The Changing Faces of Hong Kong

Women in the Community and National Context, 1994-2010

February 2013 Michael E. DeGolyer







About Civic Exchange

Civic Exchange is a Hong Kong-based non-profit public policy think tank that was established in October 2000. It is an independent organisation that has access to policy makers, officials, businesses, media and NGOs—reaching across sectors and borders. Civic Exchange has solid research experience in areas such as air quality, energy, urban planning, climate change, conservation, water, governance, political development, equal opportunities, poverty and gender. For more information about Civic Exchange, visit www.civic-exchange.org.

About The Women's Foundation

The Women's Foundation is a non-profit organisation established in 2004 dedicated to improving the lives of women and girls in Hong Kong through ground-breaking research, impactful and innovative community programmes, and education, media engagement and advocacy. Our three key focus areas are challenging gender stereotypes, increasing the number of women in decision-making and leadership positions, and empowering women in poverty to achieve a better quality of life for themselves and their families. For more information, please visit www.thewomensfoundationhk.org.

About the Author

Michael E. DeGolyer is a political economist, Professor of Government & International Studies and Director of the Masters in Public Administration Programme at Hong Kong Baptist University. He is Director of the Hong Kong Transition Project, a long term study begun in 1988 of Hong Kong people's transition from colonial subjects to Chinese citizens. He has been President of the Hong Kong Political Science Association, a Hong Kong Country Reports and Country Forecasts Expert Contributor to the Economist Intelligence Unit (1996-2006) and a weekly columnist for The Standard (2000-2008). He has written 12 books or e-books, contributed 75 book chapters or refereed journal articles, 200+ commissioned research reports and research papers and conducted over 120 public opinion surveys, mainly on Hong Kong political development but also including several pioneering surveys on environmental issues.

Foreword

The issues facing Hong Kong women are numerous and complex. Some of these issues are particular to gender, most relate to pressing social issues—from rising incidents of teen pregnancies to integration challenges faced by the constant tide of New Arrival women from the Mainland to Hong Kong's rapidly ageing population. Resolving these issues requires concerted efforts and collaboration across the public and private sectors. At The Women's Foundation, we believe these efforts can only be effective if they are grounded on objective and reliable data and an understanding of the fundamental root causes.

The Women's Foundation has been a leading voice in filling the critical gap in objective and incisive gender research in Hong Kong. In 2006, The Women's Foundation published our ground-breaking study on The Status of Women and Girls in Hong Kong to review the status of women in Hong Kong. Building on this study, starting in 2008, we launched an 18-month long stakeholder engagement process comprising focus groups, individual interviews and public symposia to better understand the barriers faced by women and girls.

In 2010, to raise greater awareness of gender issues, we launched a monthly column in The South China Morning Post and the Hong Kong Economic Journal website. The column features pieces from leading local and international voices on a diverse range of topics relating to women and gender issues in Hong Kong.

Since our first study in 2006, we have seen an improvement in some areas, some not at all, and in some the situation has further deteriorated. Hong Kong's Gini co-efficient has worsened with more people living at the poverty line; Hong Kong's rapidly ageing population (with women significantly outliving men) is straining welfare programmes and housing and health services; while at the other end of the spectrum, the needle has not moved for women in political office or on corporate boards and in senior executive positions. At the time of writing, the new Hong Kong Administration is showing signs that it is serious about tackling these issues which is encouraging. The growing number of CSR-minded businesses which are engaging with and supporting the NGO sector in their work to help the disadvantaged is another optimistic note. We hope our research can help identify challenges and gaps in current social welfare and education policies and programmes to inform and influence strategy and resource allocation by all stakeholders seeking positive change. We also hope our research will be a useful resource for shadow reports submitted by international and local Human Rights watchdogs and other groups as part of the United Nation's next hearing on Hong Kong's compliance with the UN's Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 2014.

Building on our earlier research in 2006 and 2008, The Women's Foundation launched a new series of quantitative and qualitative research studies in 2010, working in collaboration with The Chinese University's Gender Research Centre, the Hong Kong Council of Social Service and Civic Exchange.

This publication is the outcome of our collaboration with Civic Exchange. We are very grateful to Civic Exchange for their excellent work and in particular,

to Michael DeGolyer, Yan-yan Yip, Carine Lai, Louisa Mitchell, Yao Yuan, and Tsang Kam-lun. We are also grateful to Christine Loh, former CEO of Civic Exchange and current Under-Secretary for the Environment in the HKSAR government, for sharing her time and expertise in producing this report.

The Women's Foundation would like to thank the many people at Goldman Sachs who so generously gave their time, advice and financial support to this project through *Goldman Sachs Gives*.

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In closing, we know that words alone cannot meet the needs of Hong Kong's most vulnerable populations. Our greatest hope is that this research will serve as a catalyst for long-term systemic change by spurring efforts to pursue the changes needed to achieve the full participation of women in Hong Kong society.

Kay McArdle Board Chair, The Women's Foundation

Su-Mei Thompson CEO, The Women's Foundation

A Note on This Series

Civic Exchange's collaboration with The Women's Foundation on this research attempts to track the changing status of women over the past 20 years through looking into historical data. The methodology adopted in this research is ground-breaking—both objective and subjective data are used to provide a fuller picture. Objective data come from official government data, published academic research and grey literature while subjective data come from public opinion survey data collected by Hong Kong Transition Project.

This research has generated a total of three reports: One covering objective data, one covering subjective data, and a user-friendly summary report capturing the essence of the two other reports.

• The Changing Faces of Hong Kong: A Cohort Analysis of Women, 1991-2011: Civic Exchange engaged Louisa Mitchell, a social policy researcher, to look through statistics published by the HKSAR Government, academic studies, and grey literature. Forming the objective portion of this research, Louisa Mitchell's findings and analysis are compiled into a 250-page report, entitled The Changing Faces of Hong Kong: A Cohort Analysis of Women, 1991-2011. Her report constructs profiles of typical women of different ages today, including, 15-, 20-, 30-, 40-, and over 60-year-olds. It also highlights the alternative life trajectories of atypical groups of women. Comparisons are made in areas such as education, earnings, marital status, and occupation, between women today and men or between women today and women 20 years ago.

It should be noted that this research had been completed before news broke about HKSAR Government's falsified census data (especially relating to unemployment). The HKSAR Government is, at the time of publishing, still investigating the problem. Readers are recommended to read the relevant data and analysis with this in mind.

- The Changing Faces of Hong Kong: Women in the Community and National Context, 1994-2010: The subjective portion comes from analysis of the public opinion survey data collected by the Hong Kong Transition Project. Civic Exchange worked with Professor Michael DeGolyer and Ms. Cheung Pui-ki of Hong Kong Transition Project based at Hong Kong Baptist University, as well as two postgraduate students of statistics from the Hong Kong University of Science and Technology to go through Hong Kong Transition Project's public opinion survey data since 1994. In the 132-page report, entitled The Changing Faces of Hong Kong: Women in the Community and National Context, 1994-2010, regression of survey data and time cohorts (1994-2000, 2000-2005, and 2006-2010) are used to reveal the changing attitudes and behaviours of Hong Kong people in areas such as feelings towards national day, areas of personal concern, and political and civic participation.
- The Changing Faces of Hong Kong: A Graphical Summary of Women's Status, 1991-2011. A graphical summary report produced by Carine Lai of Civic Exchange captures the major points from Louisa Mitchell's report (Part 1) and the key points related to gender from Professor Michael DeGolyer's report (Part 2). A list of recommendations is

attached to the end of the summary report. Chinese version of this summary report is also available.

It is hoped that this research project will offer better understanding of the changing faces of the Hong Kong society, and thereby policy makers could formulate policies that gear towards meeting the needs of Hong Kong people, which may include some gender-specific policies and/or measures. Readers who are interested in more detailed analysis of changes in people's attitudes and behaviours in general (ie. not gender-related) are encouraged to read the full report of The Changing Faces of Hong Kong: Women in the Community and National Context, 1994-2010. The summary report only captures gender-related data and analysis.

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Civic Exchange/Hong Kong Transition Project The Changing Faces of Hong Kong: Women in the Community and National Context, 1994-2010

Executive Summary: Key Findings

- 1. The dependency ratio increased significantly for those born in Mainland China and elsewhere from 1994-2005 but began decreasing, especially relative to those born in Hong Kong, as Mainland China born children began to enter the workforce in larger numbers from 2006. Mainland born residents are now becoming educationally equipped and starting to take up support burdens as the portion of aging and retired residents born in Hong Kong grows in the years ahead.
- 2. Educational attainment rose dramatically, with 22.4 percent reporting any level of university education in 1994-2000 versus 36.8 percent in 2006-2010. Women are relatively gaining over men at the university and post-graduate level, with their pace of growth clearly higher than men's.
- 3. In 2006-2010 more than one in five of the female workforce (21.3 percent) worked as civil servants or in privatized public services like the Airport Authority, Housing Authority and so on versus 16.7 percent of males. Women were far more likely to work in the non-profit sector than men across all time periods.
- 4. While those born in Hong Kong showed a large increase in concern over air and water pollution between 2001-2005 and 2006-2010, concern also rose among those born in Mainland China. While the not worried dropped 7.4 percentage points among Hong Kong born (to only 8.9 percent not worried), it fell 11.8 percentage points (to 13.2 percent not worried) among those born in Mainland China, indicating that the Mainland born more strongly reacted to the issue between the beginning and end of the decade than native Hong Kongers, though the overall rate of concern remained higher among those born in Hong Kong.
- 5. In terms of personal issues of greatest concern, 2006-2010 saw a significant shift away from economics toward politics and social issues. Economic concerns clearly dominated the 1994-2005 period with political concerns coming in as the area of least worry. But in 2006-2010, political concerns rose above social issues and economic issues made up the most concerning personal problem for less than a majority for the first time.
- 6. Men clearly gained more in becoming professionals and participating in professional associations, with the proportion of women participating in professional associations changing almost none. This may be the best explanation for the decrease of women representatives on Functional Constituency seats. In the 2012 Legislative Council elections, not a single woman was elected to one of the traditional 30 Functional Constituency seats. Two women, one a union leader, won election in the 5 seats elected at large from all District Councils (the vote excluded professionals with a vote in one of the traditional FC seats). In the 1994-2000 period the gap

between those born in Hong Kong versus those born in Mainland China was 4 percentage points, with 7.6 percent Hong Kong born to 3.6 percent Mainland China born participating in professional associations. By 2006-2010 the gap was 4.8 percentage points, with 9.5 percent of Hong Kong born respondents versus 4.7 percent of Mainland born respondents reporting attendance at a professional association meeting.

- 7. While men increased their participation in Mutual Aid Committees (MACs), crossing the one male in ten portion in 2006-2010, women may not have regained their portion of participation reached in 1994-2000. The gap between men and women participation in MACs opened from 1.9 points in 1994-2000 to 2.5 percentage points in 2006-2010, leaving many MAC meetings with a preponderance of male participants. MACs form the basis for many political party contacts at the local level, especially in public housing estates.
- 8. MAC participation was at 8.8 percent of respondents in 1994-2000, exceeding the 7.4 percent who attended Owners Corporations. By 2006-2010 the 8.9 percent attending MAC meetings was far exceeded by the 18.7 percent attending ownership corporation meetings. The rise of "middle class" politics in the first decade of the 21st century is clearly linked to the great increase in home ownership and subsequent major rise in attendance at owners corporation meetings. Both men and women show significant increases in Ownership Corporation attendance. But the gap in attendance widened from 1.4 percentage points difference in 1994-2000 to 4.2 percentage points more men attending than women in 2006-2010. The most spectacular gain in ownership corporation attendance is among those born in Mainland China. While those born in Hong Kong saw a 10 point increase in their attendance of owner's corporations between 1994-2000, those born in Mainland China rose 13.8 percentage points, from 7.3 percent attending in 1994-2000 to 21.1 percent attending in 2006-2010, far outstripping proportionally the 17.5 percent of Hong Kong born attending.
- 9. The data show participation in social service and charitable groups has grown dramatically over the past 2 decades, particularly among women. In the early 1990s fewer than one person in ten participated regularly. By end of the first decade of the 2000s, about one in four reported regular attendance at such groups. While attendance at political and pressure groups which have broad public policy aims has not increased substantially, if at all, during this time period, other civil society groups that often have public policy input and frequently advocate specific policies within their interest have seen massive growth. (Participation is also up strongly among religious groups and churches. These have great influence on public policy issues and elect seats to the Chief Executive Election Committee directly.) This finding goes far in solving the oft posed conundrum of the low level of apparent political interest as expressed in low levels of political party membership on the one hand, but the high level of social engagement and policy interest expressed in demonstrations, petitions and public pressure on specific issues on the other.
- 10. While attendance at social service/charitable and religious organizations has roughly doubled over the time period, attendance at environmental groups has more than tripled, from 3.3 percent in 1994-2000 to 10.4 percent in 2006-2010. Unlike social service and religious groups above that show, while women dominate in numbers attending, men have increased proportionately more their participation over the time period, on the environment women's participation growth has outpaced men's, at 7.6 percentage points increase for women versus 6.6 percentage points for men. On the environment, women lead.
- 11. Personal policy-oriented actions such as petition signing and joining protests is the single most frequently performed act toward government and policy in Hong Kong, aside from the occasional act of voting. Rising from 39.3 percent in 1994-2000 to 43.6 percent in 2006-2010, it is also clear that women have kept pace or even led men in numbers of participants in this form of personal action. And personal action has not just been limited to Hong Kong born natives either, with large and growing numbers of residents born in Mainland China joining in.

Introduction: Background, Context and Significance

Between 1994 and 2010 the Hong Kong Transition Project randomly surveyed 39,629 people in Hong Kong.¹ The project also surveyed thousands of Functional Constituency (FC) voters over the first decade of the 21st century. The 200,000 or so FC voters amongst the Hong Kong population are more predominantly members of the business, professional and political elite.² The relationship of gender-based demographic factors within these elites and between the elites and the general population will reveal the nature of "glass ceilings" and "glass walls" between the populace as a whole and these specially empowered influential groups.³ The following study examines this elite database and the random sample database of nearly 40,000 respondents broken down into 3 cohorts, those surveyed between 1994 and 2000 (denoted as cohort 1), those surveyed between 2001 and 2005 (cohort 2) and those between 2006 to 2010 (cohort 3). The demographic aspects of the General Population (GP) survey data gathered via random samples continuously over the time period should be compared with the analysis of the census data in this same document, which is gathered comprehensively but only once a decade.

As will be seen, the overall trends of the census data (1991, 2001, 2011) appear to correlate well with the random survey data, though the survey data was primarily focused on permanent residents with at least seven years continuous residency. This means that data not gathered in the census data but procured by the random surveys, such as information about participation in various social groups and activity in terms of contact with government departments and other groups focused on informing and advocating on policy issues, may be considered fairly reliable as an indicator of both trends and changes in patterns of participation and activism over the time period. By combining census with survey data, the foundation of observations not based in exhaustive census returns may be strengthened as and where they corroborate (that is, in the demographic data collected by both methods). Data gathered by the two methods that are directly comparative, such as indications of an aging population and increased educational levels between 1991 and 2011, show strong correlations. This strengthens confidence data from the surveys reflects data and trends not gathered in the census. The survey data also should fall intermediate to the census data, and it does. That is, since the survey data was gathered continuously over the time period, then collapsed into 5-year cohorts, the survey results should come intermediate with the comparative data. For example, the 1994-2000 cohort should have characteristics which fall within the averages of the 1991 census, the 1996 by-census and the 2001 census. That appears to be case, and particularly so for the Hong Kong Transition Project surveys from the 2 time cohorts in the first decade of the 21st century. There are aspects of the survey data that need to be borne in mind when they are compared with the census data. For example, in the survey data gathered between 1994 and 2010, 71 percent of the nearly 40,000 permanent residents surveyed were respondents born in Hong Kong, 25.5 percent in Mainland China, and 3.5 percent elsewhere. Figure 1 from the Census and Statistics Department shows that those born outside Hong Kong and thus without automatic right of abode, and resident less than 7 years—thus without the required residency in Hong Kong to establish permanent residency—amounts to 28.7 percent of the census among those

¹ More were surveyed by Hong Kong Transition Project than this number. Those surveyed were residents with Hong Kong right of abode, meaning they had lived there at least 7 years continuously. Other surveys were of special subpopulations such as Functional Constituency members, those with Canadian citizenship, or were surveys focused on issues such as the environment instead of general political system development. Calls made by telephone in Cantonese, Mandarin, Hakka and English depending on respondent's preference and randomization was with a Kish Table, which pairs number of persons 18 and above in the household with the final digit of the number dialed.

² Eight of the FC seats are elected by "corporate" voters—one nominated voter per corporate body. These voters vote for the group, but do not exist afterwards as a constituency of voters to whom the "representative" must report. Several thousand of these corporate votes also are cast by shelf companies which exist in name only or little more than name. See next footnote for details.

³ See Christine Loh, ed. *Functional Constituencies, A Unique Feature of the Hong Kong Legislative Council* (Hong Kong University Press, 2006).

born in Mainland China, Macao or Taiwan, and 3 percent of those born elsewhere in 2001. The numbers for 2006 and 2011 are 29.4 and 28.7 percent respectively for those born in Mainland China, Macao and Taiwan and 3.4 and 3.8 percent for those born elsewhere. The HKTP survey data represents a mid-point average (3.5 percent) of those born elsewhere without permanent residency and a slight underrepresentation (25.5 percent versus census average of 28.9) of those born in Mainland China. This under-representation is likely attributable to the difference between the population aged 18 and over (surveyed by Hong Kong Transition Project) and the census which included all ages.⁴

Figure 1 Population by Duration of Residence in Hong Kong and Place of Birth, 2001, 2006, 2011

Year	Duration of Residence	Birthplace		Birthplace		Birthplace		Total	
		Hong		Mainland China,		Elsewhere			
		Kong		Macao, Taiwan					
		Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
2001	<1	55 817	0.8	52 879	0.8	56 197	0.8	164 893	2.5
	1 – 3	159 018	2.4	139 369	2.1	101 037	1.5	399 424	6.0
	4-6	205 365	3.1	148 146	2.2	78 107	1.2	431 618	6.4
	7 – 9	207 967	3.1	94 693	1.4	53 847	0.8	356 507	5.3
	10+	3 376 727	50.3	1 828 484	27.3	150 736	2.2	5 355 947	79.8
	Total	4 004 894	59.7	2 263 571	33.7	439 924	6.6	6 708 389	100
2006	<1	47 494	0.7	40 314	0.6	43 123	0.6	130 931	1.9
	1 - 3	121 903	1.8	101 535	1.5	87 590	1.3	311 028	4.5
	4 - 6	146 525	2.1	138 873	2.0	62 698	0.9	348 096	5.1
	7 - 9	175 183	2.6	152 856	2.2	44 649	0.7	372 688	5.4
	10+	3 647 739	53.1	1 865 378	27.2	188 486	2.7	5 701 603	83.1
	Total	4 138 844	60.3	2 298 956	33.5	426 546	6.2	6 864 346	100
2011	<1	66 220	0.9	24 262	0.3	64 019	0.9	154 501	2.2
	1 - 3	155 483	2.2	92 676	1.3	125 369	1.8	373 528	5.3
	4 - 6	140 187	2.0	123 387	1.7	71 150	1.0	334 724	4.7
	7 - 9	139 333	2.0	141 647	2.0	49 151	0.7	330 131	4.7
	10+	3 776 903	53.4	1 885 945	26.7	215 844	3.1	5 878 692	83.1
	Total	4 278 126	60.5	2 267 917	32.1	525 533	7.4	7 071 576	100

Source: Census and Statistics Department, Government of Hong Kong

Lack of significant variation between the census of all persons and the survey data of permanent residents (disregarding and adjusting the census results for persons in Hong Kong employed as domestic helpers) may indicate Hong Kong continues to integrate newcomers from the mainland and abroad into the permanent resident population with little change pre and post 1997.

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⁴ There are studies of Mainland China born residents with less than 7 years of abode showing an age related bulge of younger emigrants over the timeframe of this study. (see *Thematic Report – Persons from the Mainland Having Resided in Hong Kong for Less Than 7 Years* (2001 census; Census and Statistics Department) available at: http://www.censtatd.gov.hk/FileManager/EN/Content_41/pmrs.pdf)

Part 1: Education by gender, birthplace and age group across time

1.1 Education and gender

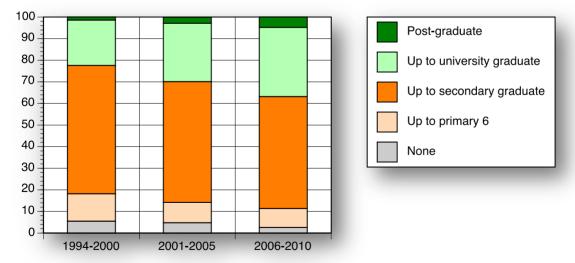
The questions posed in this section include, whether and by how much the education level has risen over these cohorts, how much male and female education has risen, and how age group and birthplace of men and women are comparatively related to education levels over the time period of 1994-2010.

Figure 1 shows that the level of education rose significantly, with those holding post-graduate degrees more than tripling while those with university degrees rose just over 50 percent, from 21 percent of those surveyed to 32 percent of those surveyed. Figure 2 and Figure 3 take this same data and break it down by gender. Men increased their proportion with post-graduate degrees from 1.8 percent to 5.7 percent between 1994 and 2010. Men thus added 3.9 percentage points to their post-graduate attainment between 1994-2000 and that of 2006-2010, outpacing women's rise of 3 percentage points over the same time (from 0.9 percent to 3.9 percent). With post-graduate education the gap between genders widened from 0.9 percentage points in 1994-2000 (men with 1.8 versus women with 0.9 percent with post graduate degrees) to 1.8 percentage points in 2006-2010 (from men's 5.7 percent to women's 3.9 percent with post-graduate degrees).

Figure 1: Percent of cohort by years of education (all)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
None	5.5	4.8	2.6
Up to primary 6	12.7	9.4	8.8
Up to secondary graduate	59.4	55.9	51.8
Up to university graduate	21	27	32
Post-graduate	1.4	2.8	4.8
% of Total surveyed	35.9	38.4	25.7

N= 39,629 p= <.0001⁵



 $^{^5}$ P, the symbol for the Chi-square statistical test of significance, shows whether the observed distribution is the result of chance or not. The smaller or nearer 0.0 p falls, the less likely it is that the distribution resulted from mere chance. In Table 1, the chance that education did not rise between the late 20^{th} century cohort and the 2006-2020 cohort is less than one in thousand.

The absolute gap of 0.9 percentage points between men and women in 1994-2000 widened to 1.8 percentage points in 2006-2010, or a doubling of the size of the gap between men and women with the highest degree of education. However, women show a higher rate of increase for post-graduate education over the time period, at 3.2 times for men's 1994-2000 post-graduate attainment over the 1.8 percent then to their 2006-2010 rate of 5.7 percent versus women's increase up to 3.9 percent, which is 4.3 times their 1994-2000 rate of 0.9 percent with post-graduate education.

The gender gap widens in absolute terms (from 0.9 percentage points advantage men over women in 1994-2000 to 1.8 percentage points in 2006-2020), but narrows in terms of rate of growth. The increase in rate of growth for women is not sufficient though for women to catch up with men because they started at a much lower base than men. Indeed, it appears that men are increasing their advantage in educational terms over women at both the university and post-graduate level.

The gap between men and women with university education widened from 5.1 percentage points between them in 1994-2000 (23.5 percent of men versus 18.4 percent of women having a university degree) to 6.2 percentage points in 2006-2010 (35.2 percent of men with a university degree versus 29 percent of women). However, women somewhat outpaced men in their increase, with men increasing their proportion with a university education by 1.49 times while women grew their proportion with the same degree of education by 1.58 times over the 1994-2000 rate.

Figure 2: Percent of cohort by years of education (male)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
None	4	3.5	1.8
Up to primary 6	11.7	8	8
Up to secondary graduate	59	54.6	49.3
Up to university graduate	23.5	30	35.2
Post-graduate	1.8	3.8	5.7
Total	37.4	37.7	24.9

N= 20,136 p= <.0001

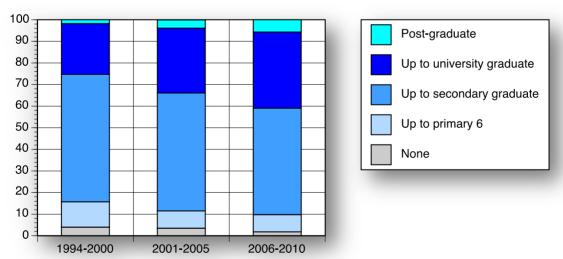
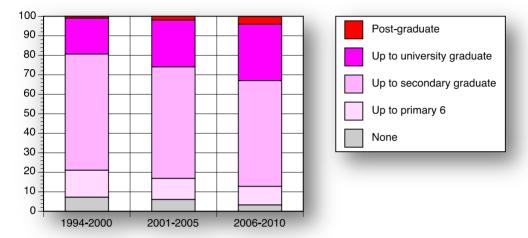


Figure 3: Percent of cohort by years of education (female)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
None	7.3	6.1	3.3
Up to primary 6	13.9	10.9	9.6
Up to secondary graduate	59.6	57.2	54.2
Up to university graduate	18.4	24	29
Post-graduate	.9	1.9	3.9
Total	34.3	39.2	26.5

N= 19,493 p= <.0001



Women show a greater decrease in absolute terms for those with no education. In 1994-2000 4 percent of men had no education while in 2005-2010 just 1.8 percent of men had no education, a drop of 2.2 points over the period. Over the same period women went from 7.3 percent with no education to 3.3 percent uneducated, a drop of 4 points, which is considerably larger in absolute terms than for men. However, those men with no education fell at a rate of 2.22 times over the period versus women whose proportion with a lack of education dropped at a rate of 2.21 times. The rate of fall in the lowest educated group was almost the same for men and women, despite women showing the largest decrease in absolute terms. Thus women are relatively gaining over men at the university and post-graduate level, with their pace of growth clearly higher than men's. However, among the least educated, the rate of reduction for men and women is about the same.

1.2 Education and birthplace

Figure 4 shows that university and post-graduate education among those born in Hong Kong has substantially increased between 1994 and 2010. Whereas in the last decade of the twentieth century 11.7 percent had a primary six or less education, by the end of the first decade of the twenty first century that figure had fallen to 7.4 percent, and those with a university or above education climbed from 25.5 percent to 42 percent over the same period. The rate of change over the period also appears to be fairly steady. Among those born in Mainland China, however, progress appears to have accelerated between the first half and the second half of the first decade of the twenty first century, with little change between 1994 and 2005. (See Figure 5.) Figure 6 below shows this contrast in rates of change as well as overall change. For example, whereas among those born in Hong Kong post graduate holders increased over 4 times between the 1.4 percent in 1994-2000 and the 5.8 percent in 2006-2010, those born in Mainland China just doubled their rate, from 0.9 to 1.9.

Figure 4: Percent of cohort by birthplace (Hong Kong)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
None	2.5	2.7	1.4
Up to primary 6	9.2	7.1	6
Up to secondary graduate	62.8	56.6	50.6
Up to university graduate	24.1	30.4	36.2
Post-graduate	1.4	3.2	5.8
Total	34.4	39.5	26

N= 28,202 p= <.0001

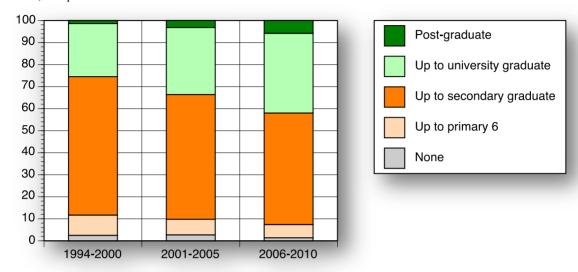


Figure 5: Percent of cohort by birthplace (Mainland China)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
None	12.8	11.3	6
Up to primary 6	21.4	16.8	17.4
Up to secondary graduate	51.9	55.6	55.5
Up to university graduate	13	15.3	19.4
Post-graduate	0.9	1.1	1.9
Total	40.2	35.3	24.5

N=10,072 p=<.0001

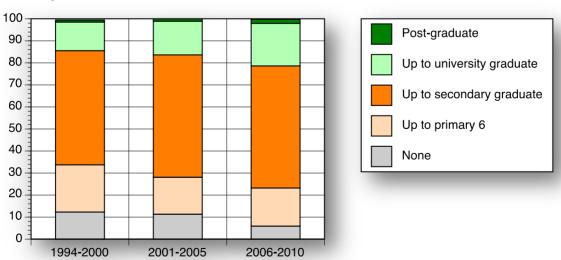


Figure 6 shows clearly the relative stalling of change among those born on Mainland China between the last decade of the 20th century and the first half of the first decade of the 21st century. The proportion with no education stayed almost stagnant, then dropped considerably between 2006-2010. The effect of the post-1997 accelerated entry of significant numbers of less educated Mainland born wives of Hong Kong born men can clearly be seen. However, the 2006-2010 period appears to show how policy changes to increase access to better educated Mainland born Chinese, and particularly the policy of educating more Mainland born in local universities and then permitting them up to a year to find employment, has significantly lowered the proportion with less education. There is clearly a continuing gap, however, between those born in Hong Kong and those born on Mainland China. Some of the tensions between Hong Kong born persons and those born on the mainland may very well derive from this education gap. At the same time, that education gap is clearly lessening and doing so at an accelerated pace over the last part of the first decade.

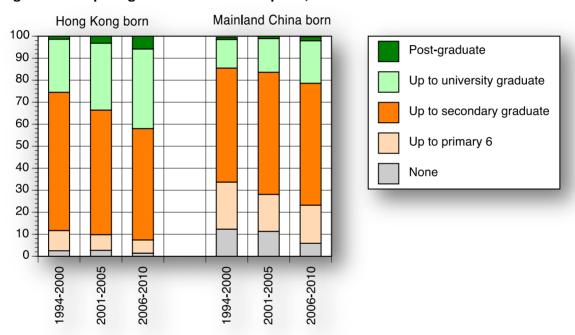


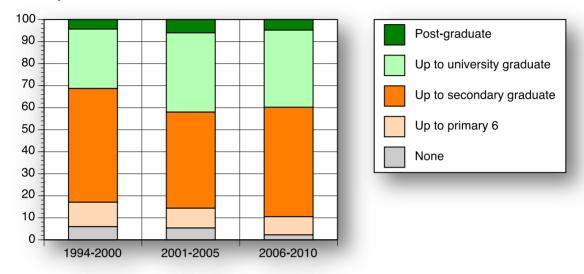
Figure 6: Comparing education and birthplace, 1994-2010

Those born outside Hong Kong and Mainland China show little change among the proportion of those with post-graduate degrees. In 1994-2000 4.3 percent had such degrees; in 2006-2010 4.8 percent had such qualifications. Those with university qualifications increased greatly in the first half of the first decade, but then appear to have changed little in the second half. Those born elsewhere appear to have roughly the same proportions by education level as those born in Hong Kong, reflecting perhaps that Hong Kong's international community is now equally treated, and equally educated, in contrast to the pre-1997 period. In the 1994-2000 period, for example, those with university and above born in Hong Kong made up 25.5 percent; among those born elsewhere, 31.3 percent had a university or above education, a gap of 5.8 percentage points in favor of those born elsewhere. By 2006-2010, 42 percent of Hong Kong born and 39.8 percent of those born elsewhere had university or above degrees, not only closing the gap, but opening one in favor of Hong Kong born residents.

Figure 7: Percent of cohort by birthplace (elsewhere)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
None	6	5.4	2.3
Up to primary 6	11.1	9	8.2
Up to secondary graduate	51.6	43.6	49.7
Up to university graduate	27	36	35
Post-graduate	4.3	6	4.8
Total	34.5	39.4	26.1

N= 1355 p= <.0077



1.3 Education and age groups

From the latter half of the 1980s the Hong Kong government ramped up spending on post-secondary education, expanding access to higher and further education. Up to 18 percent of qualified secondary school graduates could secure places in the University Grants Committee supported institutions by the mid-1990s. The increase of access shows up dramatically among those under 50, as the figures below show. Access of government supported post secondary education began to expand in earnest in 1983-84, partially in response to a fear of a "brain drain" forming in the run-up to 1997, so those now in their 40s and below would have been affected most by growing post-secondary provisioning.

However, this proportion of local students allowed access to supplemented post-secondary education (18 percent) stayed the same from approximately 1995 until the present. Candidates in the 2012 Chief Executive election made promises to increase access to university places to 25 percent of qualified secondary school graduates over the 5 year term 2012-2017. They also pledged to increase government supported education to 15 years, 3 years for pre-school and 12 years in the primary and secondary system. The current system provides for 11 years of government supported primary and secondary education. In 2012 the universities revised their curriculums to become 4 year instead of 3 year degrees, and the secondary schools dropped the old British Form 6 and Form 7 practice. These changes followed the implementation of the 3-3-4 system reforms, which set 3 years of middle or lower secondary school, followed by 3 years of senior secondary and 4 for university. Under the old system, fully government paid education ceased at Form 5 and costs rose considerably while access narrowed considerably for the 12th and 13th years of secondary education. These changes in practice and opening of access have transformed the face of both the educational system and the population. These changes also complicate comparison of education across the cohorts, since the years of education and

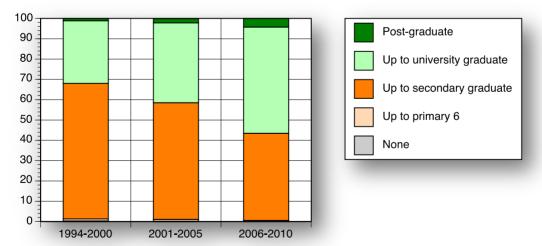
designations vary across the timeframe studied here. The government also increased support for mainland students to study in Hong Kong, permitting up to 8 percent of university bodies to be from the mainland, and the government expanded overseas exchanges and support for foreign post-graduate students, including permitting these non-local students to stay up to a year post-graduation to seek and secure jobs. The qualitative features of the 21st century post-secondary system are, consequently, very different from what they were in the 20th century. The effects of mixing mainland and local students in university classes (along with foreign exchange students) in significant numbers have been large and beneficial.

