



Solomon Islands Social Studies

Year **8**

Learner's Book



Solomon Islands
Social Studies
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Solomon Islands Curriculum Development Division

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Introduction

This Learner's Book provides a course in Social Studies for Year 8, the second year of secondary school. You should study all chapters of this book, but in some chapters your teacher will give you guidance about which sections to study. The syllabus for this book follows on from the Social Studies you learnt last year.

This book is based on an interactive approach to learning. This means you are expected to learn things for yourself by doing the activities and exercises, not just by listening to the teacher or reading the book. The activities are an essential part of the book, and you will not learn the concepts properly unless you do the activities.

Each activity is marked by a symbol, or icon, to show you what kind of activity it is.

The icons are as follows:

Thinking icon



This indicates thinking for yourself. In Social Studies you are learning about your own lives and those of your communities and country, so you should use what you already know from your own life to help you to understand what you are learning.

Practical Activity icon



The hand indicates a practical activity, such as reading or following instructions on a map, understanding a photograph or reading and understanding graphs and statistics. These activities will help you to learn practical skills which you can use when you leave school.

Writing Activity icon



Some activities require you to write in your exercise book or elsewhere.

Group Work icon



Group work means that you are expected to discuss something in groups and report back on what your group discussed. In this way you learn from each other and how to work together as a group to address or solve a problem. Group work includes role play and making up drama on issues like how to resolve conflict or the ways women and men or boys and girls act towards each other. In these you are asked to use your imagination to make up stories or imagine what it would be like to be other people.

Fieldwork icon



Field work is an enjoyable and practical part of Social Studies. For these activities, you will need to go out of the classroom to study parts of your environment, such as counting the plants and animals found in an area or looking for any effects of World War II in your area.

Discussion icon



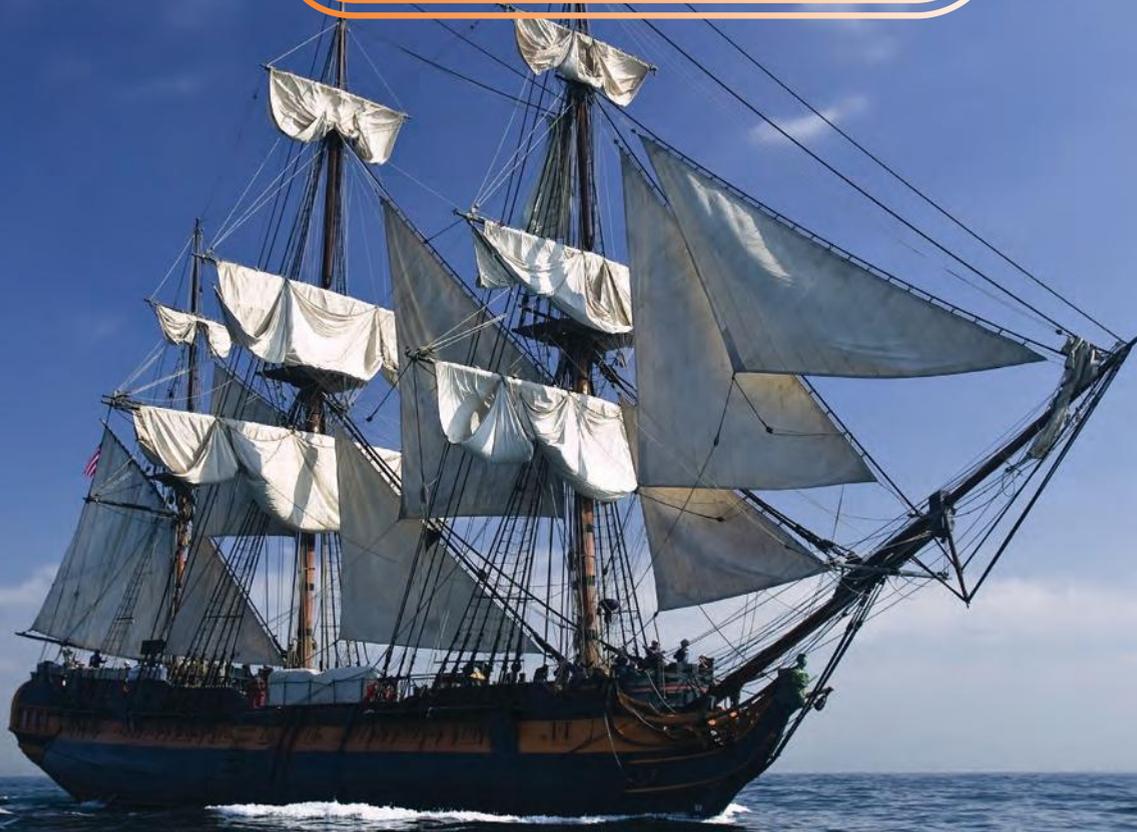
Some activities require you to discuss an issue with a partner or as part of a group. It is similar to group work, but you are just discussing without necessarily reporting back. You often help each other understand what you are learning.

Please note all money is in Solomon Islands dollars unless you are told otherwise.

Good luck in using the book.

Chapter 1

Agents of Change and Colonisation



My goals:

- to know how and why Europeans first came to Solomon Islands
- to know who were the main agents of change for Solomon Islands
- to understand the effects the agents of change had on the lives of Solomon Islanders
- to understand how and why Solomon Islands became a British protectorate
- to be able to locate on maps the places outsiders came from and where British rule was developed
- to be able to decide whether the arrival of Europeans was a good or a bad thing for Solomon Islanders
- to be able to decide whether becoming a protectorate was a good or a bad thing for Solomon Islanders

1 Europeans arrive

In Year 7 you learnt how our ancestors came to Solomon Islands. Much later than their arrival, around 450 years ago—that is, in 1568 in the sixteenth century—another group of people started to come to our islands: people from Europe.

These people came from a number of different countries in Europe. Their arrival in Solomon Islands resulted in the introduction of new material things and new ideas and beliefs, which continue to affect and change the lives of our people today. Let us first find out which countries these people came from and why they came to this region.

Activity 1



- 1 Use the map in Appendix 3 to locate:
 - a Europe, Africa, Asia
 - b Portugal, Spain, Britain, France, Germany, Turkey
 - c Saudi Arabia, India, Indonesia (East Indies), China, Pacific Ocean, Atlantic Ocean, Indian Ocean.
- 2 Use the scale on the map to calculate the distance from Britain to Solomon Islands in kilometres.
- 3 Solomon Islands was one of the last areas of the world to be visited by Europeans. Write down two possible reasons for this.
- 4 Which European country did the largest number of people who came to the Pacific region come from?

Why Europeans moved around the world

Europeans came from different countries to this part of the world because of certain economic and political changes happening in Europe.



Figure 1.1 Magellan was a Portuguese explorer who came to the Pacific. He was the first man to sail around the world.

Europeans were able to quickly control many parts of the world because they had developed new and better shipping technology. They managed to reach the small islands in the Pacific region because they had developed big sailing ships and tools and methods of navigation that were even better than those used by the early Polynesians.

Europeans started moving around the world partly because of their scientific curiosity to find out about other parts of the world. They were in contact with people from other cultures, such as Arabs in the Middle East. Arabs were also in contact with Asian traders. This led to a flow into Europe of Asian spices, such as pepper and ginger, used to flavour food and preserve it in the days before refrigeration, and also silk and other trade goods. This created a high demand for these goods. The introduction of these new products led to an increase in European interest in trade with Asian countries, especially the ‘Spice Islands’ or East Indies, such as Java, Sumatra and Sulawesi, now part of Indonesia. However, the rise of



Figure 1.2 This sailing ship is like the one that Magellan and other Europeans came in.

an empire in the Middle East controlled by Turkey made European trade contact with Asia difficult. Europeans were not allowed to travel through Turkish-controlled lands. They had to sail to the Spice Islands by travelling around the tip of Africa or the southern tip of South America and all the way across the Pacific.

With the rise of industries in Europe, demand for new forms of raw materials and new markets increased. Also, new land was required on which to grow more food and resettle the increasing population.

European powers competed against each other to take over new overseas territories and rule them as colonies. A **colony** is an area or a country that has been taken over by a powerful country, and then ruled by that country. The process of expanding one's influence and control over other territories or colonies is known as **colonisation**. Once a European power took over a new territory, they would send their own people to live on the land and develop the colony. European colonies included places such as Australia and most of North America and South America.

Many of these Europeans also wanted to bring their way of life and religion into various parts

of the world and convert non-Europeans to Christianity. The first group of Europeans to arrive in Solomon Islands came to look for gold and search for the unknown continent believed to be in the Southern Hemisphere.

Activity 2



- 1 From what you learnt in primary school, the first group of Europeans to arrive in Solomon Islands came from which direction?
- 2 Using the information you have just read, locate the places mentioned in the above passages on the map in Appendix 3. Look for the routes by which Europeans could travel to the Pacific. Suggest three main routes by which they could come.



Figure 1.3 Some spices used for flavouring and preserving food

Activity 3



- 1 From which group of people did the Europeans learn about the spices from the East Indies?
- 2 Which modern nation in South-East Asia was formerly referred to as the 'Spice Islands'?
- 3 Use the information on pages 2–3 to make a list of the reasons why Europeans travelled to other parts of the world.
- 4 Find out the different things (goods or ideas) you have in your home or village that originally came from outside.
 - a Copy the table below and fill it in. For each of the goods or ideas, write down who introduced them into your home or village, where they originally came from and what changes they have made to the traditional way of life.

Introduced goods/ideas	Who introduced them?	Where did they originally come from?	What changes have they made?
?	?	?	?

- b Compare your list with those of other students.
- c What were the most common goods/ideas listed by your class? What changes do you think these new things brought into your village?
- d What other changes brought from outside have occurred in your own village?

2 Agents of change

Contact with Europeans produced many changes for Solomon Islanders. Some of these can still be seen in our communities today. Those Europeans who brought about these changes can be referred to as **agents of change**. An agent of change helps to make change happen. In the rest of this chapter, we

will look at the different groups of Europeans that arrived in our country. We will also look at why they came and how their arrival affected our people.



Figure 1.4 This is a western-style missionary house on stilts. Two European missionary men are standing on the veranda surrounded by local men and boys. Women and girls are standing outside, in front of the house, holding fans. Tōmotu Neo, Solomon Islands

Activity 4



Read the following extracts and answer the questions. The first extract is a Solomon Islander's description of the first time he saw a ship from overseas. The second extract describes the first meetings between Solomon Islanders and Europeans.

Extract 1

One day, long, long ago, a man was fishing on the reef, and he saw something out in the sea. It appeared to be an island, but it moved. He ran to the beach shouting, 'An island is coming here' and quickly the people gathered on the beach to watch a sailing ship approach and anchor off the reef. The inhabitants of the 'island' came ashore, and our island world ceased to be.

From First Impressions by Casper Luana

Extract 2

The first meeting of Solomon Islanders and Europeans was a frightening experience for both. The Solomon Islanders tried to fit the ships and the Europeans into their own idea of the world. Because many communities buried their dead in the sea, it was considered to be the home of ghosts. So they thought that great ships, with white sails flapping or blowing in the wind and white-skinned crew, must be ghost ships. These must be their dead ancestors returning, bringing rewards or punishment. The Europeans, not aware that people thought that they were spirits, considered only the difficulties of their situation. The appearance of the Solomon Islanders in their swift, graceful canoes only made them more frightened. The islanders were black, often naked, had dyed hair and had decorations in their noses and ears. To Europeans, these were signs of savagery and cannibalism, so they could not think of islanders as human beings like themselves.

From *The Wealth of the Solomons* by Judy Bennett

- 1 Imagine that you were there when the first European explorers arrived. What would have been your feelings when you first saw a person with white skin?
- 2 What did the people think or believe these Europeans might be?
- 3 What did they think the ships might be?
- 4 How did the arrival of the Europeans change Solomon Islanders' views of the world?
- 5 Why do you think Casper Luana said 'our island world ceased to be'?
- 6 According to the second extract, what did the first European explorers think of Solomon Islanders?
- 7 Divide into small groups and role-play the first contact experience between Solomon Islanders and Europeans.

Activity 5



As you read the next sections of this chapter, construct a time line to show the dates that different groups of people came to Solomon Islands and the main reasons they came. You learnt how to construct a time line in the first chapter of *Solomon Islands Social Studies Year 7 Learner's Book*.

European explorers

The first Europeans to sail around our islands were called **explorers**. They came for many reasons. They were curious and wanted to find out about different places. Some of them were also interested in gold and other precious metals. Spanish explorer Alvaro de Mendana and his crew were the first group of European explorers to make contact with Solomon Islanders. You learnt about their story in primary school, but we will now look at it in more detail.



Figure 1.5 Spanish explorer Alvaro de Mendana

Activity 6



Study Figure 1.6, which shows Mendana's first and second voyages to Solomon Islands and answer the following questions in your exercise book.

- 1 Where did Mendana come from?
- 2 In which direction did he travel on his first voyage?
- 3 Why do you think he first landed on Isabel?
- 4 Was it called Isabel then? How do you know?
- 5 Where did Mendana land on his second voyage?
- 6 Where did Mendana's ships sail to after they left Solomon Islands on the second voyage.
- 7 Name three islands or places in Solomon Islands that still have Spanish names.



Figure 1.6 These are the routes that Mendana took on his first and second voyages to Solomon Islands.

Alvaro de Mendana

In 1567, Alvaro de Mendana sailed to Solomon Islands from Peru, which was a Spanish colony in South America. Among his crew were Catholic priests and brothers who were interested in spreading the Christian gospel to the islanders. Mendana made his first voyage to Solomon Islands hoping to find the undiscovered southern continent. This was called **Terra Australis** and believed to

be somewhere in the Southern Hemisphere. Mendana also wanted to find gold, set up trade, and claim new lands for his Spanish king.

In 1568, Alvaro de Mendana first sighted Ontong Java and later landed on one of the islands, which he named Santa Isabel. While in Solomon Islands, Mendana and his crew were able to sight other islands, which they named Malaita, Guadalcanal, and San Cristobal (Makira). On Guadalcanal, Mendana found

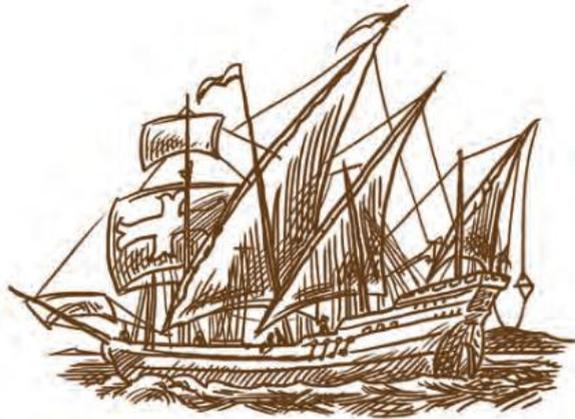


Figure 1.7 A sketch of Alvaro de Mendana's ship

gold along the Matepono River. He thought these islands were the islands where King Solomon took gold to build his temple, so he named the islands Isles de Solomon or the Islands of Solomon.

During his first voyage, Mendana and his crew spent about six months moving around Solomon Islands. They returned to Spain without finding the southern continent or the place that was rumoured to have a lot of gold. They also hadn't set up a Christian community, as the islands had too much malaria to be settled easily and Solomon Islanders did not immediately welcome a new religion.

In 1595, he returned to Solomon Islands with the aim of setting up a colony for Spain. He thought he could then use this colony as a base for discovering gold. On their return, they landed at Graciosa Bay in Santa Cruz and tried to set up a colony there. Unfortunately, the colony did not last for a long time because Mendana died of malaria and many of the remaining Europeans found it hard to live peacefully with the locals.

After his death, Mendana's remaining crew, under the leadership of Captain Pedro Fernandez de Quiros, left Solomon Islands via the Philippines. Recently, archaeologists have

discovered evidence of Mendana's settlement in Graciosa Bay. There is also a place near Pamua Community College in Makira where Spanish remains have been dug up, which might have been from one of Mendana's ships.

Activity 7



- 1 Why did Mendana decide to sail to the South-West Pacific?
- 2 Why did Mendana make his second voyage to Solomon Islands?
- 3 Why did the attempt to set up a colony fail?
- 4 What motives did the Spanish have in exploring the Pacific region?
- 5 Who took over leadership from Mendana after he died?
- 6 Mendana stayed with the people in Santa Cruz. He introduced the long-tailed chicken, which is still found there. What other effects on the islanders might the Europeans' presence have caused?

More explorers arrive

Other European explorers did not arrive in Solomon Islands until 200 years after Mendana's group left. In the intervening years, Europeans took little interest in Solomon Islands. The islands were small, very far from Europe, and did not have anything of great value to Europeans, such as gold or diamonds.

The later explorers who came to Solomon Islands after Mendana were mainly from England and France. Some of these explorers passed through Solomon Islands while they were looking for the southern continent. Two famous French explorers are La Perouse, who died when his ships were wrecked on the reefs in Vanikoro, and Bougainville, after whom the island of Bougainville in Papua New Guinea is named.



Figure 1.8 French explorer La Perouse



Figure 1.9 French explorer Bougainville, after whom Bougainville in Papua New Guinea is named

Activity 8



Look at the map of Solomon Islands in Appendix 1. Which island still has a French name?

Effects of the explorers

The early Spanish, French and English explorers did not always make contact with Solomon Islanders. One of the reasons that most of them did not go ashore to meet the islanders was that they feared for their lives. During the first contact between Solomon Islanders and Europeans, fighting occurred and some islanders died. The Europeans and the islanders looked at each other with suspicion and fear because they did not understand each other. It was particularly frightening for the islanders since it was the first time they had seen light-skinned people.

The Europeans went ashore in some places and the islanders had the opportunity to meet them. They gave the local people European goods such as cloth and iron tools. Unfortunately, the Europeans also introduced new diseases not common to our people.

The contact with the explorers made the islanders begin to understand that the world they had been living in for thousands of years was not only inhabited or lived in by themselves; rather, it was a world shared by many other people living in far-away places.

After the arrival of the Europeans, the islanders began to appreciate the white men's tools, which were strong and could be used for a long period of time. These tools reached the



Figure 1.10 Men with a rifle and pipes

islanders when the explorers exchanged them for fresh food, fresh water and safe places for ship repairs. One example of an iron tool was the one used by the people of Santa Isabel to attack and kill Bishop Jean Epalle in 1845. Some local people saw the tools as having special powers and magic. Many also treated these tools as sacred and showed great respect for them.

Activity 9



Copy this table into your exercise book and fill in the main positive (good) and negative (bad) changes that happened as a result of the explorers coming to Solomon Islands.

Positive changes/effects	Negative changes/effects
?	?

The whalers

The second group of Europeans who arrived in Solomon Islands were the whalers, who came to this part of the world to hunt for whales. The whalers had heard about the vast oceans of the Pacific from the early explorers. They thought that they would be able to catch many whales in this region, as whaling activities in the Atlantic Ocean had decreased—too many whales had been caught there and there were not many left to catch.

Most of the whaling ships that came to Solomon Islands were from France, England, Australia and America. The whalers established a limited number of bases where they gave islanders iron tools, tobacco and other goods in exchange for local food, fruits, vegetables, wood or water. Despite this, it was not their primary interest to change people’s lives—their main reason for coming was to hunt whales.



Figure 1.11 An early whaling boat

Our recorded history shows there were two places in Solomon Islands that whaling ships frequently used for anchorage and shelter—Simbo and Makira Harbour. People from these areas were most affected by the whalers. The whalers’ iron tools and new methods of fishing were adopted by the islanders, but the whalers also left behind new diseases. These areas later became popular among other European traders who collected other sea valuables such as *beche-de-mer* or seaslugs from the local people. They also left pregnant young girls as the sailors had been alone on the ships for many months, so they were interested in the local women and some girls went to stay with them during their periods ashore.

Activity 10



- 1 Why did whalers come to Solomon Islands?
- 2 Where did most whaling ships originate from?
- 3 At which two main places in Solomon Islands did the whalers land?
- 4 What do you think were the main effects of the whalers on the lives of Solomon Islanders?

The castaways

The **castaways** were another group of Europeans who found themselves living among the islanders. These people were washed ashore after shipwrecks, or had run away from their ship after arguing with crew members or committing a crime. Sometimes the islanders took care of them and allowed them to live with their community.

The white headhunter

One well-known castaway was called Jack Renton. He was a young sailor from Scotland, which is part of Britain. Jack Renton was an agent of change. He was washed ashore on Sulufou beach, North Malaita, with five other American sailors in 1868.

Jack Renton was the only survivor from this group. There are no reliable accounts of what happened to the other five sailors, but some accounts say they were attacked and killed by the local people. The headman at Sulufou took Jack as his son as a young man. Europeans found Jack in 1875 and took him to Australia on a trading ship.



Figure 1.12 Islanders on a canoe trading items with a European ship

Jack Renton's presence had a great impact on the Sulufou people's lives. He learned their language, customs and culture. He became a 'naturalised native' and mixed very well with the local people. He taught them new skills in making better weapons. He became known as a brave European among the islanders and even became the most important headhunter around the Sulufou area. There are still some Solomon Islanders in North Malaita with the name Renton.

Activity 11



- 1 Do you know of any stories about white people being washed ashore on our islands due to shipwrecks? Share them with your class.
- 2 What changes do you think might have come about as a result of Jack Renton's presence among the people of Sulufou?
- 3 What do you think is meant by the words 'naturalised native'?

The traders

Another group of Europeans who came privately to Solomon Islands were the traders. These traders came mainly from Australia to make money for themselves through trade. Unlike the whalers, they did not exchange goods to satisfy their own needs. Instead, they made a profit by selling goods to the islanders or by selling goods overseas that they had collected from the islanders.

At first, these traders visited the islands using their own ships. They bought or collected goods such as sandalwood, copra, trochus, pearls and *beche-de-mer* from the islanders. They also sold trade goods to the islanders, for example tobacco, firearms, clothes, axes and knives.

In later years, some of the traders married local women and decided to settle in the islands.

They introduced more iron tools, tobacco, cloth and other new goods.

The traders visited many more of our islands than the whalers. They usually lived with the local people and taught them the European way of life—for example, they showed islanders the usefulness of European manufactured goods. The introduction of these new trade goods led to a demand for the goods among islanders.

While in many places the introduction of trade goods made life easier, there were also situations where there was increased competition between islanders for these goods. This led to increased internal fighting between members of the same family. Some people also misused trade goods, such as firearms or guns, to harm other people. They attacked their enemies and became more powerful over other tribal groups that did not have European weapons.

Activity 12

Using Figure 1.13, answer the questions that follow in your exercise book.



Figure 1.13 Norman Wheatley, a trader who married a Solomon Islander from near Munda, shown with his family

- 1 Describe the types of clothes worn by the family of Norman Wheatley.

- 2 Are these clothes suitable for Solomon Islands? Do they suggest that the traders adopted a Solomon Islands way of life, or that they taught people to follow their way of life?
- 3 What effects might a European marrying a local person have on the village people?
- 4 Write down some of the main effects of traders on Solomon Islanders.
- 5 Can you name any other Solomon Islander families in which European traders or plantation owners married local women?
- 6 In Western Province the guns brought by the traders increased headhunting, especially around Isabel. Explain why this happened.

The blackbirders

The establishment of the British colony in Australia in 1788 led to an increase in the number of Europeans arriving in Australia. Some of these European settlers set up sugar plantations in Australia, Fiji and Samoa. The plantation owners later realised that the local people in these countries were not willing to work on the plantations. Australian Aborigines lived a nomadic lifestyle, which meant they did not want to stay in one place, and Fijians and Samoans had their own land.

The plantation owners could not run their plantations without labourers. Some of them began to look to India and elsewhere in the Pacific region for sources of cheap labour.

In 1870, ships began arriving in Solomon Islands to recruit local people to work on plantations. The ship owners were nicknamed **blackbirders** because they were recruiting 'black' or dark-skinned people from the islands.

In your studies of labour traders in Year 4, you learned that many of our people were taken by the **blackbirders** and sold to plantation owners in Queensland and Fiji. This process of labour

Agents of Change and Colonisation

recruitment was often described as a **slave trade**. In fact, labour recruitment in Melanesia was not really a slave trade because many of the islanders signed voluntarily to work on plantations overseas. While it was true that the early stages of the recruitment were unfair because many were taken by force, labourers were still given food and money while working on the plantations. Most of them also returned home at the end of their contracts. On the other hand, a slave must do as his master says, does not receive any payment and will not be taken back home in the end.

There was no British government in Solomon Islands until 1896, so at first the blackbirders were free to kidnap the islanders. Some of the tricks used by recruiters in Vanuatu and Solomon Islands included:

- 1 sinking canoes by dropping heavy weights (like stones) on them
- 2 luring islanders onto the ships with offers of trade goods. Once they were aboard, the recruiters sank the islanders' canoes and sailed away with the men
- 3 dressing up like, and pretending to be, missionaries.



Figure 1.14 Local recruits on a blackbirding boat, probably on the way home as some are already wearing European-style clothes.



Figure 1.15 Islanders returning home after working in Queensland

Later, however, news spread that life in Queensland, Australia, was quite good and Solomon Islanders began to return with lots of trade goods. After this, the recruiters attracted islanders by promising to return them home with these goods. The islanders signed contracts or **indentures** and became **indentured labourers**.

Activity 13



- 1 What were some of the methods that blackbirders used to get Solomon Islanders to work on plantations in Queensland, Fiji and Samoa?
- 2 Why do you think some missionaries were killed when people thought they were blackbirders?
- 3 What do you think might have been the effects of blackbirding on Solomon Islanders? Think about the communities they came from as well as the people who were recruited.
- 4 Divide into groups and role-play a story of how islanders were taken by blackbirders.

Ramo Kwaisulia: passage master

One of Jack Renton's best friends was a man called Ramo Kwaisulia who came from Ada Gege in the Lau area of North Malaita.



Figure 1.16 Ramo Kwaisulia

He learned a lot about the outside world from the stories that Jack Renton told him when they were together on Malaita. Kwaisulia could even speak some English. When Jack Renton was picked up to go back to Australia, Kwaisulia went with him for a while before returning to Solomon Islands.

Later Kwaisulia's understanding and knowledge of the Europeans' way of life made him persuade a group of 90 men from his area to sign up to work on a sugar cane plantation in Rockhampton in Australia. After the men finished their three-year contracts, Kwaisulia returned to Malaita and became involved in the recruitment of labourers. The news about Kwaisulia reached many European recruiters. In 1881, Kwaisulia met with the highlanders. He convinced them to sign up by showing them the benefits of the trade goods—such as axes, knives, hoes and guns—which they would be given in return. People such as Kwaisulia who recruited labourers were called **passage masters**.

Kwaisulia promised the local recruits safety and protection if they travelled on the ships he had organised. News about Kwaisulia's recruitment in the Sulufou area and surrounding villages became well known. At Urassi Passage, more and more young men signed up to go overseas. In return, European recruiters gave Kwaisulia arms and ammunition, dynamite, kerosene, medicines, axes, crowbars, barbed-wire, iron spikes, looking glasses, cloth, guard dogs and important building materials. As a result, Kwaisulia and his relatives became some of the wealthiest people in their communities. Other people who became rich through recruitment included Mule Kopa in Shortland Islands and Soga in Isabel.

Activity 14



- 1 Who was Ramo Kwaisulia?
- 2 What was the work of a passage master?
- 3 Why did Kwaisulia become a successful passage master?
- 4 Why do you think young Malaitan men were willing to be recruited to go to Australia?
- 5 What effects or changes do you think labourers brought to their villages when they returned home?



Figure 1.17 Islanders at work on a plantation in Queensland

Labour recruitment system changes

The unfair methods that early **labour recruiters** used had a big effect on Solomon Islanders. In 1871, for example, the people of Nukapu in Reef Islands murdered or killed Bishop Patteson of the Anglican mission. They thought he was a blackbinder and claimed that he was responsible for taking away five young men who were missing from their village.

Other attacks on innocent people in many parts of Solomon Islands resulted in traders and missionaries calling on the British colonial government to improve and control the whole labour trade industry. This became one of the main reasons most ships began recruiting government representatives as **recruiting agents**. These people were responsible for explaining to the islanders why they were recruited and how long they would stay in Australia. They also made sure that the islanders returned to their right homes after completing their contracts.

Another incident that became famous and received a lot of criticism was the ‘Carl Massacre’. Some people from Solomon Islands, Buka and New Hebrides (now Vanuatu) were recruited with the use of force to work on a plantation in Fiji. A fight started on the ship and 70 people were shot. The news of this incident made many people demand changes to the whole process of labour recruitment.

After 1874, labour recruitment became controlled and properly organised. Most of the recruits after 1874 were taken legally according to the law in those days. Also, in most cases, the number of recruits depended on the number requested by the plantation owner.

Later, however, the government of Australia also changed its policy on migration. The government decided they would only allow ‘white’ people to live in Australia—no Pacific

Islanders or Chinese people were allowed to enter Australia. This was called the White Australia Policy and it led to recruitment being stopped. Most islanders were sent home, although a few were allowed to remain in Queensland. There are also groups of people in Fiji and Samoa who are descended from Solomon Islanders, particularly from Malaita.

Activity 15



- 1 Divide into small groups and role-play what happened when the labourers returned to their villages from Queensland and Fiji.
- 2 What were some the factors that made the Australian government control and then stop labour recruitment?
- 3 Many islanders did not want the labour trade to stop and some did not want to return home. Why do you think this was?
- 4 What benefits did the labour trade bring to Solomon Islands and Solomon Islanders?

Missions and missionaries

Activity 16



Read the passages below. As you do:

- 1 Draw a time line showing the arrival of missions in Solomon Islands.
- 2 Copy and complete the table below by filling in the correct information in the spaces.

Types of missions

Name of mission	?
Leader of mission	?
Location of headquarters	?
Main methods used by mission and differences from other missions	?

The arrival of Christian **missionaries** from many different missions had a large impact or effect on our people. The conversion of many of our people to Christianity led to the weakening and eventual stopping of our traditional religions. Many of the missionaries who came to Solomon Islands originated from Europe, Australia and New Zealand. As we look at these missions, it is important to know that each of them had different attitudes towards our traditional religions. Each mission also used different methods to convert people.

Catholic missionaries

The first missionaries who came to the Pacific were mainly of Spanish origin. In Solomon Islands, the first missionaries were French Catholic priests and brothers from the Society of Mary, also known as Marists. On 2 December 1845, the Marists landed in Makira Harbour where they received a friendly welcome from the local people. However, the leader of the group, Bishop Epalle, decided to set up the mission on Santa Isabel. On 12 December 1845, they arrived at Astrolabe Harbour in Thousand Ships Bay, near Lepi and Kaevanga. However, the Marists failed to set up their mission successfully as the local people attacked and killed Bishop Epalle with an axe.

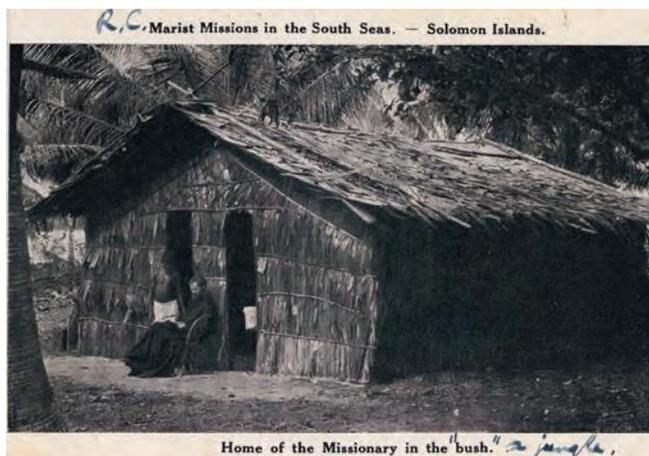


Figure 1.18 A Marist priest sitting outside a local church

After the death of their leader, the Marists left for Makira where they bought a piece of land and set up their mission. Some local young men helped the brothers and priests to build their houses. The missionaries taught them how to use hammers and saws. They also gave the people in Makira some trade goods such as cloth and iron tools.

However, there were problems when the missionaries didn't respect local customs. The Catholics were generally very well-educated and qualified people, but perhaps because of this they were not very good at relating to the local people. The Catholics bought land to establish missions run by outsiders, but they did learn and use the local languages. Catholic priests were not allowed to marry and this made it difficult for local people to join them, as young men were nearly always expected to marry. Even today many Catholic priests in Solomon Islands are from overseas.

There were also conflicts between tribes. By 1846, the missionaries had realised they could not continue with the mission due to unfriendly locals and the effects of malaria. This forced them to leave in 1848.



Figure 1.19 Bishop Epalle

Activity 17



- 1 When and where in Santa Isabel did the Catholic missionaries land?
- 2 Who was the leader of the Catholic missionaries in Solomon Islands?
- 3 Why did the Catholic missionaries leave Makira in 1848?

Return of the Society of Mary missionaries, May 1898

The Society of Mary missionaries returned in May 1898 under the leadership of Bishop Vidal, and fathers Rouillac and Bouillon. For 100 pounds, Bishop Vidal bought the islands of Rua Sura and Sura Kiki, off the north coast of Guadalcanal, from Captain Samuel Keating, who had originally bought it from the local people. They employed young men from Tangarare area to help clear the land for the new settlement. The missionaries quickly learned the Gari language. They set up schools and began preaching Christianity to the people and showing respect for elders and spirits. Father Rouillac was a gentle man who was always willing to talk with people.

They took over other areas in Avuavu and Tangarare and set up mission bases. At Tangarare mission station, a headman called Billi became the protector of the missionaries. He had sold the land to the missionaries and was strongly influenced by them. In 1904, the mission also set up bases in Visale and Savo.

These Catholic missionaries did not try to completely change all the local values, beliefs and other customs. They accepted those that did not conflict with Christianity. They came to be accepted by the local people in many areas, even those areas where other missionaries had already visited.

The conversion of a big-man called Araiiasi from Rohinari area in 'Are 'Are, Malaita, is



Figure 1.20 An early Catholic mission station

a good example of this. Chief Araiiasi was popular in 'Are 'Are and Southern Malaita and he had already joined the South Seas Evangelical Mission. Araiiasi was expelled from the mission after he had an argument with Florence Young over a murder he had committed. To retaliate, Chief Araiiasi invited Father Coicaud to set up his Catholic mission at Rohinari. Father Coicaud became very close with Araiiasi, and helped explain to the police that the murder was a customary duty to take revenge for a traditional insult. Father Coicaud arranged for Araiiasi to serve his sentence within the Catholic missions at Visale and Rohinari. Chief Araiiasi was very grateful for Father Coicaud's help, and this led to an improved relationship between Chief Araiiasi and the missionaries.



Figure 1.21 Reverend Alfred Lobu was the first local Melanesian catechist or priest in Solomon Islands.

Activity 18



- 1 When did the Marist missionaries return to Solomon Islands?
- 2 Where in Solomon Islands did the Marist missionaries set up their first successful mission stations?
- 3 Why did the local people accept the Marist missionaries and allow them to set up their missions?
- 4 Why did the local chiefs in 'Are 'Are invite the Catholic missionaries to set up their missions in Rohinari?
- 5 How did Father Coicaud explain the murder committed by Chief Araiiasi to the police?
- 6 Catholic priests are not allowed to marry. How and why do you think this made it difficult to recruit local people to become priests?

Anglican missionaries

Another group of missionaries were the Anglicans from the Church of England who came from New Zealand-based missions. They learned from the experience of the first Catholic missionaries that it was sometimes hard for Europeans to convert Melanesians.

The Anglicans adopted a different method of converting people. Their approach was to take



Figure 1.22 The *Southern Cross*: The Anglicans used ships like this for mission work.

young Solomon Islanders and train them in New Zealand as **catechists**. After completing their Bible studies, they were sent back to Melanesia to teach the gospel and convert their own people to Christianity. Being locals, the catechists respected local customs and often included them in church activities.

The Anglicans built ships, such as the *Southern Cross*, and the European missionaries mainly toured in the ships rather than living on the land. Despite being locals, most of the catechists still found it hard to convert their own people. This was because most of the people were more interested in the trade goods the missionaries brought and ignored the gospel message. This made the job of these young teachers difficult.

In Solomon Islands, many people were still very unhappy about blackbirders' unfair recruitment of their young men. In 1871, for example, the people of Nukapu in Santa Cruz attacked Bishop Patteson, Stephen Taroniara from Makira and Joseph Atkin from New Zealand. They killed Bishop Patteson because they thought that he was one of the blackbirders. The other two were shot with poisoned arrows and later died.



Figure 1.23 Solomon Islanders inside the dining hall at the Training Centre on Norfolk Island

Later the Anglicans realised that Solomon Islanders found it hard to train in New Zealand, so they set up a training centre on Norfolk Island near New Caledonia, which was closer to Solomon Islands. Bishop Selwyn looked after this training centre. Eventually, they began to establish schools and training centres in Solomon Islands, including Siota on Gela and a school at Pamua on Makira, which was set up by Charles Fox. Unlike most missionaries, Charles Fox mixed freely with the local people and learnt the languages and customs. One of his first students at Pamua was Ini Koporua, who went on to train at Norfolk Island and later founded the Melanesian Brotherhood, the first purely Solomon Islander church organisation. This was a sign of how effectively the Anglicans worked with local people.

Activity 19



- 1 What methods did the Anglican missionaries use to convert islanders to Christianity? How were these methods different from those of the Catholics? Which do you think were the best methods?
- 2 What were some of the advantages and problems of these methods of converting the people?
- 3 Who was the Anglican bishop who was murdered by the people of Nukapu?
- 4 Why did the local people kill the bishop?

South Seas Evangelical Mission

The South Seas Evangelical Mission originated in Queensland, Australia. The Solomon Islanders recruited to work on the Young family farm, through the labour trade, were influenced by Florence Young. She thought that the islanders should be taught Christianity. A total of 80 Melanesian plantation workers



Figure 1.24 Florence Young

received religious instructions from Young between 1882 and 1886 while she was living at Fairymead Plantation Estate. While in Australia, the mission became known as the **Queensland Kanaka Mission**.

In 1901, the Australian government began making laws to control labour recruitment and stop recruitment of workers from Solomon Islands. Peter Ambuofa of North Malaita was one of the people who converted to Christianity. In 1904, Florence Young helped him and other returning labourers to set up

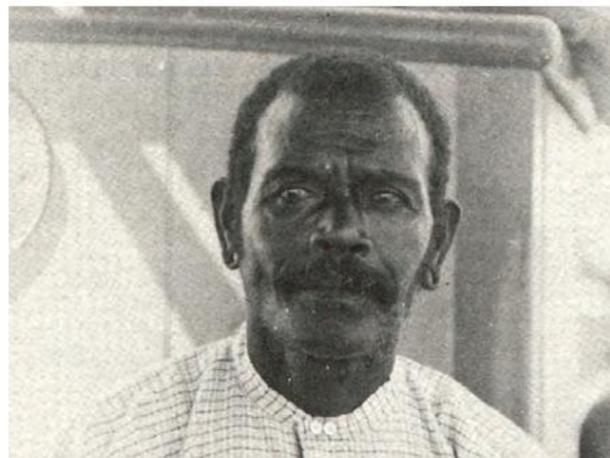


Figure 1.25 Peter Ambuofa

a new mission in Solomon Islands. In 1907, the new mission became known as the South Seas Evangelical Mission (SSEM). Others who came from Queensland and helped to spread the new church were David Sango and Samson Chaku of Guadalcanal.

The SSEM set up schools to teach the Bible in Pijin, and slowly Christianity spread. However, they usually taught that local customs were evil and wrong and people were in ‘darkness’ before Christianity came. In some places there was opposition to this. Three missionaries were killed on Rennell and one European, Daniells, was killed in Kwaio. As a result of these killings, the government did not let anyone else go to Rennell for many years. They also sent a navy ship, which was used to kill some Kwaio people.

Activity 20



- 1 In what ways was the SSEM different from other missions?
- 2 What opposition do you think Peter Ambuofa and others had when they tried to spread Christianity to North Malaita?
- 3 Why do you think some missionaries were killed?
- 4 Why did the SSEM use Pijin to teach the Bible?
- 5 Make up a role-play of Peter Ambuofa trying to convert some local chiefs in North Malaita.

Methodist Mission

Another mission that set up a presence in Solomon Islands was the Methodist Mission, which was very strong in Western Solomons. It was brought here in 1902 by labourers returning from the plantations in Fiji. The original plan was for the mission to go

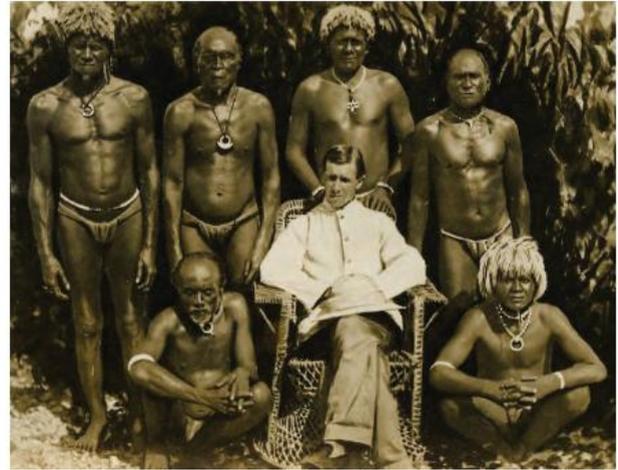


Figure 1.26 Reverend John Francis Goldie with Solomon Islanders

to Guadalcanal. However, the Resident Commissioner, who visited the mission’s headquarters in Sydney, told the missionaries to go instead to Western Solomons where headhunting was very popular. The Commissioner thought that the missionaries would be able to teach the people about law and peace and stop headhunting.

The team leader of the Methodist Mission that came to Solomon Islands was Reverend John Francis Goldie from Australia. His group was made up mainly of people from Fiji, Samoa and New Hebrides (now Vanuatu), as well as a few Solomon Islanders.

The Methodists preached what became known as **practical Christianity**. This involved teaching about Christ while also teaching technical skills, such as house-building and farming skills, to the followers. They also planted coconut plantations. In the early stages of the mission, European traders like Frank Wickham and Norman Wheatley strongly supported the mission’s activities, and set up schools and hospitals to attract its followers. The mission’s strongholds included Simbo, Vella Lavella, Choiseul, Kolombangara and Marovo.

Activity 21



- 1 What might be the advantages of teaching practical skills at the same time as spreading Christianity?
- 2 Why might people from other Pacific Islands be more successful as missionaries than Europeans?
- 3 Why do you think the traders helped the missionaries?

Seventh Day Adventist Mission

The Seventh Day Adventist Mission (SDA Mission) was invited to Solomon Islands by Australian trader Norman Wheatley (shown in Figure 1.13 on page 11) who had set up his business in Western Solomons. He became upset with the Methodist Church's control of nearly all business activities in Western Solomons. The church had bought land, set up plantations and become very successful in those early days.

Norman Wheatley became sick and was sent to Australia where he was admitted to the Sydney Adventist Hospital. He met Griffiths Francis Jones, who was the chaplain at the hospital. Jones was a missionary for the Seventh Day Adventist Church founded in America by a woman called Ellen G. White.

Wheatley asked Griffiths Jones to send another mission to Western Solomons to compete against the business monopoly of the Methodists. Wheatley gave the mission land at Viru.

The SDA Mission arrived at Marovo Lagoon, Western Solomons, in May 1914. Most of their activities in those days were centred in Viru and Marovo. They set up their headquarters in Sasagana on Marovo Island. In the early days, people referred to the mission as the **clean mission** because they banned pig meat

and betel nut. They also banned many local customs, including traditional songs and dances, which they said were the work of the devil. They taught people to dress in formal European style and follow European ways. In later years, the church became involved in health, education and business.

Activity 22



- 1 Who was the founder of the Seventh Day Adventist Church?
- 2 Who was the missionary who helped set up the SDA Mission in Western Solomons?
- 3 Why did Norman Wheatley invite the SDA Mission to Western Solomons?
- 4 Why did people call the SDA Mission a 'clean mission'?

Effects of Christian missions in Solomon Islands

The missions played an important role by introducing schools and clinics in many of our communities. The arrival of the missions forced many people to live in bigger communities. Most of our people moved down from the mountains and lived near the coast or the sea. This made government contact with the people easier. Many of our people converted to Christianity and had to give up old customs such as headhunting, payback killings, **cannibalism**, tribal fighting and many other customary practices.

However, many traditional customs remained because they were similar to those of Christianity: respecting our elders, sharing and cooperating with each other, valuing our extended family and worshipping our ancestors, which links with the worship of Christian saints. The whole idea of a god, or gods, with power over people was part of traditional

beliefs and meant that the Christian idea of God was not totally new. Some missionaries, especially the Anglicans and Catholics, tried to respect these valuable aspects of traditional culture. They even accepted traditional dances, songs and carvings, and included them in the church. Others, especially the SSEM and SDA Mission, taught that most aspects of traditional culture were evil and the work of the devil, and therefore had to be changed.

One of the most positive things the missionaries did was to show respect to our women in the villages. Our custom generally treated women as less important than men, but when Christian missions came they told our people that women must be respected and seen as equal to men. Today the belief that men are more important than women is slowly disappearing. There is also increasing support for the idea that men and women should be given equal opportunities and that women deserve equal respect.

3 Britain declares a protectorate over Solomon Islands

Today the government has replaced the missions in providing many services. Now let's look at how modern government came to Solomon Islands.

Britain believed that Solomon Islands did not have any valuable minerals that would allow them to make profits. This was one of the reasons Britain was slow to take over the islands as a colony, even though British traders and missionaries were already living in Solomon Islands. In 1893, however, Britain declared Solomon Islands a **protectorate**. This meant they would 'protect' Solomon Islands but not rule it directly as a full colony.

Even after this, the British government continued to maintain only loose control over the islands until 1896 when an acting Resident Commissioner, Charles Morris Woodford, was appointed to administer the protectorate. For many Solomon Islanders, the announcement of British protection did not mean anything.

Activity 23



- 1 Copy the table below into your exercise book. Fill in the positive and negative effects of the Christian missionaries on your home village.

Effects of Christianity and Christian missions

Good or positive effects	Bad or negative effects
?	?

- 2 What were two of the most important services provided by Christian missions to our people? Are these still as important as they used to be? What organisation has replaced the missions in the provision of many services?



Figure 1.27 Charles Morris Woodford, the first Solomon Islands Resident Commissioner

Agents of Change and Colonisation

Most of them did not know that the declaration was the beginning of a type of centralised and unified administration by a government.

Britain never intended to take over and rule the islands as a colony, although it had declared 'protection' over the islands. So why did it do this? One reason was that other European countries, namely France and Germany, had already taken over some parts of the region, including islands that eventually became part of Solomon Islands. Shortland Islands, Choiseul, Isabel and Ontong Java had already been taken over by Germany, and France was showing interest in New Hebrides (now Vanuatu). With colonies in Australia, New Zealand, Fiji and Papua New Guinea, Britain thought it was important to maintain control over all the sea routes leading to those areas, including the sea routes through Solomon Islands. They wanted to make sure that no other European countries would take over these sea routes.

The Europeans living in Solomon Islands also made formal requests to the British government to maintain law and order in the islands. European traders and missionaries wanted to ensure that they could carry out their work without any problems or attacks from islanders.

The blackbirding system was another factor that forced Britain to take action. There were complaints from missionaries that the system was unfair and islanders were sometimes badly treated. Islanders had also attacked a lot of innocent people, including some missionaries as we have seen, because they were angry with the blackbirders.

The protectorate was also a way for the British to control other activities in Solomon Islands that they regarded as bad, for example, headhunting and tribal fighting.

Finally, the need for raw materials was increasing in Europe due to the industrial revolution. It was important to own new land for new raw materials to supply to factories in Europe. Similarly, it was important to find new markets to which to sell the manufactured goods. One company, Levers, had its eye on Solomon Islands to grow coconuts for oil to make soap.

So from 1893 until 1978, Solomon Islands was ruled by Britain. The headquarters of the government was set up at Tulagi in Gela. In the next chapter you will learn about how they ruled and what changes they made.

Activity 24



- 1 When did Britain declare protection over Solomon Islands?
- 2 What is the difference between a 'protectorate' and a 'colony'?
- 3 List the main reasons Britain declared a protectorate over Solomon Islands.
- 4 How do you think Britain's declaration of a protectorate affected the local people?

CASE STUDY

Colonisation of India

As we saw at the beginning of the chapter, Europeans moved around the world mainly for trade and later took control of many areas of the world as colonies. The largest British colony of all was India, which originally included Pakistan and Bangladesh. We will now see that the colonisation of India was both similar to and different from that of Solomon Islands.

Activity 25



Use the map in Appendix 3 to answer the following questions.

- 1 In which continent is India? In which part of that continent is India located?
- 2 Name four countries that border India.
- 3 From 1500, Europeans were interested in trading with Asian countries, including the Spice Islands (East Indies). Why do you think India's location was important for Europeans to trade with Asia?

Arrival of outsiders in India

India is made up of people with many different customs, cultures and religions. The two main religious groups are Hindus and Moslems (people who follow Mohammed). For many years, the Indian people were ruled by outsiders, including people from other parts of Asia.

The first European explorer to reach India by sea was a Portuguese man named Vasco da Gama. In 1498, Vasco da Gama landed at a place called Calicut (now Kozhikode). Europeans went to India and Asia to look for spices and other raw materials, to claim new lands and to set up trade. As Indian people already had their own strong religions, missionaries had very little influence in India.



Figure 1.28 Modern India: under British rule, it also included neighbouring areas of Pakistan and Bangladesh



Figure 1.29 Portuguese explorer, Vasco da Gama

The Portuguese set up two new trading posts in Calicut and Goa. The competition for new territories between European nations made Britain and France join Portugal in dividing up India between themselves. The British later set up their trading posts in Surat, Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta. The French set up a trading post in Pondicherry.

In 1600, Britain set up the **British East India Company**. By 1690, the company had set up key settlements in Madras, Bombay and Calcutta. The company wanted to take control of the whole of India, so in 1756 Britain formed a small army to attack French troops in India. The war between the two countries lasted until 1761, when the British defeated the French. The British East India Company took over all French territories in India, and the company officials ruled India until 1857.

The real aim of the company was trade, especially in spices, but they thought they could trade better if they actually ruled the country. They even formed a small army of British officials and Indian soldiers to help them rule.

Activity 26



- 1 What are the two main religions in India?
- 2 Why do you think Britain and France fought over who should colonise India?
- 3 What were the main reasons for the colonisation of:
 - a India
 - b Solomon Islands?
- 4 How did the British rule India?
- 5 Suggest similarities and differences in the way Britain took control of India and Solomon Islands and the reasons they took control.

The Indian mutiny of 1857

Many Indians did not want to be ruled by Britain, as they had their own cultures, traditions, religions and governments.

In 1857, Indians challenged the foreigners and the changes they were introducing. An Indian mutiny or uprising broke out within the army. There were a number of factors that led to this. Local Indian soldiers were upset by rumours that the cartridges or bullets used in war were greased with cow and pig fats before use. Moslems regarded pigs as unclean while Hindus saw cows as sacred animals. Many Indian soldiers, therefore, felt cross or humiliated that their religious beliefs were not being respected by the company.

Other reports showed that many of these Indian soldiers were not happy with high land taxes placed on their people. There was a fear that the British East India Company officials were trying to convert Indian soldiers to Christianity. Many Hindu Indians thought that the **caste** rules of their religion, which divides people into strict groups who do not mix together, were not being observed. A good example of the caste rules was that people of different castes were now allowed to eat together. In addition, many Indians were annoyed that the company was sending local soldiers overseas to fight.



Figure 1.30 An etching of an Indian mutiny of 1857

Finally, the mutiny was a sign that many of the new ideas and changes that were introduced by Britain were seen by Indians as destroying their culture and religion. The company was able to bring the revolt under control, but it helped to: change British administration over India, mark the beginning of Indians' desire for independence and bring Indian people together.

Direct and indirect British rule

The British government took over the rule of India from the British East India Company after the uprising. India was divided into two types of areas. The regions that were owned by the company were under Britain's **direct rule**. Other areas were under **indirect rule**—Indian princes were allowed to rule them, but under the control of the British.

Britain introduced new laws that were carried out by a new and more effective police force, and introduced land reforms. Taxes were paid directly to the government. The new railway transport system allowed many Indians to move around easily. Indians were now encouraged to go to European types of schools, learn western ideas and use the English language.



Figure 1.31 The British indirectly ruled some areas of India. The Indian prince shown here, sitting in the centre right, is allowed to rule, but under the control of the British officials also shown here.

Western education helped to make everyone equal. After completing their education, people had to find work either in towns or cities to pay their taxes. India had once been a self-sufficient society, but it was now dependent on outsiders.

Activity 27



- 1 Explain one similarity and two differences in the way the British colonised India and Solomon Islands.
- 2 What is the difference between direct and indirect rule over India?
- 3 The last sentence of the case study says: 'India had once been a self-sufficient society, but it was now dependent on outsiders'.
 - a What does it mean? Give examples.
 - b Is it true in Solomon Islands also? Explain your answer.
- 4 Can you describe any examples in Solomon Islands where people have resisted outside influence because it was destroying their customs and culture?

Have you achieved your goals?

Look back at your goals at the beginning of the chapter. Check whether you have achieved each goal.

- Have you gained knowledge and understanding of each of the topics in the goals?
- Can you use each of the skills mentioned in the goals?
- Have you formed your own ideas and opinions about the topics in the chapter?
- Write a brief summary of not more than one page of what you have learnt in this chapter.

Glossary

agents of change groups of people who came to Solomon Islands from outside and caused changes to take place in the way people lived

blackbirders name given to the people who recruited people either by force or by contracts to work as labourers on plantations in Australia, Fiji and Samoa

British East India Company the British trading company which ruled India from 1757–1857

cannibalism the killing of people in order to eat their flesh

castaways people who are stranded in a foreign place because their ship is wrecked or because they are thrown off their ship

caste a group of people born to do particular jobs and regarded as inferior or superior to other groups and not able to change

catechist a person trained to preach Christianity

clean mission name given to the SDA Mission because they banned pig meat and betel nut and emphasised health and education

colonisation the process of setting up colonies

colony a country or area ruled by people from another country

direct rule ruling a place directly using people from the ruling country

explorers people who go to other parts of the world looking for places they have never visited before

first impressions the first ideas people have of other people or new things

indenture an agreement signed between a worker and an employer for a certain time

indentured labourers people who went to

Queensland or elsewhere under contract to work on plantations

indirect rule ruling a place by using local people including chiefs or kings

labour recruiters people who persuaded Islanders, sometimes by force, to go to work in Queensland and elsewhere as indentured labourers.

missionaries people who go to another country to persuade people to believe in and join a new religion, especially Christianity

mutiny to rebel or refuse to work or cooperate, especially among navy or army people

passage masters local people who persuaded people to go to work on overseas plantations and handed them over to foreign ships

practical Christianity Christianity based on teaching useful or practical skills at the same time as Christianity

protectorate a country or area looked after by another country

Queensland Kanaka Mission a Christian mission set up in Queensland to convert Melanesian and Polynesian labourers to Christianity

recruiting agents ships' captains who came to force or persuade people to go to work on the overseas plantations

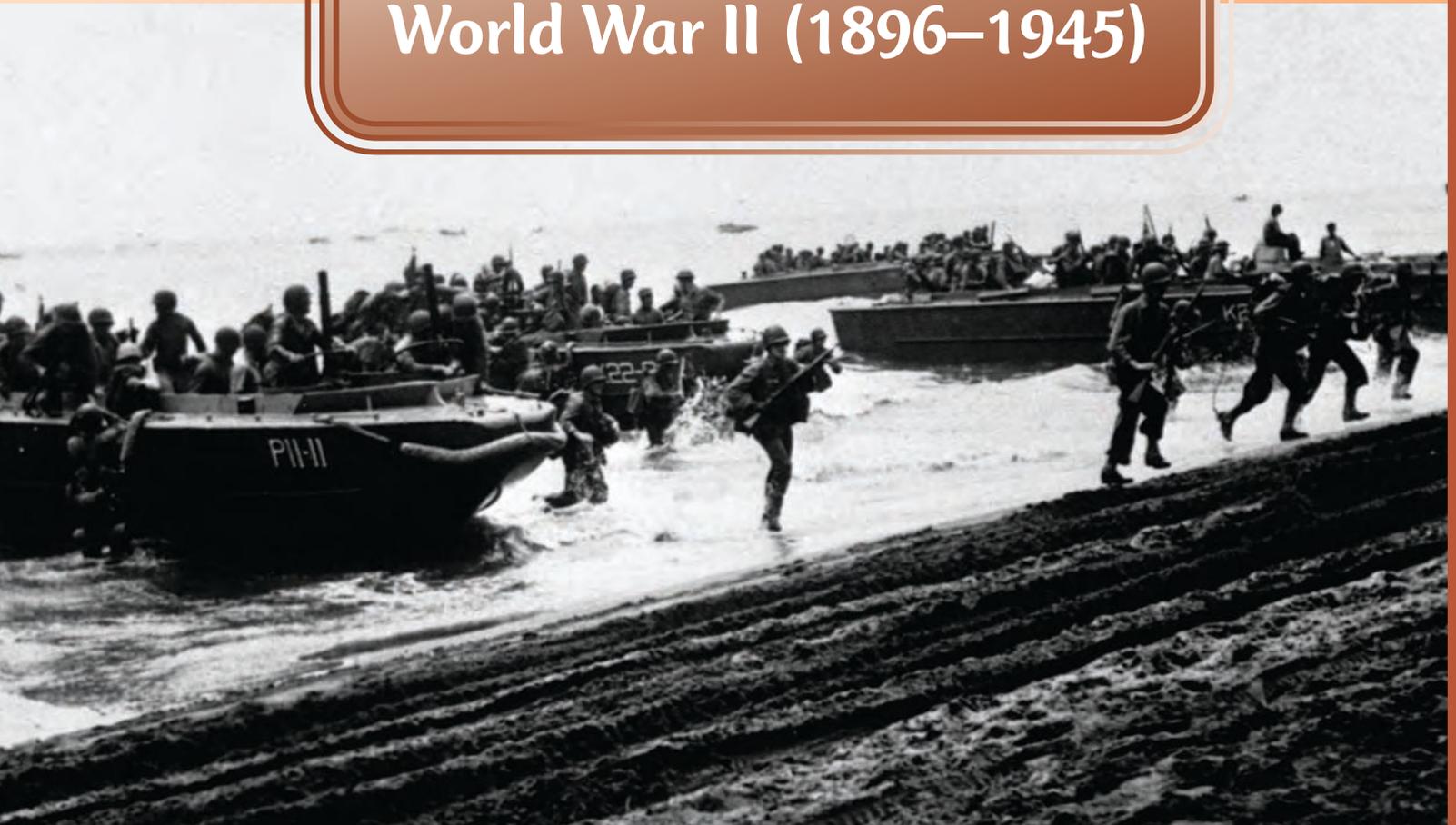
slave trade a trade involving taking people by force and making them work without pay, and regarding people as property that you can buy and sell

Terra Australis the land of the south; the first name given to Australia by Europeans

trading posts a place where trade takes place

Chapter 2

The Protectorate and World War II (1896–1945)



My goals:

- to know who established the protectorate, how it was established and how it was ruled
- to understand the good and bad effects of the protectorate on the lives of Solomon Islanders
- to understand why some people were unhappy with some aspects of the protectorate and what this led to
- to know who fought in World War II and the places Japan took over and then retreated from
- to understand why World War II was fought
- to understand the importance of Solomon Islands and Guadalcanal in World War II
- to plot on maps the advance and retreat of Japan during World War II
- to appreciate the role and importance of Solomon Islanders in World War II
- to understand the effects of World War II on Solomon Islands

In Chapter 1 you learnt about the different agents of change that came to Solomon Islands. Each had different reasons for coming. Some had great impacts on Solomon Islands' society, while others had little impact. Some of these changes were positive or good while many had negative or bad impacts on the people and their way of life.

Activity 1



Before going through this chapter, test your knowledge of the last chapter by answering the following questions.

- 1 List the different agents of change you learned about in the last chapter.
- 2 Choose any two of the agents of change. For each one, describe two impacts or effects the agents had that you can still see in Solomon Islands today.
- 3 Some agents of change introduced metal tools. What positive effects do you think metal tools had? How did this improve people's lives?
- 4 What bad effects were brought about by new metal weapons?
- 5 If metal tools made work easier, the people had more time to do other things. Describe what you think people may have done in this extra time.
- 6 Who do you think would have more extra time as a result of the introduction of metal tools: men or women? Explain your answer.



Figure 2.1 This is a group of missionaries outside a church. Missionaries were agents of change.

1 The protectorate before World War II

Declaration of the protectorate

By 1893, there were about 50 Europeans in Solomon Islands. Six were with the Melanesian Mission, and the rest were involved in commercial activities as traders and planters. As you saw in the last chapter, there were times when these Europeans were attacked by the local people, especially when they thought the new arrivals might have been involved with the blackbirders.



Figure 2.2 A sailing ship, c. 1890s

The British had already taken over Fiji as a colony by signing a treaty with the chiefs. They set up a High Commission in Fiji to look after the whole Western Pacific region. Through regular communications from trading boats and sailing ships, the High Commissioner for the Western Pacific was made aware of the problems in Solomon Islands.

As you learnt in Chapter 1, the High Commissioner thought that law and order must be established, to protect the traders and missionaries, and to stop headhunting and fighting, which had increased due to the introduction of new weapons.

Another reason for establishing control was the actions of other European countries. Germany had already claimed part of the area we now call Solomon Islands. This included the Shortland Islands, Choiseul, Santa Isabel and Ontong Java. France was also showing interest in the area. Although the name Solomon Islands had been used since Mendana, each island—and even parts of each island—was still separate. There was no single country called Solomon Islands.

With its Australian colony nearby and the need to expand its territories for raw materials and markets for its industries, Britain had good reasons to protect the islands. Therefore, in 1893, Britain declared a **protectorate** over most of the islands now known as Solomon Islands, except those already occupied by Germany. A protectorate meant protection from being taken over by other countries, protection for the people from outsiders, such as blackbirders, and protection from each other by stopping headhunting and tribal fighting. Rennell, Bellona, Sikaiana and the area we now call Temotu, were not yet included. However, despite Solomon Islands becoming a protectorate, there was still no British government. The protectorate was still looked after by the High Commissioner in Fiji.

Activity 2



- 1 Give reasons why the High Commissioner saw the need to establish some kind of control in Solomon Islands.
- 2 Using the Pacific Basin Map in Appendix 2 and the scale given, measure how far it is from Fiji to Solomon Islands.
- 3 What direction would you need to travel to go from:
 - a Solomon Islands to Fiji
 - b Fiji to Solomon Islands?
- 4 What were the main means of transportation to the Solomon Islands in the 1890s?
- 5 In the 1890s, was there any country called Solomon Islands? Explain your answer.
- 6 How far is it from Solomon Islands to the closest part of Australia? Why would Britain, which had settled and controlled Australia, want to make sure no other countries took control of the Solomon Islands area?

The colonial government—1896

Finally, in 1896 the British decided to establish an actual government in Solomon Islands and Charles Morris Woodford, a naturalist, became the first **Resident Commissioner**. With two other Europeans and eight Fijian policemen, Woodford arrived in Solomon Islands and established his headquarters in Tulagi on the island of Florida (Nggella). Although the British continued to call Solomon Islands a protectorate, it was really a form of colonial government as they took complete control of the islands.

In 1897, Sikaiana, Rennell and Bellona Islands were included in the protectorate. In 1898, Eastern Outer Islands (now Temotu) became part of the protectorate. In 1899, the German part of Solomon Islands was handed over to the British in exchange for Samoa, which was then ruled by Britain.

Activity 3



- 1 Your teacher may give you a blank map of Solomon Islands or you can trace the map in Appendix 1 to show the history of colonisation.
 - a Use one colour to shade the islands which became part of the protectorate in 1893.
 - b Use another colour for the islands taken over in 1897 and 1898.
 - c Use a third colour for Shortland Islands, Choiseul, Santa Isabel and Ontong Java—the islands that Britain took over from Germany in 1899.
- 2 In what three ways did Britain plan to protect Solomon Islands? What is the difference between a protectorate and a colony? Do you think Solomon Islands was really a protectorate or a colony?

The protectorate or colonial government and its impact

The British Government took over Solomon Islands on the understanding that they would pay for their own administration. Commissioner Woodford had to find ways to raise money or **revenue** for the government. Taxes on traders would help, but Woodford saw the development of plantations as the only possible solution. To do this, labour and land had to be provided, and for that it was necessary to make Solomon Islands peaceful.

With the scattered nature of Solomon Islands societies and the limited resources of the colonial government, bringing peace was slow. To solve this problem, the **colonial government** recruited Solomon Islanders, traders, planters and even missionaries to assist the small number of police.

Peace had its price for Solomon Islanders. It completely changed much of our social, political and economic activities.

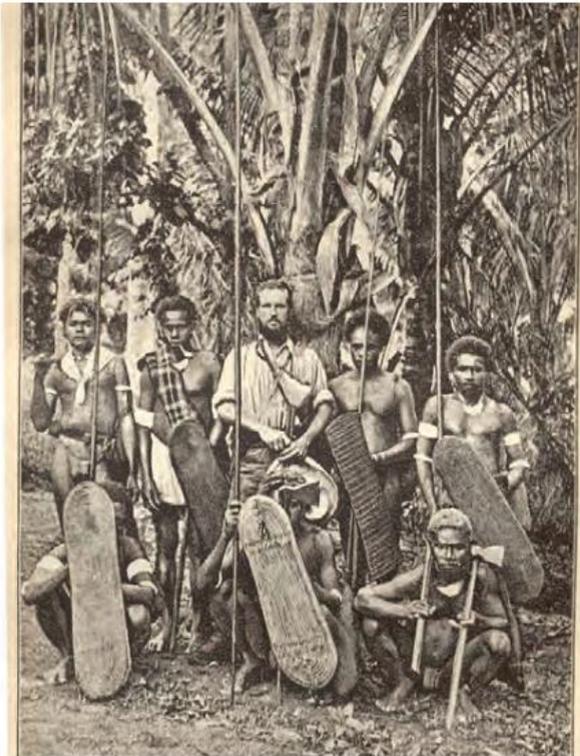


Figure 2.3 C.M. Woodford, the first Resident Commissioner



Figure 2.4 A coconut plantation: Woodford raised money by encouraging plantations.

Activity 4



Imagine you were living at the time of the early protectorate. Briefly describe the changes that you think probably happened in the social, political and economic systems as a result of bringing peace to the islands. Think of changes to the way people lived; their economic activities including farming, fishing and hunting; their traditional systems of government; the position and power of chiefs; and the traditional role of men as warriors and defenders of the community.

In 1896, the traders were the only source of revenue from within Solomon Islands. Woodford had to expand activities to earn money in the islands. Therefore, he encouraged overseas developers to invest in plantations by finding ways to give them land to use. First, to assist the planters, Woodford had to bring peace.

Activity 5



- 1 Briefly explain why Commissioner Woodford saw the development of plantations as the best solution to his financial problems.
- 2 What three important things had to be available to create an economic activity to raise money for the government?
- 3 Do you think Solomon Islands was suitable for large-scale plantations? Give your reasons.

Positive impacts of colonial government

With the declaration of a protectorate over Solomon Islands, law, order and peace slowly came to the Islands. Fighting, warfare, raiding and headhunting stopped as a result of the force of law and order brought by the colonial government and the missionaries.

Many Solomon Islanders were introduced to commercial activities involving cash crop farming, mainly of coconuts. This gave them money to buy goods from traders.

With peace, lack of enemies and better transport, people moved around much more. There was an increase in the number of villages and settlements along the coast and along the roads. Hygiene, sanitation and water supplies all improved and the population began to increase.



Figure 2.5 A coastal village early last century

Activity 6



- 1 List the main positive or good changes that happened to the people of Solomon Islands as a result of the protectorate.
- 2 Suggest other positive changes that happened as a result of peace.
- 3 Think about your own village, town, island or province, then list anything you have seen or experienced that was originally brought by the British colonial government.

Negative or bad impacts of colonial government

To enforce law and order and bring peace to the islands, Woodford sometimes used force as he had limited resources. He sent warships with big guns to attack and destroy villages if he found out that the people in the villages were taking part in headhunting or were fighting with their neighbours. These were called punitive expeditions because they punished people. People's livelihoods, villages and food gardens were destroyed, especially in Roviana and the west. This was the colonial government's policy 'to tame the frontier'.



Figure 2.6 Villages were destroyed in the name of peace, law and order.

Activity 7

Was it right for the British to use force to stop headhunting and fighting and bring peace? Discuss in groups.



The process of **pacification**, or bringing peace, and establishing modern government also had negative impacts on people's lives, and Solomon Islands' societies. It meant the loss of power by traditional leaders, and it destroyed many traditional sources of wealth for big-men. For instance, in Guadalcanal the big-men used *cheka*—making money by selling unwanted people as slaves to other Solomon Islanders.

In Malaita young men used to make money by being employed to kill people's enemies. This is how the **ramos** warriors gained power and money. These things were stopped and many traditional leaders and big-men looked for other ways to make money. Some started to sell their land to Europeans to get money.

At the same time the British put a **head tax** on all Solomon Islanders. Every man over 18 had to pay the tax once a year. The British knew that most Solomon Islanders did not have any means of finding money for this, so this was a way of forcing them to go to work on plantations or to grow cash crops, which the British wanted to encourage. Again some chiefs or big-men sold customary land to get money to pay taxes. But the land was owned by the clan or tribe and should not have been sold by the chief. Also this meant chiefs lost power, as their power came partly from their control of land.

The British also wanted land to rent to European plantation owners so that the owners would grow coconuts and the British could tax them. One way Woodford did this was by passing the **Waste Land Ordinance** law. This law said that any land not used, occupied or owned by 'native' people could be taken away by the government as **Crown land**—that is, owned by the Queen (or in those days the King) who wears a crown. It could then be rented to plantation owners.

However, it was not clear which land was not occupied or owned. Solomon Islanders needed land for shifting cultivation, timber and bush materials, traditional medicine, hunting and other uses. Woodford often ignored this and said that any land that people were not actually using could be taken as Crown land. He also saw that many people were dying as a result of diseases like measles, introduced by the Europeans, and he said Melanesians would



Figure 2.7 A big-man

eventually die out. Huge amounts of land were taken away as he believed that the ‘natives’ would never need it.

The leadership role of the big-men and chiefs was weakened when peace came. They were traditionally warriors who defended their communities, but now there was less for them to do. Sometimes the British replaced the big-men or chiefs with headmen, appointed by the British, to organise the community and enforce law and order. They also appointed British or Australian District Commissioners to look after each area and hold courts to enforce the new laws. Then big-men and chiefs lost almost all of their power.

The British laws were considered foreign as they were not based on the values and customs of Melanesians. These laws further undermined the power and status of the traditional leaders.



Figure 2.8 British District Commissioner at work

Activity 8



- 1 Read the information on pages 32–4, then answer the questions below.
 - a List the negative impacts that colonial government caused for Solomon Islands’ people and societies.
 - b Decide whether each impact you listed in question a is a social impact, a political impact, or an economic impact.
- 2 Divide into groups and discuss whether each of the following actions by the colonial government was right or wrong and good or bad for Solomon Islanders. Give reasons for your answers:
 - stopping headhunting
 - stopping tribal fighting
 - not allowing *Ramos* to kill people for money
 - forcing people to pay a ‘head tax’
 - persuading people to grow coconuts as cash crops
 - taking away land as ‘waste land’
 - appointing headmen to look after law and order
 - persuading people to work on plantations.
- 3 Hold a debate or discussion to decide whether the arrival of British colonial government was good or bad for Solomon Islands.

Solomon Islanders' experiences of colonial government

As far as the wellbeing of Solomon Islanders was concerned, the British government appeared to have no real goals. The colonial government seemed mainly concerned with discouraging and punishing those who disobeyed and broke the new laws they had put in place.

The government provided Solomon Islanders with some form of protection by controlling the actions of European blackbirders, traders and planters. However, they did little to promote the wellbeing of Solomon Islanders themselves. Education and medical care were left largely to the missionaries to look after.

The Europeans believed they were more 'civilised' because they thought their own customs and behavior were more 'civilised' and because they had more complex technology and machines. They didn't realise that Solomon Islanders had their own customs and ways of behaving, which were 'civilised' in a different way. Further, many of Solomon Islands' societies had more complex social relationships between people in the community, such as how to behave towards relatives. So in terms of relationships, some people would say that Solomon Islanders were more 'civilised'. However, it was very difficult for most Europeans to wipe out the thinking that Solomon Islanders were low or inferior, so they expected the locals to obey their orders and do what they were told without question. This way of thinking made Europeans believe that they were the 'masters' and there was nothing wrong with treating Solomon Islanders badly, as the following extract shows. It was written by Jonathan Fifi'i of Malaita who worked on a plantation. His book *From Pig Theft to Parliament* may be in your library.

Activity 9



Using the text on page 34 and the extract below, answer the following questions:

- 1 List and describe the ways Solomon Islanders were treated by the plantation owners.
- 2 Why do you think Solomon Islanders in those days rarely protested against such treatment?
- 3 Why do you think there were no labour laws like there are today to protect workers against their employers?
- 4 Do you think that some people today, including some Solomon Islanders, treat people in the way the plantation owners used to treat people?

Extract: *From Pig Theft to Parliament*

The white people were not kind to the black people while they were working. They saw blacks as inferior. Black people couldn't say 'yes' to the white men. Only 'yes, sir'. A black person couldn't sit on the ground when he talked to a white man. If a white man arrived, and he wanted to talk to a black man there, the black person would have to stand up and then they would talk. The white man arrived and would say, 'Stand up!' After the black man had stood up, then they would talk.

In the early morning when the men had left the barracks (dormitories), a white man would come and he would look inside all of the houses. If you were sleeping soundly and hadn't gotten up to work yet, he would take a bucket and fill it full of water, and then he would dump all the water on you there in your bed. White people were hitting black people all the time. If they wanted to beat up some man, they would lure him into a house, lock the door, and then beat him.

Or sometimes, they would tell him to dig a hole. When he had dug the hole about waist deep, they would start to beat him. They really beat them badly! They beat some men

unconscious. They would hit some men, and kick them, and punch them, until they passed out, and only later would they come to. These people were misused, and they were badly off under these plantation people.

And something else, no black man was allowed to hold any kind of important position, or to help plan anything with the white people. No.

Jonathan Fifi'i of Malaita, Solomon Islands



Figure 2.9 Jonathan Fifi'i

Due to this kind of treatment on plantations, some Solomon Islanders began to develop negative ideas about Europeans. In addition, there was also the head tax, which forced Solomon Islanders to work on the plantations or grow cash crops to find money to pay the tax. Many felt that the government was not providing any services, such as health or education, in return for the head tax people had to pay. Even under various Resident Commissioners after Woodford—Kane, Ashley and Marchant—the British government had no real purpose beyond keeping order and trying



Figure 2.10 Workers on a plantation

to see that the islanders had fair treatment, although, as we have seen, this did not always include their treatment on plantations.

The government did not have the resources to do more, although many of the District Officers, the British officials who ruled the country, took their jobs seriously. Besides stopping fighting, they tried to improve the cleanliness of the villages and the health of the people. However, the protectorate government didn't have the influence of the Christian missions and the government appeared to be happy to leave things to the missionaries.

These experiences resulted in the beginning of **nationalism** in some Solomon Islanders—a demand for change in the way the British ruled the islands, and a cry for political change so they could have a say in ruling themselves.

Activity 10



In groups, discuss the following:

- 1 What do you think 'nationalism' means?
- 2 Why did people dislike the head tax?
- 3 Is there still a feeling today that the government does not always provide enough services.

The killing of Mr Bell

One of the first signs that some Solomon Islanders were not happy with the way they were being treated by the British occurred at Sinarangu in East Kwaio, Malaita, in 1927. Mr Bell, an Australian working for the British as District Commissioner for Malaita, had the job of collecting head taxes from villages. Some Kwaio big-men or chiefs did not like the head tax, or the way they were treated as inferiors by Mr Bell. They also knew Mr Bell had plans to take away their rifles.

When Mr Bell visited Sinarangu in 1926, one of the Kwaio men from the bush, Basiana, told him he didn't have enough money to pay his tax, but would bring an extra shilling the next day. That night he took a valuable shell from his ancestors and filed and polished it so it was the same size and shape as a British shilling. Mr Bell accepted it but swore at Basiana and told him not to do it next time. This made Basiana very cross and, together with other *ramos* or warriors, he worked out a plan to kill Mr Bell the next time he visited. On Mr Bell's next visit they joined the queue to pay the tax, but when they reached Mr Bell, Basiana struck him over the head with the end of his rifle and killed him. They also killed his assistant, although not before he had shot some of the Kwaio as well.



Figure 2.11 Mr Bell

When the British heard of this they sent policemen, including some from other parts of Malaita and Western Solomons, to punish the Kwaio by destroying their villages and killing many people. Eventually Basiana surrendered to stop further killing. He was tried by a British court for murder and punished by the British method of hanging—he was hung by the neck and died.

Activity 11



- 1 In groups make up and act out a role-play based on the story of Basiana and Mr Bell.
- 2 Do you think Basiana was right to kill Mr Bell? Give reasons for your answer.
- 3 Do you think the British were right to punish the Kwaio? Give reasons for your answer.

The Fallows Movement

Another movement against the British government was started by a British person—an Anglican priest, Reverend Richard Fallows—who thought the government was treating Solomon Islanders badly. It was called the Fallows Movement and also known as 'Chair and Rule'.

Fallows had served as an Anglican priest mainly in Isabel, and also in other parts of Solomon Islands. He was in the country long enough to see how the local people were treated by the colonial administration. He started the movement in the 1930s in Isabel, first by presenting a petition, or list of demands signed by many people, asking the government to provide better education and health services to the local people. The petition claimed that the British administration had neglected the needs of rural people for a long time. It also claimed that the Anglican Church, the main provider of education in the area, had failed.

The movement asked for the establishment of a 'Native Parliament' to discuss problems and prepare demands to put to the British administration. As the movement spread, other new demands were included.

The Fallows Movement gained wide support in the neighbouring communities. It then spread to other parts of the country, most notably the central Solomons where it had many followers. However, it was successfully stopped by the colonial government—as Reverend Fallows was British, the government deported or sent him back to Britain.

Activity 12



- 1 Why do you think it was easier for a British person to start a movement against the British government than for Solomon Islanders?
- 2 Why do you think it was hard for the movement to continue after Fallows left?

Not long after the Fallows Movement, Solomon Islands was suddenly affected by a powerful force from outside the islands: World War II. Solomon Islands was attacked and partly occupied by the Japanese between 1942 and 1945. World War II marked the end of one period in the history of our people and the way Solomon Islanders viewed themselves and their place in the world. When the war came most of the government officials, missionaries, traders and plantation owners ran away to Australia. They left many Solomon Islanders who had worked for them in government or on the plantations not knowing how to get home. This changed many people's attitudes towards Europeans. They realised that Europeans were not as powerful as they had thought. They could be afraid and run away too, as we will see in the next section.

2 The origin of World War II: Asia and the Pacific

Activity 13



- 1 From stories you have heard, pictures you have seen, or any books you have read, describe in your own words what a world war is.
- 2 List and describe anything you see around your school, village, island or province that reminds you that Solomon Islands was affected by World War II.
- 3 Why do you think this was called World War II?

The rise of Japan in Asia

World War II actually began in Europe in 1939. It was fought between Germany—led by a dictator called Adolf Hitler—and an alliance of European countries, led by Britain, France and Russia, alongside the United States and Australia. In 1941 Japan entered the war alongside Germany, and Asia and the Pacific became involved. To understand the origin of the Pacific War, you need to look at the following questions:

- Why did the war start?
- Where did it start?
- Who started the war?

Activity 14



To follow the story of the war in the Pacific as described below, trace a map of South and East Asia and the Pacific using Appendix 3. Locate and name Japan, China, Manchuria, Indochina (now Vietnam, Laos, Cambodia and Thailand), Malaysia, Indonesia, Burma, India, the Philippines, Hawaii, Papua New Guinea and Solomon Islands.

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On the map you drew, compare the size of Japan with Papua New Guinea. They are about the same size, but Papua New Guinea's population is about 6 million and Japan's is about 120 million. Both populations were smaller before World War II, but Japan already had a very large population in a small area and it was short of land to grow food, and short of raw materials such as coal and iron ore. To solve its problems, Japan developed big industries, using coal and iron, to make goods and sell them to other countries to buy food and raw materials. However, things grew bad for Japan after 1929. All over the world there was a period called the **Great Depression**, when most trade between countries declined or stopped. Japan exported manufactured goods, especially electrical goods and silk, to the USA but they stopped buying the goods.

Activity 15



- 1 Why was Japan short of land for farming?
- 2 How did Japan get food?
- 3 What is coal and what is it used for?
- 4 What is iron ore and what is it used for?
- 5 What is silk and how it is made?

As a result, half of Japan's factories had closed by 1931. Japan could not get the food and raw materials it needed by trade. The quickest way out was to conquer foreign lands by war. This would give Japan the goods it needed, allowing it to increase its trade.

This was the reason Japan invaded Manchuria, a part of China, and took full control of it in 1931: Manchuria had coal and iron ore. No other countries stopped this, so Japan invaded the rest of China in 1937.

The USA was worried by Japan's expansion, so from 1931 it began cutting exports of goods



Figure 2.12 An example of Japanese industry before World War II

that Japan might use to make war. In July 1941, the USA stopped all shipments of oil to Japan. Japan faced disaster—without oil its trade would come to a standstill or stop. There was plenty of oil in South-East Asia, and General Tojo, a military leader who became Prime Minister of Japan in October 1941, decided that Japan should take it over. Japan invaded Indochina (now known as Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia) and was prepared to attack Malaysia, Indonesia and the Philippines for their raw materials and food like oil, rubber and rice.

Activity 16



- 1 Suggest why the USA wanted to stop Japan from taking over the rest of South and East Asia.
- 2 List the kinds of things the USA was probably selling to Japan that might be used for war.
- 3 Why do you think the new Prime Minister of Japan was likely to go to war?
- 4 In this period, Japan was sometimes called a 'militaristic' nation. What do you think this means?



Figure 2.13 The advance of Japan during World War II

The Pacific War: Pearl Harbour

The USA had the power to stop Japan's advances into South-East Asia, but before the USA could act, Japan launched a surprise attack on Pearl Harbour, the USA's main naval and military base in Hawaii. On 7 December 1941, 400 Japanese bombers flew across the Pacific and attacked the American ships and planes in the harbour to try to destroy American power. They smashed 18 warships. This made the USA declare war on Japan. They still had some ships left and decided to attack the areas Japan had occupied to try to prevent them from taking over more areas of Asia and the Pacific.

Japan and USA in the Pacific

Before the USA could recover, Japan went on to invade and capture the Philippines, which was ruled by America; the Dutch East Indies (now Indonesia), which was rich in oil; Malaya, which had rubber for making tyres and other things; Burma, which was the route to India, ruled by the British; Singapore, which was the

main British army and navy base in Asia; and Papua New Guinea, which was the 'gateway' to Australia. Japan also took over many islands in the Pacific ruled by the USA and Britain, including the Mariana Islands, Caroline Islands and Marshall Islands.

By 1942, the Japanese were bombing Darwin in northern Australia, and they even sent submarines into Sydney Harbour. Their next target was Solomon Islands.



Figure 2.14 The attack on Pearl Harbour

Activity 17



- 1 To summarise the Japanese attacks, copy and complete the table below.

Countries	Why was it invaded?
Philippines	?
Dutch East Indies (Indonesia)	?
Malaya (Malaysia)	?
Burma	?
Singapore	?
Papua New Guinea	?
Mariana, Caroline, and Marshall islands	?
Solomon Islands	?

- 2 What is meant by saying that Papua New Guinea was the 'gateway' to Australia?
- 3 Why do you think that Solomon Islands was the next Japanese target?



Figure 2.15 War in the Pacific

War in Solomon Islands

Activity 18



- As you read pages 40–3, note the dates and use them to draw a timeline of the war in Solomon Islands.

USA and the Allies fight back

The USA and **the Allies**, which included Britain, Australia and New Zealand, were at a great disadvantage in trying to stop and reverse the Japanese advance. They were also trying to defeat Germany in Europe and North Africa, and most of their men and best equipment were concentrated there. Even Australia had sent many men to fight in Europe and North Africa.

Japan had already conquered large areas of South-East Asia and the Pacific, so it was difficult to know where to attack them. Also, the Japanese fought with very great courage and would rather die than surrender. The USA and its allies realised that the control of the Pacific, including Solomon Islands, would be the key to success.

After the Japanese landed on Papua New Guinea, they established their main base in Rabaul. For two months in early 1942, they used this to plan attacks on Solomon Islands and then Australia. They then began bombing Tulagi in preparation for the advance. The Resident Commissioner ordered Tulagi to be evacuated and most of the Europeans left for Australia. They knew they could not defend Solomon Islands. Some Europeans, including the Resident Commissioner himself and missionaries like Charles Fox, went to the hills of Malaita for safety. A group of European and part-European people, including Bill Bennett, helped by Solomon Islanders, hid from the Japanese and become **coastwatchers** to spy on the Japanese and report their movements to the American forces.

With nothing standing against them, the Japanese advanced very quickly. They passed from Rabaul to Bougainville to the Shortland Islands in March 1942, then to New Georgia, Choiseul, Isabel and Tulagi, and finally to Guadalcanal in May 1942.

The Japanese began building a big airfield. They established a civil government, introduced Japanese money, and proposed laws for Solomon Islanders. They even opened schools in places. They began to replace the British as colonial rulers.

The Japanese were certain that Solomon Islands was theirs. Next, they planned to advance to New Hebrides (Vanuatu), Fiji, and New Zealand to cut off Australia from its neighbours.

Activity 19



- 1 Why did the Japanese bomb Tulagi first?
- 2 Why did they mainly occupy Western Solomons?
- 3 Why do you think they built an airfield on Guadalcanal?
- 4 What three things did the Japanese do besides building the airfield?
- 5 In what ways was Japan's occupation similar to Britain's and in what ways was it different?
- 6 Imagine you were a Solomon Islander in one of the areas occupied by Japan. Would you have cooperated with the Japanese? Give reasons for your answer.

Guadalcanal, 1942

The Americans had made a gradual recovery after Pearl Harbour. In the Pacific they got help from Fijians and other Pacific Islander soldiers as well as Australia and New Zealand. After the Japanese had occupied Solomon Islands for three months, an American Marine



Figure 2.16 The Allies landing on Guadalcanal in 1942

Division of soldiers arrived in ships and landed on Guadalcanal at Red Beach, near what is now Tenaru, on 7 August 1942. After intense bombing and fierce fighting, the marines seized the Japanese-built airfield. Another American division captured the Japanese strongholds at Tulagi and Gavutu on Gela.

The American landing on Guadalcanal was very important in the control of the sea in the Pacific and in the whole history of World War II. It was in Solomon Islands that the Japanese were held, turned back, and at last driven back towards Japan. This was really the turning point of the war in the Pacific. Until Guadalcanal, the Japanese had been continually advancing. Now they were being pushed back.

The fight for Guadalcanal

The Americans' fight to hold onto Guadalcanal lasted for more than six months. Approximately 80 000 men were involved in these battles, 30 000 of whom were Japanese. On the American side there were the Americans themselves, Australians, New Zealanders and even some British who had not fled. As many people helped the Americans as allies, fighting on the same side, the whole group is often called the Allies. There were also people from

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the Philippines who had settled in America, particularly Hawaii, and people from other Pacific island countries including Gilbertese, Fijians and Maoris. The fighting took place on land and sea as well as in the air. In the fight on land, Solomon Islanders played an important part, and the lives of people on Guadalcanal were greatly affected.

At sea a series of battles were fought around Guadalcanal. The most important was the Battle of Savo Island, fought around Savo just two days after the Americans landed at Red Beach. The Japanese made a surprise attack. The battle only lasted an hour but the Japanese sank three American ships and one Australian ship. Over 1000 American sailors and soldiers were killed and more than 700 injured—a fearful price! Later there were other naval battles between ships when the Japanese tried to reclaim Guadalcanal and the airfield, but did not succeed. So many ships were sunk and still remain on the sea bed just north of Guadalcanal that this area has since been called ‘Iron Bottom Sound’, because it is full of iron ships. There is still serious danger of oil leaking from the sunken ships and causing pollution.

While the naval battles were being fought, the American Marines, backed by soldiers from the



Figure 2.18 November 1942—Solomon Islanders carrying ammunition with Colonel Carlson’s 2nd Marine Raiders’ patrol. Vouza and 250 Solomon Islanders accompanied the Raiders for the entire 30 days of the patrol.

other countries, fought their way through the forests and swamps of Guadalcanal and learned the tricks of jungle warfare. Some of the fiercest fighting took place around Lunga, at a place now called Bloody Ridge on one side, and Mount Austin on the other side. Finally, the Japanese were pushed west beyond Visale and were forced to withdraw from Guadalcanal at a point near the present Selwyn College. They did not withdraw from Solomon Islands entirely, but established air bases at Munda and Vila in the west.

Western Province

By the end of 1942, the airfields on Guadalcanal and Tulagi were both in American hands, but the Americans were still threatened by the Japanese airfields in the west. They planned to capture Munda airfield. The first step was to occupy Russell Islands, and on 21 February 1943 the American Marines landed there and started to attack Munda. The battle for Munda airfield went from April to August 1943, when it was finally captured. Some Americans who later became famous fought in Western Solomons, including John Kennedy and Richard Nixon—both of whom later became President.



Figure 2.17 American soldiers on Guadalcanal in 1942

After Munda the marines landed on Vella Lavella on the way to capture Vila airfield on Kolombangara. Finally on 15 September 1943 the Japanese commander, General Sasaki, was ordered to evacuate his remaining forces of 12 400 men from Kolombangara and the Americans captured Vila. This eventually forced the Japanese to withdraw from Bougainville, Rabaul and the whole of Papua New Guinea.

The struggle for control of Solomon Islands was an important turning point in the Pacific War against Japan, but more than 5600 Americans died in Western Solomons.

Guadalcanal remained a major American base and staging centre for the northern advance of Allied forces during the rest of the war, pushing the Japanese slowly back to Japan. Finally in 1945 the Japanese lost all the lands they had conquered. They surrendered after the Americans dropped two **atomic bombs**—very powerful new weapons—and completely destroyed two Japanese cities in a few seconds.

For most Solomon Islanders, World War II lasted less than two years, but the effect this had on the people and the country was very great.



Figure 2.19 Solomon Islander scouts

Activity 20



- 1 Using Appendix 1, trace a map of Solomon Islands. Mark the stages of the Japanese defeat and withdrawal from Solomon Islands by using arrows and putting dates against each arrow.
- 2 Explain the importance of these events:
 - a the invasion of Tulagi
 - b the landing on Red Beach
 - c the capture of the airfield on Guadalcanal
 - d the Battle of Savo
 - e the Battle of Guadalcanal
 - f the capture of Vila airfield.
- 3 Complete one of these two options:
 - a Imagine you were a Solomon Islander living during World War II. Write an imaginary story of the effect the war had on you. Mention what you saw, what you did, what you thought of the Americans and Japanese, how they treated you and what new things you learnt during the war.
 - b Imagine you were living in a village somewhere in Solomon Islands during World War II. One day you saw a plane shot down near your village. When you went to see it you found the pilot, either American or Japanese, was still alive. Write the story of what you did.

World War II: Role of Solomon Islanders

Many Solomon Islanders took part in the war. Some helped the Japanese, others helped the Americans and Allies. As the Americans won the war, those who helped the Japanese have been forgotten or may have been ashamed to say so after the war. Some who helped the Japanese were even punished by the British later.

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However, it is true that more people helped the Americans and the Allies as they tended to be more friendly, and they spoke English, which the Solomon Islanders knew a little. The Japanese were more difficult to communicate with, because they did not speak English and they sometimes treated Solomon Islanders badly. During the war, the Americans took the place of the British. Although the British did not always treat Solomon Islanders well, many Solomon Islanders felt they should support the British and their American allies rather than the Japanese who they knew nothing about.

Without the help of Solomon Islanders, the Allies would have found it much more difficult to defeat the Japanese. Solomon Islanders helped the allies in three very important ways: as **scouts**, coastwatchers and labourers.

As scouts they spied on the Japanese and found out information, which they passed on to the Allies about where the Japanese were and what their plans were. They could do this by being friendly with and even helping the Japanese, who did not regard them as enemies, but then reporting back to the Allies. Messages were passed from one village to another over great distances very quickly. This information allowed the Allies to know where the Japanese bases were so they could attack them. Some scouts fought with the Allies. Scouts also rescued allied pilots who were shot down or sailors whose ships were sunk in Japanese areas and helped them to return to the allied areas. John Kennedy, who later became President of the USA, was rescued by Solomon Islanders near Gizo after his boat the *PT-109* was sunk. The island they took him to is still called Kennedy Island.

The coastwatchers controlled the work of the scouts. They organised rescues of allied soldiers and helped to plan attacks on the Japanese. They sent information from the scouts to the

Allies by radio and contacted each other by radio as far as Bougainville. This information once helped the Allies to defeat a new attack on the airfield on Guadalcanal. Two important coastwatchers were Bill Bennett, a man from Isabel who was part British, and Geoffrey Kuper from Santa Anna, who was part German.

Others joined the **Labour Corps**. They helped the Allies as cooks, cleaners and gardeners in their camps, and also carried the heavy, 100-kilogram radios of the coastwatchers. The gardeners planted crops for food for the Allies, scouts and coastwatchers. They also planted crops across the paths leading to the hideouts of the coastwatchers so the Japanese would not find them.

In doing these jobs Solomon Islanders risked their lives. If they were caught by the Japanese they could be tortured or killed. Annie Kwai, who has done research into these stories, says that without the work of Solomon Islanders the Japanese might have held on to Solomon Islands or recaptured it, thus altering the result of the war and changing history.



Figure 2.20 Labour Corps



Figure 2.21 American soldiers and Solomon Islanders

Activity 21



- 1 What is the name of the famous Solomon Islander who helped the Allies? His statue is outside the Police Headquarters at Rove.
- 2 Imagine you helped the Allies during World War II as a scout, coastwatcher or labourer. Write a story about 'How I helped the Allies'.

Bruno Nana's story

One man who helped both the Japanese and the Allies was the late Bruno Nana, who you learnt about in Chapter 1 of the Year 7 learner's book. We used his story as an example of oral history because he could tell us what happened to him in World War II, and as an example of written history because his daughter has written a book about him. Unfortunately, Bruno died just after the Year 7 learner's book was written. The following is based on the book written by his daughter.

When the Japanese came to Guadalcanal, Bruno was a strong young man, about 15 years old. He lived at Tanavasa, just west of Honiara. After the Japanese landed on Guadalcanal in 1941, Bruno volunteered to help the Japanese as a carrier, to carry heavy equipment, and cook. Like many others he was offered rewards of knives, axes, and gardening and household tools which he really wanted. He did not know then that there was a war on and the Japanese were fighting the Americans. Bruno went in a boat to the Japanese base at Lunga. He helped unload food and supplies from ships and dig the runway for the new airstrip at what is now Henderson.

On 6 August 1942 Bruno and his friends were out working away from the base. They were warned that there was a war on and that the Americans would land next day to chase the Japanese out of Guadalcanal. They did not know what would happen, so they left to walk back to Tanavasa. When the people at Tanavasa heard about the war they decided to run away to an area of forest inland from Mamara where they might be safe.

At dawn the next day Bruno climbed a high hill and saw and heard the Americans firing guns from the sea towards Lunga and the Japanese firing back. Suddenly an American plane was shot and crashed inland from Kakabona. In the afternoon Bruno and two others decided to go and check their village at Tanavasa. Just before the village they were shocked to see a wounded American airman sitting on the beach. He spoke to them in broken English, which they could understand as they spoke Pijin. He said his name was Jacob and his plane had been shot down. He was badly wounded in both legs, his clothes were burnt and he still had a bullet in his left thigh. They carried him to Bruno's parent's house and gave him kumara and eggs.

Jacob told them the Americans had taken over the Japanese base at Lunga and asked them to take him to the hospital there, now occupied by the Americans. Bruno was not afraid and persuaded his two friends to help the pilot. They put him in a big canoe and started to paddle to Lunga. They set out at 4 a.m. to arrive before dawn. At 6 a.m. they were at Rove and signalled for the villagers to help them. However, they did not realise that the villagers had run away and the place was occupied by Japanese, who saw the American soldier in the canoe. Since no villagers came they went on to Jiljae, now called Ranandi, where the Americans now had a base. The Americans were very grateful, put the pilot in hospital and gave Bruno and his friends some food and other things as a reward.

They started for home but when they reached Mataniko they went ashore and an American asked them to go and see a British coastwatcher in west Guadalcanal and fetch a letter. This meant they were now definitely working for the Americans.

They continued home but beyond Mataniko the area was still controlled by Japanese and they shot at the three and forced them to come ashore. They were held at gunpoint and accused of helping the Americans. The Japanese could not prove this, but that night they tied the men up so they could not run away. They were questioned again the next day and made up a story to show they were innocent but were tied up again that night. When they asked for water a soldier urinated in a tin and gave it to them. Bruno accepted it and drank and reminded the others that Jesus had been given the same thing on the cross. That night the rope broke and Bruno said it was a miracle because of their faith in God.

They escaped and ran away back to Tanavasa and on into the bush where everyone was hiding. Later Bruno went to Tangarare where a Catholic priest and two Americans asked him to come with them as a scout. He went back to Lunga and became a scout helping the Americans searching for Japanese in Guadalcanal. He helped them until the Japanese left Guadalcanal in 1943. After the war both sides—the Americans and the Japanese—often visited Bruno and respected him. The Japanese built a memorial site on his land at Tanavasa. On the fiftieth anniversary of the landing on Guadalcanal, he was awarded a medal for bravery by the Americans.

Based on *Bruno Nana: A Guadalcanal Scout during World War 2*, story told by Bruno Nana; written by Paula Aruhuri



Figure 2.22 Bruno Nana just before he died in 2012

Activity 22



- 1 In groups, act out the story of any part of Bruno's adventures during World War II.
- 2 Try to find out other stories from old people in your area who were involved in the war. Are there any stories of:
 - pilots or marines being rescued during the war
 - planes crashing
 - local Solomon Islanders working with or escaping from the Japanese
 - villages being affected by the war
 - people whose fathers were American soldiers, or soldiers from countries like the Philippines who fought with the Americans?

Write down these stories or tell them to the class.

- 3 Ask questions or interview people who may have heard, known or read about of the effects of World War II on Solomon Islands. Write a report on what you find out.
- 4 Try to find a book in your library called *The Big Death*. It tells many stories of Solomon Islanders involved in World War II.

World War II experiences

During the war, the relationships between islanders and Europeans went against the unequal 'master-servant' relationship that had previously existed. The attitudes the islanders had developed about Europeans—that they were 'superior' or somehow better than Solomon Islanders—changed forever.

Barriers and boundaries that existed between the colonial 'masters' and islanders were no longer there. The Europeans' position as *masta* was questioned, and their status would never be the same.

Activity 23



Read the following extracts about Solomon Islanders' friendly meetings with American soldiers, then answer these questions.

- 1 How did World War II change Solomon Islanders' attitudes that Europeans were superior?
- 2 Using the extracts, describe in your own words some of the experiences of Solomon Islanders during World War II that changed their ideas about white people.
- 3 What benefits did Solomon Islanders gain from the presence of American soldiers during World War II?

