

**REPORT SUBMITTED TO
COMMISSION ON YOUTH**

**YOUTH IN HONG KONG
A STATISTICAL PROFILE 2003**

(APPENDIX)

Policy Research and Advocacy

The Hong Kong Council of Social Service

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Summary of key findings

This report is a commentary section of *Youth in Hong Kong: A Statistical Profile 2004* which focuses on six topical youth issues, including poverty, unemployment, substance abuse, as well as human, social and cultural capital formation. The objectives of this report are, *first*, to update the statistics on the six topical youth issues based on the existing framework and *second*, to analyse the situation of the youth based on available data. The key findings are summarized below.

Human Capital

The indicators of human capital focus on the dimensions relating to youth's education, economical productivity and health conditions. Several phenomena can be observed:

- School attendance rate of youth aged 19-24 increased sharply from 23.4% in 1996 to 30.3% in 2001 and further to 32.3% in 2003.
- The percentage of youth population with matriculation or tertiary educational level increased from 22.7% in 1991 to 38.9% in 2001 and further to 41.2% in 2003.
- The dropout rate at Primary and Junior Secondary level decreased from 0.282% in 1997/98 to 0.181% in 2000/01 and further decreased to 0.165% in 2002/03.
- The government increased its total public expenditure on education. Total public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP increased from 3.5% in 1997/98 to 4.1% in 2001/02 and further to 4.8% in 2003/04. This level is comparatively higher than some Asian countries but lower than various western countries.
- Private consumption expenditure spending on goods and services for educational use increased by 33.0% which doubled that of public expenditure on education (16.7%), between 1997 and 2002.
- The unemployment rate of youth with lower secondary and below increased sharply from 11.9% in 2001 to 16.8% in 2003, while it increased slightly from 4.7% in 2001 to 5.5% in 2003 amongst youth with tertiary educational level (degree).
- Youth suicide rate was lower than those of other adult age groups and some Western and Asian countries/regions. However, the suicide rate of youth aged 20-29 increased from 8.6 per 100,000 population in 1996 to 13.2 in 2002.

- The percentage of ethnic minorities in total youth population increased from 1.6% in 1991 to 4.7% in 2001. But the school attendance rates among ethnic minorities aged 17-18 and 19-24 were 54.7% and 3.7% respectively, compared with 71.0% and 26.4% of the same age groups in the whole population.

Unemployment

The findings indicated that youth unemployment had been worsened in the past 20 years. The obtained data illustrated the seriousness of youth unemployment, particularly for those aged 15-19. Unemployment of youth aged 15-19 was found to be more serious than other age groups in Hong Kong as well as the same age group that in some Asian and Western countries. In addition, particular attention should be paid to the prevailing issue of “Status Zero Youth”. Key findings were as follows:

- The situation of youth unemployment had intensified since the late 1990s. The youth unemployment rate remained double to the total unemployment rate between 1997 and 2003 in Hong Kong. Unemployment was worst among youth aged 15 to 19, compared with those aged 20 to 24. The unemployment rate of the youth aged 15 to 19 reached 30.2% in 2003.
- The issue of high number of economically inactive youth has been prevailing in Hong Kong. The number of youth aged 15-24 who were not engaged in work nor in school increased from 30,200 in 1997 to 31,700 in 2001 and decreased slightly to 29,300 in 2003. They accounted for 3.2% in 1997, 3.6% in 2001 and 3.3% in 2003 of youth aged 15-24.
- In addition, the part-time employment rate of those aged 15-19 was higher (from 4.2% in 1994 to 14.3% in 2002) than that of the adults and than the overall rate (from 2.7% in 1994 to 4.7% in 2002).
- Comparing 5.3% of the youth working in “manufacturing”, with 66.7% of the youth working in “wholesale, retail and import/export trades, restaurants and hotels industry” and “community, social and personal services industry”, more youth was employed in the tertiary service industries.
- However, the working youth was vulnerable to the economic downturn and restructuring. Those aged 15-29 who had worked in “construction” and “manufacturing” industries experienced high unemployment rate, which was 21.1% and 11.7% in 2003 respectively. The unemployment rate of those youth who had worked in “wholesale, retail and import/ export trades, restaurants and hotels” increased from 4.6% in 1996 to 14.5% in

2003, while the unemployment rate for the youth aged 15-29 who worked for “transport, storage and communications” increased from 3.9% in 1996 to 12.1% in 2003.

- There was a decreasing proportion of youth working as “managers and administrators”, “professionals” and “associate professionals” after 2001. Less than one-fifth (18.3%) of working youth worked as “managers and administrators”, “professionals” and “associate professionals” in 2003, compared with 21.4% in 2001 and 16.0% in 1991
- On the other hand, the proportion of youth worked as “service workers and shop sales workers” and “elementary workers” increased gradually. More than two-fifth (44.1%) of working youth worked as “service workers and shop sales workers” and “elementary workers” in 2003, compared with 39.3% in 2001 and 30.9% in 1991.

Poverty

Based on the obtained data on youth poverty, several trends can be observed as follows:

- There was an increasing proportion of youth living in low-income households. The percentage of youth aged 15 to 19 living in low-income households increased from 11.0% in 1991 to 24.7% in 2000 and further increased to 25.0% in 2002
- The number of young CSSA recipients increased more than 4 times between 1996 and 2003. The proportion of youth among all CSSA recipients increased from 5.7% in 1996 to 10.2% in 2003. In 2003, 18.5% of young CSSA recipients were unemployed and 10.3% of them were under the category of low earnings.
- The percentage of primary and secondary students receiving full grant under School Textbook Assistance Scheme increased in the past six years. The growth rate was higher among the secondary students (increased more than 8 times between 1997 and 2002) than amongst the primary students (growth rate increased more than 4 times between 1997 and 2002).
- The percentage of working youth with monthly income less than \$4,000 increased from 8.4% in 1996 to 14.9% in 2001 and further to 22.8% in 2003.

Substance abuse

After analyzing the collected data on youth substances abuse, several trends can

be observed as follows:

- There was a decreasing trend of reported substance abuse among youth since 2001. The number of young drug abusers aged under 21 increased slightly from 3,150 in 1997 to 3,902 in 2001 but dropped gradually to 2,130 in 2003.
- There was a constant decrease in the number of young heroin abusers. The number decreased from 1,855 in 1997 to 426 in 2001 and further dropped to 136 in 2003.
- Psychotropic substance abuse was still prevailing among the youth. There were 1,649 psychotropic substance abusers recorded in 2003, compared with 1,281 in 1997.
- Ketamine and MDMA (Ecstasy) were still the most common types of drug abused by the youth. In 2003, the numbers of Ketamine and MDMA (Ecstasy) abusers were 1,099 and 599 respectively.
- The ratio of daily smokers aged 20-29 increased from 12.1% in 2000 to 14.4% in 2002; whereas the ratio of daily smokers aged 15-19 decreased slightly from 4.5% to 3.8% respectively.
- Rave party, discos and friends' home were common venues for consumption of drugs among youth.
- Peer influence and curiosity were constantly found to be the major reasons for abusing drugs among youth.

Cultural Capital

The key findings of the discussion on the generation of cultural capital among youth are summed up as follows:

- Only a small proportion of youth registered as public libraries borrowers in Hong Kong.
- The number of youth who attended the program organized by the Leisure and Cultural Services Department was lower than that of adult.
- Compared with the youth in Guangzhou and Macau, Hong Kong youth was relatively less interested in buying reference books but more likely to go to karaoke and cinema for leisure.
- The number of youth aged 15-24 who had used Internet service in the past twelve months increased gradually from 64.5% in 2000 to 91.9% in 2003.
- Communication with others such as ICQ/Email/Chat Room and watch webpage and online news were the most frequent types of activities pursued by the youth on the Internet.

- The total number of youth aged 15-24 working in creative industries decreased from 28,600 in 2001 to 26,400 in 2003, which accounted for 7.0% in 2001 and 6.8% in 2003 of the whole youth working population.
- In 2003, the top three types of creative industries that the youth engaged in were: “miscellaneous amusement and recreational services”, “printing, publishing and allied industries” and “miscellaneous business services”.
- Those who were interested in arts usually attended self-financed short courses to gain training related to art.
- The sense of belonging to Hong Kong among youth aged 15-24 was slightly stronger than that of those aged 25 and above.

Social Capital

The key findings of the discussion on the generation of social capital among youth are summed up as follows:

- There was an increasing trend for youth to participate in volunteer services and for youth to “give to strangers”¹. However, there were still rooms for improvement.
- The attachment of youth towards neighbourhood was the lowest, as compared to that towards their family, school and workplace.
- Whereas the youth voting turnout rate in Legislative Council election decreased, the youth voting turnout rate in District Broad election increased. The low participation rates of youth in Legislative Council and District Board elections could be explained by the fact of their low self-efficacy towards the influences on the government.
- There were still rooms for improvement in tolerance/ acceptance of youth towards minority groups in society.

Discussion on selected topical youth issues was constrained by data availability within data collection period. The data was mainly collected by government departments, social welfare organizations and academics, and to a large extent, mainly reflecting their concerns and priorities. It is suggested to collect also the views and perspective of the youth in future research.

¹ Social cohesion of youth to society can be measured by the level of expressed trust in other people and the behaviours and attitudes towards oneself and towards others, including giving to strangers, as well as time giving to, relationships and social interaction people have with others on both formal and informal basis.

Chapter 1 Introduction

In 2002, the Social Sciences Research Center of the University of Hong Kong (SSRC) and the Hong Kong Council of Social Service (HKCSS) were invited by the Commission on Youth to work on *Youth in Hong Kong – A Statistical Profile 2002*. The SSRC was responsible for collecting data related to youth and preparing a descriptive report. Based on these data, the HKCSS prepared a commentary section on six topical youth issues, namely poverty, unemployment, substance abuse, as well as human, social and cultural capital formation. The discussion also included international comparisons so as to reflect the conditions of the well-being of youth in other countries. In 2004, the Commission invited the SSRC and the HKCSS again to work on an updating exercise of *Youth in Hong Kong – A Statistical Profile*, basing on the framework of the previous report. The purpose is to keep track of the development of youth on the aforementioned six areas.

1.1 Scope of the research and methodology

The present study continued to adopt the framework² developed in the previous report to address the following six youth issues:

- three youth problems that are often of top concern to policy makers, social advocates and the public – namely poverty, unemployment and substance abuse; and
- three broadened notions of capital which are considered to be crucial in the well-being of the youth and that have lately generated much interest among policy makers, social advocates and researchers – namely human capital, social capital and cultural capital.

Apart from examining findings drawn from a number of related social areas in local context, the discussion also included international comparisons. Data on selected topical youth issues was collected from various countries and international organizations so as to reflect the trends and conditions of the well-being of youth in these countries.

1.2 Limitations of the study and directions for future research

² The criteria for the development of the existing framework were as follows: (1) clarity and comprehensive in coverage; (2) positive and negative outcomes; (3) common interpretation; (4) consistency over time; (5) forward-looking; and (6) scientifically rigorous data collection methods.

The discussion of this updating exercise was constrained by data availability within data collection period. It was partly because some ad hoc studies were collected for discussion in the previous report and no trend data were available to keep track of the changes in the dimensions concerned. In addition, as the Census/ By-census data is released every 5 years/10 years, it is not possible to do any updating on data collected from the Census/By-census reports. Data from General Household Survey (GHS) was collected as an alternative to this updating exercise. Since the results of both Census/By-census and GHS are similar, it is suggested to collect data from GHS for future updating exercise.

Specific dimensions of these six topical issues are suggested to be collected in future studies and they are listed as follows:

- Proficiency and competency in language and IT of youth;
- Working conditions and structural constraints on youth employment status;
- Dimensions of social exclusion, including contact with friends and family, availability of and participating in public/private services, as well as affordability of public/private services;
- Dimensions on treatment demand data, drug-related health problems, as well as risk and protective factors to the youth; and
- Data on cultural awareness and cultural identity of youth, as well as social cohesion and trust among the youngsters.

Furthermore, it is suggested to collect also the views and perspectives of the youth in future research.

1.3 Organization of the report

The report is composed of eight chapters. Key findings of the six selected topical youth issues have been summarized in the previous chapter. This chapter is an introductory chapter on scope of the research and methodology, limitations of the study and directions for future research, as well as the organization of this report. A review of literature on the concerned topic will be presented in each chapter. Then, examples of indicators will be listed and key findings of each topic will be examined. The key findings will also be summarized and issues of concerns in future studies will also be raised. Finally, the concluding chapter will discuss the limitations of the study and the future research directions.

Chapter 2 Human Capital

2.1 Definition of human capital

The measurement of human capital can help determine the level of productivity among individuals of society. Human capital can be defined as “the knowledge, skills, competences and other attributes embodied in individuals that are relevant to economic activity” (Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, 1998:9). Human attributes refer not just to the level to which an individual has been educated, but also the degree to which he or she can put a wide range of skills to productive use. However, the scope of ‘economic activity’ is not only restricted to the involvement of individuals in paid work, but also extends to non-market ones (i.e. voluntary and household work) which support individuals and employment (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development 1998:9; Schuller, 2000). Data relevant in this context focuses on the dimensions of education and health. This chapter discussed what kinds of knowledge and skills are required by the labor market and which the youth can equip themselves for the keen competition.

2.2 Measurement of human capital

There is an increasing awareness of the importance of lifelong learning in a knowledge-intensive economy where socio-economic and technological changes call for adaptation and learning throughout life. Thus, simplified proxies for human capital formation, such as completed years and levels of schooling, are not sufficient to provide a reference for policy-makers. Participation in formal education is only a good proxy for the acquisition of economically-relevant knowledge, skills and competencies if all learning is similar in terms of quality and objectives. Furthermore, it is evident that demand for different skills is changing in the knowledge-based economies. There is an increasing demand for inter-personal communication, teamwork and problem-solving skills which are not reflected in completed educational levels. Moreover, the narrow focus on completed educational level and qualifications neglects the matter of depreciation of human capital through lack of use. Besides, it is recognized that human capital formation takes places in various settings including schools, organizations, labor market, communities and national institutions and cultures (Barro & Lee, 2000; Healy, *et al.*, 2001; Laroche & Merette, 2000; OECD, 1998). Therefore, human capital should be measured in broader perspectives (Healy, *et al.*, 2001:18; OECD, 1998:12) and it includes:

- learning within family and early childcare setting;
- formal education and training at different levels, such as early childhood,

- school-based compulsory education, tertiary education, vocational training;
- workplace training and informed learning at work through specific activities, such as Research and Development or taking part in different professional networks; and
- informal learning ‘on-the-job’ and in daily living and civic participation.

On the international level, the OECD and World Bank have made considerable efforts to constitute a common framework so as to enhance the comparability of data over time and across countries. The OECD conducted the International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) and the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) in order to identify and measure the skills and competence in an international context. The IALS identifies literacy skills to cover demands at work, in the home and in the community. Literacy domains are composed of Pros literacy³, document literacy⁴ and quantitative literacy⁵ and each literacy domain is divided into 5 different task levels (OECD, 1998:23). The PISA focuses on 15-year-olds’ capabilities in reading literacy, mathematics literacy, and science literacy. It also includes measures of general or cross-curricular competencies, such as learning strategies. The PISA is being implemented on a 3-year cycle starting in 2000 (Lemke, M, *et al.*, 2001).

Human capital can be measured in terms of stock indicators, investment indicators and indicators of returns to investment in human capital. There are 3 approaches measuring the stock of human capital and they include: (i) measuring educational attainment; (ii) direct testing on human capital attributes; and (iii) estimating the market value of human capital (i.e. looking at reward given on the labour market). As mentioned earlier, the limitations with educational attainment as a proxy for measuring human capital are: (i) school completion does not guarantee relevant skills, knowledge and competence; (ii) it neglects other forms of learning and training; and (iii) it ignores the issue of depreciation of skills through lack of use. Furthermore, it is evident that increased spending through expansion in education participation, such as achieving lower early school drop-out rate, may provide better returns than increased expenditure on each student every academic year (Healy, 2001:22). Table 2.1 summarizes examples of indicators of human capital (Barro & Lee, 2000; Healy, et al, 2001; OECD, 1998; The National Round Table on the Environment and the Economy, 2001).

³ The knowledge and skills that are required to understand and use information from newspapers, fiction and expository text.

⁴ The knowledge and skills that are required to locate and use the information contained in official forms, timetables, maps and charts.

⁵ The knowledge and skills that are required to apply mathematical operations in printed materials.

Table 2.1: Indicators of human capital

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Examples of Indicators</i>
<i>EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT</i>	
Educational attainment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Percentage of the population completed level of education (primary, secondary and tertiary education)
Educational attainment by gender	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Differences between men and women in various completed levels of education
University graduates as a proportion of the labor force	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Those in the labor force that hold university degrees
High school drop-out	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Dropout rate for secondary school students
<i>PUBLIC & PRIVATE INVESTMENT ON HUMAN CAPITAL</i>	
Share of national income devoted to education and training	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Total public and private spending on education as a percentage of Gross Domestic Product (GDP)
Average spending per student by educational level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Amount spent on each student
Spending on job-related training programs for youth	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Public expenditures on labor market training programs
Average duration of job-related training	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Annual hours of training undertaken -- for each person with any training; and average for all employees
Family computer ownership (for education and informal learning)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Percentage of households with personal computer (PC)
Household expenditure on education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Consumption expenditure in the domestic market on educational goods and services
<i>DIRECT MEASURES OF HUMAN CAPITAL</i>	
Proficiency on Information Technology (IT)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Competence in and experience with IT
Language proficiency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Proportion of youth able to speak selected languages/dialects ■ Results of international language tests
Problem-solving and teamwork skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Skill assessment results
<i>MARKET VALUE OF HUMAN CAPITAL</i>	
<i>(INDICATORS OF RETURNS TO INVESTMENT IN HUMAN CAPITAL)</i>	
Earning differentials associated with level of educational attainment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Ratio of earnings at different levels of education
Unemployment associated with level of educational attainment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Unemployment rate by educational attainment and by gender
Work absenteeism rate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Absence rate of full-time workers by sex
Job satisfaction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Percentage of respondents who reported "very satisfied" with their job
<i>HEALTH CONDITIONS</i>	
Average number of disability days per person	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Total days lost due to illness/ disability
Individual lifestyles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Frequency of heavy drinking ■ Smoking prevalence ■ Drug use ■ Incidence of depression / extreme stress ■ Mental health conditions
Teen suicide	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Youth suicide rate

2.3 Data availability

Data on dimensions of “educational attainment”, “public & private investment on human capital”, as well as “market value of human capital” is available for this updating exercise. Since data on the dimensions of “direct measures of human capital” and “health conditions” was collected from ad hoc study and the Census/By-census reports in the last report, some regularly collected data from various government departments related to these two dimensions will be presented to supplement the discussion in this updating exercise.

For the dimension of “educational attainment”, apart from statistics on “school attendance rate” and “educational attainment” collected from various issues of Census/By-census reports, data on General Household Survey would be used in this updating exercise so as to keep track of the recent development.

For the dimension of “public and private investment on human capital”, some suggested indicators, such as “spending on job-related training programs” and “average duration of job-related training”, were still not available in this updating exercise. The discussion will focus on “public expenditure on education”, “amount spent on each student”, as well as “consumption expenditure on the domestic market on educational goods and services”.

For the dimension of “direct measure of human capital”, data on “IT proficiency” and “language competencies of youth” in Hong Kong was collected from ad hoc study and the Census/By-census reports in the previous study. Therefore, no trend data was available in this updating exercise. Data on youth who had used Internet service in the past twelve months was collected but it was not comprehensive enough to reflect the picture of IT proficiency among the youth.

For the dimension of “market value of human capital”, both “unemployment rate of youth aged 15-29 by educational attainment” and “projected manpower resource balance by educational attainment” will be examined for the purpose of estimating the productivity of youth in the labor market.

The dimension of “health conditions” will also be examined to reflect the human capital of youth. Since the statistics adopted in the previous exercise, such as “teen suicide rate”, were based on ad hoc studies, no updated data was available in this updating exercise. Regular data collected by the Census and Statistics Department, such

as data on “youth suicide rate”, will be presented to supplement the discussion. In addition, the dimensions of “drinking and smoking prevalence”, as well as “the consumption of substance abuse among the youth”, which would affect their health and productivity, will be discussed in chapter 5.

Furthermore, the development of human capital of the South Asian ethnic minority youth in Hong Kong had been discussed in the last exercise. Since the data was generated from the thematic report conducted by Census and Statistics Department in 2001, no updated statistics were available for this updating exercise to keep track of the latest development. However, the situation of the ethnic minorities in Hong Kong should not be overlooked as the percentage of the South Asian ethnic minorities in total youth population increased from 1.6 % in 1991 to 4.7% in 2001.

Table 2.2: Obtained indicators on human capital

<i>Dimensions</i>	Obtained Indicators	Sources
<i>EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT</i>		
Educational attainment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ School attendance rate (1991-2003) ■ Youth by educational attainment (Highest level attended) (1991-2003) ■ Percentages of youth population aged 15-24 with tertiary or above educational levels in different places (for international comparisons) (1999 or 2003) ■ Dropout students aged between 6 and 15 (1997/98-2002/03) 	Census and Statistics Department Census and Statistics Department OECD; Census and Statistics Department Education Department
<i>PUBLIC & PRIVATE INVESTMENT ON HUMAN CAPITAL</i>		
Share of national income devoted to education and training	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Total government/public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP (1997/98-2003/04) ■ Total public expenditure on education as a proportion of GDP in different countries (for international comparison) (1998-2000) 	Financial Services and the Treasury Bureau; Education and Manpower Bureau OECD; Hong Kong Financial Services and the Treasury Bureau; Education and Manpower Bureau
Average spending per student by educational level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Amount spent on each student (1997/98-2002/03) 	Education Department
Household expenditure on education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Consumption expenditure in the domestic market on educational goods and services (1996-2002) 	Census and Statistics Department

Table 2.2 (Continued....)

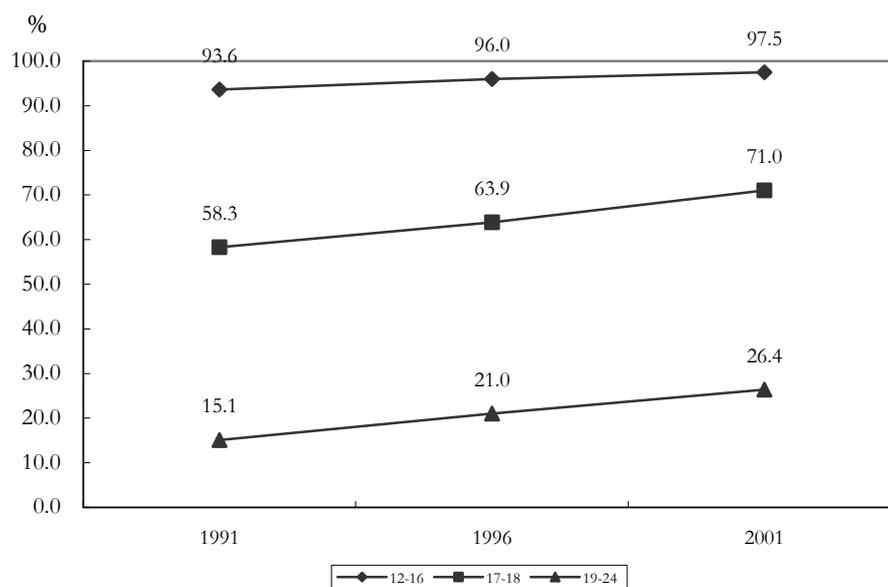
<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Obtained Indicators</i>	<i>Sources</i>
<i>DIRECT MEASURES OF HUMAN CAPITAL</i>		
Proficiency on IT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Self-rated competence in and experience with IT (2001) ■ Youth who had used Internet service in the past twelve months (2000-2003) ■ Employers' and scholars' views on the quality of university graduates (2000) 	<p>Commission on Youth</p> <p>Census and Statistics Department</p> <p>Leung (2000)</p>
Language proficiency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Proportion of youth able to speak selected language/dialects (1991-2001) 	Census and Statistics Department
<i>THE MARKET VALUE OF HUMAN CAPITAL</i>		
Unemployment associated with level of educational attainment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Unemployment rate of youth aged 15-29 by educational attainment (1997-2003) ■ Projected manpower resource balance by educational attainment in 2005 and 2007 	<p>Census and Statistics Department</p> <p>Education and Manpower Bureau</p>
<i>HEALTH CONDITIONS</i>		
<p>Frequency of heavy drinking</p> <p>Smoking prevalence</p> <p>Drug use</p> <p>Incidence of depression/extreme stress</p> <p>Mental health conditions</p> <p>Teen suicide</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ (See Chapter 5 Substance Abuse) ■ Rate of psychological problem detected by Student Health Service (1997/98-2001/02) ■ Suicide rate by age groups for the total population (1980-2000) ■ Youth aged 10-19 and 20-29 suicide rate (1996-2002) ■ Suicide rate for the 15-24 age bracket in different places (1995-2000) ■ Percentage of suicide aged 0-39 by occupation (1996-2000) 	<p>Department of Health</p> <p>Shek and Tang (2003)</p> <p>Hong Kong High Court</p> <p>Shek and Tang (2003)</p> <p>Hong Kong Federation of Youth Groups</p>
<i>DEVELOPMENT OF SOUTH ASIAN ETHNIC MINORITIES</i>		
Social-demographic data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Ethnic minorities by ethnicity and age group (1991-2001) 	Census and Statistics Department
Educational attainment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ School attendance rate of ethnic minorities by age group and sex (2001) 	Census and Statistics Department

2.4 Discussion

2.4.1 Educational attainment

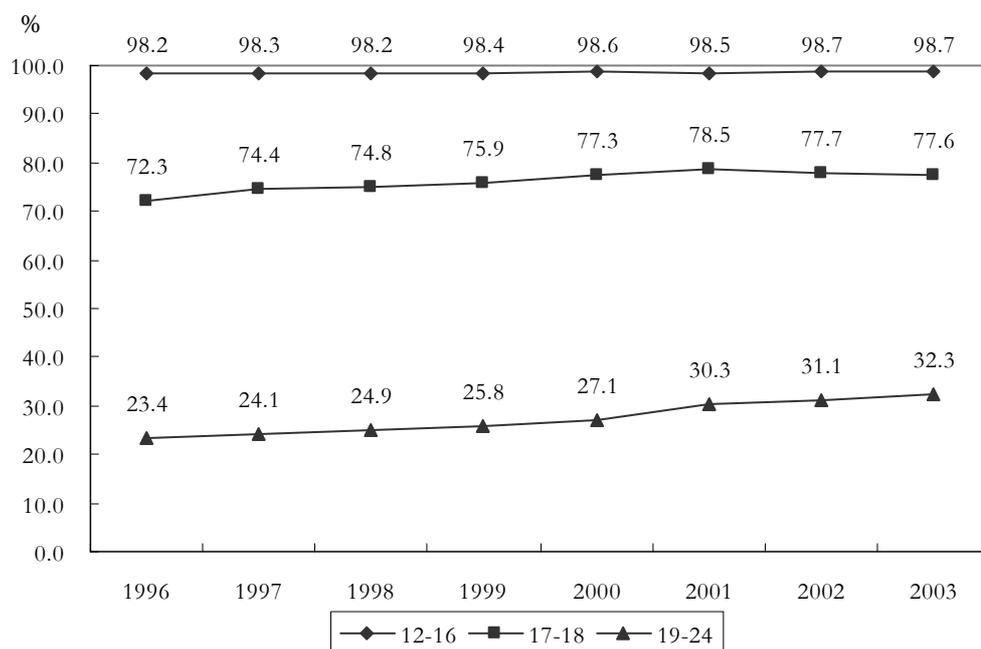
According to the 2001 Population Census, school attendance rate of youth aged 12-16 were relatively stable in the past decade (from 93.6% in 1991 to 96.0% in 1996 and further to 97.5% in 2001), while attendance rate for those aged 17-18 (from 58.3% in 1991 to 63.9% in 1996 and further to 71.0% in 2001) and 19-24 (from 15.1% in 1991 to 21.0% in 1996 and further to 26.4% in 2001) increased sharply (Figure 2.1a). In fact, similar trend was recorded in General Household Survey. As shown in figure 2.1b, school attendance rate of youth aged 12 to 16 and 17-18 increased gradually, whereas attendance rate of those aged 19-24 increased sharply from 1996 to 2001. In addition, according to the General Household Survey, school attendance rate of those aged 19-24 also increased gradually from 30.3% in 2001 to 32.3% in 2003. As the General Household Survey is conducted quarterly, it can have a closer eye on the recent development trend.

Figure 2.1a: School attendance rate by age group (1991-2001)



Source: Census and Statistics Department, Population Census

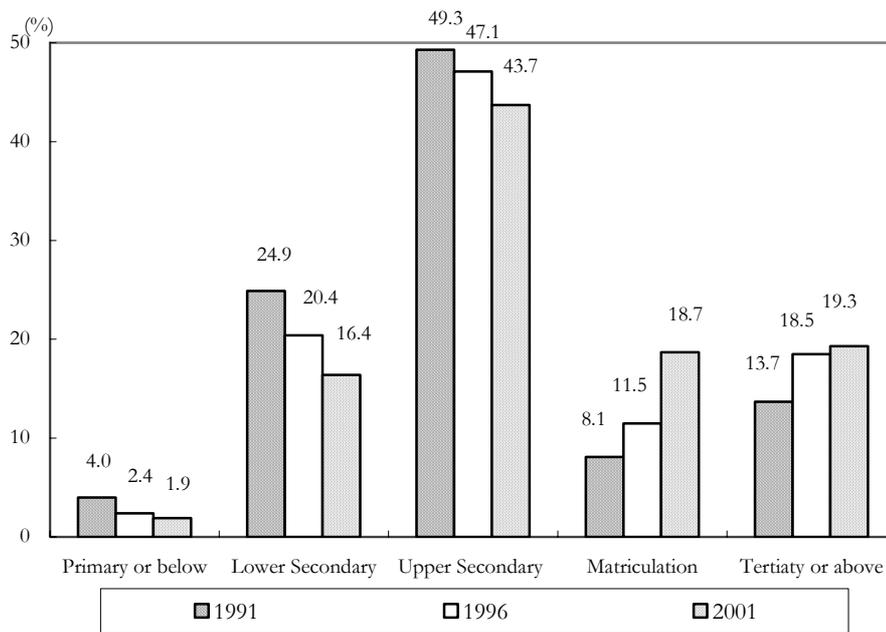
Figure 2.1b: School attendance rate by age group (1996-2003)



Source: Census and Statistics Department, General Household Survey

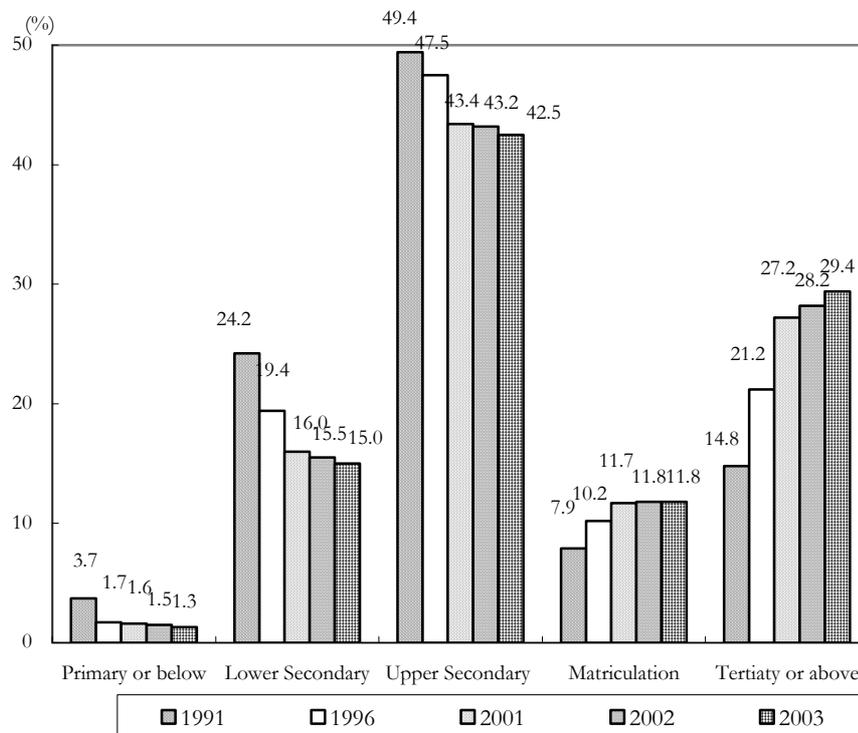
The education level among youth in Hong Kong has been increasing gradually since 1991. According to the 2001 Population Census, the percentage of youth who obtained tertiary or higher education level increased from 13.7% in 1991 to 19.3% in 2001, whereas the percentage of youth population with matriculation standard increased from 8.1% in 1991 to 18.7% in 2001 (Figure 2.2a). The percentage of youth population with matriculation or tertiary educational level rose from 21.8% in 1991 to 38.0% in 2001. Similar increase was recorded in the General Household Survey. According to the General Household Survey, the percentage of youth population with matriculation or tertiary educational level rose from 22.7% in 1991 to 38.9% in 2001 and further increased to 41.2% in 2003. In addition, with the provision of nine-year free education, the number of youth who obtained primary or lower education level was decreased steadily. In 2003, 98.7% of the youth population obtained at least lower secondary level or above, compared with 96.3% in 1991 (figure 2.2b).