The changes in the 1980s through 2012 built on the reforms of the 1970s in which girls were, for the first time, mandated to go to school equally with boys. The first year in which all girls had access to equal education with boys was 1978. Since government support for higher education continued restrained until the latter half of the 1980s and university education locally available was expensive, boys tended to be favored by families for post-secondary education. This situation began to shift through the 1990s. Subsequently, as can be seen, the educational attainment of the various age groups over the time cohorts varies greatly. Figure 8 shows that only in the last few years and for the first time more than half of young adults 18-29 have university or higher education. Virtually all in this age group now attend school up to secondary graduate level (barely half a percent report education below secondary graduate level). The proportion of this age group attaining post-secondary education nearly doubled between 1994-2010 (the 2010 cohort average was 1.77 times the 1994-2000 cohort average).

Figure 8: Percent of cohort by age group (18-29)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
None	0.3	0.2	0.05
Up to primary 6	1	0.9	0.5
Up to secondary graduate	66.8	57.5	43
Up to university graduate	30.8	39.3	52.3
Post-graduate	1.1	2.1	4.2
Total	44.2	35.2	20.6

N= 9488 p= <.0001



Figures 9 and 10 show the effects of rapid expansion in the 1990s. Prior to 2000, about 15 percent of those in their early career age 30s had post-secondary qualifications. By the end of the first decade of the $21^{\rm st}$ century, over half did. Those in their 40s in the 2006-2010 cohort register half the level of post-secondary education as among those in their 30s in the same cohort.

Figure 9: Percent of cohort by age group (30-39)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
None	1	0.9	0.4
Up to primary 6	7.5	3.2	1.1
Up to secondary graduate	65.9	58.9	44.4
Jp to university graduate	23.7	32.8	44.6
Post-graduate	1.9	4.2	9.6
Total	43	39.2	17.8

N= 8888 p= <.0001

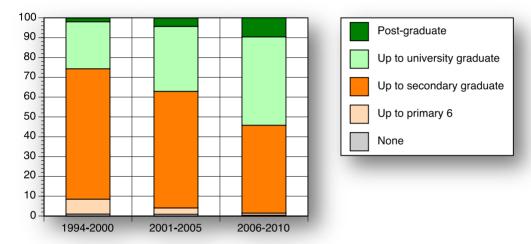
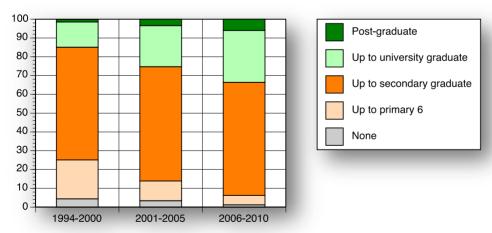


Figure 10: Percent of cohort by age group (40-49)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
None	4.4	3.4	1.2
Up to primary 6	20.7	10.5	5
Up to secondary graduate	60	60.8	60.2
Up to university graduate	13.4	21.9	27.6
Post-graduate	1.4	3.4	6
Total	32.1	42.3	25.6

N= 10426 p= <.0001



Among those in their 50s and 60s, little change took place in the first decade of the 21^{st} century among the proportion of university and above graduates. Considerable change took place for primary and secondary education, with those with no education almost gone for those under 60 by 2006-2010. This shows the effects of the 1970s reforms.

Figure 11: Percent of cohort by age group (50-59)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
None	10.3	7.1	2.4
Up to primary 6	25	18.3	14.7
Up to secondary graduate	49.5	54.8	58.5
Up to university graduate	13.7	17.4	21.3
Post-graduate	1.5	2.3	3.1
Total	23.6	38	38

N= 5799 p= <.0001

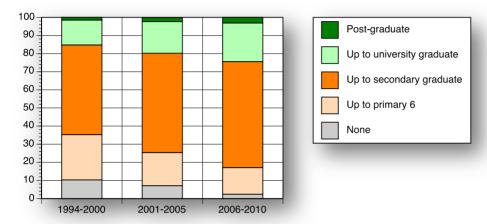
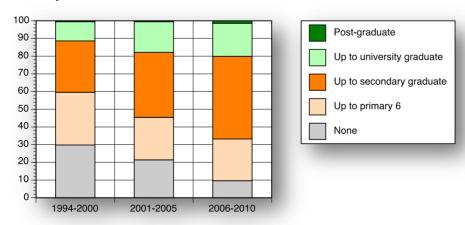


Figure 12: Percent of cohort by age group (60+)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
None	29.8	21.4	9.6
Up to primary 6	29.8	24	23.6
Up to secondary graduate	29	36.7	46.7
Up to university graduate	10.9	17.4	18.7
Post-graduate	0.4	0.5	1.4
Total	29.5	35.7	34.8

N= 5028 p= <.0001



1.4 Regression analysis of education, birthplace, age group and gender

In order to determine whether there is a significant difference between the changes in education amongst men and women over the time periods, we performed a regression analysis on the factors included in this section, to wit: gender, education, birthplace, age and cohort (time). A regression model holds all but one variable fixed, then tests differences when one "dependent variable" (such as gender) is affected by a change in one "independent variable" (such as birthplace). Changes in the average value of the dependent variable give an indicator of the strength of the effect, if any, associated to changes in that independent variable. This creates an "all things being equal" measure. So, for example, regression analysis shows that increases in the levels of education occurred faster for men than women, particularly for post-graduate studies, but only by a small degree and only when compared to 1994-2000. And there is no significant difference between mainland born women and Hong Kong born women in terms of their movement into post-graduate studies (both groups of women advanced at the same pace into post-graduate education, but both did so at a rate slightly less than that of men in general over the whole time period, 1991-2011).

After testing all variables against each other, the following set of relationships showed some degree of significant association and thus merited additional regression analysis.

Regression Table 1: Final model for educational regression

Type 3 Analysis of Effects

Effect	DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
birthplace	8	73.8300	< .0001
cohort	8	27.6110	0.0006
gender	4	3.7385	0.4426
agegp	16	114.0858	< .0001
cohort*gender	8	17.6679	0.0239
cohort*agegp	32	161.9175	< .0001
cohort*birthplace	16	52.9924	< .0001
gender*agegp	16	188.7800	< .0001
birthplace*agegp	32	158.6270	<.0001

Since the relationship between cohort (1994-2000 cohort 1, 2001-2005 cohort 2, 2006-2010 cohort 3) and gender is significant (0.0239 chance of random association), this was tested further. Regression Table 2 shows that only between time cohort 1 and cohort 3 (not cohort 2 and 3) is there a significant difference. This means during the first decade of the $21^{\rm st}$ century, changes in gender differences in terms of educational levels narrowed to the point of insignificance. Changes between the last 5 years of that first decade of the $21^{\rm st}$ century and the last decade of the $20^{\rm th}$ century (1994-2000) show than men tended to increase their education levels more than females.

Regression Table 2: Time contrast regression

Contrast Test Results

Contrast	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Male vs Female, cohort 1 vs cohort 2	4	4.3444	0.3614
Male vs Female, cohort 2 vs cohort 3	4	3.9352	0.4148
Male vs Female, cohort 1 vs cohort 3	4	8.7942	0.0665

Regression Table 3 shows this in detail. This regression tests educational levels in 1994-2000 against those in 2006-2010 by gender. While there is no significant difference between men

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and women at the primary level, and extremely weak significance at the secondary level; there is significant association at the post-secondary education level, particularly university undergraduate level (chi-square equals less than 0.007). University education saw the most expansion over the period, and the university education level of men by the end of the first decade of the 21st century had a greater rise than among women from the base period of the final decade of the 20th century. So men gained relatively more from the expansion of university education (and somewhat less from the expansion of post-graduate education though still more than women). Overall, however, men and women both gained considerably in average levels of education—with men gaining a bit more than women.

Regression Table 3: Education versus gender, 1996-2000 compared to 2006-2010

Row	Estimate	Standard Error	Alpha	Confidence	e Limits	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
1	1.0301	0.5423	0.05	0.3671	2.8904	0.0032	0.9550
2	1.3415	0.3909	0.05	0.7578	2.3747	1.0163	0.3134
3	1.5766	0.2663	0.05	1.1322	2.1953	7.2638	0.0070
4	1.4578	0.2472	0.05	1.0456	2.0327	4.9401	0.0262

^{*}Note: 1=primary level, 2=secondary level, 3=undergraduate level, 4=postgraduate level. The reference group is less than primary education (0). That is, how much has each level changed against the reference group level in time cohort one versus that in cohort 3.

However, did women born in Hong Kong gain in educational levels while women born on Mainland China did not, or at a lower rate? At first, regression analysis shows that gender, birthplace and time cohort interaction is not significant, that is, these factors are not related to changes in education levels overall (sample averages for each factor). However, further testing shows that there is a significant gain for Mainland born women versus Hong Kong born women between time cohort 1 (1994-2000) and time cohort 2 (2001-2005) at the lower levels of educational attainment, particularly primary and secondary education. Regression Table 4 addresses this issue. It shows no relationship between females and birthplace at the post-graduate level, but at lower levels of education, particularly secondary school (chi-square <.0001), birthplace made a huge difference and that difference was most pronounced for mainland born women.

Regression Table 4: Hong Kong versus Mainland born females, 1996-2000 compared to 2001-2005

Contrast	Test	Resul	lts
----------	------	-------	-----

	Contrast	ŧ				DF C	Wald hi-Square		ıiSq
	HK vs Ma	ainland l	Female, Co	hort1 vs Co	ohort2	4	136.948	3 <.0	001
C	ontrast	Estimati	on and Tes	ting Resul	ts by Ro	w			
				Standard				Wald	
	Туре	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confidence	Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
•	EXP	1	0.1329	0.0730	0.05	0.0453	0.3902	13.4886	0.0002
	EXP	2	0.1878	0.0670	0.05	0.0933	0.3781	21.9463	< .0001
2	EXP	3	0.5877	0.1562	0.05	0.3491	0.9893	4.0018	0.0455
1	EXP	4	1.3096	0.3554	0.05	0.7694	2.2290	0.9879	0.3203

^{*}Note: 1=primary level, 2=secondary level, 3=undergraduate level, 4=postgraduate level. The reference group is less than primary education (0). That is, how much has each level changed against the reference group level in time cohort one versus that in cohort 2.

Regression Table 5 tests time cohort 2 against time cohort 3 and shows that by the second half of decade, the difference at university level between mainland born women and Hong Kong born women is gone. Only at secondary and primary level is it significant, and the significance level has dropped. This means that mainland born women very quickly caught up to their Hong Kong born sisters over the first decade of the 21st century, particularly at university and post-

graduate level. This shows the effects of the slowdown in mainland born wives moving to Hong Kong after 1997, and it shows the effects of permitting university and post-graduate students from the mainland (and born there) to find jobs and stay in Hong Kong.

Regression Table 5: Hong Kong versus Mainland born females, 1996-2000 compared to 2006-2010

Contrast Test Results

	Contras	t				DF	Chi	Wald -Square	Pr > ChiSq
	HK vs M	ainland	Female, (Cohort2 vs	s Cohort	3 4		47.8920	<.0001
-	Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row								
				Standard				Wald	
	Туре	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confidence	Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
.3	EXP	1	0.2953	0.1833	0.05	0.0875	0.9968	3.8620	0.0494
.3	EXP	2	0.3169	0.1402	0.05	0.1331	0.7543	6.7447	0.0094
.3	EXP	3	0.9719	0.3508	0.05	0.4790	1.9719	0.0062	0.9370
38	EXP	4	1.6338	0.6030	0.05	0.7926	3.3677	1.7693	0.1835

*Note: 1=primary level, 2=secondary level, 3=undergraduate level, 4=postgraduate level. The reference group is less than primary education (0). That is, how much has each level changed against the reference group level in time cohort 2 versus that in cohort 3.

Regression Table 6 tests changes in Hong Kong compared to Mainland born female education levels by age group, from time cohort 1 (1996-2000) against time cohort 2 (2001-2005). Among the youngest age group, there was little difference between the time cohorts. That is, younger women in the late 1990s and similar aged women in the first decade of the 21st century born in either place showed about the same levels of education. This shows integration of mainland born girls into the Hong Kong educational system at young ages after 1997 proceeded smoothly, with mainland born girls performing about the same as Hong Kong born girls in going through the educational system. By time they were in their late teens and twenties during the first decade of the 21st century, they were caught up with Hong Kong born girls. In older groups, the effects of greater opportunity for higher education on both sides of the border for women begin to show. The significance level of 0.0365 among 30-39 year olds (Age Group 2) is particularly affected by how women in their 30s by 2001-2005 had gained university access over women in their 30s during the 1990s. The Hong Kong born "30 something" women in the 1990s only began to gain enhanced access to university in the late 1980s and early 1990s. In contrast, that same age in 2001-2005 had seen many Mainland born women come to Hong Kong for university and post-graduate study, and staying on, while their younger mainland born sisters who had come to Hong Kong with their mothers after 1997 took full advantage of educational opportunities. Subsequently, 30 something mainland born women in 2001-2005 were significantly better educated than their 30 something counterparts in the 1990s. Age groups up to age 59 show similar patterns—that is, an improvement for mainland born women educational levels in contrast to their earlier educational levels compared to Hong Kong born women. This may be due to an influx of better educated professional women born on the mainland and now permitted to come to Hong Kong to work in some of the locally based mainland firms and in the Hong Kong universities. Among the oldest, post-60s groups, the difference in educational levels between Hong Kong born and mainland born women changed as well, but not by enough to achieve a significant (less than 0.09) level. This supports the supposition that older, better educated mainland born women began to arrive in Hong Kong post-1997, for it is the age 40s and 50s groups that show gains by mainland born women in contrast to the same aged women in the late 1990s. Comparison within the first decade of the 21st century (time cohort 2 to time cohort 3, or 2001-2010) shows no significant differences in educational levels between Hong Kong born women and mainland born women.

Regression Table 6: Hong Kong versus Mainland born females, by age groups 1996-2000 (cohort 1) compared to 2001-2005 (cohort 2)

(cohort 1) compared to 2001-2005 (cohort 2)						
Contrast test Age Group 1 (18-29 year olds)						
Contrast Test Res	ults					
Contrast	DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq			
Mainland Female, agegp1, Cohort1 vs Cohort2	4	5.8408	0.2114			
*No significance						
Contrast test Age Group 2 (30-39 year olds)						
Contrast Test Res	ults					
Contrast	DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr → ChiSq			
Mainland Female, agegp2, Cohort1 vs Cohort2	4	10.2462	0.0365			
Contrast test Age Group 3 (40-49 year olds)						
Contrast Test Res	ults					
Contrast	DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq			
Mainland Female, agegp3, Cohort1 vs Cohort2	4	9.0762	0.0592			
Contrast test Age Group 4 (50-59 year olds) Contrast Test Res	sults					
Contrast	DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq			
Mainland Female, agegp4, Cohort1 vs Cohort2	4	9.3888	0.0521			
Contrast test Age Group 5 (60+ year olds)						
Contrast Test Res	ults					
Contrast	DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq			
Mainland Female, agegp5, Cohort1 vs Cohort2	4	7.0022	0.1358			

Part 2: Experience living abroad by gender and birthplace across time

2.1 Experience living abroad by gender

Anecdotal evidence has long persisted that Hong Kong employers prefer hiring those who have lived or been educated overseas. Thus comparing time cohorts and gender differences in terms of experience living abroad addresses another, less visible form of advantage men may have had over women in terms of where they got their education, and in experience terms that may have influenced their occupational choices and advances (see next part for analysis of occupation).

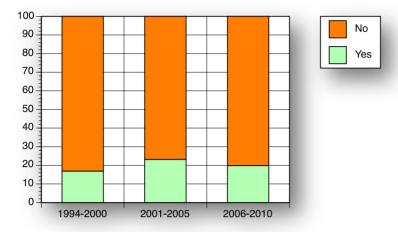
Figure 1 shows a large increase in experience living abroad for at least a year between the late 1990s and the first decade of the 21st century. The proportion with such experience moved from 16.9 percent to 23.2 percent, an increase of 6.3 percentage points of the population or over 400,000 people added to the 1,183,000 who said they had lived abroad at least a year in the late 1990s. Thus in the early years of the 21st century Hong Kong likely had around 1.6 million people with overseas experience and/or right of abode abroad. The figure dropped just under half that initial gain in the second half of the first decade, to 19.9 percent or about 1,393,000.6

⁶ This is not at all an implausible number of residents with experience abroad. In 2011 The Canadians Abroad

Figure 1: Percent of cohort, experience abroad

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	16.9	23.2	19.9
No	83.1	76.8	80.1
Total	35.8	38.6	25.6

N=40,617 p= <.0001



Figures 2 and 3 present the results by gender, while the Figure 4 shows these results comparatively. Across all periods men had more experience living abroad than women. In the 1990s men had a 3.5 percentage point advantage over women. In 2001-2005, while both men and women saw a steep rise in those having overseas experience, women had closed the gap to 2.7 percentage points in favor of men. But in 2006-2010 men reopened the gap to the widest yet, with men having 3.8 percentage points advantage over women in having experience living abroad.

Figure 2: Percent of cohort, experience abroad (males)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	18.6	24.6	21.8
No	81.4	75.4	78.2
Total	37.2	37.9	24.9

N=20.478 p = < .0001

Figure 3: Percent of cohort, experience abroad (females)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	15.1	21.9	18
No	84.9	78.1	82
Total	34.3	39.4	26.3

N= 20,139 p= <.0001

Project sponsored a survey which found Hong Kong may have as many as half a million Canadian citizens living in the city. "This survey identifies that 7.85 percent of households in Hong Kong have at least one Canadian citizen over the age of 18. Given the total of 2,341,500 domestic households in Hong Kong as of mid-2010, local households with one or more Canadian citizens are estimated at 183,808. Considering 61 percent of surveyed households reported at least another member in the household having Canadian citizenship, a conservative estimate of total Canadian citizens in Hong Kong is 295,930.6 This is equivalent to the population of Windsor, ON, the 16th largest city in Canada according to the 2006 Canadian census. If we assume that all family members of the 61 percent of households are Canadian citizens, we arrive at a high end estimate of 542,601 Canadian citizens." See Kenny Zhang and Michael E. DeGolyer, *Hong Kong: Canada's Largest City in Asia* (Asia Pacific Foundation of Canada) February 2011, p. 7.

Males **Females** 100 No 90 80 Yes 70 60 50 40 30 20 10 0 994-2000 2001-2005 2006-2010 2006-2010 994-2000 2001-2005

Figure 4: Comparative experience abroad by gender

Several factors drove this expansion of the proportion of the population with experience living abroad. Prior to 1997, and from 1982 when the talks about returning Hong Kong to Mainland China began, about half a million Hong Kong people emigrated.

2.2 Experience living abroad by birthplace

As Figure 5 shows, part of the steep rise after 2000 must have largely consisted of these emigrants and others who spent time abroad in the run up to the handover, returning to Hong Kong post-handover. The sudden rise of such living abroad experience 2001-2005 in contrast to that during the late 1990s did not come from a trend increase, since in the 2006-2010 period the proportion actually fell slightly from the earlier time cohort. In other words, this was a discrete leap which had to be event related and not developmentally related to some general pattern of growing experience abroad.

Figure 5: Percent of cohort, experience abroad by birthplace (Hong Kong)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	12.7	17.1	16.5
No	87.3	82.9	83.5
Total	34.2	39.7	26

N=28,882 p= <.0001

But as Figure 6 shows, there were also even greater rises in the proportion of those born on Mainland China and of those born elsewhere who had experience living abroad. Some of this no doubt represents the influx of mainland Chinese born professionals coming to Hong Kong. China had been sending hundreds of thousands abroad for education throughout the 1990s. These professionals returned to China, but clearly many chose to do so via Hong Kong. Though the economic difficulties and social unrest Hong Kong experienced 2003-2005 may account for the drop in such overseas experienced mainlanders in the 2006-2010 period.

Figure 6: Percent of cohort, experience abroad by birthplace (Mainland China)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	23.1	36.9	24.8
No	76.9	63.1	75.2
Total	40.3	35.3	24.4

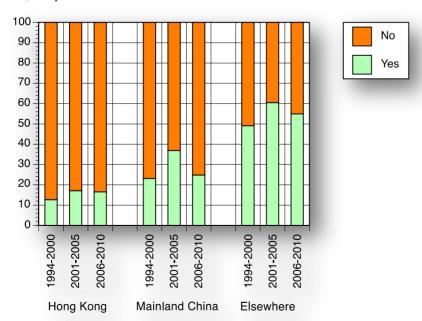
N=10,315 p= <.0001

The rise of experience abroad among those born elsewhere may and likely does represent the coming to Hong Kong of emigrant children who may have been born abroad but who came to Hong Kong to rediscover their roots or stay with relatives or attend university. The subsidized and high quality university education available to such children of emigrants, and the advantages it confers by giving them familiarity with Chinese language and culture are strong attractants. The increase also included Taiwanese, other overseas Chinese, and even many Western born entrepreneurs coming to Hong Kong post-handover in response to Hong Kong retaining its essential freedoms and opportunities under Chinese sovereignty. Many of those born elsewhere do not report experience living abroad more than a year. These respondents most likely came to Hong Kong as babies or very young children, and did not remember having lived abroad. The significant proportion of these responses among those born elsewhere likely indicates that the widespread reports of many Hong Kong mothers having children overseas in the run-up to 1997 (so that they could be born with foreign citizenship, just in case it was needed for refuge in the case that Hong Kong lost its freedoms and opportunities) had some foundation in fact. It must be borne in mind that the proportion who were born outside Hong Kong or Mainland China is quite small, only 3.5 percent of the 40,617 surveyed 1994-2010. Thus only one percent or so of the population had such backgrounds, but this would also help account for the high proportion reporting citizenship abroad.

Figure 7: Percent of cohort, comparative experience abroad by birthplace

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	49.1	60.5	54.9
No	50.9	39.5	45.1
Total	34.9	39.2	25.9

N=1,420 p= <.0001



2.3 Regression analysis of living abroad by birthplace & gender

Gender is retained in the final regression model despite its high chi-square value due to its significant association with birthplace, and birthplace has a significant association with living abroad.

Regression Table 1: Final model for living abroad regression

Type 3 Analysis of Effects

Effect	DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
birthplace	2	495.6530	<.0001
cohort	2	13.8537	0.0010
gender	1	1.1965	0.2740
cohort*birthplace	4	62.6862	<.0001
gender*birthplace		34.5347	<.0001

Logistic regression testing shows that while Hong Kong born males have more experience living abroad than Hong Kong born females, there is no such experience abroad gap among those born on Mainland China. Men and women are equally likely to have had experience living abroad for a year or more. This pattern appears to vary insignificantly across time cohorts for all groups.

Part 3: Occupation by gender and birthplace across time

3.1 Occupation by gender

The rapid aging of Hong Kong's population as recorded once a decade by the census becomes clearly apparent in the smaller timeframes of the Hong Kong Transition Project surveys. Significant differences among the proportion of retirees is happening on a rapid, and increasingly rapid, pace, as Figure 1 makes very clear. The inclusion of aging females among the category housewives masks a proportion of this change since the category of "housewife" does not include a provision of "retired housewife." And while the retiree category among males rose by a full 10 percentage points, among women it rose only 7.3 percentage points, despite women having longer lives and thus proportionately, retirees among women should be larger than among men while the opposite is the case. But this also underlines the difference in how retirement and retirees need to be addressed in policy terms. Male retirees have different concepts of themselves than females of the same age, but who still regard themselves as housewives. Less than three tenths of one percent of men are "househusbands" (see Figure 2).

Figure 1: Percent of cohort, by occupation

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Professionals & Managers	23.4	23.9	25.3
Clerks, Service & blue collar	35	29.9	27.9
Housewives	13.6	13.3	13
Retirees	7.1	10.1	15.7
Unemployed	4.6	5.7	3.4
Students	9.5	8.5	9
Educators	2.3	3.3	3.9
Other/unclassified	4.5	5.4	2
Total Percentage	36.7	38.2	25.1

N=40,612 p= <.0001

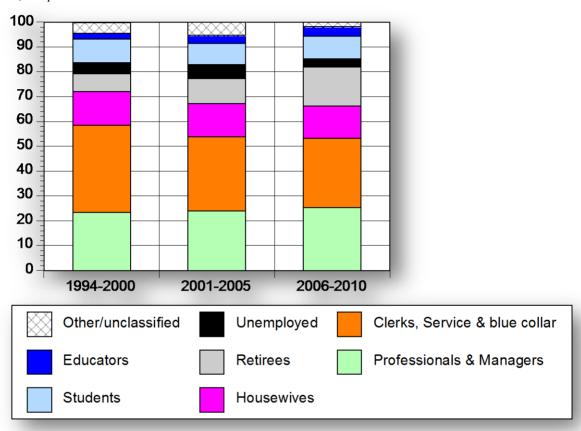


Figure 1 also shows that the 1998-2003 period affected by the Asia Currency Crisis had a strong impact on employment. Part 4, dealing with income, shows this period that included 60 straight months of deflation and which also included an 11 percent cut in CSSA under then Financial Secretary Henry Tang, left deep economic scars on many categorized as unemployed, retirees, and housewives. This proportion of the population who had less ability to respond to adverse economic currents due to fixed incomes, lower education levels and older age was growing rapidly between 1994 and 2010. This no doubt had an effect on public opinion: by 2011-2012 the "wealth gap" was one of the single largest categories of issues of greatest personal concern to respondents to the Hong Kong Transition Project surveys of those years. Figure 1 also shows the shift from clerk, service and blue collar jobs toward the professions and managers, and particularly illustrates the effect of the expansion of educational opportunity,

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 $^{^7}$ See the 2011 and 2012 survey reports at http://www.hktp.org and follow contents page links to "issues of greatest personal concern."

with educators rising from 2.3 percent of the sample in 1994-2000 to 3.9 percent in 2006-2010. But Figure 1 also shows many of the usually less educated and older people working service and blue collar jobs clearly took retirement.⁸

Figure 2: Percent of cohort, occupation by gender (males)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010	Average
Professionals & Managers	29.1	31.1	33.1	30.8
Clerks, Service & blue collar	40.8	33.9	30.3	35.7
Housewives	0.41	0.26	0.2	0.3
Retirees	8.2	11.5	18.2	11.9
Unemployed	4.5	5.6	3.4	4.7
Students	9.3	8.6	9.3	9
Educators	2.1	2.2	2.9	2.3
Other/unclassified	5.7	7	2.1	5.3
Total Percentage	38.3	37.4	24.3	100

N=20,474 p= <.0001

seen in the US.

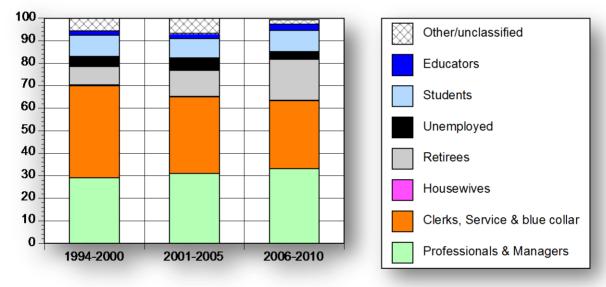


Figure 3 shows that the transition among males toward professionals and managers (rising from 29.1 percent in 1994-2000 to 33.1 percent in 2006-2010) did not take place among females. While men increased their proportion amongst the highest paid and most influential occupational group of professionals and managers by 4 percentage points, women added only 0.8 tenths of 1 point in that category. Men added 0.8 tenths to their category of Educators, while women added 2.2 points, nearly doubling the proportion of women holding jobs as educators. However educators, particularly at the primary and secondary school level, have little influence in Hong Kong's skewed "representative" system, especially compared to accountants, lawyers and other professionals and business people. The proportion classified as students stayed roughly the same among men but fell among women, confirming the evidence above that men

⁸ The same effect of a bluecollar and service sector workforce shrinking from age and education related factors during a long, sharp recession, and such persons taking retirement in large numbers, may now be

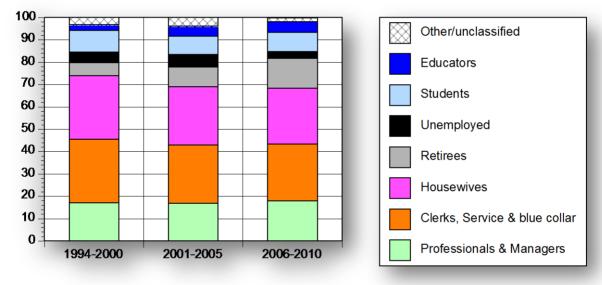
⁹ For example, on the 2012 Chief Executive Election Committee of 1,200 members, over 80,000 teachers and university staff had 60 representatives, the same number as the, perhaps not incidentally, male dominated Agriculture and Fisheries sector which represents barely 1 percent of Hong Kong's economy and even less of its workforce.

widened the gap in terms of educational level over the time cohorts. Men moved out of the blue collar and service sector, dropping about a fourth over the period—10.5 percentage points down by 2006-2010 from 40.8 percent in 1996-2000. Women in the same category dropped just 3 percentage points in the same timeframe, from 28.5 percent to 25.5 percent, a shift less than a third the size of that of men. Despite women's improvement in education over the time cohorts (see above), they failed to gain as much as men in key occupations of influence and prosperity.

Figure 3: Percent of cohort, occupation by gender (females)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010	Average
Professionals & Managers	17.1	16.9	17.9	17.3
Clerks, Service & blue collar	28.5	26	25.5	26.8
Housewives	28.3	26.1	25.1	26.6
Retirees	5.9	8.8	13.2	8.9
Unemployed	4.7	5.6	3	4.6
Students	9.7	8.3	8.6	8.9
Educators	2.6	4.4	4.8	3.9
Other/unclassified	3.2	3.9	1.8	3.1
Total Percentage	35	39.1	25.9	100

N=20,138 p=<.0001



The comparative chart below (Figure 4) shows clearly the relatively stronger move by women into the educator related occupations. Minor gains can also be seen in the professionals and mangers category for women, but men began at a far higher level (29.1 percent) and rose from that level. One third of men now hold professional or managerial posts; not even one in five women say the same and the proportion in those fields has barely budged over the time cohorts. And, as the next section shows, analysis by birthplace shows even greater disparities in occupational changes between those born in Hong Kong, on the mainland and elsewhere.

However, as the regression tests by gender showed (see below in regression section), while men and women were equally likely to be unemployed in the late 1990s, by the end of the first decade of the $21^{\rm st}$ century (2006-2010) men were significantly more likely than women to be unemployed. The likelihood of males suffering more unemployment than females grew over the decade compared to the late 1990s period. In this sense, while the gap between men and women opened up in the better paid, more influential categories of professionals and managers,

the gap between men at the bottom of the pile (unemployed men) and men at the top also widened. This is another datum point in explaining the rise in concern over the wealth gap, and particularly the rise in activism and protest among younger, less educated males. They apparently have less opportunity for blue collar and service jobs, better educated women outcompete them for those service and blue collar jobs, and they see men in the professions and management significantly bettering their lives, incomes and influence in society.

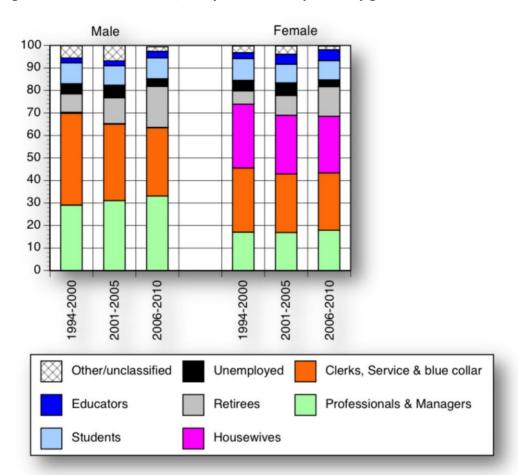


Figure 4: Percent of cohort, comparative occupation by gender

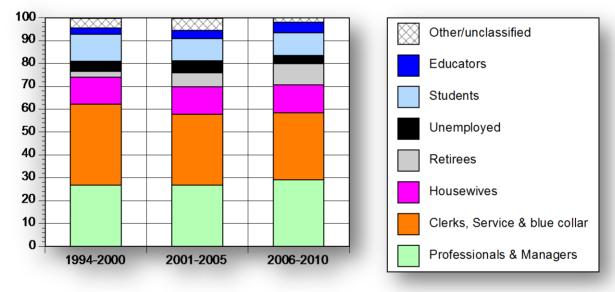
3.2 Occupation by birthplace

Figure 5 shows that those born in Hong Kong have moved out of clerical, service and blue collar jobs toward professional and managers and educator careers over the period. Among those born in Hong Kong, the proportion going to university or post graduate school drops from the late 1990s level in the new century, while retirees nearly quadruple in proportion.

Figure 5: Percent of cohort, occupation by birthplace (Hong Kong)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010	Average
Professionals & Managers	26.9	26.9	29.1	27.4
Clerks, Service & blue collar	35.4	30.9	29.4	32.1
Housewives	11.7	12	12.1	11.9
Retirees	2.6	6.1	9.4	5.7
Unemployed	4.3	5.2	3.5	4.4
Students	11.9	9.7	9.9	10.5
Educators	2.7	3.7	4.7	3.6
Other/unclassified	4.5	5.5	2.1	4.3
Total Percentage	35.1	39.4	25.5	100

N=28,834 p= <.0001

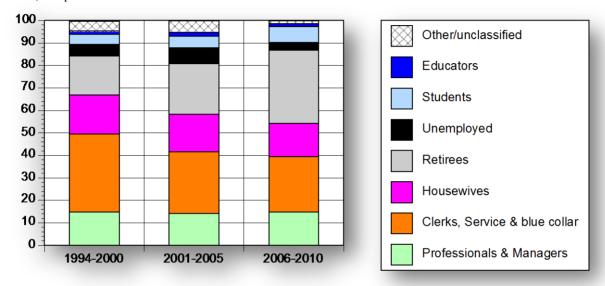


Among those born in mainland China, the primary change across the time cohorts are in retirees and service workers, with retirees nearly doubling in proportion while service workers drop nearly a third from the late 1990s to the end of the first decade. Students rise significantly.

