

# 17. Freedom from torture *Margaret K. Lewis*

The right to be free from torture is firmly established in international law (Dugard and Van den Wyngaert 1998, p. 198). Yet in February 2016, the United Nations (UN) Committee against Torture reported that the People's Republic of China (PRC or China) has thus far failed to implement robustly the 1984 *Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment* (CAT) (UN CAT 2016). The Committee seriously questioned China's claim that it is making 'enormous efforts' to stop torture (Deutsche Welle 2015) and concluded that 'the practice of torture and ill-treatment is still deeply entrenched in the [PRC] criminal justice system ...' (UN CAT 2016, paragraph 20).

The Committee's report further highlighted the challenges posed by a lack of transparency, including the absence of independent oversight bodies to monitor places of detention, the reported use of secret detention centers and the concealed nature of the Chinese Communist Party's (CCP) disciplinary system (UN CAT 2016, paragraphs 28–9, 42–3, 44–5). As will be discussed in this chapter, there are consistent accounts of torture committed by the police, prosecutors, prison officials and some other members of the Party-state apparatus. Instances of torture are known to occur during criminal investigations, while convicted felons are serving their sentences and during other forms of detention that are sanctioned by the state or the Party. However, the opaque operations of both the PRC government and the CCP thwart efforts to unearth the actual scope and severity of torture in China.

This challenge is captured by the 'poetry' of former US Secretary of Defense Donald Rumsfeld (Seely 2003): 'As we know, there are known knowns; there are things we know we know. We also know there are known unknowns; that is to say we know there are some things we do not know. But there are also unknown unknowns—the ones we don't know we don't know' (Graham 2014). This chapter addresses each of these categories in turn. First, it introduces the known knowns of the PRC's commitments to eradicate torture and legal reforms to date, as well as the current climate of simultaneous reform and repression (Section 17.1). Next, it looks at the known unknowns of the prevalence of torture, the effectiveness of legal measures aimed at curbing torture, the workings of the Party disciplinary system, and the future trajectory of reform efforts (Section 17.2). Finally, it raises the possible unknown unknowns in understanding the right to be free from torture in the context of China (Section 17.3).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The author recognizes the black humor in quoting Donald Rumsfeld—who himself has been accused of being responsible for torture and abuse of detainees following 9/11—in a chapter regarding torture.

## 17.1 THE KNOWN KNOWNS

The PRC government has made a clear international commitment to eradicate torture as a party to CAT but has a fraught relationship with the Convention's monitoring and reporting systems (Section 17.1.1). This tension is unsurprising considering domestic developments. Namely, we know that the PRC government has made notable strides with respect to condemning torture in formal pronouncements and in black-letter law (Section 17.1.2). What we see, however, is simultaneous reform on paper and repression in practice: the overarching political climate coupled with the distribution of power in the criminal justice system works to undermine the effectiveness of any efforts to ban torture (Section 17.1.3).

#### 17.1.1 International Commitment to Freedom from Torture

The PRC signed CAT in 1986 and became a party to the treaty following ratification on 4 October 1988 (UN Treaty Collection). The relatively short two-year span between signing and ratification contrasts with the already two-decade delay in ratifying the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), which the PRC signed in 1998 (UN Treaty Collection). The ICCPR, like CAT, prohibits both torture and a broader swathe of cruel, inhuman, or degrading treatment or punishment (ICCPR, Article 7: CAT. Article 16).

China has, to a limited extent, engaged in the international monitoring and reporting systems under CAT. The UN Special Rapporteur on torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment last visited China in November 2005. The visit was announced in August 2005 as being at the invitation of the PRC (OHCHR 2005). What the UN press release did not highlight was that the initial request had been made nearly a decade earlier (UN News 2005). Following the 2005 visit, the Special Rapporteur noted that efforts to combat torture and ill treatment had 'contributed to a steady decline of torture practices' but concluded that he believed 'that torture remains widespread in China' (Nowak 2006). At the time of writing this chapter, the PRC government has not, since then, invited the Special Rapporteur for another visit.

