

When central-peripheral relations intersect with the asylum-seeking regime: how media outlets from different political camps report on asylum seekers in Hong Kong

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RESUME / ABSTRACT

Non-refoulement claimants (or asylum seekers) has become a salient issue in Hong Kong's public debate since early 2016 after a senior official from the Immigration Department claimed that the city's screening mechanism of asylum seekers was being abused. When Hong Kong embroiled into one of its largest conflict between pro-democracy protesters and the HKSAR Government in 2019, how might the portrayal of asylum seekers by media outlets affiliated with different political camps be? This thesis aims to investigate this question by using topic modelling from Natural Language Processing to discover the topics of news articles reporting on asylum seekers in 2019 by printed news media. It is found that . . . (to be completed). With

For my loved ones

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List of Abbreviations

110 **ASPDMC** the Alliance for the Support of the Patriotic and Democratic Movement

North Atlantic Treaty Organization

112 UN United Nations

UNICEF United Nations Children's Fund

114 WHO World Health Organization

WTO World Trade Organization

Preface

- The issue of refugees and asylum seekers have ignited a lot of attention and debates in the 21st
- century, particularly so after the 2015 European refugee crisis. In the academia, a great deal of
- effort has been contributed to understanding how the public's and/or policy-makers' perceptions
- $_{120}$ towards asylum seekers and

Chapter 1

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Introduction

Asylum seekers, refugees and these two groups of vulnerable population's movements across national borders have become some of the most salient issues in the 21st Century, especially after the outbreak of the 2015 Refugee Crisis in Europe. A lot of academic researches have subsequently investigated how politics in the .

Since the transfer of sovereignty from Britain to China in 1997, Hong Kong has witnessed increasing tension with its new sovereign owner. Until July 2020 when the HKSAR¹ Government passed the National Security Law and the subsequent commencement of the large-scale suppression of the opposition camp such as the mass arrest of 53 pro-democracy activists in January 2021 (BBC 2021), protests against the authority of the HKSAR and Beijing Governments had occurred. Apart from the annual July 1 protest since 2003, the two most prominent political movements would be the 2014 Umbrella Movement and the more recent 2019 anti-extradition law protest which created considerable attention from other countries as well.

This thesis thus aims to investigate how may the framing of asylum seekers in Hong Kong vary by news media outlets associated with different political camps, given each of them has considerably different definition of the city's national identity. The academic contribution of this thesis.

Before moving on, it should be mentioned that I will use the words "asylum seekers", "refugees" and "non-refoulement claimants" interchangeably. It is true that difference exists between the definitions of asylum seekers and refugees². Nevertheless, since the above three terms are generally

¹A list of the 30 most prominent words in each of the topic and the code to generate it are available in the appendix.

²For the complete documentation of the default parameters of the models used in this thesis, refer to the websites of scikit-learn and XGBoost Documentation — xgboost 1.5.1 documentation.

1. Introduction

used to refer to the same group of population in Hong Kong who flee from their own countries to escape from persecution, treating these terms as synonyms in this context should better cover how this group of population is perceived by media outlets in different political camps. In fact, scholars researching on this issue often use the terms I listed without strictly differentiating their meanings (e.g. Vecchio (2014), Ng, Choi, et al. (2019)). Moreover, to increase the transparency of this study, all the source codes will be uploaded into this

This thesis will proceed as follow. In section 2, I will review the literature on the theories about how the perception of national identity might affect attitudes towards immigration, how each major political camp in Hong Kong generally perceives the national identity of Hong Kong, and how each camp perceives asylum seekers. Section 3 provides an overview of the data collection

process and methodology used to answer the research questions. Section 4 presents the result

of the analysis, and section 5 concludes the findings as well as mention the implications of this

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Chapter 2

Literature Review

To understand how the different conceptions of the Hong Kong identity may affect attitude towards asylum seekers, it is important to first review the literature on how national identity may affect attitudes towards immigrants and how Chineseness may be articulated on theoretical level, as well as how political camps in Hong Kong may define the city's national identity and the situation of asylum seekers on empirical level.

2.1 Theories

2.1.1 What is national identity?

I will adopt the definition proposed by Greenfeld and Eastwood (2007), which is how an individual 164 relates to a broader societal order called the nation and is central to modern political and social 165 organisations. Lewin-Epstein and Levanon (2005) point out modern nationalism's conception that 166 people with similar cultures (e.g. language, myths, historic territory) should congregate together 167 as the basis of political community called the nation-state. A closely related but not identical 168 concept to nationalism is ethnicity, defined by Varshney (2007) as sense of belonging shared by 169 a group in ancestry, language, history, culture and/or history. Whereas nations have their own 170 territory-based political authority, this is not necessarily the case for ethnic groups. 171 Greenfeld and Eastwood (2007) also elaborate on some peculiar features of nationalism. For instance, the secular world where nations are located is deemed the most important to human beings and their life. But the more well-known characteristic is that the world is perceived to be divided into distinct communities (i.e. nations) occupying their own territories, and each member

of "the people" within a nation is treated as equal to one another. It is also "the people" who

ultimately control political legitimacy and authority. These features together contribute to two fundamental implications. Socially, the fact that nationals are considered as being equal and that status is achieved instead of ascribed promotes social mobility. Politically, nationalism has made modern (nation-)states "impersonal" (p.261) because whoever holds the government office does not affect whatsoever the nation-state's existence and legitimacy which ultimately rest in popular sovereignty (Greenfeld and Eastwood 2007). But for cultures that had been existing long before nationalism's entry into these societies, the constructions of novel national identities may often rebrand pre-existing cultures despite the latter's internal heterogeneity, of which Chineseness is an example which I will look into later.

Lastly, Greenfeld and Eastwood (2007) propose a typology of nationalism with two criteria. The first one is how the nation-state relates itself to its members, from the individualist end of treating a nation as merely a massive group of individuals to the collectivist end of which individuals are subservient to the nation. The other criterion is the well-known "ethnic" versus "civic" dimension which is extensively studied, including its relation with the perception towards immigrants which I will discuss later. In general, ethnic nationalism defines a nation's members based on ascriptive and rather objective standards such as descent, language and customs which are largely decided at birth, whereas civic nationalism focuses less on the members' cultural backgrounds than their voluntary allegiance to a political community and its legal institutions within a political territory (Greenfeld and Eastwood 2007; Lecours 2000; Lewin-Epstein and Levanon 2005; Heath and Tilley 2005).

A note on the ethnic-civic dimension is that these two aspects are not mutually exclusive since Medrano and Koenig (2005) highlight that nationalism in one country can often incorporate both civic and ethnic features, which is quite frequently observed from empirical. Accordingly, scholars often create other dimensions of describing nationalism theoretically. For example, Hjerm (1998) proposes to additionally gauge whether identifications with ethnic and civic features of nationalism are high ("multiple national identity") or low ("pluralist") at the same time (p. 453). Meanwhile, some scholars prefer more fine-grained categories of citizenship criteria. Medrano (2005) breaks the ethnic and civic dimensions further into five categories while describing the importance of criteria for citizenship perceived by the Spanish population, namely (p.137),

• the civic dimension being broken down into:

- Pure republican criteria: Long-term residence, feeling of belonging, and being a citizen of that state
 - Political criteria: Respect for laws and political institutions
- and the ethnic dimension into:
- Territorial criteria: Place of birth
 - Cultural criteria: Language, religion, customs and traditions and
- Descent

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2.1.2 Impact of conceptions of national identity on attitudes towards immigrants

Perhaps one of the most prominent consequences of how national identity is perceived by individuals is their attitudes towards immigrants. This is because national identity simultaneously defines members and outsiders of a nation (Hjerm 1998; Lewin-Epstein and Levanon 2005; Heath and Tilley 2005). For simplicity's sake, I will mainly focus on how tendency towards defining national identity in ethnic and civic terms may be correlated with perceptions towards immigrants.

To begin with, although it is generally agreed that characteristics used to demarcate member-221 ship in a nation can be classified as ethnic- or civic-based on a macro-level, additional categories 222 are often needed to capture the general patterns of how national identity is defined within a coun-223 try and how such definitions may affect citizen's attitudes towards immigrants. A potential reason for such a need is that although individuals may hold a rather "pure" civic conception of identity 225 mostly devoid of ethnic components, it is quite unlikely that individuals would consider ethnic 226 components as standalone enough for constituting a nation's citizenship without any civic com-227 ponents. Indeed, empirical evidence from Hjerm (1998), Heath and Tilley (2005) and Medrano (2005) demonstrate that it is very rare for individuals to perceive national identity solely in ethnic terms, since those who attribute importance to ethnic-based components are also likely to do so 230 to civic-based ones simultaneously. Often, scholars may even challenge the ethnic-civic-dimension 231 in classifying the perception of national identity and propose alternative schema. Drawing on the Weberian idea of social closure which measures the number of obstacles imposed by a group for outsiders to join, Medrano (2005) proposes the "postnationalist" versus "credentialist" (p.136)

dimension which differentiates how restrictive people consider acquiring citizenship to their nation should be. Specifically, postnationalists impose few limits on foreigners to become citizens, whereas credentialists require a long list of criteria being fulfilled. That said, even though there exist multiple and equally valid alternatives for categorising how national identity may be defined, the ethnic-vs-civic dimension is quite broadly applicable to explain the typologies of nationalism in countries with some modifications and thus is a decent starting point.

As for the potential impact of national identity on attitudes towards immigrants, the liter-241 ature tends to agree that the more an individual holds ethnic-based criteria of membership in a nation, the more likely (s)he will be averse against immigrants (i.e. xenophobic). It seems that the effect of ethnic-based national identity conception on xenophobic attitudes is consistent 244 across different immigration policy regimes differing on the ease of naturalisation and the mode 245 of integration. Hjerm (1998) discovers that despite Germany, Australia and Sweden having considerably different immigration policy regimes, individuals who agree that having both ethnic and civic characteristics are crucial for being a member of their nations are more likely to be xenophobic than others who only use civic components to demarcate nationhood or ascribe little 249 importance to nationalism. Similar findings are observed by Heath and Tilley (2005) in the UK 250 context, as British who place more emphasis on ethnic-based nationhood criteria will be more 251 inclined to approve reducing immigrants inflows and more stringent measures against illegal immigrants. Interestingly, Heath also discovers that after controlling for how national identity is 253 conceived, the extent to which an individual is attached to the nation is no longer significant in 254 affecting his/her attitude towards immigrants. 255

In some cases, however, the effect of national identity on perceptions towards immigrants may
be less due to whether individuals hold ethnic-based definitions of national identity than how many
criteria individuals deem to be indispensable for obtaining a nationality. For instance, Medrano
(2005) argues that even though there is an association between including ethnic-based (or in
his terminology "ethno-biological republican") (p.148) criteria for obtaining Spanish citizenship
and holding negative attitudes towards immigrants, it is ultimately how many criteria a Spanish
regards as important for being a Spanish citizen that better predicts attitudes towards immigrants,
evidenced by the stronger correlation between these two items found in his study.

