

III. Respect for Civil Liberties

FREEDOM OF EXPRESSION

Findings

- During the Commission's 2025 reporting period, the People's Republic of China (PRC) government and Chinese Communist Party (CCP or Party) persisted in imposing restrictions on expression that contravene Article 35 of China's Constitution, Article 19 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and Article 19 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR).
- Reporters Without Borders (RSF) ranked China 178 out of 180 countries and territories in its 2025 World Press Freedom Index, and Freedom House's 2025 Freedom in the World report scored China 0 out of 4 on "free and independent media" for the seventh year in a row.
- The Committee to Protect Journalists (CPJ) and Reporters Without Borders (RSF) ranked China as the world's leading jailer of journalists during this reporting year. Currently detained or imprisoned journalists include **Zhang Zhan, Sophia Huang Xueqin, Dong Yuyu, Chen Pinlin, Gu Wanming, Li Weizhong, and Liu Hanbin**. Foreign journalists in China also continued to face restrictions and harassment.
- The Party continued its efforts to shape its image abroad through an expanding network of state-directed media initiatives, including its network of international communication centers (ICCs). OpenAI, a U.S. artificial intelligence (AI) company, found accounts which "appear to originate in China" that used AI to write news articles criticizing the U.S. in Latin American media outlets and to generate posts denouncing a critic of the Party.
- Chinese authorities exercised control over freedom of expression of global audiences on the app TikTok through content moderation and censored posts on the Chinese social media platform Xiaohongshu, known as RedNote.
- Authorities in China continued to tightly control in-person assemblies that they viewed as potentially threatening to the Party and targeted even non-political gatherings, particularly those involving youth. Individuals who participated in protests or commemorative activities continued to face detention and harassment, including **Fang Yirong** and **Mei Shilin**, both detained for hanging pro-democracy banners.
- PRC legislators introduced several measures to tighten control over the internet, including a regulation on a new national internet identification (ID) system and a draft regulation targeting multi-channel networks (MCNs).
- Authorities and social media platforms in China continued to censor online discussions and public expression related to topics that generated criticism or contradicted official policy or positions. Observers noted various examples of authorities treating China's economic challenges as sensitive topics to be censored this past year.

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- China experienced a series of violent “revenge against society” attacks this past year, including various knife attacks and car ramming incidents. In response, the PRC government tightly controlled information about the events and prioritized surveillance and punishment.
- Authorities continued to exercise tight control over the entertainment, art, and literature sectors, including by imprisoning artists, writers, and public intellectuals such as **Gao Zhen, Fei Xiaosheng, Xu Lin, and Li Yanhe.**
- The PRC continued its control over educational and research institutions this past year, impeding free exchange of information and international academic collaboration.

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Freedom of the Press

PARTY CONTROL OF THE MEDIA

During the Commission's 2025 reporting period, the People's Republic of China (PRC) government and Chinese Communist Party (CCP or Party) persisted in imposing restrictions on expression that contravene Article 35 of China's Constitution, Article 19 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and Article 19 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR).¹ Reporters Without Borders (RSF) ranked China 178 out of 180 countries and territories in its 2025 World Press Freedom Index, and Freedom House's 2025 Freedom in the World report scored China 0 out of 4 on "free and independent media" for the seventh year in a row.²

The Party showcased its priorities for media coverage in November 2024 during the annual China Journalism Awards ceremony, giving top awards to state media outlets for their positive coverage of the Party.³ One observer described the top four winners as "servile and anodyne," while others claimed that "news is dead."⁴ Four of the top winning articles contained "propagandistic" headlines, promoting PRC leader Xi Jinping or the "great rejuvenation of the Chinese nation," for instance.⁵ To this end, one observer pointed out that during National Journalists' Day celebrations, local officials made constant references to "'news propaganda' (*xinwen xuanchuan*, 新闻宣传), which refers explicitly to the use of the news form to conduct state propaganda activities and reach the goals of the leadership."⁶