Figure 2.2a: Youth aged 15-24 by educational attainment (highest level attended) (1991-2001)



Source: Census and Statistics Department, Population Census

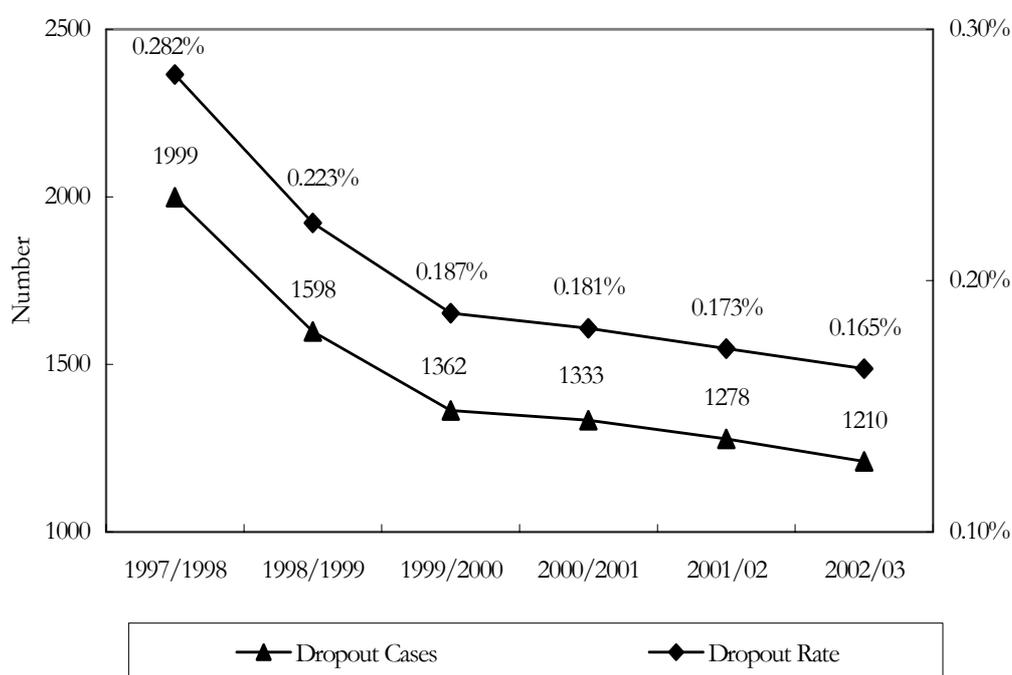
Figure 2.2b: Youth aged 15-24 by educational attainment (highest level attended) (1991-2003)



Source: Census and Statistics Department, General Household Survey

The dropout rate at Primary and Junior Secondary level decreased from 0.282% in 1997/98 to 0.181% in 2000/01 and further decreased to 0.165% in 2002/03 (Figure 2.3). In spite of the dropping trend, the issue was still alarming. It is because youth unemployment is closely linked to low education. According to the Census and Statistics Department, the unemployment rate of the youth with lower educational level was 16.8% in 2003, compared with 5.5% of youth with tertiary educational level (degree). The detailed discussion on the situation of youth employment will be presented in section 2.4.4.

Figure 2.3: Dropout students aged between 6 and 15 (1997/98- 2002/03)



Note: (1) Dropout Cases: Students leaving school – School Transfers – Those left HK – Those admitted to Boys’ and girls’ Home
 (2) Dropout rate: Dropout Cases/ Enrolment x 100%
 Source: Education and Manpower Bureau

There was an increasing trend of youth obtained tertiary or higher educational level between 2001 and 2003. The percentage of the youth population aged 15-24 with tertiary or above levels increased from 27.2% in 2001 to 29.4% in 2003. Data from Population Census was adopted for the international comparison in the last report. Since data collected from the Census/By-census reports is released every 5 years, it is not available for updating. According to the Population Census, the percentage of youth population aged 15 to 24 with tertiary or above levels in Hong Kong was 19.3% in 2001, compared with 25.0% in 1999 in the United Kingdom (U.K.) Republic of Korea (23.0% in 1999) and France (21.0% in 1999), Canada (39.0% in 1999), the United States of

America (U.S.A.) (35.0% in 1999) and Japan (31.0% in 1999) (Table 2.3).

Table 2.3: Percentages of youth population aged 15-24 with tertiary or above educational levels in different places (1999 and 2001)

Year	Canada (1999)	U.S.A. (1999)	Japan (1999)	U.K. (1999)	Republic of Korea	France (1999)	Hong Kong (2001)
1999	39%	35%	31%	25%	23%	21%	19.3%

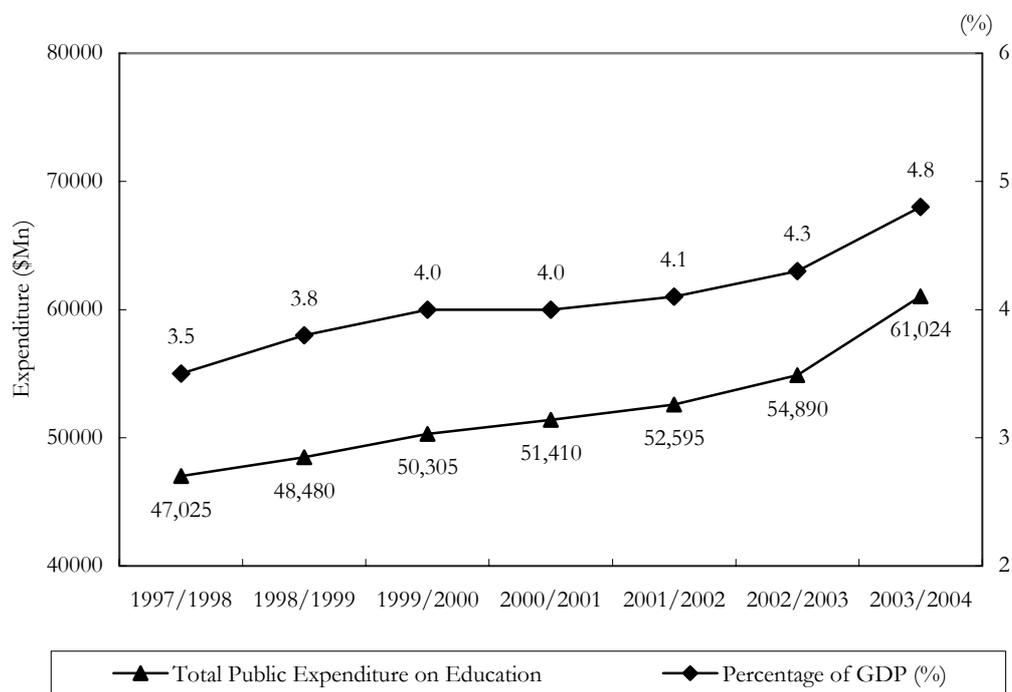
Sources: OECD (2001b)

Hong Kong: Census and Statistics Department, 2001d

2.4.2 Public and private investment on human capital

The government has increased its total expenditure on education. As shown in figure 2.4, the total amount of government expenditure on education had been increased gradually. In terms of public spending on education as a percentage of GDP, it rose from 3.5% in 1997/98 to 4.1% in 2001/02 and further increased to 4.8% in 2003/04.

Figure 2.4: Total public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP (1997/98 – 2003/04)

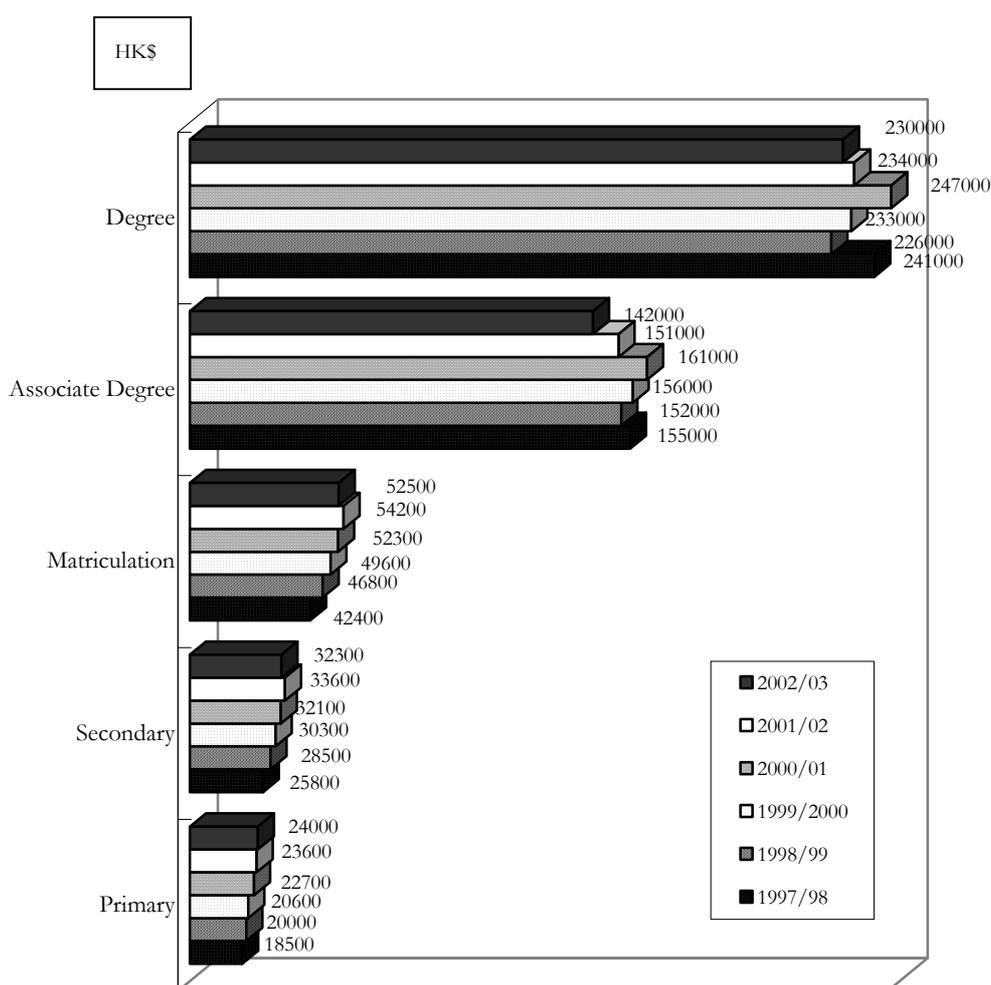


Sources: Financial Services and the Treasury Bureau
Education and Manpower Bureau

Generally speaking, the amount of expenditure spent on each student was decreasing from 2001/02 to 2002/03 and the amount varied for different education levels. As shown in figure 2.5, the amount spent on each student studying at “degree”

and “associate degree” levels increased from \$241,000 and \$155,000 in 1997/98 to \$247,000 and \$161,000 in 2000/01 respectively but dropped to \$230,000 and \$142,000 respectively in 2002/03. In addition, the amount spent on each student studying at “matriculation” and “secondary” levels increased from \$42,400 and \$25,800 in 1997/98 to \$54,200 and \$33,600 in 2001/02 respectively but dropped to \$52,500 and \$32,300 respectively in 2002/03. However, the amount spent on each student studying at primary level increased from \$18,500 in 1997/98 to \$22,700 in 2000/01 and further increased to \$24,000 in 2002/03.

Figure 2.5: Amount spent on each student (1997/98 – 2002/03)



Source: Education & Manpower Bureau (2002)

In addition, there was also the development of youth pre-employment training programs. The government has launched “Youth Pre-employment Training Program” and “Youth Work Experience and Training Scheme” for the school leavers, who do not obtain high educational levels and much working experience. Moreover, some other small projects were being carried out by non-government organizations in order to match the training needs of youth. However, the data on the spending on the job-related training programs was not yet available for discussion in this updating exercise.

Although total public expenditure on education as a proportion of GDP in Hong Kong was still smaller than various western countries, it was higher than those in Asian countries. As shown in table 2.4, total public expenditure on education as a proportion of GDP in Hong Kong was 4.0%, which was higher than that in Republic of Korea (3.8%), Singapore (3.7%) and Japan (3.5%). However, it was lower than that in France (5.8%), Canada (5.5%), the U.S.A. (4.8%) and the U.K. (4.5%).

Table 2.4: Total public expenditure on education as a proportion of GDP in different countries between 1998 and 2000

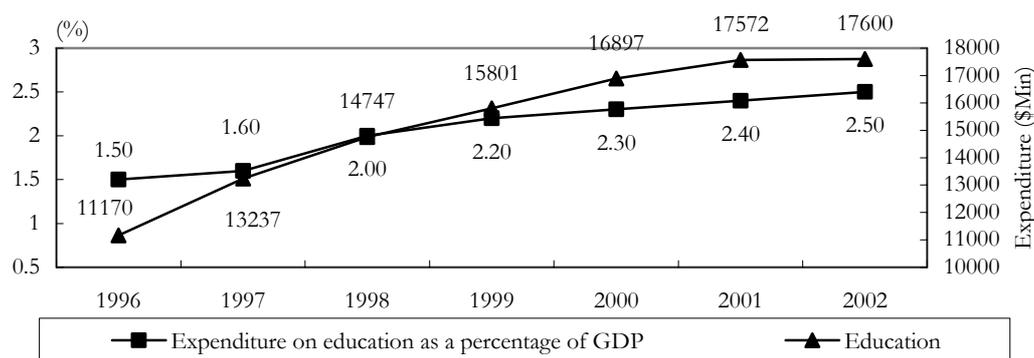
Year	France	Canada	U.S.A.	U.K.	Hong Kong	Republic of Korea	Singapore	Japan
1998-2000	5.8%	5.5%	4.8%	4.5%	4.0%	3.8%	3.7%	3.5%

Sources: United Nations (2004);
 Hong Kong: Financial Services and the Treasury Bureau (2002);
 Education and Manpower Bureau (2002)

On the other hand, the private household expenditure on education had also been increased gradually. As shown in figure 2.6, there was 33.3% increase in the consumption expenditure in the domestic market on education in the past six years (from 13.2 billions in 1997 to 17.6 billions in 2002). The consumption expenditure measures the total spending on goods and services for educational use, such as examination fees and private tuition fees. The findings reflected that there was an increasing trend of private investment on human capital.

The growth rate of private expenditure on education doubled that of public expenditure between 1997 and 2002. The growth rate of government expenditure on education was 16.7%, while the growth rate of consumption expenditure in the domestic market on education (reflects private expenditure) was 33.0% (Figures 2.4 & 2.6).

Figure 2.6: Consumption expenditure in the domestic market on educational goods and services (1996 – 2002)



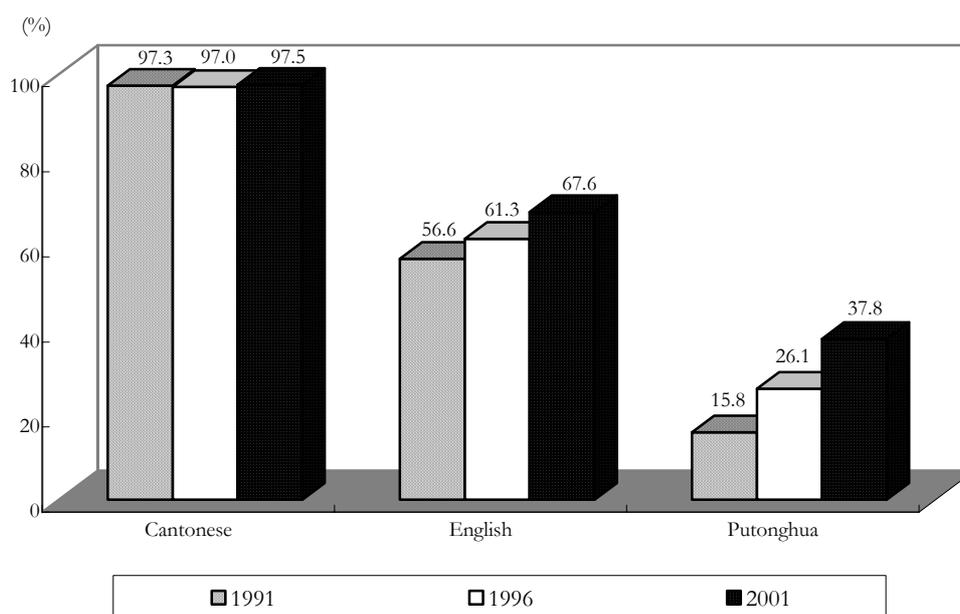
Source: Census and Statistics Department (2003a)

2.4.3 Direct measures of human capital

Although Cantonese was still the most commonly used language among the youth (more than 97% of youth were able to speak Cantonese as usual language or another language/dialect between 1991 and 2001), there was a rising proportion of youth who were able to speak English and Putonghua. The proportion of youth who could speak English increased from 56.6% in 1991 to 67.6% in 2001 and the growth rate was 19.4%. Whereas the proportion of youth who could speak Putonghua increased from 15.8% in 1991 to 37.8% in 2001 and the growth rate was 139.2%. While the interaction between HKSAR and Mainland China became closer and more intensive, more youngsters had equipped themselves to speak languages other than Cantonese.

Proficiency on IT was also an important element of human capital for youth to compete in labor market. According to the findings of *the Study on the Influence of Information Technology on Youth* (Commission on Youth, 2001), the means of working youth and students on the self-rated competence in computer use were 4.05 and 4.41 respectively (1= know nothing at all and 7= know a lot). Besides, the means of working youth and students on the self-rated competence in the Internet access were 4.62 and 4.91 respectively (Table 2.5). Those students aged 20 to 24 had significantly higher IT competence than other age groups. These results explained why the risk of being unemployed was relatively lower among those aged 20-24 than those aged 15-19.

Figure 2.7: Proportion of youth able to speak selected languages/dialects (1991, 1996 and 2001)



Notes: (1) The figures exclude mute persons.
 (2) The figures are total percentages either as the usual language or as another language/dialects.

Source: Census and Statistics Department (2001d)

The findings of the study also indicated the length of experience of using the Internet and computer among students and working youth. The mean length of experience using the Internet was over 4 months for all age groups. Students aged 20 to 24 had much Internet experience (Table 2.5). Since it was an ad hoc study, no trend data was available for further comparison. However, according to the Census and Statistics Department, the rate of those aged 15-24 who had used Internet service in the past twelve months was 91.9% in 2003, compared to 64.5% in 2000.

Table 2.5: Self-rated competence in and experience with IT (2001)

	Age (years)					
	Parents	13 - 15	16 - 19	20 - 24	16 - 24 (Vocational training)	16 - 24 (Working youth)
Competence in computer use	1.97	4.2	4.4	4.76	4.41	4.05
Competence in the Internet access	3.49	4.76	4.9	5.43	4.91	4.62
Experience with computer (months)	54.07	28.97	38.31	59.39	52.09	46.87
Experience with the Internet (months)	3.49	4.76	4.90	5.43	4.91	4.62

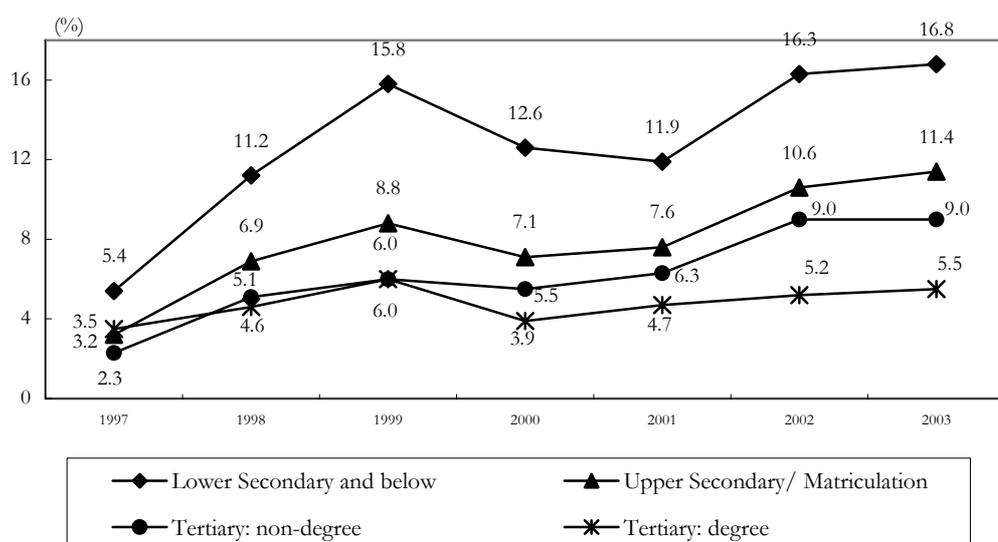
Source: Commission on Youth (2001)

Besides the self-rated competence in computer use and Internet access among the students and working youth, the subjective views among the employers and scholars on the IT competency of youth had also been collected. According to *the Survey of Employers' and Scholars' Views on the Quality of University Graduates* (Leung, 2000), employers and scholars gave highest scores⁶ on “IT competency” (Employer mean =3.79, Scholar mean =3.78) and “Ability of adopting new techniques” (Employer mean =3.34, Scholar mean =3.38) to the university graduates. In other words, the findings showed that university graduates had acquired skills and competence to match with the knowledge-based economy. This partly explained why youth with high qualification had lower risk of being unemployed as compared to those with lower educational attainment.

2.4.4 Market value of human capital

As shown in Figure 2.8, youth with lower educational level were more likely to be unemployed. The employment situation of those with lower educational level was getting worse in the past two years. The unemployment rate of the youth with lower secondary and below increased sharply from 11.9% in 2001 to 16.8% in 2003, while it increased slightly from 4.7% in 2001 to 5.5% in 2003 amongst the youth with tertiary educational level (degree). The findings indicated that education and vocational training were ways to alleviate youth unemployment problem. To a large extent, the development of human capital plays a significant role to enhance productivity of the youth.

Figure 2.8: Unemployment rate of youth aged 15-29 by educational attainment (1997 – 2003)

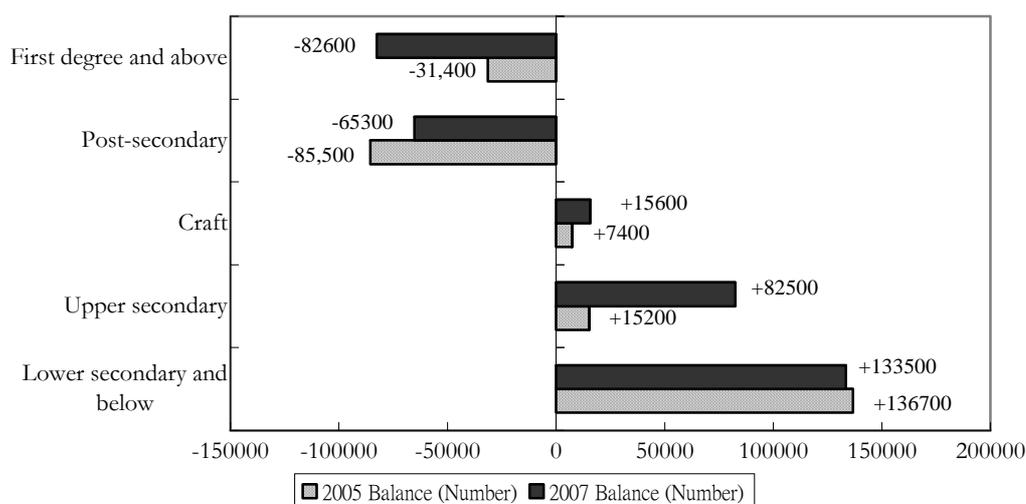


Source: Census and Statistics Department

⁶ The survey asked 331 employers and 332 scholars to value the quality of university graduates with 17 indicators. The score is between 5 (very good) and 1 (very bad).

As shown in figure 2.9, manpower resource balance at post-secondary level and degree level was continuously projected to fall short in 2007. Manpower requirement at post-secondary level is projected to outnumber the corresponding manpower supply by 65,300 in 2005, while manpower requirement at degree and above level was projected to outnumber the corresponding manpower supply by 82,600 in 2007. As shown in figure 2.9, the shortfall of manpower supply with degree level will be severe in 2007 as compared to that in 2005. On the other hand, there is a surplus of projected manpower resource balance at the educational levels of lower secondary and below (+133,500), upper secondary (+82,500), and craft (+15,600) in 2007. The surplus of manpower supply with upper secondary level and craft will rise sharply in 2007 as compared with that in 2005. This reflects that the labor market in Hong Kong will continuous to demand working population with higher level of educational attainment by 2007. Youth with lower educational level and working experience will find difficulties in looking for jobs in the future.

Figure 2.9: Projected manpower resource balance by educational attainment in 2005 and 2007



Notes: (+) Surplus in manpower supply against requirement
 (-) Shortfall in manpower supply against requirement.
 The figures excluded foreign domestic helpers and Hong Kong residents working and employed by business outside Hong Kong
 Post-secondary and First degree and above included attainment through continuing education.
 Post-secondary included matriculation, technician and sub-degree education.

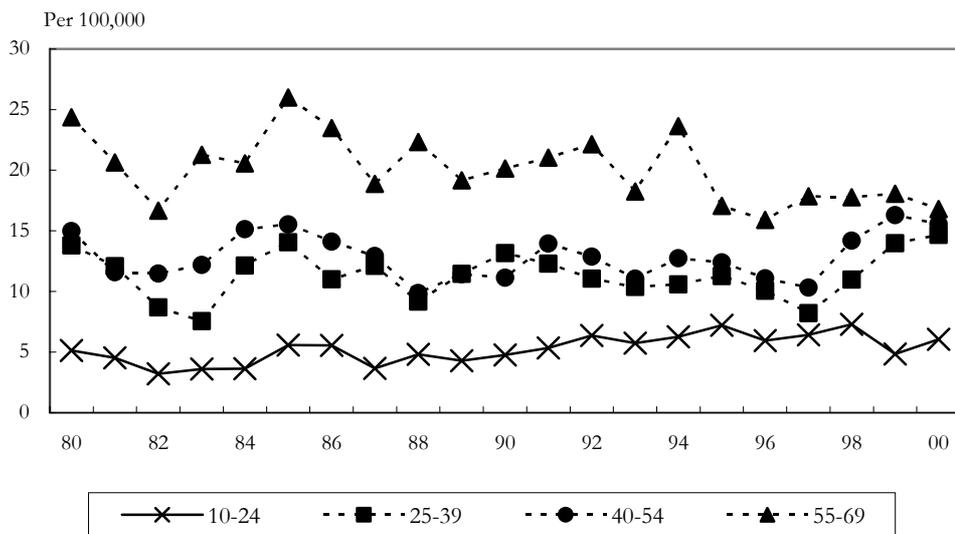
Source: Financial Services Bureau, Education and Manpower Bureau, Census and Statistics Department and Labour Department (2005 & 2007)

2.4.5 Health conditions

Owing to limitations in the data available, no recent data on teen suicide and youth mental health condition was obtained for and included in this updating exercise.

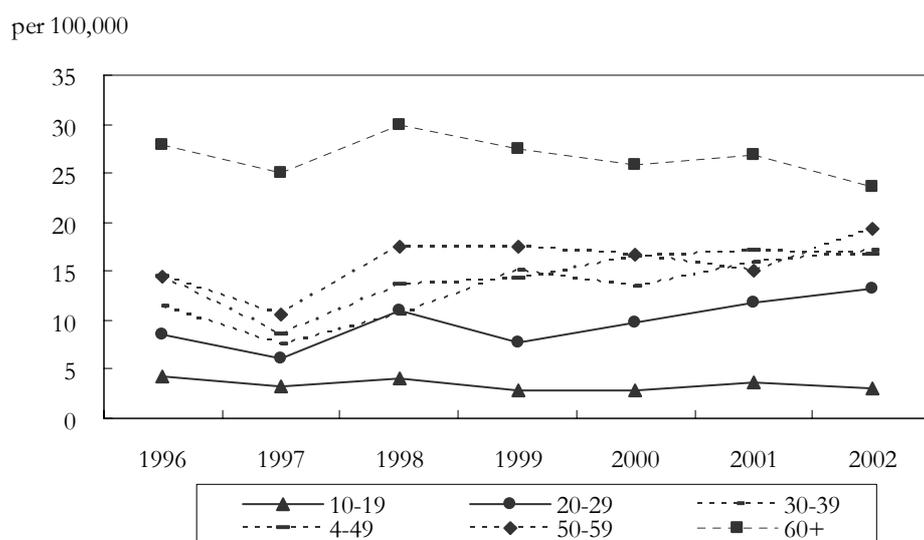
According to the study on *Adolescent Suicide in Hong Kong* (Shek and Tang, 2003), youth suicide rate aged 10 to 24 was lower than other adult age groups in Hong Kong between 1980 and 2000 (Figure 2.10a). Since it was an one-off study, the trend data was not available for use in this updating exercise. According to Hong Kong High Court, the suicide rate aged 10 to 19 and 20 to 29 was the lowest as compared to the rate of other age groups (Figure 2.10b). The number of suicide in the age group aged 10 to 19 per 100,000 population decreased from 4.3 in 1996 to 3.1 in 2002, whereas the number of suicide in the age group aged 20 to 29 per 100,000 population increased from 8.6 in 1996 to 13.2 in 2002. The reasons for the rising suicide rate aged 20-29 needed further examination in future studies.

Figure 2.10a: Suicide rate by age groups for the total population (1980 – 2000)



Source: Shek and Tang (2003)

Figure 2.10b: Suicide rate by age groups for the total population (1996-2002)



Source: Hong Kong High Court

One of the causes for youth suicide might be the pressure from unemployment. According to the findings of *Youth Trends in Hong Kong 2001*, more than 40% of suicide cases were unemployed between 1996 and 2000 (Table 2.6). These findings indicated the importance of the provisions of retraining programs and life-long education to enhance the competence of the unemployed and the youth.

Table 2.6: Percentage of suicide aged 0-39 by occupation (1996 – 2000)

Categories	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Unemployed	45.7	42.1	47.0	44.4	44.7
Student	8.2	8.3	6.0	6.6	7.4
Housewife	7.3	4.6	5.4	6.9	7.1
White collar	9.5	10.2	6.8	6.6	5.3
Blue collar	8.2	4.2	3.6	3.6	4.1
Disciplinary personnel	0.9	0.0	1.5	1.2	1.5
Teacher	0.9	0.5	0.3	0.9	0.9
Businessmen	2.8	2.8	1.8	1.5	0.9
Patient	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3
Other	16.1	27.3	27.7	28.1	27.8
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: Hong Kong Federation of Youth Groups (2001)

To a certain extent, adolescent suicide could not be described as prevalent in Hong Kong. It was not only because the suicide rate aged 10-29 was lower as compared to other age groups, but Hong Kong's youth suicide rate was also lower than that in some western and Asian countries/regions (Table 2.7).

Table 2.7: Suicide rate for the 15-24 age bracket in different places (1995 - 2000)

Year	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
U.K.	6.7	6.1	6.8	10.9	9.7	10.3
U.S.A.	13.3	12.0	11.4	11.1	12.7	/
Canada	15.0	14.4	13.7	/	/	/
Republic of Korea	9.5	11.8	10.3	24.9	19.9	17.3
Japan	8.4	8.5	8.5	/	/	/
Singapore	11.9	9.0	8.8	/	/	/
Taiwan	3.9	4.2	/	4.2	/	/
Hong Kong	8.9	9.7	8.7	10.3	6.1	7.7

Note: Suicide rate was calculated by the number of suicide per 100, 000 youth population.

Source: Shek and Tang (2003)

Although the rate of psychological problem detected by Student Health Service decreased slightly between 1997/98 and 2001/02, youth mental health condition should not be overlooked. The percentage of students found to suffer from psychological problems increased from 5.6% in 1997/98 to 6.0% in 2000/01 but it decreased to 4.3% in 2001/02.

2.4.6 Development of human capital of South Asian ethnic minorities

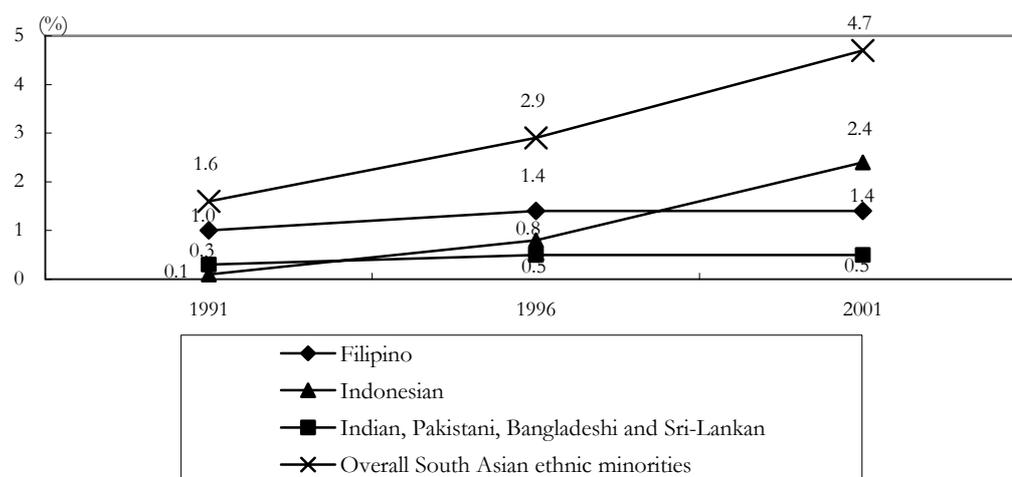
The latest profile of South Asian ethnic minorities⁷ in Hong Kong was reviewed by the Census and Statistics Department in 2001. As shown in figure 2.11, the percentage of overall South Asian ethnic minorities in the total youth population aged 15 to 24 increased from 1.6% in 1991 to 4.7% in 2001. There were 43,038 persons in the youth ethnic population aged 15 to 24 in 2001. The concern is not only the social inclusion of the young ethnic minorities in Hong Kong society, but also the limited opportunities, such as in education and training available for developing their human capital.