Upon ratification, China made a reservation that it 'does not recognize the competence of the Committee against Torture as provided for in Article 20 of the Convention' (UN Treaty Collection—CAT). The inquiry procedure under Article 20 provides for an examination led by the Committee against Torture when 'the Committee receives reliable information which appears to it to contain well-founded indications that torture is being systematically practiced in the territory of a State Party' (Committee against Torture, Article 20). Nor has China recognized the competence of the Committee against Torture to receive and consider complaints from individuals who claim to be victims of torture, as called for under Article 22 of CAT.

During China's fourth CAT reporting cycle in 2008, the Committee against Torture welcomed the ongoing reform of the PRC's legal framework (UN CAT 2008, paragraphs 5–10). Nonetheless, the Committee expressed considerable unease, stating that it 'remain[ed] deeply concerned about continued allegations, corroborated by numerous Chinese legal sources, of routine and widespread use of torture and ill treatment of suspects in police custody ...' (UN CAT 2008, paragraph 11). The fifth

four-year periodic report was due November 2012 but not submitted until June 2013 (People's Republic of China 2015).

The Committee against Torture held a contentious two-day session in November 2015 to consider the PRC's compliance (UN CAT 2015a; UN CAT 2015b; Cumming-Bruce 2015). In addition to materials submitted by the PRC government (People's Republic of China 2015), the Committee received submissions from dozens of civil society organizations (UN Human Rights, Office of the High Commissioner). For instance, the International Campaign for Tibet submitted accounts of specific instances of abuse and concluded as follows: '[a]lthough the PRC officially prohibits torture, it has become endemic in Tibet, a result both of a political emphasis on ensuring "stability" and a culture of impunity among officials, paramilitary troops and security personnel.' (International Campaign for Tibet 2015, p. 4, paragraph 1). The PRC delegation responded that, in Tibet, '[t]here were no cases of political imprisonment, and the allegation of cruel or unfair treatment of suspects or criminals belonging to ethnic minority groups was groundless' (UN CAT 2015b, paragraph 29). Human Rights Watch (2015b) asserted: 'Police officers regularly use restraints—which victims call the "tiger chair"—to immobilize suspects during interrogations of suspects for hours or even days, often as a means to coerce confessions'. The PRC government delegation countered that 'interrogation chairs were used to prevent detainees from escaping, attacking others or self-harming and were padded for comfort and safety' (UN CAT 2015b, paragraph 67).

The session was marred by reports of intimidation against activists who sought to engage with the review process. According to a 2016 UN report on states' cooperation with UN bodies:

Reportedly, seven Chinese human rights defenders, who had intended to travel to Geneva to attend the Committee's consideration of the report of China, had been threatened by PRC authorities with negative professional consequences. Moreover, those who had defied the authorities' orders had reportedly been detained on the grounds that their participation could 'endanger national security' (UN Human Rights Council 2016).

For those activists who made it to Geneva, Human Rights Watch (2017) reported that 'the Chinese member of the committee engaged in unauthorized photography of the civil society section of the room'.

The Committee against Torture issued an initial version of its report in December 2015 (UN Human Rights 2015b), followed by an edited version in February 2016 (UN CAT 2016). The report included a string of recommendations from previous reviews that China had not yet implemented (UN CAT 2016, paragraph 6). In its Concluding Observations, the Committee noted several positive developments with respect to legal provisions that could reduce torture, but then identified an extensive list of persisting issues that contributed to the practice of torture, ranging from the lack of independent medical examinations of detainees to consistent reports of the use of secret detention centers (UN CAT 2016). The PRC Foreign Ministry (2015) responded that 'China is resolute in its position against torture'. The statement continued that some of the Committee's opinions 'are based on uncorroborated information' and called on the Committee to conduct its work 'in a more comprehensive, objective and impartial way' (PRC Foreign Ministry 2015).