Furthermore, depending on the ethnic composition of a nation-state, not only may different 264 ethnic groups have their own definitions of what constitute to the ethnic and civic components 265 of national identity, but also the relations between perceptions of national identity and attitudes 266 towards immigrants may go into rather unexpected directions. Lewin-Epstein and Levanon (2005) 267 discover that in the Israeli society which can be broadly separated into three ethnic groups 268 (namely, veterans Jews who have lived in Israel for a long time, Olim who are recent Jewish 269 immigrants from former Soviet Union regions, and ethnic Arabs citizens in Israel), there are 270 only moderate similarities in terms of which components should be included into the ethnic and 271 civic dimensions of national identity, as they disagree on whether the ability to speak Hebrew 272 and whether being born in Israel should be labelled as ethnic or civic components. Moreover, 273 contrary to the expectation in the literature, veteran Jews who consider the Israeli nationality as 274 more ethnic-based are actually less averse towards immigrants, possibly because they are likely 275 to perceive immigrants as mostly overseas Jews who share the same ethnicity (Lewin-Epstein and 276 Levanon 2005). Nevertheless, the surprising case of Israel is likely to be more due to its specific 277 socio-political context rather the theoretical pitfalls of how ethnic-based conceptions of national 278 identity may be related to xenophobia per se. 279

2.1.3 Chineseness in Hong Kong

Given over 90% of the population being ethnically Han Chinese by 2016 (Home_Affairs_Department 2018) and also large-scale pro-democracy political movements in the 2010s challenging the authority of the HKSAR and Chinese Governments (particularly the 2014 Umbrella Movement and the 2019 Anti-Extradition Law Protest), Chineseness indeed occupies a salient position on the discourse of the Hong Kong identity. It is then important to understand what Chineseness may 2019 mean in Hong Kong, a city under British colonial rule for over a century until 1997.

Although Chineseness is usually connoted with a homogeneous image of a group of people with
the same ethnic origin, place of residence or cultural characteristics (e.g. language, customs etc.),
Chun (1996) problematises this conception not least because expressions used to describe different
aspects of Chineseness actually contains heterogeneity. For example, despite the contemporary
use of Han Chinese to denote ethnic homogeneity, people under the Han empire were anything
but ethnically homogeneous. It was not until the 1911 Revolution then China became a nation

inhabited by the single ethnic group called *Zhonghua Minzu*, and a homogeneous national culture
was accordingly invented and legitimised by the state. The efforts to articulate a Chinese national
identity continued after the foundation of the People's Republic of China (PRC) in 1949, as both
the Kuomingtang (KMT) regime in Taiwan and the PRC (after the Maoist period) extensively
used Chinese history, political ideology and/or values to construct their national cultures and
identities to claim themselves being the orthodox Chinese nation.

Whereas Chineseness was constructed by Chinese regimes holding political authority in Taiwan 299 and mainland China, Chineseness manifested quite differently in Hong Kong where it was a 300 Chinese society ruled by the British Government before 1997. According to Chun (1996), most 301 inhabitants in Hong Kong had identified as Chinese until the establishment of the PRC in 1949. So 302 (2015) also mentions that before 1949, ethnic Chinese in Hong Kong did not intend to permanently 303 reside in the city and identified with the broader Chinese nation, evidenced by their participation 304 in the anti-colonial Hong Kong-Canton general strikes in the 1920s. When the Chinese Communist 305 Party (CCP) took power in 1949, however, the identity of ethnic Chinese in Hong Kong started 306 to gradually depart from that on the maindland. As Hong Kong had become the venue to 307 the KMT and the CCP's contest of the Chinese identity in the 1950s, the British Government 308 then attempted to pull Hong Kong away from this nationalist conflict by actively promoting 309 economic transformation from a Chinese entrepot to exported-oriented economy, and the colonial 310 government started to create a new Hong Kong identity to further distance the citizens from 311 Chinese nationalism following the outbreak of leftist riots in the late 1960s (Chun 1996; So 2015) 313

With intellectuals in Hong Kong paying more and more attention to local instead of Chinese 314 affairs and the huge influx of illegal immigrants from China in the 1970s, the conflict between the 315 old and newly arrived residents eventually led to the rise of a Hongkonger identity (So 2015). By 316 mid-1980s, Hong Kong eventually developed its own culture which was indifferent to politics while 317 also fusing habits from Chinese and Western cultures together (Chun 1996). As the transfer of 318 the city's sovereignty approached in the 1980s, however, the Hong Kong identity became more 319 complicated. On one hand, the investment opportunities in and relocation of factories to mainland 320 China due to the reform and opening up policy helped resurge Chinese nationalism among Hong 321 Kong business elites and working class who married mainland Chinese (So 2015). Meanwhile, the

uncertainty associated with the transition of sovereignty, especially after the Tiananmen Massacre 323 in 1989, caused the public to be more conscious of values respected in Hong Kong such as the 324 rule of law and civil liberties and thus increased their perceived difference between Hong Kong 325 and China (So 2015; Fong 2017b; Lin and Jackson 2021). 326 Amidst the fear of Hong Kong losing its unique after the handover to China in the 1990s, 327 the One Country, Two Systems (OCTS) framework which stipulates Hong Kong's autonomy and 328 continuity of the capitalist system for 50 years was accordingly put in place to secure confidence 329 of the public regarding the handover (So 2015; Fong 2017b). Indeed, the first decade after 1997, 330 So (2015) and Fong (2017b) report that overall more and more Hongkongers identified as Chinese 331 despite Beijing's increasing intervention (more on this later) after the mass protest against Article 332 23 in 2003, and such sentiment peaked in 2008 when China was the host of that year's Olympic 333 Games. But the Hong Kong identity has once again become prominent since 2009 as Hongkongers 334 become aware of Beijing's increasing political interference and the social disruption brought by 335 the large influx of mainland Chinese, and Fong (2017b) highlights how the Hong Kong identity 336 has emerged in a mentality of resisting against "invaders" from the mainland during the period 337 (p.19).338 In short, Chineseness as how closely Hong Kong people identify themselves as members of the 339 Chinese nation have evolved throughout the course of history, and one could argue that following the transferral of Hong Kong's sovereignty to China, the Chineseness of Hong Kong identity has become more and more contested. This phenomenon is best reflected by how each prominent

2.2 Empirics

2.2.1 How do different political camps in Hong Kong perceive national identity?

political camp in Hong Kong envisions the Hong Kong identity.

With Hong Kong's major political cleavage being demarcated by the city's relations with Beijing and the pace of democratisation, different political camps may adopt their own vision of what Hong Kong's national identity should be. Indeed, Lecours (2000) highlights the importance of political goals in affecting how political actors with different ideologies on a region's relations with the national government may formulate national identity through the case study of Quebec.

He argues that the secessionist Parti Quebecois (PQ) is motivated to adopt an ethnic-based 352 nationalism which emphasises on French being the Quebecois' mother tongue because the party 353 needs a more salient cultural marker to convince Quebecois that they are indeed qualitatively 354 different from the Anglophone Canada and thus warrants a separate nation. By contrast, since 355 the autonomist Parti Liberal du Quebec's (PLQ) goal is to demand more political autonomy 356 instead of secession, the party can adopt more civic-based framing of nationalism which does not 357 restrict membership to the Quebecois society exclusively to Francophones while not explicitly 358 relying on ethnic markers to distinguish between Quebecois and Canadians. 359

In the following paragraphs, I will discuss the political goals of the three prominent political camps in Hong Kong regarding the city's political regime and relations with the Beijing Government, namely, the pro-Beijing camp, the pro-Democracy camp and the newly arising localist camp in the 2010s, and how their political goals may affect their articulation of Hong Kong's national identity.

The pro-Beijing camp

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As the politically conservative force governing Hong Kong, the pro-Beijing camp's objective can be summarised as legitimising China's sovereignty over the city and protecting the political interests of China. Members of the camp include the HKSAR Government itself, political parties and societal actors who lean towards the Beijing Government etc. Perhaps the most prominent manoeuvre by the pro-Beijing camp to achieve the above objective is counteracting against demands for more rapid democratisation in both the executive and legislative branches to prevent the opposition from gaining control over the political institutions (Ma 2012).

Apart from controlling high-level political institutions in the HKSAR, the pro-Beijing also invests in efforts to foster patriotism towards China in different societal sectors, of which education is one. Bottom up endeavours to instil the Chinese identity into students' minds are organising trips to China as well as pedagogy of pro-China ideologies and Chinese cultures, by pro-Beijing schools and regular schools receiving sponsorship from the Government or pro-Beijing actors, whereas top-down endeavours from the Government mainly revolves around policies on national education such as teaching Putonghua in primary school since 1998, encouraging schools to raise the Chinese flag and sing the Chinese anthem in significant occasions and the failed attempt to

make national education itself a mandatory subject which avoids discussion on sensitive issues 381 in 2012 (Lau 2013; Fong 2017b). The pro-Beijing camp also sets up support organisations in 382 communities for electoral mobilisation, as Loh (2010) and Fong (2017b) out how the largest pro-383 Beijing parties in Hong Kong have numerous subsidiaries grassroots organisations which can serve 384 to mobilise for votes during elections under the coordination of the Liaison Office (LOCPG), and 385 Fong (2017a) reports an alleged vote-rigging incident in 2015 during which pro-Beijing-affiliated 386 elderly homes were spotted sending elderlies, often of low cognitive abilities, to cast their votes. With the pro-Beijing camp's goal of securing the ultimate authority and sovereignty of the 388 Beijing Government over the HKSAR, its vision on how the identity of Hong Kong should be 389 is then closely intertwined with the Chinese identity. In other words, pro-Beijing forces view 390 the Chinese and Hong Kong identities as a whole in which Hong Kong is subordinate to the 391 Chinese nation, and identification with the Chinese nation is translated into support towards 392 the incumbent PRC regime, which self-proclaims as the "vanguard of the Chinese people and 393 the Chinese nation" (Full Text of Constitution of Communist Party of China - Xinhua 2017) 394 . Indeed, Lin and Jackson (2021) argue that at least during 2012-19, the HKSAR government 395 primarily portrays the Chineseness of Hong Kong citizens in an essentialist and narrow ethnic-396 based manner which emphasises on the shared biological inheritance from the ancient Peking 397 Man between Hong Kong citizens and mainland Chinese while downplaying other aspects such as 398 values, cultural heritage and lifestyle. For instance, former Chief Executive CY Leung and pro-399 Beijing politician Ronny Tong claimed that Hong Kong citizens were obliged to identify themselves as Chinese due to their ascribed biological similarities with mainland Chinese. Ethnic markers were also co-mentioned while HKSAR officials were describing the PRC, as former Chief Secretary Matthew Cheung stated that he was proud as "a son of the Chinese" while witnessing the progress 403 made by mainland China (Lin and Jackson 2021) (p.914). 404 This view echoes with that held by the Beijing Government, as Chinese President Xi Jinping 405 once claimed that Hong Kong's fate was closely linked to mainland China, and the city was crucial 406 for achieving the Chinese dream (Lin and Jackson 2021). In essence, as the ruling government 407 of post-1997 Hong Kong is now under the sovereignty of the PRC, it is likely that the HKSAR 408 Government and its political ally, the pro-Beijing camp, actively promote Chineseness as an ethnic feature that both Hong Kong citizens and mainland Chinese share closely to realign the Hong

Kong identity, which is deemed to had developed separately in British Hong Kong (Chun 1996;
So 2015), under the umbrella of Chinese so that Beijing could exert more control over the city's
ideology. By contrast, civic values are less salient in the official discourse in promoting Chineseness
in Hong Kong (except for the value of patriotism which is ultimately another manifestation of
the ethnic conception of Chineseness), but are often used by the pro-Democracy camp to portray
Hong Kong's distinct (but **not** independent) identity from mainland China.

117 The pro-Democracy camp (or pan-democrats)

According to Ma (2012), even though several pro-democracy political groups were founded in the 1980s after the commencement of the city's democratisation and elections as well as the signing of the Sino-British Joint Declaration in 1984, it was not until the late 1980s when these groups congregated together for better mobilisation power in large-scale political movements, especially during the 1989 Tiananmen Movement when the Alliance for the Support of the Patriotic and Democratic Movement (ASPDMC) was formed to support students protesting for democracy in Beijing. Shortly afterwards, the first pro-democracy party, the United Democrats of Hong Kong (the predecessor of the present Democratic Party) was created in 1990 for next year's first direct election in the legislature (Ma 2012). After the handover in 1997, the pro-democracy camp remains as one of the significant political forces in the HKSAR, including the provision of an alternative perception of the Hong Kong identity vis-a-vis the official rhetoric.