A recent survey indicated that over 80% of the parent respondents of the ethnic minorities were unwilling to send their children to Chinese schools, owing to barriers of language and difficulties in supervising the studies of their children⁸. As the percentage of ethnic minorities increased in the past decade, the Government should investigate how to provide opportunities for the development of human capital among these ethnic minorities in Hong Kong.

⁷ South Asian ethnic minorities refer to those come from the South and Southeast Asia, including Filipinos, Indonesians, Indians, Thai, Nepalese and Pakistanis.

⁸ Ming Pao Online News, 'Ethnic minorities were unwilling to attend Chinese schools', 2004/05/02

Figure 2.11: Percentages of main youth ethnic groups and overall South Asian ethnic minorities in total youth population (1991, 1996, 2001)



Note: Overall South Asian ethnic minority youth includes Filipinos, Indonesians, Indians, Thai, Nepalese, Pakistanis, Bangladeshis and Sri-Lankan.

Source: Census and Statistics Department (2001c)

As shown in table 2.8, the attendance rates of the young ethnic minorities aged 6-11 (99.3%) and 12-16 (96.3%) in 2001 were very close to those of same age group in overall youth population (99.9% and 97.5% respectively). This was because of the implementation of nine-year free and universal basic education policy. However, the attendance rates of the young ethnic minorities aged 17-18 (54.7%) and 19-24 (3.7%) in 2001 were lower than those of same age group in overall youth population (71.0% and 26.4% respectively).

Table 2.8: School Attendance rate for ethnic minorities and whole population by age groups (2001)

	Age Groups			
	Aged 6-11	Aged 12-16	Aged 17-18	Aged 19-24
Ethnic minorities	99.3 %	96.3%	54.7 %	3.7 %
Whole Population	99.9%	97.5%	71.0 %	26.4 %

Source: Census and Statistics Department (2001c)

In addition, young ethnic minorities are receiving limited services to develop human capital. The young new arrivals from the Mainland China seem to be in a better position - a “Full-time Initiation Program for Children Newly Arrived from the Mainland” is provided. However, the Social Welfare Department stopped the funding of post-migration centres in 2004, and its impact on youth and their families have not yet been evaluated. Other ethnic minority youth would only have limited choices if they do not understand Chinese languages and cannot benefit from mainstream education. This is especially so if they come to Hong Kong at a later developmental stage. This will hinder the young ethnic minorities’ entry into/staying in the workforce. Furthermore, the

young ethnic minorities were only offered limited channels for occupational training. Since only 11.2% of ethnic minorities speak fluent in Cantonese, the existing vocational training courses cannot entertain this group. For example, “Youth Pre-employment Training Programs”, which provides training for the youth aged 15 to 19, is conducted in Cantonese.

2.5 Summary

The indicators of human capital focus on the dimensions relating to youth’s education, economical productivity and health conditions. Several phenomena can be observed:

- School attendance rate of youth aged 19-24 increased sharply from 23.4% in 1996 to 30.3% in 2001 and further to 32.3% in 2003.
- The percentage of youth population with matriculation or tertiary educational level increased from 22.7% in 1991 to 38.9% in 2001 and further to 41.2% in 2003.
- The dropout rate at Primary and Junior Secondary level decreased from 0.282% in 1997/98 to 0.181% in 2000/01 and further decreased to 0.165% in 2002/03.
- The government increased its total public expenditure on education. Total public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP increased from 3.5% in 1997/98 to 4.1% in 2001/02 and further to 4.8% in 2003/04. This level is comparatively higher than some Asian countries but lower than various western countries.
- Private consumption expenditure spending on goods and services for educational use increased by 33.0% which doubled that of public expenditure on education (16.7%), between 1997 and 2002.
- The unemployment rate of youth with lower secondary and below increased sharply from 11.9% in 2001 to 16.8% in 2003, while it increased slightly from 4.7% in 2001 to 5.5% in 2003 amongst youth with tertiary educational level (degree).
- Youth suicide rate was lower than those of other adult age groups and some Western and Asian countries/regions. However, the suicide rate of youth aged 20-29 increased from 8.6 per 100,000 population in 1996 to 13.2 in 2002.
- The percentage of ethnic minorities in total youth population increased from 1.6% in 1991 to 4.7% in 2001. But the school attendance rates among ethnic minorities aged 17-18 and 19-24 were 54.7% and 3.7% respectively,

compared with 71.0% and 26.4% of the same age groups in the whole population.

In this updating exercise, only statistics on dimensions of 1) educational attainment, 2) public & private investment on human capital and 3) market value of human capital could be obtained to reflect the development trend of human capital of youth in Hong Kong. However, some statistics were generated from General Household Survey, instead of Population Census, as the trends shown in these two sets of statistics were similar and Population Census data could only be available until 2006. They included school attendance rate and number of youth by educational attainment. If the exercise will go on in regular/annual basis, it is suggested to use the statistics from General Household Survey for the updating exercise in the future.

On the other hand, since recent statistics on dimensions of direct measures of human capital, health conditions of youth and young ethnic minorities in Hong Kong were not available for this updating exercise, it is not comprehensive enough to reflect the development of human capital of youth in Hong Kong. It is therefore suggested to collect data on the dimensions of direct measures of human capital, health conditions of youth and young ethnic minorities in Hong Kong in future studies.

Chapter 3 Unemployment

The economic downturn and high unemployment rate had been recorded in many countries (OECD, 2003). The deterioration of labor market conditions affected different population groups to different extent. In fact, youth unemployment has been a major challenge to labor market policy for many years. Hong Kong is no exception. The youth unemployment rate remained two times or more than the overall unemployment rate in Hong Kong and in other countries (OECD, 2002). The lack of opportunities for the youth to participate in the labor market not only hampers their economic betterment, it also affects the social engagement of youth in society. In the long run, it will distort the generation of human capital, such as accumulation of working experiences and improvement of competency among the youth themselves, and it will also hinder the development of the whole society (Gordon, *et al.*, 2000). The aim of this chapter is to examine the latest statistics related to youth employment issue with reference to the existing framework.

3.1 Definitions of employment and unemployment

According to the Census & Statistics Department, the population can be classified into two main groups: economically active population and economically inactive population.⁹

The economically active population is composed of the employed (i.e. the working population) and the unemployed. *The employed persons* refer to persons aged 15 and over who should (i) be engaged in performing work for pay or profit during the seven days before the Census; (ii) have formal job attachment during the seven days before the Census. The working population includes employee, employer, self-employed and unpaid family worker (Hong Kong Government, Census & Statistics Department 2002: 260). While *the unemployed persons* refer to persons aged 15 and over who should (i) not have had a job and should not have performed any work for pay or profit during the seven days before the Census; (ii) have been available for work during the seven days before the Census; (iii) have sought work during the thirty days before the Census (Hong Kong Government, Census & Statistics Department 2002:260).

The economically inactive population refers to persons who have not had a job and have not been at work during the seven days before the Census, excluding persons who have been on leave/holiday during the seven-day period and persons who are

⁹ The definitions of employment, unemployment and economically inactive population adopted by the Census and Statistics Department are close to those used by the International Labour Organization (ILO).

unemployed. Persons such as home-makers, retired persons and all those aged below 15 are thus included¹⁰ (Hong Kong Government, Census & Statistics Department: 2002: 261). In order to grasp a full picture of the (un)employment situations of the youth, the economically inactive youth (not in school) will be taken into account in this study.

The causes of the structural unemployment can roughly be divided into external and internal causes (Larsen, 2001). The external explanations focus on fundamental changes in the production structure that leads to a mismatch between labor supply and demand. The indicators on external explanations can be grouped as a dimension of structural constraints to youth employment status, such as the types of jobs done by the youth previously, currently and their desired industry of the next employment. The internal explanations focus on the barriers to the labor market (i.e. productivity of the youth). The indicators used for the measurement of the productivity of the workers include sex, age, education, previous unemployment and the judgment of the unemployed. Measuring structural constraints to youth employment and productivity of the youth may also enhance our understanding of whether youth unemployment is related to their self-capacity/productivity or the structural constraints. As a result, examples of indicators include three dimensions of youth unemployment: (i) employment status; (ii) structural constraints to youth employment status; and (iii) productivity of youth (Gunderson, Sharpe & Wald, 2000; ILO 1982; Larsen 2001; Reich & Abraham, 2001) (Table 3.1).

¹⁰ A person who is studying full-time in school or other educational institution, as well as persons who are self-studying informal courses in miscellaneous training institutes or studying evening courses and were not working during the seven days before the Census are also included in this category. Student workers are classified as economically active persons and are not included in this group (Hong Kong Government, Census & Statistics Department, 2002:273).

Table 3.1: Indicators of youth unemployment

Dimensions	Examples of Indicators
Employment status	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Employed youth population and rate■ Underemployed youth population and rate■ Unemployed youth population and rate■ Part-time employment rate of youth■ Economically inactive youth (not in school) population and rate■ Availability for work■ Health conditions of working youth■ Number of working hours per week
Structural constraints to youth employment status	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Youth job-seekers by desired industry of next employment■ Youth unemployment in relation to previous job in industry■ Youth unemployment in relation to previous occupation■ Reasons for losing jobs■ Duration of unemployment■ Reasons for long-term unemployment based on the judgment of the unemployed youth themselves■ Present industry of employed youth■ Present occupation of employed youth
Productivity of youth	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Ratio of youth to adult unemployment■ Ratio of youth to adult underemployment■ Youth employment status by educational attainment and by sex

3.2 Data availability

Table 3.2 shows obtained indicators on youth unemployment. For the dimension of “employment status”, the discussion will focus on “unemployment rate”, “economically inactive youth population”, “underemployment rate” and “part-time employment rate”. Statistics on the indicators related to “the health conditions of the working youth” and “number of working hours” were still not available for this updating exercise.

For the dimension of “structural constraints to youth employment status”, data on three indicators was still unavailable for this updating exercise, including “reasons for losing jobs”, “duration of unemployment” and “reasons for long-term unemployment based on the judgment of the unemployed youth themselves”. Therefore, the discussion will focus on “the youth unemployment rate aged 15-29 by previous industry” and “working youth by occupation”. The obtained data illustrated the trend of the labor force participation rate of youth, as well as the structural changes of youth occupation

and industry. However, the structural constraints of youth employment cannot be examined to reflect the reasons of worsening unemployment situation in this updating exercise since there is no systematic data to recognize the constraints to youth employment status.

For the dimension of “productivity of youth”, “youth unemployment status by educational attainment” has already been discussed to measure productivity and competency of the youth in chapter 2. In addition, since data on “the ratio of youth to adult underemployment” was still unavailable, the discussion will focus on “ratio of youth unemployment to adult”. International comparison on this indicator will also be discussed with reference to data from data bank of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations.

Table 3.2: Obtained indicators on youth unemployment

<i>Dimensions</i>	Obtained Indicators	Sources
EMPLOYMENT STATUS		
Employed youth population and rate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Number of employed persons by age and sex (1997-2003) 	Census and Statistics Department
Underemployed youth population and rate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Number of underemployed persons and underemployment rate (2002-2003) 	Census and Statistics Department
Unemployed youth population and rate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Number of unemployed persons and unemployment rate (1997-2003) 	Census and Statistics Department
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Youth unemployment rate by age groups in different places (for international comparison) (2000-2003) 	Census and Statistics Department; Hong Kong Federation of Youth Groups; Department of Labor of the United States of America; Accounting and Statistics Executive Yuan, Republic of China; and Statistics and Census Service, Government of Macao Special Administrative Region
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Part-time employment rate (1994, 1999, 2000 and 2002) 	Census and Statistics Department
Economically inactive youth (not in school) population and rate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Economically inactive population by age group and sex (1997-2002) 	Census and Statistics Department
Availability for work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Labor force participation rate by sex by age group (1997-2003) 	Census and Statistics Department

Table 3.2 (Continued....)

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Obtained Indicators</i>	<i>Sources</i>
<i>STRUCTURAL CONSTRAINTS TO YOUTH EMPLOYMENT STATUS</i>		
Youth unemployment in relation to previous job in industry	■ Unemployed persons and unemployment rate aged 15-29 by previous industry (1996-2003)	Census and Statistics Department
Present industry of employed youth	■ Working youth by industry (1991-2003)	Census and Statistics Department
Present occupation of employed youth	■ Working youth by occupation (1991-2003)	Census and Statistics Department
PRODUCTIVITY OF YOUTH		
Ratio of youth to adult unemployment	■ Ratio of youth unemployment to adult (for international comparison) (1995-2001)	United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs
Youth employment status by educational attainment and by sex	■ Unemployment rate by educational attainment (1997-2003) (See Chapter 2 Human Capital)	Census and Statistics Department

3.3 Discussion

3.3.1 Employment status

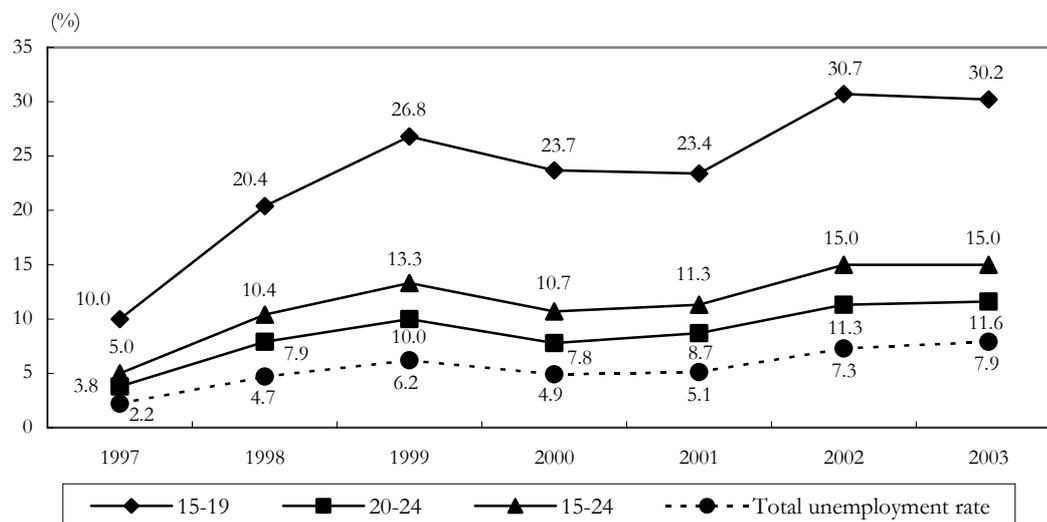
The low-skilled working force encountered difficulty in looking for jobs in the knowledge-based society. The total unemployment rate increased sharply from 2.2% in 1997 to 6.2% in 1999 and decreased to 5.1% in 2001 but increased to 7.9% in 2003, whereas the youth unemployment rate (aged 15-24) were 5.0% in 1997, 13.3% in 1999, 11.3% in 2001 and 15.0% in 2003. In fact, the youth unemployment rate remained double to the total unemployment rate in the past 7 years (Figure 3.1).

Youth unemployment rate aged 15 to 19 remained high in the past 5 years. It illustrated that those young school leavers who did not have/had limited working experiences had difficulty in searching for jobs. In addition, it reflected that lower secondary education level was no longer sufficient to compete for jobs in the knowledge-based society. As shown in figure 3.1, unemployment rate for those aged 15 to 19 increased from 10.0% in 1997 to 23.4% in 2001 and further to 30.2% in 2003.

Unemployment rate of the youth aged 15 to 19 in Hong Kong was higher than that of the USA and of some Asian countries. As shown in table 3.3, the unemployment rate of the youth aged 15 to 19 in Hong Kong was 30.2% in 2003, which was

significantly higher than that of Taiwan (13.8% in 2003), the USA (13.1% in 2000), Macau (10.6% in 2000) and Singapore (11.9% in 2000).

Figure 3.1: Unemployment rate by age (1997-2003)



Source: Census and Statistics Department

Table 3.3: Youth unemployment rate by age groups in different places (2000-2003)

Age Groups	USA 2000	Taiwan 2003**	Macau 2000	Singapore 2000	Hong Kong 2003
15-19	13.1 (Aged 16-19)	13.8	10.6 (Aged 14-19)	11.9 (Aged 14-19)	30.2
20-24	7.1	11.0	/	8.1	11.6
15-24	10.6 (2001)* (Aged 16-24)	7.4 (2000)	10.0 (2001)*** (Aged 14-24)	4.7 (2000)	15.0 (2003)

Sources: Hong Kong Federation of Youth Groups (2001)
 *USA: Department of Labor of the United States of America
 **Taiwan: Accounting and Statistics Executive Yuan.
 ***Macau: Calculated from the findings of Statistics and Census Service, Government of Macao Special Administrative Region

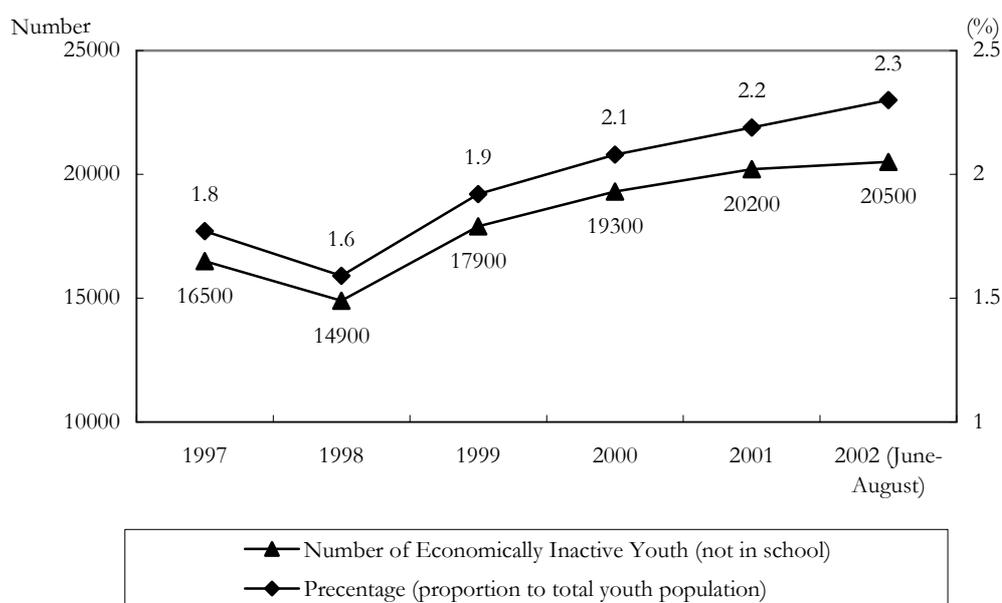
The risk of the economic hardship and social disengagement was high for those “Status Zero Youth”¹¹. The number of youth aged 15-24 who were not engaged in work nor in school increased from 30,200 in 1997 to 31,700 in 2001, and decreased slightly to 29,300 in 2003. They accounted for 3.2% in 1997, 3.6% in 2001 and 3.3% in 2003 of youth aged 15-24. In other words, the “Status Zero Youth” phenomenon was still alarming. Attention should be paid to those youngsters aged 15-24 as they would easily

¹¹ It refers to the unemployed youth who are not pursuing any studies.

have low self-image, lost confidence and motivation towards career, jobs and further studies in the long run.

Analysis of the economically inactive youth (not in school) will give a more comprehensive picture of the “Status Zero Youth”. The economically inactive youth is different to the unemployed youth partly because some of school leavers do not intend to find jobs, and partly because some of those who are with poor academic performance cannot further their studies. The number of economically inactive youth (not in school) increased from 16,500 in 1997 to 20,200 in 2001 and further increased to 20,500 in 2002 (Figure 3.2). Again, there was an increasing number of the economically inactive youth in the total youth population. The government and the youth services organizations should pay attention to the emerging issue brought along by the economically inactive youth (not in school).

Figure 3.2: Economically inactive youth aged 15-24 who were not pursuing any studies (1997-2002)

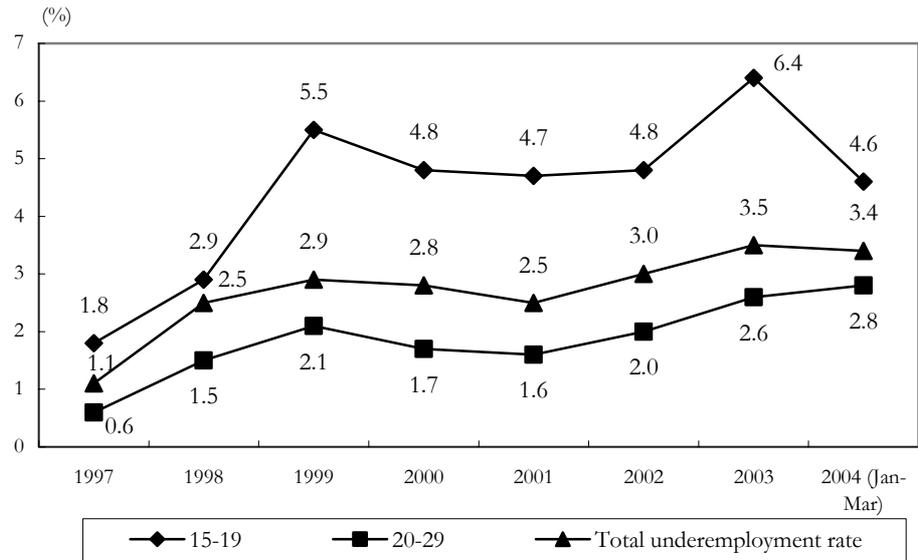


Source: Census and Statistics Department

Youth in Hong Kong do not only suffer from high unemployment rate but also easily situate in a less advantageous place in the labor market. Though they can find a job in the labor market, their chance of being underemployed is high. As shown in figure 3.3, the underemployment rate aged 15-19 remained high (increased from 1.8% in 1997 to 5.5% in 1999 and further increased to 6.4% in 2003), compared to the total underemployment rate (increased from 1.1% in 1997 to 2.9% in 1999 and further increased to 3.5% in 2003). This could be explained their lower competitiveness in terms of education level in the labor market. The experience in underemployment would then

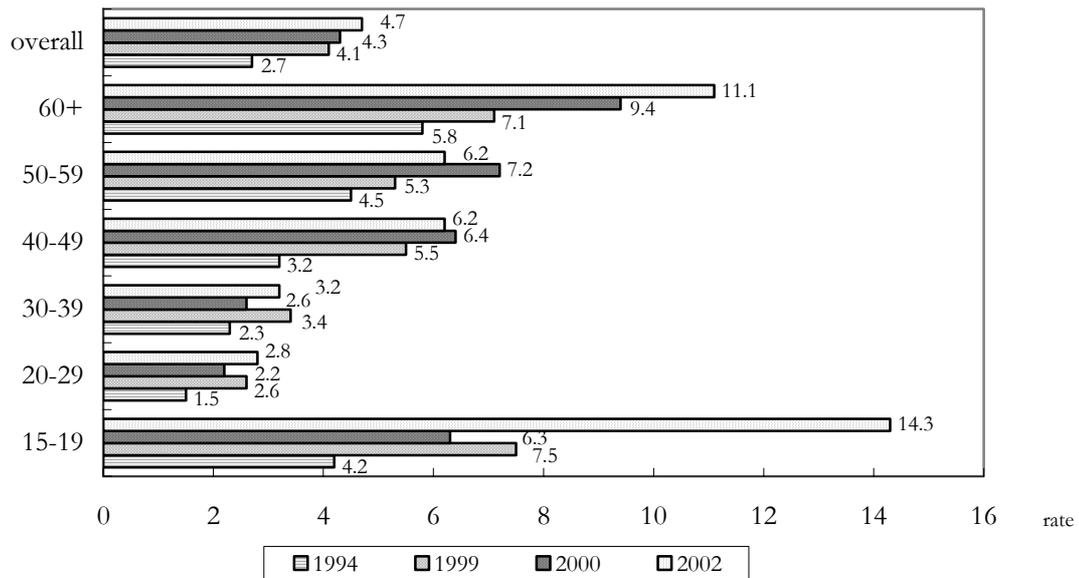
affect their earnings as well as the probability of accumulating working experiences in the labor market. In addition, as shown in figure 3.4, the part-time employment rate aged 15-19 was higher (from 4.2% in 1994 to 14.3% in 2002) than the whole population (from 2.7% in 1994 to 4.7% in 2002). However, as part-time working experiences were not much treasured in the labor market, the youth aged 15-19 might easily be marginalized in the labor market.

Figure 3.3: Underemployment rate by age (1997-2003)



Source: Census and Statistics Department

Figure 3.4: Part-time employment rate by age (1994, 1999, 2000 and 2002)

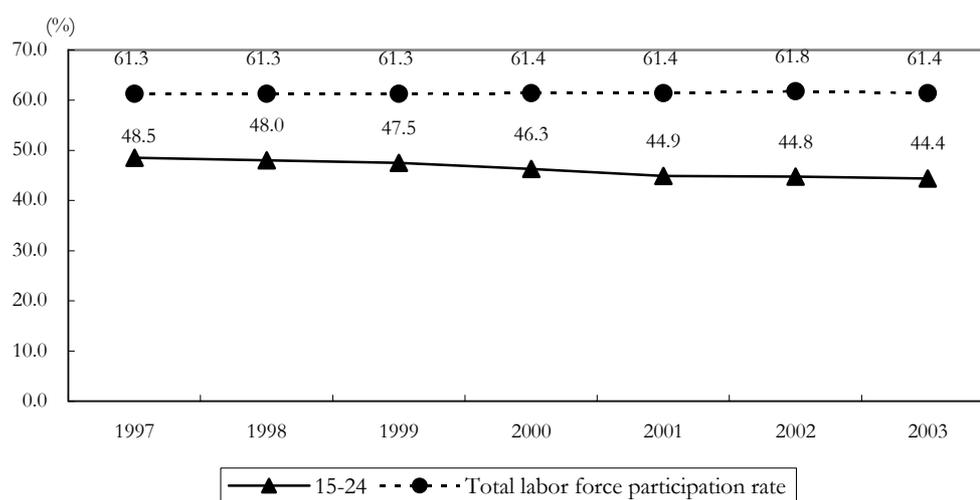


Source: Census and Statistics Department

3.3.2 Structural constraints to youth employment status

The obtained data could not help generate a comprehensive review on the structural constraints to youth employment status. However, it could shed lights on the structural changes of youth employment by industry and occupation.

Figure 3.5: Labor Force Participation Rate (1997-2003)



Source: Census and Statistics Department

The findings indicated that the labor force participation rate among youth had decreased gradually since 1997, whereas the total labor force participation rate was stable (Figure 3.5). This may reflect on one hand that more youth stay in school for longer time and on the other hand the increased hardship of the youth to enter into the labor market. In addition, there was a structural change in the employment pattern among the youth. Youth employment was shifted from secondary labor-intensive industry to tertiary service industry. According to 2001 Population Census, the percentage of youth working in “manufacturing” industry decreased from 25.6% in 1991 to 8.7% in 2001. “Manufacturing” industry is no longer the main industry employing the youth in Hong Kong. Following the economically structural changes, the proportion of youth working in tertiary service industry was expanding. The percentage of the working youth under the sector of “wholesale, retail and import/export trades, restaurants and hotels” increased from 26.6% in 1991 to 29.8% in 2001 (Figure 3.6). The findings of General Household Survey were consistent with the results of the Population Census. The proportion of youth working in “manufacturing” industry had reduced to 5.3% but the proportion of youth working in sector of “wholesale, retail and import/export trades, restaurants and hotels” remained stable in the past seven years and it accounted for 35.5% in 2003 (Figure 3.7).

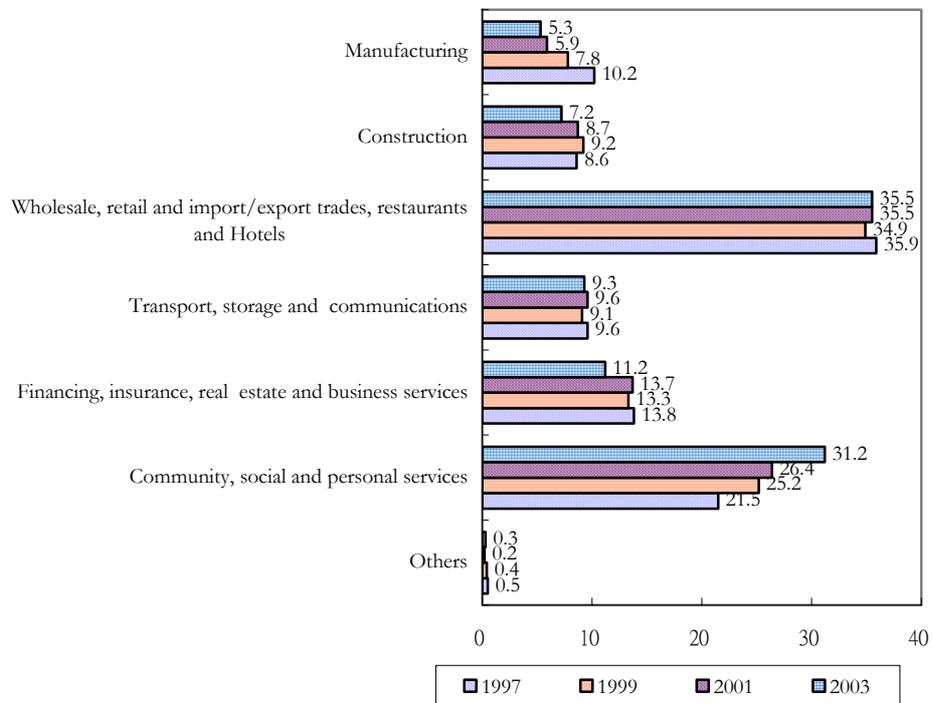
Figure 3.6: Percentage of working youth by industry (1991-2001)



Note: "Others" include such industries as "Agriculture and fishing", "Mining and quarrying", "Electricity, gas and water" and industrial activities inadequately described or unclassifiable.

Source: Census and Statistics Department, Population Census

Figure 3.7: Percentage of working youth by industry (1997-2003)

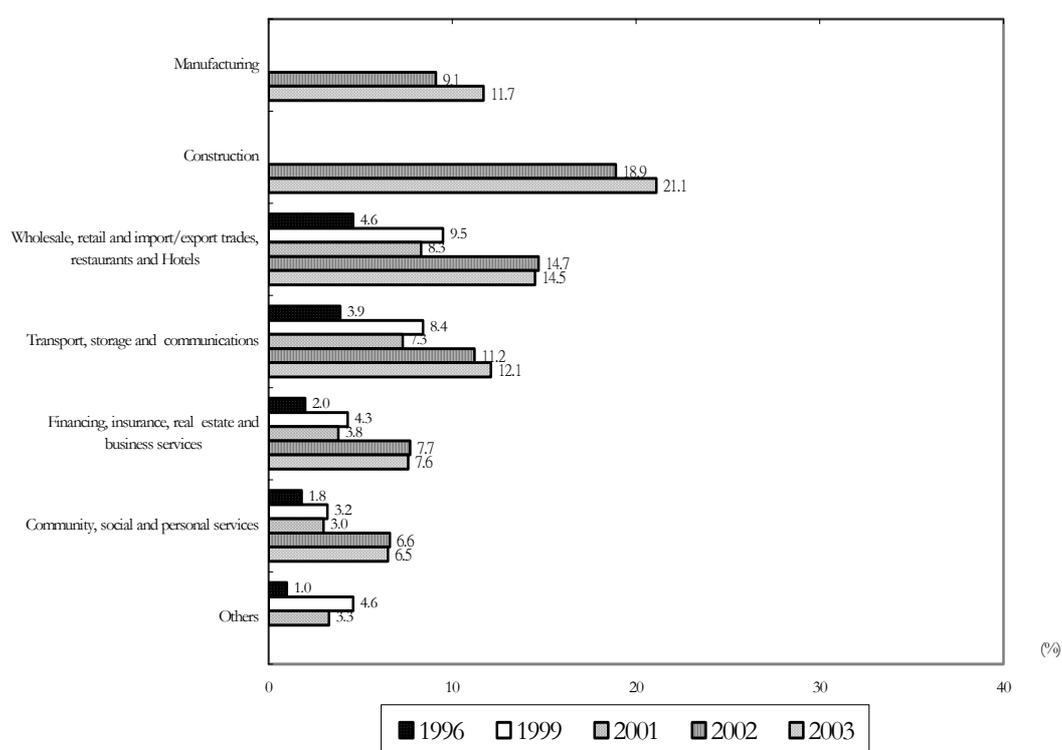


Note: "Others" include such industries as "Agriculture and fishing", "Mining and quarrying", "Electricity, gas and water" and industrial activities inadequately described or unclassifiable.

Source: Census and Statistics Department, General Household Survey

Working youth was vulnerable to the economic downturn and restructuring. Those aged 15-29 who had worked in “construction” and “manufacturing” industries experienced high unemployment rate, which was 21.1% and 11.7% in 2003 respectively. The unemployment rate of those youth who had worked in “wholesale, retail and import/ export trades, restaurants and hotels” increased from 4.6% in 1996 to 14.5% in 2003, while the unemployment rate for those who worked in “community, social and personal service” increased from 1.8% in 1996 to 6.5% in 2003. In addition, the unemployment rate for the youth aged 15-29 who worked for “transport, storage and communications” increased from 3.9% in 1996 to 12.1% in 2003 (Figure 3.8).