CONTROL OVER CHINA'S IMAGE ABROAD

During this reporting year, the Party continued its efforts to shape its image abroad through an expanding network of state-directed media initiatives.⁷ Building on Xi Jinping's directive to "tell China's story well" (*jiang hao Zhongguo gushi*, 讲好中国故事), the Party significantly expanded its network of "international communication centers" (*guoji chuanbo zhongxin*, 国际传播中心 or ICCs) at local and provincial levels that aim to "tailor" information to foreign audiences.⁸ By early 2025, researchers had documented at least 70 ICCs (28 provincial-level and at least 50 at the city and district level) across China.⁹ During this reporting year, the Party opened an ICC in the Tibet Autonomous Region (TAR) and one in the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region (XUAR) in September and December 2024, respectively.¹⁰ The official announcement of the opening of the XUAR ICC described the center as the region's "principal window of external communication."¹¹ [For more information on Party control in the XUAR and TAR, see Chapter 15—Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region and Chapter 14—Tibet.]

The Chinese government also placed pro-Party content in international media outlets and on social media platforms.¹² An article published in December 2024 noted that U.S. media company Nexstar Media Group, which owns 200 television stations "reaching 116 markets or more than 70% of all U.S. television households," distributed content from Party-run media outlet *Global Times*.¹³ Major

publications including the *Los Angeles Times*, *Financial Times*, and *Time Magazine* also carried “China Watch” inserts from *China Daily*, which paid “hundreds of thousands of dollars each year to insert their content into major print media.”¹⁴

OpenAI, a U.S. artificial intelligence (AI) company, found accounts which “appear to originate in China” that used AI to write news articles criticizing the U.S. in Latin American media outlets and to generate posts denouncing a critic of the Party.¹⁵ Chinese state media also operated “cloaked” accounts that masked their government connections, which significantly increased engagements.¹⁶ “China Says,” an account on X with over 235,000 followers as of June 2025, ran paid promotional content and was revealed to be run by the Chinese Internet News Center, part of China’s State Council Information Office.¹⁷ Similar accounts included “Hi, this is GBA” and “Daily Bae,” which presented as independent influencers while actually serving as “external propaganda brands run by Guangdong province.”¹⁸ [For more information on China’s international influence campaigns, see Chapter 17—Human Rights Violations in the U.S. and Globally. For more information on China’s use of AI, see Chapter 13—Technology and Human Rights]

TikTok and Xiaohongshu (RedNote)

During the Commission’s 2025 reporting year, Chinese authorities exercised control over freedom of expression on TikTok through content moderation. Investigations revealed TikTok and its parent corporation, ByteDance, had misused data to spy on journalists in the U.S.,¹⁹ improperly collected and transferred personal data to China²⁰ and systemically suppressed political and other sensitive content to align with Chinese government interests.²¹ Furthermore, under China’s laws—including the *National Security Law*, *Cybersecurity Law*, *National Intelligence Law*, and *Counterespionage Law*²²—the company must cooperate with PRC government defense and intelligence entities, including by sharing the vast amounts of user data it collects upon request, which poses a national security threat to the U.S.²³ After the U.S. Supreme Court upheld the *Protecting Americans from Foreign Adversary Controlled Applications Act* in January 2025, TikTok was temporarily banned in the United States until the Trump administration issued three executive orders delaying enforcement in 2025.²⁴

TikTok and Xiaohongshu (RedNote)—Continued

When TikTok was temporarily unavailable in the United States, a significant number of American users—approximately 700,000 according to one source—migrated to the China-based social media platform known as RedNote internationally (小红书, *xiaohongshu*).²⁵ One report noted that the large number of “TikTok refugees” was a byproduct of a possible CCP-backed influence campaign.²⁶ This influx created a situation where Chinese and American users were able to interact directly on the same platform, an unusual circumstance given China’s typical restrictions on foreign social media.²⁷ The Cyberspace Administration of China responded by ordering RedNote to ensure that China-based users cannot see posts from U.S. users.²⁸ RedNote later directed different content to users based on their location, seeking to make content from foreign users less visible to Chinese users.²⁹ Multiple sources documented cases of American users experiencing censorship on RedNote, with posts being removed for discussing topics such as Taiwan, human rights concerns, or LGBTQ lifestyles, or for violating other unstated guidelines.³⁰ In some cases, the users’ posts were quickly removed and accounts suspended.³¹