Compared to the pro-Beijing camp which considers protecting the interests of the Chinese
nation (currently under the PRC regime) as paramount over other concerns, the pro-democracy
camp instead prioritise values such as the rule of law and civil liberties which are regarded to be
constitutive to the civic elements of Hong Kong's identity (Kwan 2016). This is evidenced by
the pro-democracy camp deeming the Article 23 legislation back in 2003 as contravening personal
freedom under the pretext of national security and thus openly opposed to and organised the 1
July rally against the law's promulgation (Ma 2012), and the camp also supported the Occupy
Central Movement (a precursor to the 2014 Umbrella Movement) to protest against Beijing's
proposal of only allowing pre-approved candidates to run for Chief Executive elections in August
2014 as violating democratic principles of universal suffrage (Kwan 2016). It can thus be argued
that the pro-Democracy camp puts more importance on protecting the civic values that they

deem crucial for the identity of Hong Kong, even if this means often clashing with the interests of Beijing.

When it comes to identifying which nation Hong Kong belongs to, however, it should be note that the pro-democracy camp in general still identify themselves as Chinese, as Kwong (2016) states that especially for the older generation pro-democratic politicians, they are in favour of Hong Kong's sovereignty being transferred from Britain to China in 1997, and they claim to share affinity with China's history, culture and ethnicity despite opposing the CCP's one-party dictatorship. In fact, the identification with the Chinese nation by the pro-democracy camp is well-447 inscribed in the manifesto of the largest and most historic pro-democracy party, the Democratic 448 Party, as the very first article clearly claims that "Hong Kong is an indivisible part of China" 449 (Manifesto 2021). The pro-democracy camp's identification as members of the Chinese nation 450 may very well explain how they contextualise Hong Kong's democratisation movement and why 451 they do not think Hong Kong identity is independent of the Chinese one. Kwong (2016) mentions 452 that the pro-Democracy camp generally considers Hong Kong's democratisation as integral to that of mainland China, and the annual candlelight vigil by the ASPDMC is a totem of this mentality since some organisers perceive a democratic China, if realised, might subsequently bring democracy to the city as well.

Admittedly, the pro-democracy camp attempted to appeal to localist supporters when the ideology gained huge popularity around the time of the 2016 Legislative Council election, such as calling for the right of self-determination for Hong Kong (Kaeding 2017; Fong 2017b). Nevertheless, this does not mean the pro-democracy camp giving up on caring about political issues in China while relating them to the situation in Hong Kong. Even in the 2021 Tiananmen Massacre candlelight vigil, the ASPDMC stated that Hong Kong people shared "a common fate with those oppressed and deprived of freedom in China", and the organisation would struggle until both Hong Kong and China became democratic (ASPDMC 2021).

In short, the pro-democracy camp considers civic values in Hong Kong such as the rule of law and civil liberties to be constituting to the distinctiveness of Hong Kong and is averse towards Beijing's political interventions which often run against these values. Nevertheless, the camp still regards Hong Kong as belonging to the same nation with mainland China and is even willing to help their Chinese compatriots in political movements which advocate freedom and democracy.

The geographical scope of how wide Hong Kong's political movement to democratisation should concern, then, is partly what makes the localist camp different from the pro-democracy camp even though both favour a democratic regime in Hong Kong.

473 The localist camp

Broadly speaking, the rise of localism as a third prominent political ideology in the 2010s was due to both the increasing integration with mainland China both politically and socio-economically 475 as well as the perceived incompetence of the pro-Democracy camp to push forward substantive democratisation in Hong Kong. Although the term "localist camp" in reality represents an aggregation of groups which vary considerably in choosing violent or non-violent means of re-478 sisting against the Beijing Government, whether Hong Kong should abandon OCTS and pursue 479 independence, and are much less coordinated in their actions compared to the pro-Beijing and pro-democracy camps, organisations belonging to this camp hold strong averse sentiment against 481 China both in terms of the PRC regime and mainland Chinese who are deemed to be depriving 482 the locals of already scarce public resources or disrupting the way of life of ordinary Hong Kong citizens, and they (Kwong 2016). The first substantive discourse to materialise localism as a 484 political ideology was "Hong Kong as a city-state" published in 2011 by scholar Chin Wan-kan 485 which, among many other ideas, advocates separating the integration between Hong Kong and mainland China as well as prioritising the needs of Hongkongers (So 2015). The following para-487 graphs will outline how the rise of localism can be treated as a backlash against both long-existing 488 political camps in Hong Kong while also exploring how localists perceive Hong Kong's national 489 identity.

Starting with the so-called "China factor", the localist camp obviously rejects the pro-Beijing
camp's (and the Chinese Government) claim that Hong Kong's identity should be treated as one
with that of Chinese. Fong (2017b) illustrates how the China factor has facilitated the rise of
localism under the framework of "state-building" versus "peripheral" nationalism (p.2), where
Hong Kong is attempting to consolidate its unique identity against Beijing's incorporation of
the city into the hegemonic national culture. Specifically, after 500,000 Hongkongers had rallied
against the Article 23 legislation in 2003, Beijing then started to increase its interventions in

multiple areas, such as asserting that its authority overrides the city's autonomy, sponsoring pro-Beijing candidates during elections and fostering further economic integration between Hong Kong 499 and China in finance, tourism and trade. (So 2015; Fong 2017b). In turn, the high proportion of 500 respondents in a 2016 survey identifying themselves as Hongkongese amidst the foundings of more 501 radical localist organisations which aspire to make Hong Kong a separate nation can be evidence 502 of how the PRC's attempts to assimilate Hong Kong into the hegemonic Chinese identity has risen 503 the consciousness of Hong Kong people about their uniqueness vis-a-vis China and thus foster the increasing popularity of localism (Fong 2017b). Apart from Chin's foundational discourse on localism as mentioned before, overt advocacy of Hong Kong becoming an independent nation from China is often proposed by some localist organisations, most signified by the establishment 507 of the disbanded Hong Kong National Party in 2016 by Andy Chan which aimed to build a "Hong Kong Republic" (Kaeding 2017) (p.165). Some organisations even dare openly insult the PRC 509 to challenge its authority and legitimacy, as two former legislators from the self-determination-510 advocating Youngspiration had taken their office oaths by pronouncing "China" derogatorily in 511 2016, which caused them to be disqualified from their seats shortly afterwards (Kaeding 2017). 512 Due to the localist camp's dissociation of Hong Kong with mainland China concerning both 513 Beijing's assimilation and which nation Hong Kong belongs to, they also reject the pro-Democracy 514 camp's idea that political development of Hong Kong should be linked to that of China. In effect, 515 the indifference of the localist camp to China's political situation is largely due to the "transition 516 fatigue" which witnesses increasing dissatisfaction with the traditional pro-democracy camp has started to accumulate due to the lack of substantive progress in democratisation by 2008 (Kwong 2016) (p.63). The Democratic Party's decision to negotiate with the Beijing Government for the political reform package and its subsequent support in May 2010 created profound division within 520 the pro-democracy camp as certain parties believed that more radical measures were needed to 521 fend off Beijing's interference into the city, but the more significant turning point for localism 522 to gain its popularity was the 2014 Umbrella Movement when some youngsters blamed the pro-523 democracy camp for the Movement's failure (Kwong 2016; Kwan 2016) . 524 The disagreement between the pro-democracy and localist camp lies less in what kinds of 525 values Hong Kong should uphold (as both camps aim at fighting for democracy and autonomy

from Beijing) than whether Hong Kong should involve in China's democratisation. Specifically,

the pro-democracy camp's insistence on Hong Kong's responsibility to help build democracy in
China is met with strong criticism from the localists, who consider that Hong Kong should focus
only on its political development since binding Hong Kong's future to a democratic China would
hamper the city's own interests (Kwong 2016; Kwan 2016). Thus, the different conceptions of
which nation Hong Kong belongs to between the two camps and how much Hong Kong should
dissociate from China have caused both camps to have rather contentious relations, as some pandemocrats also consider the localist camp's hostility towards mainland Chinese as xenophobic
(Kwong 2016).

In short, the localist camp does not just treat the Hong Kong identity as distinctive but
ultimately belongs to the Chinese nation like the pro-democracy camp. Instead, Hong Kong is
a separate political entity that should avoid close integration with mainland China in order to
protect its own interests. This causes the localist camp to become a third force in Hong Kong's
political arena in the 2010s confronting against both the pro-Beijing and pro-Democracy camps.

Before moving onto hypothesising how the three camp's different views on Hong Kong's national identity may impact their views on asylum seekers within the city, table 2.1 summarises
how they differ on the vision of the Hong-Kong-China relations.

Table 2.1: Comparison of the three camps on key dimensions of Hong-Kong-China relations

	Pro-Beijing camp	Pro-Democracy camp	Localist camp
The nation that	China	China	Hong Kong
Hong Kong			
belongs to			
Attitude towards	Political ally of	Opposes one-party rule	Indifference, only focuses
political	the ruling PRC	of the CCP,	on Hong Kong's situation
development in		sympathetic to Chinese	
China		people	
Prioritised	Patriotism and	civil liberties, the rule	those of the pro-democracy
political values	nationalism over	of law and political	camp plus prioritising
	individual rights	autonomy	Hong Kong's interests
Means of	N/A (as an ally of	Non-violent	Both violent and
contention	the Government)		non-violent
Degree of	Strong	Moderate	Weak
within-camp			
coordination			

544 2.2.2 Asylum seekers in Hong Kong

45 Hong Kong's policy regime

Regarding the legal framework and policies of assessing asylum claims and refugee recognition, the Hong Kong Government has a strong position of not making the city a destination for refugee resettlement. Although Hong Kong is a signatory of the 1992 United Nations Conventions Against Torture (UNCAT) which requires the Government to temporarily house asylum seekers and pro-549 cess torture-related asylum applications, the city has never signed the 1951 Refugee Convention 550 and thus has no legal obligations to permanently resettle asylum seekers and refugees within its 551 territory (Ng 2020). This remains true even after the implementation of the Unified Screening Mechanism (USM) in 2014 which made the Government become the sole handler of all the nonrefoulement claims, including those which had been previously handled by the UNHCR for refugee 554 status (Ng 2020; Unified Screening Mechanism Procedures 2021) . Instead, the Government re-555 iterates its lack of intention of determining individuals' refugee status and allowing refugees to 556 permanently settle in the city, while also claiming that the recognition and resettlement of refugees 557 should still be referred to the UNHCR "in accordance with its mandate" (Making a Claim for 558 Non-refoulement Protection in Hong Kong 2021), even though the UN agency states on its web-559 site that it would no longer process new refugee and asylum claims following the implementation of the USM (Unified Screening Mechanism Procedures 2021). Simply put, the official institutions responsible for assessing asylum applications in Hong Kong hardly have intention of making the city a destination of permanent resettlement for individuals fleeing from their countries because 563 of persecutions. 564 Even if the HKSAR Government is obliged to adjudicate non-refoulement applications as per 565 the UNCAT, the legal and social status of the asylum seekers are quite precarious while awaiting their application results. To begin with, individuals must wait until their visas expire in order to be eligible for non-refoulement applications and then have to report regularly to the Immigration Department (Unified Screening Mechanism Procedures 2021), an arrangement that Ng (2020) 569 considers as the Government's attempt to exclude asylum seekers from the rights granted to 570 legal residents in the city (e.g. working,) and receiving welfare supports through criminalisation. 571 Furthermore, the Immigration Department has the final authority to prosecute the asylum seekers 572 for having illegally overstayed beyond the validity of their visas, and officials frequently call

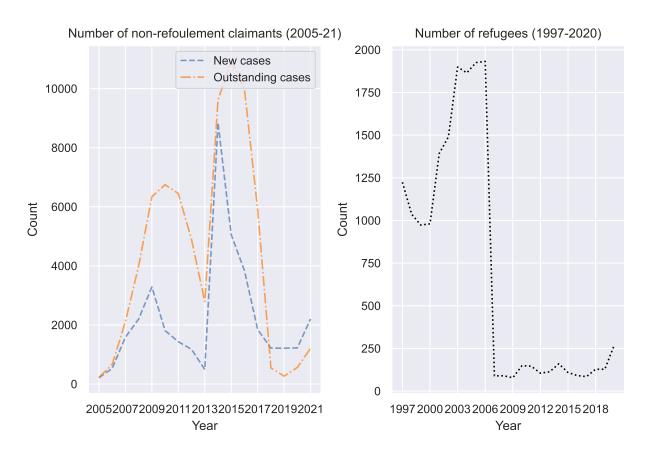


Figure 2.1: Number of non-refoulement claim cases (left) and refugees (right) in Hong Kong

these populations as *illegal immigrants* (often with racial labels) (Ng 2020). Coupled with the Government's refusal to recognise and resettle refugees in its territory, the institutional framework of asylum seeking in Hong Kong can thus be described as unwelcoming towards those who are fleeing from persecutions in their countries of origin, since these applicants not only have to first become illegal immigrants for eligibility to request non-refoulement, but also they are under the constant threat of being charged for their immigration status.