Figure 6: Percent of cohort, occupation by birthplace (Mainland China)

<u> </u>				•
	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010	Average
Professionals & Managers	14.8	14.1	14.7	14.5
Clerks, Service & blue collar	34.7	27.6	24.8	29.9
Housewives	17.3	16.7	14.7	16.5
Retirees	17.4	22.3	32.6	22.8
Unemployed	5.1	7.1	3.5	5.4
Students	4.5	5.3	6.9	5.4
Educators	1.5	1.7	1.4	1.5
Other/unclassified	4.6	5.3	1.4	4.1
Total Percentage	41.2	34.9	24	100

N=10,354 p= <.0001

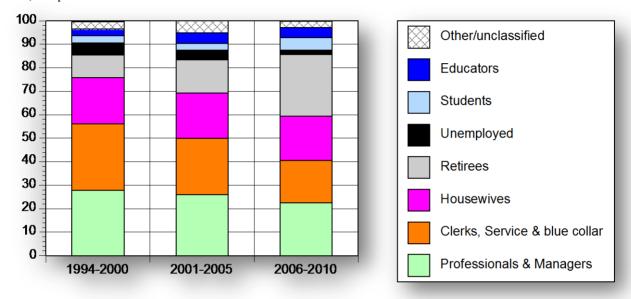


Those born elsewhere than Hong Kong or Mainland China also show significant rises in retirees and drops in service and blue collar workers. However, those born elsewhere also lost jobs in the professions and management, while the proportion going to university or post-graduate studies rose, particularly from the first five years of the $21^{\rm st}$ century to the last five years of that same first decade.

Figure 7: Percent of cohort, occupation by birthplace (elsewhere)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010	Average
Professionals & Managers	27.9	25.9	22.4	25.7
Clerks, Service & blue collar	28.3	24	18.2	24.1
Housewives	19.7	19.4	18.8	19.3
Retirees	9.6	14.1	26.2	15.6
Unemployed	5.1	4.2	1.9	3.9
Students	3.1	2.7	5.3	3.5
Educators	2.8	4.7	4.4	3.9
Other/unclassified	3.5	5.1	2.8	3.9
Total Percentage	35.7	38.8	25.4	100

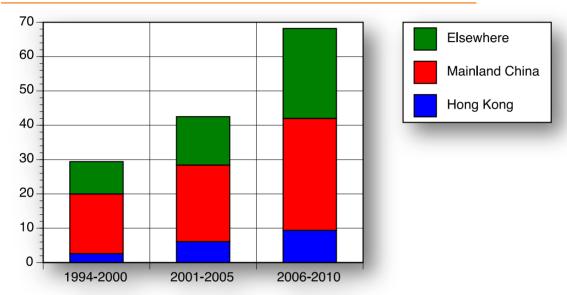
N=1.424 p = <.0001



The comparative chart below (Figure 10), and the regression analysis following reveal very significant differences in occupation by birthplace among those in the Hong Kong Transition Project surveys. The analysis of the family income data in Part 4 below further buttresses some of the conclusions here, which are both troubling and enlightening. For example, the occupation by birthplace charts above show that retirees among those born in Hong Kong increased the most proportionately over the time cohorts, from just 2.6 percent in the 1990s to 9.4 percent by the end of the first decade. However, the overall proportions among the three categories of birthplace show great differences. While by the end of the first decade about 1 in 10 of those born in Hong Kong were retired, among those born in Mainland China retirees made up about a third and among those born elsewhere, over one in four. This means retirees are much more common among those born on the mainland and elsewhere than among those born in Hong Kong. Figure 8 and the chart show these relative proportions as they change over time. Caution, the chart would sum to 300% if everyone was a retiree since it adds the proportions of each cohort who are retirees according to their birthplace (Hong Kong, Mainland China and Elsewhere). The point is to show the relatively larger likelihood that encounters between those born in Hong Kong, who are considerably less likely to be retired themselves, with those born in Mainland China and elsewhere who are retired. This difference in the proportion of retirees among the different birthplaces could be one of the sources behind some of the resentments of "locusts" from the mainland allegedly eating up Hong Kong's resources. The perception that mainlanders and outsiders are coming to Hong Kong to enjoy retirement support, low cost medical care and so on is exacerbated by the reality that so many who are retired were born in Mainland China and elsewhere. The data above and in the regression below that shows younger men (and dominantly Hong Kong born) increasing their likelihood of being unemployed, creates a group of people who, because they are without work, are also more likely to encounter and notice retirees (because they are also more out and about due to lack of regular work schedules).

Figure 8: Rise in retirees from 1994-2000 to 2006-2010

	Hong Kong	Mainland China	Elsewhere
1994-2000	2.6	17.4	9.4
2001-2005	6.1	22.3	14.1
2006-2010	9.4	32.6	26.2
% point increase,	6.8+	15.2+	16.6+
time cohort 1 to cohort 3			



Further buttressing this possibility that those born in Hong Kong have begun to notice a difference between the occupations of themselves and those born in Mainland China and elsewhere is a consideration of the proportions of those "non-economically engaged" in each birth group (retirees, unemployed, students and housewives). Figure 9 shows that the proportion is considerably larger among non-Hong Kong born, and that proportion has risen considerably more over the time cohorts. While the non-economically engaged portion of those born in Hong Kong has risen 4.4 percentage points over the time period, those born in Mainland China not economically engaged rose 13.4 percentage points, and from a late 1990s base already nearly 50 percent larger than among Hong Kong born persons. Those born elsewhere rocketed up 24.7 percentage points over the time period, nearly doubling the proportion of those born elsewhere who were non-economically engaged in the late 1990s. In the first decade of the 21st century, both those born in Mainland China and those born elsewhere show majorities not economically engaged.

Figure 9: Proportion of each group in non-economically employed sector (retirees, unemployed, housewives & students) over time cohorts

	Hong Kong	Mainland China	Elsewhere
1994-2000	30.5	44.3	27.5
2001-2005	33	51.4	40.4
2006-2010	34.9	57.7	52.2

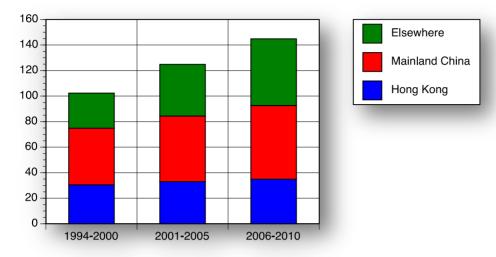
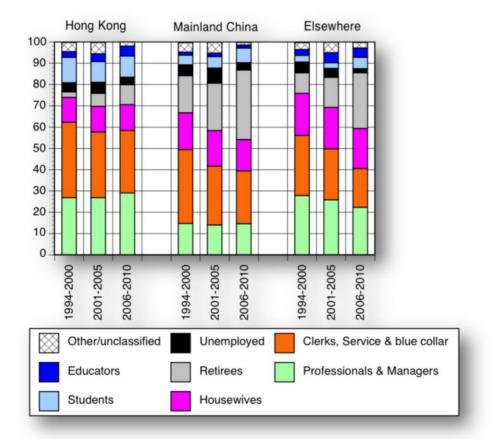


Figure 10: Percent of cohort, comparative occupation by birthplace



One would search in vain, however, among the Hong Kong Government census data to find information on the non-economically engaged population by birthplace. There are myriads of data on the workforce, on youth, and on birthplace, but there is no data table that takes the working population or the school age (under 18) population and breaks it down by birthplace or nationality (or language spoken). This data would of course assist in identifying disadvantaged or discriminated populations (and genders) in terms of workplace, occupation and education. This data would also assist tremendously in understanding attitudes among the Hong Kong born population toward other groups, particularly in terms of felt contribution to Hong Kong society. Such data would also assist the government to make arguments for ameliorative measures. For example, with a growing burden of young and old mainland born persons, pointing out that many of the mainland born of older age worked all their lives in Hong Kong might help lessen resentments. Pointing out that permitting more mainland tourists to visit Hong Kong and buy products here offsets some of the extra costs of the reunification of families post-1997, and that such costs now appear to be diminishing as those Mainland born Chinese students enter the workforce in larger numbers, and with education levels as good as or better than Hong Kong born students—would surely address with facts and figures the resentments clearly appearing in Hong Kong society today.

We attempt to provide some of the data not available from the Census and Statistics Department here. In Figure 11 are the figures for the relevant census takings 1991-2011, by birthplace.

Figure 11: Hong Kong population census, number by birthplace

	Total	Hong Kong	Mainland China	Elsewhere
1991	5,522,281	3,299,597	1,967,508	255,176
1996	6,217,556	3,749,332	2,096,511	371,713
2001	6,708,389	4,004,894	2,263,571	439,924
2006	6,864,346	4,138,844	2,298,956	426,546
2011	7,071,576	4,278,126	2,267,917	525,533

Source: Census and Statistics Dept.

We then take an average of the population below age 18 over the whole time period in order to set a rough base for applying the information gathered from the Hong Kong Transition Project data 1994-2010. In Figure 13, an average of 18 percent of all birthplace figures is assumed as under age 18. There is census data available by age group, and census data by birthplace as well as by years spent in Hong Kong, but there is no indicator of age groups by birthplace. So the 18 percent is an average of the portion of the population under 18 across the timeframe in question. In Figure 13 the figure of those born in the respective categories from Figure 11 is multiplied by 0.18 to find the population age 18 and above. Then, in each column by birth we calculate, based on Hong Kong Transition Project survey rate data found in Figure 9, the number of non-economically engaged persons. In order to compare with the 1991 census data above, we assume a rate of growth in the 1991-1993 period at half the rate found by survey in the 1994-2000 period and create a new line of extrapolated data for 1991-1993. This is to account for the acceleration of aging among all three populations. For estimation purposes, the rate among all three groups is assumed to be the same.

Figure 12: Non-economically employed, age 18 and up, Hong Kong Transition Project survey averages

	Hong Kong	Mainland China	Elsewhere
*1991-1993	29	40.8	21
1994-2000	30.5	44.3	27.5
2001-2005	33	51.4	40.4
2006-2010	34.9	57.7	52.2

^{*}Extrapolated at half the subsequent cohort rate of change

The result of these extrapolations and calculations are in Figure 17.

Figure 13: Non-working population by birthplace (number), estimate by author

	Total	Hong Kong below 18	Hong Kong	Mainland China below 18	Mainland China	Elsewhere below 18	Elsewhere
1991	5,522,281	593,927	784,644	354,151	658,250	45,932	43,941
1996	6,217,556	674,879	937,708	377,372	761,579	66,908	83,821
2001	6,708,389	720,881	1,083,724	407,443	954,050	79,186	145,739
2006	6,864,346	744,991	1,184,455	413,812	1,087,520	76,778	182,579
2011**	7,071,576	770,062	1,224,314	408,225	1,073,042	94,596	224,949

^{*}Average of 18 percent non-working youth under age 18 assumed in all birth categories (census data implies but does not state that Hong Kong born under age 18 fell below this average while those born in Mainland China and Elsewhere rose above this average post-1997.

Figure 13 shows why Hong Kong born persons could be growing resentful of a felt increasing burden from Mainland born and Elsewhere born persons, as there is clearly a growing weight of numbers who are non-economically engaged among those not born in Hong Kong. But to make this clearer and identify trends, we take the numbers under age 18, and the number of housewives, students 18 and over, unemployed and retirees, which appear in Figure 14, then combine those numbers and determine the percentage of those not born in Hong Kong who are not economically engaged versus those who were born in Hong Kong who are not-economically engaged (Figure 15).

Figure 14: Non-working population total all ages by birthplace

	Total	Hong Kong	Mainland China	Elsewhere
1991	5,522,281	1,378,571	1,012,401	89,873
1996	6,217,556	1,612,587	1,138,951	150,729
2001	6,708,389	1,804,605	1,361,493	224,925
2006	6,864,346	1,929,446	1,501,332	259,357
2011	7,071,576	1,994,376	1,481,267	319,545

In Figure 15, while the percentage of non-economically engaged persons no born in Hong Kong climbs from 79.9 percent (estimated) in 1991 to 91.3 percent by 2006, it appears that by 2011 the relative rate has started to decrease instead of increase. This is what would be expected if the many children born in Mainland China who came to Hong Kong after 1997 are now beginning to enter the workforce in significant numbers. While these are extrapolated and estimated figures, the Hong Kong Government could easily determine the actual figures by instructing the Census and Statistics Department to produce them. The drop in the "burden" of non-working, non-Hong Kong born persons might address, with facts, what are clearly felt perceptions.

Figure 15: Non-working population, Hong Kong born to non-Hong Kong born, number and percentage

	Total	Hong Kong born	Non-Hong Kong born	% Non-HK born to HK born
1991	5,522,281	1,378,571	1,102,274	79.9
1996	6,217,556	1,612,587	1,289,680	80
2001	6,708,389	1,804,605	1,586,418	87.9
2006	6,864,346	1,929,446	1,760,689	91.3
2011	7,071,576	1,994,376	1,800,812	90.3

^{**}Rate of 2006-2010 applied to both 2006 and 2011 census data

Based on this data, and other data available to the government, the government could be explaining that the "burden" of retirement is falling disproportionately on Hong Kong born people simply because most of those now retiring, born in Mainland China, are the refugees who came to Hong Kong in the 1950s to 1980s as youth and who helped build the Hong Kong of today. Clearly, they feel that Hong Kong is their home too, and, after all, they helped pay for it. Additionally, the government could argue that the "burden" of mainland born children was partially offset by CEPA (the Closer Economic Partnership Arrangement with Mainland China in which WTO rules are first applied to Hong Kong-Mainland trade, giving Hong Kong first mover advantages) and by increases in and relaxations of mainland tourist visas. Instead of characterizations that mainland "assistance" was humiliating to Hong Kong, it could easily be characterized as mainland assistance to help Hong Kong handle some of the costs of reunification, including reunification of families. Further, the data shows that the "burden" of mainland born children is beginning to reverse, just at the point that Hong Kong born people are themselves starting to age rapidly. Finally, the data shows that those born elsewhere also feel part of Hong Kong. This is no longer a borrowed place on borrowed time, in which everyone, local, mainlander and foreigner, are here to exploit the place, make a pile of money, and go somewhere else to spend it. With more retirees both mainland born and elsewhere born staying in Hong Kong, this has become more of an international community of all ages than a mere, and temporary, international opportunity for the young and ambitious. Finally, it puts paid to the arguments that Hong Kong post-1997 has become less "international" in the sense that those born elsewhere are staying on and truly integrating into the community. There is no need for the government to run from the data it clearly has on hand; there is every need for the government to analyze it and publish the results openly.

3.3 Regression analysis of occupation by birthplace & gender

While the relationship between time cohort and gender is not significantly associated, nor is gender and birthplace, there is significant association among cohort, gender and birthplace, thus the need for case by case contrast tests which follow.

Regression Table 1: Final model for occupation regression (professionals and managers)

Type 3 Analysis of Effects

DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
2	3.1034	0.2119
1	19.2785	<.0001
2	6.4478	0.0398
2	95.7450	<.0001
4	3.5498	0.4703
2	1.0291	0.5978
4	10.2148	0.0370
	2 1 2 2 4 2	DF Chi-Square 2 3.1034 1 19.2785 2 6.4478 2 95.7450 4 3.5498 2 1.0291

Regression Table 2 shows Hong Kong born men gained significantly more than Hong Kong born women in the professional and managerial occupational category between 1996-2000 and 2001-2005. The difference between 2001-2005 and 2006-2010, and 1996-2000 and 2006-2010 was not significant (though the differences between time cohort 1 and time cohort 3 are greater than with cohort 2 and 3).

Regression Table 2: Gender by time contrast (professionals and managers, Hong Kong born)

Contrast Test Results

Contr	ast					DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Male	vs Female,	Hong Kong, Hong Kong, Hong Kong,	cohort2	VS	cohort3	1 1 1	3.6738 0.0668 2.2335	0.0553 0.7961 0.1350
Row	Estimate	Standard Error	Alpha		Confidence	Limits	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
1 1 1	1.5430 0.9367 1.4453	0.3492 0.2372 0.3562	0.05 0.05 0.05		0.9903 0.5702 0.8916	2.4044 1.5386 2.3429	3.6738 0.0668 2.2335	0.0553 0.7961 0.1350

As with those born in Hong Kong, men born on the mainland made gains as professionals and managers over the gains for mainland born women between 1996-2000 and 2001-2005.

Regression Table 3: Gender by time contrast regression (professionals and managers, Mainland China born)

Contrast Test Results

Contr	ast				DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Male	vs Female, vs Female, vs Female,	Mainland,	cohort2 v	s cohort3	1 1 1	3.4855 1.0154 0.4510	0.0619 0.3136 0.5018
Row	Estimate	Standard Error	Alpha	Confidence	Limits	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
1 1 1	1.5547 0.7649 1.1892	0.3674 0.2034 0.3068	0.05 0.05 0.05	0.9783 0.4542 0.7172	2.4707 1.2882 1.9717	3.4855 1.0154 0.4510	0.0619 0.3136 0.5018

In Regression Table 4 birthplace and gender by changes over time among the professional and managerial occupation is tested. Females born on the mainland closed the gap with mainland born men somewhat better than females born in Hong Kong did with Hong Kong men between 2001-2005 and 2006-2010, and compared between 1996-2000 and 2006-2010. That is, mainland born women appear to be accelerating their gains vis-a-vis men in the later half of the first decade of the 21st century, in contrast to Hong Kong born women.

Regression Table 4: Gender by time contrast regression (professionals and managers, Mainland China born versus Hong Kong born)

Contrast Test Results

Cont	rast			DF	Chi-	Wald Square P	r > ChiSq
M vs	:F,HK vs	Mainland, Mainland, Mainland,	c2 vs	c3 1		0.0071 3.8712 3.8369	0.9329 0.0491 0.0501
Row	Estimate	Standard Error	Alpha	Confidence	Limits	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
1 1 1	0.9925 1.2246 1.2154	0.0885 0.1261 0.1210	0.05 0.05 0.05	0.8335 1.0008 0.9999	1.1820 1.4984 1.4774	0.0071 3.8712 3.8369	0.9329 0.0491 0.0501

Regression Table 5: Final model for occupation regression (clerks, service & blue collar)

Type 3 Analysis of Effects

Effect	DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
cohort	2	3.4109	0.1817
gender	1	9.2708	0.0023
cohort*gender	2	1.1254	0.5697
birthplace	2	51.5200	<.0001
cohort*birthplace	4	2.9838	0.5605
gender*birthplace	2	61.4923	<.0001
cohort*gender*birthp	4	11.6540	0.0201

Regression Table 6 shows no significant association between gender and the clerical and service sector over the time period among those born in Hong Kong. However, as Regression Table 7 shows, there is significant changes for those born on Mainland China.

Regression Table 6: Gender by time contrast regression (clerks, service and blue collar, Hong Kong born)

		_		
Lon	trast	lest	Hesu	ts

Conti	rast				DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Male	vs Female,	Hong Kong, Hong Kong, Hong Kong,	cohort2	vs cohort3	1 1 1	0.5560 0.9399 0.1169	0.4559 0.3323 0.7324
		Standard				Wald	
Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confidence	Limits	Chi-Square	$Pr \to ChiSq$

Between 1996-2000 and 2001-2005 mainland born women gained jobs in the sector compared to mainland born men, but in subsequent time cohorts, the gains were not changed from the initial gains in 1996-2000.

Regression Table 7: Gender by time contrast regression (clerks, service and blue collar, Mainland China born)

Contrast Test Results

C	ontr	rast				DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	
M	ale	vs Female,	Mainland,	cohort2	vs cohort2 vs cohort3 vs cohort3	1 1 1	3.0307 0.1836 1.0279	0.0817 0.6683 0.3107	
R	ow	Estimate	Standard Error	Alpha	Confidence	Limits	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	
	1 1 1	0.6932 1.1145 0.7726	0.1459 0.2819 0.1966	0.05 0.05 0.05	0.4589 0.6789 0.4691	1.0472 1.8296 1.2723	3.0307 0.1836 1.0279	0.0817 0.6683 0.3107	

Regression Table 8 shows a shift out of clerical and blue collar work by mainland born men versus Hong Kong born men across the time frame as a whole (though weaker within the first decade of the 21st century than between the century and between the 1996-2000 period and the 2006-2010 period). By the end of the time period (2010), compared to the beginning (1996),

mainland born men showed larger shifts out of clerical, service and blue collar work than Hong Kong born men managed to achieve.

Regression Table 8: Gender by time contrast regression (clerks, service and blue collar, Hong Kong born versus Mainland China born) Contrast Test Results

Con	itrast			DF	Chi	Wald -Square	Pr > ChiSq
ΜV	s F, HK v	s Mainland, s Mainland, s Mainland,	c2 vs	c3 1		7.9349 1.9549 15.2550	0.0048 0.1621 <.0001
Row	Estimate	Standard Error	Alpha	Confidence	Limits	Wald Chi-Square	
1 1 1	1.2388 1.1372 1.4088	0.0942 0.1046 0.1236	0.05 0.05 0.05	1.0673 0.9497 1.1862	1.4379 1.3618 1.6732		0.1621

Regression Table 9: Final model for occupation regression (housewives)

Type 3 Analysis of Effects

Effect	DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
cohort	2	0.2391	0.8873
gender	1	1409.0734	<.0001
birthplace	2	143.2480	<.0001
cohort*birthplace	4	12.9906	0.0113

Regression Table 10 shows that mainland born housewives decreased significantly between 1996-2000 and 2001-2005, and particularly so between 1996-2000 and 2006-2010, in comparison to Hong Kong born women. Mainland born women are no longer coming to Hong Kong merely to be wives. They are clearly, increasingly taking professional and managerial positions, and at a faster pace than Hong Kong women are achieving.

Regression Table 10: Time contrast regression by birthplace (housewives, females, Hong Kong born versus Mainland China born)

Contrast Test Results

Contrast					Wald DF Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
HK born vs Main	land born, fe	1 5.8668	0.0154			
HK born vs Main		1 1.6213	0.2029			
HK born vs Main		1 11.6876	0.0006			
Row Estimate	Standard Error	Alpha	Confidence	Limits	Wald Chi-Square Pi	r > ChiSq
1 1.2192	0.0997	0.05	1.0385	1.4312	5.8668	0.0154
1 1.1266	0.1055	0.05	0.9377	1.3535	1.6213	0.2029
1 1.3735	0.1275	0.05	1.1450	1.6476	11.6876	0.0006

Regression Table 11 tests gender variations across the time cohorts among the unemployed. It shows significant differences, which are further tested below.

Regression Table 11: Final model for occupation regression (unemployed)

Type 3 Analysis of Effects

Effect	DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
cohort	2	49.1042	<.0001
gender	1	0.3953	0.5295
Ďirthplace	2	19.6794	<.0001
cohort*gender	2	6.2700	0.0435

While men and women show no difference in their chances of being among the unemployed in 1996-2000, by 2001-2005 men were more likely to be unemployed than women, and that gap grew in 2006-2010.

Regression Table 12: Gender by time contrast regression (unemployed)

Contrast Test Results

Cont	trast				DF C	Wald hi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Mai	le vs female le vs female le vs female	, cohort	2 vs coho	ort 3	1 1 1	0.1354 4.7608 5.7193	0.7129 0.0291 0.0168
Row	Estimate	Standard Error	Alpha	Confidence	e Limits	Wald Chi-Square	
1 1 1	1.0395 1.3293 1.3817	0.1094 0.1734 0.1868	0.05 0.05 0.05	0.8458 1.0294 1.0601	1.2779 1.7169 1.8010	4.7608	0.0291

Regression Table 13: Final model for occupation regression (educator)

Type 3 Analysis of Effects

Effect	DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
cohort	2	43.6855	<.0001
gender	1	0.5176	0.4719
birthplace	2	72.0501	<.0001
cohort*gender	2	13.5557	0.0011
gender*birthplace	2	6.4323	0.0401

Since in the model gender, birthplace and cohort do not show significant association (that is, birthplace and gender relationship doesn't vary significantly across the time cohorts), Regression Table 14 tests gender over time, the only significant association. It shows that women moved into education as an occupation significantly more, particularly between 1996-2000 and 2001-2005, and in 2006-2010 compared to 1996-2000.

Regression Table 14: Gender by time contrast regression (educator)

Contrast Test Results

Contra	ıst				DF Chi	Wald i-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Male	vs female,	cohort 2	vs cohort vs cohort vs cohort	. 3	1 1 1	13.5190 2.1115 4.5303	0.0002 0.1462 0.0333
Row	Estimate	Standard Error	Alpha	Confide	nce Limits	Wa` Ch i -Squar	
1 1 1	0.5860 1.2327 0.7223	0.0852 0.1775 0.1104	0.05 0.05 0.05	0.4407 0.9296 0.5353	0.7791 1.6345 0.9746	2.11	15 0.1462

Part 4: Family income by gender, birthplace and age group across time

About one person in six surveyed by Hong Kong Transition Project (average of between 15-18 percent) still regards questions about family income as too sensitive to answer.¹⁰ The Hong Kong government census data may be more accurate in obtaining more complete information on incomes, but all societies have shadow sectors in their economy whose participants routinely hide their income from government knowledge. In the early 1990s, income-related questions caused about one in four to one in three to either hang up or refuse to answer Hong Kong Transition Project surveys. Given the political sensitivities of the pre and immediate post-1997 handover period, pushing for sensitive income-related data was felt to be too much to ask. But after sixty straight months of deflation following the 1997 Asian currency crisis (1998-2002) and in early 2003 the SARS outbreak that nearly brought Hong Kong to its knees economically, people became somewhat more willing in general to indicate in general terms their family income.¹¹ This same period saw a remarkable reversal in attitude toward big business and extreme wealth, and the rise of movements among disaffected youth. Concerns with the wealth gap and a perceptible hardening of social mobility also perhaps attributed to more willingness to disclose and even discuss income differentials. 12 Hence Hong Kong Transition Project added to its series in 2004, as a final question, one regarding family income. Since income is still a sensitive question to a significant proportion, even asking this question in terms of family income (not personal income) may not render results reliable for more than general comparisons. Hence this section focuses primarily on age and birthplace, and general findings over this more limited time range on overall variation of family fortunes.

4.1: Family income by birthplace

The data in 2004 showing about one in six with family incomes of \$100,000 or more is likely anomalous (all subsequent years show much lower levels of such incomes). The average of the two lowest groupings of incomes does appear to make up a larger proportion of those surveyed toward the end of the decade than in 2004, while both of the two highest income groupings appear lower in proportion in 2009 and 2010. Census data also shows an increase in proportion, or at best, a freeze in place for most lower and middle income groups. C. Y. Leung, Chief Executive in 2012-2017, made the wealth gap and lack of income improvement his major campaign theme. (See also chart of Figure 1 on the next page) The wealth gap, however, as Figure 2 shows, varies distinctly according to birthplace of those surveyed. While there appears large variations between some years in the two highest income groups (which also have smaller numbers of those surveyed than the lower income groups), overall trends and averages across all time periods appear to show increases in proportion of those in families earning less than \$10,000, and decreases in proportion of those in families earning \$70,000 per month and up. The income gap between the highest and lowest income groups may not only be widening, but also the proportions of the poorest may be growing while that of the richest may be shrinking. This of course could have strong effect on sentiments about the fairness of, and opportunity available in, Hong Kong society.

 $^{^{10}}$ These non-respondents are excluded from this analysis. Analysis elsewhere (see http://www.hktp.org) indicates the majority of such are non-responses come from profiles in education and housing terms similar to those of the middle income groups).

 $^{^{11}}$ See Papa N'Diaye, "Determinants of Deflation in Hong Kong SAR," IMF Working Paper WP/03/250. Available at: $\frac{\text{http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/wp/2003/wp03250.pdf}}{\text{IMF Working Paper WP/03/77. Available at: }} \frac{\text{http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/wp/2003/wp0377.pdf}}{\text{http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/wp/2003/wp0377.pdf}}$

¹² See Michael E. DeGolyer, "Protest and Post-80s Youth," (Feb 2010). Available at: http://www.hktp.org/list/protest_and_post_80s_youths.pdf

Figure 1: Summary Table of Family Income by Year (% unless noted)

	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average	Total # Interviewed per income group
< \$10,000	13.5	16.6	14.2	18.4	16.6	18.5	16.3	15.8	2410
\$10,001-20,000	19.7	22.9	21.1	28.1	23.5	23.8	22.8	22.3	3400
\$20,001-40,000	26.9	31.7	30.5	32.4	33.8	32.9	33.7	31.2	4750
\$40,001-70,000	14.6	17.2	19.3	14.4	17.6	16.2	17.6	16.7	2528
\$70,001- 100,000	8.2	5.1	8	3.5	3.9	4	4.5	5.7	861
\$100,000+	17.2	6.7	6.9	3.2	4.6	4.5	5.1	8.3	1269
Total # Interviewed (per year)	3995	1383	1632	686	3107	2237	2178		15,218

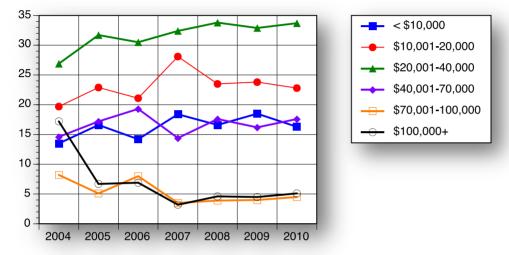


Figure 2 shows variation of reported family incomes by birthplace of respondents while Figure 3 compares the average income between 2004-2010 by birthplace. As can be seen in both, those with the lowest family income levels (below \$10,000 per month) among those born in Mainland China and those born elsewhere are considerably more prevalent than among Hong Kong born respondents. About one in three mainland born respondents have family incomes in the lowest level, about one in four born elsewhere, and just one in ten among Hong Kong born. So the average level of 15.8 percent of respondents between 2004 and 2010 with this lowest level of family incomes varies widely by birthplace. The data in earlier sections of this report shows that age variations between these groups plays the greatest role in these income variations. Since age is strongly correlated with lower income, and since those born in the mainland and elsewhere show much higher levels of elderly and retirees than those born in Hong Kong, the income gap appears more likely to be attributable to age group variations than other causes. However, Figure 4 below shows variations even within those age groups between those born in Hong Kong and those born elsewhere, with Hong Kong birthplace being correlated in general with higher incomes. The key factor to keep in mind about this appearance of birthplace discrimination regarding income is that the Transition Project data is a measure of family income. There is a disproportionate number of mainland born children residing in families with more elderly parents, particularly elderly fathers and younger, mainland born mothers. Hong Kong men in significant numbers marry younger mainland born women, and this was particularly the case in earlier times when the income gap between Hong Kong and the mainland was much larger, and in those prior decades Hong Kong born older men offered relatively attractive prospects to poorer mainland women. Hence such families of older Hong Kong born men with younger mainland born wives and children are more likely to be from lower income groups, and the data supports this as an explanation. As Figure 2 shows, there appears to be a drop in all the highest income groups whatever their birthplace in 2007-09, a time of global economic distress.

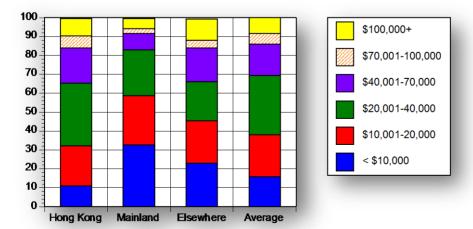
Figure 2: Family income by birthplace across time

	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average
< \$10,000	13.5	16.6	14.2	18.4	16.6	18.5	16.3	15.8
Hong Kong	11.3	10	9.6	10.9	11.2	12.5	10.6	11
Mainland	27.6	37	30.5	35.6	31	36.2	33.4	32.7
Elsewhere	25	23	17	25.8	24	18.6	28.4	23
\$10,001-20,000	19.7	22.9	21.1	28.1	23.5	23.8	22.8	22.3
Hong Kong	18.9	22	20.9	27.5	22.3	22.7	21.9	21.3
Mainland	26.7	25.4	22.7	29.8	27.1	26.3	26.2	26.2
Elsewhere	10	23.1	14.6	25.8	28	30.2	20.9	22.6
\$20,001-40,000	26.9	31.7	30.5	32.4	33.8	32.9	33.7	31.2
Hong Kong	28.4	34.5	31.6	36.5	36.8	35.9	36.7	33.3
Mainland	17.5	23.8	26.7	22.9	26.1	25.7	26	24.3
Elsewhere	15	23.1	29.3	29	20	20.9	16.4	20.9
\$40,001-70,000	14.6	17.2	19.3	14.4	17.6	16.2	17.6	16.7
Hong Kong	15.5	20.2	21.7	17.2	20.2	19.3	20.1	18.7
Mainland	7.5	7.7	10.8	8	10.4	6.8	9.2	8.7
Elsewhere	20	15.4	19.5	12.9	18.7	18.6	17.9	18
\$70,001-100,000	8.2	5.1	8	3.5	3.9	4	4.5	5.7
Hong Kong	8.9	6.1	9.3	4.1	4.5	4.6	5.1	6.6
Mainland	3.1	2.3	3.8	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.5	2.6
Elsewhere	6.7	1.9	4.9	3.2	1.3	4.7	6	4.1
\$100,000+	17.2	6.7	6.9	3.2	4.6	4.5	5.1	8.3
Hong Kong	17	7.2	7	3.9	4.9	5.1	5.7	9.2
Mainland	17.5	3.9	5.5	1.6	3.1	2.8	2.7	5.6
Elsewhere	23.3	13.5	14.6	3.2	8	7	10.5	11.4

Figure 3 takes the averages from Figure 2 and compares by birthplace. On average between 2004-2020, while those born in Hong Kong and elsewhere have similar levels of families making \$40,000 per month and up, those born on the mainland have considerably fewer families with such high levels of income.