Nearly a year after release of the Committee against Torture's 2016 Concluding Observations, the PRC submitted its follow up response on 24 January 2017 (People's Republic of China 2017). The seven-page response addressed four specific concerns raised by the Committee: (1) restrictions on detainees' access to counsel and notification of family members following detention; (2) the reported crackdown on lawyers and activists; (3) the lack of independent oversight mechanisms for curbing torture; and (4) the lack of data on torture because of the classification of relevant information as coming under the PRC's State Secrets Law. The PRC government remained steadfast in rejecting the Committee's findings. The response contended that 'China attaches great importance to guaranteeing the right to counsel' and emphasized that approval for lawyer-client meetings is required only in the rare instances of crimes that endanger state security, terrorism or significant bribery. The response further denied that there is any suppression of lawyers or activists, maintained that the 'independence and impartiality' of investigations into torture can be guaranteed and cited the challenges of China's large size and limited resources as a partial explanation for the lack of detailed statistics. The PRC's next periodic report on its implementation of CAT is due in December 2019.

#### 17.1.2 Domestic Commitment to Freedom from Torture

The use of torture to obtain convictions is well documented and stretches back into imperial China. During the Qing Dynasty, '[t]he tendency to use torture was reinforced by the rule that the defendant could not be convicted unless he confessed' (Cohen 1968, p. 6). The CCP made pronouncements banning forced confessions as early as 1943 (Dutton 2005, p. 126). It was not until the last two decades, however, that the PRC took notable steps towards strengthening the domestic legal framework's prohibition of torture.

The clear step occurred with the 1997 Criminal Law of the PRC, Article 247 of which criminalizes the extraction of confessions via torture (xingxun bigong) and the use of violence to obtain witness statements (baoli quzheng) but limits liability to 'judicial personnel'<sup>2</sup> rather than all government agents (Criminal Law, Article 247). Article 248 criminalizes the physical abuse of detainees (ouda huozhe tifa nüedai) but limits liability to officers at detention centers (jianguan renyuan) or other detainees who commit the abuse at the instigation of such officers (Criminal Law, Article 248).

Unlike the Criminal Law, which lists and defines substantive crimes, the PRC's Criminal Procedure Law (CPL) governs the process for investigating, prosecuting and adjudicating alleged criminal activity. The first CPL, enacted in 1979, did little to restrict the government's power when engaging with criminal suspects (Chen 2008, pp. 300-2). The 1996 overhaul of the CPL included promising language with respect to the rights of the accused (Hecht 1996; Dai Yuzhong 2008, p. 121), but these promises were largely unfulfilled in practice (Belkin 2007; Sheng 2003; Sheng 2004). The CPL underwent another major revision in 2012, incorporating rules that had been issued in

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> As defined in Article 94 of the *Criminal Law*, 'judicial personnel' (sifa gongzuo renyuan) here 'refers to personnel engaged in the functions of investigating, prosecuting, adjudicating, supervising and controlling offenders'.

2010 on the exclusion of illegally obtained evidence, most prominently oral confessions (Chen Ruihua 2011; Daum 2011; Lewis 2011a). The Committee against Torture nevertheless noted that it 'remain[ed] concerned at reports that courts often shift the burden of proof back to defendants during the exclusionary procedures and dismiss lawyers' requests to exclude the admissibility of confessions' (UN CAT 2016, paragraph 32).

Further, the Committee against Torture has pointed out that the definition of torture in the *Criminal Law* does not incorporate the full scope of the definition of torture in Article 1 of CAT (UN CAT 2016, paragraph 7). For example, the Committee expressed concern that the PRC does not criminalize 'the use of torture for purposes other than extracting confessions from defendants or criminal suspects' (UN CAT 2016, paragraph 7).