The HKSAR Government's unwelcoming stance towards asylum seekers and refugees is likely to be one of the major reasons for the low numbers of non-refoulement claims and refugees in the city since 2005. For instance, the left plot in figure 2.1 (*Enforcement | Statistics on Non-refoulement Claim* 2021) shows that the number of *new* non-refoulement claims submitted each year from 2005 to 2021 on average was lower than 4000, and the sudden rise of new applications to around 9000 instances in 2014 was more due to the implementation of the USM requiring the Government to also assess claims previously handled by the UNHCR than the commencement of

a more liberal asylum-seeking regime (Enforcement | Statistics on Non-refoulement Claim 2021) Likewise, the number of *outstanding* non-refoulement cases by year during the same period 588 generally surpassed that of new cases except from 2018, a few years after the USM had been 589 implemented. By 2018, non-refoulement claimants constituted to a mere 0.2% of Hong Kong's 590 total population of over 7 million, a figure considerably smaller when compared to a total of 3.5 591 million refugees in Asia as Ng (2020) contrasts. The right plot in figure 2.1 (Refugee Population by 592 Country or Territory of Asylum - Hong Kong SAR, China | Data 2021) shows how the number of refugees in Hong Kong has dramatically reduced to no more than 250 persons each year (save for 2020) since 2007 after the Government had closed the last refugee camp hosting Vietnamese who fled from the Vietnam War in the 1970s (Ng 2020) . Lastly, figure 2.2 (Enforcement | Statistics on Non-refoulement Claim 2021) indicates the nationalities of non-refoulement claimants, who mostly are from South and Southeast Asia, with a few from Africa as well. One particularly interesting insight from this graph is that despite the frequent racial labelling of non-refoulement claimants as South Asians by some media outlets (Ng, Choi, et al. 2019), it is actually Southeast **Asians** who constitute the largest proportion of non-refoulement claimants.

Responses by political camps

602

Given the extremely small number of non-refoulement claimants, the issue of asylum seeking regime in Hong Kong hadn't gained much attention until early 2016, after a senior Immigration Department official's accusation of the USM being abused during a TV interview in October 2015 and the subsequent propagation of two fabricated WhatsApp audios alleging asylum seekers as perpetrators of robberies and homicides in the New Territories district (Ng, Choi, et al. 2019) . Soon afterwards, coverage of asylum seekers by newspaper media has increased, with two pro-Beijing newspapers named *The Sun* (which ceased publication in April 2016) and *Oriental Daily* contributing to the largest proportion of articles which depict this group of vulnerable population as a source of social problems (e.g. committing crimes) which warrant stringent measures like detention camps as solutions (Ng, Choi, et al. 2019) .

Different opinions of how the Government should deal with the asylum seekers in the political

debate could also be classified according to political camps at the same time. On one side,

echoing with the HKSAR Government's already restrictive policies for assessing non-refoulement

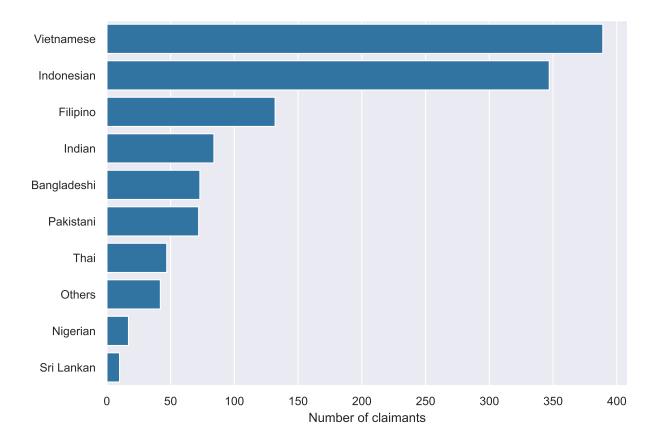


Figure 2.2: Number of non-refoulement claimants by nationality in 2021

claims, pro-Beijing camp politicians also create narratives that non-refoulement claimants and 616 asylum seekers are anything but genuine in the legislature. For instance, less than a year after 617 asylum seekers had gained salience in public debate, legislator Holden Chow submitted a motion 618 in November 2016 under the banner of "combating bogus refugees" who, among other sins, were 619 working illegally and/or committing crimes while calling for the revision of the USM and carrying out measures against illegal immigrants adopted by other countries (Yuen 2016). Some pro-Beijing parties also reach out to the public to sway the latter's opinion, such as the DAB¹ setting 622 up a booth in the ethnic-minority-concentrated Tsim Sha Tsui district to hand out pamphlets 623 about measures against "fake refugees" (Cheung and Grundy 2016). Perhaps the most dramatic 624 proposal of dealing with the so-called "fake refugee" issue by the pro-Beijing camp was the former 625 Chief Executive CY Leung's suggestion to withdraw from the UNCAT in 2016 so that Hong Kong 626 would not be obliged to assess non-refoulement claims anymore (Ng, Choi, et al. 2019). Coupled 627 with the high frequency of pro-Beijing media outlets in pejoratively portraying asylum seekers in 628 Hong Kong as mentioned earlier, the pro-Beijing camp promotes an unwelcoming rhetoric against asylum seekers that is consistent with the Government's refusal to permanently resettle refugees 630 and asylum seekers.

By contrast, the pro-democracy camp is less hostile towards non-refoulement claimants and 632 even advocates better treatment of these vulnerable individuals. When Holden Chow's motion 633 was tabled for voting in the legislature in December 2016, it was barely rejected due to the pro-634 democracy camp's opposition of Chow's motion as "hypocrisy and discrimination in disguise" 635 by indiscriminatingly applying the proposed "draconian measures" on all asylum seekers (Cheng 636 2016). Among all pro-democracy legislators, Dr Fernando Cheung was perhaps the most vocal in fighting for better treatments of asylum seekers in Hong Kong, as he met with non-refoulement claimants directly on several occasions while receiving approval from this group of population 639 (Justice Centre Hong Kong 2014; Vision First 2015; Refugee Union 2018). Indeed, legislator Cheung's prominent advocacy for the rights of asylum seekers had indirectly caused him to become 641 a victim of political smearing a few months before the 2016 Legislative Council election, as political 642 banners imposting legislator Cheung's party were seen hanging in streets which maliciously called the legislator "the father of refugees" (Ngo 2016) . It should also be noted that, nevertheless, a

¹A list of the 30 most prominent words in each of the topic and the code to generate it are available in the appendix.

more lenient attitude towards asylum seekers does not mean that the pro-democracy camp totally
disregards the perceived issue of bogus refugees. Even though legislator Charles Mok condemned
Holden Chow's motion against "bogus" refugees was "disturbing", he also attributed the most
responsibility of "bogus non-refoulement claims" to the Government due to the latter's inefficiency
and lack of knowledge in handling the issue (Cheng 2016). But in general, the pro-democracy
camp supports a more humane treatment towards non-refoulement claimants who are genuinely
in need of fleeing from their countries due to prosecution.

Lastly, the localist camp's stance on dealing with asylum seekers is less confrontational than that towards mainland Chinese. As one of the few localist lawmakers who were not disquali-653 fied in the oath-taking controversy by December 2016, Dr Cheng Chung-tai's speech on Holden 654 Chow's anti-fake-refugees motion had two points which worth highlighting (Hui4yi4 Guo4cheng? 655 2016) (p.1232-33). Firstly, he shared the pro-democracy camp's view of Zheng4shi4 Ji4lu4 656 the main reason for the so-called "bogus refugees" issue being the Government not allocating adequate resources to assess the claimants' applications. But the more intriguing point of view is how he framed Hong Kong's signatory status of the UNCAT as a proof of the city having its 659 own de-facto sovereignty from mainland China, and thus he opposed CY Leung's suggestion of 660 withdrawing from the treaty since it would signify Hong Kong's regression in civilisation to the 661 world. Interestingly, the localist camp's reservation of adopting more stringent measures against asylum seekers has drawn smear from some pro-Beijing medias, such as an editorial from the Sun (2016) accused the localists of "remaining silent" on non-refoulement claimants wasting public 664 resources of Hong Kong. 665

 $^{^2}$ For the complete documentation of the default parameters of the models used in this thesis, refer to the websites of scikit-learn and XGBoost Documentation — xgboost 1.5.1 documentation.

... Chapter 3

Methods

After reviewing both the theories of the impact of national identity on xenophobia as well as how political camps in Hong Kong imagine the city's national identity, how could we know the possible associations between each camp's definition of the city's national identity and its attitude towards asylum seekers who are mainly non-ethnic Chinese? This section will discuss the strategy of answering this question.

3.1 Hypotheses

Based on the aforementioned literature in the previous section, I will formulate hypotheses to be tested and explain why I expect them to go in certain directions. The main hypothesis to be tested will be:

H₁: Pro-Beijing media outlets are more likely to negatively portray asylum seekers
than media outlets from other political camps.

I expect the pro-Beijing camp news media to frame asylum seekers more negatively based on the literature on the relationship between national identity and xenophobia (e.g. Hjerm (1998) and Heath and Tilley (2005)) which states that a more ethnic-based conception of national identity is generally associated with a higher degree of xenophobia towards immigrants, of which asylum seekers is one of the (most vulnerable) subgroups of immigrants. Accordingly, since pro-Beijing politicians and officials (including the Chinese President *Xi Jinping* himself) (Lin and Jackson 2021) resort heavily to ethnic-based discourses for justifying Chineseness of the Hong Kong identity, pro-Beijing media outlets can be expected to hold more negative attitudes towards the mostly non-ethnic Chinese non-refoulement claimants. In particular, the pro-Beijing camp's
emphasis on how Hong Kong citizens belong to the greater Chinese national identity based on
shared ethnicity with mainland Chinese might lead to its affiliated media outlets to portray
asylum seekers as a threat to society since their ethnic distinctiveness marks them as ever-being
strangers of the family of the majority Chinese population as Erni (2012) describes.

By contrast, since the pro-democracy camp focuses more on civic values (e.g. civil liberties, the rule of law) while defining the Hong Kong identity, the non-Chineseness of asylum seekers should appear less threatening to the Hong Kong identity from the pro-democracy camp's point of view. Lastly, the localist camp's primary focus on the mainland-Hong-Kong division regarding the city's identity again prevents a clear direction for H₁ from being formulated beforehand.