Figure 3.8: Unemployment rate aged 15-29 by previous industry (1996-2003)



Note: The unemployment rate for Construction and Manufacturing was combined as one category before 2002

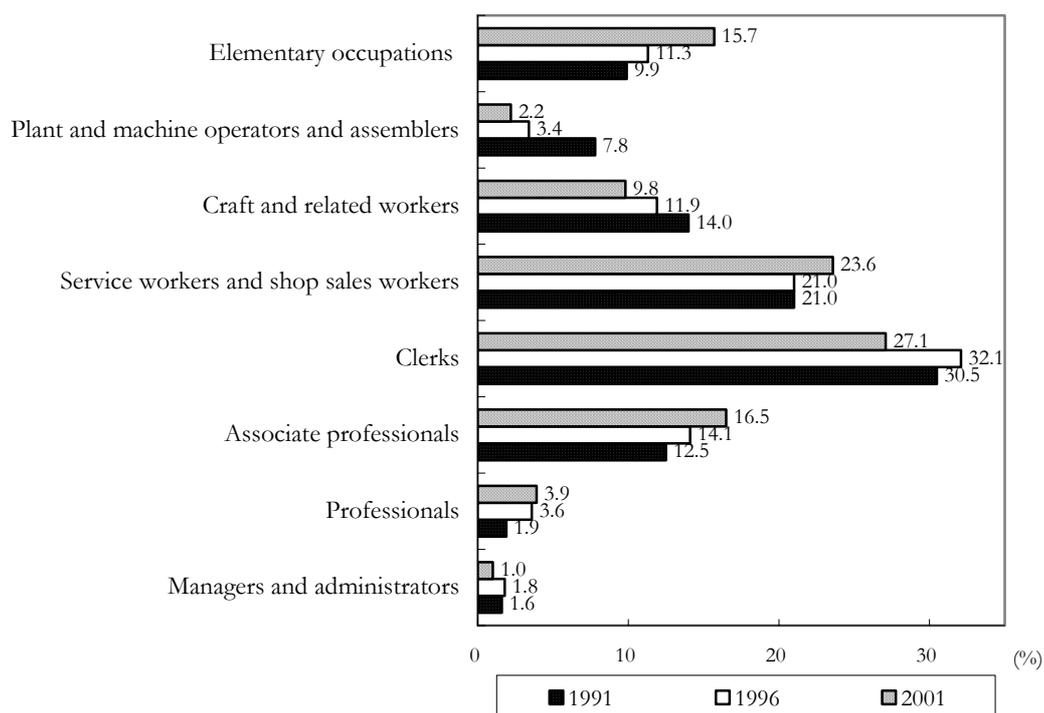
Source: Census and Statistics Department, General Household Survey

On the other hand, the Population Census recorded that the proportion of working youth aged 15-24 as “professionals” and “associate professionals” had increased since 1991 (Figure 3.9). However, reverse trend had been observed in General Household Survey after 2001. In 2001, the proportion of working youth as “professionals” and “associate professionals” was 3.8% and 15.6% respectively, whereas in 2003, it decreased slightly to 3.4% and 14.4% respectively (Figure 3.10). The proportion of youth worked in these two occupations was 19.4% in 2001 and 17.8% in

2003. In addition, both statistics from Population Census and General Household Survey had recorded a diminishing proportion of working youth worked as “clerks”, and “craft and related workers”. According to the General Household Survey, the proportion of working youth who worked as “clerks”, and “craft and related workers” in 2001 was 27.6% and 11.0% respectively, whereas it decreased to 26.3% and 9.1% in 2003 respectively.

According to the Population Census, the proportions of working youth as “service workers and shop sales workers” and “elementary workers” increased from 21.0% in 1991 to 23.6% in 2001 and from 9.9% in 1991 to 15.7% in 2001 respectively. Whereas according to the General Household Survey, the proportions of working youth in these two kinds of occupations increased from 23.0% in 2001 to 25.7% in 2003 and from 16.0% in 2001 to 18.4% in 2003 respectively. Both Population Census and General Household Survey showed an increasing trend of youth working in these two occupations.

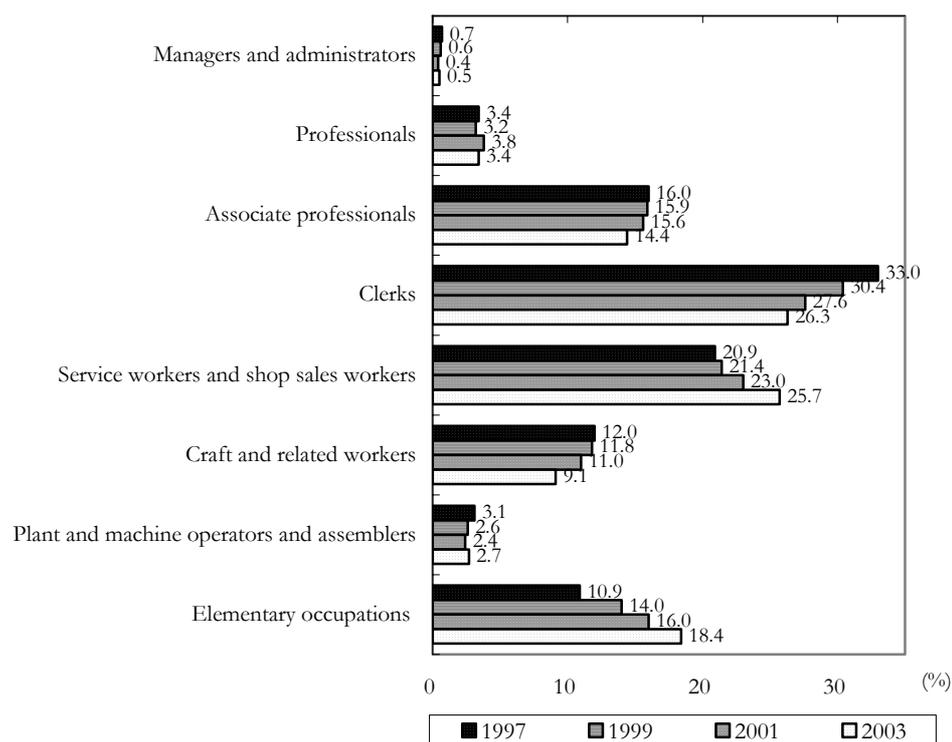
Figure 3.9: Percentage of working youth aged 15-24 by occupation (1991-2001)



Note: The proportion of working youth in elementary occupation was 8.4% in 1991, 7.0% in 1996 and 8.0% in 2001 when foreign domestic helpers were excluded.

Source: Census and Statistics Department, Population Census

Figure 3.10: Percentage of working youth aged 15-24 by occupation (1997-2003)



Source: Census and Statistics Department, General Household Survey

3.3.3 Productivity level of the youth

According to the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations, the unemployment rate of youth aged 15-24 was 2.6 times to the total unemployment rate in Hong Kong in 2001. The high risk of unemployment among the youth had been experienced by many other countries (Table 3.4). However, the findings showed that the ratio of youth unemployment to adult fell in some Asian countries like Singapore and Macau. It is worth studying the policies and measures adopted by these countries in tackling youth unemployment.

Table 3.4: Ratio of Youth Unemployment to Adult (1995-2001)

Country	Year						
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Australia	2.3	2.2	2.4	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.5
Hong Kong	2.7	3.0	3.1	2.8	/	2.7	2.6
Macau	1.9	1.9	3.5	2.8	/	1.6	1.7
Singapore	2.3	3.0	2.6	2.6	/	1.1	/
United Kingdom	2.1	2.1	2.3	2.5	2.5	2.7	2.8
United States	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.1	2.9

Source: United Nations (2004)

3.4 Summary

The findings indicated that youth unemployment had been worsened in the past 20 years. The obtained data illustrated the seriousness of youth unemployment, particularly for those aged 15-19. Unemployment of youth aged 15-19 was found to be more serious than other age groups in Hong Kong as well as the same age group that in some Asian and Western countries. In addition, particular attention should be paid to the prevailing issue of “Status Zero Youth”. Key findings were as follows:

- The situation of youth unemployment had intensified since the late 1990s. The youth unemployment rate remained double to the total unemployment rate between 1997 and 2003 in Hong Kong. Unemployment was worst among youth aged 15 to 19, compared with those aged 20 to 24. The unemployment rate of the youth aged 15 to 19 reached 30.2% in 2003.
- The issue of high number of economically inactive youth has been prevailing in Hong Kong. The number of youth aged 15-24 who were not engaged in work nor in school increased from 30,200 in 1997 to 31,700 in 2001 and decreased slightly to 29,300 in 2003. They accounted for 3.2% in 1997, 3.6% in 2001 and 3.3% in 2003 of youth aged 15-24.
- In addition, the part-time employment rate of those aged 15-19 was higher (from 4.2% in 1994 to 14.3% in 2002) than that of the adults and than the overall rate (from 2.7% in 1994 to 4.7% in 2002).
- Comparing 5.3% of the youth working in “manufacturing”, with 66.7% of the youth working in “wholesale, retail and import/export trades, restaurants and hotels industry” and “community, social and personal services industry”, more youth was employed in the tertiary service industries.
- However, the working youth was vulnerable to the economic downturn and restructuring. Those aged 15-29 who had worked in “construction” and “manufacturing” industries experienced high unemployment rate, which was 21.1% and 11.7% in 2003 respectively. The unemployment rate of those youth who had worked in “wholesale, retail and import/ export trades, restaurants and hotels” increased from 4.6% in 1996 to 14.5% in 2003, while the unemployment rate for the youth aged 15-29 who worked for “transport, storage and communications” increased from 3.9% in 1996 to 12.1% in 2003.
- There was a decreasing proportion of youth working as “managers and administrators”, “professionals” and “associate professionals” after 2001. Less than one-fifth (18.3%) of working youth worked as “managers and

administrators”, “professionals” and “associate professionals” in 2003, compared with 21.4% in 2001 and 16.0% in 1991

- On the other hand, the proportion of youth worked as “service workers and shop sales workers” and “elementary workers” increased gradually. More than two-fifth (44.1%) of working youth worked as “service workers and shop sales workers” and “elementary workers” in 2003, compared with 39.3% in 2001 and 30.9% in 1991.

In this updating exercise, we could collect the data for the adopted indicators, such as unemployed youth population, economically inactive youth (not in school) population, working youth by industry and occupation, the ratios of youth to adult unemployment and youth unemployment by educational attainment, which were very useful indicators to measure the seriousness of youth unemployment and the productivity level of youth at present. In addition, new indicators such as youth underemployment rate and part-time employment rate had been added in this exercise, which could help to review more comprehensively the situation of youth in the labour market. However, the obtained data is still insufficient to identify working conditions and structural constraints on youth employment status. This is partly because some useful indicators we proposed in Table 3.1, such as the health conditions of working youth, the reasons for losing jobs and duration of unemployment, is still unable to be collected at this moment. As these indicators may help us understand the limitation and obstacles of the youth in the labor market, it is recommended to collect these indicators so as to make the future studies on youth employment/unemployment issues more comprehensive and systematic.

Chapter 4 Poverty

The youth unemployment rate remained high in the past few years, particularly for those aged 15-19, who had lower educational attainment level and limited working experiences. The social effects of inadequate income or resources for young people are significant since social and psychological adjustments are affected by the ability to participate in normal activities in the community. In this chapter, we would adopt the existing framework to identify the extent of youth poverty in terms of financial aspects, labor market participation and social networks.

4.1 Poverty approaches

The setting of poverty thresholds has moved away from defining poverty in relation to physical necessities. The poverty thresholds include not only lack of basic necessities of food, clothing, fuel and shelter, but also taking account of the membership in society. Among the typology of poverty approaches, there have been:

4.1.1 *Budget Standards studies*

This follows the essence of Rowntree approach, which defines poverty threshold as the income required to purchase mere physical necessities. However, recent studies have extended to 'low cost and modest but adequate budgets' (Bradshaw, 1993; Saunders *et al.*, 1998).

4.1.2 *Relative Income or Expenditure thresholds*

The US poverty line follows this tradition and is on the basis of an income threshold where the family of four spent more than one-third of their budgets on food (Ruggles, 1990). In addition, taking a point, such as 40%, 50% or 60% of mean or median income is commonly adopted by the national governments and international organizations, such as OECD, as poverty threshold.

4.1.3 *Relative Deprivation Indicators*

Townsend's work pioneered the use of social indicators to establish a poverty threshold and a relative deprivation was defined as a family did not have three or more deprivation indicators (Townsend, 1979). Mack & Lansley (1983) and Gordon & Pantazis' (1997) studies recognized the matter of taste and choice when adopting

Townsend's approach. The questions included 'what the general population considered to be "socially perceived necessities"', 'items that were lacking because they could not afford' and 'items that were lacking because they did not want'. The recent study on *Poverty and Social Exclusion in Britain*, further included a wider range of items which concerned issues of poverty and social exclusion (Gordon, *et al.*, 2000). Poverty thresholds not only cover the subsistence level of living, but also include socially determined or relative lack of resources. Besides, it does not only focus on exclusion from income/resources, but also concerns about labor market exclusion, service exclusion, as well as exclusion from social relations.

4.1.4 *Subjective measures*

The poverty thresholds have been established on the basis of self-perceived or subjective methods. Townsend's study on *Absolute and Overall Poverty*¹² *in Britain* (1997), was to operationalize these poverty thresholds empirically. Table 4.1 summarizes examples of indicators of poverty (Gordon, *et al.*, 2000; Ruggles, 1990).

¹² The Absolute poverty was defined by the United Nations (UN) as 'a condition characterized by severe deprivation of basic human needs, including food, safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education and information. It depends not only on income but also on access to services'. The Overall poverty was defined as a condition characterized by 'lack of income and productive resources to ensure sustainable livelihoods; hunger and malnutrition; ill health; limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increased morbidity and mortality from illness; homelessness and inadequate housing; unsafe environments and social discrimination and exclusion. It is also characterized by lack of participation in decision-making and in civil, social and cultural life. It occurs in all countries: as mass poverty in many developing countries, pockets of poverty amid wealth in developed countries, loss of livelihoods as a result of economic recession, sudden poverty as a result of disaster or conflict, the poverty of low-wage workers, and the utter destitution of people who fall outside family support systems, social institutions and safety nets' (UN, 1995:57).

Table 4.1: Indicators of youth poverty

Dimensions	Examples of Indicators
Youth in low income households	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Number of youth living in households whose median household income below or equivalent to 50% in respective of household size
Households with youth receiving Comprehensive Social Security Allowance (CSSA) Scheme	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Number of youth living in CSSA households
Number of students receiving full textbook allowance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Number of students receiving full textbook allowance
Labor market participation*	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Working youth population ■ Unemployed youth population ■ Labor force participation rate
Participation in common social activities *	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Extracurricular activities ■ After school activities ■ Leisure activities
Contact with friends and family*	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Frequency of contact
Availability of and participating in public/private services*	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Libraries ■ Public sports facilities ■ Museums ■ Transportation
Affordability of public/private Services*	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Public sports facilities ■ Museums ■ Transportation

Note: * dimensions of exclusion (including labor market exclusion; service exclusion and exclusion from social relations).

4.2 Data availability

Table 4.2 shows obtained indicators on youth poverty. Data on “youth in low-income household”, “households with youth receiving CSSA” and “students under School Textbook Assistance Scheme” were discussed in this updating exercise. Dimension of “labor market participation among the youth” has been discussed in chapter 3.

However, most of the proposed relative deprivation indicators on the dimensions of exclusion were not available for this updating exercise, including “contact with friends and family”, “availability of and participating in public/private services”, and “affordability of public/private services”.

Table 4.2: Obtained indicators on youth poverty

<i>Dimensions</i>	Obtained Indicators	Sources
Youth in low income households	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Percentage of youth aged 15-19 in low-income households (1991-2002) 	Hong Kong Council of Social Service
Households with youth receiving CSSA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Youth aged 15-24 receiving CSSA (1996-2003) 	Social Welfare Department
Number of students receiving full textbook allowance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Percentage of primary and secondary students receiving Full Grant under School Textbook Assistance Scheme (1997/98-2002/03) 	Student Financial Assistance Agency; Census and Statistics Department
Labor market participation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Working youth population (see Chapter 2) ■ Number of unemployed youth (see Chapter 2) ■ Labor force participation rate (see Chapter 2) ■ Monthly income from main employment of working youth (1991-2003) 	Census and Statistics Department

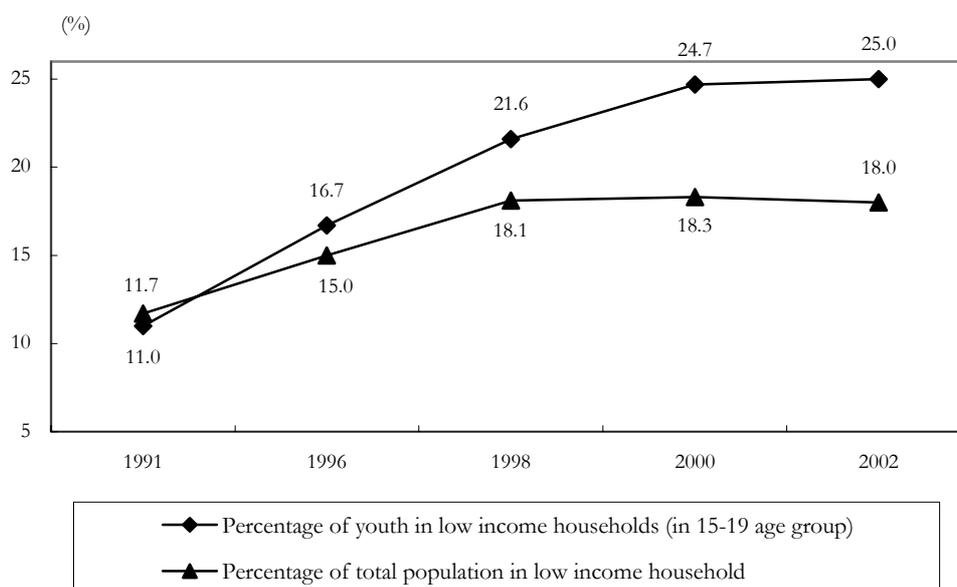
4.3 Discussion

4.3.1 *Youth in low-income household*

As shown in figure 4.1, there was an increasing proportion of youth living in low-income households¹³. The percentage of youth aged 15 to 19 living in low-income households increased from 11.0% in 1991 to 24.7% in 2000, and further increased to 25.0% in 2002, whereas the percentage of low-income household in total population was 11.7% in 1991, 18.3% in 2000 and 18.0% in 2002.

¹³ Low-income households refer to those domestic households with monthly household income less than or equal to half of the median monthly domestic household income of the corresponding household size. According to the Census and Statistics Department, the median monthly domestic household incomes increased from HK\$11,700 in 1992, \$19,000 in 1997, \$18,000 in 2000, \$16,500 in 2002 and estimated to be \$15,000 for Q4 2003

Figure 4.1: Percentage of youth aged 15-19 in low-income households (1991, 1996, 1998, 2000 and 2002)



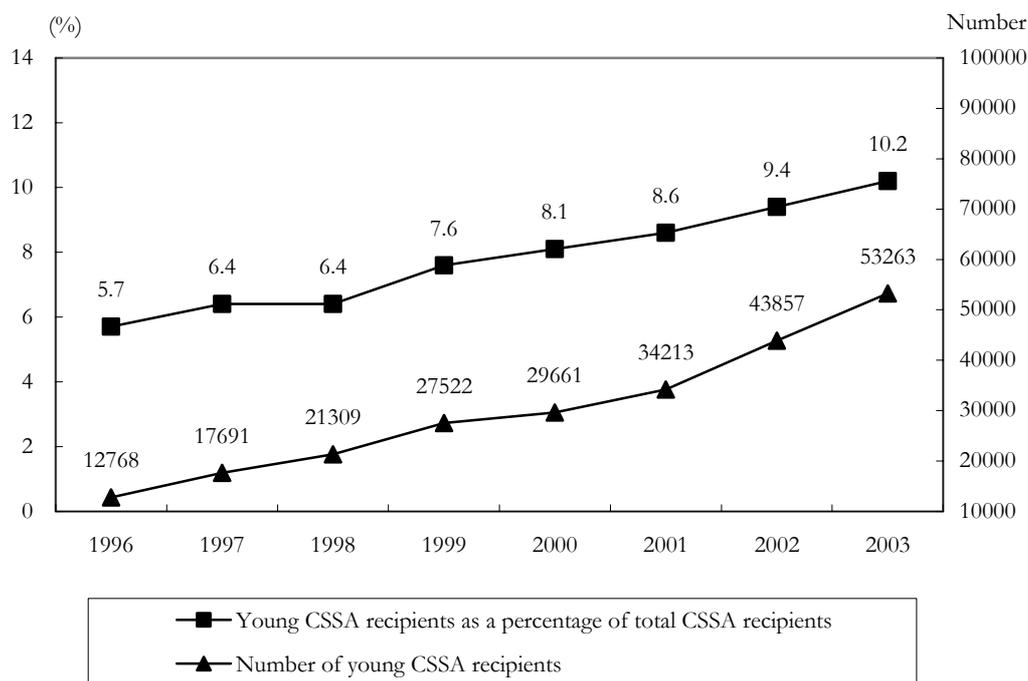
Source: Hong Kong Council of Social Service (2004) (in press)

4.3.2 Youth receiving CSSA

The Comprehensive Social Security Assistance Scheme (CSSA) provides financial assistance to those families whose monthly household income and capital assets are insufficient to meet the recognized needs. Since there is no official poverty line in Hong Kong, measuring the number of the youth living in CSSA households is one of the important indicators for identifying youth poverty in Hong Kong.

As shown in figure 4.2, youth poverty in Hong Kong had become serious. According to Social Welfare Department, there were 53,263 young CSSA recipients in 2003, as compared with 12,768 in 1996. The number of young CSSA recipients increased more than 4 times between 1996 and 2003. In addition, youth receiving CSSA as a percentage of total CSSA recipients increased from 5.7% in 1996 to 9.4% in 2002 and further to 10.2% in 2003.

Figure 4.2: Youth aged 15-24 receiving CSSA (1996-2003)



Note: Data for 1996 to 1999 are compiled by referring to the Studies of Comprehensive Social Security Assistance Recipients in respective years.

Source: Social Welfare Department

The foregoing discussion reflected that there was an increasing number of youth population living in poverty in Hong Kong. Youth living in poverty should enjoy equal opportunities as other youth, in education and other developmental dimensions. However, data related to the suggested indicators on dimensions of exclusion were not available for this updating exercise.

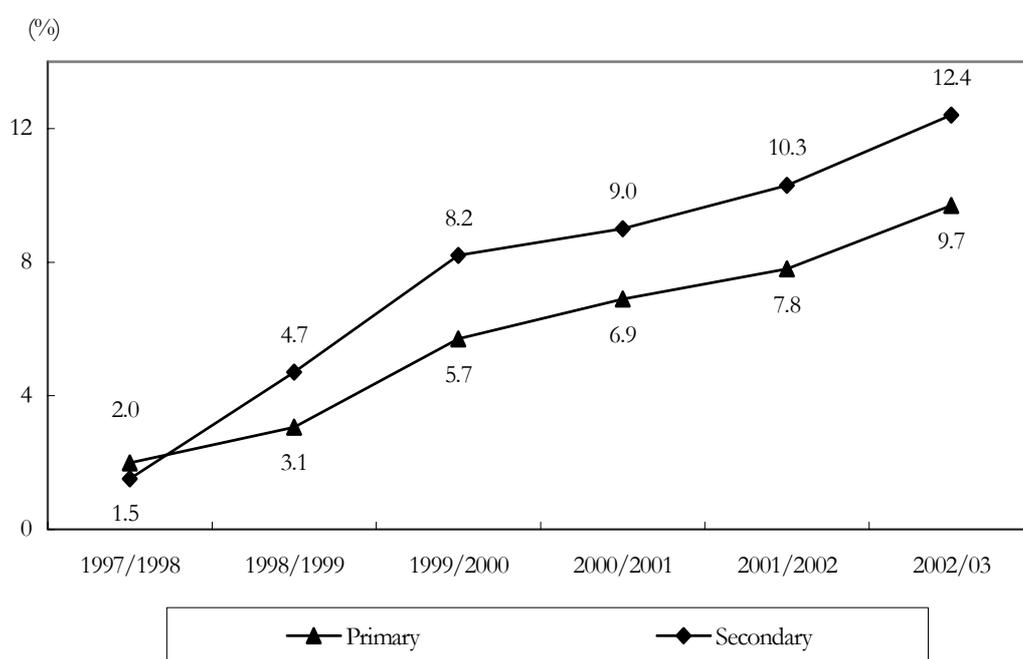
4.3.3 *Students under School Textbook Assistance Scheme*

Primary and Secondary students with family financial hardship can apply for the School Textbook Assistance Scheme (the Scheme) from the Student Financial Assistance Agency. The Scheme was extended to cover senior secondary students with effect from 1998/99 school year. Measuring the number and the percentage of students receiving full grant of the School Textbook Assistance Scheme can reflect youth poverty in Hong Kong.

As shown in figure 4.3, the percentages of primary and secondary students receiving full grant increased in the past six academic years. The percentage of primary

students receiving full grant increased from 2.0% in 1997/1998 school year to 7.8% in 2001/2002 and further to 9.7% in 2002/2003. It increased more than four times between 1997 and 2002. The Scheme had been extended to cover senior secondary students since the 1998/1999 academic year. The percentage of secondary students receiving full grant increased from 1.5% in 1997/1998 school year to 10.3% in 2001/2002 and further to 12.4% in 2002/03. It increased more than eight times between 1997 and 2002. The findings indicated that there was increasing number of young students living in poor families, particularly for those secondary students.

Figure 4.3: Percentage of students receiving full grant under School Textbook Assistance Scheme (1997/1998 – 2002/2003)



Notes: (1) Enrolment includes both full-time and part-time students.
 (2) Enrolment includes students attending special education.
 (3) School Textbook Assistant Scheme was extended to cover Senior Secondary Students w.e.f 1998/1999 school year.
 Source: Calculated from the statistics records of the Student Financial Assistance Agency and Census and Statistics Department

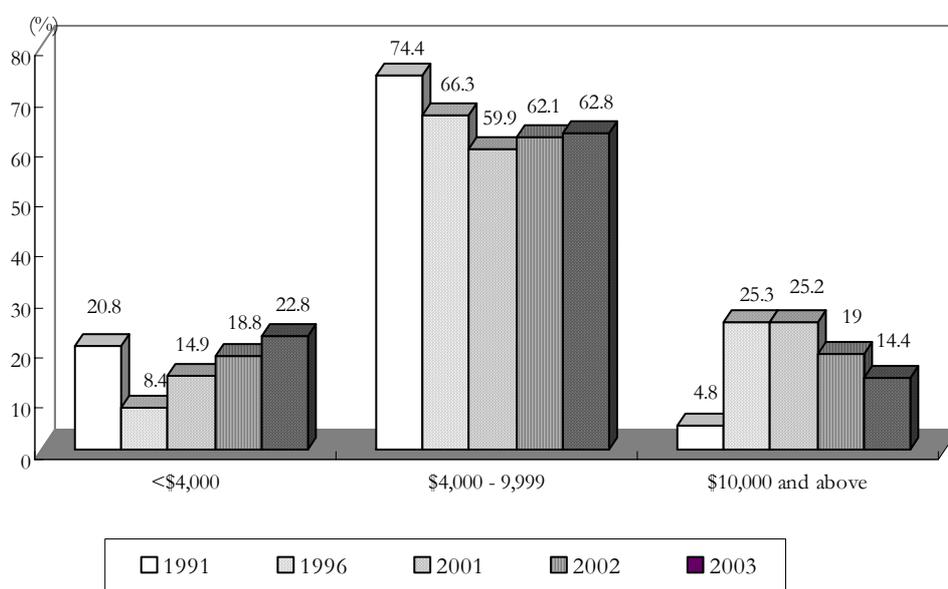
4.3.4 Deprivation on labor market participation among youth

According to Social Welfare Department, the number of young CSSA recipients aged 15-24 was 53,263 in 2003. 18.5% of them were classified as CSSA unemployed in 2003, compared with 9.8% of CSSA youth unemployed in 2002.

Exclusion from the labor market is one of the key indicators which contribute to

living in poverty. As mentioned in Chapter 3, unemployment rate of youth aged 15-24 increased to 15.0% in 2003. People in the labor market may not necessarily mean they have adequate income/resources as some of them might be in low-paid jobs. As shown in figure 4.4, although the percentage of working youth with monthly income less than \$4,000 decreased from 20.8% in 1991 to 8.4% in 1996, it increased to 14.9% in 2001 and further to 22.8% in 2003. In fact, the number of young CSSA recipients under the category of low earnings increased from 540 in 1996 to 3,467 in 2001 and further to 5,488 in 2003 and they accounted for 4.2% in 1996, 10.1% in 2001 and 10.3% in 2003 of the total number of young CSSA recipients.

Figure 4.4: Monthly Income from main employment of working youth (1991-2003)



Source: Census and Statistics Department, General Household Survey

4.4 Summary

Based on the obtained data on youth poverty, several trends can be observed as follows:

- There was an increasing proportion of youth living in low-income households. The percentage of youth aged 15 to 19 living in low-income households increased from 11.0% in 1991 to 24.7% in 2000 and further increased to 25.0% in 2002
- The number of young CSSA recipients increased more than 4 times between 1996 and 2003. The proportion of youth among all CSSA

recipients increased from 5.7% in 1996 to 10.2% in 2003. In 2003, 18.5% of young CSSA recipients were unemployed and 10.3% of them were under the category of low earnings.

- The percentage of primary and secondary students receiving full grant under School Textbook Assistance Scheme increased in the past six years. The growth rate was higher among the secondary students (increased more than 8 times between 1997 and 2002) than amongst the primary students (growth rate increased more than 4 times between 1997 and 2002).
- The percentage of working youth with monthly income less than \$4,000 increased from 8.4% in 1996 to 14.9% in 2001 and further to 22.8% in 2003.

These findings illustrated that the number of youth living in poverty increased significantly and that the issue of youth poverty should be alerted.

However, the discussion on youth poverty only focuses on the financial aspect because of data availability. Measuring youth poverty in terms of service exclusion and exclusion from social relations can offer a better understanding of youth poverty for the government and the service providers. In order to grasp a comprehensive picture on the issue of youth poverty in future studies, it is recommended that data proposed in the existing framework be collected on regular basis. They include: (i) participation in common social activities by socio-demographic characteristics, such as extracurricular activities, after school activities and leisure activities; (ii) frequency of contact with friends by socio-demographic characteristics; (iii) participation in public/private services by socio-demographic characteristics; and (iv) affordability of public/private services

Chapter 5 Substance abuse

There was a decreasing trend of reported substance abuse among youth in Hong Kong and in other western countries.¹⁴ However, the negative impact of drug on people should not be overlooked¹⁵.

According to Narcotics Division, drug abuse is defined as taking any drugs except under proper medical guidance. The prevalence of substance abuse among youth and its related problems, as well as the risk and protective factors for the youth will be examined with reference to the existing framework. It will, first, review the existing framework.

5.1 Nature and extent of substance abuse, and their related consequences

The World Health Organization (WHO) provides a ready-to-use framework in its publication *Guide to Drug Abuse Epidemiology* for identifying existing data pertaining to trends of substance abuse. The list of indicators and methods are identified to measure the prevalence of substance abuse and its related consequences, such as health problems and crime. These indicators are summarized in table 5.1.

5.2 Risk¹⁶ and protective factors for adolescent substance abuse

5.2.1 *Simple model of substance abuse*

According to Hawkins, Catalano and Miller (1992), a simple model of adolescent substance abuse is drawn incorporating social, contextual, interpersonal and individual factors. These factors can be categorized into 5 domain areas, namely family, school, peer, community and individual. Empirical study proves that there are links between these 5 domains and substance abuse. Protective factors may decrease the likelihood of substance abuse (Delaronde, 1999). Figure 5.1 illustrates the inter-relationships between these 5 domains and substance abuse (World Health Organization, 1997).

¹⁴ Information on drug abuse can be found in the webpage of World Health Organization. (http://www.who.int/substance_abuse/facts/), access on 10/06/2004.

