Ecosystem socio-economic resilience analysis and mapping (ESRAM).

Rennell, Solomon Islands





SPREP Library Cataloguing-in-Publication Data

Ecosystem socio-economic resilience analysis and mapping (ESRAM) : Rennell, Solomon Islands.

Apia, Samoa : SPREP, 2025. vi, 50 p. 29 cm.

ISBN: 978-982-04-1406-8 (print) 978-982-04-1408-2 (ecopy)

- 1. Economic development Social aspects Solomon Islands.
- 2. Ecosystems management Evaluation Solomon Islands.
 - 3. Environmental assessment Solomon Islands.
 - I. Pacific Regional Environment Programme

(SPREP). II. Title.

574.5095953

This report produced by Griffith University for the Secretariat of the Pacific Regional Environment Programme (SPREP). It is one of four reports prepared as part of the Solomon Islands Ecosystems and Socio-economic Resilience Analysis and Mapping (ESRAM) to assess and prioritise climate change-related ecosystem-based adaptations for four study areas in Guadalcanal, Rennell, Malaita, and Temotu Province.

Authors and field staff: Andrew Buckwell, Mark Ariki, Claire Oiire (Solomon Islands National University), and Christopher Fleming (all Griffith University, unless stated).

This report was also produced with the assistance and good offices of the Solomon Islands Ministry of Environment, Climate Change, Disaster Management and Meteorology.

Key project partners:







CONTENTS:

1 Purpose of this report	
Adaptation options development	
2 Background	8
2.1 Risks and adaptations	
2.2 EREPA project	
2.3 Gender and social inclusion	
3 East Rennell study area background	
4 Climate impacts on Rennell Island	12
5 Ecosystem mapping and economic valuation	13
5.1 Ecosystem mapping	14
5.2 Ecosystem service valuation	
6 Government engagement	17
7 Q-methodology findings	18
7.1 Factor extraction	18
7.2 Factor interpretation	
7.2.1 Factor 1: Eco-tourism with traditional values	
7.2.2 Factor 2: Business focussed	
7.3 Consensus and disagreement	
7.4 Demographic alignment	
7.5 Summary	
8 Go along survey findings	28
8.1 Tevaitahe	
8.2 Niupani	29 30
8.4 Hutuna	
10 Adaptation priorities	
10.1 Priority area 1: REDD+ and payments for ecosystem services	
10.2 Priority area 2: Agricultural extension, agro-forestry, and poultry managemen	
10.3 Priority area 3: Establishing the sustainability of the lake fishery	
10.4 Priority area 4: Tourism investment plan	
10.5 Residual risks	

11 Detailed project assessment	38
11.1 Assessment methods	38
11.2 Hybrid assessment	38
11.3 Sensitivity analysis	41
12 ESRAM outcomes and implementation	42
12.1 Agricultural extension, agro-forestry, and poultry management	42
12.2 Robust forest conservation that supports livelihoods	42
12.3 Eco-tourism development	44
12.4 Sustainable fisheries study	45
12.5 Monitoring and evaluation	45

FIGURES

Figure 1:	Locating current report	. 6
Figure 2:	Lines of inquiry informing ecosystem-based adaptations	. 7
Figure 3:	Location of EREPA project sites	. 9
Figure 4:	Rennell Island, showing main features and the four communities part of this report	11
	Cyclone tracks across Rennell-Bellona Province between 1982-2022 (BOM,	12
Figure 6:	Supervised land cover and land uses for East Rennell also showing the four main communities that were centres for data collection activities	14
Figure 7:	Supervised land cover and land use mapping for Bellona Island	15
Figure 8:	Figure 8: Data collection in Tegano community	24
Figure 9:	Figure 9: Data collection in Hutuna community	25
Figure 10:	Composite sort for Factor 1	26
Figure 11:	: Composite sort for Factor 2	27

TABLES

	m service values (2022 US\$ yr-1) for East Rennell	16
ecosyste	Supervised land cover and land use mapping extents and total landscape m service values (2022 US\$ yr-1) for Rennell-Bellona Key Biodiversity Area (East and all Bellona Island).	16
Table 3:	Respondents to Q methodology survey	18
Table 4:	Factor correlations	18
Table 5:	Factor z-scores and rankings for sampled Malaita communities	19
Table 6:	Consensus statements	21
Table 7:	Disagreement statements	22
Table 8:	Factor alignment with gender	22
Table 9:	Factor alignment with community	22
Table 10	Factor alignment with age group	22
Table 11	Factor alignment with occupation	22
Table 12	Overall statement z-scores and rank	23
	Go along survey findings for Tevaitahe	
	Community asset inventory for Tevaitahe	
Table 15	Go along survey findings for Niupani	29
Table 16	Community asset inventory for Niupani	29
Table 17	Go along survey findings for Tegano	30
Table 18	Community asset inventory for Tegano	31
	Go along survey findings for Hutuna	
Table 20	Community asset inventory for Hutuna	32
Table 21	Factor extraction from secondary analysis	33
	Total costs of implementation of agro-forestry project, nursery, and community rogram	
Table 23	Sensitivity test weighting adjustments	39
Table 24	Multi-criteria assessment for the Wairaha catchment project area	39
Table 25	Sensitivity analysis for multi-criteria assessment for East Rennell project area	41

1 Purpose of this report

An Ecosystem and Socio-economic Resilience Analysis and Mapping (ESRAM) process is to generate a robust planning baseline to inform the identification of ecosystem-based adaptation (EbA) options for strengthening the socio-ecological resilience of communities to the impacts of climate change and other direct anthropogenic impacts. The purpose of this report is to provide a comprehensive view of desktop- and field-based research activities that contribute towards ESRAMs for communities in **East Rennell, Rennell and Bellona Province, Solomon Islands**.

As such this report provides a:

- 1. an overview of approaches and methods for data needs identification and data collection;
- **2.** synthesis of data and lines of evidence for Wairaha Catchment, Malaita Province, including climate risks, ecosystem mapping, ecosystem service valuation, and field data;
- 3. high level project priorities
- **4.** detailed assessment of high level project priorities; and
- **5.** implementation considerations

This report comprises Phases 2, 3, and 4 of our overall ESRAM approach (Figure 1)



Figure 1: Locating current report

Adaptation options development

The project's methodology for developing high level EbA options draws upon six lines of evidence (Figure 2). These lines of inquiry take a sectoral approach, examining climate and socio-economic risks across (i) agriculture, (ii) water supply and sanitation, (iii) forestry, (iv) fisheries and marine conservation, and (v) infrastructure, society, and economy.

Figure 2: Lines of inquiry informing ecosystem-based adaptations

LINE OF ENQUIRY	EVIDENCE PROVIDED
Literature review (Sections 2 and 3)	Determinants of effective ecosystem-based adaptation
Climate risk data (Section 4)	Current climate change related risks (at regional scale only)Future climate risks
Ecosystem service mapping & valuation (Section 5)	 Land cover extent and location of different habitats Economic valuation of ecosystem services
Government consultations (Section 6)	Meetings with government ministries
Individual Q method survey (Section 7 and 9)	Q-methodology survey based on a series of statements encompassing livelihoods, conservation, climate risks, natural resource management, waste, sanitation, and health
Go-along survey (Section 8)	Community assetsCurrent community projects

2 Background

2.1 Risks and adaptations

Pacific Small Island Developing States have a long history of resilience and adaptation to environmental variability (Barnett, 2011), yet their rural communities face a range of chronic threats to the sustainable management of their natural resources. These threats are exacerbated by a rapidly warming climate and new climate-related risks, such as increased incidence of extreme weather events, and sea level rise (Kossin et al., 2020; Pachauri et al., 2014). The increasing pressures on their natural resources from population growth (in most instances), tourism development (in some instances), falling agricultural productivity, and overharvested fisheries are being magnified and compounded by climate-related impacts, including more severe tropical cyclones, ocean acidification, coral bleaching, droughts, increasing coastal inundation, and erosion (Faivre et al., 2022; Fleming, 2007; Mackey et al., 2017).

Most of the population's food is produced on a small scale, household basis or harvested from the sea (Anderson et al., 2013; SPREP & BMT WBM, 2017). In more remote areas, virtually all food consumed is grown by households. This food is grown in household gardens that are tended to by members of the household. Often, gardens are part of a complex agroforestry system of shifting cultivation that includes fallow periods and forest regrowth. Household livelihoods and human well-being are therefore directly related to ecosystem service delivery (the benefits people receive from nature), which is affected by climate change impacts, which, in turn risk food insecurity, malnutrition and the capacity to respond to severe weather events (Carpenter et al., 2006; MEA, 2003; Savage et al., 2019).

In addition, in Solomon Islands, non-climate change related risks, such as seismic and volcanic activity, further increase sudden-onset disruptions in ecosystem service delivery. Social changes, economic development, and demographic pressures also play their part. The population of Solomon Islands is growing and on the move (Solomon Islands Government, 2019).

These threats not only present risk to communities. Biodiversity is also under growing pressure from the interplay between climate change risks and human impacts from their growing footprint (population X consumption X technology). The species and ecosystems of inland and coastal areas are under particular pressure due to the concentrations of human settlement and infrastructure they support. In response, governments are acting to adapt to climate change so that people avoid or minimise the harm from a rapidly changing climate. Care needs to be taken to ensure

the kinds of adaptation actions being taken do not cause even more loss and degradation of natural environments. For example, in response to rising sea levels and storm surges, governments can seek to replace natural coastal ecosystems, such as mangrove forests with sea walls, which might protect coastal assets but has ecosystem impacts in terms of biodiversity regeneration and carbon sequestration (Mackey & Ware, 2018). Another example of a perverse climate change action is where natural forests, which provide significant ecosystem services, are being cleared to develop commercial agriculture to generate cash incomes, which impacts the wider community's capacity to sustain itself through the harvesting of its natural resources.

The key to dealing with climate change without compounding pressures on natural systems is to take an ecosystem-based approach. Functioning ecosystems provide a range of overlapping benefits to communities — often referred to conceptually as a 'basket of benefits' (Morgan et al., 2021). The ecosystem approach is a strategy for the integrated management of land, water and living resources that promotes conservation and sustainable use in an equitable way. By allowing natural ecosystem processes to unfold, preventing further damaging land uses, and restoring degraded habitats, the full mitigation and adaptation benefits of healthy ecosystems can be realised. Natural ecosystems sequester carbon dioxide from the atmosphere and securely store carbon in trees and soil.

Ecosystem-based adaptation (EbA) to climate change describes a potentially fruitful class of climate change adaptation interventions. EbA is the deployment of biodiversity and ecosystem services to help communities adapt to the adverse effects of climate change - it is not simply habitat conservation for its own sake (Andrade et al., 2011; FEBA, 2018; Munang et al., 2013; Nalau & Becken, 2018; Nalau et al., 2018). An EbA approach to adaptation is the key to helping species adapt to a rapidly changing climate, maintaining the resilience of ecosystems, and providing critical ecosystem services to local communities including climate change adaptation benefits. Removing other stressors from habitats such as industrialisation, unsustainable use, invasives and pollution, results in healthier ecosystems that are naturally more resilient to climate impacts and can provide a more reliable supply of services and benefits.

A detailed description of our full understanding of EbA approaches in Appendix A.

Supporting the conservation and high integrity functioning of habitats and ecosystem is therefore vital for the continuation of efforts to improve livelihoods of the people of the Pacific. Strategies to manage climate change impacts provide a significant opportunity for communities in Solomon Islands to simultaneously deal with climate change-induced risks

and progress towards the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the goals set out in the Convention on Biological Diversity.

2.2 EREPA project

This ESRAM supports a broader program of work being undertaken by the Solomon Islands government: the 'Ensuring Resilient Ecosystems and Representative Protected Areas in the Solomon Islands' (EREPA) project. This project is a GEF6-funded project, being implemented by the IUCN Oceania Regional Office in partnership with the Solomon Islands Ministry of Environment, Climate Change, Disaster Management and Meteorology (MECDM) and SPREP.

EREPA's goal is "to establish a network of effective protected areas that will support healthy, productive, and restored landscapes in Guadalcanal, Malaita, Rennell-Bellona and Temotu provinces". The project aims to reduce the degradation of terrestrial ecosystems, while also multiplying social, economic, and environmental co-benefits by

identifying project interventions that will lead to improved community livelihoods through the diversification of incomegenerating sources, increased direct economic value and benefits from natural resources, and increased resilience to the effects associated with climate change.

At the national level, baseline information gathered on natural resources and other variables as well as capacity building will contribute to sound and efficient decision making in the Solomon Islands. The project will contribute to addressing terrestrial biodiversity loss and ecosystem decline through the improved management of natural resources, and the creation of protected and conserved areas within four key biodiversity areas in the four provinces (see Figure 3).

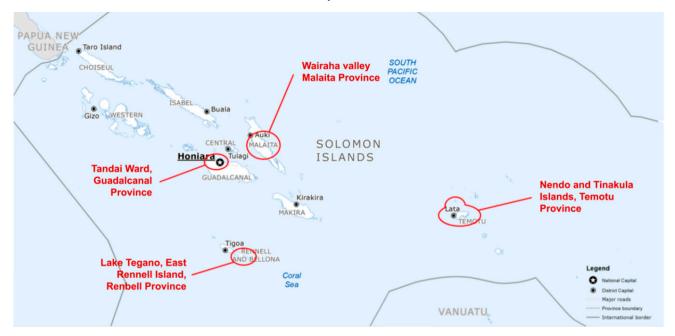


Figure 3: Location of EREPA project sites

2.3 Gender and social inclusion

Climate change-related risks are not equally shared by everyone in Pacific communities. In addition, the benefits of EbA are not automatically shared equitably and the aspirations of different members of the community are commonly divergent. Women, particularly poorer, rural women, experience greater vulnerability to climate change impacts than men, due to complex, intersectional drivers, including semi-formal community power dynamics, socially

and culturally constructed discourse on the role of women in the family and society, and formal risks of land alienation and access to economic resources (Bendlin, 2014; Djoudi & Brockhaus, 2011).

An overview of considerations associated with gender and social inclusion is in Appendix B.

3 East Rennell study area background

Rennell Island is part of an isolated chain of islands to the south and west of the Solomon Islands archipelago. The island is 86km west to east, has a modest population and its infrastructure is limited. Rennell is part of Rennell-Bellona Province, which was constituted in only 1993. It is relatively remote and not intensively settled — it has a population of just 3041. and is an outlier for people of Polynesian heritage. The island is an uplifted coral atoll providing for a unique and difficult terrain.

The island's reef bedrock retains only thin soils and there are no valleys and mountains, known as kaarst terrain (Wingham, 1997). Rennell's rich primary tropical forest cover belies a natural infertility. Industrial logging (particularly for pencil oak) leaves behind vegetation scars and there is slow regrowth. The island is also skirted by steep slopes down to the ocean making access to marine resources and livelihoods surprisingly difficult. Rennell can be characterised by its 'east' and 'west' sectors. In the west, the island has been extensively logged for timber, which is exported as sawn logs, and has also recently become the location of bauxite prospecting.

The east sector of Rennell is geographically dominated by a significant brackish lake Teganno (also referred to as Te-Nggano, Tegano, Tungano, and Tengano) and is contained within a World Heritage property since 1998 protecting both the tropical forest, the lake, and the coastal coral reefs, which has so far been successful in keeping extractive industries at bay. The inscription of East Rennell as a World Heritage property was a landmark in the history of the Convention: it was the first property nominated by a Pacific Island nation and the first site listed based on natural criteria but under customary management (Wingham, 1997). However, in 2017 the World Heritage property was listed as 'in danger' due to the impacts of logging and mining outside of the protected area and it is anticipate "collateral damage will likely extend into protected areas" (Lavery et al., 2021, p. 407).

Tegano today is now sparsely populated with settlements towards the western end. Originally, the sixteen clans of the lake were spread all around the lake, however, following the establishment of missionary churches in the 1930s the people were drawn into just four consolidated communities. The clans settled according to which church individuals chose to attend, resulting in communities and cultivated areas comprising of a mix of clans, whilst each clan retaining claim to the original customary areas around the lake, which are still farmed (Buckwell, Ariki, et al., 2023). Village boundaries are demarked by geographical and biological features and is around 57km2 (Wingham, 1997).

The majority of households in Rennell are subsistence farmers, supported by remittances from family members

working in Honiara. Occasionally, cash income is obtained from the sale of handicrafts (via family members in Honiara), contract fishing from Tegano (Allen et al., 2006). Every household undertakes some degree of subsistence farming through a shifting arboreal cultivation system, involving rotation and incursion into regrowing forest followed by fallow periods of around 9 years. Most gardens are located in areas of soil accumulation, known as microdepressions, around villages and along the islands' road axes (Allen et al., 2006).

There are no regular markets, no shops, sparce economic exchange, and the communities are renowned for their system of sharing resources. In response to food shortages, Tilapia mozambica (a tilapia fish) was introduced into Tegano in 1957, seemingly flourished and is now a staple protein for the lakeside communities and a source of income when traded westwards. However, fish sizes are reportedly getting smaller suggesting the sustainability of the fishery could be in question (Buckwell, Ariki, et al., 2023; Wingham, 1997, p. 27) as technological improvements (spearing fish at night, using torches) are making fishing methods more efficient (Buckwell, Ariki, et al., 2023).

Notwithstanding the natural beauty of the area and the early promises of benefits deriving from their stewardship and forgone benefits from extractive industries tourism development as a result of the "beauty pageant" function of World Heritage status (Smith, 2011, p. 592), the relative geographical isolation of Rennell, the difficulty of overland travel, poor air and communications services have all limited the development of any business (tourism, in particular) as a source of income. The Covid-19 pandemic also took its toll on visitor numbers (Naidu et al., 2021). This has inadvertently all contributed towards a protection of the lake's and the forests' natural heritage values mainly through neglect (Buckwell et al., 2024; Claudino-Sales, 2019).

10



Figure 4: Rennell Island, showing main features and the four communities part of this report

4 Climate impacts on Rennell Island

As a developing tropical island nation, the Solomon Islands has particular vulnerabilities to the current and future impacts of climate change. As climate change projects are not downscaled to the level of individual islands of the Solomons, much of the climate risk assessment is of a general nature and is Appendix D. Specific risks to East Rennell are noted here.

Sea level rise will affect the four lakeside communities in East Rennell. Whilst Tegano's subterranean connections to the ocean are too intricate for there to be daily tides on the lake, the water levels will nevertheless rise in line with sea level projections (Wingham, 1997). Lake levels and salinity levels in the surface waters are also subject to local fluctuations associated with heavy rainfall with periods of time required before equilibrium is again reached.

Tropical cyclones have historically impacted the Solomon Islands

and its exclusive economic zone at a rate of around 21 cyclones per decade, with around a quarter categorises as Category 3 and above (World Bank Group, 2021). Cyclones frequency is influenced by the ENSO cyclone. Figure 7 show recent tracks of tropical cyclones across Rennell Island between 1982 and 2022 (BOM, 2023) — a number of cyclones have crossed and threatened communities. East Rennell has experienced the most intense cyclone activity of all study areas, with five direct crossings and two within close vicinity. At the other end of the spectrum, Temotu Province has experienced only near misses.

The general projection is for a decrease in cyclone formation frequency through to 2100 by between 6%–35%. However, there is also evidence that the intensity of cyclones may increase. Any uncertainty is based on the future of ENSO cycles, which is not very well understood (BOM & CSIRO, 2014).

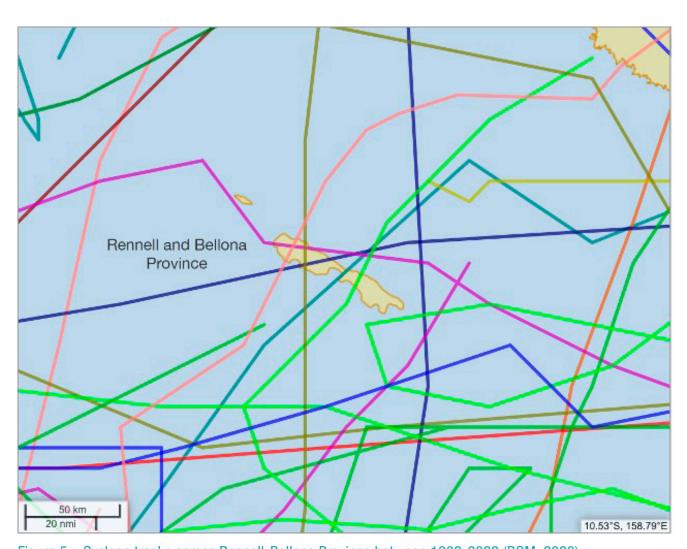


Figure 5: Cyclone tracks across Rennell-Bellona Province between 1982-2022 (BOM, 2023)

5 Ecosystem mapping and economic valuation

Our approach and methods for ecosystem mapping and economic valuation of ecosystem services is in Appendix D. This section details the results of these methods for the East Rennell (Table 1) and East Rennell Key Biodiversity Area (KBA), which includes East Rennell and the island of Bellona (Table 2).

For the purposes of this study, the total ecosystem services values are calculated for the whole KBA.

Box 1: The use and misuse of economic valuation of ecosystem services

The use of economic valuation of ecosystem services in monetary units needs to be undertaken with an understanding of the nuance of what is trying to be achieved – particularly to avoid its *misuse*. Valuation has a series of interlinked purposes (Buckwell & Morgan, 2022):

- Decision-making: by assigning monetary values to ecosystem services, policymakers, governments, and businesses can better understand the trade-offs involved in land-use decisions, resource management, and environmental policies. This information helps decision-makers prioritize conservation efforts and sustainable development projects.
- 2) This can directly feed into social cost-benefit analysis economic valuation allows for the comparison of the social and environmental costs and benefits associated with different land-use options or environmental management strategies. It helps identify the most cost-effective approaches for achieving environmental goals or maximising societal welfare.
- 3) Measuring non-market environmental benefits Traditional economic indicators often fail to account for the environmental benefits provided by ecosystems. Valuing ecosystem services in monetary terms allows these benefits to be integrated into economic decision-making processes, leading to more sustainable outcomes.
- 4) Raising awareness or political support Expressing the value of ecosystem services in monetary terms can help raise awareness among the public, businesses, and policymakers about the importance of preserving natural capital and biodiversity by enabling comparisons of benefits provided by different forms of capital. It highlights the economic significance of ecosystems and the potential costs of their degradation or loss.
- 5) Facilitating market-based mechanisms Economic valuation can support the development of market-based instruments such as payments for ecosystem services programs, where beneficiaries compensate providers for the maintenance or enhancement of specific ecosystem services. These mechanisms create financial incentives for conservation and sustainable management practices.

In a concrete example, the ecosystem service value of a forest can be assessed in terms of its contribution towards the value of commercially logged timber by taking a very narrow view of its economic value – its direct commercial use. Alternatively, the ecosystem service value of forest can be assessed using a wider range of values (particularly indirect use and non-use values) from a wider range of ecosystem services, for example, including its economic contribution towards climate stability, freshwater regulation, and erosion control. This has been dubbed the 'basket of benefits' approach (Morgan et al., 2021).

Economic valuation of ecosystem services in monetary terms is *not* about 'packaging up' nature for sale to the highest bidder!

5.1 Ecosystem mapping

Figures 6 and 7 show the results of our land cover and land use methods detailed in Appendix D for East Rennell (the site of our field studies) and for Bellona Island (the remaining part of the Rennell-Bellona KBA).

This data is in tabular format in Tables 1 and 2.

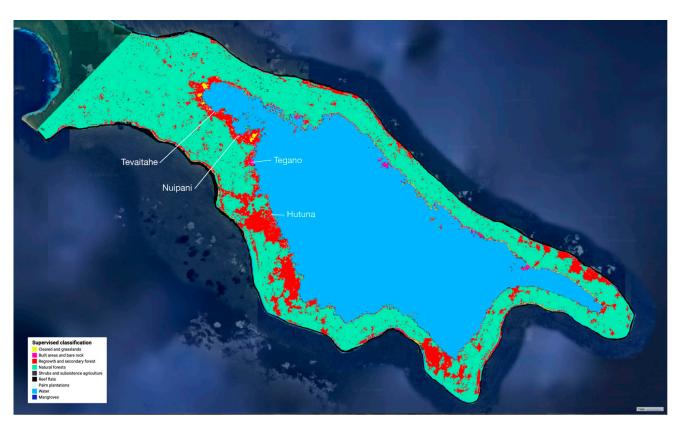


Figure 6: Supervised land cover and land uses for East Rennell also showing the four main communities that were centres for data collection activities..

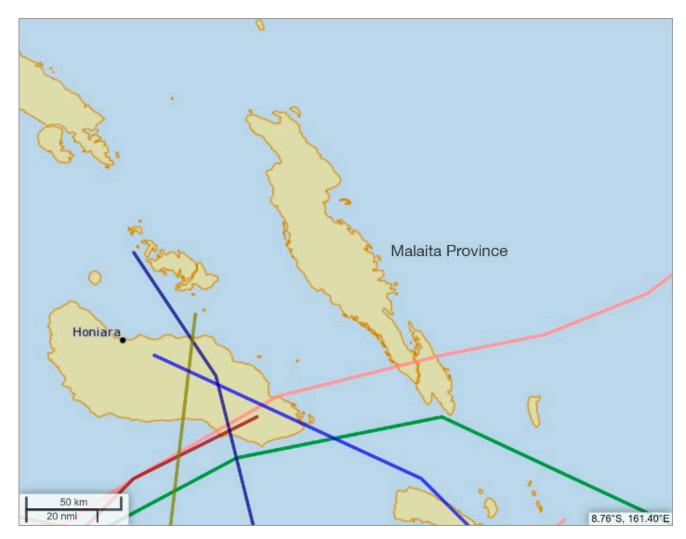


Figure 7: Supervised land cover and land use mapping for Bellona Island.