Some observers also raised concerns about RedNote’s extensive data collection practices and potential connections to Chinese government entities.³² Observers have raised similar concerns about several other Chinese-owned apps, including WeChat,³³ Temu,³⁴ Pinduoduo,³⁵ and DeepSeek.³⁶

Detention and Imprisonment of Journalists

During the Commission’s 2025 reporting year, both the Committee to Protect Journalists (CPJ) and Reporters Without Borders (RSF) ranked China as the world’s leading jailer of journalists.³⁷ According to CPJ’s 2024 prison census, over 50 journalists were in prison in China and Hong Kong as of December 2024.³⁸ RSF counted at least 125 journalists behind bars in China in 2024.³⁹

PRC authorities continued to re-detain or harass journalists after they completed their sentences.⁴⁰ Authorities detained prominent COVID-19 citizen journalist **Zhang Zhan** again in August 2024, after Zhang advocated for the release of another activist.⁴¹ By January 2025, reports indicated Zhang had begun a hunger strike while in detention, just as she had during her prior detention, and was being force-fed through a gastric tube, raising serious health concerns and contravening the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment.⁴² Authorities also cut off veteran journalist **Gao Yu**’s access to her internet, landline, and cellular connections in August 2024 after she published an article analyzing an *Al Jazeera* interview with a Chinese think tank vice president.⁴³ [For more information on Zhang Zhan, see Chapter 7—Status of Women.]

The Commission observed reports of detentions and developments in the cases of several other prominent journalists and media workers during this reporting year, including:

- **Sophia Huang Xueqin.** In September 2025, the Guangdong High People’s Court secretly rejected an appeal from journalist

and women's rights advocate Sophia Huang Xueqin, upholding her original sentence of five years in prison.⁴⁴ [For more information on Sophia Huang Xueqin, See Chapter 7—Status of Women.]

- **Dong Yuyu.** In November 2024, the Beijing No. 2 Intermediate People's Court sentenced the former editor of the state-run newspaper *Guangming Daily*, Dong Yuyu, to seven years in prison on "espionage" charges.⁴⁵

- **Chen Pinlin.** On January 6, 2025, the Baoshan District People's Court in Shanghai municipality tried in a closed proceeding and sentenced filmmaker Chen Pinlin to three years and six months in prison for "picking quarrels and provoking trouble" after he produced a documentary about the 2022 White Paper protests against China's COVID-19 restrictions.⁴⁶ Chen's documentary, titled "Urumqi Middle Road" in Chinese and "Not the Foreign Force" in English, was released on YouTube and X, but his accounts have since been removed.⁴⁷

- **Gu Wanming.** In November 2024, Minhang District People's Court in Shanghai sentenced Gu Wanming, a retired journalist from state-run media outlet *Xinhua*, to one year in prison for "picking quarrels and provoking trouble," reportedly related to his 2023 public letter calling for an investigation into the sudden death of former Premier Li Keqiang.⁴⁸ In December 2024, *Xinhua* revoked Gu's retirement benefits.⁴⁹

- **Li Weizhong.** Authorities placed Li Weizhong, an independent journalist writing under the pen name Li Yuanfeng, under "residential surveillance at a designated location," a form of secret detention, in November 2024 for "inciting subversion of state power" after being detained the previous month.⁵⁰

- **Liu Hanbin.** Authorities detained Liu Hanbin, a blogger who documented farmers' protests against land seizures in Inner Mongolia, in November 2024 on suspicion of "picking quarrels and provoking trouble."⁵¹

CONDITIONS FOR FOREIGN JOURNALISTS

Foreign journalists also continued to face restrictions and harassment.⁵² For nearly a week, from late May to early June 2024, two French investigative journalists received a dozen threatening messages, allegedly from Chinese police, after releasing a documentary about a Chinese dissident.⁵³

