, and this highlights the widespread importance through Solomon Islands of these two activities together. A very small number of households (about one percent) said they had been fishing *only* for sale. The proportion of households catching fish for sale has slowly risen through time, from 17 percent in 1986 to 24 percent in 1999 and 32 percent in 2009. This may point to the development of artisanal fisheries facilities and the improvement of transport options in some areas.

The cash fishing sector has three key components. First is the selling of fish in small local markets, in most cases an extension of the subsistence sector. Second are those fishers who sell their catch directly in urban areas, or to fisheries collection centres which then transport the fish to urban markets. Third is the sale of baitfish to the tuna fishing fleets, which use these to fish offshore. These three components partly explain the patterns shown in Figure 14, which illustrates the distribution of households which participated in both the fishing subsistence and sale sectors. High proportions near fishing bases at Noro in the Western Province and Tulagi in Central Province sold fish, which might include the sale of baitfish to the commercial operators. High rates in other provinces such as Choiseul, Isabel, Malaita and Temotu suggest active local markets for fish, but in some cases may involve the sale of baitfish.

3.5 Production of food crops for sale

While most rural households and many urban households grow food for their own consumption, many of these same households also grow food for sale (Figure 15). As Table 2 shows, in 2009, 71 percent of all households grew vegetables or other food as cash crops, with six provinces having more than 80 percent of all households in this category. Only 26 percent of Honiara households grew food crops for sale, but even this figure is significant for an urban area. Throughout the country a very small proportion of households grew food for sale only (about 0.5 percent), and while about one-quarter of these were in or near Honiara the rest were scattered throughout the country. Thus, the predominant household mode is one that produces food for its own consumption *and* for sale, with more than one-half of all households in the country being in this category. However, there is considerable variability between and within islands throughout the country, as shown in Figure 15.

Figure 11: Percentage of households raising pigs

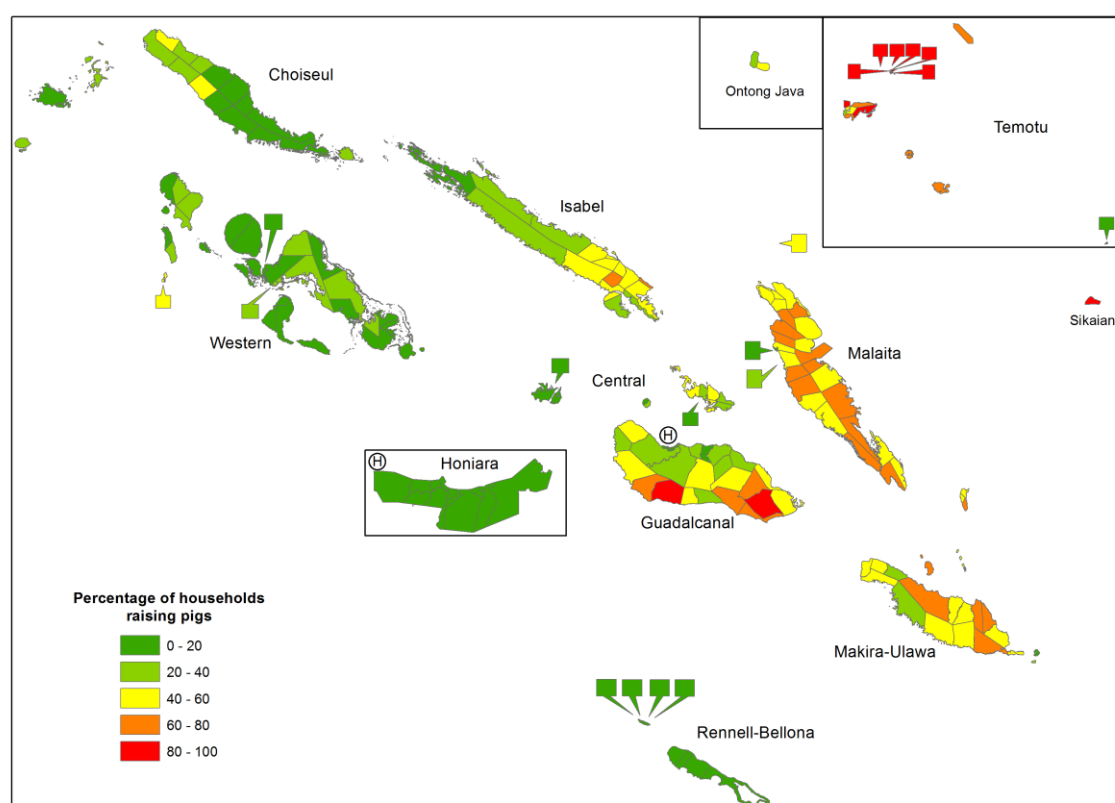


Figure 12: Percentage of households raising poultry

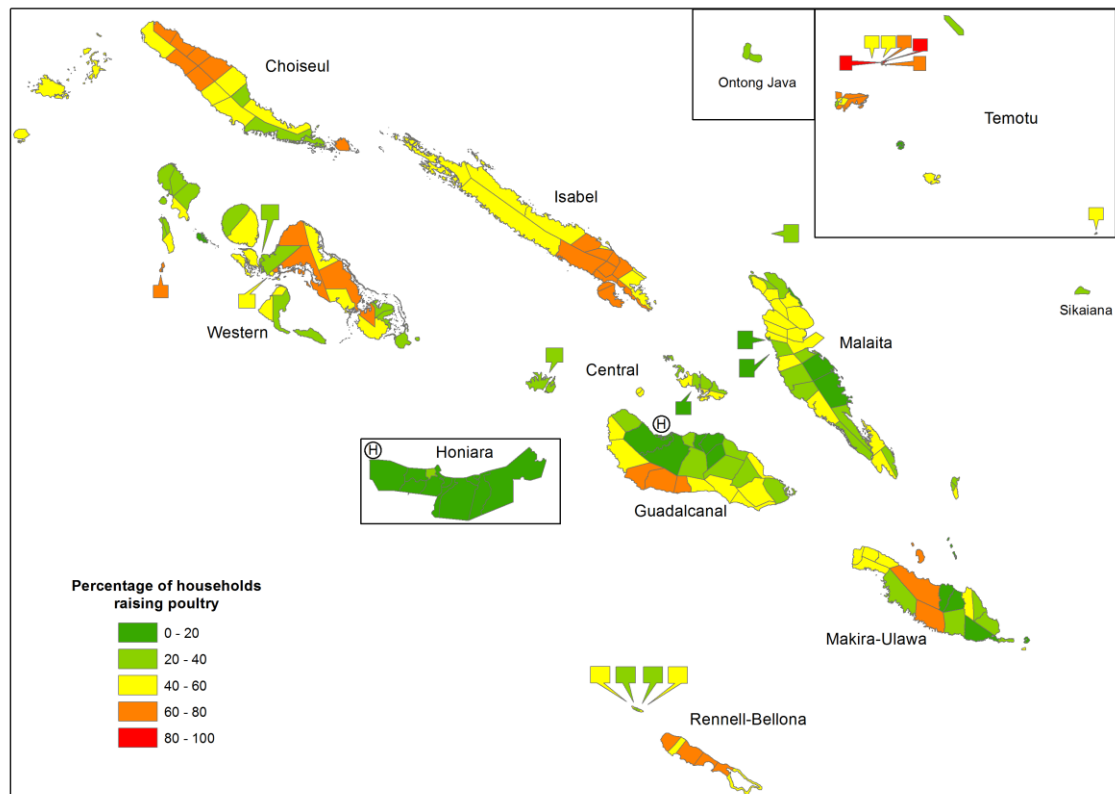


Figure 13: Percentage of households catching fish for subsistence only

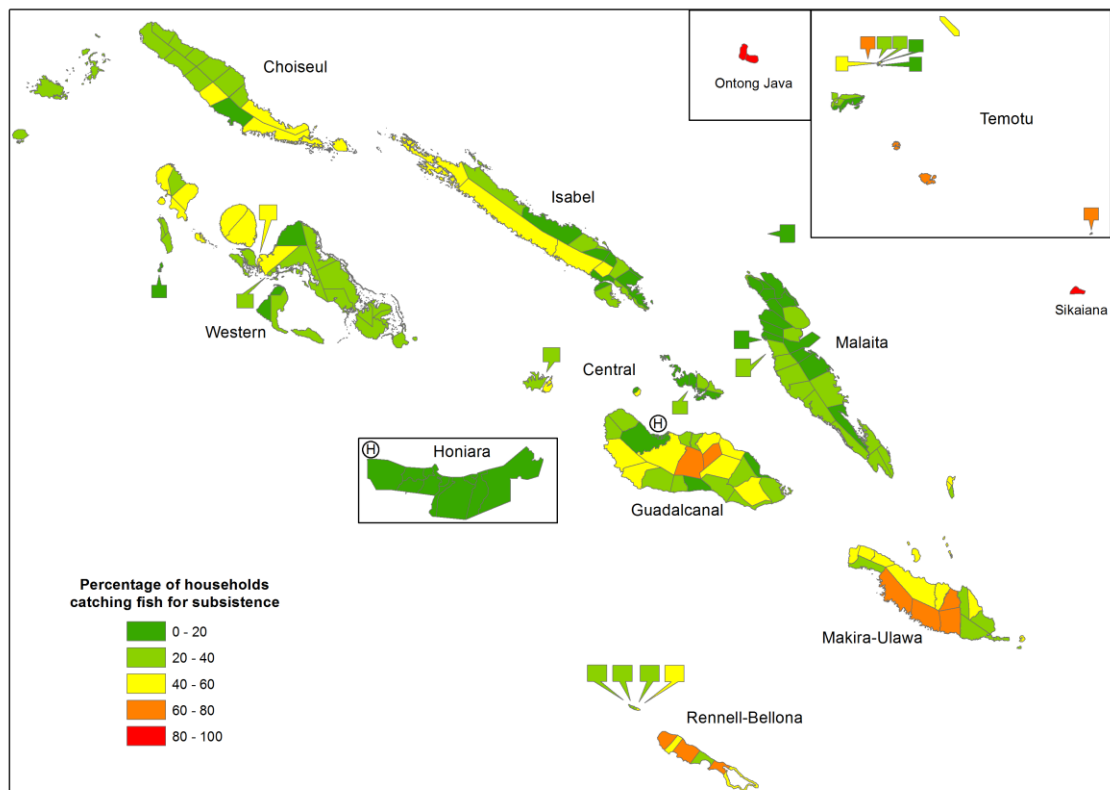


Figure 14: Percentage of households catching fish for subsistence and for sale

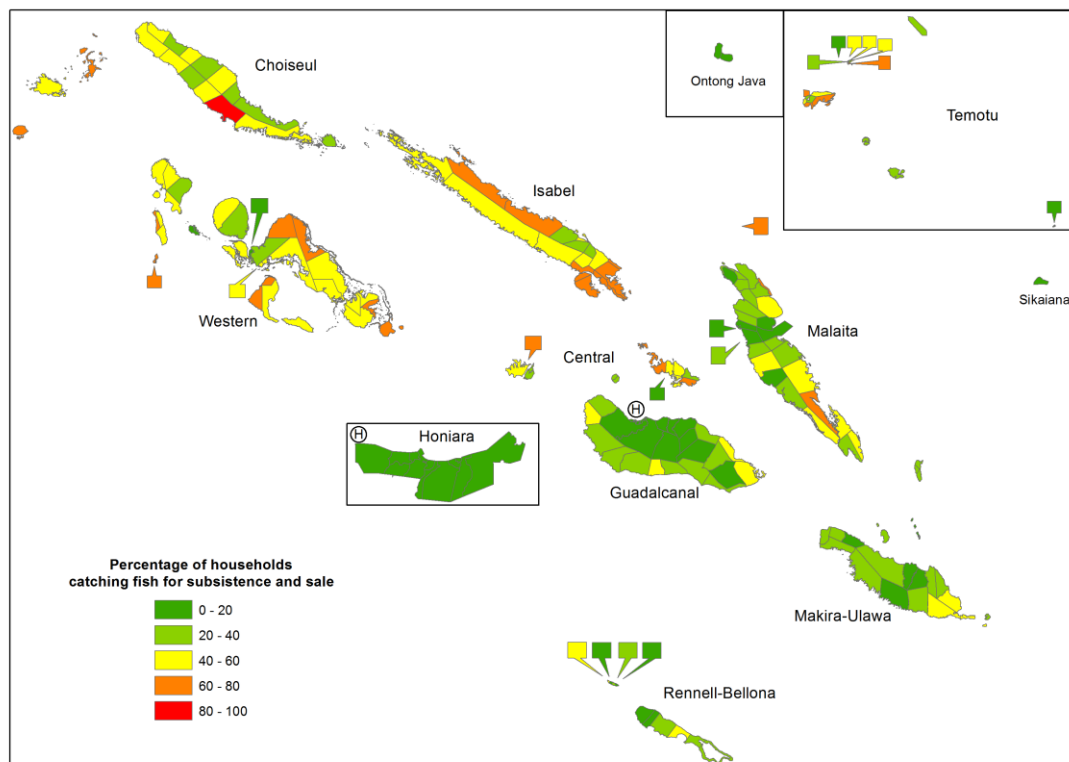
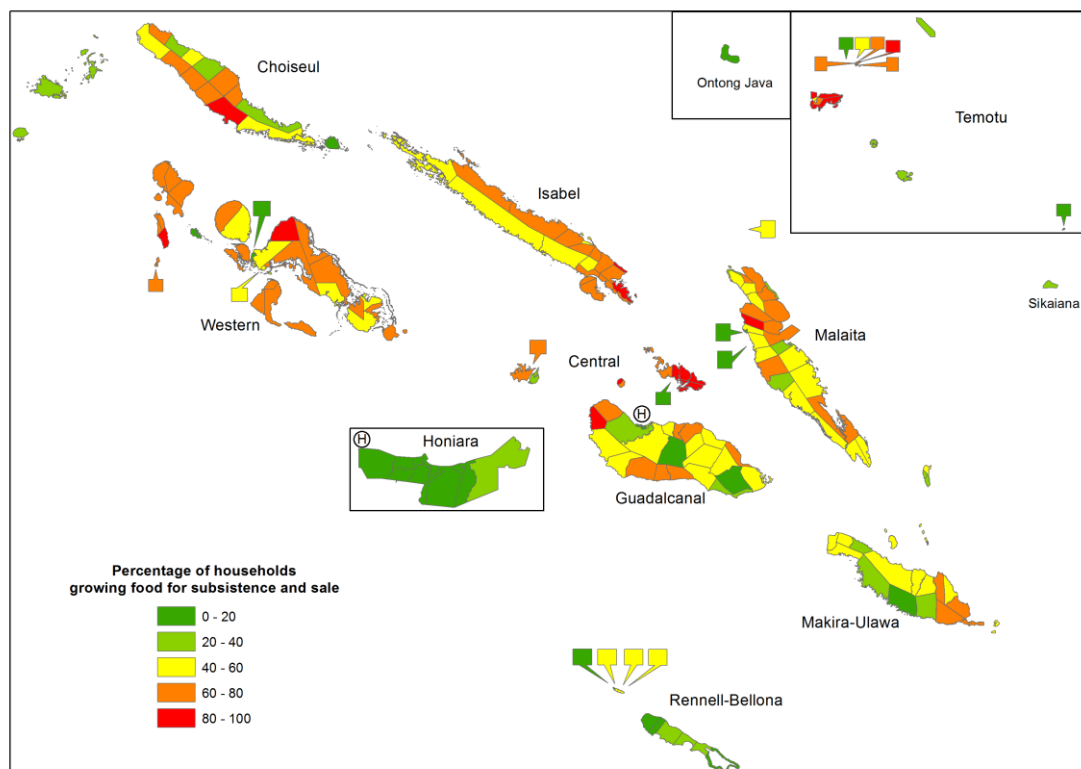


Figure 15: Percentage of households growing food for subsistence and sale



3.6 Production of copra and coconut products for sale

For at least a century, the growth of coconuts and the production of coconut products, especially copra, has been the most important source of cash income in Solomon Islands villages. In 2009, 32 percent of all households produced copra, or in a few cases other products such as coconut oil (Table 2). This, however, was a decline from about 41 percent who had produced it for sale during the 1999 Census. This decline may be partly explained by the cessation of copra trading during the ethnic tension, the cessation of operations of the Commodities Export Marketing Authority (CEMA), and the likelihood that many small plantations never moved back into cash production. Although the 2009 Census did not ask about subsistence production of coconuts, it is likely that this is still a very important activity. The 1999 census showed that about 32 percent of households which did not produce coconut products for cash, did produce these for their own consumption.