Other PRC laws also contain provisions relevant to combatting torture, some of which do cover contexts other than extracting confessions. These include the *Lawyers Law*, last amended in 2012 (providing lawyers with a right to meet with criminal suspects), the *Public Security Administrative Punishments Law*, last amended in 2012 (requiring that administrative punishments respect and protect human rights), the *Exit-Entry Administration Law*, adopted in 2012 (addressing the treatment of refugees), and the *State Compensation Law*, last amended in 2012 (allowing the possibility of compensation for mistreatment, including for psychological harm).

Laws in China are often written in broad terms. It is thus common for the PRC government to supplement laws with related regulations, rules, notices and interpretations, as well as more informal policy directives (Lewis 2014, pp. 53-6). A number of these are relevant to preventing torture during criminal investigations. For example, the 2012 Supreme People's Court (SPC) Interpretation on the Application of the CPL recognized that, for the purposes of determining if evidence has been illegally obtained, deliberately inflicted mental suffering can constitute torture (SPC Interpretation 2012, Article 95). The following year, the SPC issued an Opinion on Preventing Miscarriages of Justice (SPC Interpretation 2013). In 2014, the Ministry of Public Security (MPS) issued detailed guidance regarding audio and video recording of interrogations in certain types of cases as a supplement to provisions in the CPL (MPS Notice 2014). The MPS followed this up in September 2015 with an announcement that it planned eventually to expand use of the recording system to all criminal cases (Xing Shiwei 2015). In June 2016, the Supreme People's Procuratorate (SPP) issued a guiding case in which a local procuratorate did not approve the arrest of a murder suspect because of an illegally obtained confession with insufficient alternative evidence to establish criminal conduct (SPP Guiding Cases 2016). In June 2017, the SPC, SPP, and MPS (along with the Ministry of State Security and Ministry of Justice) issued additional provisions on the 'strict exclusion of illegal evidence in handling criminal cases' (SPC Provisions 2017). These are but a few of the many pieces in an increasingly complex legal framework that addresses torture.

Further, important to domestic efforts to limit torture is not just what legal provisions are in place but also what provisions have been repealed. The 2013 abolition of 'reeducation through labor' (Xinhua News Agency 2013) ended decades of criticism that this purportedly 'administrative' sanction—which could deprive people of liberty for up to four years—provided a venue for authorities to engage in torture (Cohen and Lewis 2013, pp. 4–6). The end of reeducation through labor did not end debate over the

use of non-criminal detention methods (Biddulph 2016). As discussed in other chapters in this Handbook, there remain many forms of non-criminal 'administrative' detention—as well as extralegal measures—that provide alternative opportunities for ill treatment behind closed doors.

## 17.1.3 Simultaneous Reform and Repression

There is no shortage of official pronouncements aimed at curbing torture. There is, however, a shortage of will to enforce the law zealously. As Teng Biao, a legal activist and torture victim himself, astutely explained: 'The major problem with rule of law in mainland China is not establishing legal provisions but rather implementing laws' (quoted in Shi Shan 2014). A climate of intensifying repression has accompanied Xi Jinping's consolidation of power (Buckley 2017b). The result is a yawning gap between the PRC government's commitments to freedom from torture reflected in formal statements and reports of what occurs in practice.

In addition to the lack of high level political will to end torture, the absence of independent oversight in the criminal justice system helps to perpetuate the use of torture. The public security authorities' dual responsibility of administering detention facilities and leading investigations means police lack outside scrutiny of their actions during the investigation and detention process. A draft Detention Center Law issued in 2016 fails to remedy this fundamental conflict (Lewis 2017a). Similarly, there is tension between the dual roles of procuratorates in supervising detention facilities and prosecuting cases. The procuratorate has general oversight authority over police, but the control mechanism 'that has the greatest impact on police daily operation is the internal supervision' (Ma 2014, pp. 72-3). For example, while PRC law flatly prohibits abuse of detainees, the prolonged periods for which the police can detain people without oversight creates glaring opportunities for abuse of power. This is illustrated by one of the most contentious provisions included in the 2012 CPL amendments: residential surveillance (jianshi juzhu). This measure allows police to hold certain criminal suspects for up to six months, and suspects are generally not held at their own residence (CPL, Article 73; Rosenzweig 2016). The SPP issued provisions in December 2015 emphasizing the need to correct unlawful conduct, including torture, during use of coercive measures such as residential surveillance (SPP Provisions 2015), but the actual impact of this call for increased oversight remains unknown. Included among the Committee against Torture's recommendations was repeal of these provisions on residential surveillance (UN CAT 2016, paragraphs 14–5).