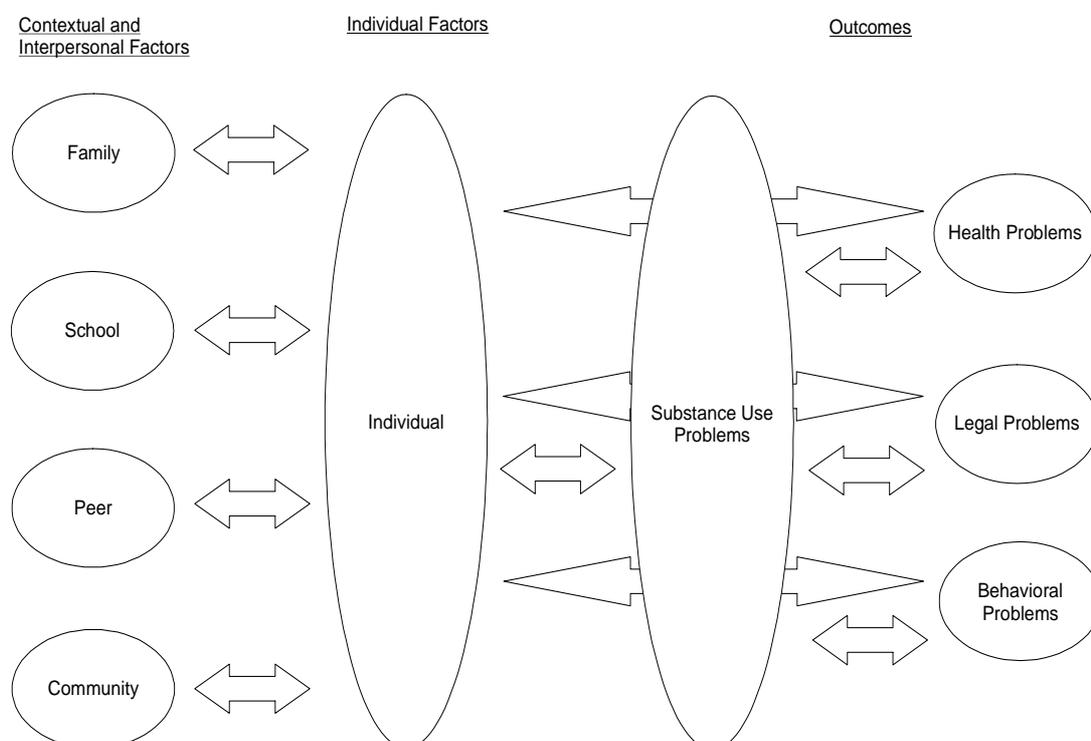
¹⁵ For the details of the harms of drug abuse, please refer to <http://www.drugabuse.gov/Infobox> (access on 10/06/2004).

¹⁶ All factors which may increase the likelihood of substance abuse are regarded as risk factors (Delaronde, 1999)

Table 5.1: Indicators of the nature, extent of substance abuse and its related consequences

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Examples of Indicators</i>
CONSUMPTION PATTERN OF SUBSTANCE USE	
Consumption of drugs, alcohol and tobacco	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Prevalence and incidence pattern of use; users' socio-demographic characteristics
Drug treatment demand	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Applications and admissions to in-patient and outpatient treatment programs
DRUG-RELATED HEALTH PROBLEMS	
Drug-related hospital admission or discharge diagnoses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Trends in psychiatric hospital admission with a primary diagnosis of drug or alcohol dependence or abuse
Drug-related emergencies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Demands on emergency services arising from certain consequences of substance use
Drug-related infectious diseases	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Drug-related Hepatitis B & C, HIV infection amongst injecting drug users (IDUs) and drug-related AIDS cases
DRUG-RELATED LEGAL/CRIME PROBLEMS	
Police arrests for Drug Use/Possession	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Police arrest records for use or possession of illegal drugs, and supply or trafficking of illegal drugs
Convictions for Drug Use/Possession	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Convictions for offences against the drug laws
Imprisonment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Drug law offences and addicts in prison population

Figure 5.1: A simple model of substance abuse



Referring to the simple model of adolescent substance abuse, the 1997 National Household Survey on Drug Abuse (NHSDA) undertaken by the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA), provides a useful guidance to estimate the factors for substance abuse. The findings of the NHSDA reflected that there were associations between reduction in substance use and well-planned prevention programs. Risk and protective factors for adolescent substance abuse were classified into five domains, including community, family, peer/individual, school and general domains. These indicators are summarized in table 5.2 (National Household Survey on Drug Abuse 1997).

Table 5.2: Indicators of risk and protective factors for the youth

Dimensions	Examples of Indicators
COMMUNITY DOMAIN	
Drug availability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Difficulty in obtaining drugs
FAMILY DOMAIN	
Family management (Parenting)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Parental disciplinary approach on children
Family conflict	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Frequency of arguing with parents
Parental attitudes toward substance abuse	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Youth perception of parental feeling about substance use
Prevention measure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Anti-drug prevention activities that seeks to increase the youth's perception of the risk or harm of substance use
PEER/INDIVIDUAL DOMAIN	
Friends' use of drugs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Attitudes of close friends toward substance use
Friends' attitudes toward substance abuse	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Attitudes of close friends regarding substance use
Delinquent behaviour	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Involvement in the delinquent activities
Perceived risk of drug use	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Perceived risks of drug use from close friends, according to racial, gender and age differences
SCHOOL DOMAIN	
Commitment to school	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Current enrolment status
Academic failure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Academic performance level
Prevention measure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Anti-drug prevention activities that seeks to increase the youth's perception of the risk or harm of substance use
GENERAL DOMAIN	
Social support	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Accessibility of socio-emotional support
Participation in social / recreational activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Involvement and participation of activities
Religious beliefs and practices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Frequency of attendance at religious services, perceptions of importance of religious beliefs, etc.
Prevention measure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Anti-drug prevention activities that seeks to increase the youth's perception of the risk or harm of substance use

5.3 Data availability

The statistics on ‘consumption pattern of substance use’ of the youth are collected from the Central Registry of Drug Abuse (CRDA)¹⁷. In addition, the findings of studies concerning substance abuse among youth in the dimensions of “consumption pattern of substance use” and “risk and protective factors to the youth” were also discussed.

Since the statistics related to “drug-related health problems” and “drug-related legal/crime problems” were not available for this updating exercise, the obtained data on drug-related problems were not comprehensive enough to identify significant trends. Moreover, only “community and peer domain” indicators were able to be collected in this updating exercise to identify “risk and protective factors to the youth”. The obtained indicators are listed in table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Obtained indicators on substance abuse of the youth

<i>Dimensions</i>	Obtained Indicators	Sources
<i>CONSUMPTION PATTERN OF SUBSTANCE USE</i>		
Consumption of drugs, alcohol and tobacco	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Statistics on drug abusers aged under 21 reported to the CRDA by types of drug abused (1997-2003) ■ Previously reported persons aged under 21 from CRDA (1997-2003) ■ Percentage of alcohol, tobacco, heroin and psychotropic substance users (1992, 1996 and 2000) ■ Daily smokers by age (1998, 2000 and 2002) ■ Smoking trends in Form 1 to 3 students (1994 and 1999) 	<p>Narcotics Division, Security Bureau</p> <p>Narcotics Division, Security Bureau</p> <p>Lau (2002)</p> <p>Census and Statistics Department</p> <p>Lam, Ho, and Kui (1999)</p>
<i>RISK AND PROTECTIVE FACTORS</i>		
Community domain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Venue for consumption of heroin/psychotropic substances (2000) ■ Venue for consumption of drugs (2002) 	<p>Lau(2002)</p> <p>Hong Kong Sheng Kung Hui Welfare Council (2002)</p>
Peer/individual domain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Sources of heroin/psychotropic substances (2000) ■ Sources of drug substances (2002) ■ Reason for first heroin abuse/ psychotropic substance abuse (2000) ■ Reasons for drug use among the reported individuals aged under 21 (1997-2003) 	<p>Lau(2002)</p> <p>Hong Kong Sheng Kung Hui Welfare Council (2002)</p> <p>Lau(2002)</p> <p>Narcotics Division, Security Bureau</p>

¹⁷ It is the Narcotic Division which collects, collates and analyzes information of drug abusers provided by 34 reporting agencies, including law enforcement and treatment agencies, welfare organizations, hospitals and clinics.

5.4 Discussion

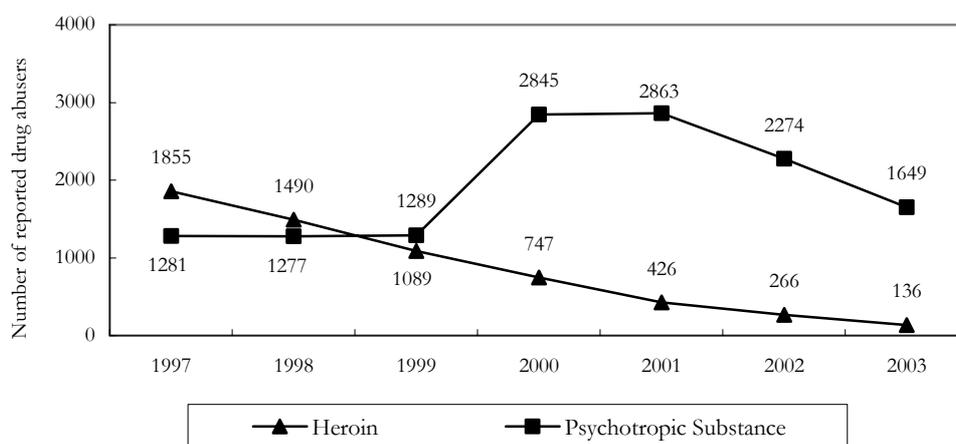
5.4.1 Consumption pattern of substance abuse

The number of young drug abusers aged under 21 reported to the CRDA increased slightly from 3,150 in 1997 to 3,902 in 2001 but dropped gradually to 2,130 in 2003 for all types of drug abuse.

Similar decreasing trends were also observed in the number of abusers of different types of drug. As shown in figure 5.2, the total number of young abusers of various psychotropic substances increased from 1,281 in 1997 to 2,863 in 2001 but decreased to 1,649 in 2003. In addition, there was a constant decrease in the number of heroin abusers. It dropped from 1,855 in 1997 to 426 in 2001 and further dropped to 136 in 2003.

According to the CRDA, Ketamine and MDMA (Ecstasy) were the two most common types of psychotropic drug abused. In 2003, the numbers of Ketamine and MDMA (Ecstasy) abusers were 1,099 and 599 respectively, compared with 0 and 49 respectively in 1997.

Figure 5.2: Statistics on drug abusers aged under 21 reported to the CRDA by types of drug abused (1997-2003)



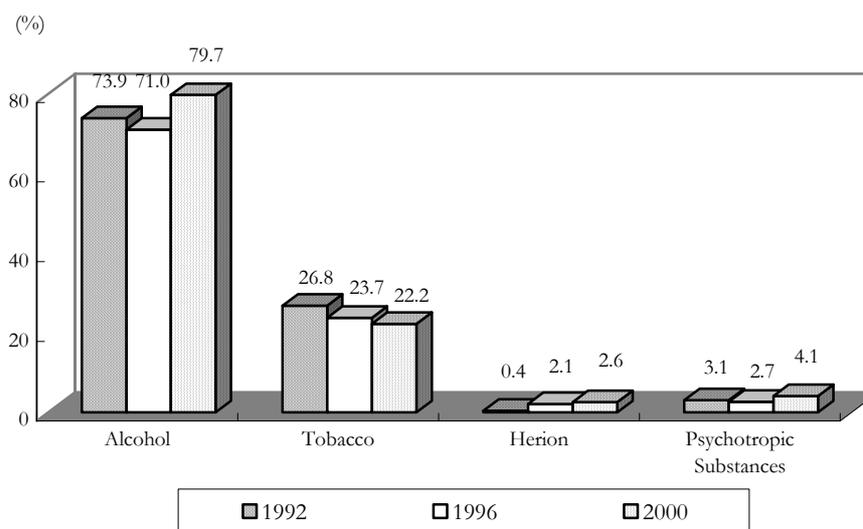
Note: Psychotropic Substances include Ketamine, Triazolam/Midazolam, MDMA ('Ecstasy'), Cannabis, Cough medicine and Methylamphetamine ('Ice').

Source: Statistics Unit, Security Bureau, Government Secretariat (1997-2003)

Lau's study (2002) examined the consumption pattern of secondary students in drugs use. As shown in Figure 5.3, the consumption of alcohol and tobacco was the two most prevalent substances used among the secondary students. The findings also

indicated that the percentage of the psychotropic substance abuse and heroin abuse among the secondary students slightly increased between 1996 and 2000. The prevalent use of psychotropic substances among the youth aroused public concern about the harmful effects of taking psychotropic substances on the youngsters.

Figure 5.3: Percentage of ever users of alcohol, tobacco, heroin and psychotropic substances among students (1992, 1996 and 2000)



Notes: (1) Percentages are calculated based on 95,788 students covered by the survey.
 (2) Psychotropic substances include MDMA (Ecstasy), Cannabis, Ketamine, Cough medicines, Solvents and Methylamphetamine.

Source: Lau (2002)

Although the latest data on drug abuse of secondary students was not available, reference is hereby made to the statistics of reported youth drug abusers aged under 16. According to the CRDA, the number of reported drug abusers aged below 16 decreased from 129 in 2000 to 101 in 2002. Similarly, the number of reported drug abusers aged 16-20 reduced from 1,113 in 2000 to 737 in 2002 (Figure 5.4).

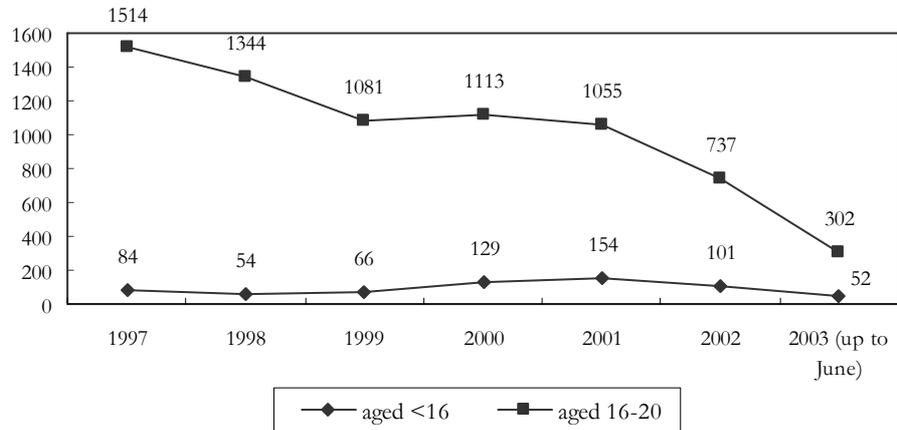
As shown in figure 5.3, the number of youth consuming tobacco had decreased since 1992. This finding was consistent with the studies¹⁸ conducted by the Hong Kong Council on Smoking and Health. The results showed that there was a decreasing trend of ever-smoking¹⁹ among Form 1 to 3 students (Figure 5.5). In addition, according to the Census and Statistics Department, the ratio of daily smokers aged 20-29 increased from

¹⁸ The Hong Kong Council on Smoking and Health conducted the first study of Youth Smoking and Health Survey in 1994 and the second one in 1999. The surveys interviewed 6,304 Form 1 to 3 students in 1994 and 21,004 students in 1999 respectively.

¹⁹ Ever-smoking refers to those who have ever tried.

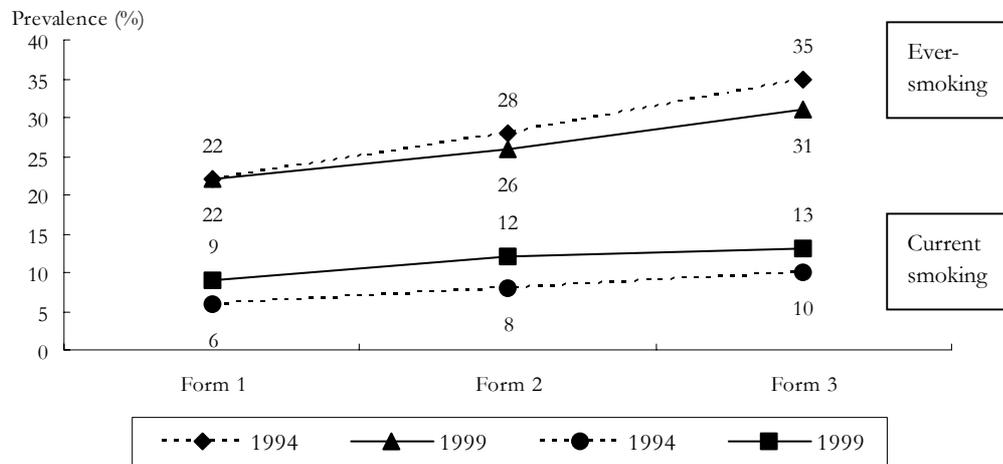
12.1% in 2000 to 14.4% in 2002, whereas the ratio of daily smokers aged 15-19 decreased slightly from 4.5% in 2000 to 3.8% in 2002 (Figure 5.6). However, the negative impact of tobacco on the health of the current student smokers should not be ignored.

Figure 5.4: Previously reported persons aged under 21 from CRDA (1997-2003)



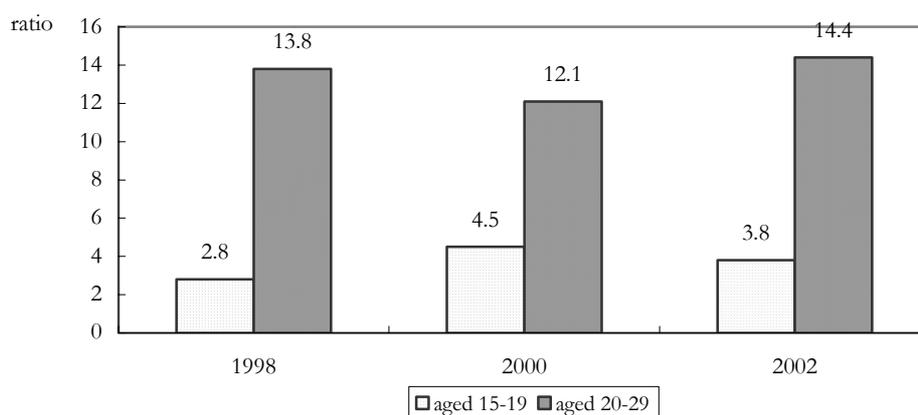
Source: Security Bureau, Narcotics Division (2003)

Figure 5.5: Smoking trends in Form 1 to 3 students (1994 and 1999)



Source: Lam, Ho, and Kui (2000)

Figure 5.6: Daily Smokers by age in 1998, 2000 and 2002



Source: Census and Statistics Department (1998, 2000b and 2003c)

5.4.2 Risk and protective factors for the youth

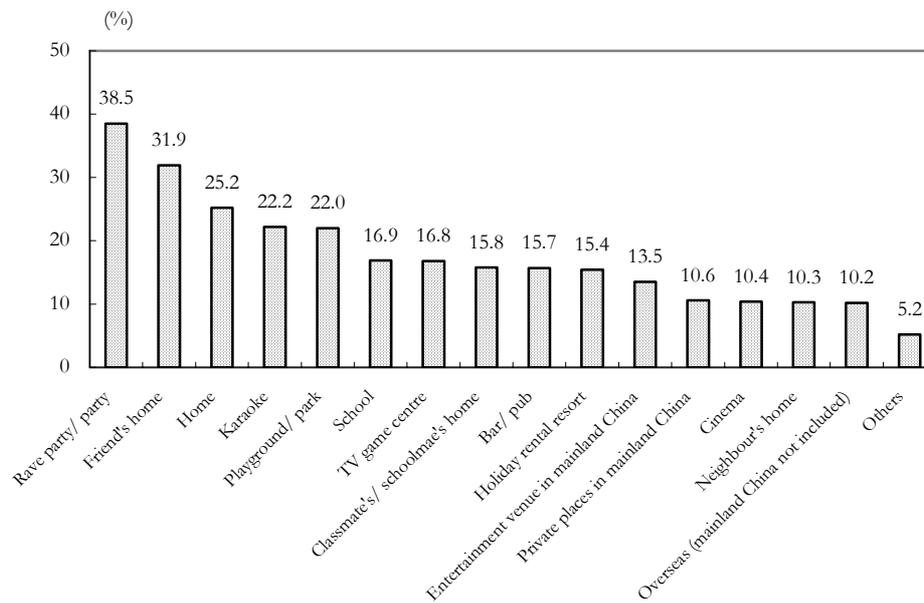
Consumption on drugs among the youth was highly related to their participation in entertainment activities and peer influence. The *2000 Survey of Drug Use among Students* (2002) indicated that rave party/party was the most common venue for both consumption of heroin (38.5%) and psychotropic substances (49.6%) (Figures 5.7 & 5.8). On the other hand, according to the recent *Multi-dimensional Survey of the Secondary Culture and Behaviors of Substance Abuse among Youth*²⁰(2002) conducted by Hong Kong Sheng Kung Hui Welfare Council (HKSKHWC), discos and friends' home were found to be the more popular venues for the youth to consume drugs, particularly the psychotropic substances (Figure 5.9). Such phenomenon should be noted in planning prevention schemes.

Apart from the leisure and entertainment venues in Hong Kong, leisure and entertainment venues in Mainland China were also popular spots for the consumption of substances among Hong Kong youngsters. One-tenth of heroin abusers (13.5%) and psychotropic substance abusers (13.7%) claimed that they could get access to drug from entertainment venues in Mainland China (Figures 5.7 & 5.8). The results were consistent with the findings of HKSKHWC in 2002 (Figure 5.9). In addition, according to the *Research Report on Cross-Boundary Substance Abuse Problem among Youth in Hong Kong 2003*²¹, one-fifth of the respondents used drugs in Mainland China in the past 12 months (20.1%). Cross boundary consumption of substances among the youth is still an alarming issue.

²⁰ The survey interviewed 2,596 youth aged 11-24.

²¹ The survey interviewed 6,420 Hong Kong Chinese youth adults of age 18 to 30.

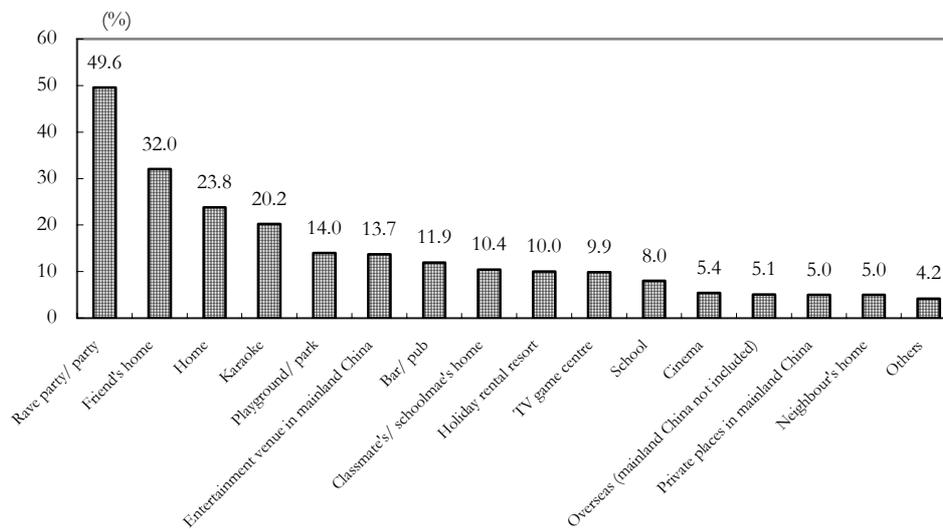
Figure 5.7: Venue for consumption of heroin (2000)



Notes: (1) Students were allowed to choose more than one answer
 (2) Percentages are calculated based on all heroin abusers.

Source: Lau (2002)

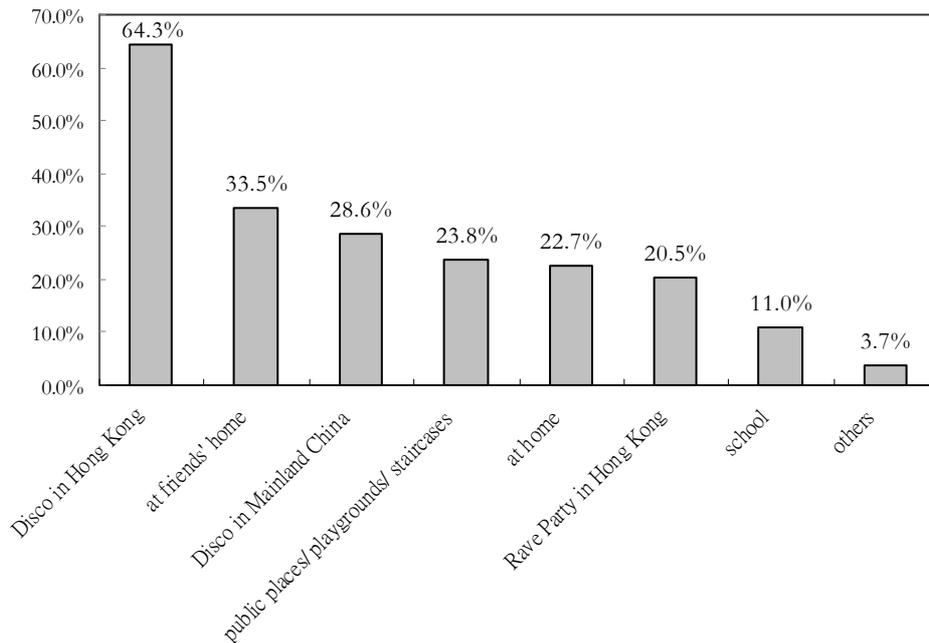
Figure 5.8: Venue for consumption of psychotropic substances (2000)



Notes: (1) Students were allowed to choose more than one answer.
 (2) Percentages are calculated based on all psychotropic substance abusers.

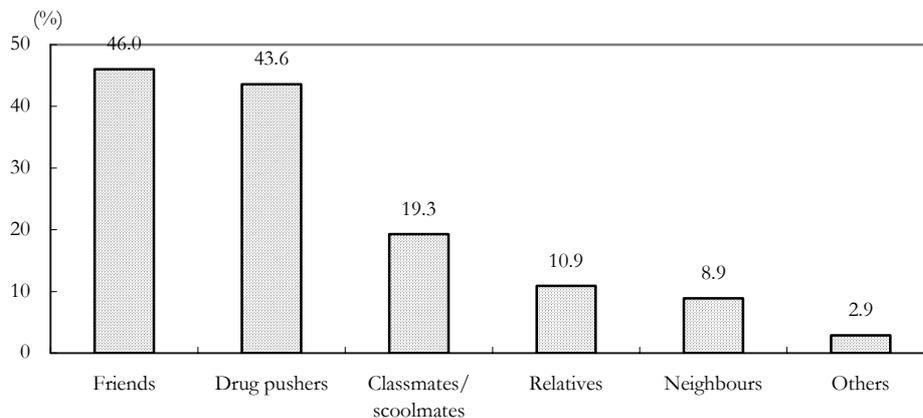
Source: Lau (2002)

Figure 5.9 Venues for consumption of drugs (2002)



Notes: (1) Respondents were allowed to choose more than one answer
 (2) Percentages are calculated based on all types of youth drug abusers identified in the survey
 Source: Hong Kong Sheng Kung Hui Welfare Council (2002)

Figure 5.10: Source of heroin (2000)

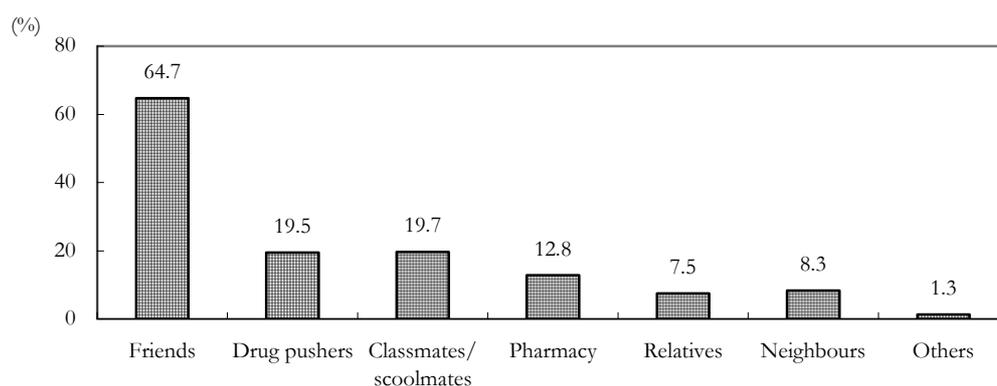


Notes: (1) Students were allowed to choose more than one answer.
 (2) Percentages are calculated based on all heroin abusers.
 Source: Lau (2002)

As mentioned, peer influence was an important factor contributing to youth substance abuse. The findings of *the 2000 Survey of Drug Use among Students (2000)* and *the Multi-dimensional Survey of the Secondary Culture and Behaviors of Substance Abuse among Youth (2002)* indicated that peer influence was one of main risk and protective factors on youth

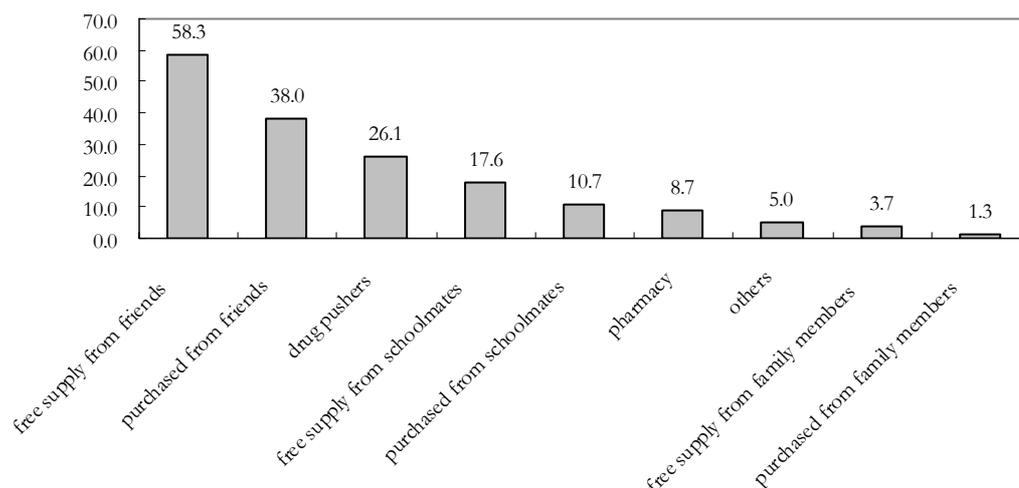
substance abuse. According to *the 2000 Survey of Drug Use among Student* (2002), respondents claimed that heroin was mainly provided by friends (46.0%) and classmates/schoolmates (19.3%) (Figure 5.10). Similarly, psychotropic substances were also provided by friends (64.7%) and classmates/schoolmates (19.7%) (Figure 5.11). Moreover, the results of the *Multi-dimensional Survey of the Secondary Culture and Behaviors of Substance Abuse among Youth* also showed that drugs were mainly provided by friends freely (58.3%) and purchased from friends (38.0%) (Figure 5.12).

Figure 5.11: Source of psychotropic substances (2000)



Notes: (1) Students were allowed to choose more than one answer.
 (2) Percentages are calculated based on all psychotropic substance abusers.
 Source: Lau (2002)

Figure 5.12: Sources of drug substances (2002)

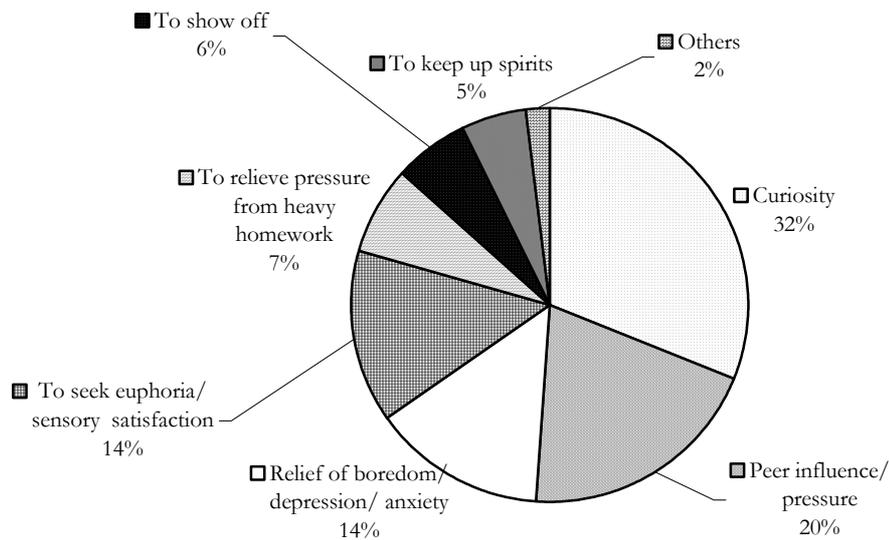


Note: Respondents could choose more than one option
 Source: Hong Kong Sheng Kung Hui Welfare Council (2002)

In addition to peer influence, curiosity was also an influential factor driving the young to take drug. According to *the 2000 Survey of Drug Use among Students* (2002), major reasons for taking heroin and psychotropic substance were curiosity (32% and 35% respectively) and peer influence/pressure (20% and 18.0% respectively) (Figures 5.13 & 5.14).