The distribution of households which produced copra or other coconut products for sale is shown in Figure 16. There is not a simple explanation for this distribution. Since most coconuts grow relatively close to the coast, areas with large inland populations such as in Guadalcanal, show lower rates. In other cases, coconut production may have been partly displaced by income from other sources, such as by timber royalties in parts of Western Province. Areas with irregular shipping services may be discouraged from producing copra especially since private traders who have replaced CEMA are not inclined to subsidise remote growers as CEMA once did (McGregor 2006:8). As Figure 2 shows, the production of coconut oil, which had been increasingly important before the ethnic tension, has been very slow in restarting. There are also other value-added products which have potential and in some cases are being trialled in Solomon Islands, such as virgin coconut oil, coconut cream, high-value soaps and biofuel (McGregor 2006:11-16).

3.7 Production of cocoa for sale

The production of cocoa is undertaken by both larger plantations and smallholders, and in recent years the latter have dominated. Twenty six percent of all households were involved in producing cocoa as a cash crop in 2009, an increase from previous censuses. The increase in cocoa production has been an ongoing trend resulting from continuing promotion of cocoa as a livelihoods option: from five percent in 1976, ten percent in 1986, 20 percent in 1999, and 26 percent in 2009. Between 1999 and 2009 this trend was interrupted by the ethnic tension, when cocoa production slowed down, but it was not disrupted to the extent that copra production was during this period.

The distribution of cocoa production is highly variable between provinces with Malaita, Guadalcanal and Makira having most of the households producing cocoa (Figure 17). The greatest concentrations of households producing cocoa are on the east coast of Guadalcanal and the Weather Coast of Makira, areas that had similar concentrations at the previous census. With over 10,000 households, Malaita had the largest number of households involved in cocoa production, while Guadalcanal had only about two-thirds of this number. However,

CEMA production figures show that about 58 percent of all cocoa in the country originated in Guadalcanal, perhaps a result of high productivity of households but also the presence of larger plantations and easy access to Honiara from the Guadalcanal Plains. The disruption of shipping during the ethnic tension seems to have affected the Western and Choiseul Provinces over the longer term more than elsewhere, with the marketing system not adequately re-established (McGregor 2006:32). The exceptions are parts of Vella Lavella and Kusaghe in New Georgia (Western Province), where over one-half of all households produced cocoa; Vella Lavella has been a major producer since the 1980s but the quantity produced in 2009 was still less than in that period. In Makira, cocoa production has been stimulated in recent years through promotion by cocoa exporters, increased plot size and the construction of new fermentaries (Allen et al. 2006:72).

3.8 Production of betelnut for sale

Betelnut is widely chewed in Solomon Islands, although not by those of some religions, such as Seventh Day Adventists. It is the kernel of the areca nut that is chewed, wrapped in a leaf from the piper betel plant, and usually mixed with lime. Medical specialists consider that the areca nut, especially when combined with lime, is carcinogenic, contributing to mouth, oesophagus and stomach cancer. This, however, does not seem to have a major impact on its widespread production and use in Solomon Islands, with about 44 percent of all households growing it. This activity has shown steady growth, increasing from 17 percent of households in 1986 and 30 percent in 1999. It is not clear whether this is indicative of increased useage, or of the monetisation of what was once a largely subsistence activity.

The growth and sale of betelnut is different from most other crops. It is easy to grow and harvest, and it is usually sold locally or shipped to urban areas in relatively small quantities rather than centrally collected and marketed as with copra and cocoa. In Honiara and other urban areas, betelnut is one of the most widely available products, with small sellers being found in many locations, as well as in specified markets. In a study of livelihoods in squatter settlements in Honiara, the sale of betelnut and cigarettes (often sold at the same stalls) was the most common income-generating activity for households after full-time and casual jobs (Maebuta and Maebuta 2009).

Figure 18 shows the distribution of households which grow betelnut for sale. This distribution has a notable inverse relationship with religious distributions, especially the location of Seventh Day Adventists already mentioned in relation to the raising of pigs, but possibly of other churches such as the South Seas Evangelical Church (SSEC). Distance from urban markets does not seem to be a significant factor in the growing and sale of betelnut, since this product has a relatively high value in relation to its weight and bulk, and is also often marketed at the local level.

3.9 Production and sale of other cash crops

Several other cash crop items were included on the census questionnaire (Table 2). This is the first census to include *flowers* as a cash crop for households, and it showed that 14 percent of households had gained some cash from this source. In Western Province the statistic was

twice as high as this, with some areas such as Vella Lavella having more than 60 percent of households claiming to have gained income from flower sales (Figure 19). In the Honiara market, flower selling has become increasingly important recently, with many coming from Malaita and Guadalcanal. These flowers appear to be bought by households and businesses, but their prominence at the Saturday market signals the importance of provision to churches.

It is difficult to interpret the meaning of growing *timber* for sale, though 10 percent of households claimed this as a source of income. It is not clear whether households in areas with large scale logging operations identified this, although this seems to be a factor when the relatively high rates in Choiseul and Western Provinces are noted (Table 2). Some of these may also have involved small scale sustainable timber operations, such as those promoted by local and international NGOs in some areas.

The least common of the crops produced for sale which was specified on the census questionnaire was *tobacco*, with about 9 percent of households specifying this as a source of cash income. About one-third of households in Temotu province said they produced tobacco for sale, and proportions were less but higher than the national average in Isabel and Makira.

As well as the cash crop products mentioned above, 7.5 percent of households said they produced *other crops* for sale. Although these were not specified, there are several possibilities. The village production of rice, for both subsistence and cash, has been encouraged for some time. A range of other products have also been produced in recent years and have development potential for the future, and these include honey, indigenous tree nuts, vanilla, coffee, chilli, pepper, ginger, turmeric and noni (McGregor 2006:45-69).

Figure 16: Percentage of households growing copra/coconut products for sale

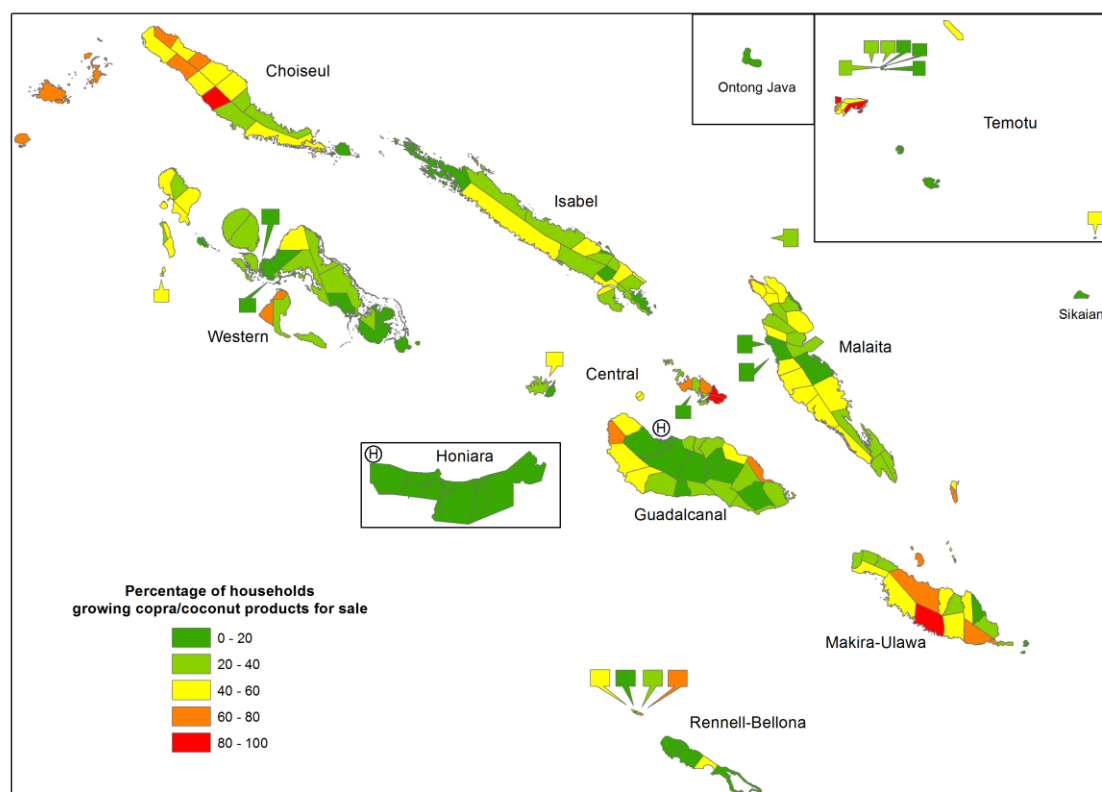


Figure 17: Percentage of households growing cocoa for sale

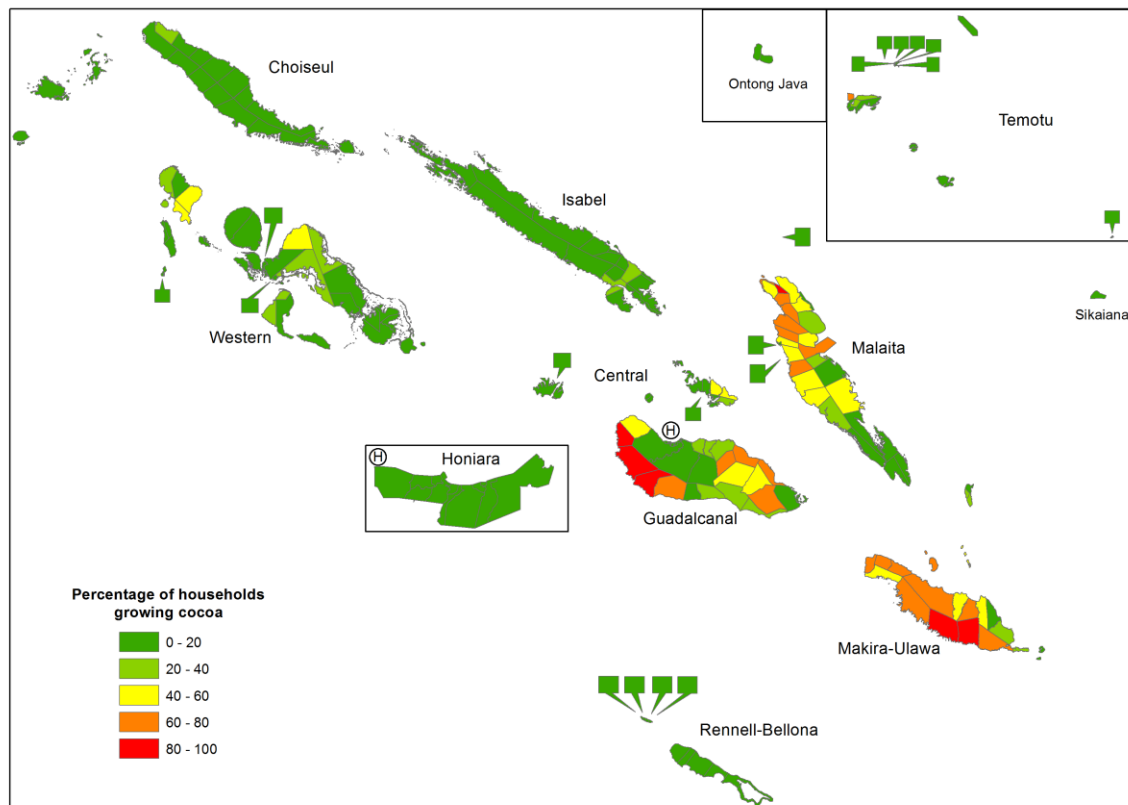


Figure 18: Percentage of households growing betelnut for sale

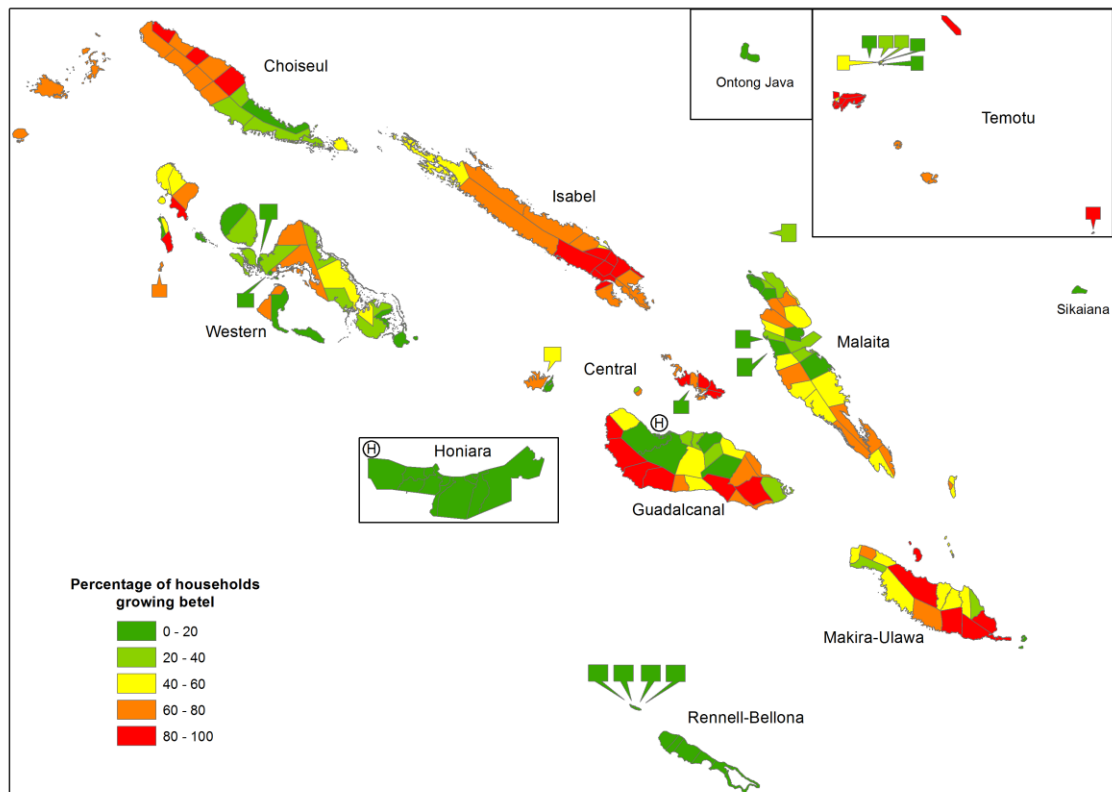
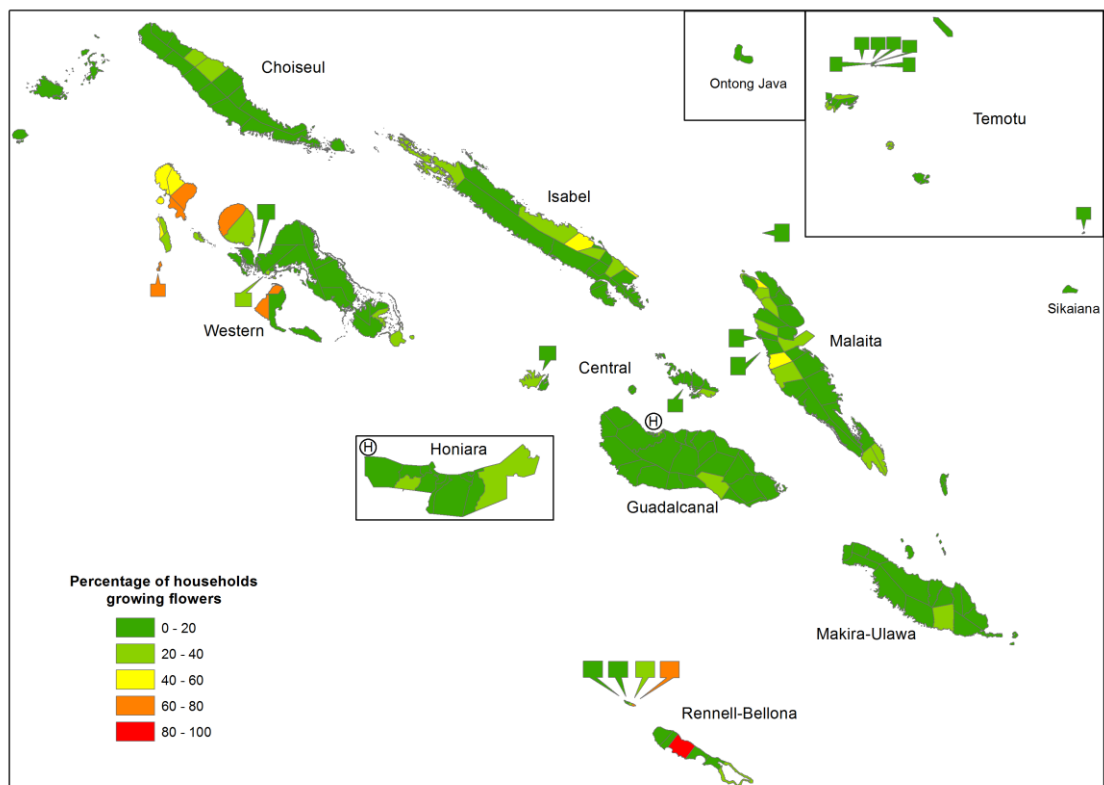


Figure 19: Percentage of households growing flowers for sale



3.10 Remittances

Remittances refer to the money sent from migrants working elsewhere to households to which those migrants have some form of commitment. This often includes immediate family (parents, siblings), extended family members, and, on some occasions friends and others in need of financial support. There are relatively few Solomon Islanders working outside of the country, so most of the remittances received come from internal migrants, rather than international migrants. It was shown earlier that remittances were the main source of income for only a small proportion of households (2.2 percent) in Solomon Islands (Table 1). Nevertheless, remittances still remain a significant supplement to livelihoods in many cases. Table 4 shows that about 22 percent of all households receive some remittances, with just over one-half of these receiving more than \$500 over the previous year. A small but significant proportion of households (2.2 percent), received more than \$1,500 over a year and this is aligned with the proportion of households which said remittances were their main source of income.