Extract 1

They invited us inside (their tents), and when we were inside, we could sit on their beds. We got inside and they gave us their glasses so we could drink out of them too. They gave us plates and we ate with their spoons. That was the first we had seen of that kind of thing. We talked about it like this. 'Those people like the British and the whites before, it was terrible because they were not kind to us! These people here are really nice to us. We can all sit on one bed, and we all eat together.'

We saw black soldiers there, and they all wore shirts, and they wore trousers. And their job was to work just like the white soldiers. Even we worked with the white soldiers...they were really great people! Any kind of things that the whites did, they could do it too. They knew how to do carpentry, and they knew how to write. And they were the people we worked together with.

Jonathan Fifi'i of Malaita

Extract 2

The flight of the people sometimes took place in torrential rain, or cold... The hunger was terrible and in some places one taro had to be sufficient for five or six people's appetites. The children often cried and nursing mothers wept because they were suckling babies.

Peter Buck of New Georgia, Solomon Islands

Extract 3

We worked very hard... The steamers and warships were constantly coming and going... we went out to work lifting bombs and military cargo onto big trucks. There were so many trucks. You had to look carefully when you went around...

We worked building wharves on the beach so the landing craft could come and open their 'mouths', at which point we would go and unload them. We became so absorbed with the work that we did not know which day was Sunday or which one was Saturday. Every week was just like the one before. Every day was just the same. We had no time to rest. We just worked. But the guns were constantly firing... We were so afraid, we could not sleep at night.

Isaac Gafu, Malaita, former member of Solomon Islands Labour Corps, Guadalcanal

Extract 4

The demand by American Marine and Army soldiers for such things as sea shell carvings, walking sticks, grass skirts, combs and so on resulted in even people my age concentrating on making or finding something to sell. I was fourteen years old in 1942–1943 and actively involved in making walking-sticks, combs and grass skirts.

Sir Frederick Osifelo of Malaita, Solomon Islands

Extract 5

Isaac Gafu, a laborer from Malaita working on Guadalcanal, remembers vividly the food given out by American troops:

...you ate until you could not eat anymore so you threw the food away. When the boxes would break open and food would fall out all over the place... the Americans said, 'You all eat these things. This is our food. Let's all eat while we are all still alive'.

Isaac Gafu of Malaita, Solomon Islands



Figure 2.23 American soldiers and Solomon Islanders during World War II

Activity 24



Form groups. Half of each group can role-play being Americans and the other half Solomon Islanders. Act out a story of what happens when the two groups meet each other.

The development of Solomon Islands

During World War II, Solomon Islanders were caught in a war fought by different countries and of no real concern to them. It was not only those who helped with the war who were affected. Many men left their villages to join the Labour Corps. Their absence caused hardship and cases of near starvation, as the workforce for making new gardens decreased. Food gardens were also destroyed and war disruptions resulted in failure of crops, such as sweet potatoes. Schools, clinics, transport links, government services and trade were in some cases disrupted, and in some places came to a standstill. In some areas of Guadalcanal people just ran away into the bush to avoid the fighting.

However, after World War II, Solomon Islands was to emerge and build up again. Many things used during the war were destroyed by the American themselves before they left, or by the British government, or were buried or thrown into the sea so the Solomon Islanders could not use them. However, many things left behind such as roads, buildings, equipment, bridges, airfields and wharves benefited Solomon Islanders. The new capital, Honiara, was built with many of these things.

The war also left behind in many areas unexploded bombs, shells, mines and so on. Some killed or injured people and every year more are discovered and have to be made safe or blown up by experts.



Figure 2.24 World War II wreckage on Guadalcanal

Have you achieved your goals?

Look back at your goals at the beginning of the chapter. Check whether you have achieved each goal.

- Have you gained knowledge and understanding of each of the topics in the goals?
- Can you use each of the skills mentioned in the goals?
- Have you formed your own ideas and opinions about the topics in the chapter?
- Write a brief summary of not more than one page of what you have learnt in this chapter.

Activity 25

Describe any relics of World War II you know or have seen.



Glossary

alien foreign, from another place

atomic bomb a huge bomb, based on nuclear technology or splitting the atom, which can destroy a big city

coastwatcher a person left behind to spy on the Japanese when the British left Solomon Islands in World War II

colonial government a government ruling an area or people from a different country

Crown land land controlled by the government; called Crown land because the official head of state or head of government is the Queen, who wears a crown

frontier the boundary or edge of a country

Great Depression a period in the 1930s when trade between countries went down, factories closed and many people were unemployed

head tax a government tax which all people in a country must pay

invade to take over a place by force

Labour Corps a group of Solomon Islanders recruited to work for the Americans and Allies during World War II

labourers people who work mainly with their hands

masta the Pijin word for master, used to describe white people who ruled Solomon Islands during colonial times

nationalism the idea that your own country is important and you should be allowed to rule yourself

pacification the bringing of peace

petition a written document demanding certain things and signed by many people

protectorate a country or area looked after by another country

ramo a Malaitan warrior

Resident Commissioner the man sent by the British to rule a place

revenue money for the government

scouts Solomon Islanders who helped the Allies during world War II

the Allies the group of countries which fought against Germany and Japan in World War II

volunteered to do something willingly without pay

Waste Land Ordinance a law which says that all land not used or occupied belongs to the government

Chapter 3

The Road to Political Independence (1945–78)

My goals:

- to know the main events in Solomon Islands between World War II and independence, including the protest movements, the stages in the development of responsible government and the negotiations for independence
- to understand why protest movements occurred in Solomon Islands in this period
- to understand why and how Britain slowly gave more responsibility to Solomon Islanders
- to be able to draw a timeline to show the development of responsible government
- to appreciate that the protest movements were signs of increasing self-confidence of Solomon Islanders and a desire to have their own identity
- to know that not all countries gained independence as peacefully as Solomon Islands

World War II ended in 1945. Solomon Islands gained its **political independence** from Britain on 7 July 1978. The 33 years between 1945 and 1978 is known as the pre-independence period. Although this period was brief, many things occurred that played a big part in Solomon Islands becoming an independent state and nation. This chapter looks at the political events and developments that occurred during that time. This includes the formation of political movements, the development of modern government and the challenges and supports such changes received.

Activity 1



With the help of the introductory paragraph above and your own knowledge, answer the following questions:

- 1 What is meant by being ‘independent’?
- 2 In what way was Solomon Islands not independent between 1893 and 1978?
- 3 Was Solomon Islands (or the area we now call Solomon Islands) independent before 1893?
- 4 Why do you think that many Solomon Islanders began to ask for independence between 1945 and 1978?
- 5 What experiences of Solomon Islanders during the periods of colonial rule and World War II led them to desire independence? Think of what you read in Chapter 2.

1 Impacts of World War II on Solomon Islands

World War II greatly affected the way Solomon Islanders lived and thought about

their lives and their relationships with the colonial government. However, there are two other important things that came out of these experiences.

The first is that the war resulted in a change in Britain’s policy towards its colonies and protectorates like Solomon Islands. Britain changed its ideas on ruling other countries. Before World War II, for example, Mahatma Gandhi in India, also ruled by Britain, led a struggle to persuade Britain that Indians could rule themselves. He did this peacefully and after World War II many people in Britain agreed with his ideas and India was given independence. Other countries in Africa, such as Ghana, then demanded the same thing and Britain agreed to eventually give independence to all countries ‘when they were ready for it’.

Britain’s economy was affected by the war, which had cost a lot of money and destroyed many of its profitable industries. Many people’s homes had been destroyed by bombing. Therefore Britain didn’t have enough money to rule countries like Solomon Islands that did not produce an income. However, Britain did not believe that Solomon Islanders were ‘ready’ to rule themselves, which made some Solomon Islanders unhappy as they began to believe they were ready to rule themselves.

Activity 2



- 1 From what you know of the days of your fathers and grandfathers, do you think it is true that in those days Solomon Islanders were ‘not yet ready to rule themselves’ in the modern world?
- 2 In what ways were they ‘not yet ready’?

World War II changed Solomon Islanders' views or ideas of the colonial administration, of Europeans and of themselves. They had gained confidence in themselves by what they had done in World War II and the contacts and relationships they now had with the Americans.



Figure 3.1 Government officials carry Prime Minister Kwame Nkrumah after Ghana gains its independence from Great Britain.



Figure 3.2 Solomon Islands Labour Corps

Activity 3



Below is an extract from the book *From Pig Theft to Parliament* by Jonathan Fifi'i on Solomon Islanders' experiences of World War II. Jonathan Fifi'i was one of the people we learnt about in the last chapter who worked for the American army in the Labour Corps. Some British people who lived in Solomon Islands before the war also helped the Labour Corps. Read the passage and think about the writer's experiences. Then answer the following questions.

- 1 According to Fifi'i, how were the locals treated during the war by the British and by the Americans?
- 2 What was the work of the Labour Corps?
- 3 Were these experiences different to the contacts Solomon Islanders had with the Europeans before the war?
- 4 In your opinion, do you think the locals were mistreated by the British?
- 5 What were the main differences between the way the British had treated Solomon Islanders and the way the Americans treated them?
- 6 Have you read or heard of similar stories that you could share with the class?

Extract: A Solomon Islander's experiences of World War II

We were in a strange situation. We had signed up for the Solomon Islands Labour Corps. The officers of the Labour Corps were white men who had been our plantation bosses before the war—the men we hated, and the men who despised us.

There, we Solomon Islanders were still being treated like dirt. We weren't being allowed to wear long trousers, or to wear shirts, when we went off to work. We just had to wear our khaki *laplaps* (*lavalavas*). Those of us who were Sergeants and Corporals tied torn strips of cloth around our arms, and they painted

our chevrons (stripes) on them. The three stripes of a Sergeant, or the two stripes of a Corporal, were just painted on. We tied them on like the customary armbands we wear. But when the others put their armbands on, with their stripes, I didn't want to wear mine. I'd been given a shirt, and I got a set of chevrons (stripes) and sewed them on it. But the officer in command of us tore off the chevrons, and then the shirt. Only whites were supposed to wear shirts, not us 'natives'!

With the Americans, it wasn't the same at all. The Americans worked, and we worked too. We did the same work together. They showed us how to use the tools or do the work. That was the first time we'd ever seen white people do physical work. Before the war, the white people we'd seen had just sat down and watched us do the work. They'd just sit in an office, and have some foreman boss us around.

When we'd be digging a hole, or a ditch, the Americans would be next to us with shovels and picks in their hands, too. We saw those American soldiers working, and sweating, and we said, 'These white people aren't proud. We get sweaty and dirty, and they get sweaty and dirty too. We carry cargo, and they carry cargo. These white people aren't afraid to work.'

When it came to eating, the Americans would ask us to come and eat with them. 'Just bring your plates and have some food with us'. They weren't disgusted by sharing food with us. When it came time to eat, the American soldiers called us to join them. They'd say, 'Here's a plate for you. Here's your spoon'. We'd never seen anything like that. White people had never shared their food with us before. They'd never let us eat with them. Why hadn't the British ever shared food with us? Why hadn't they ever treated us like fellow human beings?

Our own 'officers', the ones who were supposed to be commanding us, had been planters in the Solomons before the war. They saw that these awful things were happening. When they saw us eating with the Americans, they lined us up at the end of the day. 'It's not right for you to eat with those white men. You have to eat by yourselves. You have to take your own saucepan and your own rice, and go off and cook it and eat it by yourselves. You're not supposed to mix with them when they're eating.'

One of the things that really made us start to think about the way we were treated was seeing all the soldiers from around the world with coloured skin. The war brought soldiers from everywhere to the Solomons. Australian soldiers came; New Zealand soldiers came. The American soldiers came. Lots of white soldiers. The Negro soldiers, among the Americans, were black. The Gilbertese and the Ellice Islanders were brown. So were the Maori, and the Filipinos. The Papuans and New Guineas were black, the same as us. We saw them all and we were surprised that there were so many coloured people from so many different places. 'Hey, there are people like us, who've come with the army!' What I had started to reflect on was this. First of all, their uniforms were the same as the white people's. Second, they had the same ranks as everyone else. Some of them were Sergeants. Some of them were Lieutenants. Some of them were Majors. Third, their salaries were the same as everyone else's. Fourth, their food rations were the same as everyone else's. The fifth thing was that their living was the same as everyone else's. We saw the other black people, and they looked like they were doing well. They were living well, wearing proper clothes, they were well paid.

Source: *From Pig Theft to Parliament*
by Jonathan Fifi'i

2 Local political movements

Due to Solomon Islanders' experiences during the war, they began to oppose colonial or outside rule. Solomon Islanders were no longer afraid to challenge orders of the colonial administration. They opposed the administration's **centralisation policy** of all orders coming from the British. This opposition led to the formation of several **local political movements** that demanded local or indigenous leadership and control instead of European rule.

In this section we are going to look at three local political movements that formed to challenge the colonial administration's policies and rules. You will remember we learnt about one such movement in the last chapter.

Activity 4

Suggest reasons why the experiences of Solomon Islanders during the war led to the formation of political movements that demanded that they should rule themselves rather than outside powers.



The Ma'asina Ruru Movement

Ma'asina Ruru was the most widespread of all the political movements in Solomon Islands. It covered a large area and had great impacts as well. The word *Ma'asina* comes from 'Are'Are language and it means brotherhood. *Ruru* comes from the English word 'rule'. Ma'asina Ruru means rule by brothers, emphasising that all Malaitans and even other Solomon Islanders are brothers.

Ma'asina Ruru was formed in Malaita in 1945, just when the battle on Guadalcanal was about to end. The people who started Ma'asina Ruru



Figure 3.3 Aliko Nono'ohimae

included Nori and Aliko Nono'ohimae and later Timothy George, who you met in the first chapter of the Year 7 Social Studies book. Timothy George was one of those taken to Australia by the blackbirders and who returned and spread Pijin. The spread of Pijin meant all Malaitans could communicate with each other and people from other islands, despite speaking different languages. It helped Malaitans to feel like brothers and create the idea of *ma'asina*. These people all had contacts with the American soldiers during the war, and their experiences gave them the will to challenge the policies of the colonial administration.

Ma'asina Ruru was against the colonial administration's policy of centralised British rule from Tulagi. It wanted development to spread to other areas and to be controlled by local people. It wanted communities to rule themselves through traditional chiefs or big-men chosen by consensus or by inheritance or hereditary rule, rather than being ruled by headmen appointed by the British. This meant going back to the old ways. They also wanted to return to important cultural practices, such as the punishment of adultery.

The Road to Political Independence (1945–78)

To show their opposition to the government, supporters of Ma'asina Ruru refused to pay taxes and refused to return to work on the British plantations. A Tikopian, Robert Fakafu, told of how he went to Kwaio, near Sinarangu with the manager of Levers, Mr Palmer, to recruit labourers to re-start the plantations after the war. The Kwaio people refused to come on board and said they would attack the ship if they took anyone away to work, so they had to return to Russell Islands with no labourers.

This put the British in a difficult position as their policy was to pay for the government of Solomon Islands from local taxes and taxes on coconuts exported from the plantations. The leaders of Ma'asina Ruru knew how to attack the British, but in a peaceful way like Gandhi had done in India.

They were also very well organised. Like Gandhi, they wanted to prove to the British that they could rule themselves, so they divided Malaita into nine districts, each ruled by a chief, independent of the British government. So that the British couldn't attack them easily, they moved many people down to the coast where they formed big villages with good defences. There they ruled themselves according to Malaitan customs, started schools and collected their own taxes independently of the government. They even had their own flag.

From Malaita they sent ambassadors or representatives to other areas to spread their ideas and soon they had spread to Ulawa, Guadalcanal, Marau, Isabel, Makira, Ngella and parts of the Western Solomons. This helped Solomon Islanders to unite and think about how people of different cultures and language groups could join together. The idea of **wantok** began to spread from those who speak your language to all Solomon Islanders.

The British did try to negotiate with them but they stood firm and eventually the British



Figure 3.4 Arrival of the British Governor-General in Solomon Islands in 1952—it was the British system ruled by the Governor-General that the local political movements fought against.

arrested all nine chiefs and put them in prison in Gizo, far away from Malaita. The chiefs, however, had already arranged for people to take over from them if they were arrested, so the movement continued and the colonial government didn't know what to do.

Luckily when news reached London, the headquarters of the colonial government in England, the British had already started on their policy of giving independence to their colonies, so they decided to negotiate again. They sent someone to ask the chiefs what they wanted. The chiefs said they did not want complete independence but wanted a say in ruling themselves. They also wanted to be respected and not treated badly by Europeans, and they wanted some benefits from the taxes they paid to the government. The government should provide education and health services, and not leave these to the missions.

The British negotiator agreed to most of these demands. He agreed that they would create a Malaita Council to rule Malaita with representatives elected by the people. This would be the first local council allowed by the British. He also agreed to open a school on Malaita and to increase health and other



Figure 3.5 Ma'asina Ruru flag

services in exchange for the taxes people paid. The chiefs were released, taken back to Malaita and shown the site where the new school would be built at Aligegeo. The school would be called King George the Sixth, after the British king. Soon after this, the new Malaita council was elected and later local elected councils were created in other areas. As we will see in the next section, the British also gradually began to increase the appointment and then election of Solomon Islanders to the national government.

Activity 5



- 1 Imagine you were one of the leaders of Ma'asina Ruru. Write a letter to the British government stating the aims of Ma'asina Ruru, what you want the British government to do and what you intend to do to force them to give you what you want.
- 2 Divide into groups and role-play the negotiations between the Malaita chiefs and the British representative in Gizo.
- 3 What three demands of the Ma'asina Ruru movement were agreed to by the British?
- 4 What factors helped Ma'asina Ruru to succeed in getting what they wanted? Think of both what they did and the attitudes of the British government.
- 5 Do you think Ma'asina Ruru would have succeeded if Pijin had not been spread by those who returned from Queensland.



Figure 3.6 Ma'asina Ruru armband

The Belamatanga Movement

In 1947 another movement, known as the Society for the Development of Native Races, was formed. This time it gained its origin in the Ndi-Nggai region of western Guadalcanal. After just one year it covered almost the whole area of western Guadalcanal. The movement was started by Mathew Belamatanga, thus the movement was commonly known as the Belamatanga Movement.

Coming from Guadalcanal, Belamatanga was trained at a Roman Catholic mission. During World War II, he developed a special relationship with the Americans, who taught him basic arithmetic and geography. These American soldiers continued to send Belamatanga political books even after the war.

Belamatanga liked the things that he learnt. In particular, he was impressed with the principles of the United Nations Charter, namely freedom from want and fear and freedom of religion and speech. These things were the basis on which he formed the movement.

The Belamatanga Movement pushed for economic development and formal education for everyone. It also wanted to see local participation in the running of their affairs. The main aim was to have representation on the **Advisory Council** of the protectorate.



Figure 3.7 Mathew Belamatanga

Belamatanga took advantage of people's belief that the Americans would attract people to support their movement. He also used threats to force people to follow the movement. He and other leaders were arrested and imprisoned.

Later, however, he was released and was elected to the **Legislative Assembly**, which replaced the Advisory Council, and was in the delegation that finally negotiated independence from Britain.

Activity 6

In your workbook, list the similarities and differences between the Belamatanga Movement and the Ma'asina Ruru Movement.



The Moro Movement

The Moro Movement was formed in 1957 by Pelise Moro, the son of a local big-man in Makaruka village on the Weather Coast of Guadalcanal. Moro said that while sick in hospital he'd had a vision that told him how to lead his people. This made him very popular with the local people.

The Moro Movement started as a result of the local people's dissatisfaction with the

central government. The local people felt that they were often neglected because they were far away on the Weather Coast. They were disappointed that little was done to develop or provide services in their area. The Moro Movement was also opposed to the domination of the Marau 'Are'Are people, who had originally come from Malaita, in the Marau-Hauba Council in Moli district.

The movement was partly based on the revival of old customs and preservation of indigenous culture and environment. Moro said people should not follow European customs. He told them to live in traditional houses and to wear traditional bark cloth *kabilatos*. However, Moro also established modern businesses in an attempt to become self-sufficient and independent of the colonial administration.



Figure 3.8 The Moro movement in the 1970s, wearing traditional dress

Activity 7

For each of the political movements above, complete this table in your exercise book.



Political movements	Founders	Aims	Areas covered	Impacts	Colonial government's responses
Ma'asina Ruru	?	?	?	?	?
Belamatanga	?	?	?	?	?
Moro	?	?	?	?	?



Figure 3.9 The late Pelise Moro (standing on right) in 1984 at a traditional ceremony

He established a custom company that looked after the development of a communal coconut plantation, pig-farming and gold-mining. It also bought outboard motors and fibreglass canoes and even taxis to operate in Honiara. Unfortunately the company failed because of poor management.

The Moro Movement attracted a large following throughout Moli, southern Mbirao and Koloula River and Viso districts. Although its company failed, its influence forced the colonial administration and council to pay more attention to the area. Shipping services were provided and roads were built including the road from Marau to Kuma.



Figure 3.10 A compensation ceremony in Moro's area in 1984

The Moro Movement lasted the longest of any movement. It enjoyed increased support again during the period of Tension, long after independence in 2000, which you will learn about later. This was perhaps because it was limited to one area and did not directly threaten the government or its policies.

Activity 8



Based on what you learnt in Year 7, how were communities organised and governed before European contact? Who were the leaders and how were they chosen? Using your community as an example, discuss these questions with your classmates.

Activity 9



Copy the following table and fill it in as you read the next sections. This will give you a summary of the development of modern government in Solomon Islands.

Dates	Name of governing body	Person in charge of government	Number of members			
			Appointed		Elected	
			Expatriates	Solomon Islanders	Expatriates	Solomon Islanders

3 Development of modern government

The ideas on which modern systems of government are based were not originally Solomon Islands' ideas. They were brought to Solomon Islands by the British.

Before the British came, Solomon Islands consisted of many small communities, each with their own leaders and government. Some smaller islands, like Bellona or Sikaiana, had one system of government. Most islands had many different systems, and there were no leaders or government that ruled more than one island. The British wanted to join all these areas under one government. At first they appointed leaders or rulers from Britain itself. The British also started appointing Solomon Islanders as headmen and local government officials. Slowly some Solomon Islanders began to gain respect outside their own areas. The story of these changes is told below.

From protectorate to independence

Even before the end of World War II in 1945, a system of government had been developed by

the British, and they had already made gradual changes to it. The diagrams and passages below explain the development of the government system from the start of the protectorate until independence.

Diagram key

People appointed (chosen) by the government

- Appointed expatriates (people from Britain)
- Appointed Solomon Islanders

People elected by voting

- Elected expatriates (people from Britain)
- Elected Solomon Islanders

Stage 1: Start of British protectorate (1893–1921)

As we have seen, the British Government declared a protectorate over Solomon Islands, which meant they decided to rule the area. At first the British **High Commissioner** in Fiji looked after the area and then Woodford was appointed **Resident Commissioner**. Solomon Islanders had no say in the modern government, but still governed themselves in their own communities. The Resident Commissioner ruled with his assistant until 1921.

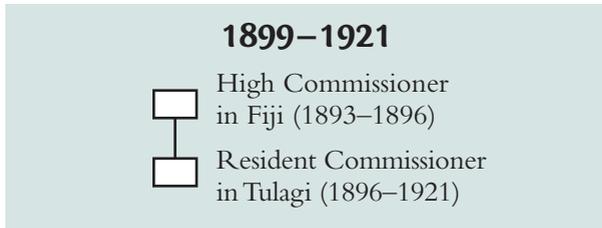


Figure 3.11 British protectorate

Stage 2: Advisory Council (1927–60)

An Advisory Council of four appointed British people was set up in 1921 to advise the Resident Commissioner on how to run the country. Later the numbers increased to seven, all appointed expatriates. Of course from 1942 to 1945 there was no British government, but in 1945 the old system was re-started.

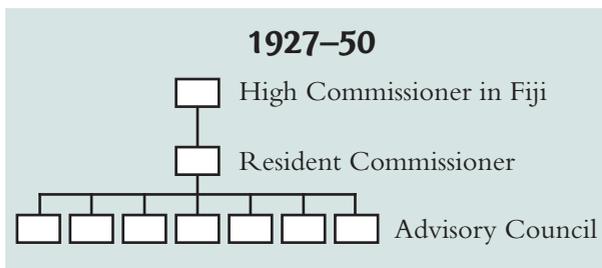


Figure 3.12 Advisory Council

In 1950, after the negotiations with Ma’asina Ruru, four Solomon Islanders were appointed to the Advisory Council. This was the first time Solomon Islanders had been allowed to have a say in their own government.

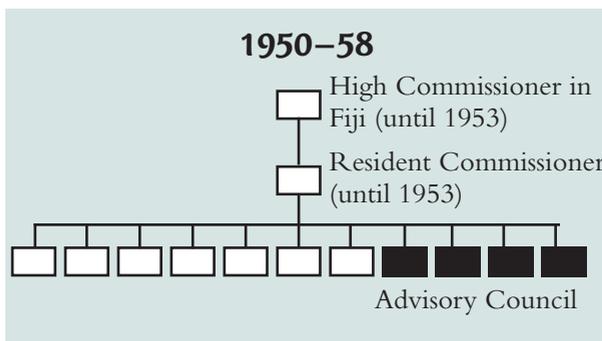


Figure 3.13 Advisory Council

In 1953 the High Commissioner moved from Fiji to Honiara in Solomon Islands, which had become the headquarters of the government after World War II in 1946. After the war the British decided that Tulagi, which was on a small island, was too small. Also, the Americans had left a lot of buildings, roads, a hospital and other things around Honiara so this was chosen as the new capital. The main hospital is still called Number 9, the American name for it.

In 1958 the Advisory Council was expanded again to 14 members. All were appointed, and only five were Solomon Islanders. There were four expatriate government officials and other members were chosen by the High Commissioner from businessmen, missionaries, church leaders, traders, teachers and others who had respect within the community. The council could advise the High Commissioner, but could not make laws.

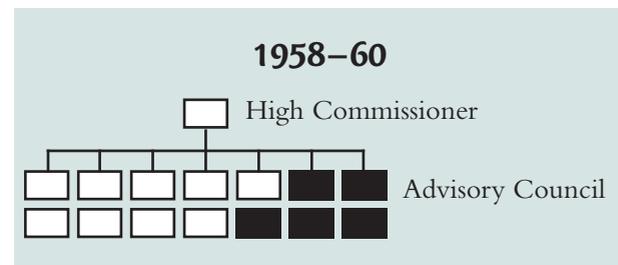


Figure 3.14 Advisory Council

Stage 3: Appointed Legislative Council (1960–64)

In 1960 the council was changed to an **Appointed Legislative Council**. This meant it could make laws and rules for the country, not just give advice.

There were 21 members, including six Solomon Islanders. All members were appointed, and all were government officials.

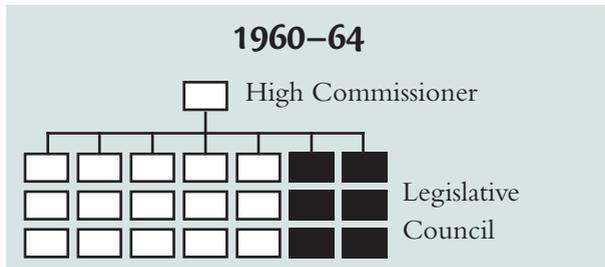


Figure 3.15 Appointed Legislative Council

Stage 4: Elected Legislative Council (1964–70)

By 1960 the country was ruled by the council, but the members were still appointed by the High Commissioner. This meant he really had all the power.

After Ma'asina Ruru, the British gradually introduced elected councils in local areas. Malaita was one of the first.

In 1964, indirect elections were introduced into the Legislative Council. People elected local Councillors, and the Councillors in each district elected people to the Legislative Assembly. In 1966 the number of elected members was increased to 14, but the appointed members went up to 15, so they still had a majority.

In 1967, for the first time there were direct elections. The whole country was divided into areas called **constituencies**, and everyone

over 21 was allowed to vote for a member to represent their constituency in the assembly. Twelve out of the 14 elected members were Solomon Islanders, including Lily Oгатina (later Lily Poznansky), the first woman member. The Eastern Outer Islands members were still elected by the local council and Tikopia and Anuta were still ruled by traditional chiefs and did not vote even for the local council.

The High Commissioner chose eight members of the council, including three Solomon Islanders, to form the **Executive Council**. They took charge of each department of the government, such as Education, Finance and Works. This was the first step towards the present system of a cabinet and ministers.

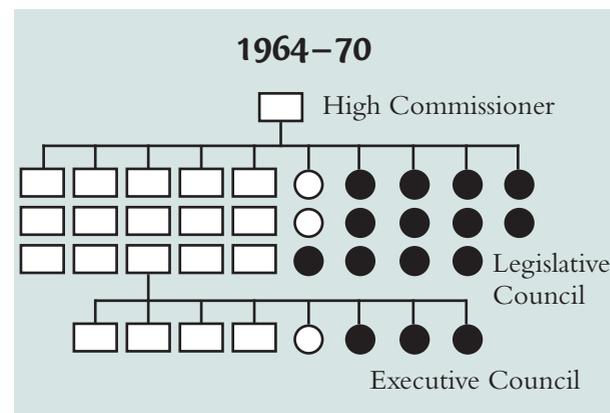


Figure 3.17 Elected Legislative Council



Figure 3.16 Legislative Council meeting, 1960



Figure 3.18 People taking part in an election



Figure 3.19 Silas Sitai, first Solomon Islands Chairman of Governing Council, 1972

Stage 5: Governing Council (1970–74)

From 1970 to 1974 the council became the **Governing Council**, and for the first time the number of elected members was greater than the appointed members. Since nearly all elected members were Solomon Islanders, they had a majority on the council for the first time.

At this time the council was divided into five committees, each running one area of government. However the High Commissioner was still officially in charge of the government.

Figure 3.20 shows what the government looked like in 1974.

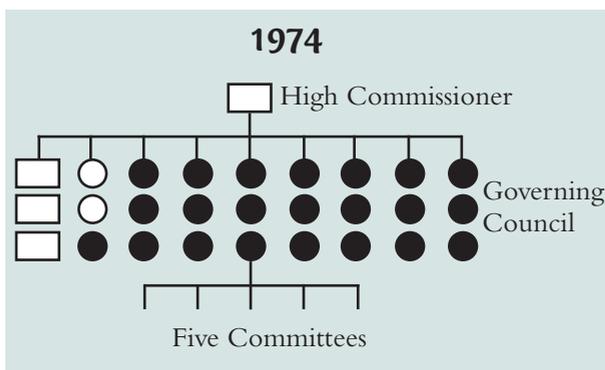


Figure 3.20 Governing Council

Stage 6: Legislative Assembly and internal self-government (1974–78)

The name of the Governing Council changed in 1974 to Legislative Assembly. By 1976 there were 38 members and all were elected except one—the Attorney General, who is the government’s advisor on the law. Only two of the 38 were expatriates. This was really the beginning of modern elected government.

The most important change, though, was that the Legislative Assembly elected a Chief Minister from among its members. He became the head of the government instead of the High Commissioner. The **Chief Minister** appointed other Ministers to form a **Council of Ministers** of nine people. The High Commissioner’s name was changed to Governor and he no longer sat in the Assembly.

Internal self-government in 1976 gave the Chief Minister and the Council of Ministers power to control all aspects of the government except the Public Service, Defence, Police and Foreign Affairs. In all other areas the Governor could only do things on the advice of the Council of Ministers. He could no longer make his own decisions.

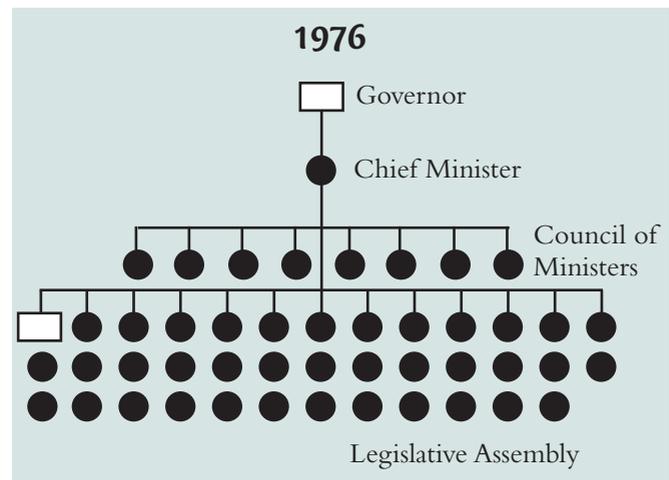


Figure 3.21 Legislative Assembly

The Road to Political Independence (1945–78)

The first Chief Minister elected by the assembly was Solomon Mamaloni. Other Ministers were David Kausimae, Willie Betu, Gideon Zoloveke, Peter Thomson, and Stephen Cheka.

Activity 10



Look at the table you have drawn for Activity 9 and answer the following.

- Between 1927 and 1976, what changes took place in each of the following:
 - the total number of people on the council or assembly
 - the number of appointed members
 - the number of elected members
 - the number of British people or expatriates
 - the number of Solomon Islanders.
- At what stage did Solomon Islanders take over control of most aspects of the government?
- Suggest the reasons:
 - the British did not allow Solomon Islanders to control the government during the first stages
 - the British decided to allow Solomon Islanders to take over control slowly rather than suddenly.
- Why was Solomon Mamaloni very important in the history of Solomon Islands?
- What is the meaning of 'independence'? In what ways was Solomon Islands still not independent in 1976?

Stage 7: Negotiations for independence (1977–78)

In 1975 a committee was set up to recommend an **Independence Constitution**, that is, a system of government and a set of laws by which Solomon Islands could become independent. People from the Assembly, local councils, churches, businessmen and lawyers toured the country to find out people's views



Figure 3.22 Solomon Mamaloni, the first Chief Minister, standing with the Governor in 1976. Mamaloni later became Prime Minister a number of times but died in 2000.

and ideas, and a group then went to London to draw up the Constitution.

As we shall see in the next chapter, this was very similar to the system that had already developed by 1976. It is based on the British system of government called the **Westminster System**, as Parliament in Britain is situated at Westminster.

In 1976 there was another national election and Peter Kenilorea was elected Chief Minister. He became Prime Minister in 1978 under the new Constitution when Britain gave up its rule in Solomon Islands and the country became independent.

Since that date Solomon Islanders have had complete political control of the country and have been able to make their own laws and rule the country as they wish.

The people who negotiated the Solomon Islands Independence Constitution in London in 1977 are shown in Figure 3.23.



Figure 3.23 Members of the Solomon Islands delegation at Lancaster House, September 1977.

All members are shown in this photo except Francis Bugotu and Francis Saemala. The members are:

(From left) Sir Fredrick Osifelo, Hon. W. Betu, Hon. Peter Kenilorea, Lord Goronwy-Roberts, Sir Collin Allen, Hon. D. Kausimae, Hon. Henry Tom, Hon. John Melanoli, Hon. Ben Tumulima, Hon. M. Bonuga, Hon. P. Ghemu, Hon. J. Dorovolomo, Hon. F. Kikolo, Hon. J. Tapaika, Hon. D. Ho'ota, Hon. D. Valusa, Hon. J. Saunana, Hon. M. Belamatanga, Hon. G. Beti, Hon. P. Manetiva, Hon. W. Ben, David Campbell, Hon. G. Zoleveke, P. Donegan, Hon. L. Wickham, Hon P. Kapini, Hon. S. Kelly, Hon. J. Fifi'i, Hon. F.B. Hilly and Hon. M. Kelesi

Problems of negotiating independence

When Britain finally decided to give Solomon Islands independence, some liked the idea while others were against it. Many discussions on issues affecting the local people were held. These included the type of government to be adopted, land ownership, policies on exploitation of resources, citizenship, political control, and resource allocations and finances.

Land was a big issue and many people said the government should give the 'waste land' back to the original landowners. In the end the government kept control of it, but those like Levers who had leased or rented the land could only keep it as leasehold for 75 years. This meant it was still owned by the government and those with leases had to pay rent for it. Only people with two grandparents born in Solomon Islands were allowed to own land. This was partly because many people did not want the Gilbertese, who had been settled here by the British, or the Chinese to own land. Most land continued to be considered customary land, owned by an extended family or tribe, not individuals.

In addition, politicians had to deal with the issue of regionalism and secession. Each region,

later called provinces, wanted its own power. Some did not want to join Solomon Islands at all—they wanted to become a separate country or join another country altogether.

Western Solomons 'breakaway' or secession movement

Just before Solomon Islands was ready to become independent in 1978, it faced **resistance** from the Western Solomons, which during that time comprised the present Western and Choiseul provinces.

The Western Solomons had had years of dissatisfaction with the central government. They claimed that despite being productive, they had been unfairly treated. In 1975, the westerners demanded a lot more money for their province. They also disliked the prominence of Malaitans in their islands and the government. Malaita has about 30% of the population if we include Malaita itself and people of Malaitan origin living outside Malaita. When Western Solomons' demands were not met, they refused to join in the independence celebrations. Instead they wanted **secession**—a separate state of their own. There was also an idea that they should join with Bougainville, where some people also wanted

to break away from Papua New Guinea. Eventually, one year after independence, Western Province agreed to join Solomon Islands.

Activity II



- 1 Name two incidents or periods when Solomon Islanders struggled against the British.
- 2 Why were there very few incidents like this in Solomon Islands?
- 3 In New Caledonia, why do you think many French settlers or Caldoche are fighting against independence. Were there any such groups in Solomon Islands?
- 4 Describe the advantages and disadvantages of having to struggle or fight for independence.

4 The struggle for independence

In Solomon Islands, while there were some struggles or political demands that were not met, on the whole independence came peacefully. By the 1970s the British had decided to give all their colonies independence so negotiations were easy. There were even some Solomon Islanders who said that they were not yet fit for independence.

There were many other countries in the world in the Pacific, Asia and Africa where they had to struggle or fight for independence. In some countries, the struggle for independence still continues. In the Pacific region, for example, the Kanaks of New Caledonia and the West Papuans in Irian Jaya are still struggling for independence. In many cases these are colonies where Europeans not only ruled but took over land and settled permanently as farmers

or business people. In New Caledonia, for instance, many French people settled and they now make up about 37% of the population. They do not want to become independent from France, which is their original home.

Often settlers are frightened that if the country becomes independent, they will be a minority in a country ruled by the local or indigenous people and they might lose the privileges they had when their own *wantoks* were ruling.

There are examples of places where European settlers persuaded the colonial power not to give independence, so the local people fought to get it. These include: Algeria (French), Rhodesia (later Zimbabwe) (British), Angola and Mozambique (Portuguese) in Africa; and Vietnam (French) and Indonesia (Dutch) in Asia. Irian Jaya or West Papua was taken over by Indonesia from the Dutch and the Melanesian people are now fighting against settlers from other parts of Indonesia, especially Java.

The next section gives you an insight into the way Kenya, a country in East Africa, gained its independence. You will find as you read the case study that Kenya's experience was very different to that of Solomon Islands as violence was involved.

CASE STUDY

Kenya: The road to independence



Figure 3.24 Kenya, East Africa

Kenya gained its political independence from Britain in December 1963. Jomo Kenyatta, a former rebel and leader of the Kenya African National Union (KANU) party, became the country's first Prime Minister. When Kenya became a republic a year later, Kenyatta became its President.

Kenya's road to political independence was marked by years of protest and resistance. This started as soon as Kenya was forcefully

taken over by Britain, with the Imperial British East Africa Company given the task of administering the country. However, when it was obvious that the company was not able to look after the country, the British government formally took over in 1895.

Soon after, Britain began enforcing its rule in Kenya. Several key developments were put in place. These included building the Kenya–Uganda Railway, which was initially meant as a communications link between the coast and Britain's colonies in Uganda and Sudan. Later, the railway was used as a way to develop the rich land lying inland from the coast to Uganda. The railway also served as a basis for trade. The aim was to provide revenue for the railway being built.

The colonial government also encouraged many European settlers to settle in the country, particularly in an area called The Highlands, which is high up and therefore cool and can grow European crops like English potatoes and wheat. They allowed these Europeans to take over land there and become farmers. However, when labour in their farms was in short supply, the European settlers forced Africans to work for them.

When more and more European settlers came, the colonial administration introduced a new policy that forced the Africans to live on reserves. This means that all land in the protectorate was taken over by the government. The colonial administration took land from the local people and gave it to Europeans. The reserves were very small and crowded because the largest amount of the best land was given to the settlers. About the same time, indentured labourers on contracts from British India were recruited to work on the railways. These moves were not accepted by the local people.

Activity 12



- 1 How many years before Solomon Islands did Kenya gain independence?
- 2 Why do you think the Africans in Kenya were more unhappy with British colonial rule than Solomon Islanders?
- 3 From what you learnt in this chapter and the last chapter, what similar process in taking over land did the British use in Solomon Islands?
- 4 What outsiders took over land in Solomon Islands? Do we have European settlers?
- 5 To which Pacific country did the British take indentured labourers from India?

In terms of political control, the local people in Kenya were denied the opportunity to rule themselves. This and the ill treatment of Africans by the British led to a major resentment against colonial rule. The communities did not accept it when their lands were taken away from them. They were also opposed to colonial policies. Thus was born the struggle for independence.

Africans formed different associations to express their grievances or what they were not happy



Figure 3.25 Jomo Kenyatta

about. Among the leading associations were the Kikuyu Central Association, the Kenya African Union and the North Kavirondo Central Association. The colonial administration responded by banning some of these associations, which were seen to be organising resistance.

Soon, there was a more organised uprising in central Kenya led by a group called Mau Mau. This was a secret organisation mainly based on the customs of one tribe, the Kikuyu. Those who joined had to swear a traditional oath of loyalty and some people were forced to join. The Mau Mau demanded the return of the lands from the settlers, an end to forced labour on farms, and then independence. They began to attack and kill European settlers and in return the British killed even more members of Mau Mau and arrested many more. Those arrested were kept in big prisons called **concentration camps** where they were often treated very badly. Finally they arrested the leader of Mau Mau, Jomo Kenyatta.



Figure 3.26 Kenyans behind barbed wire in a concentration camp during the Mau Mau uprising

Many people in Britain supported the aims of the Mau Mau and agreed that Africans in Kenya had been badly treated and should be given back some of their land and allowed to

rule themselves. Eventually the British agreed to negotiate with Kenyatta and the Mau Mau as long as they stopped using violence. The British agreed to the formation of political parties. Two main parties were formed in 1960—Kenya African National Union (KANU) and the Kenya African Democratic Union. Jomo Kenyatta was released from prison and became leader of KANU, which won an election and Kenyatta became Prime Minister, then President of Kenya. There are a number of other countries where people who led the struggle for independence and were put in prison for it eventually became the president of an independent country.

Activity 13



- 1 Solomon Islands was a protectorate and Kenya was a colony. From what you have read, can you find any differences between the two?
- 2 What similarities and differences can you describe between Kenya and Solomon Islands in their struggle for independence?
- 3 In Solomon Islands after 1910 no outsiders were allowed to own land, so we had no settlers. Even companies were not allowed to own land, only lease it for rent. Do you think this was a good policy for Solomon Islands? Why?

Have you achieved your goals?

Look back at your goals at the beginning of the chapter. Check whether you have achieved each goal.

- Have you gained knowledge and understanding of each of the topics in the goals?
- Can you use each of the skills mentioned in the goals?
- Have you formed your own ideas and opinions about the topics in the chapter?
- Write a brief summary of not more than one page of what you have learnt in this chapter.

Glossary

- Advisory Council** a group of people appointed to advise the Resident Commissioner
- Appointed Legislative Council** a group of people appointed to advise the Resident Commissioner, later the High Commissioner, who could also make laws
- British Protectorate** the official name of Solomon Islands while it was ruled by the British
- centralisation policy** a policy by which everything was controlled by a central government in Honiara
- Chief Minister** the elected Head of the Legislative Assembly before independence
- concentration camp** large prison camp usually used to imprison people who oppose a government
- constituencies** areas of the country that each elect one member to represent them in the Legislative Assembly or Parliament
- Council of Ministers** a group of people under the Chief Minister who controlled most aspects of internal government under the Legislative Assembly before independence
- direct elections** electing members to represent an area directly
- Elected Legislative Council** the Legislative Council after the members were elected not appointed (see above)
- Executive Council** the members of the Legislative Council who took charge of various departments
- Governing Council** a mainly elected Council to advise the High Commissioner and make laws, divided into committees responsible for different aspects of the government
- High Commissioner** the person appointed by the British to rule Solomon Islands
- indentured labourers** people who are taken under contract to work in another place, including those Solomon Islanders taken to Queensland by blackbirders and Indians taken to work on the railroads in East Africa
- Independence Constitution** the laws and rules agreed on when Solomon Islands became independent
- internal self-government** an elected government of locals allowed to rule the country internally, or all aspects inside the country, but not concerned with relations with other countries
- Labour Corps** the group of people recruited to help the Americans and Allies during World War II
- Legislative Assembly** the elected Assembly ruling Solomon Islands under internal self-government before independence
- local political movements** Solomon Islanders who formed groups of people who believed in certain policies or ways of ruling the country
- political independence** to rule yourself freely
- protest** to disagree with something and to show disagreement by meeting or marching or similar activity
- regionalism** wanting more powers for each region, area, island or province
- reserves** the only areas of land where Kenyan Africans were allowed to live
- Resident Commissioner** the person appointed by the British to rule Solomon Islands before 1953
- resistance** not willing to do something; refusing to cooperate
- secession** to break away from a country and form a separate country
- wantok** a person who speaks the same language as you
- Westminster System** the British system of government based in Westminster in London and used as a model for the government of Solomon Islands at independence

Chapter 4

Women and Leadership



My goals:

- to know what is meant by leadership and women's roles in it
- to understand the roles of women in traditional Solomon Islands society and how this is changing in modern times
- to study examples of women in leadership positions and understand the problems they face and have faced
- to appreciate the conflict between the modern roles and traditional roles of women and the problems this can cause
- to form opinions on the good and bad aspects of leadership by women

Activity 1



Divide into groups. Your school has been given the opportunity for one student to attend a leadership course in Australia. That person will be expected to come back and be the leader of the school as School Captain. You have also been asked to choose a school representative to help negotiate with the local chiefs and landowners to extend the land of the school.

Each group should choose two girls and two boys to interview for these positions. Interview them and decide who to choose for each position. Be ready to tell the rest of the class who you have chosen and the reasons for your choices. Does it make any difference if the person chosen is a girl or a boy? Give your reasons.

1 Women and leadership

If you are 18 years old or above, you are called a woman in English. In Pijin and local languages we often say that a female is a girl or even ‘a young girl’ until she is married. But in this chapter we will call all females over 18 years **women**.

Women can become leaders just like men. A **leader** is someone who has certain attributes, qualities or characteristics to lead or to manage other people. These characteristics either can be learnt or are a natural part of a person. They are called **leadership** qualities. A natural leader will stand out, but others have to be trained to become leaders.

Activity 2



In your own words explain these terms: women, leader, leadership.

There are women who lead because of their ability to manage difficult relationships within their families, their groups, their communities or their countries. Women leaders can hold official positions—**formal leaders**—or they can hold unofficial positions—**informal leaders**. Most women leaders in our communities do not hold official positions within their organisations. They might just be ordinary members in their community and yet they are recognised as leaders. People have respect for these individuals and they look up to them and listen to them.

Activity 3



- 1 From what you learnt in Year 7 and from the information in the paragraph above, are most women leaders formal or informal leaders?
- 2 Copy and complete this table. Write down names and titles of women leaders you have in your family, school and community. Write one thing that makes them a good or respected leader.

Leaders in my family	Leaders in my school	Leaders in my community
e.g. Margaret (Mother)	e.g. Emily (School Principal)	e.g. Ruth (Parish Leader)
?	e.g. School well organised. Good discipline. Kind.	?

- 3 Mothers are really our first leaders. They are leaders in our family. Make a list of all the important things your mother did for you when you were young.



Figure 4.1 Women leaders play an important role in our community.

Roles of women in traditional Solomon Islands society

In the Solomon Islands, women traditionally play two important **roles**. These are called reproductive and productive roles. The **reproductive** roles are those of a child-bearer and a mother. When a child is born, the mother is responsible for the upbringing of the child and helping them to fit into their community. This includes the child's physical and psychological or mental needs. For example, the mother is responsible for providing food, shelter



Figure 4.2 The most important role of many women is still as a mother.

and clothing for her child. She is also responsible for making sure her child meets, goes out, talks or mixes with other people.

The second important role that women play is the **productive** role, where they make or produce things. This role includes activities such as cooking, washing, gardening, fishing, collecting firewood, collecting water, harvesting, and selling produce. Women are mainly responsible for these activities in order for their families to survive. These activities can also be shared by other members of the family, for example by the father, son or daughter.

Roles of women in modern Solomon Islands society

Women today still play the same roles as they did traditionally in the family. But today they also play important and influential roles outside their family sphere. For example, in politics and in professional spheres. These roles are increasingly important in modern society.

In politics, women can be elected as members of the national parliament so that they can help make laws and policies for their countries.



Figure 4.3 Women magistrates

Although in Solomon Islands we did not have any women in the national parliament in 2011, in countries like Fiji, New Zealand and Australia, they have women who are members of their national parliament. Until 2011 there had only been one woman Member of Parliament in Solomon Islands, however, there are women members in some provincial assemblies. Outside of politics, there are women doctors, pilots, lawyers, administrators, public servants, engineers, plumbers, electricians and accountants.

Some people say that women actually have qualities that make them better leaders than men. They argue that as women give birth to children and look after them when they are young, many women develop a kindness, love and respect not only for their own children but also for people in general. Some people say this makes them less selfish and more concerned about other people than men. Traditionally, men are the people who look after security and fight against enemies of their family or community, so some people also argue that men are more likely to be willing to fight and women are more peaceful. They point out that there are fewer women in prison. Based on these assumptions, some people say if we had more women leaders, there would be fewer wars.

Activity 4



- 1 What do you think of these assumptions about the differences between men and women? Discuss this in groups. Make a list to show why women make good leaders, and another to show why men make good leaders.
- 2 In groups, discuss whether you think women or men would make the best leaders in your local community or as national politicians in Parliament.

CASE STUDIES

Below are some stories of women who have become leaders in modern Solomon Islands. The first three were interviewed in 2011.

1 Ella Kauhue



Figure 4.4 Ella Kauhue, Programme Manager

Ella comes from 'Are'Are in Malaita Province and is a mother of two boys. She works as a Programme Manager for an organisation called Live and Learn Environmental Education, Solomon Islands. Ella is a leader in this organisation, which means she has to make sure that all the activities of the project are carried out and completed within a given time. Not only that but she has to manage a large project team. Before Ella took up this job, she used to manage a women's organisation called the Solomon Islands National Council of Women (SINCW). She worked as a General Secretary for SINCW in charge of all activities.

While working for SINCW, Ella faced many difficulties. She says that as a leader who managed other women, her main challenge was that she was often pushed down by other women within SINCW and from women outside her organisation. For example, sometimes she was criticised for speaking out about or standing up for issues that affected the lives of women in general. Ella played a very important role in SINCW and she always asked other people around her to help her out when she needed help. In order for her to do her job successfully, she always had to be very patient and understanding, and not listen too much to criticisms that people made about her.

Now, Ella is managing a different kind of organisation. At Live and Learn she looks after many staff, both male and female. She finds it easier with this new organisation. She uses a different **leadership style** here where she emphasises the spirit of teamwork. Ella believes in this teamwork style of leadership. She encourages her staff to do things for themselves and allows them to make mistakes so that they can learn from their mistakes. She says that she needs to do things herself and not leave others to do them for her. If someone makes a mistake, she does not point fingers at them but calls them aside and talks to them privately. She also needs to communicate well with her staff, build teamwork and be confident.

One of the biggest challenges that Ella now finds is that to be a leader in the modern society, she has to be well educated and knowledgeable. This means that she has to go to a university and study. She needs to be very knowledgeable about her job, the role of her organisation and even just general things around her. She is more comfortable when she acquires the necessary knowledge and skills to confidently face her staff and other people when they challenge her.

One other challenge that Ella faces as a leader back in her rural community is that she is often expected to dress and talk in a certain way. For example, if she is visiting her village, she is expected to wear a dress or a blouse and skirt, not shorts or trousers. She is also expected to take part in meetings and show respect to others. To gain respect from others such as work colleagues, chiefs, men and women, she must dress and talk appropriately when encountering them. Ella says that as a leader she has to have a lot of resources like money or food to give away, something that she does not always have.

Activity 5



From Ella's story, answer the following questions.

- 1 What were the two organisations that Ella worked for?
- 2 Identify the main differences in leadership style in the two organisations.
- 3 What were Ella's main difficulties when she was managing SINCW?
- 4 What were the characteristics that Ella needed to have when she was working for SINCW?
- 5 What are the characteristics that Ella needs to have when she is working for Live and Learn.
- 6 Can you identify the different roles that Ella plays at her place of work (modern society) and in her community (traditional society)?
- 7 Why do you think Ella is accepted as a leader in her own community, even though she no longer lives there?
- 8 Do you think she would have been a leader in traditional society?

2 Paula Aruhuri



Figure 4.5 Paula Aruhuri, former President of the Matana Ara Women's Association

In Year 7 and in Chapter 2 of this book you read about Bruno Nana who helped the Japanese and Americans during World War II. His daughter, Paula Aruhuri, helped to look after him at his home in Kakabona when he got older, and while she was there she became a leader in the village. Kakabona is on the west end of Honiara town. While Paula lived in the village she ran a women's association called the Matana Ara Women's Association (MWA). The Association was formed in 2007 by some women in the village and now has a total of about one hundred members. The members pay an annual subscription fee of \$50. Paula started the MWA because she felt that women in Kakabona needed to be encouraged to gain confidence in themselves again after some bad experiences during the period of Tension during 1998–2003 (which we will learn about in Chapter 14). For example, some of their houses were burnt down, and they had no income. The MWA was established partly so that the Kakabona women could have a 'voice' in their efforts to rebuild their lives.

Paula says that starting the Association was not easy. A lot of women did not like or support the idea. A number of women did not support her and said that the Association was a waste of time and that the membership fee was expensive. Women also felt that they would have problems later when they became active in the village as they would undermine their husbands' or brothers' dominant roles in the village. Paula also came across a big challenge in the educational level of women. Not many of these women were educated, so getting them to understand the importance of the Association was a problem at first. She also faced the challenge of management. She knew that one day she would leave the organisation, so the question of **sustainability**, or how to keep the organisation going after she left, was often on her mind.

However, Paula led her group from having nothing to having an annual 'flea market' to sell all kinds of produce at Kakabona. Every year since 2008, they have put on a week-long show where a lot of their products are on display. Paula **empowered** these women, and gave them the opportunity to be creative and entrepreneurial. She led them by encouraging them to do something for themselves, so that they are able to look after themselves. She also worked with community leaders such as politicians and church leaders to help the MWA in big and small ways. She used these leaders to help her access funding resources to benefit the women and their families.

Paula later went back to Vanuatu, and a woman named Corina Luli now runs the MWA. In 2011 it was still going strong. If you live near there try to find out if it is still going.

Activity 6



From Paula's story, answer the following questions.

- 1 Do you think Paula was a natural-born leader?
- 2 Describe what roles Paula played in her community.
- 3 What skills and qualifications did Paula need to have to become a community leader?
- 4 Describe the barriers that Paula faced as a community leader.
- 5 How did she overcome these barriers?
- 6 If you were a community leader in your village, how would you lead the women? Give reasons for your answer.
- 7 If your mother was a leader in your village community, how would you support her? Why?

3 Kristine Fakaia



Figure 4.6 Kristine Fakaia, pilot

My name is Kristine Fakaia, I am 24 years of age and I come from South Malaita in Malaita Province. I am currently training to be a pilot at a flying school called Flight Training Australia (FTA) in Brisbane, Australia. My desire to become a pilot started when I was just ten years old. When I completed secondary schooling in 2006, I told my parents that I really wanted to be a pilot. My parents without hesitation said no, because I am a girl and that is a man's area. I told them that I do not want any other career, except to be a pilot, and asked if they could give me a chance. I was determined to push for what I believe is the right thing for me.

They eventually agreed and in 2008 I was accepted to undertake the training at FTA. When I first arrived at FTA, I found that there were only three of us girls among many boys. I was lonely, scared and afraid of making mistakes and being criticised. I thought of the words my parents said—that this was a 'man's world'—and I partly agreed and believed them. However, I threw away all my fears and three months later I was flying the same plane and sitting in the same cockpit as my male colleagues. I was so excited that I could land the plane the same way and on the same runway as the boys. But I am always conscious of the fact that I am a girl and to become accepted in the 'man's world' is exceptional. I always have to perform to the best of my ability. This means that if I am required to do a task, I am not satisfied until the task is done to the best of my ability.

I have learned to be a leader and a responsible person at a young age. At the age of just 22 years old I was flying a plane, and as a pilot I am responsible for the lives of the passengers. If anything goes wrong with the plane either on the ground or in the air, I am responsible for this. I have to make very tough, accurate and precise decisions because the lives of

the passengers are in my hands. Not only that, I also need to have a lot of courage to face any criticism and discrimination that might come from my colleagues or instructors. I have learned to take criticisms with a good heart. I accept all the hardships that come with the training and take it as part of the process of what it means to be a pilot. In short, to be a pilot and a leader I needed to be very courageous, tough, disciplined and knowledgeable. I have learned to be 'twice as good' because people assumed that I can't fly a plane because I am a girl.

Activity 7



From Kristine's story, answer the following questions.

- 1 What difficulties (e.g. from parents, colleagues and teachers) did Kristine come across when she wanted to become a pilot?
- 2 Explain how she overcame those difficulties.
- 3 What qualities did Kristine need to become a pilot?
- 4 When Kristine went to training school, why was she 'lonely, scared and afraid of making mistakes'?
- 5 Explain why Kristine says she always has to perform 'to the best of her ability' and to be 'twice as good'.
- 6 Do you think Kristine is a natural-born leader or has she needed to learn the skills to handle difficult situations?
- 7 Would you like to be a pilot? Why? Is there any other similar job you would like to do?

4 Tiresa Lesatele Vaai



Figure 4.7 A plantation on the island of Savaii, Samoa

My name is Tiresa Lesatele Vaai and I am from Samoa. I was born on 4 December 1924 and I was the eldest of my parents' children. My father was from China and my mother was from Samoa. I grew up in a loving family environment, but life was hard because my family did not have enough money. My parents worked as plantation workers and my father worked hard on the plantation to maintain us. He was very hard-working and only rested when he was sick and on Sundays. My mother was responsible for bringing us up and making sure we were fed and went to school.

I was a promising student, but I was unable to pursue my education into the well-run schools operated by the Catholic nuns. This was because my parents did not have enough money to pay for my school fees at that time. I was very disappointed then. I always wanted to go to the Typing School, but because of this hardship, I left school at the age of 16 years and got married at the age of 18 years.

My husband and I went to live on a plantation on the island of Savaii. At first, I was very unhappy to leave Apia where I used to live. We worked as planters on Savaii. Life was

very different from Apia, where life was easy. In Savaii, there were no cars, no roads, no electricity and no running water, and people still lived their traditional lives.

Life on Savaii was very difficult and I knew I would have to work hard and make do with the little that I had. We did not eat much European food but we had plenty of fish and local foods. I then started developing my 'other' side and became a planter. I later become an owner of a small shop and a bakery. In the 1960s my family bought a business from a European trader.

I worked hard every day from six o'clock in the morning until nine o'clock at night. As we made money from our business, we started sending our children to boarding schools and universities in New Zealand. I also worked hard in the village trying to help villagers to improve their nutrition, water, sanitation and welfare. My belief was that hard work, education and commitment were essential to success. I taught my children to have the same attitudes as I have. To get back to the present, it was heartbreaking for me when a cyclone destroyed what my husband and I had struggled and sweated for for most of our lives. However, I never gave up and did not allow this incident to dampen my spirit.

Activity 8



From Tiresa's story, answer the following questions.

- 1 What kind of a woman is Tiresa?
- 2 What impact has Tiresa had on her children?
- 3 What important role did Tiresa play on the island of Savaii?
- 4 How does she try to lead her community?
- 5 What do you think is meant by 'dampen my spirit'?

Conclusion

In the four stories you have read, the women have played different leadership styles and each has faced different challenges. Kristine is young and has no experiences in leadership so she has to learn it. She has to learn to make bold decisions, be precise and confident, and be able to face up to any criticism. She accepts all the responsibilities and challenges because she believes that this is part of the process to becoming a pilot and a leader.

Ella followed a different leadership style in the two organisations that she has worked for. In the SINCW, she was the 'leader' and all other staff worked under her. She made the final decisions and often she was criticised for what she did or said. In the Live and Learn Project, she uses a different leadership style. She gives opportunities to her staff and encourages them to help her to make the right decision. She uses other staff members to help her make a decision.

In her community, Paula uses a different leadership style. At first, she was afraid that women would not like or follow her. However, Paula is a strong woman who has a passion for her people, particularly women. Because of her strong views and ideas to help women in her community, she decided to start the MWA. During her time as the President of MWA, she has taken advantage of this opportunity to help with many of Kakabona's issues relating to the ethnic tension or social unrest you will learn about in Chapter 14. Paula has shown many great leadership qualities in leading the push for more rural women to be heard by their community leaders. She has worked hard, in a place where men were always considered more important, to show that women's voices are just as important. She speaks her mind and is not afraid to say 'no'.

Tiresa demonstrated another style of leadership. At first, Tiresa was prevented by lack of money from achieving her dreams. During that time, she was a young and disappointed person. However, she used her situation to develop her 'other' side. She became a planter, and a strong person in the women's committee. She worked hard and stayed committed to herself, her family and her community. Throughout, she showed **compassion** and taught her children the virtues of hard work, education and **commitment**. Even though the cyclone destroyed all that she had worked for, she never gave up, saying that if she could make it last time, she was sure to make it this time too.

Activity 9



Summarise the stories in this chapter by making the following lists.

- 1 Three main qualities that made each person a leader or a successful person:
 - a Ella
 - b Paula
 - c Kristine
 - d Tiresa.
- 2 Three main qualities the women all shared which made them good leaders.
- 3 Three problems they all faced because they were women.

Qualities women need to become leaders

In 2010 a book was published called *Being the First*. In it, women who have gained important positions in Solomon Islands tell their stories. If possible, find a copy of this book in your library and read it.

Remember these stories were written in 2010, so these women may be doing different things now. Try to find out what they are doing now.

Following are some of the things they said.

Activity 10



- 1 Read each passage and write down one or two messages or pieces of advice they give to girls or women wanting to become leaders or successful in important jobs.
- 2 Some of them mention the problem that in traditional Solomon Islands cultures, women were not expected to be leaders or to do the same kinds of jobs as men. This problem has also been transferred into the modern world. Explain what advice each woman gives about working with men.

Elizabeth Kausimae: Under Secretary, Inland Revenue, Ministry of Finance

In my early teens, I found that our culture tended to make men look down on females. I found even at College...they looked down at me in terms of studies. I did not allow this to ruin my determination to do my studies. During my time there I noticed they started to have more respect for me because I was getting better grades. I noticed they were beginning to ask me questions, but would sometimes hold back because they didn't want to feel inferior because I was the only girl in the class. I would help them especially in Maths.

I don't think women have fewer opportunities but we tend to allow it to happen because we think low of ourselves. Many women are just working to earn an income. They do not have any goals they are working towards. I try to encourage them with stories of how I got here and how I took notice of who was above me and how one day I would replace them. Working in a **male-dominated** environment, you have to work yourself up, you have to make your supervisor see that you're more outstanding than the males.



Figure 4.8 Elizabeth Kausimae

Ethel Sigimanu: Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Women, Youth and Children’s Affairs

My message to young women is that it is possible to hold a position like mine or to **excel** to even higher ones. Our biggest enemy is being afraid to try something new. If you have a dream, pursue it, don’t give up because of a challenge you come across. I just want to encourage young women to keep working hard and believe in themselves. Being a woman does not mean giving up. It is a male-dominated society and we need to accept it and live in reality. We can work towards equality for women and small steps will make big changes.



Figure 4.9 Ethel Sigimanu

Hilda Kari, former Member of Parliament

In 1988 I was very cross that I was doing the same work as men but not being treated the same, and that was one of the reasons I went and said: ‘Look, I’m going to go and stand for Parliament and prove to you we can do it.’



Figure 4.10 Hilda Kari

There are many traditional cultural problems for girls or women wanting to get higher education and a good job, as Jane Waetara describes below.

Jane Waetara: Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Planning

In my culture from Tobaita in North Malaita, seeing two teenagers, a boy and a girl who are not blood related, somewhere not expected, is taboo. This is commonly interpreted, especially by brothers and close relatives, as a boy–girl situation, which is often unwelcome to family members due to cultural beliefs and discipline. I boarded at school and during a normal weekend, relaxing and passing time one Saturday afternoon, I was spotted by my older brother and his family driving past when I was talking and laughing and giggling with a young guy, not a relative, within the school compound.

I realised the problem but my conscience was clear, that there is nothing wrong with standing and talking to a young attractive man of my age in the school compound in broad daylight. Sure enough the next day I received a phone call from my brother asking me to go to his house and explain. I was battling between tradition and the open school environment.

My brother and father suggested this meant I was no longer interested in school and they should make arrangements for me to marry this guy. I had to take a bold decision and responded that it was not my intention or plan to marry this boy. Thanks to my father's understanding, there was no further action, but rather some very strong warnings. This was a strong reminder for me to continue to acknowledge traditional and cultural obligations and at the same time manage and balance the challenges of growing up in all areas of life, even in a classroom environment.



Figure 4.11 Jane Waetara

All the writers agree that it is important to have a husband who supports them and agrees with their goals.

Joy Kere: Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Peace and Reconciliation

Luckily I am married to someone who understands the demands of my role and actually encourages me. Sometimes he is the one who pushes me to do things when I sometimes doubt myself. We share the responsibilities. If I am doing a certain task he helps me in other areas and likewise I do that for his work. So we share the responsibility of raising the children and have the relationship that a husband and wife should have.

The support that extended families provide here is important because if it is not there some of us women would not be able to cope with the work load.



Figure 4.12 Joy Kere

Ruth Liloqula: Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Lands, formerly Secretary to Cabinet



Figure 4.13 Ruth Liloqula

Ruth Liloqula mentions the importance of the way you are brought up and the need to continue to respect those back at home in the village.

We are very close in the family, and my mother also had this idea that everybody had to work regardless of gender. We all cooked, we all went to the garden, we all fetched water, firewood. Everybody had to do chores, no division of boys to do this and men to do this. We all had to wash our clothes, and we all had to take our cod liver oil, say our prayers in the morning and prayers at night. That was my childhood.

Whatever your role is, however educated you are, remember the rest of your family. You may be the only one who is well educated but treat everyone with respect. Don't look down on anyone. It comes with the authority of the position you are being asked to manage. Don't forget culture and tradition, and when you go home don't show your differences. Sometimes I see people going home really looking down on people in the village, really separating from them. The majority of our people are rural-dwellers and unless you understand them you are not going to be able to lead them. Have self-respect, respect for others and respect for authority.

Activity II



- 1 In groups, make up a story about the difficulties women face when they want to become leaders. Act out the story. Have girls play the men's parts and boys play the women's parts.
- 2 Debate the topic 'Women are better leaders than men'.

Have you achieved your goals?

Look back at your goals at the beginning of the chapter. Check whether you have achieved each goal.

- Have you gained knowledge and understanding of each of the topics in the goals?
- Can you use each of the skills mentioned in the goals?
- Have you formed your own ideas and opinions about the topics in the chapter?
- Write a brief summary of not more than one page of what you have learnt in this chapter.

Glossary

commitment being willing or determined to do something

compassion feeling sorrow or love for people

conscience having a feeling of what is right and what is wrong

cultural obligations what you are expected to do according to your customs

discrimination acting unfairly against people or refusing to let them do things because of their gender (male or female), colour, religion etc.

dominant being very important; ruling or controlling something

empowered giving power to people to control their lives

excel to do something very well or excellently

formal leader someone who is a leader because of the official position they hold

informal leader someone who has no official position but becomes a leader because people respect and admire them

leader someone who has certain qualities or characteristics to lead or to manage other people

leadership style the way a particular person leads

leadership the ability to lead other people

male-dominated controlled or ruled by men

passion a very strong belief in something or a very strong feeling about something

productive producing or making things

professional someone who has advanced knowledge or skills in a certain job or area, usually through education

reproductive to do with bearing and bringing up children

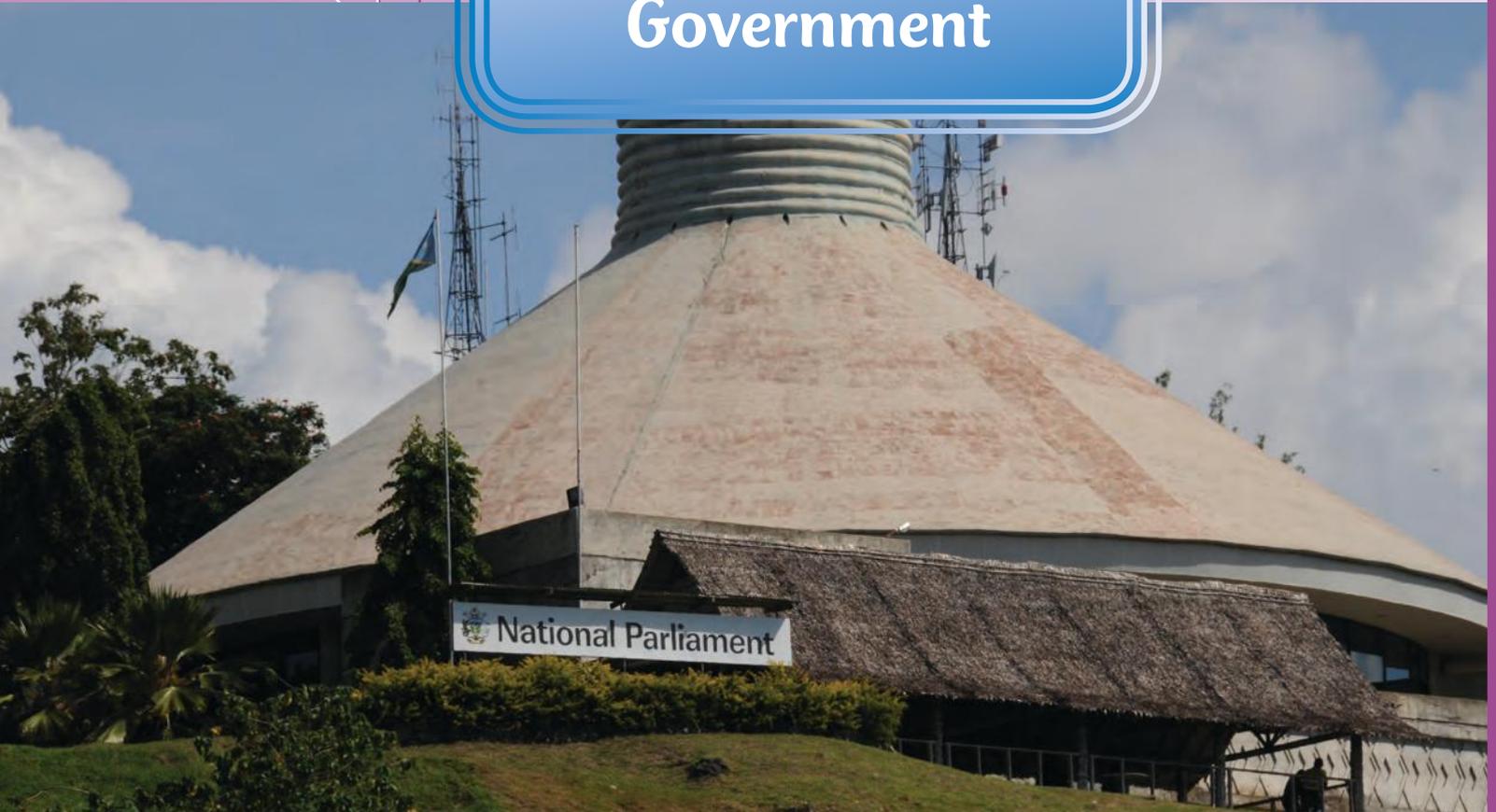
role a person's position or the job they are expected to do

sustainability ability to continue into the future

woman in English, any female over 18 years old

Chapter 5

National Government



My goals:

- to know what government is
- to know the main sections of government and their functions
- to know the work of Parliament, the law and the Judiciary, and the procedures associated with these
- to be able to draw diagrams to show the structure of government in Solomon Islands
- to understand the concepts of democracy, parliamentary government and the rule of law
- to understand the involvement of ordinary citizens in the government process
- to form opinions about important aspects of government and law in Solomon Islands

1 What is government?

Any community or society, big or small, needs rules and an organised body to control and look after the affairs of its people. In Year 7 you learnt about some of the ways we chose our leaders traditionally. In the old days it was the chiefs and big-men who made laws following the customs of each area, and made sure people lived together peacefully. These days it is the government that makes laws and employs the police to make sure the laws are obeyed, so we can live together peacefully.

In the traditional big-man system, the people themselves chose the leader or big-man by agreeing in **consensus**, but no-one counted who was in favour and who was against. In modern government, introduced by Europeans, people control the government through voting. Each person decides who they would like as leader. They vote for them and the votes are counted and the person with the largest number of votes becomes the leader. These are both forms of **democracy**, which means that the government leaders are chosen by the people.

Solomon Islands' modern government is based on a **unitary system**. This means that we have one body called the National Parliament, which has all the power. We also have local bodies, including provincial government, but these are given their power by the National Parliament, which can also take that power away. Some countries have a **federal system** made up of a number of bodies, often called **states**, which have equal power. They also have a central parliament but the power of the states cannot be taken away by the central parliament.

The rules of our system of government are written down in a law called the Constitution. A change can only be made to the Constitution if two-thirds of the **Members of Parliament** vote for the change.

Activity 1



Divide into pairs or groups and do the following activities.

- 1 From what you learnt in Chapter 3, how and when was the Solomon Islands Constitution written?
- 2 Why do we need a Constitution?
- 3 Why do we need a national or central government?
- 4 Discuss and outline four problems the country and individuals might face without a national or central government.
- 5 If democratic means having a government chosen by the people, to what extent was the traditional big-man system democratic?
- 6 Do you think the present modern system is more or less democratic than the traditional big-man system?
- 7 Was the traditional hereditary chiefly system democratic?
- 8 Look around your school area and list some of the things (services) that are provided by the national or provincial government. Draw and label a picture of each of the services. Display your group picture for the whole class to see.
- 9 Do you need money to pay for these services? Who pays for them and where does the money come from?



Figure 5.1 Former Governor-General Sir Nathaniel Waena and Queen Elizabeth II in London

Our modern system

Our modern system of government is based on the **Westminster System**. This is the British system, named after Westminster where the British Parliament is situated. The system has been changed to suit the Solomon Islands. However, the **Queen** of England is still officially the Head of State or the head of the government of Solomon Islands.

Activity 2



- 1 From what you have learnt in previous chapters, why do you think our system of government is based on the British system?
- 2 What are the advantages and disadvantages of basing our government on the British system?
- 3 What would be the alternatives?

The National Government

The official head of the government in Solomon Islands is the **Governor-General**. He or she is elected by the Members of Parliament

but does not sit in parliament. The Governor-General is the representative of the Queen.

The **National Government** consists of a number of different groups of people. The most important are those who are chosen by the people, through voting, to represent them in the making of decisions on how to run the country. These people sit in the **National Parliament**. They help to appoint other groups of people, such as government officials or public servants and judges, to help them run the country. The National Parliament has most control over the other groups, and because the people choose the Members of Parliament, the people, including you when you are old enough to vote, control the government.

People often think of the government, especially the national government, as being too distant and not part of the everyday life of ordinary people; but in reality what the national government does concerns us. The national government is responsible for protecting us from outside countries—that is, security and defence—and also our relationships with other countries—that is, foreign affairs. More directly, the national government provides services, such as those you listed in Activity 1, to meet our needs and improve our lives.

The National Parliament makes laws to help us live peacefully, and other parts of the national government make sure we carry out those laws.

Government structure

Figure 5.2 on page 88 shows the present structure of the national government. In this diagram, the voters have been put at the top to show they have the power to choose the Members of Parliament. The whole country is divided into areas called **constituencies** and each constituency elects one member.

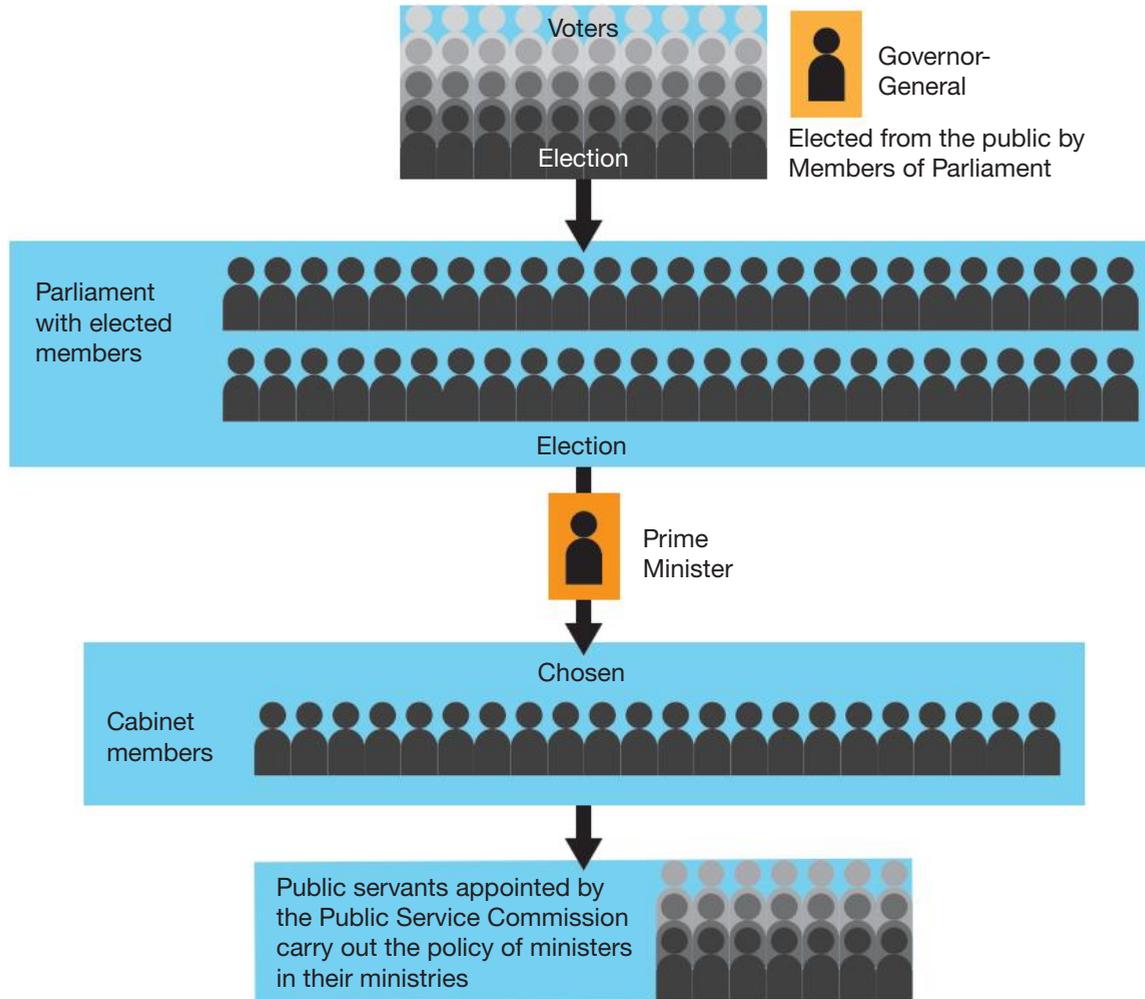


Figure 5.2 The structure of national government

Activity 3



- 1 Copy the diagram in Figure 5.2 into your exercise book. Add the following to it:
 - a the names of the present Prime Minister and Governor-General
 - b the name of your home constituency and the Member of Parliament for your constituency
 - c the names of any other Members of Parliament you know, with their constituencies
 - d the names of any five ministers you know and the ministries they are in charge of.
- 2 Using Figure 5.2 and what you already know, answer these questions.
 - a How many members are elected to Parliament and who elects them?
 - b Who elects the Prime Minister?
 - c Who chooses the ministers of the Cabinet?
 - d Does the Governor-General sit in Parliament?
 - e Who chooses the Governor-General?
- 3 From what you know, write in your own words what National Government means to you.

Voting for Members of Parliament

Every four years all Solomon Islanders over 18 years of age can vote for a Member of Parliament. So, if you are 18, you can help to choose who will sit in Parliament. The person elected may not be your choice and may not always do what you want them to do when they get into Parliament. However, you do have a say in who is elected, and you can try to persuade people to change the Member next time.

It is important to understand that you have the right to vote and that you must use that right. If you don't, there is a chance that a few people will elect their friends, and the Members of Parliament will worry about themselves, not the general public. They could do what they like to benefit themselves, hoping that the same people will vote them in again next time.

Later in this chapter we will look at the process of voting in more detail.

Activity 4

Discuss the following in groups and report your ideas to the class.



- 1 Voting is compulsory in Australia. This means that on election day you must go to a voting booth and have your name crossed off the electoral roll before you place your vote in the ballot box. If you do not turn up to vote, you can be fined. Imagine that the government is proposing to make voting compulsory here. Would you agree or disagree with the idea? Give your reasons.
- 2 At present elections are held every four years. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of holding elections:
 - a every year
 - b only every ten years.
- 3 How often do you think elections should be held? Explain the reasons for your answer.

The three parts of the national government

The national government is made up of three parts, plus the Governor-General, as shown in Figure 5.3.

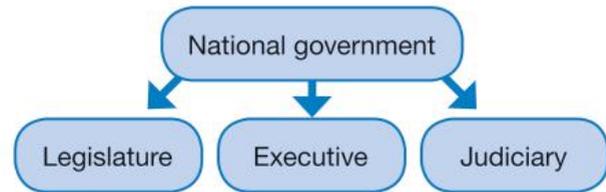


Figure 5.3 Parts of the national government

The Legislature is the National Parliament involving the 50 members. It has the power under our law to propose, debate and make or change laws.

The Executive includes the Prime Minister and Cabinet—which forms the ruling Government—and the ministers in charge of various ministries. It includes the public servants working for ministries. Their role, apart from proposing new laws, is to provide services and implement existing laws in the country.

The Judiciary includes the courts, judges, magistrates and police that ensure the laws are carried out. The courts also help in interpreting or deciding the exact meaning of the laws.

Table 5.1 on page 90 is a summary of the three arms of government and their various functions.

Our government system is based on the separation of powers. This means that each part is independent of the others, but also works with them. For instance, although the Legislature or Parliament makes the laws, once they are made, Parliament cannot interfere with the courts in carrying them out. For instance, if a Member of Parliament breaks the law, the Judiciary has the right to prosecute or punish them without interference from Parliament. This has been done many times since independence.

Name	How they are chosen	Functions
Legislature		
National Parliament 50 members	Elected by the people	They make laws or Acts, amend or change the Constitution and authorise or agree on the expenditure of public money by the Executive. Their job is making policies to decide what should be done in the country, and to pass laws for people to follow. They must stand for election every four years. Note: it is not their job to provide services to people. This should be done by public servants and by using government money.
Executive		
Prime Minister	Elected by Members of Parliament	They decide on policies or what the government should do and recommend policies and laws to Parliament.
Cabinet: Ministers including Deputy Prime Minister	Chosen by Prime Minister	
Public service including permanent secretaries and other people working in ministries	Appointed by the Public Service Commission	Their job is to carry out policies and laws or other decisions made by Parliament, and to carry out the day-to-day running of the country and provide government services.
Others working in ministries (e.g. teachers, police, prison service)	Appointed by other commissions (e.g. Teaching Service Commission)	
Judiciary		
Judges Magistrates	Appointed by the Judicial Commission	They enforce, interpret and carry out the law.
Police and prisons officers	Appointed by the Police and Prison commissions	

Table 5.1 The three arms of government and their functions

The Legislature

Although individual Members of Parliament must follow the laws, it is clear that Parliament is the most important and powerful part of the government because it makes the laws. Figure 5.4 shows the outside of Parliament House in Honiara, where the National Parliament sits. Figure 5.5 shows the inside of Parliament House, often called the chamber. Inside Parliament there are rows of seats joined together, called benches. These are arranged in a semi-circle facing special seats and tables at the front, as shown in Figure 5.6.



Figure 5.4 The National Parliament building in Honiara



Figure 5.5 Inside Parliament House

Activity 5



Look at Figure 5.6, which shows how people sit in Parliament. The numbers on this diagram show where different types of members and others sit. Draw it in your exercise book and, using the information on the next pages, label the sitting positions of each group.

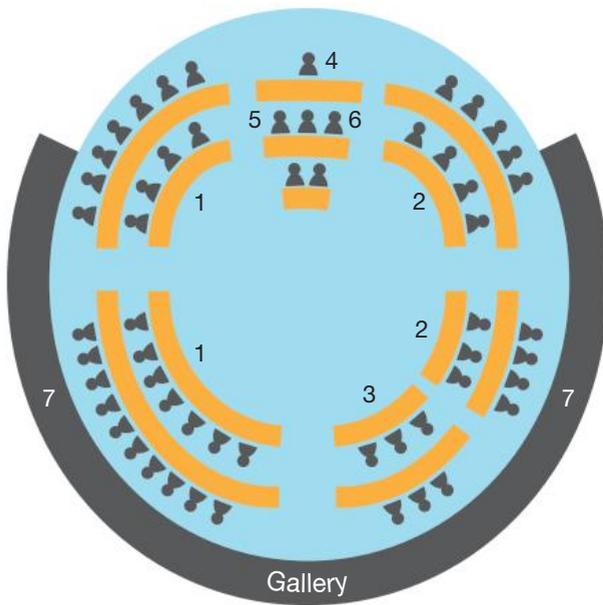


Figure 5.6 This diagram shows the layout of the National Parliament.

Main groups of members

Prime Minister, government members and Cabinet

The Prime Minister, and the members who voted for the Prime Minister, who usually support him or her, form the government. They sit facing the Speaker on the left of the chamber. This includes the ministers in the Cabinet. The Cabinet is the name given to the group of ministers appointed by the Prime Minister. Each minister looks after one ministry responsible for a particular field in government, such as Education, Health, Finance or Transport.

The Cabinet decides the government's plan of action or policy. It is the executive body of the Parliament; that is, the body that can take action. It is made up of the Prime Minister, who is the head of the National Government, and about 20 to 24 other ministers. When the Parliament is meeting or in session, ministers are responsible for tabling bills in the Parliament, answering questions and queries from the members or giving information about their ministries.

When Parliament is not in session, ministers are responsible for carrying out laws or bills passed in Parliament and for doing other jobs to run the government. Each minister is in charge of a ministry.



Figure 5.7 Members sitting in Parliament



Figure 5.8 Former Prime Minister, later Leader of Opposition, Dr Derek Sikua, meets former Prime Minister of Australia, Kevin Rudd, in 2009

The Opposition members

These are members who usually do not support the Prime Minister and Cabinet. They sit on the opposite side and are led by the **Leader of the Opposition**. They are sometimes referred to as an ‘alternative government’. They usually make suggestions, and oppose and criticise what the government does. They appoint one person to look after each of the areas that have ministries, such as Education or Health, which is why they are sometimes called shadow ministers or the **Shadow Cabinet**—they act like shadows to the actual ministers.



Figure 5.9 The Speaker, in the centre, at a special session of Parliament. Normally the Speaker sits in the red chair at the back.

Independents

These are members who do not join the government or opposition. They sit between the government and the opposition. They make up their mind whether to support or oppose the government on each issue. They do not belong to any political party and stand for election as individuals, not members of a party.

Non-elected people in Parliament

The Speaker

A person who is not a Member of Parliament but usually has experience in Parliament is elected by all the Members of Parliament to act as chairperson. He or she is called the Speaker. The Speaker sits at the front facing the members. He or she keeps order, makes sure Members of Parliament do not break the rules of Parliament and decides whose turn it is to speak. Upon taking office, the Speaker never speaks in debates and never votes unless there is a tie—that is, an equal number of votes on each side. The members also elect a Deputy Speaker from among the members. A number of officials sit in front of the Speaker, also facing the members. These include the Attorney-General, the Clerk and the Sergeant-at-Arms.

The Attorney-General

The Attorney-General advises the Parliament and government, and even members of the public, on all things related to the law, and also helps to write or draft the laws. He or she is chosen by the Prime Minister but appointed by the Governor-General.

The Clerk

The Clerk is a public servant appointed by the Public Service Commission. She or he looks after the administration or running of Parliament. The Clerk helps to write and print the Bills; arrange payments, travel and accommodation for the members; decides what

should be discussed each day in Parliament; and, with the help of others, writes or records the ‘minutes’ of what has been said. These are printed in a book called *Hansard*.

The Sergeant-at-Arms

The Sergeant-at-Arms is a police officer who carries the **mace** into Parliament. The mace is a decorated club, which is the symbol or sign of the power of Parliament and is always kept in Parliament when it is sitting.

Visitors

Anyone who is interested can attend sittings of Parliament, but they must not speak and must be reasonably dressed. Visitors sit in a gallery or high area above the chamber behind the members.



Figure 5.10 Sergeant-at-Arms

2 How Members of Parliament are elected

Now that you know something about Parliament, we must look at how the members get into Parliament. As we have seen, Solomon Islands has adopted a democratic system of government, so people are directly represented in the government by their Member of Parliament. These representatives are chosen by the people from among the candidates through elections.

Solomon Islands is divided into 50 areas or constituencies. This means there are 50 members, each representing one constituency. The members have a four-year term in Parliament and can be re-elected at the end of four years.

Figure 5.11 shows the boundaries of Solomon Islands **constituencies** in 2011.

Activity 6



Using the information you have just read and Figures 5.2–5.6 answer the following questions.

- 1 Name the three main groups of members in Parliament.
- 2 Which of these three groups must be biggest? Why?
- 3 What would happen if more members supported the Leader of the Opposition than the Prime Minister?
- 4 What is the job of the opposition?
- 5 How is the Speaker chosen and how is he or she different from other members?
- 6 The Prime Minister is said to be the most powerful person in Solomon Islands. List some of the things the Prime Minister can do that make him or her powerful.
- 7 Which three non-elected people sit in Parliament?
- 8 Give two reasons why it is better to have a Cabinet, rather than letting the whole Parliament make all the decisions.

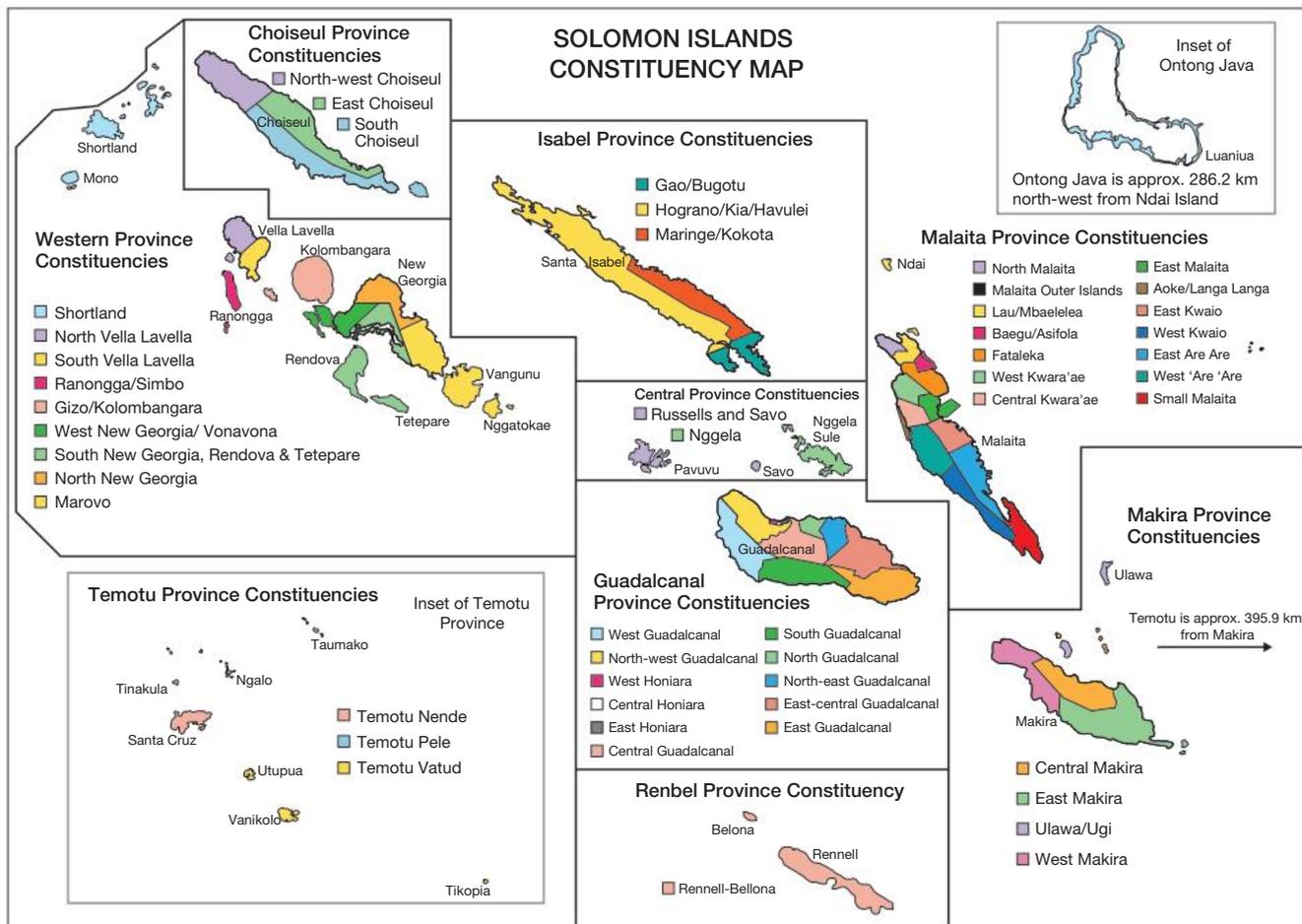


Figure 5.11 Solomon Islands Constituency Boundaries in 2011

Activity 7



- 1 What is meant by ‘election’ and ‘voting’?
- 2 Why do we choose a representative instead of involving all the people in making the government decisions?
- 3 What is a constituency?
- 4 Using Figure 5.11, complete the following table.

Note: There are 10 provinces including Honiara.

Province	Number of constituencies	At least one current Member of Parliament (if known)
?	?	?

- 5 Which province has the highest number of constituencies and why?
- 6 From what you know of the population of Solomon Islands, do all the constituencies have the same number of voters? Can you suggest why not? What problems may this cause?
- 7 Name all the Members of Parliament from your province known to you with their respective constituencies.

Registration

Before the general election, one of the important tasks is the registration of voters—that is, collecting and recording names of

people who are eligible or entitled to vote in each constituency. The important requirements are that you must be a Solomon Islands citizen and aged 18 years and above. You can only register to vote in one area and that should be the area where you usually live.

The Electoral Commission is a government office that makes an up-to-date list of voters' names by using registration forms. This is usually done just before an election. If you are over 18 and have not registered you should be able to get a registration form from your provincial headquarters.

Activity 8



Sometimes people register twice; that is, in two different constituencies such as their home area and also Honiara if they live there.

- 1 Why would this cause elections to be unfair?
- 2 How can this be prevented or stopped?

General election

When the term of four years of Parliament has come to an end, the Governor-General will set a date for an election. This date is 42 days from the day the Governor-General makes the announcement.

Preparation

Certain things must be done in preparation for the general election:

- 1 appointment of **electoral managers**
- 2 appointment of **returning officers** and **assistant returning officers** in every constituency
- 3 appointment of **presiding officers** and **polling assistants**.

The above officers are appointed by the Electoral Commission office. The electoral manager may sometimes be the **provincial secretary** whose job is to organise the election in a particular province. The returning officers and assistant returning officers then appoint the presiding officers and polling assistants to look after each **polling station** on election day. The polling station is the actual place where people cast their votes.

Nomination of candidates

Within 28 days of the Governor-General announcing the election, nominations take place. To nominate is to propose anyone as a candidate to stand for election. Any citizen of Solomon Islands over 21 years old can stand. The person must be nominated by three people, called nominators, who are registered voters in that particular constituency.

A person can nominate only one candidate. In 2010 the person wanting to stand had to pay a fee of \$2000 and this was not given back even if they lost. Parliament can change these amounts by changing the law. Candidates are required to resign from their employment if they are employed by the government. A candidate who wants to withdraw must do so within 72 hours after the close of nominations.

Activity 9



- 1 Write down the following and say where each one will be stationed and the area they will be in charge of during an election:

a electoral manager	c presiding officer
b returning officer	d polling assistant.
- 2 Find out how much the nomination fee is now.
- 3 During the last election, which polling station was nearest to your school or home?

Election penalties

Parliament believes that it is important that people follow the rules when voting in an election, or the election becomes unfair. That's why people who break the rules can be fined in the courts or even put in prison. New fines were passed by the National Parliament in 2009. The biggest problem with elections is that candidates try to pay people or give them gifts, like bags of rice, so they will vote for them. This is not fair as it means those who have most money to pay people or give gifts are more likely to win. Therefore, we will not get the best people in Parliament but the people with the most money.

The second problem is people voting who are not entitled to. This includes those who try to vote more than once either in the same place or in two different places. To prevent this, people who vote have a special ink painted on their fingers, which can be seen if they try to vote again. Sometimes people under 18 try to vote. Another offence is disturbing a public meeting by trying to prevent other candidates from speaking. The penalties for such offences in 2009 ranged from a fine of \$1000 or three months imprisonment to \$5000 or six months imprisonment. Parliament can increase them again at any time.

Activity 10



- 1 Ask people who took part in the last election in your constituency, or observe an election which takes place, and find out if any of these illegal practices took place.
- 2 List the reasons it is important that people follow the rules during elections.

Campaigning

When people want to stand for election they campaign, or try to persuade people to vote for them.



Figure 5.12 Officials preparing for election day

Activity 11



- 1 Imagine you are standing for election. Suggest three things you might do to persuade people to vote for you.
- 2 Is there any guarantee that candidates will really do the things they say they will do?
- 3 Some candidates promise to give people money or other benefits like paying school fees or building roads if they are elected to Parliament. Is this really the job of a Member of Parliament? From what you have learnt so far, what is the main job of a Member of Parliament? If they do give people money or other benefits, where will this come from? Think of where the government gets its money from.

Who would you vote for?

It is common for people to complain about their Member of Parliament, usually called their Honourable Member. However, the people who complain are the same people who elected the member—or perhaps did not bother to vote. The only way for us to get good members in Parliament or provincial assemblies is for each voter to think carefully about the person to vote for—are they really suitable to be a member?

Activity 12



- 1 In groups make a list of the things you would look for in a good candidate. Think of the kind of person who would be suitable, the experience they should have, and what they should have done in the past to make them suitable.
- 2 In your groups, discuss five things you think your Member of Parliament should do and five things they should not do. Share your group's ideas with the rest of the class.

Election day

Election day is the actual day that the general election takes place. This is the moment that registered voters choose the candidates they wish to represent them in the National Parliament. They do this by being given a **ballot paper** with the names of all the candidates, putting a tick against the candidate they want to vote for, and dropping the ballot paper into a sealed box.