5.2 Ecosystem service valuation

Tables 1 and 2 report the total ecosystem service values ascertained from the mapping process (Section 5.1). This value is calculated by multiplying the ecosystem service value from Table A1 of Appendix D by the total area of the particular ecosystem type (a combination of land cover and land uses).

East Rennell (contained within the World Heritage Site) is dominated by primary forest (that whish has not been noticeably harvested for timber). The detected secondary forest represents forested areas that have been disturbed and is potentially within a cycle of cultivation and fallow. Our value for the area of subsistence gardens is likely under-estimated and demands further ground truth and training of the machine learning. Bellona Island is has considerably greater population density and faces greater pressure on its cultivation/fallow cycle.

Table 1: Supervised land cover and land use mapping extents and total landscape ecosystem service values (2022 US\$ yr-1) for East Rennell

Land cover	Extent (Ha)	Ecosystem services valuation coefficient (US\$ yr-1 ha-1)	Total ecosystem service valuation
Built areas and bare rock	99	0	0
Cleared and grasslands	1,419	657	932,851
Mangroves	0.24	5,910	1,418
Primary forests	13,210	2,339	30,898,190
Secondary forest	3,309	2,339	7,739,751
Palm plantations	3.38	61	206
Coral reef	115	895	102,925
Subsistence agriculture	90	8,108	729,720
Freshwater water bodies	16,179	2,014	32,584,506
Total			72,989,567

Table 2: Supervised land cover and land use mapping extents and total landscape ecosystem service values (2022 US\$ yr-1) for Rennell-Bellona Key Biodiversity Area (East Rennell and all Bellona Island).

Land cover	Extent (Ha)	Ecosystem services valuation coefficient	Total ecosystem service valuation (Rennell & Bellona)
Built areas and bare rock	132	0	0
Cleared and grasslands	1,562	657	1,026,859
Mangroves	0	5,910	1,478
Natural forests	13,333	2,339	31,185,887
Palm plantations	4,661	2,339	10,902,079
Coral reefs	3	61	208
Regrowth and secondary forest	805	895	720,475
Shrubs and subsistence agriculture	214	8,108	1,735,112
Freshwater water bodies	16,179	2,014	32,584,506
Total			91,151,636

6 Government engagement

The project team undertook a number of meetings with Solomon Island government ministries and activities in support of preparation for the field work. These are detailed in Appendix E.

7 Q-methodology findings

Q methodology (hereafter Q) is both a quantitative and qualitative research technique based on the statistical analysis of people's subjectivity (Brown et al., 1999; Stephenson, 1953). Q leans into discursive/contextual methods of knowledge generation that uphold both personal realities and shared experiences of the world suited to complex socio-ecological systems such as communities in the Pacific (Buckwell et al., 2024; Buckwell, Fleming, et al., 2023).

Q is a type of factor analysis that finds correlations amongst consistent groups of respondents who share similar views of the world. These correlations reflect coherent mindsets, which are analogous to the structure of a discourse, with views formed from both external influences (acting on people) and also emergent of collective heuristics (people and power structures actively shaping people) (Dryzek, 1994, 1997).

This section details our findings from our Q study from the four East Rennell communities. For details on our methodological

approach, see Appendix F.

We sampled community members in all four communities next to Tegano: (from west to east) Tevaitahe, Niupani, Tegano, and Hutuna. We collected sorts from 51 respondents – 37 men and 14 women. Whilst Q does not require stratified samples, it was disappointing to not achieve a more even balance between men and women (Table 3).

Table 3: Respondents to Q methodology survey

Community	Men	Women	Total
Tevaitahe	9	3	12
Niupani	9	3	12
Tegano	9	4	13
Hutuna	10	4	14
Total	37	14	51

7.1 Factor extraction

We extracted 2 factors, which were relatively highly correlated for a Q study, suggesting that across all the communities there is a great deal of consensus. Table 4 reports factor correlations (1 is a perfect correlation). 26 respondents fitted Factor 1 and 21 respondents fitted Factor 2. Four respondents did not fit either factor or were confounding (fitted into both factors)¹. Table 4 reports the factors extracted from our Q.

Table 4: Factor correlations

	Factor 1	Factor 2
Factor 1	1	0.7048
Factor 2	0.7048	1

Scores and rankings in Q methodology

Factors can be assessed using a range of metrics from their composite sorts, including z-scores, rankings, and column placements.

The z-score is a standardized measure of the relationship between a statement and a factor, calculated by subtracting the mean score of all statements from the score of the individual statement and then dividing by the standard deviation of all scores. The z-score can, therefore, be interpreted as the number of standard deviations that a

statement is above or below the mean. Average ranking is a less informative measure than the z-score, as it does not take into account the distribution of the scores and is overly influenced by outliers. For example, Factor 1's highest ranked statement (S22) has a z-score of 2.71, demonstrating a very high salience with this factor, whist Factor's highest ranked statement (S26) has a z-score of 1.84, demonstrating the strength of salience of this statement, despite being ranked highest, was somewhat less.

Table 5 reports the full results for the two factors.

Syntax conventions

To justify our conclusions on factor descriptions we draw upon the statement rankings. Through the next sections, we use the following syntax conventions. When referring to a statement we use both the statement number (denoted by S) and a shorthand description of the statement to aid the reader in following our logic. To demonstrate the strength of salience of that statement, we will use the z-score (positive is positively salience, negative is negative). Where one factor has placed a statement that is very significantly differently to than another (p < 0.01) (this being an important aspect of factor description) we denote this with two asterisks (**) and an arrow, \checkmark for lower than and \blacktriangle for higher than. (Where only two factors are revealed, many statements can be very

¹ It is assumed in Q that these respondents did not fully understand the task, completed the task with insufficient accuracy, or could not express fully coherent viewpoints.

significantly differently placed.) Where we are referring to statement ranks, or z-scores of both factors, we list only the numbers and this should be read to mean 'respectively'.

Table 5: Factor z-scores and rankings for sampled Malaita communities

Ref	Statement	Fact	or 1	Fact	or 2
nei	Statement	Z-score	Rank	Z-score	Rank 19 17 28 31 22 16 23 5 12 24 21
1	My garden is producing less food than it was before.	0.31	11	0.03	19
2	It is important to get more livestock, such as cattle, pigs, & chickens into the village, to provide food.	-0.03	15	0.06	17
3	There are more weather-related natural disasters happing now, like cyclones & heavy rain.	-0.35	21	-0.85	28
4	Our water sources are drying-up more frequently than before.	-1.07	34	-1.19	31
5	The changing weather makes it too warm & dry, & sometimes too wet, to grow our usual crops.	-0.56	24	-0.26	22
6	We have enough toilet, washing & cleaning facilities for all the people in the village.	-1.04	33	0.14	16
7	I am confident I would feel safe in the next natural disaster.	-0.97	32	-0.37	23
8	Our community needs a better place to throw away rubbish, like bottles, cans, & plastic.	0.21	12	1.2	5
9	I get enough good, reliable drinking water within my community.	-0.8	30	0.64	12
10	I would like better ways to cook food, so I don't have to use firewood from the forest.	-0.57	25	-0.48	24
11	If more tourists visited, or came on a cruise ship, I worry that there would not be enough food, water, & waste facilities to cope with them.	0.51	10	-0.06	21
12	It is important to pass down customary knowledge of dances, songs & ceremonies to my children and grandchildren.	0.57	9	0.21	15
13	We should do more to prevent our special places from falling into disrepair.	0.99	7	0.21	14
14	Neighbouring communities encroach on our customary land & marine resources, without permission.	0.12	13	-1.24	32
15	Land reclamation for development destroys reefs & the marine resources.	-0.74	27	-1.51	35
16	There are less traditional medicinal plants growing than there used to be.	-0.76	28	-0.57	25
17	Customary knowledge of resource use & the land is being forgotten.	-0.04	16	-0.69	26
18	If I could borrow a small amount of money, I would be able to invest in a small business.	-0.3	20	1.05	7
19	I would like to earn a bit more cash by selling food I grow, of fish that I catch.	-0.2	19	1.11	6
20	Tourism offers many good opportunities for small businesses in my area.	1.82	2	1.84	2
21	I worry that young people don't want to stay in the village, as there are more opportunities in main towns & Honiara.	-0.04	17	-0.76	27
22	Improving the roads into the community will enable new business opportunities.	2.71	1	1.46	3
23	I would be able to spend more time in my community if there was a more equal share of housework between men and women.	-0.44	23	0.22	13
24	I feel safe in my home & in my community.	-0.67	26	0.69	11
25	I feel that I have enough influence on decisions that affect my community.	-0.36	22	0.01	20
26	Conservation of forests & reefs will be most successful when people feel secure and prosperous.	1.7	4	1.84	1
27	Enforcing protected area rules in my community will be easy.	0.03	14	0.78	10
28	Marine protected areas will be good for encouraging tourism.	1.72	3	1.29	4

Dof	Ctotomont	Fact	or 1	Fact	or 2
Ref	Statement	Z-score	Rank	Z-score	Rank
29	Reducing use of forest resources through conservation will be good for the community.	0.73	8	0.03	18
30	We need to protect our forests better, as they are being removed to make way for food gardens.	1.04	6	0.91	8
31	Industrial discharges & sediment causes pollution in our lakes, rivers, and ocean.	-0.09	18	-1.37	34
32	Lack of proper grazing management pollutes waterways & the coastal reefs.	-0.96	31	-0.89	29
33	Our forests, freshwater & marine resources are important to kastom. It's important we can hand them down to our children & grand children in good condition.	1.45	5	0.89	9
34	I would like to catch fish further out to sea, to reduce pressure on local fisheries.	-0.78	29	-1.01	30
35	Mining & forestry offer benefits that make-up for the environmental damage they cause.	-1.72	36	-2.05	36
36	The benefits from logging & mining are shared fairly across all the people in the community.	-1.4	35	-1.3	33

7.2 Factor interpretation

7.2.1 Factor 1: Eco-tourism with traditional values

Factor 1 shows very strong support for improved business opportunities, in particular tourism-related businesses, that may result from improvements in the road infrastructure to the lake − S22 (improving roads for small business) was ranked 1st and had a z-score of 2.71 ★** and S20 (tourism provides opportunities) was scored at 1.82. Notwithstanding, this factor was concerned that tourism's impacts will need to carefully managed (S11 was scored at 0.51 ★**).

Common to most factors from all study areas, statements demonstrating a concern for more conservation also scored highly. For example, S28 (aquatic conservation encourages tourism scored 1.72 **), S33 (conserving natural resources for future generations scored 1.45 **), S30 (better protecting forests scored 1.04), and S29 (forest conservation will be good for the community scored 0.73 **). S26 (conservation will be most successful when people are prosperous) was scored at 1.7, suggesting this factor makes conscious links between conservation and economic

development. Traditional / kastom related statements were also highly salient for this factor. S13 (protecting special places) was scored at 0.99 ***, S12 (passing down cultural traditions) was scored at 0.57, and S17 (customary knowledge of resource use) was scored (moderately) at

-0.04▲** but very significantly higher than Factor 2. This is reflected in the significantly higher placement of S21 (young people leaving) given by Factor 1 compared to Factor 2.

Conversely, this factor scored statements sympathetic to extractive industries (S36 and S35) lowly at -1.4 and -1.72, demonstrating very adverse feelings towards any benefits from logging and mining. This factor was noticeably concerned about water, scoring S4 (water sources drying up) and S6 (we have enough freshwater) at -1.07 and -1.04 **. Feeling safe in the next natural disaster (S7) was also a concern (scoring -0.97 ***).

The composite, or 'ideal', sort for Factor 1 is Figure 10.

7.2.2 Factor 2: Business focussed

Factor 2 also shows very strong support for improved business conditions, in particular tourism-related businesses, that may emanate from improvements in the road infrastructure: S20 (tourism provides opportunities) scored 1.84 and S22 (improving roads for small business) had a z-score of 1.46 *\(\nsime\)** - still ranked 3rd but with less salience than Factor 1. The link between prosperity and conservation scored the highest for this factor at 1.84. Similarly, statements demonstrating a concern for conservation also

scored highly. For example, S28 (aquatic conservation encourages tourism scored 1.29 \checkmark **), and S33 (conserving natural resources for future generations scored 0.89 \checkmark **), S30 (better protecting forests scored 0.91), though anomalously S29 (forest conservation will be good for the community scored relatively neutrally at 0.03 \checkmark **). This factor was more motivated by potential opportunities in a more cash based local economy, scoring S19 (earning more cash) at 1.11 \checkmark ** and S18 (borrowing money for investment

² We note that S28 (marine protected areas encourage tourism) scored 1.7 for Factor 1. In Rennell, respondents were encouraged to interpret this factor as meaning aquatic conservation, rather than specifically marine conservation.

in business) scoring 1.05h **. Waste management (S8) was also scored highly (1.2 **)

As with Factor 1, this factor was very concerned about the impacts of logging and mining. S35 (mining and logging provide net benefits) was scored the lowest (-2.05), S31 (pollution harms waterways) was scored at -1.37 √**, and S36 (mining and logging benefits will be shared fairly) was scored at -1.3.

In contrast to Factor 1, traditional / kastom related statements were not so salient. S17 (customary knowledge of resource use) was scored -0.69 \checkmark **, and S12 (passing down cultural traditions) and S13 \checkmark ** (protecting special places) were both scored at 0.21. There was very little concern about young people leaving the community (S21, young people leaving, was scored at -0.76 \checkmark **).

The composite, or 'ideal', sort for Factor 1 is Figure 11.

7.3 Consensus and disagreement

Consensus statements are those shared by factors within a single score of each other (represented by the z-score variance). They are relevant as they can represent potential starting points for community engagement and project development, particularly where the issue is highly or lowly salient (represented by the z-score mean).

Within the factors themselves, there was much greater consensus in Factor 2 than Factor 1, as represented by the 'spread' of z-scores (3.893 in Factor 2 and 4.427 in Factor 1).

Table 6 reports the six statements with the greatest consensus between the factors. It also reports the strength of salience (in this instance, the ranking). S20 (tourism business opportunities) had the highest level of agreement (almost zero) and a high level of salience, meaning that across the community, there is a high degree of agreement that more tourism will be a good outcome for nascent and

new business in the community. The second consensus statement (S32; lack of proper grazing management) is ignored in this analysis, as not being relevant³. S2 (more livestock) was third ranked consensus statement and was relevant (from on-site observations) but was not strongly ranked by either factor. There was also strong agreement that there was water security (S4; water sources drying up; ranked at -4 and -3). S36 (benefits fairly shared by logging and mining) also had a high degree of agreement and strongly negative salience, indicating a widely shared and hostile position against extractive industries in the community. Related to S36, S35 (mining and logging offer net benefits) was ranked the 13th most consensual statement with a variance of 0.028. Notwithstanding, both factors ranked this statement at -5 but Factor 2 demonstrated considerably more opposition to this statement⁴.

Table 6: Consensus statements

REF	Statement	Rank	Rank	Z-score
20	Tourism offers many good opportunities for small businesses in my area.	4	4	0
32	Lack of proper grazing management pollutes waterways & the coastal reefs.	-3	-2	0.001
2	It is important to get more livestock, such as cattle, pigs, & chickens into the village, to provide food.	1	0	0.002
4	Our water sources are drying-up more frequently than before.	-4	-3	0.003
10	I would like better ways to cook food, so I don't have to use firewood from the forest.	-1	-1	0.003
36	The benefits from logging & mining are shared fairly across all the people in the community.	-4	-3	0.003

Table 7 reports the five statements with the least consensus between the factors. S9 (getting enough drinking water) had the greatest level of disagreement; however, also note that the two factors both ranked this statement at -4, suggesting there was still a relative agreement that water security is not a particular concern of the community. S24 (feeling safe in the community) was ranked relatively lowly (-3 and -2) and was subject of disagreement, suggesting that there is a divide between those who feel safe and those who don't. S18 (borrowing money for business) showed some disagreement but was ranked lowly by both factors (-4 and -3). S19 (earning more cash from labour) showed reasonable levels of disagreement but was ambivalently ranked by both factors (both -1).

³ We used the same set of statements across all areas of interest. One or two statements were not necessarily fully relevant to each project site.

⁴ In Q studies that reveal only a few factors and where those factors are highly correlated data can reveal such statistical artefacts

Table 7: Disagreement statements

REF	Statement	Rank	Rank	Z-score
9	I get enough good, reliable drinking water within my community.	4	4	0.518
24	I feel safe in my home & in my community.	-3	-2	0.464
14	Neighbouring communities encroach on our customary land & marine resources, without permission.	1	0	0.462
18	If I could borrow a small amount of money, I would be able to invest in a small business.	-4	-3	0.451
19	I would like to earn a bit more cash by selling food I grow, of fish that I catch.	-1	-1	0.428
36	The benefits from logging & mining are shared fairly across all the people in the community.	-4	-3	0.003

7.4 Demographic alignment

Basic demographic information was collected from each respondent. Specifically, we collected data on the respondents' community, gender, age, and their occupation. Whilst this is not a core occupation of Q studies and in most instances, statistically significant correlations won't be found, it nevertheless can provide some additional insight into the propensity for different demographic attributes to correspond to each factor (see Section 5.1 in Buckwell, Fleming, Muurmans, et al., 2020).

Table 9 reports the demographic breakdown based on gender. Whilst Factor 1 was fairly even split, no women fitted Factor 2 (conservation and tourism focussed) and Factor 3 was very predominantly women.

Table 8: Factor alignment with gender

	F1	f2	No factor
Men	20	15	2
Women	6	6	2

Table 9 reports factor alignment with the four communities. For three of the four there was virtually an equal spread between factors 1 and 2. In Hutuna (the most easterly community) there was a greater propensity to align with Factor 2, the factor most disposed to cash earning opportunities and less predisposed to traditional and kastom values.

Table 9: Factor alignment with community

Community	F1	F2	No factor
Tevaitahe	5	7	0
Niupani	5	5	2
Tegano	6	6	1
Hutuna	10	4	1

Table 10 reports factor alignment with age group. Again, this was fairly evenly spread. There was a bias of the youngest age group (18-30) aligning more with Factor 1, the factor most predisposed to traditional and kastom concerns and less concerned about cash income).

Table 10: Factor alignment with age group

	F1	F2	No factor
18-30	7	1	1
31-60	14	13	2
Over 60	5	7	1

Table 11 reports factor alignment with declared occupation. There was no particular alignment between any occupation and any of the factors. (Note than many respondents belonged to more than one occupational category).

Table 11: Factor alignment with occupation

	F1	F2	No factor
Farming	15	20	3
Fishing	8	7	0
Health /government / education	7	5	1
Business	1	1	0
Conservation	5	5	0

7.5 Summary

Factors 1 and 2 demonstrated a significant correlation. This is not unusual in developing world contexts (for example, see Buckwell et al.'s study of forest communities in the Democratic Republic of Congo (2023)) but nevertheless was still surprising in the significance of the overlap. This demonstrates a fair degree of overlap between concerns and aspirations between most people in the community.

The two factors were both strongly in agreement that infrastructure that begets tourism opportunities and natural resource conservation are incredibly important (Table 12). A common refrain from both the communities during the consultations and from the academic literature is the concern over lack of investment in infrastructure on the back of World Heritage listing (Buckwell, Ariki, et al., 2023; Smith, 2011). Maintenance of the road no doubt demands significant investment and ongoing commitment from the Solomon Islands government and will not guarantee a steady flow of tourists. There are further capacity constraints at the airfield in Tigoa (in terms of fuel availability and runway)

maintenance) and communications infrastructure in the Tegano communities remains poor, limiting the ability of businesses to connect with their customers and the desires of tourists to remain online.

Similarly, both factors showed a strong resistance to logging and mining, feeling that benefits don't outweigh the costs and that any benefits would unlikely be shared fairly, regardless. The Tegano communities have long resisted the intrusion of extractive industries, despite years of unfulfilled promises of the benefits of doing so (Smith, 2011).

The key differences between the two Factors were the role of tradition and kastom and the desire to earn more cash from labour (fishing, produce, handicraft) and to borrow money to invest in business ventures. Factor 1 showed a higher salience with traditional statements, whilst Factor 2 showed a greater salience with statements associated with expanding the cash economy.

Table 12: Overall statement z-scores and rank

REF	Statement	Rank	Rank
22	Improving the roads into the community will enable new business opportunities.	2.09	1
20	Tourism offers many good opportunities for small businesses in my area.		2
26	Conservation of forests & reefs will be most successful when people feel secure and prosperous.	1.77	3
28	Marine protected areas will be good for encouraging tourism.	1.51	4
33	Our forests, freshwater & marine resources are important to kastom. It's important we can hand them down to our children & grand children in good condition.	1.17	5
30	We need to protect our forests better, as they are being removed to make way for food gardens.	0.98	6
8	Our community needs a better place to throw away rubbish, like bottles, cans, & plastic.	0.71	7
13	We should do more to prevent our special places from falling into disrepair.	0.60	8
19	I would like to earn a bit more cash by selling food I grow, of fish that I catch.	0.46	9
27	Enforcing protected area rules in my community will be easy.	0.41	10
12	It is important to pass down customary knowledge of dances, songs & ceremonies to my children and grandchildren.	0.39	11
29	Reducing use of forest resources through conservation will be good for the community.	0.38	12
18	If I could borrow a small amount of money, I would be able to invest in a small business.	0.38	13
11	If more tourists visited, or came on a cruise ship, I worry that there would not be enough food, water, & waste facilities to cope with them.	0.23	14
1	My garden is producing less food than it was before.	0.17	15
2	It is important to get more livestock, such as cattle, pigs, & chickens into the village, to provide food.	0.02	16
24	I feel safe in my home & in my community.	0.01	17

REF	Statement	Rank	Rank
9	I get enough good, reliable drinking water within my community.	-0.08	18
23	I would be able to spend more time in my community if there was a more equal share of housework between men and women.		19
25	I feel that I have enough influence on decisions that affect my community.	-0.18	20
17	Customary knowledge of resource use & the land is being forgotten.	-0.37	21
21	I worry that young people don't want to stay in the village, as there are more opportunities in main towns & Honiara.	-0.40	22
5	The changing weather makes it too warm & dry, & sometimes too wet, to grow our usual crops.	-0.41	23
6	We have enough toilet, washing & cleaning facilities for all the people in the village.	-0.45	24
10	I would like better ways to cook food, so I don't have to use firewood from the forest.	-0.53	25
14	Neighbouring communities encroach on our customary land & marine resources, without permission.	-0.56	26
3	There are more weather-related natural disasters happing now, like cyclones & heavy rain.	-0.60	27
16	There are less traditional medicinal plants growing than there used to be.	-0.67	28
7	I am confident I would feel safe in the next natural disaster.	-0.67	29
31	Industrial discharges & sediment causes pollution in our lakes, rivers, and ocean.	-0.73	30
34	I would like to catch fish further out to sea, to reduce pressure on local fisheries.	-0.90	31
32	Lack of proper grazing management pollutes waterways & the coastal reefs.	-0.93	32
15	Land reclamation for development destroys reefs & the marine resources.	-1.13	33
4	Our water sources are drying-up more frequently than before.	-1.13	34
36	The benefits from logging & mining are shared fairly across all the people in the community.	-1.35	35
35	Mining & forestry offer benefits that make-up for the environmental damage they cause.	-1.89	36



Figure 8: Figure 8: Data collection in Tegano community



Figure 9: Data collection in Hutuna community

Figure 10: Composite sort for Factor 1

		1				
5	** ► 22. Improving the roads into the community will enable new business opportunities.					
4	20. Tourism offers many good opportunities for small businesses in my area.	** ► 28. Marine protected areas will be good for encouraging tourism.				
3	26. Conservation of forests & reefs will forests at successful when people feel secure and prosperous.	** 3. Our forests, 33. Our forests, freshwater & marine fresources are important to Assiom. It's important we can hand them down to our children in good condition.	30. We need to protect our forests better, as they are being removed to make way for food gardens.			
2	** * 13. We should do more to prevent our special places from falling into disrepair.	** ** ** ** ** ** ** **	* 12. It is important to pass down customary knowledge of dances, songs & ceremonies to my children and grandchildren.	** 11. If more tourists 11. If more tourists visited, or came on a crutes ship, I worry that there would not be enough food, water, & waste facilities to cope with them.		
1	My garden is producing less food than it was before.	** 8. Our community needs a better place to throw away rubbish, like bottles, cans, & plastic.	** ► 14. Neighbouring 14. Neighbouring communities encroach on our customary land & marine resources, without permission.	** 4 27. Enforcing 27. Enforcing protected area rules in my community will be easy.	2. It is important to get more livestock, such as cattle, pigs, & chickens into the village, to provide food.	
0	** 17. Customary 17. Customary knowledge of resource use & the land is being forgotten.	** ► 21. worry that young people don't want to stay in the village, as there are more opportunities in main towns & Honiara.	** ▼ 31. Industrial 31. Industrial discharges & sediment causes pollution in our lakes, rivers, and ocean.	** 4 19.1 would like to earn a bit more cash by selling food i grow, of fish that I	** * I could borrow a small amount of money, I would be able to invest in a small business.	** 3. There are more weather-related natural disasters happing now, like cyclones & heavy rain.
٠	* 4 25. I feel that I have enough influence on decisions that affect my community.	** 23. I would be able to spend more time in my community if there was a more equal share of housework between men and women.	* 4 5. The changing weather makes it too warm & dry, & sometimes too wet, to grow our usual crops.	10. I would like better ways to cook food, so I don't have to use firewood from the forest.	** 4 24. I feel safe in my home & in my community.	
-2	** Fand reclamation for development destroys reefs & the marine resources.	16. There are less traditional medicinal plants growing than there used to be.	34. I would like to catch fish further out to sea, to reduce pressure on local fisheries.	** 4 9. I get enough good, reliable drinking water within my community.		
ဗု	32. Lack of proper grazing management pollutes waterways & the coastal reefs.	** 4 7. I am confident I would feel safe in the next natural disaster.	** 6. We have enough to liet, washing & cleaning facilities for all the people in the village.		-	
4	4. Our water sources are drying-up more frequently than before.	36. The benefits from logging & mining are shared fairly across all the people in the community.		-		
ç.	* Mining & forestry offer benefits that offer benefits that make-up for the environmental damage they cause.		-			

Figure 11: Composite sort for Factor 2

5	28. Conservation of forests & reafs will be most successful when people feel secure and prosperous.					
4	20. Tourism offers many good opportunities for small businesses in my area.	** 2. Improving the roads into the community will enable new business opportunities.				
3	** Amarine protected areas will be good for encouraging tourism.	** 8. Our community needs a better place to throw away rubbish, like bottles, cans, & plastic.	** ► 19. would like to earn a bit more cash by selling food I grow, of fish that I grow, catch.			
2	** ** ** ** ** ** ** **	30. We need to protect our forests better, as they are being removed to make way for food gardens.	** 3. Our forests, 33. Our forests, freshwater & marine resources are important to Asstom. It's important we can hand them down to our children & grand children in good condition.	** ► 27. Enforcing 27. Enforcing protected area rules in my community will be easy.		
1	** \$24.1 feel safe in my home & in my community.	** 9. I get enough good, reliable drinking water within my community.	** P 23.1 would be able to spend more time in my community if there was a more equal share of housework between men and women.	* 4 12. It is important to pass down customent knowledge of dances, songs & ceremonies to my children and grandchildren.	** 4 13. We should do more to prevent our special places from falling into disrepair.	
0	** * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *	2. It is important to get more livestock, such as cattle, pigs, & chickens into the village, to provide village, to provide food.	My garden is producing less food than it was before.	** 29. Reducing use of forest resources through conservation will be good for the community.	* • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	** 11. If more tourists 11. If more tourists visited, or came on a cruise ship, I worry that there would not be enough food, water, & waste facilities to cope with them.
-1	* F 5. The changing 6. The changing weather makes it too warm & dry, & sometimes too wet, to grow our usual crops.	** • T. I am confident I 7. I am confident I would feel safe in the next natural disaster.	10. I would like better ways to cook food, so I don't have to use frewood from the forest.	16. There are less traditional medicinal plants growing than plants growing than there used to be.	** 4 17. Customary 17. Customary knowledge of resource use & the land is being forgotten.	
-2	** 21.1 worry that young people don't want to people don't want to stay in the village, as there are more opportunites in main towns & Honlara.	** 3. There are more weather-related natural disasters happing now, like cyclones & heavy rain.	32. Lack of proper grazing management pollutes waterways & the coastal reefs.	34. I would like to catch fish further out to sea, to reduce pressure on local fisheries.		•
٠,	4. Our water sources are drying-up more frequently than before.	** 4 14. Neighbouring 14. Neighbouring communities encroach on our customary land & marine resources, without permission.	36. The benefits from logging & mining are shared fairly across all the people in the community.		-	
4	** 31. Industrial 32. Industrial discharges & sediment causes poliution in our lakes, rivers, and ocean.	** 4 15. Land reclamation for development destroys reefs & the marine resources.		_		
-5	* A Mining & foresty offer benefits that make-up for the environmental damage they cause.		-			

8 Go along survey findings

For background on the benefits and methods for carrying out go-along surveys, see Appendix G.