The proportions of households which received some remittances in different provinces are shown in Table 4 and at the ward level in Figure 20. The highest rate was in Rennell-Bellona where 43 percent of households received some remittances, with Choiseul close behind at nearly 40 percent, and Western and Isabel provinces at about 30 percent each. There is considerable variation within each province, as shown in Figure 20. As Figure 21 shows, relatively few wards in the country had significant proportions of their households receiving more than \$500 in remittances, with exceptions being Rennell-Bellona, some wards in South Choiseul and a few others. It is difficult to determine the reasons for these variations between and within provinces, but in some cases they may relate to the lack of other cash generating opportunities within an area, or available to particular households.

Table 4: Number and percentages of households receiving remittances, by amount, and by province

Amount of remittances (\$) to households (HHs)	Solomon Islands	Province									
		Choiseul	Western	Isabel	Central	Rennell Bellona	Guadalcanal	Malaita	Makira Ulawa	Temotu	Honiara
No. of households	91,251	4,712	13,762	5,143	4,905	688	17,163	24,421	7,173	4,303	8,981
None	68,372	2,792	9,452	3,480	4,121	303	13,841	18,079	5,518	3,606	7,180
% of all HHs	74.9	59.3	68.7	67.7	84.0	44.0	80.6	74.0	76.9	83.8	79.9
\$1 - \$499	11,045	1,051	2,145	1,057	407	70	1,692	3,291	734	331	267
% of all HHs	12.1	22.3	15.6	20.6	8.3	10.2	9.9	13.5	10.2	7.7	3.0
\$500 - \$999	4,068	408	900	306	127	81	362	1,215	296	142	231
% of all HHs	4.5	8.7	6.5	5.9	2.6	11.8	2.1	5.0	4.1	3.3	2.6
\$1000 - \$1499	2,242	209	530	146	48	53	212	614	154	73	203
% of all HHs	2.5	4.4	3.9	2.8	1.0	7.7	1.2	2.5	2.1	1.7	2.3
\$1500+	1,970	179	478	57	70	92	141	374	144	40	395
% of all HHs	2.2	3.8	3.5	1.1	1.4	13.4	0.8	1.5	2.0	0.9	4.4
NS + Don't know	3,554	73	257	97	132	89	915	848	327	111	705
% of all HHs	3.9	1.5	1.9	1.9	2.7	12.9	5.3	3.5	4.6	2.6	7.8
Some remittances	19,325	1,847	4,053	1,566	652	296	2,407	5,494	1,328	586	1,096
% of all HHs (n.i. NS)	22.0	39.2	29.5	30.4	13.3	43.0	14.0	22.5	18.5	13.6	12.2

Figure 20: Percentage of households receiving some remittances

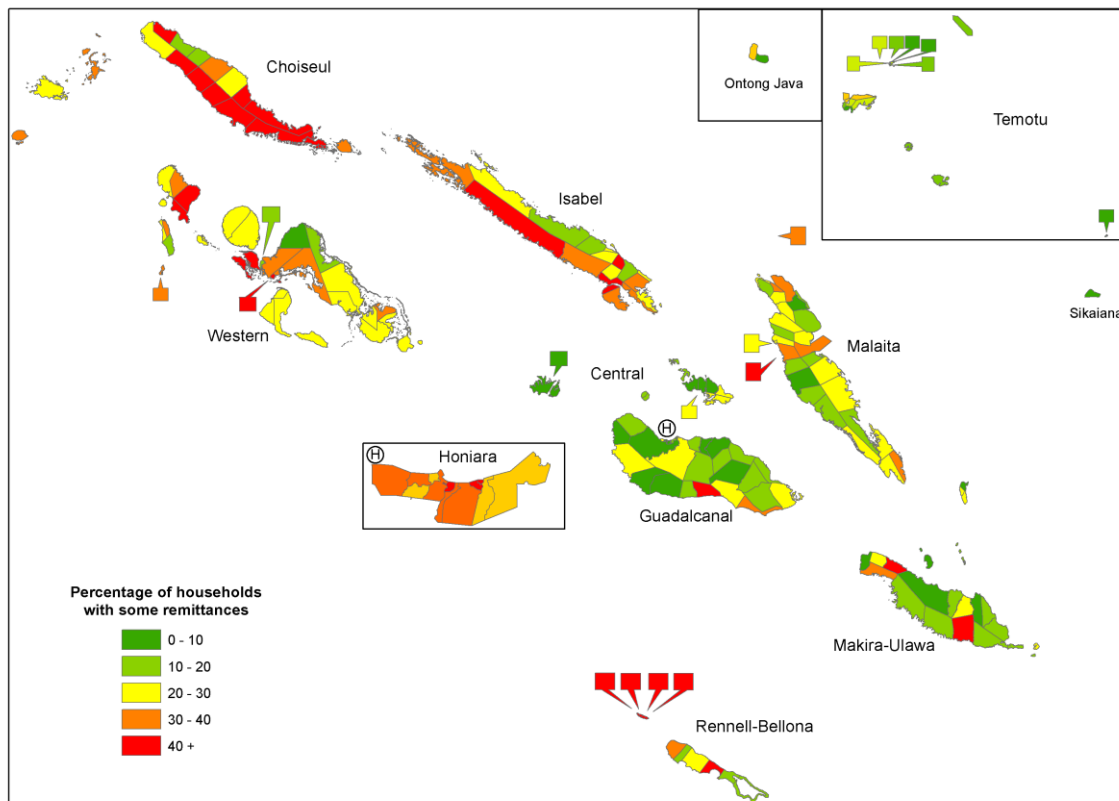
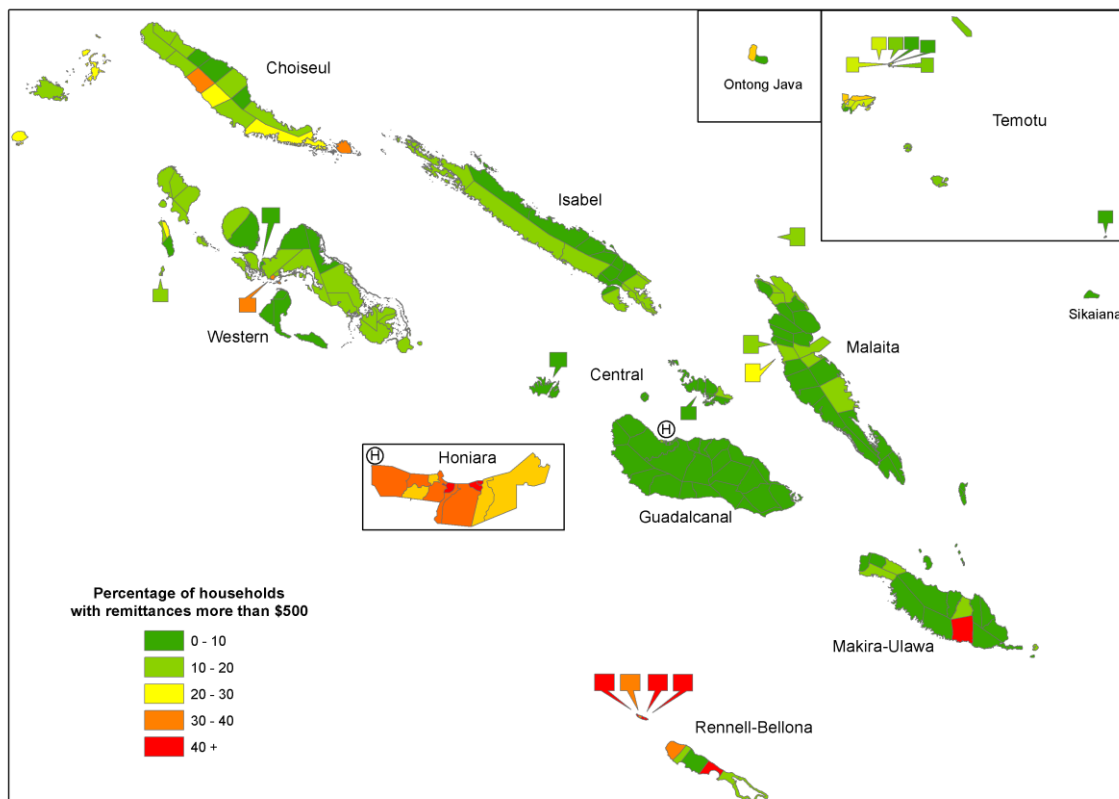


Figure 21: Percentage of households remittances of more than \$500



4. Labour Force: Economic activities of individuals

4.1 Definitions related to activity status and labour force

The potential labour force is considered to be all persons aged 12 and over, and the definitions below relate to this group only.

Activity status identifies the main activity that an individual aged 12 and over did in the week before the census, both within and outside of the labour force.

Employed are those who “work for pay” or “produce goods mainly for sale” or “produce goods mainly for own consumption” or do “voluntary work” or “unpaid family work”.

Unemployed are those who did not work in the week before the census, did not usually have a job, but who were looking for work and were available for work.

Labour force includes all persons aged 12+ employed and unemployed.

Paid work / paid employment includes “working for pay” as well as “working to support the household by producing goods mainly for sale”.

Wage and salary work includes those working as “employees” (government and private), “employers” and “self-employed”, but *not* those “working to support the household by producing goods mainly for sale”.

Unpaid work includes “producing goods mainly for own consumption”, “voluntary work” and “unpaid family work”.

Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR) is the percentage of all persons aged 12 and over who undertook some kind of work activity.

Paid Worker to Population Rate (PWPR) is the percentage of all persons aged 12 and over who were involved in work with a cash component.

Wage-Salary to Population Rate (WSPR) is the percentage of all persons aged 12 and over who had a waged or salaried job

4.2 Activity status

The questions about activity and employment status in 2009 were different from those in previous censuses. The first of these questions was “During the last week, did this person do any work?” whereas in 1999 the question asked whether a person had worked for money or payment in kind in the week before the census. In 2009, enumerators were instructed to include “work for pay, work to support the household by producing goods mainly for sale, or work to support the household by producing mainly for own consumption or any other related work”. Further, they were instructed that women who said they did “housework” should be asked if they also did fishing, farming or produced handicrafts, in which case they would be

included in the “labour force”. Thus the main exclusions were those who did only housework, were full time students, were retired or too old, or were disabled.

A second difference from the previous census was that all persons 12 years and over were asked this question, whereas the earlier census asked about those 14 years and over. This change relates to the fact that many people finish schooling at the primary level, so are potential workers by the time they are 12.

The activity status categories resulting from the 2009 Census questions on activity are shown in Figure 22. The categories to the left of the diagram represent those who are not working because they are homemakers, students, retired/elderly, disabled or have some other reason for not working. The category of unemployed overlaps the not working category and the labour force category since, while they are not working, they are actively seeking work and so are considered part of the labour force.

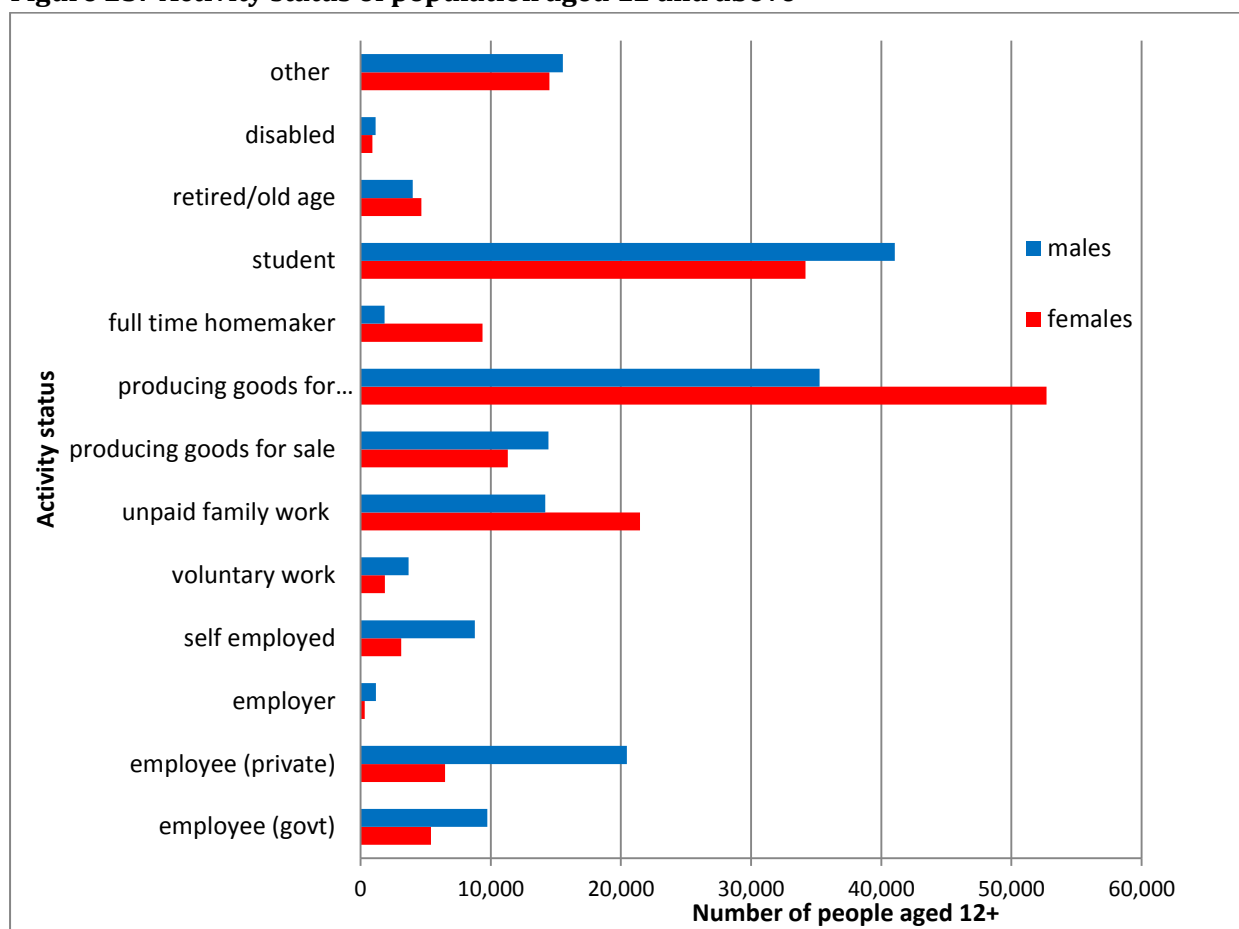
Figure 23 shows the number of individuals aged 12 and over according to their main activity in the week before the census. This shows the importance of the subsistence sector, with the most important activity being “producing goods for own consumption” which largely consists of growing food and catching fish to be consumed by a household, but also other activities such as house construction. Producing goods for own consumption is important for both males and females, but more so for the latter. Some of this activity may overlap with “unpaid family work”, although the latter might also include working for parents or other family members in small shops and other businesses. The second most important activity is “student” with about 7,000 more males than females in this category, reflecting gender differences in educational participation, especially at higher levels. The cash work category includes all of those gaining wages and salaries as well as those who are producing something for cash. Also within the working category are those who have undertaken some non-cash work such as voluntary work, unpaid family work, or production of goods for own consumption.