Polling station

Polling stations are places where the actual voting takes place. There will be several polling stations in one electoral constituency. All voters should know which polling station they are to vote in on election day.

Activity 13



- 1 Who decides the date of general election day?
- 2 Who is allowed to vote on that day?
- 3 Where do voters go to cast their vote on election day?
- 4 Describe an electoral constituency and a polling station.



Figure 5.13 Voters check their names on the list at the polling station.

Ballot papers

A ballot paper is the official piece of paper used by voters to cast their votes. It is then put into the **ballot box**. Ballot papers are only given out by the presiding officers. No other person is allowed to supply ballot papers to any person.

When you go to the polling station, the polling assistant will check that your name is on the register of people allowed to vote in that constituency. This means you must have registered before the election or you will not be allowed to vote. It is too late to register when you go to the polling station. If your name is on the register, you will be given a ballot paper. These change for different elections. Your finger will be marked with ink that is difficult to remove, so you cannot vote twice.



Figure 5.14 Voting



Figure 5.15 A voter placing his ballot paper into the ballot box

In the 2010 election, each ballot paper contained a list of all the candidates standing in that constituency, with a symbol, like a canoe or a coconut tree, against each name for those voters who cannot read. You take this to a place in the polling station where no one can see you. You look through the list of candidates and put a tick (✓) in the box against the name or symbol of the person you want to vote for. Then you fold the ballot paper and place it in the ballot box with everyone else's ballot papers. There is only one box—that is, a 'single box system'. Only one person is allowed in the voting space at one time so no-one can see who you are voting for.

Counting

The polling stations are only open for a certain number of hours on election day—in 2011, this was from 7 a.m. until 5 p.m. If you are late you will not be allowed to vote.

All the ballot boxes are then collected and locked with a special lock. They are taken under police escort to a counting centre. This is usually the provincial headquarters or may be



Figure 5.16 Counting votes

a sub-station in a big province. In the counting centre every candidate is entitled to have a representative to see that the counting is fair. The boxes and the ballot papers are opened by the returning officers in the presence of the representatives, who have people to help them count. Each ballot paper is looked at to see who that person has put their tick (✓) against and the ballot papers with ticks (✓) are counted for each candidate. The candidate with the most number of people who voted for them wins.

The unofficial result is known once the votes are counted, but the result does not become official until it is announced by the Governor-General and published in the *Government Gazette*.

Activity 14



Make a numbered list of the steps from someone entering the polling station to counting the votes and declaring the winner.

3 Systems of election

'First past the post'

At least until 2011, when this book was written, members were elected by a system called 'first

past the post', because it is like a running race: the first to run past the winning post—that is the person with the highest number of votes—wins. There are proposals to change this, so you should check if it is still used.

This system works well if there are only two candidates, for instance Joe Wale and Freda Takea:

- Freda gets 55 votes.
- Joe gets 45 votes.

Freda has the most votes, so she wins—55%, or more than half of the people, voted for Freda.

But what if there are many candidates, for example ten? The votes may be as follows:

Mary Toklai	5 votes
Judith Sofia	15 votes
Ken Arofa	8 votes
Thomas Sitai	6 votes
Benjamin Sende	17 votes
Dorothy Maelea	14 votes
Lovelyn Havea	20 votes
Ashley Tokopia	10 votes
Jack Mapunga	3 votes
Fred Waroka	2 votes
Total	100 votes

Lovelyn Havea is the winner, but only 20 people, or 20% of the voters, voted for her. Eighty per cent of the people voted against her. So is she fit to represent all the people in the Parliament or Assembly? The problem is that the 20 people who voted for her may be her close relatives or the people in her village, so she really only represents a small group of people.

This is an increasing problem. In the 2001 national election, 40 out of the 50 Members of Parliament (80%) were voted for by less than 50% of the people who voted. Fourteen people got less than 30% of the votes. This means that

the Members of Parliament only represent a small proportion of the people in the country.

Other countries use other methods of election, which we could try. These are outlined below.

Run-off system

In France they have the election over two days. On the first day all candidates stand and they choose the two with the highest number of votes. On the second day only these two stand in a 'run-off', so the winner of this must be voted for by more than 50% of the people.

Preferential system

Voters number all the candidates in order of priority when they vote. That means they mark the candidate they most like as their first choice, the candidate they like next best as their second choice, and so on. All the first choices are counted and if anyone gets more than 50% of the votes, they win. If no one gets 50%, the candidate with the lowest number is eliminated or cut out. All the second choices of the people who voted for this candidate are then allocated to the candidates concerned to see if anyone now has over 50%. If not, they continue eliminating one candidate at a time until someone has more than 50%. A system like this is used in Australia.

Transferable vote

This is similar to preferential voting, but simpler. People vote for two of the candidates—first choice and second choice. If your first choice does not win, your vote is transferred to the candidate of your second choice. Again it means that the winner is likely to have some support from the majority of people.

Activity 15

In groups, discuss or debate the type of election system you believe that the Solomon Islands should adopt.



4 Problems of elections

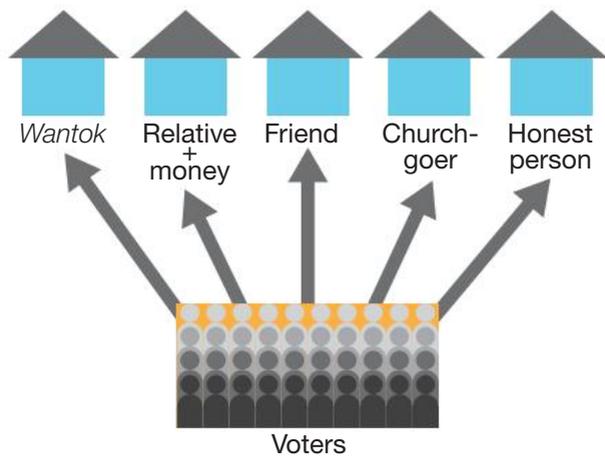


Figure 5.17 The problem of who to vote for

Activity 16

Study Figure 5.17 and answer the following questions.



- 1 What are some of the things shown in the diagram that make people vote for a particular candidate?
- 2 Which of the above factors is usually the main reason for voting a person into Parliament in your constituency?
- 3 In your opinion, what should be the best reason for voting a good leader into Parliament? Explain your answer.

There are many problems with elections in Melanesia. Some are caused by people thinking of custom and tradition rather than modern politics. Let's look at the main problems.

- 1 **Wantok business:** People believe they should vote for a relative or *wantok*, not because they are the best person but because they are their *wantok*. This is possible because we have so many language groups that people have a small number of *wantoks*.



Figure 5.18 Campaign comic from *Link*, SIDT Magazine

People are taught to be loyal to their relatives and *wantoks*. In larger countries people may have millions of people who speak the same language, so the idea of *wantok* does not really exist.

- 2 **Bribery:** Leaders think of the Melanesian custom of becoming a leader by becoming rich and giving away your wealth. So they give money or other goods to people to vote for them. Some say this is good Melanesian custom. Others say that it does not fit with modern voting: it is bribery or buying votes.
- 3 **What voters expect:** The third problem is the opposite. People think that they elect a member so this person can give things to the constituency like roads or schools, or even give them things personally like school fees or money to start a business. However, members are really elected to pass laws and rule the country, not just to help their own constituency or those people in it. The member may not have money to supply people with what they want, so they may start stealing or using government money meant for other things like education. Remember that all people in all constituencies want things, but there is not enough government money to supply

everyone. It should be shared out equally between all constituencies.

Also, remember where government money comes from—mainly from taxes that are paid by the people themselves. So if we expect members to give us money we are asking for higher taxes, or there will not be enough tax money for services that we want, such as schools and clinics.

- 4 **Constituency development funds:** Some governments have also caused problems themselves. They have given money to the members themselves to help ‘develop’ their constituencies. This is supposed to be spent on education, health, improving transport or other forms of development. However, if there is no control over this money, some members either use it to bribe people, as described above, or even use it for themselves. They may also try to find out who voted for them and only give money to those who did. Special people were appointed to look after this money, called constituency development officers. Some did this well by forming committees to look after the money. But others were friends of the members and simply helped the members to use it as they wanted. Sometimes this money comes from overseas aid and instead of aiding the country it only aids individual members.
- 5 **The election system:** The election system also causes problems. As people are elected for four years and cannot be called back, they make all sorts of promises they do not carry out. They may not even visit their constituency again in four years! Traditionally in the big-man system, if leaders did not do a good job they would soon lose respect and be replaced. With Members of Parliament we cannot get rid of them for four years. The only thing you can do if your member does bad things is to get together with others and let your member know that you will not vote for them again.

Activity 17



Divide into groups. Each group has been appointed to a Commission of Enquiry into election problems. Read each of the problems listed above. For each one, suggest ways we might overcome these problems. Report your findings to the rest of the class. Discuss the findings of each Commission as a whole class.

5 Political parties and forming a government



Figure 5.19 Comic strip on a political party from *Link*, SIDT Magazine

Many countries, including Solomon Islands, allow people who want to stand for election to join together into political parties.

In Solomon Islands we usually have many political parties created just before an election. Each of the parties creates and prints its manifesto (party platforms), which shows its policies—that is, all the things that the party wishes to carry out if it forms the government. Some candidates stand for parties in the election, while others do not join a party but stand as independents.

After a general election, the Members of Parliament come together to prepare for the election of a Prime Minister. Political parties have sets of policies and a particular candidate as their leader. In order to form a government, a party must have the support of more than half the members. They could then choose one of their own members as Prime Minister and carry out their policy in their manifesto.

Usually, however, no party has a clear majority of 26 members, so parties have to join together to form a government called a **Coalition Government**. This means that 26 or more members of different parties join together and agree to vote for a Prime Minister. There may also be independent members who do not join any party but can join a coalition if they wish.

After an election all members travel to Honiara and have about two weeks to decide who they will vote for as Prime Minister. As there is no rule that members have to stay in a particular party, some may change parties. Independents can vote for anyone as Prime Minister. This often means that members try to persuade other members to change parties and vote for their candidate, and they are also trying to persuade the independents. This may be done by arguing about policies, but it is also done by bribery—paying members to vote for a particular person or offering them a job as a minister if they vote for a particular person.

Many people say that members who join a party should be forced to vote for the candidate of

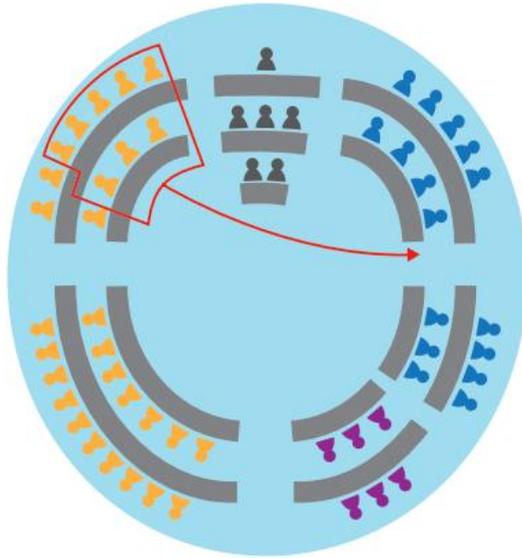
that party and not allowed to change sides; that even after choosing the Prime Minister they should still be forced to vote for all the policies of that party in Parliament and continue to support the Prime Minister. Others say it would be better if everyone was independent and we had no parties at all.

Advantages of having political parties

- 1 People think carefully about the political party policies before the election.
- 2 Each party has a plan and knows what they will do if they come to power.
- 3 People who vote for a party candidate know what that person will try to do if she or he wins.
- 4 If one or two large parties support the Prime Minister, he or she is likely to remain in power for four years and will be able to carry out the policies.
- 5 Members keep contact with people outside the Parliament through their parties. Party members inside and outside the Parliament may meet regularly in a **caucus**.

Problems of having political parties

- 1 Members may vote for policies because their party supports them, not because they believe the policies are good for the country.
- 2 Members may be more interested in keeping their party in power than in doing things to benefit the country or the people who elected them.
- 3 There may be no major differences between party policies. Members may be interested in parties simply to help candidates to become Prime Minister and probably offer them a job as a minister.



👤 Government
 👤 Opposition
 👤 Independents

Figure 5.20 Crossing the floor: in this diagram, eight government members are crossing the floor to join the Opposition.

- 4 Parties may have support only from one region. For instance, there may be a party of the western region and a party of the eastern region. This may result in differences and conflict among supporters, which could lead also to very weak governments.

Problems of having many parties

If there are many parties, all governments must be coalitions. Sometimes the opposition manages to persuade a lot of members of the government to change sides and support the opposition, perhaps by offering them jobs as ministers if the opposition wins. This is called ‘crossing the floor’. The diagram in Figure 5.20 will help you to understand why. They then propose a **‘motion of no confidence’**, meaning that the members no longer support the government. If the majority of members vote in favour of this and against the government, the Prime Minister must resign and a new one is elected by the members.

This happens in nearly every Parliament and Provincial Assembly. It means that members often do not spend their time trying to carry out policies to help the country or the people who voted for them. They spend their time trying to change the government so they can become ministers and earn large salaries. The government spends its time trying to stop them and no-one worries about governing the country or province. Since independence almost no National Government has lasted the full four years between elections without being changed by a motion of no confidence.

Activity 18



- 1 In the USA and some other countries, the President or Prime Minister is not elected by the Members of Parliament but by all the people in the country. This is a direct election, rather than Solomon Islands’ system of indirect election. Do you think it would be good if the Prime Minister was elected by all the people in the country and not just by the Members of Parliament? Give reasons for your answer.
- 2 In Britain and some other countries, if the Prime Minister loses a vote of no confidence, Parliament is dissolved and a general election is held. In Solomon Islands, Parliament can pass a vote of no confidence and change the Prime Minister without a general election. Some people say that this makes frequent changes of government more likely, as members can pass votes of no confidence without any danger of losing their own seat at a general election. Which system do you think is best? Give reasons.
- 3 Hold a debate on the motion ‘That all political parties should be abolished and all candidates should stand as independents’.

Alternative party systems

Apart from the ideas above there are other ways of solving the problems of parties. In many countries nearly all candidates who stand for election are members of a political party. People do not vote for the individual candidate but for the party they stand for.

Two- or three-party systems

Some countries have only two or three main political parties, for example:

- the USA: the Republican Party and the Democratic Party
- the UK: the Labour Party, the Conservative (Tory) Party and the Liberal Democrats
- Australia: the Labor Party, the Liberal Party, the Nationals (generally in coalition with the Liberal Party) and the Australian Greens.

When people vote they may not even know the candidate, but they know which party to vote for.

In the UK and Australia, after the election the leader of the party with the most members automatically becomes Prime Minister. There is no vote for Prime Minister.

Parties based on ideologies

In some countries like New Zealand and France there are many parties, so all governments are coalitions, as in Solomon Islands. However, most of their parties are based on agreed ideas about policies and the way the country should be run. These are called **ideologies**. Therefore, members rarely change sides, as they believe in the ideology of their party. Once elected, the government is likely to remain until the next general election. However, a whole party may change sides and

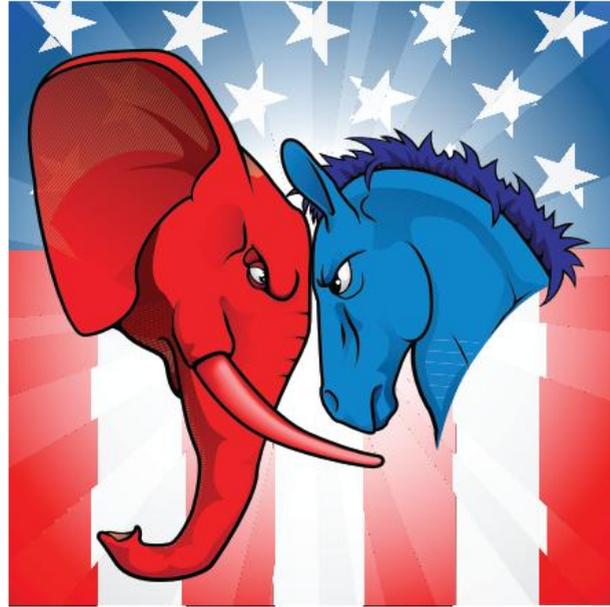


Figure 5.21 These are the symbols of the two main political parties in the USA: the Republicans (elephant) and the Democrats (donkey).

then the Prime Minister must resign and the government will change.

In Solomon Islands most parties are formed to support individuals without any clear ideology or policies that are different from others. So people change sides as soon as they start to disagree with the individual they supported and governments do not last long. This is similar in many other countries, for example Italy, where governments change frequently.

Proportional representation

In some countries people do not vote for individual candidates at all. They vote for parties. All the votes for each party are added up and each party is allowed to choose a number of members according to the proportion of votes they got. For example, if a party gets 30% of the votes, it chooses 30% of the members. It is the party that chooses the individual members, not the voters. This means the members cannot change sides.

6 Overcoming problems of changing governments

There are a number of ways we might be able to overcome the problems of constantly changing governments.

- 1 Do not allow votes of no confidence. However, then a person could continue to be a Prime Minister even if they were doing a very bad job and had lost the support of most of the people.
- 2 Do not allow votes of no confidence near the beginning and end of the four years of Parliament. However, governments could still change in the middle. This is done in Papua New Guinea.
- 3 Force all candidates who stand for election to join a political party and do not allow them to change parties once they have been elected. This has been tried in Papua New Guinea, but whole parties can still change sides. It has not worked there.
- 4 Do not divide into government and opposition after the election. After the Prime Minister or Premier is elected, she or he would divide all the members into committees to deal with different aspects of government such as Health, Education and Finance. Each group would choose a minister by voting. This means that all members would be working hard to improve their area of responsibility so they can get re-elected. There would be no opposition and there would be no need for political parties. This was tried before independence, but then changed. It might work best in provincial assemblies, where government and opposition may be unnecessary. The danger might be that all members might work for themselves, not the country.



Figure 5.22 Possible ways to overcome no confidence motions

- 5 Allow votes of no confidence in individual members by their constituents. The member could be recalled to be voted on, and possibly sacked, if a certain number of the people in his or her constituency asked for it. This is done in one part of Canada.

Activity 19



Discuss these ideas in groups.

- 1 All members must join a political party and no one can change parties.
- 2 Motions of no confidence should not be allowed.
- 3 There should be a committee system with no government or opposition.
- 4 All members must report back to their constituency every year and face a vote of no confidence if one is proposed.

7 How Parliament does its business

We have learnt how the Members of Parliament and the government are chosen. Now we will look at what actually happens in Parliament. The main job of Parliament is to form policies that help to run the country. If you listen to SIBC radio or watch the TV you will witness Parliament discuss things in three main ways:

- 1 a Bill
- 2 a Motion
- 3 question time.

A Bill

A **Bill** is a series of rules, or decisions for action, which the government would like to make into a law. It is introduced by a minister. If it passes through all the stages explained below, it becomes an **Act** and then it is part of the law and people must carry it out by obeying or doing what it says. If a Bill or Act is passed to stop the sale of alcohol or to sell all government houses, then the police, the courts and the ministry concerned must make sure those things are carried out.

Any member may introduce a Bill. A Bill introduced by a member who is not a minister is called a Private Member's Bill. These are quite rare in our Parliament.

One of the most important bills is the **Appropriations Bill** or the **Budget** at the end of each year. This is the Bill to give permission to the government to spend money. It contains the government's plans for collecting taxes and spending money for the next year. If it is not passed the government cannot run the country, as it cannot spend any money, so it must pass another Appropriations Bill or resign.

A Motion

A **motion** expresses the opinion of members, but it is not proposed as a law. If Parliament passes a motion that the sale of alcohol should be stopped or all government houses should be sold, it means the majority of members think these things ought to happen, but not that they will happen. A motion does not change the law or force people to do anything. If the members want anything to actually happen they must change the motion into a Bill.

Some motions are procedural motions, about what Parliament should do next, for example, the motions for adjournment or **sine die**. This is mainly an opportunity for members to talk about anything they want.

Question time

Questions can be asked at question time. Members can ask ministers for any information they want, but many members use questions, and extra or supplementary questions, to express their opinions of government policies as well.

The Speaker

All these procedures are controlled by the Speaker, with the help of the Clerk. They confirm what Parliament should do each day and the Speaker controls all debating and discussion. If members talked directly to each other they might become aggressive or argue too much, so the custom is that they always talk to the Speaker. You will hear them saying 'Mr Speaker, Sir' or, if we had a woman, 'Madam Speaker'.

The Speaker decides who should speak next and also makes sure all the rules of Parliament are followed. If any member starts to shout, become aggressive, swear at another member or even fight, the Speaker can tell them to stop or send them out of the chamber.

Bills and Acts

Before a Bill becomes an Act, and thus becomes a law, it must go through the stages shown in Figure 5.23.

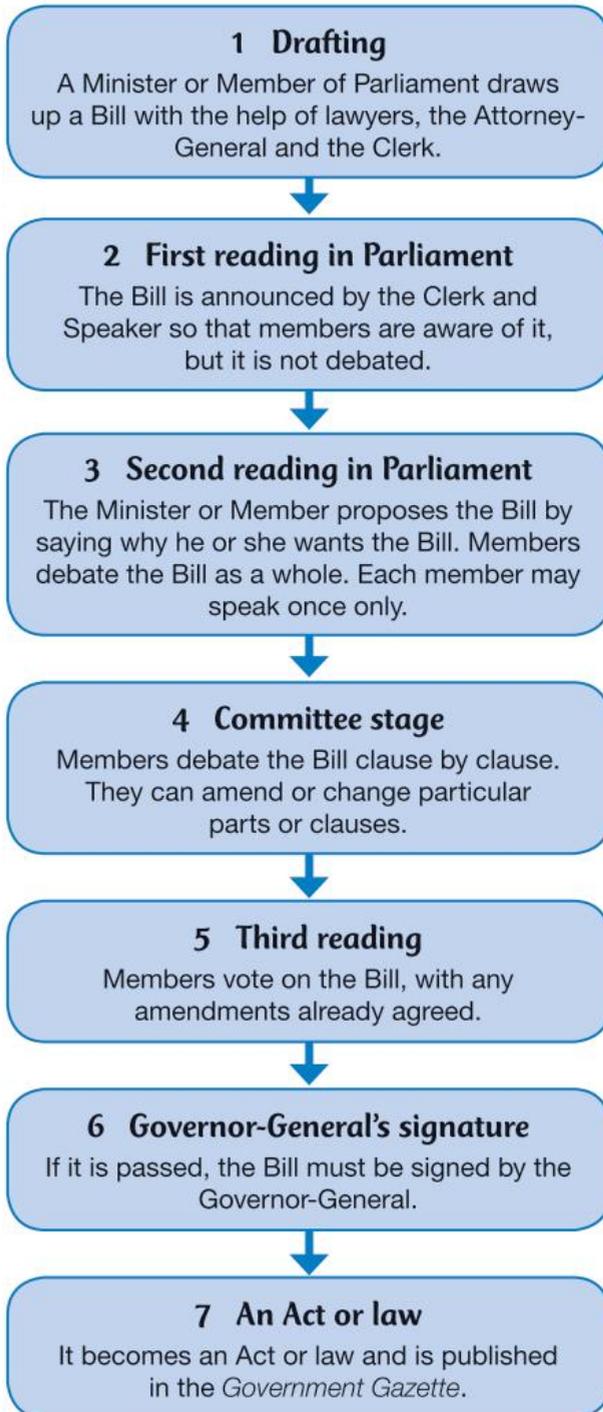


Figure 5.23 How a Bill becomes an Act or law



Figure 5.24 Bill, motions and questions

Activity 20



- 1 Turn your classroom into Parliament to draw up a Bill to encourage students to speak English and discourage Pijin at school.
- 2 In groups, draw up a Bill, or list of rules, for speaking in English and Pijin in school. Your Bill should have a number of clauses (parts) saying when people must speak English and when Pijin is allowed, and the punishments for breaking the rules.
- 3 One person should become the Minister of Education to propose the Bill.
- 4 One group should become the government to support it.
- 5 Another group should become the Opposition. Some people may remain independent.
- 6 Arrange the desks as in Parliament. You may elect a Speaker or your teacher may act as Speaker. A Clerk is not necessary. Sit according to the diagram in Figure 5.6 on page 91.
- 7 Follow the processes in Figure 5.23. Vote on any amendments (changes) suggested during the committee stage.
- 8 Vote on the whole Bill at the third reading to see if the majority agree with it.

Parliamentary committees

The National Parliament has a committee system that enables Members of Parliament to look at issues in more detail than is possible in the normal sittings of Parliament. It also enables the public to have direct contribution into the work of Parliament.

Appointment of committees

Select committees are appointed from among the members of the House at the start of each Parliament (after a general election). The Speaker decides on the size of every select committee and also nominates or chooses the chairperson and the members of each. Membership usually ranges from five to seven per committee. Within Parliament, there are two main types of select committees: Standing Select Committees, which are permanent, and Special Select Committees, which are appointed to look at one particular issue.

In 2011, there were five Standing Select Committees: Public Accounts Committee, Parliamentary House Committee, Bills and Legislation Committee, Constitution Review Committee and Foreign Relations Committee.

Special Select Committees can call members of the public to give evidence either by inviting individuals or calling for any members of the public who want to contribute. They can also

hold meetings in other places around the country.

In the past, Special Select Committees have investigated and reported on the following issues:

- inquiry on ten Kwaio men missing after being sent to the Weather Coast of Guadalcanal in June 2002
- inquiry into the work of the Regional Assistance Mission to Solomon Islands (RAMSI). This committee toured all over Solomon Islands getting opinions.
- inquiry into the work of the National Referral Hospital (Number 9).



Figure 5.25 A sitting of the Foreign Relations Committee

Activity 21



- 1 What is the aim of a parliamentary committee?
- 2 Who sits on the committee?
- 3 Who appoints the committees?
- 4 How can the public contribute to Parliament through a parliamentary committee?
- 5 What is the main difference between a Standing Select Committee and Special Select Committee?
- 6 Copy and complete the table below by writing in your own words what you think each committee does.

Standing Select Committee	Function/work
Public Accounts Committee	?
Parliamentary House Committee	?
Bills and Legislation Committee	?
Constitution Review Committee	?
Foreign Relations Committee	?

8 Solomon Islands: A constitutional monarchy

We have seen that before a Bill becomes a law it must be signed by the Governor-General. The Governor-General, like the Prime Minister, is elected by the Parliament. However, the Governor-General is elected from someone who is not in Parliament, and he or she does not sit in Parliament. Although Britain no longer rules Solomon Islands, the Queen of England is still the Head of State. This means that officially she is head of the government and the country, although she does not have the power to do things. The Governor-General is her representative in Solomon Islands. That is why the Governor-General must sign all new laws passed. The Governor-General performs many other duties, such as public ceremonies and official visits. All Acts of Parliament must be signed by the Governor-General, who cannot refuse to sign them.

In some countries, for example the USA, the Head of State is the President. The President of the USA performs the roles of the Prime Minister and the Governor-General.



Figure 5.26 Queen Elizabeth II

This British system was continued in Solomon Islands even after independence, perhaps for two reasons:

- 1 It saves the Prime Minister a lot of work attending official ceremonies, so he or she can concentrate on running the country.
- 2 It may be easier to accept a 'neutral' or independent foreign person as Head of State than to choose one person from among many islands and groups in Solomon Islands.

This means that officially Solomon Islands is a **constitutional monarchy**, with a hereditary Queen as Head of State. A monarch is another word for a queen or king. A constitutional monarchy is one where the power of the monarch is limited by a set of laws called the constitution. If the Head of State were elected, we would become a republic.

Activity 22



In 2012 there was a proposed new constitution to make Solomon Islands a republic with an elected Head of State or President instead of the Queen. By the time you read this book this may have happened. This could be done EITHER by Parliament electing the Head of State as was being proposed OR by the Head of State being elected by everyone in the country as in the USA. Use your class Parliament to debate the motion: 'That the Head of State should be elected by all the people of the country'.



Figure 5.27 The Governor-General in 2012, Sir Frank Kabui

CASE STUDIES

Other systems of government

Our system of government is only one of many systems in the world. We could change our system at any time by Parliament amending or changing the Constitution. To help you decide if you think this would be a good idea, read the following case studies of other systems of government.

A republic: the United States of America

A republic is a country where the Head of State is elected, like in the United States of America (the USA).

The main language of the USA is English, as many of the states which make it up were originally colonies of England. People from England and other parts of Europe came to North America and took away the land from the original inhabitants, the Native Americans or First Nations (wrongly called Indians). They settled there in a number of states and later these joined together into the United States of America. This can be called a federation or a federal system.

After some time these people did not agree with the King of England and fought a War of Independence against England. They won the war and started to rule themselves.

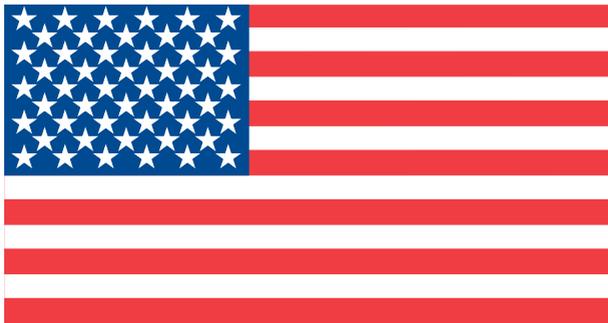


Figure 5.28 The flag of the USA is called the 'Stars and Stripes'. Each star represents one state.



Figure 5.29 Barack Obama, the President of the USA in 2012

The USA is ruled by a President, who is elected by the people in the country. Every adult in the country is entitled to a vote. There are usually two candidates: one from the Republican Party and one from the Democratic Party.

They also have a Parliament or Congress with two houses: the House of Representatives, voted by constituencies (just like in the Solomon Islands Parliament), and the Senate, also voted for, but with a certain number of members from each state. Each state also has its own 'assembly'.

The President chooses a Cabinet from outside Congress (Parliament), so he or she can choose anyone willing to support them. The President does not sit in Congress so the whole government is really separate from Parliament or Congress. There is no Prime Minister, as the President has the powers of a Prime Minister.

The President is powerful in the USA's relations with other countries and can even take the country into a war. But if he or she wants to introduce a law in the USA, it must be passed by Congress, and Congress often rejects laws proposed by the President.

A federation: Australia

A federation is a country with a number of states joined together by agreement. The USA is a federation, and so is Australia.

Like parts of the USA, Australia was colonised by British people and their system of government is similar to ours. It is a constitutional monarchy, based on the British system with the Queen as Head of State, a Governor-General as the Queen's representative, and a Prime Minister. However, Australia also follows a system that some people would like us to use here: a federal system.

Originally there were six settlements of British people in Australia, all separate colonies. In 1901 they joined together to form a federation. This meant that they formed a central or federal government, but each state also has its own government, with a Parliament, Premier and Ministers. The state governments control many things like education, police, health and many social services, and they can also raise taxes. The federal government controls other aspects of health, education, welfare and taxes, and is also in charge of foreign affairs, the military, and providing many other important services.



Figure 5.30 The Australian Government is a federation. This is their Parliament; it is bigger than ours.

As the states came together by agreement, the federal government cannot take away any powers from the states unless they agree.

Activity 23



In Solomon Islands, we already have provinces, but they only have powers given to them by the central government and these can be taken away again. Some people think we should have a federal system with states like Australia. The states would have many powers that could not be taken away by the central government and they would receive a large share of the money the government receives. Make a list of advantages and disadvantages of such a system.

A one-party state: China

A one-party state is a country where only one political party is allowed. China is one example. China used to be ruled by an emperor, like a king, but the emperors did not rule well. All the land in the country was owned by a few powerful, very rich landlords. Most people had no land and were very poor.

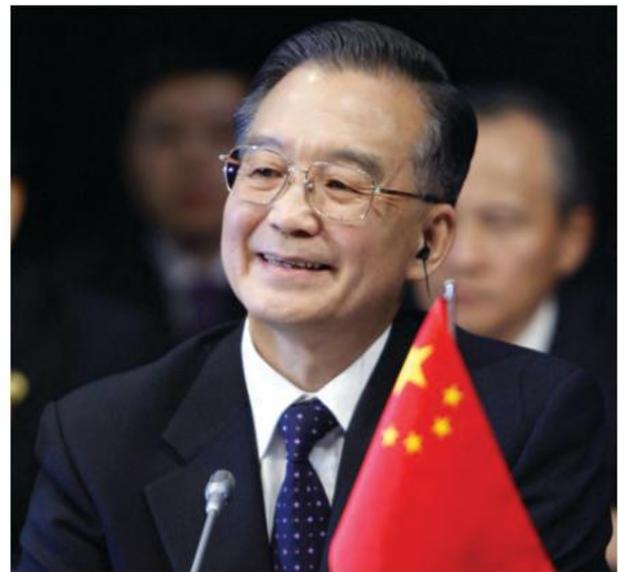


Figure 5.31 Wen Jiabao, the Chinese Premier in 2010

National Government

The **Communist Party** followed the ideas of Karl Marx and put forward the idea that all the land should be taken from the landlords and controlled by groups of people on **communes**. No land should be owned by private people. This idea was popular and the communists gained power after a fight. The land was taken from the landlords and divided into communes where land was owned by all the community. This benefited the poorer people who did not own land before. Most of the landlords were killed. People there are now much more equal. There is not so much poverty and services like health and education are free to everyone. However, some land has now been given back to the people and people are allowed to run their own businesses, so it is not really communist any more.

The Communist Party said that their way was the best way to rule the country and there was no need for any other party. Although there are elections, only members of the Communist Party are allowed to stand. The Prime Minister and Cabinet must be from the Communist Party and the leader of the Communist Party is the most powerful person in the country. People are often put in prison or even killed for opposing the Communist Party.

Military government or dictatorship: Fiji (2006–?)

If a country is ruled by the army, we say it has a military government. If a country is ruled by one man who does not allow elections or opposition, this is called a **dictatorship**. A **dictator** is a person who rules a country, makes laws and issues orders on his or her own without any parliament. Fiji was a military dictatorship from 2006 at least until 2011.

Like Solomon Islands, Fiji was ruled by the British who started a Westminster System there. Nearly half the population were originally from

India. They had been brought by the British to work on sugar plantations as indentured labourers, like those taken to Queensland from here by blackbirders. Others came later as traders, like the Chinese here.



Figure 5.32 This photo was taken during the fourth military coup in Fiji.



Figure 5.33 Fijian Army Chief, Frank Bainimarama in 2012

This caused many disputes between the Indians or Indo-Fijians and the original or indigenous Fijians. Many of the indigenous Fijians did not want the Indo-Fijians to gain power and they used the army, which has a majority of indigenous Fijians, to prevent this. Fiji has a very powerful army and four times since 1987 the army has taken over, ruling the country by force. This is called a **coup**. Parliament was abolished; there were no elections and the army commander ruled the country through the army.

In the fourth coup, Fiji’s military ruler Frank Bainimarama became a dictator. He overthrew the elected government in 2006. He promised reforms but refused to hold elections until 2014. Unlike other coup leaders, Bainimarama sided with the Indians in many ways. He said the Constitution was wrong because each group, indigenous Fijians and Indian Fijians, elected separate Members of Parliament. He wanted them all to elect together but he said this could not be done unless the army forced it to be done.

Activity 24



- 1 Find out if Fiji is still ruled by a military dictatorship.
- 2 During the period of Tension in Solomon Islands in 2000, the government was taken over in a way that some people called a coup. Some people threatened the Prime Minister with guns and told him he must call an election for a new Prime Minister. He gave in and called a meeting of parliament and a new Prime Minister was elected. How was this similar to, and different from, what happened in Fiji?
- 3 Copy and complete the following table, using information on pages 109–12.
- 4 State which country or countries each statement below refers to:
 - a Only one party is allowed.
 - b The Head of State is a monarch.
 - c There are state parliaments or assemblies as well as a central or federal government.
 - d The Prime Minister is the leader of the political party with the most members in parliament.
 - e Parliament has almost no power.
 - f Little private ownership of land is allowed.
 - g The President is elected by all the people.
 - h Cabinet is chosen from Members of Parliament.
 - i The ruler is the army leader.
 - j The Head of State is hereditary.
- 5 Write down the letters of all the above statements that also apply to Solomon Islands.

	Solomon Islands	The USA	Australia	China	Fiji
Type of government	?	?	?	?	?
Head of State or ruler or most powerful person	?	?	?	?	?
Opposition allowed?	?	?	?	?	?
Prime Minister (if any) chosen by	?	?	?	?	?
Cabinet chosen from	?	?	?	?	?

Have you achieved your goals?

Look back at your goals at the beginning of the chapter. Check whether you have achieved each goal.

- Have you gained knowledge and understanding of each of the topics in the goals?
- Can you use each of the skills mentioned in the goals?
- Have you formed your own ideas and opinions about the topics in the chapter?
- Write a brief summary of not more than one page of what you have learnt in this chapter.

Glossary

an Act of Parliament a set of laws on a particular topic which is passed by the majority of members and which everyone in the country must then follow

Appropriations Bill the Bill or Act that deals with government money for the next year, showing how much money the government thinks it will receive and how much it proposes to spend. Usually called the Budget

assistant returning officer assists the returning officer to take charge of the election in a constituency

ballot a vote in an election recorded by marking a ballot paper and putting this into the ballot box

ballot box the box into which voters place their ballot papers

ballot paper the form on which a voter records their vote by placing a tick next to their preferred candidate

Budget the Appropriations Bill

caucus a meeting of the members of one party

coalition government a government formed of a number of parties and sometimes independents in an alliance to support each other

Commission of Inquiry an inquiry appointed by Parliament to look into particular cases or events and find out the facts

communes large farms owned and worked by all the people who live on it

Communist Party a party formed to follow the ideas of Karl Marx that land, businesses and wealth should be owned or controlled by the government, not private individuals, and that wealth and resources should be shared equally. The government of China calls itself communist but does not follow those ideas.

consensus agreeing on something through discussion without voting

- Congress** the Parliament of the USA consisting of two parts or houses: the House of Representatives and the Senate
- constituencies** an area of the country that elects one representative or member to Parliament
- constitution** the main rules and laws governing a country
- constitutional monarchy** a government ruled by a queen or king through a Parliament, where the Parliament has the power to govern
- coup** when the government is taken over by force
- defence** protecting the country from foreign attacks and dealing with any attacks that may occur
- democracy** a system of government where people can choose their own representatives to form the government
- dictator** a person who rules a country, often using force, without allowing any Parliament, voting or opposition
- dictatorship** a country ruled by a dictator
- electoral manager** the person in charge of the election in a constituency
- Executive** the people chosen to decide on government policies and recommend laws; consists of all the ministers in charge of departments
- federal system** a system of government in which a number of states with equal powers are joined together under a central government that cannot take away the powers of the states
- foreign affairs** relationship between one country and others
- Governor-General** a person elected by Parliament to represent the Queen in Solomon Islands
- hereditary** passing on powers or wealth to members of the same family when someone dies
- ideologies** beliefs in particular political systems or policies
- Judiciary** the judges and other legal officers who make sure the laws are carried out and can punish those who do not obey the laws
- laws** rules passed by Parliament which everyone in the country must follow
- Leader of the Opposition** a Member of Parliament elected to represent all the members who are opposed to the government
- Legislature** the part of the government which debates, makes laws and decides on policies for ruling the country
- mace** a large carved metal object like a club, which is the symbol of the power of Parliament
- manifesto** a statement of what a particular party believes in and the policies it proposes
- Members of Parliament** representatives elected to Parliament by all people, each representing one area or constituency
- motion of no confidence** a proposal brought into Parliament that says the Members no longer support the Prime Minister. If passed by the majority of Members, the Prime Minister must resign
- motion** a proposal or opinion brought to Parliament for discussion and voting, but which will not become law
- Motions for adjournment** a motion, when Parliament is about to finish, under which members can talk about almost anything they wish; called **sine die**
- national government** the central government in Honiara
- National Parliament** the Parliament in Honiara which rules the whole country
- political parties** groups of people who join together, propose policies and try to get elected to Parliament

National Government

polling assistants people who assist the presiding officer

polling station a place where voting or polling takes place

polling voting

presiding officers the person in charge of a polling station

provincial government governments of each province including provincial assemblies and provincial ministries or departments

provincial secretary the person who organises the election in a particular province

Queen the Head of State of England who is also the Head of State of Solomon Islands, represented by the Governor-General

returning officers in charge of the election in a constituency

security dealing with keeping law and order and making sure the country is peaceful

Shadow Cabinet the Leader of the Opposition and shadow ministers joined as a group

shadow ministers members of the opposition chosen by the opposition to look after the areas covered by each Ministry

sine die a motion debated in Parliament just before it closes or adjourns for a holiday period. Members can talk about any issues they want

states areas of a country with their own government and powers which the central government cannot control

unitary system a system of government with only one central government and Parliament, which has power over all the other parts such as provinces

Westminster System the British system of government based in Westminster in London and forming the basis of the Solomon Islands system at independence

Chapter 6

Rules, Laws and the Courts



My goals:

- to know what rules and laws are and why we need them
- to know the types of laws in Solomon Islands
- to understand the concepts of rule of law and basic human rights and why these are important
- to understand the difference between criminal and civil cases
- to know the hierarchy of courts in Solomon Islands and the functions of each
- to appreciate the importance of the independence of the Judiciary
- to understand the difference between punitive and restorative justice
- to know what happens in a typical court case

People often say that parents are our first teachers. Our parents help us to grow up as good and well-behaved children. It is in our families that we learn all the ideas, **customs** and expectations of the community in which we live. Our families and communities may have both formal and informal rules. Informal rules are often called customs.

Activity 1



- 1 In Year 7 you learnt about formal and informal leaders. Remembering this, what do you think is the difference between formal and informal rules?
- 2 Write down three important things you must do as a sign of respect to your parents.
- 3 What do you think would happen if you did not do these things?
- 4 Are these signs of respect formal rules or informal rules or both?
- 5 Do you think families should have formal rules for children to follow?
- 6 Who do you think should have the most say in deciding the family rules in your family?
- 7 What ideas from outside the family could guide you in deciding these rules?



Figure 6.1 It is important to listen to and respect older people.

Today all our schools have their own school rules. These rules are written down, so they are formal rules. They exist to help guide and control student behaviour in each school.

Activity 2



- 1 In small groups, draw up five classroom rules for your class and compare these with other groups. Each group should give reasons why their rules should be included as one of the five classroom rules.
- 2 All groups will then select five classroom rules that can be used for the whole class.

In the past, our ancestors have also developed customs to guide and control people's actions in the community. A lot of these customs and traditions were handed down from one generation to another and some of these customs are still being followed today. Most of these customs and practices have been developed from people's day-to-day experiences with each other. Most of these customary rules can be called **informal rules**.



Figure 6.2 Traditional chiefs

Activity 3



- 1 List five traditional customs or rules that were accepted by all members of the community that you or your parents come from.
- 2 How or why do you think these customary rules developed?
- 3 Which of these customary rules are still followed and which are no longer followed?
- 4 Which of the customary rules do you think should be kept and which should be changed?
- 5 Why do you think they should be changed?
- 6 Who should be involved in changing these customary rules in your communities?
- 7 How did the community punish people who broke these customary rules? Are people still punished in these ways?
- 8 How do you think people who break these customary rules should be punished today?

1 Importance of law in Solomon Islands

Today we also have formal rules in Solomon Islands which we call laws.

Activity 4



- 1 Write down five examples of laws that people in Solomon Islands must follow.
- 2 For each one, explain why that particular law is important.
- 3 Give examples of laws that have been broken by people in your community.
- 4 What type of punishments are usually given to those people who break the law?

Activity 5



As you read the following passages, make a list of all the reasons we have laws in a country like Solomon Islands.

Why do we need laws? As you learnt in Year 7, Solomon Islands consists of many different ethnic or cultural groups speaking different languages. As we are all from different cultures, we will always have differences in ideas and customs, and these differences often lead to disorder and disharmony between our people. In order for us to live and work together peacefully in our country, we need some form of control and guidance.

Laws can be defined as a set of formal or official rules that are generally accepted by everyone in the country. The different laws we have in our country are very important for a number of reasons. As individuals and groups, we have different ideas and values that often lead to disputes and crimes. The laws are therefore set up to guide and control our behaviour so that we all follow the same rules and keep the peace between all citizens.

Laws also help to restore order if there are disputes between people or communities.



Figure 6.3 If you do not follow laws, you may be arrested.

Rules, Laws and the Courts

They are used as a reminder for people not to do bad things that may harm other people. In a democratic country like Solomon Islands, the laws protect the rights of each individual. This means that individuals are free to enjoy their freedom so long as their actions do not harm others.

Some of the laws are there to control the powers and responsibilities of the government and leaders. There are leaders, for example, who sometimes think that they are 'above the law' and are allowed to do anything they want. The laws are there to remind them that they must follow the same rules as everyone else.

The laws are also important because they are used to keep the peace by being used to settle disputes and resolve differences between people. People who have disputes or differences can go to court and the court decides who is right and who is wrong according to the law.

There are also laws that support healthy life by making sure that people keep their surroundings and the environment clean and tidy. Finally, there are other laws that are there to promote business activities and make sure there is a good relationship between individuals and business companies. Businesses must follow rules that prevent them from selling bad goods.



Figure 6.4 A fight



Figure 6.5 Laws against throwing away litter help to keep places clean.

Other laws make sure that businesses treat the people they employ well and pay them properly.

Activity 6



- 1 What is a law?
- 2 What do you think may happen if your community does not have customs or laws to maintain order?
- 3 Look at your list of reasons for having laws in our country that you completed in Activity 5. List the reasons in order of importance and compare your list with those of other students.
- 4 Why do you think some of the laws are more important and others are less important?
- 5 Can you add any more important laws not included in the list you have made?

2 Types of law in Solomon Islands

As you learnt in Year 7, before the British came and joined Solomon Islands into one nation there were many different cultural and language groups. Each group was like a separate nation with its own customs, laws and government. Now that we have been joined together into one nation with one government, we must have a common set of laws that the government can apply to all citizens. At first the British colonial government wrote and applied these laws, but when Solomon Islands became independent in 1978, a new body of laws called the **Constitution** was written and adopted.

The Constitution sets out the system of government and the responsibilities of the government. It was developed and written after consulting and collecting information from people right across the country. It was then negotiated with the British colonial government, as you learnt in Year 7.

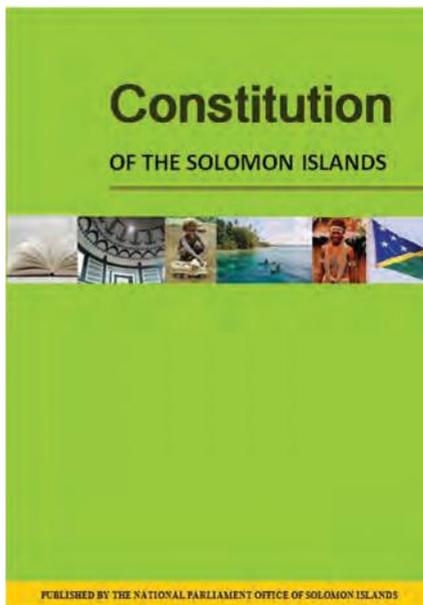


Figure 6.6 The Constitution sets out the responsibilities of government.

The Constitution is the most important set of laws of our country and cannot be changed easily. A change can only be made if two-thirds of the Members of Parliament vote in favour of the change.

Another type of law we have in Solomon Islands is called an **Act of Parliament**. Acts of Parliament are new laws made by the National Parliament in addition to the laws in the Constitution. Before an Act of Parliament becomes law and is enforced by government authorities, there are steps that must be followed. Figure 6.7 on page 122 sets out how an Act of Parliament is made into law. Before it becomes a law it is called a Bill.

In Chapter 5, you learned about how a Bill is presented before the National Parliament. A Bill or Draft Act is a written document that has not been passed by the National Parliament or agreed to by the Governor-General. As you learnt on page 107, the Bill must go through the 1st and 2nd readings, the committee stage and 3rd reading stage. During the committee stage, Parliament sits as a committee of the whole house to go through the Bill clause-by-clause and may suggest and approve changes or amendments for each clause of the Bill.

The third type of law in Solomon Islands is known as **subsidiary legislation**. These include regulations, rules, by-laws or orders. These laws are made by national leaders such as ministers, who are given the power to make these laws. Like any other laws, a number of steps must be followed before these laws are enforced by government authorities, as shown in Figure 6.9 on page 122.

We also have laws known as **ordinances** or **by-laws**. These laws are made by provincial governments or the Honiara City Council, and written by lawyers employed by them. In some cases they may ask the Drafting Section of the Attorney-General's office to check their proposed laws or regulations.

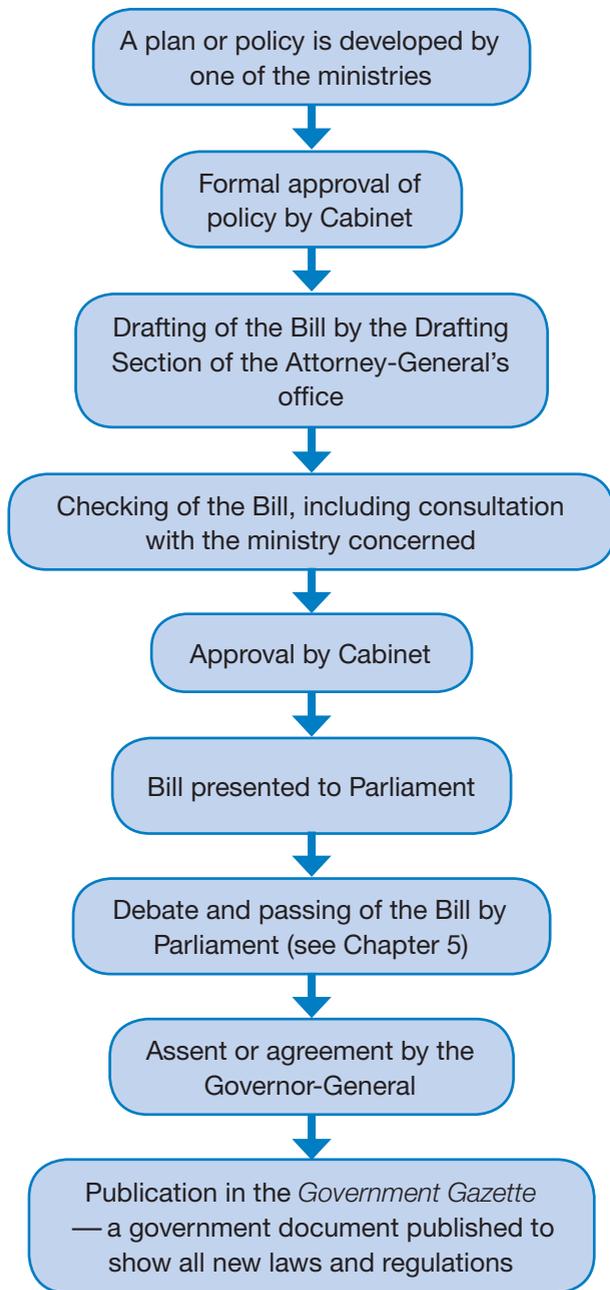


Figure 6.7 How a Bill becomes an Act of Parliament

A fifth type of law we have in Solomon Islands is called **common law**. This has been developed from the decisions made by judges in courts, which may happen at any time. Some laws have been developed since independence, but a lot of our common laws have been borrowed from the British common laws before independence.



Figure 6.8 A Parliament committee

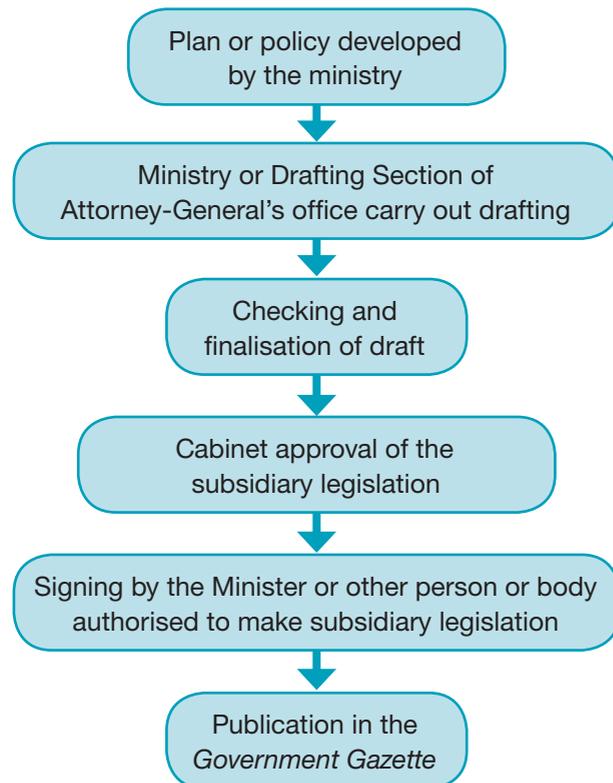


Figure 6.9 How subsidiary legislation is developed

Activity 7



Copy the following table and fill it in to show the differences between the five different types of law explained on pages 121–2.

Types of laws

Name of type of law	Who makes the law and how it is made
?	?

3 The rule of law

Solomon Islands is a democratic country. This means we all have the right to have a say in how our laws are made by electing or choosing the Members of Parliament who make the laws, and by being able to speak freely about whether we agree with them or not.

Under the idea or concept of the **rule of law**, government and citizens and other people living in the country are under the law, which means they have to obey the laws. This means that the country is ruled under fixed laws or rules and not by the ideas promoted by individuals. In Solomon Islands, our laws are made by the National Parliament and other government authorities, or by provinces, and we have courts to make sure people keep the laws and punish them if they do not.

The concept of the rule of law means that:

- no one person is ‘above the law’
- the courts are independent from the government
- order is maintained in the society.

In some countries there are different laws for leaders, members of the government, members of particular parties or people in the army. For instance in Italy in 2011, the Prime Minister



Figure 6.10 In 2011, Silvio Berlusconi, Prime Minister of Italy, could not be taken to court even though he was accused of breaking some laws.

could not be taken to court even though he was accused of breaking the law. As you learnt in the last chapter, in China there are special rules for members of the Communist Party. In 2011, Fiji was ruled by the army, so it was more difficult to take army people to court.

Activity 8



- 1 What do you think is meant by the phrase that ‘in Solomon Islands no one is above the law’?
- 2 Do you agree or disagree with the idea that there should be different laws for our national leaders and different laws for the ordinary people? Give your reasons.
- 3 When government leaders break the law, how should they be punished by the law? Should they be given different types of punishment from other people?
- 4 Write down two advantages and two disadvantages of having different laws for different people in the country.

4 The law and our rights

Activity 9



- 1 As you read the following passages, write down seven basic or human rights enjoyed by Solomon Islanders.
- 2 Why do you think these basic or human rights are important to you as a citizen of Solomon Islands.

As Solomon Islanders, we should be proud because we are living in a democratic country where our individual rights, or freedom to have or do certain things, are protected by law. Under our national Constitution, all individuals enjoy a number of freedoms given to us as citizens of Solomon Islands.

As we saw in the last chapter, not all countries are like this. Some countries are military dictatorships where the army makes and controls the laws, so you have to obey the army. Other countries are one-party states, where members of one particular political party have more rights than others.



Figure 6.11 A sitting of the United Nations General Assembly

The laws we have in Solomon Islands are, therefore, important because they serve the purpose of protecting the rights of all Solomon Islanders. As individuals, our human rights are protected by law. Human rights are things that the members of the United Nations have agreed all human beings should have. Some of these basic human rights include:

- the right to education and to live in a family
- the right to live peacefully without being beaten or physically attacked or punished
- the right to vote for our leaders in government
- the right to run businesses and own properties
- the right to move freely
- the right to express your opinion in the media or elsewhere
- the right to hold meetings and take part in activities in large groups
- the right to live in a clean environment.

In many countries people do not have all of these rights. The United Nations has agreed that these basic rights should also be given to children.

All citizens in our country have the right to live in an environment where they can enjoy their life without fear. The government ensures that these basic human rights are protected under the law of the country. The court system in Solomon Islands is one way in which the government protects our rights as Solomon Islanders. Anyone who breaks the law will be punished fairly by the law of the country.

The court system is the proper government authority, responsible for upholding the law of the country. **The Judiciary**, which looks after the courts, is just one of the three branches of government, working alongside but independently of the Legislature or Parliament and the Executive.



Figure 6.12 A police station

The government has a national duty to look after all citizens in the country. It is an important responsibility of the government to promote and uphold respect for human dignity and basic **human rights**. This means that everyone must be treated equally before the law of the country. In Solomon Islands, the Constitution ensures that the powers of the police are regulated and limited by law. Any individual arrested for or charged with any crime is considered innocent until they are found guilty by trial in a court of law. If their crime is not too serious, they can be bailed by paying money or **bail** to the **police** or the court, which they do not get back unless they come to this trial. They then live a normal life while waiting for the case to be heard by the courts. This practice gives greater protection to the one who has been accused of a crime. This means that the settlement of any dispute still recognises the rights of everyone involved in the dispute.

Therefore, as citizens of this country, it is important to remember that while our rights are protected by the law, we must not do anything that harms the rights of other citizens. This means that we must always take great care and responsibility in the way we act and use our rights so as not to spoil the lives of our fellow citizens.



Figure 6.13 A person paying bail for a friend who has been arrested

Activity 10



- 1 Which of the basic rights do you enjoy in your family or community?
- 2 Are any of these basic rights sometimes not observed in your own family or community?
- 3 Have you experienced and seen situations where people's basic rights are not protected?
- 4 Have you experienced or seen situations where children are mistreated by adults? What human rights may be broken when this happens?
- 5 Why is it important for people to vote for their Members of Parliament?
- 6 In your opinion, what form of punishment should we give to people who do not respect other people's rights?
- 7 What are some of the things we can do to ensure that other people's rights are respected and protected?

Conflict between our rights and the law

Sometimes there is a conflict between people's rights and the law. It is not clear whether or not someone should be punished for breaking the law.

Activity II



In groups discuss the following situations and decide whether or not the people should be arrested and punished for breaking the law. What human rights are involved in each case?

- 1 A woman is selling betel nut along a public road in town without a licence. She says this is the only way she can get money to feed her children. Should she be arrested and taken to court?



Figure 6.14 This woman is selling betel nut without a licence.

- 2 A young boy is constantly stealing money from his parents to buy marijuana. They have warned him many times. Finally his father beats him so severely that the boy ends up in hospital and nearly dies. Should the father be arrested for beating his son?



Figure 6.15 These houses have been set on fire to scare away the newcomers.

- 3 A logging company is cutting timber above a village with the permission of the chief, who is being paid by the logging company but is giving no money to other villagers. This is causing the water supply to be polluted, so people have no clean water for drinking or swimming. A group of villagers decide to burn the bulldozers belonging to the logging company. Should they be arrested?
- 4 A family from one island has bought land on another island by paying the chief for the land. They then allow large numbers of their *wantoks* to come and settle on the land and some of them have no work and start to drink, fight and steal from local people. A group of young men from the surrounding area attacks the houses of the newcomers, burns them down and forces the newcomers to run away. Should the young men be arrested and punished? Should the *wantoks* of the people who bought the land be forced to go back to the island they came from?
- 5 A public meeting is held in a provincial capital to complain about traders from overseas, especially Chinese traders. Some speakers start saying that all Chinese are bad people and should be sent back to China. Should they be allowed to say such things at a public meeting?

5 Role of the courts

Activity 12



- 1 As you read the following passages, write down the main functions of the courts in Solomon Islands.
- 2 What are the two main types of disputes that are dealt with by the courts?
- 3 What is the difference between a criminal matter and a civil matter?

The courts in Solomon Islands carry out criminal trials of people who have broken the law, and hear civil disputes between two or more individuals or between individuals and the government. The courts carry out a number of functions. They include:

- enforcing the criminal law
- keeping the peace by resolving civil disputes amongst citizens
- upholding the rights of individuals
- ensuring that government agencies stay within the law
- explaining and interpreting the laws passed by Parliament.

In situations where there is no-one to decide fairly whether someone has committed a crime, those offended might take the law into their own hands by applying any form of punishment to deal with the offender. The courts, therefore, are there to deal with such problems so that individuals or groups do not take the law into their own hands. In parts of Africa, for instance, if someone is seen stealing in a market people will beat the thief straight away, or even kill them, without taking them to court. Activity 11 showed a number of other examples in which people might take the law into their own hands.

Types of cases

The role of the courts is to settle disputes. The disputes that come before the courts are usually divided into criminal or civil cases.

Criminal cases

Criminal cases involve actions that break the law of the country. In criminal cases, the accused is charged with committing an offence against the state. A government lawyer or prosecutor acts on behalf of the state by bringing the action against the offender. We use the term Crown for lawyers who work for the government: officially, the Queen, who wears a crown, is the Head of State.

One of the main reasons for dealing with criminal disputes is to punish the person who breaks the law. This also tries to ensure that the person does not break the law again, and tries to deter or persuade other people from breaking the law, as they will be frightened of being punished.

Civil cases

The other type of dispute is known as a civil case. **Civil cases** may be brought by one person against another, or between individuals and a company or the government. In civil



Figure 6.16 Judges

cases, a person has not broken the law of the country but has had an argument or disagreement with another person or a business or company—for instance, one person may owe money to another and refuse to pay.

Many civil cases in Solomon Islands are about customary land. The **Local Court** is set up to deal with disputes concerning land. The Local Court can decide anything about land, gardens, houses, crops and other things on the land.

6 The structure of the court system

There are a number of different courts and these form a hierarchy—that is, they go in order from the highest or most important to the least important. In Solomon Islands, the highest type of court is the **Court of Appeal**. It is the most senior court in our country. Most of the **judges** who sit in the Court of Appeal come from overseas. At the next level is the **High Court** and below that the **Magistrates Courts** and the Local Courts. Both the Court of Appeal and the High Court are located in Honiara. Magistrates Courts and Local Courts are also found in the provinces.



Figure 6.17 Lawyers in the High Court

The most senior courts in each of the provinces are the Magistrates Courts. In 2012, there were four Magistrates Courts set up in four provincial headquarters: Auki, Gizo, Kirakira and Honiara. The Chief Magistrate is located in Honiara. The lowest courts are the Local Courts. The Local Courts are very important because they hear cases and receive many complaints from many ordinary people.

Activity 13



As you study the structure below and read the passages, make a table to show the main functions and locations of each type of court.

Hierarchy of the court system

1 The Local Court

The Local Courts have the authority or jurisdiction to deal with minor criminal offences. In 2012, these were limited to not more than two months' imprisonment or a fine of not more than \$600; civil disputes where not more than \$1000 is claimed in money; and customary land disputes. These amounts can be increased from time to time. The Local Courts are looked after by **Magistrates**.

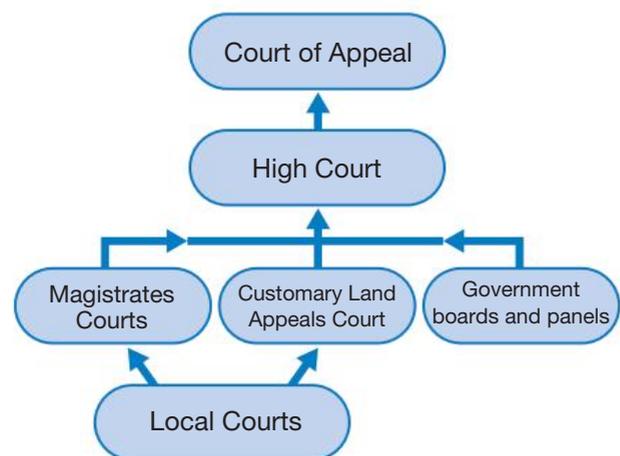


Figure 6.18 This diagram shows the hierarchy of the court system.

2 The Magistrates Courts

The Magistrates Courts in four provincial capitals deal with larger cases. In 2012, these included disputes up to \$50 000 and criminal matters where a penalty of up to five years' imprisonment can be imposed. These amounts can also be changed from time to time.

3 The Customary Land Appeals Court

Land disputes are taken first to the local chief. If both people are satisfied with his decision this becomes law. However, if one of the parties is not satisfied it may be taken to the Local Court, and if they are still not satisfied it can be taken to the **Customary Land Appeals Court**. From there it can be taken to the High Court and Court of Appeal, like other cases.

4 The High Court

The High Court is set up under the national Constitution. It has unlimited civil and criminal authority, which means it can hear all types of cases presented directly to it. This includes all cases where the amount or penalty is too great for the Magistrates Court to deal with. It can also hear appeals from other courts when either the person accused or the



Figure 6.19 Inside the High Court



Figure 6.20 Members of the public can watch the trials taking place in the Public Gallery of the High Court.

prosecutor is not satisfied with the decision of the lower court. The High Court, therefore, deals with the most serious crimes, such as the theft of thousands of dollars or murder. The judge who listens to the case in the High Court is called the **Chief Justice**.

5 The Court of Appeal

The Court of Appeal is the highest court in the country and has judges from overseas who only come here when needed to hear **appeal** cases. It deals mainly with appeal cases, when people are not happy with the decision of the other courts. Individuals have the right to appeal against any court decision if they feel that their case was wrongly decided.

The case may be brought before the Court of Appeal to decide how fairly other courts have made their decision, based on the law. The Court of Appeal only hears arguments based on whether the other courts have made the correct decisions and whether the law has been carried out properly, not arguments about the case itself.

People are given the right to appeal if they are dissatisfied with decisions made by other courts, usually the High Court, but also the Customary Lands Appeal Court.

Rules, Laws and the Courts

Certain procedures are followed when one wishes to make an appeal to the next court. For example, if a person is unhappy with the decisions of a Local Court on a customary land dispute, he or she can appeal to the Customary Lands Appeal Court. Individuals can then appeal to the Court of Appeal against decisions of the Customary Lands Appeal Court. The person appealing must appeal on points of national law, stating all the things he or she thinks were wrong with the Customary Lands Appeal Court's decision.

You must appeal within three months of the original case. If there is no appeal, the case is finished and no one will start it again.



Figure 6.21 The High Court and the Court of Appeal of Solomon Islands

Activity 14



- 1 A number of case studies have been provided below. Read these different situations of civil and criminal cases.
 - a Decide whether it is a criminal or civil case.
 - b Which would be the correct court for each case? Give reasons for your decision.



Figure 6.22 Hanoke hit Maebuta with an axe.

Case studies

Case 1

Hanoke was cutting trees in the bush when Maebuta came along, swore at him and told Hanoke that he, Maebuta, owned that land. Hanoke then hit him with his axe, causing injuries to his head.

Case 2

Ignatius was driving his car at about midnight, when it ran out of petrol. He parked the car by the side of the road. Later the same morning at approximately 6 a.m., Mr Brown was riding his motor cycle to work, and slammed into Ignatius's car. Mr Brown sustained very severe injuries from which he died five days later.

Case 3

Margaret Kasume bought a car from Auki motors for \$60 000. They claimed it was a new car but when it did not work properly she took it to a mechanic who told her the car had obviously been used already. She is claiming a refund for the money she paid for the car.



Figure 6.23 This man dug up his neighbour's cocoa plants.

Case 4

David Putuika inherited a lot of land from his father, but when he tried to plant cocoa seedlings on it, his neighbour, Paul Tepuke, came and dug them up and claimed it was his land. David took the case to the local court, which agreed that it was his land. However, Paul took the case to the Customary Lands Appeal Court and they reversed the decision and awarded the land to him. David is not satisfied with this decision.

Case 5

Mathew Samani attended a village fundraising dance, drank a lot of beer and started fighting. The organisers called the police and they charged him with being drunk and disorderly, for which the penalty is normally a fine of up to \$500 or a short time in prison.

Case 6

Sarah Tavake was arrested for brewing *kwaso*, taken to court and fined \$5 000. If she does not pay she can go to prison for up to one year. She thinks the punishment was too severe as it was her first offence and wants to appeal, hoping the sentence will be reduced.

7 The independence of the Judiciary

We have seen throughout this chapter that the Judiciary system is an important part of the democratic system of government we have in Solomon Islands. The national Constitution allows for the establishment of the three main arms of the government and each of them is not allowed to interfere with the other's work. The national Constitution states that there should be a complete separation of legislative, executive and judicial powers and that each of these arms of government remains independent of the others.

However, on a number of occasions, certain individuals within the government system have not respected and observed the independence and powers of each of these arms of the government. For instance, if a court makes a decision to fine a foreign fishing boat for fishing illegally in Solomon Islands, even the Minister of Fisheries or the Prime Minister cannot argue with this or change the decision. There have been cases where Ministers have tried to change the decision of the court, but that is against the law.

This independence enjoyed by the courts is necessary because it allows the courts to operate **without fear or favour** in all court proceedings. While it is true that judges are appointed by the government, the government by law cannot interfere in the work of the courts. Under the rule of law government and all people living in Solomon Islands, citizens and non-citizens, are bound by the law and all are accountable under the law. The decisions of the courts must also be seen as lawful and respected and should only be appealed against or reviewed by higher courts for error.

Just as the Judiciary is independent from the other branches of government, so each judge is also independent from all other judges.

Judges are free to make their own decisions without direction from any other judge, in the same way that they cannot be influenced in their decisions by the other branches of government or other kinds of pressures. A judge can only be properly influenced by the law and the facts of the case as he or she finds them.

The courts are also seen to be independent because they have the right and authority to declare laws passed by Parliament to be invalid or wrong when if they believe these laws go against the national Constitution.

The courts are open to the public so that the delivery of justice can be observed by the public. Members of the public and news media have the right to attend court hearings. This is referred to as the principle of **open justice**.

Activity 15



- 1 What do you think is meant by the phrase 'the courts apply the law without fear or favour'?
- 2 Why is it important for the courts to be entirely independent of all outside influence? Give your reasons in a short paragraph. Suggest what would happen if politicians, the police or individuals could tell the courts what to do.
- 3 Why do you think 'open justice' is important?

8 Types of justice

There may sometimes be a conflict between carrying out the law and following the Solomon Islands customs, including those of looking after relatives and *wantoks*. Each area of Solomon Islands had its own laws and customs before the modern law was started by the British. This means that it may not always be clear that anyone who breaks the law should be taken to court and punished. Should we always follow the modern, written laws, or should we also follow traditional laws and customs?

There are two types of justice: **punitive justice** and **restorative justice**. Punitive justice is based on the idea that anyone who breaks the law deserves punishment, and that the threat of punishment will stop people breaking the law. Restorative justice is based on trying to change the person who has broken the law, reconcile them with the people they have done wrong to and then forgive them so they do not do the same thing again.

The modern law, which has mainly been based on British law, is based more on punitive justice. It says that anyone who breaks the law deserves to be taken to court and punished, often by being put in prison. This must be done even if the person is your relative or *wantok*.

However, traditional Melanesian or Polynesian law is based more on restorative justice. It tries to bring the person who has broken the law together with the people they have done wrong to, and asks the person who has broken the law to pay compensation to the people they have wronged. Once compensation is paid, both sides reconcile with each other and forgive each other. This is important in traditional Solomon Islands communities, where a small number of people have to live together happily, including those who have caused trouble. However, it may be more difficult in modern town areas where people of many different cultures live together.



Figure 6.24 The traditional way: giving shell money as compensation

Activity 16



Read the following scenarios and decide what should be done in each situation.

Scenario 1: A young boy from your village has been caught stealing coconuts from the plantations of another village. The people of the other village are complaining.

Would you:

- 1 Tell the people from the other village that he is only a young boy so they should forgive him.
- 2 Beat the boy severely so he does not do it again.
- 3 Report the boy to the police and ask them to take him to court.
- 4 Organise a ceremony for your village to pay compensation to the other village and ask the boy to say sorry at the ceremony.
- 5 Make the boy go and help the people from the other village brush their coconut plantation for a week.

Scenario 2: A teacher at your school has driven the school truck while drunk, run over a young boy and killed him. The young boy was his own cousin.

Would you:

- 1 Report the teacher to the police so that he is tried and goes to prison for driving while drunk.



Figure 6.25 While drunk, a teacher at your school has run over and killed a young boy.

- 2 Ask for the teacher to be sacked from the school.
- 3 Ask the family concerned to hold a meeting with the teacher and the boy's parents and ask the teacher to pay compensation to the parents.
- 4 Do not report the matter to the police but give a strong warning to the teacher not to drive while drunk.

Scenario 3: You see the Head of the Mechanics Department, who is your wantok, putting the college or school tools into his own box just before he is ready to leave to go on holiday.

Would you:

- 1 Report him to the principal.
- 2 Report him to the police.
- 3 Tell him that, as he is your wantok, you will keep quiet about it as long as he shares some of the tools with you.
- 4 Just keep quiet about it, as he is your wantok.

Scenario 4: You catch a man attacking a girl from your school in the bush and you think he is trying to rape her.

Would you:

- 1 Chase the man away and rescue the girl but do nothing more.
- 2 Report the matter to the principal.
- 3 Report the man straight to the police and make sure he is arrested.
- 4 Report the man to the girl's brothers and suggest they demand compensation.
- 5 Do nothing about it.
- 6 Call a group of your wantoks and beat the man severely.

Scenario 5: Which of the above choices would you make in Scenario 4 if:

- 1 the man concerned was your brother?
- 2 the girl concerned was your sister?

9 Magistrates Courts

In future some of you may have to appear in court either in your own case, or as a witness, so it is important that you know how the system works. If you act out the following court case with the class, you will begin to know how it works.

A court case

Kokodo is a young man who lives in Honiara. He works for his living by finding odd jobs around the town. He has a wife and two small children. Sometimes he cannot find much work and finds it difficult to pay for all his needs. Here is what happened on 28 March.



Figure 6.26 Kokodo stole goods from a store.

Kokodo was arrested by the police and taken to court but released on \$500 bail and summoned to appear in the Magistrates Court again later. Bail means that he must pay the money to the court and will get it back when he comes to court. If he does not turn up he will lose it.

Today is the day that Kokodo the **Defendant** must answer the charge against him. When he comes into court, he sees the layout of the courtroom, as shown in Figure 6.27.

The people that he will see in the court are:

- 1 the Magistrate
- 2 the Prosecutor

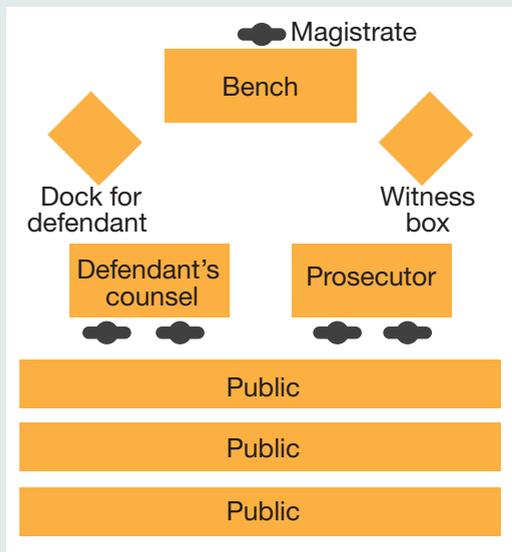


Figure 6.27 This is where different people sit in the Court.

- 3 witnesses (called in separately)
- 4 Defendant's Counsel (the Public Solicitor)
- 5 members of the public

The Magistrate sits at the bench and listens to the case. The **Prosecutor** sits at a table next to the defendant's counsel, in this case the **Public Solicitor**. Witnesses, when called, stand in the witness box, while Kokodo must be in the Defendant's box or dock. People who want to listen to the case sit down in the area provided for the public.

Kokodo is called the Defendant because he is the person who has been charged and must answer or defend himself against the charge.

At the beginning of Kokodo's court case, the Magistrate reads the charge against Kokodo. The charge is made up of many parts and the Magistrate reads each part separately and explains them so Kokodo understands them.

The Magistrate says the charge is that Mr Kokodo Pipi was on 28 March found stealing clothes from Peati Trade Store at Mendana Avenue, Honiara.

The Prosecutor must prove that all parts of the charge are true. He must prove beyond reasonable



Figure 6.28 Kokodo says he is 'not guilty'.

doubt that the Defendant is guilty of the charge. If the Prosecutor cannot do that, then the Magistrate will declare Kokodo 'not guilty'.

The Prosecutor is a government lawyer employed for this job.

After the Magistrate reads and explains the charge, he asks Kokodo whether he pleads 'guilty' or 'not guilty'. If Kokodo pleads 'not guilty', he may know that the charge is true but that the Prosecutor cannot prove it beyond reasonable doubt. If Kokodo pleads 'not guilty', he must try to show that some parts of the charge were not true. If he pleads 'guilty' then he is saying that all parts of the charge are true and that the Prosecutor has enough evidence to prove the charge. Kokodo may plead 'not guilty' if he feels that he has a reason for doing what he did.

Kokodo has the right to be represented by a lawyer if he wishes. The lawyer is called the Defendant's Counsel and he can do anything in court that Kokodo has the right to do. In most cases in the Solomon Islands, the Defendant would be represented by a lawyer from the Public Solicitor's Office. The Public Solicitor's Office is paid for by the government and provides lawyers free of charge to people who cannot or do not want to hire a private lawyer. Kokodo had decided to let the Public Solicitor represent him in the case.

The Magistrate asks Kokodo how he pleads. Kokodo in reply says, 'Not guilty'.

The Prosecutor must now try to prove the charge against Kokodo. The Prosecutor calls his first witness to the stand. Angela, the shop attendant, is called to the witness box. The Magistrate asks her to swear by the Bible that she will tell the truth and only the truth.

Prosecutor: What's your name?

Witness: Angela Arimae.

Prosecutor: Where do you work?

Witness: Peati Trade Store.

Prosecutor: Were you at work on 28 March?

Witness: Yes.

Prosecutor: Was the Defendant in the shop that day?

Witness: Yes.

Prosecutor: What was he doing in the shop?

Witness: Walking around looking at the various items for sale.

Prosecutor: Was he acting strangely?

Witness: No, not at first.

Prosecutor: What about later?

Witness: Yes, I heard some noises from the front of the shops and saw something being put into a bag.

Prosecutor: What was it?

Witness: It appeared to be clothes because I saw some material sticking out of the bag.

Prosecutor: Did you do anything?

Witness: Yes. I called out to the person and asked him what he was doing.

Prosecutor: What did he say?

Witness: He didn't say anything.

Prosecutor: Did he do anything?

Witness: He ran out of the shop.

Prosecutor: What did you do then?

Witness: I ran to the front of the shop and called out, 'Stop! Stop!'

Prosecutor: What happened next?

Witness: A policeman who was walking along the footpath heard me and saw the man beginning to run. He chased after him and caught him.

Prosecutor: Was it this man in the Defendant's box.

Witness: Yes.

When the Prosecutor finishes questioning the witness, the Magistrate asks Kokodo's **counsel** whether he has any questions for the witness.

Kokodo's counsel says he wishes to **cross-examine** the witness. This means that he wants to ask her questions. He hopes the answers to the questions will help defend Kokodo against the charges. The lawyer plans to make Angela admit that she is not sure that Kokodo actually took clothes from the Peati Trade Store on 28 March. If she was standing at the back of the shop and there were other people in the shop, then she may not have seen Kokodo actually putting things in the bag. In this way, he may be able to raise doubt in the Magistrate's mind as to whether the clothes in the bag actually came from the shop.

The Defendant's Counsel asks Angela where she was standing, if there was anything between her and Kokodo, whether she usually wears glasses and other questions.

During this questioning, Angela may become a little confused and the Magistrate may begin to doubt parts of her story.

The Magistrate asks the Prosecutor if he wishes to re-examine the witness. This means the Prosecutor has another chance to ask the witness questions. The Prosecutor decides not to re-examine the witness, but rather to call another witness: the policeman.

Prosecutor: What's your name?

Witness: Constable Joseph Earnest.

Prosecutor: What were you doing on 28 March?

Witness: Foot patrol, Mendana Avenue.

Prosecutor: What happened that day?

- Witness:** During the morning when I was walking down the footpath, I heard someone shouting, ‘Stop! Stop!’
- Prosecutor:** Is that person in the court?
- Witness:** Yes—over there.
- Prosecutor:** What did you see?
- Witness:** I saw a man running away from the girl who was standing in the shop.
- Prosecutor:** What did you do?
- Witness:** I asked if something was wrong and why he was running away.
- Prosecutor:** Yes...
- Witness:** I took hold of his arm and went to the person who had been shouting, ‘Stop!’
- Prosecutor:** What did you find out then?
- Witness:** I found out that the girl was a shop attendant and that this man (points to the witness box) had stolen some clothes.
- Prosecutor:** How do you know that?
- Witness:** The attendant said that the defendant had taken some clothes, put them in his bag and left the shop. I looked in the bag and found some clothes.
- Prosecutor:** Were they wrapped up?
- Witness:** No.
- Prosecutor:** How do you know the clothes came from that shop?
- Witness:** They still had the price marked on them and they were similar to other clothes hanging in the shop.
- Prosecutor:** How do you know that the Defendant didn’t pay for them?
- Witness:** He had no receipt and the shop attendant said that he had not paid.
- Prosecutor:** That’s all.

The Defendant’s Counsel asks the second witness some questions during cross-examination about the clothes coming from the shop. He tries to show that

in fact the clothes may not have come from the shop. His intention is to cast doubt in the mind of the Magistrate.

When the Defendant’s Counsel finishes the cross-examination, the Prosecutor closes his case. The Magistrate now knows that there is no more evidence to hear, either for or against Kokodo.

The Defendant’s Counsel and the Prosecutor are now both given the opportunity to speak directly to the Magistrate. This is called summing-up. The Defendant’s Counsel tries to prove that there is some doubt as to where the clothes came from and that Angela could not be sure that the man who took the clothes was Kokodo. The Prosecutor tries to persuade the Magistrate that there is no doubt about any parts of the charge.

The Magistrate thinks carefully about all the evidence and the final statements by the Defendant’s Counsel and the Prosecutor. He asks himself whether the Prosecutor has proved beyond reasonable doubt that the man who did the stealing was Kokodo.

The Magistrate decides that Kokodo is guilty of the charge and tells him that the highest sentence for this offence is a fine of \$1 000 or three months in prison.

Kokodo now asks to speak to the Magistrate. He tells the Magistrate that he had been out of work for several months and that his children had very few clothes. He thought that these clothes would be just right for them to go to school in.

The Magistrate asks the Defendant’s Counsel if he has a witness to support Kokodo’s statement. The Defendant’s Counsel says that he has visited Kokodo’s family himself and says that Kokodo’s statement was true.

The Magistrate asks Kokodo if he has had any previous convictions. Kokodo answers, ‘No’.

The Magistrate then dismisses the case with a warning. He warns Kokodo that his offence will be recorded and that if it happens again he will be punished more severely.

Activity 17



- 1 Act out Kokodo's court case.
- 2 List the names of the people involved and what role they play.
- 3 Explain each of the following terms:
a plea/plead e charge
b cross-examination f defendant
c re-examination g defendant's counsel
d prosecutor h sentence.
- 4 Set up your classroom as a Magistrates Court and choose people to play each part in a court case.
- 5 Write up your own court case.
- 6 Visit a Magistrates Court or a Local Court in your area.
- 7 Ask a Magistrate to come to your school and talk to you about the court system.

Stages in a criminal case in a Magistrates Court

Crime

Criminal cases include murder, theft, fighting, and so on. When somebody does any of these they are said to have committed a crime. Crimes are actions that break the laws of the nation.

Police inquiry

When a report about the breaking of a law (a crime) comes to or reaches the police, they begin finding out facts about the wrongdoing.

Making a charge

The Police Prosecutor then charges the law-breaker. He or she may be arrested or

released on bail. The case is registered with the Magistrate and court orders are served to the person concerned and the prosecuting witnesses. The orders state clearly who will come to court, when and where.

Court hearing

The case is heard when the Magistrate sits and listens to and records the information given by the prosecutor and his or her witnesses and the defendant and his or her witnesses. The police prosecutor gives reports about the crime and a solicitor may sit in court to defend the law-breaker. During the hearing, the solicitor and the prosecutor may cross examine the defendant, the police prosecutor and all the witnesses information given.

Judgment

After listening to all the information given, the Magistrate then weighs the points of arguments for and against to decide whether the defendant is guilty or not guilty. The judgment will be that the person is guilty or not guilty. If guilty, the **sentence** may be imprisonment of the defendant for a period of time, or paying a certain fine to the court, or paying compensation to the victim who suffers from the crime, or, as in this case, a warning.

Appeal

If the defendant thinks the sentence is too heavy for the crime, he or she may pay court fees to appeal against the decision. However, they must do it within the time allowed by the court. The appeal is made to the Registrar of the High Court who then writes and sends out orders to the people concerned to come to court on a certain date and place. The Chief Justice then makes a final decision.

High Court hearing

The Chief Justice sits and listens to the arguments for the appeal. The defendant then answers in his or her defence. Witnesses may be required to give information in court. The Chief Justice then weighs the arguments and gives his or her judgment. It may confirm the former sentence or make a new decision. Later a further appeal can be made to the Court of Appeal.

Stages in a civil case in a Magistrates Court

Civil dispute

Civil disputes are actions done against some other people but not against laws of the country. They include customary land disputes, someone owing money and refusing to pay, breaking oral agreements and contracts between two or more people, and so on.

Charge

People who feel they have suffered as a result of a civil dispute may go to the Magistrate to register a civil case and pay the court fees. The Magistrate then writes out court orders or a summons. They get the orders served or delivered to the defendant with a copy sent to the **plaintiff**, that is, the person who makes the complaint. The orders state who will come to court, at what time and where.

Court hearing

The Magistrate sits and listens, and writes down the information given. The plaintiff gives facts about the dispute; witnesses give their defending information. The Magistrate may ask questions to clarify any points that are not clear.

Judgment

After listening to the information given, the Magistrate considers the evidence for and against and then decides on the action to be taken. It may be compensation, repayment of money or any other actions that can fairly settle the argument.

Appeal

If a defendant thinks a decision is unfair, they can appeal against it within the time allowed by the court. They can register an appeal case with the High Court by paying the fees and submitting a list of reasons for the appeal for approval by the High Court Registrar.

High Court hearing

If the appeal is approved, then the people concerned are summoned to a court hearing at a date and place fixed by the Registrar. At this time the Chief Justice gives the final decision. Later the people may appeal again to the Court of Appeal.

Activity 18



Copy the following table into your workbook, and fill in the boxes with the stages in criminal and civil cases. Use brief headings in each box. Add more boxes according to the number of stages.

Stages in a Magistrates Court case

A criminal case		A civil case	
Before the court case		Before the court case	
During the court case		During the court case	
After the court case		After the court case	
If guilty	If not guilty	If guilty	If not guilty

Have you achieved your goals?

Look back at your goals at the beginning of the chapter. Check whether you have achieved each goal.

- Have you gained knowledge and understanding of each of the topics in the goals?
- Can you use each of the skills mentioned in the goals?
- Have you formed your own ideas and opinions about the topics in the chapter?
- Write a brief summary of not more than one page of what you have learnt in this chapter.

Glossary

- accused** a person named in an accusation or charged with an alleged offence
- Act of Parliament** a law made by Parliament
- amendment** a suggestion for changing a law
- appeal** to ask a court for another opinion when you do not agree with the first court
- arrest** to hold someone who is suspected of committing a crime
- bail** money paid to the police or court after a person has been suspected of a crime and arrested so they can be released until their trial.
- Bill** a proposed Act of Parliament
- by-laws** laws made by Provincial governments, City council, local communities and Ministries extra to the main laws
- charge** a formal allegation or notice that a person has committed an offence
- Chief Justice** the Judge in charge of the High Court, the most senior judge
- civil cases** legal cases dealing with disputes between people who have not broken the law
- commit an offence** to break a criminal law
- common law** laws developed from the decisions made by judges in courts since independence, or borrowed from the British common laws before independence
- Constitution** a document setting out the system of government and the responsibilities of the government
- counsel** a lawyer in a court
- Court of Appeal** the highest court to which appeals can be made from the High Court
- crimes** actions that break the law of the country
- criminal cases** legal cases that deal with people who have broken the law
- cross-examine** to ask questions of a person in court
- Crown** the Queen, who as Head of State is officially in charge of all the courts
- Customary Land Appeals Court** a court that deals with land cases which cannot be solved locally
- customary rules** see customs below
- customs** rules generally accepted by a community but not written down
- defence lawyer or counsel** a lawyer who argues on the side of the person accused and tries to prove they are not guilty
- defendant** a person accused of committing a crime
- deter** to persuade people not to do something
- fine** an amount of money a person who is guilty of a crime must pay instead of going to prison
- formal rules** written rules
- Government Gazette** a government publication like a newspaper where all the new laws are printed
- hierarchy** the structure of courts from lowest to highest
- High Court** the highest court where a judge administers the law or decides cases that deal with more serious and complex matters
- human rights** things or freedoms that the members of the United Nations have agreed all human beings should have

Rules, Laws and the Courts

informal rules rules that are generally accepted but not written down

judge a judicial officer or person who administers the law and decides cases in the superior courts (High Court) that deal with more serious and complex cases

judiciary the part of the government that makes sure the laws are carried out, including Judges and the courts

laws a set of formal or official rules that are generally accepted by everyone in the country

lawyer someone who is trained in how to administer the law

legislature Parliament that decides on and passes the laws

local court courts dealing with minor offences

Magistrate a judicial officer or person who administers the law or decides cases in the Magistrates Court, which mostly deals with less serious offences

Magistrates Court the court that deals with less serious offences

open justice when courts are open for all to see and attend

ordinances rules made by Provincial governments, City council or Ministries and are extra to the main laws

plaintiff the person who makes the complaint in a civil case

plead guilty to admit you are guilty and have committed a crime

plead not guilty say you did not commit a crime

police people employed by the government to make sure people obey the laws

Prosecutor the lawyer who acts on behalf of the state and tries to prove that the person accused of committing a crime is guilty

Public Solicitor a person paid by the government to help and represent people who cannot afford to employ a lawyer

punitive justice justice mainly based on punishing people

reconcile to bring two enemies together to make peace between them

restorative justice justice based on trying to make peace between the parties

rights freedom to have or do certain things, which are protected by law

rule of law the idea that the country is ruled under fixed laws or rules that everyone must obey and not by the ideas promoted by individuals

sentence the punishment given for committing a crime, which may be prison or a fine

statute another word for a law

subsidiary legislation regulations, rules, by-laws or orders made by national leaders such as Ministers who are given the power to make these laws

summing up the Judge or Magistrate summarises the main points of a case before giving the judgment or verdict

summons an official notice that your attendance is required at court at a specific time and date

verdict the decision whether the person is guilty or not guilty

warrant of arrest a document issued by a court official authorising the police to make an arrest

without fear or favour in the context of a court or judge making a decision, this means deciding independently without favouring one side or the other

witness a person who has seen something happen, such as a crime

In primary school and Year 7 you learnt some mapping skills. You learnt about the different characteristics of a map; the differences between a map, a photograph and reality; how to use simple directions on maps; what a scale is; and some of the different types of maps.

In this chapter you will learn more about mapping skills, including the different kinds of skills for using a map. These skills will help you understand and make meanings out of a map when you see one in your Social Studies textbook or in other books. The skills will also be useful to you outside school as you can use maps to help you find places.

1 Map features

A map is a way of showing features of the natural and man-made environments on paper. In order to make a map we have to reduce the size of the features in the real world by using a scale. Features are shown on a map by lines, colours and symbols. Maps are also divided into squares by the use of **grids** to help us locate places on the map.

Latitude and longitude

You learnt to use a simple grid using numbers and letters in Year 7. The map of the whole world can also be divided into a grid by lines that go round the world. These lines are called **latitude** and **longitude**. The most important line of latitude is the **Equator**.

The world is a **sphere**, like a football, so the only true way to draw a map of the world is to use a round ball called a **globe**. Your school may have a globe, which the teacher can show you. These lines of latitude and longitude are circles that go right round the globe. Like all circles, they are divided or measured by degrees from 0° to 360° , as you know from Maths.

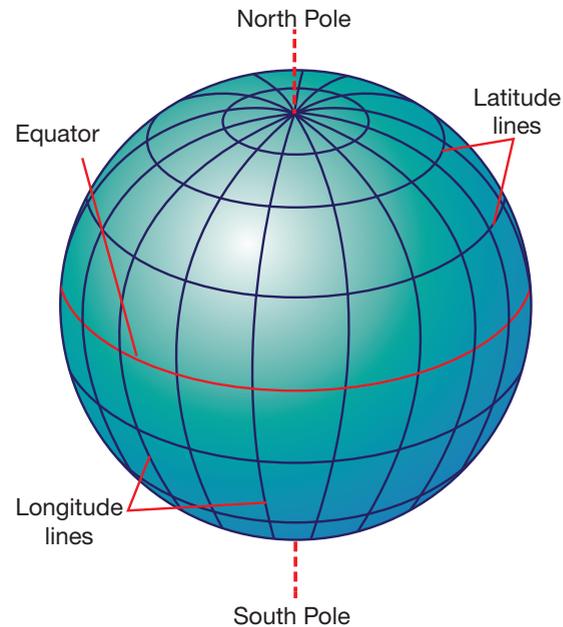


Figure 7.1 Lines of latitude and longitude, the North and South poles and the Equator

To draw these lines we use the fact that the world turns round all the time, or **rotates** on its **axis**. That is why for part of each 24 hours, we face the sun and it is day, and for the other part we face away from the sun and it is night. As we will see, the lines drawn round the world also help us to measure what time of day it is in different places.

If anything spins around on an axis, there are two points at the ends of the axis that do not turn round. Take any round ball like a football and spin it—there will be two points that do not move round (see Figure 7.2 on page 145). On the Earth, these points are called the North and South poles.

The round world or globe is divided in two ways. A line is drawn around the globe at exactly half way between the **North** and **South poles**, dividing the globe into two parts. This is called the Equator. As the world is a sphere, we call each half of the globe a hemisphere, as ‘hemi’ means half. The part between the Equator and the North Pole is called the **Northern Hemisphere** and the

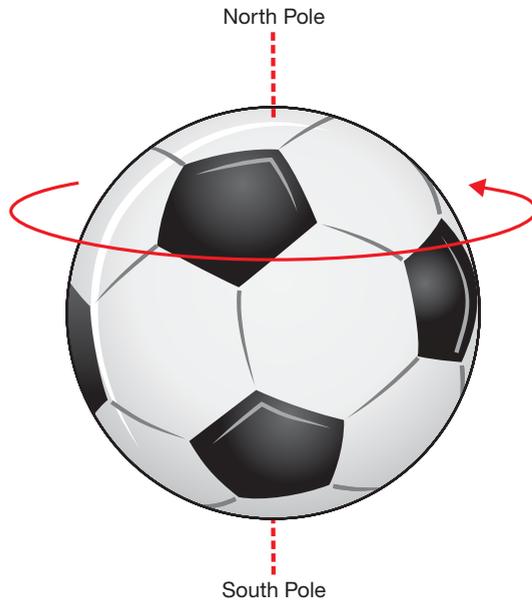


Figure 7.2 The world is like a football spinning on its axis.

part between the Equator and the South Pole is called the **Southern Hemisphere** (see Figure 7.3).

Latitude

Look back at the lines of latitude in Figure 7.1 on page 144. Lines are drawn round the Earth or globe, parallel to the Equator, starting with the Equator and moving to the North and South poles. Remember that these are only lines drawn on a globe. They do not really exist on the Earth itself, so we call them **imaginary lines**. In the same way, if you go to the Equator you will not see any line, and there is no pole sticking out of the Earth at the North and South poles!

As you can see from Figure 7.1, if we draw lines parallel to the Equator they become smaller and smaller as we go north and south away from the Equator, until they reach the poles, which are points, not lines. These lines are called lines of latitude.

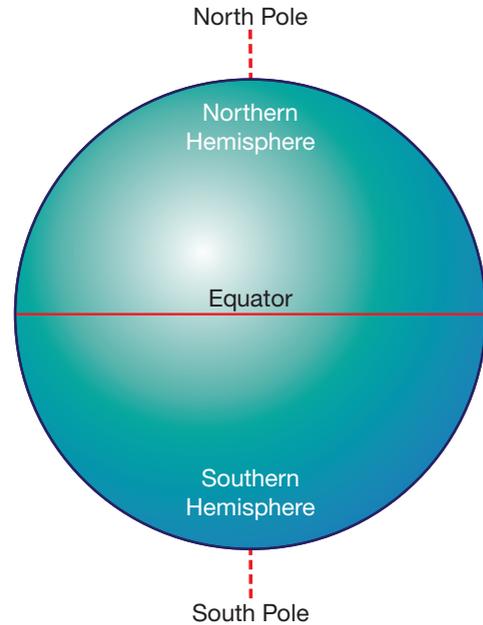


Figure 7.3 The earth is divided into two halves—the Northern Hemisphere and the Southern Hemisphere.

Figure 7.4 shows how we measure lines of latitude. They are measured in degrees from the Equator (see Figure 7.4). We draw a line from the line of latitude through the Earth or globe to the centre and measure the angle between this line and the Equator. This means that lines

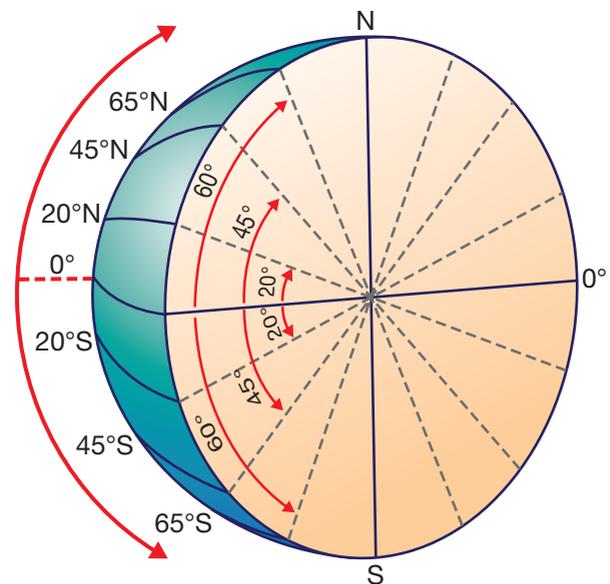


Figure 7.4 Latitude is measured in degrees north (N) and south (S) of the Equator.

of latitude are measured either north or south of the Equator. The biggest angle, between the Equator and the line from the poles to the centre of the Earth, is 90° , so the lines of latitude go from 0° at the Equator to 90° at the poles.

Longitude

Now look at the lines of longitude in Figure 7.1. They are drawn right round the world passing through the North and South poles. As you can see in Figure 7.5, they are also measured by drawing lines from the lines of longitude to the centre of the Earth and measuring the angle between one line of longitude and another. In this case one line of longitude was chosen over 100 years ago to be called the 0° line. Lines of longitude are also called **meridians**, so the 0° line is called the **Prime Meridian**. It passes through Greenwich in London, as at the time it was chosen, Greenwich had the best telescopes in the world for observing the stars. This is why it is also called the **Greenwich Meridian**.