Figure 3: Average family income (2004-2010) by birthplace

	Hong Kong	Mainland	Elsewhere	Average
< \$10,000	11	32.7	23	15.8
\$10,001-20,000	21.3	26.2	22.6	22.3
\$20,001-40,000	33.3	24.3	20.9	31.2
\$40,001-70,000	18.7	8.7	18	16.7
\$70,001-100,000	6.6	2.6	4.1	5.7
\$100,000+	9.2	5.6	11.4	8.3



The tables above do not answer the question of whether these family income distributions are matters of age rather than just birthplace. That is, as shown earlier in this report, those born on the mainland and elsewhere tend to be older on average than those born in Hong Kong. Older persons also tend to be less educated and hence, less well paid.

4.2 Family income by age group

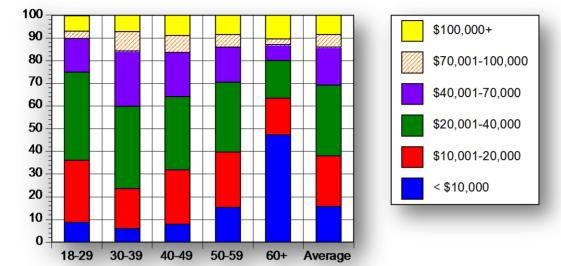
Figure 4: Family income by age group

rigure 4: raminy								
	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	Average
< \$10,000	13.5	16.6	14.2	18.4	16.6	18.5	16.3	15.8
18-29	5.9	7.1	13.6	10	6.2	12.3	10.5	8.8
30-39	5.2	8	4.3	6.7	6.5	8.2	5.6	6.1
40-49	7.8	10	8.6	8.9	8.9	7.7	5.4	8
40-59	17.6	21.4	13.3	13.3	14.2	14.5	14.5	15.5
60+	38.5	57.1	44.8	51.8	50.9	51.3	48.6	47.4
\$10,001-20,000	19.7	22.9	21.1	28.1	23.5	23.8	22.8	22.3
18-29	22.7	30.5	29.3	28.6	27.3	30.9	29.2	27.5
30-39	14.9	21.4	15.7	24	18.2	19.4	18.6	17.7
40-49	24.3	23.4	22.2	35.7	24.7	24.6	20.2	24
50-59	22.3	21	22.2	29.6	27.5	23.6	25.1	24.4
60+	11	14.3	13.7	20.1	17.4	19.5	20.5	16.3
\$20,001-40,000	26.9	31.7	30.5	32.4	33.8	32.9	33.7	31.2
18-29	35.5	39.9	34.7	42.9	43.1	38	40.8	38.8
30-39	31.9	36.6	35.8	36.5	40.7	37.6	38.7	36.2
40-49	28.2	31	29.7	33.9	34.8	35.1	37.3	32.3
50-59	23.3	27	30.4	37	33.8	35.3	31.7	30.7
60+	12.2	18.6	18.9	12.2	17.2	18.6	19	16.4
\$40,001-70,000	14.6	17.2	19.3	14.4	17.6	16.2	17.6	16.7
18-29	13.1	18.1	16.3	13.6	19.3	11.8	13.7	14.9
30-39	24.3	22.1	28.4	22.1	24.3	21.8	25.4	24.3
40-49	16.2	19.2	21.2	16.7	19.9	21.9	22.7	19.5
50-59	11.7	15.3	15.7	12.6	15.6	18.4	18.7	15.5
60+	4.5	5	9.9	8.6	9.2	6.3	7.2	7
\$70,001-100,000	8.2	5.1	8	3.5	3.9	4	4.5	5.7
18-29	4.6	1.5	3.4	2.9	2.3	3.9	2.5	3.2
30-39	11.1	6.9	10.2	7.7	6.8	7	5.9	8.5
40-49	10.6	7.2	9.4	1.8	5	4.1	7.3	7.4
50-59	8.5	4.8	9.9	2.2	3.8	4.8	4.2	5.6
60+	3.8	2.5	5.2	4.3	1.3	.7	2	2.5
\$100,000+	17.2	6.7	6.9	3.2	4.6	4.5	5.1	8.3
18-29	18.3	3	2.7	2.1	1.9	3	3.4	6.7
30-39	12.6	5.1	5.6	2.9	3.5	6	5.9	7.2
40-49	12.9	9.3	8.8	3	6.7	6.6	7.1	8.8
50-59	16.7	10.5	8.5	5.2	5.1	3.5	5.9	8.3
60+	30	2.5	7.6	2.9	3.9	3.7	2.7	10.5

Figure 5 shows that older persons 60+ tend to have lower family incomes than younger groups, further buttressing the evidence that age, not birthplace alone, plays a larger part in explaining the birthplace income disparities. The chart below clearly shows a rise in proportion of lower income groups by age cohort once respondents reach their 30s (and generally set up independent housekeeping and hence become nuclear families of younger spouses who both work). The elderly also tend to be more single person, single income "families". There also appears to be anecdotal evidence that Hong Kong born females tend more to remain elderly and single than Hong Kong born males, who also tend to marry younger mainland born wives. But both birthplace groups of the elderly are significantly less well off than other age groups.

Figure 5: Family income by age group, average over 2004-2010

	18-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60+	Average
< \$10,000	8.8	6.1	8	15.5	47.4	15.8
\$10,001-20,000	27.5	17.7	24	24.4	16.3	22.3
\$20,001-40,000	38.8	36.2	32.3	30.7	16.4	31.2
\$40,001-70,000	14.9	24.3	19.5	15.5	7	16.7
\$70,001-100,000	3.2	8.5	7.4	5.6	2.5	5.7
\$100,000+	6.7	7.2	8.8	8.3	10.5	8.3



4.3 Regression analysis of family income by birthplace & gender

Regression analysis shows that for every age group, birthplace, not gender, holds a significant relationship. After deleting all other not significantly related variables, the regression model is as below.

Regression model: Family income relationship with significant variables

Type 3 Analysis of Effects

Effect	DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
year	30	193.9109	<.0001
age	20	63.7015	<.0001
birthplace	10	89.0108	<.0001
age*birthplace	40	59.5857	0.0238
year*age	120	258.7953	<.0001

All age groups show that mainland born respondents are, in general, poorer than Hong Kong born or elsewhere born respondents. More mainland born respondents are in the lowest bands of income and fewer are in the upper bands than among those born elsewhere or Hong Kong.

Regression Table 1: Age group 18-29, relationship of family income with birthplace

Contrast Test Results

Contrast Hong Kong	vs mainland, agegp	1	DF Ch	Wald ni-Square 76.8804	Pr > 0	chisq .0001	
С	ontrast Estimation	and	Testing Re	sults by F	Row		
Contrast	Туре	Row	Estimate	Standard Error	Alpha	Confidence	Limits
Hong Kong vs mainland, a Hong Kong vs mainland, a Hong Kong vs mainland, a Hong Kong vs mainland, a Hong Kong vs mainland, a	gegp1 EXP gegp1 EXP gegp1 EXP	1 2 3 4 5	0.4389 0.7313 1.5780 2.5486 1.6732	0.1300 0.1993 0.4368 0.8578 0.7844	0.05 0.05 0.05 0.05 0.05	0.2456 0.4287 0.9172 1.3177 0.6675	0.7841 1.2475 2.7148 4.9293 4.1938
С	ontrast Estimation	and	Testing Re	sults by F	Row		
Contrast		Туре	Row	Wal Chi-Squar		> ChiSq	
Hong Kong vs Hong Kong vs Hong Kong vs	mainland, agegp1 mainland, agegp1 mainland, agegp1	EXP EXP EXP EXP EXP	1 2 3 4 5	7.735 1.318 2.71 7.727 1.205	37 18 71	0.0054 0.2508 0.0994 0.0054 0.2722	

Regression Table 2: Age group 30-39, relationship of family income with birthplace

Contrast Test Results								
Contrast			DF C	Wald hi-Square	Pr > 0	ChiSq		
Hong Kong vs	mainland, agegp2	z	5	49.5115	<	.0001		
Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row								
				Standard				
Contrast	Type F	Row E	stimate	Error	Alpha	Confidence	Limits	
Hong Kong vs mainland, ageg	o2 EXP	1	0.3219	0.1048	0.05	0.1701	0.6092	
Hong Kong vs mainland, ageg		ż	0.4734	0.1380	0.05	0.2674	0.8384	
Hong Kong vs mainland, ageg		2 3 4	0.6783	0.1912	0.05	0.3905	1.1785	
Hong Kong vs mainland, ageg			1.2645	0.3849	0.05	0.6963	2.2963	
Hong Kong vs mainland, ageg	o2 EXP	5	1.3155	0.4874	0.05	0.6364	2.7195	
Cont	rast Estimation	and T	esting R	esults by Ro	οw			
				Wale	3			
Contrast	7	Туре	Row	Chi-Squar	e Pr	> ChiSq		
Hong Kong vs mai	nland, agegp2 E	EXP	1	12.128	4	0.0005		
Hong Kong vs mai		EXP	2	6.577	5	0.0103		
Hong Kong vs mai		EXP	3	1.8960	3	0.1685		
Hong Kong vs mai	nland, agegp2 E	EXP	4		2	0.4408		
Hong Kong vs mai	nland, agegp2 E	EXP	5	0.5478	3	0.4592		

Regression Table 3: Age group 40-49, relationship of family income with birthplace

	Contr	ast To	est Results	\$			
Contrast			DF C	Wald ni-Square	Pr > 0	hiSq	
Hong Kon	g vs mainland, ageg	рЗ	5	139.3140	۲.	.0001	
	Contrast Estimatio	n and	Testing Re	esults by R	οw		
				Standard			
Contrast	Туре	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confidence	Limits
Hong Kong vs mainland,	agegp3 EXP	1	0.2488	0.0544	0.05	0.1621	0.3819
Hong Kong vs mainland,		2	0.5219	0.1048	0.05	0.3520	0.7737
Hong Kong vs mainland,		2 3 4	0.8591	0.1728	0.05	0.5792	1.2744
Hong Kong vs mainland,		4	1.6225	0.3749	0.05		2.5520
Hong Kong vs mainland,	agegp3 EXP	5	1.5102	0.4456	0.05	0.8470	2.6929
	Contrast Estimatio	n and	Testing Re	esults by R	οω		
				Wal	d		
Contrast		Туре	Row	Chi-Squar	e Pr	> ChiSq	
Hong Kong v	s mainland, agegp3	EXP	1	40.486	7	<.0001	
	s mainland, agegp3	EXP	2	10.481		0.0012	
	s mainland, agegp3	EXP	3	0.569		0.4504	
Hong Kong v	s mainland, agegp3	EXP	4	4.387	2	0.0362	
Hong Kong v	s mainland, agegp3	EXP	5	1.952	0	0.1624	

Regression Table 4: Age group 50-59, relationship of family income with birthplace

Contr	rast T	est Results	3					
Contrast		DF C	Wald ni-Square	Pr >	ChiSq			
Hong Kong vs mainland, ageg	эрч	5	70.9823	<	.0001			
Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row								
			Standard					
Contrast Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confidence	Limits		
Hong Kong vs mainland, agegp4 EXP	1	0.3222	0.0727	0.05	0.2070	0.5015		
Hong Kong vs mainland, agegpt EXP	ż	0.3493	0.0762	0.05	0.2278	0.5358		
Hong Kong vs mainland, agegp4 EXP	2 3 4		0.1236	0.05	0.3690	0.8684		
Hong Kong vs mainland, agegp4 EXP	4	0.7186	0.1703	0.05	0.4515	1.1435		
Hong Kong vs mainland, agegp4 EXP	5	1.2467	0.4077	0.05	0.6568	2.3668		
Contrast Estimatio	n and	Testing Re	sults by R	οw				
			Wal	d				
Contrast	Туре	Row	Chi-Squar	e Pr	> ChiSq			
Hong Kong vs mainland, agegp4	EXP	1	25.169	7	<.0001			
Hong Kong vs mainland, agegp4	EXP	3	23.231		<.0001			
Hong Kong vs mainland, agegp4	EXP	3	6.792		0.0092			
Hong Kong vs mainland, agegp4	EXP	4	1.943		0.1633			
Hong Kong vs mainland, agegp4	EXP	5	0.454	7	0.5001			

Regression Table 5: Age group 60+, relationship of family income with birthplace

	Contrast	Test Result	s			
Contrast		DF C	Wald hi-Square	Pr > C	hiSq	
Hong Kong vs mai	nland, agegp5	5	75.5098	۲.	0001	
Contras	st Estimation ar	nd Testing R	esults by Ro	DW		
Contrast	Type Roi	u Estimate	Standard Error	Alpha	Confidence	limite
001111 001	1990 100	LOTTMOTO	2	pc	00111 1 001100	
Hong Kong vs mainland, agegp5	EXP	0.4801	0.0812	0.05	0.3446	0.6687
Hong Kong vs mainland, agegp5			0.1421		0.5061	1.0764
Hong Kong vs mainland, agegp5	EXP 8	1.0740	0.2073	0.05	0.7358	1.5677
Hong Kong vs mainland, agegp5	EXP 4	1 1.3580	0.3219	0.05	0.8534	2.1610
Hong Kong vs mainland, agegp5	EXP 5	1.4074	0.4763	0.05	0.7250	2.7320
Contras	st Estimation ar	nd Testing R	esults by Ro	DW		
			Wald	d		
Contrast	Тур	oe Row	Chi-Square	e Pr	> ChiSq	
Hong Kong vs mainla	nd, agegp5 EXF	9 1	18.829	1	<.0001	
Hong Kong vs mainla			2.4889	5	0.1147	
Hong Kong vs mainla		3	0.1369	9	0.7114	
Hong Kong vs mainla	ind, agegp5 EXF		1.667	1	0.1966	
Hong Kong vs mainla	ind, agegp5 EXF		1.0190	5	0.3126	

Part 5: Functional constituency elites compared to average Hong Kongers by gender, education and occupation

Functional constituency (FC) voters are a peculiarity of the Hong Kong political system. They are also endowed by this peculiar political system with extraordinary influence over policy makers and policy making. While FC voters between 1998 and 2010 totaled a little over 200,000 persons, they elected half of all Legislative Council members. The other half are elected by everyone aged 18 and above with right of residency in Hong Kong—meaning around 4 million persons had the right to register and vote during the timeframe of this report. These 200,000 or so persons also elected more than three out of four of the members of the Chief Executive Election Committee. This committee of 400, then 800, and now 1,200 members are the only voters permitted to elect the Chief Executive of Hong Kong, a governing position endowed with extraordinary powers of appointment and action. So in effect the relative

handful of FC voters in Hong Kong are an elite with powers above and beyond those of the usual elites in a given society. Hence, the relative position of women and men in this extraordinarily influential elite takes on more than usual significance. While Hong Kong reports the proportions of civil service and government positions held by women, and it reports the relative educational levels of women, there are almost no studies which examine the proportions and characteristics of women who hold elite and extraordinary positions of influence. Another structural characteristic of the FC elites is that so many are professionals. There are separate and designated FC seats for educators, lawyers, accountants, surveyors and planners, nurses, doctors, and information technicians among others. There are also seats set aside for business owners and directors of firms in banking, finance, industry, commerce and trade, insurance, tourism and so on. And while unions also have their three seats (out of 30 FC seats), these are elected by representatives of separate unions, not the union members as a whole. The presence or absence of women amongst this group actually tells us more about the presence and progress of women in terms of policy making influence than the government reports.

5.1 Education and Women in the Functional Constituencies

Figure 1 presents the education levels of all those surveyed by the Hong Kong Transition Project in the respective time periods. Then the FC voters and non-FC voters surveyed in 2004 and in 2008 respectively, years in which the Legislative Council held elections, are separated out from the overall results. When the two groups are separated, the disparity between the elites in the FC sector and those without an FC vote becomes clear. FC registered voters showed considerably higher levels of education than amongst the average Hong Kong persons surveyed. While the average overall of all surveyed in 2004 with less than a primary education stood at 3 percent, when Non-FC voters were separated from FC voters, the total was 4.1 percent of non-FC voters with less than a primary education and almost no FC voters at that level (0.2 percent). In 2008 the gap between non-FC voters and FC voters regarding education levels narrowed somewhat, with just 2.3 percent of non-FC voters having less than a primary education while 0.6 percent of FC voters stood at that level. But FC voters in both years showed considerable majorities with a university or higher education while non-FC voters never came close to showing a majority so educated.

Figure 1: Education level of all surveyed, compared to FC registered voters, 2004 and 2008

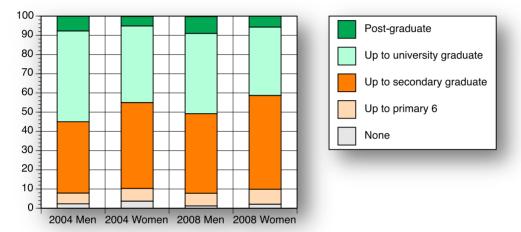
	2004 ALL	2004 Non- FC	2004 FC	2008 ALL	2008 Non- FC	2008 FC
None	3	4.1	0.2	1.8	2.3	0.6
Up to primary 6	6.2	8.5	0.6	7.4	9.7	1.7
Up to secondary graduate	40.5	52.5	11.5	45.3	55.6	20.7
Up to university graduate	44	32	73.1	38.5	28.6	62.1
Post-graduate	6.4	2.9	14.7	7.1	3.8	14.8
Total number surveyed	2978	2106	872	4924	3466	1458

Research by Hong Kong Transition Project published elsewhere has shown that higher education and more frequent contact with government, media and NGOs and other professional and associational bodies are strongly correlated. FC registered voters show even higher levels of activism and influential behaviors. Clearly, FC voters show considerably higher levels of education and thus they enjoy, on average, higher levels of income and, most certainly, greater influence. So how do men and women FC members compare regarding education?

First, we show Figure 2 which breaks down the respective levels of education by gender in the two years in question, 2004 and 2008.

Figure 2: Education level by gender, 2004 and 2008

	2004 Men	2004 Women	2008 Men	2008 Women
None	2.4	3.8	1.3	2.2
Up to primary 6	5.7	6.7	6.7	7.9
Up to secondary graduate	37.1	44.7	41.4	48.8
Up to university graduate	47.3	39.9	41.8	35.6
Post-graduate	7.6	4.9	8.7	5.6
Total number surveyed	1656	1322	2319	2605



As may be seen, men surveyed had higher levels of education in both 2004 and 2008 than among women surveyed. Interestingly, those surveyed in 2004 showed higher levels of education than amongst those surveyed in 2008, but both times, men showed a majority with university or above education while women showed less than a majority both times holding that level of education. There were more women surveyed in 2008 (52.9 percent of the sample) whereas women comprised just 44.4 percent of those surveyed in 2004. Women tend to be in the education sector, and though they are professionals, in the Hong Kong system the schools focusing on education tended to be classified as sub-degree granting programs rather than being classified as university degree granting institutions. The schools of education in the universities began to be expanded in the 1990s, but the majority of primary and secondary teachers still study at the HKIED, which granted its first full university bachelor degrees of education in 2002. Thus most teachers—and most of the women in the FC sector are teachers—only began to be classified as university graduates in 2002.

5.2 Occupation and Women in the Functional Constituencies

Figure 3 shows that the FCs tend to be dominated by professionals and business based managers and administrators. While about one in four among non-FC members surveyed were professionals and managers in 2004 or 2008, nearly three in four among FC registered voters held that occupation in 2004, and despite attempts by the government to expand and make the FC sector more representative in 2008, well over half still came from the professions and business oriented sectors. Service and blue collar workers were a tiny proportion of the FC voting sector while housewives, students and the unemployed barely registered among the FC voters, despite comprising more than one in five among the non-FC respondents surveyed. The

FC voters clearly over-represent certain sectors of society and since the Hong Kong system gives the FC sector in effect a veto over the popularly elected Legco representatives (this is the so-called "two house rule" that requires the legislature to return a majority among both the FC representatives and among the geographic or popularly elected representatives in cases of amendments or non-government bills), the power of the elite in the FC sector is even more magnified.

As Figure 4 shows and the regression analysis proves, women are far less represented among professionals and managers, and hence, their influence over policy-making in terms of FC seats which are allocated disproportionately among the male dominated professions and business sectors, is much less than their levels of education or presence in the civil service or even amongst popularly elected legislators might at first be thought.

Figure 3: Occupation of all surveyed compared to FC registered voters 2004 and 2008

	2004 ALL	2004 Non- FC	2004 FC	2008 ALL	2008 Non- FC	2008 FC
Professionals & Managers	40	25.5	73.8	34.1	24.5	56.7
Clerks, Service & blue collar	22.8	30.9	3.8	22.9	29.3	7.8
Housewives	9.2	12.5	1.6	10.2	13.6	2.2
Retirees	9.8	12.9	2.5	14.3	16.4	9.2
Unemployed	3.5	4.7	0.8	2.6	3.4	8.0
Students	4.1	5.8	0.2	4.9	6.7	0.5
Educators	6.2	4.1	11.2	8.8	3.5	21.2
Other/unclassified	4.4	3.7	6	2.3	2.5	1.7
Total number surveyed	3054	2138	916	4919	3462	1457

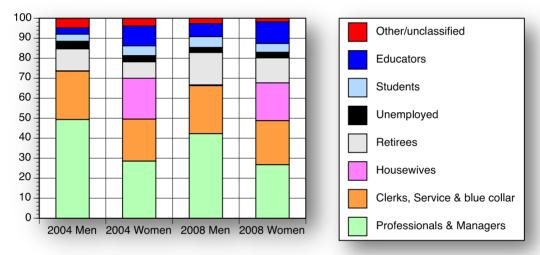
In Figure 4 the gender disparity among the most influential occupations of professionals and managers can be seen. Nearly half the men in 2004 were professionals or managers. And in 2008, though the proportion of men surveyed who were professionals and managers dropped about 7 points, that sector also dropped about 2 points amongst women surveyed. Women relatively may have closed the gap with men between 2004 and 2008, but in terms of overall proportions holding such positions, women dropped from 28.6 percent in 2004 to 26.8 percent in 2008. Both men and women showed more retirees in 2008 than in 2004 which accords with broader demographic changes also recorded by the census, so while more men than women retired by 2008, women did not increase their presence amongst professionals and managers in absolute terms.

The over-representation of women as educators can also be seen in Figure 4. About one in ten women are educators whereas male educators vary from 3.2 percent in 2004 to 6.5 percent in 2008. Many of the men are in tertiary education and in educational management (principals are dominantly men in Hong Kong). The regression analysis below shows that between 2004 and 2008 women did gain over men among educators who are also FC registered voters. So while more men became educators in 2008 than in 2004, their registration as FC voters did not increase in comparable terms. Unfortunately, educators have only one FC seat, so while women may have gained over men both in being educators and in being registered FC voters, those gains were not reflected in any gain in seats in the FC sector. Thus in policy making terms, women may have become more educated, and more of them may have become professionals, but amongst the privileged elite of the FC voters, those gains made no additional impact on the votes in Legco. This may account for many of the reports of the individual surveys by Hong

Kong Transition Project which show greater dissatisfaction and more respondents deeming policy making as unfair among women than among men.¹³

Figure 4: Occupation by Gender, 2004 and 2008

	2004 Men	2004 Women	2008 Men	2008 Women
Professionals & Managers	49.4	28.6	42.3	26.8
Clerks, Service & blue collar	24.2	21	24	22
Housewives	0.1	20.4	0.4	18.9
Retirees	11	8.2	16.2	12.5
Unemployed	3.8	3.1	2.5	2.8
Students	3.5	4.9	5.4	4.4
Educators	3.2	9.9	6.5	10.8
Other/unclassified	4.8	3.9	2.8	1.8
Total number surveyed	1679	1375	2304	2615



5.3 Regression analysis of Occupational differences, FC and non-FC members

Occupation 1: Professionals & managers

Type 3 Analysis of Effects

Effect	DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
year	1	0.5187	0.4714
gender	1	60.1739	<.0001
_ year*gender	1	0.5147	0.4731
FC	1	210.2173	<.0001
year*FC	1	5.6351	0.0176
gender*FC	1	0.2819	0.5954
year*gender*FC	1	4.3357	0.0373

The analysis of effects model shows significance between genders varying over 2004 compared to 2008, depending on whether they are FC members or not. The contrast test result looks at gender differences between the two groups (FC members and non-members) across time. The

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¹³ See http://www.hktp.org respective survey reports.

first contrast test is for FC members, contrasting the 2004 results with the 2008 results. As noted above, males outnumber females in both time periods amongst FC members who are professionals and managers. Women do make relative gains between 2004 and 2008.

Contrast Test Results

Contr	ast			DF	Wa Ch i -Squa		ChiSq
Male	vs Female, vs Female, vs Female,	FC, 2008	vs 2008	1 1 1	494.70 53.42 3.62	73 <	. 0001 . 0001 . 0569
Row	Estimate	Standard Error	Alpha	Confidence	Limits	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
1 1 1	18.5303 10.6919 0.5770	2.4322 3.4660 0.1666	0.05 0.05 0.05	14.3271 5.6640 0.3276	23.9668 20.1831 1.0162	494.7038 53.4273 3.6258	<.0001 <.0001 0.0569

The contrast test results for non-FC members who are professionals and managers do not show a significant gain for women in the professional and managerial sector between 2004 and 2008.

Contrast '	est l	Resul	lts
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Cont	rast				DF Ch	Wald i-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Male	vs Female vs Female vs Female	, non-FC,	2008	2008	1 1 1	60.1739 15.5712 0.5187	<.0001 <.0001 0.4714
Row	Estimate	Standard Error	Alpha	Confidence	e Limits	Wa 1 Ch i -Squar	_
1 1 1	2.2259 2.0688 0.9294	0.2296 0.3811 0.0945	0.05 0.05 0.05	1.8185 1.4418 0.7615	2.7246 2.9685 1.1343	60.173 15.571 0.518	2 <.0001

Comparing FC and non-FC members by gender shows that women make larger gains among professionals and managers who are FC registered voters than they do among non-FC voters. But as noted, with so many women in the educational sector, the impact of women's gains is not as deeply felt or impactful as might be expected.

Contrast Test Results

Conti	rast				DF	Chi-	Wald Square	Pr	> ChiSq
Male	vs Female,	non-FC,	2004 vs	2008	1		4.3357		0.0373
Row	Estimate	Standard Error	Alpha	Confid	ence Li	mits		ald are	Pr > ChiSq
1	0.6208	0.1421	0.05	0.396	4 0	. 9724	4.33	357	0.0373

Occupation 2: Clerks, service & blue collar

The model for clerks, service workers and blue collar workers is as below.

Type 3 Analysis of Effects

Effect	DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
year	1	0.6198	0.4311
gender	1	18.0108	<.0001
FC	1	191.1401	< .0001
year*FC	1	18.4946	<.0001
year*gender	1	5.0385	0.0248

Among these occupations, there was no significant difference by gender among FC members between 2004 and 2008. There was also no significant difference by gender among non-FC members between the two years. In effect, women did not move out of the service, clerical and blue collar fields in significant numbers amongst either FC or non-FC sectors. Gender also made no difference amongst the unemployed, though FC registered voters did have significantly lower levels of unemployment than non-FC members.

Occupation three: education

Model for education:

Type 3 Analysis of Effects

Effect	DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
year gender	1	6.9149 67.6035	0.0085 <.0001
FC	i	70.1156	₹.0001
year*FC	1	13.6276	0.0002
year*gender	1	14.4334	0.0001

Among FC members in the education category, men increased their presence more than women between 2004 and 2008 (Chi-square of 0.0085 in the third line shows a significant relationship).

Contrast Test Results

Conti	rast			DF	Chi-Se	Wald quare Pr	r > ChiSq
Male	vs Female	, FC, 2004 , FC, 2008 , FC, 2004		1 1 1	2	.1707 .3330 .9149	0.6795 0.1267 0.0085
Row	Estimate	Standard Error	Alpha	Confidence	Limits	Wald Chi-Square	
1 1 1	0.9170 0.6133 0.6688	0.1923 0.1963 0.1023	0.05 0.05 0.05	0.6080 0.3275 0.4955	1.3832 1.1485 0.9026	0.1707 2.3330 6.9149	

There was no significant difference by gender among non-FC members between 2004 and 2008, however. And, for reasons indicated above, the gain of women among FC members came largely from this occupation. With education restricted to one seat among 30 in the FCs, despite gains for women both in terms of attaining greater education and in terms of more women becoming professionals during the first decade of the $21^{\rm st}$ century, there was not likely a concomitant increase in their influence on policy-making.

5.4 Occupation and Women in the Civil Service

Research published elsewhere has shown a high level of civil servants in some of the FCs. For example, civil servants who are lawyers, accountants and IT personnel each have an FC within which they can vote. Teachers in public schools and publicly subsidized schools and universities also have an FC, as do social workers. Some of the explanation for why women have more leadership in government than in the private sector lies in their numbers in these

¹⁴ See Michael E. DeGolyer, "Comparative profiles and attitudes of FC voters versus GC voters in the 2004 Legco election campaign," in Christine Loh, ed. *Functional Constituencies: A Unique Feature of the Hong Kong Legislative Council* Hong Kong University press, 2006.

FCs and in public sector employment. Public sector employment among respondents shrank from 17.9 percent of the workforce in 1994-2000 to 16.8 percent during the economically constricted years of 2001-2005. Employment rebounded to 17.6 percent working directly for the government as civil servants or in privatized public entities like the Airport Authority, Housing Authority, MTR and other quasi-public entities in the 2006-2010 period. Private sector employment fell from 80 percent during the 2001-2005 peak to 78.2 percent in the latter half of the first decade of the 21st century. Non-profit employment hit a peak of 3.3 percent during the economic downturn period of 2001-2005.

Figure 5: Work Sector by Time Cohort

	1994- 2000	2001- 2005	2006- 2010	Average
Civil Service	10.9	12.1	12.8	11.8
Privatized Public (Airport Authority, Housing Authority, MTR, etc)	7	4.7	5.9	5.8
Private	79.1	80	78.2	79.2
Non-profit	3	3.3	3.1	3.1

Women were far more likely to work for non-profit organizations than men, with an average of 4.8 percent of the female workforce working there versus 2 percent of the male workforce. Women outnumbered men in the public sector significantly in all time cohorts, with 16.2 percent of men versus 20.5 percent of women in the civil service and privatized public sectors in 1994-2000, 15.8 percent of men versus 18 percent of women in 2001-2005 and 16.7 percent of men versus 21.4 percent of women in 2006-2010.

Figure 6: Men compared to Women by Work Sector by Time Cohort

	1994- 2000 Men	1994-2000 Women	2001- 2005 Men	2001-2005 Women	2006- 2010 Men	2006- 2010 Women
Civil Service	10.3	11.7	12.3	11.7	12.1	13.8
Privatized Public	5.9	8.8	3.5	6.3	4.6	7.6
Private	82	74.7	82.1	76.9	81.2	74.2
Non-profit	1.8	4.7	2.1	5.1	2.1	4.5

Figure 7 and 8 show there has been an increase of public sector employment among those born in Hong Kong, with 19.9 percent of Hong Kong born respondents working as civil servants or privatized public employees in 1994-2000, 18.3 percent in 2001-2005 and 20.2 percent in 2006-2010. Those born in Mainland China show no increase, and there are significantly fewer born in Mainland China in the public sector, with 12.2 percent in the public sectors 1994-2000, 9.8 percent in 2001-2005 and 12.1 percent in 2006-2010.

Figure 7: Work Sector by Birthplace by Time Cohort: Hong Kong born

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010	Average
Civil Service	12.5	13.3	13.8	13.2
Privatized Public	7.4	5	6.4	6.1
Private	77	78.2	76.5	77.4
Non-profit	3.1	3.5	3.3	3.3

Figure 8: Work Sector by Birthplace by Time Cohort: Mainland China born

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010	Average
Civil Service	6.2	6.6	8.4	6.8
Privatized Public	6	3.2	3.7	4.5
Private	85.1	87.6	85.8	86.2
Non-profit	2.7	2.5	2.2	2.5

Part 6: Feelings toward National Day by gender, birthplace and age across time

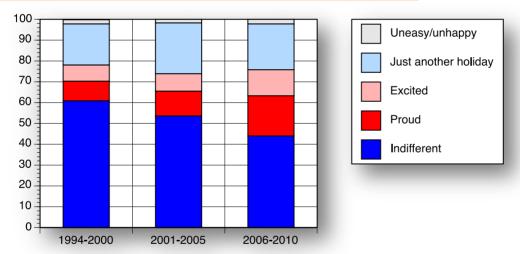
Part 6 tracks changes in responses to the question: "How does the celebration of 1^{st} October National Day make you feel?" This question was asked prior to the 1997 reunification and consistently since.

6.1 Feelings toward China's National Day over time

Feelings of pride and excitement on China's National Day of October 1 appear to have risen consistently from cohort to cohort between 1994 and 2010. While 17.2 percent combined felt pride and excitement on National Day in the 1994-2000 time period that saw the handover of 1 July 1997, 20.3 percent combined felt that way in 2001-2005 and 31.8 percent combined felt that way between 2006-2010, the time period including the Beijing Olympics of 2008.