Also during this reporting year, the Foreign Correspondents' Club of China (FCCC) expressed concern about employers pressuring foreign journalists not to join professional organizations such as the FCCC and Hong Kong journalists' associations, undermining freedom of association.⁵⁴

In-Person Protest and Assembly

During the past year, authorities in China continued to tightly control in-person assemblies that they viewed as potentially threatening to the Party through a combination of preventive measures, real-time suppression, detentions, and intimidation.⁵⁵ According to Freedom House's *China Dissent Monitor*, which tracks the incidence and types of dissent in the PRC, Chinese citizens engaged in 937

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documented protests in the third quarter of 2024 alone, a 27 percent increase over the same period in 2023.⁵⁶ Authorities demonstrated increased sensitivity toward non-political gatherings, particularly those involving youth. In October 2024, officials implemented a crackdown on Halloween celebrations across major cities including Shanghai, Guangzhou, and Hangzhou municipalities.⁵⁷ Police established checkpoints, detained costumed individuals, and demanded personal information from detained individuals.⁵⁸ According to leaked notices, authorities banned not only costumes and makeup but also Halloween decorations like “bats, pumpkins, ghosts, coffins and skeletons,” while businesses had to seek prior approval for Halloween decorations.⁵⁹ These measures followed the 2023 celebrations at which some participants wore costumes satirizing government policies and officials.⁶⁰ Similarly, in November 2024, authorities in Henan province shut down a spontaneous trend of nighttime bicycle rides between the municipalities of Zhengzhou and Kaifeng involving tens of thousands of students.⁶¹ According to one analyst, authorities’ swift suppression of these non-political gatherings was “a sign of the authorities and police feeling very insecure after the uprising of 2022.”⁶² [For more information on the Henan night rides, see Chapter 2—Civil Society and Social Movements.]

Authorities continued to detain and harass individuals who participated in protests or commemorative activities. In August 2024, **Fang Yirong** hung pro-democracy banners from a footbridge in Loudi municipality, Hunan province and used a loudspeaker to call for democracy and Xi Jinping’s removal, mimicking **Peng Lifa’s**⁶³ 2022 “Bridge Man” protest.⁶⁴ In a later posted video, Fang identified himself as a White Paper movement participant and acknowledged possible consequences: “I expect to be treated as mentally ill. I could also wind up dying in prison. But I will have no regrets.”⁶⁵ Similarly, in April 2025, **Mei Shilin**, a 27-year-old resident of Muchuan county, Leshan municipality, Sichuan province, displayed another banner from a road overpass in Chengdu municipality.⁶⁶ Authorities continued to detain all three individuals—Fang, Peng, and Mei—without providing information about their condition or whereabouts, effectively constituting an “enforced disappearance.”⁶⁷ In July 2024, police took several individuals into custody who had participated in a memorial event for Nobel laureate Liu Xiaobo, with rights advocates **Zan Aizong** and **Zou Wei** formally arrested on charges of “picking quarrels and provoking trouble.”⁶⁸

PRC Control over the Internet

The Party continued to maintain a tight grip on online spaces.⁶⁹ During this reporting year, PRC legislators introduced significant measures to tighten control over the internet, focusing on identity verification and data security, reflecting an ongoing strategy to enhance surveillance, regulate data flows, and enhance compliance.

In July 2024, the Cyberspace Administration of China (CAC) and Ministry of Public Security jointly announced draft regulations for a national internet identification (ID) system, proposing to assign each internet user a unique code linked to their real identity.⁷⁰ The proposal triggered criticism on Chinese social media, leading to swift censorship.⁷¹ Authorities blocked numerous search terms

related to the proposal and censored at least eight critical articles from academics and legal experts, among others.⁷² Several commentators expressed concern that the new ID system would dampen freedom of expression by allowing the government to shut down all the internet accounts of a critic in a single action.⁷³ Despite being framed as “voluntary,” as of August 2024, over 80 apps had already implemented the proposed authentication system on a trial basis since the release of the draft, including WeChat, Xiaohongshu (Red-Note), Taobao, and Zhaopin (a job application app).⁷⁴ The finalized *Measures on the Management of the National Online Identity Authentication Public Service*, released in May 2025 and scheduled to take effect in mid-July, remained largely similar to the draft, but hardly any criticism could be found online.⁷⁵