Lines of longitude are measured in degrees either to the east or the west of the Prime Meridian at 0° . On the opposite side of the

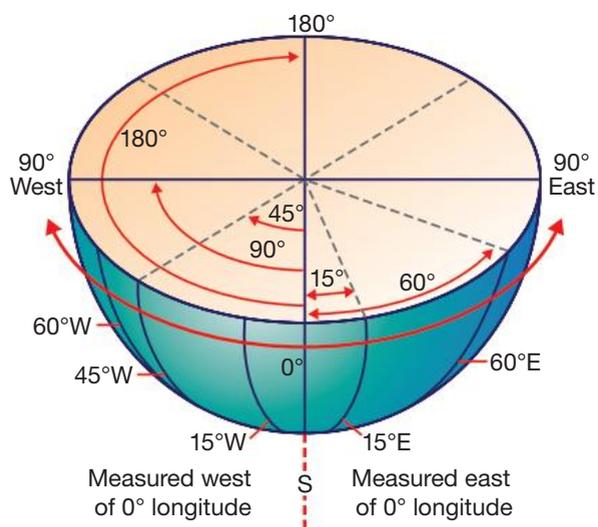


Figure 7.5 Longitude is measured in degrees east and west of the Prime Meridian.

world there is another line of longitude that is 180° from the Prime Meridian. This is called the **International Date Line**, and we will learn more about this later.

Activity 1



- In your own words define the following terms.

a map	c North and South poles
b Equator	d Prime Meridian
- Explain why:
 - the highest line of latitude is 90°
 - the lines of longitude only go up to 180° .
- Explain the difference between:
 - latitude 45° north and latitude 45° south
 - longitude 120° east and longitude 120° west.
- Draw a simple sketch of the world to include the major continents. Use the world map in Appendix 3 and draw or trace:
 - the Equator and four important lines of latitude: Tropic of Cancer, Tropic of Capricorn, Arctic Circle and Antarctic Circle
 - North Pole and South Pole
 - Prime Meridian and International Date Line.

Using lines of latitude and longitude

Reading features on a map usually requires a correct method of locating places. For example, if a tourist who is thinking of coming here asks you where Solomon Islands is located on the world map, you will want to give them the correct location of Solomon Islands using the latitude and longitude readings. Latitude and longitude can be used to locate places on a map more accurately than the grid referencing method, because each degree of latitude and longitude is divided into 60 minutes, written as $60'$. The latitude is the first figure, in degrees and minutes north or south of the Equator.

For example, Auki is 8 degrees, 46 minutes south of the Equator. The second figure is the longitude in degrees and minutes west or east of the Prime Meridian. For example, Auki is 160 degrees, 42 minutes east of the Prime Meridian. We can write this as Auki: 8° 46'S; 160° 42'E.

Remember that the real world is a sphere, which can only be shown properly on a globe. When we draw the world map on paper, we cannot draw a real sphere. We have to draw it on flat paper so it will not look exactly like a globe.

To locate places using latitude and longitude lines on maps such as those at the back of this book, we first look for the place we want to locate. Then we identify the place by reading the latitude and longitude lines. Usually we first identify the readings for latitude then the longitude. Finally, we name the hemisphere where the place we want to find is located in relation to the Equator. For example, on the Pacific Basin map in Appendix 2:

- Solomon Islands is located between latitudes 5° and 12° south of the Equator and longitudes 156° and 170° east of the Prime Meridian.
- Tonga is located between latitudes 15° and 23° south of the Equator and longitudes 172° and 178° west of the Prime Meridian.

Notice that the line of longitude 180° from the Prime Meridian, or exactly opposite the Prime Meridian on the other side of the world from it, passes through the Pacific. Therefore, in countries like Solomon Islands, longitude is counted from the Prime Meridian going east—that is, east of the Prime Meridian. In countries on the other side of the 180° line, longitude is counted from the west—that is, west of the Prime Meridian. The 180° line is 180° east and 180° west of the Prime Meridian, depending on which way you count! As we will see, this has an effect on the way we count time.

Activity 2



Refer to the maps in Appendix 2 and Appendix 3.

- 1 Write the location (latitude, longitude and hemisphere) of these countries.

a Vanuatu	e Hawaii islands
b Marshall Islands	f Madagascar
c New Caledonia	g Cuba
d New Zealand	
- 2 Write the names of the countries, islands or towns with these latitude and longitude readings.

a 18°S; 178°E	e 35°N; 140°E
b 13.5°S; 171°W	f 50°N; 1°W
c 20°N; 156°W	g 33°S; 19°E
d 32°S; 116°E	

Time and time zones

Longitude also helps us to find the time in different places. Time is calculated based on the position of the Earth relative to the sun, using noon when the sun is highest in the sky. Of course it is not the sun that moves, but the Earth that rotates around; however, as the Earth rotates the sun seems to move across the sky every day, from sunrise to sunset. The Earth moves from west to east—that is, towards the 'rising' sun—so at sunrise our part of the Earth is moving towards the sun (which appears to rise) and at sunset it is moving away from the sun (which appears to set). After sunset we are facing away from the sun so it is night. Noon is when we are directly facing the sun.

Since the Earth rotates on its axis once every day, the sun is at its highest point in the sky at different places at different times. As the Earth is a sphere, this means that the sun is not always overhead at noon. Near the poles the sun may be at a low angle at noon, but it is still at the highest angle during that day.

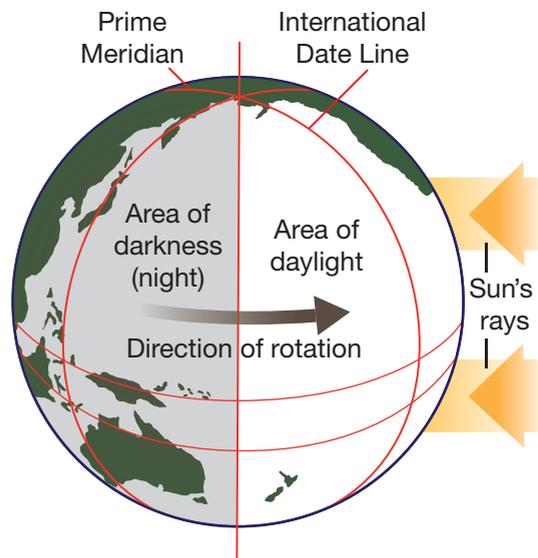


Figure 7.6 How the Earth rotates from darkness to daylight

Figure 7.6 shows how the Earth rotates from darkness to daylight and back. On this diagram, Solomon Islands is just moving into daylight or dawn. It takes 24 hours for the Earth to complete one rotation. Therefore the Earth is divided into 24 **time zones**, one for each hour of the day. These time zones are based on lines of longitude. Since there are 360° of longitude, each 15° represents one hour. When a place on one line of longitude is directly facing the sun and has noon, a place 15° to the west will be one hour before noon and a place 15° to the east one hour after noon. Each degree of longitude represents a difference in time of four minutes, but this is not reflected in time zones.

How does time work?

At the Prime Meridian, **Universal Standard Time (UST)** is set by the most accurate clock in the world. This is also called **Greenwich Mean Time (GMT)**. All other places in the world set their time before or after Universal Standard Time or Greenwich Mean Time.

The Earth rotates from west to east so places in the eastern hemisphere have sunrise before Greenwich; therefore, they have a local time earlier than GMT. For instance the sun rises

in Solomon Islands about 11 hours before Greenwich, so Solomon Islands time is 11 hours earlier than Greenwich.

Places in the western hemisphere have sunrise after Greenwich and therefore have a local time that is later than GMT. The sun rises in Hawaii about 10 hours after Greenwich so their time is 10 hours after Greenwich.

The difficulty comes in a place like Fiji which is 180° from Greenwich. This means that the time is 12 hours different from Greenwich, but this is different depending which way you go round. If it is 12 midnight on Sunday in Greenwich and we count towards the east, Fiji will be 12 hours earlier—that is, 12 noon on Saturday. However, if we count towards the west, Fiji will be 12 hours later—that is, 12 noon on Sunday. It cannot be both so we have to decide which it is.

Days of the week are not something natural—they are named by people. We must have a line where days change their name, otherwise it would always be the same day. That is why there is a line called the International Date Line. This is the line where the change of day takes place. As that place reaches midnight, we decide to change the name of the day, for example from Sunday to Monday. However, that means that it is Sunday on one side of the line—to the west—but still Saturday on the other side of the line—to the east. Each day starts on this line and then moves west until it reaches the line again and then the name changes again.

Look at Figure 7.7. It is a map of the world's time zones. The figures show the time in the number of hours before or after Greenwich Mean Time or Universal Standard Time. For plus (+) you add the number of hours, for minus (-) you subtract them. The times at the top of the map show local time when it is 12 noon in Greenwich. They use the 24-hour clock, which

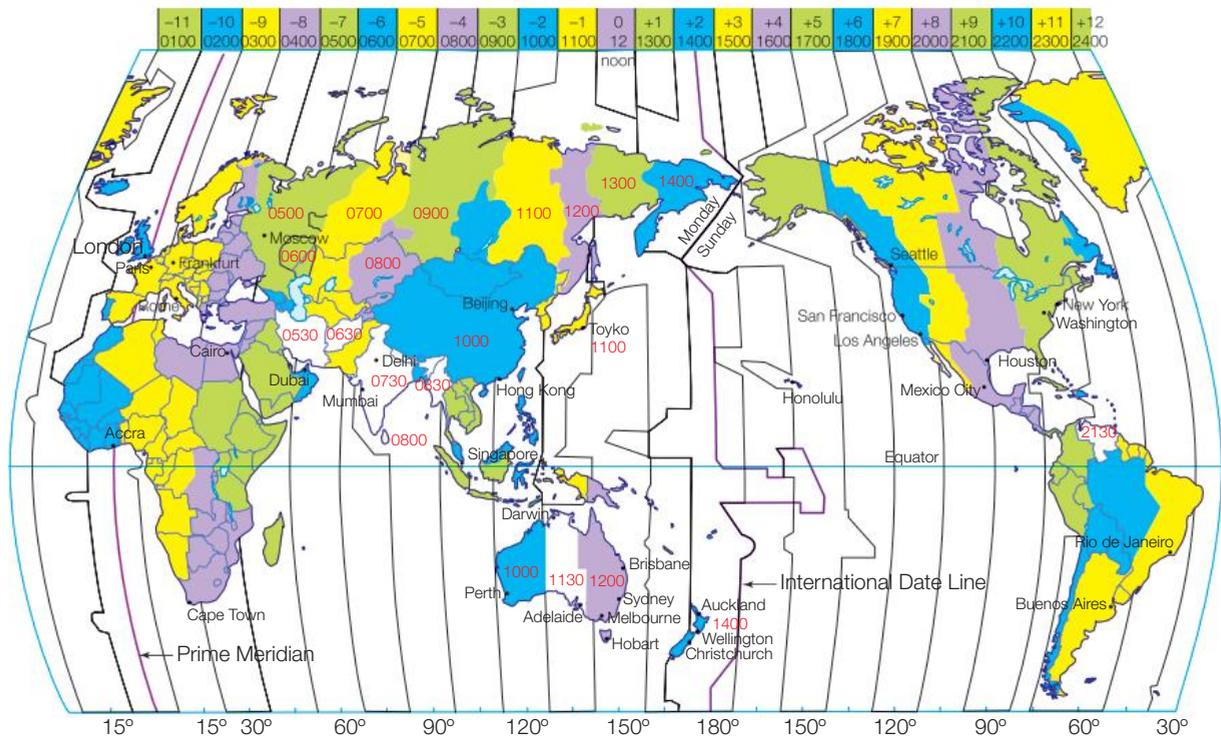


Figure 7.7 Map of the world's time zones

you learnt about in Maths. Each vertical line is a line of longitude. These are shown every 15°, so each line shows one hour's time difference. Notice that some places do not keep time exactly to the line they are on, so some lines bend around, including the International Date Line. This is so that the whole of one country has the same time zone. However, some very big countries like Australia have many time zones. When it is 20.00 hours (8 p.m.) in Perth, it is already 22.00 hours (10 p.m.) in Brisbane!

If we travel east to west across the International Date Line, for instance from Cook Islands to Fiji, we leave Cook Islands on Saturday but arrive in Fiji only three hours later but on Sunday. We have 'lost a day'. If we travel west to east from Fiji to Cook Islands, we leave Fiji on Saturday and arrive in Cook Islands three hours later, but it is still Friday! So we have 'gained a day'—we repeat Friday all over again.

So if you have a birthday, watch out. If you go from Cook Islands to Fiji on your birthday, you may miss your birthday, but if you celebrate your birthday in Fiji and then go to Cook Islands, you can celebrate it all over again!

Activity 3



Refer to Figure 7.7, Appendix 2 and Appendix 3 to answer the following questions.

- 1 If it is 18.00 hours in Brisbane, what is the time in Perth, Australia?
- 2 If it is 09.00 hours in Perth, what time is it in Cape Town?
- 3 If it is 12.00 noon in New York, what time is it in San Francisco?
- 4 If it is Wednesday today in Hawaii, what day is it in Solomon Islands?

- 5 Imagine that it is now 20.00 hours on Sunday in Mexico City, Mexico. What day and time is it in:
 - a Hong Kong
 - b Jakarta
 - c Santiago, Chile, in South America.
- 6 Do you gain a day, lose a day or neither when you travel from:
 - a Fiji to Honolulu in Hawaii
 - b Los Angeles to Port Moresby
 - c Solomon Islands to Fiji.
- 7 Georgina Saemana left Henderson International airport at 8.30 p.m. and within three hours she will arrive in Auckland. At what local time will she arrive in Auckland?

2 Types of maps

There are many types of maps, for example: **climate maps**, **economic** or **resource maps**, **physical** or **topographic maps**.

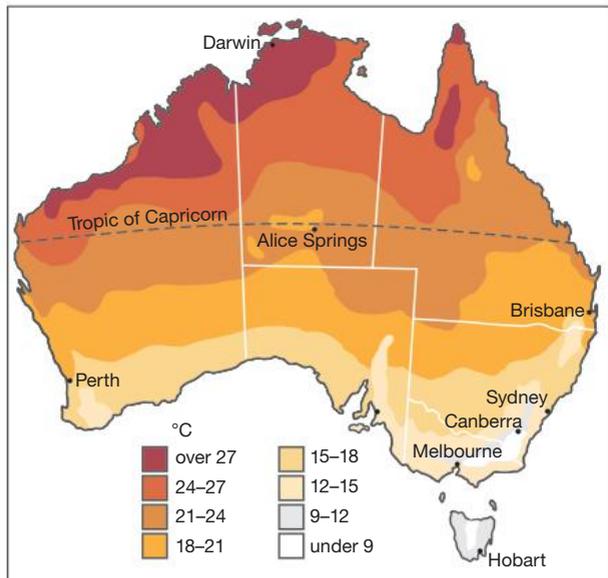


Figure 7.8 Climate map of the annual average temperature in Australia

Activity 4



Refer to the climate map in Figure 7.8.

- 1 What does 'annual average temperature' mean? Think of the meaning of annual and average.
- 2 Where is the hottest part of Australia? What is the annual average temperature there?
- 3 Where is the coldest part of Australia? What is the annual average temperature there?
- 4 Name two cities with the same range of average annual temperatures.
- 5 Can you suggest why Canberra and the areas inland from Brisbane and Sydney are cooler than the coast? Look at the map in Appendix 2 to help you. It shows the relief or height of Australia.

Climate maps

Climate maps give information about temperature and rainfall conditions in a region.

Physical maps

Physical maps show the physical features of an area such as mountains and rivers and the relief or height of the land. They usually use colours such as blue, green and orange. Green is used for low-lying areas and orange is used for higher altitudes. You used maps like this last year. The map in Figure 7.9 on the next page is an example of a physical map. On this map, pink is used for low-lying areas and light and dark brown for high areas.

Economic or resource maps

Economic or resource maps feature the type of natural resources or economic activities known in that area. The map in Figure 7.10 on the next page is an example.



Figure 7.9 Physical map of Papua New Guinea. The shades of brown indicate the height of the land; the darkest shade is the highest areas.

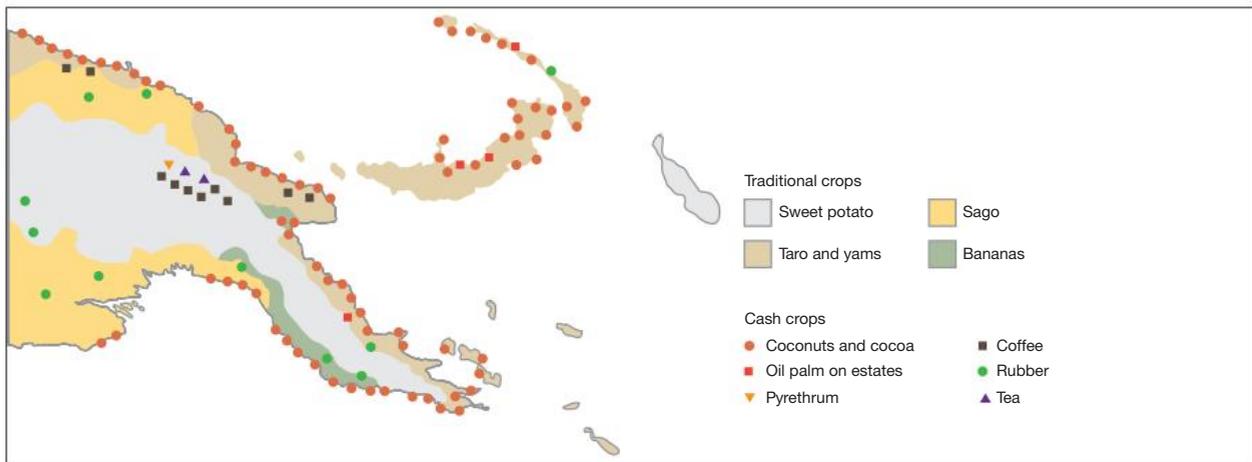


Figure 7.10 Economic map of Papua New Guinea

Activity 5



Figure 7.9 shows a physical or relief map of Papua New Guinea and figure 7.10 shows an economic map of Papua New Guinea. You can often learn a lot about an area by comparing two maps showing different things about the same area. Use these two maps to answer the following.

- 1 Look at the mainland (not the islands).
 - a Where are the two largest areas of low land?
 - b Where is the largest area of high land?
 - c Describe the relief of this area. The relief means the shape and height of the land.
- 2 From this you should be able to see that the country can be divided into three areas:
 - a The Highlands in the centre of the mainland
 - b The coastal plains around the coasts of the mainland
 - c The islands separated from the mainland including New Britain, New Ireland and Bougainville.

By comparing these two maps copy the following table and fill in the main traditional crops and cash crops in each area.

Papua New Guinea: Farming			
Crops	Highlands	Coastal plains	Islands
Traditional crops	?	?	?
Cash crops	?	?	?

Population maps

Population maps show the density of population in an area, that is, the average number of people in each square kilometre.

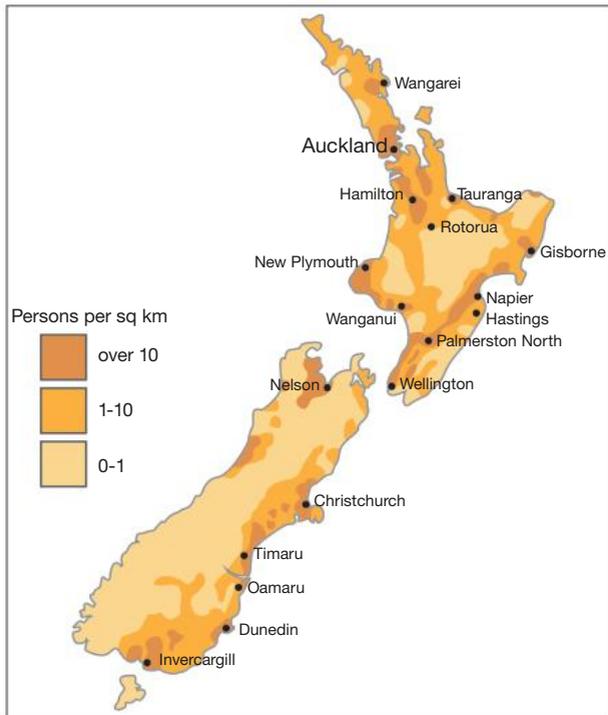


Figure 7.11 Population map of New Zealand

Activity 6

Refer to the population map of New Zealand in Figure 7.11.

- 1 Does the North or South island have the largest density of population?
- 2 On the South Island, where do most people live?
- 3 Which part of New Zealand has the fewest people?
- 4 Which part has the most people?

3 Contour lines

In Year 7 and in Activity 5, you used maps that show the height of the land. This is shown by different colours, as in Figure 7.12. The darkest green areas show land below 100 metres, the mid-shade of green areas show land between 100 metres and 200 metres, and the lightest green areas show land between 200 metres and 300 metres, and so on.

Activity 7

In Figure 7.12, what is the height of the land:

- a at point A
- b at point B
- c at point C
- d at point D
- e all the way along the line separating the light green and orange areas
- f all the way along the line separating the orange and grey areas.

The lines separating the areas of different heights are examples of **contour lines**. Contour lines are lines drawn on a map along which all points are the same height. If you walk along a contour line, you stay at the same level—you neither gain nor lose height.

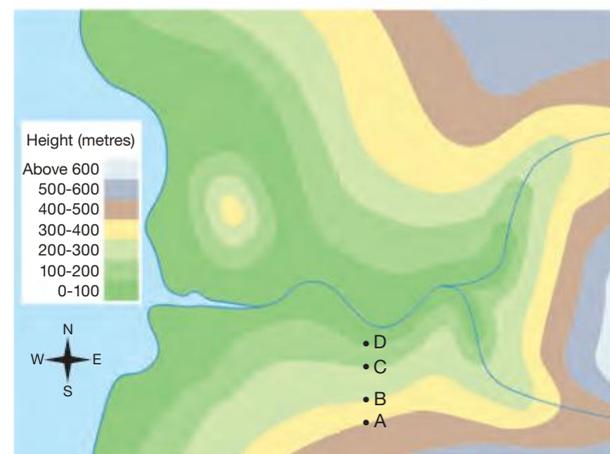


Figure 7.12 A contour map

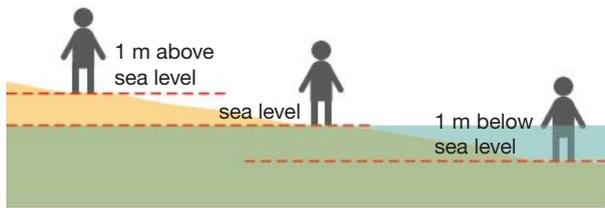


Figure 7.13 A person walking at sea level, above sea level and below sea level

Contour lines separate places above a certain height from places below a certain height.

The first contour line is called **sea level** and all contours are measured above or below sea level. Look at the diagram in Figure 7.13 of the edge of the sea on a calm day. If you walk along exactly where the water meets the land, you will walk along the same height all the way. The water surface marks a height we call sea level or zero. As you walk along the shore, you will be walking at the same height all the way along—you will be following a contour line. If you walk away from the shoreline and start walking into the ocean, the height of the ground (in this case the sea floor) is below sea level. If you walk away in the other direction and walk up the beach, your height will be above sea level. So sea level is the zero or 0 contour line. Since waves and tides change the height of the sea, we take an average height between high and low tides to be sea level.

If you walk along the beach keeping exactly one-metre above the sea level you will be following the one-metre contour.

If we are to show the shape and height of the land, we can draw contours at regular height above sea level, for instance at every 100 metres. If you walk along the 100-metre contour line you must walk so you keep exactly 100 metres above sea level—never going up and never going down.

Contour lines are useful because they allow us to show the height and shape of the land on a map. This is called **topography**.

Activity 8



Your teacher will do one or both of the following activities with you.

- 1 Go outside to a place where there are some slopes, including some small hills and valleys if possible. This can be anywhere in your school area. Do the following:
 - a One student stands anywhere on a slope. Another student stands on the same contour line as the first one. That means both students have to stand at exactly the same height. They are standing along a contour.
 - b Another student stands on a place 1 metre above the first line of students. He or she is now standing on another contour. More students can form a line along this contour.
 - c Do the same for the contour 1 metre below the first one and you will have formed three contours.
- 2 Now choose a place where there is a steep and a more gentle slope. One student stands anywhere at the top of the steep slope. Another stands on the contour 1 metre below, and another student stands 1 metre below again. One student stands anywhere on the gentle slope and another stands 1 metre below them.

What do you notice about those standing on the steep slope and those standing on the gentle slope? Who is close together and who is far apart?
- 3 Draw a map to show the contours in the areas in questions 1 and 2. You can just draw the shapes and distance apart of the contours without measuring them.

These activities show you that contours are close together on steep slopes, but far apart on gentle slopes. Contours show differences in height, for instance every one metre. On steep slopes you do not have to go far to climb one metre above or below the first height. On a

gentle slope you have to walk a long way before you go up or down one metre. So on a contour map, the closer the contours the steeper the slope.

Activity 9



Go outside again or continue with the first exercise. This time look for a place with a small hill and a small valley.

- 1 A group of students stands on a contour around the hill. Another group stands on the contour above or below it. What shape is formed?
- 2 Another group stands on a contour along the valley. You will have to stand along one side and then turn and come down the other. What shape is formed?
- 3 You may do the same for a small spur, that is, higher land sticking out into lower land. What shape is formed?

From these activities you can see that the shape of contours on a map show the shape of the land. Round contours in a circle show a hill. V-shaped contours show a valley or a spur. If the lower contours point towards the higher ones, it is a valley. If the higher contours point towards the lower ones, it is a spur.

Cross-sections and contours

Contours show the shape of the land by looking down from above. **Cross-sections** show the shape of the land by looking at it from the side, as if you cut a slice of the land. A contour map can be used to draw a cross-section.

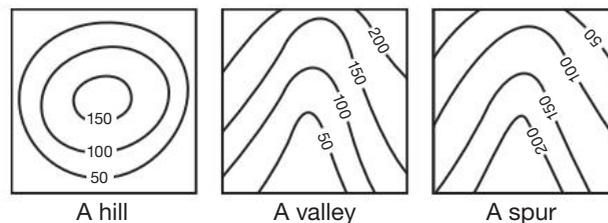


Figure 7.14 Contour maps of a hill, valley and a spur

Activity 10 (optional)



Note: Your teacher may do this activity with you instead of activities 8 and 9 if it is not possible to do these outside. It may also be useful to do this activity after going outside to revise what you learnt outside.

- 1 Collect a large heap of sand or go outside to a sandy area or use the sand beach.
- 2 Build the sand into various shapes, including a hill, a valley, a **spur**, a flat area, a steep slope and a gentle slope.
- 3 With a stick, draw contour lines around each of the features and make a note of the shape the contours form when you look down on them from above. This shows the shape of these features on a map.



Figure 7.15 Drawing contour lines in the sand

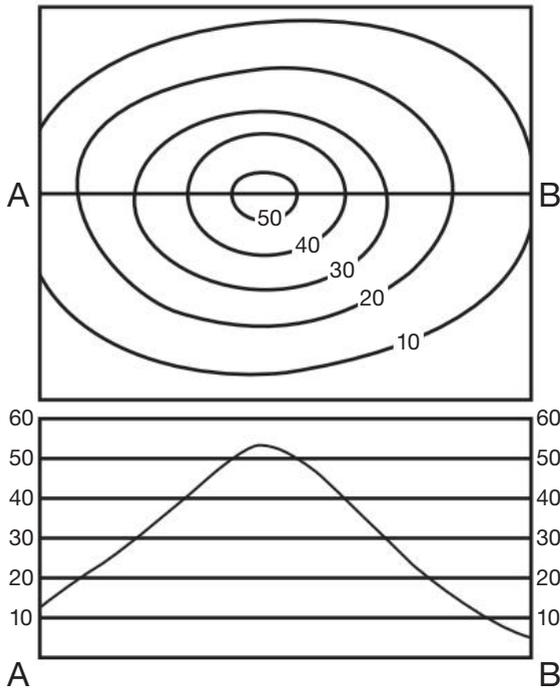


Figure 7.16 Contour map and cross-section of a small hill

Activity 11



Figure 7.16 shows a contour map of a small hill. Copy this into your exercise book. We can draw a cross-section as follows:

- 1 Draw a line across the map from A to B.
- 2 Draw a line the same length on another page in your exercise book.
- 3 Draw a vertical scale on the right and left, for example 1 cm:10m. Mark these lines in metres.
- 4 Draw horizontal lines joining the marks on the vertical scale. This will be your cross-section diagram.
- 5 Place the edge of a piece of paper along the line A to B and mark where each contour crosses the edge of the paper.

- 6 Transfer the paper to the bottom of your cross-section diagram. At each point where you marked the height on the paper, look up and transfer this to the correct height on the cross-section diagram by marking an X on the appropriate horizontal line.
- 7 Join all the points on your cross-section diagram with a smooth curve and you have a picture of the shape of the land — in this case a hill.

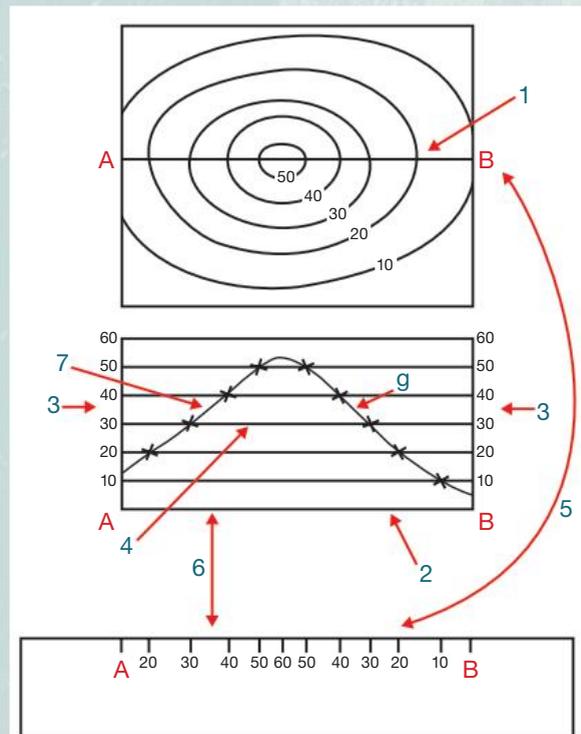


Figure 7.17 How to draw a cross-section

Activity 12



Copy each of the maps in Figure 7.14 into your exercise book and draw cross-sections in the same way. Label each cross-section to show what kind of feature it shows.

Summary of contour lines

- 1 Every point on a contour line represents the same height.
- 2 Contour lines can never cross one another. Each line represents a separate height, and you cannot have two different heights at the same point.
- 3 Moving from one contour line to another always shows a change in height.
- 4 A contour line separates land below a certain height from land above that height.
- 5 The closer contour lines are to one another, the steeper the slope is in the real world.

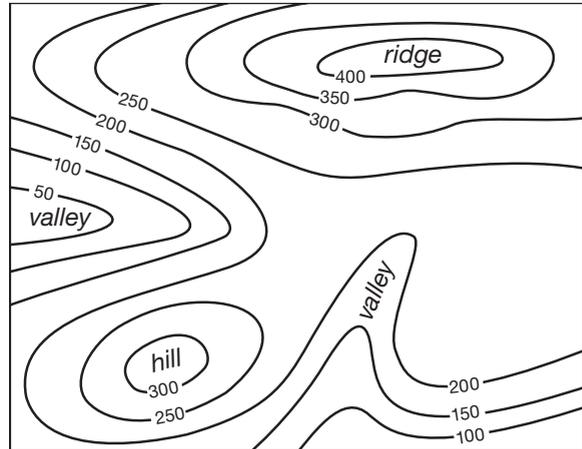


Figure 7.18 Physical map with contours

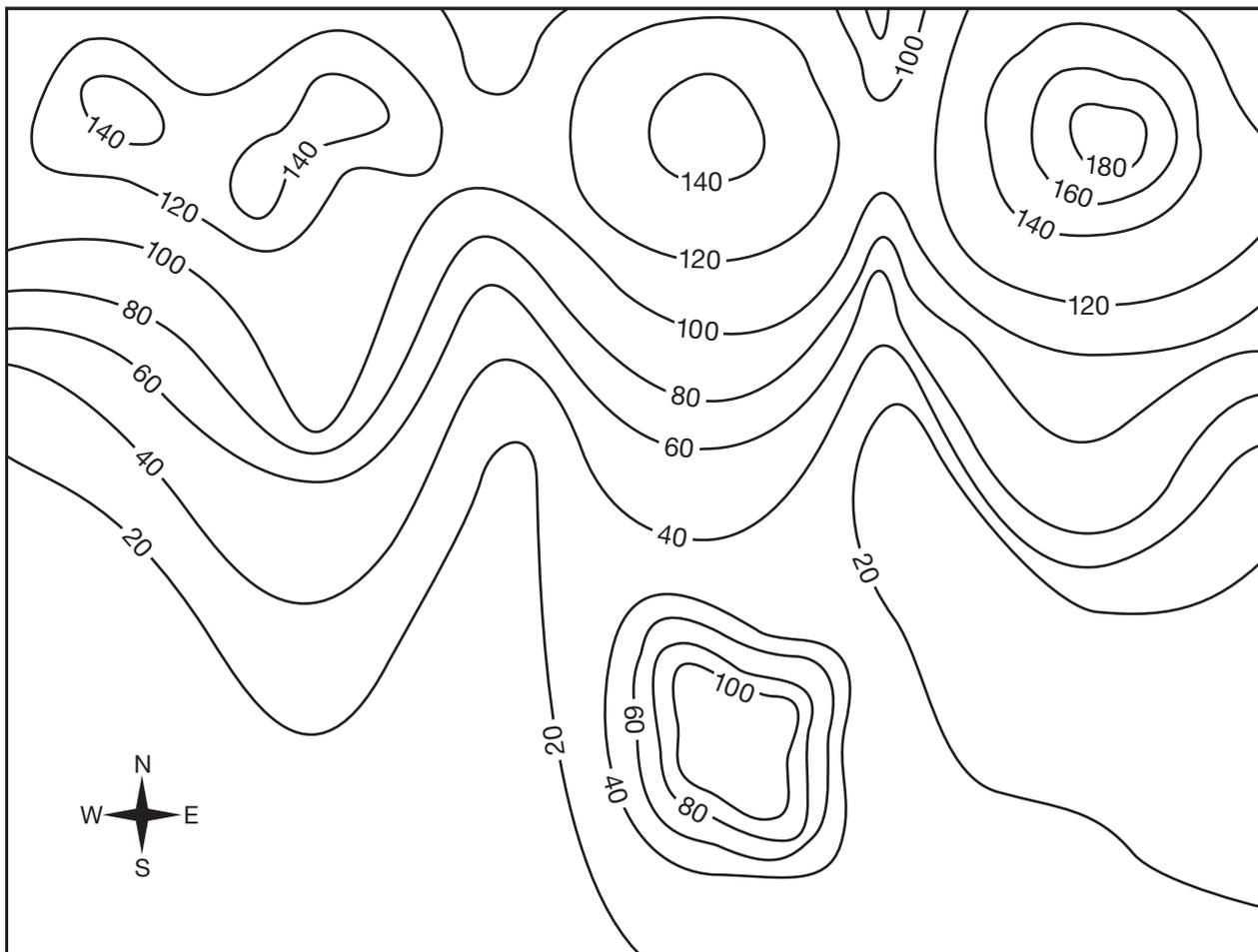


Figure 7.19 Map showing relief or physical features using contours. Contours are in metres.

Activity 13



Answer the following questions using the contour map in Figure 7.19 and the points of the compass shown on the map.

- 1 In which part of the area is most of the flat land?
- 2 In which part of the area is most of the hilly land?
- 3 What is the approximate height of the highest point?
- 4 How many valleys can you see?
- 5 What is the shape of the hill towards the south of the map?
- 6 Write a description of the relief or physical features of the area shown on this map.

Have you achieved your goals?

Look back at your goals at the beginning of the chapter. Check whether you have achieved each goal.

- Have you gained knowledge and understanding of each of the topics in the goals?
- Can you use each of the skills mentioned in the goals?
- Have you formed your own ideas and opinions about the topics in the chapter?
- Write a brief summary of not more than one page of what you have learnt in this chapter.

Glossary

axis a line through the centre of the Earth around which the Earth rotates

climate maps give information about rainfall and temperatures

contour lines lines drawn on maps along which all places are the same height

cross-section a diagram to show the shape of the land from the side

economic or resource maps give information about natural resources and economic development

Equator a line drawn round the globe half way between the North and South poles, cutting the globe into two halves, the Northern and Southern Hemispheres

globe a round object with a map of the world drawn on it to represent the world

Greenwich Meridian the meridian or line of longitude from which all other lines are measured

grids lines which divide a map into numbered squares to make it easy to find places

imaginary lines lines drawn on a globe which do not exist in nature e.g the Equator, latitude and longitude

International Date Line a line of longitude opposite to or 180° from the Prime Meridian along which the names of the days change

latitude lines drawn from west to east across the globe parallel to the Equator

longitude lines drawn around the globe from north to south, meeting at the north and south poles

meridian another word for a line of longitude

North Pole the northernmost end of the axis on which the world rotates

Northern Hemisphere the northern half of the world between the North Pole and the Equator

physical or topographic maps show heights and physical features

population maps give information about the density of population and number of people

Prime Meridian the meridian or line of longitude from which all other lines are measured

rotate to move in a circle around an axis

sea level the level of the sea from which heights are measured

South Pole the southernmost end of the axis on which the world rotates

Southern Hemisphere the southern half of the world between the South Pole and the Equator

sphere a round object like a ball

spur higher land sticking out into lower land

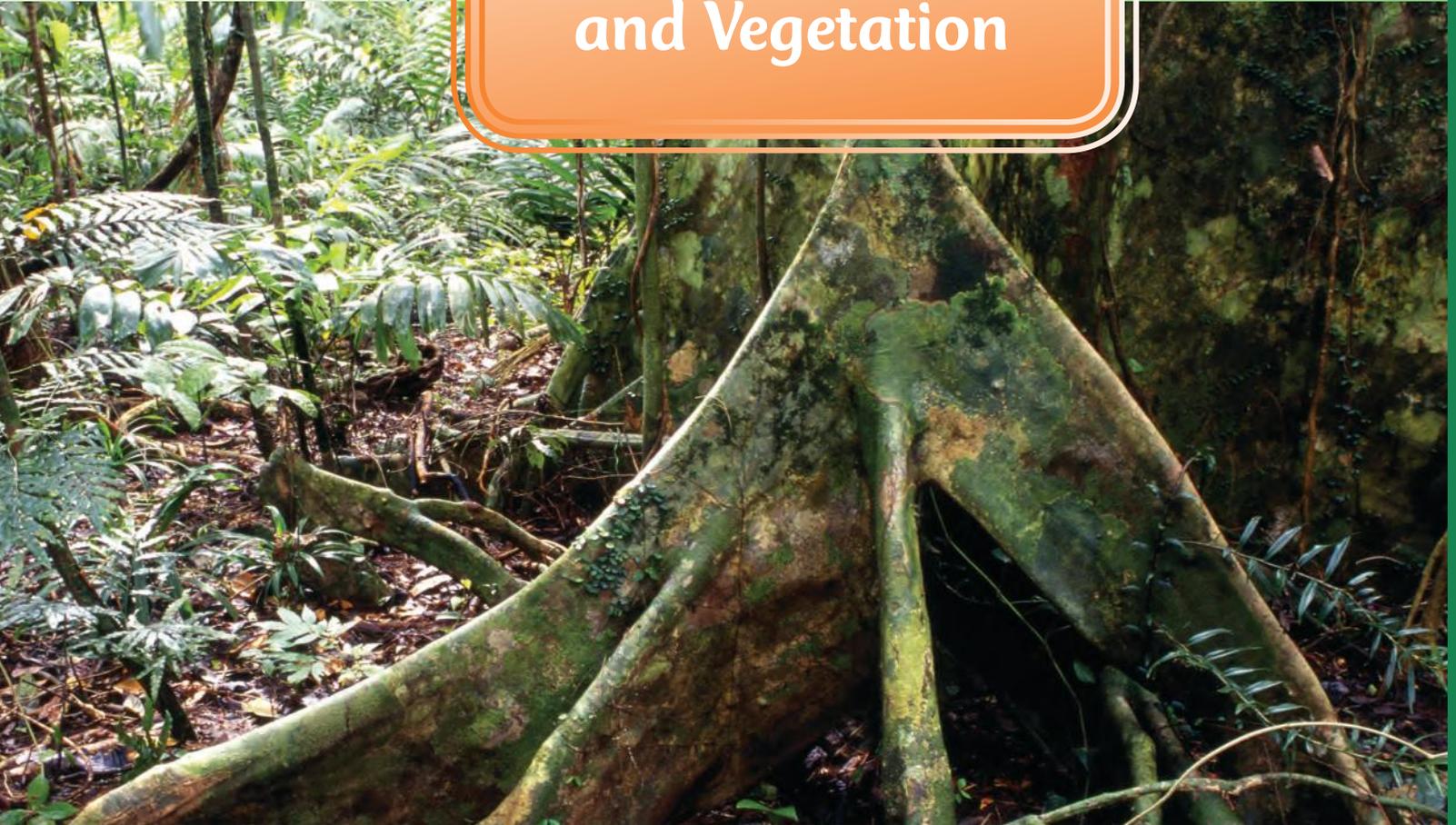
time zones places between the lines of longitude which have the same time measured from the Prime Meridian or Greenwich

topography the shape of the land

Universal Standard Time (UST) or Greenwich Mean Time (GMT) the time from which all other times are measured

Chapter 8

Weather, Climate and Vegetation



My goals:

- to know the main elements of weather and know how weather affects our lives
- to understand the main factors affecting each element of weather
- to be able to use some weather recording instruments
- to be able to interpret a weather map
- to be able to keep a weather diary
- to understand how weather affects the landscape
- to know what is meant by climate
- to understand the main features of the climate of Solomon Islands
- to be able to draw and read a climate graph
- to understand the causes and effects of weather hazards: cyclones, floods and droughts
- to understand the main features of Solomon Islands vegetation and how it is affected by the climate



Figure 8.1 Clouds in the distance



Figure 8.2 A cyclone

1 What is weather?

Activity 1



- 1 Look outside the window. How would you describe the weather today? Was it any different yesterday or last week? Describe the differences.
- 2 Make a list of all the things you mention when you describe the weather. What does 'weather' mean?
- 3 Sometimes people complain about 'bad' weather preventing them from carrying out a planned activity; at other times they talk about being able to carry out all their activities because the weather was so 'good'.
 - a What kinds of weather might people refer to as 'bad' and why?
 - b What kinds of weather might people refer to as 'good' and why?
- 4 Explain a particular weather situation that you or someone you know experienced that was frightening. In what way was it a bad experience?
- 5 Does the weather ever affect your schooling? If so, how?
- 6 What other activities that you do are affected by the weather? How are they affected?



Figure 8.3 Sunny weather



Figure 8.4 Rain clouds



Figure 8.5 Clouds over Savo Island

Activity 2



- 1 Look carefully at figures 8.1–8.5. They show different weather in different places.
 - a Write a sentence or two to describe the weather conditions for each photo.
 - b What effects do you think each type of weather condition might have on people?
 - c Choose one type of weather shown in figures 8.1–8.5, and answer one of the questions below.
 - i Describe what actions or precautions people might take to protect them from that type of weather.
 - ii Explain what people might do during that type of weather and why.
 - d Discuss which type of weather you would least like to experience and which type you would most like to experience and why?
- 2 In Figure 8.5, where is it probably raining and why?

- 3 Look at Appendix 3. Table 8.1 below indicates the average temperatures for January in a variety of places around the world.

Cities	Average January temperatures (°C)
Wellington, New Zealand	16
Tarawa, Kiribati	27
Amsterdam, Netherlands	2
Honiara, Solomon Islands	30
Lima, Peru	22
Nairobi, Kenya	18
Ottawa, Canada	-11

Table 8.1 Average temperatures

- a Which two locations experienced the hottest conditions and which two experienced the coldest conditions? In which countries are these locations?
- b Using Appendix 3, find their locations. Can you explain the difference in temperatures?
- c Can you explain why Wellington is much hotter than Amsterdam in January?
- d In what month might Amsterdam be hotter than Wellington?

Today the sky is dark and cloudy. It is also raining and the wind is blowing very strongly so we cannot go out fishing.

When we talk about the **weather** we are really talking about the condition of the air or the atmosphere in a particular place at a particular time. Weather can change from hour to hour, day to day or place to place. Sometimes it rains and the sky becomes cloudy for a few hours, while at other times the sky is clear and the sun becomes very hot for a while. It is because of the changing nature of weather conditions that daily **weather forecasts** on the radio or television or in the newspaper are important. Forecasts inform people what is likely to happen and, if necessary, enable people to take precautions against bad weather.

Effects of the weather on the lives of Solomon Islanders

Activity 3



- 1 What gardening techniques do you use in your village? How does the weather affect this type of gardening? What crops do you grow? How does the weather influence the types of crops you plant in your gardens and the times when you plant them?
- 2 Look at how you are dressed today. Did the weather influence your choice of clothes? If not, when does it affect how you dress?
- 3 Think of the house you live in or other houses in Solomon Islands. How is the design of these or the way they are built affected by the kind of weather we experience?
- 4 What sort of houses do you think people who experience other types of weather might build? Explain your answer.
- 5 How does the weather affect your choice of things to do each day?

- 6 How does the weather affect fishing activities in your home area? Think of the types of weather and the types of fish you may catch.
- 7 Look at figures 8.6–8.8. They show photos of people in different climates. Explain how the climate affects what they wear and how their houses are built.



Figure 8.7 Pacific Islanders living in a tropical climate



Figure 8.6 An Arab person living in a hot desert



Figure 8.8 An Inuit living in a very cold climate with ice and snow

Weather affects our lives on a daily basis. The daily weather conditions can be good or bad and can directly influence the decisions we make and actions we take every day. These decisions could include the choice of clothes we wear, activities we choose to do or where we choose to be at a particular time. Sometimes we have to delay, change or postpone what we planned for a particular time due to the type of weather. These are examples of how the weather affects our lives on a daily basis.

Strong winds can create rough seas and disrupt people's intentions to travel by sea to other islands, or affect fishermen's daily catches.

Tropical cyclones can destroy homes and leave people homeless. **Droughts** can cause a shortage of water for human use and affect the production of food crops that people rely on for their survival. **Floods** can destroy the crops altogether.

Weather elements

There are seven main elements that determine weather conditions. They are:

- sunshine
- temperature
- air pressure or atmospheric pressure
- wind
- air humidity or how much moisture there is in the air
- clouds
- rainfall or precipitation.

Sunshine

At times when the sky is clear, the sun appears. The light and heat from the sun makes the sunshine. The sun's heat is felt directly on the Earth's surface and on our bodies. Almost all heat comes directly or indirectly from the sun.

Temperature

Temperature refers to how hot or cold a place is. It depends on the amount of heat from the sun found in the air or the atmosphere. However, not all of the heat found in the air is obtained directly from the sun. Even when we cannot see the sun, we can feel its heat as it heats the air, the surface of the Earth, and things on the Earth and the sea. We can feel this heat even at night. The heat stored in the land and oceans then warms the air from beneath.

When we measure the temperature we normally measure the temperature of the air, not the direct sunlight. As you go upwards through the atmosphere the air gets thinner and less able to absorb heat so the air becomes colder, but the direct sun's rays may feel hotter on your body.

Air pressure or atmospheric pressure

Like everything else, the air in the atmosphere has weight. **Air pressure** or **atmospheric pressure** is a measure of the weight of the air in the atmosphere above a particular position on the Earth's surface. It's a result of the forces of gravity acting on the air mass.

You should have done an experiment in Science to create a vacuum or empty space in a tin. The weight of the air above then squeezes or collapses the tin, showing that the air has weight.

Air pressure is affected by temperature. Warm or hot air is light, or weighs less, so heat will cause less pressure or low pressure. Cold or cool air is heavy, or weighs more, so cold air will cause greater or high pressure.

Figure 8.9 shows the movement of air in high and low pressure regions.

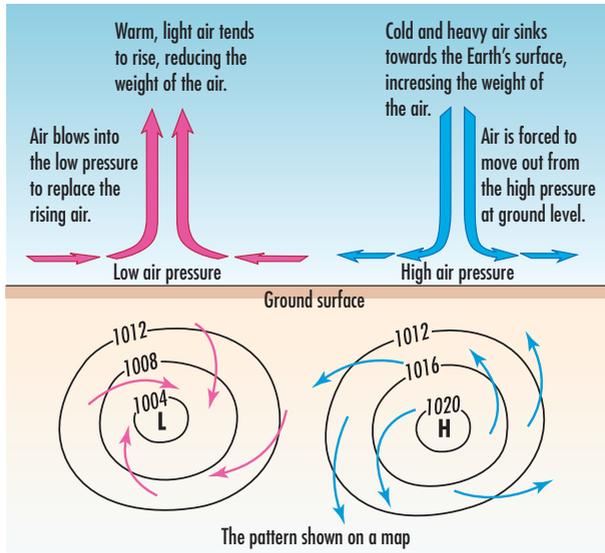


Figure 8.9 The movement of air in high and low pressure regions

Where the air is cold it will be heavy and will sink down. Regions of sinking air are called **highs, high pressure regions** or **anti-cyclones**. Clear skies and fair weather usually occur in these regions.

Where the air is hot it will be light and will rise up. Regions of rising air are called **lows, low pressure regions** or **depressions**. **Clouds**, rain and strong winds often occur in these regions.

Wind

It is the differences in air pressure that create **wind**. If the air above a place is heavy, it has high pressure. This will press the air downwards towards the Earth. As it reaches the Earth it will spread out. If the air above a place is light, we say it has low pressure. The light air will rise up, pulling air towards it from either side. Air, therefore, will always move from a region of high pressure towards a region of lower pressure, as shown in figures 8.9 and 8.10. Wind is the movement of air from an area of high pressure to an area of low pressure.

However, this is complicated because the Earth is spinning around on its axis. The air does not move directly from high to low pressure.

Air pressure

Cold air sinks, creating areas of high pressure called anti-cyclones, or highs.

Warm air rises, creating areas of low pressure called depressions, lows, or cyclones.

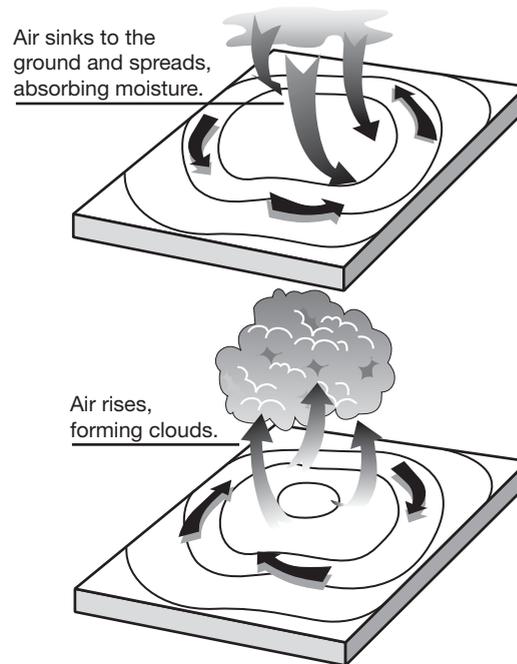


Figure 8.10 Air pressure and wind

This spinning or rotation of the Earth causes the winds to be deflected or twisted towards the left in the Southern Hemisphere and to the right in the Northern Hemisphere. So, as you can see in the diagrams above, in the Southern Hemisphere winds blow around areas of low pressure in a clockwise direction, which is the same direction as the hands of a clock. They blow around areas of high pressure in an anti-clockwise direction, which is opposite to the hands of a clock. In the Northern Hemisphere it is the opposite: anti-clockwise around low pressure and clockwise around high pressure.

Air humidity or atmospheric humidity

Most air contains water. The water in the air or atmosphere comes from different sources, such as evaporation from open water or falling

rain, or the transpiration of plants, as we saw when we learnt about the water cycle in Year 7 Social Studies. Humidity is a measure of the amount of water in the air. This may be water in a liquid form as drops of water in clouds or rain, or it may be an invisible gas called **water vapour**. The amount of water in the air affects clouds and rainfall or **precipitation**.

Activity 4



To show that water exists in the air in the form of an invisible gas called water vapour, breathe onto a cold louvre or other piece of glass. What do you notice? Did you see anything coming out of your mouth? Do you see anything on the glass? What happens if you leave it there?

The breath from your mouth contains water vapour, a gas that you cannot see. As it reaches a cold surface it condenses into a visible form of water. Soon, as it gets hotter, it will evaporate again and turn back into the invisible gas, water vapour. There is water vapour all around us nearly all the time but we cannot see it!

Activity 5



If you have a refrigerator, put an empty glass bottle into it. When it is cold take it out. What forms on the outside of the bottle? Where does it come from?

In the experiment in Activity 5, at first there will be nothing on the glass, but then the air close to it becomes cold and the water vapour in the air condenses into small drops of water. So the water comes from the air. If you leave it for some time the water will evaporate and turn back into water vapour, just as the water on the clothes you wash evaporates when you hang them up to dry.

Clouds

The experiments you did in activities 4 and 5 show that the water vapour in the air will condense or turn into water when the air becomes cooler. This is what forms clouds and rain. In areas of low pressure, warm air containing water vapour rises and gets cooler. The water vapour in it then condenses into small drops of water that float in the air, which we see as clouds. Of course clouds also affect the temperature as they block out the direct sun, so a cloudy day is also a cooler day.

There are many types of clouds. Three are shown in figures 8.11–8.13, with their English names: **Cumulus**, **stratus** and **cirrus**.



Figure 8.11 Cumulus clouds are formed by rising air. You can often see the top growing higher as the air rises. They are often formed as the air rises up in the afternoon on a hot day. If they rise very high and cause rain, they are called cumulonimbus clouds.



Figure 8.12 Stratus clouds are flatter clouds, often covering the whole sky.



Figure 8.13 Cirrus clouds are thin clouds and are very high up.

Activity 6



Look at figures 8.11–8.13. Has your language got names for these types of clouds? Which of them is often a sign of rain coming? Which is a sign of fine weather? Which do you think is associated with low pressure or depressions? Which is associated with high pressure or anti-cyclones?

Rainfall or precipitation

If the air goes on rising and becomes even colder, the drops of water formed will get bigger and fall as rain. Rain is a form of precipitation. All liquid and solid water particles that fall to the ground from the sky are called **precipitation**. These particles include drizzle (light rain) and rain, which fall as water drops; and snow and hail, which are so cold they fall as ice. Precipitation is one of the three main processes (evaporation, condensation and precipitation) of the water cycle, involving continual exchange of water between the atmosphere, the sea and the Earth's surface. You learnt about this in Year 7 in Social Studies and Science.

There are three main types of rainfall. All rain or precipitation is caused by air rising up and becoming cooler. However, there are three ways air can rise up, which determines the type of rainfall.

- 1 Relief rain:** this is the most common rain in Solomon Islands. It is caused when air rises up because the wind blows towards a mountain and is forced to rise. This happens on every island in Solomon Islands, but particularly on the weather coasts where the wind comes from the open sea and the mountains rise up sharply. This is why the weather coasts are so wet. The weather coast of Guadalcanal is one of the wettest places in the world! In Figure 8.5 on page 161, you can see air rising up over Savo and causing rain.

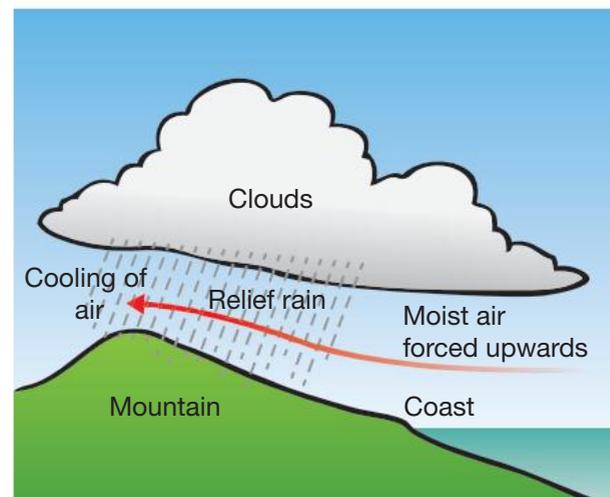


Figure 8.14 The formation of relief rain

- 2 Convective rain:** this occurs when heat causes the air to rise up. It often forms cumulonimbus clouds. This is very common on hot days in Solomon Islands. The sky is clear in the morning. As the air heats up it begins to rise, forming clouds, and by the afternoon these clouds grow bigger and cause rain.

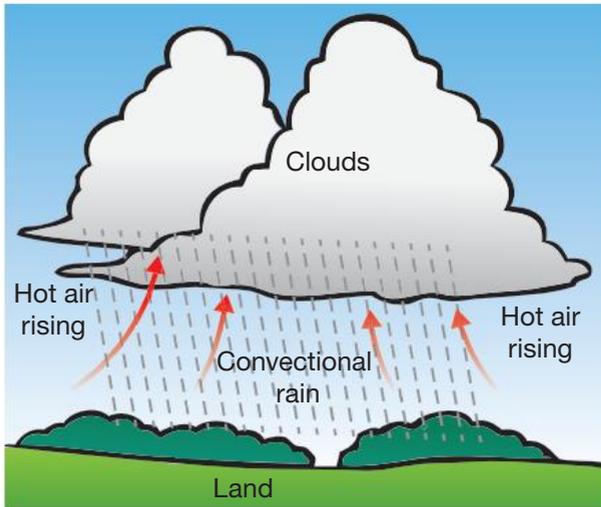


Figure 8.15 The formation of convectional rain

- 3 **Frontal rain:** this occurs when two winds or bodies of air move towards each other. Where they meet, they will be forced to rise up, or warmer air may rise up over cooler air. This causes rain. This happens over Solomon Islands when north-west winds (known as *komburu* in some areas) meet south-east winds (known as *ara*). It often causes stratus clouds.

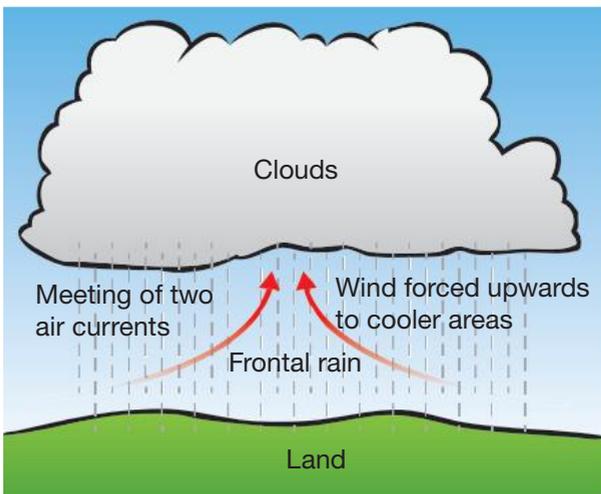


Figure 8.16 The formation of frontal rain

Activity 7



Think of any area you know well. Now you know more about the weather, try to describe the weather in that place at different times of the year. Mention sunshine, winds, clouds and rainfall. Try to describe the direction the winds come from at different times of the year and give them local names. What type of weather is associated with each wind? Which of the three types of rainfall does the area get?

Weather recording instruments

The study of weather is called **meteorology**. On the local radio and television and in newspapers, daily weather conditions of different parts of the country are usually given to inform people about the kinds of weather conditions. In order to do this, scientists called **meteorologists** have many instruments to accurately measure the different elements of the weather. This recording helps them to predict what the weather will be, so they also issue weather forecasts each day. Some of the important weather recording instruments that they use and their units of measurement are explained below.

Activity 8



- 1 Copy the following table into your workbook and fill it in as you read the next section.

Recording instrument	Weather element	Units of measurement
?	?	?

- 2 If your school has any of the weather instruments described below, ask your teacher to show them to you and find out how to use each of them.

Sunshine recorder

Sunshine is measured by the number of hours the sun shines in a day. There is an instrument with a big glass ball, which focuses the sun's rays and burns a piece of paper as the sun moves.



Figure 8.17 Sunshine recorder

Thermometer

A **thermometer** is used to measure the temperature of the air. It is a tube containing a column of mercury or alcohol. The mercury or alcohol expands and rises up the tube if the temperature rises and contracts and falls when the temperature falls. The temperature can be read off the scale on the side of the tube. Temperature is usually measured in degrees Celsius. You should have learnt about this in Science.

Barometer

A **barometer** is used to measure air pressure. Pressure is measured in pascals, as you have learnt in Science. The instrument has a hollow drum that is squeezed or pressed down when

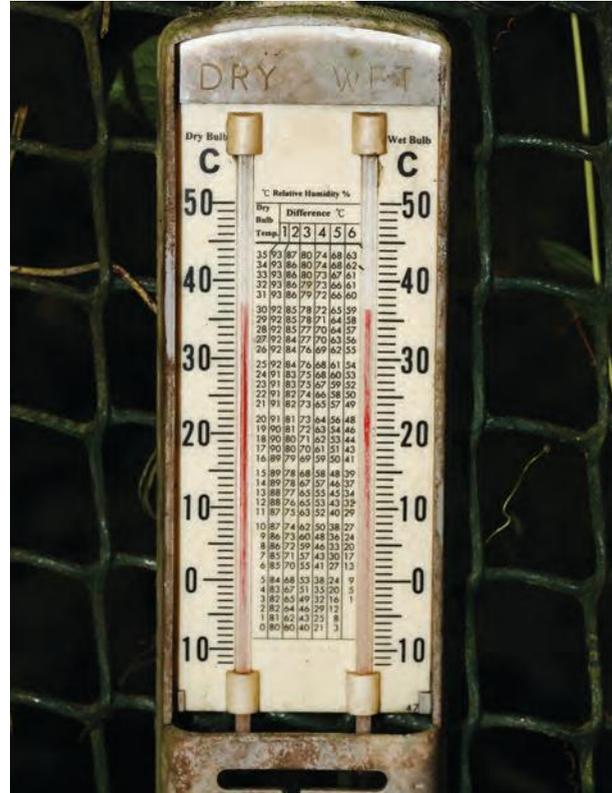


Figure 8.18 Thermometer



Figure 8.19 Barometer

pressure becomes higher. This is connected to a needle that turns around to show the pressure. If the pressure falls very low, below 1000 pascals, we call it a depression and this may turn into a cyclone.

Anemometer

An **anemometer** is used to measure the speed of the wind. It has four rotating cups pointed in different directions. The faster the wind, the faster the cups rotate. The speed of the wind is measured by the speed at which the cups rotate. The cups are connected to a gauge on the machine below. The speed of the wind is measured in kilometres per hour.



Figure 8.20 Anemometer



Figure 8.21 Wind sock

Wind sock

At airports in Solomon Islands, you can usually see a long cloth bag or ‘sock’ hanging on a pole. As the wind blows it fills the **wind sock** and this swings around to show the direction the wind is blowing towards. However, we name the wind according to the opposite direction—that is, the direction the wind is coming from.

Hygrometer

A **hygrometer** is used to measure the **humidity** or the amount of moisture in the air. This is measured using a combination of two thermometers. One of the thermometers is called a **wet bulb thermometer** because it has a wet strip of material around it. The other thermometer is a normal dry bulb thermometer. Water on the wet material on the wet bulb evaporates and cools the bulb,



Figure 8.22 Hygrometer

just as water evaporates and cools your body when you go for a swim. So the wet bulb thermometer records a lower temperature than the dry bulb thermometer. The difference in the temperatures recorded by the two thermometers measures the amount of humidity in the air. Humidity is measured as a percentage of the maximum possible water vapour in the air at a certain temperature, so 100% means the air contains the maximum amount of water vapour. You will feel this as you will be sweating because the air is full of water vapour and the water on your body cannot evaporate. In Solomon Islands humidity of over 70% is common, which is why we sweat so much.

Clouds

You do not need an instrument to record clouds. You just look up and estimate the number of tenths of the sky or percentage of the sky covered by clouds, for example five-tenths or 50%. The sunshine recorder will help you to know how many hours in a day are cloudy, as when the sun was not shining it must have been cloudy.

Rain gauge

A **rain gauge** is used to measure the rainfall. Rain is measured in millimetres or centimetres. One centimetre is the amount that would cover a flat area to a depth of one centimetre if none escaped. A rain gauge is a cylinder that is placed in the open so that it collects an even distribution of rain. The side of the gauge is marked in millimetres so that the amount of rainfall can be easily read. You can make a rain gauge with any straight-sided tin or jar completely open at the top. Just dip a ruler in to measure the depth of the rain.



Figure 8.23 Rain gauge

Collecting other information

As well as using these recording instruments, which are placed in as many places as possible, meteorologists rely on observations of cloud formations and the information provided by **weather balloons**, **satellite** photographs and weather stations. The most advanced of these technologies is the satellite photograph—a satellite takes a photograph from high in the air looking down at the Earth to show the position and movement of weather patterns. You can often see these on the television.

Recording, interpreting and reporting

After as much information as possible has been collected, weather maps are drawn up. Most of the work is done by computers. Weather maps represent all the information collected and give a summary of the weather.



Figure 8.24 Weather balloon



Figure 8.25 Satellite photo

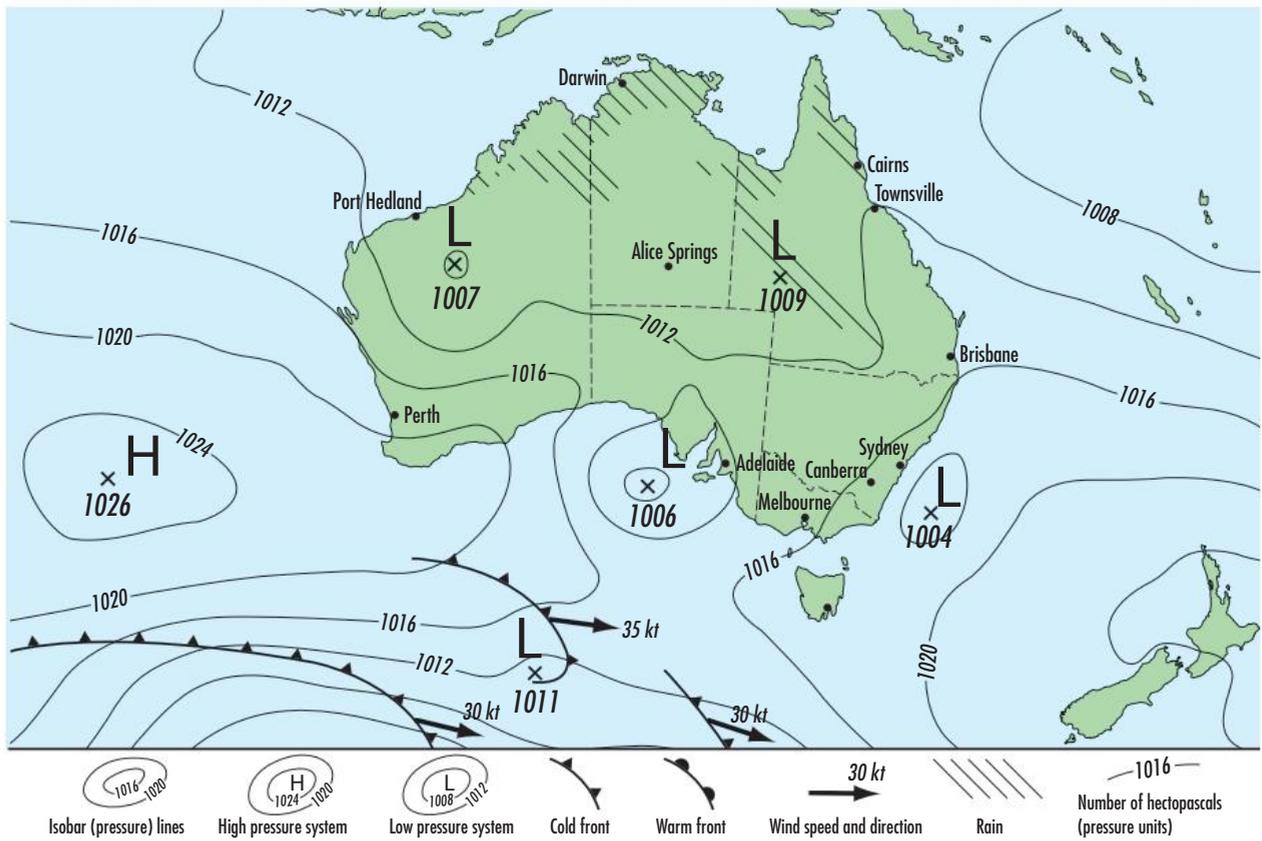


Figure 8.26 Weather map of Australia

Weather maps

Weather maps show the condition of the atmosphere, and they help predict what the weather is likely to be over the following days. The Meteorology Department draws weather maps using information gathered from satellites and weather stations located around the country. Weather maps are also called **synoptic charts**. An example of a weather map is shown in Figure 8.26 on page 171.

Meteorologists use symbols on weather maps to show different weather elements: rain, sunshine, clouds or storms and air pressure. Some of the important features in a weather map, which you need to know in order to read weather maps, are outlined below.

- Air pressure differs from place to place, and from time to time. **Isobars** are lines that join places with equal atmospheric (or air) pressure. The pressure is measured in hectopascals, as you will learn in Science. Isobars are similar to contours, which you learnt about in Chapter 7, but they show pressure, not height. When the isobars are close together, the difference in pressure is large, so winds will be very strong, like in a cyclone.
- As we have seen, winds move because of the difference in air pressure between one place and another. When the isobars are far apart, the difference in air pressure is small and there may only be a gentle breeze. When the isobars are close together winds will be very strong, as in a cyclone.
- Winds move air, and the type of air they move determines the weather. If winds blow from where the air is warm and dry, the weather may become warm and dry; if they blow from cold or wet places the weather will be cold or wet.
- The barbed line that sometimes appears on weather maps is a front. A front is where two types of air are moving towards each other and one is likely to rise up, causing rain.

Activity 9



Look at the map in Figure 8.26 on page 171 and answer the following questions. Use compass points to locate the places (e.g. south-east of Australia).

- 1 Where was the area of lowest pressure?
- 2 Where was the area of highest pressure?
- 3 Where was the main area of rain? From what you have learnt, why was it raining there?
- 4 Where were the main fronts situated?
- 5 Where were the strongest winds? From the above explanations, explain why there were strong winds there.
- 6 Do you think there were strong winds over Solomon Islands?

Activity 10



- 1 Keep a weather diary. Copy the table on page 173 into your exercise book. Do not copy the descriptions in column 3. Put the date each day and observe and record each aspect of the weather. In groups, carry out a week or two of observations (or longer). Use measurements (if your school has the instruments), or choose a correct description for that day using the guidelines in column 3.

Note: For humidity, estimate how much you are sweating when you are not doing exercise. The more you sweat, the higher the humidity. Washed clothes dry very quickly when humidity is low.

- 2 Listen to or read the daily weather reports and weather forecasts in the local media (radio, newspapers, TV) and discuss these in class daily. How accurate are the forecasts?
- 3 Summarise the weather information and conditions from your weather diary in graphs and present these to the whole class.

Aspect of weather	Instrument used (if any)	Measurements (if any)	Descriptions (Choose correct descriptions each day.)
Date			
Sunshine			<i>Estimate the number of hours.</i>
Cloudiness			<i>Estimate how many tenths of the sky is covered by cloud (e.g. three-tenths).</i>
Pressure			<i>Listen to the radio: High or low, depression or cyclone</i>
Wind			<i>Speed: Calm, light, moderate, strong, gale, cyclone. Direction: N, NW, W, SW, S, SE, E, NE</i>
Rain			<i>None, slight, light, moderate, heavy, very heavy</i>
Temperature			<i>Day: Cool, hot, very hot Night: Cold, cool, warm, hot</i>
Humidity			<i>Air feels: very damp, damp, fairly dry, dry</i>

Effects of weather on the environment

Activity 11



If you leave the following things outside in the sun, rain and wind for a long period, what will happen to them: potato peelings, paper, timber, a metal knife, plastic? All will be affected by the weather. Which will be affected by the weather the slowest? Discuss this with your class.

Everything can be affected by the weather, even a metal knife, which will rust, or a piece of timber, which will become rotten. Things that are made from things that grow naturally are said to be biodegradable. The potato peelings, timber and paper, which is made from wood, are all **biodegradable**. These are affected fastest by the weather and rot quickly. Metals and plastics are not biodegradable and take a long time to be affected. Some types of plastic may last hundreds of years.

Activity 12



What lesson can you learn from this about how to throw away or dispose of waste? What will happen if we throw away plastic? Will it be affected by the weather? What should we do with plastic we want to throw away? Discuss this with your class.



Figure 8.27 West Guadalcanal Bridge was damaged by flooding in 2010.

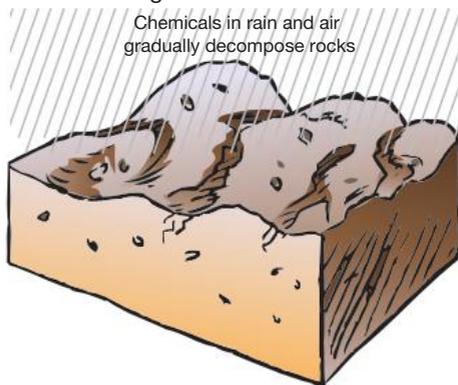
Weather and the landscape

Temperature, water and wind can all affect the surface of the Earth or the landscape in many ways.

Rocks change their temperature in response to the weather. As they heat up they expand, and as they cool down they contract. If they expand and contract rapidly they can crack. Just as metals are affected by rust, some rocks are affected by chemicals in the rain and become soft and break down. Slowly the rocks are broken down into soil, as you have learnt in Agriculture. This is done through a process called **weathering**.

When rain falls heavily and in large amounts, the effect it has on the land can be greater. Flooding can cause great damage. It can change the Earth's surface by washing away soils or vegetation from one place and depositing them

Chemical weathering



Physical weathering

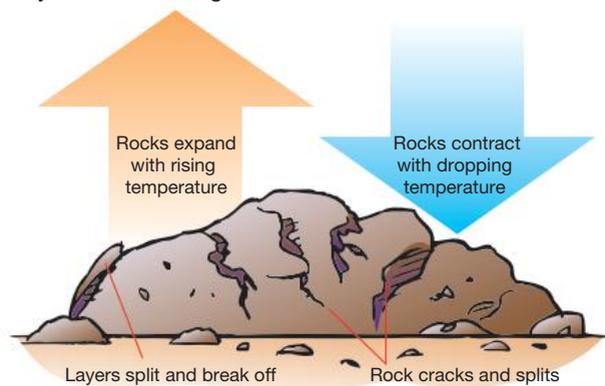


Figure 8.28 Weathering

in another. This is common in many parts of Solomon Islands as you can see in Figure 8.29 Wind can also change the surface of the Earth. In fact, it is one of the major sources of **erosion**. The wind constantly blows soil away, especially in dry areas where soils contain little moisture and there is not much protecting the vegetation. Strong winds can also destroy the vegetation.

So the weather is an important part of erosion, which wears away the land in some places and builds it up in others.

Activity 13



Go outside and examine carefully an area of land that is exposed to the weather. Make a careful note of all the effects of weather that you can see in that area.

2 What is climate?

Climate is different from weather. Weather refers to the conditions of the atmosphere or the air over short periods of time—from hour to hour, day to day or for a few days. The climate of an area is the average or usual weather conditions of that area over a longer period of time. This period is usually a number of years or even decades.



Figure 8.29 Soil erosion

The climate of any place, like its weather, is influenced by its location in relation to the Equator and the sea, as well as its position on the land mass. Generally, those places that are the same distance from the Equator and on the same side of a continent have a similar climate. One country may have a wide range of climatic regions, or areas with different types of climate, ranging from dry desert climates to tropical rainforest climates.

One difference between climate and weather is summarised by the phrase, 'Climate is what you expect; weather is what you actually get'.

The study of climate is called **climatology**. Each area of the world has its own climate. An area with a certain type of climate is called a **climatic region**. Climates, just like weather, are described according to a variety of characteristics: sunshine, temperature, air pressure, wind, humidity (how much moisture there is in the air), cloud, and rainfall or precipitation.

Scientists use many methods to classify climatic regions, but it is the balance of all these things that decides what type of climate exists in a certain area. You will learn more about this in the next chapter.

Solomon Islands climate and weather

Let's look at why we have the kind of climate and weather we have in Solomon Islands.

Rainfall and temperature

Solomon Islands lies between 6° and 12° of latitude south of the Equator, which is very near to the Equator. The areas near the Equator, which are called equatorial or **tropical**, are the hottest areas of the world. This is because the sun's rays strike us at a large angle, as you can see in Figure 8.30. We will learn more about this in the next chapter.

Solomon Islands has a climate similar to those of many tropical areas, with high temperatures and high humidity throughout the year, and most areas experiencing high rainfall in all months of the year. This kind of climate is called **tropical maritime**, meaning tropical and maritime or near the sea.

Since rainfall is brought by winds from the sea, the amount of rainfall is different for different islands due mainly to the way they face these winds. Most big islands have a weather coast, which faces strong winds from the open sea

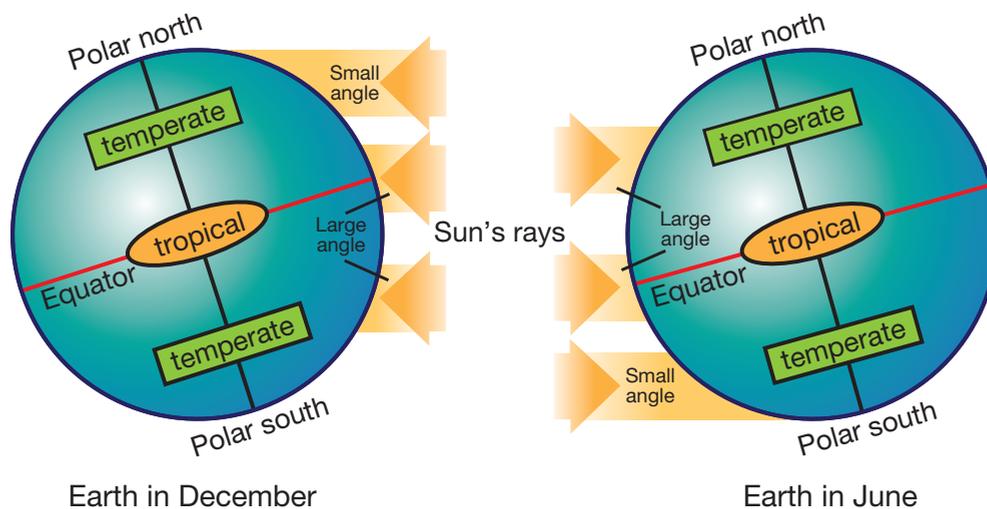


Figure 8.30 The sun's rays fall at different angles on tropical, temperate and Polar regions.

or ocean and receives very heavy rain. On the opposite side the winds are drier because they have blown over the mountains and dropped their rainfall. This is sometimes called **rain shadow**.

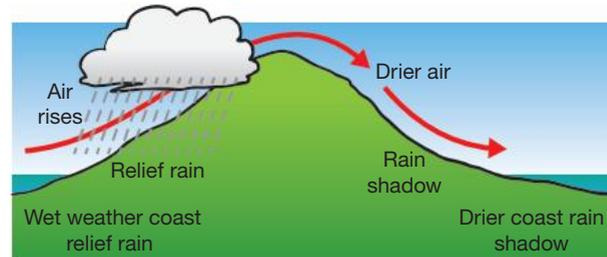


Figure 8.31 Weather coast relief rain and rain shadow

Activity 14



- 1 Does your island have a weather coast? Which sea or ocean does it face? How would you describe the weather on this coast? How is it different from the weather on the opposite coast?
- 2 In your language do you have words for different types of winds (e.g. the east to south-east winds and the north to north-west winds)? What are the words? What months do these winds blow? What weather do you expect when each of these winds is blowing?

Seasonal winds

East to south-east: May to October

The east to south-east winds usually blow strongly from May to October. In English these are called south-east trade winds. In Guadalcanal and some other languages they are called *ara*, and this gives the name to Honiara. They usually bring drier weather. In July to August they are sometimes quite cool as it is winter in Australia. Cyclones hardly ever occur at this season.

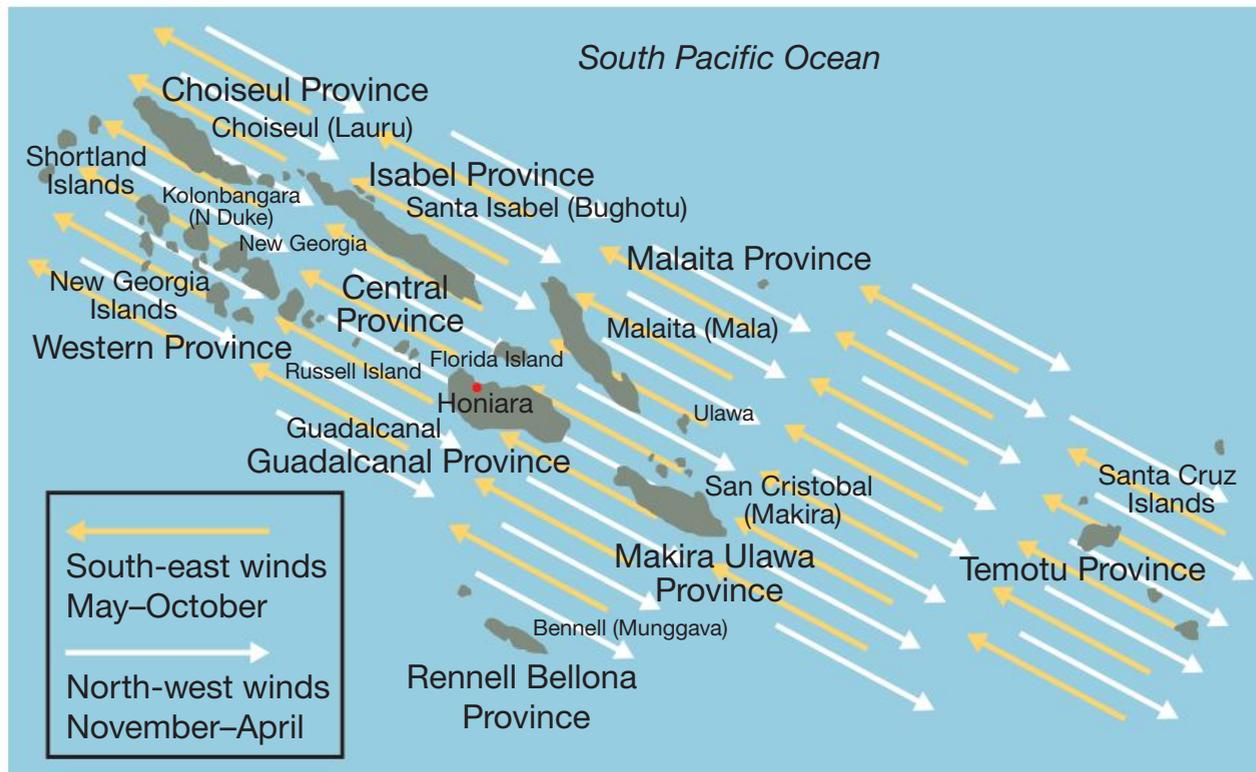


Figure 8.32 Seasonal winds in Solomon Islands

West to north-west: November to April

During November to April west to north-west winds blow. They are usually lighter but they bring more rain. In some languages they are called *komburu*. This is also the tropical cyclone season. During this period the average frequency of cyclones is between one and two per year. Because most of Solomon Islands is located within the low latitude area near the Equator and further from the Tropic of Capricorn, it is not subjected to the damaging effects of tropical cyclones as much as other countries in the south-west Pacific nearer the Tropic. The cyclones that affect the Solomon Islands are usually in the early stages of their lives and are relatively small. Nevertheless, they can cause serious damage to structures, crops, forests and local water supplies and have caused loss of life in the past. They are most common and most severe in Temotu Province, which is further south and nearer the Tropic.

Local winds

In addition to seasonal winds, there is also a strong daily wind pattern caused by the islands themselves and other factors. As we have seen, winds are caused by differences and changes in pressure.

Activity 15

If you live near the coast or your school is near the coast, which direction do the winds normally blow:

- during the day
- during the night?

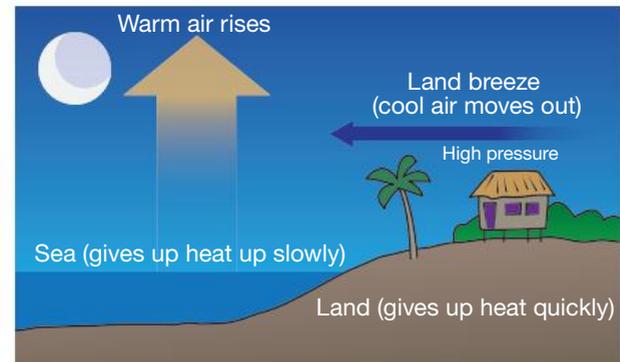
Can you explain the reasons for this?



Sea breezes

In coastal areas, the land becomes hot during the day and this causes low pressure and the air rises up. The sea remains cooler, causing

Land breezes (night)



Sea breezes (day)

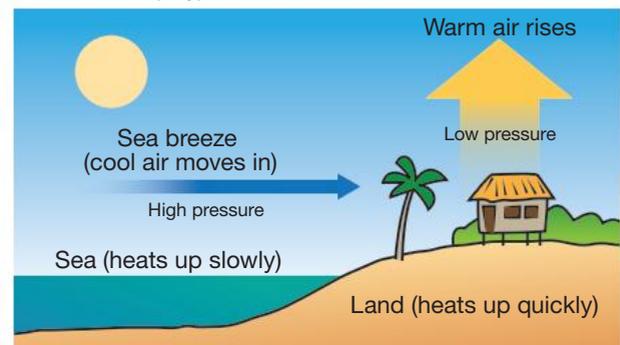


Figure 8.33 Land and sea breezes

high pressure. So **sea breezes** blow from the sea to replace the air rising over the land in the daytime.

Land breezes

At night the land becomes colder, causing high pressure, and cold air descends over the land and blows out to sea. The sea remains warmer, causing lower pressure. So a land breeze blows from the land to the sea at night. In hilly or mountainous areas, cool and relatively dense air can flow downhill at night. As it reaches the coast, it can combine with the land breeze to give an offshore wind as strong as 20 kilometres (km) per hour in the early morning.

These winds help to keep places near the sea cool during the day and night, so people like living near the sea.

Climate graphs

Activity 16



In the area where you live, which months of the year are usually: the wettest, the driest, the hottest and the coldest?

Climate varies over the years, however, we can find out what often happens by looking at **climate graphs**.

Weather forecasts usually deal with conditions over short periods of time. However, if the weather statistics for a number of years are collected together and averaged out, then the climate of a particular place can be found. Such graphs also allow climates of different places to be compared easily.

Types of weather hazards

The weather and climate can be good and help people to carry out their daily activities.

However, sometimes the weather conditions are so bad that they make it difficult to do anything. These kinds of weather conditions can disrupt services and affect many people's way of life. Some of these extreme weather conditions include cyclones, droughts and floods.

Tropical cyclones



Figure 8.34 A satellite photo of a tropical cyclone

Activity 17



1 Use the average temperature and rainfall figures for Auki in Table 8.2 to draw a climate graph. You should have learnt how to draw graphs in Maths. The rainfall should be drawn on a bar graph. The temperature should be drawn on a line graph. You can use the same diagram for both rain and temperature by drawing the temperature line graph above the rainfall bar graph.

2 From the graph you have drawn, describe the climate of Auki. Compare this with the climate of your home area.

Note: To help you, in most parts of the world rainfall over 100 millimetres (mm) in a month is considered wet and rainfall over 200 mm is considered very wet. Temperatures over 25 degrees Celsius are considered hot.

	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Total
Rainfall (mm)	375	380	390	250	210	190	225	210	200	210	220	230	3090
Temperature (°C)	27	27	26	27	27	26	27	27	27	27	27	28	

Table 8.2 Temperature and rainfall for Auki, Malaita (average figures)

Activity 18



- 1 Can you describe an experience you had during a cyclone or that of a friend? If not, describe what you have heard or read about a cyclone in the news.
- 2 What is the wind like during a cyclone?
- 3 What kind of damage does it cause?
- 4 How long does the cyclone usually last?
- 5 Were there any warnings made before the cyclone? Do you think such warnings are useful? What action did people take about these warnings?
- 6 Did the warnings help people prepare and avoid damage?
- 7 What damage did the cyclone cause?
- 8 What did people do after the cyclone had left?

What is a tropical cyclone?

Tropical cyclones are powerful and destructive storms. Cyclones approach from the sea, bringing with them very heavy rains, strong

winds and sometimes very high waves called **storm surges**. In some tropical areas cyclones are one of the main dangers to human life and property. Tropical cyclones are also called hurricanes or typhoons in different regions of the world, as shown in the Figure 8.35.

Causes of tropical cyclones

Look at the diagrams on the next page. Cyclones are formed when very warm moist air rises rapidly up through the atmosphere. This warm air causes an area of very low pressure, and strong winds blow in towards the low pressure from all sides to replace the rising air. These winds are moved or deflected by the rotation of the Earth so they blow round the area of low pressure in a circle—clockwise in the Southern Hemisphere. The area of low pressure is called the **eye** of the cyclone and the eye itself is completely calm. Large banks of clouds with heavy rain form in a circle around the clear, calm eye. As this weather pattern moves across the ocean it grows in size and strength. As a cyclone moves over land it loses strength.

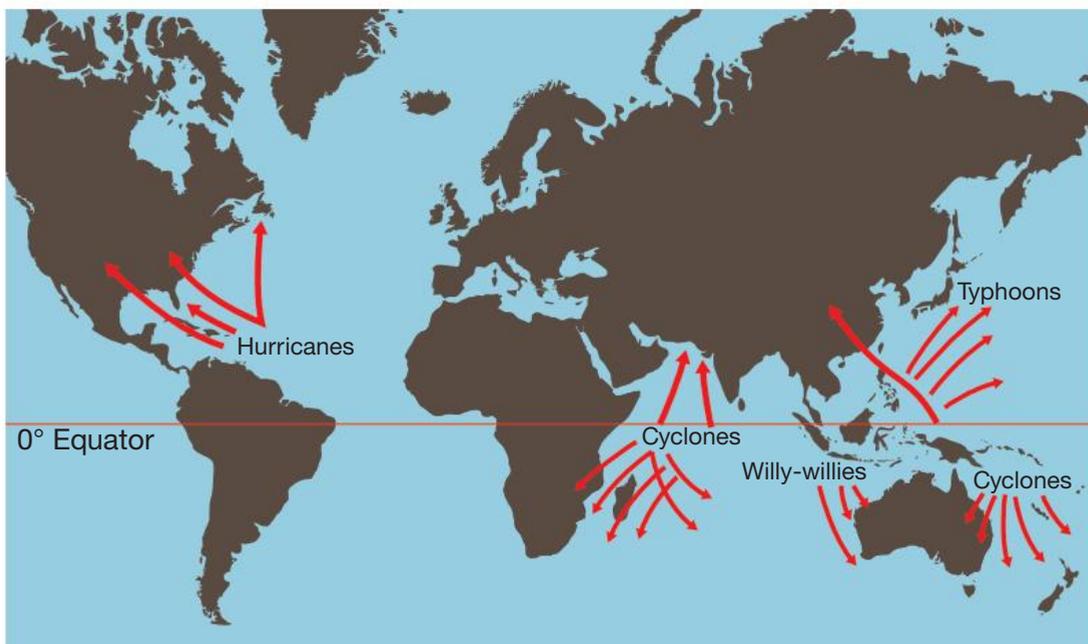


Figure 8.35 Location of cyclone areas in the world—note they have different names in different regions.

Large amounts of rainfall can be dropped from a cyclone in a very short period of time and the accompanying winds are extremely strong, blowing well over 100 km and up to 250 km per hour.

Tropical cyclones form in warm tropical oceans between 8–15 degrees (°) north and south of the Equator, with a lifetime from several days up to several weeks. Tropical depressions and tropical storms are smaller and may develop into cyclones.

Activity 19



Look at figures 8.36–8.38. Figure 8.36 shows how a cyclone is formed. As the wind blows around the low pressure, the whole cyclone moves. Figure 8.37 shows a cross-section of a cyclone moving from right to left to pass over Place A. Figure 8.38 is a map of the same cyclone, looking down from above. It is moving from right to left and will pass over Place A as shown by the arrow. As you can see, the eye will pass right over Place A. Imagine you are in Place A and the cyclone moves across you as shown by the arrows. The following describes the events which will occur, but not in the correct order. Copy the diagrams and next to them copy the events listed below in the correct order:

- light winds begin to blow from the south
- northerly wind becomes very strong
- southerly wind becomes stronger
- very heavy rain
- no rain, clear skies
- rain begins to fall
- strong northerly winds suddenly begin
- clouds begin to form
- wind suddenly stops
- more trees fall down and roofs blow off
- southerly winds very strong
- short period of calm
- rainfall decreases
- rain stops
- trees fall down, roofs blow off
- heavy rain starts again
- clouds disappear.

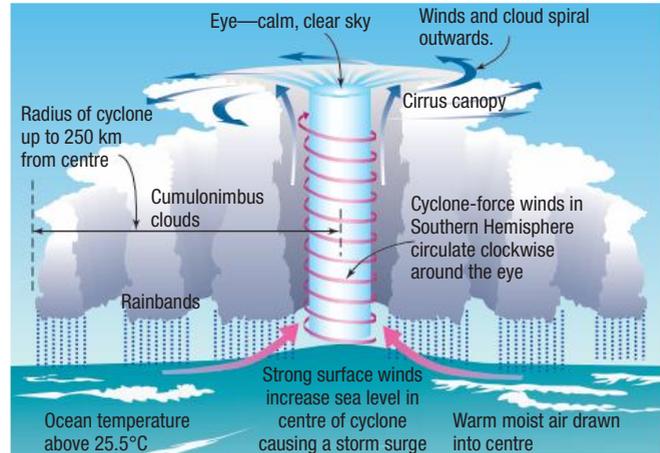


Figure 8.36 How a tropical cyclone is formed

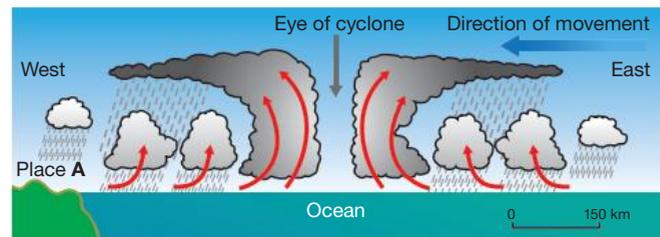


Figure 8.37 Cross-section of a tropical cyclone

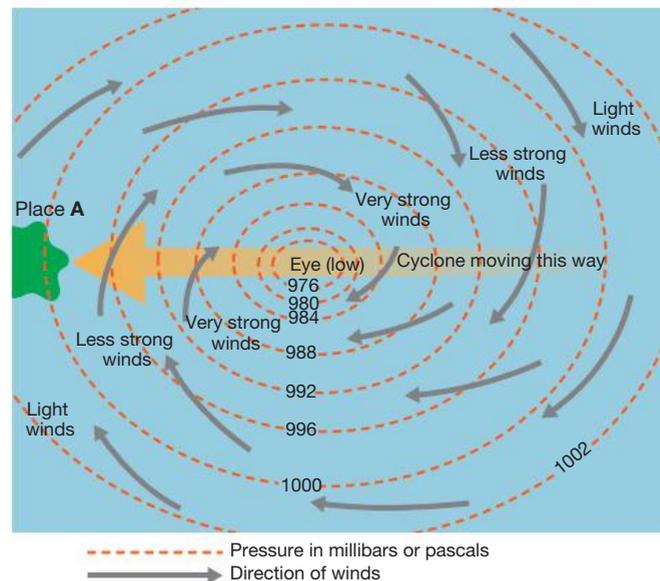


Figure 8.38 The low pressure systems surrounding a tropical cyclone in the Southern Hemisphere

Distribution of tropical cyclones

Cyclones occur between 8° and 15° north and south of the Equator. Solomon Islands lies at a latitude of between roughly 6° and 12° south of the Equator. This is within the area of tropical cyclones, so we are frequently threatened by these destructive winds. The cyclone season occurs every year, between the months of November and April, when local radio warnings about threats of cyclones to certain parts of the country are common.

Activity 20



- 1 What kinds of dangers would you be most frightened of during a cyclone?
- 2 From your own experience of cyclones, or what you have read or heard about them, list the kinds of damage they cause.
- 3 What kinds of village locations are more dangerous during cyclones? Give reasons for your answers.

Effects of tropical cyclones

The destructive forces associated with tropical cyclones that affect people and the environment include strong and violent winds, high seas and storm surges and flooding caused by heavy rain. These are explained in more detail below.

- **Strong and violent winds:** the huge force of the winds causes extensive damage to buildings, **vegetation**, power lines and telephone communication links. People can lose personal household goods, have extensive damage to their houses, lose food crops and animals, and lose their income. People can also lose their life due to drowning or be injured from collapsed buildings and fallen trees.
- **High seas and storm surges:** these can cause abnormally high tides many metres above the regular tide due to the effect of

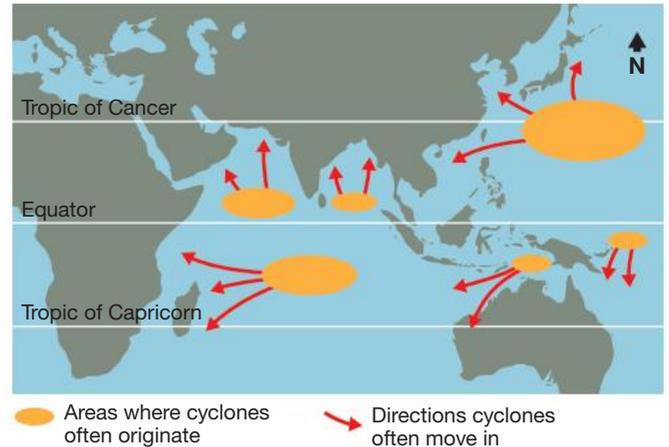


Figure 8.39 Areas of origin and distribution of cyclones in Asia, Australia and Africa



Figure 8.40 Cyclones can do a lot of damage. In this town in Asia, many buildings have been destroyed.



Figure 8.41 Tikopia after Cyclone Zoe in 2002

very strong winds blowing on shore as the cyclone approaches a shallow coastline. These storm waves and very high tides cause coastal destruction. Waves attack the shore at points far inland of the normal tidal range. They can inundate or flood low-lying coastal plains, causing greater damage to properties, installations, sanitation and water supply, and can increase the level of salt in the soil.

- **Flooding:** tropical cyclones are associated with heavy rain, which causes flooding. Flooding can cause destruction to properties, land, vegetation, personal effects, lives and utilities. Many deaths from cyclones occur as a result of drowning during floods. River flooding can damage road transport links by washing away bridges and blocking roads with fallen trees and debris from floods. In low-lying areas, it can displace people from their homes.

What to do before, during and after cyclones

Before: When a severe storm or cyclone approaches, stay inside and shelter in the strongest part of the house. Keep clear of windows and glass doors, electrical items, pipes and metal fixtures that might shatter, explode or become electrically charged. Move away from tall trees or cut tall trees around houses. You should also move to higher ground from flooding away from river banks or sea coasts.

During: Protect yourself with a mattress and blanket or get under a strong table. Beware the calm 'eye' because strong winds may suddenly return after this. Remain indoors until you are advised by the radio or you can see that the cyclone has passed.

After: Do not go out from houses or villages until issued warnings are lifted. Check on all the people in your community to see that no-one has disappeared.