8.1 Tevaitahe

Tevaitahe is the western most lake community at -11.71332, 160.4078. Table 13 is the go-along survey data and Table 14 is the specifics of the community asset survey.

Table 13: Go along survey findings for Tevaitahe

Category	Notes
Community demographics	 42 households 100 eligible voters and a large number of under 18s (estimated to be ~300) Little immigration in and out of the community with only some people leaving for Honiara
Community hazards	 Weather patterns are noticeable changing Cyclones, sea / lake level rise is affecting growth of swamp taro (a key staple) Fishing stocks seem to be falling again (following falls in the 1990s)
Exposures	Gardens in low-laying swampy areas are being impacted by sea / lake level rise
Vulnerabilities	All people are reportedly affected by issues such as sea / lake level rise
Water resources, sanitation, and waste	 Rainwater (tanks) are the main source of drinking water Prior to the installation of water tanks (AusAID programme) water was drawn from springs but these are being affected by sea / lake level rise In extreme cases, people have used bores Solid, non-compostable waste is a growing issue; there is no recycling
Power sources	 Solar power, provided by the constituency budget, is the only source of electricity Firewood is used for cooking, supplemented by small amounts from disposable gas cannisters
Conservation efforts	 East Rennell declared a World Heritage area in 1997 and since, everyone has generally supported conservation efforts There is a concern that livelihoods will be impacted if there is a forest protected area (PA) declared in the area Community access to natural resources is protected in the constitution, however, PA status is seen as a risk; management plans need to be written by the community
Gardens and farming	[Reported above]

Table 14: Community asset inventory for Tevaitahe

Item	Quantity / notes	Item	Quantity / notes
Schools	1 kindy; 1 primary school	Police posts	0
Churches	2	Aid posts	1 in East Rennell
Poultry / hatchery	0	Womens' Centres	0
Cattle farms	0	Community Halls	0
Piggeries	0 (only a few family pigs)	Banks	0
Other plantations	0 (coconut for local consumption only)	Money transfers	0
Tilapia ponds	0	Post offices	0
Docks	0	Market houses	0
Shops	0	Air strips	0
Cooperatives	0	Phone network	Moderate
Boats	2		

8.2 Niupani

Niupanu is at -11.7297, 160.4243. Table 15 is the go-along survey data and Table 16 is the specifics of the community asset survey.

Table 15: Go along survey findings for Niupani

Category	Notes				
Community demographics	More than 70 householdsStudents leave for senior school; some people move for work				
Community hazards	 Last cyclone was experience in 2009 Heavy rain (recently) Earthquakes are experienced, but damaged has been reported 				
Exposures	 Low laying gardens are affected by lake levels, particularly impacting the growth of swamp taro; there is nowhere to move swamp taro plantings to 				
Water resources, sanitation, and waste	 Rainwater (tanks) are the main source of drinking water Wells have been used in the past; spring water from the forest have been used in times of rainwater shortage; each household is aware of back-up spring fed water Most rubbish is buried and there are no further waste plans at the moment 				
Power sources	 There is a small power house (community owned solar panel array) used for communal charge of phones and electronics Most households have some degree of solar power Firewood is used for cooking, supplemented by small amounts from disposable gas cannisters 				
Conservation efforts	 No formal conservation areas as yet There is a concern that livelihoods will be impacted if there is a forest protected area (PA) declared in the area, however, this is based on a poor understanding of the protections that communities have over resource use 				
Gardens and farming	 Fallow periods are falling No agricultural programmes in the community and few innovations, such as new crops or techniques In the past, some people used to sell garden produce but now there is not enough produce available for sale 				
Tourism	 Few tourists visit the area; tourism is sightseeing-based Province has plans that were once shared but there has been no actions so far Conservation may help but much depends on the community's willingness to invest time and labour 				
Pollution and disaster management	 No noticeable pollution Traditionally, cyclones are experienced frequently; the community are generally aware of cyclone drill No modern shelter; people build temporary shelters in designated safe spaces Post-disaster support is always very limited 				

Table 16: Community asset inventory for Niupani

Item	Quantity / notes	Item	Quantity / notes
Schools	2	Police posts	0
Churches	1	Aid posts	0
Poultry / hatchery	0	Womens' Centres	0
Cattle farms	0	Community Halls	0
Piggeries	0	Banks	0

Other plantations	0	Money transfers	0
Tilapia ponds	0	Post offices	0
Docks	0	Market houses	0
Shops	0	Air strips	1 in Tingoa
Cooperatives	0	Phone network	Moderate
Boats	15		

8.3 Tegano

Tegano is at -11.7432, 160.4333. Table 17 is the go-along survey data and Table 18 is the specifics of the community asset survey..

Table 17: Go along survey findings for Tegano

Category	Notes
Community demographics	 Approximately 32 households Population between 600-800 with 520 eligible voters; population is rising* Young people continuing school must leave the village Property is handed down by parents
Community hazards	 Weather has been fairly stable Tilapia fish are getting smaller and population smaller; people are now capturing fish at night Drought conditions usually kick-in in the middle of the year
Exposures	• Low laying gardens are affected by lake levels plant, which is particularly impacting swamp taro
Water resources,	 Each household has rainwater tanks as the main source of drinking water; water tanks start to run empty without 2 to 3 weeks of rain though the sharing culture means that when households start to run out, the remaining water is shared
sanitation, and waste	 The current year has been wet, but other years have been bad
samution, and wasto	 Toilet facilities are adequate (supplied through Japanese aid money) though some households till use bush toilets
	Cans and plastic waste are becoming a problem; much of it is currently stored in caves in the forest
Power sources	 Most households have some degree of solar power that was provided by the local MP Firewood is used for cooking, supplemented by small amounts from disposable gas cannisters
Conservation efforts	Some conservation effort has been ongoing since Tegano was declared a World Heritage site

Category	Notes		
	 Most food is grown by households though there is an increasing amount of imported food, particularly rice and noodles 		
	The soil is very thin and poor		
	Tegano's islands have been cultivated with coconut and other gardens		
	 Areas of swamp taro are getting inundated and have to be moved (but there are few places to move it); despite this, these swamp areas remain very important garden areas 		
	Livestock, meat, and fish:		
Gardens and farming	 Poultry and a few goats (SDA don't eat pork) 		
	 Chicken meat is sold to the west; often Asian people visit and buy chicken 		
	Eggs are not widely eaten		
	 Tilapia are still plentiful but are getting smaller; most people are capable and free to catch what they need 		
	 Cormorants (since 1992/3) are blamed for reducing numbers of tilapia in shallower waters 		
	 People still fish at the other side of the lake where fishing is better 		
	Very poor / low visitor numbers since Covid-19		
Tourism	 Community is generally supportive of developing tourism; it would bring money and good opportunities and markets for food, handicrafts, and orchid flowers 		
	 People want the government to invest in the infrastructure to promote tourism 		
	Last earthquake was 2019 and last cyclone was 2003		
Pollution and disaster	 Most people understand what to do (take valuable things and seek shelter in the woods) 		
management	Sometimes people do not believe or take heed of the cyclone warnings		
	 Community worries about the access road; the European Union funded it but it was built by the government; responsibility for maintenance is split between the Solomon Islands government (from Tigoa to Middle Bay) and the Provincial government between Middle Bay and Tegano 		
Other notes	 Prime Ministers have visited the area (3 times) but the road is never given any priority (it was claimed it was reallocated to the Pacific Games) 		
	There is no bank but people are now using mobile banking services		

^{*} This seems unduly high.

Table 18: Community asset inventory for Tegano

Item	Quantity / notes	Item	Quantity / notes
Schools	3	Police posts	0
Churches	2	Aid posts	1
Poultry / hatchery	0	Womens' Centres	0
Cattle farms	0	Community Halls	1
Piggeries	0	Banks	0
Other plantations	0	Money transfers	Mobile banking available
Tilapia ponds	Big lake!	Post offices	0
Docks	0	Market houses	0
Shops	2	Air strips	1 in Tigoa
Cooperatives	0	Phone network	Moderate
Boats	10 (private but people can share; bought by the MP)		

8.4 Hutuna

Hutuna is small settlement on the eastern most community on the lake at -11.7432, 160.4333. Table 19 is the go-along survey data and Table 20 is the specifics of the community asset survey.

Table 19: Go along survey findings for Hutuna

Category	Notes
Community demographics	 Approximately 30 households 100+ eligible voters, plus around 200 under 18 Migration to Honiara is common but people often come back during holidays / leave
Community hazards	 Weather has been fairly stable Tilapia fish are getting smaller and population smaller; people are now capturing fish at night Drought conditions usually kick-in in the middle of the year
Exposures	• Low laying gardens are affected by lake levels plant, which is particularly impacting swamp taro
Water resources, sanitation, and waste	 Rainwater (tanks) are the main source of drinking water Springs in various caves in the forest provides back-up No proper waste facilities and no plans for any recycling
Power sources	 Most households have some degree of solar power that was provided by the local MP Firewood is used for cooking, supplemented by small amounts from disposable gas cannisters
Conservation efforts	Some conservation effort has been ongoing since Tegano was declared a World Heritage site
Gardens and farming	Gardens have been a big problem
Tourism	 Very poor / low visitor numbers since Covid-19 Tourists would come for swimming, snorkelling, and hiking There have been plans to change this but nothing has eventuated Transport is very expensive and there is poor accessibility After logging and mining came to the island, prices are on the rise
Pollution and disaster management	 Pollution is low Canned and processed food imports are bring waste pollution People generally know what to do in natural disasters Community leaders generally know what supports are available

Table 20: Community asset inventory for Hutuna

Item	Quantity / notes	Item	Quantity / notes
Schools	1 primary	Police posts	0
Churches	1	Aid posts	1 in Tegano
Poultry / hatchery	0	Womens' Centres	0
Cattle farms	0	Community Halls	1
Piggeries	0	Banks	0
Other plantations	Coconut plantations (family owned)	Money transfers	Mobile banking available
Tilapia ponds	Big lake!	Post offices	0
Docks	0	Market houses	0
Shops	0	Air strips	1 in Tingoa
Cooperatives	0	Phone network	Moderate
Boats	8		

9 Joint Q analysis

We subjected all the composite factors from all the study areas (dubbed secondary factor analysis) to determine an overall picture of the dominant factors from each study (Guadalcanal, Rennell, Malaita, and Temotu Provinces). Each composite factor (n=10) was subject to the same treatment as detailed in Appendix F⁵. The results are reported in Table 15. Only one factor explained sufficient variance.

This factor confirmed the scepticism about logging and mining that was present in most of the factors in the study areas: S35 (logging and mining brings net benefits) and S36 (benefits from logging and mining are fairly shared) were ranked 36th and 35th by a significant margin of z-score. As a result of an absence of the significant logging and mining

activities currently taking place in the study areas, they were also little concern for pollution in the waterways. At the other end, conservation-based and resource management-based statements (S26, S33, S29, S28, and S30) took up 5 of the 6 most important issues. Concerns over lack of road infrastructure and business opportunities was ranked second. Tourism opportunities (S20) was ranked moderately positively at 9th with a z-score of 0.6.

Overall, these results and the outputs from the Q and the go-along survey for Malaita support the goals of the EREPA project but nevertheless underline the importance of infrastructure provision and the requirement for livelihoods to be supported in conservation activities.

Table 21: Factor extraction from secondary analysis

Ref	Statement	Z-score	Rank
26	Conservation of forests & reefs will be most successful when people feel secure and prosperous.	1.99	1
22	Improving the roads into the community will enable new business opportunities.	1.6	2
33	Our forests, freshwater & marine resources are important to kastom. It's important we can hand them down to our children & grand children in good condition.	1.55	3
29	Reducing use of forest resources through conservation will be good for the community.	1.32	4
28	Marine protected areas will be good for encouraging tourism.	1.31	5
30	We need to protect our forests better, as they are being removed to make way for food gardens.	1.3	6
12	It is important to pass down customary knowledge of dances, songs & ceremonies to my children and grandchildren.	1.26	7
8	Our community needs a better place to throw away rubbish, like bottles, cans, & plastic.	0.94	8
20	Tourism offers many good opportunities for small businesses in my area.	0.8	9
13	We should do more to prevent our special places from falling into disrepair.	0.79	10
19	I would like to earn a bit more cash by selling food I grow, of fish that I catch.	0.55	11
27	Enforcing protected area rules in my community will be easy.	0.33	12
9	I get enough good, reliable drinking water within my community.	0.18	13
2	It is important to get more livestock, such as cattle, pigs, & chickens into the village, to provide food.	0.13	14
18	If I could borrow a small amount of money, I would be able to invest in a small business.	0.1	15
23	I would be able to spend more time in my community if there was a more equal share of housework between men and women.	0.02	16
6	We have enough toilet, washing & cleaning facilities for all the people in the village.	0.02	17
24	I feel safe in my home & in my community.	-0.06	18
16	There are less traditional medicinal plants growing than there used to be.	-0.1	19
25	I feel that I have enough influence on decisions that affect my community.	-0.21	20
1	My garden is producing less food than it was before.	-0.27	21

⁵ Note the Q-methodology can function with small samples (including n=1).

Ref	Statement	Z-score	Rank
11	If more tourists visited, or came on a cruise ship, I worry that there would not be enough food, water, & waste facilities to cope with them.	-0.28	22
3	There are more weather-related natural disasters happing now, like cyclones & heavy rain.	-0.43	23
5	The changing weather makes it too warm & dry, & sometimes too wet, to grow our usual crops.	-0.46	24
7	I am confident I would feel safe in the next natural disaster.	-0.54	25
4	Our water sources are drying-up more frequently than before.	-0.55	26
17	Customary knowledge of resource use & the land is being forgotten.	-0.59	27
14	Neighbouring communities encroach on our customary land & marine resources, without permission.	-0.6	28
21	I worry that young people don't want to stay in the village, as there are more opportunities in main towns & Honiara.	-0.68	29
10	I would like better ways to cook food, so I don't have to use firewood from the forest.	-0.79	30
34	I would like to catch fish further out to sea, to reduce pressure on local fisheries.	-0.99	31
32	Lack of proper grazing management pollutes waterways & the coastal reefs.	-1.01	32
15	Land reclamation for development destroys reefs & the marine resources.	-1.16	33
31	Industrial discharges & sediment causes pollution in our lakes, rivers, and ocean.	-1.31	34
36	The benefits from logging & mining are shared fairly across all the people in the community.	-1.98	35
35	Mining & forestry offer benefits that make-up for the environmental damage they cause.	-2.19	36

10 Adaptation priorities

In making high level adaptation recommendations we draw on our position of taking an EbA approach and seeing adaptations along a spectrum (see Appendix A and specifically Figures A1 and A2). Therefore, our recommendations do not specifically draw solely on pure 'nature-based solutions' (Hermelingmeier & Nicholas, 2017; IUCN, 2020) but instead lean in to the FEBA qualification criteria, including:

- reduces social and environmental vulnerabilities;
- generates societal benefits in the context of climate change;
- restores, maintains, or improves the health of ecosystems;
- is supported by policies at multiple levels; and
- supports equitable governance and enhances capabilities.

(FEBA, 2018)

10.1 Priority area 1: REDD+ and payments for ecosystem services

The preference for forest conservation ranked both highly through both factors in our Q study and was reiterated in the go-along surveys. This broadly supports the intent of the EREPA project. However, this clearly comes as a tradeoff in terms of continued improvements in livelihoods and receiving some financial benefits from 25 years of World Heritage conservation. This evidence suggests that forest conservation needs to support not only ecosystem service provision to local communities but also income generation, most likely through the development of tourism related activities but potentially through capturing values from forest conservation.

Payment for ecosystem services (PES) schemes are one of a suite of policy mechanisms put forward to support forest conservation and to provide for more equitable social and economic outcomes. First considered in the 1990s, PES schemes now generate between US \$36 and 42 billion in global annual transactions (Pagiola, 2008; Salzman et al., 2018). PES compensate communities for pursuing sustainable forest management practices, such as protected area status, which generate positive externalities through ecosystem services (Engel et al., 2008) in lieu of extractive uses, such as logging, mining, and land-use change to agricultural uses (Morgan et al., 2021).

PES implementation is diverse and non-prescriptive but has been increasingly used to reduce carbon emissions through REDD (Reduced Emissions from Deforestation and Degradation)—a global initiative to provide compensation for communities to support sustainable management of forests (UN-REDD, 2016). REDD+ uses performance-based contracts, based on agreed activities, which support forest livelihoods and retention and/or sequestration of forest carbon (Angelsen, 2009). Later, the addition of '+' (to make

REDD+) flagged the inclusion of conservation, sustainable management of forests, and enhancement of forest carbon stocks to focus the scheme more on equity rather than strict resource allocative efficiency (Pagiola et al., 2005). The capital for most nascent REDD+ programs has been provided by international multilateral development funds. Once a REDD+ program is operating benefit transfer can take multiple forms (Garcia et al., 2021).

Compensation can be made in cash or in kind; for example, for schools and medical facilities, or as funding to health and education services, and to individuals, households, or community organisations.

REDD+ schemes remain novel, sometimes costly, institutionally complex and demand-led (Porras et al., 2013; Wunder, 2006), which can limit participation due to high transaction costs, the requirement for settled land tenure, and the fact that opportunities tend not motivated by communities themselves. Successful REDD+ projects require an understanding of the specific proximate drivers of deforestation and are also exceptionally challenging to implement in the context of weak institutions (Clements et al., 2010), such as in the Solomon Islands. Further, schemes can lack governance standards and legitimacy by failing to reflect stakeholder's perspectives and priorities (Rosendal & Schei, 2014), particularly those of local communities (Wallbott et al., 2019). Therefore, they demand a high degree of co-design to reflect community expectations and ensure livelihood opportunities align with donor demands for enhancement of carbon stocks (Bush et al., 2019).

10.2 Priority area 2: Agricultural extension, agro-forestry, and poultry management

Our go-along surveys in the four communities revealed a concern for food production, particularly in low laying areas that are being subjected to inundation (though this was not necessarily reflected in the Q). Given the specific geology and geography of Rennell — specifically its lack of soil, or difficulty in building up soil, and lack of surface water (Claudino-Sales, 2019; Wingham, 1997) — food production could come under increasing risk of rising sea levels (reflect in the lake levels). Whilst this pressure may be acute today (though was reported as an issue for some crops), most certainly in the future this will be exacerbating. Therefore, support for agricultural extension and planning for future changes is essential. There is likely to be lags in building up good soil structures on land that maybe still be ineffectively cultivated.

One of the higher return policy interventions for improving rural well-being and resilience is stimulating innovation in the sectors from which the rural poor derive their livelihoods (Weber, 2012, p. 84). Nearly all households undertake some form of subsistence food production and animal husbandry. A robust, resilient, evolving, and forewarned farming system is imperative to the communities of Tegano for:

- Sea level rise, driving lake level rise puts the low-laying gardens, where any soil that has been painstakingly built up tends to be, at considerable risk. The risk, in particular to swamp taro, was mentioned by all communities in the go-along surveys.
- Local food security during change climates and through natural disasters, ensuring the community has a reliable supply of a variety of foods but also systems in place to recover quickly or store reserves if harvesting is interrupted.
- Nutrition: Local agriculture can help to improve nutrition by providing access to a variety of nutritious foods, such as fruits, vegetables, and meats.
- Economic development: Agriculture can be a major economic driver. A robust farming system can help to create jobs, generate income, and boost exports. Experimentation in new, export-orientated niche products (coffee, cocoa) can generate income but come at a risk to producing farmers, in terms of marketing investments and forgone effort towards foods that directly support their own and their community's livelihoods.

• Agro-forestry: Sustainable land-management through expansion of agro-forestry systems can increase the overall yield of the land by combining the production of crops, including tree crops, and forest plants on the same land. At a local level, maintaining ground cover and providing shade, reduces moisture-loss and protects soil from sunlight, and provides for a structure that enables some food plants to grow more efficiently. Agroforestry systems, featuring perennial crops can also be more efficient by demanding less maintenance than annual plants and maintaining crop diversity insures against crop diseases and pests.

Adoption of modified gardening techniques is likely to face many of the same barriers, which have been documented elsewhere, such as aversion to taking new risks, due to the potential for shocks causing crop failure and loss of livelihood, lack of new inputs and education, and conformity affects (Clifton & Wharton, 1971; Dercon & Christiaensen, 2011).

Poultry management

There was evidence from interviews and go-along surveys from limited maximisation of the benefits offered by good poultry management (Buckwell, Ariki, et al., 2023; Dumas et al., 2016), such as taking pressure of the lake fishery (or purchased food from outside of the village) for a source of protein and for pest control in and nitrogen cycling through community gardens.

For example, few people harvested eggs (hens were not followed to nesting places), there was limited understanding of the use of poultry in pest management and fertilising in the gardens, and there was limited demonstrated knowledge of the ratio of hens to roosters (generally between 1 to 10-12). This ratio will ensure that there are enough roosters to fertilize the eggs to keep generations growing, but not so many that the hens become stressed or injured from overmating or have the food sources over-exploited.

•

10.3 Priority area 3: Establishing the sustainability of the lake fishery

All communities raised the issue of the sustainability of the Tegano tilapia fishery. This fishery is vital to the protein food security of the communities of the lake. It also plays a role in the generation of cash through sales to the larger communities in the west of Rennell (Buckwell, Ariki, et al., 2023). In the go-along surveys all the communities spoke of a reduction in size of the fish caught (from the length between one's hand and elbow to 20 to 25 cm). This has coincided with new technologies that aid in the short-term efficiency of fishing effort at the expense of the indefinite sustainability of a fishery. For example, community members report the use of underwater torches and sex-indiscriminate spearing tilapia at night when the fish are asleep has increased the efficiency of the catch (Buckwell, Ariki, et al., 2023). (In fisheries terms, this is where the fish catch is beyond the maximum sustainable yield of a fishery - the point where annual production / growth rate is maximised, where the

total achievable biomass is at around 50% of saturation (for discussion on fisheries and biotic resource management, see Chapter 10 of Daly & Farley, 2003).