For arrests that do not involve residential surveillance, the CPL still permits up to a 30-day detention period before police transfer the case to the procuratorate for review and then an additional seven days for the procuratorate to approve the arrest (China Law Translate 2015). The CPL provides no role for judicial oversight during this 37-day period. Nor do revisions to the *Police Law* proposed in 2016 indicate any shift towards adjusting the disproportionate power of the public security forces (PRC Police Law (Draft) 2016; HRW 2016b). The police remain the strongest component in the police-procuratorate-court 'iron triangle' (McConville 2011, pp. 378-9; Liu and Halliday 2011).

The Committee against Torture recommended that detained individuals be brought before judges within 48 hours of being taken into custody (UN CAT 2016, paragraphs 10–11). In March 2016, shortly after the Committee made its 2016 Concluding Observations, the Ministry of Public Security issued disciplinary rules aimed at holding police accountable for confessions obtained by torture (MPS Provisions 2016), but these rules stopped short of requiring prompt judicial approval of detentions. This situation remains unchanged at the time of writing; nor has there been any change in the time allowed for detention by the police.

The lack of oversight is compounded by a failure to use independent medical professionals when examining detained persons (UN CAT 2016, paragraphs 16–7). In its submission to the Committee, the NGO Human Rights in China (2015a, paragraph 12) noted: '[T]he measures described by the [PRC] are problematic because in the aggregate they create structures and procedures that result in a conflict of duties for medical practitioners in detention centers and open the way for informal pressures to suppress evidence of torture when it has occurred'. Furthermore, experiences of detainees like lawyer Pu Zhiqiang (discussed below), have demonstrated failures to provide adequate medical care to people who enter detention with a pre-existing health condition (Liu and Halliday 2016). The Committee called on China to ensure that '[d]etained persons have access to adequate medical care, including to a doctor of their choice' (UN CAT 2016, paragraph 25).

Concern about the treatment of people in police custody is further heightened by the constrained role of defense lawyers. The plight of defense lawyers is relevant to torture both because limits on client access frustrate attempts to expose torture and because lawyers themselves have become the victims of torture.

Although statistical data is lacking, there are consistent reports that the majority of criminal defendants have no lawyer whatsoever (U.S.-Asia Law Institute 2014; Anonymous 2012). At the November 2015 session before the Committee against Torture, the PRC delegation reported that '[I]egal aid centres were in the process of establishing offices in detention facilities to provide detainees with assistance' (UN CAT 2015b, paragraph 19; SPC, SPP, MPS, Ministry of State Security and Ministry of Justice Opinion 2016). The PRC government issued additional measures in 2017 that called for greatly expanded access to state appointed lawyers (SPC and Ministry of Justice Measures 2017). It is too early to know whether these initiatives will make a notable difference in representation rates and quality. Daum (2017b) has cautioned that: 'The lawyers that the Party wants are not independent advocates, but "socialist legal workers". Lawyers are meant to be functionaries guiding clients through the legal process along established paths, not criticizing existing policies, rules, or their implementation'.

When suspects are represented, defense lawyers have long complained about the difficulties in accessing clients and evidence (Liu and Halliday 2016; Sun 2011). Some lawyers noted an increase in client access following the 2012 revisions to the CPL (China Law Translate 2013). Yet a persistent challenge is that the law only allows suspects to meet with their lawyers within 48 hours of their request (CPL, Article 37). Much can happen during this initial two-day period. And, even once access is allowed, there are many ways that authorities can frustrate attempts by lawyers to meet their clients, including that lawyers are not permitted to be present during the interrogation

itself. The Criminal Procedure Law permits that access to counsel be delayed or even blocked entirely in cases deemed to endanger state security or to involve terrorism or serious bribery (CPL, Article 37).