Extract from *Natural Hazards and Disasters in Papua New Guinea* by Sue Lauer

Activity 21



- 1 Describe the formation and development of a cyclone.
- 2 Why are tropical cyclones so dangerous?
- 3 Why do we often experience tropical cyclones in Solomon Islands?
- 4 Which islands in Solomon Islands most commonly experience cyclones?

CASE STUDY

Cyclone Namu, May 1986, Solomon Islands

Activity 22



Read the following case study of Cyclone Namu in Solomon Islands and answer the questions below.

- 1 What was the reported damage caused by Cyclone Namu?
- 2 What were the two most destructive forces that reportedly caused damage during the cyclone?
- 3 Which two islands were the most affected?
- 4 How many people were reported dead and homeless during this cyclone?
- 5 What could be the reason for major flooding on Guadalcanal Plains during the cyclone?
- 6 What is a state of national disaster and why did the government declare a state of national disaster over the cyclone-affected areas?

Cyclone Namu struck Solomon Islands on 18 May 1986. It was the most devastating tropical cyclone in living memory to affect the

central parts of Solomon Islands. The cyclone struck with a wind force of 90–120 knots.

Widespread flooding and wind damage occurred, particularly in Guadalcanal, Malaita, Makira, Rennell and Bellona, although the most severe damages were reported on Guadalcanal and Malaita islands. You learnt about some of the effects on the Guadalcanal Plains in Year 7 Social Studies.

Buildings, roads, bridges, crops and forests were destroyed and at least 100 people were killed. Up to 90 000 people (approximately one-third of the population of the whole country at that time) were reported as homeless in the wake of Cyclone Namu. The people were affected either by flooding, tidal waves or landslides. Food supplies were seriously depleted.

In Guadalcanal, over three-quarters of the Guadalcanal Plains was flooded, including the old Selwyn College as we learnt in Year 7. The National Referral Hospital Number 9 in Honiara was evacuated and Henderson Airfield was temporarily closed. Landslides were widespread in steep inland areas, with many gardens destroyed and villages damaged. Most of the plains were covered with silt and floodwater. Two thousand homes were destroyed in Guadalcanal Province. Three important access bridges from Honiara to the plains were damaged, causing restriction to all movements. Water supplies were contaminated, posing health problems.

Malaita, the country's most populous island with 65 000 inhabitants, was the worst affected. The eye of the cyclone went straight over South Malaita. Approximately 15 000 people were reported as homeless. Rokera School was almost destroyed. At least 50 people were missing and five reported dead.

Many of the country's main export industries—such as copra, palm oil and timber—as well as major food crops were destroyed by the cyclone.

The government declared a state of national disaster. Postal communications were closed and national and international telecommunications disrupted. Full assessment by the National Disaster Council took many days, as radio and phone links within and between islands were disconnected.

Australia and New Zealand took the lead in assistance by supplying helicopters, food, tents and first-aid kits. The Australian High Commissioner in Honiara announced relief assistance of AU\$1.2 million including two Royal Australian Air Force Hercules aircraft, which arrived in Honiara carrying food, tents and other relief items. New Zealand announced relief assistance of NZ\$1 million.

The cyclone had permanent effects as the large-scale rice farming on Guadalcanal Plains closed for good. It took many months to repair the damage to roads, schools and houses.



Figure 8.42 The destruction after Cyclone Namu

Floods



Figure 8.43 Floods in West Guadalcanal, 2010

Activity 23



- 1 Look at Figure 8.43, which shows a flood in Guadalcanal in 2010. Make a list of possible causes of this flood — direct causes and indirect causes. Think of what you learnt about a flood on the Guadalcanal Plains, along Ngalimiu River, when you studied rivers and streams last year. That flood was part of Cyclone Namu. The flood shown in Figure 8.43 is more recent.
- 2 Imagine you and your family lived in this area. Write a paragraph describing how the flood occurred and the problems it caused you and your family.

What is a flood?

Floods are another of the hazards or dangers caused by the weather. Living beside big rivers has a lot of advantages such as transport, water supply and fertile soil for gardening, as you learnt in the Year 7 Social Studies chapter on rivers and streams. However, during rainy seasons floods may cause a great loss of life and property, and cause other problems for families and communities living near rivers.

Causes of floods

Floods occur when water covers land that is normally dry. They may be caused by long periods of very heavy rainfall, severe thunderstorms, wet season rains in the tropics, or by tropical cyclones. Other less common causes include dams overflowing or bursting, or storm surges causing flooding by the sea. Tsunamis can also cause flooding on the coast but this is usually for a short time when the tsunami waves hit the coast.

Effects of floods

Floods not only damage property and endanger the lives of humans and animals, but they can also cause other problems to the environment. Floods can cause soil erosion and dump sediments and debris downstream, blocking roads and drains and damaging homes. Floods can damage bridges, sewer outflows and other structures. They can destroy breeding grounds for fish and wildlife habitats where birds and fish live. They can cause navigational problems for boats because of logs and other flood debris in rivers and waterways.

Threats of flood

People who live near rivers, or in low-lying coastal areas, live with the greatest threat of floods. Periods of heavy rain, not necessarily in their area, can lead to rises in the water level of streams and rivers to a point where channels can no longer hold the volume of water. The overflowing water from the banks of rivers therefore spills over into nearby areas. A severe storm upstream can cause flooding in the lower part of the river even if there is no rain there as the water flows down the river.

People have created the threat of flood in many locations in a number of ways. These include cutting down trees and digging up the vegetation that protects the soil from rain, thus

increasing soil erosion. Cultivation decreases the ability of the soil to absorb water and increases run-off. All this means that the rain that falls runs across the land causing flooding. Vast land areas along the headwaters of rivers throughout the world have been damaged by intensive cultivation and logging, causing increased run-off and erosion.

Periodic floods occur naturally on many rivers, forming an area known as the floodplain. However, as we saw in looking at the Ngalimbiu River in Guadalcanal in Year 7, clearing of land by logging and for growing crops like oil palm cause greatly increased and more regular flooding. In 2009 and 2010 there were big floods all over north and west Guadalcanal. There is strong evidence that this was not due to the rain being heavier than before but was caused by the logging that has taken place in these areas. In parts of Asia, where the upper parts of valleys have been cleared for logging and cultivation, villages downstream are now flooded every year during the wet season.

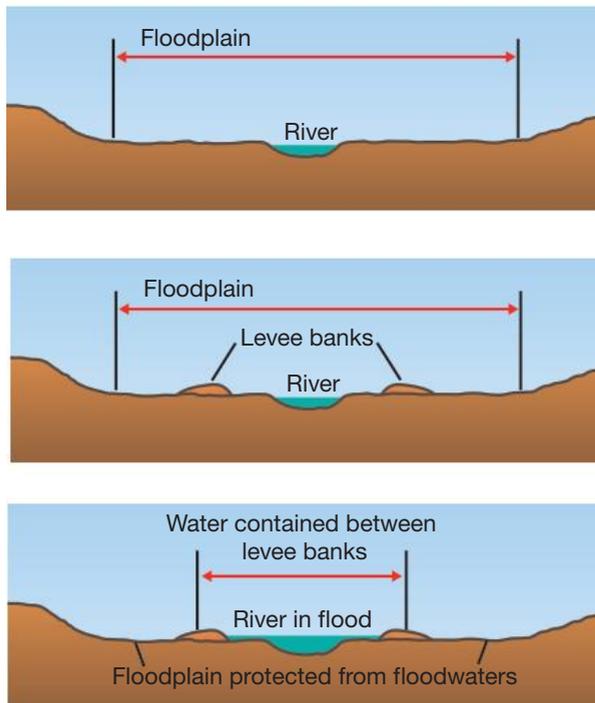


Figure 8.44 Levee banks reduce the effects of flooding.

Activity 24

Read pages 184–5 and make a list of all the things that can cause flooding.



How to control floods

Activity 25

There are a number of ways to control flooding. Suggest which of the following methods would be easiest or most appropriate to use in parts of Solomon Islands. What might be the problems or difficulties with some of these activities?



- 1 Controlling of logging and not allowing land clearing: do not let companies or people cut trees or make farms near rivers or on steep land on the watersheds above river valleys.
- 2 Reforestation: replant trees in areas where logging or other clearing has taken place.
- 3 Levees: build walls or big banks called **levees** along either side of the river on the flood plain so that the river will not flood the land on either side.
- 4 Dams and reservoirs: build dams across the rivers upstream so they create reservoirs or lakes behind the dam. This traps the water during heavy rain and the water can be released later. They can also be useful for storing water and generating hydro-electric power. It is proposed to build a dam for hydro-electricity across the Tina River, a tributary of the Ngalimbui, which you learnt about in Year 7. This would also help to control flooding along the lower Ngalimbui River.
- 5 Floodways: build channels that divert some of the water from the river during floods.
- 6 Better methods of cultivation: use methods that prevent the rain running fast over the ground and prevent soil erosion, for instance contour ploughing (ploughing along the

slope, not up and down), crop rotation and terracing. You will learn more about these in Agriculture.

Droughts

What is a drought?

Droughts are conditions of very dry weather within an area or region where some rain is usually expected. They are long dry periods when there is not enough water for normal needs. During a drought, water supply reservoirs become empty, wells dry up, and crops are damaged. A drought may last for months or years, unlike dry seasons, which usually last only a few weeks. Dry seasons are expected and occur every year in many climates. It is a drought if the dry season is longer than normal or comes when rain is normally expected.

Droughts tend to be more severe in some areas than others. Very serious droughts generally occur at latitudes of about 15° to 20° north and south of the Equator, in areas close to permanently dry or arid desert regions. Some of the worst droughts occur in Australia, which is



Figure 8.45 Australia experiences some of the worst droughts in the world.

normally the driest inhabited continent. There dry seasons are normal almost everywhere and many areas are permanent desert. But sometimes the dry season is extra long or the rain does not come at all in areas where rain is normally expected. This is a drought. Some places that normally have some rain did not have any for two or three years between 2005 and 2009. The desert areas never have much rain, so we do not say they have a drought as they do not expect rain.

Activity 26



- 1 Are droughts common in Solomon Islands? Explain your answer.
- 2 What types of droughts do sometimes occur?
- 3 Some places like Honiara, Auki or Gizo become short of water. Is this usually due to drought or to other problems?
- 4 If an area is normally dry, droughts do not cause much of a problem. They cause problems in areas that normally have rainfall but then don't get it. Explain this.

4 Vegetation of Solomon Islands



Figure 8.46 An equatorial forest

Activity 27



One thing that is closely linked with weather and climate is vegetation — the types of plants that grow naturally in a place. The type of vegetation in a particular area depends on the type of climate and weather of that particular place. This is because only certain types of plants and animals can grow in, live in or adapt to each type of climate.

- 1 How would you describe the natural vegetation of most parts of Solomon Islands? The photograph in Figures 8.46 and 8.47 will help you.
- 2 From what you just learnt, what seasons does Solomon Islands have? How does the weather and climate influence the type of vegetation we have?
- 3 Write down as many different things as you can think of that are made from vegetation in some way.
- 4 Write a paragraph to describe how people rely on the vegetation and its products.
- 5 When we use the vegetation or the land on which it grows, we change the vegetation. Give examples of how our vegetation has been altered or changed by human activity.
- 6 Use Appendix 3 to locate what latitudes Solomon Islands is situated in. Is it near or far from the Equator? Is it between the two tropics? Is it near the sea? How do you think each of these factors influences the climate?
- 7 We have said Solomon Islands has a tropical maritime climate. Explain these two words. Use a map and identify different countries also situated in similar regions and situations to Solomon Islands. Some of these may have a similar type of climate. What types of vegetation would you expect them to have?



Figure 8.47 A forest in Solomon Islands

Solomon Islands is close to the Equator, between latitudes of 5° and 12° south of the Equator, and consists of islands surrounded by the sea. As we have seen, this means it has a tropical maritime climate. The temperatures are high all year round because it is within the tropics, and it receives rainfall every month because it is surrounded by the sea.

As it is always hot and wet, trees and other plants grow fast, so the vegetation is thick forest with tall trees and much undergrowth. The type of trees and plants that grow are also those that are suitable for these hot, wet conditions. Most are **evergreen**—that is, they grow and produce leaves throughout the year. This type of vegetation is often called rainforest because it is forest caused by heavy rain, or equatorial rainforest because it is found near the Equator.

Equatorial rainforest is also known for its wide variety of different plants (flora) and animals (fauna). As many as 300 species of plants can be found in an area of 1 square metre. Nowhere in any other type of vegetation will you be able to find so many species in such a small area.

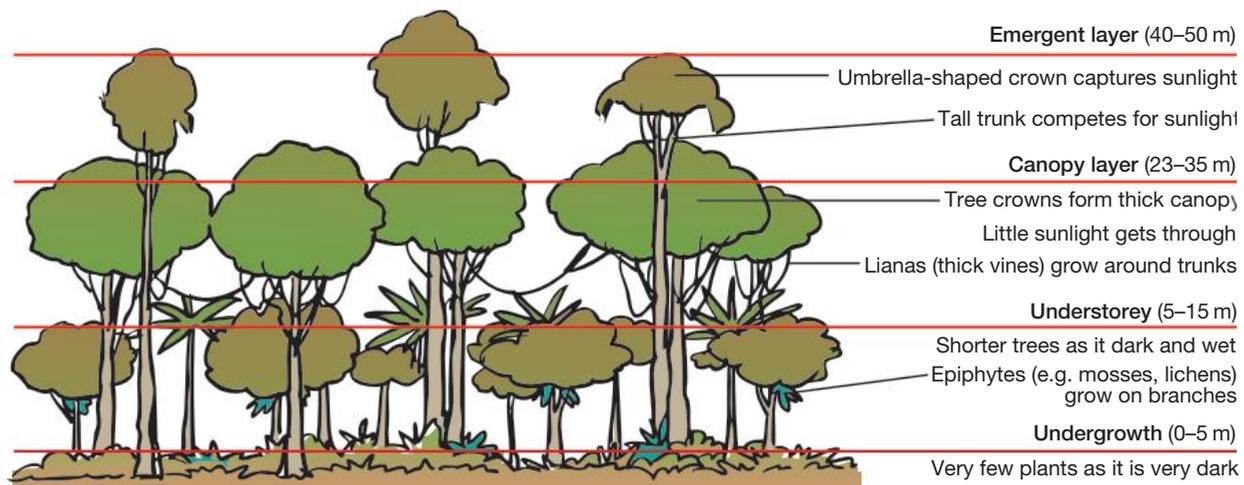


Figure 8.48 The main features of an equatorial forest. This type of forest is evergreen as the trees shed their leaves at different times.

Activity 28



Figure 8.48 shows the main features of an equatorial forest.

- 1 Explain what is meant by undergrowth layer, canopy layer and emergent layer.
- 2 Make a list of the main features of this kind of forest.
- 3 Try to look at any area of forest near your home or school. How many of these features can you identify?
- 4 If any of these features are not there, what might be the reason? What might have happened to the forest in the past?

Classification of forest types

There are many different types of vegetation in Solomon Islands. Most of them are types of forest but there are also areas of grassland on north-west Guadalcanal and Gela, where there is less rainfall. The forests can be divided into four major groups or types. They include **lowland rainforest**, **tropical mountain forest**, mangrove forest and secondary forest.

Lowland rainforest

This kind of forest is found on flat land or low hilly land usually along the coast. The largest amount of forest is this kind. It is like the example given in Figure 8.48, with very tall trees looking for light and a number of layers. It has a lot of different types of fruiting trees, hence more animals and birds specially adapted to feed on their fruits.

Lowland rainforest is in danger of destruction as it is close to many settlements and easy for people to reach. It has soils suitable for agriculture, and many hardwoods valuable as timber. In many areas of Solomon Islands and other countries, almost all lowland primary forest has been cleared for farming or logging, and only mountain forest still remains.

A very good example is Kolombangara, where nearly all the lowland rainforest has been logged twice and people are now moving up to try to clear the tropical mountain forest above 1000 metres (m). Soon, this will have happened to all the large islands due to logging as we will see in Chapter 10.

Tropical mountain forest

Tropical mountain forest is forest that grows on mountains above a height of about 1000 m. It is similar to lowland rainforest, but less dense and with fewer tall trees, as slopes are steeper and soil is less deep.

High mountain forest, above 2500—3000 m, is often referred to as **cloud forest**—forest that receives the majority of its rain from mist or fog that passes up from the moist, humid lowlands. The trees of cloud forests are generally shorter than those of lowland forest, resulting in a less-developed canopy.

Nevertheless, cloud forest trees are usually covered with epiphytes or creepers that grow on the main tree and hang down like ropes. These live on the abundance of moisture from the passing fog. For the same reason trees in these places are always green, with dense mosses growing on the trunks.

Further up at the top of the cloud forest there is less rain so fewer trees grow and the forest is less dense, with shorter trees.

The mountain forests have been better preserved than lowland forests because the land is often too steep to clear for cultivation or to log easily. However, as the lowland forest is cleared and the price of timber increases, companies are beginning to log in the mountains, sometimes even using helicopters to take the logs away because of the difficulty of building roads. This is very dangerous as the soil is no longer protected and the rain washes straight down the slopes, causing heavy flooding. This was probably the main cause of the flooding in Guadalcanal that you have just learnt about.



Figure 8.49 Tropical mountain forest

Secondary forests

Secondary forest is found where the original forest (which can be called **primary forest**) has been cleared for cultivation or by logging, and then the land has been left for forest to grow again. Because it is newer, it has smaller, shorter trees with thinner trunks than primary forest. It has fewer species of trees, other plants and animals. Often there are only a few species of trees, which grow easily after the original trees are cleared. When land is first cleared, especially by logging, it is common for a creeper to grow very quickly and cover the whole of the land and some of the remaining trees left behind. This creeper is called ‘mile-a-minute’ because it grows so quickly. Secondary forest has fewer valuable trees than primary forest and the soil beneath it will be less fertile for many years, until vegetation dies and renews the fertility. In areas of shifting cultivation (which you learnt about in Year 7 and in Agriculture) secondary forest grows when farmers leave the land fallow after growing crops for a few years and exhausting

the soil. After 10–15 years, the secondary forest will help to renew the fertility of the soil and farmers may clear it for cultivation again. So, in many areas our forests have been cut and reused many times and the forest may have re-grown many times.

You will learn more about the effects of clearing the forest and the differences between secondary and primary forest in Chapter 10.

Mangrove forest

You learnt about mangroves in Year 7. Mangrove forest is found in muddy saltwater areas generally along river deltas, estuaries and coastal areas. It has a much smaller variety of trees than rainforest and almost all the trees are mangrove. Mangroves are evergreen trees and shrubs that are well adapted to their salty and swampy habitat by having breathing roots that

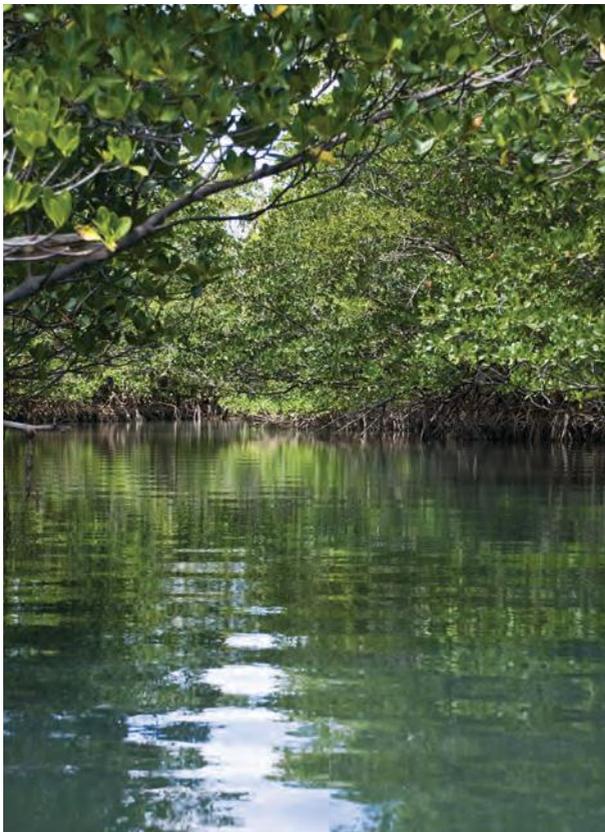


Figure 8.50 Mangrove forest

stick out from the mud to absorb oxygen.

Mangrove swamps are home to numerous fish and shellfish species and many fish spawn or produce young in the mangroves.

Mangrove forests are some of the most threatened forests because of their closeness to the sea and because local people and governments do not always realise the importance of the services they provide.

Mangroves are cut down for building materials as the timber is strong and resistant to water. However, whole mangrove swamps are often drained and cleared for housing, tourist resorts or harbours.

The destruction of mangrove forests has a big effect on the fishing industry, since these forests are where so many fish breed. In addition, mangrove forests protect coastal regions against storm damage and erosion. Research conducted following the 2004 tsunami in Asia found that areas forested with mangroves were far less damaged than areas without mangroves. This was also clear during the 2009 tsunami in Western Province.

The importance of forests

All three types of forest vegetation just described are very important. In Chapter 10 you will learn a lot more about this.

Activity 29

- 1 If you live in a rural area, look at an area of secondary forest — that is, forest that has been cleared and has grown again. If possible compare this with an area of primary forest, if any still remains. List the main differences you can see between the two kinds of forest. Do you know of any areas covered by ‘mile-a-minute’ creeper?
- 2 Produce a poster entitled ‘Preserve Our Forests’ to encourage people not to cut down forests or mangroves. Try to include as many as possible of the reasons why forests are valuable. Illustrate your poster with drawings.
- 3 Think about the vegetation around your villages and/or school. In Activity 27, you listed ways people used the vegetation for their own needs. Think of all the other ways in which the natural vegetation helps your village or a village you know. To help you, imagine that all the vegetation suddenly died. What effect would this have on the village? You might write a story called ‘The day the vegetation died’.
- 4 Conduct a class debate or write your opinion on one of the following:
 - logging of natural rainforest should be banned
 - humans have more rights to use the forests than native animals do
 - our forests provide us with better medicine than clinics do
 - only local landowners should be allowed to cut down trees.

Have you achieved your goals?

Look back at your goals at the beginning of the chapter. Check whether you have achieved each goal.

- Have you gained knowledge and understanding of each of the topics in the goals?
- Can you use each of the skills mentioned in the goals?
- Have you formed your own ideas and opinions about the topics in the chapter?
- Write a brief summary of not more than one page of what you have learnt in this chapter.

Glossary

air pressure the force of the Earth's atmosphere pushing down on the Earth's surface

anemometer an instrument used for measuring wind speed and direction

anti-cyclone area of high pressure associated with dry, fine weather

arid dry, lacking moisture because of not enough rainfall

atmosphere the air surrounding the Earth. It contains several layers

atmospheric pressure the force of the Earth's atmosphere pushing down on the Earth's surface

barometer an instrument used for measuring air pressure

biodegradable materials that quickly become rotten if left outside in the weather

cirrus very high light clouds

climate the average or usual weather conditions of an area over a period of time

climate graphs graphs showing the rainfall and temperature of a place

climatic regions areas with similar types of climate

climatology the study of climates

clouds are made of tiny water droplets or ice crystals that are suspended in the atmosphere

convictional rain rain caused by rising air and low pressure

crop rotation farming system in which different crops are grown each year on the same piece of land to maximise soil nutrients

cumulus tall clouds caused by rising air

debris rubbish, rocks, soil or other materials

depressions areas of low pressure into which winds blow from areas of high pressure. A depression, also called a low, is associated with such weather conditions as wind and rain

drought a long period with no rain

erosion the washing away of land by running water, rainfall, wind, ice or other geological events

evacuate move people away from a place

evergreen never losing all its leaves; always green

eye the calm, cloudless area at the centre of a cyclone

fauna animals

floods times when the land is covered with water

flora all the plants growing in an environment

frontal rain rain where warm and cold air meet and warm air rises up

hazard something that is risky or dangerous

highs or high pressure regions areas of high pressure associated with dry, fine weather

humidity moisture or water vapour in the air

hygrometer the combination of a wet and dry bulb thermometer, used to measure humidity

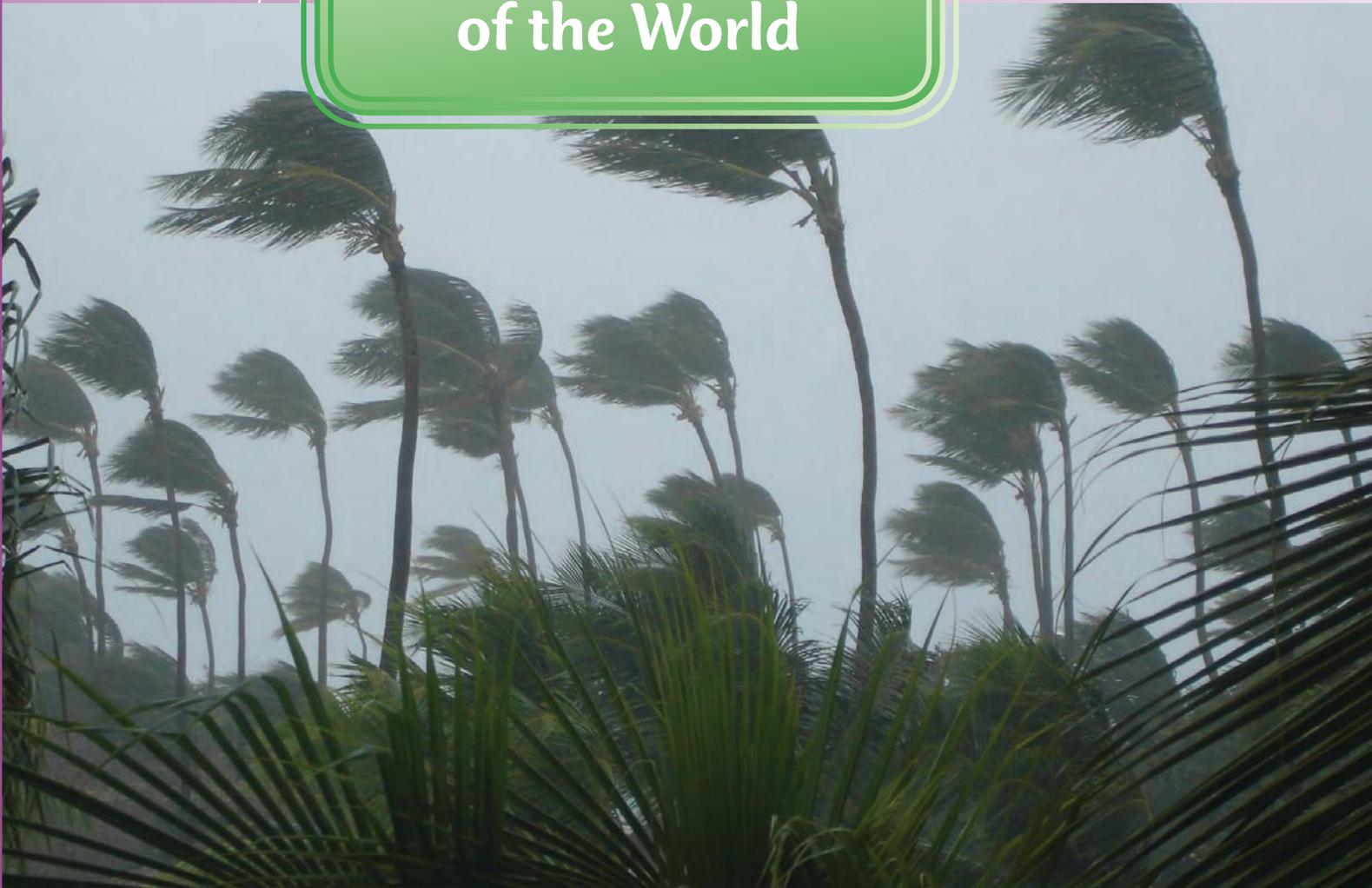
isobars lines on a map along which atmospheric pressure is equal

land breezes winds blowing from land to sea at night

- levee** natural or artificial embankment of a river that keeps the river within its channel and reduces or prevents flooding
- lowland rainforest** a dense, evergreen forest in a tropical region
- lows or low pressure regions** areas of low pressure associated with strong winds and rainfall
- meteorologists** scientists who study the weather
- meteorology** the study of weather
- natural vegetation** plants that grow in an area, without human intervention
- cumulonimbus** very tall clouds causing rainfall
- precipitation** deposits of water that come from the atmosphere. Precipitation includes rain, hail, snow, sleet, dew and frost
- rain gauge** an instrument for measuring the amount of rainfall
- rainforest or equatorial rainforest** large forest in areas of heavy rain near the Equator
- rain shadow** an area on the opposite side to the normal direction of winds that gets low rainfall
- relief rain** rain caused by air rising over high hills or mountains
- satellite** a machine that goes into space and travels round the Earth
- sea breezes** winds blowing from sea to land in the daytime
- storm surge** a rise above the usual water level along the shore that is the result of strong onshore winds and/or reduced atmospheric pressure
- stratus** low, flat clouds covering the whole sky
- synoptic charts** weather maps
- temperature** the amount of heat in the atmosphere
- thermometer** an instrument used to measure temperature. A dry bulb thermometer is an ordinary thermometer. A wet bulb thermometer is a thermometer with a bulb that has a wet strip of material around it
- thunderstorm** a storm with lightning and thunder, produced by a cumulonimbus cloud, usually producing gusty winds, heavy rain and sometimes hail
- tropical climate** a climate of an area between the two tropics
- tropical cyclones** a tropical storm accompanied by high winds and heavy rain
- tropical maritime climate** the climate of an area between the tropics and also close to the sea, with high temperatures and heavy rainfall; the climate of Solomon Islands
- tropical mountain forest** forest which grows at high level, above 1000 metres in tropical areas; less dense than lowland rainforest
- vegetation** all forms of plant life
- water vapour** water in the form of an invisible gas
- weather** the condition of the air in a particular place at a particular time
- weathering** the breaking down of rocks into small pieces by the weather. Water breaks them chemically and changes in temperature break them down physically
- weather balloon** a balloon sent high up into the air with weather recording instruments
- weather coast** a coast facing the normal direction of the wind
- weather forecast** predicting what the weather is going to be like
- wet bulb thermometer** a thermometer with a bulb that has a wet strip of material around it
- wind** the horizontal movement of air from a high pressure area to a low pressure area
- wind sock** an instrument used to measure wind direction

Chapter 9

Climatic Regions of the World



My goals:

- to understand the factors affecting the climate of the world
- to understand that the world is divided into climatic regions
- to understand the climate of selected climatic regions and how this affects the vegetation and way of life in those regions: savanna grasslands, tropical hot deserts, monsoon, cool temperate west coast, and tundra

1 Factors affecting the climate

Activity 1



- 1 Make a list of all the factors or elements that influence climate, based on what you learnt in Chapter 8.
- 2 State how each factor influences the climate.

The climates of other places are different from the **climate** of Solomon Islands. Each part or region of the world has a different climate. However, all these climates are influenced by the same factors or elements that influence the climate of Solomon Islands.

In this chapter you will find out why different regions have different climates, and what makes climate different from region to region.

A major factor affecting the climate of a place is its position in the world in relation to the Equator and the North and South poles.

Activity 2



From what you learnt in Chapter 8, how does the position of Solomon Islands in relation to the Equator affect its climate?

The angle of the sun

Because the Earth is curved, the angle at which the sun's rays strike the Earth is different near the Equator than it is near the poles. As one moves from the Equator to the poles, the average temperature usually decreases. Everywhere in the world, the sun reaches its highest point in the sky at midday and the hottest time of the day is usually just after this. However, because the world is round, the sun's rays strike different parts of the Earth at midday at different angles, as can be seen in Figure 9.1.

Near the Equator, such as area A–B on the diagram, the sun's rays strike the Earth at a large angle at midday, so the sun heats a small area and the area becomes hot. Near the poles, such as area C–D, the sun's rays strike the Earth at a small angle even at midday, so the heat is spread out over a large area and the area does not become so hot. This means that even at midday, the sun is at a low angle in the sky as it is here just after sun rise in the Solomon Islands.

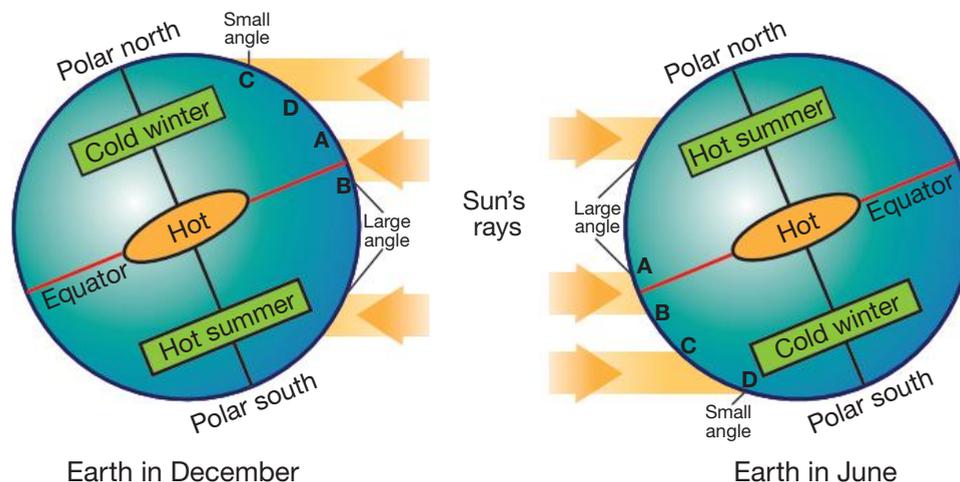


Figure 9.1 The sun's rays strike different areas of the Earth at different angles.

Activity 3



- 1 Copy the diagrams in Figure 9.1 on page 195.
- 2 In which areas do the sun's rays strike the Earth at a large angle at midday? In which areas do they strike at a small angle?
- 3 Shade the area near the Equator heated by the bundle of the sun's rays A–B. Shade the area near the poles heated by the bundle of the sun's rays C–D. Which area is smaller?
- 4 Use a torch, if possible in a darkened room.
 - a Shine the torch directly down onto the ground from above. Then shine the torch at an angle onto the ground, keeping the torch the same distance from the ground. Compare the two places you shone the torch. Which is more brightly lit? Why?
 - b Take a globe or a round object like a football. Shine the torch towards it as in Figure 9.1. Which part is more brightly lit: the centre of the globe or the top and bottom.
- 5 Using these ideas, explain why the average temperature decreases as you move from the Equator toward the poles.
- 6 Explain why the polar regions are permanently frozen.

In explaining question 4b in Activity 3, you may have said that the torch was closer to the centre of the globe or ball than the top and bottom. This is true, but distance from the sun is not a factor in explaining why the Equator is hotter than the poles. The sun is 150 million kilometres (km) away from the Earth. The diameter of the Earth is only 12 756 km. This means the poles are only about 6000 km further from the sun than the Equator and this makes no difference. We can say that the distance from the Equator and the poles to the sun are almost the same.

Distance is important in another way. The Earth is surrounded by air or the atmosphere, as shown in Figure 9.2. As the sun's rays travel from the sun through space they do not lose much heat. However, once they start to travel through the atmosphere the air absorbs heat and they get cooler. The longer they travel through the atmosphere the cooler they become.

The sun is only overhead or at 90° for two days per year at places near the Equator. The lines called the Tropic of Cancer and Capricorn mark the furthest position where this happens. North and south of the tropics the sun is never directly overhead even at midday.

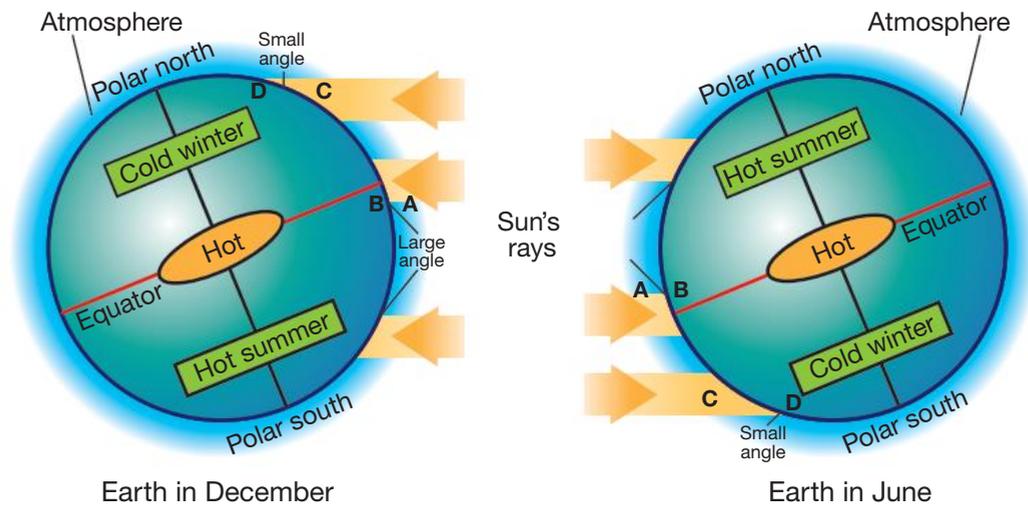


Figure 9.2 The effect of the atmosphere

Activity 4



Look at Figure 9.2. Where do the sun's rays travel through the largest amount of air or atmosphere before they reach the Earth: near the Equator or near the poles? What effect will this have on the temperatures at the surface of the Earth?

As already mentioned, different parts of the Earth receive different amounts of heat throughout the year and therefore have different **seasons**. These seasons add up to the climate of the region.

The seasons

In Solomon Islands the temperatures are almost the same throughout the year: between 28°C and 32°C at midday. However, in other parts of the world places have seasons. The main ones are **summer**, when it is hot, and **winter**, when it is cold. This is because the angle at which the sun's rays strike different parts of the world is not the same all the year. As shown in figures 9.3 and 9.4, this is caused by three things:

- 1 The Earth rotates around on an axis once every day.
- 2 The axis of the Earth is **tilted** or tipped at an angle in relation to the sun's rays—that is, the sun's rays do not strike the Earth's axis at 90° but at 66.5°.
- 3 The Earth **revolves** or moves around the sun once every year.

As the Earth revolves around the sun, the axis always remains tilted in the same direction. Therefore, as the Earth revolves around the sun, a different part of the Earth is tilted towards or away from the sun at different times.

This can be seen by doing a demonstration similar to the one you did in Activity 3, question 4. Place a light in the middle of a room and move the globe, with its axis tilted,

around the room, as in Figure 9.3. Make sure the axis always remains tilted in the same direction, for example the North Pole always points to the left. You will see that the sun's rays strike the Earth differently during different seasons, as shown in figures 9.1, 9.2 and 9.4.

From April to August, the Northern Hemisphere is tilted towards the sun and the Southern Hemisphere is tilted away from the sun. The sun's rays strike the Earth at a larger angle in the Northern Hemisphere and it is summer and hot. In June, the sun's rays strike the Northern Hemisphere at the largest angle, so it is the height of summer. The sun's rays strike the Earth at a smaller angle in the Southern Hemisphere and it is winter and cold.

From October to February, the Southern Hemisphere is tilted towards the sun and the Northern Hemisphere is tilted away from the sun. The sun's rays strike the Earth at a larger angle in the Southern Hemisphere and it is summer. In December, the sun's rays strike the Southern Hemisphere at the largest angle, so it is the height of summer. The sun's rays strike the Earth at a smaller angle in the Northern Hemisphere and it is winter.

Spring and autumn

Notice that in March and September, neither the Northern nor the Southern Hemisphere is tilted toward the sun, so both have about the same temperature. They are moving from a hot

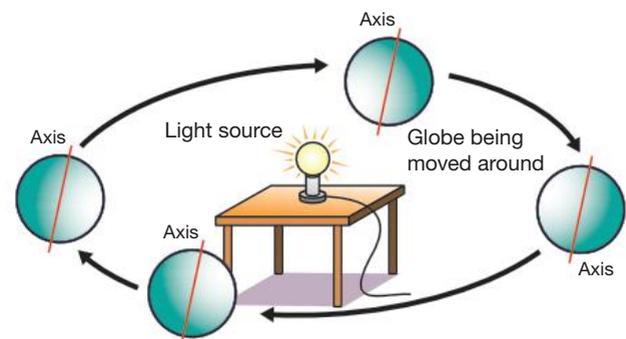


Figure 9.3 This demonstration shows how the Earth's tilt affects the seasons.

Climatic Regions of the World

season (summer) to a cold season (winter) or from cold to hot. These seasons are called:

- **spring**—moving from winter to summer
- **autumn (or fall)**—moving from summer to winter.

Usually we say that these seasons last more than one month—from March to April/May and from September to October/November.

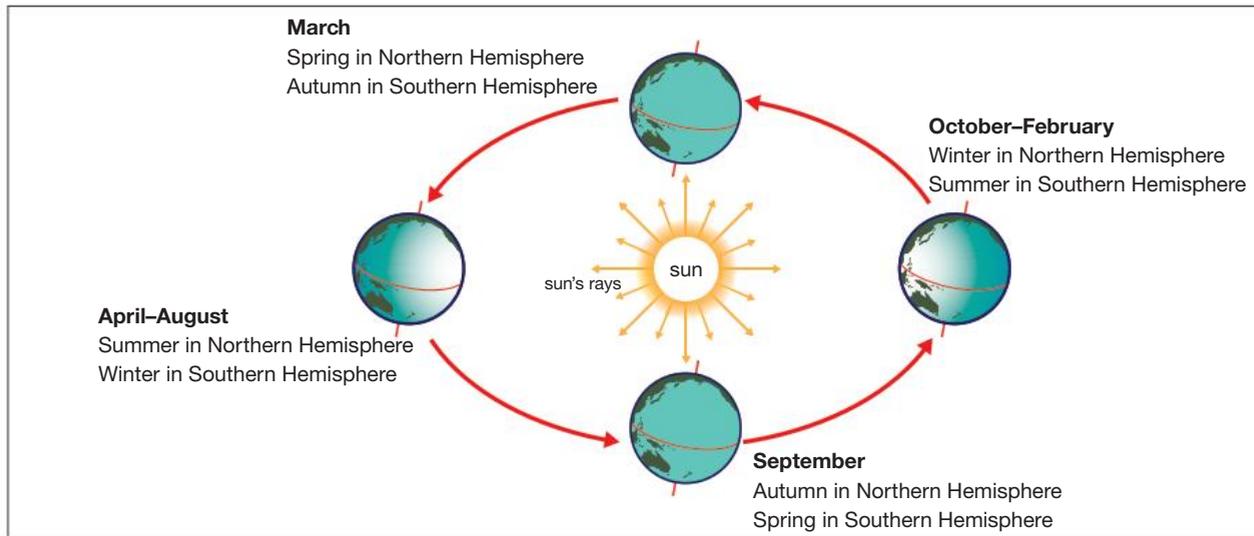


Figure 9.4 The Earth's tilt affects the seasons.

Activity 5



With the help of figures 9.1–9.4 (on pages 195–8), and the information on pages 197–8, summarise the seasons by completing the following table in your exercise book.

Months	Northern Hemisphere				Southern Hemisphere			
	Tilted away from/ towards sun	Angle of the sun	Hot/cold	Name of season	Tilted away from/ towards sun	Angle of the sun	Hot/cold	Tilted away from/towards sun
April to August	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?
October to February	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?

Activity 6



Now summarise the other seasons: spring and autumn (fall).

Months	Northern Hemisphere		Southern Hemisphere	
	Moving to/from	Spring/Autumn	Moving to/from	Spring/Autumn
March to May	?	?	?	?
September to November	?	?	?	?

The tropics

In places like Solomon Islands, between the **tropics**, the sun's rays always strike at a large angle so it is always hot. These places have no real summers and winters. However, it may be slightly cooler in places south of the Equator, like Vanuatu or even Temotu, in July and August, and slightly cooler in places north of the Equator in December and January.

Places between the tropics often have different kinds of seasons: wet seasons and dry seasons, as we will see below.



Figure 9.5 Mt Kilimanjaro, Tanzania, Africa

Altitude or height

The height or **altitude** of a place also influences the climate of the area. The greater the altitude or height of a place, the lower the temperatures. Even in the tropical regions, some places are so high up that they are permanently covered in snow. Mount Kilimanjaro in Tanzania, Africa, for example, is located at the latitude of about 3° south of the Equator. The mountain is 5895 metres (m) high and its top is usually covered with snow.

This may seem strange because you might expect that, as you go upwards, you are going towards the sun, so it should get hotter. In fact the temperature of the sun's rays does get hotter as you climb up. If you stand in the sunlight on the top of Kilimanjaro it can burn you.

When we measure temperature we usually talk about **air temperature**, or the temperature of the air. As you go up to high places the air becomes thinner or less dense. It is so thin there is not enough air to breathe, and if you walk a few metres you will be as out of breath as you would be if you had run a long distance.

This thin air cannot absorb or hold heat easily, so it is always cold. The sun's rays pass straight

through it without heating it. So, on a very high mountain, if you stand in the shade you can be freezing cold; however, a friend standing right next to you in sunlight can be very hot! You can even feel this if you go up to a place like Gold Ridge near Honiara.

On a very high mountain, even a person with very dark skin can get sunburn. This is because the air has not absorbed many of the ultra violet rays that cause sunburn. People with dark skin are protected at lower levels, as the air absorbs most of these ultra violet rays.

Activity 7



Suggest at least two reasons astronauts, who go to very high altitudes above the atmosphere, have to wear special suits and masks.

Distance from the sea

The distance from the sea also has an influence on the climate of places. Places near the sea or coastal areas are cooler in summer and warmer in winter than places a long way from the sea.

Activity 8



- 1 If you go swimming in the sea on a cold night, does the water feel cooler or warmer than the land?
- 2 If you go swimming on a hot night, does the sea feel cooler or warmer than the land?
- 3 Can you explain the reason for this?

As you can see in Figure 9.6, the land is made of solid rock that absorbs heat easily and the heat remains near the surface meaning when the sun shines on the land it heats up quickly. But the solid rock also loses heat quickly. The sea is made of water, which absorbs heat more slowly, while the heat spreads into the deeper parts of the water. Therefore, the sea takes a long time to heat up and never becomes very hot. It also loses heat slowly and takes a long time to cool down so it never becomes very cold either.

This means that the sea is cooler than the land in the daytime and also in summer, but warmer than the land at night-time and also in winter. As we saw in Chapter 8, this also explains land and sea breezes.

Activity 9



- 1 Table 9.1 compares the climates in two areas: Britain and Siberia. Britain is an island off the coast of Europe. Siberia is in Russia and is situated in central and northern Asia. Most of Siberia is far from the sea.
 - a Both are about the same distance from the Equator. Find Britain and Siberia on the World Map in Appendix 3.
 - b In one or two sentences, summarise the difference between the temperatures in Britain and Siberia.

	Britain	Siberia
Distance from the sea	Surrounded by sea	Far from the sea
Average temperature in winter	5°C	-30°C
Average temperature in summer	16°C	20°C
Conditions in winter	Cool	Very cold
Conditions in summer	Warm	Hot
Location or situation	Off-shore island, Europe	Central Asia, continent

Table 9.1

- 2 Use an atlas to find the cities in Europe and Asia that are listed in Table 9.2. These cities are located about 50° north of the Equator, and the table shows their average temperatures in January and July. Once you have found the cities, answer the questions below.

City	January	July
Novosibirsk	-22°C	19°C
London	14°C	16°C
Warsaw	-1°C	18°C
Moscow	-9°C	19°C
Berlin	0°C	17°C

Table 9.2

- a Which city:
 - i is furthest away from the sea
 - ii is closest to the sea
 - iii is warmest in summer
 - iv is coolest in summer
 - v is coldest in winter
 - vi is warmest in winter
 - vii has the largest range of temperature?
- b List the cities in the table in order from:
 - i closest to the sea to furthest from the sea
 - ii lowest temperature to highest in summer
 - iii lowest temperature to highest in winter.
- 3 From this exercise, summarise in one or two sentences the effect the distance from the sea has on temperatures.

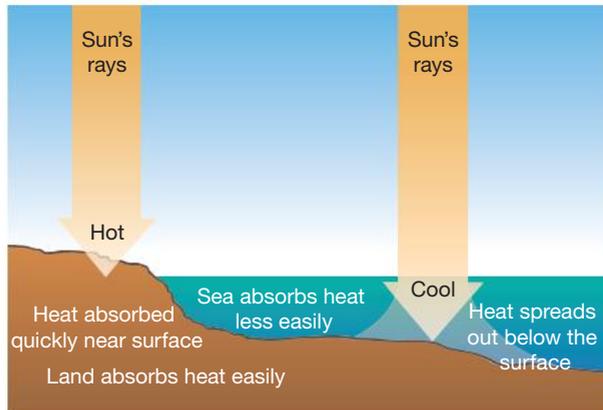


Figure 9.6 How land and sea affect temperature in the day time and summer. It is the opposite at night.

Precipitation

As you learnt in Chapter 8, all air contains moisture or water, either as an invisible gas called water vapour or in a visible form as water. When it becomes water it may fall from the air in different forms. Rain is the one we are familiar with in Solomon Islands. However, an Inuit living in the Arctic is familiar with snow.

As described in the last chapter, precipitation is a word used to describe any form of moisture coming out of the air. When air rises, it becomes colder. The water vapour in rising air condenses into droplets of water as the air becomes colder.

Water droplets are formed into clouds. Clouds become dark grey in colour when droplets become larger, because they do not let the light pass through. The droplets eventually become large and heavy enough to fall as rain. (Remember the water cycle process in Science and Chapter 7 of Year 7 Social Studies.) In cold climates, the moisture freezes and falls as snow.

Activity 10

To help you remember what you have already learnt, draw a simple diagram to show the processes in the water cycle. Label each process: evaporation, condensation, transpiration, precipitation and so on.



As you also learnt in Chapter 8, precipitation can be caused in different ways: by convection, relief and fronts. Different parts of the world have different amounts of each of these types of precipitation. Hot areas like those near the Equator have a lot of convective rainfall or precipitation. In certain areas winds blow towards each other from different directions, causing frontal precipitation. Anywhere where there are high mountains is likely to have relief rainfall or precipitation.

The amount and type of precipitation may also vary with the seasons. Many places have wet seasons and dry seasons. This often depends on the direction of the wind at different seasons.

Wind direction

The direction the wind blows has a large effect on the type of climate of a place.

Activity 11



- From what you have learnt about the effect of the sea on temperatures, suggest what kinds of temperatures we can expect in summer and winter:
 - an area where the wind blows from the sea to the land
 - an area where the wind blows from the land to the sea.
- What effect do you think it will have on the precipitation if:
 - the wind blows from sea to land
 - the wind blows from land to sea?

The air picks up most of its moisture when it crosses the sea. If the wind blows mainly from the sea towards the land, the land will have a lot of rainfall. However, if the wind blows mainly from the land toward the sea, the land will be very dry.

Climatic Regions of the World

Winter conditions in Australia: high pressure and south-east winds blowing outwards. Summer conditions in Asia: low pressure and south-west winds blowing inwards.

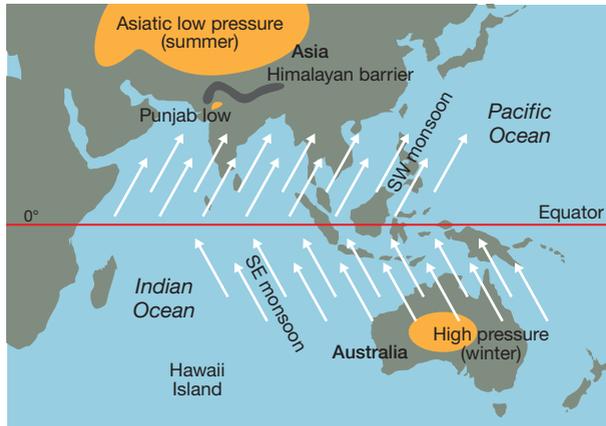


Figure 9.7a How monsoonal winds form, May–August

In some places the wind blows from the sea to the land at one season, bringing heavy rain, and from land to sea at another season, bringing dry weather. In many places these seasonal winds are called **monsoons**. They are similar to the wind changes in Solomon Islands from south-east to north-west, which we learnt about in the last chapter. This is caused by changes in pressure in Asia and Australia—low pressure in summer when it is hot, and high pressure in winter when it is cold, as shown in Figure 9.7.

2 Climatic regions

World pattern of climatic regions

The climate of all places in the world is affected by all of the factors explained so far. All places have a different climate depending on how all these factors are combined:

- latitude—position in relation to the Equator and poles
- seasons—areas outside the **tropics** are seasonal with summer and winter; those within the tropics only have wet and dry seasons

Summer conditions in Australia: low pressure and north-west winds blowing inwards. Winter conditions in Asia: high pressure and north-east winds blowing outwards.

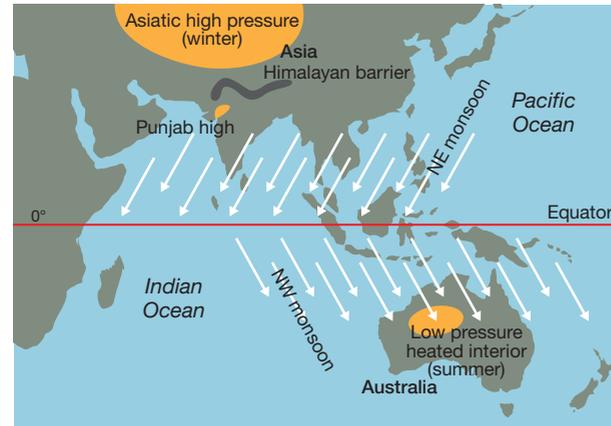


Figure 9.7b How monsoonal winds form, November–February

- altitude—height above sea level
- distance from the sea
- precipitation—this varies in amount and may fall at different seasons
- wind direction from sea to land or land to sea—this varies in different seasons.

Although all places have a different climate, the climates of many places are similar, so we can divide or classify places into those with similar climates. We call these **climatic regions**.

Climatic regions can be broadly divided in two ways according to:

- **latitude** or distance from the Equator
- **continentality** or distance from the sea.

Latitude

There are three kinds of climatic regions:

- 1 **tropical climates**: those areas between the tropics of Cancer and Capricorn, which you learnt about in Chapter 7. Sometimes the areas within about 10° latitude north and south of the Equator are called **equatorial climates**.
- 2 **temperate climates**: those between the tropics and the Arctic and Antarctic circles
- 3 **polar climates**: those near the North and South poles.

Activity 12



The main difference between these three types of climates is in temperature. From what you have learnt, what types of temperatures do each of these have: hot, warm or cold? Which of these climates have winter and summer seasons?

Continentality

This is also affected by the direction the wind usually blows. We can divide climatic regions into three kinds again:

- 1 *west coast climates*: areas near the sea with the wind usually blowing from the sea
- 2 *interior or continental climates*: inland areas that are far from the sea
- 3 *east coast climates*: areas near the sea with the wind usually blowing from the land.

Activity 13



Suggest what kind of temperatures each of these climatic regions will have in summer and winter and whether the precipitation is likely to be large or small.

The map in Figure 9.8 shows some of the climatic regions of the world, which you will learn about in the next section.

Selected climatic regions of the world

Equatorial climates

The climate of Solomon Islands, which you learnt about in Chapter 8, can be considered as an example of an equatorial climate, although it is slightly different as it is not exactly on the Equator. However, since we live on small islands surrounded by the sea, our climate, vegetation and system of agriculture is very similar to places

with an equatorial climate. In Year 7 you also learnt about the largest area of equatorial climate in the world: the Amazon Basin.

Activity 14



Answer the following questions by remembering what you have learnt about Solomon Islands and the Amazon Basin.

- 1 Describe the main features of the climate, including temperatures and rainfall.
- 2 What type of farming is traditionally used and how is this adapted to the climate.

Other areas with a similar climate to Solomon Islands

Other areas with a similar climate to Solomon Islands include:

- the Congo Basin in Central Africa
- Borneo in Malaysia and Indonesia
- Papua New Guinea.

Notice that, due to the hot, wet climate, these are areas of thick forests like Solomon Islands, but in all cases the forests are being rapidly destroyed by logging, also like in Solomon Islands. Many logging companies in Solomon Islands are owned by Malaysians as they have finished logging the forests in their own country and now want to use ours.

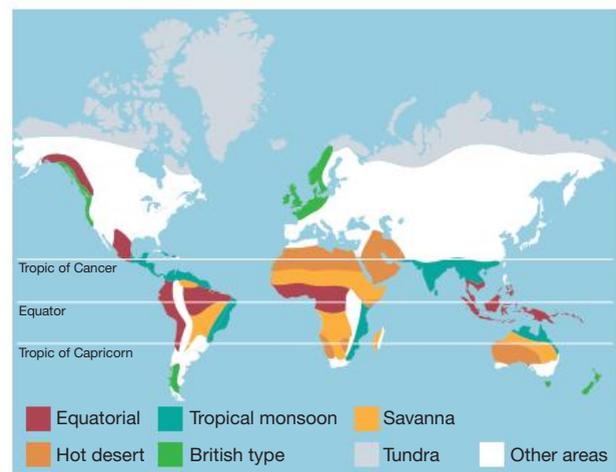


Figure 9.8 Position of areas with climatic regions described in the next section.

CASE STUDIES

1 Savanna grassland: Zambia

Location

Zambia is an African country located between 9° and 18° south of the Equator—that is, away from the Equator but within the tropics. Zambia is a land-locked country, which means it has no access to the sea. It lies on a gentle rolling plateau between 900 and 1500 m above sea level.

The climate

As we have seen, the equatorial climate has rain throughout the year. However, as you move south and north away from the Equator the rainfall becomes seasonal and we call the climate, like that of Zambia, tropical **savanna**.



Figure 9.9 Zambia

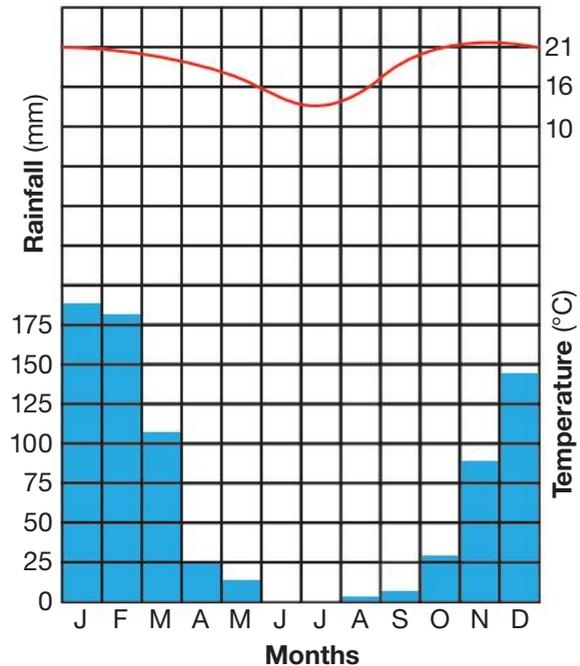


Figure 9.10 Climate graph for Zambia

Activity 15



- 1 Find Zambia on the World Map in Appendix 3.
- 2 Name the countries bordering Zambia.
- 3 Describe the position of Zambia in relation to Africa, the Equator, the tropics and the sea.
- 4 Look at the climate graph for Zambia and answer the following:
 - a Which months could be called a wet season?
 - b Which months could be called a dry season?
 - c Which months are hottest?
 - d Which months are coolest? From what you have learnt at the beginning of this chapter, suggest why. Remember Zambia is in the Southern Hemisphere.
 - e Average temperatures are never as hot as Solomon Islands. From what you have just learnt about Zambia, suggest why.

Month	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct
Climate	Hot and wet						Cool and dry				Hot/dry	
Season	Rainy season						Dry season					

Table 9.3 Zambia's seasons

Seasons

Zambia has two seasons as shown in Table 9.3.

- 1 From November to May, the temperature rises to 24°C and heavy tropical rain swamps the land. This is the rainy season. It is hot because the Southern Hemisphere is tilted towards the sun at this time. However, as Zambia is 900 to 1500 m above sea level, the temperature never gets extremely hot.
- 2 For the rest of the year, it is generally dry. This is the dry season. It is dry and cool until September, because the Southern Hemisphere is tilted away from the sun. Then it becomes dry and hot with temperatures rising to 32°C in October.

Vegetation

Large trees, like those in Solomon Islands or in equatorial forests, need rain all the year to grow. As Zambia has seasonal rain, with a long dry season, the plants that grow best are grasses. So grassland makes up most of the natural vegetation of Zambia. This consists of huge areas of grass, called savanna grassland, mixed with occasional short **shrubs** and trees. The trees are small and have ways of preserving water in the dry season, either by **shedding** or losing their leaves or having small leaves that do not need much water.

During the dry season, the savanna looks bare and parched or very dry, but when the rain begins, it suddenly becomes green and flowers blossom. Most of Zambia is still covered in its natural savanna vegetation.

The savanna grasslands are also home to some of the world's largest wild animals who live off

the grass and find it easier to move around than in the forests. These include lions, leopards, buffaloes, elephants and giraffes.



Figure 9.11 Savanna grassland in Zambia

Human activity

Activity 16



- 1 Suggest at least three difficulties of living in a place like Zambia with very seasonal rainfall and a long dry season.
- 2 Suggest why farming would be difficult.

About 70% of Zambians live in rural areas and live off the land in small subsistence farms, just like Solomon Islanders. However, they cannot grow root crops like sweet potatoes, yams or taro, as these need a lot of rain. They have to grow seasonal crops, which grow in the short wet season, like peanuts, maize, beans and a grain crop called millet. The main cash crop is tobacco, which needs a dry season to ripen. They also keep cattle and goats that feed on the grassland.

The problem with savanna grasslands like Zambia is the shortness of the rainy season. Crops must be planted as soon as the rains start otherwise the yield goes down. As in all tropical climates, the fertility begins to be washed or leached out of the soil as soon as it is cleared for crops, so, like in Solomon Islands, people traditionally use shifting cultivation or bush fallowing. As in parts of Solomon Islands like Malaita, the population is increasing and land is becoming short so there is not enough land to leave it fallow for a long period. This means the yields of crops such as maize are decreasing. Traditionally people also burn the remains of the old crops after they are harvested, and burn the bush after clearing new land. This makes clearing easier and the ash fertilises the soil.

Traditionally also the land is ploughed and most farmers use oxen, a type of cow, to pull the ploughs. Some now use tractors. Many farmers do not have their own oxen or tractor and plough, as these are expensive to own and keep. They have to hire oxen or tractors and often have to wait while other people are using them. This means they may plant their crops late after the rains have begun; however, each day of delay makes the yield of crops smaller.

All of these traditional methods can cause the size of the yield to be reduced, the soil to lose its fertility and the soil to be washed away or eroded.

Burning the remains of the old crops is not good as the remains help to protect the soil from being washed away; make it easier for the rain to soak into the soil; and help to bind the soil particles together, which encourages termites and worms that help to improve the soil. Ploughing exposes the soil to the rain, so

the soil is easily washed away. The whole field is ploughed, so all the soil is exposed to the rain and sun. Ploughing also creates ridges with furrows or ditches between them so that the rain washes into the furrows and sweeps away the soil. Waiting for the oxen means many farmers plant late, so their yields go down. The same crop is often planted every year, so it uses the same nutrients from the soil each time.

In the last ten years or more, however, many Zambian farmers have learnt new methods that have increased their yields, helped to preserve the fertility of the soil and reduced soil erosion. These methods are called **conservation agriculture** and are similar in some ways to the organic farming methods being introduced in parts of Malaita and elsewhere, especially by the late Joini Tutua, the Kastom Gaden Association and the Asian Pacific Sustainable Development Project at Fiu in Malaita.

In Zambia Sinoya Phiri, who has a small holding in Kafue district, says 'This way of farming has changed my life'. He only has two hectares of land, but he has doubled his harvest of maize to 50 kilos per year. He says 'There is a big difference in yields, the cobs from the conservation agriculture field are bigger than the cobs from the field I planted using a tractor. I have a lot of food. I do not buy maize flour any more'. His increased yields enable him to sell crops to support a family of ten, including his mother, aunt, brothers and sisters. He has even installed a satellite dish and bought a generator. A few metres from his house he has a row of pigsties with 50 pigs, which he sells to give him more income. The pigs also give him manure to fertilise his fields. At least 180 000 small farmers in Zambia are now using the principles of conservation agriculture.

Activity 17



Read the account of farming in Zambia on pages 205–6 and the principles of conservation farming on page 207.

- 1 To what extent are the traditional farming methods in Zambia and Solomon Islands similar or different? Give examples.
- 2 Which of the methods of conservation agriculture do you think might be useful in improving farming in Solomon Islands? Give your reasons.

Conservation agriculture

Conservation agriculture is based on four main principles:

- 1 Disturb the soil as little as possible.
- 2 Plant as soon as the rains come.
- 3 Leave the remains of old crops in the ground—do not burn them.
- 4 Rotate crops.
- 5 Use natural processes and natural fertilisers.



Figure 9.12 Ploughing in Zambia using the conservation agriculture system of ‘minimum tillage’. The oxen are pulling a ‘ripper’, which loosens the soil but does not dig deep and create a furrow or ditch. This means a minimum amount of disturbance of the soil.

Here is how these principles are applied:

- 1 The land is not ploughed. Farmers create basins in the soil in which the seeds can be planted. They do this using hoes or a ripper as shown in Figure 9.12, not ploughs. This means only a small amount of the soil is disturbed and this is disturbed as little as possible. When the rain comes, the water is trapped in the basins and gradually sinks into the soil. The roots of the seeds that are planted bind the soil together.
- 2 The land is prepared immediately after the last harvest so it is ready as soon as the rains come and there is no loss or reduction of yield by delaying planting.
- 3 The remains of the old crops are left to rot on the ground, thus giving fertility to the soil and protecting it from sun and rain. The remains bind the soil particles together and encourage termites and worms, which help to improve the soil. This means the crop remains are not burnt.
- 4 Instead of growing maize every year, crops are rotated. In the year after a crop of maize, legumes such as peas, beans or groundnuts are grown. These increase the nitrogen in the soil and make it more fertile. Different crops take different minerals from the soil or add different minerals to the soil, so there is no need for artificial fertilisers. Farmers also plant musango, a type of acacia tree. This sheds its leaves at the beginning of the rainy season and these rot and provide a natural fertiliser for the soil. This is a kind of **agro-forestry**.
- 5 Like the organic farming in Solomon Islands, all of these methods rely on natural fertilisers and methods of growth rather than artificial fertilisers, which are expensive and less good for the soil.

In 2010 Zambia had its biggest maize harvest in history. Many people believe this is partly due to conservation agriculture. However, in some areas it has not worked so well and people have warned that it must be seen as one possible way to increase production, not the only way.

HIV/AIDS

Unfortunately Zambia has one problem that prevents many people from benefitting from these new methods. Zambia has one of the highest rates of HIV/AIDS in the world. The man in Figure 9.13 is very sick. Like thousands of Zambians he has tuberculosis, which has developed because he has AIDS. Tens of thousands have died and their children are left as orphans. The most productive people, aged between 18 and 40, are dying. In many areas only grandparents are left to look after grandchildren. Life expectancy, or the average age that people can expect to live, has gone down from 50 to 32!

This is a lesson we must learn in Solomon Islands. Learn about HIV/AIDS in your Health lessons and take care, otherwise we could become like Zambia. Papua New Guinea has already been greatly affected by HIV/AIDS.

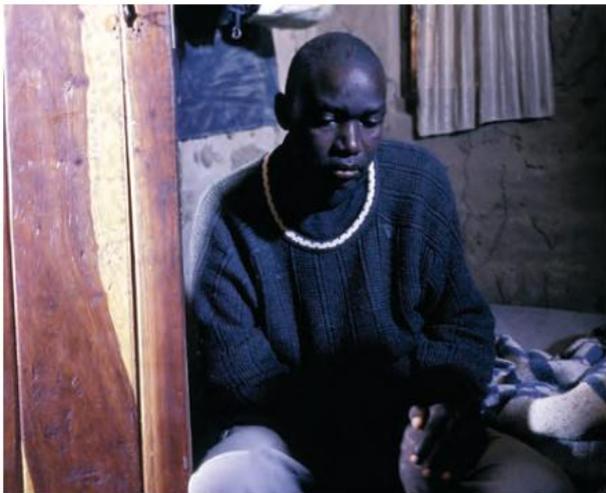


Figure 9.13 HIV/AIDS affects thousands of Zambians.

Other activities

Zambia also has very large copper mines that provide employment for tens of thousands of Zambians. As in Solomon Islands, manufacturing in Zambia is small scale and produces goods mainly for local sales. However

the population is much bigger than Solomon Islands’—over 12 million—so there are many more industries than there are here.

Another important activity is tourism, as tourists come to see the large wild animals that are preserved in areas called **game parks** or reserves.

Activity 18



- What do the following words mean?
 - land-locked
 - plateau
 - game reserves
 - agro-forestry
 - organic farming
- Make lists of the similarities and differences between Zambia and its surrounding areas and Solomon Islands. You might use a table like the one below.

Similarities	Differences
?	?

- Make a list of all the things farmers and others in Solomon Islands can learn from what is happening in Zambia.
- Where would you prefer to live: Zambia or Solomon Islands? Give your reasons.
- On the World Map in Appendix 3, locate these other areas of savanna grasslands:
 - Tanzania, eastern Kenya and northern Uganda
 - northern Nigeria and Ghana
 - southern Brazil
 - northern Australia.

2 Tropical hot desert

Location

If you move further away from the Equator than the savanna areas, you usually come to hot **deserts** on either side of the Tropic of Cancer or the Tropic of Capricorn. The largest hot

desert in the world, the Sahara, stretches some 9 million square km across north Africa. It is linked to the Arabian Desert in the Middle East.

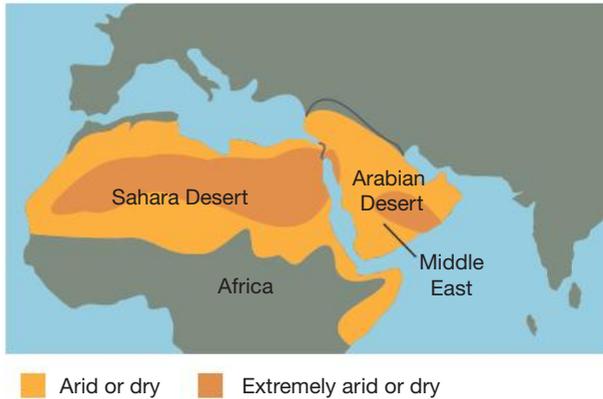


Figure 9.14 The Sahara Desert and the Arabian Desert

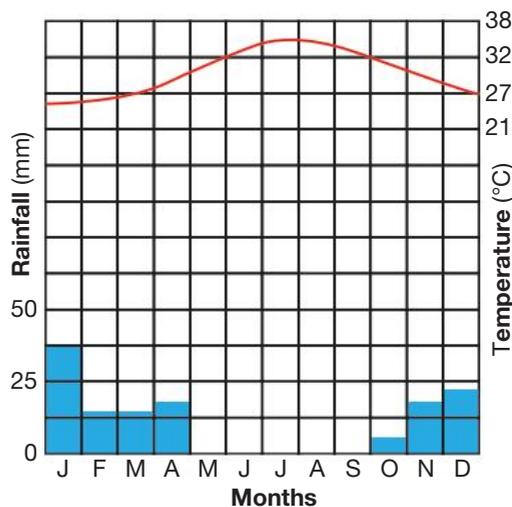


Figure 9.15 Climate graph of a hot desert

The climate

Activity 19

Look at the climate graph in Figure 9.15. List the main features of the climate.



As their name suggests, the hot deserts are places with high temperatures and very little rainfall: less than 280 millimetres (mm) of rain in a year. Compare this with the driest parts

of Solomon Islands that get over 3000 mm of rain, while places like the Weather Coast of Guadalcanal get over 8000 mm. Here in Solomons, we sometimes get more than 280 mm of rain in one day.

Tropical hot deserts have very hot summers and warm winters. Although there is so little rain, sometimes rain falls heavily for a very short time, causing sudden **flash floods**. If there is an average of 280 mm, this is measured over many years and may mean no rain at all for 10 years or more and then sudden floods.

As cloud cover is rare and humidity very low, there is nothing to block the heat of the sun during the day or prevent its loss at night. There are therefore extremes of temperature. Temperatures can range between around 45°C in the day and -15°C the same night. Temperature can drop 30°C in a few hours. Although very dry, no desert is completely without rain.

Vegetation



Figure 9.16 An example of desert vegetation

Since deserts are places with very little rainfall, not many plants are able to grow. However, some vegetation does grow in the desert. This is sparse and must be well adapted to the dry conditions.

Desert plants survive by making maximum use of whatever water is available at any time. They have developed special features to help them get or keep enough moisture. **Drought resistant** plants are known as **xerophytes**. Some, like cactus, have thick, fleshy stalks or leaves which can store water in their tissues. Others have spiky and waxy-coated leaves to reduce transpiration and stop animals eating them. Some plants can survive on the dew that falls on a cold night without any rainfall.

Activity 20



- 1 Draw and label diagrams to show the ways plants can survive in deserts.
- 2 Do you know any plants in Solomon Islands that can store water? If so, have a look at them. We have some cactus in some places, especially in flower gardens. The leaves of pineapple plants are a bit similar. We also have baobab trees, which store water.

Human activities: Bedouins of the Sahara Desert



Figure 9.17 Traditional Bedouins of the Sahara Desert

Activity 21



Look at the photograph in Figure 9.17 and describe what you see.

The photograph in Figure 9.17 shows traditional Bedouins in the Sahara Desert. The Bedouins are nomadic Arabs who live by raising sheep or camels in the Sahara Desert and in the Middle East. Nearly all the people in these areas speak the same Arabic language, so they are all called Arabs. Bedouins live in places where large areas are bare rock or sand dunes with little vegetation. To feed their animals, they look for a few plants, which grow in low-lying areas called **wadis**, where there is some moisture in the soil. Much of the work of the Bedouins involves sitting all day watching their flocks and herds grazing. They may follow the rain if there is any, taking their animals where rain has fallen and some grass or shrubs for grazing are available.

The main reason Bedouins can survive in the desert is the camel, which is their most important animal. A camel has one or two humps on its back and these can store water,

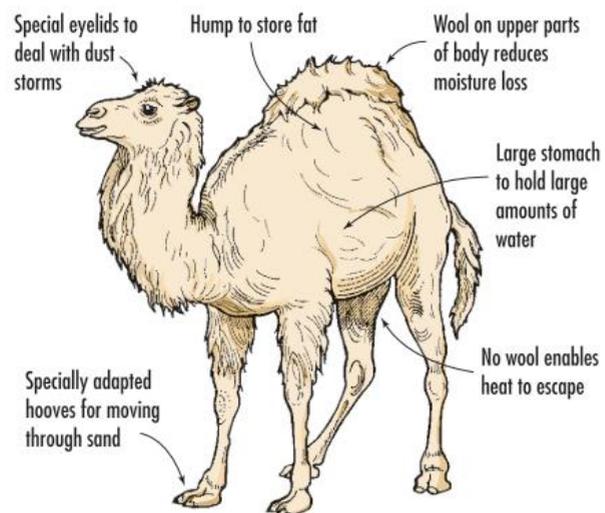


Figure 9.18 How camels are adapted to living in dry climates



Figure 9.19 A bedouin tent

so they can go for days without water. The diagram in Figure 9.18 shows other ways camels are adapted to survive in deserts. Bedouins use them for riding on and carrying their goods. They carry tents made of goat hair and sheep's wool and use these to sleep in at night. The tents are comfortable inside, with 'rooms' divided by walls also made of wool. Inside are woollen rugs on the floor; blankets for sleeping as it is cold at night; places for storing water in leather bags made from animal skins; and coffee, **dates** and other food. These days some have large tents that they use for more permanent accommodation, with generators, electricity, refrigerators and videos.

The men take out their animals in the morning, while women and children look after sheep and goats. Traditionally, the girls and children spend part of their time collecting fire wood. During seasonal migration, they may travel up to 400 km. They drink the milk of their animals as an important part of their diet.

Bedouins are great traders, taking goods from the Middle East and selling them as far as west Africa. They carry these goods in lines of camels known as camel trains. Bedouins are **Moslem** and they helped to spread the Moslem religion throughout north Africa and to the African people of west Africa.

Bedouin tribes also own land in areas called **oases**. Oases are low-lying areas in the desert that are low enough for the water table to reach the surface. You learnt about water tables in Year 7. As shown in Figure 9.20, the water drains down through the rocks from higher areas with rainfall. This causes a permanent small pool or lake of water that can be used for drinking by people and animals, and for cultivating dates, grains, tobacco and vegetables. In other places Bedouins dig wells that reach the water table, but there is often conflict between tribes about who owns the wells.

In late summer, Bedouins camp in large numbers around the oases, harvesting dates. These are small black fruits with a very sweet taste that grow on palms similar to coconut or palm oil palms. They keep for a long time in the hot climate without rotting. They are sometimes bought in supermarkets in Honiara.

The hot desert areas of north Africa and the Middle East contain the greatest amount of the world's oil, which can be sold for very high prices. The result is that many Bedouins, like many other Arabs, are now wealthy and no longer live a traditional life. They drive big cars instead of using camels and live in huge permanent houses instead of tents. However, some Bedouins still live a traditional life as they prefer it.

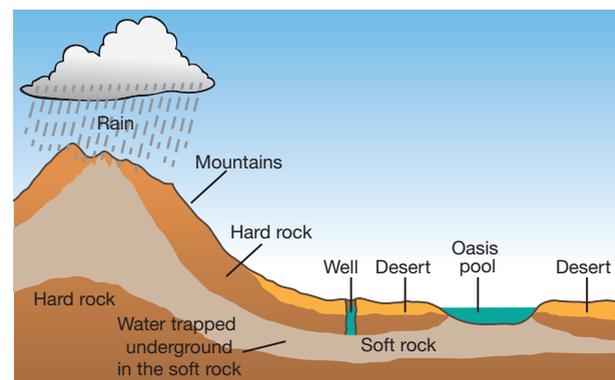


Figure 9.20 Oases occur in low-lying areas where the water table can reach the surface.

Activity 22



Answer the following in your own words.

- 1 What is a desert?
- 2 Make a list of the characteristics of a desert.
- 3 Explain why some desert plants have spiky or wax-coated leaves.
- 4 Look at the picture of a Bedouin in traditional dress in Figure 9.17 on page 210. Can you suggest why this kind of dress is suitable for living in a desert area?
- 5 Imagine you were a Bedouin living a traditional life. Write a story called 'One day in my life', about how you live and what you do each day.
- 6 There are many other hot deserts in the world. Use the World Map in Appendix 3 or an atlas to complete the table below in your exercise book.

Name of hot desert	Country
Sahara	?
Arabian Desert	?
Atacama Desert	?
Kalahari Desert	?
Simpson Desert	?



Figure 9.21 An oasis

3 Monsoon climate: India

Location

Monsoon Asia is a region made up of over 21 countries that experience seasonal monsoon winds. The region extends from Pakistan in the south-west to Japan in the north-east and includes India, most of China and Indonesia—three of the countries with the largest populations in the world. Find these countries on the World Map in Appendix 3.

Climate

Much of monsoon Asia lies in the tropics where temperatures are high all year round, but it is the seasonal monsoon winds that are most significant.

Monsoon winds are caused by seasonal temperature changes in the heart of the Asian continent. In Chapter 8 you learnt that heat causes low pressure with winds blowing towards it, and cold causes high pressure with winds blowing away from it.

Look at figures 9.7a and b on page 202 and at figures 9.22 and 9.23. In early summer, April to June, Asia becomes hot, causing low pressure to develop over the land. This causes winds, called the summer monsoon, to blow from the sea to the land. The summer monsoon winds pick up moisture as they cross the Indian and Pacific oceans, causing heavy and continuous rainfall from June to September. This is the summer wet season. Figure 9.22 shows the formation of the summer monsoon.

In winter, from October to January, the process is reversed as central Asia becomes very cold. High pressure develops over Asia and dry winds are pushed outwards from the high pressure towards lower pressure over the sea. This is the dry season, because wind blows from the land to the sea. Figure 9.23 shows how a winter monsoon is formed.

Activity 23



- 1 Draw a climatic graph of a location in India using the information in Table 9.4.
- 2 Describe the climate of this place, mentioning the temperatures, the rainfall and the seasons.
- 3 What are the main similarities and differences between the climate of this place and that of Solomon Islands?

Month	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Temp (°C)	30	32	33	32	33	32	29	29	32	32	31	28
Rainfall (mm)	3	3	0	18	485	617	340	264	64	15	3	3

Table 9.2 Climatic statistics for a location in India

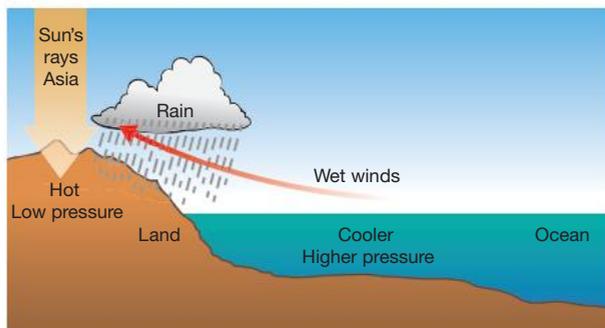


Figure 9.22 Summer monsoon

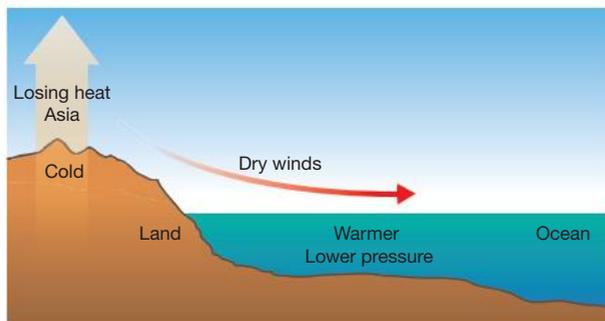


Figure 9.23 Winter monsoon

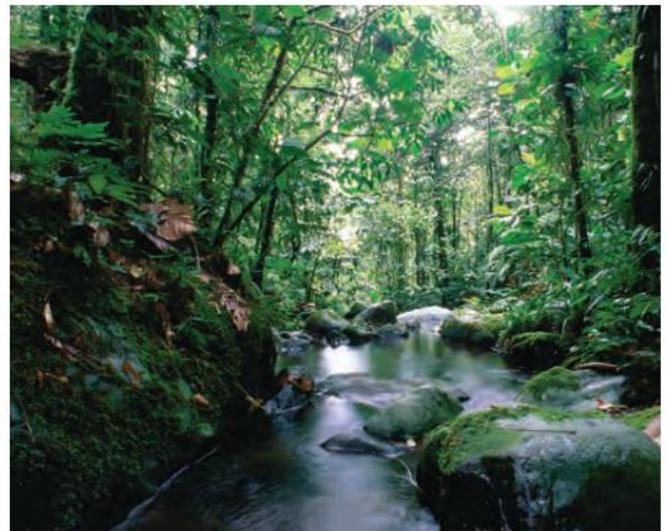


Figure 9.24 A monsoon forest

Vegetation

Vegetation in the monsoon climatic regions is referred to as tropical monsoon forest. Although the rainfall is seasonal like the savanna, the very high summer rainfall enables the trees to survive the winter **drought**. Some monsoon forests are deciduous. This means they contain **deciduous trees**, which have leaves that die

and fall off to cope with the dry conditions in the winter.

The forest is less thick than equatorial forest because of the dry season. That allows more sunlight to reach the forest floor and a thick layer of shrubs and grasses develops under the trees. This often includes bamboo, used for building, making furniture and many other things in Asia. One of the most common trees is teak, which produces valuable hardwood but grows quickly. This is now being introduced into Solomon Islands, especially in areas which have been logged.

Activity 24



Use the information on pages 212–3 to compare monsoon forest with forests in Solomon Islands. Mention similarities and differences.

Solomon Islands forests	Monsoon forests
?	?

Human activity: Farming in India

Most Solomon Islands families have access to 50 hectares of land or more, although most of it is not used for farming at any one time. Many Indian families have less than one hectare of land. (A hectare is about the size of two football pitches.) They use this mainly to grow rice because rice can provide more food per hectare than any other crop. Rice also needs heavy rain in one season followed by a dry period for ripening and harvesting, so it is very suitable for monsoon climates.

Activity 25



Read the following description of rice farming in India. As you read, draw a flow diagram to show the stages in growing rice. Insert the months of the year when each activity takes place by referring to the climate graph you drew. Start the diagram as shown below.



Rice farming fits in with the monsoon seasons. Before the rains come, the farmer prepares a nursery bed to plant the seeds. Any weeds are burnt and the ash provides fertiliser for the seeds.

Rice is grown in fields flooded with water, so the farmer must build or strengthen walls around his fields before the rain starts. This kind of rice is called **paddy** rice. When the rains begin he then ploughs the fields using **oxen** (like large cows), or **water buffaloes**, to pull the **plough**, as shown in Figure 9.25. He then floods the field.



Figure 9.25 Ploughing with oxen

When the field is flooded, the buffaloes pull a large plank of timber across the field to flatten the mud, as shown in Figure 9.26. This is called **puddling**.



Figure 9.26 Puddling

Soon after the beginning of the rainy season the family **transplants** the rice seedlings from the **nursery** to the main fields, as shown in Figure 9.27. This is hard, back-breaking work, bending down all day in the hot sun in the mud.



Figure 9.27 Transplanting rice seedlings from nursery

During the rainy season the fields must be regularly weeded and fertiliser or manure (human and animal waste) is spread on them.

When the rains stop the rice ripens and is harvested and cut with a knife, as shown



Figure 9.28 Harvesting rice



Figure 9.29 Drying rice

in Figure 9.28. The rice stalks are tied into bundles and dried in the sun, as shown in Figure 9.29.

After harvesting, the farmers must thresh the rice to remove the grain from the stalk. They either beat it against a large piece of timber or let buffaloes walk over it. Figures 9.30 and 9.31 (page 216) show the two methods of **threshing**. The grain must then be thrown into the air and caught in a basket many times so the wind blows away the outer husk and leaves behind the heavier seeds. This is called **winnowing**. The rice must then be polished in a rice mill and stored for use, away from rats.



Figure 9.30 Threshing by hand



Figure 9.31 Threshing with buffaloes



Figure 9.32 Rice terrace

During the dry season the farmer may grow a second crop of beans or peas on the same fields if there is a little rain. In some areas a second rice crop may be grown during the dry season using irrigation from rivers.

This kind of farming can also be done in hilly areas, but first the farmers must flatten the land

for flooding by cutting it into steps or terraces like those in Figure 9.32. They build walls at the end of each terrace to stop the water and soil from washing away.

There is another kind of rice called dry rice or upland rice. This can be grown without flooding the fields and so it needs much less labour.

Activity 26



- 1 Construct a flow diagram, similar to the one you created in Activity 25, that shows the stages in growing sweet potatoes or kumara in Solomon Islands. Which method of farming do you think needs most hard work: growing sweet potatoes using shifting cultivation or bush fallowing in Solomon Islands, or farming rice in Asia? Give your reasons.
- 2 Rice farming is said to be 'labour intensive'. Can you suggest what this means.
- 3 Do you think the farming of paddy rice as described here would be suitable in most parts of Solomon Islands? Give reasons. What type of rice farming might be more suitable?
- 4 Attempts have been made to introduce paddy rice farming in Solomon Islands. What benefits would it bring to the farmers and the country? Why do you think many farmers prefer their traditional farming?

Rice can feed many people as it produces more food per hectare than any other crop. It is the main food crop of the two largest countries of the world: China with 1.3 billion people and India with over 1 billion people. Many areas of Asia where rice is grown have the highest densities of population in the world. For example, the island of Java, in Indonesia, is smaller than Papua New Guinea, but has more than 100 million people.

Activity 27



- 1 One reason this kind of farming can be used in Asia is that the soils are brought down into valleys by the rivers and are very fertile. Each year the river floods and brings more fertile soil with it. This means the same piece of land is used continuously and the yields remain high. In what other ways do the farmers help to keep the soil fertile?
- 2 Can you remember the names of any of the river valleys of Asia, which you learnt about in Chapter 7 of Year 7 Social Studies?
- 3 Why do you think many of the farmers in these areas are very poor?
- 4 In all these areas the towns and cities are growing very rapidly. Suggest reasons for this.

4 Cool temperate west coast climate: Britain

Location

Britain is an island off the west coast of Europe, between 50° and 60° north of the Equator. It includes four areas—England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland—all ruled as part of one country called the United Kingdom. This study comes from Lincolnshire, a county (like a province), which is located in the east of England. Look for Britain and the United Kingdom on the World Map in Appendix 3.

Climate

As it is far from the Equator, Britain has a temperate climate, with winters and summers.

Month	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Temp (°C)	3	4	5	7	11	15	18	19	18	15	11	5
Rainfall (mm)	55	48	43	40	42	42	60	62	50	53	55	55

Table 9.5 Climate statistics for Lincolnshire

However, because it is near the sea, the summers are warm but not very hot, and the winters are cool but not very cold.

Lincolnshire is on the east of the island away from the sea, so it gets quite low rainfall: about 650 mm per year. Table 9.5 shows the rainfall and average temperatures in Lincolnshire.

Activity 28



Use the climate statistics in Table 9.5 to complete the table below in your workbook, which will give you a summary of the climatic statistics in Lincolnshire. Remember what you learnt about the seasons on pages 196–7.

Season	Months	Temperatures	Rainfall
Summer	?	?	?
Autumn	?	?	?
Winter	?	?	?
Spring	?	?	?

The most rain falls in summer during the growing season when it is most needed. In winter, frost—that is, ice formed on the soil—breaks up the soil for ploughing. In summer, the warm sun ripens the crops quickly.

Vegetation

In these areas near the sea there is enough rain for trees, so the natural vegetation is mainly temperate forests. These have broad-leaved trees like in equatorial forests. However, most plants cannot grow when the temperature falls below 4°C, so the trees are **deciduous**. This means they **shed** their leaves in winter.

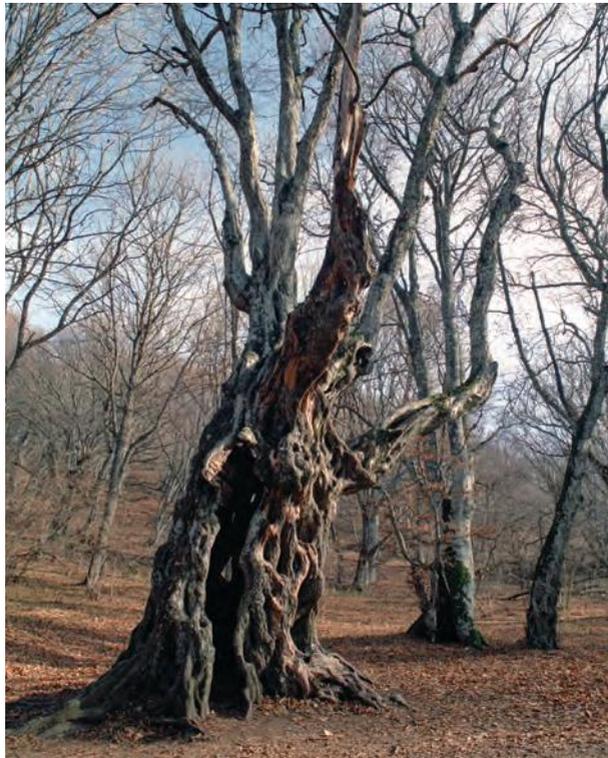


Figure 9.33 Deciduous trees in winter

Soils in temperate forest areas are usually very fertile. It is not as hot and wet as equatorial forest so the soils do not lose their fertility when the forest is cleared. This makes these areas very suitable for permanent cultivation, so large areas of the temperate forests were cleared for cultivation of crops and farming of animals.

Britain now has very little natural forest left. Woodland covers less than 15% of the area. Human beings have been clearing Britain's forests for centuries. Apart from farming, trees were also cut for buildings and for charcoal when factories were first started. Although Britain's countryside appears to have many trees, they have almost all been planted by humans.

Human activities

Even though much of the forest in England has been cleared for farming, only about 2% of the people work on farms. Most people live and

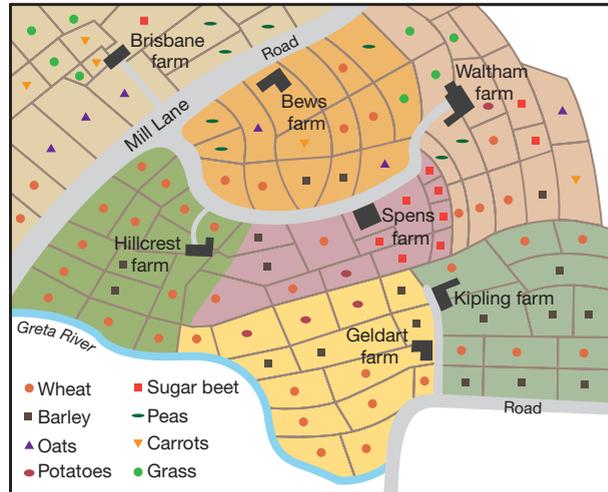


Figure 9.34 Farms in Lincolnshire, eastern England

work in towns and cities, working in factories, offices or other businesses. However, the 2% who work on farms produce more than half of the food eaten in England by all the people living in the towns. How is this done?

More than 200 years ago there was a period in England and other parts of Europe called the **agricultural revolution**. At this time new methods were introduced using **crop rotation** and fertilisers to increase production, developing higher yielding varieties of crops, and using machinery to plough, sow and harvest the crops. This means that a small number of people can produce a lot of food.



Figure 9.35 In England, most farm work is done with machines.

The map in Figure 9.34 shows a number of farms in Lincolnshire in eastern England. Each farm is about 200 hectares but each one is looked after by one small family—usually a husband and wife and one or two children, or one or two people employed as labourers. This is because nearly all the work is done with the help of machines, some of which are shown in Figure 9.35.

Activity 29



- 1 Look at Figure 9.34. Two main types of crops are grown:
 - **grain crops**, including wheat, barley and oats. These crops are like rice — they produce food from their seeds.
 - **root crops**, including potatoes, sugar beet and carrots. These crops produce food from their roots.

Which are the most important types of crops:

- a in England
 - b in Solomon Islands?
- 2 Do most farms in England grow one or many types of crop?
 - 3 What do you think the grass is used for?
 - 4 Because the climate is seasonal, crops cannot be grown throughout the year as in Solomon Islands. Copy the following list and, using the climate statistics in Table 9.5 (page 217), suggest in which months each activity takes place:
 - ploughing ready for new crops
 - sowing new crops
 - weeding
 - harvesting
 - storing crops
 - maintaining machines — no crops grown
 - feeding animals from hay or dried grass grown in summer.

As the rainfall is low, the climate is most suitable for grain crops, which need dry, sunny conditions for harvest. Root crops are more

suitable for wet conditions like in Solomon Islands. Most of these farms are **arable farms**, which means they grow crops. In wetter parts of England there are **pastoral farms**, which keep animals like cattle and sheep. Some of the farms shown here are **mixed farms**, which grow crops and grow some grass to feed to animals. Nearly all the crops are grown by crop rotation—a different crop is grown each year to use different nutrients in the soil.

Crops can only be grown in summer. In winter people in England rely on crops that have been stored, or crops imported from other countries. Animals must be fed with grass grown in summer and dried into hay.

One of the ways production has been increased since the agricultural revolution has been the use of chemical fertilisers and **insecticides** to reduce pests. However, this has begun to pollute the land and rivers with too many chemicals, and some of these harm people's health. Many farmers are now trying to use **organic farming**, which uses natural waste and mulching for fertilisers and natural products for reducing insects. People who buy food are now often willing to pay more for food produced organically. These ideas are now also becoming important in Solomon Islands.



Figure 9.36 Organic farming

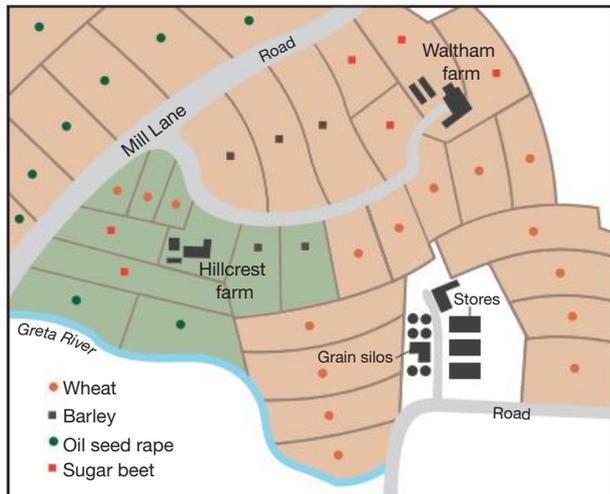


Figure 9.37 Agri-business

Another change is that many smaller farms have been combined into bigger ones owned by large companies, not families. The fields have also been made bigger and farms specialise more in one crop. The aim of big companies is to make as much money as possible. This is called **agri-business**. Many people think this is spoiling the land, as the companies are more interested in profits than in preserving the fertility of the soils.

Activity 30

Compare Figure 9.35, showing an older type of farming, and Figure 9.37 showing a newer type of agri-business in the same area. List the main changes you notice.



5 The tundra climate: northern Canada

Location

The **tundra** is found in the cold regions above 60° latitude along the Arctic coasts and islands of North America, Greenland and Eurasia. This is the area where the sun's rays always strike the Earth at a very low angle so it is always cold. Even in summer at midday you do not

look upwards to see the sun but look near the horizon, as we do at sunrise and sunset. Due to the tilting of the Earth's axis, for part of the year this area is tilted towards the sun so that the sun never sets, even at midnight. That is why it is sometimes called the 'Land of the **Midnight Sun**'. In winter, however, there is a period of some weeks when the sun never rises in some places—it is dark for 24 hours. People have to get up in the dark, do their work and go to bed again in the dark! Locate these places on the World Map in Appendix 3 and look back at figures 9.1 and 9.2.

Activity 31



Figure 9.38 shows the climate of an area of tundra in Tromsø, northern Norway. They show the temperature and precipitation for each month and the length of daylight for the first day of each month.

Draw graphs to show each of these. Draw a line graph for temperature and a bar graph for precipitation. For length of daylight, draw a column for each month and mark 24 hours along it. Then shade the amount of daylight and the amount of darkness each month.

What would be the main difficulties of living in a place like this?

Climate

Tundra areas have short, cool summers and long, very cold winters because of their position. Only a few months have average temperatures above freezing, and frost may occur any time. Rainfall is very low, with low temperatures and low humidity. Precipitation mainly occurs in summer: around 75–450 mm per year. In winter there is only a little snow. Tromsø is wetter as it faces the sea.

Vegetation

Trees cannot grow in the cold climate where the deep soil is called **permafrost** because it is

Sunrise to sunset, Tromsø 2005

Date	Length of daylight
1 Jan	-
1 Feb	5h 10m
1 Mar	9h 35m
1 Apr	14h 02m
1 May	18h 47m
1 Jun	24h 00m
1 Jul	24h 00m
1 Aug	20h 53m
1 Sep	15h 23m
1 Oct	11h 08m
1 Nov	6h 32m
1 Dec	-

	Temperature (C°)	Precipitation (mm)
January	-4	95
February	-4	87
March	-3	72
April	0	64
May	5	48
June	9	59
July	12	77
August	11	82
September	7	102
October	3	131
November	-1	108
December	-3	106

Midnight sun and darkness period, Tromsø 2005

Latitude (°N)	69
Midnight sun	20 May – 22 July
Period of darkness	
Start	25 Nov
End	16 Jan

Source: Norwegian Meteorological Institute

Figure 9.38 Tundra climate figures and length of daylight

permanently frozen. During warmer months, small vegetation can grow, including **lichens**, **mosses**, shrubs and grasses. These plants grow for about two months when the temperature is slightly warmer and the ice melts.