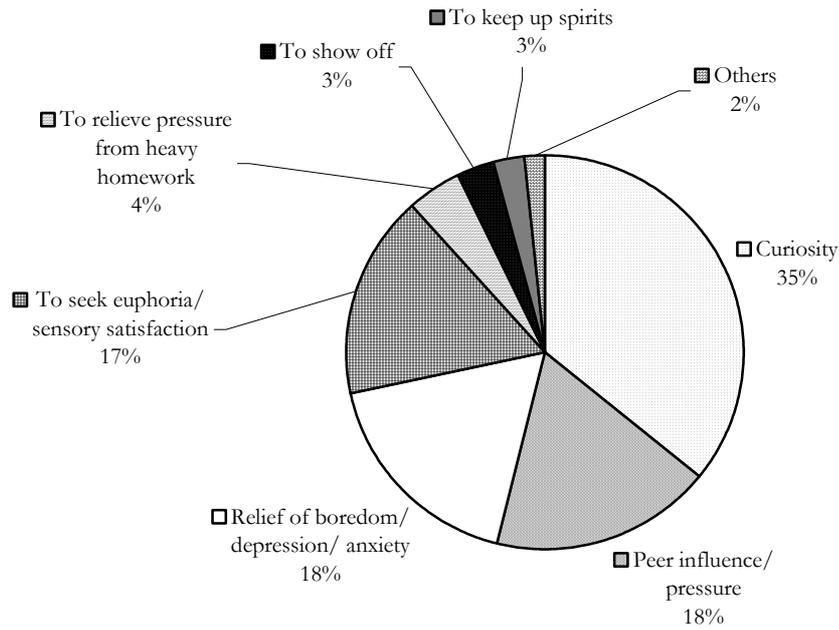
Statistics from Security Bureau, Narcotics Division were consistent with findings by Lau’s study (2002), they indicated that “peer influence/ to identify with peers”, “curiosity” and “to seek euphoria or sensory satisfaction” were the three most influential factors contributing to youth substance abuse between 1997 and 2003 (Figure 5.15). This indicated that peer domain was a risk factor to the youth.

Figure 5.13: Reason for first heroin abuse (2000)



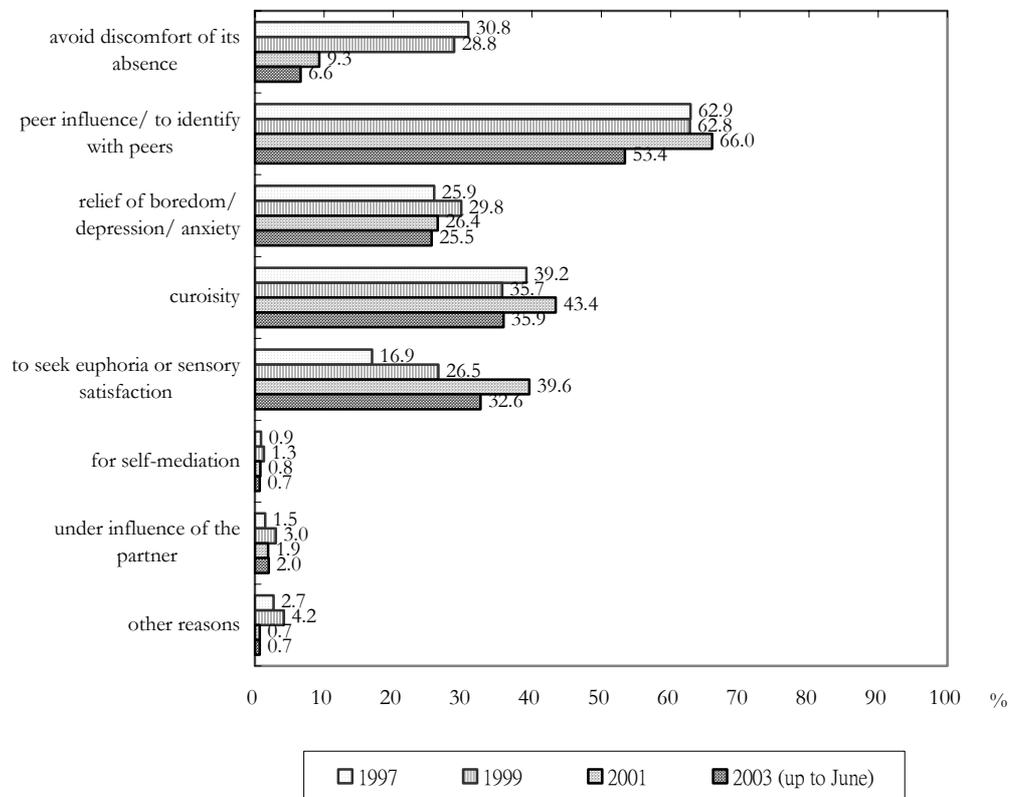
Note: Percentages are calculated based on all heroin abusers.
 Source: Lau (2002)

Figure 5.14: Reason for first psychotropic substance abuse (2000)



Note: Percentages are calculated based on all psychotropic substance abusers.
 Source: Lau (2002)

Figure 5.15: Reasons for drug use among the reported individuals aged under 21 (1997-2003)



Source: Security Bureau, Narcotics Division (2003)

5.5 Summary

After analyzing the collected data on youth substances abuse, several trends can be observed as follows:

- There was a decreasing trend of reported substance abuse among youth since 2001. The number of young drug abusers aged under 21 increased slightly from 3,150 in 1997 to 3,902 in 2001 but dropped gradually to 2,130 in 2003.
- There was a constant decrease in the number of young heroin abusers. The number decreased from 1,855 in 1997 to 426 in 2001 and further dropped to 136 in 2003.
- Psychotropic substance abuse was still prevailing among the youth. There were 1,649 psychotropic substance abusers recorded in 2003, compared with 1,281 in 1997.
- Ketamine and MDMA (Ecstasy) were still the most common types of drug abused by the youth. In 2003, the numbers of Ketamine and MDMA (Ecstasy) abusers were 1,099 and 599 respectively.
- The ratio of daily smokers aged 20-29 increased from 12.1% in 2000 to 14.4% in 2002; whereas the ratio of daily smokers aged 15-19 decreased slightly from 4.5% to 3.8% respectively.
- Rave party, discos and friends' home were common venues for consumption of drugs among youth.
- Peer influence and curiosity were constantly found to be the major reasons for abusing drugs among youth.

The foregoing discussion reflected that psychotropic substances abuses, such as Ketamine and MDMA (Ecstasy) were still prevailing among the youth, even though the overall number of young drug abusers decreased gradually. The potential dangers of taking psychotropic substances may be under-estimated by the youth. The statistics related to “drug-related health problems” were not available for this updating exercise. Research on the negative impact of drug on people should be conducted in the future.

Neither statistics on the dimension of “drug-related health problems” nor on the dimension of “drug-related legal/crime problems” were available for this updating exercise. Therefore, the obtained data on drug-related problems is not comprehensive enough to identify significant trends. In addition, only community and peer domain indicators were collected for this updating exercise to identify “risk and protective factors to the youth”. It is suggested to collect data related to dimensions of “drug-related health problems” and “drug-related legal/crime problems” in future studies.

Chapter 6 Cultural Capital

As the terms of cultural capital and social capital have been used intertwiningly in many western studies, it is better to explain the relationship between cultural capital and social capital. This will help us grasp the discussion flow and way of analysis adopted in this chapter.

The coverage of cultural capital is wider as compared to that of social capital. Apart from measuring the dimension of relationship, which is the main theme of the social capital, cultural capital also covers creativity and innovation, economic and social inclusion, as well as participatory democracy (Jeannotte, 2002). It can also be explained by the fact that cultural capital is the base and thus may determine the quality of social capital. As Gould argued, “a complex web of relationships and beliefs, values and motivations...this system operates on personal and communal levels and may be a barrier to, or a catalyst for, the development of social capital” (Quoted in Jeannotte, 2002). Therefore, this chapter will focus on the value aspect, and the section on relationship between family members, neighbourhood, school or workplace will be discussed in Chapter 7. In this updating exercise, the existing framework of the measurement of cultural capital among the youth would be adopted to identify the impact of youth participation in different cultural activities on their development.

6.1 Definitions of cultural capital

The definitions of cultural capital are not universal, which are considered as eluded concepts. According to Kroeber & Kluckhohn (1952), there were 160 different definitions of culture. A diversity of specific culture concepts was grouped into different categories and shown in table 6.1 as follows.

Table 6.1: Different definitions of culture

Definitions	
Topical	: Culture consists of everything on a list of topics, or categories, such as social organization, religion, or economy
Historical	: Culture is social heritage, or tradition, that is passed on to future generations
Behavioral	: Culture is shared, learned human behavior, a way of life
Normative	: Culture is ideals, values, or rules for living
Functional	: Culture is the way humans solve problems of adapting to the environment or living together
Mental	: Culture is a complex of ideas, or learned habits, that inhibit impulses and distinguish people from animals
Structural	: Culture consists of patterned and interrelated ideas, symbols, or behaviors
Symbolic	: Culture is based on arbitrarily assigned meanings that are shared by a society

Bourdieu's concept of cultural capital is widely adopted in different academic studies. According to Bourdieu, cultural capital is defined as 'the attitudes and ways of behaviour accepted and even expected by the dominant groups of society. These are internalized values, which manifest themselves in suitable manners, good taste, language use, special skills, abilities and competence'. In other words, cultural capital can be defined as the shared sense of meaning that determines a group's way of life. The individual acquires this cultural capital primarily through socialization in family and is reinforced through schooling.

Huxley categorized culture into 3 components, including mentifacts, artifacts and sociofacts.

6.1.1 Mentifacts

It is the ideological subsystem, consisting of ideas, beliefs, and knowledge of a culture and of the ways in which these things are expressed in speech or other forms of communication. They relate to the human mental ability to think and forgo ideas, and they form the ideals and images against which other aspects of culture.

6.1.2 Artifacts

It is the technological subsystem, composing of material objects, together with the techniques of their use, by means of which people are able to live. These materials and techniques provide basic needs for human to live, such as food and tools.

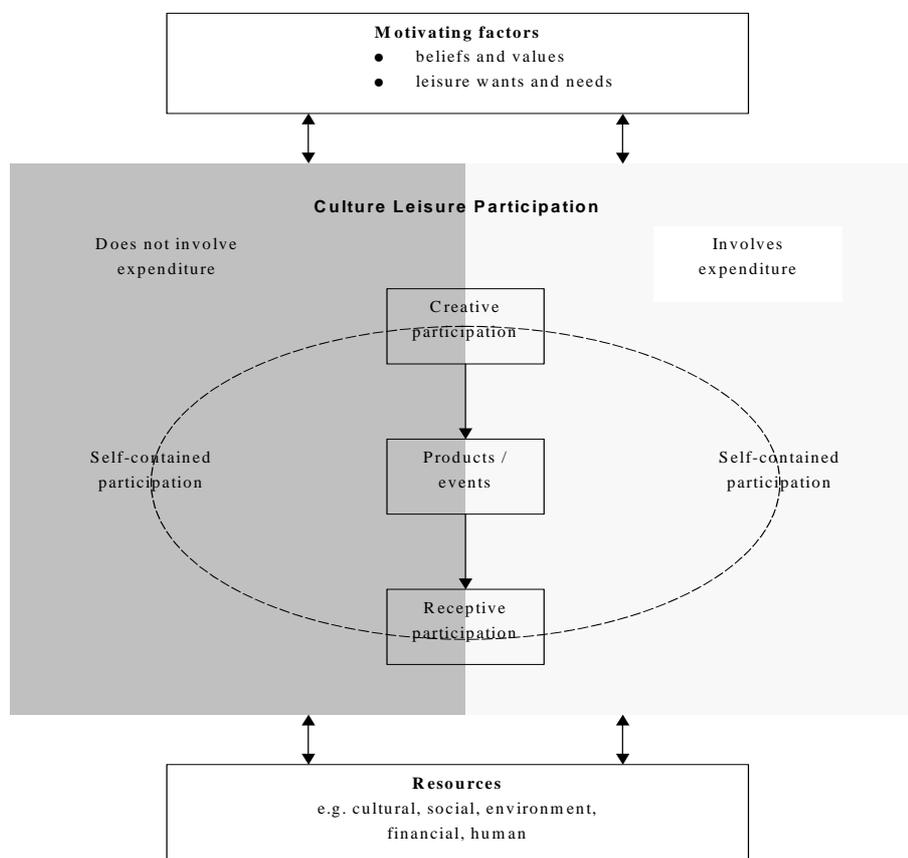
6.1.3 Sociofacts

It is the sociological subsystem, composing of the sum of the expected and accepted patterns of interpersonal relations that find their outlet in economic, political, military, religious, kinship, and other associations. These aspects of culture determine the communication and interaction between individuals and groups. At individual level, it includes family structures and child rearing. At group level, it includes institutions, laws and rules of society.

According to *Dictionary of Modern Sociology*, 'Culture is the total, generally organized way of life, including values, norms, institutions, and artifacts, that is passed on from generation to generation by learning alone' (1969: 93). The current study on Youth

Profile 2003 discusses cultural capital in a broader sense, including cultural participation, cultural identity and values, as well as factors and resources for participation.

Figure 6.1: Culture and Leisure Participation Framework²²



6.2 Measurement of cultural capital

Culture and Leisure Participation Framework was adopted and modified accordingly for the current study to measure the cultural capital (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2001). As shown in figure 6.1, there are interrelationships among 3 key elements, including *motivating factors*, *resources* and *culture and leisure participation*. It will be discussed in details in the following paragraphs.

²² Figure reproduced from Chapter 10 of the Australian Bureau of Statistics' Measuring Wellbeing: Frameworks for Australian Social Statistics.

6.2.1 *Motivating factors*

Motivating factors refer to beliefs and values that encourage higher level of participation in culture activities, such as individual religious faith and life aspiration. In Hong Kong, cultural heritage is heavily influenced by pop culture, 150 years of British culture and 5000 years of Chinese tradition culture (Choi, 2002). All these factors should also be taken into consideration.

6.2.2 *Resources*

Resources refer to full ranges of cultural, human, financial, environmental, social and personal resources and capital utilized in participation in culture activities. Resources play a crucial role in supporting participation in cultural activities, such as the existence of venues and equipment.

6.2.3 *Culture and leisure participation*

Culture and leisure participation can be measured by a group of indicators, such as habits, lifestyle, and attendance of cultural events. According to the Australian Bureau of Statistics, culture and leisure participation can be classified into 3 types:

- *Self-contained participation* involves activities that are created and consumed simultaneously; and often do not involve many people or much preparation.
- *Creative participation* involves activities that make culture or leisure events happen, or create culture or leisure products.
- *Receptive participation* involves activities that receive (i.e. watch and purchase) culture or leisure events or products.

Examples of indicators of cultural capital are shown in table 6.2 (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2001).

Table 6.2: Indicators of cultural capital

Dimensions	Examples of Indicators
Participation and time use measures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Youth usage and participation pattern (including frequencies and duration) of culture, leisure, religious, and civic venues / activities ■ Youth in culture, leisure, religious, and civic groups / organizations ■ Public library youth borrowers registered ■ Public library materials borrowed and/or consulted ■ Attendance of public library extension activities ■ Demographic and socio-economic characteristics of those youth attending, participating or borrowing ■ Types of cultural/ leisure venues youth most frequently visit and activities participate in ■ Types of cultural products such as music/ movies/ TV program /books/newspapers/periodicals youth listen to, watch and read
Work measures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Youth working in the cultural, leisure and religious sector ■ Youth studying full-time and part-time in the areas related to culture, leisure and religions
Expenditure and output measures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Ownership of cultural and leisure equipment/facilities (TV sets, radios, VCRs, computers, etc.) by households with youth ■ Number of cultural and leisure and religious products (CDs, books, paintings, etc.) owned by households with youth ■ Expenditure on culture, leisure, religious, and civic equipment/facilities/products/services by households with youth
Belief, values and knowledge Measures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Ethnical Identity ■ Religious faith ■ Attitudes toward social institutions and practices (e.g. government, society, religions, family, school, mass media, arts and culture, youth subculture, etc.) ■ Number of language spoken and fluency ■ Public exams (e.g. HKCEE) results in language and cultural related subjects

6.3 Data availability

Since data on the measurement of cultural capital among youth were mainly based on ad hoc studies, no trend data were available to identify changes in this updating exercise. In fact, statistics on the dimension of “expenditure and output measures” were still not available for use in this updating exercise. Some recent studies will be presented to supplement the discussion on different dimensions of youth cultural capital, such as belief, values and knowledge measures (Table 6.3).

No recent data were available for use in this updating exercise to show the changing trend of youth on the participation and time use measures. However, some

added indicators such as persons aged 15-24 who had used Internet service in the past twelve months would be referred to so as to supplement the discussion on the involvement of youth in Internet activities. The reason for adding this indicator was the possibility to show the trend of youth on the usage of Internet services in the past few years.

Table 6.3: Obtained indicators of cultural capital

Dimensions	Obtained Indicators	Source
Participation and time use measures	■ Number of registration in public libraries borrowers (2002-2003)	■ Leisure and Cultural Services Department
	■ Profile of audience analyzed by program type (2001)	■ Leisure and Cultural Services Department
	■ Frequency of activities done by youth in leisure time (always/ sometimes) (2002)	■ Chinese YMCA of Hong Kong
	■ Persons aged 15-24 who had used Internet service in the past twelve months (2000-2003)	■ Census and Statistics Department
	■ Types of activities pursue most often on the Internet (2000 & 2002)	■ Breakthrough
	■ Reasons for using ICQ (2000)	■ Breakthrough
Work measures	■ Youth working population (aged 15-24) by creative industries (1998-2003)	■ Census and Statistics Department
	■ Student population in art-related programs (2002)	■ HK Art Development Council
Belief, values and knowledge measures	■ Primary Identity (1997 & 2002)	■ Hong Kong Social Development Indicators; ■ HKFYG
	■ Whether traditional Chinese Values suitable to Hong Kong situation (1997)	■ Hong Kong Social Development Indicators
	■ Sense of Belonging to Hong Kong (2002)	■ HKFYG
	■ Reasons for having a sense of belonging to Hong Kong (1997)	■ Commission on Youth
	■ Views of youth on family as the most important element in society (1997-2002)	■ HKFYG
	■ Views on Family value (1997)	■ The Hong Kong Federation of Youth Groups
	■ Comprehension of Filial Piety in the present society (1996)	■ The Hong Kong Federation of Youth Groups
	■ Views on maintenance to parents as out-dated (1997-2002)	■ HKFYG
	■ Youth able to speak selected languages/ dialects, 1991, 1996 and 2001	■ Census and Statistics Department

6.4 Discussion

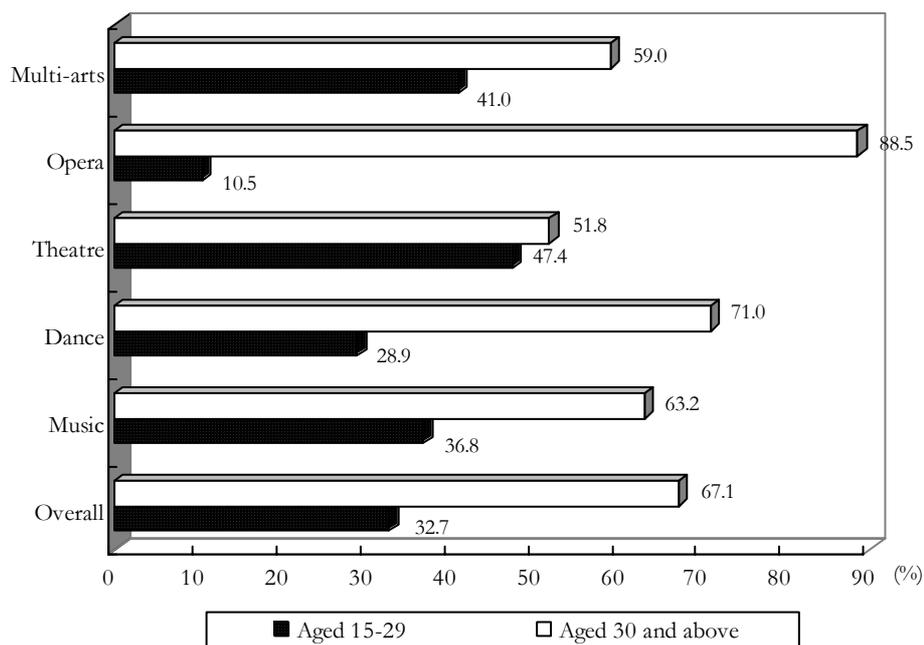
6.4.1 *Participation and time use measures*

The participation pattern of the youth for leisure can be identified in two forms. The former is to participate in activities organized by formal institutions, such as youth centers and schools. The latter is to take part in activities in informal basis that are initiated by themselves or by their friends.

The discussion on youth participation pattern in formal channels will focus on the number of registration in public libraries borrowers, as well as the activities organized by the Leisure and Cultural Services Department (LCSD) that the youth most frequently participated in. Only one-tenth of youth registered as public libraries borrowers as at June 2001. The number of youth aged 15-19 (14.3%) registered as public libraries borrowers were higher than those aged 20-24 (12.2%) and aged 25-29 (10.3%) respectively. This could be explained by the fact that those youth aged 15-19 were still studying in their secondary education. However, there was a slight decrease in the number of youth aged 15-19, 20-24 and 25-29 who had registered as public libraries borrowers as at December 2003. The proportions dropped to 12.3%, 10.9% and 9.7% respectively. This might be related to the increased popularity of using Internet. In fact, the number of public libraries youth borrowers registered only helped reflect the usage of public libraries by the youth. It is insufficient to reflect their reading habit. For examples, data on “the frequency of youth to go to library” and “types of books they prefer to borrow” were not available for use in this updating exercise.

Another recent participation pattern of youth in leisure activities through formal channels was analysed by referring to the findings of LCSD in 2004. According to the LCSD, the top three program types that the youth aged 15-29 were interested in taking part in were theatre (47.4%), multi-arts (41.0%) and music (36.8%). In general, the proportion of youth audience (32.7%) attending the programs organized by the LCSD was lower than adult audience (67.1%) (Figure 6.2).

Figure 6.2 Profile of audience analyzed by program type

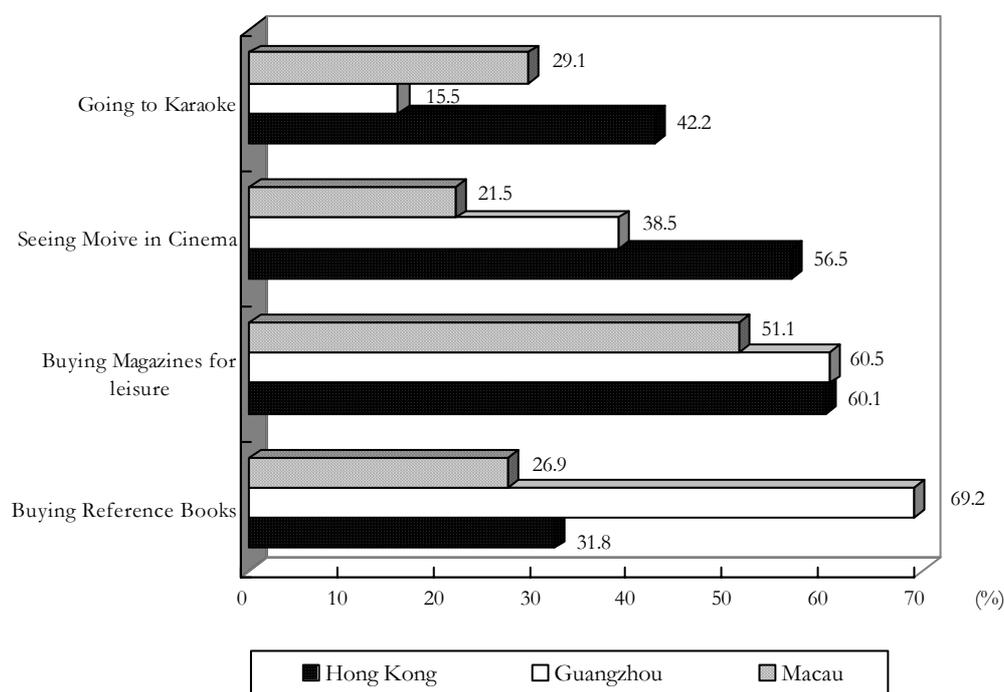


Source: Leisure and Cultural Services Department (2004)

Another form of youth participation in the leisure time is to spend time on the activities initiated by themselves. A recent study was conducted by Chinese YMCA of Hong Kong in 2002. According to *The Comparative Study of the Consumption Model of Youth in Guangzhou, Hong Kong and Macau*²³(2002d), the frequencies of “buying reference books”, “buying magazines for leisure”, “seeing movie in the cinema” and “going to karaoke” were distinguishable among the youth in Guangzhou, Macau and Hong Kong (Figure 6.3). The findings reflected that more youngsters in Guangzhou bought reference books (69.2%), compared with 31.8% in Hong Kong and 26.9% in Macau respectively. The frequency of “buying magazines for leisure” was similar among the youth in Guangzhou (60.5%) and Hong Kong (60.1%), compared with those in Macau (51.1%). The youth in Hong Kong were not quite interested in buying reference books. However, they were more interested in participating in visual and audio activities, compared with those in Guangzhou and Macau. The frequencies of youth in Hong Kong going to the cinema (56.5%) and karaoke (42.2%) were higher than those of youth in Guangzhou (38.5% and 15.5) and Macau (21.5% and 29.1%) respectively. This may reflect the differences in living styles and cultures among the youth in the three places.

²³ The study was conducted by the Hong Kong Federation of Youth Groups in 2002d, with sample size 647 of F.4-F.7 youth in Hong Kong, 598 of Higher School 1-3 youth in Guangzhou and 241 of F.4-F.7 youth in Macau.

Figure 6.3: Frequency of activities done by the youth in leisure time (Always/Sometimes) (2002)



Source: HKFYG (2002d)

Besides, many young people would like to spend time on the Internet. As shown in Figure 6.4, the proportion of youth aged 15-24 who had used Internet service in the past twelve months had increased gradually from 64.5% in 2000 to 91.9% in 2003. According to a *Study of Youth Values through their Behavior on the Internet*²⁴(2000a), over 80% of the respondents would spend less than two hours on the Internet per day (82.8%). *A Study of the Behavior of Youth on the Internet*²⁵(2000b) reflected that over 40% of the respondents would like to “ICQ with friends” (45.4%) and over 30% of the respondents would like to “browse webpage aimlessly” (35.8%) on the Internet (Figure 6.5). This phenomenon was consistent to the findings of *A Study of the Internet Crisis on Youth*²⁶ (2003), which indicated that communication with others, such as “ICQ/Email/Chat Room” (84.5%), was still the major type of activity pursued most often among the youngsters on the Internet, whereas 81.1% of the respondents would “browse webpage and read online news” (Figure 6.6). In fact, 60% of the respondents of the study on *Youth’s love with ICQ*²⁷ (2002) would spend less than five hours per week on

²⁴ The study was conducted by the Hong Kong Federation of Youth Groups in 2000a with sample size of 652 aged 11-29 and 6 aged 30 or above

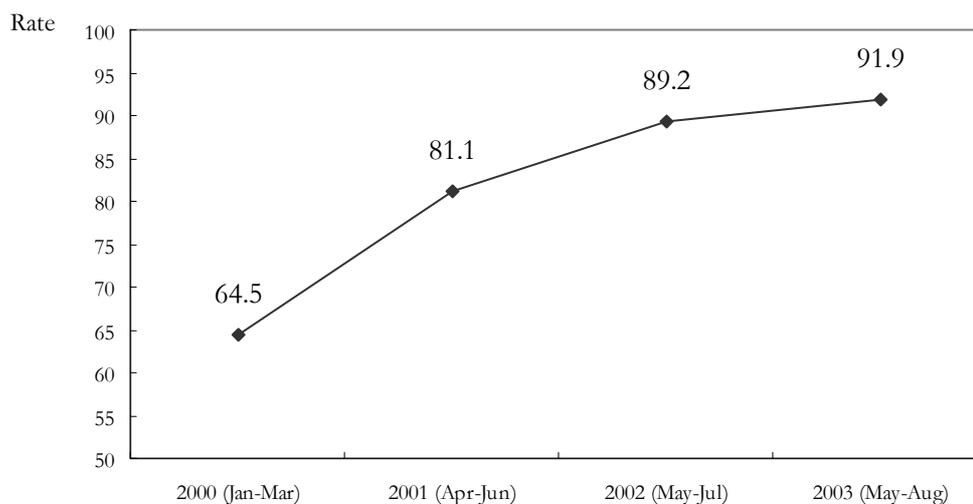
²⁵ The study was conducted by Breakthrough in 2000b with sample size of 1166 aged 12-25.

²⁶ The study was conducted by Breakthrough in 2003 with sample size of 1058 aged 10-29.

²⁷ The study was conducted by Breakthrough in 2002 with sample size of 506 aged 15-29.

using ICQ. *A Study of the Behavior of Youth in Using ICQ*²⁸ (2000a) indicated that the main reason for using ICQ was to “kill time” (41.8%), many still used it to “keep connection with friends” (29.8%) and “make new friends” (25.1%) (Figure 6.7). However, the impact of getting access to the Internet on the youth was still under-researched. For example, the findings of a *Study of the Internet Crisis on Youth*²⁹(2001) reminded us that the Internet indulgence was harmful to the youth especially in weakening the relationship with their family members. However, some surveys like a *Study of the Behavior of Youth in Using ICQ*³⁰ (2000a) claimed that over 90% of the respondents thought that the relationship with their family member (90.4%), as well as the time spent with their family (90.5%) remained unchanged even after using the Internet. In this updating exercise, the impact of Internet usage on relationship among family members of youth could not be identified. It is important to keep track on this issue as the Internet usage is so popular and common in nowadays society.

Figure 6.4: Persons aged 15-24 who had used Internet service in the past twelve months (2000-2003)



Note: Rate is a percentage of all persons in the respective age, i.e., 15-24

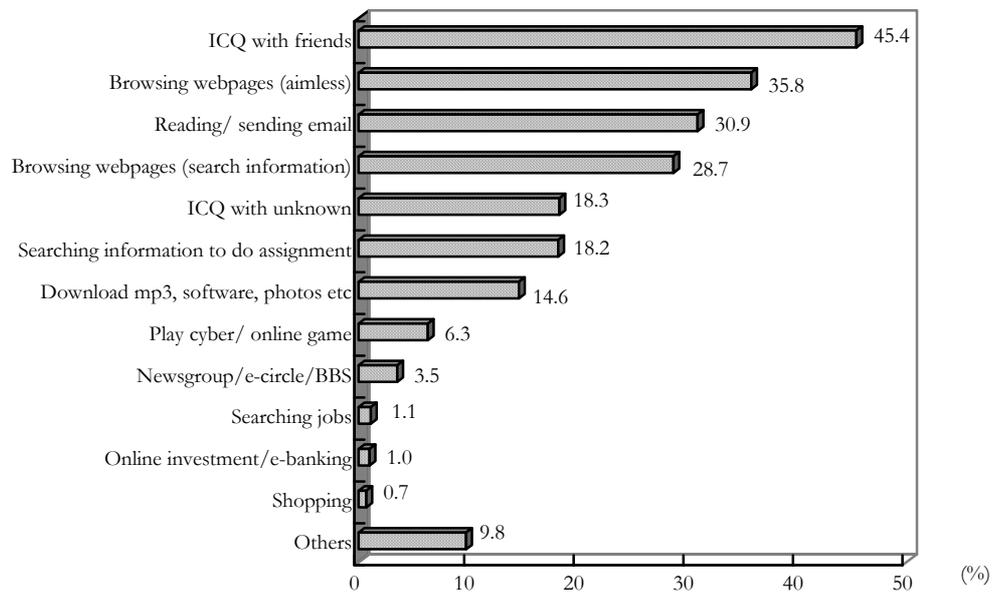
Source: Census and Statistics Department (2000a, 2001a, 2002 and 2003b)

²⁸ The study was conducted by Breakthrough in 2000a with sample size of 1409 secondary school students.

²⁹ The study was conducted by Breakthrough in 2001 and 2003 with sample size of 1058 aged 10-29.

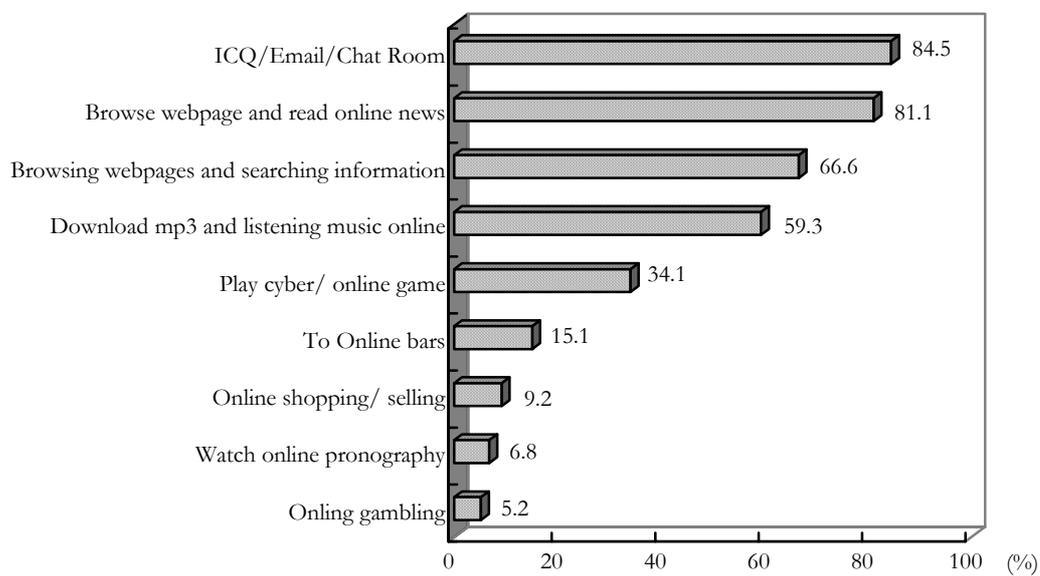
³⁰ The study was conducted by Breakthrough in 2000a with sample size of 1409 secondary school students.