Figure 23 shows the numerical importance of the activity categories by gender. Overall, the most common activity is production of goods for own consumption, reflecting the large rural population and the importance of subsistence production of food, housing and other goods and services. Figure 22 and Figure 23 are the basis for discussions in the rest of this report on the work and non-work activities of the population of Solomon Islands aged 12 and over.

Figure 22: Activity and work classifications used in Solomon Islands 2009 Census

"main activity of individual"											
not working					"labour force"						
					working						
					un- employed (actively seeking work)	cash work ("work for pay")			non-cash work		
home- maker	student	retired/ elderly	disabled	other		wages & salary		prod- uction for cash	voluntary work	unpaid family work	prod- uction for consump- ion
employee (gov't or private)	employer	self- employed									

Figure 23: Activity status of population aged 12 and above



4.3 Employment status

Figures 24 and 25 show the employment status of men and women, by province, who were considered to be part of the labour force during the week before the census. These graphs show the percentages of all of those who did some work according to the kind of work that was most important in terms of the number of hours they worked. Four of these activities involve paid employment (government employee, private employee, employer and self-employed) and another one (produced goods for sale) involves cash activity. The other three (producing goods for consumption, unpaid family work and voluntary work) are work activities which can be considered part of the subsistence economy. There is considerable variation in the importance of the work activities between provinces, but Honiara stands out for the large proportion who were either government or private employees. Provinces with significant formal sector opportunities show higher percentages in the four categories relating to wages and salaries, notably Western Province. A comparison of Figure 24 and Figure 25 highlights the much greater participation of women in subsistence work activities, for example with about three quarters of women in Choiseul and Isabel provinces producing goods for own consumption.

Figure 24: Employment status of males aged 12 and above, by province (percentage by each kind of work activity)

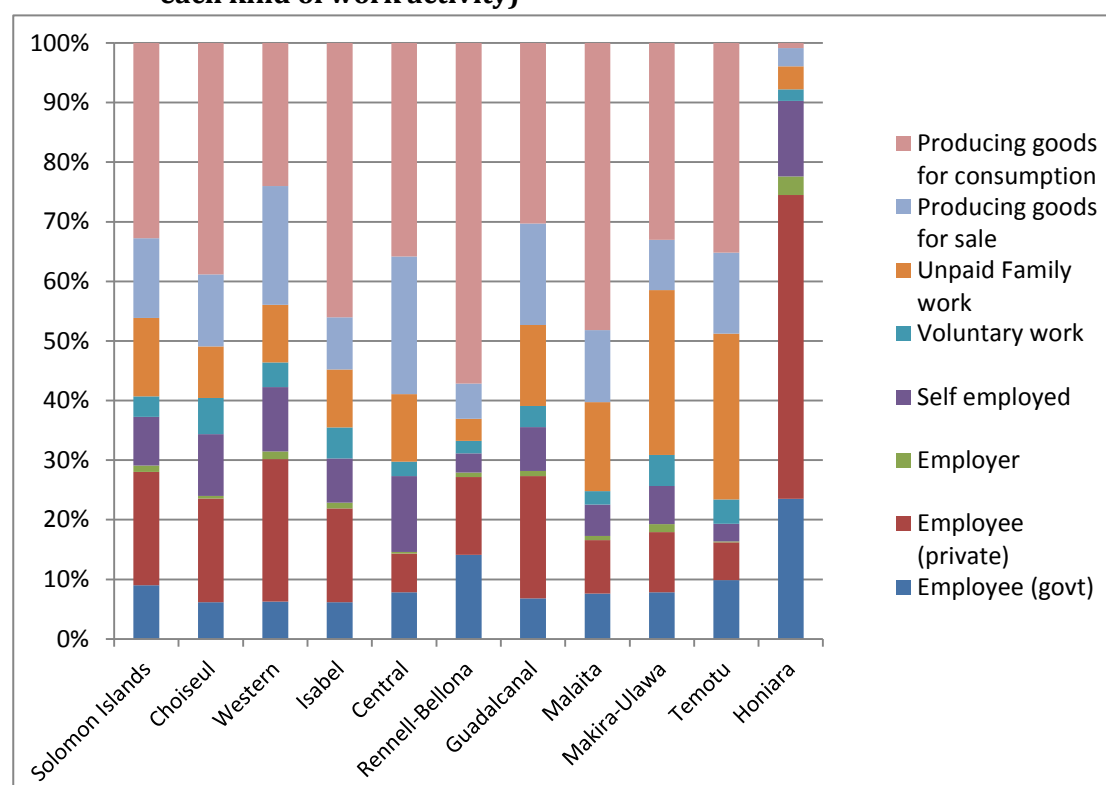
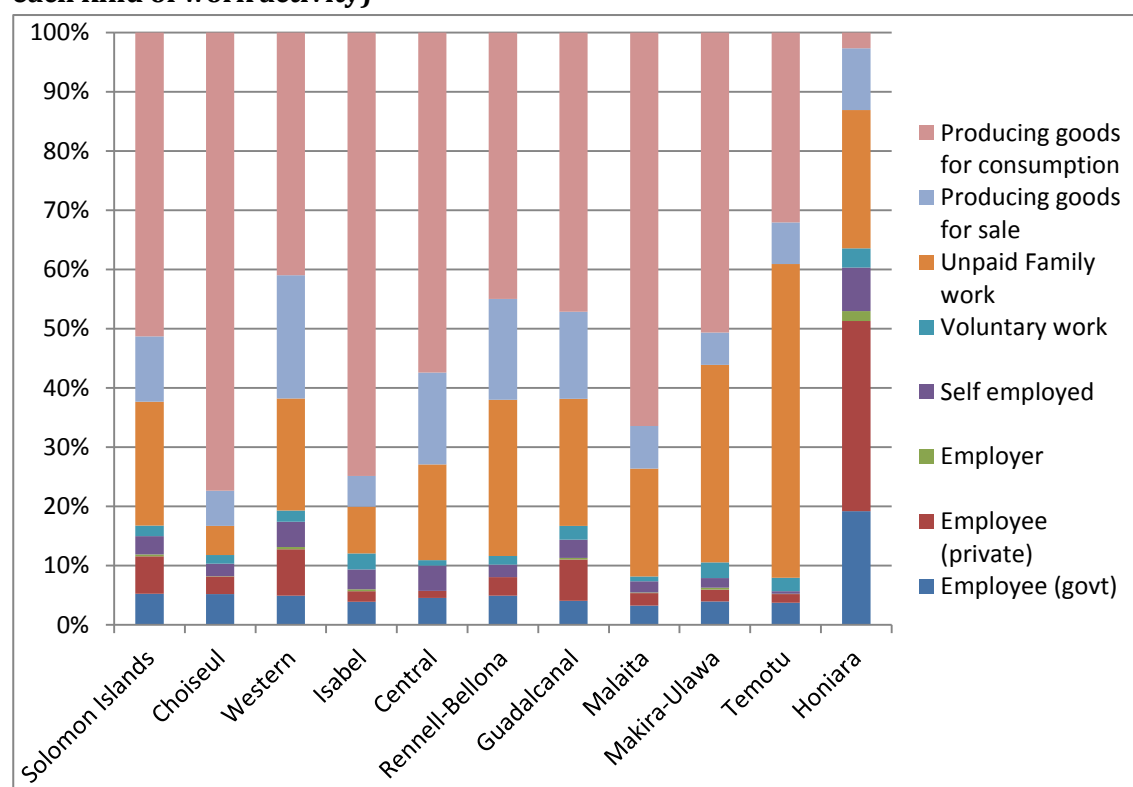


Figure 25: Employment status of females aged 12 and above by province (percentage by each kind of work activity)



Three different work participation rates are calculated by province and rural or urban residence in Table 5. The most commonly used is the Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR): the percentage of the total population aged 12 and over who undertook some form of work as defined in the census as well as those who were unemployed (i.e. actively looking for work). The LFPR for Solomon Islands in 2009 was about 63 percent, with the male rate only about one percent higher than the female rate. There was relatively little variation between provinces and only Honiara was significantly below the national average. This is a result of factors such as the large number of students based there, and the reality that if an individual does not have paid work, the opportunities for subsistence work are limited.

A second rate shown in Table 5 is the Paid Worker to Population Rate (PWPR) which is the percentage who were involved in work with a cash component. At 24 percent in 2009, this rate was much lower than the LFPR, and the male rate is at least twice as high the female rate. There is more variation between provinces, with Honiara (and urban areas generally) being significantly different; in this case, at 37 percent, being much higher than the national average. This is not surprising since it is Honiara and the other urban areas in which the majority of wage and salary jobs are located, and also where opportunities for other cash related activities, such as marketing, are centred.

The third rate shown in Table 5 is the Wage-Salary to Population Rate (WSPR), which is the percentage of the total population aged 12 and over who had a waged or salaried job. This is, of course, a subset of the PWPR, making up about 68 percent of paid workers. Only about 16 percent of the potential labour force aged 12 and over are involved in wage and salary work, and the disparity between males (23 percent) and females (9 percent) is considerable. The difference between rural and urban areas is also great, with an urban dweller about two and a half times more likely to have a waged or salaried job than a rural dweller.

For comparison between censuses which used different age assumptions about the (potential) labour force, it is useful to consider the population aged 15 and over. While the number of people aged 15 and over who were in paid work increased by about 23,500 from 1999 to 2009 and the proportion in this category increased, it can also be noted that the number *not* in paid work, and thus potentially aspiring to paid work, has also increased (Table 6). Between censuses approximately 26,000 females and 17,500 males who were not in paid work were added to the population. This is of relevance in relation to the question of defining “unemployment”, since the base population for those who might be seeking paid work has increased.

As a result of the changed census questions between 1999 and 2009, it is not possible to make a comparison of the Labour Force Participation Rates between these censuses. However, the concept of “paid work” was similar between the censuses, making a comparison possible. Table 6 shows the numbers and percentages of “working age” in the 1999 and 2009 censuses who were in paid work. In 1999 the base population for work activities was all of those 14 years and over, and in 2009 it was those 12 years and over. Table 6 shows that, using those base populations, similar percentages of the population were working for money.

Table 5: Population aged 12 and over by sex, place of residence and labour force participation rate, paid worker-population rate and wage/salary-population rate, 2009

Residence/Sex	Population aged 12+	Labour force: usually working + unemployed	Paid workers (inc. produce for sale)	Wage & salary workers	Labour force participation rate (LFPR)	Paid worker-population rate (PWPR)	wage/salary - population rate (WSPR)
Solomon Islands	342,424	215,269	81,240	55,501	62.9	23.7	16.2
males	174,031	110,478	54,571	40,150	63.5	31.4	23.1
females	168,393	104,791	26,669	15,351	62.2	15.8	9.1
Choiseul	17,144	10,781	3,403	2,432	62.9	19.8	14.2
males	8,681	5,654	2,582	1,910	65.1	29.7	22.0
females	8,463	5,127	821	522	60.6	9.7	6.2
Western	51,401	33,811	17,031	10,271	65.8	33.1	20.0
males	26,736	18,337	11,196	7,612	68.6	41.9	28.5
females	24,665	15,474	5,835	2,659	62.7	23.7	10.8
Isabel	17,518	12,173	3,234	2,396	69.5	18.5	13.7
males	8,847	6,191	2,379	1,846	70.0	26.9	20.9
females	8,671	5,982	855	550	69.0	9.9	6.3
Central	17,154	10,937	4,120	2,027	63.8	24.0	11.8
males	8,602	5,502	2,745	1,488	64.0	31.9	17.3
females	8,552	5,435	1,375	539	63.6	16.1	6.3
Rennell-Bellona	2,066	1,298	416	272	62.8	20.1	13.2
males	1,053	681	250	210	64.7	23.7	19.9
females	1,013	617	166	62	60.9	16.4	6.1
Guadalcanal	61,133	38,786	15,679	9,624	63.4	25.6	15.7
males	31,348	20,037	10,312	6,973	63.9	32.9	22.2
females	29,785	18,749	5,367	2,651	62.9	18.0	8.9
Malaita	88,443	59,064	14,121	8,547	66.8	16.0	9.7
males	43,707	28,249	9,675	6,301	64.6	22.1	14.4
females	44,736	30,815	4,446	2,246	68.9	9.9	5.0
Makira-Ulawa	25,657	15,770	3,681	2,611	61.5	14.3	10.2
males	13,041	8,119	2,692	2,027	62.3	20.6	15.5
females	12,616	7,651	989	584	60.6	7.8	4.6
Temotu	14,260	9,687	2,101	1,140	67.9	14.7	8.0
males	6,740	4,390	1,431	840	65.1	21.2	12.5
females	7,520	5,297	670	300	70.4	8.9	4.0
Honiara	47,648	22,962	17,454	16,181	48.2	36.6	34.0
males	25,276	13,318	11,309	10,943	52.7	44.7	43.3
females	22,372	9,644	6,145	5,238	43.1	27.5	23.4
Urban	73,887	38,977	27,675	22,701	52.8	37.5	30.7
males	38,927	22,020	17,916	14,501	56.6	46.0	37.3
females	34,960	16,957	9,759	8,200	48.5	27.9	23.5
Rural	268,537	176,292	53,565	32,771	65.6	19.9	12.2
males	135,104	88,458	36,655	25,620	65.5	27.1	19.0
females	133,433	87,834	16,910	7,151	65.8	12.7	5.4

However, since those under 15 are less likely to be in paid work, a better comparison of the two censuses can be made by standardising the base population for both to the population aged 15 and over. The proportion of those 15 and over who were working for money increased from 23.9 percent in 1999 to 26.4 percent in 2009. There was an increase in the percentages for both males and females, although male participation in cash activities in 2009, at 35.0 percent, continued to be about twice as high as female participation, at 17.5 percent.

Table 6: Number and percentage of population in, and not in, paid work: comparison of 1999 and 2009 Census data

	1999 Census				2009 Census			
work status "potential labour force"	no. in paid work 14+	total no. 14+	% in paid work 14+	no. not in paid work	no. in paid work 12+	total no. 12+	% in paid work 12+	no. not in paid work
both sexes	57,472	249,168	23.1	191,696	81,240	342,424	23.7	261,184
males	39,761	127,974	31.1	88,213	54,571	174,031	31.4	119,460
females	17,711	121,194	14.6	103,483	26,669	168,393	15.8	141,724
work status 15+	no. in paid work 15+	total no. 15+	% in paid work 15+	no. not in paid work	no. in paid work 15+	total no. 15+	% in paid work 15+	no. not in paid work
both sexes	57,211	239,241	23.9	182,030	80,820	306,586	26.4	225,766
males	39,614	122,859	32.2	83,245	54,319	155,191	35.0	100,872
females	17,597	116,382	15.1	98,785	26,501	151,395	17.5	124,894

4.4 Unemployment and those not actively looking for work

If people were without work (did not work in the week before the census and were not usually in work), but were available for work, and had been actively looking for work in the week before the census, they were considered to be unemployed. If they had not been actively looking for work, they were asked a further question as to why they had not been looking for work. These data cannot be compared with the "unemployed" category identified in the 1999 Census because the base populations who were asked the question as to whether they were "actively seeking work" were very different. In 1999 this question was asked of all of those who were not employed for money, whereas in 2009 this question was only asked of those who were not "working" in the broader sense (work for pay, work to produce goods for sale, work to produce goods for consumption, unpaid family work, voluntary work). Thus the 2009 Census records a much lower unemployment rate than in the earlier census.

Table 7 shows two ways in which unemployment may be defined from the data collected by the 2009 Census. The first option "unemployment 1" is the rate that the census questions were designed to determine i.e. the number of those actively looking for work who were not "working" (within labour force definition) divided by the working labour force plus those

actively looking for work. This results in an overall unemployment rate of 2.3 percent with the male rate higher than the female rate. In Honiara the unemployment rate is four times higher, and the female rate exceeds that of males.