PRC authorities also introduced potential regulations aimed at controlling online content. In January 2025, CAC proposed new regulations targeting multi-channel networks (MCNs), which are third-party agencies that manage social media influencers.⁷⁶ These draft rules require MCN institutions to “adhere to correct political direction, public opinion guidance, and value orientation” and prohibit them from activities such as “manufacturing or spreading rumors” or “hyping social hot points.”⁷⁷

Authorities continued to target Chinese internet users accessing overseas platforms.⁷⁸ In July 2024, police detained members of a Discord community that had hosted political discussions among Chinese users.⁷⁹ In December 2024, a 2023 case against five individuals for their involvement with a pro-democracy X group (League for Tearing Down the Wall @LTDW2025) became public.⁸⁰ The individuals, **Ren Jianping**, **Yao Xirui**, **Lin Yangpeng**, **Gu Haiying**, and **Peng Haiming**, were sentenced to terms ranging from 4 to 10 years for “inciting subversion of state power.”⁸¹

In December 2024, the Shanghai High People’s Court upheld the seven-year prison sentence of blogger **Ruan Xiaohuan**, also known as “program-think” (*biancheng suixiang*, 编程随想), for “inciting subversion.”⁸² Ruan had posted for 12 years on topics such as technology, politics, and circumvention of the Great Firewall before his sudden disappearance in May 2021.⁸³

CENSORSHIP

This past year, authorities and social media platforms in China continued to censor online discussions and public expression related to topics that generated criticism or contradicted official policy or positions.⁸⁴ The CAC launched what one expert characterized as its “annual, or semi-annual tradition” of censorship campaigns, including a three-month crackdown on online news content deemed false or contrary to the official line⁸⁵ and a two-month “Clear and Bright” operation targeting content considered harmful to children, including videos glorifying school bullying, “extravagant lifestyles,” and other “vulgar” content.⁸⁶

Other examples of online censorship include:

- **Economic discussions.** Observers noted various examples of authorities treating China’s economic challenges as sensitive topics to be censored this past year.⁸⁷ In January 2025, the *Wall Street Journal* reported that economist Gao Shanwen faced

censorship after he questioned the reliability of China's GDP growth figures at a Washington forum.⁸⁸ Chinese economists Ren Zeping and Fu Peng have also both been silenced online since December 2024.⁸⁹ Following the Third Plenum economic meeting, nationalist commentator Hu Xijin disappeared from social media for months, apparently for espousing an interpretation of the Plenum counter to official policies.⁹⁰ Social media platforms also censored the phrase “garbage time of history”—used to describe China's economic malaise—after it gained popularity.⁹¹

- **Trade War.** After reciprocal tariffs on Chinese goods came into effect in April 2025, Chinese authorities began censoring some tariff-related content on Chinese social media platforms Weibo and WeChat including “104” (referring to 104 percent tariffs) while allowing comments that mock the U.S. position.⁹² Online censors also took down posts by Chinese companies complaining about the negative impact of Trump's tariffs and other expressions of concern or dissent.⁹³

- **Youth unemployment.** When images of a Hangzhou job fair with 35,000 job seekers went viral on Weibo, a social media outlet popular in China, online commentators noted the visual resemblance to Xi'an's famous Terracotta Warriors packed in tightly like a small army, and Weibo censored the original post making the comparison.⁹⁴