Flowering plants are also found in the tundra region. There are about 900 species of flowering plants in the arctic region. Plants are very low or stunted, or grow flat on the ground for protection from wind and to draw some warmth from the surface.

Most plants have their leaves in tight clusters or bunches near the ground. The thick hairy leaves reduce water loss and also protect against frost.

Human activity: Inuit community of northern Canada

The tundra climate is a difficult one to survive in, but people do live there. The biggest group is called the Inuits and they live in northern Canada and Greenland. Europeans sometimes

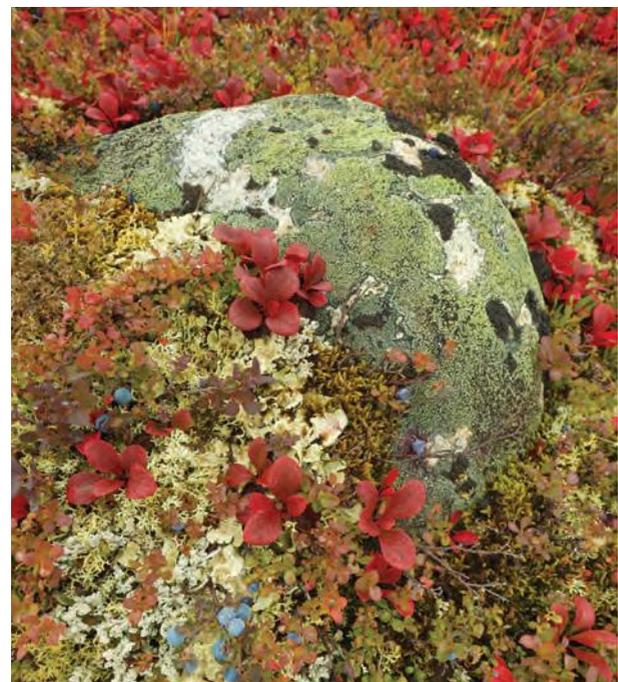


Figure 9.39 Tundra vegetation—lichens, mosses, grasses and flowering plants



Figure 9.40 An Inuit fishing

call them Eskimos, but this is incorrect and the Inuits do not like this. Due to the very difficult physical environment, the Inuits have traditionally lived in small communities scattered over a huge area. They cannot grow crops, so traditionally they lived by hunting wild animals and sea creatures. Often in winter, large communities were formed to share food and other necessities provided by the killing of a whale with a harpoon made from whalebone.

In spring, the large communities split into smaller groups to hunt for fish, **seals**, **walrus**, **caribou**, birds and other game. Some of these are sold for their warm fur. Traditionally, the Inuits have made their clothes mainly from



Figure 9.41 Inuits use seal skin for clothing.

the skin of seals, which live in the sea, and caribou—a kind of large deer. They have to wear very thick clothes covering the whole body and head except for the face. In winter, when the temperature may be -40°C , they cover their faces and wear goggles with small slits to see through. If any skin were exposed to the air, it could get **frostbite** and that skin could die.

In winter, the Inuits of northern Canada build snow houses made of blocks of hard snow called **igloos**. You saw an igloo in Figure 8.8 on page 162. Surprisingly it can be quite warm inside an igloo. For transport they use **sleds**—wooden vehicles with smooth pieces of wood underneath instead of wheels. These are pulled by dogs and can slide over snow and ice.

In summer, they walk over land, or use **kayaks** or small canoes for water transport.

The Inuit way of life is now being affected by climate change, which you will learn about in Year 9. The ice is melting and affecting the animals that they hunt. The permafrost is melting, causing flooding.

Today, the traditional life has ended for most Inuits. Once they started hunting with rifles instead of bone weapons, the numbers of wild animals, especially caribou, decreased.



Figure 9.42 Inuits use canoes for water transport during summer.

People in other parts of the world believed that they were killing too many whales and seals and tried to stop them, so now they are only allowed to kill a certain number. Many young people felt that modern life was easier than traditional life and now live in modern wooden houses, wear modern clothing, use sleds with motors instead of dogs, and buy their food from supermarkets. Most now must adjust to the modern world of paid work rather than to the physical environment. Unfortunately, half of the Inuits cannot find work or permanent employment and must rely on money from the government. There are many problems of unemployment such as alcoholism.

Inuits are experts at making handicrafts including soapstone and **ivory** carvings, now sold all over the world. The government has assisted Inuits to establish handicraft cooperatives and commercial fishing. Some Inuits get income from other sources such as game hunting and fishing, and working for the council.

The Inuits were governed by traditional rules that dictated everyone must cooperate in the day-to-day activities to ensure the survival of the group. However, now people are becoming more independent of others in their community as they rely on money.



Figure 9.43 Motorised sleds are a modern form of tundra transportation.

To help them, the Canadian government created a huge province or territory called Nunavut, where they own all the land and can partly govern themselves.

Activity 32



- 1 Where are the tundra lands found?
- 2 What is permafrost?
- 3 For how many months of the year do the plants in the tundra grow?
- 4 In what ways do the tundra plants reduce water loss and protect against frost?
- 5 Describe the main activities the Inuits do traditionally in winter, spring and summer.
- 6 Describe the changes that have happened to Inuits' lives today.
- 7 How has the government helped the Inuits?
- 8 The Inuits have a traditional way of life which has been changed due to outside modern influences. In what ways is this similar to the changes from traditional to modern life that have taken place in Solomon Islands life?

Have you achieved your goals?

Look back at your goals at the beginning of the chapter. Check whether you have achieved each goal.

- Have you gained knowledge and understanding of each of the topics in the goals?
- Can you use each of the skills mentioned in the goals?
- Have you formed your own ideas and opinions about the topics in the chapter?
- Write a brief summary of not more than one page of what you have learnt in this chapter.

Glossary

agri-business agriculture run as a business usually on a very large scale to make maximum profits

agricultural revolution a period of European history when new and better methods of farming were introduced

agro-forestry growing trees as well as crops

air temperature how hot the air is

altitude the height of a place

arable farms farms on which crops are grown

autumn or **fall** the season between summer and winter

caribou a large animal with horns

climate the normal or average weather experienced by a place

climatic regions areas of the world that have a similar type of climate

conservation agriculture methods of farming that help preserve the soil fertility

continentality distance from the sea

crop rotation growing different crops on the land each year to preserve soil fertility

dates small, sweet black fruits that grow on palm trees in deserts

deciduous trees trees that shed or lose their leaves in winter or dry seasons

deserts places with little or no rain

drought resistant able to live in periods with no rain

drought a period with no rain

equatorial climates near the Equator—always hot

flash floods floods caused by sudden very heavy rain

frostbite when the blood in part of the body like a hand or nose freezes and that part dies

game parks or **reserves** places where people are not allowed to kill wild animals, so the animals are preserved

igloos houses made of blocks of ice

insecticides chemicals that kill insects

ivory hard white material like bone forming the horns or tusks of some animals like walrus or elephants

kayaks small canoes that are moved by a two-sided paddle

lichens very small plants that grow in cold places

midnight sun sun that shines at midnight in summer in polar regions

mixed farms crops are grown and animals are raised on the same farm

monsoons seasonal winds that blow in a different direction in different seasons

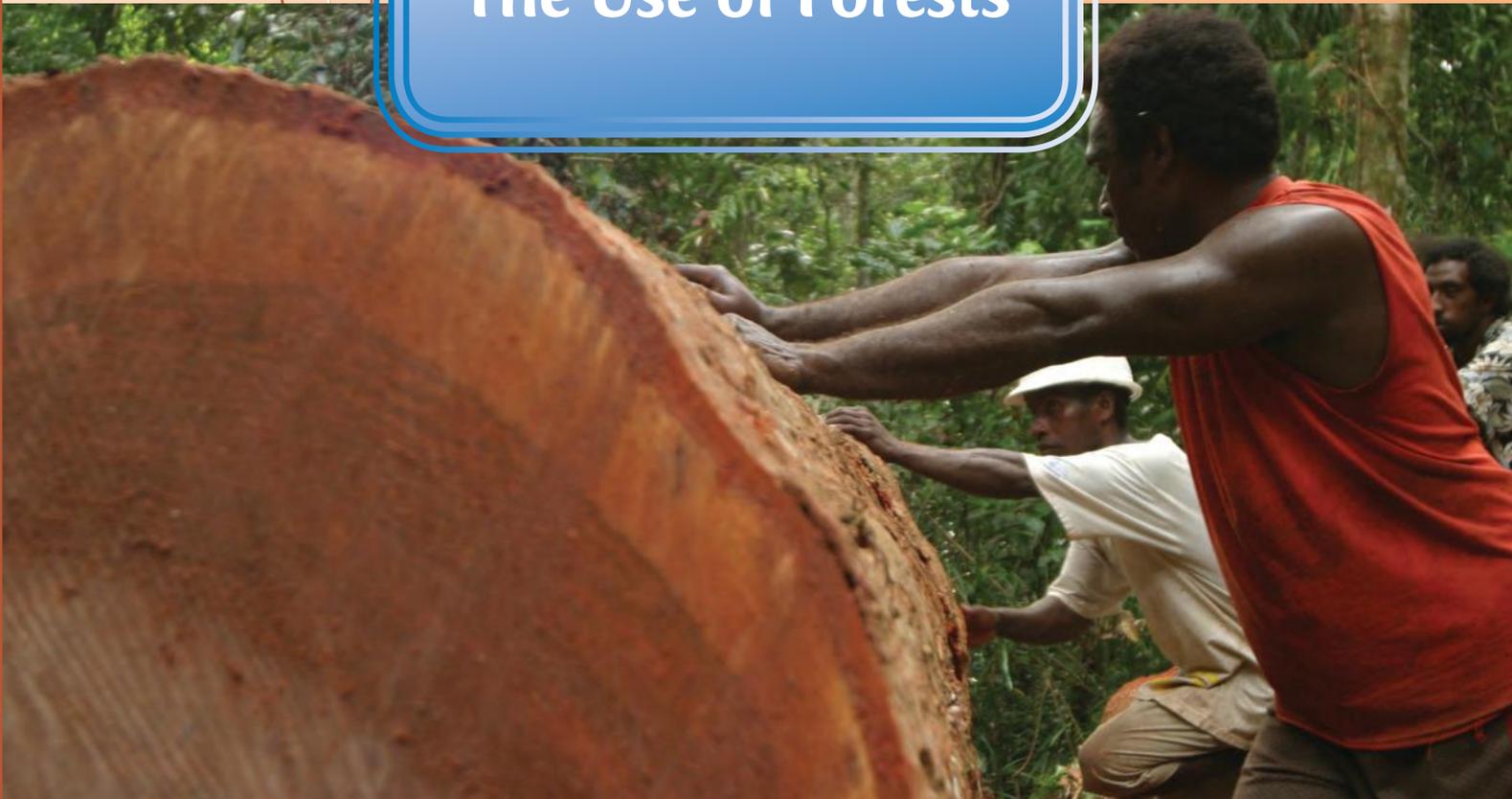
Moslem a person who follows a religion that believes in the prophet Mohammed

mosses small green leafy plants that grow in very cold or damp places

- nursery** a place where seeds are planted and raised into young plants before being transplanted to the field
- oases** places in a desert where water is found, usually coming from underground
- organic farming** farming using no artificial chemicals or fertilisers
- oxen** large cows or bulls
- paddy rice** rice grown in flooded fields
- pastoral farms** farms on which animals are kept
- permafrost** soil which is permanently frozen
- plough** a machine that is pulled along to dig soil
- polar climates** climates near the North or South poles, where it is always cold
- puddling** ploughing the field after it is flooded
- revolves** moves around in a circle, just as the Earth moves around the sun
- savanna** a seasonal climate between the tropics with wet and dry seasons and grassland vegetation
- seal** an animal which has valuable fur and lives mainly in the sea, a bit like a dolphin
- seasons** periods of the year with different weather conditions
- shedding** in relation to plants or trees, this means their leaves fall off
- shrubs** short trees
- sleds** small ‘trucks’ that slide through the snow and ice on strips of timber instead of wheels
- spring** the season between winter and summer
- summer** a hot season
- temperate climates** climates between the tropics and the polar regions—moderate temperatures
- threshing** removing the grain or seed from the stalk
- tilted** leaning or sloping to one side
- transplant** in relation to plants, move the young plants or seedlings from the nursery to the main fields
- tropical climates** climates between the tropics—hot or warm
- tropics** lines of latitude 23.5° north and south of the Equator, which are the furthest points north and south where the sun is overhead at midday
- tundra** very cold climate with little vegetation
- wadis** low-lying areas or valleys in deserts, which may have some moisture
- walrus** a big animal like a seal, which swims in water
- water buffaloes** large animals which look similar to cows, used for pulling ploughs
- winnowing** throwing the rice into the air so the outer husk is blown away
- winter** a cold season
- xerophytes** plants that can live in very dry areas as they resist drought

Chapter 10

The Use of Forests



My goals:

- to know the main uses of trees and timber
- to understand the value of forests to the environment
- to understand the consequences to the environment of cutting down trees
- to understand the difference between sustainable and unsustainable rates of cutting down trees
- to appreciate why people want to cut down and sell trees
- to compare areas of logging and areas of forest conservation
- to appreciate the advantages of conserving the forest
- to understand the problems caused by many logging practices and how these can be solved
- to be able to use a contour map to show different logging practices
- to appreciate why negotiations with logging companies are often difficult
- to appreciate the need to conserve forest resources

Our forests are some of the most useful and important of our natural resources. Originally almost all of the land in Solomon Islands was covered by thick forests. Now, many of these forests have been cut down and in many areas there is little or none of the original forest left.

Activity 1



In groups make a list of the main reasons people clear or cut down forests.

There are three main reasons our forests have been cleared:

- to use the land for farming or gardening
- to use the trees for timber and other products
- to sell the timber either locally or to companies from overseas.

Since the 1970s, the main reason for cutting down forests has been the third one—to sell the timber to overseas companies. If we do this we may make money in a short time. The main value of trees, however, is not as a way of making money. Our trees, like our land and our sea, provided the basis for the way people lived traditionally. If we sell them, we are selling the things we rely on for our way of life, just as we would if we sold our land or sea.

1 Uses of trees

Activity 2



Copy the following table.

Things made from trees	Part of the tree the thing is made from	Other possible materials to use
Locally made		
?	?	?
Imported		
?	?	?

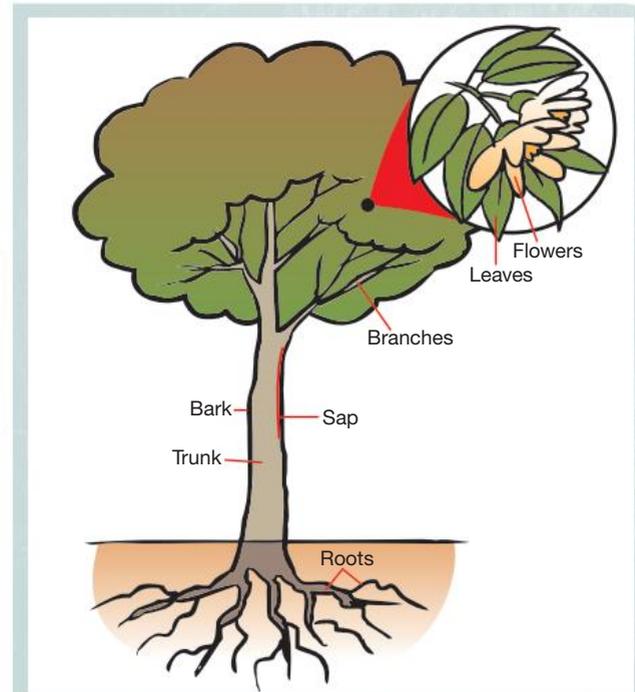


Figure 10.1 Parts of a tree

Look at the diagram of a tree in Figure 10.1 and use it to help you to fill in the table as instructed in questions 1 to 4.

- 1 Look around you, inside and outside the classroom. In the first column make a list of all the things that people in Solomon Islands make from wood or other parts of trees.
- 2 Underneath this, make a list of any imported things in your school or village made from trees.
- 3 In the next column, write the part of the tree from which each thing is made. Use Figure 10.1 to help you.
- 4 In the last column, write down any other material from which the thing could be made. For example a chair could be made of metal or plastic. If there are no other materials, write 'none'.
- 5 Where does Solomon Islands get most of these 'other materials' from?
 - a Which are cheaper to use—trees or other materials?
 - b What are some of the advantages of using other materials?
 - c What are some of the disadvantages of using other materials?



Figure 10.2 Tikopia is covered in orchards.

Figure 10.2 is a picture of Tikopia. It looks like a forested island but, in fact, nearly all the areas of forest you can see here are gardens, sometimes known as orchards. Nearly every tree is useful in some way and most have been planted. Apart from making things from trees, Tikopians also use:

- the fruit of many trees as foods
- the leaves or other parts of trees for medicine
- the wood of trees for fires
- the sap as a glue for canoes
- the dyes for colouring pandanus mats
- certain vines as string or for squeezing coconuts
- part of the roots of sago palms for making puddings.

Also remember that the coconuts that we all use come from trees.

Activity 3



Write the heading 'Other uses of trees'. Make a list of the ways people use trees in your area apart from using the wood itself. For each use, write the local or English name of the tree that is used.

The value of forests

As you have just found out, trees have value because they provide many useful things. Some of these things, like fruits and medicines, cannot be replaced if we cut down the trees. Other things can be replaced by materials like plastic, metal or cloth, but most of these have to be bought from overseas. For instance, if there is not enough wood for fires, we will have to import oil, which is very expensive. If we do not have timber for building houses, like in some parts of Fiji where forests have already been used up, we will have to import cement for concrete. This uses up the money we get from selling the trees, and some people may not be able to afford the imported things. We may save money by keeping some of our trees so that we can get things for free instead of buying them.



Figure 10.3 Willie Oke building his leaf house

Above is a photo of Willie Oke from Viru Harbour, South New Georgia. He is married to a woman from Gatokae, Marovo and now lives there. In the photo he is building a leaf house for himself from local timber and sago palm. He says, 'I am proud of being a local man. A local leaf house is as good for sleeping in as a modern house. It costs you nothing and you don't have to go to school to learn how to build it. I can build a house, make a canoe, go fishing and make a garden. If you know these four

things you are an independent person. Even if you go to school you should learn these things otherwise you cannot look after yourself.

Vincent Vanguni, another man from Marovo, says, ‘A virgin forest is a store of resources’.

Activity 4



What do you think Vincent Vanguni means by this?



Figure 10.4 Vincent Vanguni on a creek in Marovo

Activity 5



Look at the diagram in Figure 10.5. Which is the best alternative: one or two?

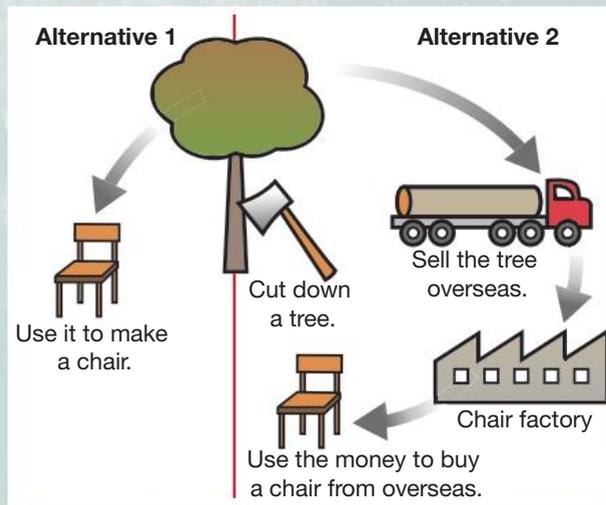


Figure 10.5 Two ways to use timber resources

2 Effects of cutting down trees

Forests are also an important part of the environment, and if we cut them down we affect many parts of the environment. This is shown in Activities 6 and 7.

Activity 6



Figure 10.6 on page 230 shows one tree. It shows all the natural things, living and non-living, which are affected by one tree.

Imagine you are a tree that can talk. A man has come to chop you down. You are trying to persuade him not to chop you down by telling him all the useful things you do. Write down the story that you would tell him, using Figure 10.6 to help you.

We will now look in more detail at all of the things that may be affected when trees are chopped down.

Effects of clearing forests on soils

Activity 7



- 1 Look at Figure 10.7 on page 230.
 - a What has happened to the soil in this area?
 - b Explain why this happened.
 - c Explain why this sometimes happens when we chop down trees.
- 2 Rivers in areas where trees have been cut down are often full of mud — they are polluted. How can cutting down trees cause this?

The Use of Forests

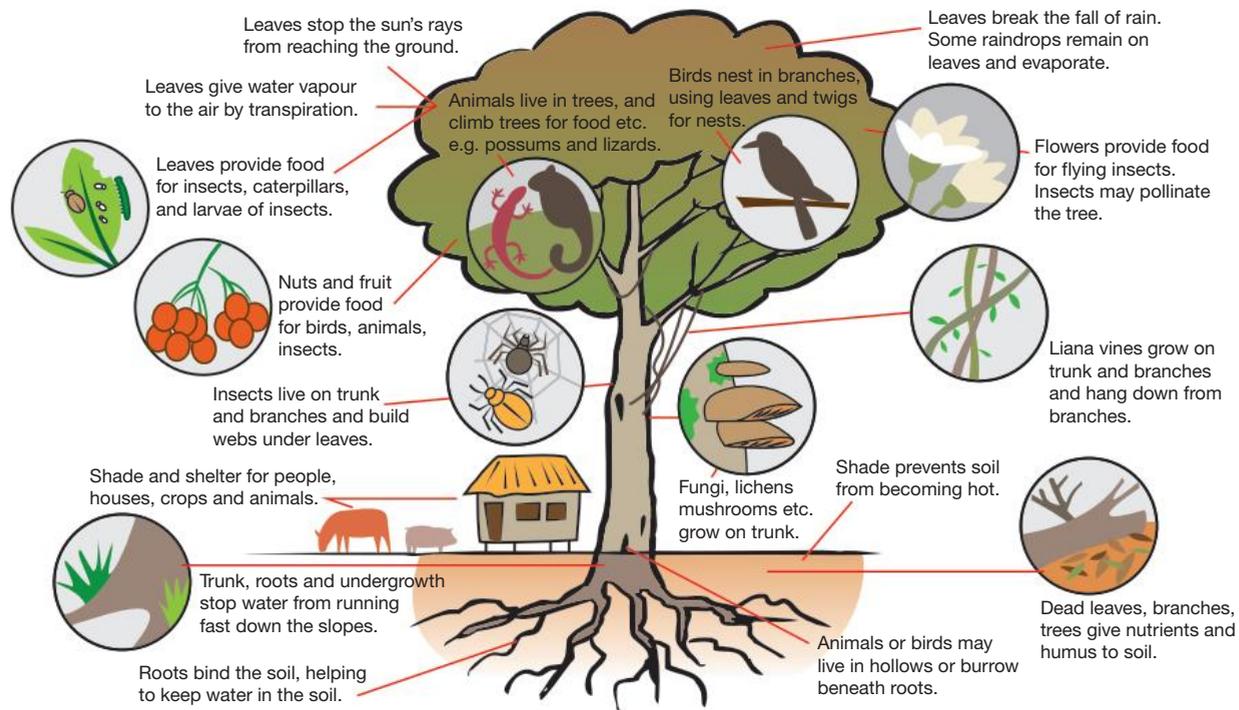


Figure 10.6 A tree affects many natural things.



Figure 10.7 Cutting down forests causes soil erosion.

The key to the forests in Solomon Islands is the climate. As you have learnt in Chapter 9, forests exist here because the climate is always hot and wet and plants grow best in hot, wet areas. The high temperatures and heavy rainfall that cause forests to grow, however, can also cause a great amount of destruction if forests are cut down.

Activity 8



- 1 If you are in a rural area, go outside and look at an area of soil in a forested area and one in an area cleared of trees. Make a note of any differences you can see between the soils. Think of depth, colour, size of particles and likely fertility. Remember what you have learnt in Agriculture and carry out any experiments or tests you know. If you are in town, try to think of what the differences would be.
- 2 Figure 10.8 summarises information you learnt about soils in your studies last year and in your Agriculture lessons.
- 3 Using this diagram and what you have learnt, answer the following questions.
 - a What are nutrients? What is humus?
 - b Where does the soil get most of its humus from?
 - c Why is humus important in the soil?
 - d Why is there always plenty of humus in soils in Solomon Islands' forests?

e Leaching takes away the humus (containing nutrients) by dissolving or washing it down into lower layers where plant roots cannot reach it. This occurs quickly when there is a lot of water and high temperatures. Why does leaching occur quickly when forests are chopped down?

- f What will happen to the fertility of the soil if the humus is lost?
- g Can anything be grown if there is no humus?
- h If the soil is bare and there is no humus, what will happen to the soil when it rains?

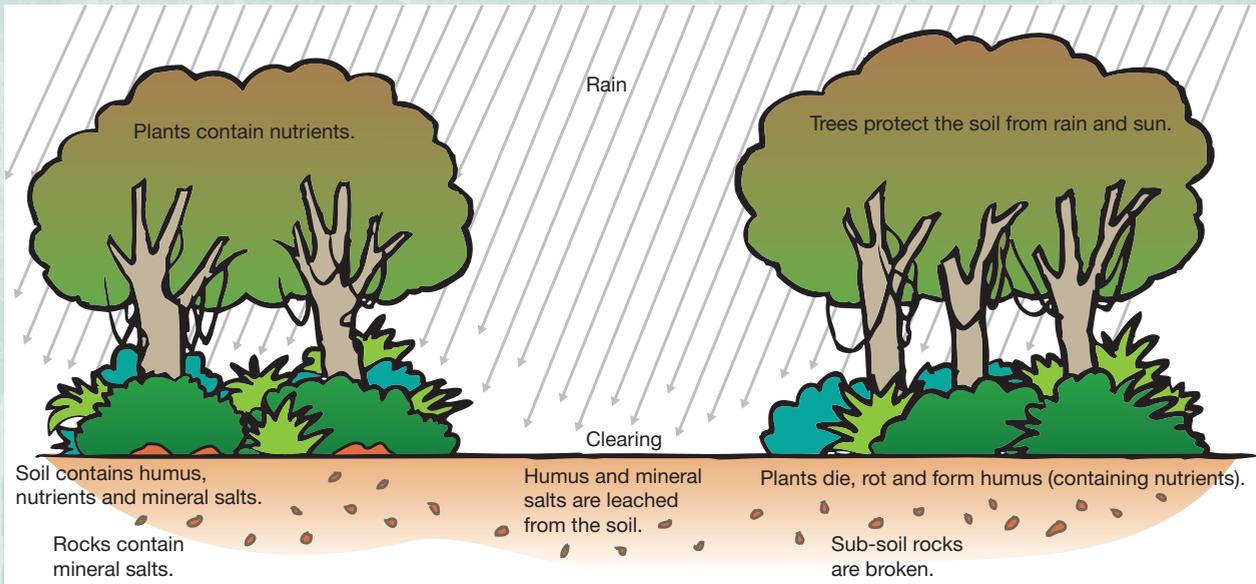


Figure 10.8 How clearing a forest affects the soil

You will see from your answers that trees are essential to our soils. As Figure 10.9 shows, 90% of the nutrients or plant foods in a tropical forest are contained in the plants themselves, not in the soil. These nutrients are always being transferred into the soil as plants die and become humus. So, if the trees are cut down and taken away, two things will happen:

- Most of the nutrients will be lost and the soil will no longer have a good supply of humus.
- Much of the remaining humus will be leached away. The soil will no longer be fertile and neither trees nor crops will grow well. Like the soil in Figure 10.7, it will be washed away or eroded because there is no humus to bind the particles together and no vegetation to protect the soil from the rain.

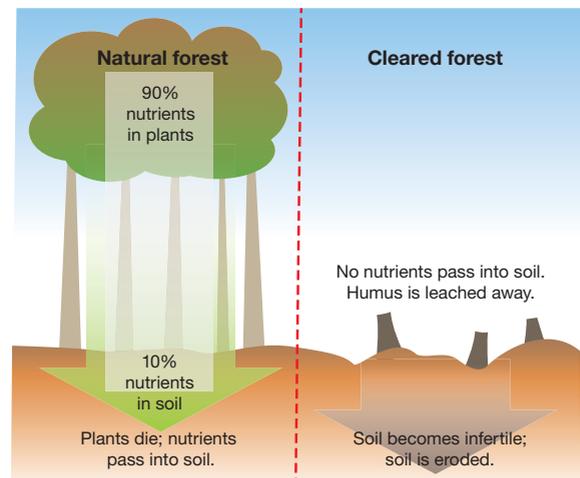


Figure 10.9 Effects of clearing forests

That is why, as you learnt in Social Studies and Agriculture last year, when Solomon Islanders grow crops by traditional methods, they only clear small areas of land and leave many of the trees and roots in the ground. If we clear the forest for logging, however, all the big trees may be cut and taken away and the soil is no longer protected. By cutting trees, therefore, we are often destroying the land as well.

Once forests are cleared for cultivation or logging, they may eventually be replaced by secondary forests. These do not contain as many high trees as the original forests and will have a much smaller number of wildlife species.

Effects of clearing forests on rivers and water supplies

We have a lot of rainfall, but we sometimes have problems getting the water we need. If there is a forest, the leaves of the trees catch some of the rainwater. Instead of hitting the ground directly, it slowly drips off the leaves onto the ground. The soil has time to absorb it and most of it sinks into the ground, where it forms a

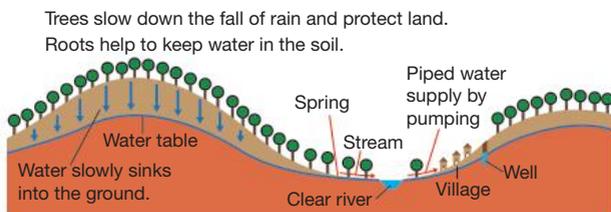


Figure 10.10 A watershed area before the forest has been cut

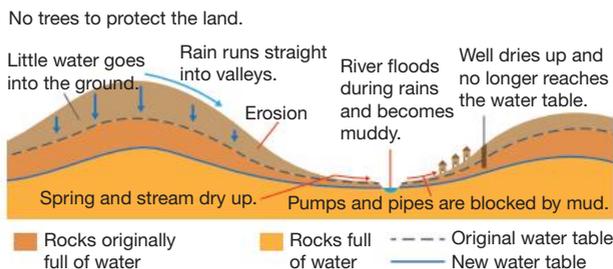


Figure 10.11 Effect of cutting forests in watershed areas

permanent layer of water in the rocks called the water table. You learnt about this last year when studying rivers and on page 211.

If there are no trees, the rain falls directly onto the ground and there is too much for the soil to absorb. So a lot of water runs away down the slopes, taking soil with it. This causes the rivers to flood. In Year 7 you learnt about flooding on the Ngalibiu River in Guadalcanal. If you look in a flooded river it usually contains a lot of mud or soil, which makes it useless for water supplies, and may block the pipes or dams. More water runs away, lowering the water table in the rocks. Springs, streams and wells may dry up, as shown in Figure 10.11. The biggest problems are caused when forests are cut down on watersheds—the high areas where streams and rivers start.

Effects of clearing forests on fishing

Activity 9



Answer the following in sentences.

- 1 Do most fish or shellfish live in muddy or swampy water or clear water?
- 2 If rivers carry more soil or mud what will happen to:
 - a many of the fish and shellfish in the rivers
 - b the sea near the mouths of rivers (if you live near a river mouth look at the colour of the water where it enters the sea)
 - c fishing grounds and shellfish areas near river mouths?

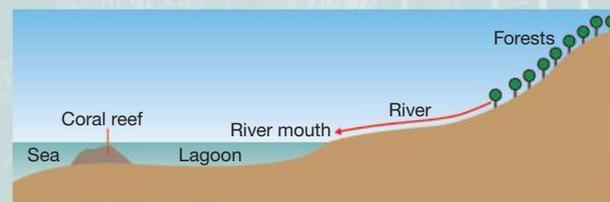


Figure 10.12 How forests affect fishing

Activity 10



Go outside to any forest area near the school, or any area with many trees.

Divide into groups. Each group looks at one area of about 100 square metres (m), that is 10m x 10m. This should contain at least one large tree. (If your school is in town, do this exercise on a weekend by finding an area of forest.)

- 1 Collect one leaf from each of the different plants you can find in this area and count the total number you collect. Divide them into trees, bushes (small trees), grasses and other plants and count the number of each.
- 2 Look for any animals, birds, insects, worms or other living creatures in the area. How many different living creatures can you find?
- 3 Try to think of at least six examples of one living thing in this area that depends in some way on another.
- 4 Compare your answers with the answers of other groups.

Effects of clearing forests on wildlife

Number of species

You will see from this activity that a forest is not just an area of trees. Tropical rainforests, like those in Solomon Islands, contain more plants and other living things in each square metre or each hectare than any other type of area in the world. There may be up to 200 species, or different types of trees, and over 1000 different types of living things on one hectare of land. In temperate forests there may

be fewer than 20 species of trees per hectare. In coniferous forests, there may be only one or two species, and only a few other living things.

If we cut down our forests, we are not only cutting trees. We are also destroying thousands of other plants, animals, insects, birds and other living creatures that live in the forest.

Complexity of relationships

Perhaps the answer, therefore, is to cut down only the trees we need and leave everything else? This is almost impossible. When a tree falls, it is so big it destroys many of the smaller plants and animals around it, including many young trees that might have grown to replace the one we cut.

Even if we could just cut down the trees we wanted, we would still be destroying much else in the forest. As you probably discovered in Activity 10, most living things depend on other living things for food, shelter and many other things. The ways in which living things are related to each other are more complicated in a tropical rainforest than any other kind of place. For instance, birds and bats help to spread the seeds of trees and butterflies and insects pollinate them. If we cut down the trees, where the birds, bats and insects live, the whole forest will be affected.

If we cut down a forest, trees may grow again but they will not have the same amount of life as the original forest. The large amount of living things in a forest is called its **biodiversity**. If we cut down the forest we reduce the biodiversity or the number of living things forever. This is particularly important in Solomon Islands.

	Total no. of species	Unique to Solomon Islands	Found elsewhere but in a different form	Found elsewhere in the same form
Number	163	72	62	29
Per cent (%)	100	44	38	18

Table 10.1 Bird species in Solomon Islands

Unique or endemic species

Solomon Islands is an island country, cut off from large land areas. As a result, it has many species of trees and other plants and animals that are not found anywhere else in the world. We say they are **unique** or **endemic** to Solomon Islands. Even within Solomon Islands, there are many species that are found only on one particular island. For instance, Rennell, Guadalcanal and Makira each have five or six species of birds not found anywhere else in the world. In fact, Solomon Islands has one of the largest proportions of unique species in the world. Table 10.1 on page 233 shows the number of birds unique to Solomon Islands.

If we cut down a large part of the forests on any island, therefore, we are destroying forever many species of living things that are not found anywhere else in the world. Some of these have traditional uses. Others may be useful in the future in medicines or in other ways.

Effects of clearing forests on climate

Solomon Islands has forests because it has a lot of rain, but it also has rain partly because it has forests. This is shown in Figure 10.13.

Activity 11

Copy Figure 10.13 into your exercise book. Draw a similar diagram to show what would happen to the rain if there were no trees.



What happens to rain in a forest?

The leaves of trees give off water in transpiration and also contain drops of water from the rain. This water evaporates back into the air, so the air over forests contains a lot of water vapour and rain is more likely. Up to 75% of the rainfall in large forested areas like the Amazon Basin, which you learnt about last year, is caused by the forest itself. If the forests are cut down, the air will absorb less water vapour and rain is less likely.

Activity 12



- 1 To find out some of the effects of clearing forests, go outside to any area where the forest has been cleared for farming or other uses. Compare this area with the area you looked at in Activity 8.
- 2 Complete the table to show all the differences you notice in this area compared to the first one. Repeat questions 1 and 2 from Activity 10 to help you.

Features	Forested area	Non-forested area
No. of different plants	?	?
No. of different trees	?	?
No. of different grasses	?	?
No. of different living creatures	?	?
Soils type, colour, etc.	?	?
Temperatures near the ground (hot/cool)	?	?
Humidity near ground (high/low)	?	?
Rainfall reaching the ground (a lot/a little)	?	?

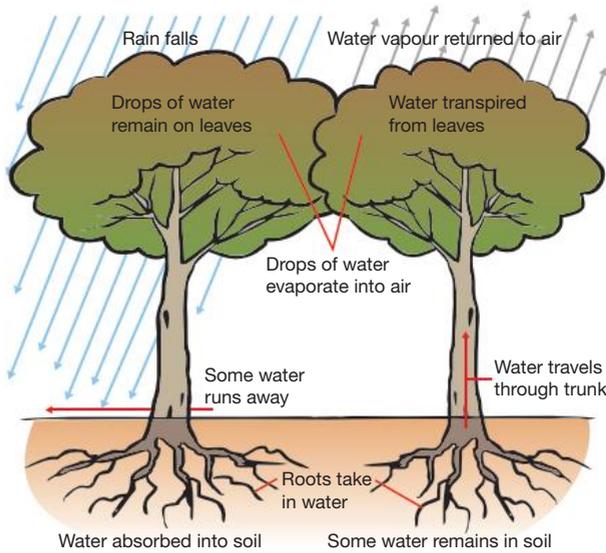


Figure 10.13 Effects of rainfall on forests

Activity 13



Look at the three islands in Figure 10.14.

- 1 If we cut 50 trees on each island, which island will be affected most?
- 2 To summarise this section, make a list of all the things that might be affected by cutting down the 50 trees.

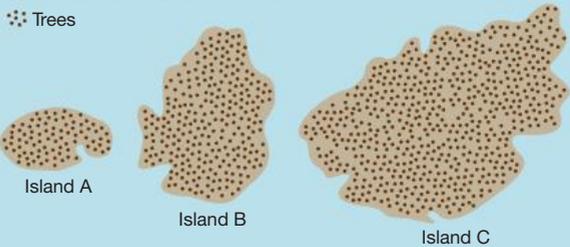


Figure 10.14 Three islands

Effects of clearing forests on the environment

The environment is all the natural things around us—plants, animals and other living things; soils and rocks; water, lakes, rivers and seas; and the weather and climate.

Cutting forests affects all parts of our environment. Our islands are small, which means that all parts of the environment are very closely connected. The effects of cutting forests are greater here than in bigger countries—the smaller the island, the greater the effects.

Before cutting forests, therefore, we must look at their value to us in providing things we need and in protecting our environment. If we do allow people to cut them, we must try to ensure it is done in ways that do least damage to the environment.

3 Logging in Solomon Islands

Activity 14



Look at Figure 10.15.

- 1 By comparing the tree with the man, say approximately how tall the tree is and how wide the trunk is at the bottom.
- 2 What is the man using to cut down the tree?



Figure 10.15 A tree being cut down in Marovo

The Use of Forests

The tree in Figure 10.15 may have taken about 70 years to grow. It took this man about 15 minutes to cut it down. In one day three men can cut down about 20 trees like this. This equates to about 1400 years of tree growth.

Activity 15



Figure 10.16 shows a truck taking logs to a **logging point** on the coast to be exported to Asia.

- 1 How many logs can you see on this truck?
- 2 Approximately how many years of tree growth might this represent?
- 3 This truck can make about four journeys each day from the forest to the logging point. Many companies have at least five trucks like this. How many trees might be cut and taken away each day by such a company?
- 4 There were 183 companies licensed to cut logs in Solomon Islands in 2008. If they were all the same size as the example above, how many trees might be cut and taken away in one day?
- 5 Trees are sometimes called a renewable resource. What do you think this means? How can they be 'renewed'? Remember what you learnt last year.



Figure 10.16 Taking logs to a logging point for export

Although trees can be renewed by planting more trees, or letting more trees grow, this takes a very long time. Useful trees take at least 30 years to grow; some take over 100 years. To find out how long our forests may last, we must look carefully at how much forest we have, how fast we are cutting it down, and how many trees we are replanting. By estimating how much forest we have left and how quickly it will grow back if we cut it down, we can estimate how many trees we can cut each year while still keeping trees for the future. This is the sustainable rate. If we cut more than this number of trees, the number of trees will slowly decline until the forest is finished. The only alternative is to replace them ourselves by replanting, but we are not doing much of that. We must also think about other uses of trees, apart from logging, and about the effect on land and water supplies if we cut down trees.

So, have we taken note of these warnings? Have we been cutting at a sustainable rate? The answer is definitely not!

The diagram in Figure 10.17 shows the sustainable rate of logging from 1963 to 2017. This is the amount that will be replaced naturally if we do not replant any trees. The sustainable rate is shown by the red dotted line. The bar graph shows the actual or 'historic' number of logs we have cut and exported up to 2010 when the graph was drawn, and the amount predicted or expected to be cut after that. If, in any year, we cut more than the sustainable rate, it means the total number of trees we have left will go down and not be replaced naturally. If we have fewer trees, the sustainable rate, or the maximum amount we should cut without destroying our forests, goes down. Eventually the sustainable rate becomes zero as we will have no more useful trees to cut.

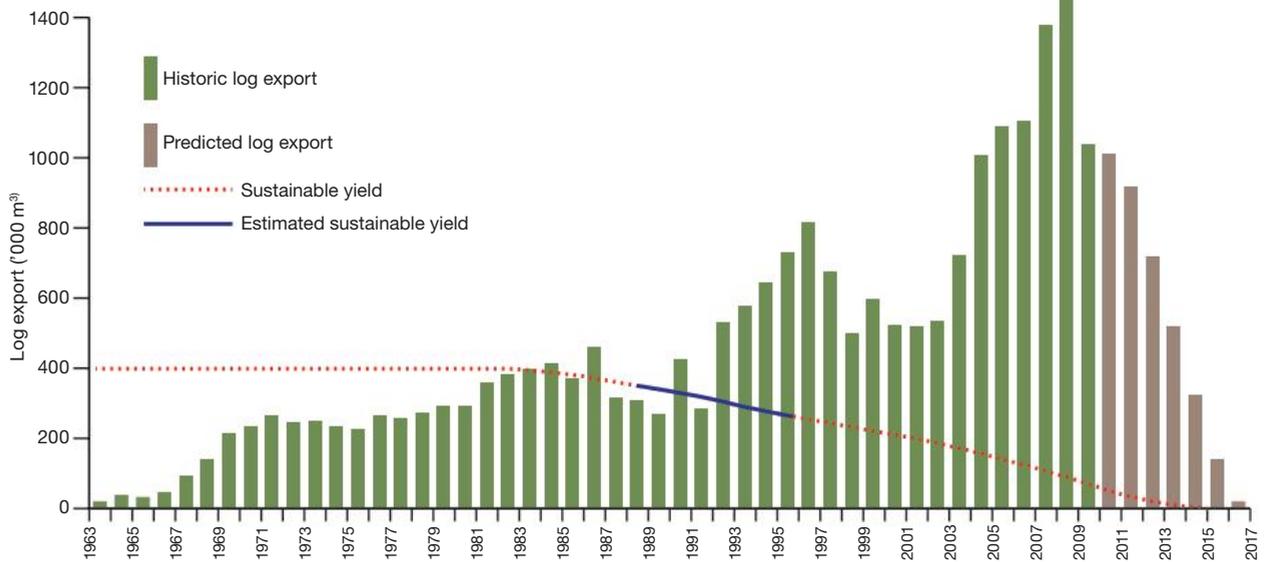


Figure 10.17 Actual and sustainable rates of logging

The sustainable rate is based on the number of trees that are accessible for logging—that is, trees in places where we can easily cut them down for sale. We also have many forests on very steep slopes, very high mountains or very small islands. These cannot be cut for sale as it would cost too much to cut or transport them and would damage the environment too much. For instance, in most places people should not cut on steep slopes above 400m or it will cause soil erosion and flooding. However, in 2011 many companies were being allowed to cut above 400m.

Activity 16



Answer the following by looking at the diagram in Figure 10.17.

- 1 In what years did we start to cut down more than would be replaced naturally?
- 2 Why did the sustainable rate start to go down after that?
- 3 In 2009, we were cutting how many times the sustainable rate?
- 4 Why does the sustainable rate reduce to zero in about 2015?
- 5 How can we continue to supply ourselves with timber after that?
- 6 Have we been using our trees wisely?
- 7 Try to check these figures for the year you use this book. Did the fall or decline in logging expected after 2011 actually occur?

One answer to question 5 is to replant trees. This can be done on a small scale by individual farmers or on a large scale in plantations. We will look at both of these later.

Why cut down forests?

If our forests are so important to us, why are we cutting them down? The simple answer is money. As you can see in Figure 10.18, many groups of people get money from cutting down trees.

Activity 17



- 1 Make a list of all the groups of people who benefit from logging.
- 2 Does your community benefit from logging? If so, how?
- 3 List the consequences to people in Solomon Islands if logging stops.

Workers: Some people earn money by working for logging companies, sawmills or the government Forestry Department.



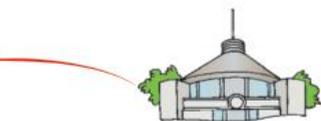
Landowners: Paid royalties by logging companies for trees to be cut down on their land.



Logging companies: Make profits by selling timber overseas or locally.



The government: Gets royalties on trees cut on government land. Gets a tax on logs exported. Gets taxes on the profits of logging companies.



Other people: Many people benefit indirectly as government spends some of the money it gets from timber on services like schools, clinics, ships.

The country: Gets foreign money or foreign exchange when logs are sold overseas. This means we can buy things we need from overseas.



Figure 10.18 Who earns money from logging

Activity 18



Figures 10.19 and 10.20 show some other reasons the government continues to encourage logging.

- 1 Look at figures 10.19 and 10.20 and answer the following:
 - a What do the graphs tell you about the importance of log exports in Solomon Islands' economy?
 - b What happened to their importance between 2000 and 2010?
 - c Compared to logs, what happened to the value of other exports during this period?
 - d What are the dangers of relying too much on one export?
- 2 Look back at figure 10.17 on page 237. According to this, what was going to happen to log exports after 2010? Try to find out if this has happened. Do we still rely so much on exporting logs? What effect has any decline in log exports had on the country?

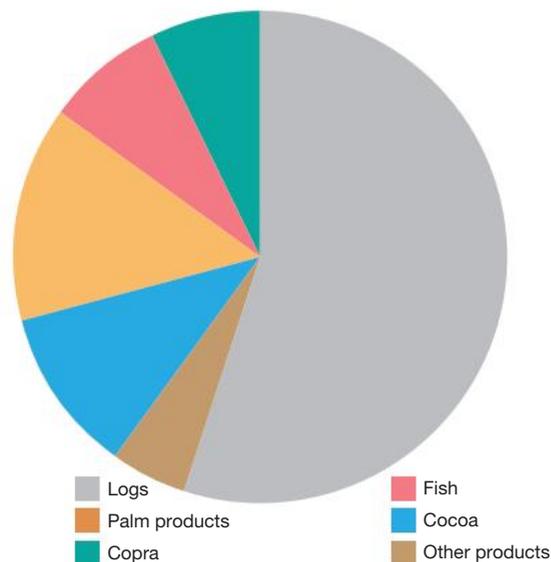


Figure 10.19 Logs were our largest export in 2010.

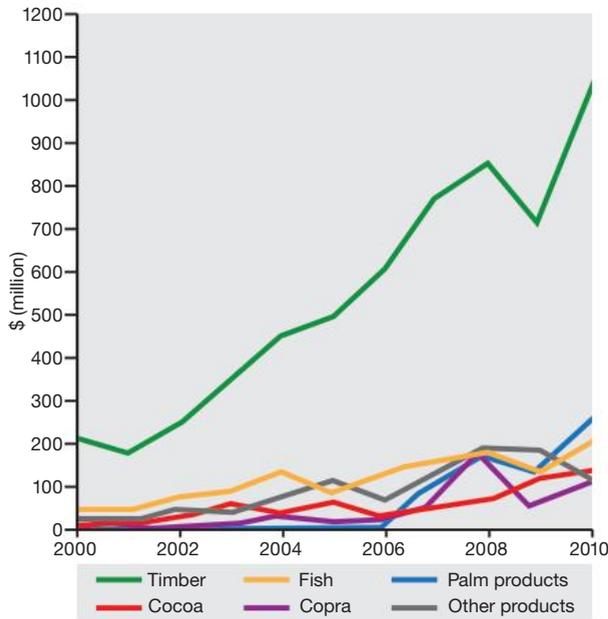


Figure 10.20 Amount and value of timber and other exports in 2000–10

As you can see, the government will have a big problem as logging income goes down, but landowners also want it to continue. Even if they realise the problems it may cause, they are tempted to sell their trees to overseas companies that offer them tens of thousands of dollars. It is ‘easy money’. Due to this, many people are tempted to take bribes—money from logging companies or others to persuade them to sell their timber or continue logging even when it is illegal. For this reason it is very difficult to stop logging.

In 2011 a group of students at a Honiara Secondary School was asked to discuss the problem of corruption in the logging industry. They created the following short drama, which illustrates one of the difficulties in stopping illegal logging.

Activity 19



Read the following drama and if possible act it out in groups. Then, answer these questions.

- 1 From this story, explain what is meant by bribery.
- 2 What does this show about why it is often difficult to stop logging?
- 3 Who benefits most from this sort of bribery and who benefits least?

Scene 1: Office of the Minister for Forests

The manager of an overseas logging company is promising one million dollars to the Minister.

Manager If you can help us get this licence we will deposit one million dollars into your bank account.

Minister I’ll certainly try my best.

Scene 2: Office of the Permanent Secretary for Forestry

Minister Permanent Secretary, if you can make sure your officials allow this company to get a licence, I can give you half a million dollars.

Permanent Secretary I’ll certainly see what I can do.

Scene 3: Office of the Provincial Premier

Permanent Secretary I can promise you that if you can persuade the Chief to allow this logging, I can give you two hundred thousand dollars. I am sure you can use that easily.

Premier I’m sure I can persuade the Chief. He’s a friend of mine and always votes for me.

Scene 4: The Chief’s house

Premier So, Chief, if you can make sure the landowners are ready to sign this agreement there will be one hundred thousand dollars to share amongst them.

Chief That sort of money should be enough to make them all sign.

Scene 5: Meeting between Chief and other landowners

Chief The premier has assured me that the logging company will pay us well. There should be ten thousand dollars for each of the five landowning groups if you will all sign.

What can we do now?

We have seen that our forests are being cut down at a non-sustainable rate and that this will have bad effects on our soils, farming, water supplies, flooding, fishing, hunting, wildlife and even our rainfall. It will also leave us without enough timber and trees to build houses and canoes and do all the other things we use it for. So what can we do about it now? Is it too late?

There are a number of things we can do.

- If your community still has some or all of its forests, they can choose to preserve them rather than having them cut down.
- You can make a plan of how to best use your forests and use parts of them in different ways.
- If you want to make money from your trees, you can cut them yourself and sell them as sawn timber rather than logs.
- If you do decide to allow a logging company to cut your trees you can:
 - Negotiate with the company to get a fair deal.
 - Make sure the company follows good logging practices rather than bad logging practices.
- We can replant trees as individuals or on plantations.
- We can use our forests in other ways such as for eco-tourism.

Each of these is explained on pages 243–51.

4 Making a choice



Figure 10.21 Vangunu in Marovo

The island of Vangunu in Marovo, Western Province, was covered with thick forest. The people on one side of the island decided to allow a company to cut their forests down partly to sell as timber and later to develop an oil palm plantation. The people on the other side decided to preserve their forests and not allow them to be cut down. Here is the story of the two sides.

Merusu logging and oil palm development

On the west side of the island, the people of Merusu area signed an agreement with a Malaysian company to develop an oil palm plantation. The company said they must cut down the forests to clear the land for the plantation. They could then export the logs from the trees they cut down and would pay the local people for the logs and then help them develop the plantation.

The story of what happened is told by Johnson Poghoso, the Assistant Personnel Officer, and Jim Akuila, Supervisor of the oil palm project.

Activity 20



Read Johnson Poghoso and Jim Akuila's story below. In groups, discuss the story and answer these questions.

- 1 Why do you think the people of Merusu agreed to the project in the first place?
- 2 Make lists of:
 - a The problems caused by the project for the people of that area.
 - b The promises made by the company that they did not carry out.
- 3 Now look at figures 10.22 and 10.23. In what ways has the logging damaged the land?
- 4 If you lived in an area with forests, would you:
 - a Preserve your forests and not let anyone log them? Why or why not?
 - b Allow a company to log, but make sure you negotiate a better agreement with them? If so, how would you do this?
 - c Cut down and sell the trees yourself? What would be the problems in doing this?

The people were very happy when they signed the agreement, as they expected jobs and money for school fees and other things. The company went ahead and cut the forests and sold the timber overseas. The local people received some money from royalties; however, the company did not carry out the agreement to develop the oil palm plantation properly. They sold seedlings to the local people who spent their royalties on buying these from the company. But the company did not help the people to plant them properly or set up the factory for processing the oil palm into oil as they had promised. So, when the oil palm was ready to harvest, there was nothing they could do with the nuts, so they rotted away. They could not send them to the

factory on Guadalcanal as oil palm nuts must be processed within 24 hours of picking, otherwise they lose their oil.

At the same time, as figures 10.22 and 10.23 show, the land where the logging took place was spoilt. Soils were eroded and streams and water supply was polluted. The people have now gone back to their traditional farming, but on soil which has lost a lot of its fertility. They no longer have timber to build houses or canoes, or forests to get bush materials or medicines, or to use for hunting.

The company had promised to build houses, an airstrip, schools and a clinic, but these were started and never finished. In 2000 the company withdrew, blaming the social tensions taking place in the country then—but this only really affected Guadalcanal. The local people are angry and believe that all this shows that the company was really only interested in logging, and when the logging was finished they left.

We have read that this often happens with companies in Malaysia. They promise an oil palm plantation only so that they are allowed to cut the timber.



Figure 10.22 Merusu during the logging



Figure 10.23 Merusu area after the logging

All of the ideas in question 4 of Activity 20 are possible, and we will look at those next. Another advantage of preserving your forests is that tourists will pay to come and see the forest and the wildlife, especially the birds in it. This is called eco-tourism and you will learn more about it in Chapter 13. In this way you may even be able to make more money than by selling your trees for logs.

Preserving your forests

In Lupa Vagunu on the other side of Vagunu, the villages of Zaira, Oloana and others refused to allow logging. Two of the leaders of the community, Reverend Gryn Jino and Hans Jino, and other people, explained why.



Figure 10.24 Hans Jino



Figure 10.25 Reverend Gryn Jino

I have been against logging since I was a primary school teacher in 1970. Our ancestors had a vision that we must keep our land and forests pure, as the land is our mother. It provides us with all the good things we need, just like our mother's milk. The virgin forest is our store of resources from which we get houses, food, medicine and honey. We need the forests to give us timber, clean water and rivers, and areas for hunting opossum. When I look at the other side of the island I am sorry. It is bare but we still have our *goanna piru* or pure forests and clear, fresh streams. There is a big difference—you can see it, hear it and smell it.

Every December, the whole village meets at Pinkela and plans how to use our resources. The whole community manages our resources. Resource management is part of our culture, not something new—we are born with it. It enables us to eat well and live well. If we decide that a certain resource is being over-used, we close it down and do not let people use it for some time. People follow this out of respect.

We do need some money and will sell some things to get it, but only in a planned way. Money is not life. What God created is what is important and we must preserve it.



Figure 10.26 Crayfish being sold at a market in Zaira. What might happen to such fish if logging took place?

As you will learn in Chapter 11, it is not only their trees the people of Zaira are trying to preserve. They are also trying to preserve their fish on the reef, with the help of **fish aggregation devices** or FADs

Activity 21



In your English lessons you have learnt how to write poems by imagining pictures or images and describing each one in a line. You have also learnt about debating. Choose one option below to complete.

- Write a poem about the good things our forests give us.
- Design a poster to attract tourists to a forested area.
- Hold a debate on the topic 'Logging and the sale of logs should be banned in Solomon Islands'.

Planning your resources

The people of Zaira plan the use of their resources each year. One way to do this is to use the mapping skills you have learnt in Social Studies to help your community draw a map showing all the resources they have, as shown



Figure 10.27 People of Zaira at the market. Compare this with Marusu in Figure 10.23.

in Figure 10.28. This will be similar to one of the maps you used when you learnt how to draw maps in Year 7.

On the map you can use a key to mark all the useful resources you have, including forests. You also need to mark features that might affect the way you plan the use of the land, such as steep slopes, rivers and water sources, watersheds and other areas where forest needs to be kept. The map must be drawn at a meeting of all the people as you also need to mark boundaries between the land of different families.



Figure 10.28 To plan your resources, you can help your community to draw a map.

Once you have done this, the community can hold a meeting, like the one they hold in Zaira every year, to plan what to do with your forests. You can also plan the use of other resources like rivers and coral reefs.

You can then decide to use different parts of your forests in different ways. These may be:

- preserving some forest areas for future farming, hunting, bush materials and medicine or for **eco-tourism**
- cutting some forest yourselves and selling it as sawn timber
- allowing a big company to log small areas if you need to get some money quickly.

Things to remember:

- The population of most areas is doubling every 20 years, so you will need a lot of extra land for farming in the future.
- You will also need timber for houses, canoes and other things in the future.
- Do not allow the forest along streams, watersheds and steep slopes to be cut.

Activity 22



Choose one option below to complete.

- If possible, help your local community to carry out a planning exercise like this. You will have to work with the local chiefs and leaders. If you are in a Community High School the school may be able to help you to do it with the local community.
- Your teacher may give you a map of an area in groups. Each group will try to make a plan for the use of the forests in the area.
- If a number of students in the class live in one area, make a map of the area showing the resources and use this map to make a plan for using them.

Cutting your own timber

The world is becoming short of timber so the value of timber goes up all the time. You will receive far more money if you cut your own timber and saw it into planks with a chainsaw and a frame, or with a portable sawmill. This is called **cubic** as it is sold in cubic metres. By sawing the timber you are adding value to it.

As you have added value to your timber, you can sell it for much more money. In 2011 the logging companies were giving landowners an average of \$85 per cubic metre for **round logs**—that is, the tree cut down and exported as it is. But you could sell sawn timber for about \$2000 per cubic metre for Akwa to \$2700 per cubic metre for Vitex, or more if you bargained at the wharf.

Of course one advantage of selling to a big company is that they do all the work, so all the money is yours. If you cut your own timber you will have to buy a chainsaw or portable mill and pay for fuel, people to do the cutting, transport and other expenses. Even then, you will still make far more money than by selling to a big company. The companies, who were paying landowners between \$55 and \$105 per cubic metre in 2011, could then sell the logs overseas for \$550 to \$1050 per cubic metre. Out of this amount the company took 60%, paid 25% in tax to the government and 15% to the landowners, out of which the organizer or negotiator for the landowners often took 5%. Although the logging companies also spend money on the logging process and transport, they still make a large profit. If you cut your own timber and sell it as sawn timber, you make that profit rather than the logging company.

Activity 23



You have 40 hectares of forest containing 32 cubic metres of timber per hectare. That equals 1280 cubic metres. Look at the following options and answer the questions:

- 1 You sell all your forest to a logging company and they cut all the trees in three years, paying you \$85 per cubic metre.
 - a How much will you receive in three years?
 - b How much will you receive after that?
- 2 You cut and saw the trees yourself. Since trees take at least 40 years to grow, you only cut one hectare per year, producing 32 cubic metres of sawn timber. You sell this for \$2 500 per cubic metre, but it cost you \$1 500 per cubic metre to buy the saw mill, petrol and other expenses. So your profit is \$1 000 per cubic metre.
 - a How much will you receive in the first three years?
 - b How much will you receive every year after that?
 - c How many years will it take you to receive more than if you sold it to the logging company?
- 3 Which is the best thing to do — sell it to a logging company or cut your own? Why?
- 4 Which is sustainable?
- 5 Why do you think many communities still sell their forests to logging companies?

There are two other important advantages of cutting your own timber:

- 1 Logging companies will cut all your forest at once, so until it re-grows in 30–50 years or more, you will have no more to sell and no income. You will also have no timber for your own use. If you cut your own timber, you can cut a small amount each year and preserve trees so you can continue to have an income and a source of timber in future. As the price of cubic is much higher, you can cut much less and still get as much income.

- 2 Some organisations overseas want to encourage us not to destroy all our forests. They will pay more for timber that is cut **sustainably**—cut in a way that preserves enough for the future and does not spoil the environment. Sam Patavangara from One, Marovo says his village learnt bad lessons when they sold half their timber to a big company. Now they sell some of the remaining timber through the **Forest Stewardship Council (FSC)**. The FSC inspect their cuttings and give it a certificate to say it has been cut sustainably, and help them to sell it at an even higher price. This is called **eco-timber**, like eco-tourism, because it is ecologically good. Ecology is the study of the environment.

If your community does decide to sell to a logging company, you can still make sure you control the logging company rather than them controlling you, as happened in Merusu.



Figure 10.29 Sam Patavangara



Figure 10.30 Cutting sustainably with a Lucas portable sawmill



Figure 10.31 Community control of logging done by big companies

5 Logging methods: How trees are cut down

Activity 24



- 1 Look at figures 10.32–10.34 and 10.36. They show the stages in cutting down trees and transporting them for sale overseas, where most Solomon Islands logs go.
 - a What kind of damage is being caused?
 - b How might this kind of damage be avoided.



Figure 10.33 Dragging a log through the forest with a skidder



Figure 10.32 Felling a tree



Figure 10.34 A collecting point

2 The map below uses contour lines, which you learnt about in Chapter 7. It shows a logging area. Each letter shows where a big tree was cut down. The dotted lines show how the trees were dragged to landing points and from the landing points to the main collecting points by skidders or bulldozers.

- a Copy the map and mark on it the places where most damage is likely to take place.
- b Suggest at least two kinds of places that loggers should not be allowed to use for cutting, landing points and skidder tracks.

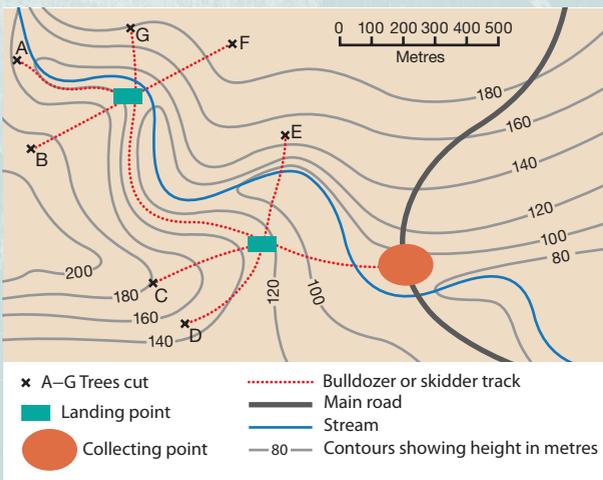


Figure 10.35 Map of a logging area



Figure 10.36 A log point for loading logs onto ships for export

3 The second map below shows alternative routes, landing points and a collecting point. By looking at the contours and the river, suggest why these routes would be less damaging.

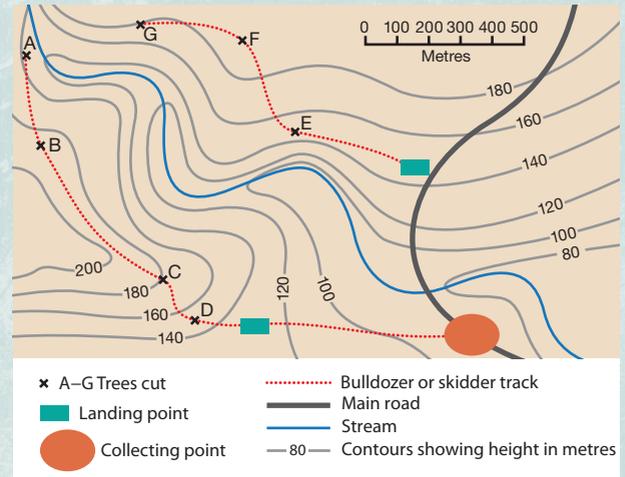


Figure 10.37 An alternative map of a logging area

The idea is to build as few tracks as possible and to avoid building steep tracks or roads by going along the sides of hills, not straight up and down. The tracks should also go towards landing points on a ridge. When rain falls on this, it will spread out away from the area, causing little damage. If the landing points are at the bottoms of valleys, the tracks leading down to them join together and channel all the water towards one area where it may cause a lot of erosion.

After the tracks are used, small drains and ridges are built across them. This stops the water running straight down the track and washing away the soil.

Other methods that can be used include:

- using light machines called **skidders**, as shown in Figure 10.33 on page 246, not heavy bulldozers
- scraping the top soil from logging points and putting it back when the company has finished



Figure 10.38 Drains and ridges

- not allowing logging within 50 metres of rivers and streams
- building proper bridges which will last when the company has gone, not just throwing logs across a stream for a bridge
- not spilling petrol and diesel on the ground
- not allowing loggers to cut useful trees like nut trees and trees used for canoes.

Types of cutting

Activity 25



Copy the diagrams in Figure 10.39 in your exercise book. Make a list of the possible advantages of selective logging and patch cutting compared to clear felling. Include the reasons the forest might grow back quicker with methods C and D. Which of these methods is most likely to be used by people cutting their own trees?

There are different ways of logging in a forest with a mixture of large and small trees, as shown in Figure 10.39.

Clear felling

Clear felling is what most companies do at present. They cut down all the large, saleable trees, and leave only the smaller ones or certain protected trees. Many of the smaller trees will also be lost or damaged by the logging, as big trees fall on top of smaller ones.

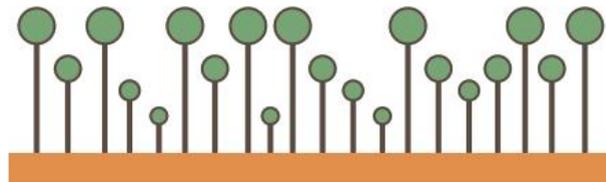
Selective logging

Some companies cut down only the most valuable trees and leave both large and small trees behind. Sometimes, however, many trees are damaged by the cutting and it is almost like clear felling.

Patch cutting

Patch cutting means cutting some areas or patches of forest and leaving others standing. It has not been used much in Solomon Islands.

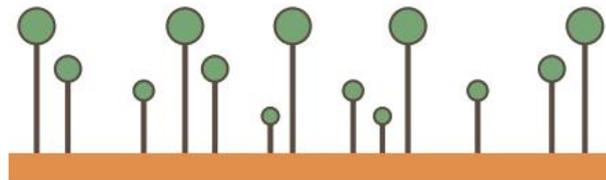
A: Original forest



B: Clear felling



C: Selective logging



D: Patch cutting



Figure 10.39 The three types of tree felling

6 Negotiating with logging companies

If selective logging or patch cutting is used, there will be much less damage to the land. However, big logging companies from overseas want to make quick profits and often don't care about our land, so we have to negotiate a legal agreement that forces them to do all these things. This is not easy, as logging companies are big and powerful and our communities are small and not used to such negotiations.

What you have learnt in this chapter should help you to negotiate better than many landowners. If you want to protect your land, an agreement must tell the company exactly what methods they must or must not use.

Landowners and companies

Activity 26



Divide into groups. Each group needs to imagine they are negotiating with a company that wants to cut trees on their land. Make a list of rules to go into an agreement with the company. The rules should force the company to use methods that protect your land from damage.

Another problem is that the customs that people from the company use in negotiations may be different from Solomon Islands' customs. This can lead to misunderstanding, especially if the company people are from overseas.

For instance, the company people will try to get the best possible agreement for the company and only do things to benefit the landowners if they are forced. If they want something, or do not like something, they will usually say so directly. They may offer presents or bribes to persuade people to support them.

By custom, many Solomon Islanders may have different methods of negotiating:

- They may try to please the other person by giving them what they think they want.
- If they want something themselves, they may say so indirectly, hoping the other person will agree.
- If they do not agree with the other person, they may be ashamed or too polite to say so directly. For instance, they may accept the price that is offered because they don't want to 'spoil' other people and think it is polite to accept an offer. They may then complain afterwards when it is too late.
- If the company gives them presents, they may think that they must sign an agreement because they have accepted the presents.
- If they are in the company's office they may be frightened by the strange place or by people with different customs.
- They may have to try to speak English, which they do not understand well.

Some of these differences are summarised in the diagram in Figure 10.39.

Negotiations

Activity 27



Divide into groups. Half of each group will take the part of a logging company and the other half landowners. The landowners will use the list of rules you drew up in Activity 26. Make up a role-play between the logging company and the landowners, based on the ideas on pages 249–50 and Figure 10.40.

Each group will make up a role-play of a meeting between the landowners and the company. The landowners must try to persuade the company to accept the rules or conditions they want in the agreement.

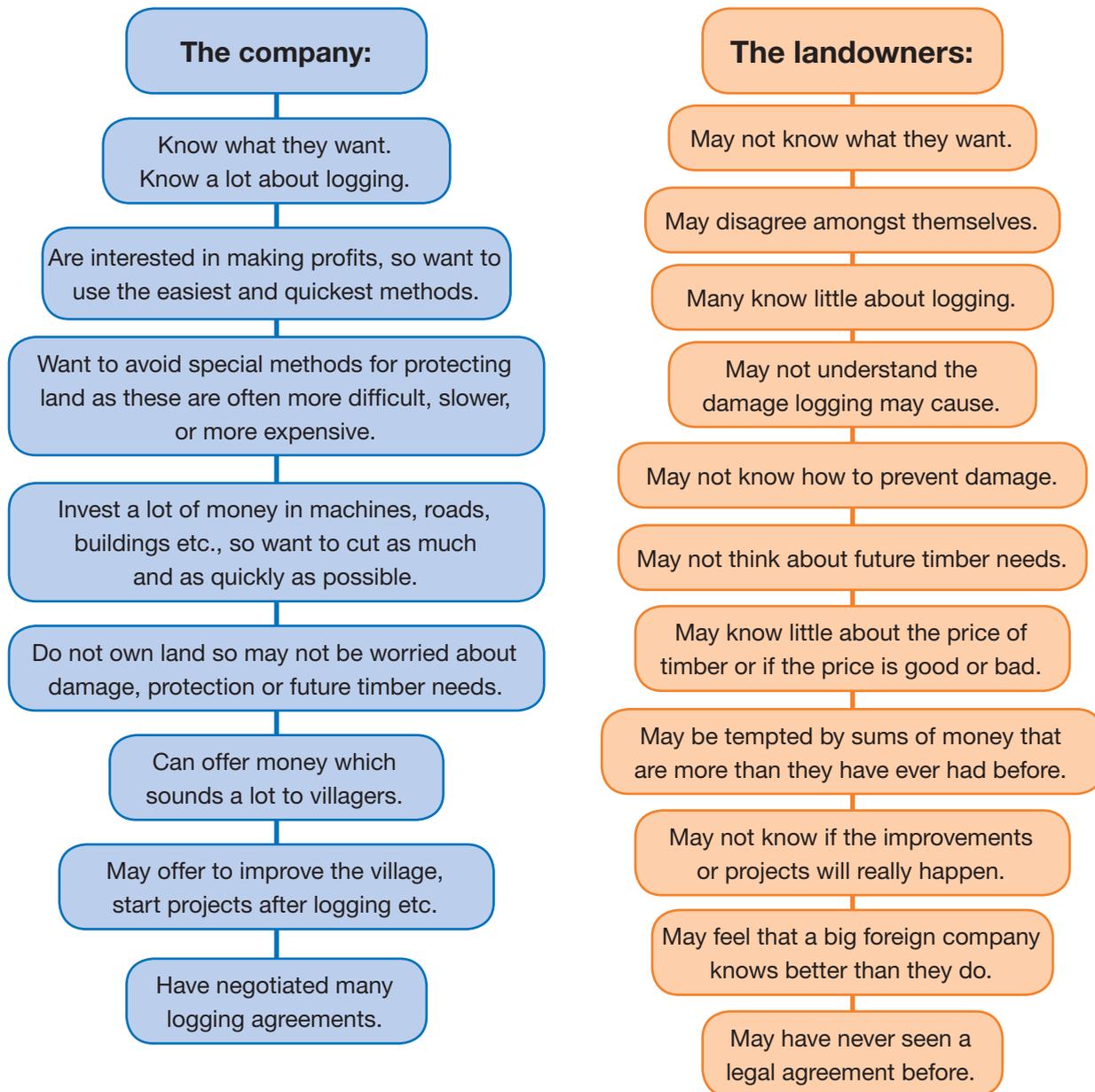


Figure 10.40 The two sides involved in negotiating a logging agreement

Final advice

Finally, read this advice about negotiating with logging companies given in the 1980s by Nicol Kuriti of Rarumana village, Wonawona, in the Western Province:

You think the companies are rich and powerful and you are poor and weak and must accept what the company says. But it is the other way round. You own the forests and the company wants to cut the forests. So you are the rich ones, because what you own is already worth a lot of money. The company can only become rich if it buys your trees and sells them at a profit. So you are also the powerful one, because you can decide whether to allow them to cut your trees or not. You know that if one company doesn't give you a good agreement you can always go to another company. If people negotiate with those ideas in their heads they will get good agreements.

7 Replanting

Whether we cut our own timber, or allow others to cut it all, our timber will eventually be used up unless we **replant** it. This means we must plant new trees to replace what we cut down. This is also called **reforestation**.

However, it is not a simple matter of replanting all the trees we cut down. First, trees take a long time to grow—30 years is a minimum for most valuable species.

Imagine you own 30 hectares of forest, and that it takes trees 30 years to grow after planting. If you start cutting and replanting now, the first replanted trees will not be ready to cut for 30 years. If you finish cutting all your original forest in less than 30 years the replanted trees will not be ready, and for a while you will have no timber.

It will be another 28 years before you have any timber again. This means you must decide how long it takes trees to grow, for instance 30 years, and share out the forest to be cut equally between the years. This means you take 30 years to cut your original forest, and by that time the first replanted trees will be ready to cut. So there will be no years when you have nothing to cut.

How much can we cut?

Activity 28



- 1 If you have 30 hectares of forest and trees take 30 years to grow, how many hectares can you cut in one year?
- 2 If you have 120 hectares, how many hectares can you cut in one year?
- 3 Write down this sentence and fill in the blanks:

To find out how much forest we can cut in one year, we can divide the number of _____? _____ of forest by the number of _____? _____ it takes a tree to grow.

For 30 hectares of forest, one hectare can be cut and replanted each year as trees take 30 years to grow.

How much should we replant?

If we are only worried about our timber supply and not about protecting the land, we do not need to replant as many hectares as we cut. In a natural forest only a few of the trees are suitable for timber. When we replant we can select trees so that they are all useful. For instance many farmers are now planting areas of **teak**, a hardwood which is valuable but grows quickly. A replanted forest such as this is called a **plantation**.

Activity 29



We can get at least three times as many cubic metres of timber from one hectare of plantation forest as we can from one hectare of natural forest. How many hectares of plantation do we have to replant to replace 30 hectares of natural forest?

Agro-forestry

Many farmers are now regarding trees as a normal crop and combining these with planting other crops. This is called **agro-forestry** and you will learn about this in Agriculture.

8 What can YOU do?

In many areas it is too late to save our original forests, but we will still need timber in future. One thing YOU can do is to encourage any

community you are part of—including your family, village, school or church—to replant trees. If everyone in Solomon Islands planted one tree each year, that would be 500 000 new trees. We would begin to replace what we have cut down and make sure we can still build our timber houses in future. The year 2011 was the International Year of Forests. The Pacific Commission started a project to encourage all local communities, especially in Solomon Islands, to replant trees, especially those that grow quickly and produce good timber, including teak, mahogany and eucalyptus.

Find out about this from the Forestry Department in your Province, or encourage your teachers, chiefs, community and church leaders to find out about it—or just go ahead and help them to plant more trees.

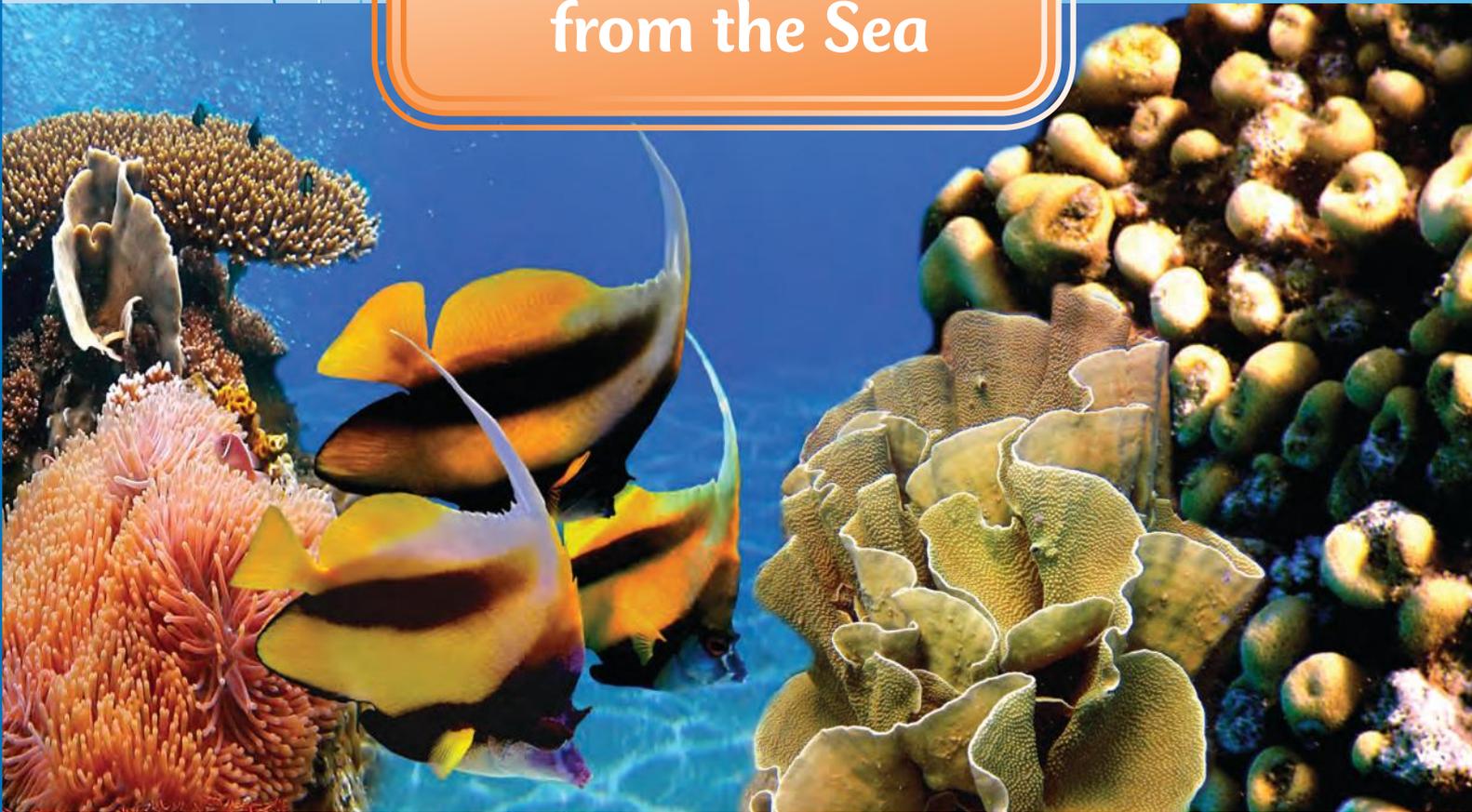
If everyone who reads this book did some replanting or encouraged others to replant, we could really make a difference.

Glossary

- agro-forestry** planting trees as well as crops
- biodiversity** the large mixture of different plants and animals and other living things found, especially in natural areas not used by people
- bribe** give money to someone so they let you do something, or you do something for them, usually something wrong or illegal
- clear felling** cutting down all the trees in an area
- corruption** using your official position to gain money, jobs, contracts or other things that you are not legally entitled to for yourself and others
- cubic** local name for sawn timber sold by the cubic metre
- eco** joined to other words, often to mean concern for the environment
- ecological** concerned with the relationship between living things and their environment
- eco-timber** timber cut in a way that does not spoil the environment and is sustainable
- eco-tourism** tourism that attracts visitors who will pay to come and see natural things like forests, animals, birds, coral reefs, etc.
- endemic** plants, animals or other living things only found in that place and nowhere else
- fish aggregation devices** rafts put into the sea that attract deep-water fish like tuna
- foreign exchange** foreign money from overseas paid for our exports, which we can then use to buy goods from overseas
- humus** the remains of dead plants, which provide fertility to the soil
- illegal** against the law
- leaching** washing or dissolving away the nutrients from the soil
- log or round log** a trunk or branch of a tree that has not been sawn into timber or processed
- logging point** a place where all the logs are brought to be sold or exported
- logging** cutting down trees, often for sale as round logs which are not cut or processed
- nutrients** plant foods
- orchard** an area of planted trees used for fruit, medicine, etc.
- patch cutting** cutting trees in a small area, then leaving areas uncut
- replanting or reforestation** replanting trees in areas where they have been cut down
- royalties** money given to landowners for their trees by the companies who cut them
- sap** the sticky liquid that comes out of the wood and bark of trees
- sawn timber** trees or logs that are sawn into flat pieces or planks
- secondary forests** forests that grow after the original forest has been cleared or cut down
- selective logging** only cutting down some useful trees
- skidder** a machine that drags logs through the forest
- species** a certain type of plant or animal
- sustainable rate** a rate that can be continued forever
- unique** different from all others; only found in one place
- virgin forest** a natural forest that has never been cut down
- watersheds** high areas of land between river valleys from which much of the water in rivers flows

Chapter 11

Using Resources from the Sea



My goals:

- to know what is meant by sea and marine resources
- to appreciate the need to look after our sea and marine resources
- to know the main types of sea and marine resources in Solomon Islands and where they are found
- to know the main types of fishing used in Solomon Islands and the advantages and disadvantages of each
- to understand how marine resources were looked after traditionally
- to understand how we can conserve and preserve our sea and marine resources
- to have formed opinions about how we can conserve our sea and marine resources for future generations

1 How do we use resources from the sea?

Activity 1



- 1 Have you ever been fishing? Where did you go? How did you fish? What types of fish did you catch?
- 2 Have you ever collected other useful things from the sea? What were they?
- 3 Make a list of all the useful things or resources we can get from the sea.
- 4 Explain the methods by which we can get those sea resources.
- 5 Do you still use traditional methods of fishing in your own area?
- 6 Explain one traditional method of fishing that your people used in the past, which is not used today.
- 7 How would shortage of sea resources affect your living or the living of people in a village area you know?
- 8 How would a shortage affect people in towns?
- 9 What can cause a shortage of sea resources?



Figure 11.1 Fish are a valuable marine resource.

Activity 2



To help you answer the last question, read and discuss the story below, written by Witi Ihimaera, a famous Maori writer from New Zealand. Then answer these questions.

- 1 What is *kai moana*?
- 2 What types of *kai moana* do we get in Solomon Islands?
- 3 People went to the reef to collect food. What else did they enjoy about the reef, apart from collecting the food?
- 4 What caused the problem on the reef?
- 5 Why did the old woman cry out a *tangi*?
- 6 What message is this story trying to tell us?
- 7 Do you know any areas where the reefs or other parts of the sea have been spoilt by pollution or any other things?
- 8 What pollutes the sea apart from chemicals from farming?
- 9 Why is the message of the story important for Solomon Islands?

As you read the rest of this chapter you will see that this story is an important warning for us.

The Pupu Pool by Witi Ihimaera

When we were young our favourite food was *pupus*. *Pupus* are sea food or *kai moana*. They are known as ‘cat’s eyes’ and are shell fish which feed on sea weed. You can tell them easily because they have a shell like a snail and a round green button at the hole of the shell which looks like a cat’s eye. My sisters and I looked for *pupus* in a very special place on the reef which we called the *pupu* pool. We put them in a small pot of water and boiled them. To get them out of the shell you had to slip a safety pin under the green button of the cat’s eye and twist it around. The *pupu* coiled easily out of the shell to curl into our mouths.

Mmmm. *Pupu* after *pupu* until they were all gone and only a heap of empty shells were left.

Our parents and sisters would be eating other food from the reef like *kinas*, or sea urchins with sharp spikes; *pauas* which live in beautiful shiny shells; and small pipi shells.

To collect these we would all go down to the reef in our old truck. If it was a sunny day, the reef would already be crowded with people looking for *kai moana*. They would wave and shout to us and we would hurry to join them, pulling on our shoes to protect our feet from the reef, grabbing our sacks to put the catch in and running down to the sea.

‘Don’t you kids come too far out’, Dad would yell. He would already be way ahead of us with his knife to pull the *pauas* and *kinas* from the reef. Sometimes Dad would put on a diving mask. It made it easier for him to see under water.

As for Mum, she liked nothing better than to wade out to where some women were. Then she could gossip with them while looking for sea food.

My sisters and I went straight for the *pupu* pool. It was long but not very deep. The reef surrounding it was fringed with long waving sea weed. Small transparent fish swam among the waving leaves and little crabs scurried across the floor of the pool. The *pupus* glided calmly along the sides of the reef.

Once we saw a starfish inching its way into a dark crack. But our most beautiful discovery was a delicate sea horse dancing amongst the sea weed and riding the swirls of the sea current. My sisters and I wanted to take it home.

‘If you take it from the sea it will die,’ Dad told us. ‘Leave it here in its own home, for the sea gives it life and beauty.’

And Dad went on, giving us our first lesson about treating the sea with *aroha* or love and respect.

‘Kids, you must take from the sea only the *kai* that you need and only the amount you need to please your bellies. If you take more, then it is waste. Why waste food? Best to leave it in the sea for when you will need it next time. The sea is good to us, it gives us *kai* to eat. As long as we respect it, it will continue to favour us. If you lift a stone from its lap as you search for shell fish, return the stone to where it was. Try not to break pieces of the reef, for it is the home of many *kai moana*. And do not leave litter behind you when you leave the sea.’

Our father, he taught us to respect the sea and to have reverence for the life held in its waters. As we collected *pupus*, we would remember his words. And whenever the sea horse peeped shyly at us from behind a curtain of sea weed, we felt glad that we had left it in the pool to delight us.

One day we went again to the reef. We were in a happy mood. The sun was shining and its beams were skipping like bright stones across the water.

But when we got to the reef it was empty. There were no people dotting the sea with their sacks, and no loud calls of welcome from them.

Dad frowned. He saw our friends and relations staring out towards the reef.

‘Something’s wrong,’ he said.

He stopped the truck and we walked with him towards the people. They were silent and sad.

‘Is there a shark out there?’ Dad asked.

Someone pointed to a sign. It had been put up during the night. Dad pushed through the crowd to read it.

‘What does it say, Dad?’ I asked.

His hands were clenched like a boxers and his eyes were angry. Then his hands unclenched and his eyes became sad.

‘It says that it is dangerous to take sea food from the reef.’

‘Why, Dad?’

2 Sea or marine resources

‘They’ve been spraying the farms along the river with chemicals and it has washed down into the sea. The sea is polluted. If we eat the sea food we may get sick.’

My sisters and I were silent for a while.

‘No more *pupus*, Dad?’

‘No more, son.’

‘And the sea horse, Dad? Will it be alright?’

‘I don’t know, son.’

We walked back to the truck. Behind us an old woman began to cry out a *tangi* or mourning song for the reef. It was a very sad song for such a beautiful day. While she was singing Dad stopped and bowed his head. When the *tangi* finished he whispered: ‘We’ve been unkind to the sea. We have poisoned the land and now we feed our poison into the water. We have lost our *arofa* or love and respect for the sea and our respect for its life.’

He started the truck. We turned homeward.

In my mind I caught a picture of *pupus* crawling amongst polluted rocks. I saw a starfish covered in dangerous chemicals.

And flashing through waving sea weed was a beautiful sea horse, delicate and shining, searching desperately for clean and clear waters.

From *New Zealand School Journal*,
part 3, no. 3, 1974

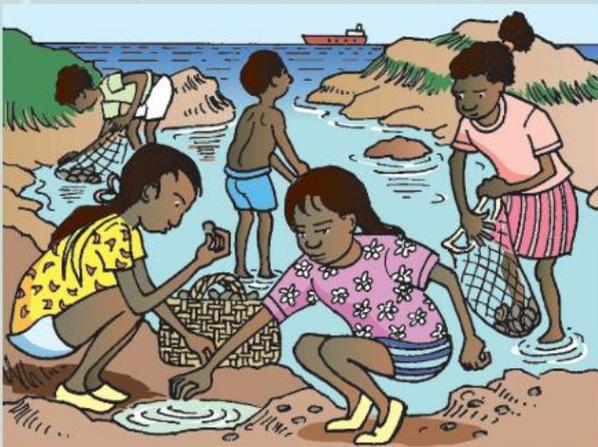


Figure 11.2 Collecting *kai moana*

Sea or marine resources are things that are found in the sea that are important, valuable or useful to people. **Marine** simply means anything to do with the sea. These resources include things such as reef fish, deep-sea fish, shells, lobsters, corals, *beche-de-mer*, sea grass, sea weed and other marine living things. These include all the *kai moana*. We also use non-living things from the sea such as sand and gravel.

In Solomon Islands, our **marine environment** consists of all the living and non-living things found in the sea. As a result, many Solomon Islanders today are involved in collecting and using sea resources. The methods of doing so range from simple methods, such as the collection of trochus on a reef, to much more difficult methods, such as catching tuna from a large fishing vessel.



Figure 11.3 Marine resources in Solomon Islands

Activity 3

Suggest reasons most Solomon Islanders are involved more in fishing than in collecting other sea resources.



Types of sea or marine resources

Marine or sea resources can be living or non-living and renewable or non-renewable.

Activity 4



Work in groups.

- 1 List four examples of sea resources in your area that are used daily by your people.
- 2 Give two examples of marine or sea resources in your area that are reducing in numbers.
- 3 How would you ensure that these do not decline further?
- 4 List two examples of sea resources that can renew themselves naturally.
- 5 What may make it more difficult for these resources to renew themselves?
- 6 Give one example of a sea resource that cannot be renewed.

Marine living resources

Marine living resources are the living things of the sea that can always be harvested. They are renewable resources—they can be replaced once they have been used. Usually they will renew themselves but only if we use them wisely. For example, if we are to catch big fish on the reefs, we must be careful not to catch the small fish and harm other small animals, which need to grow for a later harvest. If we **over-harvest** or catch too many of any species at one time, they may slowly reduce in numbers and become harder to catch.

Marine non-living resources

These resources include the sand and gravel from beaches and other minerals, such as copper or gold on the surface of the seabed and oil beneath it. These non-living things can be

called non-renewable resources, which means when they are used up, they cannot be replaced.

Activity 5



Work in groups.

- 1 Why was over-harvesting of marine resources not a problem in the past?
- 2 Why has it become more of a problem now? Give two reasons we are harvesting more marine resources than we did in the past.
- 3 List five benefits of marine resources to the people of Solomon Islands.

2 Where are marine resources found?

Different types or species of fish or other marine animals live in different types of environments. Some species live in inshore areas such as **estuaries** and lagoons, while others live on coral reefs or offshore in the open sea.



Figure 11.4 The Great Barrier Reef in Australia is one of the largest in the world.

Activity 6



From your own knowledge and experience and from what you learnt last year, list at least three marine resources we obtain from each of the following areas:

- estuaries, lagoons and mangrove areas
- coral reefs
- deep, open sea.

Estuarine and shoreline resources

Estuarine areas are areas where fresh water meets with the sea water at the mouths of large rivers, as you learnt in Year 7. They support the growth of specialised trees called mangroves. Mangroves live halfway between the land and the sea, with their roots in an alternating environment of sea water and fresh water from the land.

In some of the shallow water of lagoons along our coasts, especially in sandy areas, there are extensive underwater areas of grass-like marine plants, known as sea grass. Both mangroves and sea grass provide shelter and food for many different animals. These include young species of some animals such as prawns that grow there before going out into the deep water. Other species, such as mullet, come into the mangroves to breed and many larger fish visit inshore areas to feed on smaller species. Also in estuarine and shoreline areas there is sand and gravel from our beaches.

In some places, like Wagina in Choiseul, people are now making a lot of money by harvesting, drying and selling sea weed.



Figure 11.5 Mangrove resources

Coral reefs

Coral reefs provide food and shelter for a greater variety of living things than most other natural areas of the world.

Activity 7



In Year 7, you learnt about coral reefs. Remember what you learnt by answering the following in groups:

- 1 Give one example each of the three types of coral reefs in Solomon Islands.
- 2 List two human activities that occur on the reefs that threaten the existence of the resources.
- 3 In what two other ways do people use coral apart from collecting fish and shell fish on the reefs?

3 Offshore marine resources

Unlike inshore environments, the open sea contains much smaller numbers of different species of fish and other marine animals, such as snapper, tuna, spanner crabs and deep-water shrimp.

The open ocean does not have a lot of food for fish. Much of the fish food which is there actually comes from close to land—among the corals, mangroves and sea grasses. If there were no corals or mangroves growing in shallow waters of our island shores then there would not be a tuna industry in ocean waters and there would be many fewer fish, shellfish, crabs, *beche-de-mer* and other living resources.



Figure 11.6 Deep-water fish



Figure 11.7 Taiyo base, Noro

Activity 8



- 1 Tuna (bonito) is an important type of fish. Our open sea has a good stock of it and it has contributed well to our country's economy. Use the information below to copy and complete the table that follows.

Solomon Taiyo Company, now known as Soltai Fishing and Processing Ltd, is the only large scale fishing company in Solomon Islands. It was established in 1973 by the Solomon Islands government with the help of a Japanese Company called Taiyo Gyogyo. The purpose of this company was to fish for tuna using large-scale methods of fishing within the Solomon seas. The Solomon seas have five main tuna species: Skip Jack, Yellow fin, Big Eye, Albacore and Southern Blue. Out of these the Skip Jack tuna has the highest stock. In Solomon Islands, the tuna industry is an income-earning sector that has contributed up to 30% of the national and government income through its products, which are sold internally and to other countries like Thailand, Philippines and others in Europe. Today, the industry is still operating and its headquarters are at Noro, in the Western Province. However, the Japanese company, Taiyo, withdrew during the period of Tension you will learn about in Chapter 14.

The company still uses the name but by 2011 was owned by the Western Province (10%); the Solomon Islands government through its Investment Corporation (10%); the Solomon Islands National Provident Fund (29%); and Tri-marine, a company from the Philippines (51%). Taiyo used to own fishing boats but in 2011 they no longer had any and relied on buying tuna from another Solomon Islands government company, National Fisheries Developments (NFD). They had five purse seine vessels and three-pole-and-line vessels and were building more pole-and-line in 2011. As we will see, pole-and-line is considered better for the environment as it only takes the fish you actually need.

Company name	?
Headquarters	?
Original owner	?
Present owners	?
Types of tuna	?
Main type of tuna in Solomons	?
Who catches tuna?	?
Importance to income	?
Countries for export	?

- 2 List the ways in which ordinary people of Solomon Islands benefit from having Taiyo Company here. Think of other ways apart from what you have just read.
- 3 What may be the benefits if the company is partly owned by Solomon Islands' government?
- 4 Why may Solomon Islands find it hard to run the company without some outside help?
- 5 Which is better: to catch tuna and sell them directly to overseas countries or to have a factory that puts them into tins and sells the tinned fish overseas? Give reasons.

4 Use of marine resources

From the time of the arrival of its people, the sea environment and its resources have been an important part of life in Solomon Islands.

There are two ways in which the sea resources have been used:

- 1 **subsistence fishing**
- 2 **commercial fishing.**

This is similar to subsistence farming and cash or commercial farming, as you learnt in Year 7.

Subsistence fishing is when marine or sea resources are used as food rather than for sale, although it may include the sale of the surplus. This type of fishing is common to nearly all Solomon Islanders in coastal rural areas.

Commercial fishing involves some of our resources that have commercial value and sell well in our local markets and overseas markets. This type of fishing can also be subdivided into **artisanal fishing**—usually small-scale fishing to supply our local markets—and **industrial fishing**—large-scale fishing for species such as tuna and deep-water snapper, often to supply overseas markets.

Over the last few years, there have been reports that some of our resources could be diminishing due to over-harvesting. There is a real need to manage our resources sustainably so that they can be of use to us at present and for future generations.



Figure 11.8 A commercial fishing boat owned by the National Fisheries Division

5 Methods of fishing

There are many methods of fishing—some are traditional and some modern. Each uses different types of fishing gear. The fishing gear and methods used depend on the marine species fished. Methods vary from very simple techniques, such as the collection of lobsters by divers to complex and expensive operations such as purse seining to catch tuna. Subsistence fishermen use a large range of simple fishing or harvesting gear.

Activity 9



Individually or in groups:

- 1 List four examples of marine species that are in high demand and are harvested at a high rate in your area or areas you know of.
- 2 How would switching from subsistence fishing to commercial fishing affect the rate of harvesting?
- 3 Give two examples of traditional uses of the sea that are still practised today.
- 4 Give two examples of small-scale or artisanal fishing and one example of large-scale industrial fishing in Solomon Islands.
- 5 In groups, discuss the advantages and disadvantages of the three types of fishing: subsistence, small-scale commercial (artisanal) and large-scale commercial (industrial). Copy the table and fill it in with your ideas. Add ideas from other groups.

Types of fishing	Advantages	Disadvantages
Subsistence fishing	?	?
Small-scale commercial (artisanal)	?	?
Large-scale commercial (industrial)	?	?



Figure 11.9 Traditional spearfishing in Malaita (circa 1910)

Small-scale methods

Activity 10



Work in groups:

- 1 In your own words explain the difference between traditional and modern methods of fishing.
- 2 Copy the table on page 263. Fill in the good and bad points of each method, including how destructive it is and whether it will help to preserve the fish. Add any more methods not mentioned in the table.
- 3 Why are some traditional methods of fishing no longer in use? Are they good ways for capturing fish? Which methods are more destructive and which preserve fish better: modern or traditional?

Small-scale fishing includes both traditional methods, such as fishing lines and nets, and modern introduced methods used on a small scale, such as dynamite or rubber/spear diving.

Types of small-scale fishing methods	Traditional or modern?	Advantages and disadvantages
Gill nets	?	?
Traditional fishing nets	?	?
Use of dynamite	?	?
Rubber/spear diving	?	?
Poison bush ropes	?	?
Collecting shells/fish on the reefs	?	?
Fishing lines	?	?
Traditional fish fences	?	?
Traditional fish basket traps	?	?
Fish net scoops pushed along reef	?	?
Using lights and small nets to catch flying fish at night	?	?
Spearing fish	?	?

Large-scale methods

Purse seining

A **purse seine** is a special net used to catch large amounts of tuna. Figure 11.11 on page 264 shows how purse seining works. The net can be 2 kilometres (km) long and hangs from the surface of the sea down to a depth of 150 metres. Long, strong strings pass through its bottom edge. These strings can be pulled in by winches or wheels on a purse seiner boat to close the net at the bottom. In this way, if a fishing master can set the seiner net around a school of tuna, the net can be drawn in at the bottom to close off the only escape route for the encircled fish. The biggest of the purse seiners—so called ‘super seiners’—carry a helicopter aboard, which is used to search for tuna schools.