3.2 Data collection

I will study news media reports on asylum seekers and non-refoulement claimants in Hong Kong 698 by local mass media during the year of 2019. Specifically, media publishing in Chinese in printed 699 format will be included in the data¹. For the retrieval of the relevant newspaper articles, I will 700 rely on the WiseNews database which can fetch news articles with search keywords published 701 in Hong Kong². While it would have been more ideal to also include online news media into 702 the dataset as Lee (2018) mentions that they have become quite prominent in the 2010s for 703 providing counter-narratives to the mainstream media which are often co-opted by the Chinese 704 Government³, WiseNews does not directly provide the texts of online media news article and thus 705 requires additional steps of web scrapping which are, unfortunately, beyond the author's capacity 706 by the time of writing. That being said, including only the printed news media during 2019 707 would still cover 16 of the well-known news media with associations to different political camps 708 according to the survey on media credibility by the Chinese University of Hong Kong (CUHK 709 2020). In other words, just searching for printed news media outlets still allows me to discover 710 whether the attitudes of reporting on asylum seekers by some of the most well-known and widely 711 circulated media outlets in Hong Kong might be related to their political associations.

¹A list of the 30 most prominent words in each of the topic and the code to generate it are available in the appendix.

²For the complete documentation of the default parameters of the models used in this thesis, refer to the websites of scikit-learn and XGBoost Documentation — xgboost 1.5.1 documentation.

³The code for tuning the model can be found in the appendix.

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The reason for choosing to collect media reports published in 2019 is because it was when 713 the Anti-Extradition Law Amendment protest first broke out in June and then lasted for several 714 months, a period when one can argue the manifestation of political ideologies should be the most salient for all the political camps. This should indeed be the case for both the pro-democracy 716 camp whose supporters participated in several large-scale protests and sometimes even engaged 717 in numerous violent clashes with the Hong Kong police to oppose a law that would have permit-718 ted extradition of fugitives to mainland China, and the pro-Beijing camp whose authority was once again immensely challenged after the 2014 Umbrella Movement. Accordingly, it would be 720 interesting to investigate whether the issue of asylum seekers still remained its salience and was 721 reported in similar manners given the co-occurrence of another arguably more salient political 722 event (i.e. the anti-Extradition Law protests), as compared to when the issue first had become prominent back in 2016. Specifically, analysing newspaper articles in 2019 provides an oppor-724 tunity to observe whether and how asylum seekers in Hong Kong might be represented by the 725 media in tandem with major political events. 726

It is worth discussing some of the limitations of using media reports as the data for this 727 thesis. For starters, media reports do not necessarily reflect how individuals identifying with each political camp might perceive asylum seekers directly and might not be fit for investigating 729 the causal mechanism of how definition of Hong Kong's national identity may cause a political 730 camp to frame asylum seekers in particular ways. Despite these shortcomings, media reports 731 can still adequately help prompt the hypothesis of whether depictions of asylum seekers in Hong Kong might be associated with their political camp's definition of the city's national identity. In 733 fact, previous research about the framing of asylum seekers by mass media (Cooper et al. 2017; 734 McKay et al. 2011; Ng, Choi, et al. 2019; O'Doherty and Lecouteur 2007) point to its potential impact on affecting how the public may perceive the issue via being a major provider of related information, and sometimes these media reports may even serve to justify policymaking or reflect 737 the government's position on the issue. Drawing from Fong (2017a) and Lee (2018), the media industry in Hong Kong is quite remarked for their political stances, and quite a number of outlets have their owners being affiliated with the Chinese and/or HKSAR Governments. Therefore, reports published by media outlets should be able to reflect political camps' attitudes towards

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asylum seekers and, perhaps more importantly, the version of framing that they would like to persuade their readers to accept, thereby making them a suitable data source to test the hypotheses proposed above.

Language-wise, including only Chinese-language news media omits how asylum seekers may 745 be represented by English-language media in Hong Kong (e.g. the South China Morning Post) and 746 thus cannot investigate whether the representation of asylum seekers by media outlets to potential 747 non-Chinese audience may also vary based on each outlet's political affiliation. Moreover, solely focusing on textual content of the media reports means discarding graphical and (if also published online) audio-visual materials accompanied in a given news report, which may contain additional 750 information that are not observed in the texts of news articles. Nevertheless, analysing the textual 751 content of the media reports should still yield a considerable amount of information about the 752 representation of asylum seekers in Hong Kong by media outlets linked to different political camps, 753 since after all a large proportion of the content in news reports are represented textually. 754

To search for relevant media reports on WiseNews, I will refer to the keywords used by 755 Ng, Choi, et al. (2019) which refer to the group of population-in-interest. These terms can 756 either be directly describing this group of population (e.g. refugees, illegal immigrants) or policies 757 related to asylum seeking (e.g. non-refoulement claim, immigration paper). Table 3.1 lists all the Chinese terms used for searching the relevant news articles on WiseNews and their meanings in English. Additional notes are used for indicating whether some articles were omitted and 760 why. The author also omitted articles only mentioning the keywords briefly throughout the main 761 text which discusses issues not directly related to asylum seekers. As for the keywords "South 762 Asian", "illegal immigration" and "human snake", the author only included news entries fetched from these keywords if at least one of the other keywords directly referring to asylum seekers 764 (i.e. non-refoulement claim(ant), torture claim(ant), asylum seeking, refugee and immigration 765 paper) co-appeared in either the title or main text. This is to ensure that the news articles in 766 the dataset are obviously describing non-refoulement claimants in Hong Kong.

Table 3.1: Translation of the keywords used to search for media reports on WiseNews

Original terms		
in Chinese		
pinyin	Literal meaning in English	Notes
mian3 qian3fan3 sheng1qing3	Non-refoulement claim(ant)	
ku4xing2 sheng1qing3	Torture claim(ant)	
fei1fa3 ru4jing4, ren2she2	Illegal immigration, human snake (alias of illegal immigrants)	Excluded illegal immigration from mainland China
xun2qiu2 bi4hu4	Asylum seeking	Excluded asylum seekers <i>outside of Hong</i> Kong
nan4min2	Refugee	Excluded refugees <i>outside of Hong Kong</i> and Hong Kong activists seeking refuge overseas
nan2ya4	South Asian	Articles about the South Asian region are excluded.
xing2 jie1 zhi3	Immigration paper	Documents issued by the Immigration Department to non-refoulement claimants.

768 3.3 Modelling

Since the period under study spans for the year 2019, the dataset contains almost 700 articles in total which would be extremely time- and resource-consuming to qualitatively analyse each article line by line, whereas only focusing on a small subset of the articles may risk losing generalisability. 771 On the other hand, while it is true that using human coding (whether it be done by trained experts or crowd coding platforms) for sentiment analysis will be likely to yield the most accurate results as van Atteveldt et al. (2021) have noted, doing so will be too resource-intensive for a master-774 level thesis, and this method may also fall short of reliability, i.e. how other researchers may 775 replicate the study if wanted. Despite some of the caveats listed by van Atteveldt et al. (2021) (e.g. accidentally identifying spurious relationships between variables, problem of overfitting) 777 which can be remedied with corresponding solutions, I will use supervised machine learning to test the hypothesis. This means H_1 will be treated as a sentiment analysis problem which classifies the polarity of the news articles (i.e. whether they reported on asylum seekers positively, 780 neutrally or negatively). How the independent (both the media outlet's political camp and other 781 controls) and dependent variables are operationalised and coded will be discussed in the next section, and for now I will talk about what kinds of tools and models will be used for the analysis.

Starting with the models that will be used for the analysis, I will rely on some commonly 784 used classification models. Candidate models include logistic regression, support vector machine 785 (SVM), random forest and gradient boosting. Although van Atteveldt et al. (2021) also mention that deep learning is another popular choice of machine learning model for sentiment analysis 787 tasks, I did not use such a model for this paper due to the relatively small size of the dataset at 788 hand as well as the difficulty of interpreting the features' impact on the dependent variable directly 789 from neural network models. I will first run some baseline models with the default parameter settings of the models, and then select the one for further tuning based on their performance 791 on the log loss of the validation set (or test set). To decide whether I should use the tuned or 792 baseline model for interpretation later, I will also look at the f1 score (or the harmonic mean of 793 precision and recall) between the two versions. The model version which overall obtains a higher fl score across all the classes in the dependent variable will then be used for calculating the SHAP795 values of the features (Lundberg 2022) which evaluate how much impact each feature has on the 796 model prediction when the features is at certain values versus at its baseline value. In essence, 797 the higher the SHAP value of a feature, the higher its impact of the model's prediction.

In order to pre-process the articles into suitable formats as machine learning model inputs, I will also transform the news articles into a term-document matrix which records the frequency 800 of each word (i.e. token) appearing in each article (i.e. document). Instead of using a simple 801 bag-of-word approach, I will use the term-frequency inverse-document-frequency (TF-IDF) ma-802 trix transformation which also considers in how many documents a word appears out of all the 803 documents in the corpus. This is because words that appear too frequently across all the docu-804 ments in the corpus may not convey much meaning of each doucment and thus should be treated 805 as stop words. Due to the relatively small size of the dataset (with only around 550 articles), I will also adopt non-negative matrix factorisation (NMF) to reduce the dimensionality of the dataset to prevent overfitting. According to Stevens et al. (2012) (p.953), the matrix denoted as 808 H which captures the weight of each topic (as columns) in each document (as rows) of the corpus 809 can help summarise the information of the articles in terms of which topic(s) they primarily focus 810 on. Thus, I will use NMF to transform the TF-IDF matrix into another which summarises the news articles into a certain number of pre-defined latent topics (the exact number will be figured

out in the preprocessing section later), and then use this matrix as part of the inputs for the models.

The majority of the implementation from data preprocessing, modelling to validation will be done via the scikit-learn package in Python (Pedregosa et al. 2011), whereas the tokenisation of the Chinese-language news articles will be done by the jieba package which is designed for natural language processing in Chinese (Junyi 2021). For better tokenisation of the articles, I will also remove stop words, punctuations and hyper-links of the texts and add words related to Hong Kong politics (downloaded from elgarteo (2021)) and asylum seekers into the dictionary. As for the gradient boosting model, the XGBoost package

@chen Xgboost Extreme Gradient 2015

will be used since it is one of the most renowned machine learning models in data science, and it
also offers a lot of options for tuning the model for better performance.

3.4 Operationalisation

3.4.1 Main independent variable

Starting from the main independent variable which classifies the associated political camp of the media outlets, I will mainly refer to the literature exploring how Hong Kong's media industry is intertwined with politics and perform additional research when needed. I consulted the articles by Fong (2017a) and Lee (2018) on the development of post-1997 Hong Kong's media industry, of which they have documented the co-optation of Hong Kong media outlets by the Chinese Government (e.g. the major shareholders holding positions in such as Chinese People's Political 824 Consultative Conference). Building on the concept of "allocative control" (p.11) by Lee (2018) 825 about media outlet owners having the ultimate decision on the personnel and resources at the newsroom's disposal for reporting news which may lead to self-censorship of the frontline journal-827 ists, I will code media outlets whose owners are affiliated with the official Chinese and/or Hong 828 Kong Government organisations as belonging to the pro-Beijing camp. As for those media owners 829 with less apparent links with the Chinese or Hong Kong Governments, I will decide the classifi-830 cation according to whether the owners are known to be affiliated with a certain political camp and how a given media outlet is perceived for its political stance. Media outlets without apparent

political stances are labelled as "neutral". *Table 3.2* is the resulting classification scheme. Note that due to the medium of publication of localist news media being almost exclusively online, none of the outlets in that camp was included in the dataset. Therefore, it would not be possible to examine how the localist media outlets might report on asylum seekers and non-refoulement claimants in news articles.