- **Electoral politics and democracy.** Weibo suppressed discussion of Taiwan's January 2024 general election, blocking the hashtag “#TaiwanElection” after it reached number 11 on Weibo's “hot list.”⁹⁵ During the U.S. election season in fall 2024, CNN's broadcast of the vice presidential debate was abruptly cut off in China when the discussion turned to candidate Tim Walz's time in China and because of potential references to the 1989 Tiananmen Square crackdown.⁹⁶ Later, a WeChat article calling for then-U.S. President Joseph Biden to “exit the political stage” was censored, possibly because authorities interpreted it as containing veiled messages relevant to Xi Jinping,⁹⁷ while influential blogger Sima Nan was banned for a year—reportedly for expressing support for Donald Trump in the U.S. election.⁹⁸

- **Olympic training funding.** After the Beijing Municipal Bureau of Sports revealed it had allocated 47 million yuan (nearly US\$6.5 million) to fund Eileen Gu's Olympic training in 2023, with a similar amount budgeted for 2025, censors quickly deleted a *Caixin* article reporting these figures.⁹⁹ Subsequently, four related articles discussing the expense were removed from multiple platforms, and Weibo users questioning the allocation of taxpayer money were censored, with one commenter asking, “Why are they so afraid the taxpayers will find out?”¹⁰⁰

- **Bu Xiaohua trafficking case.** In December 2024, police announced they had located Bu Xiaohua, who, suffering from mental illness, disappeared in 2011 and was “taken in” by a man surnamed Zhang.¹⁰¹ After Bu gave birth to multiple children during her 13-year ordeal, her case sparked widespread outcry and comparisons to the 2022 “chained woman” incident in Xuzhou municipality, Jiangsu province, a case that was also

heavily censored.¹⁰² Censors moved to control the narrative, blocking several Weibo hashtags related to the case, removing commentary of Party-controlled newspaper *Beijing Daily*¹⁰³ calling for accountability, and deleting search terms related to “taking in” (*shouliu*, 收留)—language some have criticized as being a euphemism for trafficking and rape.¹⁰⁴ Authorities also censored discussions about the film “Blind Mountain,” which depicts a similar abduction scenario.¹⁰⁵ [For more information on trafficking of women, see Chapter 9—Human Trafficking. For more information on lack of accountability for domestic abuse, see Chapter 7—Status of Women].

Rise of “Revenge against Society” Events and Censorship

China experienced a series of violent “revenge against society”¹⁰⁶ attacks this past year, including a knife attack at a Zhenxiong county, Yunnan province hospital (2 dead, 21 injured);¹⁰⁷ a stabbing in Suzhou municipality, Jiangsu province targeting Japanese victims, resulting in the death of a Chinese national who intervened;¹⁰⁸ a fatal stabbing of a Japanese schoolboy in Shenzhen municipality, Guangdong province;¹⁰⁹ a knife attack near a Beijing municipality primary school;¹¹⁰ a car ramming at a Zhuhai municipality, Guangdong province sports center (35 dead, 43 injured);¹¹¹ a mass stabbing at a Wuxi municipality, Jiangsu province vocational school (8 dead, 17 injured);¹¹² and a car ramming outside a Changde municipality, Hunan province elementary school.¹¹³

The government’s response followed a pattern of information control. After the Zhuhai incident, authorities delayed releasing details while implementing the playbook of “delet[ing] posts, clos[ing] comments, and reduc[ing] popularity” tactics.¹¹⁴ Government officials framed the violence as “isolated incidents” stemming from individual grievances rather than systemic issues.¹¹⁵ Comments demanding more information and pointing to potential deeper societal causes and governance failures, including economic pressure and state-sanctioned ultra-nationalism,¹¹⁶ were also heavily censored.¹¹⁷ A psychotherapist also reflected that these events suggest a “very strong sense of feeling that society is not just.”¹¹⁸ Authorities censored the name Zhang Xianzhong (张献忠), a brutal Ming-era rebel leader, whose name was used on line to refer to these attacks.¹¹⁹ In modern Chinese internet culture, this term symbolizes an escape from societal pressure.¹²⁰ Rather than addressing root causes, authorities prioritized surveillance and punishment, developing technologies to predict behavior like the “Crowd Emotion Detection and Early Warning Device system” while emphasizing severe punishment of “major vicious crimes.”¹²¹ This security-focused approach aims to preempt violence through technical means while leaving the social pressures generating that violence unaddressed.¹²² As Cornell University professor Peidong Song notes, “Public attacks are often reactions to repression; the irony is that the government generally responds to them with even more repression.”¹²³