The PRC government has openly called for a move toward a trial-centered criminal procedure (shenpan wei zhongxin de songsu zhidu gaige) (Liu Guangsan and Li Yanxi 2016, p. 150; China Law Net 2016). A true shift towards emphasizing trials could elevate the importance of defense lawyers and judges by bolstering their roles in testing the evidence presented by police and prosecutors. One hope is that more rigorous questioning of evidence could shift the current reliance on confessions to a broader base of evidentiary support (Chen Guoqing and Zhou Ying 2016). As with other stated reforms, the extent to which trials serve as a platform to scrutinize evidence will only be borne out through practice. The long-ingrained policy of 'leniency for those who confess' (tanbai cong kuan)—and the corresponding policy of 'severity for those who resist' (kangju cong yan)—acts to caution defendants against asserting their innocence at trial (SPC Opinion 2015, paragraph 13; Lewis 2011b). A defendant's refusal to admit guilt is commonly viewed as a reason for harsher punishment (Dobinson 2013).

Statements rejecting notions of Western judicial independence made in January 2017 by the President of the SPC, Zhou Qiang, further call into question whether judges will actually be encouraged to take a searching look at evidence presented by police and prosecutors (Forsythe 2017; Luo Shuzhen 2017). The statements were particularly startling because Zhou had been viewed as more reform minded than his predecessor (Peerenboom 2014). The most optimistic take on his remarks is that he might 'signal left and turn right' (da zuo deng xiang you zhuan) (insisting that one is upholding the Party line while actually turning towards a path of reform). At the time of writing, it appears that Zhou Qiang has both signalled left and turned left: there is at least no public indication of efforts to bolster judicial independence vis-à-vis the police and prosecutors. The more plausible explanation is that Xi Jinping's hard line has firmly penetrated the highest echelons of the court system.

The tightening political climate has been accompanied by increasing risk to lawyers' physical safety. The use of torture against lawyers is not a new phenomenon. For instance, Li Zhuang—a lawyer who defended clients during the mafia crackdown in Chongqing a decade ago—was himself arrested and tortured while arguing that his clients were subject to such abuse (see Pils 2011, p. 114; Pils 2009; Lan Rongjie 2013; BBC 2012; Pils 2015, pp. 165-7). But these concerns are intensifying. Reports of torture of lawyers made nearly simultaneously with SPC President Zhou's January 2017 remarks exacerbated concerns that lawyers who provide a zealous defense are imperiling their own safety. In January 2017, the transcript of an interview with Lawyer Xie Yang was released in which he recounted various forms of torture such as the 'dangling chair': '[T]hey made me sit on a bunch of plastic stools stacked on top each other, 24 hours a day except for the two hours they let me sleep' (China Change 2017a). Mr. Xie was detained during the infamous '709 Crackdown' in July 2015 in which hundreds of lawyers and other human rights defenders were taken into custody (Chinese Human Rights Defenders 2016a).

Also in January 2017, another lawyer rounded up as part of the 709 Crackdown, Li Chunfu, was released amid reports from relatives and friends that he had been tortured, leading to severe weight loss and even a diagnosis of schizophrenia (Denyer 2017). Mr. Li's experience comports with similar reports of forcible 'medication' without medical basis, which Pils (2017) has described as 'a method that strips torture down to its worst part—the taking away of one's personality, one's inner being, through an attack on one's physical integrity'. Mr. Li's experience underscores the devastating long lasting effects of torture both on the victims personally and on the families and friends who try to care for them. While writing this chapter in November 2017, lawyer Jiang Tianyong was sentenced to two years for inciting subversion amid concerns that his confession was coerced during his year in pre-trial custody (Haas 2017). Rights groups have argued that Mr. Jiang was targeted in part because he exposed abuse that other lawyers suffered while they were in custody (Buckley 2017c).