Nevertheless a study from 2000 by Oreihaka (2000) found that 70% of fishers believed that the tilapia stock abundance was declining, 13% believed it was increasing and 10% per cent said there was no change in the stock abundance. 97% claimed the average size of tilapia to be decreasing.

Whilst, at face value, Tegano is a large lake, with a very low population density in proximity, and it may also be a natural genetic adaptation towards smaller fish, such is high consequence of the failure of the fishery that a sustainability study of the fishery should be considered. Regardless, localised falls in the fishery, near to the communities, will increase the costs of fishing effort by increase the demand for fuel.

10.4 Priority area 4: Tourism investment plan

East Rennell is an area of natural beauty and cultural heritage, making it a potential site for eco-tourism. The communities have waited patiently for investment, but little has been forthcoming. The impacts of Covid-19 put a halt to tourist visitation that has not yet even begun to recover. S20 (tourism offered good opportunities) was ranked 2nd in the Q study by both factors.

The support for tourism is based on concepts developed more than twenty five years ago when East Rennell was inscribed as a World Heritage property in 1998. Since inscription the communities around Tegano have forgone livelihood opportunities presented by and deriving from the

logging and mining sectors, which are being pursued with vigour in the west of the island. However, the communities in the project area are yet to benefit from alternative livelihood diversification pathways, such as eco-tourism and artisanal food production and crafts in service of any nascent tourism sector (Price, 2017).

Notwithstanding, the communities still lacks infrastructure and skilled personnel to develop a sustainable tourism industry and a plan is required for investing in skills development, including servicing, marketing, and advertising, to attract eco-tourists and generate economic benefits for local communities.

10.5 Residual risks

Understanding the distributional impacts of the proposed projects is essential to understanding the impact of a project. not just its outputs and outcomes (Asian Development, 2007). No quantitative poverty impact analysis (PIA) has been undertaken to disaggregate which stakeholder groups would likely benefit most from the projects. It cannot be explicitly stated the projects, as proposed, are explicitly pro-poor. However, a number of demographic attributes suggest that we can make at least a qualified judgement that the demonstration plots project, in particular, can benefit indiscriminately and would have positive distributional impacts. The Solomon Island's rural communities remain relatively homogenous and tribally based. Tribal affiliation provides entitlements to shelter and customary rights to farming land and forest and marine resources; hence there is no land-owning class that overtly benefits from improved productivity.

Nevertheless, this optimism needs to be tempered by the understanding poorer farmers often benefit less from extension programmes due to their propensity to farm smaller plots, be more risk averse, and be less likely to engage in such programmes. Provided outreach associated with the programme is carefully designed — perhaps even specifically targeting households that are typically hard to reach, or individuals who are marginalized — the impact on poverty reduction should be high. Notwithstanding, a more detailed, quantified PIA, would provide a valuable adjunct to this report.

11 Detailed project assessment

The section further develops the high-level recommendations from Section 10 to make a more detailed assessment of the priority projects. Our assessment will take a hybrid assessment approach using techniques from cost benefit analysis and multi-criteria assessment (see below).

11.1 Assessment methods

Assessment of options can take a range of approaches, depending on the relative priority given to the considerations at-hand. For example, if priority is for return on investment, cost benefit analysis of financial costs and benefits is paramount. Conversely, if there are outstanding uncertainties in both financial costs and benefits and economic costs and benefits (e.g. social cost) then this lends to other forms of assessment. If there are broader considerations than just financial and economic, then hybrid approaches should be considered.

Cost benefit analysis

Cost benefit analysis (CBA) is a systematic approach used to evaluate the potential gains and losses of a decision, project, or action. It involves quantifying both the financial and non-financial advantages and disadvantages, allowing for comparison and informed decision-making. By weighing the costs against the anticipated benefits, this analysis provides a framework for determining whether a course of action is worthwhile. It aids in maximizing value and efficiency by identifying options that yield the greatest net positive outcome and helping individuals, businesses, and governments allocate resources effectively while considering the broader impact of their choices.

For example, Buckwell et al. (2020) used CBA to assess the return on investment from a range of EbA projects on the island of Tanna. Specifically, this was a social CBA, which

used ecosystem service valuation estimates and modelled biophysical changes to determine a dollar value for the value of projects from a whole of society perspective.

Multi-criteria assessment

Multi-criteria assessment (MCA) is a decision-making approach that evaluates various alternatives using multiple criteria or factors. It considers diverse dimensions such as economic, environmental, social, and technical aspects to provide both a holistic and pragmatic view. By assigning weights to criteria, it quantifies their relative importance, aiding in comparing options objectively. This method helps stakeholders make informed choices by systematically analysing trade-offs and synergies among different criteria, fostering well-rounded and balanced decision outcomes.

Hybrid approach

Given the range of implementation considerations, we propose to take a hybrid approach to potential EbA assessment, combining elements of CBA with MCA, a broader assessment methodology, where we include a NPV estimate of a project's value (based on cost-benefit analysis) as one of the weighted criteria in a broader MCA process.

Thus, we have settled upon a 'hybrid' approach, where an economic assessment of a project is placed in the content of broader stakeholder concerns.

11.2 Hybrid assessment

Our hybrid approach included significant elements of MCA. The methodology is detailed below. Our process also allowed for stakeholder engagement and consultation with representatives from the Solomon Islands government and from SPREP at a workshop in Honiara.

- 1. We identified five broader social, economic, and environmental objectives for East Rennell: (1) secure a climate resilient landscape; (2) improve water and food security; (3) improve livelihoods and economic development capabilities; (4) financial viability; and (5) supports good governance.
- **2.** We weighted the five objectives to total 100.
- **3.** Within each objective, we further defined between three to five criteria and sub-weighted these criteria,

- creating an overall weighting for each criterion for the MCA (see Table 18).
- **4.** To help guide the scoring of each criterion we generated an indicator phrase/question and a set of phrases pointing to a score between -5 (where not achieving an indicator was likely detrimental) and 10 (indicating complete achievement of the outcome is likely if the indicator was fully met). This scoring guide was slightly different for each criterion and is reported in Appendix H. Total costs for project implementation are in Appendix H, with the exception of agricultural extension and agro-forestry costs, which are more specific to each case study site. For Tandai Ward, this is reported in Table 22. In this case, costs over \$1 million represent an MCA score of 1.

Table 22: Total costs of implementation of agro-forestry project, nursery, and community ranger program

Item	Quantity	Total cost over 5 years (US\$)
Demonstration farms for gardens and agro-forestry, staffing, logistics, and equipment	1	\$414,421
Nursery and poultry hatchery	1	\$360,065
Community rangers	4	\$249,571
Total costs		\$1,024,058

- **5.** In conjunction with the project team, representatives from the Solomon Islands government and from SPREP went through the scoring exercise, line-by-line. Full scoring for East Rennell is reported in Table 24.
- **6.** The following sensitivity analyses were carried out and results are reported in Table 25.
 - a) We adjusted Objective 4 (financial viability) to 0 and adjusted each other objective upwards as defined in Table 17.
 - **b)** We doubled Objective 4 (financial viability) to 34 adjust each other objectives downwards as defined in Table 17.

Objective 4 was targeted for sensitivity analysis as this is where the main uncertainties lay. The two analyses effective gave this objective a zero weighting and an approximate doubling in weighting.

Table 23: Sensitivity test weighting adjustments

Objective	Baseline score	Sensitivity test 1	Sensitivity test 2
1	23	28	19
2	17	21	13
3	17	21	13
4	18	0	34
5	25	30	21

Table 24: Multi-criteria assessment for the Wairaha catchment project area

	Program		REDD+ readiness / PES		Fishery sustainability study		Agricultural extension program		Eco-tourism investment plan	
		Rank		1		4	2		3	
		Total score	5	54	2	84	509		378	
Objective	Criteria	Weight	Score	Weighted score	Score	Weighted score	Score	Weighted score	Score	Weighted score
Secure a climate resilient landscape	Appropriate scale of management	8.40	10	92	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Prioritises biodiversity and ecosystem services within management area	4.20	10	46	0	0	0	0	4	18.4
	Protects a diverse range of habitats	2.10	10	23	0	0	0	0	1	2.3
	Risk costs of no action	6.30	5	34.5	5	34.5	10	69	1	6.9

		Program	Rank 1		Fishery sustainability study 4		exte	cultural ension gram	Eco-tourism investment plan	
							2		3	
		Total score		554 Weighted		284 Weighted		Weighted		Weighted
Objective	Criteria	Weight	Score	score	Score	score	Score	score	Score	score
	Will increase the productivity of subsistence gardening system within the current footprint	7.65	3	22.95	0	0	10	76.5	5	38.25
Increase food and water	Ensures the ongoing capacity to harvest protein	4.25	3	12.75	10	42.5	10	42.5	2	8.5
security	Increases the availability of drinking water in a changing climate	4.25	0	0	0	0	1	4.25	0	0
	Increases capacity of community to purchase food	0.85	1	0.85	5	4.25	3	2.55	5	4.25
	Create opportunities for cooperatives and associations	6.65	5	29.75	5	29.75	2	11.9	3	17.85
Improve livelihoods & economic development capabilities	Economic development opportunities are available to all and do not exclude certain demographics	6.65	2	11.9	3	17.85	5	29.75	5	29.75
	Number of beneficiaries	5.7	5	25.5	3	15.3	5	25.5	4	20.4
	Estimated cost of implementation	5.61	2	11.88	5	29.7	2	11.88	0	0
Financial viability	Availability of cost benefit analysis data	5.61	10	59.4	2	11.88	10	59.4	1	5.94
	Timescale of social benefits	5.78	3	18.36	5	30.6	5	30.6	3	18.36
	Level of co- management (government, communities, private sector)	2.6	5	12.5	0	0	1	2.5	10	25
Supports good	Compatible with policy and legal frameworks of Solomon Islands government	7.8	10	75	2	15	10	75	10	75
governance	Consideration of GEDSI	7.8	3	22.5	0	0	3	22.5	6	45
	Incorporates local indigenous and traditional knowledge	5.2	10	50	10	50	8	40	9	45
	Long term capacity to ensure sustainable governance	2.6	2	5	1	2.5	2	5	7	17.5

11.3 Sensitivity analysis

Sensitivity analysis for multi-criteria assessment for East Rennell project area.

Table 25: Sensitivity analysis for multi-criteria assessment for East Rennell project area

Scenario		REDD+ readiness / PES	Fishery sustainability study	Agricultural extension program	Eco-tourism investment plan
Baseline scenario	Rank	2	4	1	3
Baseline scenario	Total score	554	284	509	378
Connected (founding costs at 0)	Rank	1	4	2	3
Scenario 1 (funding costs at 0)	Total score	564	258	496	430
Scenario 2 (funding costs doubled)	Rank	1	4	3	3
	Total score	549	305	519	334

12 ESRAM outcomes and implementation

The vulnerability of social and ecological systems due to intensifying human activities, both locally and in extended supply chains as access to wider markets, in sectors such as agriculture and fishing (and potentially, in the future, logging and mining, if community attitudes towards conservation shift). In addition, climate change and continuing carbon emissions are likely to increase this vulnerability, as weather

patterns warm and potentially alter rainfall and forest moisture patters, meaning adaptive capacity, for which Pacific nations are notably renowned, needs to also increase.

This section describes the expected outcomes and implementation considerations from pursuing each of the priority projects.

12.1 Agricultural extension, agro-forestry, and poultry management

One of the higher return policy interventions for improving rural well-being and resilience is stimulating innovation in the sectors from which the rural poor derive their livelihoods, such as food production from household gardens and agro-forestry. (Weber, 2012, p. 84). Nearly all households undertake some form of subsistence food production, agroforestry, and animal husbandry.

Poultry management

Some baseline studies have been completed (for example see Jansen et al., 2009). In this study, most surveyed farmers thought chickens were easy to care for, provide food for the family and was a good cash income enterprise. Some farmers were interested in keeping local chickens but found it difficult to obtain the birds.

There are organisations in the Solomon Islands and in the Pacific already devoted to improved management of poultry, including Russell Parker's Kai Kokorako Perma-Poultry⁶ and the Happy Chickens Project from the Kyeema Foundation in Fiji⁷.

Knowledge system retention

Knowledge retention and innovation are important considerations. As populations have become more mobile and economies more diverse, many young people are no longer involved in agriculture and traditional knowledge may not get passed on. Hundreds of years of carefully accumulated knowledge and the naturally adaptive

character of Pacific food production system risks being lost. In addition, new knowledge and new crops and varieties from outside assistance are important. This can be achieved through recruitment of agricultural extension officers to run education programs, including the use of demonstration farms — to 'teach by showing and doing'. As farmers make decisions based on uncertain benefits and uncertain costs, demonstration farms can provide a level of assurance to support individual farmers' innovation, reducing exposure to risk of failure, hunger, loss of income or indebtedness. Demonstration farms can improve the confidence of farmers in taking up new techniques by seeing the evidence themselves.

Coordination

Agricultural extension, particularly in more rural areas, are best administered, or at least coordinated through subnational agencies, rather than central government. This way, delivery of advisory services can be more responsive to the needs of communities and has been shown to be delivered at lower costs. Capacity, financial resources, skills, and coordination issues commonly constrain the ability to realise economic. One specific way to address this is to build networks between semi-formalised groups and decentralised local government institutions, where the role of extension agents is equally about facilitation and knowledge and network brokering as it is information provision. This 'pluralistic model' should also seek to engage private sector partners (The University of the Sunshine Coast, 2016).

12.2 Robust forest conservation that supports livelihoods

A robust forest and forest community managed conservation network is vital for the on-going resilience of all aspects of Solomon Island communities. Establishment through formal processes, such as that promoted through the EREPA project increases the robustness and longevity of this network. The role of forest assets to the well-being of

 $[\]label{thm:communities} 6 \qquad \text{See https://www.poultry/ubl.org/all-about-poultry/village-poultry-in-south-africa/chicken-keeping-for-pacific-island-communities}$

⁷ See https://kyeemafoundation.org/explore-our-work/fiji/happy-chickens-project/

Solomon Islanders is recognized in the Protected Areas Act 2010. In addition to the inclusion of more forest under active management for harvest, there are significant benefits from retaining primary forest adjacent to subsistence gardens and integrated with agro-forestry. Forests provide fuel-wood and non-wood forest products, improve soil stability and fertility, and subsistence garden forest cover provides shade and microclimatic buffering from extreme weather events (Harrison et al., 2016).

If the extent and connectivity of remnant primary forests cross critical thresholds, these benefits will diminish, and further downward pressure is placed on subsistence garden productivity. Assisting communities with the protection of forest areas as an EbA, implemented through protected area status can thus reduce the risk of climate change impacts.

REDD+ schemes remain novel, sometimes costly, institutionally complex and demand-led (Porras et al., 2013; Wunder, 2006), which can limit participation due to high transaction costs, the requirement for settled land tenure, and the fact that opportunities tend not motivated by communities themselves. Successful REDD+ projects require an understanding of the specific proximate drivers of deforestation and are also exceptionally challenging to implement in the context of weak institutions (Clements et al., 2010), such as in the Solomon Islands. Further, schemes can lack governance standards and legitimacy by failing to reflect stakeholder's perspectives and priorities (Rosendal & Schei, 2014), particularly those of local communities (Wallbott et al., 2019). Therefore, they demand a high degree of co-design to reflect community expectations and ensure livelihood opportunities align with donor demands for enhancement of carbon stocks (Bush et al., 2019).

Resource mobilisation

Forest conservation will be best achieved through exploration of mechanisms to valourize forest conservation. Thus, the contemporary drive towards protected area status is most likely to be both supported and effective only if it is linked to alternative, non-extractive, or limited-extraction livelihood opportunities, including non-timber forest products (e.g. honey production, which is already present) (Pandey et al., 2016), eco-tourism (Munch-Petersen, 2011), agroecological tourism (Addinsall et al., 2017), voluntary PES approaches, where a greater basket of forest benefits are demonstrated and values captured (Engel et al., 2008; Morgan et al., 2022), or the global REDD+ mechanism designed to reverse forest loss in service of preserving carbon stocks in developing countries (Atmadja et al., 2022; Venter & Koh, 2012). The latter is paid passing attention in the Solomon Islands' National Development Strategy: 2016-2035, but the document recognises the country may only be prepared for 'readiness activities' (Solomon Islands Government, 2016, p. 45).

REDD+ Readiness status

REDD+ readiness refers to the efforts undertaken to develop the capacities needed to demonstrate and implement REDD+, and meet UNFCCC REDD+ requirements. REDD+ readiness support is provided to developing countries through bilateral and multilateral initiatives, including the UN-REDD Programme. Readiness activities include both financial and technical support on REDD+ related areas of work including governance, stakeholder engagement, developing a REDD+ national strategy/action plan, designing a safeguards information system, and developing a forest emission reference level and a national forest monitoring system.

For more information see the REDD+ Factsheet: https://www.un-redd.org/sites/default/files/2021-10/Fact%20 Sheet%201-%20About%20REDD3.pdf

In 2011 the status of readiness for REDD+ implementation for the Solomon Islands was considered low (UN & Solomon Islands Government, 2011). This has begun to be address though the REDD+ Readiness Roadmap 2014-2020 (Solomon Islands Government, 2014). The roadmap recognised that developing capacity in the following areas is paramount:

- Policies and programmes that promote REDD+ activities and provide guidance for government, landowner, NGO, community groups and private sector action;
- REDD+ safeguards; and
- Verifying emission reductions

Responsibility for REDD+ readiness lies with two government agencies, the Ministry of Environment, Climate Change, Disaster Management and Meteorology, reflecting its mandate both for Climate Change Policy and for conservation of natural resources and sound environmental management; and the Ministry of Forestry, the line agency responsible for forest resources, which may have competing objectives for any given potential project area (see Appendix E).

PES and REDD+ and, to an extent, certified eco-tourism schemes are all contingent on highly integrous monitoring and verification processes and thus demand new capacity and skills in new technologies to be available on-the-ground, which may all still be lacking (Gabrys & Heywood, 2012).

Nevertheless, East Rennell should be promoted as candidate sites for specific REDD+ pilot activities in the Solomon Islands to enable enabling ministries and staff to learn lessons and develop capacity as part of the readiness process at provincial and national level.

Potential budget limitations

Such schemes also demand infrastructure investments

that support the development, marketing, and sale of such products (e.g. tourism or sustainable forest products). Both alternative livelihood development opportunities (tourism and the conservation economy) demand commitments to infrastructure development from government, regardless of the continued support with the communities. Potentially they will remain unfulfilled due to fiscal constraints shackling the

government, which natural resource extraction and export were supposed to alleviate. Greenfield development of both sectors is complex and requires a long lead time, suggesting that the immediate demands of livelihoods generation, such as food and water security remain more pressing (Buckwell et al., 2024).

12.3 Eco-tourism development

Potential for tourism in East Rennell

Historically, the communities of Tegano have (perhaps erroneously) interpreted World Heritage inscription as a platform on which tourism development could be launched as a livelihoods panacea, which could support conservation and be a mechanism to secure forest protection, which would naturally follow (Smith, 2011). This has been a partial success, as the area's forests have been kept in-tact and industrial logging and mining kept at bay.

However, even after 25 years of World Heritage listing, there is still virtually no tourism activity around Tegano (Tabbasum & Dingwall, 2005). For example, in conversations with guesthouse owners during the community transects, one informant recounted they had no tourism bookings through 2023, though some business had been conducted with government delegations visiting the area on business. This is a long running pattern; for example, Price (2017, p. 186) reports only a "handful" of tourists in total up to 2017.

Nevertheless, the aspiration to develop tourism opportunities has not faded: both discourses exhibited very positive sentiments towards tourism: overall S20 (tourism presents business opportunities) was the second ranked statement across all Q-sorts (in terms of median z-scores) and 71% of all respondents ranked that statement +2 or higher. Whilst this held true for all communities, the aspiration to develop tourism was also aligned with concerns over the state of the road and that this acts as a significant barrier: S22 (improved roads will help business) was far-and-away the most important statement in all communities.

Notwithstanding, road access is just one of a number of logistical challenges and further significant residual barriers to tourism development remain, including high fuel costs, lack of vehicle maintenance, lack of air services and infrastructure, limited strategic tourism authority commitments to destination marketing, and low local skills and capacity (Gabrys and Heywood, 2012). Tourism, as a pathway to sustainable livelihoods for the communities of Tegano, remains beyond local agency and mainly lays at the macro- or industry-level (Shen et al., 2008).

State of tourism development in Solomon Islands

The challenges of developing tourism in the Solomon

Islands are manifest. For example, insufficient infrastructure, environmental threats, land disputes, and optimising marketing opportunities. The COVID-19 pandemic exacerbated this by driving a collapse in demand. The current status points to the need for the national government to proactively pursue ways to ensure that the sector turns the post-Covid-19 corner and begins to expand again. This includes attracting consumers from existing and new markets, developing heritage tourism (e.g. sites associated with the Second World War, which includes East Rennell, which is the site of a number of relics), perhaps developing dive tourism on the World Heritage protected coral reefs, and drawing on the unique ecological and cultural resources (Noor et al., 2022).

Implementation considerations

The Solomon Islands National Tourism Development Strategy 2015-2019 identified a need for a focus on "small scale tourism based on niche markets is required" and that there is "a wealth of nature based and cultural products, which form the basis of the tourism product" (South Pacific Tourism Organisation, 2015). East Rennell fits this vision. Whilst Solomon Islands tourism strategies acutely require updating, small scale pilot projects can be implemented independently in Rennell. It will require:

1. Skills Development:

- **a)** Implement training programs for local residents in hospitality, guiding, and tour operations (kayaking, snorkelling, hiking)
- **b)** Partner with educational institutions, for example, SINU, to offer relevant courses and certifications
- c) Support local business networks to share skills, knowledge, and experiences and to set locallyappropriate quality assurance systems

2. Servicing:

- **a)** Encourage and support the creation of locally owned and operated tourism enterprises.
- **b)** Network into any local businesses that can provide essential services, such as accommodation, transportation, and food and drinks

- 3. Marketing and Advertising:
 - a) Development of marketing skills and a strategy to target the eco-tourist market (interested in unique and authentic experiences)
 - **b)** Promote use of digital marketing channels (e.g. Facebook) to reach audiences
 - c) Ensure Rennell Island is included in tourism trade shows and events attended by Solomon Islands government representatives.
- **4.** Community Engagement:
 - a) Work closely with the local communities to ensure their involvement in and full support of tourism planning and development
 - **b)** Provide opportunities for communities to benefit economically from ancillary tourism activities
 - c) Promote cultural exchange between tourists and local residents, through cultural shows and guided walks, for example
- **5.** Investment Requirements
 - a) Seek government grants and private sector investment to support skills development programs, marketing initiatives, and infrastructure improvements.

- **b)** Explore innovative financing mechanisms, such as social impact investing and crowdfunding
- **6.** Human Resources:
 - Recruit qualified personnel to manage the tourism development process
 - **b)** Partner with international organizations to provide technical assistance and training

Such ventures should not be contingent on government infrastructure development, such as roads and airports. However, such infrastructure would improve accessibility and further enhance East Rennell's appeal as a tourist destination.

Some baseline readiness research has been completed by Smiley (2014). Results found that villages engaged in community-based tourism spontaneously. However, the degree of participation varies. Currently, the benefits of tourism are shared by very few individual and family operators, though there can be some benefits for other members of the community. Effective participation is hindered by a lack of funding, access to the tourist market, and knowledge for and about tourism. Empowerment for the community is lacking at both the national and local level. It is suggested that the need for empowerment to enhance community capacity to achieve sustainability and self-determination is paramount.

12.4 Sustainable fisheries study

A fisheries sustainability study would face few implementation issues beyond securing the funding and recruitment of an appropriate consultancy. A stock assessment of the populations would assist in a better understanding of population dynamics across the whole lake area (taking account of perhaps spill over from more secure populations in more remote parts of the lake). There is only one published

study but this now very dated and it did not include a formal stock assessment (Oreihaka, 2000). However, it will provide a useful baseline, particularly on catch size, fishing effort, and gear used.

Costs would really depend on how much data is currently available to inform the fisheries model.

12.5 Monitoring and evaluation

A monitoring and evaluation (M&E) schedule should be designed ensure the EbA projects fulfill stated ambitions and to assess their effectiveness in reducing vulnerability and building resilience to climate change. The M&E process should be participatory, involve local communities and stakeholders, and should assess that the project:

- continues to be relevant to the specific needs of the Solomon Islands and the EbA projects being implemented;
- **2.** is effective in collecting and analysing data to assess the progress and effectiveness of EbA projects;
- **3.** is efficient in terms of time and resources;

- **4.** is provide timely information to decision-makers so that they can make necessary adjustments to EbA projects; and
- **5.** distributes the benefits in a relatively equal manner.

In addition, the robustness of the M&E process and resources committed to it should match the complexity of the projects considered.

As many of the proposed projects can be multiple years in implementation before effectiveness can be assessed M&E should focus initially on achievement of the implementation in alignment with deliverables and budgets.