Figure 1: Feelings toward National Day by time cohort

<u> </u>					
	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010		
Indifferent	60.9	53.6	44		
Proud	9.4	11.9	19.3		
Excited	7.8	8.4	12.5		
Just another holiday	19.8	24.5	22.1		
Uneasy/unhappy	2	1.7	2.2		
% of Total surveyed	24.6	34.9	40.5		
Number surveyed	6444	9138	10621		

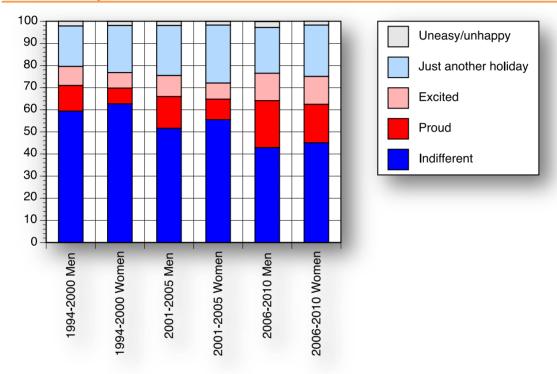


6.2 Feelings toward China's National Day by gender

Figure 2 shows that women tend to be less apt to describe themselves as proud or excited on National Day than men. While 20.2 percent of men felt proud and excited on National Day in the first time cohort of 1994-2000, only 14.1 percent of women felt the same. During 2001-2005 23.9 percent of men versus 16.6 percent of women had these feelings while in 2006-2010 33.6 percent of men and 30 percent of women felt pride and excitement. But note that the gap between men and women who felt proud and excited on National Day was 6.1 points in 1994-2000, widening to 7.3 points in 2001-2005, and closing to just 3.6 points in 2006-2010. Women, relatively speaking, became much more proud and excited on National Day than men though both groups show clear increases across time. Women also show a more significant decrease in those saying they felt indifference toward National Day (see chart on the next page).

Figure 2: Feelings toward National Day by gender across time cohorts

	1994- 2000 Men	1994-2000 Women	2001-2005 Men	2001-2005 Women	2006-2010 Men	2006-2010 Women
Indifferent	59.4	62.7	51.6	55.5	42.9	45.1
Proud	11.6	7.1	14.4	9.3	21.2	17.4
Excited	8.6	7	9.5	7.3	12.4	12.6
Just another holiday	18.4	21.4	22.7	26.3	20.8	23.3
Uneasy/unhappy	2.1	1.8	1.8	1.6	2.6	1.7
% of Total surveyed	25.6	23.5	34.5	35.2	39.8	41.2
Number surveyed	3370	3074	4536	4602	5236	5385



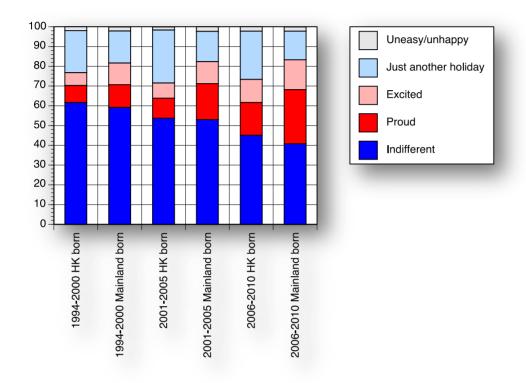
6.3 Feelings toward China's National Day by birthplace

Figure 3 on the next page shows that while both those born in Hong Kong and those born in mainland China increased feelings of pride and excitement across cohorts, those born on the mainland always showed larger proportions with these feelings.

In 1994-2000 15.1 percent of Hong Kong born respondents described themselves as proud or excited on National Day, increasing to 17.9 percent and 28.3 percent in the first half and second half of the first decade of the 21st century. Among those born on the mainland, 22.5 percent felt proud or excited in the earliest period of this report whereas 29.4 percent in 2001-2005 and 42.5 percent in 2006-2010 felt this way. Interestingly, those born in Hong Kong increased their feelings of pride and excitement toward National Day at about the same pace as those born on the mainland. These feelings increased 1.87 times among Hong Kong born respondents and 1.89 times among mainland China born respondents between the first time cohort and the last one. This nearly identical pace of change calls into question whether Hong Kong born people are any less "patriotic" than those born on the mainland. The long period of separation between Hong Kong and the mainland required time to change attitudes—and the pace of change has been nearly the same among both groups.

Figure 3: Feelings toward National Day by birthplace across time cohorts

	1994- 2000 HK born	1994-2000 Mainland born	2001- 2005 HK born	2001-2005 Mainland born	2006- 2010 HK born	2006-2010 Mainland born
Indifferent	61.7	59.2	53.7	53	45.1	40.8
Proud	8.6	11.5	10.2	18.2	16.6	27.4
Excited	6.5	11	7.7	11.2	11.7	15.1
Just another holiday	21.3	16.3	26.9	15.4	24.5	14.6
Uneasy/unhappy	2	2	1.5	2.3	2.2	2.1
% of Total surveyed	23	29.5	36.7	29.4	40.3	41.1
Number surveyed	4535	1909	7233	1905	7963	2658

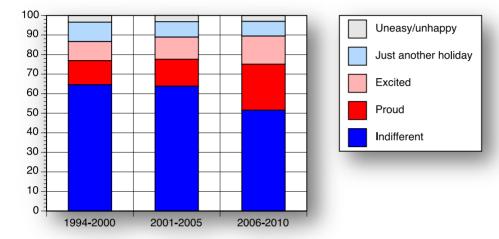


6.4 Feelings toward China's National Day by education level

National education has been an issue in the curriculum, but consensus has been hard to find as to what the content of such education should be. Some fear national education might turn into propaganda in favor of Beijing while others fear it will turn into propaganda against Beijing. However, views toward National Day show significant shifts despite national education not being in the local curriculum, though these shifts depend on the education levels of those surveyed. The following tables also show clear changes in levels of education within Hong Kong. The number of those surveyed with less than a primary education has fallen while those who have a post graduate education has risen over the timeframe of this report. This is particularly true of post graduate education, where fewer than 100 respondents reported having post-graduate degrees between 1994 and 2000 while 576 reported that level of education in those surveyed between 2006 and 2010.

Figure 4: Less than primary education feelings toward National Day by time cohort

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Indifferent	64.6	63.9	51.6
Proud	12.3	13.7	23.5
Excited	9.8	11.4	14.4
Just another holiday	10	7.9	7.6
Uneasy/unhappy	3.3	3.2	2.9
% of Total surveyed	35.4	37.3	27.3
Number surveyed	359	379	277



Those with less education show greater increases in feelings of pride and excitement on National Day than those with higher levels of education. See Figure 9 for comparison.

Figure 5: Primary education feelings toward National Day by time cohort

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Indifferent	63.4	59.6	47.8
Proud	11.1	14.6	23.6
Excited	8.2	9.8	13.1
Just another holiday	15.5	13.4	14
Uneasy/unhappy	1.9	2.7	1.5
% of Total surveyed	31.4	32.9	35.7
Number surveyed	813	851	924

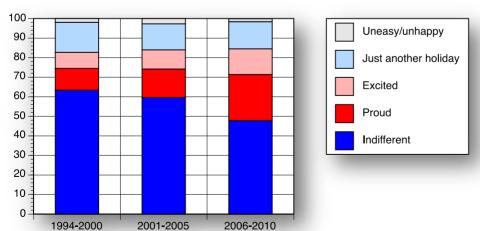


Figure 6: Secondary education feelings toward National Day by time cohort

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Indifferent	61	53.2	43.5
Proud	9	11.7	20.1
Excited	7.9	8.1	13.1
Just another holiday	20.4	25.5	21.3
Uneasy/unhappy	1.8	1.6	2
% of Total surveyed	26.7	35.2	38.1
Number surveyed	3772	4963	5382

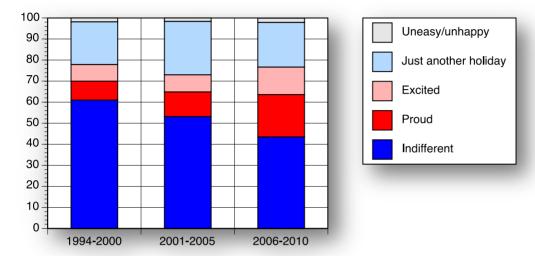


Figure 7: Undergraduate education feelings toward National Day by time cohort

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Indifferent	58.8	51.2	43
Proud	8.9	11.2	16.9
Excited	7.2	8.1	11.5
Just another holiday	22.8	28.2	26.1
Uneasy/unhappy	2.4	1.3	2.6
% of Total surveyed	18.8	35.1	46.2
Number surveyed	1406	2628	3462

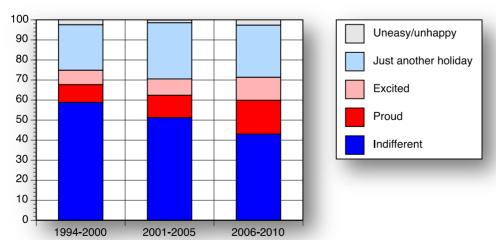
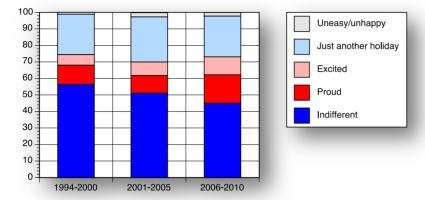


Figure 8: Post-graduate education feelings toward National Day by time cohort

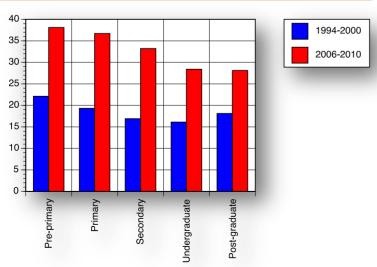
	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Indifferent	56.4	51.1	45
Proud	11.7	10.7	17.2
Excited	6.4	8.2	10.9
Just another holiday	24.5	27.4	24.8
Uneasy/unhappy	1.1	2.5	2.1
% of Total surveyed	9.5	32.1	58.4
Number surveyed	94	317	576



In Figure 9 the combined results of responses indicating pride or excitement on National Day are shown for the 1994-2000 period and the 2006-2010 period respectively. The difference between the two time periods is shown in the final column. The rise in pride and excitement has tended to diminish with the increase in education, though those with a post-graduate education started out with a relatively high level of pride and excitement. It has just not increased as much for that level of education as it has for the other levels.

Figure 9: Shift in attitudes toward National Day, those responding proud or excited

	1994-2000	2006-2010	Difference
Pre-primary	22.1	38.1	+16
Primary	19.3	36.7	+17.4
Secondary	16.9	33.2	+16.3
Undergraduate	16.1	28.4	+12.3
Post-graduate	18.1	28.1	+10



6.5 Regression analysis of Feelings toward China's National Day

After eliminating the insignificant factors, the following factor model remains.

Type 3 Analysis of Effects

Effect	DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
cohort	8	370.5455	<.0001
gender	4	36.4947	<.0001
education	16	144.5375	<.0001
birthplace	4	48.3062	<.0001
cohort*gender	8	28.1261	0.0005
gender*education	16	36.8655	0.0022
gender*birthplace	4	10.4778	0.0331
cohort*birthplace	8	28.9444	0.0003

The contrast test for gender differences in responses is modeled as follows. The first response of indifference is used as the baseline response while "just another holiday" is coded as neutral. Responses 2 and 3 are coded as positive while response 5 is negative. A result greater than 1 (the baseline code for indifferent) indicates a change toward proud/excited (coded 2 and 3 respectively, with "just another holiday" not added (code 0) and "uneasy" subtracted from the total).

The contrast tests by gender indicate that females are more likely to respond toward indifference than males. Males are more likely to feel pride/excitement or unease than females. In effect, women were more neutral and indifferent toward National Day in all three time cohorts.

Comparison of gender differences in time cohorts

Contrast Test Results

Contrast		0	OF Ch	Wald i-Square	Pr	> ChiSq			
M vs F, c M vs F, c M vs F, c	ohort 2		4 4 4	36.4947 38.2799 26.3083		<.0001 <.0001 <.0001			
		C	ontrast Esti	imation and Te	sting Res	ults by Row			
Contrast	Туре	Row	Estimate	Standard Error	Alpha	Confidence	e Limits	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
M vs F, cohort 1 M vs F, cohort 2 M vs F, cohort 3	EXP EXP EXP EXP EXP EXP EXP EXP EXP EXP	1 2 3 4 1 2 3 4 1 2 3 4	3.2902 1.6879 1.2372 2.2178 3.2454 1.7791 1.2508 2.0999 2.5192 1.2856 1.2933 2.9605	0.6771 0.3918 0.3102 0.9087 0.6444 0.4028 0.3102 0.8532 0.4996 0.2908 0.3238 1.2060	0.05 0.05 0.05 0.05 0.05 0.05 0.05 0.05	2.1981 1.0709 0.7569 0.9935 2.1991 1.1415 0.7692 0.9470 1.7078 0.8252 0.7918 1.3324	4.9248 2.6603 2.0223 4.9508 4.7895 2.7729 2.0337 4.6564 3.7161 2.0027 2.1124 6.5784	33.4914 5.0858 0.7209 3.7791 35.1511 6.4739 0.8138 3.3339 21.7030 1.2334 1.0554 7.0989	<pre><.0001 0.0241 0.3958 0.0519 <.0001 0.0109 0.3670 0.0679 <.0001 0.2668 0.3043 0.0077</pre>

Comparison of gender difference by birthplace

For those born in Hong Kong and the mainland, females were more likely to feel indifferent. However, men born in Hong Kong were more likely to feel proud, excited or uneasy more than females while among those born on the mainland there was no difference by gender among the responses. Mainland born men, that is, had about the same pattern of responses as mainland born women. Mainland born women were more likely to feel excited or proud than Hong Kong born women.

Contrast Test Results

Contrast			DF	Wa Ch i -Squai		Pr > Chi	Sq		
M vs F, HK M vs F, Mainla M vs F, HK vs		Cont	4 4 4 crast Estima	36.49 32.54 10.47	65 78	<.00 <.00 0.03 ts by Row	01		
	_	_		Standard				Wald	
Contrast	Туре	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confidence	e Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
M vs F, HK	EXP	1	3.2902	0.6771	0.05	2.1981	4.9248	33.4914	< .0001
M vs F, HK	EXP	2	1.6879	0.3918	0.05	1.0709	2.6603	5.0858	0.0241
M vs F, HK	EXP	3	1.2372	0.3102	0.05	0.7569	2.0223	0.7209	0.3958
M vs F, HK	EXP	4	2.2178	0.9087	0.05	0.9935	4.9508	3.7791	0.0519
M vs F, Mainland	EXP	1	3.0470	0.6127	0.05	2.0545	4.5190	30.6955	< .0001
M vs F, Mainland	EXP	2	1.2915	0.2895	0.05	0.8324	2.0040	1.3027	0.2537
M vs F, Mainland	EXP	3	1.0251	0.2560	0.05	0.6284	1.6723	0.0099	0.9209
M vs F, Mainland	EXP	4	1.8993	0.7588	0.05	0.8680	4.1560	2.5778	0.1084
M vs F, HK vs Mainland	EXP	1	0.9261	0.0787	0.05	0.7839	1.0940	0.8156	0.3665
M vs F, HK vs Mainland	EXP	2	0.7652	0.0750	0.05	0.6315	0.9272	7.4583	0.0063
M vs F, HK vs Mainland	EXP	3	0.8286	0.0690	0.05	0.7038	0.9754	5.1045	0.0239
M vs F, HK vs Mainland	EXP	4	0.8564	0.1841	0.05	0.5619	1.3052	0.5200	0.4708

Comparison of gender difference by education level

Men with primary or less than a primary education were more likely to feel proud or excited than similarly educated females, regardless of birthplace. For secondary, undergraduate and post-graduate educated persons, females feeling proud or excited comprised a larger portion of their gender than amongst men. Males among the post-graduate level of education who felt uneasy were significantly less than those who felt uneasy among women. Overall, while the gap in pride and excitement fell between men and women, women started off and remained more reserved toward nationalism than men.

Contrast Test Results

Contrast	DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
M vs F, before primary M vs F, primary M vs F, secondary M vs F, undergraduate M vs F, postgraduate	4 4 4 4	36.4947 21.5011 12.8360 15.7791 20.9123	<.0001 0.0003 0.0121 0.0033 0.0003

Contrast	Estimation	and	Testing	Results	bу	Row

				Standard				Wald	
Contrast	Туре	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confidenc	e Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
M vs F, before primary	EXP	1	3.2902	0.6771	0.05	2.1981	4.9248	33.4914	< .0001
M vs F, before primary	EXP	2	1.6879	0.3918	0.05	1.0709	2.6603	5.0858	0.0241
M vs F, before primary	EXP	3	1.2372	0.3102	0.05	0.7569	2.0223	0.7209	0.3958
M vs F, before primary	EXP	4	2.2178	0.9087	0.05	0.9935	4.9508	3.7791	0.0519
M vs F. primary	EXP	1	1.8011	0.2593	0.05	1.3583	2.3882	16.7052	< .0001
M vs F, primary	EXP	2	1.3636	0.2254	0.05	0.9863	1.8852	3.5210	0.0606
M vs F. primarv	EXP	3	0.8969	0.1206	0.05	0.6891	1.1675	0.6543	0.4186
M vs F, primary	EXP	4	1.0291	0.3437	0.05	0.5347	1.9804	0.0074	0.9316
M vs F, secondary	EXP	1	0.5202	0.1006	0.05	0.3560	0.7600	11.4168	0.0007
M vs F, secondary	EXP	2	0.7749	0.1707	0.05	0.5031	1.1934	1.3400	0.2470
M vs F, secondary	EXP	3	0.7233	0.1786	0.05	0.4458	1.1736	1.7207	0.1896
M vs F. secondary	EXP	4	0.5982	0.2355	0.05	0.2765	1.2941	1.7032	0.1919
M vs F. undergraduate	EXP	1	0.4670	0.0945	0.05	0.3141	0.6944	14.1533	0.0002
M vs F. undergraduate	EXP	2	1.0101	0.2334	0.05	0.6423	1.5886	0.0019	0.9654
M vs F, undergraduate	EXP	3	0.7414	0.1858	0.05	0.4537	1.2116	1.4257	0.2325
M vs F, undergraduate	EXP	4	0.6395	0.2653	0.05	0.2836	1.4420	1.1614	0.2812
M vs F. postgraduate	EXP	1	0.3923	0.1077	0.05	0.2290	0.6718	11.6202	0.0007
M vs F, postgraduate	EXP	2	1.0887	0.3548	0.05	0.5748	2.0622	0.0680	0.7942
M vs F. postgraduate	EXP	3	0.7268	0.2125	0.05	0.4098	1.2890	1.1914	0.2750
M vs F, postgraduate	EXP	4	0.1525	0.0913	0.05	0.0472	0.4930	9.8705	0.0017

Part 7: Worries about free press, pollution and rule of law

Part 7 examines gender responses to posed questions of concern over freedom of the press, air and water pollution, and rule of law. Part 8 examines open ended questions of what personal issues worries respondents most.

7.1 Freedom of the press

Over the first decade of the 21st century worry about freedom of the press among Hong Kong permanent residents as a whole dropped slightly, from just over a majority not worried in the first five years of the decade, 51.2 percent, to 54.9 percent not worried in the second half.

Figure 1: Are you worried or not about – freedom of the press (all respondents)

	2001-2005	2006-2010
Not worried	51.2	54.9
Slightly worried	25.4	23.7
Somewhat worried	14.8	13.3
Very worried	8.5	8.2
% of Total surveyed	64	36
Number surveyed	15296	8581

Chi-square DF3, Value 30.7103, Probability <.0001

There are indicators that the lowering of concern about freedom of the press in the first decade of the 21st century reversed in 2011-2012, with surveys in October 2011 (end of Tsang administration) and August 2012 (beginning of Leung administration) finding only 40 percent and 43 percent respectively of respondents not worried.¹⁵ Women appear to have had higher levels of concern over freedom of the press in the 2001-2005 time cohort than men, while men show higher levels of being very worried about freedom of the press in the 2006-2010 period, but also show a rise in those not worried, in effect greater polarization (see chart on the next page).

Figure 2: Are you worried or not about – freedom of the press (males)

	2001-2005	2006-2010
Not worried	55.6	57.4
Slightly worried	22.6	20.7
Somewhat worried	13.2	12.8
Very worried	8.5	9.2
% of Total surveyed	64.7	35.3
Number surveyed	7626	4159

Chi-square DF3, Value 7.8852, Probability <.0484

Figure 3: Are you worried or not about – freedom of the press (females)

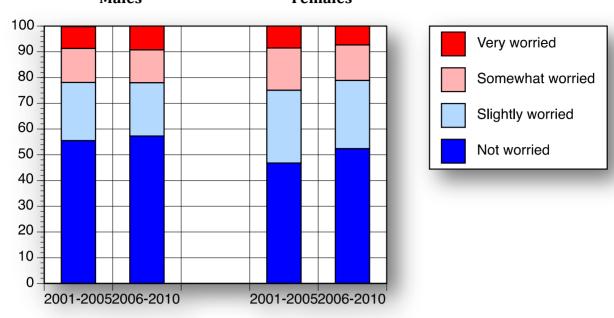
	2001-2005	2006-2010
Not worried	46.9	52.5
Slightly worried	28.3	26.5
Somewhat worried	16.4	13.8
Very worried	8.5	7.3
% of Total surveyed	63.4	36.6
Number surveyed	7670	4422

Chi-square DF3, Value 39.5178, Probability <.0001

¹⁵ See http://www.hktp.org report released September 2012, *Total Recall* (74).

Chart of Figures 2-3: Worried or not about – freedom of the press

Males Females



Figures 4 and 5 show that the differences between men and women over freedom of the press also show up in the birthplace data. Those born in Hong Kong show considerable, and significant differences, with Hong Kong born respondents in both time cohorts showing higher levels of concern for freedom of the press than those born on Mainland China. The level of those very worried about press freedom, however, is very nearly the same, though those born in Hong Kong show a marginal increase in the very worried proportion in 2006-2010 while in the same period Mainland born respondents show some decrease in the very worried proportion, but not large enough, even at this sample size, to be significant.

Figure 4: Are you worried or not about – freedom of the press (Hong Kong born)

	2001-2005	2006-2010
Not worried	48.3	51.4
Slightly worried	27.4	24.9
Somewhat worried	16	15.1
Very worried	8.4	8.6
% of Total surveyed	66.4	33.6
Number surveyed	11304	5730
Chi aguara DE2 Value 10.05	702 Duahahilitur	0003

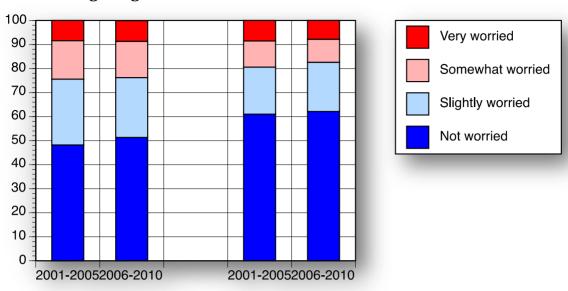
Chi-square DF3, Value 18.8702, Probability <.0003

Figure 5: Are you worried or not about – freedom of the press (Mainland born)

	2001-2005	2006-2010
Not worried	61	62.2
Slightly worried	19.6	20.5
Somewhat worried	10.9	9.6
Very worried	8.5	7.8
% of Total surveyed	64.7	35.3
Number surveyed	3439	1879

Chi-square DF3, Value 3.4595, Probability <.3261 No Significant Association

Chart of Figures 4-5: Worried or not about – freedom of the press Hong Kong Mainland



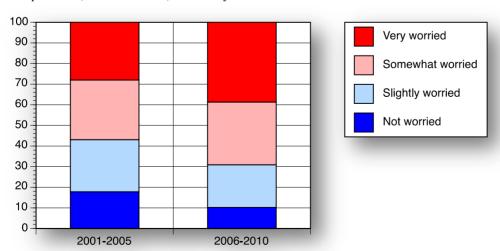
7.2 Air and water pollution

In sharp contrast to the easing of worry about freedom of the press between the beginning and end of the decade, concern about air and water pollution rose significantly from 2001-2005 to 2006-2010. While nearly 2 in 10 had no worries in the earlier period, just one in 10 had no worries by the latter, and the very worried shot up from 28 percent to 38.7 percent.

Figure 6: Are you worried or not about – air and water pollution (all respondents)

	2001-2005	2006-2010
Not worried	17.8	10.2
Slightly worried	25.3	20.7
Somewhat worried	28.9	30.4
Very worried	28	38.7
% of Total surveyed	45.3	54.7
Number surveyed	6369	7703

Chi-square DF3, Value 300.8914, Probability <.0001



Although men are generally somewhat less worried than women about air and water pollution, both genders show the same pattern of increasing concern from the first time cohort to the second. Indeed, men without worry about this issue dropped 8.7 percentage points between time cohort one and time cohort two (from 22.2 percent not worried to 13.5 percent) while women without concern dropped only 6.4 points, from 13.5 percent not worried in 2001-2005 to just 7.1 percent in 2006-2010. Women, whose lung capacity is generally less and whose stature is usually shorter, putting them closer to the exhaust pipes of autos and buses, may feel the effects of roadside pollution more than men. Also, as the household members usually more involved with the care and healthcare of children, women may be more concerned about the effects of air and water pollution on not just their own health, but that of their children and family members.

Figure 7: Are you worried or not about – air and water pollution (males)

	2001-2005	2006-2010
Not worried	22.2	13.5
Slightly worried	27.6	23.3
Somewhat worried	27.2	28.7
Very worried	22.9	34.6
% of Total surveyed	45.8	54.2
Number surveyed	3118	3693

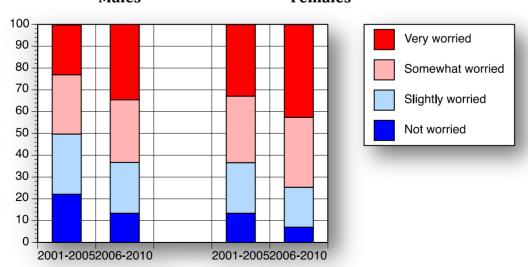
Chi-square DF3, Value 165.6760, Probability <.0001

Figure 8: Are you worried or not about – air and water pollution (females)

	2001-2005	2006-2010
Not worried	13.5	7.1
Slightly worried	23.2	18.3
Somewhat worried	30.5	32.1
Very worried	32.8	42.5
% of Total surveyed	44.8	55.2
Number surveyed	3251	4010

Chi-square DF3, Value 138.4316, Probability <.0001

Chart of Figures 7-8: Worried or not about – air and water pollution Males Females



While those born in Hong Kong showed a large increase in concern over air and water pollution between 2001-2005 and 2006-2010, concern also rose among those born in Mainland China. In fact, while the not worried dropped 7.4 percentage points among the Hong Kong born respondents, it fell 11.8 percentage points among those born in Mainland China, indicating that the Mainland born more strongly reacted to the issue between the beginning and end of the decade than native Hong Kongers, though the overall rate of concern remained higher among those born in Hong Kong. The very concerned about this issue were nearly the same among both groups in the first time period, but Hong Kong born respondents showed larger increases in the very worried portion.

Figure 9: Are you worried or not about – air and water pollution (Hong Kong born)

	2001-2005	2006-2010
Not worried	16.3	8.9
Slightly worried	26	20
Somewhat worried	29.9	30.9
Very worried	27.9	40.3
% of Total surveyed	50.2	49.8
Number surveyed	5106	5063

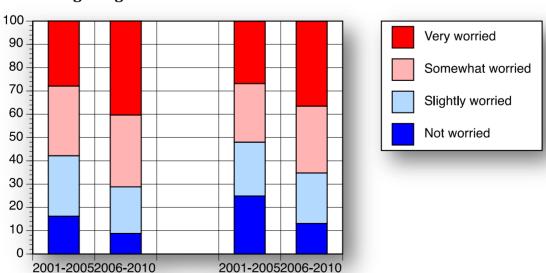
Chi-square DF3, Value 268.4011, Probability <.0001

Figure 10: Are you worried or not about – air and water pollution (Mainland born)

	2001-2005	2006-2010
Not worried	25	13.2
Slightly worried	23.1	21.7
Somewhat worried	25.2	28.7
Very worried	26.7	36.4
% of Total surveyed	39.1	60.9
Number surveyed	1089	1695

Chi-square DF3, Value 74.1323, Probability <.0001

Chart of Figures 9-10: Worried or not about—air and water pollution
Hong Kong born
Mainland born



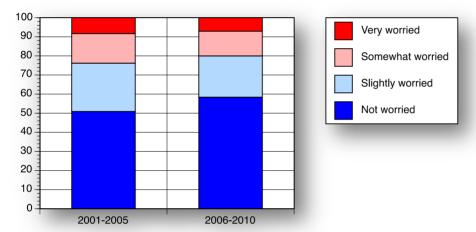
7.3 Rule of law

Rule of law is a particularly Hong Kong issue and is often cited as one of the key distinguishing elements between the once British ruled Special Administrative Region of Hong Kong and the rest of the Peoples Republic of China. Figure 11 shows that concerns about the rule of law, like concerns about freedom of the press, dropped between 2001-2005 and 2006-2010.

Figure 11: Are you worried or not about – rule of law (all respondents)

	2001-2005	2006-2010
Not worried	50.9	58.4
Slightly worried	25.3	21.6
Somewhat worried	15.5	12.9
Very worried	8.3	7.1
% of Total surveyed	48.8	51.2
Number surveyed	7367	7727

Chi-square DF3, Value 86.9972, Probability <.0001



Both men and women show lessening levels of concern about rule of law, though women's level of concern averages somewhat higher than men's.

Figure 12: Are you worried or not about – rule of law (males)

	2001-2005	2006-2010
Not worried	57.2	62.4
Slightly worried	22.2	19.8
Somewhat worried	13.4	11.2
Very worried	7.2	6.7
% of Total surveyed	49.6	50.4
Number surveyed	3687	3748
Cl.: DE2 W-l 21 C	0.6.4 D l l.:1:4	0001

Chi-square DF3, Value 21.6364, Probability <.0001

Figure 13: Are you worried or not about – rule of law (females)

	2001-2005	2006-2010
Not worried	44.6	54.8
Slightly worried	28.3	23.4
Somewhat worried	17.6	14.4
Very worried	9.5	7.4
% of Total surveyed	48	52
Number surveyed	3680	3979

Chi-square DF3, Value 79.8241, Probability <.0001

While concerns with rule of law lessened in both groups born in Hong Kong and those born in Mainland China, concerns remained higher among the Hong Kong born than among the Mainland born between the 2001-2005 and 2006-2010 time periods. Those born in Hong Kong also showed higher levels of being very worried about the issue in both time periods. But overall worries fell over the decade.

Figure 14: Are you worried or not about – rule of law (Hong Kong born)

	2001-2005	2006-2010
Not worried	48.7	55.7
Slightly worried	26.4	22.4
Somewhat worried	16.5	14.1
Very worried	8.3	7.8
% of Total surveyed	53.4	46.6
Number surveyed	5853	5107

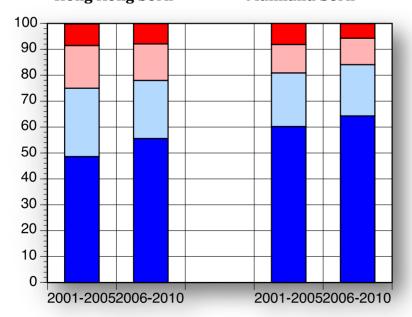
Chi-square DF3, Value 54.9488, Probability <.0001

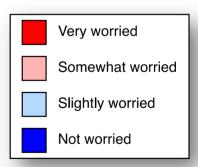
Figure 15: Are you worried or not about – rule of law (Mainland born)

	2001-2005	2006-2010
Not worried	60.3	64.4
Slightly worried	20.7	19.8
Somewhat worried	11	10.2
Very worried	8.1	5.6
% of Total surveyed	44	56
Number surveyed	1311	1672

Chi-square DF3, Value 9.2976, Probability <.0256

Chart of Figures 14-15: Worried or not about – rule of law Hong Kong born Mainland born





7.4 Regression analysis of worries about free press, pollution and rule of law

1. Comparison of gender and birthplace differences over freedom of the press

Final factor model for contrast tests, gender and birthplace across time cohorts, worry about freedom of the press

Type 3 Analysis of Effects											
	Wald										
Effect	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq								
cohort	3	23.7984	<.0001								
gender	3	134.4477	<.0001								
cohort*gender	3	11.3898	0.0098								
birthplace	3	252.1115	<.0001								

Birthplace differences on freedom of the press:

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row										
Standard Wald										
Contrast Type Row Estimate Error Alpha Confidence Limits Chi-Square Pr > Ch									Pr > ChiSq	
Hong Kong vs Mainland	EXP	1	1.6495	0.0660	0.05	1.5251	1.7840	156.4278	<.0001	
Hong Kong vs Mainland	EXP	2	1.8629	0.0952	0.05	1.6853	2.0592	148.1243	<.0001	
Hong Kong vs Mainland	EXP	3	1.2798	0.0747	0.05	1.1415	1.4348	17.8780	<.0001	

Gender difference contrast across time cohorts: freedom of the press

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row										
				Standard				Wald		
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confiden	ce Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	
male vs female, cohort 2	EXP	1	0.6625	0.0267	0.05	0.6122	0.7169	104.5526	<.0001	
male vs female, cohort 2	EXP	2	0.6726	0.0330	0.05	0.6109	0.7405	65.3017	<.0001	
male vs female, cohort 2	EXP	3	0.8511	0.0522	0.05	0.7546	0.9598	6.9122	0.0086	
male vs female, cohort 3	EXP	1	0.7156	0.0408	0.05	0.6399	0.8003	34.4008	<.0001	
male vs female, cohort 3	EXP	2	0.8371	0.0584	0.05	0.7302	0.9597	6.5004	0.0108	
male vs female, cohort 3	EXP	3	1.1179	0.0953	0.05	0.9458	1.3212	1.7075	0.1913	

2. Comparison of gender and birthplace differences over worry about air & water pollution

Final factor model for contrast tests, gender and birthplace across time cohorts, worry about air and water pollution

Type 3 Analysis of Effects									
		Wald							
Effect	DF	Chi-Square	•						
cohort	3	000.1102							
gender	3	249.1092	<.0001						
birthplace	3	70.7483	<.0001						

Birthplace differences on worry about air and water pollution

			-			-				
Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row										
Standard Wald										
Contrast	Туре	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confiden	ce Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	
Hong Kong vs Mainland	EXP	1	1.5286	0.1074	0.05	1.3320	1.7542	36.4840	<.0001	
Hong Kong vs Mainland	EXP	2	1.6977	0.1152	0.05	1.4863	1.9392	60.8544	<.0001	
Hong Kong vs Mainland	EXP	3	1.6458	0.1096	0.05	1.4444	1.8752	55.9804	<.0001	

Gender differences on worry about air and water pollution

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row									
	Standard							Wald	
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confiden	ce Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Male vs Female	EXP	1	0.7198	0.0442	0.05	0.6382	0.8120	28.6218	<.0001
Male vs Female	EXP	2	0.5146	0.0304	0.05	0.4584	0.5778	126.5647	<.0001
Male vs Female	EXP	3	0.4375	0.0256	0.05	0.3902	0.4907	199.9512	<.0001

Time cohorts differences on worry about air and water pollution

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row									
	Standard							Wald	
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confidenc	e Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
cohort 2 vs cohort 3	EXP	1	1.5009	0.0928	0.05	1.3295	1.6943	43.1103	<.0001
cohort 2 vs cohort 3	EXP	2	1.9840	0.1180	0.05	1.7656	2.2294	132.6025	<.0001
cohort 2 vs cohort 3	EXP	3	2.6997	0.1591	0.05	2.4052	3.0304	283.8495	<.0001

3. Comparison of gender and birthplace differences over worry about rule of law

Final factor model for contrast tests, gender and birthplace across time cohorts, worry about rule of law

Type 3 Analysis of Effects							
		Wald					
Effect	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq				
cohort	3	60.0993	<.0001				
gender	3	155.0157	<.0001				
birthplace	3	93.0518	<.0001				

Birthplace differences on worry about rule of law

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row									
	Standard Wald								
Contrast	Туре	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confiden	ce Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Hong Kong vs Mainland	EXP	1	1.4175	0.0748	0.05	1.2783	1.5719	43.7541	<.0001
Hong Kong vs Mainland	EXP	2	1.6969	0.1142	0.05	1.4872	1.9360	61.7792	<.0001
Hong Kong vs Mainland	EXP	3	1.4014	0.1164	0.05	1.1908	1.6493	16.4994	<.0001

Gender differences on worry about rule of law

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row									
	Standard							Wald	
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confidence	ce Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Male vs Female	EXP	1	0.6667	0.0281	0.05	0.6139	0.7241	92.4866	<.0001
Male vs Female	EXP	2	0.6272	0.0319	0.05	0.5677	0.6930	83.9558	<.0001
Male vs Female	EXP	3	0.6570	0.0431	0.05	0.5777	0.7470	41.0719	<.0001

Time cohorts differences on worry about rule of law

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row									
				Standard				Wald	
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confidence	e Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
cohort 2 vs cohort 3	EXP	1	0.7626	0.0322	0.05	0.7020	0.8284	41.1645	<.0001
cohort 2 vs cohort 3	EXP	2	0.7607	0.0387	0.05	0.6885	0.8405	28.8725	<.0001
cohort 2 vs cohort 3	EXP	3	0.7840	0.0514	0.05	0.6895	0.8915	13.7740	0.0002

Part 8: Problem of greatest personal concern

Part 8 examines open ended questions of what personal issues worries respondents most. These concerns are responses to the question: Which problem (in Hong Kong) are you most concerned about personally? The responses are then recoded and reclassified according to this table. The recoded responses such as salary cuts, employment/unemployment and so on were then reclassified into groups of economic issues, political issues or social issues.