Figure 6.5: Types of activities pursued most often on the Internet (2000)



Source: Breakthrough (2000b)

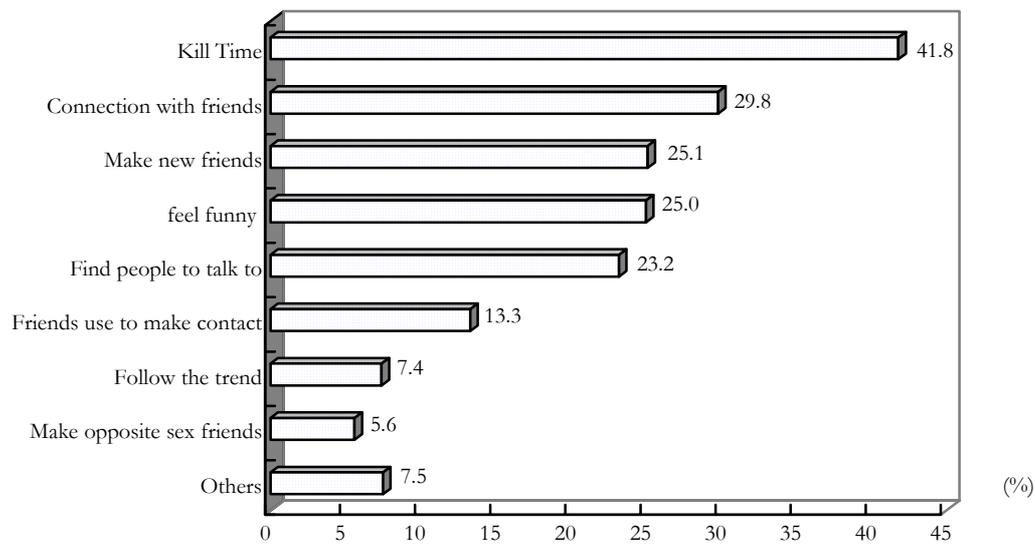
Figure 6.6: Types of activities pursued most often on the Internet (2002)



Note: Respondents can choose more than one option

Source: Breakthrough (2003)

Figure 6.7 Reasons for using ICQ (2000)



Source: Breakthrough (2000a)

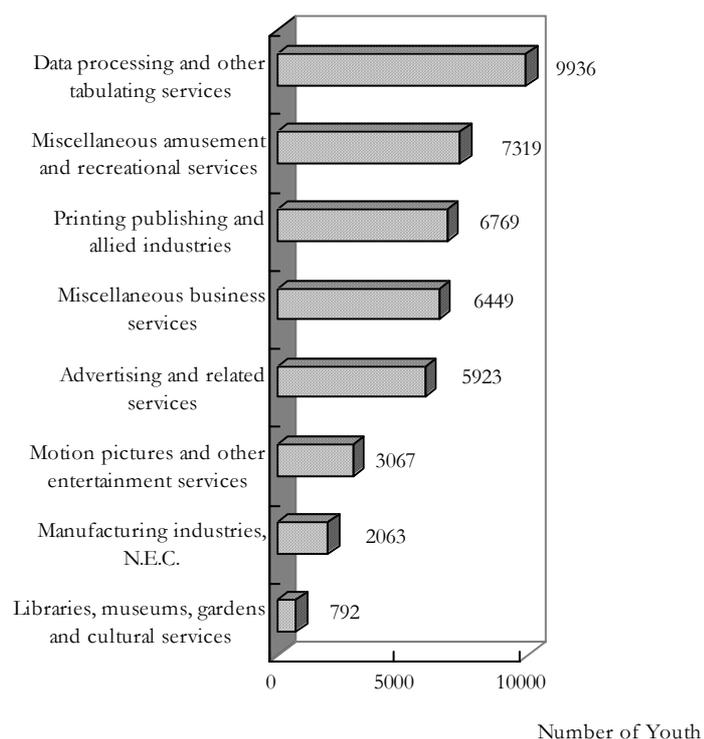
6.4.2 Work measures

Based on the data from the Population Census, there were totally 45,995 youth aged 15-24 working in the creative industries³¹ and it accounted for 10.4% of the whole youth working population (aged 15-24) in 2001. The top three types of creative industries that the youth engaged in were: “data processing and tabulating services” (n = 9,936), “miscellaneous amusement and recreational services” (n = 7,319) and “printing, publishing and allied industries” (n = 6,769) (Figure 6.8a). Since the latest data from By-census could only be available in 2006, no trend comparison could be made in this updating exercise. However, according to the General Household Survey, there was an increasing trend of youth worked in “miscellaneous amusement and recreational services” (from 3,000 in 1998 to 4,400 in 2001 and 7,800 in 2003). In addition, although the number of working youth in “motion pictures and other entertainment services”

³¹ Scope of Creative industries include: advertising and related services such as advertising, public relations services, market research, convention and exhibition services; architecture (architectural design services); arts and antiques markets, crafts (auctioneers, galleries, arts and antiques traders; manufacturers of metal, jewellery, wood, plastic products); design (fashion, graphic, interior and product design); film and video (film production, film studios, motion and video pictures production and allied entertainment services); music (music production and allied entertainment services); television and radio (TV and radio productions and related services); Interactive leisure software such as software and computing services (data processing, and tabulating services—for example, data processing services, computer programming, the Internet application, network system design, web design, tabulating and charting services, etc.); performing arts; publishing (printing, publishing and allied services)

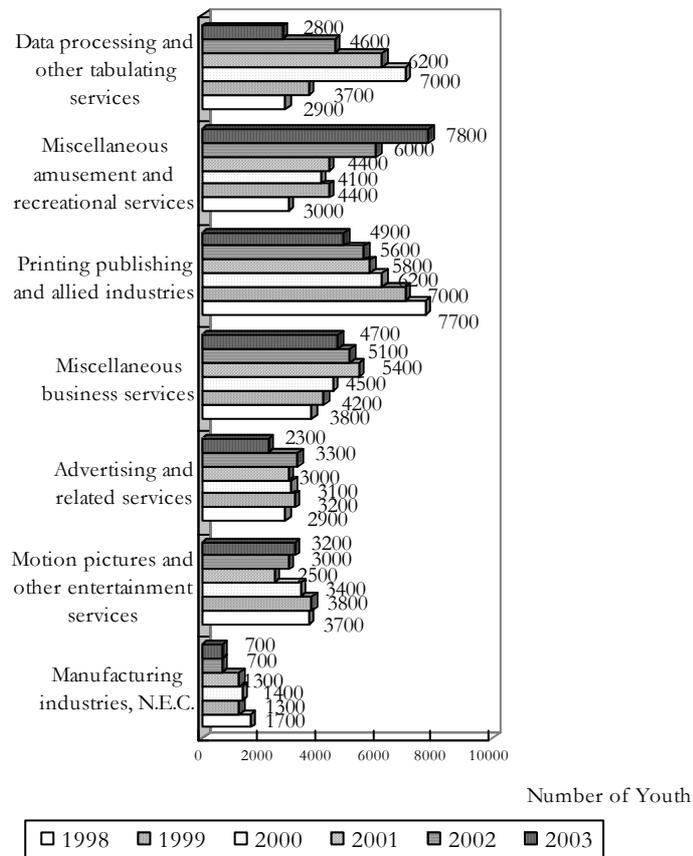
decreased from 3,700 in 1998 to 2,500 in 2001, it increased to 3,200 in 2003. However, data from General Household Survey and Population Census indicated a slight difference in the top three types of creative industries that the youth engaged in. According to the General Household Survey, the top three types of creative industries that the youth engaged in were: “data processing and other tabulating services” (n=6,200), “printing, publishing and allied industries” (n=5,800) and “miscellaneous business services” (n=5,400). In addition, “data processing and other tabulating services” had not been ranked in the top three types of creative industries among the working youth since 2002. In 2003, the top three types of creative industries that the youth engaged in were: “miscellaneous amusement and recreational services” (n=7,800), “printing, publishing and allied industries” (n=4,900) and “miscellaneous business services” (n=4,700). The total number of youth aged 15-24 working in creative industries decreased from 28,600 in 2001 to 26,400 in 2003, which accounted for 7.0% in 2001 and 6.8% in 2003 of the whole youth working population (aged 15-24) (Figure 6.8b).

Figure 6.8a: Youth working population (aged 15-24) by creative industries (2001)



Source: Census and Statistics Department, Population Census

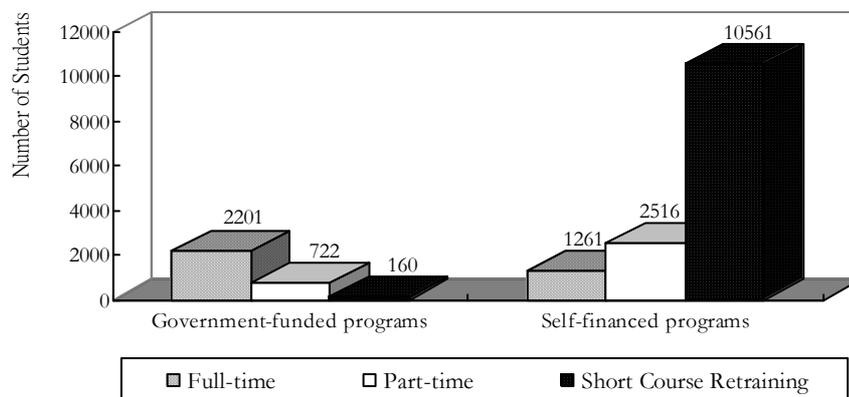
Figure 6.8b: Youth working population (aged 15-24) by creative industries (1998-2003)



Note: Data on libraries, museums, gardens and cultural services is of small magnitude and suppressed owing to large sampling errors.

Source: Census and Statistics Department, General Household Survey

Figure 6.9: Students population in art-related programs (2001-2002)



Source: Hong Kong Arts Development Council (2002)

As showed in figure 6.9, those who were interested in arts tended to gain the formal training related to art subjects from self-financed short-term courses. There were

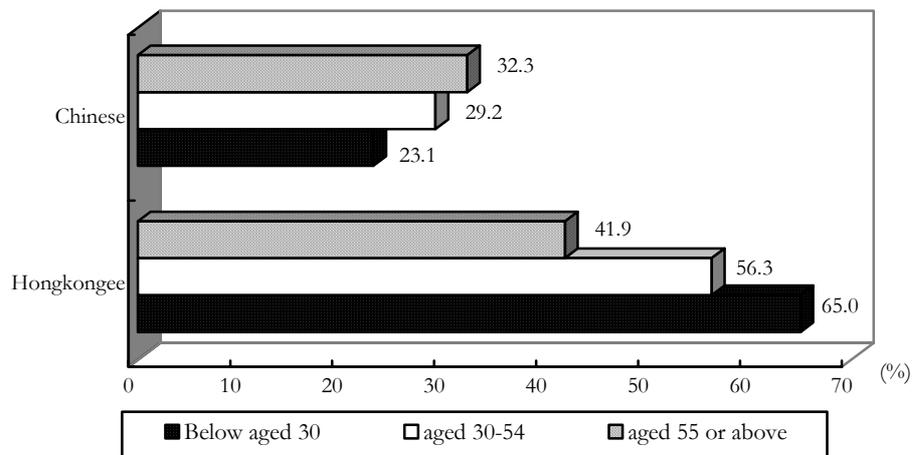
not many students studied in the government-funded programs, compared with that of the self-financed programs. This might imply a lack of government-funded programmes and the need to increase such programmes in order to cultivate and promote art culture in Hong Kong. However, the findings were based on the report from Hong Kong Arts Development Council in 2002, no recent data were available to identify any changes in the enrollment pattern of youth in art-related programs in this updating exercise.

6.4.3 *Belief, values and knowledge measures*

The discussion on the “ethnic identity” was mainly based on the three studies conducted by The Hong Kong Federation of Youth Groups in 1994, 1999 and 2000a. The findings indicated an increasing percentage of the youth responded to be proud of being Chinese. It increased from 52.2% in 1994, to 57% in 1999 and 59.7% in 2000. In addition, the study conducted by the Hong Kong Institute of Asia-Pacific Studies in 1997 showed that the youngsters (aged 30 or below) tended to claim themselves as Hongkongee (65%) than Chinese (23.1%). In fact, the identity as being Chinese was stronger for those aged 30 or above (32.3% for those aged 55 or above and 29.2% for those aged 30-54), compared with 23.1% for those aged 30 or below (Figure 6.10). This finding was consistent with the result of a *Study on Social Capital with Regard to Citizenship*³² in 2002a, which indicated that a higher proportion of youth aged 15-24 identified themselves as Hongkongee (27.5%) than as Chinese (16.1%), compared with 24.8% and 22.8% respectively for those aged 25 and above (Figure 6.11). However, more youth aged 15-24 would identify themselves as both Hongkongee and Chinese (55.8%) than those aged 25 and above (51.3%). The above could be explained by their belief in the traditional Chinese values. As compared with those aged 30 and above, more youngsters aged below 30 tended to think that the traditional Chinese values were not suitable to Hong Kong situation. 36.8% of adult aged 30-54 agreed that the traditional Chinese values were suitable to Hong Kong situation while only 13.4% of youth aged 30 or below agreed to this statement (Figure 6.12).

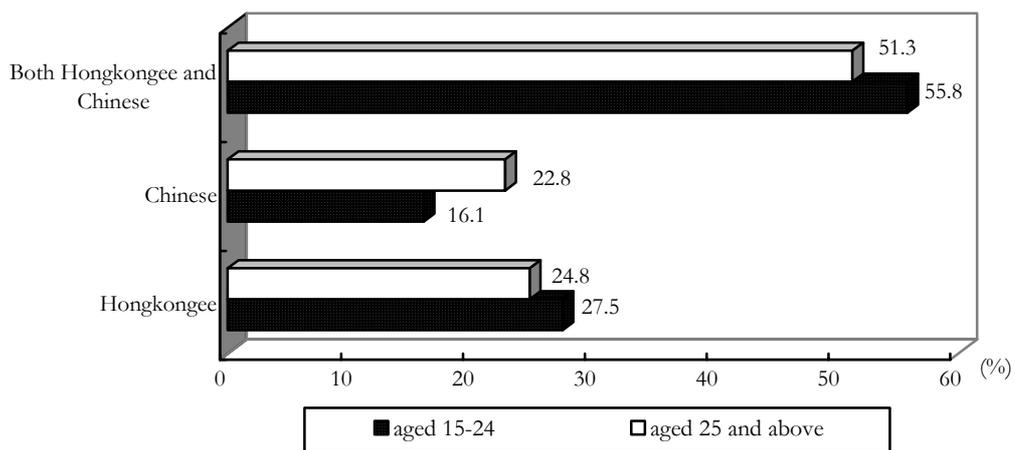
³² The study was conducted by The Hong Kong Federation of Youth Groups in 2002a with the sample size of 685 aged 15-24 and 1,300 aged 25 and above

Figure 6.10: Primary identity (1997)



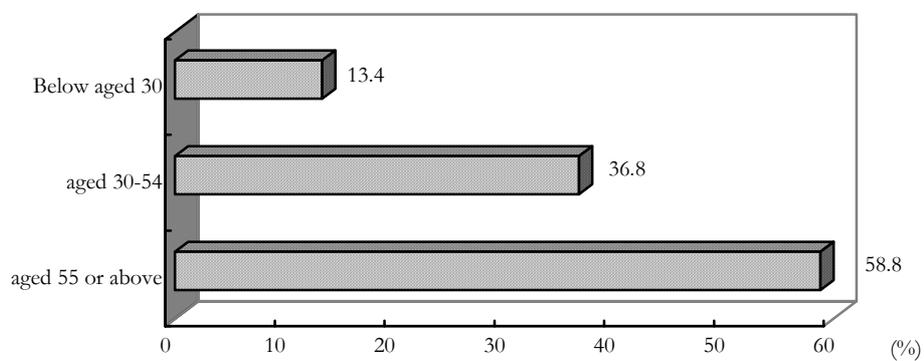
Source: Hong Kong Institute of Asia-Pacific Studies (1997)

Figure 6.11: Primary identity (2002)



Source: The Hong Kong Federation of Youth Groups (2002a)

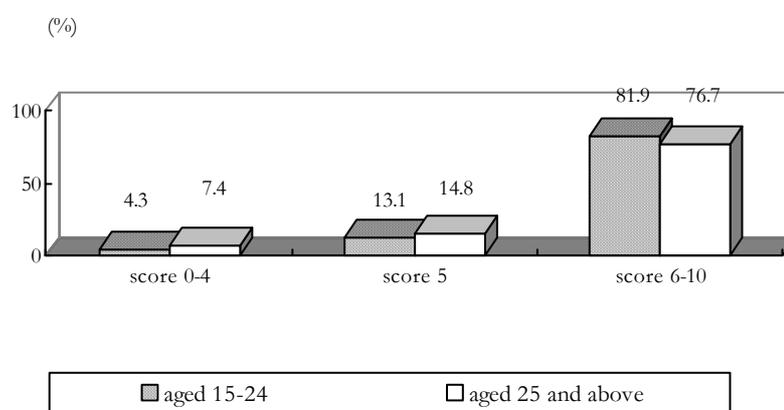
Figure 6.12: Whether traditional Chinese values suitable to Hong Kong situation (1997)



Source: Hong Kong Institute of Asia-Pacific Studies (1997)

The above findings also implied that there was no conflict between being Chinese and at the same time having a strong sense of belonging to Hong Kong. *The Youth Trends in Hong Kong 2000*³³(2000a) showed that many respondents claimed that they were Chinese (96%). However, many of them also had a strong sense of belonging to Hong Kong (80%). They were willing to serve the community (78.2%) and had social commitment towards Hong Kong (77.7%). In fact, the sense of belonging to Hong Kong was still above average among the youth, as indicated in a *Study on Social Capital with Regard to Citizenship* in 2002a. Relatively speaking, the sense of belonging to Hong Kong (score 5 or above) among youth aged 15-24 was slightly stronger than that of those aged 25 and above (Figure 6.13). The major reason for their belonging to Hong Kong, as indicated by *Study on Civil Awareness and Moral Values of Youth*³⁴(1998), was that they were “born and had grown up in Hong Kong” (79%) (Figure 6.14). This might reflect the strong attachment of youth to Hong Kong and took Hong Kong as their root. Also, 17.6% of the respondents in the study claimed that they had sense of belonging to Hong Kong as their family, friends, studies and careers were in Hong Kong. It was notable that some (7.8%) had attachment to Hong Kong because it was a free place.

Figure 6.13: Sense of Belonging to Hong Kong (2002)



Source: The Hong Kong federation of youth groups 2002a

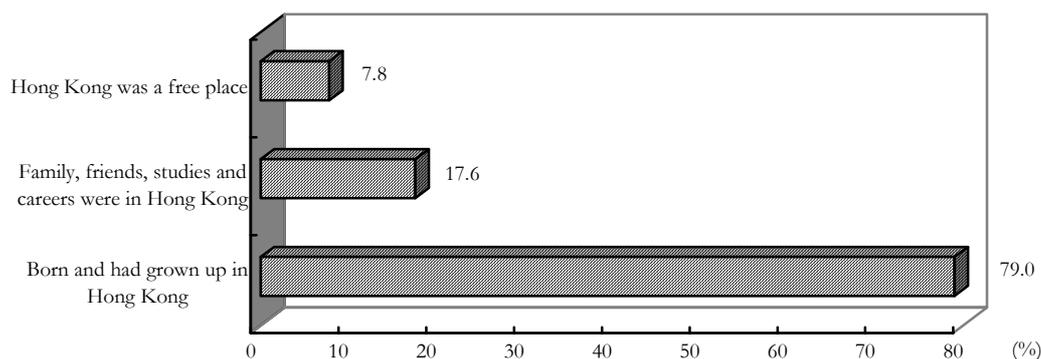
On the other hand, reasons of not having sense of belonging to Hong Kong were as follows: the lack of knowledge about society (27%), “living, working or economic environment was not good” (18.5%) and Hong Kong has many social problems (14.3%). This reflects that the youth take Hong Kong as their root, but if the living environment of Hong Kong is getting worse, their attachment to Hong Kong may

³³ The study was conducted by The Hong Kong Federation of Youth Groups in 2000a with the sample size of 875 aged 15-39.

³⁴ The study was conducted by Commission on Youth in 1998 with sample size of 965 youth people aged 10 to 24.

be weakened accordingly. However, since the above findings were mainly from ad hoc studies, no trend data were available to identify any changes in the belief and values among youth in this updating exercise. It seems that reasons for the cultural knowledge cultivation and satisfaction of the living place of youth needed further exploration in future studies as they might be important factors to maintain/enhance the attachment of the youth to Hong Kong.

Figure 6.14: Reasons for having a sense of belonging to Hong Kong (1998)



Source: Commission on Youth (1998)

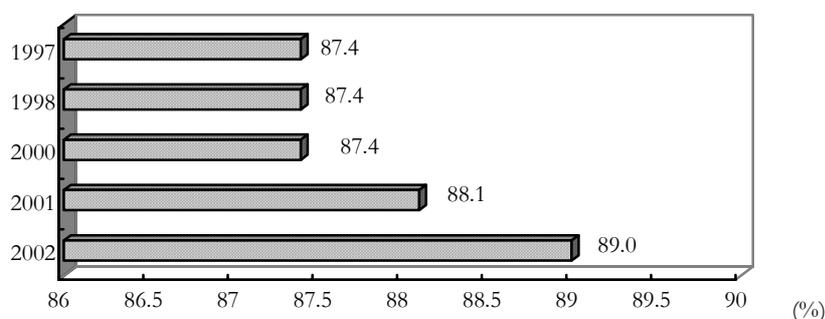
Cultural value is a broad and vague concept which may include any kind of value that is prevailing in the Hong Kong context. Owing to the limited data in hand, we could only focus on discussing values related to family under existing framework, in this updating exercise. Although many youngsters (aged 30 or below) no longer thought that the traditional Chinese values were suitable to Hong Kong, the value towards family was still highly appraised by society. As shown in Figure 6.15, the number of youth who thought that family was the most important element in society had increased from 87.4% in 1997 to 89.0% in 2002. In addition, according to *Tuning in to Youth: The setting up of Hong Kong Youth Indicators*³⁵(1997), about 80% of the respondents thought that family was the most important element in society. The proportion was 84.5% for those aged 15-19, 78.6% for those aged 20-24 and 87.4% for those aged 25-29. More than half of the respondents replied that filial piety was still highly appraised by society. It was 71.0% for those aged 15-19, 59.2% for those aged 20-24 and 61.4% for those aged 25-29 (Figure 6.16). The findings of the study *Beijing-Shanghai-Guangzhou-Hong Kong Comparative Youth Study Series: Topic 8: Family and Fertility*³⁶ (1996) showed that the meaning of filial piety to

³⁵ The study was conducted by the Hong Kong Federation of Youth Groups in 1997 with the sample size of 1029 aged 15-39.

³⁶ The study was jointly conducted by Institute of Sociology, Chinese Academy of Social Sciences, Youth and Juvenile Studies Institute of Shanghai Academy of Social Sciences, Guangzhou-Hong Kong-Macau Youth Research Institute and Social Sciences Research Centre, University of Hong Kong in 1996. The sample size is 551 for Hong Kong, 517 for Guangzhou and 508 for Shanghai, all with the age of 15-29.

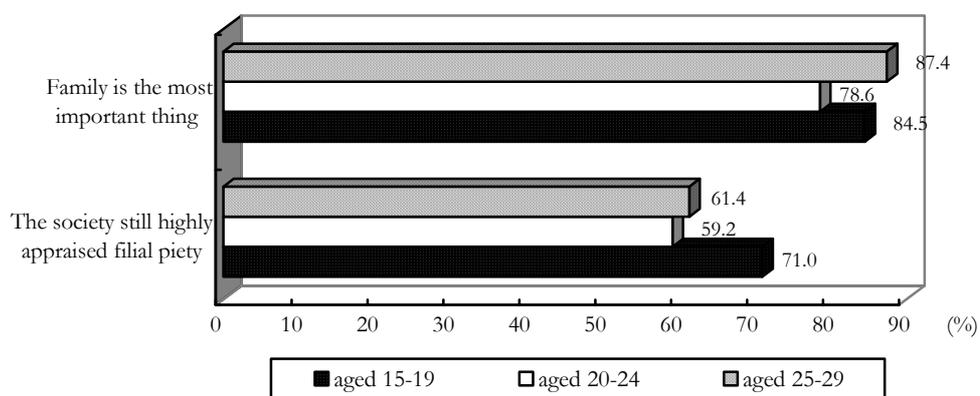
the youth nowadays was most likely to be comprehended as “living together with parents” (35.9%). Their views were quite different from the youth in Guangzhou (47.5%), Shanghai (38.7%) and Beijing (45.6%), who most likely regarded filial piety mainly as “respecting parents’ experiences” (Figure 6.17). Although only a small number of youth in Hong Kong took “supporting parents financially” as a way to express their filial piety (5.6%), youth in general did not think that paying maintenance to parents was out-dated. As shown in Figure 6.18, there were only about a quarter of respondents who agreed that paying maintenance to parents was out-dated. Moreover, the number had decreased from 27.5% in 1997 to 25.6% in 2002. In spite of the economic hardships in these few years, it reflected that the youth did not think of shouldering off their financially responsibilities towards their parents.

Figure 6.15: Views of youth on family as the most important element in society (1997-2002)



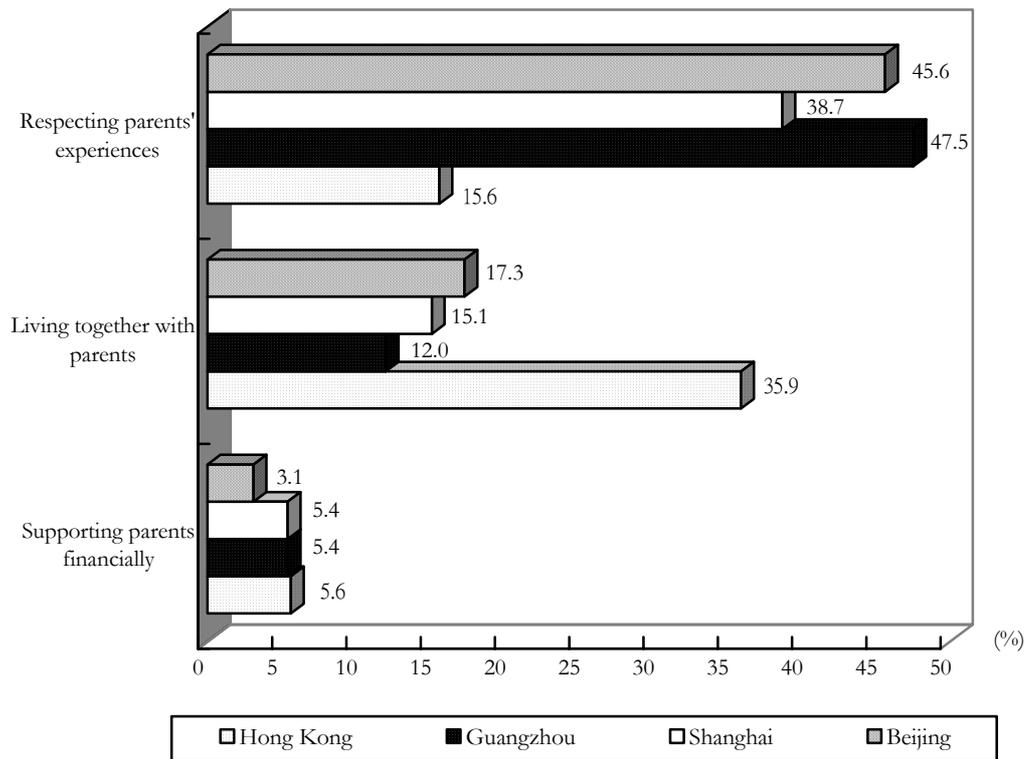
Source: The Hong Kong Federation of Youth Groups (2002)

Figure 6.16: Views on family value (1997)



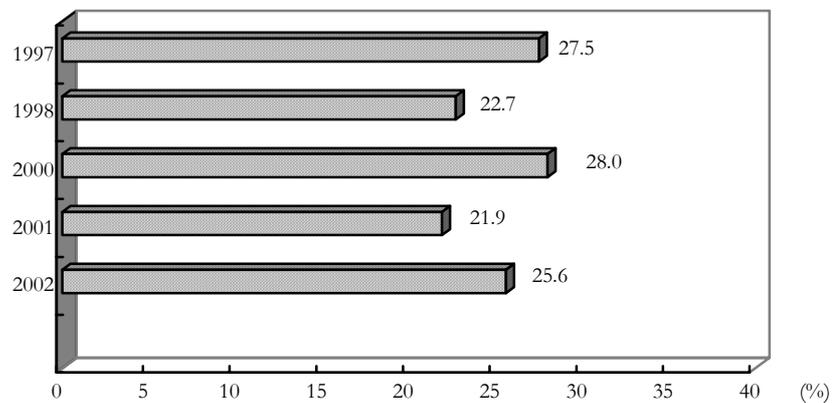
Source: The HKFYG (1997)

Figure 6.17: Comprehension of filial piety in the present society (1996)



Source: The HKFYG (1996)

Figure 6.18: Views on maintenance to parents as out-dated (1997-2002)

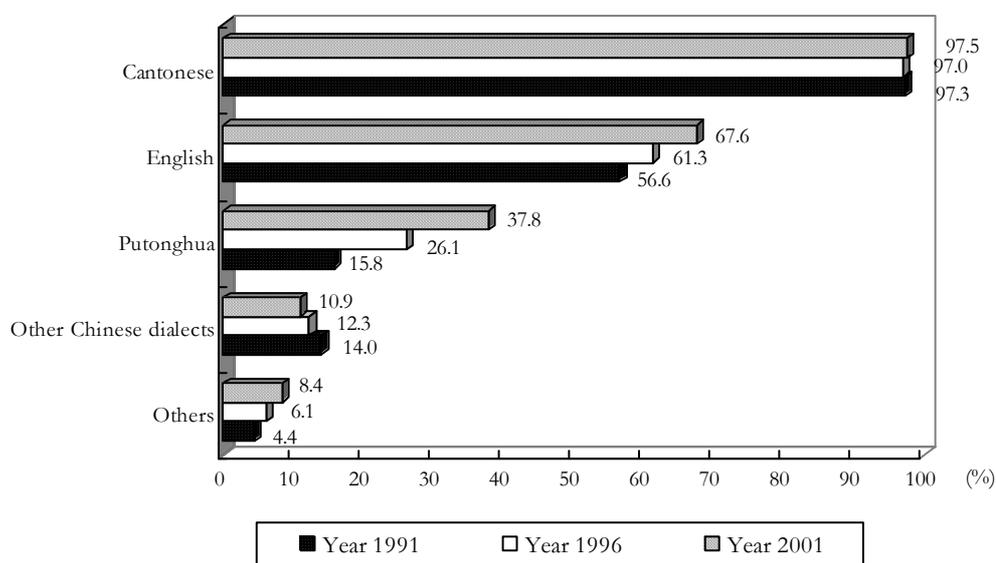


Source: The Hong Kong Federation of Youth Groups (2002a)

Language proficiency is very vital for the transmission of cultural values among the youth. According to the data from Population Census in 2001, the proportion of spoken language capability of the youth in English and Putonghua increased. The percentage of spoken language capability of the youth in English rose from 56.6% in 1991 to 67.6% in 2001, while the proportion of spoken language capability in Putonghua

increased from 15.8 % in 1991 to 37.8% in 2001 (Figure 6.19). However, since Population Census only updates every five years, it is hard to keep track of the most recent development in the language proficiency of youth in this updating exercise.

Figure 6.19: Youth able to speak selected languages/dialects (1991, 1996, 2001)



Source: Census and Statistics Department, Population Census

6.5 Summary

The key findings of the discussion on the generation of cultural capital among youth are summed up as follows:

- Only a small proportion of youth registered as public libraries borrowers in Hong Kong.
- The number of youth who attended the program organized by the Leisure and Cultural Services Department was lower than that of adult.
- Compared with the youth in Guangzhou and Macau, Hong Kong youth was relatively less interested in buying reference books but more likely to go to karaoke and cinema for leisure.
- The number of youth aged 15-24 who had used Internet service in the past twelve months increased gradually from 64.5% in 2000 to 91.9% in 2003.
- Communication with others such as ICQ/Email/Chat Room and watch webpage and online news were the most frequent types of activities pursued by the youth on the Internet.

- The total number of youth aged 15-24 working in creative industries decreased from 28,600 in 2001 to 26,400 in 2003, which accounted for 7.0% in 2001 and 6.8% in 2003 of the whole youth working population.
- In 2003, the top three types of creative industries that the youth engaged in were: “miscellaneous amusement and recreational services”, “printing, publishing and allied industries” and “miscellaneous business services”.
- Those who were interested in arts usually attended self-financed short courses to gain training related to art.
- The sense of belonging to Hong Kong among youth aged 15-24 was slightly stronger than that of those aged 25 and above.

As the findings in this updating exercise were mainly based on ad hoc studies, even though some of the trend could be generated, it could not fully reflect the cultural awareness and cultural identity of the youth in Hong Kong. It is therefore hard to draw any conclusive correlation between the values attached to and participation pattern among the youth. More comprehensive data is needed in the future to measure the cultural awareness and cultural identity.

Chapter 7 Social Capital

Measuring social capital can enhance our understanding of the kind of attitudes and behaviours of youth that will generate trust and social cohesion in society. It also helps indicate the degree of social inclusion of youth in society. However, as mentioned in Chapter 4, indicators on dimensions of exclusion were not able to be collected for this updating exercise. Nor data related to the indicators proposed for the measurement of social capital of youth were available on regular basis. Therefore, in this chapter, the discussion was mainly based on the latest data conducted by Hong Kong Federation of Youth in 2002.