References

- Addinsall, C., Weiler, B., Scherrer, P., & Glencross, K. (2017). Agroecological tourism: bridging conservation, food security and tourism goals to enhance smallholders' livelihoods on South Pentecost, Vanuatu. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 25(8), 1100-1116. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2016.1254221
- Allen, M. G., Bourke, R. M., Evans, B. R., Iramu, E., Maemouri, R. K., F, M. B., Pollard, A. A., Wairiu, M., Watoto, C., & Zotalis, S. (2006). Solomon Islands Smallholder Agriculture Study (Provincial Reports, Issue. AusAID. https://www.dfat.gov.au/sites/default/files/solomon_study_vol4.pdf
- Anderson, A. B., Thilsted, S. H., & Schwarz, A. M. (2013). Food and nutrition security in Solomon Islands. WorldFish. http://hdl.handle.net/1834/27337
- Andrade, Á., Córdoba, R., Dave, R., Girot, P., Herrera-F, B., Munroe, R., Oglethorpe, J., Paaby, P., Pramova, E., Watson, J., & Vengara, W. (2011). Draft principles and guidelines for integrating ecosystem-based approaches to adaptation in project and policy design: A discussion document.
- **Angelsen, A. (2009)**. Realising REDD+: National strategy and policy options (A. Angelsen, M. Brockhaus, M. Kanninen, E. Sills, W. D. Sunderlin, & S. Wertz-Kanounnoikoff, Eds.). *Center for International Forestry Research, Bogor, Indonesia.*
- **Asian Development Bank. (2007).** *Poverty Impact Analysis: Selected Tools and Applications*. https://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/publication/27972/poverty-impact-analysis.pdf
- Atmadja, S. S., Duchelle, A. E., De Sy, V., Selviana, V., Komalasari, M., Sills, E. O., & Angelsen, A. (2022). How do REDD+ projects contribute to the goals of the Paris Agreement? *Environmental Research Letters*, 17(4), 044038. https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/ac5669
- **Barnett, J. (2011)**. Dangerous climate change in the Pacific Islands: Food production and food security. *Regional Environmental Change, 11*(1), 229-237. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10113-010-0160-2
- **Bird, Z., lese, V., Des Combes, H. J., Alungo, B., & Wairiu, M. (2023)**. Assessing rural household's food groups-and-sources and dietary diversity pattern in Malaita Province. *Scientific Reports*, 13(1), 13251. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-023-39124-3
- **Bird, Z., lese, V., Des Combes, H. J., Wairiu, M., & Yuen, L. B. (2022)**. Assessing the impacts of climate change on domestic crop production: Experience and perception of local farmers in North Malaita, Solomon Islands. https://doi.org/10.26021/12507
- **BOM.** (2023). *Cyclone tracks Southern Hemisphere*. Bureau of Meteorology. Retrieved 7 November from http://www.bom.gov.au/cyclone/history/tracks/beta/
- **BOM & CSIRO. (2014)**. Climate Variability, Extremes and Change in the Western Tropical Pacific: New Science and Updated Country Reports (Pacific-Australia Climate Change Science and Adaptation Planning Program Technical Reports, Issue. https://www.pacificclimatechangescience.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/07/PACCSAP_CountryReports2014_WEB_140710.pdf
- **Brown, S., Durning, D., & Selden, S. (1999)**. Q Methodology. In G. Miller & M. Whicker (Eds.), *Handbook of Research Methods in Public Administration*. Marcel Dekker Inc., New York.
- **Buckwell, A., Ariki, M., & Oirre, C. (2023)**. Personal interview in the field, Rennell Island. In Andrew Buckwell (Ed.). Rennell Island: Griffith University.
- Buckwell, A., Ariki, M. P., Oiire, C., Unga, C., & Fleming, C. (2024). Twenty five years of world heritage status: Show us the benefits! *Journal of Environmental Management*, 358, 120849. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2024.120849
- Buckwell, A., Fleming, C., Bush, G., Zambo Mandea, J., Taye, F. A., & Mackey, B. (2023). Assessing Community Readiness for Payments for Ecosystem Service Schemes for Tropical Primary Forest Protection in the Democratic Republic of Congo. *The Journal of Development Studies*, 57(7), 1023-1045. https://doi.org/10.1080/00220388.2023.2182682
- **Buckwell, A., Fleming, C., Muurmans, M., Smart, J. C. R., Ware, D., & Mackey, B. (2020)**. Revealing the dominant discourses of stakeholders towards natural resource management in Port Resolution, Vanuatu, using Q-method. *Ecological Economics*, 177, 106781. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2020.106781

- **Buckwell, A., Fleming, C., Smart, J., Ware, D., & Mackey, B. (2020)**. Challenges and sensitivities in assessing total ecosystem service values: Lessons from Vanuatu for the Pacific. *Journal of Environment and Development, 29*(3), 329-365. https://doi.org/10.1177/1070496520937033
- **Buckwell, A., & Morgan, E. (2022)**. Chapter 3 Ecosystem services and natural capital: Application to sustainable finance. In C. Timothy & S. Tapan (Eds.), *De Gruyter Handbook of Sustainable Development and Finance* (pp. 41-70). De Gruyter, Berlin, Boston. https://doi.org/doi:10.1515/9783110733488-003
- **Bush, G., Kitts, N., Fleming, C., & Taye, F. (2019, 2020)**. Assessing preferences for direct versus indirect compensation in imperfect markets; an empirical test of the substitutability of cash for goods in an avoided deforestation scheme in the Democratic Republic of Congo. Australasian Agricultural and Resource Economics Conference, Perth, Australia.
- Carpenter, S., DeFries, R., Dietz, T., Mooney, H., Polasky, S., Reid, W. V., & Scholes, R. J. (2006). Millennium Ecosystem Assessment: Research needs. *Science*, *314*(5797), 257-258. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1131946
- **Claudino-Sales, V. (2019)**. East Rennell, Solomon Islands. In V. Claudino-Sales (Ed.), Coastal World Heritage Sites (pp. 401-406). Springer Netherlands, Dordrecht. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-024-1528-5_59
- **Clifton, R., & Wharton, J. (1971)**. Risk, uncertainty, and the subsistence farmer: Technological innovation and resistance to change in the context of survival. *Studies in Economic Anthropology. George Dalton (Ed). Washington, DC. American Anthropological Association*, 151-180.
- Daly, H., & Farley, J. (2003). Ecological Economics: Principles And Applications. Island Press, Washington DC.
- **Dercon, S., & Christiaensen, L. (2011)**. Consumption risk, technology adoption and poverty traps: Evidence from Ethiopia. *Journal of Development Economics, 96*(2), 159-173.
- **Dryzek, J. (1994)**. Discursive democracy: *Politics, policy, and political science*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- Dryzek, J. (1997). The Politics of the Earth: Environmental Discourses. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Dumas, S. E., Lungu, L., Mulambya, N., Daka, W., McDonald, E., Steubing, E., Lewis, T., Backel, K., Jange, J., Lucio-Martinez, B., & others. (2016). Sustainable smallholder poultry interventions to promote food security and social, agricultural, and ecological resilience in the Luangwa Valley, Zambia. Food security, 8(3), 507-520.
- **Engel, S., Pagiola, S., & Wunder, S. (2008)**. Designing payments for environmental services in theory and practice: An overview of the issues. *Ecological Economics*, 65(4), 663-674. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2008.03.011
- **Faivre, G., Tomlinson, R., Ware, D., Shaeri, S., Hadwen, W., Buckwell, A., & Mackey, B. (2022).** Effective coastal adaptation needs accurate hazard assessment: a case study in Port Resolution, Tanna Island Vanuatu. *Climatic Change,* 170(1), 10. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10584-021-03304-9
- **FEBA. (2018).** *Making Ecosystem-based Adaptation Effective.* https://www.iucn.org/sites/dev/files/feba eba qualification and quality criteria final en.pdf
- Fleming, E. (2007). Agricultural productivity change in Pacific island countries. Pacific Economic Bulletin, 22(3), 32-47. http://hdl.handle.net/1885/157881
- **Gabrys, K., & Heywood, M. (2012)**. Community and governance in the World Heritage property of East Rennell. In A. Smith (Ed.), *World Heritage in a Sea of Islands: Pacific 2009 Programme* (34 ed., Vol. 34). UNESCO World Heritage Centre, Paris. https://whc.unesco.org/en/series/34/
- **Garcia, B., Rimmer, L., Canal Vieira, L., & Mackey, B. (2021)**. REDD+ and forest protection on indigenous lands in the Amazon. *Review of European, Comparative & International Environmental Law, 30*(2), 207-219. https://doi.org/10.1111/reel.12389
- Harrison, S., Karim, S., Alauddin, M., & Harrison, R. (2016). The contribution of agroforestry to economic development in Fiji and Vanuatu. *In Promoting sustainable agriculture and agroforestry to replace unproductive land use in Fiji and Vanuatu* (pp. 9-18). Australian Centre for International Agricultural Research (ACIAR).

- **Hermelingmeier, V., & Nicholas, K. A. (2017)**. Identifying five different perspectives on the ecosystem services concept using Q methodology. *Ecological Economics*, 136, 255-265. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2017.01.006
- **IUCN. (2020).** *IUCN Global Standard for Nature-based Solutions: A user-friendly framework for the verification, design and scaling up of NbS.* I. U. f. C. o. Nature. https://portals.iucn.org/library/sites/library/files/documents/2020-020-En.pdf
- **Jansen, T., Glatz, P., & Miao, Z. (2009)**. A survey of village poultry production in the Solomon Islands. *Tropical animal health and production*, 41, 1363-1370. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0043933916001070
- Kossin, J. P., Knapp, K. R., Olander, T. L., & Velden, C. S. (2020). Global increase in major tropical cyclone exceedance probability over the past four decades. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1920849117
- Lavery, T., DeCicco, L., Richmond, J., Tigula, I., Anderson, M., Boseto, D., & Moyle, R. (2021). New Faunal Records from a World Heritage Site in Danger: Rennell Island, Solomon Islands. Pacific Science, 75(3), 407-420. https://doi.org/10.2984/75.3.8
- **Mackey, B., & Ware, D. (2018)**. Limits to capital works for coastal zone adaptation. In W. L. N. J. Filho (Ed.), (pp. 301-323). Springer Publishing International, Berlin.
- Mackey, B., Ware, D., Nalau, J., Buckwell, A., Smart, J., Fleming, C., Connolly, R., & Hallgren, W. (2017). Ecosystem and Socio-economic Resilience Analysis and Mapping (ESRAM) and associated works at multiple scales in Vanuatu. https://www.griffith.edu.au/ data/assets/pdf file/0023/528080/vanuatu-ecosystem-socio-economic-resilience-analysis-mapping.pdf
- **MEA.** (2003). Ecosystems and Human Well-being: A Framework for Assessment. Island Press, Washington DC.
- Morgan, E., Buckwell, A., Guidi, C., Garcia, B., Rimmer, L., Cadman, T., & Mackey, B. (2021). The Basket of Benefits Approach: Capturing Multiple Forest Ecosystem Services for Just Benefit Sharing. *Ecosystem Services*, *55*, 101421. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoser.2022.101421
- Morgan, E., Buckwell, A., Guidi, C., Garcia, B., Rimmer, L., Cadman, T., & Mackey, B. (2022). Capturing multiple forest ecosystem services for just benefit sharing: The Basket of Benefits Approach. *Ecosystem Services*, *55*, 101421. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoser.2022.101421
- Munang, R., Thiaw, I., Alverson, K., Mumba, M., Liu, J., & Rivington, M. (2013). Climate change and ecosystem-based adaptation: A new pragmatic approach to buffering climate change impacts. *Current Opinion in Environmental Sustainability*, *5*(1), 67-71. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cosust.2012.12.001
- **Munch-Petersen, N. F. (2011)**. An Island Saved, At Least for Some Time? The Advent of Tourism to Rennell, Solomon Islands. In G. Baldacchino & D. Niles (Eds.), *Island Futures: Conservation and Development Across the Asia-Pacific Region* (pp. 169-175). Springer, Tokyo. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-4-431-53989-6 13
- **Naidu, S., Kumar, S., Pandaram, A., Lako, J., & Devi, S. (2021)**. Impact of COVID-19 on the Tourism Industry of Fiji, Solomon Islands, and Samoa. In A. Farazmand (Ed.), Global Encyclopedia of Public Administration, Public Policy, and Governance. Springer Nature, Cham. https://doi.org/0.1007/978-3-319-31816-5 4357-1
- Nalau, J., & Becken, S. (2018). Ecosystem-based Adaptation to Climate Change: Review of Concept. https://www.griffith.edu.au/ data/assets/pdf_file/0029/553475/Nalau-and-BeckenS_PGIFTreport_Final_2018.pdf
- Nalau, J., Becken, S., Schliephack, J., Parsons, M., Brown, C., & Mackey, B. (2018). The role of Indigenous and Traditional knowledge in ecosystem-based adaptation: A review of the literature and case studies from the Pacific Islands. *Weather, Climate, and Society, 10*(4), 851-865. https://doi.org/10.1175/WCAS-D-18-0032.1
- **Noor, F. A. M., Patovaki, J., & Stephenson, M. L. (2022)**. Tourism development in the Solomon Islands: Identifying the concerns and challenges. In M. L. Stephenson (Ed.), Routledge Handbook on Tourism and Small Island States in the Pacific. Routledge, Abingdon, UK.
- **Oreihaka, E. (2000)**. Characteristics and Status of the Lake Tegano Fishery. In S. De Silva (Ed.), Reservoir and Culture-based Fisheries: Biology and Management. ACIAR, Bangkok, Thailand. https://www.aciar.gov.au/sites/default/files/legacy/node/329/pr98 pdf 69082.pdf

- Pachauri, R., Allen, M., Barros, V., Broome, J., Cramer, W., Christ, R., Church, J., Clarke, L., Dahe, Q., & Dasgupta, P. (2014). Climate change 2014: synthesis report. Contribution of Working Groups I, II and III to the fifth assessment report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. IPCC.
- **Pagiola, S. (2008)**. Payments for environmental services in Costa Rica. *Ecological Economics, 65*(4), 712-724. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2007.07.033
- **Pagiola, S., Arcenas, A., & Platais, G. (2005)**. Can Payments for Environmental Services Help Reduce Poverty? An Exploration of the Issues and the Evidence to Date from Latin America. *World development, 33*(2), 237-253. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2004.07.011
- **Pandey, A., Tripathi, Y., & Kumar, A. (2016)**. Non timber forest products (NTFPs) for sustained livelihood: Challenges and strategies. *Research Journal of Forestry, 10*(1), 1-7. https://doi.org/10.3923/rjf.2016
- **Porras, I., Barton, D., Miranda, M., & Chacón-Cascante, A. (2013)**. Learning from 20 Years of Payments for Ecosystem Services in Costa Rica.
- **Price, S. (2017).** Strengthening World Heritage protection in the Pacific: An exploration of Solomon Islands' implementation of the World Heritage Convention The University of Western Australia]. Perth. https://api.research-repository.uwa.edu.au/ws/portalfiles/portal/21329152/THESIS_DOCTOR_OF_PHILOSOPHY_PRICE_Stephanie_Clair_2017.pdf
- **Rosendal, K., & Schei, P. (2014)**. How May REDD+ Affect the Practical, Legal and Institutional Framework for 'Payment for Ecosystem Services' in Costa Rica? *Ecosystem Services*, *9*, 75-82. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoser.2014.04.009
- Salzman, J., Bennett, G., Carroll, N., Goldstein, A., & Jenkins, M. (2018). The global status and trends of payments for ecosystem services. *Nature Sustainability*, *1*(3), 136-144.
- **Savage, A., McIver, L., & Schubert, L. (2019)**. Review: The nexus of climate change, food and nutrition security and dietrelated non-communicable diseases in Pacific Island Countries and Territories. *Climate and Development*, 1-14 (In Press). https://doi.org/10.1080/17565529.2019.1605284
- **Shen, F., Hughey, K. F. D., & Simmons, D. G. (2008)**. Connecting the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach and Tourism: A Review of the Literature. Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 15(1), 19-31. https://doi.org/10.1375/jhtm.15.19
- **Smiley, R. (2014)**. An investigation into community-based tourism (CBT) as a potential development strategy for villages in Solomon Islands; a case study of Gizo Island Lincoln University]. Lincoln. https://researcharchive.lincoln.ac.nz/items/4f7d50df-b80c-4a7a-99a5-b7f099a49bd5
- **Smith, A. (2011)**. East Rennell World Heritage Site: misunderstandings, inconsistencies and opportunities in the implementation of the World Heritage Convention in the Pacific Islands. International Journal of Heritage Studies, 17(6), 592-607. https://doi.org/10.1080/13527258.2011.618253
- **Solomon Islands Government. (2014)**. *Solomon Islands REDD+ Readiness Roadmap 2014-2020*. Solomon Islands Government. https://solomonislands-data.sprep.org/system/files/2014 Solomon%20Islands REDD%20Roadmap p.pdf
- **Solomon Islands Government. (2016).** *National Development Strategy: 2016-2035.* S. I. Government. https://solomons.gov.sb/wp-content/uploads/2020/02/National-Development-Strategy-2016.pdf
- Solomon Islands Government. (2019). Census 2019. https://www.statistics.gov.sb/census-2019
- **South Pacific Tourism Organisation. (2015)**. The Solomon Islands National Tourism Development Strategy 2015-2019: A Strategy for Growth. S. P. T. Organisation. https://macbio-pacific.info/wp-content/uploads/2017/08/National-Tourism-Strategy-2015.pdf
- **SPREP & BMT WBM. (2017)**. Ecosystem and Socioeconomic Resilience Analysis and Mapping Volume 1: Introduction and national assessment. https://www.sprep.org/attachments/Publications/IOE/pebacc/solomon-islands-esram-vol1.pdf
- Stephenson, W. (1953). The Study of Behavior; Q-technique and its Methodology. University of Chicago Press, Chicago.
- **Tabbasum, S. A., & Dingwall, P. (2005)**. Report on the Mission to East Rennell World Heritage Property & Marovo Lagoon, Solomon Islands. https://whc.unesco.org/document/140037

The University of the Sunshine Coast. (2016). *Pacific Examples of Good Extension Practice*. SPC. https://pafpnet.spc. int/attachments/article/514/Pacific%20Islands%20Extension%20Strategy%20Consultancy%20Report%20to%20SPC.pdf

UN & Solomon Islands Government. (2011). UN-REDD Solomon Islands Programme: Support to Initial Readiness. https://mptf.undp.org/sites/default/files/documents/10000/final_un-redd_initial_national_programme_document_solomon_islands_for_posting.pdf

UN-REDD. (2016). *Towards a Common Understanding of REDD+ under the UNFCCC* (Technical Resources Series. No. 3, Issue. https://www.uncclearn.org/wp-content/uploads/library/redd under the unfccc hg.6 713128 1.pdf

Venter, O., & Koh, L. P. (2012). Reducing emissions from deforestation and forest degradation (REDD+): game changer or just another quick fix? *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences, 1249*(1), 137-150. https://doi.org/10.1111/ji.1749-6632.2011.06306.x

Wallbott, L., Siciliano, G., & Lederer, M. (2019). Beyond PES and REDD+: Costa Rica on the Way to Climate-Smart Landscape Management? *Ecology and Society, 24*(1), art24-art24. https://doi.org/10.5751/ES-10476-240124

Weber, J. G. (2012). Social learning and technology adoption: The case of coffee pruning in Peru. *Agricultural Economics*, 43(1), 73-84.

Wingham, E. (1997). Nomination of East Rennell, Solomons Islands by the Government of the Solomon Islands for Inclusion in the World Heritage List Natural Sites. New Zealand Official Development Assistance Programme, Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade with support from The Ministry of Culture, Tourism and Aviation, Honiara. https://whc.unesco.org/uploads/nominations/854.pdf

World Bank Group. (2021). Climate Risk Country Profile: Solomon Islands. World Bank Group. https://climateknowledgeportal.worldbank.org/sites/default/files/country-profiles/15822-WB Solomon%20Islands%20 Country%20Profile-WEB.pdf

Wunder, S. (2006). Are Direct Payments for Environmental Services Spelling Doom for Sustainable Forest Management in the Tropics? *Ecology and Society, 11*(2), 23-35. https://www.jstor.org/stable/pdf/26266013.pdf

Appendices SI - ESRAM

SPREP Library Cataloguing-in-Publication Data

Ecosystem socio-economic resilience analysis and mapping (ESRAM) : Appendices, Solomon Islands.

Apia, Samoa : SPREP, 2025 vi, 34 p. 29 cm.

ISBN: 978-982-04-1413-6 (print) 978-982-04-1414-3 (ecopy)

- 1. Economic development Social aspects Solomon Islands.
- 2. Ecosystems management Evaluation Solomon Islands.
 - 3. Environmental assessment Solomon Islands.I. Pacific Regional Environment Programme

(SPREP). II. Title.

574.5095953

CONTENTS

Appendix A: Ecosystem-based adaptation	55
Defining ecosystem-based adaptation	55
Socio-ecological systems framework	56
Criteria for qualification of ecosystem-based adaption	57
ESRAMs and EbA	58
Appendix B: Gender and social inclusion	59
Appendix C: Solomon Islands climate impacts	60
Overview	
Projected future climate changes	61
Further climate change impacts	61
Sea level rise	
Tropical cyclones and extreme weather	62
Impacts on marine environments	63
Food production impacts	64
Appendix D: Ecosystem mapping and economic valuation	65
Ecosystem mapping	65
Ecosystem valuation	
Benefit transfer	
Method	
Value estimate coefficients	
Establishing final ecosystem service value	68
Appendix E: Government engagement	69
Ministry of Fisheries	69
Mariculture	69
Aquaculture	
FAD programme	69
Regulation & general	69
Ministry of Provincial Government	70
Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock	70
Ministry of Mines and Natural Resources	

Appendix F: Q-methodology	71
About Q methodology	71
Statistical treatment	72
Composite sorts	72
Appendix G: Go along surveys	74
Appendix H: Project assessment	75
Cost benefit analysis	75
Multi-criteria assessment	75
Hybrid approach	76
Data sources for economic and financial criteria	76

TABLES

Table A1:	Ecosystem service valuation coefficients (2022 US\$ per hectares per year)	.67
Table A2:	Summary of final ecosystem service value coefficients (2022 US\$ per year per hectare).	
Table A3:	Multi criteria assessment criteria, weightings, and justifications for criteria inclusion	.78
Table A4:	Scoring guide for multi-criteria assessment	.80

FIGURES

Figure A1:	A spectrum of adaptation options available (example given for adaptations in the coastal zone) from interventions that maintain or build ecosystem integrit through to pure engineering solutions	y
Figure A2:	What foundational qualities and criteria qualify ecosystem-based adaptations as effective.	
Figure A3:	Our approach to the ESRAM methodology	8
Figure A4:	Solomon Islands average mean surface air temperature annual trends with significance of trend per decade for 1951-2020 showing accelerating increas (Climate Change Knowledge Portal, 2023).	
Figure A5:	Solomon Islands multi-model ensemble projected mean temperature to 2100 under a range of Representative Concentration Pathways (Climate Change Knowledge Portal, 2023)	
Figure A6:	Tropical cyclone activity over the Solomon Islands (2002-2022). Inserts are figures below. (BOM, 2023)	52
Figure A7:	Tropical cyclone activity over Guadalcanal Province (2002-2022) (BOM, 2023)6	53
Figure A8:	Tropical cyclone activity over Rennell Island (2002-2022) (BOM, 2023)6	3
Figure A9:	Tropical cyclone activity over Malaita Province (2002-2022) (BOM, 2023)6	3
Figure A10:	Tropical cyclone activity over Temotu Province (2002-2022) (BOM, 2023)6	3
Figure A11:	Solomon Islands projected growing season length from multi-model ensemble to 2100 (Climate Change Knowledge Portal, 2023)	
Figure A12:	Total economic value framework6	6
Figure A13:	Respondent undertaking a Q-sort in Guadalcanal	1
Figure A14:	Sorting grid for our Q-methodology	2
Figure A15:	Sampling	2
Figure A16:	Figure A15: Example composite (or ideal) sort	7 3

Appendix A: Ecosystem-based adaptation

Defining ecosystem-based adaptation

Climate change adaptation can be defined broadly as adjustments to social-ecological systems in response to actual or expected climatic changes that ease any adverse effects or take advantage of new opportunities (Adger et al., 2005; Betzold, 2015; IPCC, 2023). By adapting management of natural resources and socio-economic and ecological systems to climate changes, communities can reduce risks and lessen potential future damages that might otherwise occur (Leary, 1999). However, it is important to acknowledge the different vulnerability and capacity of many individuals have "to adapt to climate change and how this varies according to their age, sex, gender, education, social status, wealth and access to other strategic resources (e.g., information, finance, land, etc.)". It is also important to recognise that there is "a high degree of diversity between and within groups, making some people more vulnerable, and some more adaptable, than others" (SPC, 2015, p. 1). In addition, ecological systems also operate at different vulnerabilities according to their condition, scale, and impacts from outside the system under consideration.

EbA links habitat conservation and active, adaptive management with broader social and economic development strategies that assist communities to adapt to trends and shocks associated with climate change and, in parallel, to improve social and economic well-being. EbA interventions are not rigidly defined but can be best understood in terms of their position on a continuum from 'hard', infrastructure-based interventions to those that solely deploy ecosystems in adaptation (see examples for coastal zone presented in Figure A1). In this sense, EbAs work with nature and natural processes (even when containing some 'hard', engineered, or capacity- and institutional components) and therefore provide the support and space to assist species and ecosystems to adapt to changing conditions in ways that are beneficial to human society.

Gradient in degree of human intervention Working with Constructing Protecting natural capital works natural processes ecosystems Mangroves Sand accretion & Interrupt natural Coral reefs erosion processes Estuaries Adaptation through: Adaptation through: Adaptation through: Beach replenishment Conservation Vertical concrete sea Restoration Artificial reefs walls Sustainable use Rock walls

Figure A1: A spectrum of adaptation options available (example given for adaptations in the coastal zone) from interventions that maintain or build ecosystem integrity through to pure engineering solutions.