Figure 1: Recoded responses on greatest personal concern, classified by economic, social and political issues

No problem

Salary cuts

Employment/unemployment

Economic growth rate

Business closings

Affordable housing/ property market

Hong Kong stock market

Hong Kong int'l competitiveness

Inflation

Wealth gap

Welfare cuts

Elderly welfare

All economic

Corruption

Political stability

Freedom of press, demonstration, travel

Autonomy of HK

Fair judiciary

Competence of civil servants

Competence of Chief Executive

All political

Good quality education

Crime

Public medical services

Pollution (air &/or water)

Overpopulation

All social

Other

The reclassified responses above, that is, those classified as economic, social or political concerns, and dropping responses of "other" and "no problem" were then tested by gender, birthplace and education level across the three time cohorts of 1994-2000, 2001-2005, and 2006-2010.

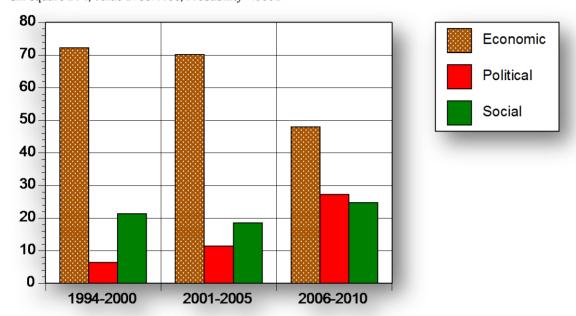
8.1 Greatest personal concern by gender

Economic concerns clearly dominated the 1994-2005 period with political concerns coming in as the area with least personal concern. But in the last time cohort, 2006-2010, political concerns rose above social issues and economic issues made up the most concerning personal problem for less than a majority for the first time. In terms of personal issues of greatest concern, clearly the final time cohort saw a significant shift.

Figure 2: Greatest personal concern (all respondents)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Economic	72.2	70.1	47.9
Political	6.4	11.4	27.3
Social	21.4	18.5	24.8
% of Total surveyed	23.5	45.4	31.1
Number surveyed	6178	11956	8190

Chi-square DF4, Value 1783.4468, Probability <.0001



Women in general across all time cohorts appear more concerned about social issues. This is in accord with separate surveys on the environment (not included in this data set) showing women more concerned with pollution.¹⁶

Figure 3: Greatest personal concern (males)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Economic	73.6	72.5	50.5
Political	7.1	12.3	28.8
Social	19.3	15.3	20.7
% of Total surveyed	24.6	44.8	30.6
Number surveyed	3228	5885	4011

Chi-square DF4, Value 876.7674, Probability <.0001

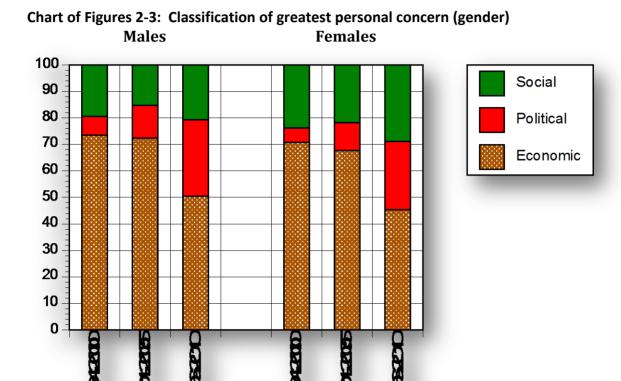
Figure 4: Greatest personal concern (females)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Economic	70.8	67.8	45.5
Political	5.5	10.5	25.8
Social	23.7	21.7	28.7
% of Total surveyed	22.3	46	31.7
Number surveyed	2950	6071	4179

Chi-square DF4, Value 916.2374, Probability <.0001

¹⁶ See 2008 and 2010 surveys on the environment at the Civic-Exchange website, http://www.civic-exchange.org/wp/category/publications/surveys/

What is surprising in these results is that women are nearly as concerned with political issues as men. Given women's concerns with household expenses and budget management, and their tendency until the 2012 Legislative Council election to be under-represented in registration to vote, women's nearly equal degree of choosing a political issue as their issue of greatest personal concern is unexpected.



Also somewhat unexpected is how those born in Hong Kong and those born on the mainland show very little difference in the nature of their most pressing personal concerns. Given mainland born respondents tendency to be from lower income brackets and less well paid occupation categories (see in this report above sections on income and occupations), that more of those born on the mainland choose economic related issues as their greatest personal concern is no surprise. However, that the difference is only 2 to 3 percentage points in all three time cohorts shows that mainland born respondents problems are very little different in profile from Hong Kong born respondents, a result that is surprising given the political and policy emphases in 2011-2012 on the differences between Hong Kongers and mainlanders.

8.2 Greatest personal concern by Birthplace

Figure 5: Greatest personal concern (Hong Kong born)

0		\ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ 			
	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010		
Economic	73	69.5	47.4		
Political	6	11.9	27.2		
Social	21	18.6	25.5		
% of Total surveyed	22.2	46.4	31.4		
Number surveyed	4371	9129	6187		

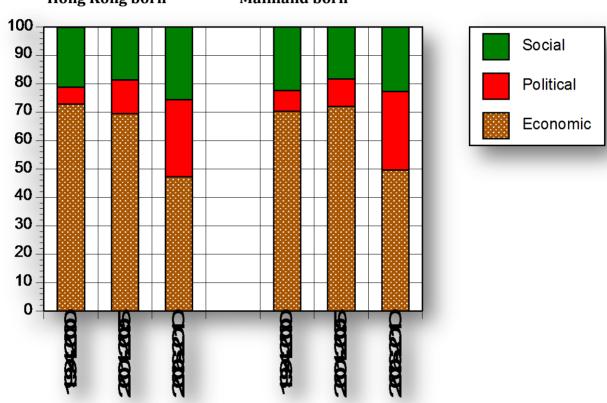
Chi-square DF4, Value 1327.4275, Probability <.0001

Figure 6: Greatest personal concern (Mainland China born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Economic	70.5	72.2	49.7
Political	7.2	9.6	27.7
Social	22.4	18.3	22.7
% of Total surveyed	27.2	42.6	30.2
Number surveyed	1807	2827	2003

Chi-square DF4, Value 474.0556, Probability <.0001

Chart of Figures 5-6: Classification of greatest personal concern (birthplace)
Hong Kong born
Mainland born



8.3 Greatest personal concern by Education

In section three all those with less than a primary 6 level of education were classified as primary educated. Those with any education above primary 6 but less than 13 years were classified as secondary educated. Those with any education 13 years or more, including university graduates and post-graduates were classified as tertiary educated.

Figure 7: Greatest personal concern (primary education)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Economic	70.1	73	50.6
Political	6.4	8.2	23.5
Social	23.6	18.8	26
% of Total surveyed	28.8	46.5	24.7
Number surveyed	1052	1701	904

Chi-square DF4, Value216.6417, Probability <.0001

Figure 8: Greatest personal concern (secondary education)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Economic	74.6	72.4	50.9
Political	5.5	10.1	26.4
Social	19.9	17.5	22.7
% of Total surveyed	24.4	47	28.5
Number surveyed	3589	6915	4195

Chi-square DF4, Value 998.8218, Probability <.0001

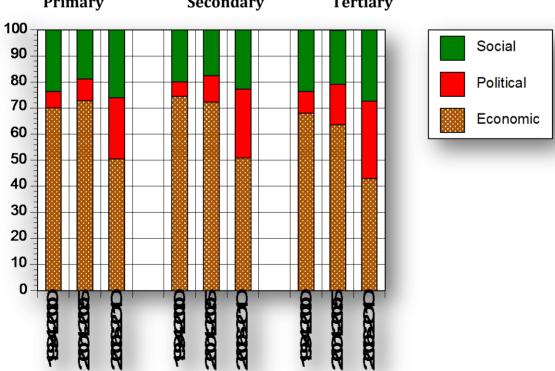
Figure 9: Greatest personal concern (tertiary education)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Economic	68.2	63.8	43.1
Political	8.3	15.5	29.6
Social	23.6	20.6	27.3
% of Total surveyed	19.3	41.9	38.8
Number surveyed	1537	3340	3091

Chi-square DF4, Value 482.4429, Probability <.0001

The results show that in general, those with less than tertiary education tend to have higher levels of concern with economic issues. But all three education groups show a distinct rise in politically related concerns in the 2006-2010 time cohort, despite 2003-2004 being a period of massive public demonstrations, with over half a million joining a protest on 1 July 2003. Those with tertiary level education tend, in general, to show higher levels of political concerns than less educated respondents. But the overall patterns of response show that neither the wealth gap nor birthplace, nor education differences, make considerable differences in changes in responses. Those appear largely rooted in events during the time cohorts. The biggest difference, more emphasis on social issues in general, appears gender related.

Chart of Figures 5-6: Classification of greatest personal concern (education level)
Primary Secondary Tertiary



8.4 Regression analysis of greatest personal concern

Final Regression model: Greatest personal concern

Type 3 Analysis of Effects

Effect	DF	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
cohort	4	198.5658	<.0001
gender	2	5.7423	0.0566
education	4	32.0374	<.0001
cohort*education	8	24.7329	0.0017
gender*education	4	14.8151	0.0051

Gender difference in cohorts

Contrast Test Results

Contr	ast	DF	Chi-	Wald Square	Pr 3	ChiSq			
M vs	F	2		5.7423		0.0566			
			Contrast E	stimation a	and Test	ing Results	by Row		
Contrast	Туре	Row	Estimate	Standard Error	Alpha	Confidence	e Limits	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
M vs F M vs F	EXP EXP	1 2	1.1413 0.8616	0.1250 0.0723	0.05 0.05	0.9208 0.7310	1.4146 1.0156	1.4563 3.1534	0.2275 0.0758

Marginal differences in gender responses toward social issues. No gender differences by birthplace. Birthplace also has no effect on gender patterned responses by educational level (that is, both Hong Kong born and Mainland born women differ from Hong Kong born and Mainland born men in similar ways).

Gender difference within educational levels

Contrast Test Results

Contrast					DF	Chi	Wald -Square		> ChiSe	1
M vs F,befo	ore prin	nary (and pr	imary	2		5.7423	;	0.056	6
			Contrast	Estimation a	nd Testing F	Results by R	low			
Contrast		Туре	Row	Estimate	Standard Error	Alpha	Confidence	e Limits	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
M vs F,before primary M vs F,before primary		EXP EXP	1 2	1.1413 0.8616	0.1250 0.0723	0.05 0.05	0.9208 0.7310	1.4146 1.0156	1.4563 3.1534	0.2275 0.0758
	Cor	ntras	t Test	Results	\$					
				Į.	lald					
Contrast			DF	Chi-Squ	iare	Pr >	ChiSq			
M vs F, sed	condary	Co	2 ntrast Est	88.5		-	.0001			
Contrast	Туре	Row	Estimate	Standard Error	Alpha	Confiden	ce Limits	Wald Chi-Square		(Sq
M vs F, secondary M vs F, secondary	EXP EXP	1 2	1.0604	0.0538 0.0294	0.05 0.05	0.9601 0.6256	1.1713 0.7411	1.3379		

Contrast Test Results

Contrast					DF	Chi-Se	Wald quare	Pr >	ChiSq
M vs F, undergraduat		postgraduate 2			2 93.9741		<.0001		
Contrast	Туре	Row	Estimate	Standard Error	Alpha	Confidence	ce Limits	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
M vs F, undergraduate and postgraduate M vs F, undergraduate and postgraduate	EXP EXP	1 2	0.9565 0.5913	0.0585 0.0329	0.05 0.05	0.8483 0.5303	1.0784	0.5286 89.2191	0.4672 <.0001

Gender difference, primary vs. secondary educational levels

Contrast Test Results

Contrast					DF	Chi-Squ	lald Iare	Pr → Ch	iSq
M vs F,before primary and p	rimary	VS S	econdar	У	2	6.2	293	0.0	444
	Contrast	Estimati	on and Test	ing Results	by Row				
Contrast	Туре	Row	Estimate	Standard Error	Alpha	Confidenc	e Limits	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
M vs F,before primary and primary vs secondary M vs F,before primary and primary vs secondary	EXP EXP	1 2	0.9291 0.7903	0.1122 0.0746	0.05 0.05	0.7334 0.6568	1.1772 0.9508	0.3707 6.2204	0.5426 0.0126

Gender difference, secondary vs. tertiary educational levels

Contrast Test Results

Contrast					DF	Ch i -Sq	Wald uare	Pr > Cl	niSq
M vs F,secondary vs undergradu	ate an	d pos	tgradua	te	2	4.	6480	0.0	0979
С	ontrast Es	timation	and Testin	g Results by	Row				
Contrast	Туре	Row	Estimate	Standard Error	Alpha	Confidenc	e Limits	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
M vs F,secondary vs undergraduate and postgraduate	EXP EXP	1	0.9020	0.0717	0.05	0.7718 0.7565	1.0540	1.6846	0.1943

Part 9: Participation in civil society

Hong Kong is noted for its extensive networking and vigorous civil society. Women's participation in networking and civil society organizations, whether professional, business associated, political or social, is a crucial measurement of their movement into avenues of expression, participation, and leadership across the spheres of business, governance and civil society. In this part of the report respondents were asked: "Have you attended any meetings or activities of one of the following groups in the last six months?" A list was then read out of various types of civil society associations. These have been reclassified according to the following table.

Figure 1: Participation in civil society (attendance previous six months)

Type of Association

Trade Union

Professional association (degreed & licensed profession)

Mutual Aid Committee

Owner's Corporation

Pressure/political group

Social service/charitable organization

Cultural/recreational organization

Religious group or church

Environmental group/organization

Each of these types of associations is then tested by gender and birthplace across time.

9.1 Trade unions

The first type of association tested, trade unions, shows that on average across the three time cohorts, about 5.8 percent participated in trade union meetings during the prior six month period. The average for men and women, 7.3 percent of men versus 4.2 percent of women, shows that women's participation lags behind that of men. Both men and women showed drops in participation during the tough economic times of 2001-2005, and both show some recovery of participation in the 2006-2010 period, though not to the level seen in 1994-2000.

Figure 2: Participation in civil society - trade unions (all respondents)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	6.4	5.1	5.8
No	93.6	94.9	94.2
% of Total surveyed	35.2	37	27.8
Number surveyed	14962	15754	11811

Chi-square DF2, Value 25.0181, Probability < .0001

Figure 3: Participation in civil society - trade unions (males)

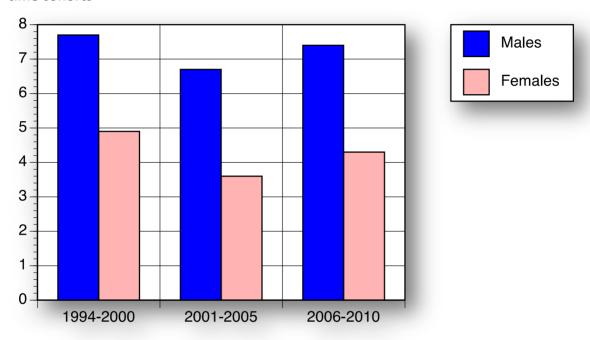
	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	7.7	6.7	7.4
No	92.3	93.4	92.6
% of Total surveyed	36.1	36.7	27.2
Number surveyed	7679	7791	5788

Figure 4: Participation in civil society - trade unions (females)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	4.9	3.6	4.3
No	95.2	96.4	95.7
% of Total surveyed	33.2	38.1	28.8
Number surveyed	6943	7963	6023

Chi-square DF2, Value 15.8230, Probability <.0004

Chart of Figures 3 and 4: Participation in civil society - trade unions (male/female) across time cohorts*



^{*}Percent responding Yes to attendance in prior 6 months

Participation in trade unions by birthplace of respondents shows very little variation in patterns between those born in Hong Kong and on the mainland. The primary difference appears to be over time and by gender, rather than by birthplace, with Hong Kong born respondents being slightly more likely to be union attenders in all time periods.

Figure 5: Participation in civil society - trade unions (Hong Kong born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	6.6	5.2	6.1
No	63.4	94.8	93.9
% of Total surveyed	32.8	39.6	27.6
Number surveyed	9524	11515	8025

Chi-square DF2, Value 18.1904, Probability <.0001

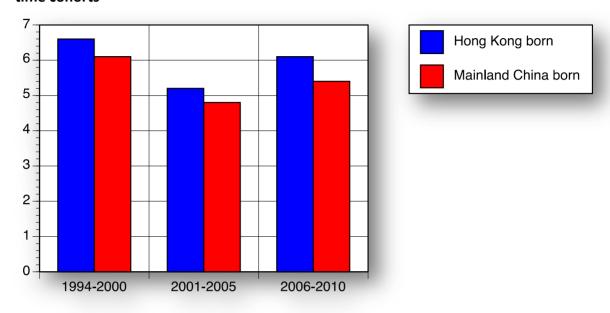
Figure 6: Participation in civil society - trade unions (Mainland born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	6.1	4.8	5.4
No	93.9	95.2	94.6

% of Total surveyed	39	35.2	25.8
Number surveyed	4041	3657	2678

Chi-square DF2, Value 5.7991, Probability <.0550

Chart of Figures 5 and 6: Participation in civil society - trade unions (birthplace) across time cohorts*



^{*}Percent responding Yes to attendance in prior 6 months

Regression analysis of trade union attendance

Final model: Trade union attendance

Type 3 Analysis of Effects								
		Wald						
Effect	DF		Pr > ChiSq					
cohort	2	20.7565	<.0001					
gender	1	155.1695	<.0001					
birthplace	1	4.8461	0.0277					

Time cohort contrast test:

Contrast Test Results								
Wald								
Contrast	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq					
cohort 1 vs cohort 2	1	20.0895	<.0001					
cohort 2 vs cohort 3	1	8.2981	0.0040					

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row									
				Standard				Wald	
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confiden	ce Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
cohort 1 vs cohort 2	EXP	1	0.7951	0.0407	0.05	0.7192	0.8789	20.0895	<.0001
cohort 2 vs cohort 3	EXP	1	1.1724	0.0647	0.05	1.0521	1.3063	8.2981	0.0040

Gender difference contrast test:

		Contrast Test Results								
					١	Wald				
	(Contrast	1	DF	Chi-Sq	uare	Pr>	ChiSq		
	N	Nale vs Fe	male	1	155.	1695	-	<.0001		
	Co	ntrast Fsti	mation	an	d Testir	na Re	sults	hy Row		
		naust Est				ig ito	Juito	by Non	Wald	
Туре	Row	Estimate				Conf	idend	e Limits		
EXP	1	1.7483	0.0	784	0.05	1.0	6012	1.9089	155,1695	<.0001
		Co Type Row	Contrast Esti	Contrast Male vs Female Contrast Estimation Stand Type Row Estimate Er	Contrast DF Male vs Female 1 Contrast Estimation an Type Row Estimate Error	Contrast DF Chi-Sq Male vs Female 1 155. Contrast Estimation and Testin Type Row Estimate Error Alpha	Contrast DF Chi-Square Male vs Female 1 155.1695 Contrast Estimation and Testing Re Type Row Estimate Error Alpha Conf	Contrast DF Chi-Square Pr > Male vs Female 1 155.1695 Contrast Estimation and Testing Results Type Row Estimate Error Alpha Confidence	Contrast DF Chi-Square Pr > ChiSq Male vs Female 1 155.1695 <.0001 Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row Type Row Estimate Error Alpha Confidence Limits	Contrast DF Chi-Square Pr > ChiSq Male vs Female 1 155.1695 <.0001 Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row Type Row Estimate Error Alpha Confidence Limits Chi-Square

Birthplace difference contrast test:

		Contrast Test Results										
							Wald					
		trast			DF	Chi-Sq	uare	Pr > (ChiSq			
	Hon	g Kon	ıg vs Main	land	1	4.	8461	(0.0277			
						41	- Li					
	C	ontra	st Estimati	on an	d le	sting R	esults	by F	low			
				Stand	dard					Wald		
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	E	rror	Alpha	Conf	idenc	e Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > (ChiSq
Hong Kong vs Mainland	EXP	1	1.1170	0.0	0561	0.05	1.0	0122	1.2325	4.8461	0	.0277

9.2 Professional associations

Unlike union participation, participation in professional associations rose across all time cohorts. However, men clearly gained more in becoming professionals and participating in professional associations, with the proportion of women participating changing almost none at all across the years.

Figure 7: Participation in civil society – professional associations (all respondents)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	6.5	7.8	8.4
No	93.5	92.2	91.6
% of Total surveyed	35.2	37	27.8
Number surveyed	14959	15754	11811

Chi-square DF2, Value 36.5028, Probability <.0001

Figure 8: Participation in civil society – professional associations (males)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	6.8	9.3	10.1
No	93.2	90.7	89.9
% of Total surveyed	36.1	36.7	27.2
Number surveyed	7679	7791	5788

Chi-square DF2, Value 52.2737, Probability <.0001

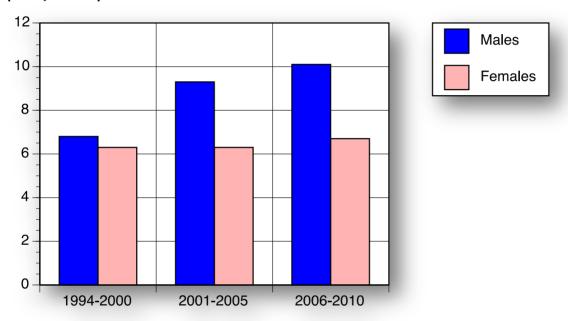
Figure 9: Participation in civil society – professional associations (females)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	6.3	6.3	6.7
No	93.7	93.7	93.3
% of Total surveyed	33.2	38.1	28.8
Number surveyed	6943	7963	6023

Chi-square DF2, Value 1.1505, Probability <.5626 No significant difference

While in the 1980s to 1990s Hong Kong's economy shifted from a factory to a service society, and despite rises in women's education (see earlier this report), women did not see a commensurate increase in their participation in professional associations. (See chart below.) This may be the best explanation for the decrease of women representatives on the Functional Constituency seats. In the 2012 Legislative Council elections, not a single woman was elected to one of the traditional 30 Functional Constituency seats, though two women, one a union leader, won election in the 5 seats elected at large from all District Councils (the vote excluded professionals with a vote in one of the traditional FC seats).

Chart of Figures 8 and 9: Participation in civil society – professional associations (male/female) across time cohorts*



^{*}Percent responding Yes to attendance in prior 6 months

Among those born in Hong Kong, participation in professional associations rose from 7.6 percent in the last years of the 20th century to nearly one in ten (9.5 percent) by the end of the first decade of the 21st century. This rise of 1.9 percentage points among those born in Hong Kong between 1994 and 2010 was significantly higher than the 1.1 percentage point rise in attendance at professional associations among those born in Mainland China. This differential in rise also likely opened the gap in professional associations between those born in Mainland China and Hong Kong. In the 1994-2000 period the gap was 4 percentage points, 7.6 percent Hong Kong born to 3.6 percent Mainland China born but by 2006-2010 the gap was 4.8 percentage points, with 9.5 percent of Hong Kong born respondents versus 4.7 percent of Mainland born respondents reporting attendance at a professional association meeting.

Figure 10: Participation in civil society – professional associations (Hong Kong born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	7.6	8.7	9.5
No	92.4	91.3	90.5
% of Total surveyed	32.8	39.6	27.6
Number surveyed	9524	11515	8025

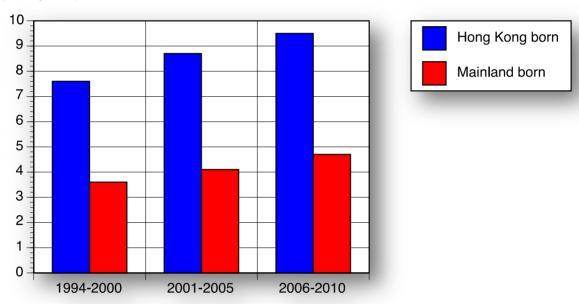
Chi-square DF2, Value 21.5375, Probability <.0001

Figure 11: Participation in civil society – professional associations (Mainland born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	3.6	4.1	4.7
No	96.4	95.9	95.3
% of Total surveyed	39	35.2	25.8
Number surveyed	4041	3657	2678

Chi-square DF2, Value 5.1887, Probability <.0747

Chart of Figures 10 and 11: Participation in civil society – professional associations (birthplace) across time cohorts*



^{*}Percent responding Yes to attendance in prior 6 months

Regression analysis of professional association attendance

Final model: Professional association attendance:

Type 3 Analysis of Effects								
		Wald						
Effect	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq					
cohort	2	1.6406						
gender	1	0.1837						
cohort*gender	2	19.9612	<.0001					
birthplace	1	215.2603	<.0001					

Gender difference contrast test across time cohorts:

Contrast Test Results								
		Wald						
Contrast	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq					
Male vs Female, cohort 1	1	0.1837	0.6682					
Male vs Female, cohort 2	1	41.1670	<.0001					
Male vs Female, cohort 3	1	35.1140	<.0001					

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row									
				Standard				Wald	
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confiden	ce Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Male vs Female, cohort 1	EXP	1	1.0308	0.0730	0.05	0.8973	1.1842	0.1837	0.6682
Male vs Female, cohort 2	EXP	1	1.4908	0.0928	0.05	1.3196	1.6842	41.1670	<.0001
Male vs Female, cohort 3	EXP	1	1.5246	0.1085	0.05	1.3261	1.7529	35.1140	<.0001

Birthplace difference contrast test:

		Contrast Test Results									
							Wald				
		trast			DF	Chi-Sq	uare	Pr > (ChiSq		
	Hon	g Kor	ng vs Main	land	1	215.	2603	<	<.0001		
	С	ontra	st Estimati	ion and	d le	sting R	esults	by F	low		
				Stand	lard					Wald	
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	E	rror	Alpha	Confi	denc	e Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Hong Kong vs Mainland	EXP	1	2.2170	0.1	203	0.05	1.9	933	2.4658	215.2603	<.0001

9.3 Residency associations: Mutual aid committees

Mutual Aid Committees were established from the 1970s in the public housing estates by the government, in response to the disturbances in society in the 1960s and early 1970s. The MACs were meant to act as means to help re-establish a sense of neighborliness and responsibility for the neighborhood in new public housing estates. They elected officers, reported on problems such as transport and trash services or noise complaints, and received reports from government bodies responsible for their services and gave reports into such bodies. The District Council system, set up in 1982 (then known as District Boards), provided means for the politically interested MAC members to rise to represent larger neighborhoods, usually several blocks in a housing estate. Each block had its own MAC, so several MACs competed or cooperated in these District Council elections. District Councils also have a limited budget for public works, but they have a much higher profile in government consultations and have much more contact with government bodies, including bodies concerned with development and re-development. The MACs along with Ownership Corporations (the equivalent bodies set up in private owned estates) make up the regional base of many parties and local area organizations. As Figure 12 shows, while the economic hard times of 2001-2005 saw a drop in participation in MACs, this recovered in 2006-2010.

Figure 12: Participation in civil society – mutual aid committees (all respondents)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	8.8	7.4	8.9
No	91.2	92.6	91.1
% of Total surveyed	35.2	37.1	27.8
Number surveyed	14957	15754	11811

Chi-square DF2, Value 26.8805, Probability <.0001

But as Figure 13 and Figure 14 show, while men increased their participation in MACs, crossing the one male in ten portion in 2006-2010, women may not have regained their portion of

participation reached in 1994-2000. The gap between men and women participation in MACs opened from 1.9 in 1994-2000 to 2.5 percentage points in 2006-2010, leaving many MAC meetings with a preponderance of male participants.

Figure 13: Participation in civil society – mutual aid committees (males)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	9.6	8.7	10.2
No	90.4	91.3	89.8
% of Total surveyed	36.1	36.7	27.2
Number surveyed	7679	7791	5788

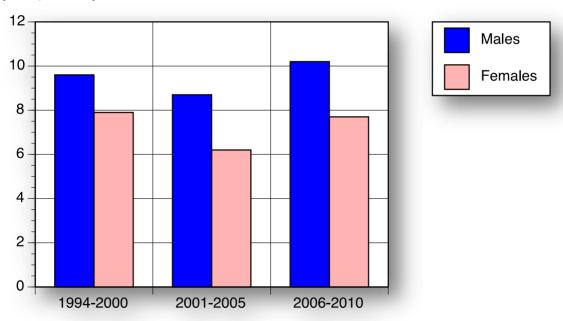
Chi-square DF2, Value 9.8588, Probability <.0072

Figure 14: Participation in civil society – mutual aid committees (females)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	7.9	6.2	7.7
No	92.1	93.8	92.3
% of Total surveyed	33.2	38	28.8
Number surveyed	6943	7963	6023

Chi-square DF2, Value 18.5850, Probability <.0001

Chart of Figures 13 and 14: Participation in civil society – mutual aid committees (male/female) across time cohorts*



^{*}Percent responding Yes to attendance in prior 6 months

Among those born in Hong Kong attendance at MACs fell from the 1994-2000 period and never fully recovered. On the other hand, those born in Mainland China participated at a higher rate than Hong Kong born in all time periods, though barely if at all in the 2001-2005 period. By 2006-2010 however, those born in Mainland China clearly predominated proportionately, with more than one in ten of those born in Mainland China participating while 8.4 percent of Hong Kong born respondents attended. This greater attendance by those born in Mainland China also

offset some of the advantage in numbers held by those born in Hong Kong, since from two thirds to 70 percent of Hong Kong residents are Hong Kong born (see gender census analysis for details across cohorts).