7.1 Definitions of social capital

Social capital is defined ‘in terms of networks, norms and trust, and the way these agents and institutions to be more effective in achieving common objectives’ (Schuller, 2000:4). Uphoff had identified two dimensions in measuring social capital: *objective construct* and *subjective construct* (Quoted in Grootaert and Bastelaer, 2002: 6).

Objective construct is identified as structural social capital. It is argued that the established roles, social networks and other social structures supplemented by rules, procedures and precedents could facilitate information sharing, collective action and decision making among the people involved. The structural social capital consists of three levels, namely, micro, meso and macro.

Putnam defined social capital in terms of micro level which means ‘*features of social organization, such as networks, norms and trusts that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit*’ (Spellerberg, 2001:11). In other words, it puts emphasis on horizontal associations between people as ‘networks of civic engagement’ which mediates norms and operational rules of society and generated and reinforced trust in the credibility of these rules and in social relationships (Grootaert, 1998:2; Spellerberg, 2001:11).

Coleman (1990) defined social capital in terms of meso interpretation, including horizontal and vertical associations. He defined social capital as ‘*a variety of different entities, with two elements in common: they all consist of some aspect of social structure and they facilitate certain actions of actors (whether personal or corporate) within the structure*’ (Spellerberg, 2001:11). Vertical associations are characterized by hierarchical relationships and an unequal power distribution among members (quoted in Grootaert, 1998:3; Grootaert and Bastelaer, 2002:5; Spellerberg, 2001:11).

The third and most encompassing view of social capital includes social and political macro environment that shapes social structure and enables norms to develop. Besides the horizontal and vertical associations, this includes the macro-level formal institutional relationships and structures, such as political regime, the rule of law, the court system, as well as civil and political liberties (Grootaert, 1998:3; Grootaert and Bastelaer, 2002:6).

Uphoff identified subjective nature of social capital as cognitive social capital, which referred to share norms, values, trust, attitudes and beliefs (quoted from Grootaert and Bastelaer, 2002:6). As one of the important elements of social capital is trust and reciprocity, it is necessary to look into the quality of the social relations. In other words, it can be measured by the level of expressed trust in other people and the behaviours and attitudes towards oneself and towards others, including giving to strangers, as well as time giving to, relationships and social interaction people have with others on both formal and informal basis.

Thus, both structural and cognitive aspects should be taken into account and used in conjunction so as to grasp a full meaning of social capital. The measurement of the structural aspect helps us identify the nature of network participation, while attitudes and behaviours help identify how the norms and trusts are generated among the social networks.

7.2 Measurement of social capital

Many researchers in the western countries had tried to add meaning on “social capital”. There are two comprehensive reviews concerning social capital in Australia and the UK.

The study conducted by Bullen & Onyx (1998) measuring social capital in five communities in New South Wales (NSW) suggested that there were eight distinct elements defining social capital. Four of the elements are about participation and connections in various aspects, including *participation in local community*, *neighbourhood connections*, *family and friends connections*, and *work connections*. Whereas the other four elements are the building blocks of social capital, which includes *proactivity in a social context*, *feelings of trust and safety*, *tolerance of diversity*, and *value of life*.

The survey (2002) conducted by the Office of National Statistics (ONS) in the UK (2002) had summarized the key aspects of social capital. The main themes of this

study include: (i) *participation, social engagement, commitment*; (ii) *control, self-efficacy*; (iii) *perception of community level structures or characteristics*; (iv) *social interaction, social networks, social support*; and (v) *trust, reciprocity, social cohesion*. The list of indicators measuring social capital is summarized as follows (Bullen & Onyx, 1998; Hong Kong Federation of Youth Groups, 2002; Krishna & Shrader, 1999; Social Analysis and Reporting Division, the Office of National Statistics, 2002).

Table 7.1: Indicators of social capital

Dimensions	Examples of Indicators
Behaviour	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Donation (Money, in kind, Blood, etc.) ■ Voluntary Services ■ Types of organizations participated in and their membership status ■ Participation in activities organized by family members, neighbours, relatives, schoolmates, workmates ■ Propensity to discuss with family members, relatives, neighbours, schoolmates or workmates ■ Doing favours for family members, neighbours, schoolmates or workmates ■ Extent of borrowing from neighbours, family members, relatives, schoolmates or workmates (Help seeking behaviours) ■ Voting in elections (voting behaviours) ■ Time spend on reading newspapers, magazines, books, watching TV, listening to radio and types read, watched or listened ■ Drug abuse ■ Suicide ■ Number of youth arrested by types of offence ■ Violence against others
Relationship	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Attachment to family members, relatives, neighbourhood, school or workplace ■ Trust in family members, relatives, neighbours, schoolmates or workmates ■ Whether feeling safe at family, neighbourhood, school or workplace ■ Satisfaction/enjoyment of living in local area
Self-efficacy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Whether feel valued by society ■ Perceived ability to change personal life situation ■ Perceived ability to influence politics or making claims on officials ■ Perceived control over community affairs ■ Perceived control over own health ■ Perceived rights and responsibilities of citizens
Attitudes towards others	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Views about discrimination (fears of people who are different, such as ethnicity, in religion or in sexual orientation) ■ Tolerance towards marginalised people (such as mentally disabled) ■ Optimism about others' motivation ■ Whether you would claim a benefit to which you were not entitled

Table 7.1 (Continued....)

Dimensions	Examples of Indicators
Attitudes towards government and other social institutions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Views about the Government ■ Views towards the future of Hong Kong ■ Attitudes towards social institutions and practices ■ Rating of socio-economic inequality ■ Views about corruption ■ Perceived freedom to speak out in opposition to a commonly-accepted norm ■ Perceived norms of social support
Demographic characteristics of Youth participated in variety of social networks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Sex ■ Age ■ Nationality ■ Household composition ■ Length of residence ■ Geographical distribution ■ Birth place ■ Employment situations (such as place of employment, types of employment, income level and hours of work) ■ Religion ■ Communication Capacity (including Language spoken; Education level; Health conditions; Presence of computer/Internet access)

7.3 Data availability

Since indicators for the measurement of social capital in Hong Kong were ad hoc data, no trend data were available for use in this updating exercise for examining indicators on dimensions of “behavior”, “relationship”, “self-efficacy”, “attitudes towards others” and “attitudes towards government and other social institutions”. Findings conducted by the Hong Kong Federation of Youth Groups between 2000 and 2002 would be referred to.

Table 7.2: Obtained indicators of social capital

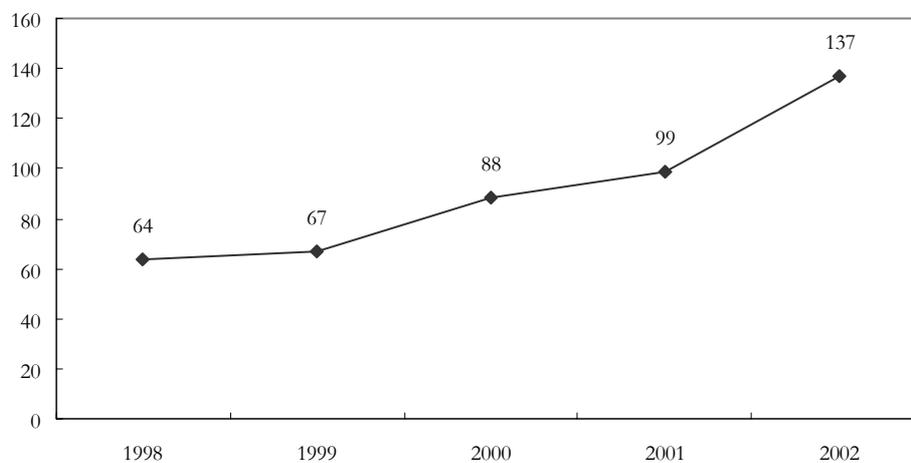
Dimensions	Obtained Indicators	Source
Behaviour	■ Participation in voluntary services (1995, 2000 and 2002)	■ HKFYG
	■ Number of registered volunteers aged 13-25 under Volunteer Movement per 1,000 youth aged 13-25 (1998-2002)	■ Social Welfare Department
	■ Reasons not do voluntary services (1995, 2000 and 2002)	■ HKFYG
	■ Ways of donation (2002)	■ HKFYG
	■ Social network participation rate (aged 15-24) (2002)	■ HKFYG
	■ Social network trust measurement (aged 15-24) (2002)	■ HKFYG
	■ Social network reciprocity (aged 15-24) (2002)	■ HKFYG
Relationship	■ Social network relationship (aged 15-24) (2002)	■ HKFYG
	■ Family Cohesion (Form 1-4) (2000 & 2002)	■ Shek (2000 & 2002)
Self-efficacy	■ Attitudes towards government and Self-efficacy of Youth (2000)	■ HKFYG
Attitudes towards others	■ Attitudes towards others (2000)	■ HKFYG
	■ Willingness of students to make friends with new arrivals (2000 & 2002)	■ Chan, Yuen, Lau, Wu & Ip (2003)
Attitudes towards government and other social institutions	■ Attitudes towards economic development and political development (2000)	■ HKFYG

7.4 Discussion

7.4.1 Behavior

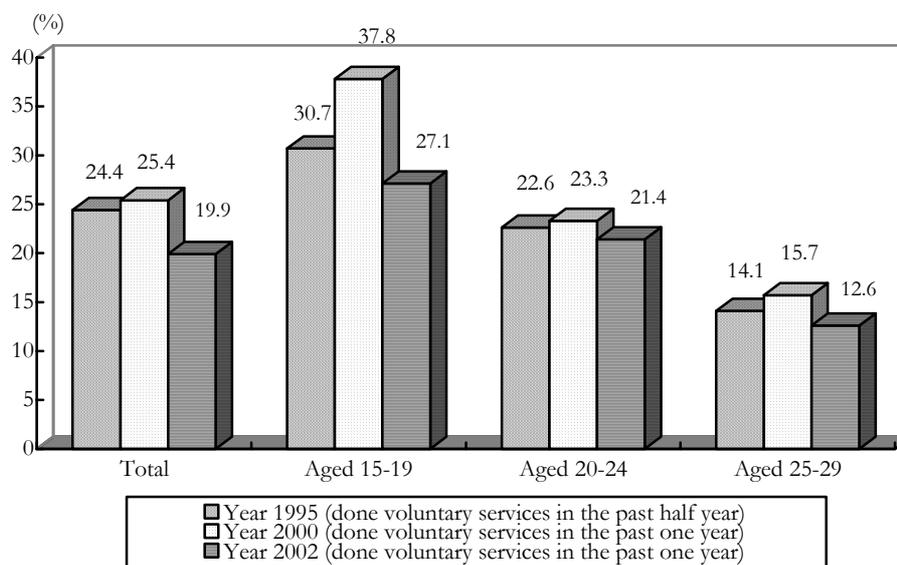
One of the key indicators regarding the social cohesion of the youth to society was their degree of “giving to strangers”. According to the Social Welfare Department, the number of youth as registered volunteers per 1, 000 youth aged 13-25 increased from 64 in 1998 to 137 in 2002 (Figure 7.1). However, some studies indicated a low participation rate of youth in volunteer services. According to the Hong Kong Federation of Youth Groups (1995, 2000d and 2002a), the percentages of youth involved in voluntary services were 24.4% in 1995, 25.4% in 2000 and 19.9% in 2002 (Figure 7.2). As shown in Figure 7.3, the major reason for the youth not doing voluntary services was that they were “too busy/ have no time” (77.6% in 1995, 82.3% in 2000 and 63.1% in 2002). In fact, the low participation rate of youth in voluntary services could also be explained by the low publicity of ways to join volunteering services. “No channel/ no opportunities” (15.9% in 1995, 21.5% in 2000 and 18.4% in 2002) was the second reason for youth not participating in voluntary services. Therefore, publicity of the ways to join volunteering services is important in future so as to recruit more youngsters who are willing to take part in volunteering work.

Figure 7.1: Number of Registered Volunteers aged 13-25 per 1,000 youth aged 13-25 under Volunteer Movement (1998-2002)



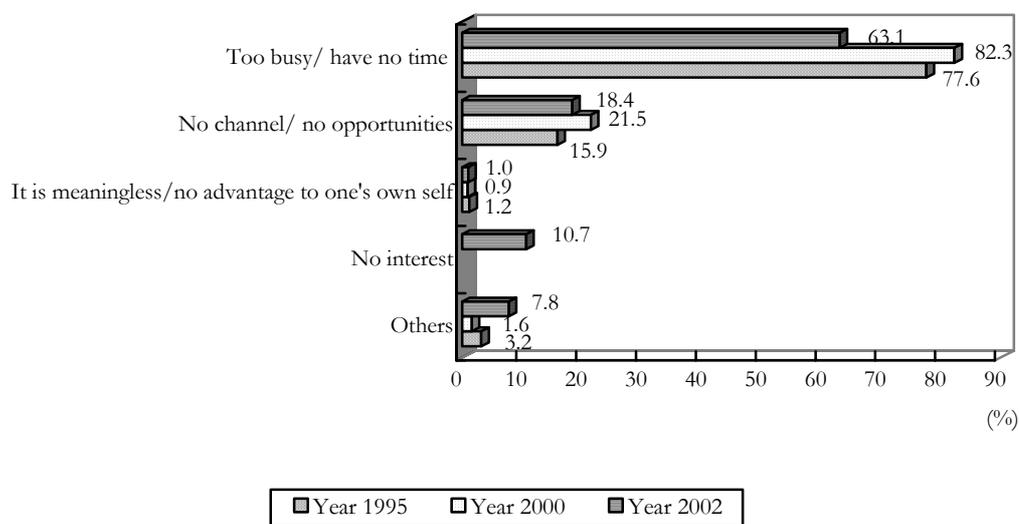
Source: Social Welfare Department

Figure 7.2: Participation in voluntary services (1995, 2000 and 2002)



Source: The HKFYG (1995, 2000d and 2002a)

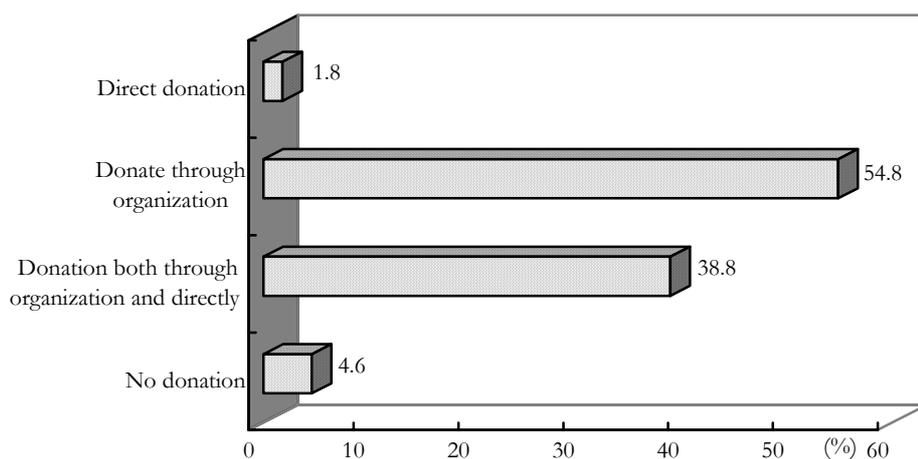
Figure 7.3: Reasons for not doing voluntary services (1995, 2000 and 2002)



Source: The HKFYG (1995, 2000d and 2002a)

According to the findings of a *Study on Social Capital with Regard to Giving, Volunteering and Participating* (2002b), over 95% of the respondents gave donation by different means. Over half of the respondents “donated through organizations” (54.8%) and nearly 40% of them donated both through organizations and directly to those in need (38.8%) (Figure 7.4).

Figure 7.4: Ways of donation (2002)



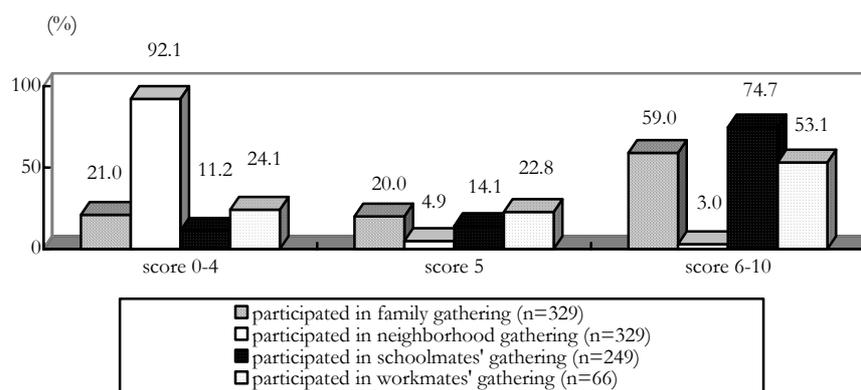
Source: The HKFYG (2002b)

In a macro sense, the attachment of the youth to society can be measured by their concern to society. One way to indicate this is their political participation rate. The voting turnout rates of those aged 18 to 30 in the 1998 and 2000 Legislative Council

elections decreased sharply from 49.5% in 1998 to 37.3% in 2000. The voting turnout rate of those aged 18-30 in District Board elections increased from 57.6% in 1999 to 59.1% in 2003. This might be related to the effect of demonstration on 1 July 2003. However, the voting turnout rates of young people were consistently lowered than other age groups in the past years.

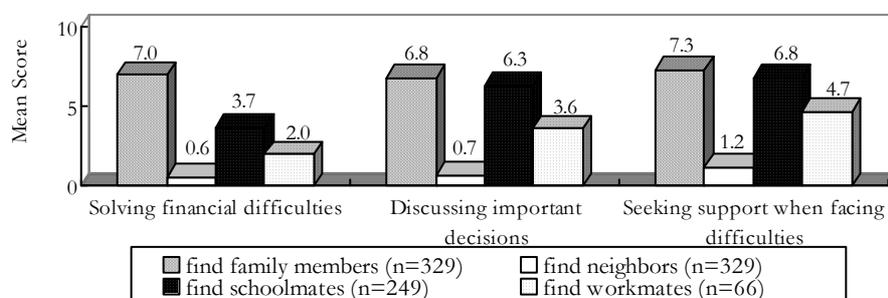
In a meso level, the social cohesion and trust can be measured by how much the youth devote to different kinds of social networks, as well as how much they seek help from such social networks. It was found that the attachment of youth to their neighborhood was the lowest, as compared to that towards their family, school and workplace. This could be shown by the low level of participation in the neighborhood, seeking support from and devoting time and energy to their neighbors (Figures 7.5, 7.6 & 7.7), as compared to the relatively higher degree of involvement in functions organized by family members, schoolmates and workmates and their closer attachment to them.

Figure 7.5: Social network participation rate (aged 15-24) (2002)



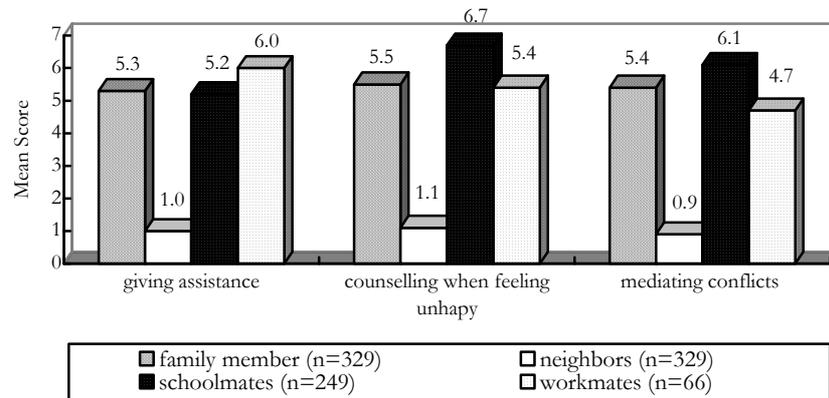
Note: Social participation rate: 0 score = never participate; 10 score = fully participate
Source: The HKFYG (2002c)

Figure 7.6: Social network trust measurement (aged 15-24) (2002)



Note: Social participation rate: 0 score = never participate; 10 score = fully participate
Source: The HKFYG (2002c)

Figure 7.7: Social network reciprocity (age 15-24) (2002)

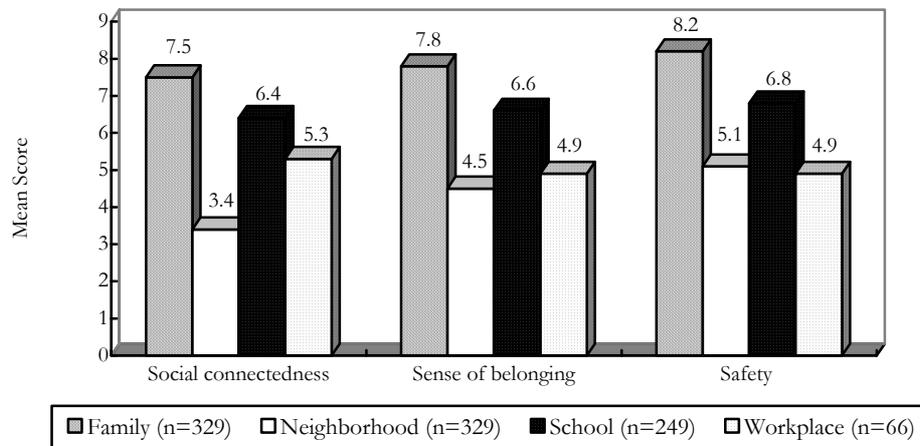


Note: Social participation rate: 0 score = never participate; 10 score = fully participate
 Source: The HKFYG (2002c)

7.4.2 Relationship

Based on the pattern of youth seeking help from, as well as devoting time and energy to different social networks, it was obvious that the social network relationship with neighborhood was the weakest ones, in terms of the social connectedness (mean score = 3.4), sense of belonging (mean score = 4.5) and safety (mean score = 5.1). In contrast, there was a strong network relationship with the family. The mean scores were 7.5, 7.8 and 8.2 respectively (Figure 7.8). In order to generate trust and social cohesion of youth in society, strengthening the bondage in neighborhood is an important task in future.

Figure 7.8: Social network relationship (aged 15-24) (2002)



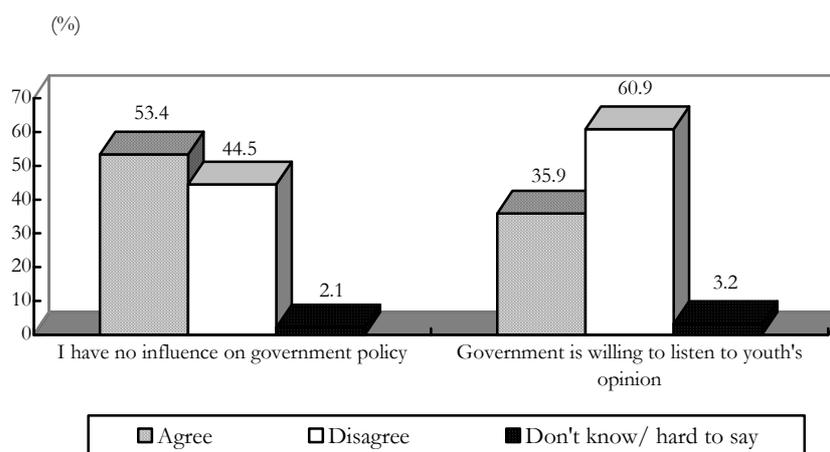
Note: Social participation rate: 0 score = never participate; 10 score = fully participate
 Source: The HKFYG (2002c)

Since family is shown to be a significant institution for fostering social network trust and relationship, the perception of its functioning is important for the maintenance of social capital among the youth. According to the findings of the study on *Adolescents' Perceptions of Family Functioning* (Shek, 2000 & 2002), the adolescents in general had positive perceptions of their family functioning. Respondents agreed/strongly agreed to the following statements: “support each others when in crisis” (85.4%), “family can solve most of the problems” (79%), and “accepted by the family members” (76.6%). However, the findings of the study also alerted us that family functioning in the following areas needed to be strengthened in the long run – “family members lacked communication”, “family members lacked mutual understanding” and “family members lacked emotional responsiveness”. The results were consistent to the findings of the study on *The Influences of Parents' Marital Relationship on the Emotion, Behavior and Academic Achievement of Secondary School Students* (Chan, 2000). It showed that only 48.7% of the respondents thought that they could “always” rely on family. Since no further recent data on the views of youth towards the quality of relationship among family members were available, it is hard to identify changes in the quality of family relationship.

7.4.3 Self-efficacy

As discussed in section 7.4.1, the voting turnout rate of youth in Legislative Council election decreased, whereas the youth voting turnout rate in District Board election increased. And the voting turnout rates of youth were generally lowered than that of other age groups. The low participation of youth election might be related to their low self-efficacy towards the influences on the government. The findings of a *Study on the Participation of Hong Kong Youth in Legislative Council Elections* (2000c) indicated that over half of the respondents said that “they have no influence on government policy” (53.4%). Also, only about one-third of the respondents responded that “the government is willing to listen to the youth’s opinion” (35.9%) (Figure 7.9). However, there was no data/information available explaining the rise in the youth voting turnout rate in the recent District Broad election for this updating exercise. The dimension of “self-efficacy of youth” needed further exploration in future studies.

Figure 7.9: Attitudes towards government and self-efficacy of Youth (2000)



Note: Sample size: 756 aged 18-29

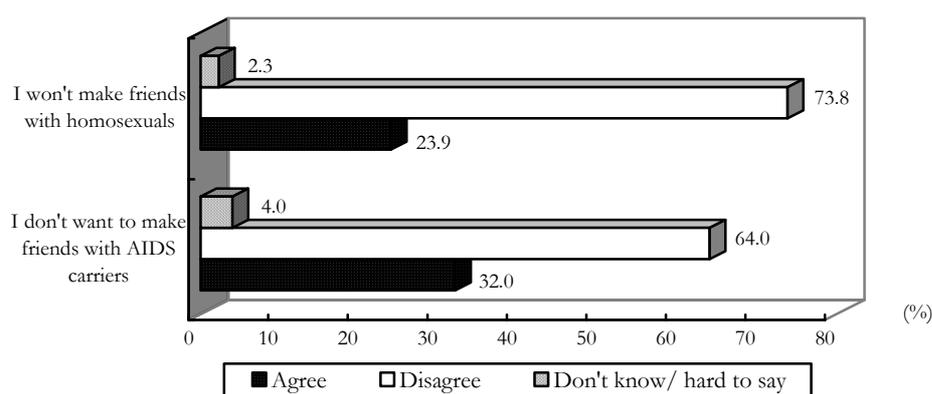
Source: The HKFYG (2000c)

7.4.4 Attitudes towards others

The degree of acceptance and tolerance towards others is also an important dimension of measuring the generation of trust and cohesion of youth in society. According to the Hong Kong Federation of Youth Groups (2000b), over 30% of the respondents still “did not want to make friends with AIDS carriers” (32%). Also, over one-fifth of them “would not make friends with homosexuals” (23.9%) (Figure 7.10). Since no recent data on this aspect was available in this updating exercise, it was hard to identify any changes in the degree of acceptance and tolerance of youth to these minorities in society. On the other hand, as indicated in *Acculturation of Young Arrivals from the Mainland*³⁷ (Chan, Yuen, Lau, Wu & Ip, 2003), the percentages of students (stayed in Hong Kong for more than seven years/ born in Hong Kong) who were “unwilling”/ “very unwilling” to “make friends with new arrivals” increased from 7.5% in 2000 to 12.5% in 2002, whereas the percentages of students (stayed in Hong Kong less than seven years) who were “unwilling”/ “very unwilling” to “make friends with new arrivals” decreased from 6.0% to 3.4% respectively (Table 7.3). This showed that there were still rooms for improvement in tolerance/acceptance of youth towards minority groups in society.

³⁷ More than 99% of respondents in the study aged 6-17.

Figure 7.10: Attitudes towards others (2000)



Source: The HKFYG (2000b)

Table 7.3: Willingness of students to make friend with new arrivals (2000 & 2002)

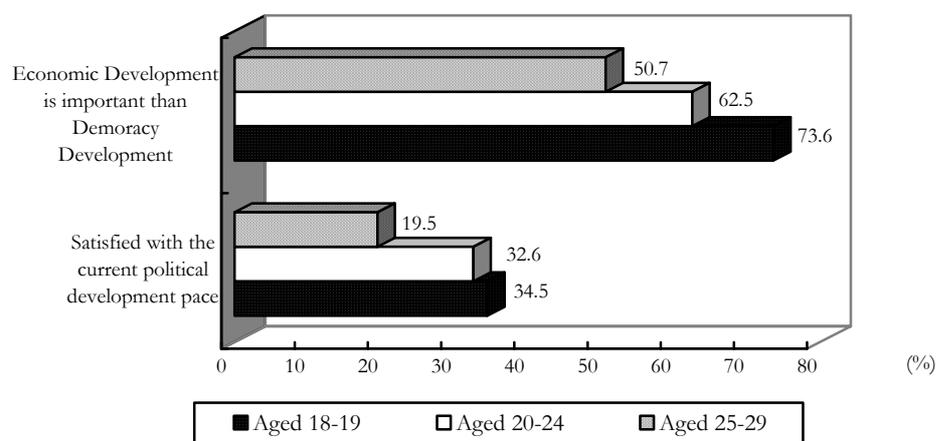
	Students stayed in HK less than 7 years		Students stayed in Hong Kong more than 7 years/ born in Hong Kong	
	2000	2002	2000	2002
Very unwilling	3.3%	1.0%	3.6%	4.8%
Unwilling	2.7%	2.4%	3.9%	7.7%
Willing	50.4%	48.4%	51.5%	55.7%
Very willing	43.6%	48.3%	41.0%	31.8%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: Chan, Yuen, Lau, Wu & Ip (2003)

7.4.5 Attitudes towards government and other social institutions

Generation of social capital among youth can also be measured by their “attitudes towards government and other social institutions” in a macro sense. However, some youngsters were not satisfied with the current political development pace. It seemed that the youth aged 25-29 were less satisfied with the current political development pace (19.5%), compared with those aged 18-19 (34.5%). Moreover, those aged 18-19 (73.6%) tended to think that economic development was more important than democracy development than those aged 25-29 (50.7%) (Figure 7.11). In fact, the attitudes of the youth towards the government might directly affect their participation in society, and also affected the generation of trust and social cohesion. However, many studies at present mainly focused on the views of the youth towards specific issues, it is thus hard to understand comprehensively the views of youth towards the government and other social institutions in Hong Kong. No trend data for comparison is available on the attitudes towards economic development and political development for use in this updating exercise.

Figure 7.11: Attitudes towards economic development and political development (2000)



Source: The HKFYG (2000c)

7.5 Summary

The key findings of the discussion on the generation of social capital among youth are summed up as follows:

- There was an increasing trend for youth to participate in volunteer services and for youth to “give to strangers”³⁸. However, there were still rooms for improvement.
- The attachment of youth towards neighbourhood was the lowest, as compared to that towards their family, school and workplace.
- Whereas the youth voting turnout rate in Legislative Council election decreased, the youth voting turnout rate in District Broad election increased. The low participation rates of youth in Legislative Council and District Board elections could be explained by the fact of their low self-efficacy towards the influences on the government.
- There were still rooms for improvement in tolerance/ acceptance of youth towards minority groups in society.

As the above discussion in this updating exercise was based on the findings of ad hoc studies between 2000 and 2002, the picture was not holistic enough. Nor there was any trend data available to identify change on how social capitals were generated among the youth. Therefore, it is hard to draw any direct and significant correlation between the behaviors and attitudes of the youth towards society from the foregoing discussion. It

³⁸ Social cohesion of youth to society can be measured by the level of expressed trust in other people and the behaviours and attitudes towards oneself and towards others, including giving to strangers, as well as time giving to, relationships and social interaction people have with others on both formal and informal basis.

seems that a holistic approach as well as a longitudinal data collection practice should be developed to capture the cultural awareness, cultural identity, social cohesion and trust among the youth in future. Also, for the measurement of social capital in particular, it seems that the views of the youth in the quality of family relationship as well as their perceptions towards the government and various social institutions need further exploration so as to grasp a comprehensive picture of the social cohesion of youth in society.

Chapter 8 Conclusion

The present study continued to adopt the framework developed in the previous report to address six youth issues, namely poverty, unemployment and substance abuse; and human capital, social capital and cultural capital.

However, the discussion of this updating exercise was constrained by data availability within data collection period. It was partly because some ad hoc studies were collected for discussion in the previous report and no trend data were available to keep track of the changes in the dimensions concerned. In addition, as the Census/ By-census data is released every 5 years/10 years, it is not possible to do any updating on data collected from the Census/By-census reports. Data from General Household Survey (GHS) was collected as an alternative to this updating exercise. Since the results of both Census/By-census and GHS are similar, it is suggested to collect data from GHS for future updating exercise.

Specific dimensions of these six topical issues are suggested to be collected in future studies and they are listed as follows:

- Proficiency and competency in language and IT of youth;
- Working conditions and structural constraints on youth employment status;
- Dimensions of social exclusion, including contact with friends and family, availability of and participating in public/private services, as well as affordability of public/private services;
- Dimensions on treatment demand data, drug-related health problems, as well as risk and protective factors to the youth; and
- Data on cultural awareness and cultural identity of youth, as well as social cohesion and trust among the youngsters.

Furthermore, it is suggested to collect also the views and perspectives of the youth in future research.

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