A second approach to defining unemployment adds in the people who “believe no work is available” and those who did not work because they had “problems” with transport or weather. By implication these people wanted to work but were not able to, so should be included with those “actively looking for work”. This results in a higher overall rate of 3.2 percent being unemployed. This approach shows an even higher rate in Honiara, at 9.4 percent unemployed. However, these rates are still much lower than in 1999 when the overall unemployment rate was 11.1 percent based on the different census question mentioned above.

The reasons why some of those who were not working were not looking for work are shown in Figure 26 for males and Figure 27 for females. The most common reason was that the person was a student, with nearly two-thirds of males aged 12 and over and over one-half of all females over 12 stating this reason. About 15 percent of females and a small number of men said they were full-time homemakers. This is difficult to interpret, since many more females who are homemakers are not counted here because they were “producing goods for consumption” or doing “unpaid family work”. Other reasons for not working included old age/retirement, disability, not wanting to work, and thinking work was not available (so did not actively look for it).

Table 7: Two approaches to defining unemployment

Residence	unemployment 1 = looking / working + looking			unemployment 2 = looking + believe no work+problems (BNWP) / working + looking + BNWP		
	both sexes	males	female	both sexes	male	females
Solomon Islands	2.3	2.5	2.0	3.2	3.7	2.7
Choiseul	1.4	1.6	1.2	2.3	2.8	1.6
Western	1.5	1.8	1.2	2.4	3.0	1.7
Isabel	1.7	1.5	1.9	2.1	1.9	2.3
Central	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.8	2.1	1.5
Rennell-Bellona	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.3	1.3	1.0
Guadalcanal	1.8	2.1	1.4	2.5	3.0	2.1
Malaita	0.9	1.2	0.7	1.5	2.0	1.0
Makira-Ulawa	2.8	2.6	3.0	3.7	3.4	3.9
Temotu	0.6	0.9	0.4	0.8	1.2	0.5
Honiara	9.4	9.0	9.9	11.9	11.7	12.3
Urban	7.2	7.3	7.1	9.4	9.7	9.0
Rural	1.2	1.3	1.0	1.8	2.1	1.4

Figure 26: Reasons for not looking for work, males aged 12 years and over

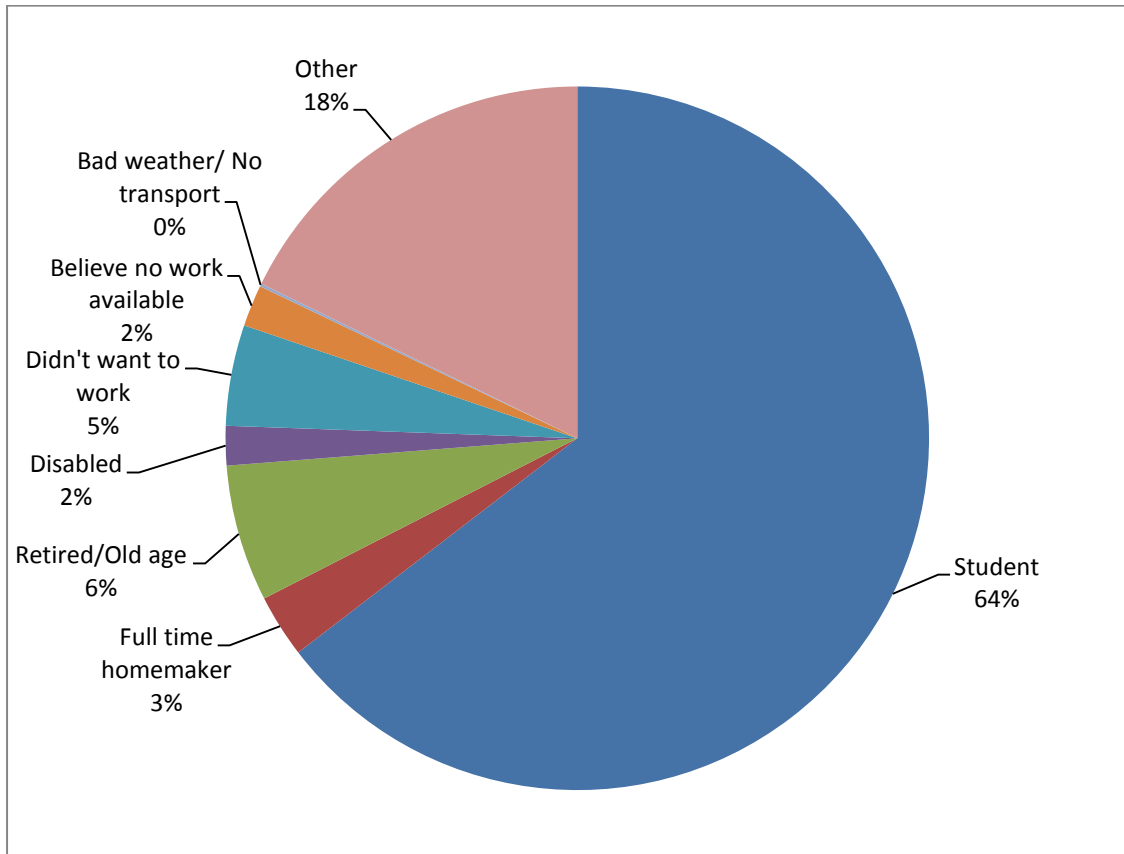
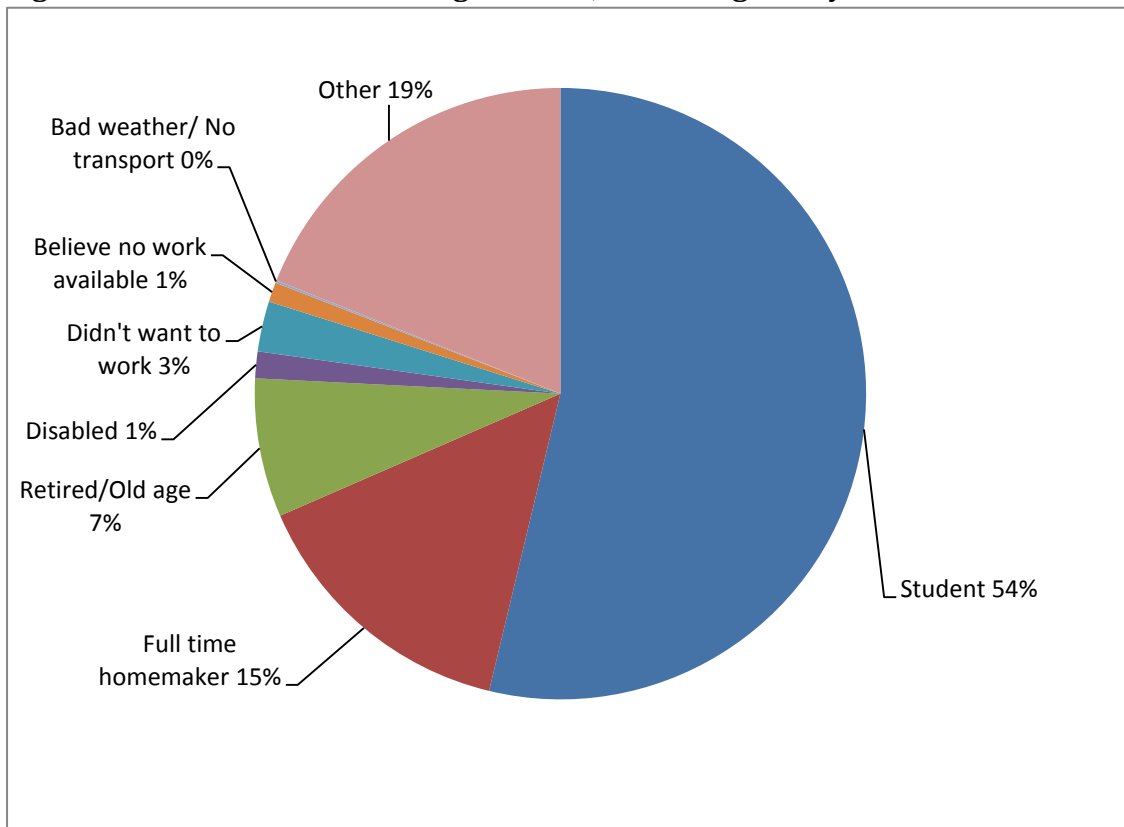


Figure 27: Reasons for not looking for work, females aged 12 years and over



4.5 Employment by industry sector (ISIC)

The International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC) is widely used to classify the type of industry sector (industry group) that workers are involved in. These sectors relate to the type of product typically produced ranging from “primary” products such as food and timber to “secondary” manufactured products, through to “tertiary” products, such as government and private sector services. Figure 28 shows the 21 industry sectors used in the most recent revision of ISIC. For the total labour force, by far the most important is the primary sector labelled “crop and animal production, hunting and related service activities”. This includes agriculture, forestry and logging, as well as fishing and aquaculture. About two-thirds of the labour force is employed in this sector, with females showing a slightly higher rate of involvement than males. The great majority (76 percent) of those in the primary sector labour force were involved in non-cash activities, emphasising the importance of the subsistence sector in the economy of Solomon Islands. As expected, this is particularly the case in rural areas as shown in Figure 29, where the markedly different characteristics of rural and urban sectoral distributions are shown.

Paid work by industry: changes between 1999 and 2009

Economic changes during the decade between the 1999 and 2009 censuses resulted in significant changes in the cash economy. As outlined earlier, the 1999 Census was held during the early phase of the ethnic tension and while this had had some impact on the economy by 1999, much of the impact followed later. In the next four years many parts of the economy slowed down or, in some cases, nearly stopped, and then slowly recovered in the period leading up to 2009. However, there may still be some aspects of the economy which have not fully recovered, and some which have been impacted by the global financial crisis from 2008 onwards.

One problem with considering the changes over this decade in terms of industry sector is that the ISIC classification system changed, so the systems used in 1999 and 2009 are not fully comparable. In Table 8, an attempt has been made to make a comparison between the two censuses by reclassifying the 2009 sectors to approximate the 1999 sectors using subsectoral information from both censuses. This appears to be reasonably accurate for many of the sectoral categories, although probably least so for the 2009 sectors labelled K to O and R to S. These sectors tended to have activities related to finance, information and communications technology, administration spanning both public and private sectors, and other niche services in which functions and characteristics have changed since the 1990s, both internationally and in Solomon Islands.

Overall, paid employment in the primary sectors has expanded between 1999 and 2009. The number of paid workers in agriculture (crop and animal production) has nearly doubled, with the increases being greater for men (111 percent) than for women (81 percent), but significant in both cases. Wage and salary employment may have increased slowly in this sector, but most of the increase was of those “producing goods mainly for sale”, which accounted for three quarters of the paid workers in agriculture. Paid workers in forestry and

logging increased by about 37 percent, with this mainly involving men. This is consistent with the expansion of logging production since 1999, despite the slowdown in 2009, although the rate of employment expansion was less than this growth, which showed a doubling between the census years (see Figure 5). In fishing, paid employment had a substantial increase of 70 percent and, while this is a sector dominated by men, there was also an increase in the employment of women (53 percent). Most of the increase appears to have been of those “producing goods mainly for sale”, and wage and salary employment in fishing is likely to have declined, since the 2009 national formal sector fish catch was less than half of what it was in 1999 (see Figure 6). Mining employment was relatively static since the Gold Ridge operation had not started full operations in 2009, but was moving in that direction.

Of the larger employment sectors, manufacturing showed the greatest decline in paid employment over the decade to 2009. There was an overall decline in paid jobs of 28 percent, with most of this impact experienced by male workers. This sector appears to have had a slower recovery than some other sectors following the serious economic slowdown during the ethnic tension. A similar employment downturn in the electricity and water sectors is shown in Table 8, although these data may also have been impacted by classification changes between the censuses.

Construction was one sector which showed significant increases in paid employment between the censuses, with a 66 percent increase overall. In the years up to 2009, this was driven by increased demand for housing, especially in Honiara, and other construction projects including hotel and office construction (CBSI 2009:20-21).

Another area of growth was the hotels and restaurants sector, in which paid jobs increased by 44 percent over the preceding decade. This growth is largely driven by the steady increases in tourism, as shown by the steady increase of visitors since 2004 (Figure 7). This is one of the sectors in the formal economy in which the number of women exceeds the number of men, and its expansion was characterised by a 74 percent increase of female paid employment.

Three sectors which are largely made up of public servants showed variable changes between 1999 and 2009 (Table 8). The largest increase was in the education sector, where paid employment grew by 72 percent. While there are more males than females in this sector, the gender disparity decreased with females increasing by 99 percent and males by 56 percent, so that by 2009 females made up 44 percent of the total. This growth was part of the overall growth of the public service since about 2004, with the number of teachers increasing in 2009 alone by about 600 (CBSI 2009:14). Another public growth sector was public administration and social services, which grew by 41 percent over the decade. This sectoral growth was also characterised by greater female employment, though women still comprised only 27 percent of paid employees in this sector in 2009. The one public service sector in which the level of paid employment was essentially static between the censuses was the health and social work sector, but it is not clear whether this is partly a classification issue between censuses (some may appear under “other services” in the latter census).

Figure 28: Labour force by sex and industry sector (ISIC)

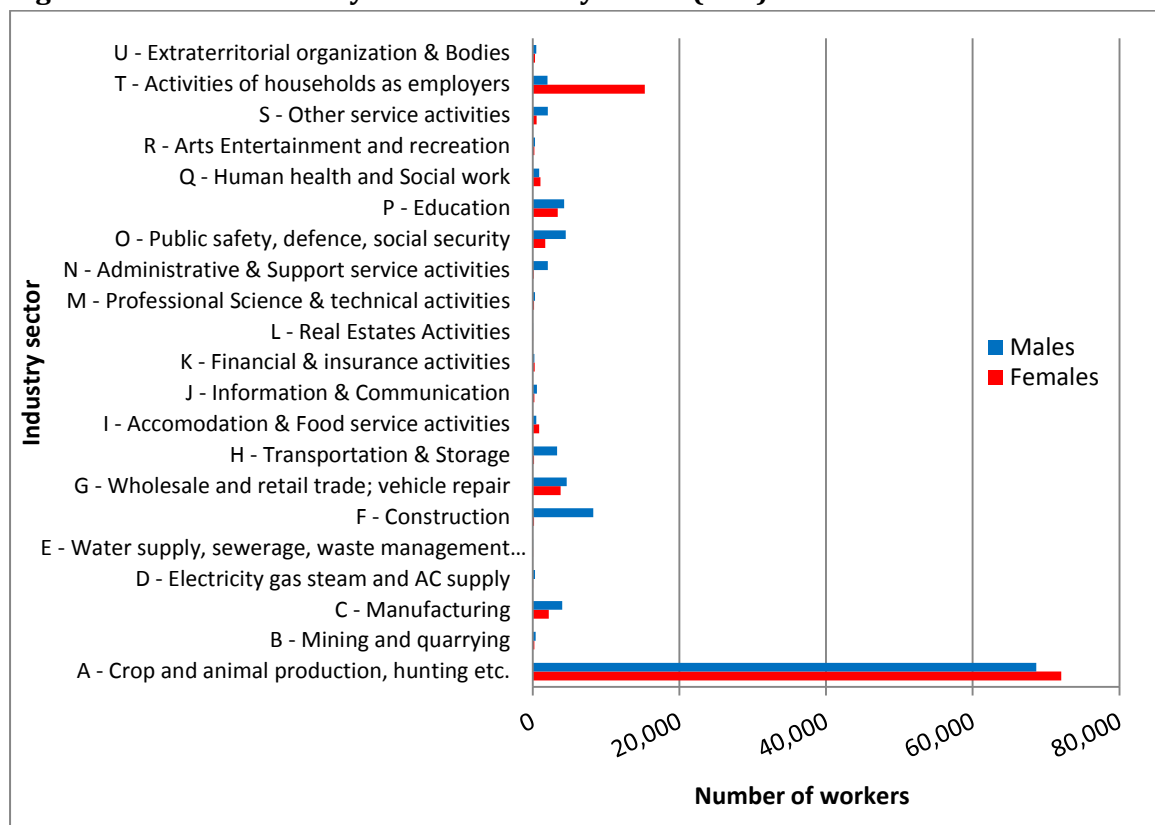
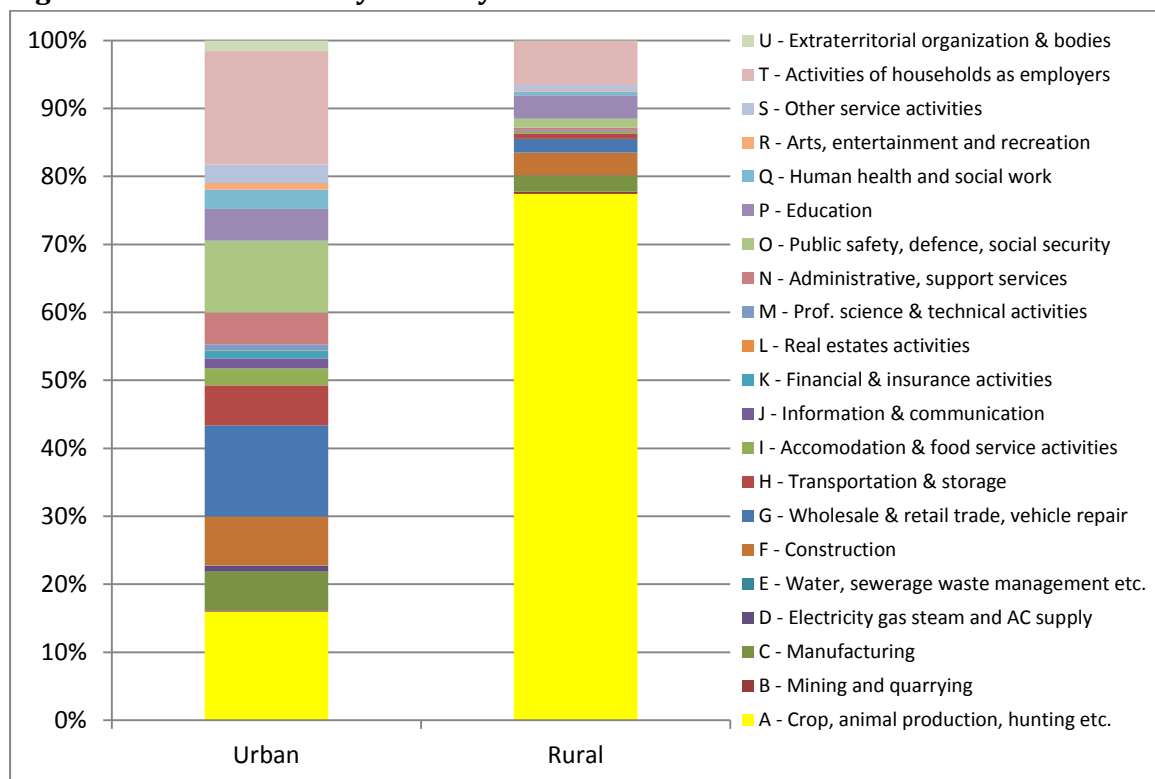