Table 3.2: Classification of the associated political camp of media outlets in Hong Kong included into the sample, source: Fong (2017a); Lee (2018); author's own research

Associated political camp	Media outlets		
Pro-Beijing camp (directly owned by	Wen Wei Po, Hong Kong Government News, Hong		
the Liaison Office or the HKSAR	Kong Commercial Daily, Ta Kung Pao		
Government)			
Pro-Beijing Camp (owners affiliated	Oriental Daily News, Sing Tao Daily, Sing Pao,		
with political institutions on	Headline Daily, Hong Kong Economic Journal, Hong		
mainland China/ HKSAR	Kong Economic Times, am730, Sky Post, HK01		
Government)	Newspaper		
Pro-Democracy camp	Apple Daily, Kung Kao Po		
Localist camp	N/A		
Neutral	Metro Daily, Ming Pao Daily News		

3.4.2 Dependent variable

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As mentioned before, the dependent variable of H₁ will be the sentiment of the news articles 839 towards asylum seekers in the polarities of positive, neutral and negative. But how exactly should 840 these three polarities mean in this context? Again referring to the literature can help devise a 841 sound coding scheme. Drawing McKay et al. (2011), Cooper et al. (2017) and Ng, Choi, et al. 842 (2019), positive articles usually acclaim the person or event in concern, describe personal stories, 843 report expert opinions without derogatory terms or depict refugees favourably, neutral articles 844 simply report an incident without an overt sentiment or opinion towards particular stakeholders 845 and with little interpretation by the journalists, and negative articles frame asylum seekers either as bringing problems to the host society or use inaccurate terms to delegitimise this group of population. I will follow these coding criteria for the polarities of the news articles in the dataset since these definitions suit the purpose of this study. The numerical representation of the polarities in the dataset will be as follows, namely, positive articles will be coded as 2, neutral articles will 850 be coded as 1, and negative articles will be coded as 0. 851

For the context of Hong Kong about the "incorrect" terms and information used for describing

asylum seekers, I will refer to expert opinions about whether descriptions of asylum seekers in

Hong Kong are founded⁴. For example, Ng, Choi, et al. (2019) point out that the term "fake/bogus 854 refugees" (jia3 nan4min2) should be considered as both derogatory and inaccurate because those 855 applying for non-refoulement claims are not automatically qualified as refugees while awaiting the final decisions of their applications. Therefore, the polarity of news articles in which the news 857 media directly refers non-refoulement claimants as "fake refugees" in its reportage will be coded 858 as negative, but the report should be coded at least as neutral instead if the news outlet is merely 859 quoting someone who describes non-refoulement claimants as "fake refugees". Furthermore, Ng (2020) mentions that non-refoulement claimants are forced to be illegal immigrants by the policy 861 design of the HKSAR Government so that this group of population can be excluded from social 862 rights that legal residents enjoy. News articles equating non-refoulement claimants as illegal immigrants will thus also be coded as negative since such reportage is justifying the exclusion of non-refoulement claimants by resorting to their illegality that had been forced upon by the HKSAR Government. 866

867 3.4.3 Control variables

I will also incorporate some control variables to see if the association between political camps and polarities of the news articles still remains significant afterwards. For starters, the time when the 869 articles were published will be included as a control, though I will bin the twelve months into four 870 evenly split quarters (Quarter) with the first quarter beginning in January and ending in March. 871 Since 2019 was also the year when one of the most large-scale and long-lasting pro-democracy 872 protests broke out, It would be interesting to see how asylum seekers may be portrayed during the peak of the protest. Moreover, the presence of racial labels will be included as a control, 874 since it is possible that more overtly racialised discourses may be associated with more negative 875 sentiments towards asylum seekers in general according to the literature. This variable will be named Racial_label in the dataset and will be binary, with 1 meaning there is presence of racial labels in the main text and 0 otherwise. Racial labels referring to both regional (e.g. South Asia, 878 Africa) and national (e.g. the nationalities included in figure 2.2) will be counted. Lastly, the 879 metadata of the news articles, namely the character counts of titles and main texts, will also be 880

⁴A detailed discussion of the validity of the depiction of asylum seekers in Hong Kong can be found in Ng (2020) and Ng, Choi, et al. (2019).

$\it 3.\ Methods$

added to see if the lengths of the articles may be associated with the sentiment towards asylum seekers.

Chapter 4

Results

After the data collection process, there were in total 557 articles published in 2019 by 16 newspapers which reported on non-refoulement claimants residing in Hong Kong. In this section, I will first explore the data set, and then move onto sentiment analysis with machine learning models to find out whether the political camp of media outlets is associated with the polarity of the news articles towards asylum seekers.

4.1 Exploratory data analysis (EDA)

4.1.1 How does the number of news articles vary by political camps and month?

Starting with the number of articles by media outlets as shown in the left plot of figure 4.1, 893 consistent with the study by Ng, Choi, et al. (2019), Oriental Daily News continues to be the media 894 outlet covering the most frequently on asylum seekers with 384 (or 68.94%) articles throughout 895 2019. By contrast, the second-most frequent publisher Sing Tao Daily only had 45 entries (or 8.08%) of the total number of articles published. Each of the other newspaper outlets only constituted to a small portion of news articles about non-refoulement claimants in 2019. Therefore, the issue of asylum seekers in Hong Kong still appeared to be the most salient for Oriental Daily News by 2019, evidenced by its unmatched volume of articles related to this topic vis-a-vis other 900 media outlets. 901 On a higher level of political stance, the right plot of figure 4.1 indicates that largely due to 902 the huge volume of articles by Oriental Daily News, the pro-Beijing camp dominated the coverage 903 of asylum seekers in Hong Kong in 2019. Meanwhile, both neutral and pro-democracy newspaper 904

outlets published similar amounts of articles throughout 2019, and both camps constituted to

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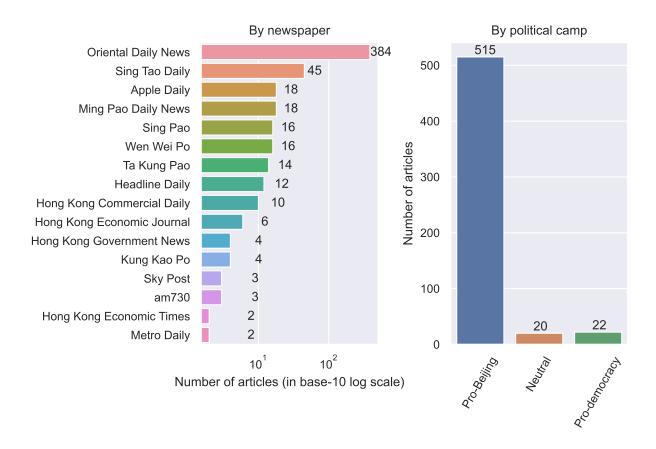
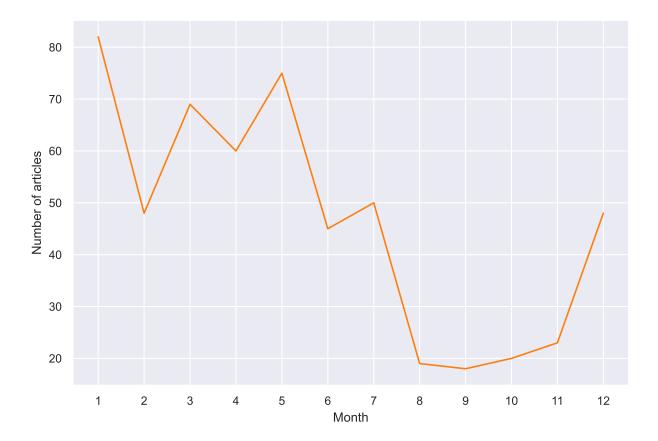


Figure 4.1: News articles on asylum seekers in 2019 by news outlet (left) and political camp (right)

small proportions of the share of articles during the year. Even if we omitted the sheer volume
of articles published by Oriental Daily News, the pro-Beijing media would still have 173 articles
published altogether which was still considerably more than the quantity of articles by neutral
and pro-democracy media outlets.

It will also be intriguing to see how the number of articles might vary by month in 2019. As noted before, the anti-extradition law protest lasted mostly from June to November when numerous large-scale clashes between protesters and the police occurred. From figure 4.2, it appears that coincidentally, there were the fewest amounts of articles about asylum seekers published between August and November when some of the most intense clashes (notably the siege of the Hong Kong Polytechnic University in November 2019) took place.

In short, the majority of news articles about non-refoulement claimants in Hong Kong in 2019 were published by pro-Beijing media outlets, of which a huge proportion was from Oriental Daily News. Moreover, the number of articles by month was the lowest from August to November when



 $\textbf{Figure 4.2:} \ \ \textbf{Temporal patterns of the publication of news articles about asylum seekers in Hong Kong in 2019$

Table 4.1: Polarities of the news articles on asylum seekers in Hong Kong in 2019

	Negative	Neutral	Positive	All
Neutral	0	12	8	20
Pro-Beijing	402	108	5	515
Pro-democracy	0	11	11	22
All	402	131	24	557

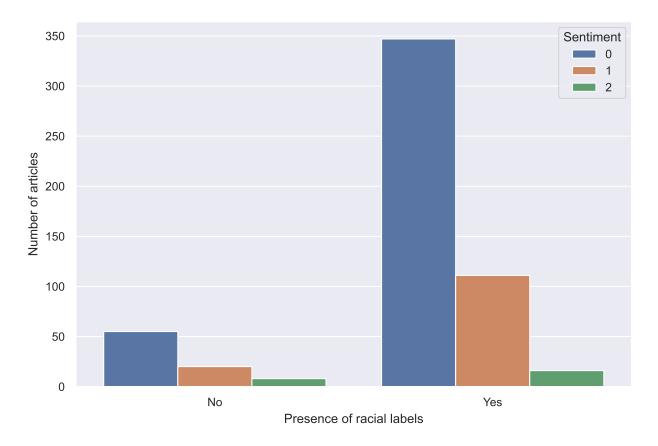
the anti-extradition law witnessed some of the most large-scale and intense clashes.

4.1.2 Polarities of the news articles

According to table 4.1, the polarity of the news articles about asylum seekers in Hong Kong in 2019 tilted towards negative, since only around 4.3% and 23.5% of articles respectively depicted 922 asylum seekers positively and neutrally. The fact that the sentiment of the news articles in 923 2019 was skewed towards negativity implies that I will need to take class imbalance into account 924 for modelling later. Political-camp-wise, pro-Beijing media outlets had over 70% of its articles 925 depicting asylum seekers in Hong Kong in negative lights, whereas neutral and pro-democracy media outlets had their reportage evenly spread between neutral and positive articles (albeit they 927 altogether constituted to only a small proportion of the total number of articles in 2019). While 928 H₁ shall be tested formally with machine learning models after including other control variables 929 later, preliminary evidence suggests that the polarities of the news articles vary with the political camp that the outlets belong to. 931

4.1.3 Presence of racial labels

Given the majority of asylum seekers in Hong Kong being non-ethnic Chinese, it will also be worth glimpsing whether the presence of racial labels for describing asylum seekers is associated with the sentiment of the news articles. Judging from figure 4.3 preliminarily, however, it appears that the patterns of the polarities are quite similar whether news articles contain racial labels or not, namely, most of the articles framed non-refoulement claimants negatively, some reported on events about this group of population neutrally, and only a small amount of articles were favourable towards asylum seekers residing in the city. In any case, the machine learning models can add the presence of racial labels as a control variable to test this potential association more formally later.