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Entertainment, Art, and Literature

This past year, Chinese authorities continued to exercise tight control over the entertainment, art, and literature sectors.¹²⁴ According to PEN America, an organization dedicated to defending freedom of expression, China jails the largest number of writers and public intellectuals.¹²⁵ Relevant examples follow:

- Police detained artist **Gao Zhen** in August 2024 when he was visiting China with his family, on charges of “insulting revolutionary heroes and martyrs” for creating satirical artwork in the past depicting Mao Zedong.¹²⁶ Authorities raided the studio belonging to Gao Zhen and his brother near Beijing and barred Gao’s wife and minor son, who is a U.S. citizen, from leaving China.¹²⁷
- Authorities in Xi’an municipality, Shaanxi province detained musician **Fei Xiaosheng** in January 2025, reportedly for supporting the Hong Kong democracy movement.¹²⁸
- Authorities criminally detained Guangzhou municipality, Guangdong province-based lyricist **Xu Lin** for “picking quarrels and provoking trouble” in May 2024.¹²⁹ Before his criminal detention, Xu, who previously served three years in prison for songs he wrote promoting democratic values, said that he will not hire a lawyer but if he died, it would be as a result of “persecution by the CCP.”¹³⁰
- Shanghai First Intermediate People’s Court held a so-called “public trial” of Taiwan-based publisher **Li Yanhe** (also known as Fu Cha or “Fuschia”) after detaining him for two years while he was visiting Shanghai municipality.¹³¹ Authorities detained Li on charges of “endangering national security” but later changed this to “secession” charges.¹³² Li’s Eight Banners publishing house published many works banned in China, including on the topics of China’s overseas influence operations and the 1989 Tiananmen protests.¹³³

Authorities also censored content deemed inconsistent with official values, including the following examples:

- Censors pulled the movie “Wild Child,” about homeless children who care for each other.¹³⁴ According to *Radio Free Asia*, Cai Qi, a member of the Standing Committee of the Communist Party Central Committee Political Bureau,¹³⁵ likely ordered the film’s withdrawal because it “didn’t conform to the main theme of encouraging young people and teenagers to grow and thrive in a positive way.”¹³⁶
- Online censors deleted hundreds of TV micro-dramas portraying family conflicts, with authorities claiming that these shows “deliberately amplify and exaggerate conflicts between husband and wife.”¹³⁷ This campaign appeared connected to government efforts to boost falling birth rates by promoting positive images of family life.¹³⁸ The National Radio and Television Administration ordered ByteDance’s micro-drama streaming platform Hongguo to cease posting new videos in December 2024.¹³⁹ Hongguo subsequently removed 279 videos with “bad value orientation.”¹⁴⁰ [For more information on China’s attempts to control population growth, see Chapter 8—Population Control.

For more information on the complicity of businesses in human rights abuses, see Chapter 12—Business and Human Rights.]

- In the video game industry, NetEase Games released *Marvel Rivals* in December 2024, which reportedly contained censorship mechanisms that filter out statements critical of China while permitting criticism of the United States.¹⁴¹ The players of the game *Black Myth: Wukong*, developed by Chinese company Game Science, also faced censorship, being told by developers to avoid discussing certain topics such as “feminist propaganda” or COVID-19.¹⁴²

Authorities applied inconsistent censorship to foreign content, apparently influenced by economic considerations.¹⁴³ The Marvel film “Deadpool & Wolverine” gained approval with limited alterations, and rapper Kanye West’s concerts in Hainan province generated substantial tourism revenue.¹⁴⁴ Meanwhile, U.S. Vice President JD Vance’s book *Hillbilly Elegy* was removed from WeChat Reading, a Chinese reading platform, after his selection as U.S. Republican vice-presidential candidate.¹⁴⁵ Similarly, Peter Hessler’s book *Other Rivers: A Chinese Education* disappeared from Chinese social media platform Douban, along with its reviews.¹⁴⁶