This type of fishing is very effective, but the boats are very expensive. The main problem with purse seining is that it may take too many tuna (the whole school) and a lot of other fish, so it is wasteful and may lead to overfishing, with few fish left for the future.



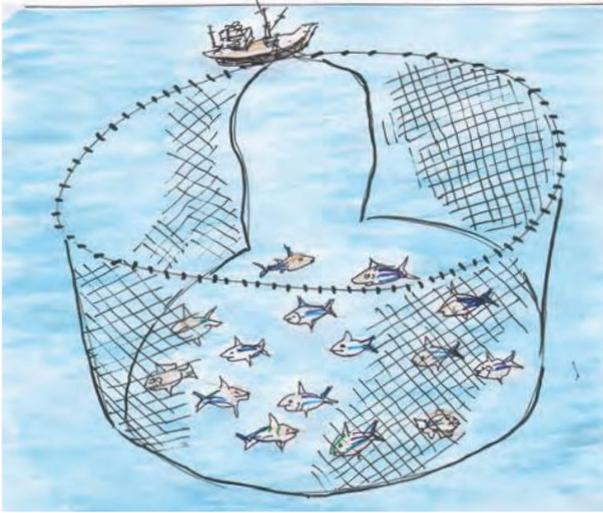
Figure 11.10 A purse seiner

Activity 11



- 1 Do you think purse seining is destructive or non-destructive? What effect is it likely to have on fish stocks?
- 2 Name three types of fish that are not tuna that you think could be accidentally caught by the purse seining nets. What do you think they do with these non-tuna fish caught in the nets?

The purse seiner finds a shoal of fish and spreads a net out around it.



The net is pulled tight using strings, trapping the fish. The net is pulled up into the ship.



Figure 11.11 How a purse seiner works

Pole-and-line fishing

Some tuna boats use a method called **pole-and-line** fishing, which is more like traditional fishing with a rod and line. A short line is attached to a bamboo pole. A shiny silver hook, with white feathers tied around it, is tied to the line. No **bait** is fixed to it. The ship's captain then sails until he or she spots a school of tuna and then sails into it. About 30 fishermen then throw small live fish as a bait into the water amongst the tuna. They then throw their lines into the water and the fish, excited to see all the live bait fish, bite at anything, including the hooks with feathers, which look like small fish. When one of the men feels a pull on their line, he raises the pole with the fish on the end and throws the fish into the ship. He puts his line back into the water very quickly. The catch depends on how long the school of fish stays near the catcher boat. This may be from a few minutes to 40 minutes and the catch may be from a dozen fish to ten tonnes—enough to provide a good meal for the whole of Honiara! The fish is packed in ice and after a few days brought back to Noro or taken overseas to be processed, either frozen or put into cans.

One benefit local people get from this fishing is that the boats may catch the bait fish in the lagoons and mangrove areas near shore, especially in Marovo and Roviana lagoons, and



Figure 11.12 Pole and line fishing

they have to pay the local people for the bait fish they catch. This is also a better method because it catches a limited number of fish, which you actually need and use, and so it conserves the rest for the future.

6 Looking after our sea resources

Activity 12



To manage means to look after something.

- 1 Whose responsibility was it to manage our marine resources traditionally?
- 2 Whose responsibility is it today? In what ways have things changed?
- 3 Why is it important to manage our present marine resources?

Traditional management: The Solomons way

Activity 13



Read the text on pages 265–6 about traditional management in Solomon Islands. Discuss the ideas in groups, then answer these questions.

- 1 Describe the method of ownership of the sea and its resources that was practised in the past in Solomon Islands. Ask the older people in your area if these methods of ownership were used there.
- 2 Ask the older people if it is as easy to catch fish or gather other sea resources today as it was in the past. Ask them why they think things have changed.

- 3 What do the terms 'primary rights' and 'secondary rights' mean?
- 4 How did Solomon Islanders in the past make sure the sea resources were being used sustainably?
- 5 Explain how privilege and obligation were an important part of the management of sea resources in the past.
- 6 If your school is near an area with fishermen, your teacher will help you to make up a questionnaire to ask older people how fishing has changed and why. Ask about how many fish are caught as well as the way people manage or control the fishing or other marine resource areas. Look at the results of the questionnaire and write a paragraph about 'Changes in fishing in the last 50 years'.
- 7 What changes today do you think may have led to changes in the way people use and manage sea resources? What were sea resources used for in the past? Are some used for different reasons today?

The traditional custom of the Solomon Islands is that anyone is free to fish on the open sea, but that the shallow coastal waters of the reefs and lagoons belong to particular groups of people in the same way that land does. These same groups are responsible for the **management** of the sea and lagoon areas.

This form of ownership and management is very different from that of the British who first governed Solomon Islands. They and others from Europe believed that the sea was owned by no particular person or group—anyone could fish anywhere without asking permission (except that a government licence would be needed for commercial fishing). Fishing for fun and family is free, but the government controls fishing for business.

Solomon Islanders' rights are usually shared within groups of relatives. The right to use

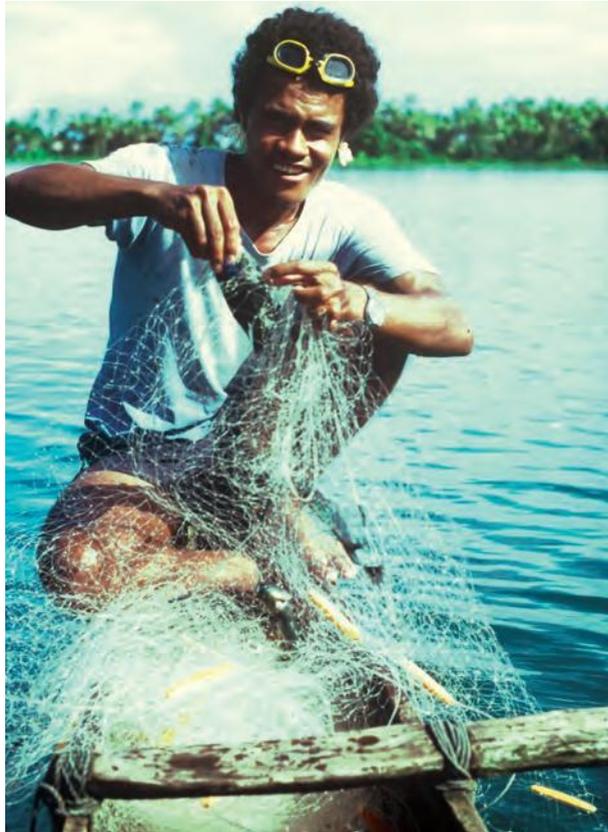


Figure 11.13 Fishing in a canoe

the sea is inherited from ancestors. An area is controlled and managed by a group of people who share the same ancestors, either through a line of fathers and sons (called patrilineal) or a line of mothers and daughters (called matrilineal). You learnt about this in Home Economics in Year 7. The people who inherit rights in this way are said to have primary rights or first rights. Those local people who are not part of the primary rights group will also have a right to fish in the same area. These people are said to have secondary rights. This group of people has no say in deciding who else can be allowed to fish there. However, these people may have primary rights somewhere else.

In traditional management, when sea resources are found to be running low, the leaders of the primary rights group can stop people from fishing until more fish breed and grow big.

This is the sustainable use of resources. They can be used indefinitely in this way.

When necessary, some people may be asked to move elsewhere to live. In the past this flexible system of sea-and-land use conserved natural resources and distributed them according to people's needs

It is very important to understand that the traditional management of sea resources in our country involves both a **privilege**—the right to use these resources—and an **obligation**—a promise to care for the sea environment and its resources.

No matter what part of Solomon Islands we come from, custom thinking about resources of the sea is that they are a gift handed down to us by ancestors—and that we have only borrowed them, to use carefully for our needs and then pass them on, in good condition, to our descendants.

Today's management

If you completed question 6 in Activity 13, you probably found out that fishing is not as easy today as it was in the past. Many people complain they spend much longer fishing but catch far fewer fish. This shows that the amount

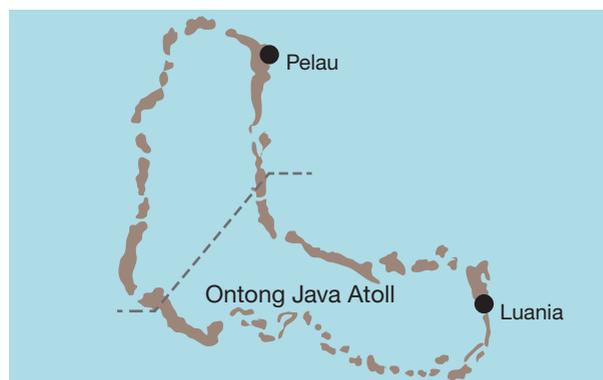


Figure 11.14 The people of Ontong Java have strong customs about who owns and can use the sea resources because their whole life depends on them.

of fish in the sea is probably decreasing because we are not using our fish and other marine resources in a sustainable way. There are probably four main reasons for this:

- 1 *Population growth.* Every year our population increases so we need more fish, and more people go fishing.
- 2 *Small-scale commercial fishing.* These days many people fish not just to feed their families but to sell extra fish. Once fish become a cash product we will try to catch more and more fish. The money will tempt us not to worry if the fishing is sustainable.
- 3 *Large-scale commercial fishing.* This catches and uses up far more fish than before. Many of these fish are deep-sea fish, whereas traditionally we relied more on reef fish. However, the deep-sea fishermen also catch small fish near the shore for bait.



Figure 11.15 Selling fish at a market

- 4 *Large-scale foreign fishing boats.* There are now many large fishing boats from other countries, especially those bordering the Pacific, but also from Europe. Most of these are purse seiners that can catch far more fish than any traditional fishing method.

This means we are no longer just supplying the needs of our own local communities but the needs of people living in towns and people in big countries overseas. This is bound to reduce the amount of fish we have.

This is also true of other marine resources. In many areas it is now difficult to find a trochus shell. The export of *beche-de-mer* was banned because stocks were running out, and coconut crabs are now rare in many places.



Figure 11.16 *Beche-de-mer*

Activity 14



What we do on land can also affect our fisheries, as you learnt in the story by Witi Ihimaera and as you have learnt in previous chapters this year and last. In groups, discuss and suggest how the following can affect fishing and other marine resources:

- 1 the use of chemicals in farming
- 2 large-scale logging
- 3 shortage of land for growing food
- 4 the growth of larger towns.

Using Resources from the Sea

Nowadays, in our local communities, people are becoming more aware of the need to manage their sea environment. This is because both non-government organisations (NGOs)—such as Solomon Islands Development Trust (SIDT) and Live and Learn—and the government departments of Environment and Fisheries have begun to warn people that we are using our resources too quickly.

The aim is to reduce or contain the amount of fishing or to prevent the capture of small, undersized resources.

There are fisheries regulations to:

- prevent the harvesting of undersized marine species such as trochus shells, fish, sea turtles, *beche-de-mer* and crayfish. People who are found harvesting these protected marine species will be taken to court.
- prevent the use of certain practices of fishing. This includes the use of **dynamite** and **gill nets** to catch fish. Dynamite is often obtained from old World War II bombs and can explode and injure the person using it.
- conserve endangered species, such as the leather-back turtles and others, by banning their capture.

Today some communities still use traditional management and conservation to restrict people from fishing for a period of time. Others still use traditional methods of fishing that are less destructive to marine life.

The need to care for and manage our marine resources very much depends on each community. As individuals, it is our responsibility to manage our coastal environment so that it can be of use to us today and to others in the future.



Figure 11.17 Map of Marovo Lagoon, Western Province

Activity 15



- 1 Explain what happens in any place you know where there is a traditional or modern restriction preventing people from fishing or collecting marine resources.
- 2 In groups, draw a poster to educate our local fishermen and women on how to harvest our resources in a sustainable way.

7 Sustainable use of marine resources

Sustainable use of marine resources means taking good care of our marine resources for future generations. We can do this by using them wisely. This means that we don't use them faster than they can renew themselves, or we replace those we have used.

Activity 16



- 1 What are some of the things that are happening today that make it difficult to keep to sustainable fisheries development.
- 2 Read the following case study of Marovo Lagoon and answer the questions that follow.

CASE STUDY

Marovo Lagoon

Marovo Lagoon is a 700-square km coral reef and lagoon. It has been nominated as a World Heritage area because it is the world's largest double barrier-reef lagoon. While most lagoons have one coral reef acting as a barrier between the ocean and the coast, Marovo has two at its southern end. The barrier reefs protect its eastern side, and the volcanic islands of Nggatokae, Vangunu and New Georgia protect its western side. You learnt about one part of the lagoon, Vagunu, in the last chapter.

About 11 000 people live in the 140 villages along the shores of the whole lagoon. The lagoon and rainforest provide its inhabitants with food, medicine, and raw materials for houses and canoes. Traditional land tenure in the area allows the people of a *butubutu* to control an area or *puava* from the top of the mountains to the open sea beyond the barrier reef.



Figure 11.18 Marovo Lagoon, Western Province

There are many threats to this way of life and the lagoon itself. These threats include:

- large-scale logging by foreign logging companies, as described in the last chapter
- possible large-scale oil palm plantations, also described in the last chapter
- collection of bait fish from the lagoon
- prospecting for gold by mining companies
- cutting of mangroves by coconut farmers who believe the mangroves hide crop pests
- the arrival of many tourists from overseas, who come to dive amongst the coral reefs
- fast population growth
- dynamite fishing
- oil pollution from ships passing through the lagoon
- young people not respecting and learning from their elders
- people from Marovo who live in town encouraging outsiders to come for logging and other activities and receiving payment for this.

The question for the people who live around the Marovo Lagoon is how to protect their **fragile** environment while also earning a living from it.

Activity 17



- 1 There are many ways listed above in which the lagoon's marine resources are threatened by humans. Using what you have learnt in this and other chapters, explain in your own words how each of these might affect the lagoon.
- 2 In each case suggest what the people of Marovo Lagoon might do to manage the area and prevent the marine resources being destroyed.

8 Solomon Islands fisheries in the world

We are in the Pacific Ocean

Solomon Islands are set in what is called the Solomon Sea. It has no clear boundaries, though, since it is part of the vast Pacific Ocean, which covers 35% of the Earth's surface. Fish do not stop at boundaries that people draw on maps, nor do turtles pushed by ocean currents from Tahiti to Santa Isabel. The poisonous substances that men put into the Pacific Ocean, too, do not stop at boundaries. The different parts of the Pacific are linked, their waters continually mixing together.

Law of the Sea

Not many years ago, by international law each country owned only a narrow 3-mile (about 5 km) section of sea around its land. In island countries, this created an awkward situation where many of its islands were separated by areas of sea that were legally not part of the nation. Any ship could sail along 'The Slot' between Isabel, Malaita, Gela and Makira without having to ask permission of the Solomon Islands government. These areas beyond 3 nautical miles (5.5 km) were considered to be 'international waters', open to anyone who wanted to sail on them, fish in them, or take minerals from the seabed, but that is no longer the case.

As the law of the land did not apply to offshore waters, the countries in the United Nations produced a new set of laws known as the **Law of the Sea**. This convention was signed at Montego Bay in Jamaica on 10 December 1982 by many countries, including Solomon Islands.

The 200-mile Exclusive Economic Zone

The Law of the Sea states that countries have the right to control economic activities—including fisheries—within 200 miles (roughly 322 km) of their shores. This area is known as the 200-mile **Exclusive Economic Zone**. Where Exclusive Economic Zones overlap, the common borders are negotiated between the countries.

Activity 18



Discuss why Solomon Islands had to make an agreement with Papua New Guinea on a common border as a result of their overlapping Exclusive Economic Zone.

Different sea areas

Under the Law of the Sea, an area 12 **nautical miles** (about 22 km) wide extending out from each island is called **Territorial Sea**. This area is owned entirely by the nation that administers the island. The area beyond this, up to 200 miles (about 322 km), is the Exclusive Economic Zone.

Solomon Islands' Exclusive Economic Zone

Solomon Islands' Exclusive Economic Zone is enormous. It covers 1 340 000 square km. This is 45 times the area of its land. It is almost one-sixth of the area of Australia. In such a large area of ocean, it is easy for fishing boats to sneak in and steal resources from the Exclusive Economic Zone, without being seen. This is something that the government has to guard against. So, how do we watch over our Exclusive Economic Zone? We watch over it through the **Forum Fisheries Agency**.



Figure 11.19 Map of 200-mile Exclusive Economic Zones of South Pacific countries

Forum Fisheries Agency

All the South Pacific island nations follow the Law of the Sea. They all have to work out how much tuna fishing can be done on a sustainable basis, and they all have to make arrangements for licensing foreign boats that want to fish in their Exclusive Economic Zones. The South Pacific nations have agreed to work together on this. To do this, they established the Forum Fisheries Agency (FFA) for the Pacific. This was done by a decision of the leaders of island nations, working through the South Pacific Forum, which is the main organisation for Solomon Islands' cooperation with other governments in the region.

The headquarters of the FFA, for the whole of the South Pacific, is in Honiara. This is appropriate because of all the countries involved, Solomon Islands has the highest proportion of its workforce in the fishing industry.

One result is that FFA has signed an agreement with some of the large countries that fish in our waters, such as the USA, which means they have to pay us a **licence** fee for fishing here so we get an income from the fish they catch. However, many ships still enter illegally and do not pay a licence. Occasionally one of our patrol boats captures one and they are taken to court to pay a fine, but that is rare.

Activity 19



- 1 Why is it easier for the FFA to negotiate with the large countries overseas than Solomon Islands alone?
- 2 What other benefits does Solomon Islands receive from having the FFA headquarters here?

Protecting our marine environment

What is SPREP?

SPREP stands for **South Pacific Regional Environment Programme**. SPREP has been established to help Pacific Island nations work together to protect their shared environment. As a result, all Pacific Island nations, plus Australia, New Zealand, the USA and France have agreed to certain rules regarding protection of the ocean environment of the South Pacific. These rules are contained in a document called the South Pacific Convention on the Protection of the Environment and Resources, or the SPREP Treaty.

Coral Triangle Initiative

Solomon Islands is part of the Coral Triangle. This is a term used to refer to a roughly triangular-shaped area of tropical marine



Figure 11.20 Map of Coral Triangle

waters including Indonesia, Timor Leste (East Timor), Malaysia, the Philippines, Papua New Guinea and Solomon Islands. This area contains the largest area of well-preserved coral and the biggest variety of fish and other marine resources in the world. These waters contain at least 500 species of reef-building corals and more than 3000 species of fish, including the largest fish—the whale shark and the coelacanth. It is also the habitat of six out of the world’s seven marine turtle species. This means it is a region of great biodiversity—that is, a region with great variety or diversity of biological life or living things.

For these reasons it is the subject of high-level conservation efforts by the region’s governments, and nature conservation organisations such as the World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF), the Nature Conservancy International, and donor agencies such as USAID. In May 2009, the six Coral Triangle governments launched a Regional Plan of Action, the **Coral Triangle Initiative**, for the next decade, adopted at the World Ocean Conference in Manado, Indonesia.

The biodiversity and natural productivity of the Coral Triangle are being threatened by many things, including:

- a high market demand for fish from an estimated 120 million people who live within the Coral Triangle, of which approximately 2.25 million are people who depend on fishing for a living
- poor marine management
- coastal development or the building of towns and roads along the coast
- overfishing and destructive fishing by dynamite and gill nets
- disregard for rare and threatened species by people fishing for any species that can be fished

- climate change, which is causing coral bleaching. Climate change causes sea levels to rise and makes the seas more acidic, so fish and marine life die.

Activity 20



- 1 In groups, discuss what you think would be the difficulties of carrying out conservation measures like SPREP or the Coral Triangle Initiative.
- 2 Collect information from newspapers, radio or television about the Coral Triangle Initiative. How does this initiative help Solomon Islands?

Have you achieved your goals?

Look back at your goals at the beginning of the chapter. Check whether you have achieved each goal.

- Have you gained knowledge and understanding of each of the topics in the goals?
- Can you use each of the skills mentioned in the goals?
- Have you formed your own ideas and opinions about the topics in the chapter?
- Write a brief summary of not more than one page of what you have learnt in this chapter.

Glossary

artisanal fishing small-scale commercial fishing for the sale of fish

bait something used to attract fish

commercial fishing fishing to sell the fish

Coral Triangle Initiative a zone or area in the Pacific Ocean where there is special protection of marine resources

dynamite chemicals that cause a dangerous explosion, which can kill things

estuaries mouths of rivers where the sea meets the river

estuarine areas areas along estuaries

Exclusive Economic Zone the area of sea around a country where only that country has rights to use the resources, but which ships can pass through

Forum Fisheries Agency (FFA) international organisation of Pacific countries to help look after their marine resources

fragile easily damaged

gill nets nets that are spread across huge areas of the sea and are so called because they catch in the gills of fish

industrial fishing large-scale commercial fishing

Law of the Sea international law about the sea

licence a fee paid for fishing in an area

management looking after something so it is not spoiled or destroyed

marine environment all the living and non-living things found in the sea

marine to do with the sea

nautical mile unit of measurement of length, which is used in sea navigation

obligation something you have to do

over-harvest catch or use too many of something so it will not be replaced

pole-and-line fishing catching fish, particularly tuna, with a line on a bamboo pole

privilege the right to do something

purse seine a special net used to catch tuna in large amounts

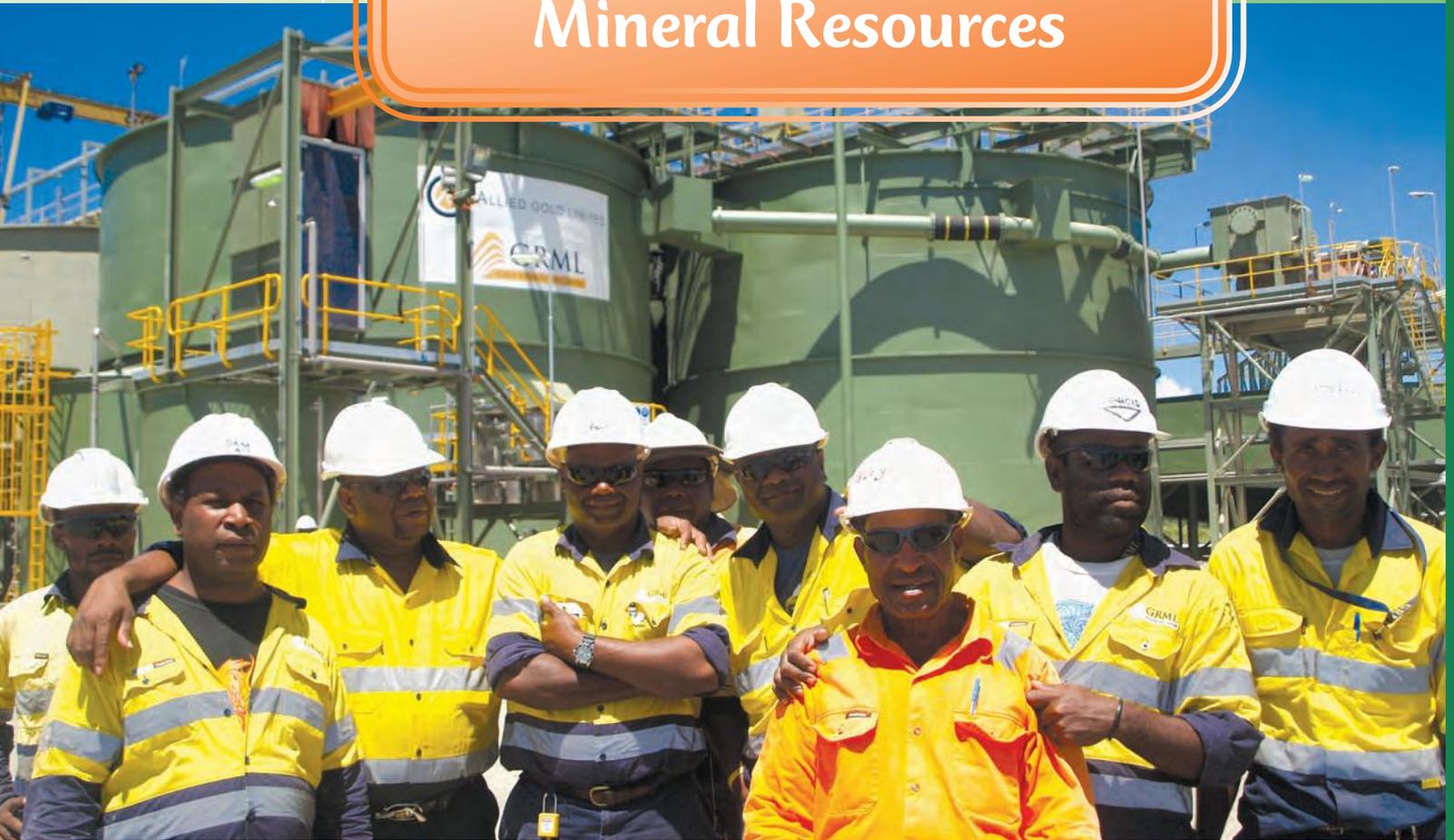
sea or marine resources useful things found in the sea

subsistence fishing people fishing for their own food

Territorial Sea (territorial waters) the area of sea close to the coasts of a country that is entirely owned by that country and that others must have permission to enter

Chapter 12

Developing and Managing Mineral Resources



My goals:

- to know what ores, minerals and valuable minerals are
- to know the uses of some important minerals
- to know who owns minerals in Solomon Islands
- to know what mining is
- to understand the main stages in mining
- to understand the main types of mining
- to appreciate the problems that can be caused by mining
- to study examples of mining in Solomon Islands and Papua New Guinea
- to have formed opinions about the advantages and disadvantages of mining for Solomon Islands
- to know some of the main mining regions of the world

In Year 7 you learnt about natural resources in Solomon Islands. **Mineral resources** are one of the resources from our natural environment that are non-renewable and must be used carefully.

In this chapter you will learn about mineral resources, their uses and how they should be developed and managed as a non-renewable resource for the benefit of Solomon Islands.

1 What is a mineral resource?

Activity 1

In Year 7 Science you learnt about minerals.



- 1 What is a mineral?
- 2 What are some of the characteristics of minerals?
- 3 Are all minerals valuable?
- 4 What is an ore?
- 5 What types of valuable minerals are found in Solomon Islands?
- 6 Why are minerals important to Solomon Islands?

Minerals are found in nature. They are made from non-living things. All the rocks that make up the Earth are made of **minerals**. However, only some minerals are useful or have economic value. These can be called mineral resources. These minerals may be located on or below the earth's surface or underground. The only way to get to use them is to dig them out of the ground or from under the ground. Here we will look at some of the mineral resources that have economic value, such as gold, copper, iron, nickel, bauxite and diamonds.

As you learnt in Year 7 Science, some rocks are a mixture of valuable and non-valuable minerals. They contain a certain percentage of valuable minerals such as copper, gold or iron, but the rest is not useful. These rocks are called ores, for example copper **ore** and iron ore. After digging them up they must be **processed** or purified to separate the valuable mineral from the useless ones. This is called **smelting**.

Coal, oil, gas and limestone can also be referred to as minerals but are not the same as other minerals, which are part of the original rocks of the Earth. Coal, oil and gas originally came from living things. They are **hydrocarbons**, which originate from plants that have decomposed in swamps. These are burnt as fuel but cause pollution when they are burnt by adding carbon to the air. As you will learn next year, this can cause problems by changing the climate. Limestone originates from the skeletons and shells of fish and from coral once living under the sea. Some of these minerals are shown in figures 12.1–12.3.



Figure 12.1 Copper ore



Figure 12.2 Gold ore



Figure 12.3 Nickel ore

A non-renewable resource

In Year 7 you learnt about non-renewable and unsustainable resources. Mineral resources are non-renewable and unsustainable. This means that once they are used up they cannot be renewed again.

Mineral resources should be used wisely because of this. They should be used in a way that makes people's lives better, now and in the future. Money that comes from selling non-renewable resources must also be used wisely so that future generations have some income. If we sell all our minerals and use the money to import more beer, that is not going to benefit anyone in the future. If we use money from a gold mine to help us build schools and hospitals or better roads, that will help us in the future.

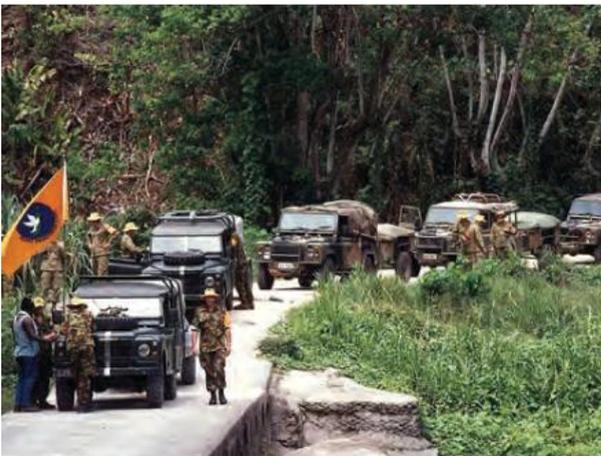


Figure 12.4 Bougainville crisis

2 Importance and uses of minerals

Activity 2



1 Write down the types of products made out of the following mineral resources:

- | | |
|----------|-----------|
| a gold | d uranium |
| b copper | e oil |
| c iron | f tin. |

As you have learnt in Year 7, minerals are natural resources because they can be used as **raw materials** to make other products once they are extracted from the Earth. Because of this, minerals have always been important in many industries.

The importance and usefulness of minerals means that they can cause wars and instability in different regions of the world. People have invaded other countries to take their mineral resources. Sometimes it is the impact of the products made from minerals themselves that cause wars. For example, weapons of war—such as aeroplanes, vehicles, tanks, guns, submarines and warships—are made from steel or iron, so the steel industry during World War II was focused totally on the war effort. The nine-year war in Bougainville from 1988–97 was fought over the exploitation of the rich copper mineral resources on Bougainville Island. This conflict over mineral resources occurred because copper was important as a source of income to the Papua New Guinea government and the Australian mining company, Cozinc Riotinto of Australia on one side, and to the Bougainville mineral resource owners, who wanted fair returns from their resources, on the other.

Activity 3



- 1 Look at figures 12.5–12.11 and state what mineral is being used and what it is used for in each case.
- 2 Apart from these examples, name six other things used in Solomon Islands made partly or entirely of minerals.



Figure 12.5 Electric wire



Figure 12.6 A cargo ship



Figure 12.7 A coin



Figure 12.8 The inside of a computer



Figure 12.9 Fertiliser



Figure 12.10 Rings



Figure 12.11 A gold necklace

In Solomon Islands these days we use many different kinds of minerals in our lives. Below are some examples:

- **Copper** is used to make electric wiring because it conducts electricity well. As you have learnt in Science, it is also used in **alloys**, bronze and brass, and in making coins, tools, pipes and many other things.
- **Iron** is used to make steel by mixing it with other minerals. The steel is used in making ships, cars, bridges, the frameworks for large buildings, knives and axes.
- **Silicon** is a very important mineral these days as it is used in computers.
- **Coal** is used as a fuel because it burns to produce strong heat. The oils and tars produced by processing coal can be used to make plastics, perfume, medicine and paint.
- Oil and **natural gas** are used as fuels, including petrol and diesel, and as ingredients in the chemical industry to make plastics and other things. If oil runs out one day, which it will as it is non-renewable, we will have no more plastic.
- **Gravel**, which is used in building and is spread on our roads, is also made of minerals and is dug out of the ground in quarries or taken from our rivers.
- **Sand** for cement-making is made of minerals, mainly silica, and is dug from our beaches.

Minerals are needed for plants to grow. Some rocks contain phosphorous, potassium and nitrogen, and they are ground into powder and spread on the soil as fertilisers.

Some minerals are valuable mainly because they are rare and look nice. Diamonds are bright, shiny and beautiful and are used in rings and necklaces for people to wear. However, they are hard and sharp and can be used for cutting. Gold is hard and shiny and, as you have learnt in Business Studies, it has come to be used as

a ‘medium of exchange’ or a form of money. A lot of it is made into gold bars and kept by governments as a way of storing of wealth. Like diamonds, it is also made into bracelets, rings or necklaces for people to wear.

Activity 4



All minerals are non-renewable. There is only a certain amount of each of the above minerals in the world, and once it is used up there will be no way to get any more. Choose any of the above examples and imagine it is all used up. Write a paragraph to describe what effect it might have on our lives and what we might do without it.

3 Who owns the minerals?

Solomon Islands follows the laws that were given to us by Britain—these are essentially British laws. At independence all the British laws were accepted by Solomon Islands, and remain in force unless they have been changed or new laws written.

Under the British system, all minerals belonged to the Crown (the ruling King or Queen of England), although in fact the government controlled them. At independence, therefore, all minerals were transferred to the government. The law, in ‘legal’ language is as follows:

Ownership of minerals: All minerals of every description in or under all lands of whatsoever ownership or tenure or in whatsoever possession or enjoyment they may be, are and shall be deemed always to have been, vested in the people and the Government of Solomon Islands.

Vested in means ‘belonging to’, so it means all minerals belong to the people and the

government, but in fact it is the government who controls them. The law goes on to say:

Subject to the provisions of this Act, the Government shall have the exclusive right to deal with and develop the mineral resources in such manner as it deems to be in the national interest.

This means that anyone, even a landowner, has to get permission from the government to look for or to mine minerals. The good thing about this is that it means the minerals belong to all the people of Solomon Islands, not just the people where the minerals happen to be found. The government collects taxes on minerals that are mined and uses this money to benefit all the people of Solomon Islands. Only a small proportion is given to the landowners.

As we will see in Chapter 14, however, this has caused problems in areas like Gold Ridge where minerals are found. The people who own the land where the minerals are found often feel they should control or even own the minerals and they should get a larger share of the profits if **mining** takes place.

At present, customary landowners can only get money if they charge a company to search for minerals on their land, but they have to sign an agreement allowing the company to mine if they find anything. They are also paid for any destruction of crops or property by mining. Under this law the Gold Ridge Company had to move the people who lived at Gold Ridge and build new houses for them. This is better than some countries like Australia, where companies can enter land to search for minerals like gas without asking the landowners.

The landowners can also negotiate with the company for shares in the profits of the company, or royalty payments—payment for the minerals they mine—but these payments are often very small.

Activity 5



In groups, discuss these ideas on ownership of minerals. Do you think minerals should be owned by the government on behalf of the people or by the people on whose land the minerals are found? What are the advantages and disadvantages of the two systems? Write these briefly in your exercise book.

4 What is mining?

Activity 6



Imagine a valuable mineral is found in the area where you live or an area you know well. If it is to be used it will have to be dug out of the ground. Only a big overseas mining company has the money and skill to do this. Divide into groups and discuss the following:

- 1 What would be the advantages and disadvantages of allowing the company to come and mine?
- 2 What damage might be done to your land and how could this be prevented?
- 3 What effect do you think this may have on the people living in the area and how could you make sure the effects were not bad ones?
- 4 Should mining be encouraged in Solomon Islands? Give reasons for your answer.

Some mineral resources are found on the surface, but most are found in the rocks underground. The only way to get them to the surface is through mining. Mining is the digging out or **extraction** of valuable mineral resources from the Earth. This may involve digging tunnels and may also involve removing some of the soil.

The mining industry is a **primary industry** because it involves the extraction of raw materials from the natural environment. These raw materials can then be used to make other types of useful products.

Mining to get these minerals up to the surface is a very expensive process, and because of this it is usually done by large and wealthy companies from overseas who have the money to meet the cost. These companies have branches in many countries or nations, so they are called **multinational companies** or **transnational companies**. They come from developed or wealthy countries and conduct mining operations in many countries, including Solomon Islands.

5 Stages in mining operations

Modern mining operations are carried out according to six different stages:

- 1 **prospecting** for ore bodies
- 2 **feasibility study**—once an **ore body** is found, a company has to decide whether it is feasible or possible to extract the minerals and make a profit
- 3 extraction or digging out of the desired materials



Figure 12.12 Underground mining

- 4 processing the mineral to purify it or make it into the metal we need
- 5 refining the mineral to make it into a purer metal
- 6 reclaiming the mined land to make it suitable for future use.

Step 1: Prospecting or exploration

Prospecting or exploration is carried out to find out how big the mineral **deposit** is, how deep underground it is located and the financial value of the **ore body**.

Since the late 1990s, prospecting has involved the use of photographs taken from aircraft or satellites. However, the older processes are still used, including:

- drilling deep holes in the rocks to find out what the rocks underneath contain
- inspecting the surface area to find out what sort of rocks are there.

Looking at plant life, and examining soil and water to find out what chemicals it contains, can also indicate whether there are valuable minerals underground.

In Solomon Islands some prospecting has been done using the older methods but the islands have not been fully prospected using modern methods. It is possible, therefore, that we may have deposits of valuable minerals we do not yet know about.

A very recent form of prospecting is deep under the sea. It is now possible to extract minerals from the sea bed, thousands of metres under the sea. In 2011 a prospecting ship visited Solomon Islands to do this. If they find any minerals worth mining in our territorial waters—that is, the sea within 322 km of our islands—the mining company would have to pay us to extract them. This could become a source of income in the future. We will look at this on page 296.

Activity 7



- 1 Suggest why not much prospecting has been done in Solomon Islands.
- 2 What do you think would be the problems and possible damage caused by mining on the sea bed?

Step 2: Feasibility study

Once they know that minerals are present in the rocks, the mining company has to decide whether it is worth spending the huge sums of money necessary to mine them. It also has to get permission from the people who own the minerals: the government and/or the landowners.

Whether an ore is worth mining depends on a number of factors.

- *The size of the **ore body** or area of rocks where the minerals are found:* if it is very small it is not worth mining.
- *The quality of the ore:* the ore is only worth mining if it contains a reasonable percentage of the valuable mineral. For some minerals this would need to be 30% or more. For a very valuable mineral like copper or gold it may be less than 1%.
- *The current price the mineral can be sold for:* minerals are produced all over the world so the price it can be sold for will depend on the **world market price**. As you have learnt in Business Studies, this depends on supply and demand. If many countries are producing the mineral, the price may go down. If many industries want to use it, the price may go up. A company must decide if they can sell the mineral for a profit after paying all the expenses of looking for it and mining it. One problem is that the price will keep changing. For instance, there is nickel in Isabel at San Jorge. For a long time the price was low so it was not worth mining it. Then the price went up



Figure 12.13 Deep-sea mineral prospecting

and overseas companies became interested in mining it. However, the price might go down again after they start mining.

- *The cost of mining:* this will depend how easy the mineral is to mine, but also how much money the landowners and government demand for allowing the mining and how much is paid to the miners as wages.
- *Rules and regulations by the government or landowners:* governments and landowners want to make sure the company does not spoil their land or cause trouble to the people who live in the area. They also want to make sure the company has enough money, skills and machinery to do the mining successfully. So they make rules and regulations that the company must follow. If these are too strict the company may decide not to mine.

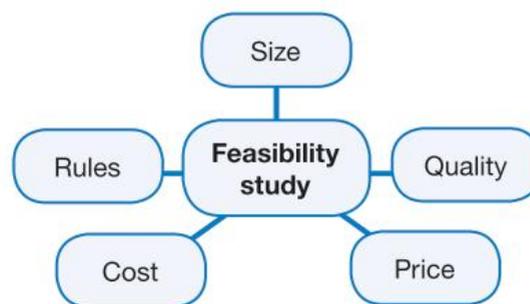


Figure 12.14 Factors considered in a feasibility study

Before any company decides to mine, it will have to go through all these stages. For instance, one company spent a lot of money looking for nickel on San Jorge, but they couldn't start mining until they were sure the world market price was high enough. Then they had to negotiate with the government and landowners to decide how much they would pay them. The government decided to allow other companies to bid for the licence to mine to find out which one would give the most money to the government and landowners. This means a company may spend a lot of money looking for minerals but never actually mine them.

One problem in Solomon Islands is that most of our mineral deposits are very small compared with those in other parts of the world. This means it is not worthwhile for the big companies to prospect for minerals. Even if they find minerals, there may not be enough to make it economical to spend the money to set up a mine. In some cases, like the nickel found on Isabel and the bauxite found on Rennell, it is only profitable to set up a mine if the world price is high. When the price goes down again companies are no longer interested. Even the gold at Gold Ridge on Guadalcanal was not mined for many years until the price of gold went up.

Activity 8



Minerals are a non-renewable resource, yet people are using more and more each year. What is likely to happen to the price of all minerals in future? How may this benefit Solomon Islands?

The diagram in Figure 12.15 summarises the processes of starting a mine.

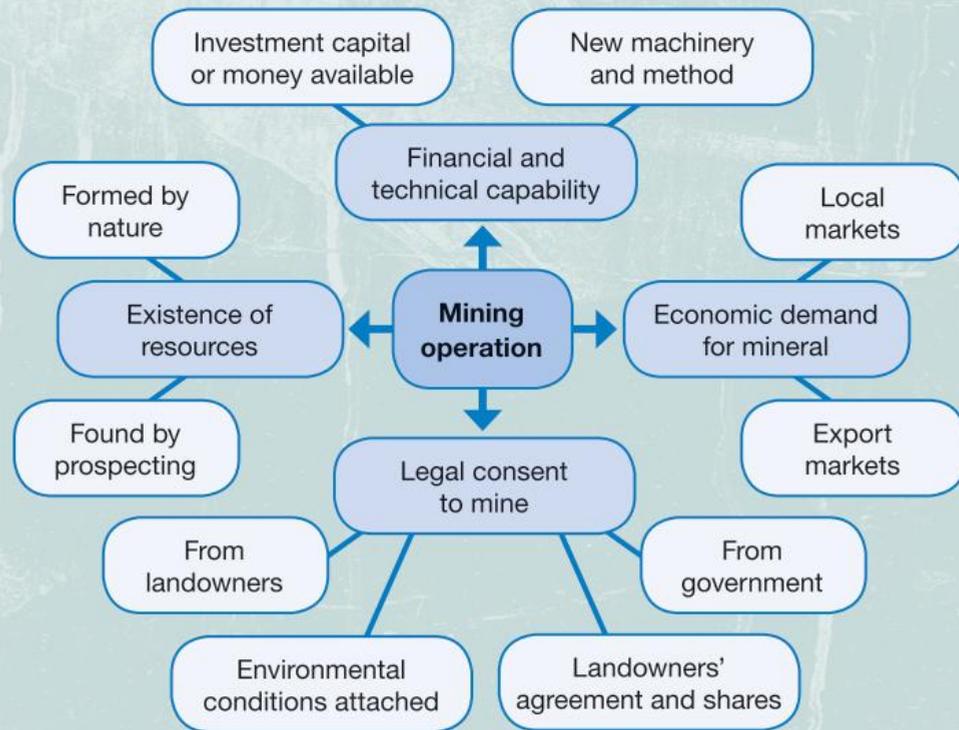


Figure 12.15 Starting a mining operation



Figure 12.16 Panning for gold

Activity 9

Imagine you are the manager of a big overseas mining company. Use the information on pages 281–3 and Figure 12.15 to write the story ‘How we started a mine’.



Step 3: Extraction of the minerals

When a company decides that mining is feasible it has to decide on the methods it will use to extract the minerals from the ground. This can be done in two main ways that will be described on pages 285–92.

- 1 If the mineral is on or near the surface it can be extracted by simply removing the rocks at the surface to make a big hole. This is called **open-cut** or **open-cast mining**. This is usually the cheapest method of mining. Gold, like that at Gold Ridge, can even be found by panning. Small rocks that may contain gold are placed in a pan. The pan is placed under water and shaken to separate the gold from the rock.
- 2 If the mineral is far below the surface, it is necessary to bore or dig tunnels underground to where the valuable ore is, dig the ore out and bring it to the surface. This is called underground mining.

Step 4: Processing

As we have seen when a mineral ore is dug out, it will be mixed with other non-valuable minerals. The mineral we want to use has to be separated from the non-valuable minerals around it, which is sometimes called the **gangue**. Processing often takes place near the mine so that purer minerals can be transported without too much waste. This step makes the ore more concentrated or pure. However, it will not yet be completely pure metal.

Activity 10

Suggest why it may not be economical to set up a factory to process minerals in Solomon Islands.



Step 5: Metal refining

Most minerals need further purification to make them into pure metal, such as iron, copper or gold. It is the **metal refining** process that considerably increases the purity—up to 98% pure metal.

This refining is often done in a factory away from the mine so it is part of the industrial rather than the mining process. In the case of gold like that at Gold Ridge, however, the ore contains a very low percentage of gold, so if you transported it you would be moving mainly the useless gangue. Gold itself is very valuable and even worth transporting by air. At Gold Ridge the gold is made into bars of pure gold at the mine itself and then exported by air.

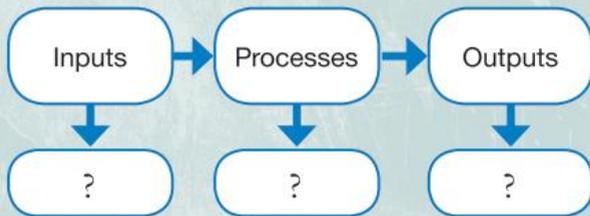
Step 6: Reclamation

Once all the ore that the mine can produce profitably is extracted, the land may be useless for agriculture or other activities.

Reclamation or rehabilitation is needed to make the land suitable for future use.

Activity II

In Year 7 you learnt that farming can be called a system, with inputs, processes and outputs. Copy the following diagram and fill in the boxes, using the information in this chapter. Give actual examples where you can.



6 Methods or types of mining

Different mining methods can be used to extract the minerals, depending on the nature of the environment, the mineral type and the deposit. The two main types of mining are open-cut mining and underground mining.

Open-cut mines

Open-cut mines, also known as open-cast or open-pit mines, are an example of a surface mine, as the material being mined is found near the surface. It involves digging really big holes in the ground. Rocks are mined in a series of downward steps that slope towards the centre of the pit. Explosives are often used to break down



Figure 12.17 An open-cut mine

rocks. Big machinery, such as trucks and front-end loaders, are used to take away the rocks that have been dug out. In an effort to look after the environment, waste materials are often covered over with soil, which is then replanted with trees. The Gold Ridge Mine on Guadalcanal is an example of an open-cut mine.

These open-cut mines range in sizes from small ‘dog holes’ to holes many hundreds of metres deep and more than a kilometre wide. Many low-grade deposits are mined this way because of the lower costs. Soil and rock with no minerals must be removed or stripped from the surface to expose the ore bodies. When the ore is reached a series of benches are cut out, arranged in a spiral or connected by ramps, so that trucks can move up and down. The ramps or benches are usually 10–30 metres wide, and 10–25 metres tall.

The rock or ore is first blasted by dynamite to break it into pieces and the pieces are then loaded onto the trucks.

One advantage of open-cut mining is that it is safer and less expensive than underground mining. It also uses less complicated equipment. A disadvantage is that digging the open-pit creates huge amounts of rock waste, which is spread over the surrounding areas and can cause damage.

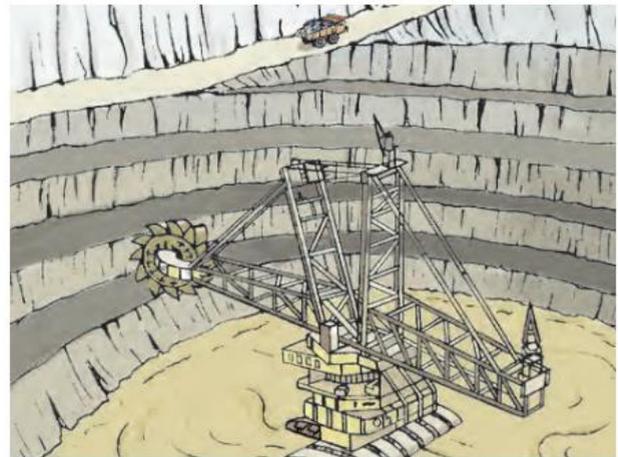


Figure 12.18 In an open-cut mine, benches are cut out in a spiral around the pit, connected by ramps, so trucks can move up and down.

CASE STUDY

Gold Ridge, Guadalcanal

How the mine started

Gold Ridge on Guadalcanal uses this open-cut method. In 2011 Gold Ridge was the only large-scale mine in Solomon Islands. As you have learnt, by 2011 Solomon Islands had very few trees left that were useful for logging, so many people say that mining is the best thing to replace logging as a way of earning money from exports.

Activity 12



- 1 Why is it important that we export goods from Solomon Islands?
- 2 What do we gain from exports?
- 3 How would our lives change if we had nothing to export?
- 4 Who gave Solomon Islands its name? Do you remember why he called it Solomon Islands?

The first European to come to Solomon Islands was Alvaro de Mendana. He found small amounts of gold in a river flowing across Guadalcanal Plains—probably the Matepono River, which flows from Gold Ridge. He thought this must be the source of the gold of King Solomon in the Bible. In fact it was not and he didn't find any more gold. It was not until 1931 that someone found that the gold came from the mountains in Central Guadalcanal and had been washed into the Matepono River.

From 1931 various companies looked for gold but found very little. However, local people did **alluvial** mining. This means taking river water

and passing it through a sieve or net. Sometimes small amounts of gold are left in the net.

In the 1980s and 1990s companies drilled holes with diamond drills and began to find some gold. They drilled more than 300 000 metres of holes before a company finally decided it was worth mining. So prospecting took about 20 years and cost millions of dollars. In 1996 Gold Ridge Mining Limited (GRML), owned by Ross Mining, started mining but in 2000 they were forced to close due to the period of Tension we will learn about in Chapter 14. While the mine was closed the bush grew back and water filled the dam where the waste is stored.

In 2009 another company, Allied Gold (which also owns a mine on New Ireland in Papua New Guinea) took over and agreed to re-open the mine within a year. They had to spend about AU\$250 million, or SI\$2000 million, clearing the land, draining the water, rebuilding the processing factory, offices, houses and roads, and doing other jobs. Finally the mine was officially re-opened in March 2011 and gold was exported just after that.

Activity 13



- 1 Why would it be difficult for any local Solomon Islands company to mine the gold?
- 2 Why must a company be sure they are going to sell quite a lot of gold before they decide to open a mine?
- 3 Will a mining company really make a profit in the first few years of running a mine? Explain your answer.
- 4 Some people think all mining companies are very rich. In what ways is this true and also not true? Explain your answer.

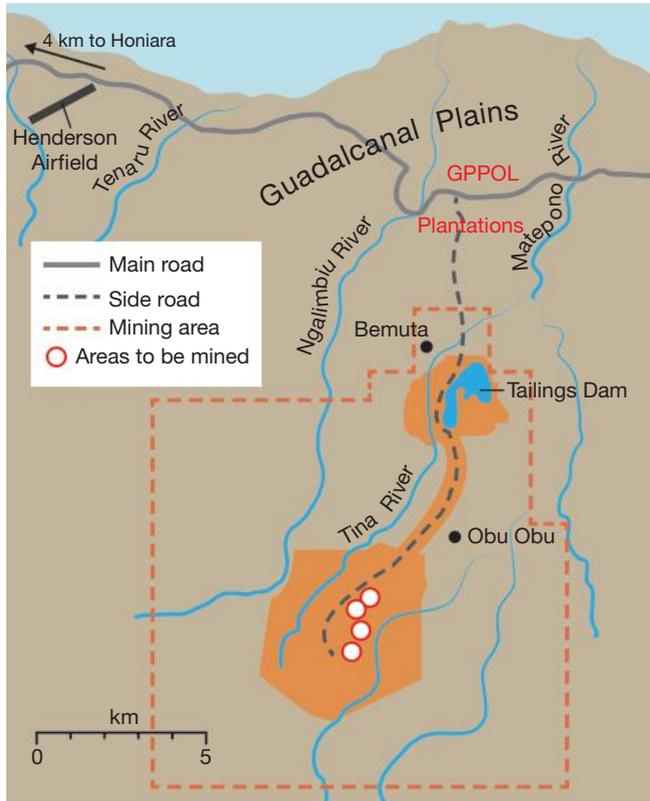


Figure 12.19 Location of Gold Ridge mines

How the gold is obtained

Activity 14



Figures 12.20–12.29 show the stages in obtaining the gold. Use these and the explanation below each to construct a flow diagram to show all the stages in the mining process. You have used flow diagrams this year and in Year 7 and have also learnt about them in English in the unit on environment.

For each stage of the mining process draw a small sketch based on the pictures, write a label or small explanation underneath and link them all with arrows.



Figure 12.20 The open pit is dug out.

Gold Ridge is an open-pit mine, which means the gold ore is dug from the ground without tunnels. Once they find out where the gold ore is, the rocks containing ore are dug out 3 metres at a time. Slowly the pit becomes deep, as you can see in Figure 12.20. It is about 60 metres deep. In 2011 there were two existing pits and another two were due to be opened.

Even in these areas not all the rocks are ore; that is, not all the rocks contain gold. For every 1 tonne of ore they have to dig out 1.5 tonnes of waste, which is thrown away.

Some rocks in the pit are soft and can be dug up straightaway. Some have to be broken up by explosives like dynamite first. Miners drill holes in the rock, fill them with explosives and then burst them.



Figure 12.21 The ore is dug up, or blasted if necessary, then loaded onto trucks.



Figure 12.22 Large trucks take rocks to the factory or to be thrown away.



Figure 12.23 A crusher breaks the rock up into smaller pieces.

The rocks, both ore and waste, are transported by large trucks holding 40–60 tonnes (see Figure 12.22). The trucks travel up a steep hill either to the factory or to a place where the waste is thrown away.

The ore is tipped or poured into a crusher where it is broken into smaller pieces (see Figure 12.23). These are put onto a moving belt of rubber called a conveyor belt to be taken to the SAG mill.

In the SAG mill (see Figure 12.24) there are many hard and heavy steel balls. The tank turns around and the balls bang against the ore and grind it into powder.



Figure 12.24 A SAG mill crushes the rock into fine powder.



Figure 12.25 The powder is mixed with chemicals and dissolved.

The powder is then put into the big tanks you can see in Figure 12.25 and mixed with chemicals, including cyanide, which dissolves gold. The gold is then in a solution. Carbon in the form of coconut husks is put into the tanks and the gold solution sticks to this, leaving the waste behind.

The solution attached to the carbon then goes to another tank where the husks are removed (see Figure 12.26). The solution goes to the gold room.

In the gold room steel plates are put into the solution together with acid, so the gold sticks to the steel plates. The gold on the plates is then heated in a very hot oven called a furnace, becomes liquid and runs out (see Figure 12.27). It is collected to form bars of pure gold.



Figure 12.26 Coconut husks are removed in these tanks.



Figure 12.27 The gold is melted in a furnace to form gold bars.

However, to get 1.77 grams of gold you have to dig and process 1 tonne of ore and 1.5 tonnes of waste. Look at something weighing 1.77 grams and imagine that to get this you have to dig 2.5 tonnes of rock and put it through this long and complicated process and you can see why goldmining is very expensive and the product is so valuable.

The waste left behind contains the chemical cyanide, which is very poisonous, so it goes to a cyanide destructor to get rid of the cyanide (see Figure 12.28).

The waste then goes into long pipes that take it to the **tailings dam**—a big dam to store it behind (see Figure 12.35 on page 295). Some of the water from here is purified and taken back to the mine.



Figure 12.28 A cyanide destructor removes the cyanide. The waste is then carried in pipes to the tailings dam.

How safe is it?

These days, open-pit mining is a very safe process compared with other industries. The mine must follow Solomon Islands regulations and is actually more strict than these. Even to go in one of their vehicles you must wear a seat belt and you are not allowed to ride in the back of any truck. On the site, safety is even more strict, following Australian rules.

One way the company makes sure of safety is to train all the workers very carefully. For instance, there are nine female truck drivers and they each have to train for 200 hours to learn how to drive and the safety rules of driving the trucks.

They also have a plan for making sure they close the mine safely when it finishes. The pits will be filled with waste from other pits and forest will be allowed to re-grow. They will make sure no dangerous or poisonous substances or wastes are left behind.

Nevertheless, the cyanide used by the mine is dangerous. It has caused trouble in other mines, but Gold Ridge has had to follow international rules about this and build the cyanide destructor to destroy it. In 2011, however, there was a leak from a pipe and it was suspected by local people that cyanide had killed some fish and caused skin problems for people using

the local rivers, although the company said it had not. These disagreements are common in mining areas and often cause problems between the company and local people.

How do landowners and other Solomon Islanders benefit?

As we have seen, in Solomon Islands by modern law the government owns the minerals, so the company has to pay the government, not the landowners. However, the company says they have obligations or duties to satisfy all the people involved. As the company that was mining during the period of Tension from 1999–2003 found out, it is difficult to mine if the landowners don't agree with mining. The company negotiated agreements with the landowners as well as the government. However, as we have seen, the law says that minerals under the ground are owned by the government. At the same time it is the company that spent or invested millions of dollars to set up the mine and it costs millions more to run it, so they expect the largest share of the money, otherwise they would not invest here. This means the company is in a strong position, as the government and landowners could not start a mine without them. Overseas companies also have a lot of experience in dealing with governments and landowners, whereas the landowners, and even the government here, have very little experience with overseas companies. Look back at the diagram on page 250 showing the problems that landowners who want to sell timber have in negotiating with overseas companies.

The result at Gold Ridge was that an agreement was signed giving royalties of 1.5% to the national government, 1.2% to the landowners and 0.3% to the province. This means that the company receives 97% of the money from the gold. The landowners' share



Figure 12.29 Gold Ridge built these houses for the landowners to live in.

is quite low and landowners continued to complain—for instance in some Papua New Guinea goldmining areas landowners get up to 10%.

It was estimated in 2011 that the annual production will eventually be about 120 000 ounces of gold. The price of gold in 2011 was about \$12 000 per ounce. This means that the gold may be sold for nearly \$150 million. At the agreed rate landowners would receive about \$1 800 000 and the national government would receive about \$2 250 000. Remember, however, there are over 2000 landowners involved and this is only a small fraction of the government budget, so Solomon Islands will not get rich on this one gold mine! At the same time the company has to pay back all the money it cost to start the mine so in 2011, for instance, Allied Gold actually made a loss of AU\$6 million. Remember also that the price of gold may go down as well as up. In 2011 it was very high. Ten years before that it was only about AU\$400 per ounce. If it was as low as this again it might no longer be profitable to mine the gold, as it might cost the company more to mine it than they receive when they sell it.

The millions of dollars the company spent to start the mine might be wasted. This risk is one reason they take so much of the money.

Other gold mines

Gold Ridge is only one example of gold mines found in this area of the world. Papua New Guinea has many, including Ok Tedi, which you will learn about shortly, and mining companies are prospering in Fauro, Shortland Islands, Choiseul and elsewhere. This is because, as you learnt in Year 7, we lie on the place where plates of the Earth’s crust meet each other. Gold is often formed along the faults where the plates meet each other.

Activity 15



Use a table like the one below to summarise the benefits and problems of having the Gold Ridge mine in Solomon Islands.

Gold Ridge mine	
Benefits	Problems
?	?

Quarries

Another form of open-cut mining commonly used in Solomon Islands is a quarry or a big open pit where gravel is dug out to make roads. In some places sand is also dug out of river valleys or the beach and this is another form of open-cut mining.

Activity 16



If you were the landowner of a river or beach, would you allow people to come and dig for sand or gravel? Give reasons for your answer.

Underground mines

Underground mining is used when the minerals are too deep in the ground to dig out using other methods of mining. A vertical **shaft** is drilled directly down into the earth until an area of ore is reached. A horizontal tunnel is dug along the area of ore. The ore is often found in **seams** or strips of rock. As the tunnel is dug, the rock at the end is blasted into pieces by dynamite. The pieces of ore are then loaded onto a moving strip of rubber called a conveyor belt or, if the tunnel is big enough, onto small trains and taken to the shaft. They are then put into **cages** in the shaft and pulled to the surface. As more rock is extracted, the tunnel grows longer. Later other tunnels will be made along deeper seams.

Underground mines may be more than one kilometre deep and the tunnels may be some kilometres long. The miners wear protective clothing including hardhats, which have a lamp in them so they can see without carrying a torch. The ends of the tunnels may be dark but

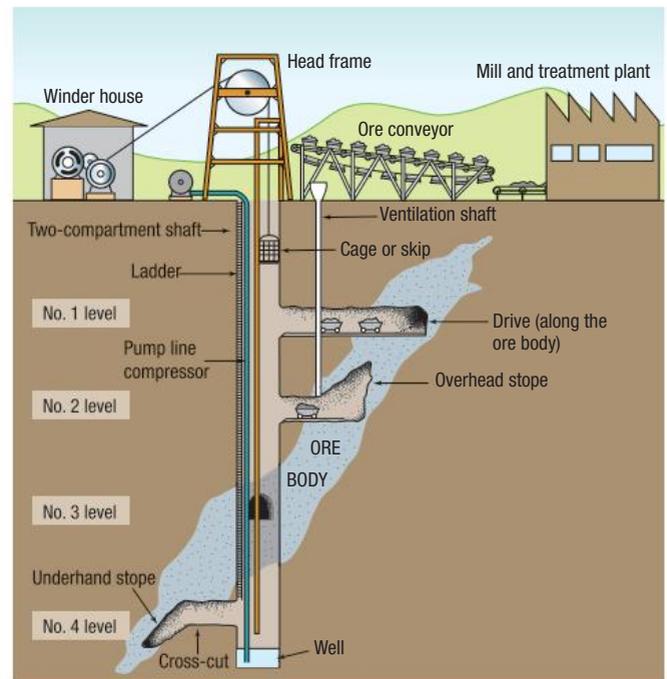


Figure 12.30 How an underground mine works



Figure 12.31 A miner in an underground mine

electric light is also put in later. The miners go into the cage in the shaft and this is let down on cables to the tunnels. They may have to walk or go by train hundreds of metres before they reach the end of the tunnel. The tunnels must have ventilation systems that circulate fresh air. A big danger is gas found in the rocks, which may be poisonous or may explode and block or destroy the tunnel. Some underground mines are large enough in some sections to allow big machinery and trucks to go in.

Underground mining has advantages. It allows a mine operation to be largely 'hidden' from view. It enables the land above the mine to be used for other purposes, as shown by the fact that it is conducted under many residential areas. It can easily be reclaimed after the mining has ceased and some of the waste rock may be returned to the mine. However, it is much more difficult and expensive than open-cut mining, as it is not easy to build shafts and tunnels and expensive machinery and safety equipment are needed. It is also dangerous as accidents deep underground are much more likely than on the surface. Some ore may be too difficult to reach and may be left in the ground.

Dangers of mining

Underground mining can be dangerous for the workers, who can be killed if they are trapped underground. Workers might die due to accidents or explosions or poisonous gas. Only good mining practices, required by law in most countries, can avoid or reduce these.

Two mining accidents in 2010 showed the dangers of underground mining, although they had very different results in the end.

Chile mining disaster 2010

In August 2010 the roof of a tunnel in a copper–gold mine in Chile collapsed. Thirty-three miners were trapped 700 metres underground and 5 kilometres from the mine entrance with no way out. They were alive, but people on the surface did not know because they could not communicate. The company and government did not give up hope and drilled eight holes through the ground in the hope that one of them would reach the miners. After 17 days, a note written in red appeared stuck to the bit of one of the drills saying the miners were alive.

To get them out was a big job. They had to first drill bigger holes to send down food and other items to keep the miners alive, but these tiny holes were not big enough to rescue the men. They even pushed a cable with a small television camera and screen so people could see the miners and the miners could watch television.

Drilling a hole big enough for the miners to come through and finding a means of pulling them up was so difficult that it took another 52 days before they were rescued. During this time they relied on food and drink sent down from the surface. Finally in October, after two months underground, all the miners were rescued in good condition apart from minor medical problems.

This disaster was shown on television around the world. It is estimated that one billion people from all over the world watched as the first miner was rescued.



Figure 12.32 A miner being pulled out of the copper-gold mine in Chile

Activity 17



Imagine you were one of the trapped miners in Chile. Write the story of how you felt, what you did during the two months underground, how you were rescued and what you felt like when you were rescued.

New Zealand mining disaster 2010

One month after the Chilean miners were rescued, in November 2010, a huge explosion of gas occurred in the Pike River mine on the South Island of New Zealand. The tunnel did not collapse as in Chile, but it is thought that the miners might have been killed by the explosion, and if not they might have been poisoned by the methane gas that filled the mine.

In this case the problem was not that the miners were trapped, but that it was dangerous for anyone to enter the mine and search for the miners due to the poisonous gas in the mine. Five days after the first explosion another explosion occurred and a third two days later.



Figure 12.33 The Pike River mine explosion in New Zealand

By then it was clear that no-one could have survived in the mine. A fourth explosion set alight the coal in the mine and the whole mine started burning.

Safety measures

Mining is dangerous, but with strict measures, accidents are less likely. In both cases just described there were unconfirmed reports that the mining company did not strictly follow all the safety measures. Companies want to make profits and safety costs money, so sometimes companies save money by not being strict on safety. They sometimes put profits ahead of human lives.

Most of the world's nations adopt certain regulations or rules to reduce the bad effects of the mining operations. Some of these include safety rules to follow in mines to avoid mine workers being killed.

Activity 18



- 1 Copy the table below and fill in and compare the advantages and disadvantages of each mining type.

Type of mining	Advantages	Disadvantages
Open-cut mining		
Underground mining		

- 2 Read the description of underground mining, look at the diagram, and make a list of all the possible dangers or accidents that might occur.
- 3 Miners usually work in 8-hour ‘shifts’. Imagine you are an underground miner. Use all the information above to tell the story of what you did in one shift. Start when you put on your safety gear — overalls, safety boots, a hard hat and lamp. Then move towards the shaft. When you return you will be very dirty, so what is the last thing you will do before going home?
- 4 Underground miners are paid very high wages as their job is difficult, dirty and dangerous. Would you like to be an underground miner? Give your reasons.



Figure 12.34 People who work at Gold Ridge

7 Impacts of mining on society and the environment

Activity 19



- 1 As you read the next section, copy and fill in the table below to list the advantages and disadvantages of mining as an activity in Solomon Islands.

Advantages	Disadvantages

- 2 A number of people and organisations both here and overseas would benefit from mining in Solomon Islands — either the present mining or future mining. Make a list of who they are.
- 3 From what you have read so far, make a list of possible disadvantages or problems of developing mining in Solomon Islands. These may be problems affecting the environment or problems affecting people and their communities where mining takes place.

The mining industry, like any other industry, has impacts on society and the environment. These impacts have both good and bad sides.

Economic benefits and problems

Some of the good sides of mining involve creating income. Mining companies pay taxes to the government, pay royalties to the landowners whose land the mine is on, and pay wages to the people they employ. Mining operations are an important part of our economy, providing many jobs and earning revenue for the government and landowners.

However, mining companies are from overseas and they are here to make a profit for the shareholders of the company overseas. Some of their managers are also from overseas and must get paid. There is always an argument, therefore, about how much of the profits should be sent overseas and how much should be used to pay the government, landowners and employees here. Companies will usually try to negotiate agreements to pay less here and send more overseas. Landowners often demand a higher percentage of the profits in royalties. The company will also argue that they pay so much to run the mine that they cannot afford to pay more to the landowners or workers. This often results in disputes between the company, the landowners, the government and even the workers.

In 2000 these arguments led to the closure of the Gold Ridge mine. The ‘militants’ of Guadalcanal—some landowners and some others who you will learn more about in the last chapter of this book—claimed that they were not getting fair shares of the profits and in other ways were being treated badly by the mining company. They attacked the mine and forced it to close. It was not fully re-opened until 2009, and even after that there were disputes.



Figure 12.35 The tailings dam at Gold Ridge

Activity 20



It is often said that negotiations between mining companies and landowners or even the Solomon Islands government are not equal, as the mining companies can argue more strongly. In what sense do you think this may be true? What advantages do the mining companies have in negotiating? You could look back at Figure 10.40 on page 250, which shows how to negotiate with logging companies, to help you answer the questions.

Environmental problems

Despite its economic importance, mining has several bad effects on the environment. For example, it can damage the environment and the landscape or the natural beauty. Open-cut mining leaves behind a huge hole after mining is done. Also, since mining sites are usually in the forest areas, it causes deforestation due to large areas of land having to be cleared for mining operations.

The releasing of chemical wastes into the environment may affect wildlife species such as birds and animal life. Some chemical wastes, such as lead, arsenic and cyanide, are poisonous to wildlife. Chemical wastes can also poison the soil, making it unsuitable for most other purposes, including for agriculture.

The militants at Gold Ridge accused the mining company of allowing **pollution** to spoil the environment. Gold Ridge produces water containing poisons, particularly cyanide, which is used to extract the gold from the rocks. They store the waste water behind a dam, called a tailings dam, which can clearly be seen if you fly over this part of Guadalcanal. In 1998 fish were found dead in the Tina River, which passes near Gold Ridge. The people said the cyanide had leaked and killed the fish and poisoned the river. They were frightened to

use the river for drinking and swimming. The company denied that it was a cyanide leak, but many people, including the ‘militants’, did not believe them. As we will see in the Ok Tedi case study, rivers in other places have also been poisoned in this way.

Mining can also contribute to erosion and landslides. This is due to the movements of soil and rock on the sides of steep mountains and in rivers near the mines. Finally, mining operations can cause pollution (noise, dust, visual), which requires costly controls to safeguard the health of workers.

8 Major mining regions

Mining regions in Solomon Islands

The only mining company in Solomon Islands in 2011 was the one mining gold at Gold Ridge in Central Guadalcanal. New mining companies are still prospecting for new mineral sites to mine if there is enough of the mineral. They can give good profits to the companies, the government of Solomon Islands and to the resource owners—those who own the land where the minerals are found.

Some of these prospecting areas include a number of areas in Bugotu in Isabel Province for nickel. Gold **deposits** are also found on Fauro in Shortland Islands, Western Province, but so far not enough to mine economically. There have been reports of other mineral deposits, such as diamonds on Malaita, but none have been confirmed as large enough to mine.

Mining regions in the world

Apart from Antarctica (which has a treaty in place stopping mining), mining takes place in all of the world’s continents. Traditional mining countries such as the USA, Canada, Australia, South Africa and Chile are still the most important. These countries have become the traditional leaders in mining and exploration methods and technology. Exploration and development funding has changed over the past few years, with emphasis shifting to areas that have been poorly explored or have had poor access for reasons of politics, **infrastructure** or legislation.

9 Deep-sea mining

Minerals are found deep underneath the sea. There are three kinds:

- *nodules* or large lumps of rock containing valuable minerals like silver, gold, copper, zinc and others
- *hydrothermal vents*. These are areas associated with the plates you learnt about in Year 7. At the edges of plates, especially around the Pacific Ring of Fire, hot gases boil into the deep sea like hot springs and these contain valuable minerals
- *deposits of rare earths* found in deep-sea mud. These are used in mobile phones, TV screens, MP3 players and other electronic machines.

The largest amounts of these deep-sea minerals are found in the Pacific, including around Papua New Guinea and Solomon Islands. A Canadian company, Nautilus Minerals, is starting one of the first deep-sea mines in the Bismarck Sea, off New Ireland in Papua New Guinea. Another company has already sent a ship to look for minerals in Solomon Islands’ waters.



Figure 12.36 Under-sea mining

The minerals are found in very deep water between 1.5 and 6 kilometres below the sea. The minerals are brought to the surface in two ways: by sending large buckets down on a conveyor belt to scoop up the rocks, and by sucking the rocks up through a pipe. A ship or mining platform then processes the rocks to extract the minerals.

As with all mining, there are big profits to be made by the companies, especially when the prices of minerals are high. However, it is a very complicated and expensive process, which no Pacific country could afford, so we must rely on overseas companies. The questions then are how much profit will the country receive and will the mining damage the environment under the sea or the sea itself?

If the minerals are within our Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ), which you learnt about in Chapter 11, we can control the companies and negotiate a fair profit through taxing the company. Minerals outside any country's EEZ are controlled by the International Seabed Authority (ISA), which has been set up by international agreement.

Many groups, including the international organisation Greenpeace, are warning that deep-sea mining may cause problems to the environment. Dragging up parts of the rocks

from the sea floor will disturb all the sea creatures, that live on those rocks. Sucking up rocks may release sediments like mud into the water and this may affect the fish and other sea creatures. Waste material or tailings left over after the minerals are extracted may be thrown back into the sea. It may also be polluted by leaks of oil and other substances used for mining. There can even be accidents, like the explosion in 2010 on a deep-sea platform extracting oil in the Gulf of Mexico, near the south coast of the USA. This polluted hundreds of kilometres of the sea and destroyed the fishing grounds of thousands of people who fish for a living.

If we allow companies to come and mine, therefore, we must make sure that we strictly control their activities. People in Papua New Guinea are already complaining that Nautilus has been allowed to mine without proper controls and before they have done enough research to show what effects the mining will have on the sea. Some local communities are worried about the effects on their fishing.

As with other mining, the country can make a lot of money and benefit greatly, but if mining is not properly controlled, there can be disasters, with local people not benefiting at all or even having their lives destroyed. You will learn about an example of this in Nigeria when you read Chapter 14.

Activity 21



- 1 Make a list of some of the valuable minerals that we may be able to use in Solomon Islands.
- 2 Briefly summarise the main features of deep-sea mining.
- 3 Make a table to show the possible benefits and problems of deep-sea mining.

CASE STUDY

Ok Tedi gold mine, PNG



Figure 12.37 Map of the Ok Tedi mine

One important example of a mine is Ok Tedi gold mine in Papua New Guinea. It is located in the remote Star Mountains of Western Province, close to the border with West Papua. This area has high rainfall, landslides and earthquakes. It is a region of great natural biodiversity—that is, it has a huge variety of plants and animals. The mine is at a height of 2000 metres on Mount Fubilan, near the headwaters of the Ok Tedi River. Before the mine was built there were no roads and the people who lived there were subsistence farmers with little contact with people outside the area. Many people had never seen a truck or other vehicle and only saw planes flying over.

Now there is a huge mine operated by an international company, Ok Tedi Mining Limited (OTML). It is a major producer of copper, producing an average of 229 000 tonnes of copper concentrate a day. The copper is taken away to other countries for smelting. BHP Billiton, which owned OTML, signed a lease allowing them to mine and began mining in 1984. The company employs 2000 people, mainly from outside the area, including a number of expatriates. At first the mine produced gold ore, but by 1987 it was producing copper concentrate.

Activity 22



- 1 On the Pacific Basin Map in Appendix 2, find New Guinea island. It is divided into two countries: Papua New Guinea in the east and West Papua, ruled by Indonesia, in the west. You will see the border down the middle of the island. Ok Tedi is right on this border where you can see very high mountains.
- 2 From the map and what you have just read, what do you think might be some of the difficulties of mining here?
- 3 Imagine you are an old man or woman who lived in this area before the mine was opened. Write the story of the changes you have seen in your lifetime and whether you think these are good or bad.

The positive or good aspects

Like Gold Ridge, the Ok Tedi mine pays taxes to the government, royalties to the landowners and wages to the workers, and it was the largest exporter of goods from Papua New Guinea. This made it the single largest business contributor to the country's economy, although other mines are now more important. OTML has also considerably improved the infrastructure of the area through building

roads and airstrips, and improving access to water and communication systems. It has also funded education and training, employment and health in the region. The government has shares in the mine and dividends (shares of the profits of the company) are paid for the benefit of the people in the Western Province and Papua New Guinea in general. This money is being used to fund sustainable development projects that will look after the people of the region for at least another forty years after the mine has stopped production.

The environmental impacts

In 1999, 50 000 people living downstream of the mine experienced social and environmental damage. A dam built originally to contain the tailings (waste), like that at Gold Ridge, was destroyed by earthquakes, and the tailings were then left to flow downstream. Due to the large amounts of tailings flowing downstream and being dumped, the once slow-moving, deep river became shallow and rapids developed, making it dangerous. The tailings left a thick layer of contaminated or poisoned mud on the flood plains where staple crops such as taro, bananas and sago palm were grown. Chemicals also killed fish, turtles disappeared from the region, canoes ran aground and thousands of trees were killed. An area of approximately 1300 square kilometres was damaged.

The future

As of 2008, the Ok Tedi mine was still discharging 30 million tonnes of tailings and 40 million tonnes of waste rock a year into the Ok Tedi River, which in turn runs into the Fly River, one of the biggest rivers in Papua New Guinea. This affected the whole area around it. Sediment from the mine has reduced the amount of fish in the area by 80%. Although there are now plans in place to look after the

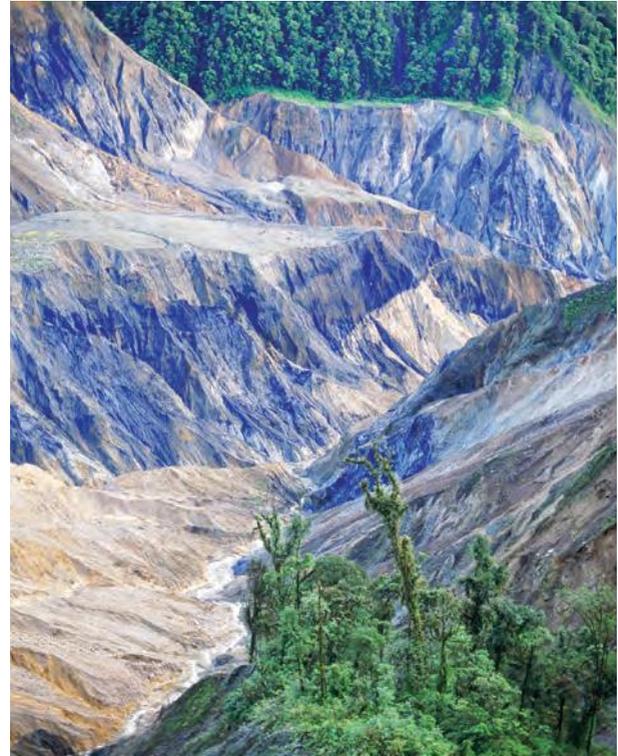


Figure 12.38 Environmental damage caused by Ok Tedi mine

region, there has been so much damage done that it is not possible to repair the environment and the mine has changed the face of the landscape forever.

Another problem was that only those upstream had been involved in the original discussions to open the mine, whereas those downstream were most affected.

In the 1990s local landowners, especially those downstream on the Fly River, took out an international court case against OTML for compensation. You might think that the government would step in and help the people against the company. However, there are two problems with this. First, the government relies on taxes paid by the company for a large part of its income and for foreign money earned by the export of copper. Second, the government itself has shares in the company so could not really fight against the company. As you will see in

learning about the Niger Delta in Chapter 14, governments often take the side of mining companies instead of their own citizens for these reasons.

In the end the case was settled outside the court and landowners received some compensation, but many believe that it was not enough.

Activity 23



- 1 What lessons do you think Solomon Islands can learn from the experience of Papua New Guinea and Ok Tedi?
- 2 What are the advantages and disadvantages of encouraging mining?

Have you achieved your goals?

Look back at your goals at the beginning of the chapter. Check whether you have achieved each goal.

- Have you gained knowledge and understanding of each of the topics in the goals?
- Can you use each of the skills mentioned in the goals?
- Have you formed your own ideas and opinions about the topics in the chapter?
- Write a brief summary of not more than one page of what you have learnt in this chapter.

Glossary

- alloy** a combination of two or more metals
- cage** a small metal ‘house’ where miners stand to be lowered into the shaft down to the underground mine
- deposit** an amount of minerals found in the rocks
- extraction** removal of minerals from the ground
- feasibility study** a study to find out if minerals are worth mining
- gangue** the waste rock left behind when the valuable mineral has been extracted
- hydrocarbons** minerals like coal, oil and natural gas, which are formed from living things and contain mainly carbon. They cause pollution and global warming when burnt
- infrastructure** roads, bridges and buildings, etc.
- metal refining** the process of making the metal more pure
- mineral resources** useful or valuable minerals
- mineral** non-living materials found in the earth
- mining system** the inputs, processes and outputs of a mine
- mining** digging valuable minerals out of the ground
- multinational or transnational companies** very large companies that have many branches in many countries
- natural gas** a gas originally formed of rotten vegetation like coal, which can be extracted from the ground and burnt as a fuel
- open-cut or open-cast mining** mining on the Earth’s surface
- ore body** the rocks in which the ore is found
- ore** a rock that contains valuable or useful minerals
- pollution** rubbish, poisonous substances
- primary industry** an industry directly based on natural resources
- process** in mining, to change an ore to a metal by purifying it
- prospecting** looking for minerals
- quarry** a place where sand or gravel are dug out of the ground
- raw materials** materials like metals which can be processed in a factory and made into something else
- reclamation** restoring land to what it was like before
- seam** a strip of rock containing valuable minerals
- shaft** a vertical tunnel dug into a mine—the miners go down and the rocks come up
- smelting** extracting metal from an ore by heating
- tailings dam** a dam behind which all the waste water from mining is stored
- underground mine** mining by digging tunnels underground
- world market price** the price paid for a mineral in overseas countries

Chapter 13

Development of Tourism



My goals:

- to understand what tourism is and why tourists travel
- to know where most tourists come from
- to know the kinds of activities tourists like to do
- to be able to analyse graphs of tourist arrivals
- to understand the different kinds of places tourists like to stay
- to understand the benefits and problems tourists may bring
- to study some examples of tourist areas overseas
- to have formed opinions about the advantages and disadvantages of encouraging tourism

1 What is tourism?

What do you know about tourism?

Activity 1



In groups, discuss the following.

- 1 Have you ever seen people who can be called tourists? What sort of people were they? Where did they come from?
- 2 Are all people who visit Solomon Islands 'tourists'? What other kinds of people come apart from tourists?
- 3 Suggest what tourists come to see or do in Solomon Islands.
- 4 What sort of places do tourists usually stay in?
- 5 If tourists come to your home area, do local people benefit? If so, how do they benefit?
- 6 In what ways might tourists have a negative impact on the environment or on the way of life of the local people?
- 7 Does all the money that tourists spend while they are here benefit Solomon Islands? Explain your answer.
- 8 Do you think we should encourage more tourism? Explain your answer.

Who are tourists?

What makes some people **tourists** and not others? A tourist travels to a place purely for pleasure—it may be for diving, swimming, looking at wildlife, climbing mountains or observing how different people live. They do these things just for enjoyment.

Other people are called **visitors** and they all have a particular reason for coming—visiting relatives, doing business, learning a language or studying. As of 2011, there were more visitors each year who came to Solomon Islands for a

purpose than those who came only for pleasure. In many other Pacific countries, such as Fiji or Vanuatu, there were far more tourists than visitors. In Fiji the number of tourists is nearly 500 000 per year—more than half the size of Fiji's population of about 800 000.

Activity 2



Below is a list of people who came to Solomon Islands and the reasons they came. Decide which ones were tourists and which ones were visitors, and write them in a list in your exercise book.

- William Joyce came to preach in the Seventh Day Adventist church.
- Edna Burgess came to dive on the reefs.
- Mary Wilkins came to look for unusual birds in Makira.
- Rose Tania came from Kiribati to see her relatives in Titiana.
- Lee Kwak Chan came to check on the offices of a company he runs from Hong Kong.
- Toyota Yamamotu came to visit the battlefields where his father fought in World War II.
- Ben Mamadu came to learn Pijin because it is similar to the language he speaks in West Africa.
- Judy MacDougal came to climb the highest mountain in Guadalcanal.
- Rosaria Ferrari came to visit Ontong Java and learn how the people there live.
- Patrick Donegal came to study the people of Kwaio and write about them.



Figure 13.1 William Joyce came to Solomon Islands to preach.

Why do tourists come?

Activity 3



- 1 If you were given the money to go anywhere you wanted overseas and to do anything you liked, where would you go and what would you do?
- 2 Imagine you were a tourist from Solomon Islands visiting Australia. What would you like to see or do?

Many of you probably mentioned ‘big places’ like the United States of America (the USA), Europe or Australia. Perhaps you would like to see the tall buildings, big roads and heavy traffic and would like to visit sports arenas or nightclubs and other places of entertainment. Perhaps this is because you come from a small country where these things do not exist.

Like many Solomon Islanders, tourists usually like to visit places that are different from their own so that they can see and experience different things.

Activity 4



Most tourists who come to Solomon Islands come from big cities with tall buildings, crowds, heavy traffic, large industries and polluted air, and often from colder places with not much sunshine. Make a list of the sorts of things such tourists might like to see or do in Solomon Islands.

In Australia, Europe and the USA, the Pacific Islands are often thought of as ‘paradise’. When people say this, they mean clean sandy beaches, coral reefs with lots of colourful fish, warm sunshine and coconut palms. To them this is ‘paradise’ because it is totally different from what they normally experience, but to Solomon Islanders it is just normal. To someone from overseas it is also interesting to see the different ways people live and different customs—even a



Figure 13.2 This is an ‘Aussie rules’ football match in a big stadium. Many Solomon Islanders see this as a great experience.

‘leaf’ house is very interesting if you have never seen one.

Tourism really started when people started working in factories and offices and living in big cities. People wanted to get out of the cities and see the natural world, not the ‘**concrete jungle**’ they lived in. They did not live in villages and grow their own food, but worked in towns for wages that they used to buy food. Their employers started to give them a **holiday** every year, when they were still paid but did not have to work. People were born and brought up in cities so they did not have villages to go home to in the holidays like most



Figure 13.3 Solomon Islands’ white sandy beaches are appealing to tourists.

Solomon Islanders. So they started to go on holiday to places different from their own. At first when transport was difficult these were places near home, but in modern times all forms of transport, especially air travel, have become faster, easier and cheaper, so people go to further away places like Solomon Islands.

Tourism, therefore, used to be an activity only for rich people. Travelling or movement usually happened between ‘developed’ countries like Europe, the USA or Australia. Today, tourism is a big industry or business not only for rich countries, but also for developing countries such as Solomon Islands. More and more people are becoming tourists, as there are more rich people in different countries. We are beginning to get tourists from Japan, Korea and China, and rich Solomon Islanders are beginning to be tourists themselves.

Where do tourists want to go to?

Activity 5



- Figures 13.4–13.9 show places in Solomon Islands. Write one or two sentences describing what you can see in each picture and why it would be attractive to tourists.
- There are many kinds of tourists. Working in groups, suggest which of the above activities would attract the following types of people. Add other places or activities that might attract the same types of people:
 - rich, elderly people who have retired from their work overseas
 - people who like to see how people in other cultures live
 - backpackers—usually young people with only a small amount of money who carry their clothes and other possessions in a ‘rucksack’ (a type of bag) that they carry on their backs



Figure 13.4 Swimming



Figure 13.5 The luxurious Heritage Park Hotel in Honiara

- young, active sportspeople
 - nature lovers—people interested in the natural environment including plants, animals and birds.
 - people who fought or had relatives who fought in World War II.
- Each of the above types of tourists will bring different kinds of things in their luggage when they arrive at the airport. Imagine you worked in the customs section at Henderson Airport inspecting tourists’ luggage. Suggest one or two items of luggage that might be carried by each of the above groups.

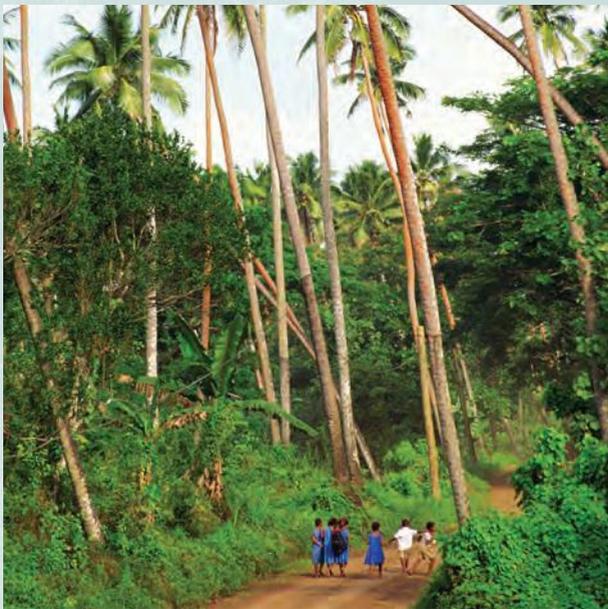


Figure 13.6 Walking in the forest



Figure 13.8 Wildlife



Figure 13.7 Traditional villages



Figure 13.9 Old military tanks from World War 2

- 4 The most popular areas for tourists to visit in Solomon Islands include Western Province, especially Marovo Lagoon; Rennell and Bellona, especially Lake Tegano; Langa Langa Lagoon on Malaita; Savo and Gela; and the battlefields of Guadalcanal. Can you suggest why these areas are popular?
- 5 Although Honiara has many big hotels, it is not really popular with tourists. Most of the hotels are occupied by visitors such as business

people, government officials or aid-workers, not tourists. Can you suggest why?

- 6 Other provinces would also like to attract more tourists. Imagine you are the Minister for Tourism in your home province. Make a list of the attractions you think you could offer tourists in the province. If you are from one of the provinces listed above which already attracts tourists, suggest ways you might attract more tourists to your province.

Visitors: Why they come and where they come from

Activity 6



Look at the two pie-charts in Figure 13.10. The first shows why visitors come to Solomon Islands.

- 1 What do most visitors come for?
- 2 Only about a quarter of our visitors are tourists: less than 6000 per year in 2010–11. Fiji gets more than 500000 tourists and Vanuatu over 100000. Suggest reasons so few tourists come to Solomon Islands.

The second pie-chart shows where visitors come from.

- 3 Which parts of the world do most of our visitors come from? Suggest the reasons for this.
- 4 Which of these areas do you think most tourists come from?
- 5 Do you think most visitors from Asia come for tourism or business?
- 6 In future it is likely that more tourists will come from Asia, including Japan, Taiwan, China and Korea. Suggest reasons for this.

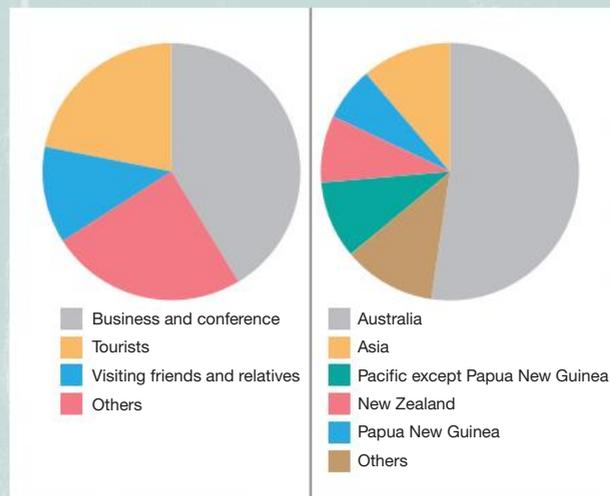


Figure 13.10 Why tourists come to Solomon Islands and the places they come from



Figure 13.11 A cruise ship

There is also another type of tourist not included in the above statistics—those who come on cruise ships. Cruise ships are big ocean-going liners, which might be called ‘steamers’ in Pijin. They hold 500–2000 or more passengers. Many ships come from Australia but some come all the way round the world from Europe or America. They go from place to place around the Pacific or other parts of the world so people can visit these places. However, the passengers live on the ships in big cabins like hotel rooms and they are provided with food and entertainment like sports, videos, dances and nightclubs. The passengers come ashore for one day in places they visit and return to the ship and go to another place the next day.

In Solomon Islands, cruise ships call in at Honiara. Some smaller ones also call at Gizo and some special ones have people who want to see different cultures, so they call at places like Santa Anna and Tikopia.

Activity 7



- 1 Why do you think tourists from cruise ships visit Santa Anna and Tikopia?
- 2 One company in Solomon Islands helps to organise the visit of cruise ships. Imagine you worked for that company. Make a programme for tourists for a day's visit to:
 - a Honiara and surrounding areas
 - b Santa Anna or Tikopia.
- 3 How do you think people benefit from the cruise ships:
 - a in Honiara
 - b in Santa Anna and Tikopia?
- 4 Some people who come on cruise ships complain that Honiara is not a good place to visit. Suggest reasons they might think this. How could we improve Honiara for cruise ships?

When do tourists come?

Activity 8



Look at the graph in Figure 13.12 showing the number of visitors who came to Solomon Islands from 1990 to 2010.

- 1 In 2010 was the number of visitors increasing or decreasing? Try to find out if it is still increasing or decreasing.
- 2 Why did the number of visitors go down between 1999 and 2003? Why do you think there are no accurate figures for these years? You will learn more about this in the next chapter.

The lowest number of tourists in recent years was during the period of Tension from 1999 to 2003 and since then it has been increasing. One of the main factors affecting tourism is security and the **stability** of the government. If tourists think they may be in danger or that the

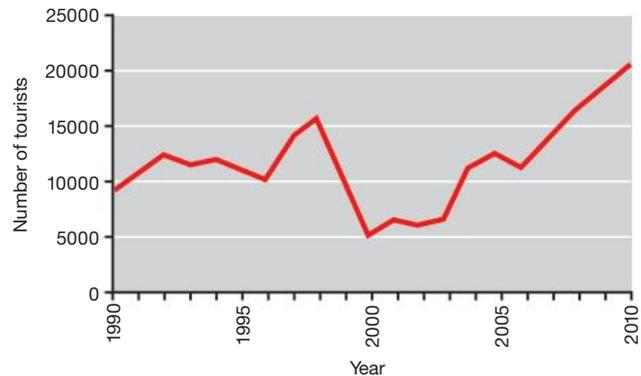


Figure 13.12 Tourist arrivals by year

government may change in ways that may cause trouble, they will not come. Overseas countries from which most tourists come issue travel advisory warnings to their citizens. This tells them about places that might be dangerous to travel to, or where trouble is expected. Tourists can still come if they want to but many may decide not to. Even in 2006 when there was a riot in Honiara and Chinatown was burnt, tourists stopped coming to Gizo, although it was not affected.

Fiji has suffered from this. There have been a number of coups in Fiji when the army took over the government. Every time the number of tourists went down.

Activity 9



Apart from the period of Tension, suggest any other incidents or activities when tourists might have hesitated about coming to Solomon Islands.

Types of places where tourists stay

Places where tourists come to stay are called **hotels, lodges, resorts, eco-tourism lodges** or **village stays**. Hotels are usually bigger.

Lodges are smaller. Resorts are places that have lots of activities for tourists to do as well as rooms to stay in. Eco-tourism lodges are small places that try to preserve the natural environment. Village stays are places where tourists stay in local villages.

Activity 10



- 1 Name at least one example of each of the types of places where tourists stay.
- 2 Pages 310–317 contain case studies of five different kinds of places where tourists stay. Make a large table in your exercise book like the one below. Fill in the table to compare the five types of places by reading the case studies. Each place has a website where you can find out information about it by using the Internet on a computer. You learnt about this in English in Year 7. If your school has Internet, or you have it on a mobile phone, you could look up the websites to find out more.

Information	Gizo Hotel	Sanbis Resort	Maravagi Resort	Tetepare Island	Gagaha Village Stay
Type	Large hotel	Luxury resort	Local resort	Eco-tourism	Village stay
Location	?	?	?	?	?
Ownership	?	?	?	?	?
Size	?	?	?	?	?
Money needed to start (investment)	?	?	?	?	?
Luxury or budget (low cost)?	?	?	?	?	?
Main facilities	?	?	?	?	?
Things tourists can do	?	?	?	?	?
Impact or effect on environment	?	?	?	?	?
Type of tourists likely to come	?	?	?	?	?
Where profits go	?	?	?	?	?
Benefits to local community	?	?	?	?	?

LOCAL CASE STUDIES

Note: All prices in the following case studies are from 2012.

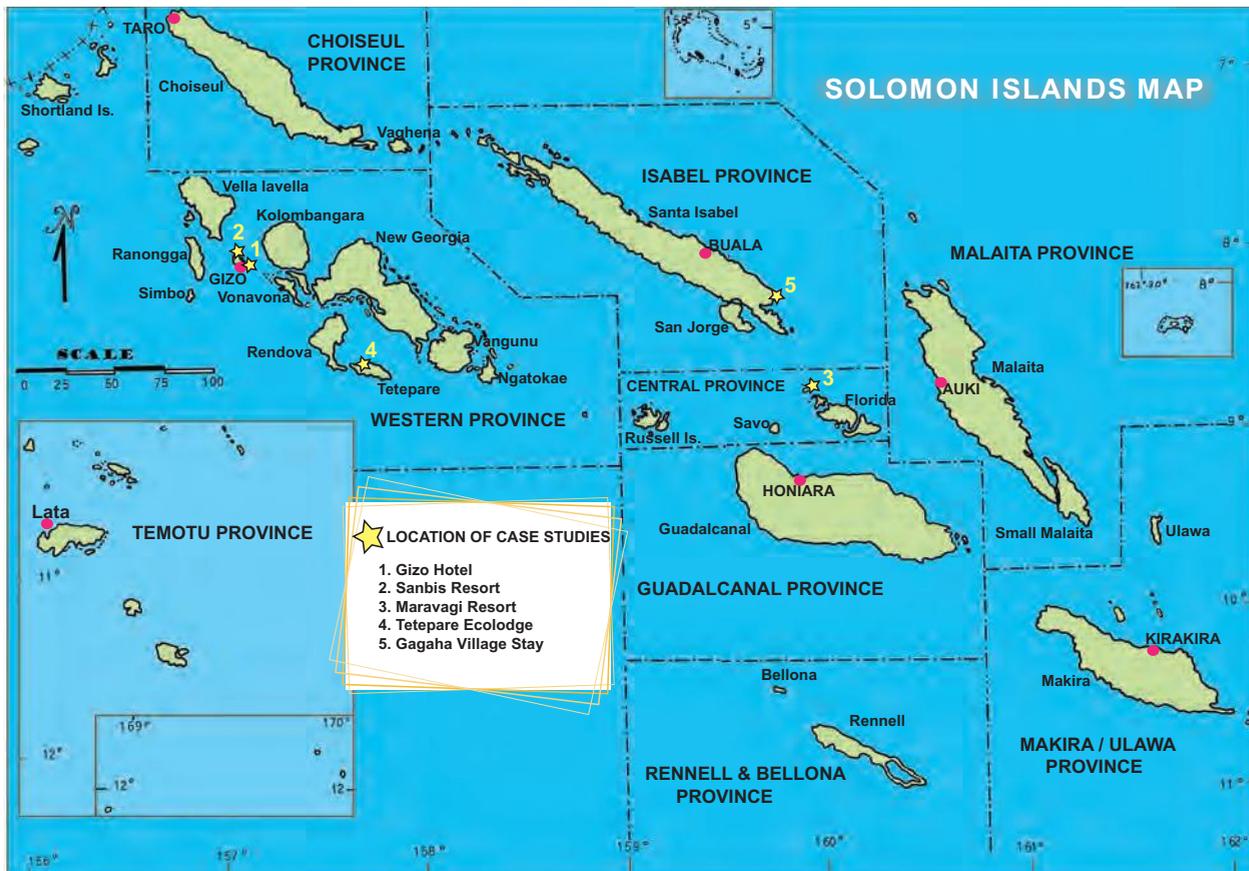


Figure 13.13 Five resorts in Solomon Islands

1 Large hotels: Gizo Hotel

Gizo Hotel is the largest hotel in Gizo in Western Province, which is the most important tourist area in Solomon Islands. It was built in 1961 and taken over in the 1990s by its present owners, the Kennedy family who are originally from Australia. It has 61 rooms catering for a total of 90 people who pay from \$820 to \$975 each per night. For this they get a large, comfortable room, but also pay for their food from the restaurant. This serves mainly ‘Western style’ food but most of the food is bought locally. The hotel also has bars, a swimming pool and a nightclub. They offer

tours for snorkelling, swimming and visits to local islands by their own boat. Most of the visitors are tourists from overseas, especially Australia and New Zealand, with a few from Europe and a few local people.