EbA is often closely tied with community-based adaptation, which is focused on a community scale and ensures that adaptation efforts are integrated with local development goals and community well-being and resilience, therefore taking a place- and sector-based approach, focussing on economic/lifestyle mainstays, such as fishing or eco-tourism (Failler et al., 2015; Hafezi et al., 2021; Nalau & Becken, 2018). In addition, EbAs can take the form of approaches that reduce pressure on natural systems to enable them function and potentially migrate (Buckwell, Ware, et al., 2020).

Therefore, EbA is an approach, rather than a prescribed set of solutions. EbA approaches need to consider different aspects of climate and environmental risk alongside other community needs.

More transformative adaptation presents even greater challenges but is also burdened with definitional ambiguity (Panda, 2018). Three key issues arise in the context of Solomon Islands

 The identification, level, distribution, and management of the costs, for example, many transformational

- adaptations will demand significant costs today (e.g., the transformation of subsistence agriculture to new levels of agricultural productivity) but many of the benefits will not accruing to many years into the future (Buckwell, Ware, et al., 2020).
- The definition of, the potential for, and need to avoid maladaptation (activities that add to environmental risk, such as over-extraction of natural resource inputs into intensified agriculture), especially as knowledge and risks change through time (Rickards & Howden, 2012).
- The human knowledge and capacity demands that this level of adaptation present; and the role of government in this adaptation (e.g., logistics, provision of funding, financing, research) (Bryan & Behrman, 2013; Dumaru, 2010).
- The uncertainty in our climate futures and the downscaling of climate projections to provide useful information to policy makers (Whetton et al., 2012).

Socio-ecological systems framework

EbA approaches to adaptation projects in rural Pacific communities can take a range of forms but must lay at the intersection of socio-economic development pathways, biodiversity conservation, and climate change adaptation. A socio-ecological systems approach is also required, embedding household and community wellbeing within a complex system that interacts with the range of socio-economic and ecological systems and sub-systems (Sahin et al. 2021).

For example, the expansion of animal husbandry (hens and eggs) reduces pressure on the harvesting of wild fish for protein from local reefs, which, in turn, may increase the integrity of coral reef systems, protecting future fish stocks and—in the even longer term—maintaining coastal protection through reducing wave energy through the accrual of coral cover. Other EbA approaches may also achieve the same objectives, such as increasing the capacity of a community to harvest fish protein away from local reefs in deeper water, which would demand investment in more robust watercraft, the skills, diesel supplies, and technicians to maintain the fleet, and training and financial support of a broader range of fishers, including members of socially vulnerable groups, than presently exists.

This food sub-system interacts with other sub-systems. For example, through protecting fish stocks and coral cover, and perhaps through the introduction of managed marine protected areas, the community can provide future

opportunities for tourism businesses that are attracted by high integrity coral reefs and alternative and diverse livelihood opportunities. It is worth noting that tourists also generally demand higher protein diets. However, tourism businesses are only enabled though other infrastructure investments, such as access roads, communications, safe drinking water, sanitation, electricity, and pleasant accommodation options.

Conceptualising socio-ecological systems is necessarily complex and must find a balance between explicit local reflection and complexity and conceptual usefulness. In this series of studies, the team draws on two conceptualisations from studies in Vanuatu: that provided by Buckwell et al. (2020) for Port Resolution in Tanna and that by Sahin et al. (2021), which explores local, regional and country-level outcomes of EbA interventions.

Importantly, both conceptualisations determine end points as household and community well-being that supports community resilience to external shocks. In particular, the socio-ecological systems thinking informed our Q methodology statement concourse (see Appendix F), which enabled us to consider a full range of concerns, relationships, and aspiration within the communities in each of the study areas.

Criteria for qualification of ecosystem-based adaption

Figure A2 is drawn from FEBA (2018) and describes the foundational qualities and criteria that qualify interventions as EbAs. It sets a series of standards against which EbA

intervention should be considered, for them to both meet the criteria for EbA but also to fulfil broad social and economic objectives.

Foundation	Qualification criteria	Standards
EbA helps people adapt to climate change	Reduces social & environmental vulnerabilities	 Use of climate information Use of local traditional knowledge Adaptations take into account findings of vulnerability assessment Vulnerability reduction at the appropriate scale
	Generates societal benefits in the content of climate change adaptation	 Quantity and quality of societal benefits compared to other adaptation options Timescale of societal benefits is demonstrated Economic feasibility and advantages compared to other adaptation options Maximising the number of beneficiaries Equitable distribution of benefits
EbA makes active use of biodiversity and ecosystem services	Restores, maintains, or improves ecosystem health	 Appropriate scale of management Prioritisation of key ecosystem services within management
	Is supported by policies at multiple levels	 Compatibility with policy and legal frameworks and policy support Multi-actor and multi-sector engagement (communities, civil society, private sector)
EbA is part of an overall adaptation strategy	Supports equitable governance and enhances capacities	 Accountability and group representation Consideration of gender balance and empowerment State of Indigenous and local knowledge and institutions Long-term capacity to ensure sustainable governance

Figure A2: What foundational qualities and criteria qualify ecosystem-based adaptations as effective.

ESRAMs and EbA

Ecosystem and Socio-economic Resilience Analysis and Mapping (ESRAM) is a developing and evolving methodology developed for the Pacific Ecosystem-based Adaptation to Climate Change (PEBACC) project led by SPREP. It aims to build capacity for developing and implementing EbA and resilience projects within Vanuatu and the wider Pacific region. Our approach to this assignment (Figure 3)

is consistent with the SPREP methodology. The objective is to generate a robust planning baseline that can inform the identification of EbA approaches and project options for strengthening the socio-ecological resilience of communities to climate change and anthropogenic environmental risks. ESRAM findings feed into a process to plan, assess, and design fully costed EbA options.

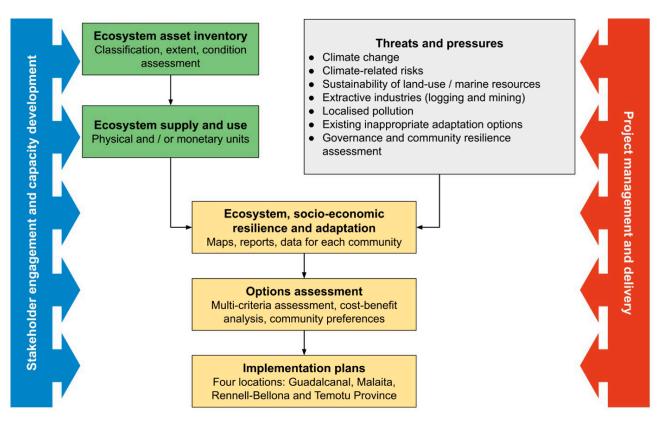


Figure A3: Our approach to the ESRAM methodology

Appendix B: Gender and social inclusion

Climate change-related risks are not equally shared by everyone in Pacific communities. In addition, the benefits of EbA are not automatically shared equitably and the aspirations of different members of the community are commonly divergent. Women, particularly poorer, rural women, experience greater vulnerability to climate change impacts than men, due to complex, intersectional drivers, including semi-formal community power dynamics, socially and culturally constructed discourse on the role of women in the family and society, and formal risks of land alienation and access to economic resources (Bendlin, 2014; Djoudi & Brockhaus, 2011). Furthermore, gender is not only a driver of different vulnerability to climate change but also should play a role in determining appropriate adaptations, as the needs and priorities of women are likely to different to men, or the community as a whole (Bryan et al., 2015). Notwithstanding, womens' roles and leadership in adaptation, in the families, in communities, and in formal representative structures, is recognised as being necessary condition for fostering resilience (Aipira et al., 2017). This is constantly demonstrated empirically, where womens' empowerment is linked to adaptation to change and improved social and economic outcomes for themselves and for communities as a whole (Bowman et al., 2009; Kassie et al., 2020).

Solomon Islands is traditionally considered a male dominated and remains a largely patriarchal society, with men occupying positions of decision making in both formal representative democratic structures (the national parliament, for example) and at local, community level, where customary application of kastom lore can disadvantage women and the rights women do have – in using kastom natural resources – can be ignored.

Gender roles and the gendered division of labour continue to be sharply demarcated in Solomon Islands. Solomon Islands is a patriarchal society—men have greater access to important resources as well as greater institutional access to power and privilege (Dyer, 2017). Notwithstanding, women are increasingly participating in the formal economic sphere in Solomon Islands and play key roles in domestic and household decision making and in local management of natural resources. Nearly 30% of all businesses and approximately 20% of small and medium-sized enterprises in Solomon Islands are operated by women (Solomon et al., 2009).

However, gender consistently explains relationships of power, access to resources, vulnerability and resilience and is therefore a key category for analysis (Anderson, 2009, p. 3) and is therefore a vital element in assessing the climate adaptation literature and in designing community-based adaptation (CBA) and climate change adaptation (CCA) projects.

Appendix C: Solomon Islands climate impacts

Overview

As tropical developing island nation, the Solomon Islands has particular vulnerabilities and exposures to the current and future impacts of climate change.

Year to year the climate of the Solomon Islands is influenced by interconnected, large-scale climate phenomenon, such as the El Niño—Southern Oscillation (ENSO), which alters interannual rainfall patterns, temperatures, and wave direction. However, due to its location near the equator, the Solomon Islands experiences a relatively stable climate (distribution of mean weather) with average temperatures between 24.5°C and 26.5°C year-round. Average monthly rainfall is

also relatively consistent, ranging from 150–350 millimetres (mm), and usually peaking between January and March.

Notwithstanding, historical climate data point to increases in average temperature between 1962–2012 at a rate of around 0.14–0.17°C per decade. And rates of warming appear to have accelerated since about 1990, with the Berkeley Earth Dataset suggesting temperatures in 2015–2017 have reached around 0.8°C above the long term average (Climate Change Knowledge Portal, 2023; World Bank Group, 2021).

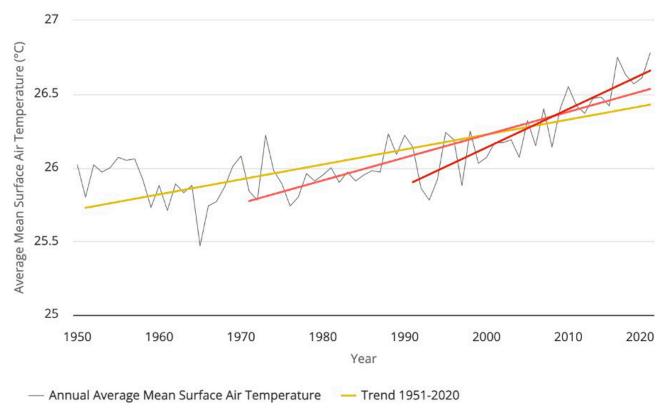


Figure A4: Solomon Islands average mean surface air temperature annual trends with significance of trend per decade for 1951-2020 showing accelerating increases (Climate Change Knowledge Portal, 2023).

Projected future climate changes

Projections for the Solomon Islands in the Representative Concentration Pathways^{1,2}, (RCPs) suggest that temperatures will rise between 0.7°C (0.4°C -1.2°C) in the high mitigation scenario (RCP 2.6) and 2.8°C (2°C - 4°C) in the low emissions scenario (RCP 8.5) by 2090 (Figure A5). Climate change is likely to be below the global average in the Solomon Islands with the difference reflected in the moderating effect of large amounts of nearby ocean cover. However, ocean cover is known to distort model simulations, and the current iteration of global models does not have the

spatial accuracy to reliably capture climate processes over small island states, these projections should be approached with caution (World Bank Group, 2021).

There is some evidence that annual precipitation will increase slightly, however, there is uncertainty around future changes, as models disagree, particularly around the future impacts of ENSO. A warmer atmosphere is likely to lead to an increase in the frequency and intensity of extreme rainfall events.

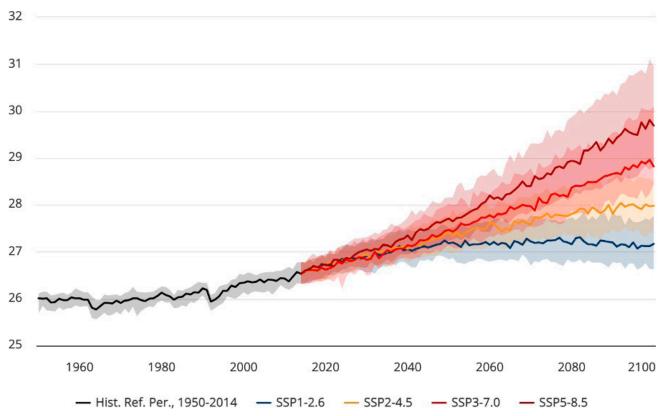


Figure A5: Solomon Islands multi-model ensemble projected mean temperature to 2100 under a range of Representative Concentration Pathways (Climate Change Knowledge Portal, 2023).

Further climate change impacts

Sea level rise

The IPCC's 6th Assessment Report (AR6) (IPCC, 2023) concludes that global sea level rise is accelerating and is projected to continue to do so in the future. The report states that sea levels have risen by about 20 cm since the late 19th

century and are currently rising at a rate of about 3.6 mm per year. This rate is expected to increase to 4-9 mm per year under RCP2.6 and 10-20 mm per year under RCP8.5 by the end of the century.

¹ Since the International Panel on Climate Change's (IPCC) sixth assessment report (AR6) projected future changes to climate and impacts on society are now modelled through 'Shared Socioeconomic Pathways' (SSPs). SSPs have not replaced RCPs. The two ways of looking at projected future changes both remain valid and active. However, whilst RCPs focussed on carbon dioxide concentration ('radiative forcing') pathways, SSPs are meant to provide a more comprehensive framework that includes the interactions between social, economic, and environmental factors.

There are four Representative Concentration Pathways: RCP2.6, RCP4.5, RCP6.0, and RCP8.5. They represent four plausible futures, based on the rate of emissions reduction achieved at the global level and are defined by their total radiative forcing (cumulative measure of GHG emissions from all sources) pathway and level by 2100.

The report also states that sea level rise will continue for centuries beyond 2100, even if greenhouse gas emissions are reduced. This is because the oceans have a large thermal inertia, meaning that they take a long time to warm up and cool down. As a result, sea levels will continue to rise even after global warming has been stabilized.

The Solomon Islands are in an area that has experienced above average rates of sea-level rise in recent decades³. Estimates show a rise of ~8–10 mm/year between 1993 and 2010 (World Bank Group, 2021). Note this is relative

sea level rise which is a net combination of increases in sea surface levels and any uplift / recession that specific parts of tectonically active areas experience (Faivre et al., 2022). In addition, localised sea level rise is impacted by regional cyclical phenomena, in particular ENSO. Global mean sea-level rise is estimated in the range of 0.44–0.74 meters (m) by the end of the 21st century by the IPCC's Fifth Assessment Report (Pachauri et al., 2014). Such increases are a significant threat to low lying coastal areas in the Solomons.

Tropical cyclones and extreme weather

Tropical cyclones have historically impacted the Solomon Islands and its exclusive economic zone at a rate of around 21 cyclones per decade, with around a quarter categorises as Category 3 and above (World Bank Group, 2021). Cyclones frequency is influenced by the ENSO cyclone. Figures A6 and A7 to A10 (in greater detail) show recent tracks of tropical cyclones across the four areas of interest between 1982 and 2022 (BOM, 2023). East Rennell (Rennell and Bellona Province) has experienced the most intense cyclone activity, with five direct crossings and two within close vicinity. At the

other end of the spectrum, Temotu Province has experienced only near misses.

The general projection is for a decrease in cyclone formation frequency through to 2100 by between 6%–35%. However, there is also evidence that the intensity of cyclones may increase. Any uncertainty is based on the future of ENSO cycles, which is not very well understood (BOM & CSIRO, 2014).



Figure A6: Tropical cyclone activity over the Solomon Islands (2002-2022). Inserts are figures below. (BOM, 2023)

³ According to the Solomon Island's Second National Communication to the UNFCCC

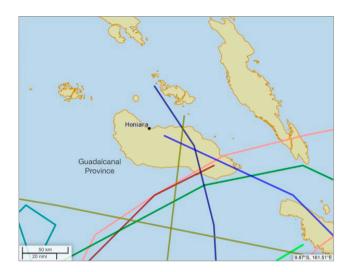


Figure A7: Tropical cyclone activity over Guadalcanal Province (2002-2022) (BOM, 2023)

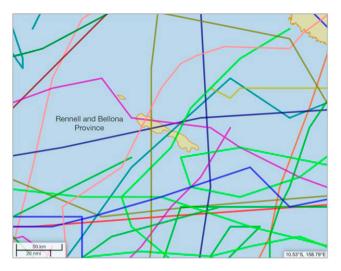


Figure A8: Tropical cyclone activity over Rennell Island (2002-2022) (BOM, 2023)

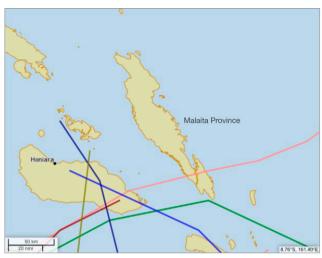


Figure A9: Tropical cyclone activity over Malaita Province (2002-2022) (BOM, 2023)

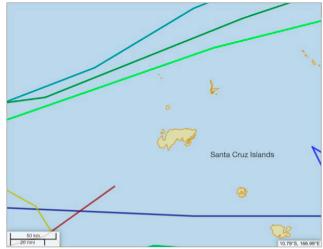


Figure A10: Tropical cyclone activity over Temotu Province (2002-2022) (BOM, 2023)

Impacts on marine environments

As a Pacific island nation, communities of the Solomon Islands, and to a great extent, all four study areas, are highly dependent on marine resources (though reliance on fish for food direct food consumption is becoming less) (Turner et al., 2007) and marine ecosystem services, such as coastal protection services offered by coral reefs. Even where fresh fish is less important for local consumption, it is still a driver of income generation and support for livelihoods through sale at major markets and into the tourism sector.

Climate change is projected to have significant impacts on marine environments. Increased frequency of coral bleaching and ocean acidification may progressively degrade reefs leading to decreased coastal protection (greater risk from extreme weather events to coastal communities) and to diminished fish catch (Duvat & Pillet, 2017; Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2007; Pittock, 2010; Turley & Gattuso, 2012)

The production of coastal fisheries from coral reefs is expected to decline by up to 50% by the end of the century (Bell et al., 2016). Moreover, climate change is expected to increase damage to reefs from more severe physical damage to reefs, while greater sediment and nutrient runoff from heavier rainfall would damage coral reefs more frequently, particularly in study areas that have significant rivers, such as Guadalcanal and Malaita (Bell et al., 2016).

Food production impacts

Climate change will likely have significant negative impacts on agricultural output in Solomon Islands (Rosegrant et al., 2015). For example, crop yields of staples, such as taro, are projected to diminish over time due to increased heat and its impacts on soils, perhaps demanding increased inputs, such as artificial fertilisers to make up the gap. Given agriculture's significant role in both employment, GDP, and livelihoods, adverse climate change-driven impacts on the agriculture sector maintaining "business-as-usual" in the agriculture sector demands costly long-term actions. In addition to local

food consumption, cash crops are also vulnerable to climate change, in particular, extreme weather events that can have significant impact on crops, such as coconut, bananas, breadfruit, and cacao (Bell et al., 2016).

Projections for growing season length out to 2100, under all RCPs, present a grim picture but is nevertheless still subject to significant social, economic, and environmental uncertainty (see Figure A11; by definition, the growing season cannot be >365.25 days).



Figure A11: Solomon Islands projected growing season length from multi-model ensemble to 2100 (Climate Change Knowledge Portal, 2023).

Appendix D: Ecosystem mapping and economic valuation

Ecosystem mapping

Terrestrial ecosystems can be identified and mapped using various criteria, from a practical perspective (and in a Melanesian context) they have been defined here according to the major vegetation types that have been recognised by biodiversity and forest surveys. However, the pattern of land cover and land use remains complex and dynamic in the Solomon Islands, with transition between forest, rotational subsistence gardens, and secondary forest regrowth. Thousands of years of shifting cultivation and regrowth has left only the remotest areas and steepest terrain completely unmodified — it has been suggested that disturbed and logged forest will take more than 50 years to recover (Katovai et al., 2015; Katovai et al., 2021) Nonetheless, the Solomons Islands still contains very significant tracts of primary forest.

Whilst numerous possible classifications are available for ecosystem asset types, in preparation for the economic valuation of ecosystem services component of our study we adopted a simplified classification scheme that could be detected through the training of machine learning tools using

the library of support vector machines (libsvm) classification through Google Earth Engine. Cleaned Sentinel-2 satellite imagery dating from 2020 - 2022 was used as the input dataset and trained using locally identified land classifications. Further desktop validation was performed using Maxar high resolution imagery to ensure the accuracy of the outputs.

For coral reef data we used extracted extent data from the Allen Coral Atlas (Allen Coral Atlas, 2024).

For mangrove extent and loss data we used extracted date from Global Mangrove Watch (Global Mangrove Watch, 2024).

Consistent with the UN's System of Environmental Economic Accounting Ecosystem Accounting (SEEA-EA) (UN, 2021), in our project sites we include the human-modified landuses of 'subsistence gardens' and 'plantation forests' as ecosystem assets; as residual values, beyond human labour and capital input, are provided by nature in the delivery of the final ecosystem service (Boyd & Banzhaf, 2007).

Ecosystem valuation

The SEEA EA framework allows for the benefits from ecosystem services to be valued in economic, or monetary terms. Economic valuation provides a way of enabling common measures of value between different ecosystem goods and services with other elements of well-being traded in markets to enable trade-offs and benefits to be more effectively assessed. Not all ecosystem services lend themselves well to economic valuation for specific local cultural reasons (for example, some spiritual services).

The team used a Total Economic Valuation (TEV) framework (Figure A12) (Buckwell & Morgan, 2022). The TEV framework ensured that both obvious values (e.g., direct use values, such as the production of cash crops) and non-use values (e.g. existence values such as those surrounding unique ecosystems) were incorporated as much as practicable. This provided us with an estimate of TESV.

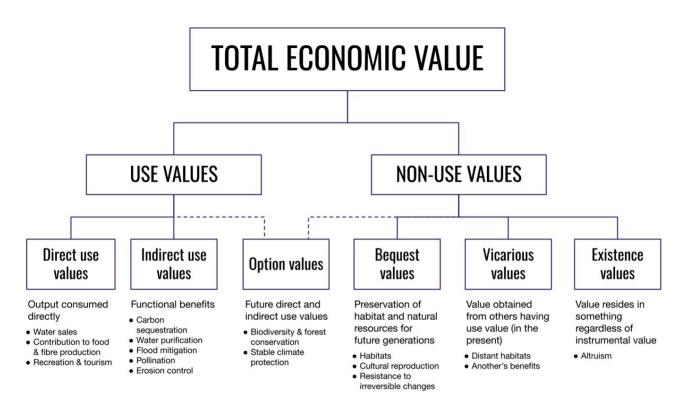


Figure A12: Total economic value framework.

Benefit transfer

When seeking to estimate the monetary benefits of ecosystem services, several possible valuation techniques can be used depending on data and resource constraints. In this project, market-based methods were used to estimate use values (food and water consumption, for example) where relevant data were available. Benefit transfer was used to estimate non-use values. Benefit transfer is a method of estimating the value of a change in an environmental good or service at a (target) site using information from an existing study (or studies) conducted at another (source) site. This approach is useful when a primary study for the target site is not possible due to time and/or budget constraints. The team drew estimates from a range of sources, including

databases from Brander et al. (2024), Taye et al. (2021) and van der Ploeg & de Groot (2012) filtered in accordance with those deployed in assessing TESV for Vanuatu and Tanna by Buckwell et al. (2020). Buckwell's study could only find a single data point for the value of subsistence farming that would be appropriate for the Solomon Islands — that by Anderson (2006) for communities in Papua New Guinea — and this remains the case today.

While the authors recognised this as a potential weakness in their study, geographic and cultural similarities suggest it could be an effective substitute.

Method

Our benefit transfer for value estimates took the following hierarchy of value estimates:

- **1.** Estimates from Pacific islands from the Ecosystem Services Valuation Database (Brander et al., 2024).
- **2.** Estimates from appropriate value estimates (low income countries) from the TEEB Valuation Database (de Groot et al., 2012) as extracted by Buckwell et al. (2020).
- **3.** Specific valuation from Anderson (2006) for the value of subsistence gardens (from Papua New Guinea)

Where multiple values were extracted from the datasets, the median value of all datapoints was calculated. At each step, where gaps in individual ecosystem service valuations for the range of habitat types were not filled, they were filled by the next step. In all instances, only per hectare, per year estimates were used. All valuation methods were considered. Value estimates were normalised to 2022 US dollars estimates using GDP deflator values from World Bank datasets (World Bank, 2023) and the 12 month mean exchange rates between currencies.

Value estimate coefficients

From this range of sources, the team estimated an ecosystem coefficient based on the median values from the filtered list of appropriate benefit transfer values. This is reported in Table A1.