Academic Freedom

The PRC continued to exert control over educational and research institutions this past year, impeding free exchange of information and international academic collaboration.¹⁴⁷

The Commission observed numerous cases of public intellectuals or professors being harassed, censored, or silenced for expressing views that diverged from official positions:

- In July 2024, a report surfaced regarding the dismissal of foreign professor Björn Alexander Düben from Jilin University after a nine-year tenure following an interview with *Voice of America* about PRC leader Xi Jinping’s Europe visit.¹⁴⁸ He was ordered to leave China by May 30, 2024.¹⁴⁹
- Chinese academics faced similar or worse treatment. In September 2024, reporters said that Zhu Hengpeng, an economist at the state-run Chinese Academy of Social Sciences (CASS), was put under investigation, subsequently detained, and ultimately removed from his position after criticizing PRC leader Xi Jinping in a private WeChat group.¹⁵⁰ His name was subsequently scrubbed from CASS websites.¹⁵¹ A scholar at the Shanghai Party Institute of the Communist Party, Hu Wei, was reportedly forced into early retirement in 2023 after publicly criticizing Russia’s invasion of Ukraine.¹⁵²
- Authorities also used travel restrictions against an academic. Law professor Liang Xingguo and his wife were banned from traveling to Hong Kong in November 2024, apparently due to an article he wrote two years earlier discussing how unlimited terms for leaders could transform a republic into a dictatorship,¹⁵³ but authorities refused to provide documentation explaining the ban.¹⁵⁴

Notes to Chapter 1—Freedom of Expression

¹ “中华人民共和国宪法” [PRC Constitution], passed December 4, 1982, amended March 11, 2018, art. 35; “Universal Declaration of Human Rights,” *United Nations*, adopted and proclaimed by UN General Assembly resolution 217A (III) of December 10, 1948; “International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights,” *United Nations*, adopted December 16, 1966, entry into force March 23, 1976, art. 19; “International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights,” *United Nations Treaty Collections*, Chapter IV Human Rights. The PRC signed the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966) on October 5, 1998 but has not yet ratified it, despite stating repeatedly its intent to ratify including in the National Human Rights Action Plan 2016–2020. The U.S.-China Relations Act of 2000, Pub. L. No. 106-286, §§301–309 requires the CECC to use the ICCPR’s provisions to monitor compliance with human rights standards in the PRC. For past coverage of restrictions on Freedom of Expression, see, e.g., Congressional-Executive Commission on China, “2024 Annual Report,” *U.S. Government Publishing Office*, December 2024, 46–63; Congressional-Executive Commission on China, “2023 Annual Report,” *U.S. Government Publishing Office*, May 2024, 48–68.

² “2025 World Press Freedom Index: China,” *Reporters Without Borders*, accessed May 14, 2025; “Freedom in the World 2025 Country Report: China,” *Freedom House*, accessed May 14, 2025; “Freedom in the World 2024 Country Report: China,” *Freedom House*, accessed May 14, 2025; “Freedom in the World 2023 Country Report: China,” *Freedom House*, accessed May 14, 2025; “Freedom in the World 2022 Country Report: China,” *Freedom House*, accessed May 14, 2025; “Freedom in the World 2021 Country Report: China,” *Freedom House*, accessed May 14, 2025; “Freedom in the World 2020 Country Report: China,” *Freedom House*, accessed May 14, 2025; “Freedom in the World 2019 Country Report: China,” *Freedom House*, accessed May 14, 2025.

³ Cindy Carter, “Translation: Anodyne Winners of 34th China Journalism Awards Prompt Declaration That ‘News is Dead,’” *China Digital Times*, November 13, 2024.

⁴ Cindy Carter, “Translation: Anodyne Winners of 34th China Journalism Awards Prompt Declaration That ‘News is Dead,’” *China Digital Times*, November 13, 2024.

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