Figure 29: Labour force by industry sector and urban or rural residence



Other notable increases in paid employment between 1999 and 2009 are shown in Table 8. The “other services” sector in 2009 included nearly 1,900 workers in “security and

investigative services”, 97 percent of whom were male, and most of whom worked in the private sector. This classification is not identifiable in the 1999 data, and the apparent growth of this subsector illustrates the growth of private security companies protecting businesses and residences in the post ethnic tension era. The tripling of the number of paid workers in “extra territorial organisations” may also be partly related to the ethnic tension, with the presence of RAMSI personnel, and other bilateral, multilateral and NGO development employees. The number of private household employees more than doubled; this is a sector dominated by women, although men had a greater proportionate increase (from a small base).

Wage and salary employment by industry

The predominance of the subsistence primary sector to some extent hides the dynamics of the wage and salary activities within the economy. Figure 30 shows just those who were in wage and salary activities by industry sector, and further breaks down the primary sector into crop and animal production (agriculture), forestry, and fishing. These are ranked, with the sectors with the largest numbers of wage and salary workers shown at the bottom of the figure. This shows the importance of services in terms of wage employment, with education (P) the largest sector, and public safety, defence and social security (O) the second largest. Education employment is predominantly made up of teachers, with a greater number of males involved but also this is the most important sector for females within the wage economy. Of all wage industry sectors, this is the most widely spread through Solomon Islands, since schools are located throughout the country. The public safety, defence and social security sector includes the police force, as well as a range of other government workers.

Although the primary sector is dominated by subsistence and cash production (non-wage), it is also a significant wage employer. If considered as a whole, it is the largest sector of wage employment, but when split into three sub-sector components, crop and animal production (A1) is the third most important, forestry and logging (A2) is sixth, and fishing and aquaculture (A3) is tenth. These sectors are dominated by males receiving wages, especially in forestry and fishing.

Wholesale and retail trade (including the repair of motor vehicles) did not show much growth between 1999 and 2009 (Table 8), but in the latter year it was still the fourth largest sector in terms of providing wage and salary employment. About one-third of employees were women (Figure 30). Two sectors which are largely dominated by male wage workers are construction, and transportation and storage. The largest subsector within the latter is water transportation, mainly related to inter-island passenger and cargo shipping, a sector in which women play a very small role. Women are the predominant wage and salary workers in households, human health and social work, and accommodation and food service activities (Figure 30).

Table 8: Changes in paid employment by industry sector (ISIC) 1999 to 2009

Industry sectors		Year of census						Sectoral change 1999-2009					
		1999			2009			Change in no. of jobs			Percentage change in jobs		
1999	2009 (see key below)	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
ALL INDUSTRIES	ALL INDUSTRIES	57,472	39,761	17,711	81,240	54,571	26,669	23,768	14,810	8,958	41.4	37.2	50.6
Agriculture	A1	11,859	6,313	5,546	23,346	13,336	10,010	11,487	7,023	4,464	96.9	111.2	80.5
Forestry and logging	A2	3,375	3,143	232	4,611	4,395	216	1,236	1,252	-16	36.6	39.8	-6.9
Fishing	A3	3,367	2,935	432	5,736	5,076	660	2,369	2,141	228	70.4	72.9	52.8
Mining & quarrying	B	574	488	86	543	353	190	-31	-135	104	-5.4	-27.7	120.9
Manufacturing	C	7,237	5,387	1,850	5,242	3,432	1,810	-1,995	-1,955	-40	-27.6	-36.3	-2.2
Electricity & water	D+E	530	490	40	377	330	47	-153	-160	7	-28.9	-32.7	17.5
Construction	F	2,997	2,948	49	4,979	4,884	95	1,982	1,936	46	66.1	65.7	93.9
Wholesale & retail trade	G	7,275	4,263	3,012	7,752	4,335	3,417	477	72	405	6.6	1.7	13.4
Hotels & restaurants	I	865	417	448	1,244	463	781	379	46	333	43.8	11.0	74.3
Transport, storage, communic.	H+J	3,239	2,978	261	4,003	3,682	321	764	704	60	23.6	23.6	23.0
Financial intermediation	K	581	308	210	472	232	240	-109	-76	30	-18.8	-24.7	14.3
Real estate, business services	L,M	358	267	154	384	266	118	26	-1	-36	7.3	-0.4	-23.4
Public admin., social security	O	4,337	3,480	857	6,092	4,433	1,659	1,755	953	802	40.5	27.4	93.6
Education	P	4,324	2,673	1,651	7,449	4,165	3,284	3,125	1,492	1,633	72.3	55.8	98.9
Health and social work	Q	1,830	872	958	1,826	831	995	-4	-41	37	-0.2	-4.7	3.9
Other services	N*+R+S	2,122	1,542	580	4,210	3,581	629	2,088	2,039	49	98.4	132.2	8.4
Private household employees	T	1,065	67	998	2,297	346	1,951	1,232	279	953	115.7	416.4	95.5
Extra territorial organisations	U	208	133	75	677	431	246	469	298	171	225.5	224.1	228.0
Industry n.s. (inc business n.e.c.)		1,329	1,057	282									

ISIC Industry Sectors 2009

A - Crop and animal production hunting and related service activities

B - Mining and quarrying

C - Manufacturing

D - Electricity gas steam and air conditioning supply

E - Water supply; sewerage waste management & Remediation act.

F - Construction

G - Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles

H - Transportation & Storage

I - Accommodation & Food service activities

J - Information & Communication

K - Financial & insurance activities

L - Real Estates Activities

M - Professional Science & technical activities

N - Administrative & Support service activities *(inc security & investigative activities)

O - Public Safety and defence; compulsory social security

P - Education

Q - Human health and Social work

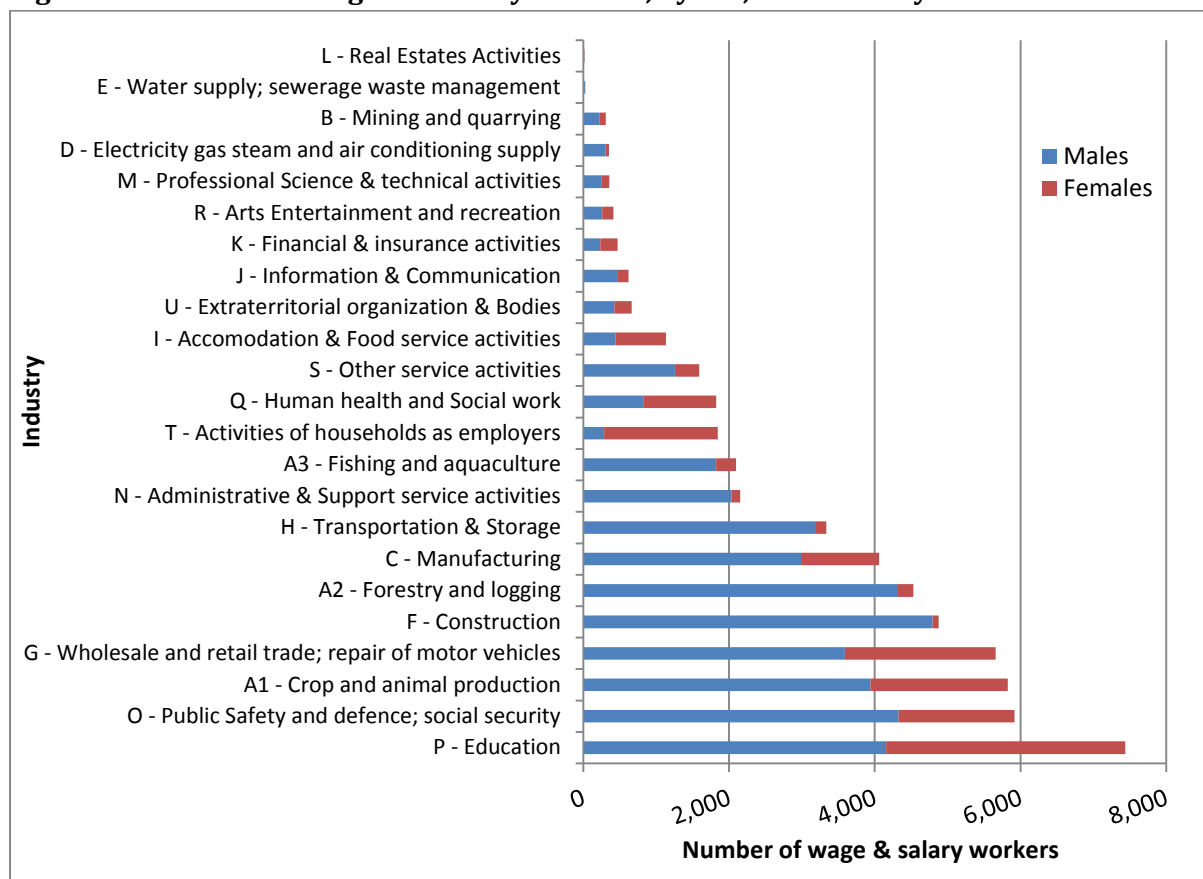
R - Arts Entertainment and recreation

S - Other service activities

T - Activities of households as employers

U - Extraterritorial organization & Bodies

Figure 30: Number of wage and salary workers, by sex, and industry sector



4.6 Employment by occupational group (ISCO)

As well as considering the changing structure of the labour force according to industry sector, the occupational structure is also important. The International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) is used worldwide, and was used in this census. This standardised typology classifies jobs both according to their content, and according to the level of skill that particular jobs require. While earlier classifications seemed to largely apply to the formal economy, more recent versions of ISCO have attempted to fully incorporate informal / subsistence activities as well.

At the highest level of ISCO (Level 1), there are ten occupational categories and Figure 31 shows the distribution of workers in Solomon Islands in 2009 at this level. In a generalised sense, these occupational groupings are ranked according to skill level, starting from the least skilled at the top of Figure 31 (elementary occupations) to the most skilled towards the bottom (either legislators etc. or professionals). Legislators, senior officials and managers may not, in many cases, be more skilled than professionals in terms of their levels of education, but their place within this ranking perhaps reflects their success in achieving particular occupational positions and their influence within the labour force. Armed forces are also an exception to the ranking system of ISCO, since the specific occupational roles

held by those in the armed forces may range across many of the other ISCO categories, but international convention has them classified separately.

Figure 31 shows the predominance of agricultural, forestry and fishery occupations within the Solomon Islands labour force. This is consistent with the industry sector information presented earlier, with these occupations being important in subsistence production, production for sale, and in the wage and salary sector. Other occupational groupings which have considerable numbers of workers in them include service and sales workers, elementary occupations (labourers), craft and related trades, and professionals. Figure 32 shows the contrasting distributions of these occupational groupings between rural and urban areas.

A more detailed breakdown of occupations is shown in Table 9, which ranks occupations at level 2 of the ISCO classification system. Three of the top five occupational groupings relate to agricultural work, emphasising the importance of agriculture and fishing within the economy of Solomon Islands. The largest grouping is of “subsistence farmers, fishers, hunters and gatherers” and the second is of “market oriented agricultural workers”, a category which is distinguished from the first group by having a market focus. Also important are “forestry and fishery workers”, which are again distinguished from the first group by a much greater presence as paid workers. Some confusion within and between these categories points out the complexities of interpreting some of the labour force categories and the porous nature of the boundary between non-cash subsistence activities and cash activities which coexist in many people’s lives. Likewise, proportions of some occupations which are assumed to be in the cash sector, such as teaching, may result from coding problems, but also because some may actually be part of the non-cash sector e.g. in the case of teachers, as volunteers in schools and churches. Even more notable outside of the paid work sector is the occupational grouping “personal services workers” which is comprised predominantly of females. In the formal economy typical occupations in this category include cooks, housekeepers and waiters, but in the informal sector, similar roles undertaken by women in the labour force as “unpaid family workers” or similar are significant. An equivalent for men is as “extraction and building trade workers”, representing those working on village projects, including house building, which in many cases are not cash activities.