Special note on value estimate for subsistence gardens

Of particular note is the estimate for the economic value of subsistence gardens from Anderson (2006). Anderson's study was based on several communities in Papua New Guinea (PNG) and used a market-price replacement method to provide a per hectare per year value. The estimate is based on the equivalent cost of purchasing the grown food at a local market. The basket of food on which Anderson's estimate is based (staple crops) is broadly similar to the staples grown in Vanuatu. The study accepts that the estimates provided take a narrow view of the sustenance provided from subsistence gardens and ignores additional economic value that may be attributed to "risk management concerns of food security and social security, nor the important but less tangible values of social cohesion and cultural reproduction" (Anderson, 2006, p. 141). Nevertheless, the surprisingly high value estimate provided is contrasted, perhaps provocatively so, with the customary land's relatively low prices customary land achieves when it is transacted for alternative commercial uses. Anderson's value is a per hectare value based on exchange values (economic value is based on quantity X price) and is therefore compliant with the SEEA-EA principles; nonetheless, as it contributes a significant proportion to TESV, it needs to be treated with some caution and seen as more as a potential value of subsistence gardens. The value provided by Anderson is significantly inflated from its original 2016 values due to relatively high price inflation in PNG in the subsequent years but is also moderated by a significant loss of value of the PNG Kina against the US dollar (see Table A1).

Three further values from the for the value of agro-forestry are in the TEEB database (2010) of ecosystem services:

- **1.** A study by Predo (2003) valuing agro-forestry in the Philippines at US\$ 1,695 yr-1 ha-1 in 2001 by direct marketing pricing method (US\$ 2,610 yr-1 ha-1 in 2022).
- **2.** A study by Yaron (2001) valuing agro-forestry in Cameroon at US\$ 1,400 yr-1 ha-1 in 2000 by direct pricing method (US\$ 2,232 yr-1 ha-1 in 2022).
- **3.** A study by Pagiola (2004) valuing agro-forestry in Nicaragua at US\$ 1,450 yr-1 ha-1 in 2004 using a payment for ecosystem service scheme as a proxy (US\$ 2,174 yr-1 ha-1 in 2022).

None of these values are specific to Melanesia, so therefore we will use Anderson's value from PNG (2006).

Table A1: Ecosystem service valuation coefficients (2022 US\$ per hectares per year).

Ecosystem service	Coral reef	Grasslands	Mangroves	Primary forest	Secondary forest	Plantation	Subsistence gardens	Freshwater water bodies
Provisioning								
Food	69	42	693	8	8	61	8,108	23
Water supply	0.0	150	2,206	232	232			1,494
Raw materials / energy	1.0	8	215	37	37			1
Genetic resources				7	7			
Ornamental resources				57	57			
Medicinal resources	3		3					
Regulating services								
Air quality regulation		114	236	497	497			
Climate regulation	231	338	483	140	140			65
Moderation of disturbance	204		990	52	52			
Water flow regulation				1	1			

Water treatment (inc. water)	3					
Erosion prevention			102	119	119	
Soil fertility maintenance		277	224	16	16	1
Pollination				47	47	
Biological control	0.3					
Cultural services						
Aesthetic	3					
Cognitive	2					
Inspiration						
Spiritual	1					
Recreation	381	5	982	1,190	1,190	431
Existence value						

Establishing final ecosystem service value

Estimating TESV requires making judgments as to what constitutes intermediate and final ecosystem services—those that are directly "enjoyed, consumed, or used to yield human well-being" (Boyd & Banzhaf, 2007, p. 619). If both intermediate and final ecosystem service values are totalised, contributions are double counted. For example, pollination services are intermediate inputs into the final food production value provided by agriculture, forests, and plantations. Therefore, the value of pollination services is embedded in the provisioning ecosystem service value for food.

Ecosystem accounting reconciles inputs and outputs so that the value of final services is the sum of value— added through intermediate components. In general, regulating ecosystem services are intermediate services to final benefits

enjoyed locally and therefore not totalled in a TESV (though nevertheless present useful information for decision-making). The exceptions to this are (a) air quality regulation (an end in itself); (b) erosion control and moderation of disturbance (b) climate regulation, which, although it provides a measure of an intermediate service (a stable climate) that contributes to local food production, for example, it also provides a final service to global society as a public good or a private good if emissions reductions are converted into a carbon permit; and (c) the moderation of disturbance functions of coral reefs and mangroves, providing coastal protection.

The final ecosystem service value coefficients used in our ecosystem service valuations for the four areas of interests is shown in Table A2.

Table A2: Summary of final ecosystem service value coefficients (2022 US\$ per year per hectare).

Ecosystem service	Coral reef	Cleared grasslands	Mangroves	Primary forest	Secondary forest	Plantation forest	Subsistence gardens	Water bodies
Provisioning	73	200	3,117	341	341	61	8,108	1,518
Regulating	435	452	1,811	808	808	0	0	65
Cultural	387	5	982	1,190	1,190	0	0	431
Total value	895	657	5,910	2,339	2,339	61	8,108	2,014

Appendix E: Government engagement

The project team undertook a number of meetings with support of preparation for the field work. Solomon Island government ministries and activities in

Ministry of Fisheries

Mariculture

- Seaweed growing is for export. Mainly small scale, grown on ropes in the ocean. Needs to be cut and dried for export.
- Supply chain is quite complex, as it needs to stay dry throughout and so market access is limiting factor.
- Anecdotally, it generates a good, easy, and often supplementary livelihood for those engaged in it.

Aquaculture

- Government owned hatcheries are in operation for a new, slightly larger freshwater tilapia species in Guadalcanal and Malaita. Then distributed to small scale producers to grow in tanks around 25m x 15m.
- Feedstock for tilapia is quite diverse and includes local staples, such as coconut and cassava.
- Tilapia needs to go through quarantining processes. It is also an invasive species, having been released into the lake at Rennell and Tikopia.
- There is also a beche-de-mer hatchery.

FAD programme

- Inshore FADS are in operation as part of a program. Inshore FADs are all community operated and managed and lay within customary marine managed areas, known as Community-based Resource Management (CBRM) areas.
- Programs have not always been accepted. Sometimes this is due to inappropriate placement (in transport lanes, there is too much wave energy, or they are too close together).
- Benefits have not yet been fully demonstrated. This assessment work is currently taking place and is part of the CBRMs.
- FAD programmes include training in the deployment, maintenance, and also training in the type of fishing that works for FADs. Ministry is looking for ways to enable the community to take ownership of the FADs.
- Offshore FADs are sometimes laid by commercial enterprises for large scale tuna catches. Community members with
 the requisite crafts or skill often access the offshore FADs. Offshore FADs come under the purview of provincial level
 government.

Regulation & general

- All provincial level government fishing ordinances are being reviewed in a World Bank funded project.
- There is regulation around allowable fishing gear and practices, such as what mesh sized nets can be used. However, there is a lot of illegal sales of small mesh nets.
- Night lighting to attract fish is also occurring.
- Some recent historical fishing has been inappropriate in its bag size, with risks that food is wasted.
- However, as infrastructure improves and markets become available, the excess fish catch can still find a market and thus over-exploitation can occur.

Ministry of Provincial Government

- Responsible for socio-economic resilience, disaster risk reduction, climate change adaptation.
- Ministry currently has seven climate change risk and resilience offices and a climate change specialist from the MECDM. Eventually, there will be nine climate change officers.
- Much of this work is coordinated through Ward Development Committees (WDC); each has a ward officer and a small budget for operations and small projects (water for schools, sea walls, community farms).
- WDC officers are not necessarily full time but do get paid for results.
- Chiefs and church elders also intervene below WDC level (e.g. land disputes).
- Ward Development Committees feed into Provincial Development Plans, which is a three-year rolling plan.
- Provincial government governance is operated through ordinances; currently, East Rennell has an ordinance for protected area status (in the World Heritage area)

Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock

- Most projects run by the Ministry are donor funded.
- It was felt the Pacific Games had drawn in funds that could been otherwise allocated to agricultural projects

Ministry of Mines and Natural Resources

- It was recognised that mining and logging operate at cross-purposes to forest conservation when it comes to pathways to economic development.
- Communities own their resources and have full rights to choose their pathway to development.
- It is recognised that buffer zones around mining and logging activities are being eroded
- It was suggested that research and community engagement that focusses on the trade-offs between resource extraction and forest conservation should also take place in areas where the choice is most stark.
- Legislation to promote logging and mining restoration (through a system of bonds) is currently sitting in Cabinet.
- Specific to West Rennell some mines were closed due to non-compliance; some prospecting is now again taking place.

Appendix F: Q-methodology

About Q methodology

Q methodology (hereafter, Q) is both a quantitative and qualitative research technique based on the statistical analysis of people's subjectivity (Brown, 1980; Stephenson, 1953). Q leans into discursive/contextual methods of knowledge generation that uphold both personal realities and shared experiences of the world suited to SES where the more complex a problem, the greater the number of plausible and coherent perspectives there likely is, as the understanding of the nature of the complex links becomes more personalised and less subject to repeatable proofs (Buckwell, Fleming, et al., 2023). Q is a type of factor analysis that finds correlations amongst consistent groups of respondents who share similar views of the world. These correlations reflect coherent mindsets, which are analogous

to the structure of a discourse, with views formed from both external influences (acting on people) and also emergent of collective heuristics (people and power structures actively shaping people) (Dryzek, 1994)

In practice, Q facilitates the placement of statements (the 'Q-set') by respondents (the 'P-set') onto a grid ranked from most salient to least salient in response to a statement of condition (Figure A13). The Q-set present is constructed from a potentially infinite concourse of perspectives, which is filtered down to a management number for study. Statistical techniques ('Varimax Rotation') reduce the often considerable variance into the fewest possible meaningful factors.



Figure A13: Respondent undertaking a Q-sort in Guadalcanal.

Our concourse was generated by taking a mixed methods approach, which included drawing prior author experiences in Melanesia, SES and Solomon Islands literature, and expert elicitation. Funding and logistical constraints limited any piloting. The concourse for this study subsequently filtered down to 36 statements, which, from experience, provides a reasonable depth and breadth of statements but is not unwieldy for respondent sorting.

Participants were asked to rank statements on a quasi-normal

distribution, with fewer statements at the most positively and negatively salient columns (our sorting grid is in Figure A14). This pattern has no statistical implications but is a strategy used in Q to encourage participants to 'think harder' about what is most and least salient (Watts & Stenner, 2012).

During and after sorting, participants are asked to 'think out aloud' and explain their feelings about the statements, particularly the reasoning behind their placement of the most and least salient statements. This information, though not

part of the statistical analysis, can enable further, subjective analysis, to be undertaken by the researcher, with greater confidence.

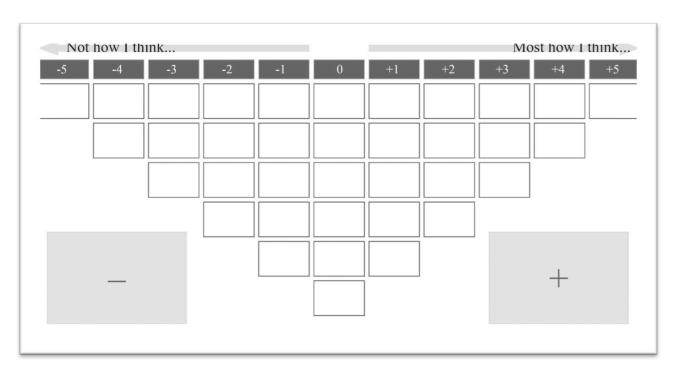


Figure A14: Sorting grid for our Q-methodology.

Figure A15: Sampling

As Q-method is not designed to garner generalisable results (e.g. 50% of men align with discourse x) therefore respondent recruitment is done through strategic sampling. It is more important that a very wide range of viewpoints of respondents are sampled, rather than trying to capture

as many responses as you can from stakeholders who are likely to have similar viewpoints. Therefore, we tried to seek a diversity of respondents, including all the demographic groups, farmers, hunter-gatherers, service providers, agricultural extension officers, government policy officers.

Statistical treatment

For statistical analysis we used KADE (Banasick, 2018), which automates many of the functions of Q, unless stated. Unless otherwise stated, our correlation matrix was subject to factor analysis using Horst Centroid, allowing the application to recommend the number of factors to extract, as recommended by Brown (1980). In each case, the factors were subjected to Varimax rotation — a technique

that maximises the variance shared amongst responses (Akhtar-Danesh et al., 2008). Respondents were included in each rotated factor using the autoflag feature at p-values of <0.05. Confounding sorts (respondents who load into more than one factor) and null sorts (respondents who do not load, or were flagged, into any factor) were set aside from further subjective analysis.

Composite sorts

Using the composite sorts generated by the KADE software, Q practitioners can generate common language summaries of the factor, called 'composite' or 'ideal' sorts (Figure A15). This is a hypothetical sort of a respondent who fits 100% in that factor (in reality, the threshold for placement into a factor is typically any respondent fitting more than >40%).

Interpretation of the composite factor is best achieved by considering the placement of strongly negatively- and positively-salient statements (in the \pm 1-5, \pm 1-4, and \pm 1-3 columns) and distinguishing statements—those where the z-score variance reaches a defined threshold (Sneegas et al., 2021).

Whilst demographic data can provide useful information to the discourse descriptions, Q is not designed to lead to statistically generalisable results but rather to provide a detailed portrayal of the full scope of perspectives of a situation within a given community (Buckwell, Fleming, Muurmans, et al., 2020).

-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5
35. Mining & forestry offer benefits that make-up for the environmental damage they cause.	** 31. Industrial discharges & sediment causes pollution in our lakes, rivers, and ocean.	Our water sources are drying-up more frequently than before.	21. I worry that young people don't want to stay in the village, as there are more opportunities in main towns & Honiara.	5. The changing weather makes it too warm & dry, & sometimes too wet, to grow our usual crops.	6. We have enough tollet, washing & cleaning facilities for all the people in the village.	24. I feel safe in my home & in my community.	18. If I could borrow a small amount of money, I would be able to invest in a small business.	28. Marine protected areas will be good for encouraging tourism.	20. Tourism offers many good opportunities for small businesses in my area.	26. Conservation of forests & reefs will be most successful when people feel secure and prosperous.
	** ◀ 15. Land reclamation for development destroys reefs & the marine resources.	14. Neighbouring communities encroach on our customary land & marine resources, without permission.	3. There are more weather-related natural disasters happing now, like cyclones & heavy rain.	7. I am confident I would feel safe in the next natural disaster.	It is important to get more livestock, such as cattle, pigs, & chickens into the village, to provide food.	9. I get enough good, reliable drinking water within my community.	30. We need to protect our forests better, as they are being removed to make way for food gardens.	8. Our community needs a better place to throw away rubbish, like bottles, cans, & plastic.	22. Improving the roads into the community will enable new business opportunities.	
		36. The benefits from logging & mining are shared fairly across all the people in the community.	32. Lack of proper grazing management pollutes waterways & the coastal reefs.	10. I would like better ways to cook food, so I don't have to use firewood from the forest.	My garden is producing less food than it was before.	23. I would be able to spend more time in my community if there was a more equal share of housework between men and women.	33. Our forests, freshwater & marine resources are important to kastom. It's important we can hand them down to our children & grand children in good condition.	19. I would like to earn a bit more cash by selling food I grow, of fish that I catch.		
			34. I would like to catch fish further out to sea, to reduce pressure on local fisheries.	16. There are less traditional medicinal plants growing than there used to be.	29. Reducing use of forest resources through conservation will be good for the community.	12. It is important to pass down customary knowledge of dances, songs & ceremonies to my children and grandchildren.	27. Enforcing protected area rules in my community will be easy.		-	
				17. Customary knowledge of resource use & the land is being forgotten.	25. I feel that I have enough influence on decisions that affect my community.	13. We should do more to prevent our special places from falling into disrepair.				
					11. If more tourists visited, or came on a cruise ship, I worry that there would not be enough food, water, & waste facilities to cope with them.					

Figure A16: Figure A15: Example composite (or ideal) sort.

Appendix G: Go along surveys

Overall, neither quantitative nor qualitative data only will be able to capture the dimensions of community vulnerability to environmental hazards, nor elicit ideas for the community to reduce its vulnerability. Both are needed (Naudé et al., 2014). Quantitative information from household-level questionnaires will be combined with qualitative maps and diagrams from participatory community appraisal based on a community transect walk (Chakraborty et al., 2005).

Go-along surveys can supplement formal maps and data, but in cases where these do not exist, they are an excellent tool for creating a record of environmental conditions: those arising in the natural, built, and experienced environments. The walk can take 1-3 hours, but advance planning is important to identify objectives and methods. The transects are completed with members of the community with sufficient local knowledge and technical skills to identify broad, community-level issues and propose high level solutions (Ahmed & Kelman, 2018). Data will also be captured through note taking and sound recording.

Key topics of the go along survey include:

- **1. Community population** How many households are in the community / what is the estimated population?
- **2. Community assets** including Nakamals, schools, medical centres, tourism enterprises and potential tourism opportunities.
- **3.** Defining the boundaries of the community Using physical maps*, ascertain the boundaries of household gardens, community forest, communal forest and marine resources.

- **4.** Existing conservation areas and projects including a subjective assessment of the level of resourcing, management, and governance of existing CCAs.
- **5. Community hazards** What are the key hazards faced by your community; Extreme weather, fish stocks, tsunamis, volcanoes, earthquakes, droughts.
- **6. Community exposures** Are there dwellings or buildings that are particularly exposure to coastal hazards in your community?
- **7.** Community vulnerabilities Are there any people or households in your community who have reported, or are known to be more vulnerable to hazards than others; do they have anything in common?
- 8. Water resources, sanitation, and water resource and sanitation vulnerabilities and risks.

Given the number of communities that are engaged in forest conservation through the EREPA project it is not feasible to undertake transect walks in each. Therefore, our approach was to undertake a detailed study in at least one community to generate a general picture of life there as an analogue of life across each. For example, time permitted only a single transect walk in Malaita but we were able to undertake transects in all four communities involved in EREPA in Rennell.

Appendix H: Project assessment

Cost benefit analysis

Cost benefit analysis (CBA) (also called benefit cost analysis) is an assessment technique used to estimate and compare the net benefits of a project (benefits minus costs) with the base case (sometimes called 'business as usual', or BAU), which represents a continuation of current conditions under which the proposed project is not implemented (Boardman et al., 2017; Buckwell, Ware, et al., 2020). To be comparable, these benefits and costs are homogenised into economic values (in money terms). CBA also considers the timing of each of the benefits and costs and converts these into today's prices so that all impacts and benefits can be meaningfully compared, regardless of the timing of implementation or realisation. In this way, a CBA can enable a comparison of options that deliver different streams of benefits and costs over time. It does this through the concept of 'discounting' - the application of an annual rate by which future values are discounted back to present day values. Discounting is represented in the following, standard equation:

Equation A1: Calculating present value of projects

$PV=(FV/(1+r))^t$

The total present value (PV) is the future value (FV) i.e. the actual costs and benefits incurred in the future seen from today's perspective, thus discounted back at a specific rate (r) each year of the assessment (^t).

Specifically, a social CBA, considers costs and benefits from a whole of society perspective. In this case, it includes

ecosystem service valuation estimates and modelled biophysical changes to determine a dollar value for the value of the assessment projects and a cost-benefit ratio to determine the return on investment.

CBA generates a number of metrics to guide decision making. The benefit cost ratio (BCR) can be calculated by dividing the present value benefits by the present value costs. If this value is greater than 1, from an economic perspective, the project is worthwhile. If this value is less than 1, from an economic perspective, the project is not worthwhile. The BCR can be seen as a 'social return on investment', which can often apply at any scale⁴.

BCR does not provide a decision maker with information on the scale of the project — for example, a project may be worthwhile undertaking, but capital costs might be beyond the capabilities of a potential proponent. Therefore, a second method, the Net Present Value (NPV) is the sum of the present value benefits and the present value costs (as negatives). If the NVP is negative, the project is not worthwhile pursuing, at least from an economic perspective. If the NPV is positive, the project is worthwhile pursuing.

The NPV aids decision-making by helping investors compare potential returns to the cost of capital and assess the risk associated with an investment. It provides a quantitative basis for choosing between different projects or investments, aiming to maximise value and make informed financial choices.

Multi-criteria assessment

Multi-criteria assessment (MCA) is a decision-making approach that evaluates various alternatives using multiple criteria or factors. It considers diverse dimensions such as economic, environmental, social, and technical aspects to provide both a holistic and pragmatic view (Triantaphyllou, 2000). By assigning weights to criteria, it quantifies their relative importance, aiding in comparing options objectively. This method helps stakeholders make informed choices by systematically analysing trade-offs and synergies among different criteria, fostering well-rounded and balanced decision outcomes.

MCA accepts that several criteria are required to estimate

effective options, especially in the context of EbA. MCA is useful because it can incorporate both quantitative and qualitative considerations and can assess across a suite of criteria. Both aspects are extremely important for EbA. The approach allows assessment of different adaptation options against multiple criteria, each of which is given a weighting (most often assigned through community engagement activities, or surveying). The overall score is obtained using the weighting and the option with the highest score is selected by stakeholders.

This method is useful when exact economic valuation data is not available or where the monetised ecosystem service

⁴ Many projects can have economies of scale – that is, there are falling marginal costs of a next unit of benefit. This can occur with administration costs, for example, where a given level of administrative cost can service a project of a much larger scale, in most instances costs and benefits generally rise commensurately, particularly where maintenance or regeneration costs make up a significant proportion of the cost structure. Notwithstanding, when projects research a certain scale, additional marginal costs can be incurred due to additional complexities.

costs and benefits (provisioning, regulating, cultural) are hard to quantify, or where many criteria (in addition to monetary benefit and effectiveness) need to be assessed in parallel.

Further, MCA enables greater transparency to the assessment (avoiding the 'black box effect' of CBA) and provides opportunities for feedback from the client and efficient reassessment of options based on client preferences.

The steps we will take in our MCA will be as follows:

- 1. Criteria identification: Clearly define the problem you're trying to solve and identify the relevant criteria that need to be considered. These criteria should be measurable, relevant, and reflective of the objectives and values of the decision-maker.
- **2. Criteria weighting:** Assign relative weights to each criterion to reflect their relative importance in the decision-making process. The weights are determined (mostly) subjectively through discussions, or surveys.
- **3. Program evaluation:** Evaluate each alternative against each criterion. This can involve gathering data, conducting research, and quantifying how well each alternative performs with respect to each criterion.
- **4. Normalisation:** Normalise the data to ensure that the criteria are measured on the same scale. This might

- involve converting raw scores into a standardised format, such as scores out of 100.
- **5. Scorings:** Assign scores or values to each alternative for each criterion. Apply the criteria weights to the normalised scores to calculate weighted scores for each alternative-criterion combination.
- **6. Aggregation:** Sum up the weighted scores for each alternative to get an overall score for each alternative. This reflects its performance across all criteria, considering their relative importance.
- **7. Sensitivity analysis:** Test the robustness of the results by varying the weights of the criteria or changing the evaluation scores to see how sensitive the final rankings are to changes in these inputs.
- **8.** Ranking and decision: Rank the alternatives based on their aggregated scores. The alternative with the highest score is often considered the most favourable choice. However, the decision-maker may also consider other factors, such as budget constraints or risk tolerance.
- **9. Iteration:** Depending on the complexity of the decision and feedback received, you might need to iterate through the process, revisiting criteria weights or evaluating additional alternatives.

Hybrid approach

Given the range of implementation considerations, we propose to take a hybrid approach to potential EbA assessment, combining elements of CBA with MCA, a broader assessment methodology, where we include an estimate of a program's value, based on cost-benefit analyses and total as two of the weighted criteria in a broader MCA process, where this is available and considered robust.

Our MCA hybrid framework is listed in Table A3. This table includes the broad objectives (groupings) for the individual criteria, the individual criteria and statement against which the program score was assessed, the weightings, and the justification for the inclusion of the objective and criteria.

Table A4 is the scoring guide for our hybrid multi-criteria assessment.

Data sources for economic and financial criteria

Our hybrid approach included scores related to estimates of program cost benefit analysis and total project costs. These estimates are drawn from the following data sources.

REDD+ readiness program — Cost estimates for a REDD+ readiness program are estimated from a current readiness program with which Griffith University is currently engaged (with Infinity Blue PNG Ltd. https://infinitybluepng.org). The total budget for the 1.5 year readiness program at a regional scale is \$700,000. This is also broadly in line with a historical proposal that Griffith University put together for the Melanesian Spearhead Group.

We assume that the REDD+ readiness program in and of itself will not generate any benefits besides enabling the implementation of a REDD+ program, therefore, our BCR estimate is drawn from a significant review paper by Rakatama et al. (2017). The authors' mean estimate for BCR for a REDD+ program is $\sim 0.7^5$. This estimate includes the opportunity cost — the forgone value of commercial use of the forest for logging. However, on the benefits side, this estimate is acknowledged to only include direct monetary benefits (generally livelihood benefits) and does not include

⁵ Note the Rakatama et al.'s (2017) estimate uses the metric of dollars per tonnes of carbon dioxide equivalent (\$/tCO2e). The metric makes no difference to interpretating the benefit cost ratio as the numerator and the denominator are the same unit.

non-market benefits from REDD+ programs, such as carbon sequestration and other forest ecosystem service benefits⁶. Including an estimate of only climate benefits from REDD+ programs can flip the BCR into positive territory, depending on which value of carbon is used. For example a recent review of the social costs of carbon (SCC) in Nature Climate Change by Ricke et al. (2018) estimated a median of value of US\$417/tCO2e. This would score the BCR in our MCA at the maximum of 10.

Agricultural extension and agro-forestry program – Social cost benefit analysis and total project cost estimates are drawn from Buckwell et al. (2020). This study estimated an agricultural extension program generates a very positive BCR (28-74) at a standard discount rate of 10%.

Project costs, which included requisite nursery to manage the program and a poultry hatchery was dependent on the scale of the operation. Cost are scaled to the required size of the operation based on a five year initial implementation program of demonstration farms, nurseries, poultry hatcheries, staffing, community rangers, equipment, and logistics.