Figure 15: Participation in civil society – mutual aid committees (Hong Kong born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	8.7	7.5	8.4
No	91.3	92.5	91.6
% of Total surveyed	32.8	39.6	27.6
Number surveyed	9524	11515	8025

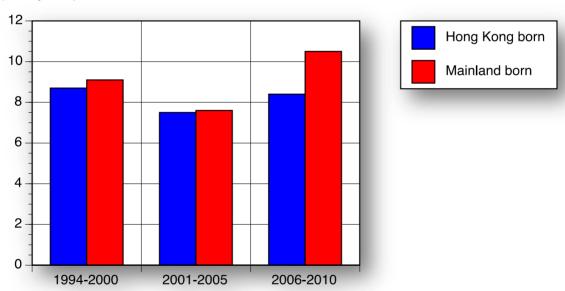
Chi-square DF2, Value 11.8045, Probability <.0045

Figure 16: Participation in civil society – mutual aid committees (Mainland born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	9.1	7.6	10.5
No	90.9	92.4	89.5
% of Total surveyed	39	35.2	25.8
Number surveyed	4041	3657	2678

Chi-square DF2, Value 16.1027, Probability <.0003

Chart of Figures 15 and 16: Participation in civil society – mutual aid committees (birthplace) across time cohorts*



^{*}Percent responding Yes to attendance in prior 6 months

Regression analysis of mutual aid committee attendance

Final model: Mutual aid committee attendance

Type 3 Analysis of Effects							
		Wald					
Effect	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq				
cohort	2	19.7826	<.0001				
gender	1	56.9855	<.0001				
birthplace	1	4.5036	0.0338				

Time cohort contras test:

		Contrast Test Results			
	Wald				
DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq			
1	12.9354	0.0003			
1	16.1248	<.0001			
	DF 1	DF Chi-Square 1 12.9354 1 16.1248			

	Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row										
				Standard				Wald			
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confiden	ce Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq		
cohort 1 vs cohort 2	EXP	1	0.8554	0.0371	0.05	0.7857	0.9314	12.9354	0.0003		
cohort 2 vs cohort 3	EXP	1	1.2022	0.0551	0.05	1.0989	1.3153	16.1248	<.0001		

Gender difference contrast test:

Cont	Contrast Test Results							
		Wald						
Contrast								
Male vs Female	1	56.9855	<.0001					
Contrast Estimation								

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row											
Standard Wald											
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confidence	e Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq		
Male vs Female	EXP	1	1.3209	0.0487	0.05	1.2288	1.4199	56.9855	<.0001		

Birthplace difference contrast test:

	,,										
		Contrast Test Results									
						١	Vald				
	Conti	rast			DF	Chi-Sq	uare Pr	r > ChiSq			
	Hong	, Kon	g vs Main	land	1	4.	5036	0.0338			
						. D	- 14 1	-			
	Co	ontras	st Estimati	on an	d le	sting R	esults b	y Row			
				Stand	dard				Wald		
Contrast	71	Row	Estimate	E	rror	Alpha	Confide	ence Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > Chis	Sq
Hong Kong vs Mainland	EXP	1	0.9170	0.0	0374	0.05	0.846	65 0.993	4.5036	0.03	38

9.4 Residency associations: Ownership corporation

There was no drop in participation in ownership corporations in the 2001-2005 period. In fact, attendance portions nearly doubled from 1994-2000 (7.4 percent attending) to 2001-2005 (14.6 percent attending). The rise in the final five year cohort of 4.1 percentage points is

considerably less than that of the two earlier cohorts, but the differences in home prices over these periods may account for this. Prices hit a peak in 1997, then plunged to lows seldom seen before in Hong Kong, then rose again from 2008 to new highs in 2011-2012. There has also been a rise in "middle class" politics in Hong Kong over this period, marking a shift from public housing estate based MAC politics that focused on working class concerns. As Figure 12 in this section shows, MAC participation was at 8.8 percent of respondents in 1994-2000, exceeding the 7.4 percent who attended owners corporations. By 2006-2010 the 8.9 percent attending MAC meetings was far exceeded by the 18.7 percent attending ownership corporation meetings.

Figure 17: Participation in civil society – ownership corporations (all respondents)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	7.4	14.6	18.7
No	92.7	85.4	81.3
% of Total surveyed	35.2	37	27.8
Number surveyed	14957	15754	11810

Chi-square DF2, Value 785.5640, Probability <.0001

Both men and women show significant increases in Ownership Corporation attendance. But the gap in attendance has widened from 1.4 percentage points difference in 1994-2000 to 4.2 percentage points in 2006-2010.

Figure 18: Participation in civil society – ownership corporations (males)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	8.1	16.4	20.8
No	91.9	83.6	79.2
% of Total surveyed	36.1	36.7	27.2
Number surveyed	7679	7791	5788

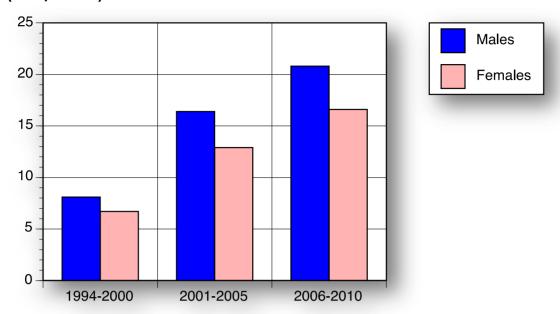
Chi-square DF2, Value 466.1350, Probability <.0280

Figure 19: Participation in civil society – ownership corporations (females)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	6.7	12.9	16.6
No	93.3	87.1	83.4
% of Total surveyed	33.2	38	28.8
Number surveyed	6943	7963	6022

Chi-square DF2, Value 314.0102, Probability <.0001

Chart of Figures 18 and 19: Participation in civil society – ownership corporations (male/female) across time cohorts*



^{*}Percent responding Yes to attendance in prior 6 months

But the most spectacular gain in ownership corporation attendance is among those born in Mainland China. While those born in Hong Kong saw a 10 point increase in their attendance of owner's corporations between 1994-2000, those born in Mainland China rose 13.8 percentage points, from 7.3 percent attending in 1994-2000 to 21.1 percent attending in 2006-2010.

Figure 20: Participation in civil society – ownership corporations (Hong Kong born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	7.5	15	17.5
No	92.5	85	82.5
% of Total surveyed	32.8	39.6	27.6
Number surveyed	9524	44515	8025

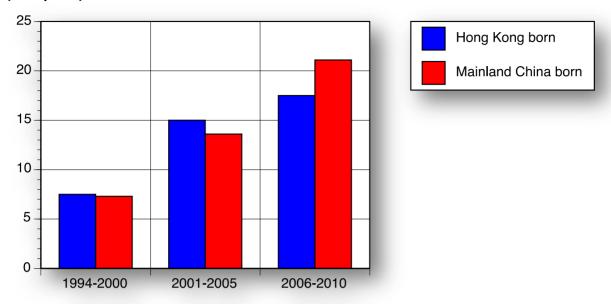
Chi-square DF2, Value 427.3143, Probability <.0001

Figure 21: Participation in civil society – ownership corporations (Mainland born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	7.3	13.6	21.1
No	92.7	86.4	78.9
% of Total surveyed	39	35.2	25.8
Number surveyed	4041	3657	2678

Chi-square DF2, Value 271.0568, Probability <.0001

Chart of Figures 20 and 21: Participation in civil society – ownership corporations (birthplace) across time cohorts*



^{*}Percent responding Yes to attendance in prior 6 months

Regression analysis of ownership corporation attendance

Final model: ownership corporation attendance

Type 3 Analysis of Effects									
		Wald							
Effect	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq						
cohort	2	644.2250	<.0001						
gender	1	74.9087	<.0001						

Time Cohort difference contrast test:

Contrast Test Results									
Wald									
Contrast	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq						
cohort 1 vs cohort 2	1	362.3645	<.0001						
cohort 2 vs cohort 3	1	65.3587	<.0001						

	Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row												
Standard Wald													
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confidence	ce Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq				
cohort 1 vs cohort 2	EXP	1	2.1447	0.0860	0.05	1.9826	2.3199	362.3645	<.0001				
cohort 2 vs cohort 3	EXP	1	1.3158	0.0447	0.05	1.2311	1.4063	65.3587	<.0001				

Gender difference contrast test:

		Г	Contrast Test Results								
							Vald				
		(Contrast	1	DF	Chi-Sq	uare	Pr > (ChiSq		
		1	Male vs Fe	male	1	74.	9087	<	.0001		
		Со	ntrast Esti	mation	an	d Testir	na Re	sults	by Row		
				Stand					,	Wald	
Contrast	Туре	Row	Estimate	Er	ror	Alpha	Conf	fidenc	e Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Male vs Female	EXP	1	1.2991	0.03	393	0.05	1.:	2243	1.3784	74.9087	<.0001

9.5 Issue associations: Pressure/political group

As with many facets of civil society, the 2001-2005 period saw a drop off in participation with political groups. The 2006-2010 period saw a recovery in participation, but the increases in participation of political and pressure groups was not significant. The nature of political parties and legislative service in Hong Kong tends to suppress attendance at party meetings. Legislators meet constituents and provide constituent services via local offices that tend to be seen as offices of legislators, not as offices of the party to which that legislator belongs. Party meetings tend to be confined to party members, and formal membership is often rather restrictive due to the suspicion among parties of "spies" and false agents sent by adversaries to infiltrate party meetings and skew party discussions and decisions.

Figure 22: Participation in civil society – pressure/political group (all respondents)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	3.4	1.9	3.7
No	96.6	98.1	96.3
% of Total surveyed	35.2	37	27.8
Number surveyed	14957	15754	11811

Chi-square DF2, Value 1973.8060, Probability <.0001

Participation among men rose in 2006-2010 above other time periods, while participation in political and pressure groups among women matched that in the 1994-2000 period, recovering significantly from the 2001-2005 period.

Figure 23: Participation in civil society – pressure/political group (males)

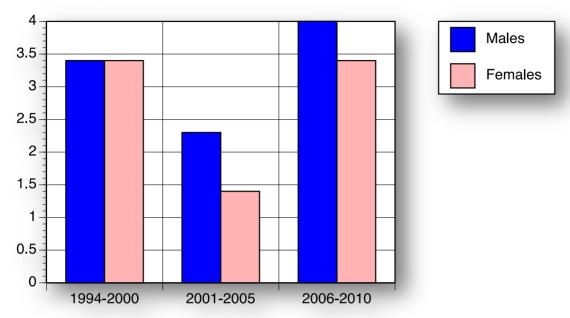
	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	3.4	2.3	4
No	96.6	97.7	86
% of Total surveyed	36.1	36.7	27.2
Number surveyed	7679	7791	5788

Chi-square DF2, Value 960.3738, Probability <.0001

Figure 24: Participation in civil society – pressure/political group (females)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	3.4	1.4	3.4
No	96.6	98.6	96.6
% of Total surveyed	33.2	38	28.8
Number surveyed	6943	7963	6023

Chart of Figures 23 and 24: Participation in civil society – pressure/political group (male/female) across time cohorts*



^{*}Percent responding Yes to attendance in prior 6 months

In the 1994-2000 period those born on the mainland had a higher percentage of participation in political and pressure groups, but the 2001-2005 and especially the 2006-2010 periods saw steep rises in Hong Kong born participation in these kinds of civil society groups. The final period marks a clear distinction, with those born in Hong Kong showing a much larger proportion attending pressure and political groups. The rise of Hong Kong for Hong Kong people emphases seen in the 2011 District Council and 2012 Legislative Council elections may account for these large differential in birthplace participation in these groups.

Figure 25: Participation in civil society – pressure/political group (Hong Kong born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	2.9	2	5
No	97.1	98	95
% of Total surveyed	32.8	39.6	27.6
Number surveyed	9524	11515	8025

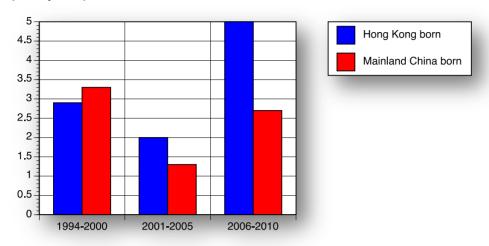
Chi-square DF2, Value 1683.1680, Probability <.0001

Figure 26: Participation in civil society – pressure/political group (Mainland born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	3.3	1.3	2.7
No	96.7	98.7	97.3
% of Total surveyed	39	35.2	25.8
Number surveyed	4041	3657	2678

Chi-square DF2, Value 455.2776, Probability <.0001

Chart of Figures 25 and 26: Participation in civil society – pressure/political group (birthplace) across time cohorts*



^{*}Percent responding Yes to attendance in prior 6 months

Regression analysis of pressure/political group attendance

Final model: Pressure/ political group attendance

Type 3 Analysis of Effects										
		Wald								
Effect	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq							
cohort	2	297.4437	<.0001							
gender	1	0.1651	0.6845							
cohort*gender	2	11.3729	0.0034							
birthplace	1	1.2648	0.2607							
cohort*birthplace	2	8.9047	0.0117							

Cohort difference contrast tests across gender and birthplace:

	Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row												
	Standard							Wald					
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confiden	ce Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq				
cohort 1 vs cohort 2, Male	EXP	1	0.5177	0.0946	0.05	0.3619	0.7406	12.9928	0.0003				
cohort 2 vs cohort 3, Male	EXP	1	8.8845	1.4620	0.05	6.4351	12.2661	176.1882	<.0001				
cohort 1 vs cohort 2, Female	EXP	1	0.3104	0.0603	0.05	0.2120	0.4543	36.2384	<.0001				
cohort 2 vs cohort 3, Female	EXP	1	13.4889	2.3672	0.05	9.5630	19.0264	219.8091	<.0001				

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row												
Standard Wald												
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confiden	ce Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq			
cohort 1 vs cohort 2, Hong Kong	EXP	1	0.5166	0.0670	0.05	0.4007	0.6661	25.9395	<.0001			
cohort 2 vs cohort 3, Hong Kong	EXP	1	11.1517	1.2212	0.05	8.9977	13.8214	485.0010	<.0001			
cohort 1 vs cohort 2, Mainland	EXP	1	0.3104	0.0603	0.05	0.2120	0.4543	36.2384	<.0001			
cohort 2 vs cohort 3, Mainland	EXP	1	13.4889	2.3672	0.05	9.5630	19.0264	219.8091	<.0001			

Gender difference contrast test cross time cohort:

Contrast Test Results										
Wald										
Contrast	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq							
Male vs Female, cohort 1	1	0.1651	0.6845							
Male vs Female, cohort 2	1	14.1605	0.0002							
Male vs Female, cohort 3	1	0.9089	0.3404							

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row												
	Standard											
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confidence Limits		Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq			
Male vs Female, cohort 1	EXP	1	0.9593	0.0981	0.05	0.7850	1.1722	0.1651	0.6845			
Male vs Female, cohort 2	EXP	1	1.6002	0.1999	0.05	1.2526	2.0441	14.1605	0.0002			
Male vs Female, cohort 3	EXP	1	1.0540	0.0581	0.05	0.9460	1.1742	0.9089	0.3404			

Birthplace difference contrast test cross time cohort:

Contrast Test Results										
Wald										
Contrast	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq							
Hong Kong vs Mainland, cohort 1	1	1.2648	0.2607							
Hong Kong vs Mainland, cohort 2	1	5.9174	0.0150							
Hong Kong vs Mainland, cohort 3	1	8.8226	0.0030							

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row												
Standard W												
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confidence	e Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq			
Hong Kong vs Mainland, cohort 1	EXP	1	0.8842	0.0968	0.05	0.7134	1.0958	1.2648	0.2607			
Hong Kong vs Mainland, cohort 2	EXP	1	1.4717	0.2338	0.05	1.0780	2.0093	5.9174	0.0150			
Hong Kong vs Mainland, cohort 3	EXP	1	1.2167	0.0804	0.05	1.0690	1.3848	8.8226	0.0030			

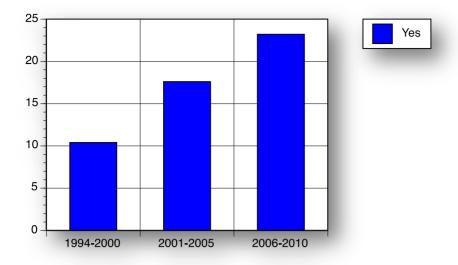
9.6 Issue associations: Social Service/Charitable Organization

The data show that participation in social service and charitable groups has grown dramatically over the past 2 decades. In the early 1990s more than likely fewer than one person in ten participated regularly in such groups. By the second half of the first decade of the 2000s, about one in four reported regular attendance at such groups. While attendance at political and pressure groups which have overt and broad public policy aims has not increased during this time period, other civil society groups that often have public policy input and frequently advocate specific policies within their interest have seen massive growth. This finding goes far in solving the oft posed conundrum of the low level of apparent political interest as expressed in political party membership on the one hand, but the high level of social engagement and policy interest expressed in demonstrations, petitions and public pressure on specific issues.

Figure 27: Participation in civil society - social service/charitable organizations (all respondents)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	10.4	17.6	23.2
No	89.6	82.4	76.8
% of Total surveyed	39.7	41.8	18.5
Number surveyed	14957	15754	6989

Chi-square DF2, Value 658.9586, Probability <.0001



^{*}Percent responding Yes to attendance in prior 6 months

While participation rose strongly among both men and women, men may have marginally increased their participation in social service and charitable groups over the rise by women. Between the first time cohort and the last, participation among men rose 12.9 percentage points while among women it rose 12.3 points. Women, however, still lead in their participation rate.

Figure 28: Participation in civil society - social service/charitable organizations (males)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	9.1	16	22
No	90.9	84	78
% of Total surveyed	40.9	41.4	17.7
Number surveyed	7679	7791	3327

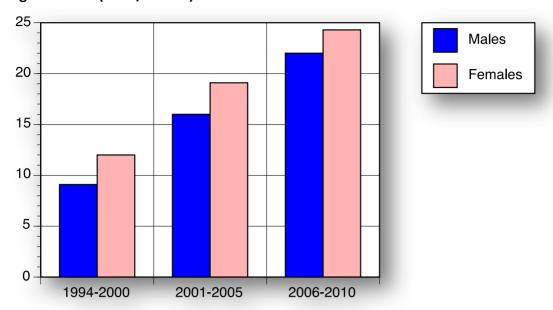
Chi-square DF2, Value 351.9368, Probability <.0001

Figure 29: Participation in civil society - social service/charitable organizations (females)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	12	19.1	24.3
No	88	80.9	75.7
% of Total surveyed	37.4	42.9	19.7
Number surveyed	6943	7963	3662

Chi-square DF2, Value 279.6333, Probability <.0001

Chart of Figures 28 and 29: Participation in civil society - social service/charitable organizations (male/female) across time cohorts*



^{*}Percent responding Yes to attendance in prior 6 months

Those born in Hong Kong may have marginally increased their presence in social service and charitable organizations over those born on the mainland, though both groups saw significant rises in participation. Those born in Hong Kong increased 11.7 percentage points in attendance over the time period while those born on the mainland increased participation by 11.1 percentage points. (See Figures and Chart below).

Figure 30: Participation in civil society - social service/charitable organizations (Hong Kong born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	11.6	18.6	23.3
No	88.4	81.4	76.7
% of Total surveyed	37.2	45	17.8
Number surveyed	9524	11515	4542

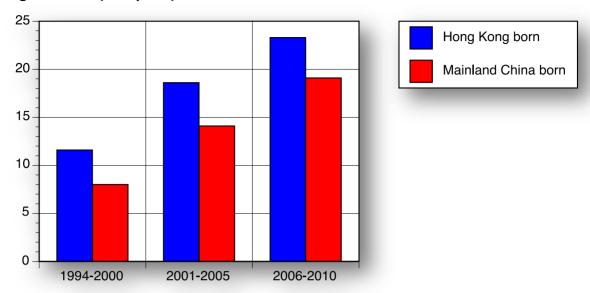
Chi-square DF2, Value 348.4719, Probability <.0001

Figure 31: Participation in civil society - social service/charitable organizations (Mainland born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	8	14.1	19.1
No	92	85.9	80.9
% of Total surveyed	43.8	39.6	16.6
Number surveyed	4041	3657	1527

Chi-square DF2, Value 145.7479, Probability <.0001

Chart of Figures 30 and 31: Participation in civil society - social service/charitable organizations (birthplace) across time cohorts*



^{*}Percent responding Yes to attendance in prior 6 months

Regression analysis of social service/charitable organization attendance

Final model: social service/charitable organization attendance:

Type 3 Analysis of Effects					
		Wald			
Effect	DF		Pr > ChiSq		
cohort	2	194.0403			
gender	1	30.0245	<.0001		
cohort*gender	2	7.6312	0.0220		
birthplace	1	83.2986	<.0001		

Cohort difference contrast test across gender:

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row									
				Standard				Wald	
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confiden	ce Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Cohort 1 vs Cohort 2, Male	EXP	1	1.8252	0.0947	0.05	1.6487	2.0207	134.3744	<.0001
Cohort 2 vs Cohort 3, Male	EXP	1	1.4652	0.0810	0.05	1.3148	1.6328	47.7813	<.0001
Cohort 1 vs Cohort 2, Female	EXP	1	1.6847	0.0812	0.05	1.5328	1.8517	116.9949	<.0001
Cohort 2 vs Cohort 3, Female	EXP	1	1.2625	0.0648	0.05	1.1417	1.3962	20.6212	<.0001

Birthplace difference contrast test:

Contrast Test Results					
		Wald			
Contrast	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq		
Hong Kong vs Mainland	1	83.2986	<.0001		

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row									
				Standard Wald					
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confidence	ce Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Hong Kong vs Mainland	EXP	1	1.3917	0.0504	0.05	1.2963	1.4940	83.2986	<.0001

Gender difference contrast test across time cohorts:

Contrast Test Results					
Wald					
Contrast	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq		
Male vs Female, cohort 1	1	30.0245	<.0001		
Male vs Female, cohort 2	1	28.2281	<.0001		
Male vs Female, cohort 3	1	1.6448	0.1997		

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row									
				Standard	ard Wald				
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confiden	ce Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Male vs Female, cohort 1	EXP	1	0.7346	0.0414	0.05	0.6579	0.8203	30.0245	<.0001
Male vs Female, cohort 2	EXP	1	0.7958	0.0342	0.05	0.7316	0.8658	28.2281	<.0001
Male vs Female, cohort 3	EXP	1	0.9236	0.0572	0.05	0.8179	1.0429	1.6448	0.1997

9.7 Issue associations: Cultural/recreational organizations

In contrast to the very strong rise of participation in social service and charitable groups, participation in cultural and recreational groups shows very little growth over the time period. If an increase in leisure time alone were cited as an explanation for the increase in social service participation, this result would negate that by showing that organizations specifically driven by leisure time activities (sports, recreation, and cultural groups are specifically supported by government grants and facilities while social service and charitable groups tend not to be as well supported by government provided grants and facilities) show very little growth. There has also been no change in participation by gender.

Figure 32: Participation in civil society – cultural/recreational organization (all respondents)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	6.9	7	7.6
No	93.1	93	92.4
% of Total surveyed	46	48.4	5.6
Number surveyed	14954	15754	1814

Chi-square DF2, Value 1.0855, Probability <.5811

Figure 33: Participation in civil society – cultural/recreational organization (males)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	6.8	6.7	8
No	93.2	93.3	92
% of Total surveyed	46.9	47.6	5.5
Number surveyed	7679	7791	903

Chi-square DF2, Value 2.1531, Probability <.3408

Figure 34: Participation in civil society – cultural/recreational organization (females)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	6.9	7.3	7.1
No	93.1	92.7	92.9
% of Total surveyed	43.9	50.3	5.8
Number surveyed	6942	7963	911

Chi-square DF2, Value 0.6978, Probability <.7055

While those born on the mainland show no change in participation rate, those born in Hong Kong show a modest increase over time.

Figure 35: Participation in civil society – cultural/recreational organization (Hong Kong born)

/			
	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	6.4	7.1	7.7
No	93.6	92.9	92.3
% of Total surveyed	42.5	51.4	6.1
Number surveyed	9523	11515	1367

Chi-square DF2, Value 18.1904, Probability <.0001

Figure 36: Participation in civil society – cultural/recreational organization (Mainland born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	6.1	5.9	6.3
No	93.9	94.1	93.7
% of Total surveyed	49.9	45.2	4.9
Number surveyed	4041	3657	394

Chi-square DF2, Value 0.2006, Probability <.9046

Regression analysis of cultural/recreational organization attendance

Final model: Cultural/recreational organization attendance:

Type 3 Analysis of Effects				
	Wald			
Effect	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	
birthplace	1	5.7023	0.0169	

Birthplace difference contrast test:

Contrast Test Results					
		Wald			
Contrast	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq		
Hong Kong vs Mainland	1	5.7023	0.0169		

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row										
Standard Wald										
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confiden	ce Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	
Hong Kong vs Mainland	EXP	1	1.1372	0.0612	0.05	1.0233	1.2638	5.7023	0.0169	

9.8 Issue associations: religious group/church

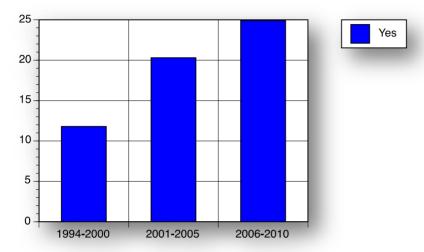
While not quite as dramatic as the increase in participation in social service/charitable groups, participation in church and religious group meetings also rose strongly across the time period. Churches in Hong Kong have clear political influence. Churches and religious groups have delegates they elect to the Chief Executive Election Committee (40 in the 2011 Chief Executive Election Committee). Churches are also major sponsors, employers and managers of schools and hospitals, with their employees in these having votes in the Education and Medical and Nursing Functional Constituency seats. Churches and religious groups are also active in human

rights areas, and often participate in demonstrations on these themes and speak out and participate in consultations on social issues (such as care for poor and elderly).

Figure 37: Participation in civil society - religious group/church (all respondents)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	11.8	20.3	24.9
No	88.2	79.7	75.1
% of Total surveyed	35.2	37	27.8
Number surveyed	14951	15754	11811

Chi-square DF2, Value 799.0055, Probability <.0001



^{*}Percent responding Yes to attendance in prior 6 months

The contrast in growth between more purely leisurely time oriented groups like cultural and recreational organizations and the social service/charitable and religious group/church sectors which have frequent, specific public policy concerns provides greater insight into the apparent weakness of political parties (which also grew little) versus the apparent strength of public reactions and lobbying power on specific issues that affect these social service and religious groups. Cultural and recreational groups also have a seat in the Legislative Council Functional Constituencies. These groups are often involved in issues such as the West Kowloon Cultural District development plans and plans for recreational and sports facilities, so their activity on public policy issues is strong in the areas upon which they focus.

Churches tend to have male leadership but female-dominated attendance, which tends to dampen the influence the larger number of women attending such groups should have. But women do have greater influence in policy stances and policy advocacy in certain aspects if the public policies these religious groups act on, such as medical care and nursing and education.

Figure 38: Participation in civil society - religious group/church (males)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	10.1	17.9	21.4
No	89.9	82.1	78.6
% of Total surveyed	36.1	36.7	27.2
Number surveyed	7679	7791	5788

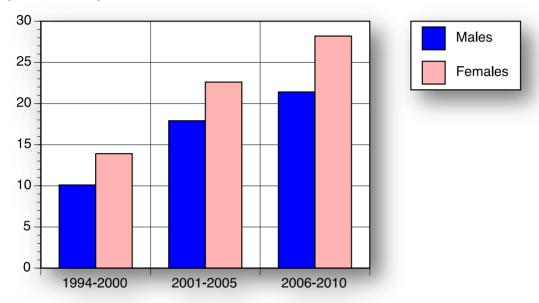
Chi-square DF2, Value 344.3601, Probability <.0001

Figure 39: Participation in civil society - religious group/church (females)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	13.9	22.6	28.2
No	86.1	77.4	71.8
% of Total surveyed	33.2	38	28.8
Number surveyed	6942	7963	6023

Chi-square DF2, Value 404.1816, Probability <.0001

Chart of Figures 38 and 39: Participation in civil society - religious group/church (male/female) across time cohorts*



^{*}Percent responding Yes to attendance in prior 6 months

While both Hong Kong born and Mainland China born respondents show large increases in attendance, those born in Hong Kong marginally increased their attendance more. Over the time period attendance at religious group meetings rose 12.9 percentage points among Hong Kong born versus 11.9 points among mainland born.

Figure 40: Participation civil society - religious group/church (Hong Kong born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	13.8	22.3	26.5
No	86.2	77.7	73.5
% of Total surveyed	32.8	39.6	27.6
Number surveyed	9522	11515	8025

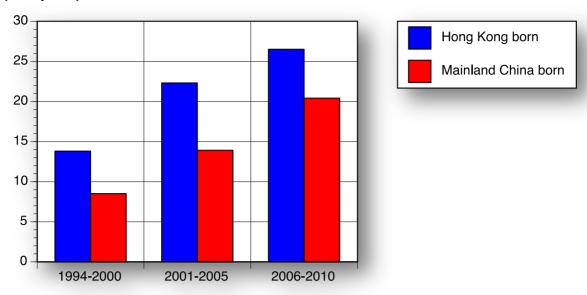
Chi-square DF2, Value 457.6665, Probability <.0001

Figure 41: Participation in civil society - religious group/church (Mainland born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	8.5	13.9	20.4
No	91.5	86.1	79.6
% of Total surveyed	39	35.2	25.8
Number surveyed	4041	3657	2678

Chi-square DF2, Value 195.6339, Probability <.0001

Chart of Figures 40 and 41: Participation in civil society - religious group/church (birthplace) across time cohorts*



^{*}Percent responding Yes to attendance in prior 6 months

Regression analysis of religious group/church attendance

Final model: Religious group/church attendance:

Type 3 Analysis of Effects									
		Wald							
Effect	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq						
cohort	2	180.6736	<.0001						
gender	1	155.5808	<.0001						
birthplace	1	69.6285	<.0001						
cohort*birthplace	2	11.6740	0.0029						

Cohort difference contrast test across birthplace:

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row											
				Standard		Wald					
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confidence	ce Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq		
Cohort 1 vs Cohort 2, Hong Kong	EXP	1	1.7738	0.0661	0.05	1.6488	1.9082	236.3712	<.0001		
Cohort 2 vs Cohort 3, Hong Kong	EXP	1	1.2492	0.0423	0.05	1.1690	1.3349	43.1937	<.0001		
Cohort 1 vs Cohort 2, Mainland	EXP	1	1.6932	0.1257	0.05	1.4639	1.9584	50.3189	<.0001		
Cohort 2 vs Cohort 3, Mainland	EXP	1	1.6008	0.1087	0.05	1.4013	1.8287	48.0077	<.0001		

Gender difference contrast test:

Contrast Test Results								
Wald								
Contrast	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq					
Male vs Female	1	155.5808	<.0001					

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row										
Standard Wald										
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confidence	Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	
Male vs Female	EXP	1	0.7206	0.0189	0.05	0.6844	0.7587	155.5808	<.0001	

Birthplace difference contrast test across time cohorts:

Contrast Test Results									
Wald									
Contrast	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq						
Hong Kong vs Mainland, cohort 1	1	69.6285	<.0001						
Hong Kong vs Mainland, cohort 2	1	120.4712	<.0001						
Hong Kong vs Mainland, cohort 3	1	37.4484	<.0001						

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row									
	Standard						Wald		
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confiden	ce Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Hong Kong vs Mainland, cohort 1	EXP	1	1.7063	0.1093	0.05	1.5050	1.9344	69.6285	<.0001
Hong Kong vs Mainland, cohort 2	EXP	1	1.7875	0.0946	0.05	1.6114	1.9828	120.4712	<.0001
Hong Kong vs Mainland, cohort 3	EXP	1	1.3949	0.0759	0.05	1.2538	1.5518	37.4484	<.0001

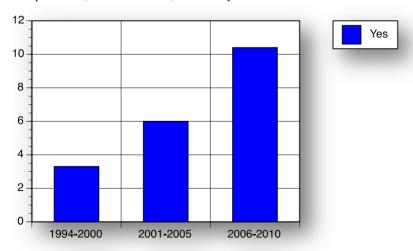
9.9 Issue associations: Environmental group/organization

Environmental groups form almost wholly to concentrate on research, information sharing and advocacy actions aimed specifically at changing public policy and public behavior. Unlike political parties that seek election and engage in a wide range of policy advocacy, environmental groups focus much more narrowly. Research shows that voters like their political candidates to be affiliated with an environmental group, and more like that association than any other type of association. While attendance at social service/charitable and religious organizations has roughly doubled over the time period, attendance at environmental groups has more than tripled, from 3.3 percent in 1994-2000 to 10.4 percent in 2006-2010. Unlike these other groups, women's participation has outpaced men's over the period, at 7.6 percentage points increase for women versus 6.6 percentage points for men.

Figure 42: Participation in civil society – environmental group/organization (all respondents)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	3.3	6	10.4
No	96.7	94	89.6
% of Total surveyed	30.5	39.7	29.8
Number surveyed	12113	15754	11811

Chi-square DF2, Value 517.9197, Probability <.0001



*Percent responding Yes to attendance in prior 6 months

¹⁷ See *Total Recall: Issues and Attitudes in the 2012 Legislative Council Elections* (September 2012) National Democratic Institute for International Affairs. Available at http://www.hktp.org

Figure 43: Participation in civil society – environmental group/organization (males)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	2.6	5.4	9.2
No	97.4	94.6	90.8
% of Total surveyed	31.4	39.3	29.2
Number surveyed	6225	7791	5788

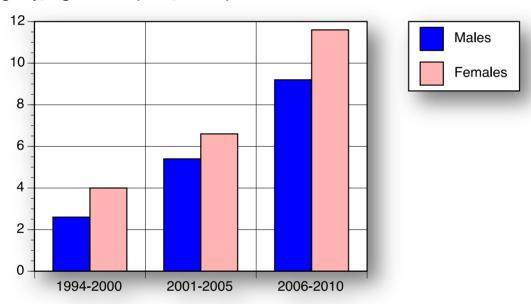
Chi-square DF2, Value 251.9044, Probability <.0001

Figure 44: Participation in civil society – environmental group/organization (females)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	4	6.6	11.6
No	96	93.4	88.4
% of Total surveyed	28.8	40.5	30.7
Number surveyed	5657	7963	6023

Chi-square DF2, Value 258.6393, Probability <.0001

Chart of Figures 43 and 44: Participation in civil society – environmental group/organization (male/female) across time cohorts*



^{*}Percent responding Yes to attendance in prior 6 months

The growth in interest in environmental groups over the period differs little according to birthplace, though Hong Kong born respondents outnumbered Mainland born respondents in all time periods. Hong Kong born increased their participation by 7.2 percentage points from 1994-2000 to 2006-2010 while Mainland China born respondents marked a 6.8 point rise in attendance.