Figure 31: Labour force by sex and occupation (ISCO) 2009

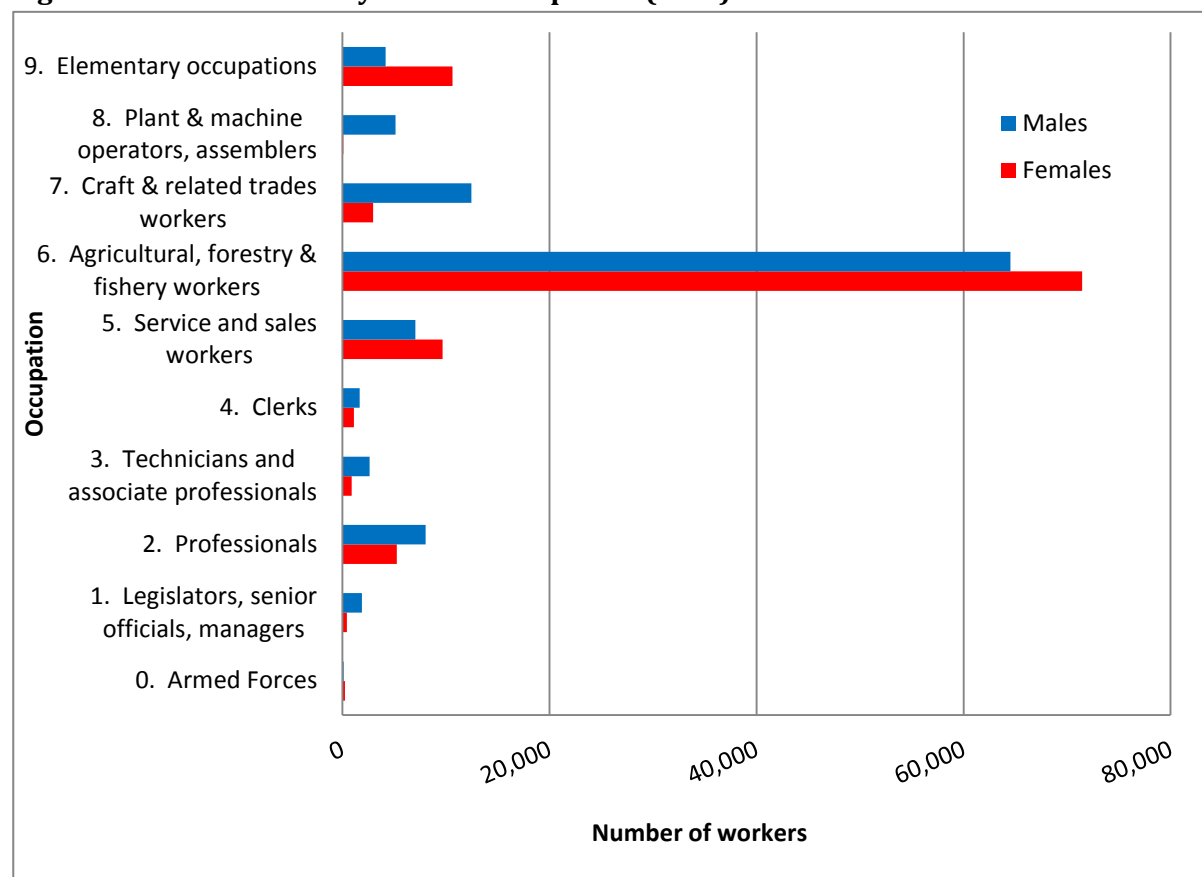


Figure 32: Labour force by occupation (ISCO) and urban or rural residence 2009

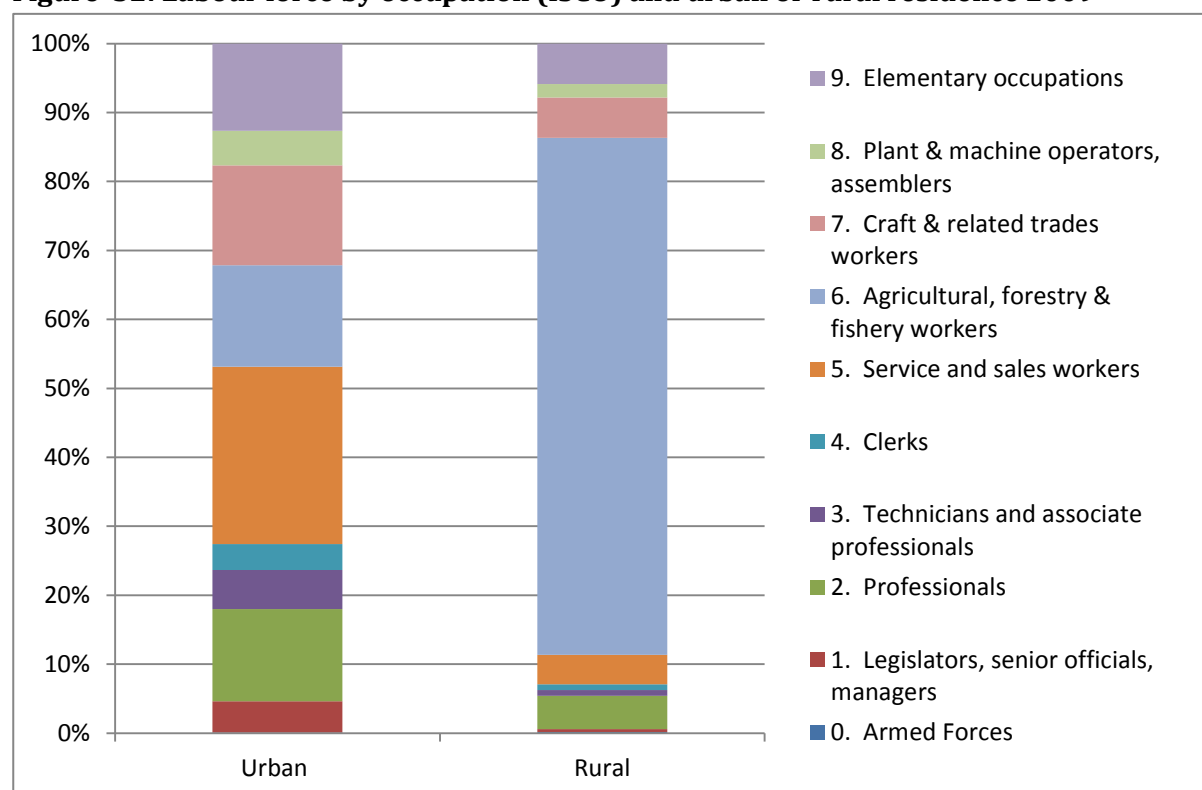


Table 9: Occupational classification at ISCO level 2 with 500 or more workers, ranked, by sex and rates within labour force, paid workforce and wage and salary jobs

Level 2 ISCO occupations	number in labour force			percent female	percent of labour force	percent in paid work	percent in wage & salary jobs
	both sexes	males	females				
ALL OCCUPATIONS	210385	107692	102693	48.8	100.0	38.6	26.4
63 Subsistence farmers, fishers, hunters and gatherers	109682	46768	62914	57.4	52.1	7.2	0.0
61 Market oriented skilled agricultural workers	17634	9805	7829	44.4	8.4	83.2	12.4
91 Sales and services elementary occupations	10733	1157	9576	89.2	5.1	18.2	15.8
71 Extraction and building trade workers	8825	8705	120	1.4	4.2	60.1	58.1
62 Forestry and fishery workers	8661	7961	700	8.1	4.1	73.1	34.1
23 Teaching professionals	7776	4293	3483	44.8	3.7	97.4	97.2
51 Personal services workers	7731	1074	6657	86.1	3.7	24.1	21.3
52 Models salespersons and demonstrators	5229	2457	2772	53.0	2.5	93.3	71.4
54 Protective service workers	3709	3500	209	5.6	1.8	99.2	98.9
83 Drivers and mobile plant operators	3283	3269	14	0.4	1.6	96.5	96.2
75 Food processing, wood working, garment & other craft	2286	822	1464	64.0	1.1	89.1	53.1
92 Labourers: Agricultural, fishery and related	2283	1747	536	23.5	1.1	88.9	73.7
73 Precision handicrafts printing and related workers	2129	793	1336	62.8	1.0	75.5	36.6
72 Metal machinery and related workers	1878	1842	36	1.9	0.9	97.0	95.5
81 Stationery plant and related operators	1841	1783	58	3.2	0.9	86.3	79.4
24 Other professionals	1744	1102	642	36.8	0.8	97.6	97.1
26 Legal social and cultural professionals	1608	1365	243	15.1	0.8	60.4	59.1
22 Life science and health professionals	1525	701	824	54.0	0.7	98.2	98.1
43 Numerical and material recording clerks	1367	991	376	27.5	0.6	97.8	97.6
33 Teaching associate professionals	1074	768	306	28.5	0.5	96.3	94.3
31 Physical and engineering science technicians	1001	924	77	7.7	0.5	98.3	95.8
11 Legislators and senior officials	988	822	166	16.8	0.5	94.4	93.9
93 Labourers: mining, construction, manufacturing, transport	900	632	268	29.8	0.4	86.6	64.6
96 Refuse workers and other elementary workers	809	615	194	24.0	0.4	62.1	32.9
34 Other associate professionals	773	547	226	29.2	0.4	65.8	64.9
12 Corporate managers	747	598	149	19.9	0.4	98.7	98.5
42 Customer service clerks	687	371	316	46.0	0.3	98.3	98.3
21 Physical math & engineering science professionals	583	538	45	7.7	0.3	97.9	97.1
41 Office Clerks	543	208	335	61.7	0.3	98.5	98.3

4.7 Age-sex structure of the labour force

The age-sex structure of the labour force is compared to the age-sex structure of the total population of Solomon Islands in Figure 32. This shows that most of those aged 30 to 60 are in the labour force although, in each cohort in this range, there are some who are not. In the age cohorts between 15 and 30, significant numbers are not in the labour force and, as shown earlier, these include many students. The numbers and proportions of males and females in the labour force are similar.

When the age-sex structure of all paid workers is considered (Figure 33), it is obvious that there are considerably more men than women in this category. The fact that women are more likely to be producing for their households' own consumption and in unpaid family work largely explain this difference. As shown earlier, men are more likely to work for money, for example in the sale of produce. The age-sex structure of wage and salary workers is even more skewed towards men, as shown in Figure 34, with more men in both government and private employment. This age-sex pyramid also illustrates the fact that wage and salary work employs a relatively small proportion of the total Solomon Islands population of potential working age, although it was shown earlier that there has been a slight increase in the proportion of both males and females who were engaged in paid work compared to 1999.

Figure 33: Age-sex structure of labour force compared to total population

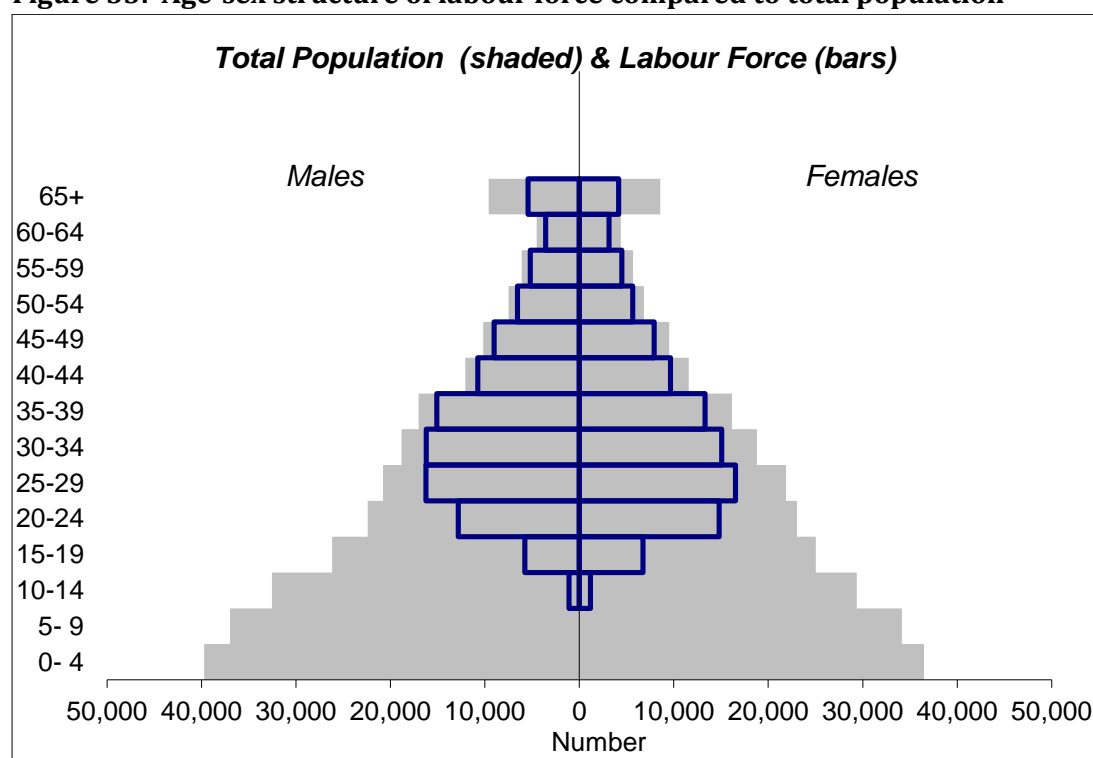


Figure 34: Age-sex structure of paid workers compared to total population

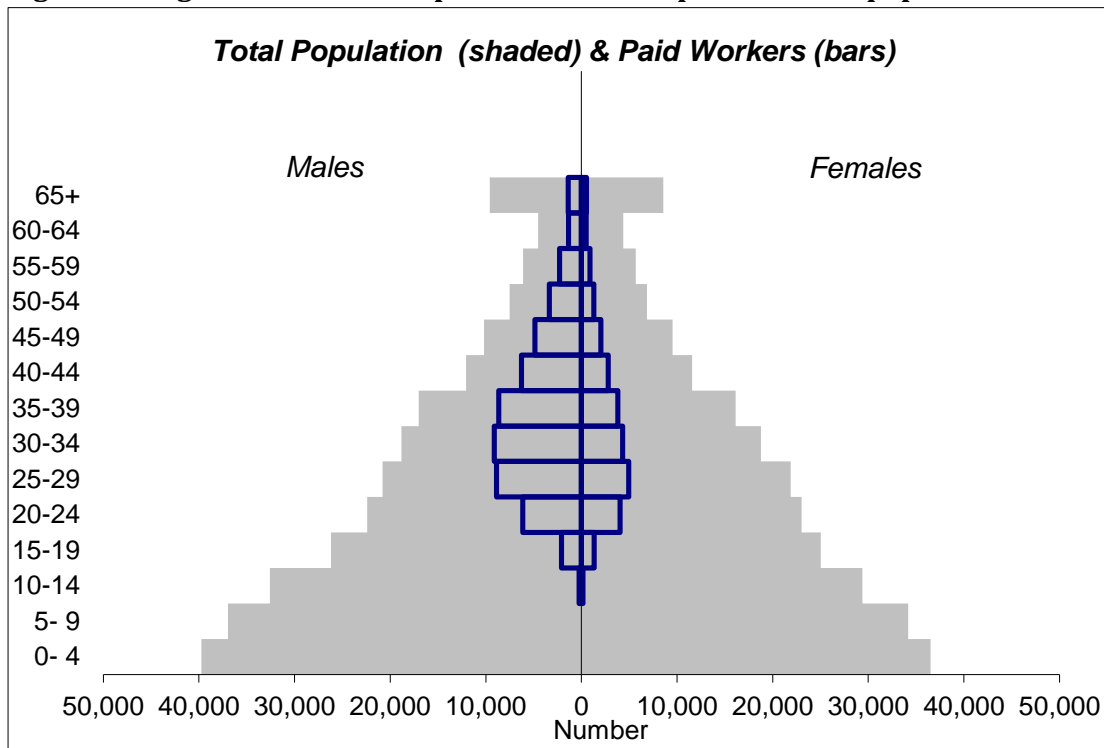


Figure 35: Age-sex structure of wage and salary workers compared to total population



4.8 Youth in the labour force

While the birth rate, as measured by the Total Fertility Rate (TFR) has declined over recent years, the “population momentum” of the earlier high rates has resulted in large youth cohorts, often called the “youth bulge”. This is an important consideration when looking at labour force issues, since planning for youth entering the labour force presents one of the greatest challenges facing Solomon Islands. For youth, it is an important aspect of the “youth transition” to adulthood, and the nature of youth incorporation (or otherwise) will have a significant impact on the future composition and effectiveness of the labour force. In this section, “youth cohorts” are considered to be those aged 15-19, 20-24 and 25-29. In some cases, “youth” have been classified as those under 25 years of age, but for the purposes of labour force, it is useful to consider those 25 to 29 years of age, since some of these are still looking for their place in the labour force after completing secondary or tertiary education.

A simplified version of the activity status of youth cohorts is shown in Table 10, by considering those who are working, those who are students (in education) and those who are in neither of these categories. The latter may be considered to be those who are “inactive”, although some of these may be looking for work, as shown below when unemployment is discussed. Two-thirds of males aged 15 to 19 are still students, although for females this is still the main activity, but five percent less are students. After age 20, work becomes the most significant activity for both males and females with the latter having a higher rate of participation at ages 20-24 and then lower at 25-29 years. This is partly because males maintain a greater presence in the education system after age 20 than females. The percentage of those who are neither in work nor in education in the age group 20-24 is high, above 20 percent for both sexes, and this proportion declines at ages 25-29 but is still high, with one in five appearing to be inactive.

Table 11 shows the same information on activity status for the urban population. It shows a higher proportion in all youth cohorts for males and females who are in education, which is not surprising since Honiara has the largest number of secondary and tertiary educational institutions. On the other hand, there are much lower percentages who are in work, partly a result of the fact that in rural areas, most youth will undertake subsistence production or other unpaid work, whereas this is less common in urban areas. This is reflected in fact that much higher percentages of youth in urban areas appear to be inactive (in the ‘neither’ column). About one-third of those aged 20 to 29 were neither working nor students; this rate is significantly higher for females, suggesting it is harder for them to get paid work, but also that many will be having children at these ages, but may not be undertaking subsistence gardening as they would if they were in rural areas.