 ${\bf Figure~4.3:}~{\bf Presence~of~racial~labels~in~the~news~articles~by~sentiment \\$

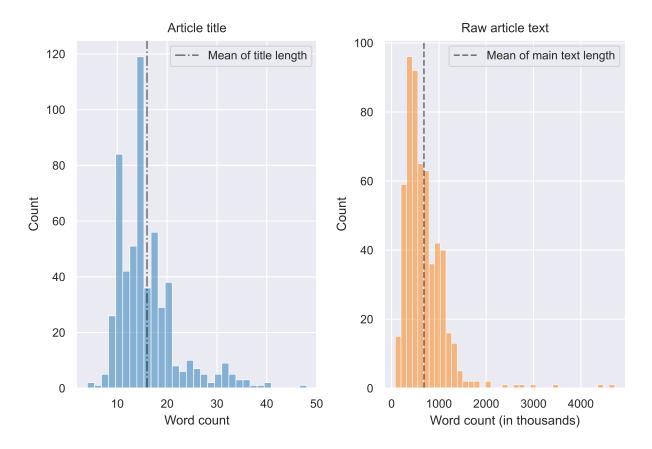


Figure 4.4: Distributions of the word counts of the articles' titles (left) and main texts (right)

4.1.4 Character lengths of news articles and titles

Lastly, let's look at the distribution of the character lengths of the titles and main texts of the news articles. According to figure 4.4 and table 4.2, it appears that both the title and main text lengths have right-skewed distributions. In other words, while most of the news articles on asylum seekers in Hong Kong in 2019 had relatively short titles and/or main texts, a few of them were considerably more verbose than the rest of the articles.

4.2 Sentiment analysis

4.2.1 Preprocessing

After making sense of the dataset with EDA, it is time to build the sentiment analysis model to see whether the political affiliation of news media outlets is associated with the polarities of the news articles after controlling for other variables. But first there are some preprocessing steps to be done so that the data are transformed into suitable formats as inputs for machine learning

Table 4.2: Summary statistics of the word counts of the news articles' titles and main texts

	Title	Raw main text
count	557.000000	557.0000
mean	15.965889	683.9264
std	5.993154	453.9607
min	4.000000	80.0000
25%	12.000000	404.0000
50%	15.000000	581.0000
75%	18.000000	893.0000
max	48.000000	4715.0000

models. For starters, columns of the metadata should be excluded for being the inputs of the models. Note that I have also removed the Newspaper column since H₁ is more interested in whether newspaper outlets of the pro-Beijing camp *as a whole* may hold more negative attitudes towards asylum seekers in Hong Kong vis-a-vis media outlets with other political stances. The removed metadata columns are: Index, Date, Category, Page_number and Newspaper.

Furthermore, I have binned Month into four even split yearly quarters (Quarter) to reduce the dimensionality of the dataset. A further note on the categorical features is that they will need to be transformed via one-hot encoding, meaning that each of them will be transformed into n variables, with n being the number of the original distinct values. Meanwhile, it would also be better to standardise the numerical features (i.e. other than Political_camp and Quarter) by centering theirs means at 0 for better model convergence, but the standardiser should only be fitted on the training set after splitting the data into the training and validation sets in order to avoid data leakage (the same is also true for creating the TF-IDF matrix).

The next step is to transform both the titles and main texts of the articles into a TF-IDF term-document matrix. Apart from joining the Title and Text columns together as the complete Article, I will also add additional words into the dictionary and remove stop words as well as punctuation for better tokenisation so that the NMF model can better discover the latent topics.

To avoid data leakage as mentioned before, I will only fit the TfidfVectorizer and the NMF models on the train set (i.e. X_train) and then use the fitted instances to transform both the train and test sets. I set the number of latent topics (n_components) as 10 for the NMF model, and this is decided based on figure 4.5 which plots the reconstruction error measuring the difference of the values between the original TF-IDF matrix and the reconstructed version after NMF. Although there are certainly other valid choices of the number of latent topics to be discovered by NMF, 10

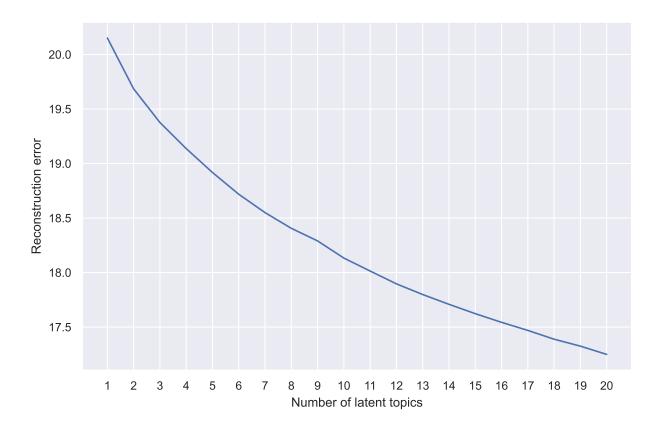


Figure 4.5: Elbow plot of the reconstruction error of NMF as a function of the number of pre-specified latent topics

appears to be a reasonable choice as a compromise between finding out a wide variety of topics in the corpus and not fitting too much into the noise of the data.

In order to make the latent topics generated by the NMF model be named more intuitive, I will inspect the 30 most prominent words of each latent topic and then summarise each topic. Overall, the ten topics generated by NMF are more or less semantically coherent and can be summed up concisely. Finally, I will transform the validation set's articles with the fitted instance of the TF-IDF and NMF models on the training set. The ten latent topics that were discovered by the NMF model are: crimes, non-refoulement policy, illegal labours, illegal gambling, drugs, illegal immigration, murder, robbery, South Asian settlements and public security.

 $^{^{1}\}mathrm{A}$ list of the 30 most prominent words in each of the topic and the code to generate it are available in the appendix.

Table 4.3: Log loss on 5-fold cv and test set for the 4 baseline models

	5-fold cv log loss	Test set log loss
Logistic regression	0.4648889	0.3495389
SVM	0.4416793	0.3371468
Random forest	0.3805292	0.3466180
XGBoost classifier	0.3863108	0.2859553

986 4.2.2 Training the model

After the above preprocessing steps, it is time to train a model that adequately predicts the relations between the features and the sentiment of the articles before finding out the importance of the political camp as the main independent variable. To facilitate the decision of which model to use and model tuning, I will first run some baseline models with the default hyper-parameters, except that I have adjusted the weights of each class in the dependent variable due to class imbalance and also tweaked the n_estimators of the XGBoost model to 15 instead of the default value of 200 to prevent the model from being too big². Moreover, tree-based models (i.e. random forest and xgboost) do not necessarily need to have the numerical features standardised, and thus only the categorical columns need to be one-hot encoded. The baseline models will be compared based on their performance on log loss in 5-fold cross validation and on the testing set.

Table 4.3 contains the performance of the log loss on both the 5-fold cross validation and test set log loss scores for the four baseline models. Judging by the performance of log loss on the test 998 set, it seems that the XGBoost model performs the best out of all candidates. I will then perform 999 hyper-parameter tuning of the XGBoost model to see if there could be any improvements of its 1000 performance³. Surprisingly, the tuned XGBoost model has a higher log loss on the test data than 1001 the pre-tuned one. If we look at the per-class f1 score in tables 4.4 and 4.5, however, we can 1002 see that the tuned XGBoost model performs considerably better in the f1 score for predicting 1003 whether a news article's polarity is positive or not (i.e., class 2). Therefore, I will use the tuned 1004 model as the basis of interpreting the impact of the features on predicting the sentiments of the 1005 news articles about asylum seekers in Hong Kong in 2019. 1006

²For the complete documentation of the default parameters of the models used in this thesis, refer to the websites of scikit-learn and XGBoost Documentation — xgboost 1.5.1 documentation.

³The code for tuning the model can be found in the appendix.

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Table 4.4: Classification report of the baseline XGBoost model

	precision	recall	f1-score	support
0	0.8953	0.9506	0.9222	81.000
1	0.7826	0.6923	0.7347	26.000
2	1.0000	0.6000	0.7500	5.000
accuracy	0.8750	0.8750	0.8750	0.875
macro avg	0.8927	0.7476	0.8023	112.000
weighted avg	0.8738	0.8750	0.8710	112.000

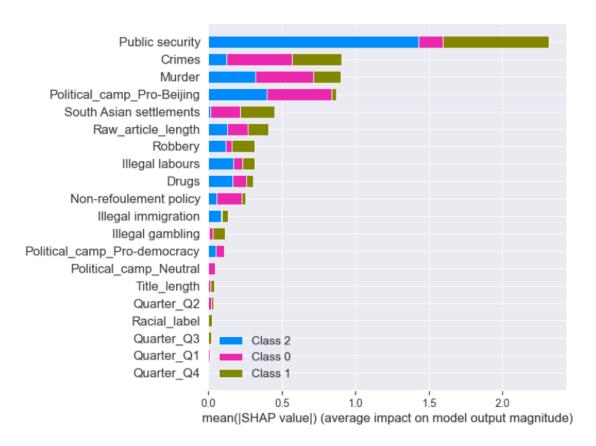
Table 4.5: Classification report of the tuned XGBoost model

	precision	recall	f1-score	support
0	0.9259	0.9259	0.9259	81.0000
1	0.7407	0.7692	0.7547	26.0000
2	1.0000	0.8000	0.8889	5.0000
accuracy	0.8839	0.8839	0.8839	0.8839
macro avg	0.8889	0.8317	0.8565	112.0000
weighted avg	0.8862	0.8839	0.8845	112.0000

4.2.3 Is the pro-Beijing camp more likely to portray asylum seekers in 2019 more negatively than other outlets?

With the trained model at hand, we can now answer whether H₁ is supported by the model's 1009 results using SHAP values. According to figure 4.6, we can see that on the level of the whole XG-1010 Boost model, whether a media belongs to the pro-Beijing camp or not (Political_camp_Pro-Beijing) 1011 is the fourth most important features in predicting the sentiment of a news article, only being 1012 lower than the magnitudes of three themes of the news articles about asylum seekers (i.e., public 1013 security, murder and crimes). Specifically, pro-Beijing affiliation has the second largest mag-1014 nitude in affecting the prediction of whether a news article has a negative narrative against 1015 non-refoulement claimants, as one can see the pink bar representing the impact of a feature on 1016 predicting class 0 in the model is the second longest for the Political_camp_Pro-Beijing feature 1017 (only behind that of the theme Crimes in the articles). Let's zoom into the SHAP values plot for predicting class 0.

The beeswarm plot in figure 4.7 zooms into the importance of each feature in predicting whether a news article on asylum seekers has a negative (coded as \emptyset) polarity, and features appearing at the top of the y-axis are deemed more important than those at the lower end of the y-axis. In a SHAP value beeswarm plot, dots in red mean the value of a feature is high (or present in case of a binary feature, e.g. one-hot-encoded columns), whereas those in blue mean the value of a feature is low (or absent in the case of a binary feature). As one can see, not only is



 $\textbf{Figure 4.6:} \ \ \textbf{Overall SHAP values of the features in the tuned XGBoost model}$

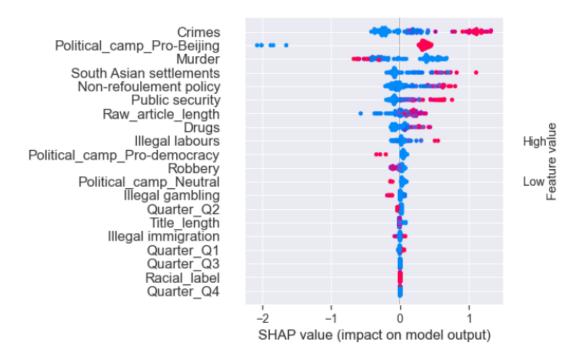


Figure 4.7: The SHAP values of the features in the prediction of whether an article has a negative polarity

the affiliation to pro-Beijing camp the second most determinant feature in predicting whether a news article has negative polarity, but such affiliation will also increase the probability of a news articles portraying asylum seekers in negative lights.