#### 17.2 THE KNOWN UNKNOWNS

We thus know that formal pronouncements against torture have not been accompanied by a shift towards a climate that eradicates its use. What we know that we do not know is the extent to which torture is occurring in China today (Section 17.2.1) or the extent to which legal reforms have been effective in at least reducing the instances of torture even if not eliminating them (Section 17.2.2). We are also aware that there is a lack of information on the use of torture by the Party's disciplinary system (Section 17.2.3). Finally, the trajectory of future reform efforts remains a known unknown (Section 17.2.4).

## 17.2.1 Discerning the Pervasiveness of Torture

A longstanding culture of opacity in the workings of police, prosecutors and courts complicates information gathering efforts (Jiang 2015b). Rights groups have nonetheless unearthed widespread evidence of torture, documenting, for example, 'hundreds of cases of mistreatment of human rights defenders since 2012' (Chinese Human Rights Defenders 2016b). Concerns that detainees are involuntarily denying use of torture adds a further challenge: Lawyer Xie Yang wrote in January 2017 that '[i]f, one day in the future, I do confess ... that will not be the true expression of my own mind. It may be because I've been subjected to prolonged torture, or because I've been offered the chance to be released on bail to reunite with my family' (China Change 2017b). At his trial in May 2017, Mr. Xie denied that he was tortured, pleaded guilty and blamed overseas influences for his actions (Buckley 2017a).

The secrecy surrounding criminal cases has increasingly been punctured by reports exposing instances of people wrongfully convicted of crimes based on confessions obtained though torture (Huang Shiyuan 2012; Trevaskes 2012, pp. 61–6; Belkin 2011; Kang Junxin and Han Guangjun 2007). The PRC government has acknowledged the problem (CCP 2013, sec. 9(34)), and the SPC President expressed remorse in 2015 for miscarriages of justice (Xinhua News Agency 2015; Zhang 2015). In December 2016, the courts posthumously exonerated Nie Shubin of a 1995 conviction for murder (Forsythe 2016). In 2014, the courts posthumously overturned the 1996 murder and rape conviction of Huugjilt, an 18-year-old ethnic Mongol who confessed under torture

(BBC 2014; Shi Wansen and Zhang Chi 2015). Also in 2014, Nian Bin's conviction for murder was overturned after eight years in prison following a coerced confession (Wan 2014). Studies have documented many other examples of coerced confessions in China (Jiang 2015a; He Jiahong and He Ran 2013).

Some well-known instances of deaths in custody prior to conviction have heightened concerns regarding the prevalence of mistreatment. For example, the May 2016 death in police custody of an environmentalist who had been arrested as part of an anti-prostitution raid raised concerns about excessive use of force (Tatlow 2016). In November 2015, Zhang Liumao died in a detention center in Guangzhou after being detained on suspicion of 'picking quarrels and provoking trouble' (Wong 2015). His family was denied a copy of the autopsy report, but a lawyer who saw the body reported signs of physical abuse (Mudie 2015). Such accounts are not new. Earlier examples include the 2003 case of a young man named Sun Zhigang who died in police custody after failing to produce identifying documents (Hand 2006) and the 2009 case of Li Qiaoming who died while detained on charges of illegal logging (Macbean 2016). The police unconvincingly attributed Li's death to inmates playing a game of 'cat and mouse' (resembling blind man's bluff) (Luo Jieqi 2009).

The Committee against Torture expressed 'concern over allegations of death in custody as a result of torture or resulting from lack of prompt medical care and treatment during detention ...' (UN CAT 2016, paragraph 24). The Committee further regretted the lack of statistical data on the number of deaths in custody (UN CAT 2016, paragraph 24). More generally, the Committee bemoaned the lack of government supplied data requested for its review (UN CAT 2016, paragraph 30).