The hotel employs 60 staff, all local, and they are given training by the hotel and also sent to the Australian Pacific Training College. Outside the hotel you will see many people who benefit from the tourists—people selling carvings and baskets, hiring canoes or taxis or selling fish and other things. Local dance groups, especially the Gilbertese from Titiana are employed to entertain the guests.

The hotel pays taxes to both the Central and Provincial governments. However, since it is owned by a family living here most of the profits will remain in Solomon Islands.

Below is an extract from the hotel's website.

Welcome to the real Solomon Islands

Located on Gizo's waterfront and adjacent to its exotic markets, the Gizo Hotel offers the 'Best in the West' for those seeking all the adventure and excitement the Western Province has to offer.

The Gizo Hotel embodies the spirit of the South Pacific and due to its central location is often used as a convenient jumping off point for those who wish to explore the beauty of the surrounding reefs and atolls.

The Gizo Hotel is the ideal island getaway.

Graced by gentle breezes throughout the day and evening, the hotel's Nguzu Nguzu Restaurant and bar are found on the upper level of a large, open air Leaf Haus that overlooks Gizo Bay. The restaurant specialises in serving the freshest local seafood accompanied with regular island dances. Downstairs, the hotel's popular Local Carvers Bar offers the chance to mix with locals while enjoying a cold Solbrew.

The hotel's 51 rooms surround a beautifully landscaped swimming pool and offer private facilities, room and laundry/ironing services, IDD telephones, tea/coffee making facilities, refrigerators and ceiling fans. All Deluxe Poolside and Seaview rooms are air-conditioned.

Babysitting, educational island excursions and fishing trips are available upon request.

As an additional guest feature, complimentary kayak use is offered. Professional dive, tour, and adventure shops are located at the front of the hotel as well as a gift shop for all your shopping needs.

Airport boat transfers are also available.

From *Gizo Hotel website*, 2011



Figure 13.14 Gizo Hotel



Figure 13.15 The swimming pool at Gizo Hotel

Activity 11



- 1 From what you have read above, make a list of all the things that might attract tourists to the hotel.
- 2 The website uses words that try to attract tourists. Make a list of the words and phrases that are trying to make the place sound very attractive.

2 Luxury resort: Sanbis Resort near Gizo

Sanbis is a small resort that caters for tourists who can afford to spend a lot of money to stay in **luxury** resorts with very good facilities. In 2011 it cost from \$1280 to \$7600 per night for a bungalow or lodge for two to four people. The resort can only accommodate 18 people.

It was started and is owned by a man from Switzerland who used his savings to build it. It cost him about \$10 500 000 to start. He leases the land from a Gilbertese. He employs 26 people, all local, and gives them all special training. Nearly all the money he makes is spent locally paying wages and buying food and equipment.

The resort is built in a traditional Solomon Islands style with **bungalows** or small buildings built of leaf, but with electricity, very comfortable beds, toilets and showers—not like a normal leaf house in a village! One part even has air-conditioning.

It has a bar and restaurant serving mainly expensive food bought or caught locally but cooked in a ‘European’ style. It is situated on a small island with a coral reef with plenty of fish. It offers tourists boats to go out and ski on the water, **scuba-diving** with full diving gear including oxygen for staying underwater, **surfing**, deep-sea fishing with special rods and other activities.



Figure 13.16 Sanbis Resort

There is a bar built over the water so that guests can relax ‘with a cold Solbrew in one hand and a fishing rod in the other.’

About 95% of their guests come from overseas, mainly Australia and New Zealand. Most of the time the resort is just over half full and it suffered from the riots in Honiara in 2006, when tourists stopped coming even though Gizo was not affected. The owner says Solomon Islands will make money from tourism by building small resorts like this with high prices catering for luxury tourists from overseas. He says the **backpackers** with less money will not come to Solomon Islands.

Below is an extract from the resort’s website.

Solomon Islands’ Premier Resort

Located on a secluded island approximately 7 minutes from the Gizo airstrip by boat, Sanbis Resort offers the premier accommodation in the country, with each bungalow having its own private beach, luxury ensuite bathrooms with hot water and a terrace with a stunning view across the lagoon. The resort boasts the best stocked bar in the West, fantastic meals are prepared by our international chef and served by our trained staff!

Diving, snorkelling, fishing, surfing, World War II nostalgia, bird-watching, eco-tours, and exploring the local culture are all part of a beguiling mix, as are the superb natural surroundings and the universal and genuine friendliness of the Solomon Island people.

The lodge at Sanbis Resort, a completely private luxury complex is currently being constructed. It will comprise a split-level main building, which basically represents the living area with an entertainment, kitchenette, dining and a large lounge area, facing the deck with a spa bath and private jetty.

Ideal for two couples or a family with older children. We anticipate that the cost will be around AU\$800 per night with a minimum 4 night stay.

The newly opened SB Bar, built over the crystal-clear waters at the end of the jetty is open to the public. We have recently added a genuine wood-fired pizza oven imported from Australia. The new SB Bar has a pool table, 42-inch screen with music DVDs playing, a value for money bar-style menu (with hamburgers) and now of course fantastic wood-fire pizzas ... cold beer and friendly staff!

Internet

You are not completely isolated! Bring your laptop and you can stay in touch with your family or business connecting to our high speed (WI-FI) link with civilisation!

From *Sanbis Resort website*, 2011



Figure 13.17 Employees at Sanbis Resort

3 Local resort: Maravagi Island Resort

Both resorts we have looked at so far are owned by people originally from overseas. This is partly because it costs a lot of money to start a resort to cater for luxury tourists like those who go to Gizo Hotel or Sanbis Resort. Does this mean it is hard for Solomon Islanders to start resorts?

Mathias and Joyce Sake have proven that it is not as long as you are determined, work hard and cater for people who don't need so much luxury. They own a very successful resort at Maravagi on a small island which is part of Gela. They provide accommodation for up to 30 people in houses they built themselves out of local materials—timber and leaf. They are not luxurious like Sanbis, but provide comfortable places to sleep. They have mosquito nets, toilets and showers, but no air-conditioning. They provide food mainly from their own area—fish, vegetables and other crops—and serve meals, which are mainly local but using 'Western' styles of cooking as well.

They only charge \$400 per night for local people and a bit more for overseas people. They pick their guests up from Honiara in a 40 hp ray boat. They can offer swimming in clear water, bushwalking, spear-diving and snorkelling, and are soon starting a museum with war relics.

Activity 12



- 1 Use a table to make lists of the similarities and differences between Gizo Hotel and Sanbis Resort.
- 2 Choose at least six words or phrases used here which are similar to those used in the Gizo Hotel website to attract tourists.



Figure 13.18 Maravagi Resort sea front

Mathias and Joyce had no experience of tourism but friends in Australia started sending people to visit them in their village. This made them think of starting a resort for other people, not just friends. They started by selling fish, which they caught locally, in the Honiara market and made enough money to buy nails and hire chain saw operators to cut some timber. Then they built small houses for accommodation, as well as a kitchen, restaurant and bar, and started the resort. They dug wells, put in a water supply and planted vegetables.

They taught themselves how to run the resort and now employ six people who they also train. They also give training in hospitality to students from Rural Training Centres like **Airahu**.

Their visitors come from both overseas and Honiara and they are sometimes booked for conferences. People also come on day tours from Honiara.

Mathias and Joyce advise people who want to start a resort to ‘think big but start very, very small’. They say they took their inspiration from the Bible where it says, ‘God created all things for human beings and at last he created human beings and gave them a command: Sweat and you shall live’.



Figure 13.19 The restaurant at Maravagi Resort

Activity 13



- 1 Do you think that people in your own area, if you come from a rural area, could start a resort like Mathias and Joyce did?
- 2 In what ways did they ‘think big and start very, very small’?
- 3 What advantage did they have from being near Honiara?
- 4 What kinds of people do you think come to their resort? Would they be the same kinds of people who go to the other two resorts we have looked at?

4 Eco-tourism: Tetepare Island Ecolodge

Some people say that a lot of tourism spoils the environment as forests need to be cleared for buildings. Tourists and resorts may throw rubbish around, which pollutes the sea and reefs. When too many tourists dive in a particular area, it can spoil the reef and disturb or even kill the fish and other wildlife. It can also spoil the social environment by showing an overseas lifestyle to Solomon Islanders, which they will not have the money to imitate, and by giving foreign ideas to young people, which spoils their customs.

Tetepare calls itself an **ecolodge** because it wants to encourage tourism which is **ecologically friendly**. Ecology is the study of the environment so this means it is friendly to the environment. It tries to preserve the natural environment, not to change or destroy it. It also tries to adopt a lifestyle similar to that of Solomon Islands, not an imported lifestyle.

It caters for tourists who want to see the unchanged natural environment—the coral reefs, the fish and other marine life, the natural forests and the plants, animals and birds within them.



Figure 13.20 A bungalow at Tetepare Island Ecolodge

Tetepare Island was a very good place to set up this kind of tourism as it was an island with no-one living on it, where the natural forests and reefs had not been touched or changed by people. It did have traditional owners so these owners set up a Landowners Association to preserve the island. They set up eco-tourism to attract tourists who wanted to see the unchanged natural environment. The tourist facilities are owned by this association, which collects any profits. These are used to help preserve the environment and do research into the plants and animals.

They built traditional leaf houses and provided places where visitors could cook their own food. There are no restaurants or bars or



Figure 13.21 Tourists looking for turtles

entertainment facilities to spoil the natural scenery or attract young people. It is quite cheap to stay there—\$350–450 per night in 2011—and attracts tourists who have a serious interest in nature.

Here is an extract from the resort's website.

Welcome to Tetepare

Tetepare Island, in the Western Province of the Solomon Islands, is one of the conservation jewels of the South Pacific. This long, rugged island, cloaked in rainforest and fringed with biodiverse reefs, is the largest uninhabited tropical island in the Southern Hemisphere. Home to one of the Solomon Islands' leading conservation projects and a unique, locally-owned and managed ecolodge, Tetepare's natural abundance attracts visitors from around the world.

Visit Tetepare

Tetepare's pristine rainforest, rich coral reefs, fascinating cultural sites and unique wildlife attract ecotourists from around the world. Tourists can swim in azure lagoons, snorkel in one of the largest Marine Protected Areas in the Solomons, walk in the rainforest, birdwatch, see rare and endangered species, assist rangers with conservation work, picnic on beaches and visit cultural sites from headhunting days.

By visiting Tetepare, ecotourists support our conservation program and help the Tetepare Development Authority ensure Tetepare is protected for future generations.

Accommodation

Accommodation at the Tetepare Island Ecolodge is provided in two traditional Melanesian leaf houses with twin or double beds.

Shower and toilet facilities are basic and clean. The water supply is rainwater. There is no electricity on Tetepare. In keeping with ecologically sustainable principles, we do not

run a generator on Tetepare. Solar energy is used to provide lighting in the eating area, the field station and the ecolodge.

Meals are prepared by our specially trained local cooks using fresh organic local ingredients, including vegetables grown in village gardens.

Respecting local *kastom*

We would always prefer it if no alcohol comes onto Tetepare; if you do bring any with you (there is none available on Tetepare), please be sensitive to local sensibilities and drink it only in your room.

When visiting the Descendant villages, please wear knee-length shorts or skirts. For getting in and out of our boats, female guests may also find it appropriate to wear some shorts beneath their skirts.

From *Tetepare Island Ecolodge website*, 2011

In 2012 the Landowners Association who own the Tetepare Ecolodge won an international award, the Equator Award, for a project that preserves the environment.

Activity 14



What sort of tourists is Tetepare trying to attract. Which sections of the website show you this? Are these tourists similar to those who might go to Sanbis Resort or to Maravagi?

5 Village stay: Gagaha, Isabel

Some tourists want to experience the real life in Solomon Islands villages and the way people live traditionally. They do not want special facilities but want to be treated as part of a Solomon Islands family.

Some villages or families, like Gagaha in Isabel, offer tourists accommodation in family homes or traditional leaf houses in the village where



Figure 13.22 A bungalow at Gagaha Village Stay

they can share the life of the family and be treated like a family guest. Gagaha is owned by Paul and Rosita Fafale. The tourists can learn how people live by doing what the family does—cooking, going to the gardens, fishing, playing sports or learning traditional skills such as making canoes. In the evening they can tell stories with the family or be entertained by traditional dancing and singing.

For this they will pay the family or the people of the village. In Gagaha in 2011 they paid \$200 per night or \$150 for a family room (four people). This is very cheap for a tourist paying in Australian dollars or other foreign currency, but it gives a good income for the family and the village. Guests can come by air to Fare airport and be met by the family transport or they can come direct by sea.



Figure 13.23 Guests can come to Gagaha Village Stay by sea.

Below is part of the brochure, which the family produces to attract visitors.

Gagaha Village Friendly Stay, Solomon Islands

Gagaha Village Stay lies on the edge of Poro Village, situated on the south-east coast of Isabel just 90 minutes' boat ride from the Provincial Capital Buala.

With pristine white sand underfoot and the crystal waters of the Pacific literally on your doorstep, this idyllic setting provides the perfect escape into paradise.

For adventurous travellers, the breakers that crash against the reef promise excellent surfing, with the best spots just 10 minutes' walk away. For those who prefer dry land, the many bush trails leading into the dramatic hills behind the home stay await your exploration.

The three spacious bungalows have been constructed using local materials and skills. Designed, built, and run by a local family, Gagaha is a home stay wherein the unique hospitality and culture of Isabel can be experienced first hand.

The owners have been welcoming foreign guests into their home for over twenty years, and know how to ensure that a rural environment does not mean less comfort! The home stay has been carefully designed to cater for the needs of every type of traveller.

As you follow the road stretching out in each direction from Gagaha, community life will unfold around you. This lodge truly is a gateway to the villages of Isabel.

The surrounding environment gives us everything we need—it is our supermarket and hardware store.

Gagaha Village Stay brochure, 2011

Activity 15



- 1** What sort of people is this village trying to attract?
- 2** What is the advantage of developing this kind of tourism?
- 3** What is meant by 'our hardware store' and 'our supermarket'? Why do you think they use these terms on a website aimed at people in Australia?

Who benefits from tourism?

Before we decide to encourage tourism, we should find out who benefits and what type of tourism might benefit most people. There are a number of people who may benefit from tourism. They include:

- the owners of the tourist facilities, who may be Solomon Islanders or expatriates—people or companies from overseas
 - employees—people employed to run the tourist facilities
 - the government through receiving taxes from resort owners and foreign money from tourists which can be used to buy things from overseas
 - other people who may help the tourists or sell things to them, for example: farmers selling food, taxi drivers transporting tourists, people selling carvings and artefacts to tourists, people entertaining tourists with traditional dancing or modern music.
- Figure 13.24 on page 318 summarises this.

Development of Tourism

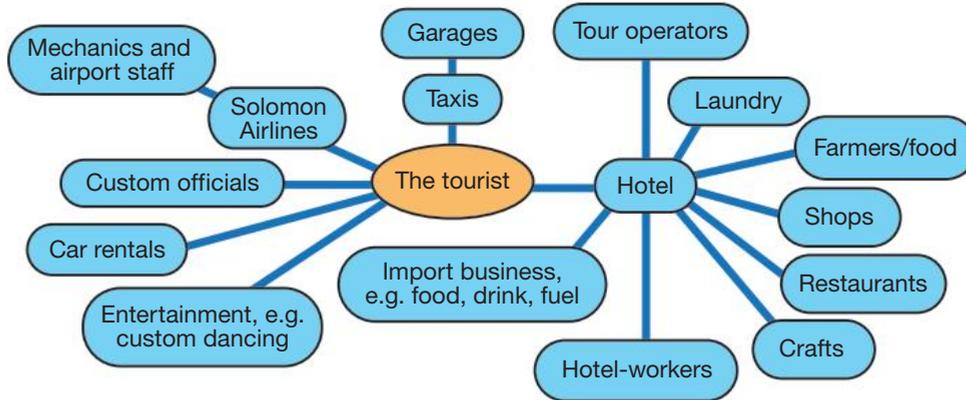


Figure 13.24 People that benefit from tourism

Activity 16



- You have looked at five types of tourism: large hotels, luxury resorts, local resorts, eco-tourism and village stays. For each type, suggest who will benefit and in what way. Figure 13.24 may help you. Copy and complete the table below.

Type of tourism	Who benefits and in what ways?
Large hotels	?
Luxury resorts	?
Local resorts	?
Eco-tourism	?
Village stays	?

- In groups discuss the following: Should we encourage large-scale or luxury tourism like Gizo Hotel or Sanbis Resort or small-scale local tourism like the other examples you have studied? Give reasons for your answer.
- Suggest what activities we might organise to attract tourists to come to our resorts.

From Activity 16 and Figure 13.24, you can see that tourism can benefit many people in the country, not only those who actually run the hotels and resorts. It creates employment for people both in the hotels and resorts and outside among those people who cater for

tourists. It gives training for these people so they become more skilled. It provides a market for certain types of goods, especially food, artefacts and transport facilities. It provides an income for the government in the form of taxes. Tourists pay in foreign money such as Australian dollars so it brings **foreign exchange** into the country. This can be used to buy imports we need from overseas.

The larger or luxury hotels and resorts will bring in more money, employ more people and pay more money to the government; however, some of that money may end up going overseas again. They may send their profits overseas, pay overseas workers and buy more things from overseas, including equipment for their hotels and food that overseas guests like to eat. If too much money goes overseas again, we will not benefit.



Figure 13.25 Tourists like to buy artefacts.



Figure 13.26 Tourism provides work for local people.

The smaller, locally owned resorts or village stays bring in less money, employ fewer people and pay less to the government. However, they benefit local people such as the owners or villagers more directly and nearly all the money earned stays in the local area.

Disadvantages of tourism

There are also some disadvantages of tourism. The following exercises will help you to think of some of the negative sides of tourism.

Activity 17



- 1 Imagine you are a young person living near a tourist resort where overseas people come to enjoy themselves by eating overseas-style food, diving and fishing, drinking alcohol and dancing in nightclubs. Write a story to say what effects this might have on your own life. The title might be 'Spoilt by the tourists'.
- 2 Discuss the following questions with a partner or in groups. Tourist resorts often want groups to perform traditional dancing to entertain the tourists, and tourists like to buy carvings and other artefacts to take home. Do you think all of the dances and carvings are really traditional? What good and bad effects might tourism have on our traditional dancing and

artefacts? Think about the many pan-pipe groups who now entertain tourists and even go overseas. Is the music they play really 'custom' pan-pipe music?

- 3 Look at Figure 13.27. Who are the 'well-dressed' people in the first cartoon? Who are they looking at? Why are they shocked? Who are the 'well-dressed' people in the second cartoon? Who are they looking at? Why are they shocked? Explain what the cartoons are saying about changes in attitudes to the way people dress.
- 4 Some tourists are single men or women without partners and may feel lonely. They may also be rich. Write a paragraph about 'How I became friends with a tourist.' Explain the good and bad things about such a friendship.
- 5 What do you think is meant by saying 'Tourism may make people into a nation of servants'?



Figure 13.27 'Natives' and tourists

Development of Tourism

One problem with tourism is that the tourists are often richer and lead a different lifestyle from the local people. As they are not at home and are here to enjoy themselves, they may even do things they would not do back home. Solomon Islanders, especially young ones, may see them and want to imitate them, and this may help to change or break down Solomon cultures and customs.

The cartoons show how some tourists dress in ways that are against modern customs in some Solomon Islands village areas. There are many other ways in which they may do things against our customs, often without realising it.

Tourism may help to encourage people to preserve their traditional dancing and artefacts to perform or sell for the tourists. However, some groups begin to make up dances they know tourists might like, such as those with 'sexual' movements and our dances may change. This may be good or bad. The modern pan-pipes are quite different from traditional pan-pipes, but they are a new form of music that is making Solomon Islands famous in the world. Carvers are making things for tourists which are not traditional. This may be creative, but if all carvers make the same kind of carving of a man killing an eagle because this is what tourists want, carving will no longer be creative.

Friendships may develop between tourists and local people and that may be good, as the two cultures get to know each other. Sometimes, however, the tourists start giving money to be friends with local people or local people may start asking for money. This may develop into more than just friendship—into sexual friendship—and the local people become prostitutes, charging money for sex.

Some tourists may like to have sex with very young people under 18 years old, which would be against the law in their own country and here. But the law may be less strict here, so they think they can 'get away with it'. These 'child sex tourists' have already become a problem in some other Pacific island countries.

Tourism is a 'service' industry. Tourists pay money for the 'services' we give them. This is good as long as Solomon Islanders are doing all the jobs from managing hotels to cooking or cleaning. But if expatriates with more skills in looking after tourists do most of the highly paid jobs and local people do only the poorly paid or less-skilled jobs, then we may become 'a nation of servants'.

Activity 18



In your exercise book, make a list of the problems of tourism.

OVERSEAS CASE STUDIES

The amount of tourism in Solomon Islands is very small compared with many countries of the world. The following case studies will look at some examples.

1 Bali, Indonesia: Sun, sea, sand and surf



Figure 13.28 Bali is located in Indonesia.

Activity 19

On the map in Figure 13.28 and on the World Map in Appendix 3, find Indonesia and the islands of Java and Bali.

Bali is a small Indonesian island to the east of Java. In 1981 a ‘backpacker’ tourist, Chris Brazier, visited the village of Ubud on Bali. He said it was a small village of rice farmers with one small lodge for visitors along a mud track where you could see lines of ducks walking to the green padi rice fields. When he returned there in 2006 it was a town with tarmac roads ‘jammed with cars’, hotels, restaurants and shops all aimed at tourists. This change has

happened to many places in the world in the last 30 years as tourism has become the fastest growing industry in the world. Backpackers find an interesting or beautiful place and tell others and local people start more lodges and cafes for increasing numbers of tourists. As more people come, hotels are built and the whole place is changed from a farming village to a huge tourist resort.

Activity 20



This could one day happen to villages in Solomon Islands, such as those that now have small lodges like Maravagi. Imagine this happened to a village near your home or a village you know. What would be the advantages and disadvantages for the people who live there? Would you like your home village or a village you know to become a big tourist resort?

These changes happened not only in Ubud but in many parts of Bali. Bali is close to Australia by plane and has four things many Australian tourists want: sun, sea, sand and surf. Many Australians are of European background and have pale skin. Some of them think they look more beautiful and healthy if their skin is darker brown and one way to make it darker is to sit in the sun or ‘sun bathe’. They like to do this on a sandy beach next to the sea so they can swim to cool down. Many also like to ‘ski’ or surf on the waves with large curved pieces of timber called ‘surf boards’. Bali has all these things—sun, sea, sand and surf—so it became popular for tourists especially from Australia. The island is smaller than Guadalcanal but 1.5 million tourists visit it each a year.

This has brought many benefits including employment and money for local people to build better houses, send their children to school, and start hotels, shops and other businesses selling things like handicrafts to the tourists.

Development of Tourism

However, it has also brought many problems. Traditionally Balinese were like Solomon Islanders and shared things with each other. Now many are mainly interested in money. Their traditional culture, based on a form of Hindu religion, is being changed or destroyed as young people are no longer interested in following it. There is pollution from the sewage from hotels in the sea and even in the streets. There are huge rubbish dumps full of plastic. Paddy fields used to grow rice have been taken over for hotels. Many young people imitate tourists and get drunk on alcohol or get high on marijuana and other drugs. Other people have become prostitutes or started stealing from tourists and child abuse is a problem.

In 2002 some Moslem people did not agree with the Australians sending their soldiers to Afghanistan to support the Americans so they bombed some nightclubs in Bali, killing 88 Australians and 114 people of other nationalities. This meant that tourist numbers went down but, in spite of the problems, local people still wanted the tourists to come back and tourists are now coming again.



Figure 13.29 Bali offers tourists sun, sea, sand and surf.



Figure 13.30 Some tourist hotels dump their rubbish on the street.

Activity 21



Tourism in Bali is mainly large-scale luxury tourism in hotels like the Gizo Hotel. Do you think this kind of tourism is suitable to develop in Solomon Islands? Give your reasons.

2 Zermatt, Switzerland: Beautiful scenery and mountains



Figure 13.31 Zermatt is located in Switzerland, in the far south on the border with Italy next to the Matterhorn Mountain.

Another form of tourism is found in areas where people think the scenery is beautiful, including in high mountainous areas.

Activity 22



Look at the photo in Figure 13.32 of mountains in the Alps in Switzerland, Central Europe.

- 1 Find Switzerland on the World Map in Appendix 3.
- 2 Describe what you see on the photograph and suggest why many people think this area is beautiful.
- 3 What do you think tourists might do there?

Figure 13.32 shows Zermatt and Matterhorn Mountain. Two hundred years ago, Zermatt was a small village like Ubud in Bali. The people were farmers who kept cows. In those days, many Europeans thought it crazy to climb mountains and they thought mountains like this were frightening, not beautiful. However, when people started to move into cities and work in factories, they wanted something different and became interested in climbing mountains and began thinking they were beautiful.

That is why Zermatt developed into a tourist resort. Like Bali, it now has many big and luxury hotels, restaurants and nightclubs. People climbed the Matterhorn in 1865, although four of them fell and died on the way down. People also became interested in skiing—that is, sliding across the ice and snow on long, thin boards attached to their boots. So places like Zermatt became **ski resorts**.

To ski you need to get to the top of a slope before sliding down. They built special railways called cable cars that swing up the mountains on ropes or cables. They also built ski lifts, which pull you up the mountain on your skis. Now there are dozens of these near Zermatt.



Figure 13.32 Alps near Zermatt with the Matterhorn Mountain in the background

The village only has 5500 people but it has accommodation in hotels and apartments for 14 000 people, plus over 100 restaurants. Like parts of Bali, it relies on tourists and the old way of life has totally disappeared.

Activity 23



- 1 One difference between Bali and Zermatt is that the people of Zermatt are as rich as the tourists, but in Bali most Balinese are much poorer than the tourists. What problems might this difference in wealth cause in Bali?
- 2 In Switzerland only local people can own the tourist resorts. In Solomon Islands overseas people can build and own tourist resorts but they cannot own the land — they must lease or rent it from the local people. In Vanuatu there are far more tourist resorts bringing in more money than in Solomon Islands partly because outsiders have been able to buy areas of land along the coast for tourist resorts. In some islands they have now bought nearly all the land along the coast. Which of these systems do you think is best: only locals can start and own resorts; outsiders can rent or lease land for resorts; or outsiders can buy land for resorts? Give reasons for your answer.



Figure 13.33 A tourist skiing

In 2003, a group of people climbed the Matterhorn when suddenly a huge landslide nearly killed them. This was caused by the snow melting and the rocks underneath sliding down. This is becoming more common and scientists say it is due to climate change, which you are learning about in Science. The temperatures are rising and causing more landslides. They say that eventually there may be no ice and snow left.



Figure 13.34 Cable car

3 Angkor Wat, Cambodia: Historical site



Figure 13.35 Angkor Wat is located in Cambodia.



Figure 13.36 Angkor Wat is a huge temple in Cambodia, South-East Asia, which was built over 900 years ago.

Activity 24



- 1 Find Cambodia on the World Map in Appendix 3.
- 2 Can you suggest why tourists might want to visit a place like this?

The temple in figures 13.36 and 13.37 is called Angkor Wat. It is part of an area of temples built in Cambodia between 800 AD and 1150 AD by the Khmer people who followed a form of Hindu religion, which was similar to the main religion of India today. They were ruled by kings who thought of themselves as 'gods'. They ordered the people to construct huge temples like this one, partly as burial places and memorials for themselves. Like many old temples and monuments they were built by people who were treated as slaves.

The area of Angkor became the largest town or urban settlement in the world until industries grew up in the towns of Europe in the 1800s. About 72 temples and many other buildings were built in an area covering over 1000 square kilometres. They also built roads, canals and houses, and huge areas for growing rice.

Later the Khmer kings were defeated in battle by other kings and the temples began to fall down and were covered with forest. They were rediscovered by French archaeologists who dug



Figure 13.37 Tourists enjoy learning about the history of Angkor Wat.

them up and rebuilt some from 1900 onwards. Very few people knew about them until the 1990s when tourists began to come. People began to realise they were some of the most amazing buildings in the world and the number of tourists increased from about 7500 in 1993 to over 900 000 per year in 2006. By 2010, three million per year were expected.

Many people in the world like looking at old buildings and monuments and there are many other places where tourists go for this purpose. They include the Egyptian pyramids, temples in Greece, and Machu Picchu and other areas in the Andes mountains in South America. Europe, China and Japan also have many old buildings in their cities that people like to visit.

The problem with Angkor Wat is that the buildings are made of soft, sandy rock, called sandstone. If too many people visit them they will begin to fall down. People have also built many hotels and restaurants and other tourist facilities, including golf courses, in the area and these all use water pumped up from the water table underground. This is lowering the water table and the temples are beginning to sink into the ground. Many people have also started to 'loot' the temples, or illegally take away carvings and even parts of the temples. All of this means that the temples, which are the reason tourists go there, are now being destroyed by the tourists themselves.

This is one example of **unsustainable tourism**—tourism that cannot sustain itself or be continued because the original reasons for the tourism are being destroyed. It is similar to unsustainable logging or fishing, which you have learnt about in previous chapters.

Activity 25



- 1 Give examples of other areas we have learnt about in this chapter, in Solomon Islands or overseas, which might be spoilt or destroyed by unsustainable tourism. Suggest how this may happen in each case.
- 2 People at Angkor Wat are trying to give rules or guidelines to tourists so that the area can be preserved and become sustainable. In groups, draw up a list of guidelines for tourists to make sure they do not spoil or destroy the areas they visit.
- 3 Why is eco-tourism a good example of sustainable tourism?

Have you achieved your goals?

Look back at your goals at the beginning of the chapter. Check whether you have achieved each goal.

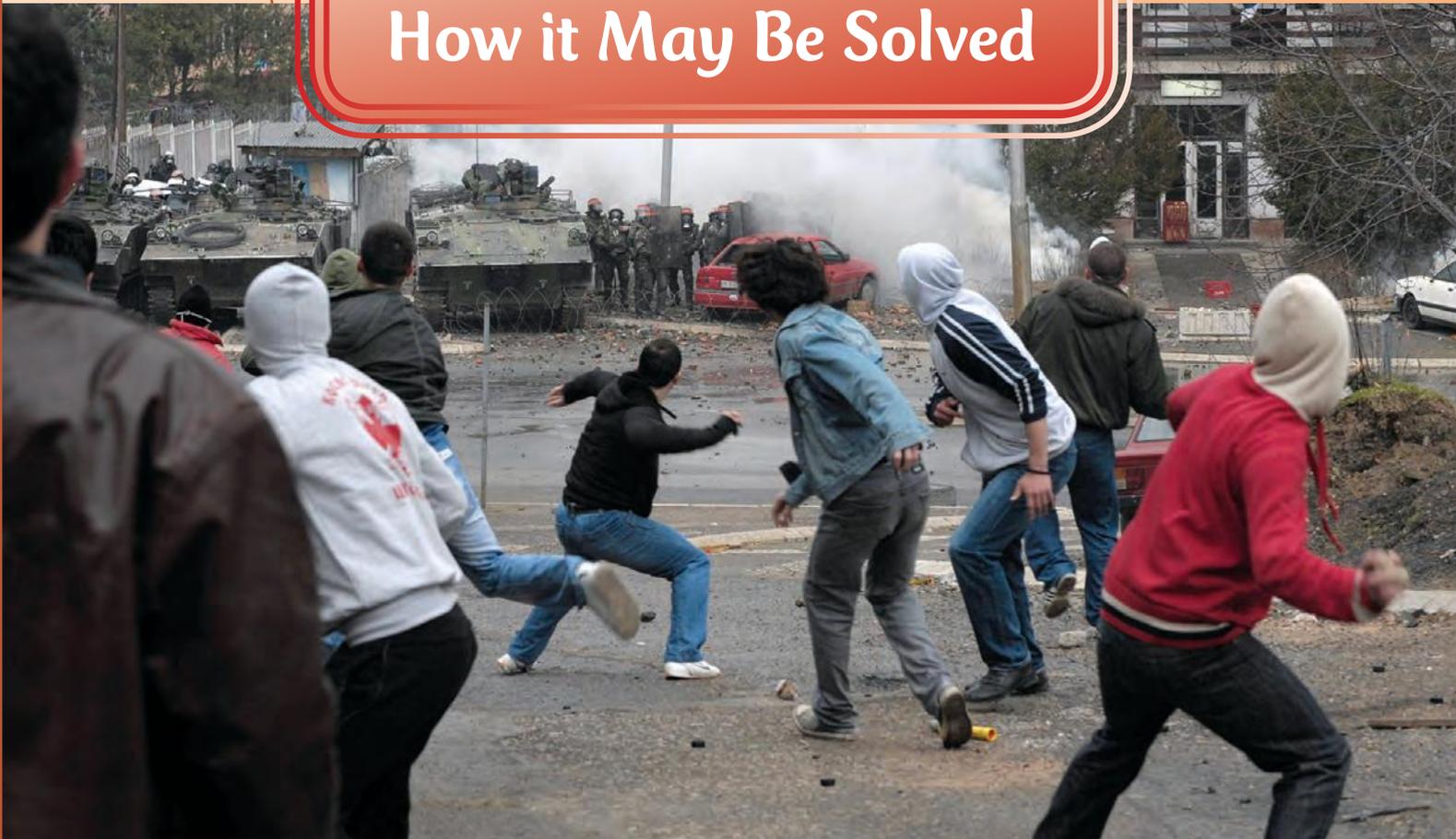
- Have you gained knowledge and understanding of each of the topics in the goals?
- Can you use each of the skills mentioned in the goals?
- Have you formed your own ideas and opinions about the topics in the chapter?
- Write a brief summary of not more than one page of what you have learnt in this chapter.

Glossary

- artefacts** traditional carvings and hand-made items
- backpackers** tourists who come wanting to travel cheaply, carrying everything in a bag or pack on their back
- bungalows** small houses or rooms, often leaf houses, where tourists stay in resorts
- concrete jungle** a big city where almost everything is made of concrete or cement
- cruise ships** or **liners** big ships full of tourists travelling to many different places
- ecolodge** places where tourists come to stay to visit areas of the natural environment
- ecologically friendly** fitting in with the natural environment and not spoiling it
- eco-tourism lodges** places where tourists come to stay to visit areas of the natural environment
- foreign exchange** foreign money that can be used to buy things from overseas
- holiday** time off from the work you normally do
- hotels** large places for people to stay with many facilities, usually expensive
- lodges** smaller, less expensive places for tourists to stay
- luxury** expensive with many comfortable facilities
- resorts** places where people can stay and find many activities to do
- scuba-diving** underwater-diving using masks and oxygen supplies carried on the back for breathing
- ski resort** a place where people come for skiing on snow
- stability** remaining the same for long periods
- surfing** ‘skiing’ on top of the waves on a flat board
- tourists** people who travel outside their own country just for pleasure or enjoyment
- unsustainable tourism** areas that become so popular they destroy or spoil the things tourists originally came to visit
- village stays** places where tourists come and stay in a village house and live with villagers and share their lives
- visitors** people who visit a country for special reasons, for example business, meetings or visiting relatives

Chapter 14

Social Unrest and How it May Be Solved



My goals:

- to understand what is meant by social unrest
- to study two examples of social unrest from overseas
- to understand the causes of the period of Solomon Islands' social unrest
- to appreciate that the causes of Solomon Islands' social unrest were similar to causes of social unrest in other parts of the world
- to know the main events during the period of social unrest
- to know the features of the main attempts to achieve peace
- to understand the origins and functions of RAMSI and the Truth and Reconciliation Commission
- to have formed opinions about the various peacekeeping attempts and how peace can be achieved and kept in future
- to have formed opinions about how Solomon Islands can achieve national unity

1 What is social unrest?

Activity 1



In groups, discuss the following questions.

- 1 Do you have, or have you had, any conflict in your own family or community? What caused the conflict? How were your family or community involved?
- 2 What good or bad effects did the conflict cause? Explain your answer.
- 3 Do you think the causes of this conflict could have been avoided in the first place? Explain your answer.
- 4 If the problem has been solved, how was it solved in the end? If it has not been solved, suggest how it might be solved.
- 5 Compare your answers with those of others in the class and make a list of common causes of conflict in Solomon Islands:
 - a within families
 - b within communities
 - c within provinces
 - d between different provinces
 - e in the country as a whole.



Figure 14.1 A demonstration during social unrest

We sometimes hear on the news, read in the newspapers or see on the television that there is **violence** in other countries. For example, it could involve huge crowds of people demonstrating, causing trouble to another group of people or destroying properties in towns and cities. Such problems may have many causes. People may be unhappy with their government, arguing over land or resources, or in conflict over different political ideas.

In Year 7 you learnt that **ethnic groups** are people with similar languages and cultures. The differences between groups of people with different languages and cultures can sometimes cause conflict. In some situations, we hear one ethnic group of people taking up arms and carrying out attacks against another ethnic group from within the same country. They may even kill each other and cause a lot of violence, disorder and fear. In some of these situations the police, or even the army, may step in with force to stop the violence. Where they find it hard to solve, they may request military forces or the army from another country to come and restore order.

We call this **social unrest**. But what is social unrest? How does it happen? What makes people become involved in social unrest? Social unrest is conflict between groups of people that may cause violence but is not a full-scale **war**. A war is when one group of people take up arms and fight another group. This can happen between two countries or between two groups within one country (which is called **civil war**). Social unrest is conflict that causes trouble but does not lead to war.

Next you will learn about two cases of social unrest that happened in two different countries. Read the information and answer the questions that follow.

CASE STUDIES

Kosovo ethnic unrest 1998–99



Figure 14.2 The former Yugoslavia

Ethnic groups in the former Yugoslavia

Kosovo is an area in south-east Europe. It was originally part of a country called Yugoslavia, shown on the map in Figure 14.2, which had many different ethnic groups living together in one country. Find these areas on the World Map in Appendix 3.

There were many different cultural groups, each with their own languages—Serbs, Croats, Bosnians, Albanians and others. There were also four different religious groups: Protestant, Catholic, **Christian Orthodox** (a religion common in Eastern Europe and Russia) and **Moslem** (people who practise **Islam**). For a long time, the country had a **communist** government that did not allow opposition and they lived peacefully together.

However, in the 1980s communism was overthrown and these ethnic groups started fighting each other. Yugoslavia broke up into

different new countries. One country was Serbia, which had two big ethnic groups: Serbs and Albanians. However, there is a long history of conflict between these two groups. **Tension** and violence between these two groups increased in Kosovo between 1998 and 1999.

In the whole country of Serbia, there were mostly Serbs; however, in Kosovo, one of its provinces, most people were Albanians. Albanians were poorer and thought the Serbs did not provide enough **social services** like health and education or other forms of development to Kosovo. The Albanians were not allowed to use their own language in education or the public service. Albanians were also mainly Moslem while Serbs were Christian Orthodox. The Albanians in Serbia therefore wanted Kosovo to be an independent, separate country from Serbia. However, the Serbs claimed that traditionally most of the land in Kosovo belonged to them and Kosovo must remain part of Serbia.

In 1998 the conflict increased when the Serbian President, Slobodan Milosevic, used the army to chase out ethnic Albanians living in Kosovo. The Serbian army carried out mass killings of Albanians throughout the country's villages. Albanian males were the main **target**. They were separated from the women and children and many were shot. Some had their bodies cut up, while others were burnt to death by the Serb army. Many Albanian women were raped. About 250 000 Kosovo Albanians had to run away from their homes.

This kind of killing is sometimes referred to as **ethnic cleansing** because it is aimed at getting rid of one particular ethnic group of people—the Albanians in this case.

Other governments, including the USA and western European governments, which were members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), decided that these

killings were wrong and must be stopped. NATO soldiers stepped into the conflict in March 1999. They carried out air strikes on Kosovo and Serbia between March and June 1999. Following NATO's actions, the Serb army further increased its killing regime and drove about 385 000 Albanians out of Kosovo into neighboring countries. By June, however, Milosevic agreed to withdraw Serb troops from Kosovo, allowing international peacekeepers in. The conflict ended after NATO soldiers entered Kosovo on 10 June 1999 and restored order. Those who had fled Kosovo for safety could return to their homes.

NATO set up its base there and sent their **security** forces or army to restore law and order until it handed over the work to the United Nations. The United Nations peacekeeping force, consisting of police, soldiers and others from many different countries including Fiji, looked after Kosovo until they gained their independence from Serbia on 17 February 2008.

An international investigation group later laid charges against those who were responsible for the killings during the conflict. Milosevic was arrested and tried by an international court but died before the trial ended.



Figure 14.3 Fighting on the streets of Kosovo during the social unrest, March 2008

Activity 2



- 1 Explain the main cause of the social unrest in Kosovo.
- 2 Who were the people involved in the unrest?
- 3 Why did the Serbian President take the action that caused more conflict?
- 4 Why did an outside organisation have to come in to stop the violence, rather than the Serbian government itself?
- 5 How was the conflict resolved in the end?
- 6 What similarity is there between the former Yugoslavia and Solomon Islands? As you learn about conflict in Solomon Islands in the second part of this chapter, think about the ways in which the conflicts in Solomon Islands were similar to those in Yugoslavia.

The Ogoni people's unrest



Figure 14.4 Ogoniland, Niger Delta, Nigeria

Social Unrest and How it May be Solved

Ogoniland is a small area of land situated in the Niger Delta Basin in Nigeria, West Africa, as shown on the map in Figure 14.4. Petroleum (oil) was discovered in Ogoniland in 1957. The Ogoni people are a small ethnic group of about 500 000 people. Much of their land has been damaged by the extraction of oil resources by oil companies since 1957.

The Ogoni unrest was caused by a number of issues and events. They include the following:

- The Nigerian government believed that they owned the land, so they allowed the oil companies in to extract oil without consulting the Ogoni people or seeking their permission.
- The Ogoni people's land and environment was destroyed by the oil companies, which has affected their livelihoods. Oil wells and spills pollute and destroy the land and rivers. This affects animals, crops and the health of the people.
- The Ogoni people never benefited from the wealth obtained from the oil fields on their land. Only the Nigerian government and the oil companies benefited from the wealth. As a result the region has never developed and the Ogoni people have become poor and continue to suffer.

The government and the oil companies have never compensated the Ogoni people for displacing them from their land and the destruction of their land and the environment. This was as a result of a government law. Like Solomon Islands, Nigeria was colonised by the British, and by British law all minerals under the ground are owned by the government, not by the people who live on and occupy the land above.

To show their concerns over the government's actions, the Ogoni people decided to fight for their rights. In 1992, they formed an organisation called the **Movement for the Survival of the Ogoni People (MOSOP)** to represent them in their struggle. Their aim



Figure 14.5 Much of the Ogoni people's land has been damaged by oil extraction.

was to get the Nigerian government and the oil companies to recognise their rights and solve their problems. Their leader was Ken Saro-Wiwa.

From December 1992, the conflict between the Ogonis and the oil companies had become worse. The Ogoni people engaged in public **protests** against the government and the oil company's operation on their land, resulting in violence on both sides. The MOSOP demanded that the company should pay them 10 billion dollars in compensation for the environmental destruction and conduct proper negotiations for any future drilling on their land.

When their demands were not met, the Ogoni people reacted by attacking oil operations, and stopping oil extraction from their territory.

In response, the Nigerian government took several actions against the Ogoni people. These actions included banning public gatherings and making it illegal for anyone to disturb the operation of oil companies. The military and police were also ordered into Ogoni villages to stop any **disturbances**.

Some of the actions that the government's military and police have been accused of carrying out are listed on the next page.

- Ken Saro-Wiwa, the head of MOSOP, and eight other activists were arrested in 1995. They were imprisoned without trial and sentenced to death by hanging in November 1995.
- About 10 000 Ogoni protesters were allegedly shot at on 30 April 1995, and ten people were wounded. The Ogonis were protesting against the laying of new oil pipelines through their homelands.
- Ogoni police allegedly sealed off the Ogoni area with road blocks.
- There were **brutal** attacks on Ogoni villages, which resulted in the death of 750 people and destroyed the houses and property of 30 000 people, leaving them homeless.
- Ogoni protestors were continually harassed by the military and the oil companies.

It is alleged that the oil companies and the Nigerian government worked together closely in carrying out these actions against the Ogoni people during the conflict.

Outside support for the Ogoni people's struggle

Many outside organisations and governments have opposed the way the Nigerian government has acted against the Ogoni people. As a result they took the following actions against them:

- The Commonwealth of Nations **suspended** Nigeria from being a member.
- The USA, the United Kingdom and the European Union refused to buy anything from or sell anything to Nigeria. This is called trade **sanctions**.
- Other countries were asked not to buy oil from the main oil company.

Efforts to settle the conflict

During the 1990s, several arrangements were put forward as ways to solve the conflict between the Ogoni people and the companies' oil operation.



Figure 14.6 The conflict has caused many Ogoni people to suffer.

An effort at **reconciliation** was initiated by the Methodist Church in 1998. A number of meetings were held between the Methodist Church in London, company officials and Ogoni leaders.

Renewed attempts at resolving these conflicts were started again in 2000 after a new democratic government came into power in Nigeria in 1999. The government directed the main oil company to start negotiations with the Ogoni people. A number of negotiations were tried, including one led by two respected church leaders, but all failed because there was 'a total distrust' between the Ogoni people and the oil companies.

In 2008, the main oil company Shell, based in the Netherlands, stopped taking oil from Ogoniland but one of their biggest pipes still went across the area and in 2008 the pipes burst. This caused 120 000 barrels of oil a day to flood onto the area and into the rivers. One barrel is like a 44 gallon drum! This was one of the biggest oil spills in history. People who visited the area reported: 'The air stinks, the water stinks and even the fish and crabs caught in the creeks smell of oil. The oil has found its way deep into village wells, it lies thick in the mudflats and there are brown and yellow slicks all along the network of creeks, swamps, mangrove swamps and rivers'.

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Most people were fishermen or depended on the water for their livelihoods so they had to leave. 'We used to live beautifully. Now we have no hope. People go hungry so they are learning to steal.' It is true that some young people do break the pipes and steal the oil but they say hunger forces them to do this.

After this some people from Ogoni employed British lawyers to take the main oil company to court and in 2011, the main oil company finally admitted it was their fault and agreed to pay compensation of hundreds of millions of dollars and help to clean up the area. A United Nations report also blamed the main oil company and said cleaning up would take decades.

Activity 3



- 1 What are the main causes of the Ogoni unrest?
- 2 Who were the people and organisations that were involved in the unrest?
- 3 How did the Ogoni people show their disagreement? Why did they do this?
- 4 What action did the government take in response to the Ogoni unrest? Suggest a better action the government could have taken to solve the unrest.
- 5 Explain some problems caused by this unrest to the Ogoni people and government.
- 6 What caused the main oil company to admit they were responsible in the end? Why do you think this took so long?
- 7 Do you think young Ogoni people are wrong to steal oil by breaking the pipelines?
- 8 Do you know of any disputes in Solomon Islands about minerals? Explain the disputes and who is involved.
- 9 In Solomon Islands also the British law remains, and minerals under the ground are owned by the government. Do you think this is a fair law? Who do you think should own

the minerals: the government or landowners? If the landowners own the minerals, who will benefit from them? If the government owns the minerals, who will benefit from them? What may the government use the money for?

- 10 In Bougainville, Papua New Guinea, a dispute similar to that in Nigeria led to unrest and a war in the 1980s and 1990s. Do you know what caused this and in what ways it is similar to the Nigerian problems? If so, explain this to the class. In 2010 overseas oil companies came to Papua New Guinea for a big Liquid Natural Gas (LNG) project which was beginning to cause problems. Find out what has happened to this now. Has it caused any more problems?

Social unrest occurs when groups of people refuse to obey the law. This can result in violence against people and the destruction of properties. Although certain people or leaders may be involved in the planning and carrying out of the activities, it may get out of hand and is often difficult to control.

The **targets** of social unrest vary depending on its causes and the feelings of the people involved. Targets can include shops, cars, restaurants, government offices, religious buildings or houses, as well as people from particular ethnic groups.

The aim of social unrest is to gain public attention for the concerns of certain groups of people who feel they are being ignored by the responsible leaders. To show their anger and **frustration**, they often try to cause problems to make the public aware of their worries or grievances in the hope that someone will do something about them. This can involve damaging public property such as government buildings, shops, vehicles and so on.

Dealing with social unrest is often a difficult task. If the police try to control the protests, angry protestors can throw stones at the police.



Figure 14.7 Police wearing riot gear and using tear gas

For their own safety during unrest, police are usually armed with **riot gear**, such as hard hats and shields. **Tear gas** is often used to control or send away crowds or to stop them from building up. This gas makes people cough and sneeze and makes it hard for people to breathe. This makes people run away but does not injure them permanently. Rubber bullets are used in similar ways. They can be fired from guns and hurt people but do not kill them. People who are involved in unrest are often arrested and charged in court.

Activity 4



In your own words, answer these questions:

- 1 What sort of people usually cause or take part in social unrest? Why do they decide to do so?
- 2 If you have a problem with the government or a group of people, how can you try to solve it without causing social unrest?
- 3 Why do you think the police usually start by using tear gas or rubber bullets rather than real live bullets? If they start with real bullets what is likely to happen?
- 4 In groups discuss the following questions. Would you ever take part in social unrest that used violence to harm people or destroy property? If so, when or under what circumstances might you do so?

2 Causes of social unrest

The case studies highlighted four of the most common causes of social unrest:

- 1 *Conflict between different ethnic groups.* In Kosovo there were two groups of people with different languages, cultures and religions and each group grew to dislike the other group. In Nigeria the Ogoni people form one ethnic group with their own language and culture, which is different from other ethnic groups that form the country of Nigeria.
- 2 *Conflict over land.* The Albanians said the land was theirs, but the Serbs claimed that they occupied the land before the Albanians. In Nigeria, according to the law, the oil that was underground belonged to the government; however, the Ogoni thought the oil should belong to them, or at least they should be consulted as the landowners. They did not agree with the land system introduced by the British in which the government owned the minerals underneath their land.
- 3 *Migration or movement of people.* The Serbs claim that they were the original occupiers of Kosovo and the Albanians came in later and took over. In Nigeria, many workers came to the Niger Delta from outside to work on the oil wells and this caused conflict between them and the original inhabitants.
- 4 *Benefits from resources and distribution of social services.* The Albanians thought that the Serb government was not providing them with as many social services like schools, medical facilities, transport and other forms of development as the Serbs themselves. The Ogoni complained that they did not benefit from the natural resources—the oil—that was on their land. The government left

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them poor, without social services or other forms of development.

In both cases problems were caused because the governments did not listen to the complaints and demands of the people concerned. Therefore, they decided to get involved in public demonstrations to show their anger in the hope that it would force the government to listen.

Social unrest happens in many places. As mentioned above, it is often caused by very strong disagreements over certain concerns between those involved. To avoid unrest, it is important that people who are involved are allowed to express their concerns freely. They can then come together and freely discuss their disagreements so that they can be solved in a peaceful way. This did not happen in the two cases studied.

3 Social unrest and peace processes

All social unrest or conflicts, whether they are small or big, have solutions or ways of resolving them. The methods responsible people or authorities use to try to solve these conflicts are what decide their success or failure. Often,



Figure 14.8 Workers subcontracted by an oil company clean up an oil spill.

however, the problem is not discussed until after violence has broken out. The problem is only discussed after its negative effects on communities—such as causing deaths, fear, destruction of properties, homelessness and widespread suffering to people—have been realised.

Activity 5



- 1 Do you remember that we discussed the solving of conflicts in Year 7? We said there are two main methods of solving them: internally and externally. In the case studies on pages 330–335, which conflict was solved internally and which was solved externally?
- 2 Divide into groups. Think of a real or imagined conflict in your own community. It might be about land ownership, pigs destroying someone's garden, boys making friends with girls of another community, whether to allow an overseas company to cut timber in the area, or any other conflict. Make up two stories and role-play or act them to show:
 - a the origins of the conflict
 - b how the conflict could be solved internally
 - c how the conflict could be solved externally.
- 3 Which is the best method to solve conflicts? Give your reasons.
- 4 Is it always possible to solve conflicts internally? Are there any conflicts that are difficult to solve internally?

The two examples in the case studies show the two methods of solving conflicts: internally and externally. In Kosovo the problem was solved externally. As we have seen, outside forces—NATO and the United Nations—came in to solve the conflict. This did eventually succeed.

In Nigeria an attempt was made to solve the problem internally by bringing the two sides together with a **mediator**. A mediator's job is to listen to both sides and suggest solutions that

both sides can agree to. In this case, two church mediators tried but neither really succeeded. You learnt about this idea in Year 7.

However, there have been other conflicts where outside forces have not solved the problem, such as when the USA invaded Iraq, and others where internal methods have succeeded with a little outside help, such as the conflict on Bougainville in Papua New Guinea.

Activity 6



- 1 Why do you think violent social unrest, in which people use guns, is usually solved by another force, also using guns, as a first step (as was the case of Kosovo by NATO)?
- 2 What do two sides have to do to solve a conflict internally by negotiation?

CASE STUDY

Solomon Islands social unrest 1998–2002

Between 1998 and 2002 social unrest occurred here in Solomon Islands, mainly between some people from Guadalcanal and some people from Malaita. Many people believed the causes of this unrest began long before it turned to violence in 1998. One important cause, although not the only one, was the large number of people from Malaita who had settled in Guadalcanal. The period of violence came to be called the period of Tension. Let us look at what you know about this.

The **tension** or social unrest in Solomon Islands at this time was caused partly by all the four problems described on pages 335 and 336, although there were other problems as well.

Activity 7



You may have heard something about this period of Tension, or you or your relatives or friends may even have been involved. In groups, tell other members of the group what you know about the tension. Here are some questions to help you, but you may talk about anything you know about the tension.

- 1 What was the main argument between the two sides?
- 2 Were all people of Guadalcanal or all people of Malaita involved?
- 3 Which group of people were forced to move from their homes? Where did they go to?
- 4 Which two groups were involved in fighting?
- 5 What sort of weapons were used?
- 6 Who demanded compensation?
- 7 How did the fighting end — was it through internal or external means?

Activity 8



- 1 As you read the passages below, copy the following tables.
- 2 Make a summary of reasons for the social unrest in Solomon Islands. You have learnt how to make summaries like this in English.

Reasons for the social unrest	
Reason	Summary of main problems
Movement of people or migration	?
Conflict over land	?
Distribution of natural resources and benefits from these	?
Conflict between ethnic groups	?

- 3 Make a comparison between the social unrest in Solomon Islands with that in Kosovo and Nigeria. Write down any similarities between the two. If you think there are none, leave the space blank.

Similarities		
Reason	Kosovo	Nigeria
Movement of people or migration	?	?
Conflict over land	?	?
Distribution of natural resources and benefits from these	?	?
Conflict between ethnic groups	?	?

Activity 9



- 1 You learnt about migration in Year 7. Why do people sometimes migrate?
- 2 Guadalcanal is the largest island in Solomon Islands in area. A lot of the economic, government, business and agricultural activities in the country are found on Guadalcanal. Make a list of important activities that are found on Guadalcanal. Suggest some reasons these activities are located there.
- 3 From this answer, suggest reasons many people have migrated temporarily or permanently to Guadalcanal. Remember, Guadalcanal includes Honiara.

- 4 If you are originally from another island but now live in Guadalcanal, why did you move?
- 5 If you are not originally from Guadalcanal, do you have any relatives living there now or who have lived there? Why did they go there and what did they do?
- 6 If you are originally from Guadalcanal, have you or any of your relatives gone to live on other islands?
- 7 Copy and fill in the following table to show how many people from your class have moved into or out of Guadalcanal.

Our class: movement to and from Guadalcanal (including Honiara)		
	Number	Reasons they moved to or from Guadalcanal
People originally from Guadalcanal	?	?
People originally from Guadalcanal now living on other islands	?	?
People not originally from Guadalcanal	?	?
People who have lived or are living on Guadalcanal, or who have relatives who have lived there	?	?

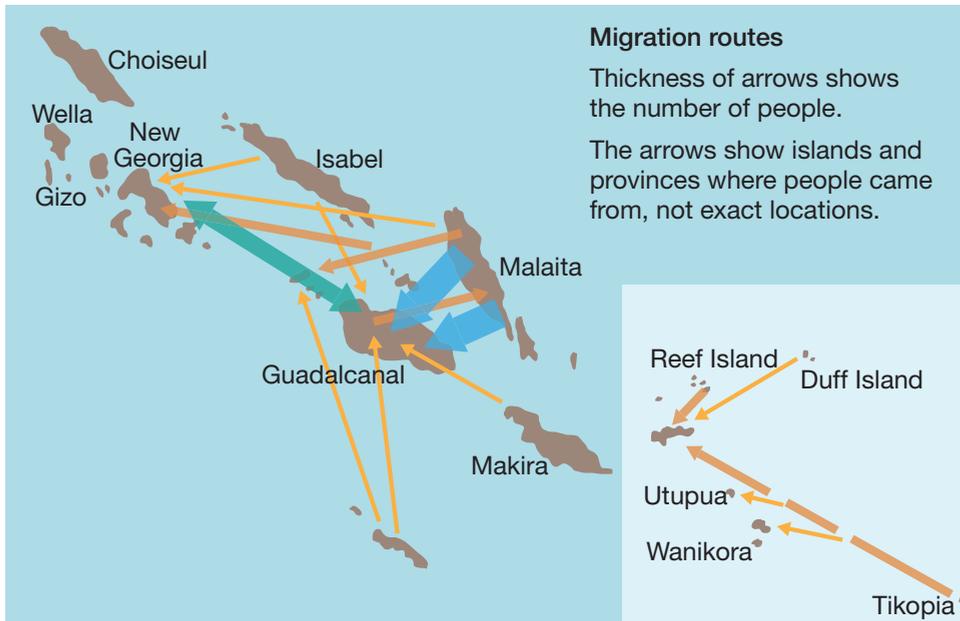


Figure 14.9 Modern migration within Solomon Islands

From this survey in Activity 9 you may find that not many people from Guadalcanal have moved to other islands, but many people from other islands have moved to Guadalcanal. This is a common pattern, although your class or area may be different.

In your answers to Activity 9, question 2, you will see one reason for this movement. Guadalcanal is not only the largest island in area but contains the capital city, Honiara, which is by far the largest town in Solomon Islands. Due to this, the headquarters of the government and all the ministries are there.

Honiara also contains the headquarters of most big businesses, including banks, the biggest shops, the main port and the largest numbers of schools, medical facilities, hotels, entertainment and sports facilities and many other things. For this reason people from all over the country come to Honiara for work or to look for work.

Guadalcanal also has the largest area of fertile flat land in Solomon Islands, used for the biggest plantation and, in 2011, the only mine, Gold Ridge. Many people also come to work in these areas.

Malaita has a smaller area than Guadalcanal, but the largest population of any island in the Solomons: 137 000 in 2011. It only has about 15% of the land but over 26% of the population living there. This means the average density of population in 2011 was 33 people per square kilometre in Malaita and only 18 per square kilometre in Guadalcanal (excluding Honiara).

So Malaita is more crowded and, as we have seen in Chapter 1, Malaitans have always moved out to work, starting with those who



Figure 14.10 Settlement in Guadalcanal—many of the people that live here may be from other islands.

moved to Queensland in blackbirding days. So after World War II, when the capital was moved to Honiara and plantations were developed on the Guadalcanal Plains, many people from Malaita and other islands moved to Guadalcanal to look for work. Not everyone found work, so there were also many unemployed people from other islands. Guadalcanal people had their own land and so were less interested in working for payment.

By the 1990s some people of Guadalcanal started saying that there were too many Malaitans, as well as people from other islands, on Guadalcanal and they should go back to their original islands. Not many people listened to them.

Conflict over land

People from other islands, especially Malaita, saw that Guadalcanal had plenty of land and fewer people, and began to ask if they could buy land on the Guadalcanal Plains. Many Guadalcanal people started selling customary land to those from other provinces. Many individuals, who were often chiefs or claimed to be chiefs, were selling land without discussing it with other members of their tribe, causing arguments among landowners. Over the years, many young Guadalcanal people viewed this as a sale of their **birth right**. Most members of the tribe, especially women and the younger people, never benefited from such a sale of customary land. Many land disputes emerged within landowning groups and between them and the new 'owners' of land.

At the same time there was an uneven distribution of good land within Guadalcanal itself. People living on the Guadalcanal plains, which are flat and fertile, had plenty of good land. Those on the weather coast, where mountains come down to the sea, had very little good land. Some of these people did not

like to see people from other islands taking land when they themselves were short of good land.

There is also, as in Nigeria, a conflict between the traditional Melanesian idea of land ownership and the introduced British or European one. Europeans have the idea of **freehold land**. This means that if a person buys a piece of land, it is their land forever and they can hand it over to their children. This is a written law and became part of the law of Solomon Islands. Melanesia does not have this concept. Traditionally in Melanesia, even if a person pays money for a piece of land, it remains the property of the original landowners, who can prove this by the fact that their ancestors are buried there. The original landowners may want the land back later, as they may consider that it is still theirs. So a person can pay to use the land for some time, but the property remains the property of the original landowners. This is more like the European idea of **leasehold**.

Ideas on land ownership are changing, partly because of European ideas and partly because Solomon Islanders are getting used to more permanent settlements, rather than moving around as in the past. This is partly due to the introduction of permanent cash crops like coconuts or cocoa. Most of the people who had bought land on Guadalcanal thought they had done so under the introduced written law and it was theirs forever. Many Guadalcanal people wanted to follow the Melanesian custom and claim the land back. They started forcing people to leave the land and go back to where they had come from.

Surprisingly most of the people left the land peacefully, perhaps because they recognised the traditional Melanesian custom. Some people at the time said they were not 'displaced people' who had nowhere to go, like Albanians driven out of Kosovo, but people moving back to their original homelands.

At the same time many other people, especially from Malaita, had built houses on land on the edges of Honiara without buying the land at all. These people are called **squatters**. Guadalcanal people also started to force these people to leave.

Finally some Guadalcanal people said that Honiara was built on Guadalcanal land so the government should pay rent or compensation for this.

Activity 10



- 1 In the area you come from, can someone come and buy land and claim it as theirs forever? Do you follow the European or Melanesian idea of land ownership? If you are not sure, ask your relatives or elders.
- 2 If a large number of people from other islands came to your island to work, buy land or squat on land, do you think people would object?

Use of resources and distribution of social services

In Solomon Islands we rely mainly on our natural resources including forests, marine resources, minerals and agriculture to make money from exports. Some people started to say that most of the money went to the government and the overseas companies like the plantation and mine owners, and very little



Figure 14.11 Oil palm plantation, Guadalcanal



Figure 14.12 Gold Ridge mine, Guadalcanal

was paid to the resource owners themselves. For instance, the landowners on the Guadalcanal Plains and around Gold Ridge said they were getting very little benefit from the plantations and the mine. As in Nigeria, according to the law given by the British, the landowners did not own the underground minerals.

A related problem is that most of the development activities and services are concentrated only in certain areas, especially Honiara and north-east Guadalcanal. People from other areas felt neglected. This included both the whole of Malaita and the Weather Coast side of Guadalcanal itself, away from the developed areas. As we have seen, people from this coast also felt they should have access to better land.

There was also a widespread feeling against **corruption** or politicians and others using government money and resources for their personal gain. Many people felt that this meant that there was not enough money to provide services to the people, because the money was used privately for individuals.

One result was that some people began to demand a change in the system of government from Provincial Government to State Government. Each province would become a state with a bigger share of the natural

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resources in their area and more power to control and decide on land ownership and movement between islands.

Conflict between ethnic groups

Many people believe that the social unrest in Solomon Islands was not mainly an ethnic conflict, but was due to the other three factors mentioned above. However, most of these sources of conflict involved people from Guadalcanal against people from other islands, especially those from Malaita. This was not surprising if you look at the population. As we have seen, about 26% of the population of Solomon Islands lives in Malaita. Many Malaitans have also moved to other islands or have married people from other islands, so the total number of people with Malaitan or part-Malaitan origins is at least one third of the whole population of Solomon Islands.

The result was that ethnic differences contributed a lot to the tension. Guadalcanal people wanted people from other islands, especially from Malaita, to leave. Many also claimed that people from Malaita looked down on them and did not respect their culture. They claimed that some Guadalcanal people had been killed by people from Malaita and demanded compensation. So the fighting that occurred in this period often involved people from Guadalcanal and people from Malaita fighting each other, so it was sometimes ethnic.

Events

Activity II

As you read the following section, draw a timeline to show the development of the social unrest in Solomon Islands.



The problems and complaints about the situation in Guadalcanal had been raised with the Central



Figure 14.13 MEF militants

government as far back as 1978 and again in 1988, but no action was taken to resolve them. As the tensions increased, some people on Guadalcanal began to plan to take action. In November 1998 a group of young Guadalcanal men showed their frustration by attacking Malaitan settlements, which also included people from other provinces. They destroyed property and chased many people from the settlements, especially on the Guadalcanal plains.

Within a couple of months the violence increased, and an armed group, called the Isatabu Freedom Movement (IFM), from Guadalcanal was formed. Many of these came from the weather coast area where, as we have seen, there was a shortage of good land. These and other armed groups came to be called “**militants**” because they believed in using force. They used weapons stolen from the police, home-made weapons and allegedly other weapons supplied from outside. By June 1999, at least 200 people had been killed and large numbers of people (from all provinces, although mostly from Malaita) were forced out of settlements, especially on the Guadalcanal Plains and in areas near Honiara. No-one knows exactly how many people were forced to move. Many people say 20 000, but others say it was less. Most of them left peacefully after being threatened by the Guadalcanal youths. Some people say this was because they recognised that, by Melanesian custom, the original landowners had a right to claim their

land back. However, many of those who left started to demand that the government should pay compensation for their loss of land and properties.

Throughout 1999 there were conflicts and fighting between the police and the IFM. By April 2000 about thirteen IFM members had been killed by the police.

The government seemed uncertain about what to do and did not act quickly. Displaced Malaitans and others demanded compensation from the government but the government said it was not their job to pay. By the beginning of 2000, groups of young Malaitans formed in Honiara to defend their people against the IFM, who they claimed were planning to attack and take over the town. Eventually this group became known as the Malaita Eagle force (MEF). They claimed that they represented all Malaitans, including those still in Honiara and those who had been forced to leave. They said their aim was to defend their people and Honiara and also to demand compensation for properties damaged and destroyed by the IFM, as well as the killing of 23 Malaitans. By February 2000, conflicts between the IFM and MEF became common and a number of people were killed on both sides during shootouts around Honiara.

On 5 June 2000 the MEF joined with Malaitan members of the Royal Solomon Islands Police (RSIP) in what was called a 'joint operation'. They took over the police **armoury** at the police headquarters in Rove, threatened Prime Minister Bartholomew Ulufa'alu at gunpoint and forced him to resign. They were especially angry that he had not responded to their demands for compensation. A new government under the prime ministership of Manasseh Sogavare was elected. Some said the election was not completely free, as the members were frightened of the MEF controlling Honiara. In the months that followed, fighting between

the IFM and MEF continued. By this time, it was estimated 200 people had been killed since late 1998.

By August 2000 there was trouble affecting almost all parts of the country:

- The government almost broke down as it came to be controlled by the militants, especially the MEF.
- Businesses closed and stopped paying taxes.
- The government ran short of money and could not pay for services or even pay its own workers, including teachers and police.
- Some provinces wanted to break away from Solomon Islands because they were not getting any money from the government or did not want to be involved in the disputes.
- The police, many of whom had joined with the MEF, had no power.
- Schools, health clinics and other government services on Guadalcanal and elsewhere were forced to close.
- Some private companies on Guadalcanal and many other businesses in Honiara, including Solomon Islands Plantations (SIPL) and Gold Ridge, closed down.
- Students and workers with connections to Malaita and other provinces were forced to leave Guadalcanal.
- Most foreign nationals working or living in Solomon Islands were evacuated by their governments.

Activity 12



- 1 Explain in your own words any three causes of the social unrest in Solomon Islands.
- 2 Who were the people involved in the unrest?
- 3 Why did people want to live in Guadalcanal?
- 4 What is a militant?
- 5 How do you think this social unrest might have been avoided?
- 6 Explain in your own words some of the effects of the ethnic tension on people, government, business and services.



- 7 If large numbers of people came from other islands to settle and work in the area you come from, do you think the same thing might happen as happened in Guadalcanal?
- 8 Imagine you were either a militant or a settler in Guadalcanal. Make up and write a story of what happened to you during the tension.
- 9 Compared to Kosovo or Nigeria do you think the social unrest in Solomon Islands was very violent?



Figure 14.14 IFM militants

Solutions: peace-making initiatives or attempts to solve the problems

Attempts at resolving the social unrest began in 1999. In the end there were five kinds of **peacemaking**, followed later by two more that built on the first five.

1 Custom feasts

In May 1999 traditional chiefs, church leaders and politicians from Guadalcanal and Malaita were brought together for a *kastom* feast to reconcile with each other with exchanges of traditional gifts. This did not always work, perhaps because it was too soon. However, it has been used effectively to re-build relationships between groups.

2 Peace conferences and agreements

There were a number of peace conferences, some with outside support. The former leader of Fiji, Sitiveni Rabuka, came as Special Envoy under the Commonwealth. Some of these peace initiatives persuaded the two sides to talk and come to agreements, usually involving compensation paid by the government to both sides. However, in some cases the two sides refused to sign the agreement because they did not fully agree with it, especially about the payment of compensation and giving **amnesty**—this meant promising that the militants would not be punished for what they had done. When compensation was paid, it was often taken by politicians or others and the militants themselves got nothing. Some in the militant groups did not want peace, as being in the groups gave them power over people and gained them money, often by force.

3 The Townsville Peace Agreement

In 2000, after other agreements did not work, it was decided to invite leaders of both groups of militants, the MEF and IFM, and government representatives to Townsville in Queensland, Australia to negotiate peace. This was arranged

Activity 13



In English you have learnt how to summarise information in branching diagrams. Copy the branching diagram below. Briefly summarise the peacemaking initiatives outlined on the branching diagram.

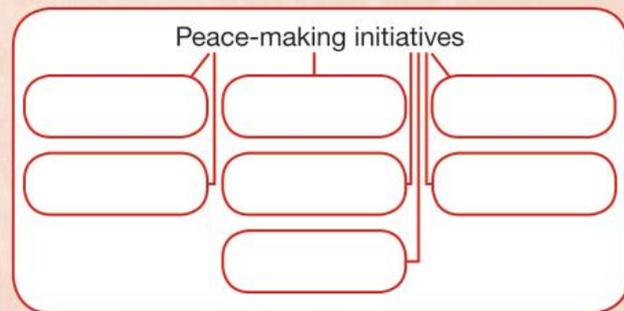




Figure 14.15 Peace conference

by the Australian government, who gave them only three days to do it. Both sides signed the agreement but one Guadalcanal leader, Harold Keke, refused to attend. The agreement said that all weapons must be handed in with the supervision of an overseas **peace-keeping** force and Parliament should pass an Amnesty Act or law to say that those who took part in the tension and handed in their weapons could not be taken to court or put in prison. Those who had lost land or property would be compensated by the government and militants would be paid for handing in weapons and returning to their villages. Some would be allowed to join the police as special constables.

4 Overseas peace-keeping forces

After two conferences, including the Townsville Agreement, there were agreements that the militants would surrender or give in their weapons and peace-keeping forces from overseas came to supervise this. A Commonwealth one came from Fiji and Vanuatu in 1999 but did not succeed. In October 2000, after the Townsville Agreement, a local **Peace Monitoring Council (PMC)** of Solomon Islanders was set up to help carry out the peace. This was helped by an International Peace Monitoring team with unarmed New Zealanders, Australians and other Pacific islanders. These were more successful. The



Figure 14.16 Overseas peace monitors

PMC appointed field peace monitors in many areas and they worked closely with people at the local or 'grassroots' level so that many weapons were handed in.

5 National Peace Council (NPC)

The overseas force left in 2002 and their work was taken over by the PMC, which was renamed the National Peace Council and given more jobs. The National Peace Council continued to develop many groups of local peace monitors to help in mediating conflicts, look for weapons and give warning of any further problems. They also took over the idea of 'Weapons Free Villages'. When weapons had been collected from a village it was inspected and given a sign saying 'Weapons Free Village'. Villages displayed this with pride to show that they had created their own peace. More than half of all the weapons eventually collected were collected by the NPC, helped by the Melanesian Brothers, as described below. The NPC worked well and collected many weapons but was eventually shut down after the larger outside force of RAMSI arrived.

6 Peace-making groups

Throughout this period there were two groups who tried to persuade the militants and others to keep the peace. Various groups of women from both sides, some of them mothers of the

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militants, visited the militants and tried to persuade them to stop fighting.

Brothers from the Melanesian Brotherhood also moved between both sides and were generally respected by both sides. They also helped the National Peace Council in collecting many weapons. During the worst fighting they set up camps between the 'bunkers' or areas of the IFM and MEF and moved successfully between the two to try to bring peace. They were so respected that some businesses and even an airline asked the brothers to guard them instead of the police. Unfortunately, however, one group of people on the Weather Coast, led by Harold Keke, did not respect them and killed seven brothers when they were trying to negotiate peace.

Activity 14



In groups discuss the strengths and weaknesses of each of the above types of peace initiatives. Why do you think they did not work in the end?

7 RAMSI

Even after all these peace initiatives and the signing of the Townsville Peace Agreement, there were still problems with law and order in the country, especially in Honiara. This involved not only the militants but criminals who took advantage of the situation to rob people, rob banks and even demand money from the government Treasury. Harold Keke and his followers on the Weather Coast were still causing trouble. The government was not able to control this, partly because the police, some of whom had taken part in the tension, were no longer reliable, especially when they were joined by ex-militants under the Townsville Agreement. The government also found it hard to carry out the Townsville Agreement quickly enough to satisfy the



Figure 14.17 These are the graves of the seven Melanesian Brothers who were killed while trying to bring peace. The graves are at Tabalia, the headquarters of the Brotherhood.

militants. A lot of the compensation promised ended up with the wrong people. The Amnesty was not clearly established.

Due to these problems, the government, by now led by Allan Kemakeza, decided to invite an Australian-led military assistance group to come to Solomon Islands in 2003. This had been requested from Australia in 2000, even before the tension increased, but Australia had refused. However, in 2001 a group of terrorists bombed and destroyed one of the tallest buildings in America, the World Trade Centre. This made all countries, including Australia, frightened that terrorists might come to places like Solomon Islands, where the government was having problems, and threaten Australia. It was also obvious to the Australians that, after three years, the majority of Solomon Islanders did not want violence and would accept any assistance to end it. So this time the Australian government agreed to send in a team of military people and police to try to solve the problem.

It was agreed that this assistance should not just come from Australia but from the whole Pacific-Island region under the Pacific Forum. The Solomon Islands Parliament passed a law to allow a peace-keeping group to operate in the

country. So the group, known as the Regional Assistance Mission to Solomon Islands (or RAMSI), came to Solomon Islands on 24 July 2003. It consisted of people from fifteen countries in the region, including Australia and New Zealand, but was led by Australia. The idea was that RAMSI would help to return law and order to the country so that Solomon Islanders could make peace and reconcile with each other in a secure and safe atmosphere.

Although some people did not like the idea, especially the militants, most people welcomed it.

Activity 15



The following photographs summarise the work done by RAMSI. Look at these photographs and write a brief summary of 'The work of RAMSI' in your exercise book.



Figure 14.18 Negotiating an agreement in Canberra: Alan Kemakeza, Prime Minister of Solomon Islands, and John Howard, Prime Minister of Australia, discuss the possibility of help from Australia.



Figure 14.19 Agreement being signed by all members of the Pacific Forum. It was decided to involve all members of the Pacific Forum, a body combining all independent countries in the Pacific. This body had already signed the Biketawa Declaration, which said they would help each other in times of trouble.



Figure 14.20 Landing at Henderson: some members of RAMSI arrived at Henderson Airport and some came by sea. They were generally warmly welcomed by Solomon Islanders.



Figure 14.21 Collecting weapons: RAMSI continued the work of the NPC and Melanesian Brothers by collecting weapons and destroying them. In some cases whole groups handed in their weapons, which were burnt.

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Figure 14.22 Patrolling: At first the army was used to patrol with guns so people became frightened and stopped fighting or causing trouble.



Figure 14.24 Destroying weapons



Figure 14.25 Restoring security: Later, more emphasis was put on explaining things to people. Here a civilian helping RAMSI is talking to villagers.



Figure 14.23 Restoring security: After a while many people were demanding peace. The big peace march in Honiara is shown here.



Figure 14.26 Participating Police Force (PPF): RAMSI police helped the Solomon Islands police to restore law and order and to re-train the local police force. Here one of the PPF advisors is working with Assistant Commissioner Edmund Sikua of the Royal Solomon Islands Police.



Figure 14.27 Assisting government departments: RAMSI officers worked in government departments to make them more efficient and train local officers. This was especially the case in the Treasury, so that government taxes would be collected and spent properly again, and in Law and Justice, where they helped as lawyers, magistrates and judges.



Figure 14.28 Assisting government departments



Figure 14.29 Assisting government departments

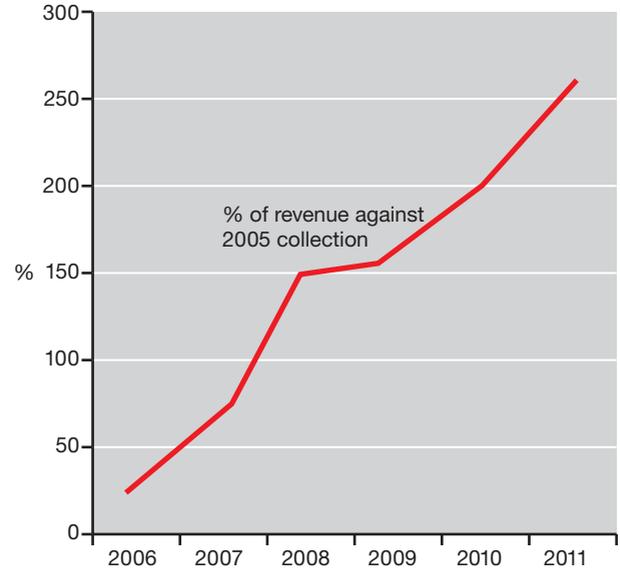


Figure 14.30 RAMSI helped to improve the Inland Revenue Department, which collects taxes for the government. Before and during the unrest, many companies and people did not pay taxes or were given permission by the Minister not to pay. This graph shows how the collection of taxes was improved with RAMSI's help from 2006–11. From 2000–11 tax collection increased by 300%, so the government had much more money to provide services and to pay its workers.



Figure 14.31 Large numbers of militants and others who had caused trouble during the period of Tension were arrested and tried.



Figure 14.32 After trial, many were put in prison, although some people said RAMSI ignored the Amnesty Act, which had been passed after the Townsville Agreement. New prisons were built to cater for all the prisoners and a new Court House was built in Auki, which is shown in this picture.



Figure 14.33 Community relations: RAMSI tried to go to villages and elsewhere and make friends with the people. Here a RAMSI member was entertaining people in a village.



Figure 14.34 Joy Kere, the Permanent Secretary for Peace and Reconciliation, and the Assistant RAMSI Coordinator are talking to children at a reconciliation ceremony for peace. Later Joy Kere's ministry looked after the Truth and Reconciliation Commission.



Figure 14.35 Fighting corruption: Government bodies that were meant to prevent corruption were strengthened, including the Auditor General, who inspects all departments to see that government money is spent properly; the Ombudsman, who deals with public complaints against corruption in the government; and the Leadership Code Commission, which can prosecute or discipline government leaders who misuse money. Here Janet Tuhaika and Alice Pollard are in front of posters against corruption, which RAMSI helped to produce.

Activity 16



- 1 What does RAMSI stand for and how many countries are part of RAMSI?
- 2 When this book was written in 2012, RAMSI was still here. Find out if they are still here now.
- 3 Has RAMSI achieved its main aim in restoring order in the country? Explain your answer.
- 4 Do you think Solomon Islands would still solve its law and order problems if RAMSI had not come? Explain your answer.
- 5 If RAMSI leaves the country, or has left the country, do you think the problems of the past tension will come back again? Explain your answer.
- 6 Why did our local police force fail to maintain law and order during the tension?

- 7 Copy and fill in the table below to suggest some of the advantages and disadvantages of bringing in an outside force like RAMSI to solve our problems?

Outside forces such as RAMSI	
Advantages	Disadvantages

- 8 Do you think the Solomon Islands people should support the work of RAMSI in the country? Give your reasons.

The Truth and Reconciliation Commission

Some people have said that although RAMSI helped to bring peace and to make government more efficient again, too much was done by the outsiders in RAMSI and not enough by Solomon Islanders. They say that real peace can only be built up from village level, not brought in from outside or imposed from above by the government. The people themselves need to reconcile with each other, admit their mistakes and agree to live with each other in peace again. They say that peace will come by using a more traditional Melanesian way, through bringing the different groups of people together to talk to each other and reconcile or forgive each other, rather than punishing everyone by putting them in prison. This means a **'bottom-up' approach**, not the **'top-down' approach** of RAMSI. This was one reason for introducing the Truth and Reconciliation Commission.

One of the most surprising things was that many of those who were put in prison did not continue to see each other as enemies but made friends and reconciled with each other in prison. This was helped by the very strong

Christian influences in Solomon Islands, and church groups helped the different groups in prison to come together.

For a long time the churches had suggested that we should have a Truth and Reconciliation Commission to encourage the 'bottom-up' approach, to involve more ordinary people in the peace process, and to build on this Christian tradition. Finally the government agreed and a national Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC) was formed on 29 April 2009.

Its role was to find out the causes of the ethnic violence. It was purposely set up to look at people's bad memories and experiences during the conflict. The members of the TRC organised public gatherings in selected places throughout the country and listened to stories from witnesses and **victims** of the violence. They believe that if people are allowed to tell the stories of what happened to them or what they did to others it will help people to forget and forgive each other. They also believe that it is important that families know what happened to their family members who may have just disappeared during the tension. Until they know what really happened, they cannot forgive and forget. They also provide counselling or advice for those who come forward and tell their stories.

Activity 17



- 1 Explain the difference between a 'top-down' and a 'bottom-up' way of peace-building. Would it be better to try to solve our own problems or to bring in outside people? Give reasons for your answer.
- 2 Suggest ways in which the strong belief in Christianity in Solomon Islands may have helped to solve the problems of the tension.



Figure 14.36 Archbishop Desmond Tutu launches the TRC at Honiara on 29 April 2009.



Figure 14.37 Members of the TRC

The Solomon Islands Truth and Reconciliation Commission is similar to the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of South Africa, which was chaired by then Archbishop Desmond Tutu. Tutu was also involved in the formation of the TRC of Solomon Islands. He also witnessed the official launching of the commission as guest speaker in April 2009 at Lawson Tama in Honiara.

Thousands of Solomon Islanders attended the opening, which included a speech by Tutu. He spoke of the need for forgiveness in the country to achieve a long-lasting peace. Prime Minister Derek Sikua told the crowd that the launch of the TRC 'marked an important day in the history of the Solomon Islands and the years of ethnic violence in the country'.

The Truth and Reconciliation Commission consisted of five members, three of whom were Solomon Islanders. The other two members were chosen from outside the country. There were three men and two women. The five members of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC) were:

- Reverend Sam Ata of Malaita Province, Solomon Islands (Chairman)
- George Kejoa of Guadalcanal, Solomon Islands, who died while still on the Commission in 2010
- Caroline Laore of Western Province, Solomon Islands
- Ratu Joni Madraiwiwi from Fiji
- Sofia Macher, a human rights activist from Peru (Deputy Chair).

The TRC had public hearings from both victims and **perpetrators**—that is, those who caused the problems. It also held private hearings, before the members of the TRC only, for those who were willing to tell their stories but did not want this done in public. These hearings were held in every province and also in Rove Prison for those who had been tried and were in prison.

Victims were allowed to name groups who caused their suffering, but not individuals. The police and courts were not allowed to use anything people said in these hearings to prosecute them. The TRC did not judge anyone right or wrong, but simply treated the hearings as times to listen with respect and forgiveness.

The TRC recognised that reconciliation is a long-term process, which can only happen if people slowly change their attitudes and realise that violence is both spiritually and morally wrong—this means wrong according to people's beliefs. Unless people come to believe that violence is wrong it is likely to occur again. Violence and conflict are caused by relationships between people, so reconciliation must be about changing these

relationships. People on different sides of a conflict must be brought together so they begin to understand each other's points of view and different experiences. It is hoped telling and hearing stories from both sides will lead to this understanding.

Another important activity was that the TRC was given the right to **exhume** or dig up the bodies of those who had died, but not been buried by their relatives. Relatives could then know what happened to them, grieve or show their sorrow to them and pay their last respects by burying them properly. This is very important in Solomon Islands, where people's ancestors must be treated with respect.

The TRC and another organisation called 'The Sycamore Tree' also held reconciliation ceremonies between different communities which had been in conflict. These often involved exchange of shell money and other traditional compensation, as well as feasting and traditional dancing.

Finally the TRC was expected to write a report on the causes of the tension and how it might be avoided in the future.

Activity 18



- 1 Do you think the work of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission will help to bring peace or create more anger between the victims and those that committed the acts? Explain your answer.
- 2 What are some of the advantages and disadvantages of this way of trying to bring peace between warring parties or people who were fighting each other?
- 3 Before the TRC was set up, RAMSI was mainly concerned with punishing the militants by putting them in prison. Which system do you think is closest to the traditional Melanesian or Polynesian way of solving problems? Give reasons for your answer.



Figure 14.38 Members of the TRC using shell money at a reconciliation ceremony

Can we prevent further tension?

Activity 19



- 1 In groups discuss what you have learnt about the social unrest or social tension. Suggest ways that we might be able to avoid similar social tensions in future.
- 2 In chapter 2 of the Year 7 Social Studies book you learnt about ethnic groups. We said that Solomon Islands has many different ethnic groups and we can only live in peace if each group respects the culture of the others. We quoted the speech by Archbishop Tutu mentioned above where he said that we should celebrate 'unity in diversity'. What is meant by this and how might Archbishop Tutu's idea help us to avoid the problems of tensions in the future?
- 3 The poem on page 354 was written during the tension by someone who was 'mixed' — 'half Guadalcanal and half Malita', as we sometimes say. Read the poem, then answer these questions.
 - a What does the author mean by saying 'I saw myself as a Solomon Islander since birth'?
 - b What made him change his mind later?
 - c Why does he say, 'Who is my neighbour'?
 - d How does he answer this question at the end?
 - e Suggest how the message from this poem could help us to unite everyone in Solomon Islands as one people, and make the country more peaceful in the future.

Where do I belong?

By Siakulu

My father a Guadalcanal man
My mother a Malaita woman
Both are Solomon Islanders
United by love and sealed by a bride price
With this love I saw myself as
A Solomon Islander
Since birth I do not think it matters
Which island I belong to.

In my father's culture
I belong to my mother's clan
In my mother's culture
I belong to my father's clan
Since birth I do not think it matters
Which clan I belong to.

Because of the bride price
My grandfather from Malaita
Stood by his culture
And said, I with my brothers and sisters
Belonged to my father's clan
We were brought up on Guadalcanal
And were free to visit Malaita
It did not dawn on me to think
Which clan, which island I really belong to.

One day my brothers of Guadalcanal
Chased me and destroyed my home
And called me a spy.
Today my brothers of Malaita
Refuse me and blacklist me
And call me a half 'kasi'.
Today I now seriously ask myself
Which clan, which island, which country
do I really belong to?

After some thought
I recall the words of the song
'This world is not my home
I am just a-passing through'
With tears in my eyes I asked
'Then Lord what will I do?'
'Make heaven your home my son'
Was his response
'Where you really belong'.

But, Lord, how will I get there?
'Obey the ten commandments' he responded
'Love God and love your neighbour'
I know you Lord, but who is my neighbour?
My brothers of Guadalcanal, my brothers of
Malaita?
But Lord they have hurt me deeply, I cried!
'Love those who hurt you and forgive those
who ill-treat you
And win yourself a place in heaven' was the
Lord's plea.

I took time to think seriously again.
This world is not my home for sure
At least I can make heaven my home.
I cried out again, Lord forgive me!
Help me to forgive my brothers of
Guadalcanal
Help me to forgive my brothers of Malaita
Help us all to see that we are all brothers
And can live in peace and harmony
In this world and also in heaven.



Figure 14.39 Traditional dancing at a reconciliation ceremony

Glossary

- abused** treated badly or violently
- amnesty** an agreement that people will not be punished for something they have done wrong
- armoury** a place where arms or weapons are kept
- birth right** something you own because you were born with it
- bottom-up approach** working with people at ground level rather than people in power. In the case of the period of Tension, this meant working with people in villages and communities to bring peace
- brutal** violent or cruel
- ceasefire** to stop fighting
- Christian Orthodox** a form of Christianity common in Eastern Europe and Russia
- civil war** war between two or more different groups in one country
- communist** a system of government common in Russia and Eastern Europe until about 1989 and still found in some countries
- compassion** feeling of sympathy
- conflict** disagreement, argument or fighting
- corruption** using an official position to gain money or other things for yourself
- dignity** feeling of being respected and valued
- disturbances** trouble
- ethnic cleansing** trying to kill the people of a particular ethnic group in an area
- ethnic group** a group of people speaking the same language and having the same culture
- ethnic tension** conflict between people of two different ethnic groups
- exhume** to dig up a dead body that has been buried
- exploitation** to make use of something for your benefit
- freehold land** land that can be freely bought or sold with money, so the buyer owns it permanently
- frustration** feeling that there is no way you can get what you want
- humiliated** treated badly and made to feel bad about themselves
- Islam** a religion which believes in Mohammed as the prophet of God
- leasehold** land for which you pay money or rent for a certain period but which remains the property of the original owner
- mediator** someone brought in from outside to try to solve problems between people
- migration** movement of people from one area to another
- militant** someone who uses violence or military means to gain what they want
- Moslem** people who practise Islam and believe in Mohammed as the prophet of God
- peace-monitoring** checking to make sure people are keeping the peace
- peace-keeping** trying to make sure people don't fight again after they have made peace
- peace-making** methods of trying to find peace between groups in conflict

Social Unrest and How it May be Solved

perpetrator a person who has done something wrong, harmed someone or committed a crime

protest speak out strongly about something or march and demonstrate to show what you believe in

reconciliation/reconcile help two or more people or groups who disagree with each other to come together and make peace

riot gear strong clothing, shields and weapons to protect someone being attacked with violence

riot a public fight or violent conflict between large groups of people

sanctions refusal to trade with a country or group of people or taking other actions to try to stop them doing something you don't agree with

security peace and safety

social services services provided by the government, especially health and education

social unrest a situation in which groups of people who do not agree with the government or other groups of people use protest or

violence to try to get what they want

squatters people who occupy land without any legal right to it

suspended prevented from continuing as a member or joining something for some time

targets places where people aim to cause trouble

tear gas a gas which makes people sneeze and not able to breathe

tension conflict or difficult relationships between people or groups

top-down approach relying on people in power to decide what should be done rather than asking ordinary people

victim a person who has something wrong done to them

violence the use of force and fighting

war fighting between two countries or large groups of people, usually involving armies

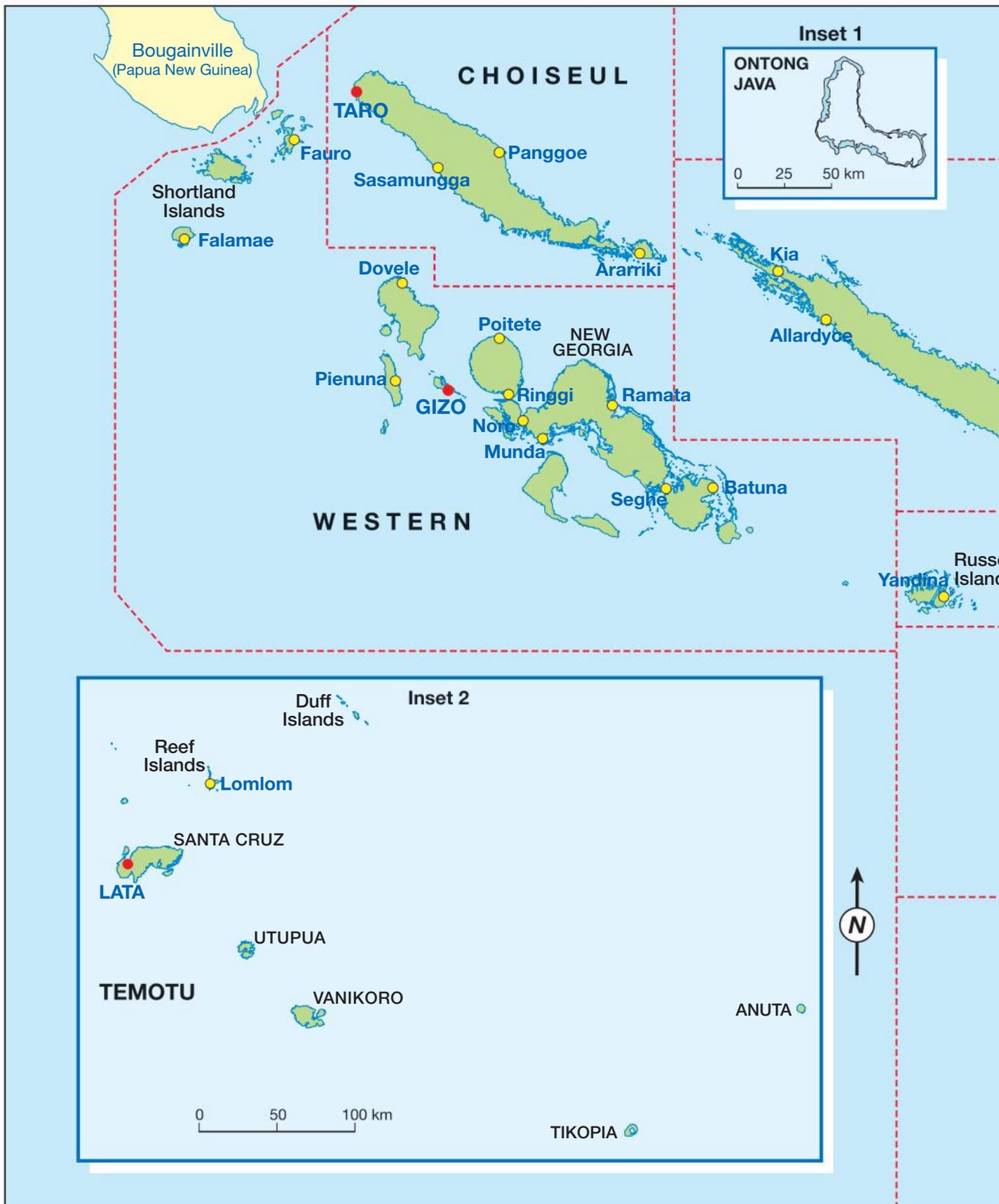
Maps

Appendix 1: Solomon Islands Map

Appendix 2: Pacific Basin Map

Appendix 3: World Map

Appendix 1: Solomon Islands Map



Note: On the Solomon Islands map Temotu and Ontong Java are in boxes. These are not in their real positions because they are far from the rest of Solomon Islands and there is no space to fit them into their real positions. Temotu is actually far to the east of Makira (to the right of the map) and Ontong Java is to the north of Malaita and Isabel (at the top of the map). On maps, boxes like these are called insets.



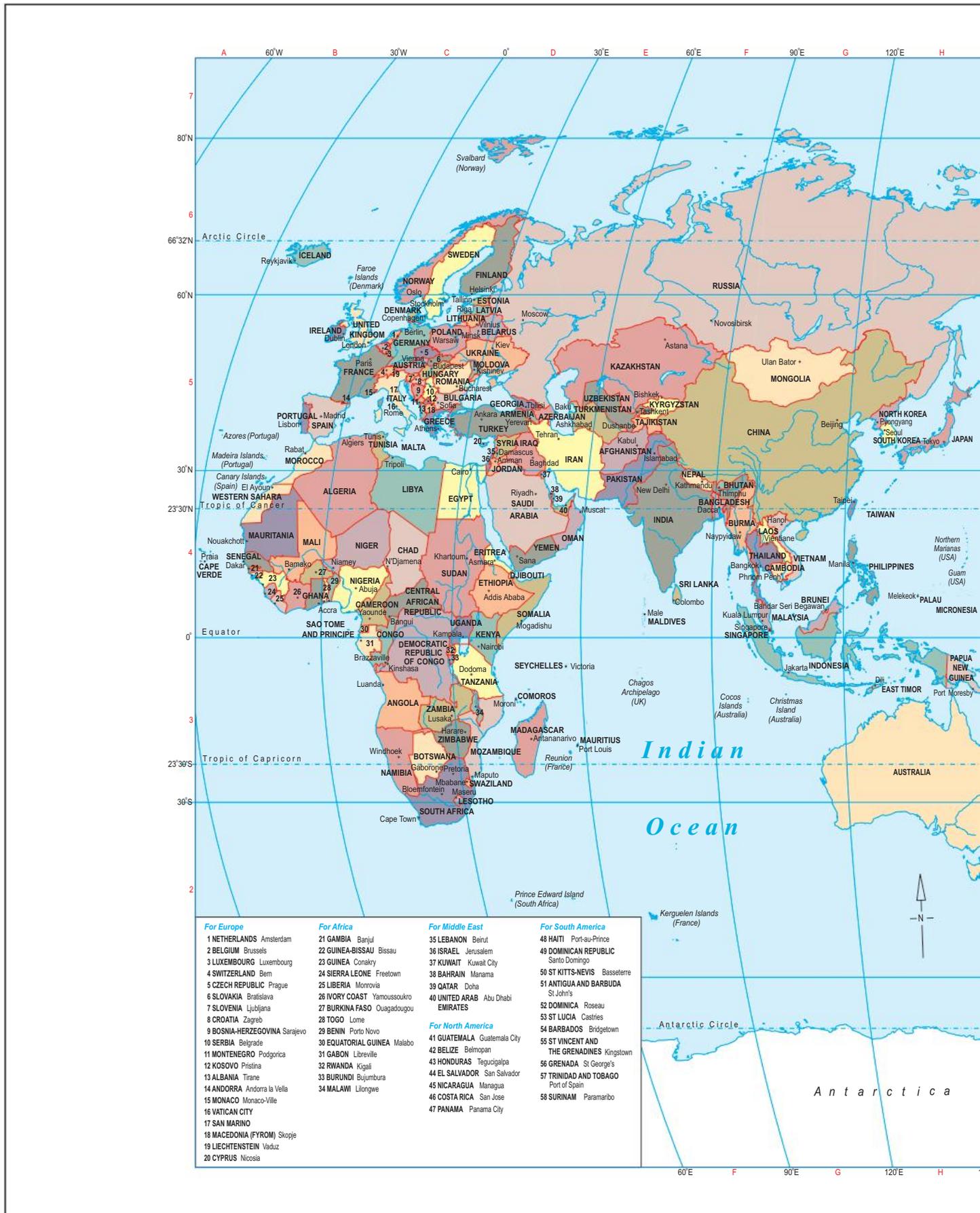
Appendix 2: Pacific Basin Map





Hammer-Aitoff projection

Appendix 3: World Map





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Year 8

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