- Community-based marine protected area Social cost benefit analysis and total project cost estimates are drawn from Buckwell et al. (2020). This study estimated a community-based protected area generates a neutral BCR (~1) at a standard discount rate of 10%. Project costs, which included requisite community rangers to manage the program, where estimated to be ~\$325,000 for a five year initial implementation program.
- Mangrove planting / rehabilitation Social cost benefit analysis and total project cost estimates are drawn from a meta-analysis by Su et al. (2021) and a report by USAID (Narayan et al., 2017). Su et al. (2021) estimates that mangrove restoration projects generate a BCR of between 6.83 and 10.50 at varying discount rates suggesting a maximum MCA score of 10. Narajan at el. (2017) provides cost estimates for mangrove rehabilitation of approximately \$10,000 per hectare (total over a 10 year implementation period).
- Sanitation and water security Kouwenhoven & Cheatham (2006) make estimates on the costs of installation of water tanks. As a guide, installation of community-sized water tanks of 27,500 L is approximately \$45,000 per unit suggesting an MCA score of 2. No BCR for water tank installation was estimated in this report. For sanitation aspects, data is drawn from Kinrade et al. (2014) and who costed

installation of water efficient composting toilets and Gerber et al. (2011) who estimated avoided costs of improved sanitation in terms of hospital treatments and avoided lost wages. From this data Buckwell et al. (2023) estimated a BCR of 0.1 for composting toilets suggesting an MCA score of 0. Without specific further investigation into the number of installations required we cannot make cost estimates. All these datapoints were adjusted to be in 2023 US\$.

 Eco-tourism investment plan – No estimates for BCR and total costs are provided.

⁶ Rakatama et al. (20147) attribute this to the difficulty in obtaining expertise and the unavailability of environmental and biodiversity benefits data on the right scale. However, ignoring the value of non-monetary and indirect benefits of REDD+ in the total benefit estimates effectively lowers the cost-effectiveness, or attractiveness, of REDD+ programs.

Table A3: Multi criteria assessment criteria, weightings, and justifications for criteria inclusion

Objective	Criteria	Metric	Weight	Justification
1. Secures a climate resilient landscape	Secures a climate resilient landscape		23	How well does the option promote a climate resilient landscape notwithstanding it not meeting the specific 20,000 hectares of protected area forest.
	Appropriate scale of management	Will this EbA option protect the requisite area of forest in EREPA project?	9.20	The option ultimately should be able to fulfil the objectives of the EREPA project.
	Prioritises biodiversity and ecosystem services within management area	Number of species protected; protects economically valuable ecosystem services (\$ valuation)	4.60	The option protects a range of ecosystem and biodiversity benefits, in contrast to a narrow range, such as commercial values of timber.
	Protects a diverse range of habitats	Connectedness of representative habitats are protected	2.30	A protected area strategy should seek to protect a range of specific habitat types.
	Risk costs of no action	Social / environmental cost of not undertaking EbA action	6.90	Commonly, in a business-as-usual scenario (such as worsening climate change, or deforestation) there will be increasing social and environmental costs.
2. Improves food & water security			17	Food and water security remain paramount. Programmes will not be supported if the most critical needs are not first supported.
	Will increase the productivity of subsistence gardening system within the current footprint	Will this option increase calories produced per hectare per year	7.65	Most people in most communities are reliant on their allocated / owned subsistence gardens. Improvements here are essential to improving food security.
	Ensures the ongoing capacity to harvest protein	Will this option increase the quantity of protein produced / captured per year	4.25	Whilst subsistence gardens can generate the requisite nourishment and much essential nutrition, protein production, specifically, is also essential.
	Increases the availability of drinking water in a changing climate	Will this option increase in quantity of drinking water available each year	4.25	Drinking quality water can be secured in a range of ways, from nature-based solutions, such as forest conservation and catchment management, to localised engineering focussed solutions, including rainwater tanks.
	Increases capacity of community to purchase food	Will this option generate cash incomes for households?	0.85	If food security is not specifically increased an option that improved people's capacity to purchase food car help meet (at least short term) security needs through earning an income.

Objective	Criteria	Metric	Weight	Justification
3. Improves livelihoods & economic			17	A programme's success is most likely if people's livelihoods are broadly supported.
development capabilities	Create opportunities for cooperatives and associations	Of any enterprises that are created out of the project, what proportion will be cooperatives, or associations?	5.95	Options may bring economic development opportunities and/or new business and enterprise opportunities. Enterprises that are cooperative, rather than individualistic, in nature should be prioritised.
	Economic development opportunities are available to all and do not exclude certain demographics	What is the likely distribution of benefits (cash and livelihoods)?	5.95	The distribution of opportunities needs to be inclusive and not captured by a few individuals or classes within the community.
	Number of beneficiaries	What is the proportion of people that would materially benefit from this option?	5.1	Economic and financial benefits should benefit as many people as possible.
4. Financial viability			18	Proposed options will likely be externally funded; nonetheless, project costs and benefits will influence decision making. However, this is wher the greatest uncertainties lay.
	Estimated cost of implementation	Total estimated financial investment required to pursue option (grant + private + government)?	5.94	Setting aside any returns on investment, options that are less costly will more likely be funded and therefor prioritised. Cost-free / no regrets options should be given the highest ranking.
	Availability of cost benefit analysis data	Cost benefit ratio (if data is available)?	5.94	Projects with the higher cost benefit ratio should be prioritised. Note this is a social cost to benefit ratio, which should include non-market social and environmental benefits.
	Timescale of social benefits	What is the timescale that benefits start to outweigh costs?	6.12	Whilst discounting in cost benefit analysis reflects this criteria, where thi is missing, option consideration should also include the timescale where social benefits begin to outweigh the costs.

Objective	Criteria	Metric	Weight	Justification
5. Supports good governance			25	With good governance any option will fail in the medium and long term will fail.
	Level of co- management (government, communities, private sector)	Extent to which any project has and can maintain buy-in from multiple government stakeholders.	2.50	Buy-in from multiple levels of government stakeholders (from national to village-level decision making) will build resilience to shifting priorities, organisational change, and changes in staffing.
	Compatible with policy and legal frameworks of Solomon Islands government	Number of direct links between EbA and legal and policy frameworks; n of political decision makers engaged in process.	7.50	Options that are compatible or are supported by Solomon Islands' government policies and strategies should be prioritised.
	Consideration of GEDSI ⁷	GEDSI requirements of implementation agencies.	7.50	Project requirements for GEDSI can be written into project plans, however implementation agencies require their own GEDSI requirements in order to be most effective.
	Incorporates local indigenous and traditional knowledge (ITK)	Extent to which the EbA incorporates or can incorporate ITK.	5.00	Projects that have robust methods for considering, incorporating, and adapting ITK will be most likely to be most appropriate and most successful.
	Long term capacity to ensure sustainable governance	Proportion of people directly involved in governance.	2.50	The greater number of people involved in the governance and implementation of a project the greater its chances of success.

Table A4: Scoring guide for multi-criteria assessment

Scoring guide Statement against which the score should be tested should be scored	-5	0	1	2	3	5	10
Will this EbA option protect the requisite area of forest in EREPA project		No		A small proportion	Potentially		Yes
Number of species protected; protects economically valuable ecosystem services (\$ valuation)	Negative impact	No	Very low	Low	Moderate	High	Very high
Connectedness of representative habitats are protected		0	Very low	Low	Moderate	High	Very high
Social / environmental cost of not undertaking EbA action		No consequence	Very low	Low	Moderate	High	Very high
Will this option increase calories produced per hectare per year	Negative	None		Some increase possible	Probable	Very probable	Approximate doubling

⁷ Gender equity, diversity and social inclusion.

Scoring guide Statement against which the score should be tested should be scored	-5	0	1	2	3	5	10
Will this option increase weight of protein produced / captured per year	Negative	None		Some increase possible	Probable	Very probable	Approximate doubling
Will this option increase in quantity of drinking water available each year	Negative	None		Some increase possible	Probable	Very probable	Approximate doubling
Will this option generate cash incomes for households	Negative	None		Some increase possible	Probable	Very probable	Approximate doubling
Of the enterprises that are formed, what proportion will be cooperatives, or associations		None		Some		Most	All
What is the likely distribution of benefits (cash and livelihoods)		Very low	Weakly fair	Some evidence of fairness and transparency likely	Moderately fair and transparent	Very fair and transparent	Completely fair and transparent
What is the proportion of people that would materially benefit from this option		0	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.5	1
Total estimated financial investment required to pursue option (grant + private + government)		Not known	>\$ 1 million	\$250k-\$ 1million	\$50k-\$250k	\$0-\$50k	\$0
Cost benefit ratio (if data is available)	<1	>0.5	~1	1 to 2	2 to 3	3 to 5	>5
What is the timescale that net benefits start to outweigh costs		None	>25 years		>10 years	>5 years	Some immediately + 5 years
Extent to which any project has and can maintain buy-in from multiple government stakeholders		None			Moderate		Very high
Number of direct links between EbA and legal and policy frameworks; n of political decision makers engaged in process		None	Very low	Low	Moderately	Very high	Comprehensive
Gender requirements of implementation agencies		Not at all		To a reasonable extent	Likely to / has potential to		Completely
Extent to which the EbA incorporates or can incorporate ITK		Not at all		To a reasonable extent	Likely to / has potential to		Completely
Proportion of people directly involved in governance		Not at all		To a reasonable extent	Likely to / has potential to		Completely

References

Adger, W. N., Arnell, N. W., & Tompkins, E. L. (2005). Successful adaptation to climate change across scales. Global Environmental Change, 15(2), 77-86. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2004.12.005

Ahmed, B., & Kelman, I. (2018). Measuring Community Vulnerability to Environmental Hazards: A Method for Combining Quantitative and Qualitative Data. Natural Hazards Review, 19(3), 04018008. https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)NH.1527-6996.0000290

Aipira, C., Kidd, A., & Morioka, K. (2017). Climate Change Adaptation in Pacific Countries: Fostering Resilience Through Gender Equality. In L. Filho (Ed.). Springer, Cham.

Akhtar-Danesh, N., Baumann, A., & Cordingley, L. (2008). Q-methodology in nursing research: a promising method for the study of subjectivity. Western journal of nursing research, 30(6), 759-773.

Allen Coral Atlas. (2024). Allen Coral Atlas. Arizona State University, https://allencoralatlas.org/atlas

Anderson, C. (2009). Gendered dimensions of disaster risk management, natural resource management, and climate change adaptation in the Pacific. The SPC Women in Fisheries Information Bulletin, 20.

Anderson, T. (2006). On the economic value of customary land in Papua New Guinea. Pacific Economic Bulletin, 21(1), 138-152. https://openresearch-repository.anu.edu.au/bitstream/1885/157842/1/211 economic value.pdf

Banasick, S. (2018). Ken-Q Analysis. Retrieved 01/03/2024 from https://shawnbanasick.github.io/ken-q-analysis/

Bell, J., Taylor, M., Amos, M., & Andrew, N. (2016). Climate change and Pacific Island food systems: The Future of Food, Farming, and Fishing in the Pacific Islands Under a Changing Climate. CCAFS and CTA. https://pacific-data.sprep.org/system/files/Bell 16 Climate Change PI Food Systems.pdf

Bendlin, L. (2014). Women's human rights in a changing climate: highlighting the distributive effects of climate policies. Cambridge Review of International Affairs, 27(4), 680-698. https://doi.org/10.1080/09557571.2014.960507

Betzold, C. (2015). Adapting to climate change in small island developing states. Climatic Change, 133(3), 481-489. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10584-015-1408-0

Boardman, A., Greenberg, D., Vining, A. R., & Weimer, D. L. (2017). Cost-Benefit Analysis: Concepts and Practice. Cambridge University Press.

BOM. (2023). Cyclone tracks - Southern Hemisphere. Bureau of Meteorology. http://www.bom.gov.au/cyclone/history/tracks/beta/

BOM & CSIRO. (2014). Climate Variability, Extremes and Change in the Western Tropical Pacific: New Science and Updated Country Reports. B. CSIRO. https://www.pacificclimatechangescience.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/07/PACCSAP CountryReports2014 WEB 140710.pdf

Bowman, C., Cutura, J., Ellis, A., & Manuel, C. (2009). Women in Vanuatu: Analyzing Challenges to Economic Participation. Directions in Development. https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/2624/484580PU BOWOme1010fficial0Use0Only1.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y

Boyd, J., & Banzhaf, S. (2007). What are ecosystem services? The need for standardized environmental accounting units. Ecological Economics, 63(2), 616-626.

Brander, L., de Groot, R., Guisado Goñi, V., van 't Hoff, V., Schägner, P., Solomonides, S., McVittie, A., Eppink, F., Sposato, M., Do, L., Ghermandi, A., & Sinclair, M. (2024). Ecosystem Services Valuation Database (ESVD). Foundation for Sustainable Development and Brander Environmental Economics.

Brown, S. (1980). Political subjectivity: Applications of Q methodology in political science. Yales University Press, New Haven.

Bryan, E., Kritjanson, P., & Ringler, C. (2015). Why paying attention to gender matters for Climate Change adaptation. Retrieved 01/03/2024 from https://www.ifpri.org/blog/why-paying-attention-gender-matters-climate-change-adaptation

- Buckwell, A., Fleming, C., Bush, G., Zambo Mandea, J., Taye, F., & Mackey, B. (2023). Assessing Community Readiness for Payments for Ecosystem Service Schemes for Tropical Primary Forest Protection in the Democratic Republic of Congo. The Journal of Development Studies, 59(7), 1023-1045. https://doi.org/10.1080/00220388.2023.2182682
- Buckwell, A., Fleming, C., Muurmans, M., Smart, J. C. R., Ware, D., & Mackey, B. (2020). Revealing the dominant discourses of stakeholders towards natural resource management in Port Resolution, Vanuatu, using Q-method. Ecological Economics, 177, 106781-106781. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2020.106781
- **Buckwell, A., Fleming, C., Smart, J., Ware, D., & Mackey, B. (2020)**. Challenges and sensitivities in assessing total ecosystem service values: Lessons from Vanuatu for the Pacific. Journal of Environment and Development, 29(3), 329-365. https://doi.org/10.1177/1070496520937033
- Buckwell, A., Hadwen, W., Kenni, L., Fleming, C., Johnson, H., & Norman, P. (2023). Ecosystem and Socio-economic Resilience and Mapping (ESRAM) for Pentecost and Malekula. SPREP.
- **Buckwell, A., & Morgan, E. (2022)**. Chapter 3 Ecosystem services and natural capital: Application to sustainable finance. In C. Timothy & S. Tapan (Eds.), De Gruyter Handbook of Sustainable Development and Finance (pp. 41-70). De Gruyter, Berlin, Boston. https://doi.org/doi:10.1515/9783110733488-003
- Buckwell, A., Ware, D., Fleming, C., Smart, J. C. R., Mackey, B., Nalau, J., & Dan, A. (2020). Social benefit cost analysis of ecosystem-based climate change adaptations: a community-level case study in Tanna Island, Vanuatu. Climate and Development, 12(6), 495-510. https://doi.org/10.1080/17565529.2019.1642179
- **Chakraborty, J., Tobin, G., & Montz, B. (2005)**. Population Evacuation: Assessing Spatial Variability in Geo-Physical Risk and Social Vulnerability to Natural Hazards. Natural Hazards Review, 6(1), 22-23. https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)1527-6988(2005)6:1(23)
- **Climate Change Knowledge Portal. (2023)**. Solomon Islands: Current ClimateTrends and Significant Change against Natural Variability. World Bank Group.
- https://climateknowledgeportal.worldbank.org/country/solomon-islands/trends-variability-historical
- de Groot, R., Brander, L., van der Ploeg, S., Costanza, R., Bernard, F., Braat, L., Christie, M., Crossman, N., Ghermandi, A., Hein, L., Hussain, S., Kumar, P., McVittie, A., Portela, R., Rodriguez, L., ten Brink, P., & Beukering, P. (2012). Global estimates of the value of ecosystems and their services in monetary units. Ecosystem Services, 1, 50-61.
- **Djoudi, H., & Brockhaus, M. (2011)**. Is adaptation to climate change gender neutral? Lessons from communities dependent on livestock and forests in northern Mali. International Forestry Review, 13(2), 123-135. https://doi.org/10.1505/146554811797406606
- **Dryzek, J. (1994)**. Discursive democracy: Politics, policy, and political science. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- **Duvat, V. K. E., & Pillet, V. (2017)**. Shoreline changes in reef islands of the Central Pacific: Takapoto Atoll, Northern Tuamotu, French Polynesia. Geomorphology, 282, 96-118. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geomorph.2017.01.002
- **Dyer, M. (2017)**. Growing Down Like a Banana: Solomon Islands Village Women Changing Gender Norms. The Asia Pacific Journal of Anthropology, 18(3), 193-210. https://doi.org/10.1080/14442213.2017.1301544
- Faivre, G., Tomlinson, R., Ware, D., Shaeri, S., Hadwen, W., Buckwell, A., & Mackey, B. (2022). Effective coastal adaptation needs accurate hazard assessment: a case study in Port Resolution, Tanna Island Vanuatu. Climatic Change, 170(1), 10. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10584-021-03304-9
- **Gerber, F., Holland, P., & Lal, P. (2011)**. The DCCEE-IUCN project: assessing the social and economic value of climate change adaptation in the pacific region. IUCN. https://gsd.spc.int/sopac/docs/nre/Water%20security%20Final.pdf
- **Global Mangrove Watch. (2024)**. Global Mangrove Watch,. Global Mangrove Alliance,. Retrieved 05/03/2024 from https://www.globalmangrovewatch.org/

- Hoegh-Guldberg, O., Mumby, P., Hooten, A. J., Steneck, R., Greenfield, P., Gomez, E., Harvell, C. D., Sale, P. F., Edwards, A. J., Caldeira, K., Knowlton, N., Eakin, C. M., Iglesias-Prieto, R., Muthiga, N., Bradbury, R., Dubi, A., & Hatziolos, M. E. (2007). Coral Reefs Under Rapid Climate Change and Ocean Acidification. science, 318(5857), 1737-1742. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1152509
- **IPCC.** (2023). Summary for Policymakers. In H. Lee & J. Romero (Eds.), Climate Change 2023: Synthesis Report. Contribution of Working Groups I, II and III to the Sixth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (pp. 1-34). IPCC, Geneva, Switzerland. https://doi.org/10.59327/IPCC/AR6-9789291691647.001
- **Kassie, M., Fisher, M., Muricho, G., & Diiro, G. (2020)**. Women's empowerment boosts the gains in dietary diversity from agricultural technology adoption in rural Kenya. Food Policy, 101957-101957.
- **Katovai, E., Edwards, W., & Laurance, W. F. (2015)**. Dynamics of Logging in Solomon Islands: The Need for Restoration and Conservation Alternatives. Tropical Conservation Science, 8(3), 718-731. https://doi.org/10.1177/194008291500800309
- **Katovai, E., Katovai, D. D., Campbell, M., Laurance, S. G., Edwards, W., & Laurance, W. F. (2021)**. Structural Recovery of Logged Forests in the Solomon Islands: Implications for Conservation and Management. Tropical Conservation Science, 14, 19400829211028125. https://doi.org/10.1177/19400829211028125
- Kinrade, P., Arold, N., Pickering, P., Rooke, E., & Manfredo, J. (2014). Pacific Adaptation (Costs and Benefits) Scenarios: Water Security in Tuvalu. Pacific-Australia Climate Change Science and Adaptation Planning (PACCSAP). https://terranova.org.au/repository/paccsap-collection/pacific-adaptation-scenarios-costs-and-benefits-water-security-in-tuvalu-technical-report/cba-tuvalu-water-security-technical-report.pdf
- **Kouwenhoven, P., & Cheatham, C. (2006)**. Capacity Building to enable the Development of Adaptation Measures in Pacific Island Countries. SPREP. https://library.sprep.org/sites/default/files/173.pdf
- **Leary, N. A. (1999).** A framework for benefit-cost analysis of adaptation to climate change and climate variability. Mitigation and adaptation strategies for global change, 4(3-4), 307-318. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1009667706027
- Narayan, T., Foley, L., Haskell, J., Cooley, D., & Hyman, E. (2017). Cost-Benefit Analysis of Mangrove Restoration for Coastal Protection and an Earthen Dike Alternative in Mozambique. I. Climate Economic Analysis Development, and Resilience (CEADIR) Activity, Crown Agents USA and Abt Associates. https://www.climatelinks.org/sites/default/files/asset/document/2017 USAID%20CEADIR Cost-Benefit%20Analysis%20of%20Mangrove%20Restoration%20for%20 Coastal%20Protection%20.pdf
- **Naudé, W., Santos-Paulino, A., & McGillivray, M. (2014)**. Measuring vulnerability in developing countries: New analytical approaches. Routledge.
- Pachauri, R. K., Allen, M. R., Barros, V. R., Broome, J., Cramer, W., Christ, R., Church, J. A., Clarke, L., Dahe, Q., Dasgupta, P., Dubash, N. K., Edenhofer, O., Elgizouli, I., Field, C. B., Forster, P., Friedlingstein, P., Fuglestvedt, J., Gomez-Echeverri, L., Hallegatte, S., . . . van Ypserle, J. P. (2014). Climate Change 2014: Synthesis Report. Contribution of Working Groups I, II and III to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (9291691437).
- Pagiola, S., Agostini, P., Gobbi, J., de Haan, C., Ibrahim, M., Murgueitio, E., Ramírez, E., Rosales, M., & Ruíz, J. P. (2004). Paying for Biodiversity Conservation Services in Agricultural Landscapes. World Bank. https://core.ac.uk/reader/9309670
- Pittock, J. (2010). Water quality and the Great Barrier Reef: can Australia control diffuse pollution? Water 21.
- **Predo, C. (2003)**. What Motivates Farmers? Tree Growing and Land Use Decisions in the Grasslands of Claveria, Philippines. https://EconPapers.repec.org/RePEc:eep:report:rr2003112
- **Rakatama, A., Pandit, R., Ma, C., & Iftekhar, S. (2017)**. The costs and benefits of REDD+: A review of the literature. Forest Policy and Economics, 75, 103-111. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.forpol.2016.08.006
- Ricke, K., Drouet, L., Caldeira, K., & Tavoni, M. (2018). Country-level social cost of carbon. Nature Climate Change, 8(10), 895-900. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-018-0282-y

Rosegrant, M. W., Valmonte-Santos, R., Thomas, T., You, L., & Chiang, C. (2015). Climate Change, Food Security, and Socioeconomic Livelihood in the Pacific Islands. Asian Development Bank. https://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/publication/175046/climate-change-food-security-pacific.pdf

Sneegas, G., Beckner, S., Brannstrom, C., Jepson, W., Lee, K., & Seghezzo, L. (2021). Using Q-methodology in environmental sustainability research: A bibliometric analysis and systematic review. Ecological Economics, 180, 106864-106864. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2020.106864

Solomon, S., Plattner, G.-K., Knutti, R., & Friedlingstein, P. (2009). Irreversible climate change due to carbon dioxide emissions. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 106(6), 1704-1709.

SPC. (2015). The Pacific Gender & Climate Change Toolkit: Tools for Practitioners. Secretariat of the Pacific Community. https://www.pacificclimatechange.net/sites/default/files/documents/Pacific gender toolkit full version.pdf

Stephenson, W. (1953). The Study of Behavior; Q-technique and its Methodology. University of Chicago Press, Chicago.

Su, J., Friess, D. A., & Gasparatos, A. (2021). A meta-analysis of the ecological and economic outcomes of mangrove restoration. Nature communications, 12(1), 5050. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-25349-1

Taye, F., Vinde Folkersen, M., Fleming, C., Buckwell, A., Mackey, B., Kc, D., Le, D., Hasan, S., & Saint Ange, C. (2021). The drivers of change in the economic value of global forest ecosystem services: A meta-analysis. Ecological Economics, 189, 107145. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2021.107145

Triantaphyllou, E. (2000). Multi-criteria decision making methods. In (pp. 5-21). Springer.

Turley, C., & Gattuso, J.-P. (2012). Future biological and ecosystem impacts of ocean acidification and their socioeconomic-policy implications. Current Opinion in Environmental Sustainability, 4(3), 278-286. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cosust.2012.05.007

Turner, R. A., Cakacaka, A., Graham, N. A. J., Polunin, N. V. C., Pratchett, M. S., Stead, S. M., & Wilson, S. K. (2007). Declining reliance on marine resources in remote South Pacific societies: ecological versus socio-economic drivers. Coral Reefs, 26(4), 997-1008. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00338-007-0238-6

UN. (2021). System of Environmental Economic Accounting Ecosystem Accounting. SEEA. https://seea.un.org/ecosystem-accounting

Van der Ploeg, S., & De Groot, R. (2010). The TEEB Valuation Database—a searchable database of 1310 estimates of monetary values of ecosystem services. Foundation for Sustainable Development, Wageningen, The Netherlands.

Watts, S., & Stenner, P. (2012). Doing Q Methodological Research: Theory, Method & Interpretation. 2(1), 67-91. https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088705qp0220a

World Bank. (2023). GDP Deflator. https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.DEFL.ZS

World Bank Group. (2021). Climate Risk Country Profile: Solomon Islands. World Bank Group. https://climateknowledgeportal.worldbank.org/sites/default/files/country-profiles/15822-WB_Solomon%20Islands%20_Country%20Profile-WEB.pdf

Yaron, G. (2001). Forest, Plantation Crops or Small-scale Agriculture? An Economic Analysis of Alternative Land Use Options in the Mount Cameroon Area. Journal of Environmental Planning and Management, 44(1), 85-108. https://doi.org/10.1080/09640560123194