Education has a significant impact on the work opportunities available to youth as they enter the labour market. Table 12 shows the relationship between work activity and highest educational level for all of those who were enumerated as working in the census. As might be expected, the likelihood of working for wages or salary is markedly increased when individuals have some secondary or tertiary education. It is also interesting to note that those who have some college education but do not hold a degree have high levels of involvement in

Table 10: Activity/work status of youth cohorts (compared to labour force 15-54)

Age cohort	In work (%)	In education (%)	Neither (%)	Total (%)	Number in cohort
males					
15 - 19	21.8	66.5	11.7	100	26,189
20 - 24	56.6	22.6	20.8	100	22,399
25 - 29	77.3	5.9	16.8	100	20,794
Total 15-54	67.8	18.0	14.2	100	134,956
females					
15 - 19	26.6	60.9	12.4	100	25,023
20 - 24	63.5	12.9	23.6	100	23,020
25 - 29	74.6	2.6	22.7	100	21,880
Total 15-54	66.8	14.4	18.8	100	132,782
both sexes					
15 - 19	24.2	63.8	12.1	100	51,212
20 - 24	60.1	17.7	22.2	100	45,419
25 - 29	75.9	4.2	19.9	100	42,674
Total 15-54	67.3	16.2	16.5	100	267,738

Table 11: Activity/work status of youth cohorts in urban areas (compared to labour force 15-54)

Age cohort	In work (%)	In education (%)	Neither (%)	Total (%)	Number in cohort
males					
15 - 19	12.1	71.5	16.4	100	5,525
20 - 24	38.1	31.6	30.3	100	6,360
25 - 29	62.2	10.5	27.3	100	5,696
Total 15-54	56.2	20.7	23.1	100	32,872
females					
15 - 19	16.5	63.4	20.1	100	5,470
20 - 24	41.7	21.6	36.7	100	5,984
25 - 29	55.2	5.3	39.5	100	5,464
Total 15-54	48.6	17.4	34.0	100	29,934
both sexes					
15 - 19	14.3	67.4	18.3	100	10,995
20 - 24	39.8	26.8	33.4	100	12,344
25 - 29	58.7	8.0	33.3	100	11,160
Total 15-54	52.6	19.1	28.3	100	62,806

Table 12: Work activity of youth cohorts, by highest educational level, and by age and sex

Type of work activity Highest educational level	Wages & Salary	Producing goods for sale	Unpaid work	Total	Wages & Salary	Producing goods for sale	Unpaid work	Total	Wages & Salary	Producing goods for sale	Unpaid work	Total	Wages & Salary	Producing goods for sale	Unpaid work	Total
	no. of males aged 15-19				no. of females aged 15-19				% of males aged 15-19				% of females aged 15-19			
No school or preschool	126	169	914	1,209	72	139	1,344	1,555	10.4	14.0	75.6	100.0	4.6	8.9	86.4	100.0
Some primary	316	296	1,083	1,695	157	188	1,483	1,828	18.6	17.5	63.9	100.0	8.6	10.3	81.1	100.0
Completed primary	390	297	1,038	1,725	192	191	1,575	1,958	22.6	17.2	60.2	100.0	9.8	9.8	80.4	100.0
Completed forms (high school)	313	99	564	976	249	106	864	1,219	32.1	10.1	57.8	100.0	20.4	8.7	70.9	100.0
Some College/ No degree	8	0	4	12	1	2	1	4	66.7	0.0	33.3	100.0	25.0	50.0	25.0	100.0
University or vocational degree	17	2	5	24	4	2	3	9	70.8	8.3	20.8	100.0	44.4	22.2	33.3	100.0
Other	30	15	86	131	23	18	124	165	22.9	11.5	65.6	100.0	13.9	10.9	75.2	100.0
Total	1,200	878	3,694	5,772	698	646	5,394	6,738	20.8	15.2	64.0	100.0	10.4	9.6	80.1	100.0
	no. of males aged 20-24				no. of females aged 20-24				% of males aged 20-24				% of females aged 20-24			
No school or preschool	232	193	982	1,407	119	218	1,979	2,316	16.5	13.7	69.8	100.0	5.1	9.4	85.4	100.0
Some primary	633	406	1,457	2,496	209	307	2,284	2,800	25.4	16.3	58.4	100.0	7.5	11.0	81.6	100.0
Completed primary	1,067	565	1,978	3,610	437	499	3,484	4,420	29.6	15.7	54.8	100.0	9.9	11.3	78.8	100.0
Completed forms (high school)	2,133	515	2,037	4,685	1,572	371	2,677	4,620	45.5	11.0	43.5	100.0	34.0	8.0	57.9	100.0
Some College/ No degree	135	8	30	173	149	4	31	184	78.0	4.6	17.3	100.0	81.0	2.2	16.8	100.0
University or vocational degree	111	27	53	191	57	7	42	106	58.1	14.1	27.7	100.0	53.8	6.6	39.6	100.0
Other	80	43	148	271	42	39	269	350	29.5	15.9	54.6	100.0	12.0	11.1	76.9	100.0
Total	4,391	1,757	6,685	12,833	2,585	1,445	10,766	14,796	34.2	13.7	52.1	100.0	17.5	9.8	72.8	100.0
	no. of males aged 25-29				no. of females aged 25-29				% of males aged 25-29				% of females aged 25-29			
No school or preschool	252	234	1,027	1,513	119	242	2,241	2,602	16.7	15.5	67.9	100.0	4.6	9.3	86.1	100.0
Some primary	622	438	1,438	2,498	253	352	2,347	2,952	24.9	17.5	57.6	100.0	8.6	11.9	79.5	100.0
Completed primary	1,480	754	2,354	4,588	504	608	3,961	5,073	32.3	16.4	51.3	100.0	9.9	12.0	78.1	100.0
Completed forms (high school)	3,325	574	2,167	6,066	1,670	388	2,536	4,594	54.8	9.5	35.7	100.0	36.4	8.4	55.2	100.0
Some College/ No degree	581	12	55	648	546	8	69	623	89.7	1.9	8.5	100.0	87.6	1.3	11.1	100.0
University or vocational degree	382	33	140	555	148	9	89	246	68.8	5.9	25.2	100.0	60.2	3.7	36.2	100.0
Other	134	45	182	361	54	45	336	435	37.1	12.5	50.4	100.0	12.4	10.3	77.2	100.0
Total	6,776	2,090	7,363	16,229	3,294	1,652	11,579	16,525	41.8	12.9	45.4	100.0	19.9	10.0	70.1	100.0

wage and salary work, suggesting that in some cases, job opportunities have presented themselves during further study, and taken priority over the completion of a degree. A surprising proportion who have completed university or vocational degrees are not working for money, especially among females but also significantly for males. Whether this is a result of a mismatch between qualifications and available employment, a lag time in gaining employment after finishing a degree, or other factor is not clear.

Some of those youth who are neither in work nor in education are not technically inactive since they are ‘actively looking for work’, and therefore considered to be ‘unemployed’. Some of the issues of defining and measuring unemployment have been discussed earlier in this report (section 4.4) which showed that the unemployment rate was relatively low compared to the previous census as a result of a change in the census question. Table 13 shows youth unemployment by cohort and compares this to the rates and numbers for the labour force aged 15 to 54. It shows that youth unemployment is more than twice as high as the overall unemployment rate reported earlier (2.3 percent for the population aged 12 and over). However, when specific youth cohorts are considered, and the rural-urban distinction is made, these rates of unemployment are much higher. The highest unemployment rates are among those in urban areas aged 15 to 19, with nearly 20 percent of males, and 17 percent of females being unemployed. It should be noted that in the case of these males, this rate is slightly higher than shown as neither working or in education in Table 11 since it was possible to answer the ‘actively seeking work’ question while still at school.) The youth unemployment rates for both males and females declines with age in rural and especially in urban areas, but is still at about nine percent for both sexes at ages 25 to 29.

Table 13: Youth unemployment by cohort (compared to labour force 15-54)

Age cohort	% unemployed rural areas	% unemployed urban areas	% unemployed total	number unemployed rural areas	number unemployed urban areas	total number unemployed
males						
15 - 19	3.3	19.9	5.6	174	166	340
20 - 24	2.9	17.1	5.9	301	500	801
25 - 29	1.6	9.1	3.3	200	353	553
Total 15-54	1.5	7.7	2.8	1,098	1,537	2,635
females						
15 - 19	2.1	17.0	4.4	123	185	308
20 - 24	1.7	12.9	3.8	209	368	577
25 - 29	1.3	9.0	2.8	169	297	466
Total 15-54	1.1	7.5	2.2	815	1,185	2,000
both sexes						
15 - 19	2.7	18.3	5.0	297	351	648
20 - 24	2.2	15.0	4.8	510	868	1,378
25 - 29	1.4	9.0	3.0	369	650	1,019
Total 15-54	1.3	7.6	2.5	1,913	2,722	4,635

5. Conclusions

There were significant economic and labour force changes in Solomon Islands between 1999 and 2009, and many of these are documented by information from the 2009 Census. Some aspects of the economy stayed much the same as they were a decade earlier. This is particularly the case within the informal subsistence economy in which subsistence production and gathering of food is still practised by the majority of village households. Most of the main products grown or harvested ten years earlier are still important, and in many cases are used for both the household's own consumption and the generation of cash income. For nearly half of all households the sale of crops, fish or handicrafts was the main source of income and, in almost all of these cases, the same products were also significant for the household's own consumption. The most important of these were vegetables and other food crops, betelnut, copra or other coconut products, and cocoa. Similarly, the catching and sale of fish and the raising of livestock, especially pigs and chickens, also bridged the subsistence and cash elements of the household economy. The Solomon Islands Agricultural and Rural Development Strategy (ARDS) (Solomon Islands Government 2007) notes that rural development is the government's priority, and various approaches in rural areas including improved transport, financial services, agricultural supports services (especially related to marketing) and community involvement have been proposed to allow more effective development of both subsistence and cash sectors in agriculture. The census has shown that there is already a relatively diverse base on which to base these improvements.

Remittances were the main source of income for two percent of households in the country, but ten times this many received some remittances. In some areas, more than forty percent of households received some remittances, so even when these are not the main source of income, they are an important supplement. In 2009, domestic remittances comprised the great bulk of all remittances, but in the future, international remittances are likely to become more important as the seasonal work schemes with New Zealand and Australia, which were in their infancy in 2009, increase.

The labour force activities of individuals revealed by the 2009 Census showed some interesting trends. In this report, three different work participation rates were calculated. The Labour Force Participation Rate was 63 percent of those aged twelve and over, with similar rates for men and women. However, much of this labour force was operating in the subsistence economy as shown by the Paid Worker to Population Rate which was only 24 percent; within this males had a rate twice as high as females. The Wage-Salary to Population Rate was only 16 percent with men two and one half times as likely to be in a waged or salaried job as women. Since the previous census, the rate of Paid Worker to Population Rate has increased slightly, from 24 to 26 percent of the population aged 15 and over. However, when absolute numbers are considered, the number of those *not* participating in paid work has increased considerably, thus suggesting ongoing demand for paid employment in the future.

Notable sectoral and occupational changes in the Solomon Islands labour force were also revealed by the census. The largest increase in paid work was in the primary sectors of

agriculture and forestry-logging, with much of that in the former involving production for sale. Sectors of increased employment between 1999 and 2009 included construction, hotels and restaurants (tourism), and government service sectors, especially education, so there was a substantial increase in the number of teachers employed over this period. Wholesale and retail remained an important sector of employment, but showed little growth, while there was a significant employment decline in manufacturing.

The rate of unemployment in 2009 was shown to be only 2.3 percent (or a little higher using an alternative approach), but this was not comparable to the rate of 11.1 percent shown by the 1999 Census. The reason for this was that the question about “actively seeking work” was asked of very different base populations. While the 1999 question being directed to those who were not paid workers but were looking for paid work, in 2009 the question was asked of a much smaller base population of those who did not undertake any type of work in the cash or subsistence sectors. Thus, it is expected that the demand for paid work is likely to be much higher than the unemployment rate implies.

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KEY TO CENSUS WARD NUMBERS AND NAMES BY PROVINCE

Choiseul Province

101	Wagina
102	Katupika
103	Vasipuki
104	Viviru
105	Babatana
106	Tepazaka
107	Batava
108	Tavula
109	Polo
110	Bangera
111	Susuka
112	Senga
113	Kerepangara
114	Kirugela

Western Province

201	Outer Shortlands
202	Inner Shortlands
203	Simbo
204	North Ranongga
205	Central Ranongga
206	South Ranongga
207	Vonunu
208	Mbilua
209	Ndovele
210	Iringgilla
211	Gizo
212	South Kolombangara
213	Vonavona
214	Kusaghe
215	Munda
216	Nusa Roviana
217	Roviana Lagoon
218	South Rendova
219	North Rendova
220	Kolombanghea
221	Mbuini Tusu
222	Nono
223	Nggatokae
224	North Vangunu
225	Noro
226	North Kolombangara

Isabel Province

301	Kia
302	Baolo
303	Kokota
304	Hovikoilo
305	Buala
306	Tirotongana
307	Koviloko
308	Kmaga
309	Kaloka
310	Tatamba
311	Sigana
312	Japuana
313	Kolomola
314	Kolotubi
315	Susubona
316	Samasodu
Central province	
401	Sandfly/Buenavista
402	West Gela
403	East Gela
404	Tulagi
405	South West Gela
406	South East Gela
407	North East Gela
408	North West Gela
409	Banika
410	Pavuvu
411	Lovukol
412	North Savo
413	South Savo
Rennell-Bellona	
501	East Tenggano
502	West Tenggano
503	Lughu
504	Kanava
505	Te Tau Gangoto
506	Mugi Henua
507	Matangi
508	East Gaongau
509	West Gaongau
510	Sa'aiho

Guadalcanal Province

601	Tandai
602	Saghalu
603	Savulei
604	Tangarare
605	Wanderer Bay
606	Duidui
607	Vatukulau
608	Talise
609	Avuavu
610	Moli
611	Tetekaji
612	Birao
613	Valasi
614	Kolokarako
615	Longgu
616	Aola
617	Paripao
618	East Tasimboko
619	Vulolo
620	Malango
621	West Ghaobata
622	East Ghaobata
Malaita Province	
701	Auki
702	Aimela
703	Buma
704	Fauabu
705	West Baegu/Fataleka
706	Mandalua/Folotana
707	Fo'ondo/Gwaiu
708	Malu'u
709	Matakwalao
710	Takwa
711	East Baegu
712	Fouenda
713	Sulufou/Kwarande
714	Sububenu/Burianiasi
715	Nafinua
716	Faumamanu/Kwai
717	Gulalofou
718	Waneagu/Taelanasina

Malaita (cont.)

719	Aiaisi
720	Areare
721	Raroisu'u
722	Aba/Asimeuru
723	Asimae
724	Mareho
725	Tai
726	Kwarekwareo
727	Siesie
728	Waneagu Silana Sina
729	Keaimela/Radefasu
730	Langalanga
731	Luaniua
732	Pelau
733	Sikaiana
Makira-Ulawa	
801	North Ulawa
802	South Ulawa
803	West Ulawa
804	Ugi and Pio
805	Arosi South
806	Arosi West
807	Arosi North
808	Arosi East
809	Bauro West
810	Bauro Central
811	Bauro East
812	Wainoni West
813	Wainoni East
814	Star Harbour North
815	Santa Ana
816	Santa Catalina
817	Star Harbour South
818	Rawo
819	Weather Coast
820	Haununu

Temotu Province

901	Fenualoa
902	Polynesian Outer Islands
903	Nipua/Nopoli
904	Lipe/Temua
905	Manuopo
906	Nenumpo
907	Nevenema
908	Luva Station
909	Graciosa Bay
910	Nea/Noole
911	North East Santa Cruz
912	Nanggu/Lord Howe
913	Duff Islands
914	Utupua
915	Vanikoro
916	Tikopia
917	Neo
Honiara town council	
1001	Nggossi
1002	Mbumburu
1003	Rove/Lengakiki
1004	Cruz
1005	Vavaea
1006	Vuhokesa
1007	Mataniko
1008	Kola'a
1009	Kukum
1010	Naha
1011	Vura
1012	Panatina