Figure 45: Participation in civil society – environmental group/organization (Hong Kong born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	3.5	6.2	10.7
No	96.5	93.9	89.3
% of Total surveyed	29.1	41.8	29.1
Number surveyed	8020	11515	8025

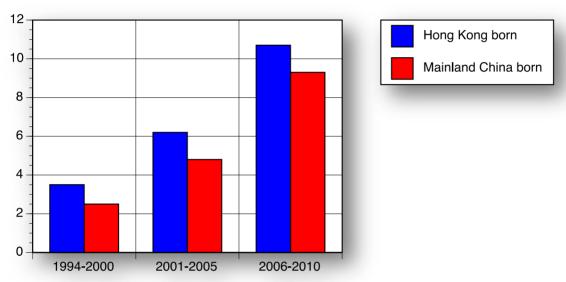
Chi-square DF2, Value 344.7320, Probability <.0001

Figure 46: Participation in civil society – environmental group/organization (Mainland born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	2.5	4.8	9.3
No	97.5	95.2	90.7
% of Total surveyed	34.8	37.6	27.6
Number surveyed	3380	3657	2678

Chi-square DF2, Value 141.4149, Probability <.0001

Chart of Figures 45 and 46: Participation in civil society – environmental group/organization (birthplace) across time cohorts*



^{*}Percent responding Yes to attendance in prior 6 months

Regression analysis of environmental group/organization attendance

Final model: Environmental group/organization attendance

Type 3 Analysis of Effects								
		Wald						
Effect	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq					
cohort	2	443.8107	<.0001					
gender	1	42.9438	<.0001					
birthplace	1	18.2533	<.0001					

Time cohort difference contrast test:

Contrast Test Results								
		Wald						
Contrast	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq					
cohort 1 vs cohort 2	1	94.3364	<.0001					
cohort 2 vs cohort 3	1	175.3205	<.0001					

	Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row								
				Standard				Wald	
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error				Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
cohort 1 vs cohort 2	EXP	1	1.8596	0.1188	0.05	1.6408	2.1076	94.3364	<.0001
cohort 2 vs cohort 3	EXP	1	1.8643	0.0877	0.05	1.7001	2.0444	175.3205	<.0001

Gender difference contrast test:

Genaer anglere	naci anjerence contract test.												
			Contrast Test Results										
							Wald						
		(Contrast		DF	Chi-Sq	uare	Pr >	ChiSq				
		P	Male vs Female		1	42.9438 <.0001		<.0001					
		Co	ntrast Esti	imation	n an	d Toetir	na Do	eulte	hy Dou	,			
			muast Esu	mauoi	ı an	u resui	ig ite	Suits	Dy NOV	<u> </u>			
				Stand	lard	ard					Wald		
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate E		rror	Alpha	Conf	iden	ce Limits	s C	Chi-Square	Pr>	ChiSq
Male vs Female	EXP	1	0.7531	0.0	326	0.05	0.	6918	0.819	7	42.9438		<.0001

Birthplace difference contrast test:

Birtiipiace aijjerence	inplace anglerence contrast test.									
			Cor	ntrast	Test	Results	;			
							Wald			
	Con	Contrast			DF	Chi-Sq	uare Pi	r > ChiSq		
	Hon	g Kon	g vs Main	land	1	18.	2533	<.0001		
								-		
	C	ontras	st Estimati	on an	d le	sting R	esults b	y Row		
				Stan	dard				Wald	
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	E	rror	Alpha	Confid	ence Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Hong Kong vs Mainland	EXP	1	1.2487	0.0	0649	0.05	1.12	77 1.3827	18.2533	<.0001

Part 10: Avenues of Expression of Concerns

This part of the report examines means by which respondents express concern on issues or seek help with problems. The time frame differs from Part 9 above, in that this question asked for contacts made in the previous 12 rather than previous 6 months. While the groups people attend may take policy related actions, this question focused on specific action taken by respondents themselves to contact policy and problem oriented groups, or to address their issues/problems by the more direct personal action of joining a protest or signing a petition.

The question posed was: "Within the past 12 months, did you express your concern or seek help from the following groups? Express your concern includes using telephone, in person, or by writing/fax/email." The groups named are in Figure 1, right hand column. The left hand column is the regrouped specific contact point or avenue of expression (for analytical and statistical purposes).

Figure 1: Categories and Avenues of Expression of Concern

Category of Expression	Specific contact point/avenue of expression
Government Institutions	Government Department
	Directly elected Legco representatives
	Functional Constituency Legco representatives
	District Council/District Officer
Policy-oriented Civil Society Institutions	Mass media
	Local-level group or Kaifong
	Pressure group/political party
Personal Policy Oriented Actions	Join rally/demonstration/protest
	Sign a petition

10.1 Governmental institutions

There has been a small but steady increase in the percentage of respondents contacting one of the government entities named in the list above over the time period.

Figure 2: Avenues of expression – governmental institutions (all respondents)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	15.1	16.1	16.6
No	84.9	83.9	83.4
% of Total surveyed	32.2	37.5	30.3
Number surveyed	12331	14333	11587

Chi-square DF2, Value 9.9004, Probability <.0071

The rise in contact among both men and women is almost the same, though women tend to contact these institutions somewhat less than men in all time cohorts.

Figure 3: Avenues of expression – governmental institutions (males)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	16.3	17.4	17.9
No	83.7	82.6	82.1
% of Total surveyed	33.2	37	29.8
Number surveyed	6339	7072	5691

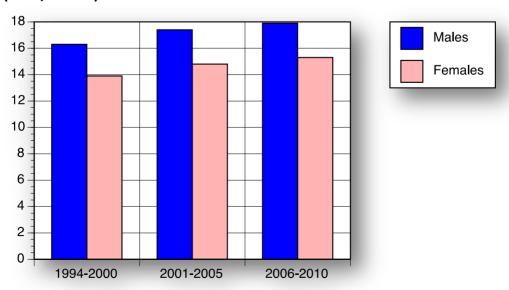
Chi-square DF2, Value 5.9306, Probability <.0515

Figure 4: Avenues of expression – governmental institutions (females)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	13.9	14.8	15.3
No	86.1	85.2	84.7
% of Total surveyed	30.4	38.4	31.2
Number surveyed	5748	7259	5896

Chi-square DF2, Value 5.0171, Probability <.0814

Chart of Figures 3 and 4: Avenues of expression – governmental institutions (male/female) across time cohorts*



^{*}Percent responding Yes to contact in prior 12 months

The key area of significance in contact with governmental institutions is the closing of the gap in contact between those born in Hong Kong and those born in Mainland China. In the earliest time cohort, 1994-2000, Hong Kong born respondents contacted government institutions 15.9 percent versus 12.8 percent for mainland born, a gap of 3.1 percentage points. By the 2006-2010 period, the gap had been cut in half, to 1.5 percentage points. The greater willingness of those born in Mainland China to contact governmental institutions may reflect a lessening of alienation from the local government felt by mainland born respondents when Hong Kong was a British colony (prior to 1 July 1997).

Figure 5: Avenues of expression – governmental institutions (Hong Kong born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	15.9	16.8	17.1
No	84.1	83.2	82.9
% of Total surveyed	30.4	39.1	30.5
Number surveyed	7856	10092	7874

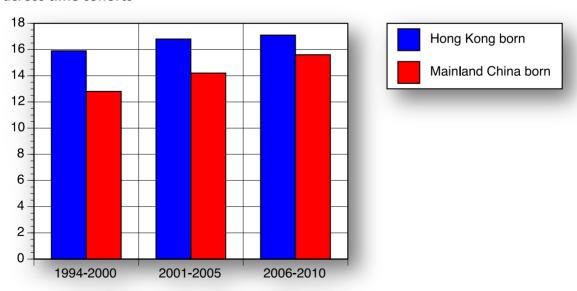
Chi-square DF2, Value 4.2566, Probability <.1190 No Association

Figure 6: Avenues of expression – governmental institutions (Mainland born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	12.8	14.2	15.6
No	87.2	85.8	84.4
% of Total surveyed	34	38.4	27.6
Number surveyed	3236	3657	2620

Chi-square DF2, Value 9.2778, Probability <.0097

Chart of Figures 5 and 6: Avenues of expression – governmental institutions (birthplace) across time cohorts*



^{*}Percent responding Yes to contact in prior 12 months

Regression analysis of contacting government institutions

Final model: Governmental institutions

Type 3 Analysis of Effects							
Wald							
Effect	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq				
cohort	2	12.5025	0.0019				
gender	1	0.8819	0.3477				
birthplace	1	4.2348	0.0396				
gender*birthplace	1	6.7622	0.0093				

Time cohort difference contrast test:

Contrast Test Results							
Wald							
Contrast	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq				
cohort 1 vs cohort 2	1	6.0581	0.0138				
cohort 2 vs cohort 3	1	1.4810	0.2236				

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row									
Standard Wald									
Contrast	Туре	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confidence	e Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
cohort 1 vs cohort 2	EXP	1	1.0912	0.0387	0.05	1.0179	1.1697	6.0581	0.0138
cohort 2 vs cohort 3	EXP	1	1.0435	0.0365	0.05	0.9743	1.1177	1.4810	0.2236

Birthplace difference contrast test across gender:

Contrast Test Results						
Wald						
Contrast	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > Chi Sq			
Hong Kong vs mainland, male	1	36.0963	<.0001			
Hong Kong vs mainland, female	1	4.2348	0.0396			

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row									
Standard Wald									
Contrast	Туре	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confiden	ce Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
Hong Kong vs mainland, male	EXP	1	1.3225	0.0615	0.05	1.2073	1.4488	36.0963	<.0001
Hong Kong vs mainland, female	EXP	1	1.1079	0.0551	0.05	1.0049	1.2214	4.2348	0.0396

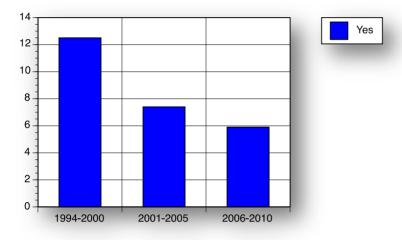
10.2 Policy oriented civil society institutions

Unlike contact with government institutions, contact with the media, local level groups and political parties has dropped considerably from 1994-2000 to 2006-2010, to a level roughly half that in the first time cohort.

Figure 7: Avenues of expression – policy oriented civil society institutions (all respondents)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	12.5	7.4	5.9
No	87.5	92.6	94.1
% of Total surveyed	32.2	37.5	30.3
Number surveyed	12328	14331	11587

Chi-square DF2, Value 367.4533, Probability <.0001



^{*}Percent responding Yes to contact in prior 12 months

The drop in contact has been steeper among men than women, though both genders show strong declines overall. Women appear to have dropped contact with the media, local level groups and political parties more than men between 2001-2005 and 2006-2010. (See chart below.)

Figure 8: Avenues of expression – policy oriented civil society institutions (males)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	14.4	8.3	7.2
No	85.6	91.7	92.8
% of Total surveyed	33.2	37	29.8
Number surveyed	6339	7072	5691

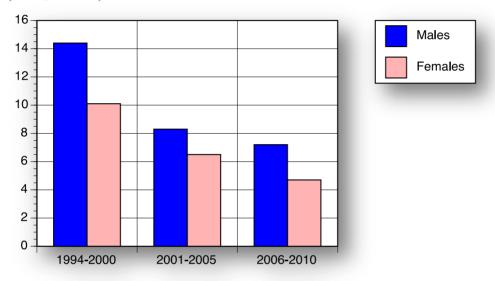
Chi-square DF2, Value 209.4905, Probability <.0001

Figure 9: Avenues of expression – policy oriented civil society institutions (females)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	10.1	6.5	4.7
No	89.9	93.5	95.3
% of Total surveyed	30.4	38.4	31.2
Number surveyed	5748	7259	5896

Chi-square DF2, Value 136.4549, Probability <.0001

Chart of Figures 8 and 9: Avenues of expression – policy oriented civil society institutions (male/female) across time cohorts*



^{*}Percent responding Yes to contact in prior 12 months

Except for the 2011-2005 time cohort, Hong Kong born respondents outnumbered Mainland China born respondents among those who had made contact to seek help or express concerns with the media, political parties or local level groups.

Figure 10: Avenues of expression – policy oriented civil society institutions (Hong Kong born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	13	7.2	6.2
No	87	92.8	93.8
% of Total surveyed	30.4	39.1	30.5
Number surveyed	7855	10092	7874

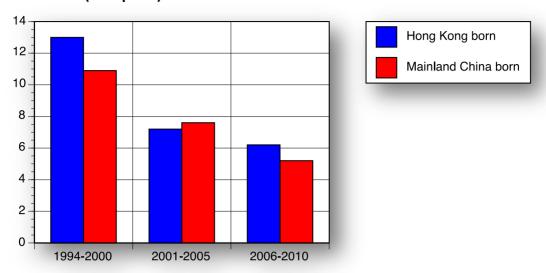
Chi-square DF2, Value 269.4242, Probability <.0001

Figure 11: Avenues of expression – policy oriented civil society institutions (Mainland born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	10.9	7.6	5.2
No	89.1	92.4	94.8
% of Total surveyed	34	38.5	27.5
Number surveyed	3235	3657	2620

Chi-square DF2, Value 66.1100, Probability <.0001

Chart of Figures 10 and 11: Avenues of expression – policy oriented civil society institutions (birthplace) across time cohorts*



^{*}Percent responding Yes to contact in prior 12 months

As seen above in terms of contacting governmental institutions and below (next section) in terms of taking personal actions to express concerns or seek help, participation rose. The decline in contact with media has complex roots. In colonial times, the Hong Kong government routinely monitored and summarized media stories related to policy issues for top officials. The public had a strong sense that comments and letters to media had an impact on government. The media in the 1980s and 1990s was vigorous, diverse and Hong Kong rated high in media freedom. In 2002 Hong Kong ranked 18th in the world with a score of 4.83. Reporters without Borders ranks entities on a scale of 0, no restrictions at all, to 100, with 100 being total state control of media. North Korea, for example, ranked dead last of 139 entities ranked with a score of 97.5.18 In 2012 Hong Kong ranked 54th globally in media freedom with a score of 17.00. The constrictions upon media noted by Reporters without Borders may very well be reflected as well in respondents dropping frequency of contacting it, as respondents' own sense of media independence and influence waned. Local area groups (kaifongs) were neighborhood groups set up to provide assistance and solve local problems. Mutual Aid Committees mirror this kind of local area organization that rose as an initiative of long time residents of a neighborhood. The rise of MACs, massive urban redevelopment than displaced many people from their traditional neighborhoods, and a great increase in owners corporations all appear to have displaced the traditional kaifong. Legislators and District Councilors are often not considered as party members when constituents seek help—they are seen as their legislator or councilor. Political parties also have a short history in Hong Kong, with the first party being established in December 1990 (United Democrats of Hong Kong, now the Democratic Party of Hong Kong). The largest party in membership and office holders, the Democratic Alliance for the Betterment and Progress of Hong Kong, was first established in 1993. So the history of parties as entities from which to seek help is not even 20 years old. This short history of parties and the weakening of the media and local kaifongs appear to be contributors to the rise in contact with formal structures of governance, the rise of personal action (next section) and the strong rise in organizations such as MACs and Owners Corporations and social service, charitable, religious

¹⁸ See rankings at Reporters without Borders website, http://en.rsf.org/spip.php?page=classement&id_rubrique=297

and environmental organizations as alternative and more focused entities via which Hong Kong people express themselves, seek help, and push for policies they want.

Regression analysis of contacting policy oriented civil society institutions

Final model: Policy oriented civil society institutions

Type 3 Analysis of Effects								
	Wald							
Effect	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq					
cohort	2	59.2614	<.0001					
gender	1	87.1890	<.0001					
birthplace	1	10.3959	0.0013					
cohort*birthplace	2	8.5956	0.0136					

Gender difference contrast test:

Contrast Test Results					
Wald					
Contrast	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq		
Male vs Female	1	87.1890	<.0001		

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row										
				Standard				Wald		
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confiden	ce Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	
Male vs Female	EXP	1	1.4396	0.0562	0.05	1.3336	1.5541	87.1890	<.0001	

Birthplace difference contrast test across time cohorts:

Contrast Test Results								
Wald								
Contrast	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq					
HK vs mainland, cohort 1	1	10.3959	0.0013					
HK vs mainland, cohort 2	1	0.6257	0.4289					
HK vs mainland, cohort 3	1	4.2230	0.0399					

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row										
			Standard				Wald			
Туре	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confiden	ce Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq		
EXP	1	1.2380	0.0820	0.05	1.0873	1.4096	10.3959	0.0013		
EXP	1	0.9437	0.0692	0.05	0.8174	1.0895	0.6257	0.4289		
EXP	1	1.2275	0.1224	0.05	1.0095	1.4926	4.2230	0.0399		
	Type EXP	Type Row EXP 1 EXP 1	Type Row Estimate EXP 1 1.2380 EXP 1 0.9437	Type Row Estimate Standard EXP 1 1.2380 0.0820 EXP 1 0.9437 0.0692	Type Row Estimate Standard Error Alpha EXP 1 1.2380 0.0820 0.05 EXP 1 0.9437 0.0692 0.05	Type Row Estimate Standard Lemony Confidence EXP 1 1.2380 0.0820 0.05 1.0873 EXP 1 0.9437 0.0692 0.05 0.8174	Type Row Estimate Standard Error Alpha Confidence Limits EXP 1 1.2380 0.0820 0.05 1.0873 1.4096 EXP 1 0.9437 0.0692 0.05 0.8174 1.0895	Type Row Estimate Standard Error Alpha Confidence Limits Chi-Square EXP 1 1.2380 0.0820 0.05 1.0873 1.4096 10.3959 EXP 1 0.9437 0.0692 0.05 0.8174 1.0895 0.6257		

Time Cohorts difference contrast test across birthplace:

Contrast Test Results								
Wald								
Contrast	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq					
cohort 1 vs cohort 2, HK	1	155.8041	<.0001					
cohort 2 vs cohort 3, HK	1	6.6300	0.0100					
cohort 1 vs cohort 2, mainland	1	18.9993	<.0001					
cohort 2 vs cohort 3, mainland	1	15.0475	0.0001					

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row									
				Standard				Wald	
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confiden	ce Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq
cohort 1 vs cohort 2, HK	EXP	1	0.5275	0.0270	0.05	0.4771	0.5832	155.8041	<.0001
cohort 2 vs cohort 3, HK	EXP	1	0.8557	0.0518	0.05	0.7599	0.9635	6.6300	0.0100
cohort 1 vs cohort 2, mainland	EXP	1	0.6920	0.0584	0.05	0.5864	0.8166	18.9993	<.0001
cohort 2 vs cohort 3, mainland	EXP	1	0.6578	0.0710	0.05	0.5324	0.8128	15.0475	0.0001

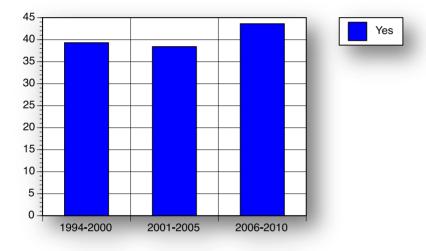
10.3 Personal policy oriented actions

In contrast to sections above, personal actions on policy such as signing petitions and joining marches and protests dropped little if any during 2001-2005, and appear to have risen in 2006-2010.

Figure 12: Avenues of expression – personal policy oriented actions (all respondents)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	39.3	38.4	43.6
No	60.7	61.6	56.4
% of Total surveyed	32.2	37.5	30.3
Number surveyed	12324	14331	11587

Chi-square DF2, Value 77.6135, Probability <.0001



^{*}Percent responding Yes to contact in prior 12 months

The chart of Figures 13 and 14 of this section also show that unlike other aspects, women closely rival men in taking these actions, with women even leading men in the 1994-2000 time cohort. The participation of women in these personal actions to such an extent also raises the puzzle of if this is the case, why have women not taken more leadership roles among the various social groups (service, charitable, religious, professional associations, political parties and environmental groups) that organize and promote petition signing and protests. There have been three parties founded and led by women in Hong Kong. Citizen's Party was established by Christine Loh in the late 1990s, but became defunct soon after she left the Legislative Council in 2000. It never had more than the one seat in Legco. The Frontier, led by Emily Lau, partially merged with the Democratic Party (she is now Vice-Chair of the Democratic Party) and partially merged with a splinter of the Democratic Party, the Neo-Democrats, in 2011, though it continues to have minor membership as a separate organization in New Territories East. It also never had more than one seat in Legco. Regina Ip set up the Savantas Institute when she returned from the US after leaving Hong Kong government as a Minister under Tung Chee-Hwa in 2003. That institute became the core of the New People's Party established in January 2011. It has two seats in Legco.

Figure 13: Avenues of expression – personal policy oriented actions (males)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	39.3	38.8	44.4
No	60.7	61.2	55.6
% of Total surveyed	33.2	37	29.8
Number surveyed	6337	7072	5691

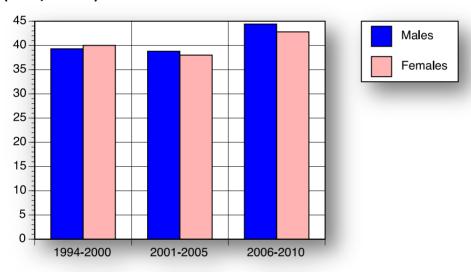
Chi-square DF2, Value 47.2068, Probability <.0001

Figure 14: Avenues of expression – personal policy oriented actions (females)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	40	38	42.8
No	60	62	57.2
% of Total surveyed	30.4	38.4	31.2
Number surveyed	5748	7259	5896

Chi-square DF2, Value 30.5853, Probability <.0001

Chart of Figures 13 and 14: Avenues of expression – personal policy oriented actions (male/female) across time cohorts*



^{*}Percent responding Yes to contact in prior 12 months

Hong Kong born respondents participated more frequently in personal policy oriented actions in all time periods, but the gap in personal activism between the two birthplace groups has narrowed from its widest in the 2001-2005 period (11 percentage points) to just 5 percentage points in 2006-2010.

Figure 15: Avenues of expression – personal policy oriented actions (Hong Kong born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	41.7	41.6	44.8
No	58.3	58.4	55.2
% of Total surveyed	30.4	39.1	30.5
Number surveyed	7853	10092	7874

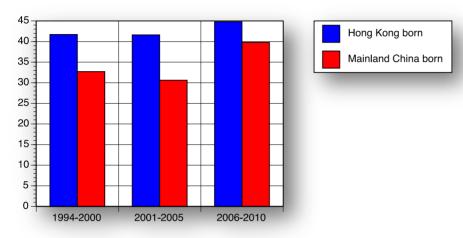
Chi-square DF2, Value 22.5090, Probability <.0001

Figure 16: Avenues of expression – personal policy oriented actions (Mainland born)

	1994-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010
Yes	32.7	30.6	39.8
No	67.3	69.4	60.2
% of Total surveyed	34	38.5	27.5
Number surveyed	3235	3657	2620

Chi-square DF2, Value 60.4079, Probability <.0001

Chart of Figures 15 and 16: Avenues of expression – personal policy oriented actions (birthplace) across time cohorts*



^{*}Percent responding Yes to contact in prior 12 months

Regression analysis of personal policy oriented actions

Final model: Personal policy oriented actions:

Type 3 Analysis of Effects								
Wald								
Effect	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq					
cohort	2	60.0562	<.0001					
birthplace	1	77.3155	<.0001					
cohort*birthplace	2	19.8637	<.0001					

Birthplace difference contrast test across cohorts:

Contrast Test Results								
Wald								
Contrast	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq					
Hong Kong vs mainland, cohort 1	1	77.3155	<.0001					
Hong Kong vs mainland, cohort 2	1	134.7089	<.0001					
Hong Kong vs mainland, cohort 3	1	20.0314	<.0001					

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row											
Standard Wald											
Contrast	Type	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confidence	e Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq		
Hong Kong vs mainland, cohort 1	EXP	1	1.4737	0.0650	0.05	1.3517	1.6067	77.3155	<.0001		
Hong Kong vs mainland, cohort 2	EXP	1	1.6126	0.0664	0.05	1.4876	1.7481	134.7089	<.0001		
Hong Kong vs mainland, cohort 3	EXP	1	1.2280	0.0564	0.05	1.1224	1.3436	20.0314	<.0001		

Time cohorts difference contrast test across birthplace:

Contrast Test Results									
Wald									
Contrast	DF	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq						
cohort 1 vs cohort 2, HK	1	0.0406	0.8403						
cohort 2 vs cohort 3, HK	1	18.8309	<.0001						
cohort 1 vs cohort 2, mainland	1	3.4223	0.0643						
cohort 2 vs cohort 3, mainland	1	56.7126	<.0001						

Contrast Estimation and Testing Results by Row												
	Wald											
Contrast	Туре	Row	Estimate	Error	Alpha	Confiden	ce Limits	Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq			
cohort 1 vs cohort 2, HK	EXP	1	0.9939	0.0304	0.05	0.9361	1.0552	0.0406	0.8403			
cohort 2 vs cohort 3, HK	EXP	1	1.1408	0.0346	0.05	1.0749	1.2107	18.8309	<.0001			
cohort 1 vs cohort 2, mainland	EXP	1	0.9083	0.0472	0.05	0.8202	1.0057	3.4223	0.0643			
cohort 2 vs cohort 3, mainland	EXP	1	1.4980	0.0804	0.05	1.3484	1.6642	56.7126	<.0001			

Conclusion

Personal policy oriented actions such as petition signing and joining protests is the single most frequently performed act toward government and policy in Hong Kong, aside from the occasional act of voting. Rising from 39.3 percent in 1994-2000 to 43.6 percent in 2006-2010, it is also clear that women have kept pace or even led men in this form of personal action. And personal action has not just been limited to Hong Kong born natives either, with large and growing numbers of residents born in Mainland China joining in. Since voting has little effect except every four years or so, other forms of action must be taken if men and women want their voices to be heard on matters of public policy. People in Hong Kong have clearly not adopted political apathy as a personal policy. They participate in social service, charitable, religious and environmental groups in large numbers. These groups have structured input into policy consultations as well as many having votes and representatives in both the Legislative Council and the Chief Executive Election Committee. About one in four persons routinely join Mutual Aid Committees and Owners Corporations meetings. Three political parties have been founded and led by women. Women such as Anson Chan and Carrie Lam have exercised the second most powerful job in government as Chief Secretary for Administration. Women have clearly made strides forward over the time covered in this report in terms of education and income and participation, but many challenges remain, for women must not merely participate in society equally with men; they must also lead government and society and formulate and implement policy equally with men.

Methods and contact details

Reports written and analysis by: Michael E. DeGolyer, Professor of Government & International Studies, Hong Kong Baptist University, and Director of the Hong Kong Transition Project Statistical meta-analysis in this report by: Dr. Yao Yuan, Assistant Professor, Department of Mathematics, Hong Kong Baptist University and by Tsang Kam Lun (MA in statistics, Hong Kong University of Science and Technology).

Survey administration and Chinese translation: P.K. Cheung, Hong Kong Transition Project Senior Researcher

At the 95% confidence level, range of error is plus or minus 3 points for surveys 900-1,300 respondents and 4 points for those of 600-800 (rounded). Concatenating these surveys and recoding responses decreases the range of error (quadrupling the size of the sample roughly cuts the range of error in half). For tables in this report that total 20,000 respondents, the range of error at the 95% confidence interval is \pm 0.4 percentage points. For tables with 40,000 respondents, the range of error is \pm 0.3 percentage points (assuming that roughly 9 out of 10 respondents chose one response over another, as is often the case above). For tables which show a finer breakdown by more categories, range of error at the 95% confidence interval ranges from \pm 0.7 (20,000 cases) to \pm 0.5 (40,000 cases).

Completion rates for the individual surveys usually range from 55% to 75% of those contacted by telephone (completion of the survey once the respondent is identified). In many surveys 100,000+ dialings were made. Disregarding language problems, immediate hangups or refusals, from 4000 to 5000 respondents were identified as qualified (by age, and randomization table and district quota). Of these, about half refuse the survey immediately. Usually about 3 out of 4 remaining complete the survey. The project used a Kish table to randomly identify correspondents and then scheduled a callback if that specific respondent was not at home until 2009. Surveys 2009-2011 used the "next birthday" method in which the respondent is chosen by who had the most recent birthday in the household. The final survey in 2011 for the District Council election re-instated the Kish table method.

Completion rates tend to be lower with a Kish table, but randomization of responses (needed for accurate statistics) tended to be higher than surveys which interview readily available respondents using the next birthday method. We returned to the Kish table method due to persistent small variations that indicated a slight bias toward female respondents and initial call respondents (usually female). This small variation in randomness made the surveys conducted in 2009-2011 slightly higher in error rate, toward female respondent's patterns of choice. (In other words, there is a small and consistent bias in responses toward overemphasizing women's responses in this time period.) This had almost no effect on the results in this report for the 2006-2010 time cohort, due to the preponderance of Kish table administered surveys (17 surveys versus 8) and the small bias of the next birthday surveys in 2009-2010. This persistent bias only became apparent after concatenating these 8 surveys in 2009-2010 and assessing patterns in contact and completion rates. While other surveys in Hong Kong use the next birthday method, we no longer do due to this demonstrated small bias. See http://www.aapor.org/Standard Definitions2.htm for calculating completion and error rates by sample size. Older respondents with the next birthday method in the early 1990s tended to use traditional Chinese calendar where all "birthdays" are celebrated on the second day of the lunar new year, thus degrading randomization dependent on this method (in lunar calendar using societies in Asia). Education and familiarization with western practices has now risen so that the next birthday method is approaching the randomization level of the Kish method, but the next birthday method is still not entirely reliable, but for reasons no longer associated with traditional Chinese birthday calculations. Next birthday method is faster to administer, moderately shortening time for interviewing. Respondents are interviewed in Cantonese, Mandarin, English, Hakka, Chiu-Chow and other languages/dialects as they prefer and as interviewers with languages needed are available. There is an unknown amount of bias due to a small population of homeless and cage dwelling persons without personal access to telephones, and problems with contacting non-Chinese or non-English

speaking respondents. These respondents are highly unlikely to be qualified respondents (permanent residents). The Hong Kong Transition Project conducts surveys in more languages and dialects than any other survey conducted in Hong Kong.

The number of respondents in the HKTP political development surveys:

Date	#	Date	#	Date	#	Date	#	Date	#
Nov 1991	902								
Feb 1993	615	Aug 1993	609						
Feb 1994	636	Aug 1994	640						
Feb 1995	<mark>647</mark>	Aug 1995	<mark>645</mark>						
Feb 1996	627	July 1996	928					Dec 1996	326
Feb 1997	546	June 1997	1,129						
<mark>Jan 1998</mark>	<mark>700</mark>	April 1998	<mark>852</mark>	June 1998	<mark>625</mark>	<mark>July 1998</mark>	<mark>647</mark>	Oct 1998	<mark>811</mark>
Apr 1999	838	July 1999	815					Nov 1999	813
Apr 2000	<mark>704</mark>	Aug 2000	<mark>625</mark>	Aug 2000	1059	Oct 2000	<mark>721</mark>	Nov 2000	<mark>801</mark>
Apr 2001	830	June 2001	808	Jul (media)	831	Jul (party)	1029	Nov 2001	759
Apr 2002	751			Aug 2002	721			Nov 2002	814
Mar 2003	790	June 2003	776			Nov 2003	836	Dec 03	709
Apr 2004	809	June 2004*	<mark>680</mark>	July 2004*	<mark>695</mark>	Sept 2004*	<mark>410</mark>	Dec 2004	<mark>800</mark>
May 2004	833	July 04 *	<mark>955</mark>	Aug 2004*	<mark>781</mark>	Nov 2004	773	Dec FC**	<mark>405</mark>
									(365)
May 2005	829	May FC**	376	July 2005	810			Nov 2005	859
Mar 2006	805	Apr 2006	807	July 2006	1,106	Nov 2006	706	Nov 2006	FC**
									374
Apr 2007	889			May 2007	800				
May 2008	<mark>714</mark>	June 2008	<mark>710</mark>	<mark>July 2008</mark>	<mark>710</mark>	Aug 2008	<mark>705</mark>	Sept 2008	<mark>721</mark>
GC		GC		GC		GC		GC	
May 2008	<mark>409</mark>	June 2008	300	July 2008	<mark>300</mark>	Aug 2008	<mark>305</mark>	Sept 2008	<mark>304</mark>
FC**		FC		FC		FC		FC	
May 2009	1,205			Aug 2009***	1704			Nov 2009	832
Jan 2010	1,500	May 2010	715	June 2010	934	Aug 2010	816	Dec 2010	807
April 2011	829	-				Oct 2011	820		
Jan 2012	601/246#					Aug 2012	1309	Nov 2012	

^{*}permanent residents, registered voters only (part of a special 2004 election series) Highlighted surveys are Legco election related surveys

†Not all surveys are referred to in trend series. Highlighted figures are Legco election series surveys; bolded dates are District Council related surveys; italicized are Chief Executive related surveys

#First figure is number of General public and FC voters randomly contacted (including 41 FC voters). Second figure is number of FC voters contacted randomly by quota sample after first 600 randomly contacted, 205 plus the 41 FC voters contacted in the earlier calling. The proportion of registered FC voters in 2011 (240,000) is approximately 7 percent of the amount of GC registered voters (3.5 million). The 41 registered FC voters in this sample are slightly overweight to the actual proportion of FC voters among the general population. The 246 FC voters randomly contacted represent about a .001 percent sample of all FC voters. Range of error is +/-6 points for this more homogeneous FC sample. Similarity of education, age and profession reduces the distribution of views across samples, for example, a survey of housewives aged 30 to 50 would tend to show more agreement on views than would a survey of a whole population including males, other ages and occupations. This survey (both Gen public and FC voters) had 4,156 respondent identified contacts, with 2,335 refusals, giving a 44.6% contact rate (using Kish table to identify respondents). 838 cases were completed with 1014 interviews partially completed, for a 20% completion rate. In a survey targeting FC voters, who are not only hard to find but often hard to interview for any length of time or depth (such as lawyers, who charge for their time and are often careful or reluctant to answer questions), the completion rate is lower than normal but acceptable.

^{**}Functional constituency registered voters (voters in September 2004/2008 Legco election)

^{***638}FC&CertPersons