If we inquire further in figures 4.8 and 4.9 about the impact of the features on the predictions of neutral and positive articles respectively, then some interesting observations arise. Firstly, pro-Beijing affiliation is not a very prominent feature in affecting the prediction of whether a news article is simply reporting on news related to asylum seekers objectively without much added sentiment and interpretation by the journalists, as figure 4.8 shows that the Political_camp_Pro-Beijing only occupies the middle layer of the y-axis and does not have a significant magnitude in affecting the prediction. By contrast, pro-Beijing affiliation of a media outlet once again is the second most important feature for the prediction of whether an article depicts asylum seekers in Hong Kong favourably. In particular, pro-Beijing media outlets are less likely to have positive reportage on non-refoulement claimants vis-a-vis media outlets from other camps.

Based on the SHAP values of the features as shown in figures 4.6-4.9, we can therefore conclude that H_1 is supported by the evidence produced from the above sentiment analysis on the articles

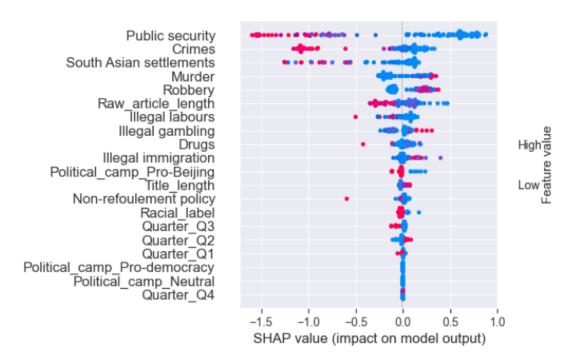


Figure 4.8: The SHAP values of the features in the prediction of whether an article has a neutral polarity

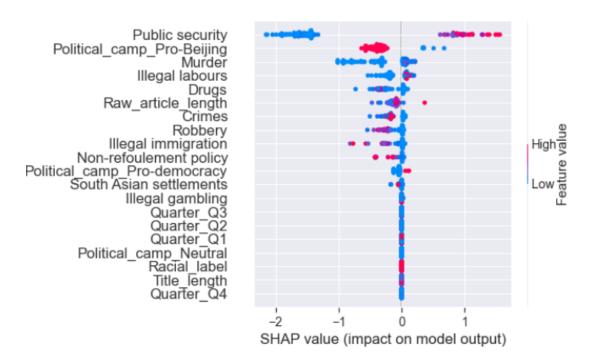


Figure 4.9: The SHAP values of the features in the prediction of whether an article has a positive polarity

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about asylum seekers in Hong Kong in 2019. Specifically, pro-Beijing media outlets are more 1042 likely to frame asylum seekers negatively by using incorrect terms such as "fake refuges" to refer 1043 to this group of population or criticising them as social ills, and these media outlets are quite 1044 unlikely to have favourable reportage on non-refoulement claimants.

Here are also some notable observations about other features in the dataset. For starters, it 1046 seems that when news articles are related to the topic of Public security, then their polarities are 1047 less likely to be neutral, meaning that such reportage is likely to be loaded with interpretations by 1048 the media outlets. Referring to figures 4.7 and 4.9, in general, articles which link non-refoulement 1049 claimants with the frame of public security are less likely to have positive polarity. Relatedly, 1050 articles reporting on crimes with involvement by non-refoulement claimants are likely to have 1051 negative tones. 1052

Surprisingly, racial labels was not an informative feature in predicting the sentiment of the 1053 articles. One potential reason may be that the connotation between non-ethnic Chineseness and non-refoulement claimants is quite salient that these two categories may to some extent be used interchangeably, or the media find it difficult to not mention both at the same time no matter the sentiment or attitudes towards asylum seekers in Hong Kong.

Chapter 5

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Conclusion

In conclusion, it is found that at least in 2019, the political camp of media outlets was associated with their attitudes towards asylum seekers in Hong Kong. Specifically,

• I will sum up the findings after editing the main sections

1063 5.1 How might the instigation of the National Security Law affect the public discourse on asylum seekers in Hong Kong?

Just a year after the anti-extradition law protest had started and once again mobilised a huge 1066 section of Hong Kong's society against the authority, the HKSAR Government promulgated the 1067 National Security Law in July 2020 which aims to tighten the control over the political landscape 1068 of Hong Kong. As a result, non-pro-Beijing forces have witnessed their political influence being 1069 severely restricted, both in official institutions and the society. Even though the Legislative 1070 Council had been one of the few avenues where pro-democracy activists and politicians could 1071 run for office (despite lacking substantive authority to participate in policymaking by proposing 1072 bills), with the conclusion of the recent 2021 Legislative Council election after an overhaul of the 1073 electoral system which essentially permits candidacy only to the "patriots" loyal to the Beijing 1074 and HKSAR Governments (Lau and Yam 2021), the door for pro-democracy camp to advocate 1075 alternative political discourses has been shut. This means when pro-Beijing lawmakers propose 1076 non-binding bills to combat the so-called "fake refugee" problems as Holden Chow did back in 1077 2016 (Cheng 2016), such bills will very unlikely be opposed by others, and the voting results

5. Conclusion

on the however unbinding bills may then be used by the Government to justify more stringent measures against non-refoulement claimants.

Even the presence of alternative media which strive to provide an alternative narrative of 1081 news contrary to the state-coopted mainstream media as Lee (2018) describes may not be the 1082 case anymore. In June 2021, the flagship pro-democracy newspaper Apple Daily was forced to 1083 shut down after the HKSAR Government had frozen the media outlet's asset under the pretext 1084 of violating the National Security Law (Tan 2021). Just days before the year 2021 ended, the 1085 popular pro-democracy online media Stand News had to shut down as well after the Hong Kong 1086 police raided its office and arrested senior staff (Ng and Pomfret 2021), followed by the closure of 1087 another online pro-democracy news outlets days after ("Hong Kong" 2022). It is likely that more 1088 alternative media may be pressured to defunct in the future as well due to the threat from the 1089 National Security Law, and this implies that alternative discourses will exist in the media industry 1090 of Hong Kong. Consequently, since the pro-Beijing camp media in general are more hostile to non-refoulement claimants, it is likely that Hong Kong's media landscape will be dominated by 1092 more negative rhetoric towards asylum seekers in the city given that pro-democracy outlets are 1093 now finding increasing difficulties to operate without running into legal repercussion. 1094

Appendix: The Echoes of the Code

The goal of this appendix is to echo the code you used in your thesis for a greater sense of transparency and replicability of your research. Note that ref.labels can be set to any label.

Hence, you can filter the code you want replicated in the appendix by setting labels to the desired code chunks in the various chapters. See this excellent resource for more information.

This might be particularly useful when you perform model selection to output intermediary steps here instead of in the code to avoid cluttering your report.

Appendix: The Echoes of the Code redux

Add as many appendices as you like.

```
from hyperopt import fmin, hp, tpe, Trials
xgb_space = {
  "n_estimators": hp.quniform("n_estimators", 10, 50, 5),
  "max_depth": hp.quniform("max_depth", 2, 6, 1),
  "learning_rate": hp.quniform("learning_rate", 0.01, 0.3, 0.01),
  "gamma": hp.quniform("gamma", 0.1, 10, 0.1),
  "min_child_weight": hp.quniform("min_child_weight", 1, 10, 1),
  "subsample": hp.quniform("subsample", 0.5, 0.9, 0.1),
  "colsample_bytree": hp.quniform("colsample_bytree", 0.5, 0.9, 0.1),
  "reg_lambda": hp.quniform("reg_lambda", 1, 100, 1)
 }
def xgb_objective(params):
  xgboost_clf = xgb.XGBClassifier(objective="multi:softmax",
                                  eval_metric="mlogloss",
                                  random_state=1,
                                  use_label_encoder=False)
  xgb_params = {
  "n_estimators": int(params["n_estimators"]),
```

```
"max_depth": int(params["max_depth"]),
"learning_rate": params["learning_rate"],
"gamma": params["gamma"],
"min_child_weight": int(params["min_child_weight"]),
"subsample": params["subsample"],
"colsample_bytree": params["colsample_bytree"],
"reg_lambda": params["reg_lambda"]
}
loss = np.mean(- cross_val_score(xgboost_clf.set_params(**xgb_params), X_train_final, y_train, cv=fi
return loss

xgb_trials = Trials()
best_xgb_params = fmin(xgb_objective, xgb_space, algo=tpe.suggest, max_evals=500, rstate=np.random.see
{python inspecting_topic_words}
```

```
{python inspecting_topic_words}

# Defining a function to extract the most prominent words in each topic

def topic_words(model, vectorizer, top_n_words):

  vocabulary = vectorizer.get_feature_names()

  for idx, topic in enumerate(model.components_):

    print(f"\nTopic {idx}: ")

    print(" ".join([vocabulary[i] for i in topic.argsort()[:-top_n_words - 1: -1]]))

# Extracting the 30 most prominent words in each topic

_ = topic_words(nmf_10, tfidf_vec, 30) # the output is shown in the figure below
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Topic 0: 南亞 季主 漢 現場 兵團 一名 受傷 刑事 報警 調查隊 警方 犯案 調查 附近 案件 凌晨 兩名 男子 事件簿 並 送院 警區 治理 迫緝 逃 初步 接報 進 求助 交由
Topic 1: 聲請 處理 司法價核 個案 免遺返聲請 提出 上訴 立法會 宗 法律 入境處 政府 審核 程序 假難民 保安局 遠返 修例 修訂 建議 議員 相關 問題 年度 當局 提交 考慮 指 申請 司法機構
Topic 2:
入块處 非法 黑工 勞工 監禁 被判 工作 優庸 聘用 介乎 被捕 年齡 行動 定罪 殷高 優主 一經 離境 十五 罰款 工行 月 奚廳 擔保書 拘捕 一名 入境者 涉嫌 女子 身份
Topic 3: 遊戲機 賭檔 中心 黑幫 賭博 仔 賭博場 行動 賭客 警方 持牌 非法 包括 魚機 遊戲 經營 釣 機 戲機 積分 被捕 釣魚機 集團 南亞 现金 三合 機及 人士 舖 萬元
Topic 4: 毒品 檢獲 約 販毒 海陽 大麻 單位 警方 行動 懷疑 男子 分銷 可卡因 被捕 市值 拘捕 釸 涉嫌 調查 冰毒 職務隊 搜查 採員 適查 來源 特別 南亞 公斤 製 報
Topic 5: 人蛇 水管 偷渡 蛇頭 偷渡客 來港 南亞 搶灘 非法入境 西貢 截獲 警方 一般 巴基斯坦 船 集團 屯門 八名 可疑 發現 水域 深圳 安排 拘捕 船上 裔 西分區 昨晨 籍 海里
Topic 6: 死者 房 割 妻子 男子 殺 警方 單位 非洲 行街紙 死亡 同鄉 傷痕 愈 住客 殺案 謀 謀殺 調查 印度 印度籍 發現 爭執 土瓜灣 海防道 九龍城 徳浦 香迷 床上 被告
Topic 7: 季主 背囊 眩 搶 休班 匪徒 黃埔 兩名 换店 紅磡 刀 警長 一名 現金 巨款 找 男子 萬元 匪 制服 午肉 逃 載劫 髮匪 劫 劫案 南亞 合力 髮犯 德安街
Topic 8: 南亞 村 拆 木板 斯村 橋底 屋 清 露宿 村民 政府 通州街 深水埗 居民 區議員 公園 部門 天橋底 衞 生 街坊 搭建 渡船街 雜物 油麻地 治安 更 假難民 垃圾 吸毒
Topic 9: 港府 假難民 香港 政府 炱 難民 問題 社會 市民 治安 南亞 做 派 更 政策 港人 沒 政治 港 退出 長 毒瘤 禁閉營 移民 加拿大 解決 法治 錢 美國 復元
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Figure 5.1: Word list of each of the topics generated by the NMF model

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