The robust state secrets system creates another obstacle to obtaining a full picture of the PRC's formal criminal justice system (HRIC 2015, paragraphs 19–26; HRIC 2007). Obtaining an understanding of the CCP's disciplinary processes and detention mechanisms outside of the formal criminal justice system is understandably even more challenging.

# 17.2.2 Evaluating the Effectiveness of Legal Measures Aimed at Curbing Torture

We do not know to what extent torture would be more prevalent without the legal reforms that have been enacted to date. Deterrence in the form of actual criminal prosecutions of government officials who abuse detainees is rare (HRW 2015a, p. 103). A notable exception is the 2014 conviction of a police officer—who was implicated in the death of Huugiilt discussed above—for using force to extract confessions in other cases (Withnall 2015). The introduction in 2010 of an exclusionary rule for illegally obtained evidence and recordings of interrogations for certain crimes raised hopes that prophylactic measures would reduce torture, though analysis of these reforms to date has dampened optimism (Daum 2017a).

The 2010 rules on the exclusion of illegally obtained confessions were subsequently integrated into the 2012 revisions of the CPL. Five years later, studies on the actual number of cases in which evidence was excluded because of the methods police used to extract information suggest that those reforms have had little influence (Wang Biao 2015; Chen Guangzhong and Guo Zhiyuan 2014). A 2015 report by Human Rights

Watch (2015a) reviewed 158,000 criminal court verdicts published by the SPC and found 432 in which the suspects alleged torture. Human Rights Watch (2015a, p. 82) reported: 'The defendants were convicted in all 432 cases, and judges excluded confessions in only 23 cases (6 percent of the verdicts) due to concerns over police torture. And even in those 23 cases, the defendants were convicted'. Also problematic is that evidence derived from illegally obtained confessions is still admissible—a rejection of the so called 'fruits of the poisonous tree' doctrine (CPL, Article 54). New rules in 2017 began moving in the direction of restricting use of derivative evidence (SPC, SPP, Ministry of State Security and Ministry of Justice Provisions 2017), but the rules 'provide exceptions allowing that a new confession may still be admitted so long as the interrogation is conducted by new questioners who inform the accused of their rights and potential liability before the accused makes a new similar confession' (Daum 2017a).

As pointed out by the PRC delegation during the review by the Committee against Torture: 'Illegal evidence was excluded at any point in a criminal case, not only during the trial. Hence, in 2014, the arrests of 406 persons had been revoked during the examination phase for that reason and a further 198 persons had not been prosecuted' (UN CAT 2015b, paragraph 11). This is but a drop in the ocean when there were approximately 1.18 million criminal convictions in 2014 (Xinhua News Agency 2015). It is theoretically possible that reforms have deterred misconduct to such an extent that police declined to engage in abusive behavior and, thus, essentially no 'illegal' evidence was created to later be excluded by courts at trial. This sanguine explanation is nearly impossible to believe. More likely explanations are that courts are rejecting claims of illegal evidence and that potential claims are not even being raised. Given the limited role that defense lawyers play in the vast majority of cases today, most defendants would need to invoke the exclusionary rule without the assistance of counsel. For those defendants who are represented, their counsel may be unable to secure sufficient evidence to demonstrate that the evidence was illegally obtained. And, perhaps, some lawyers would advise their clients to not contest the evidence because more lenient treatment is likely following a confession. In short, we know evidence is seldom excluded due to the manner in which it was obtained, but we are largely in the dark regarding why this is the case.

Another promising reform is the CPL's requirement that police record interrogations in certain cases, and subsequent government statements that the PRC will expand the types of cases for which recordings are required (Zhu and Siegel 2015). Several factors temper enthusiasm for the salutary effects of this practice: police and prosecutors both make and keep recordings, giving rise to concerns for tampering; mandatory recordings are restricted to only serious cases; defendants and their lawyers have limited access to recordings; and the more informal initial investigation of suspects need not be recorded (Amnesty International 2015, pp. 42–3). An article jointly written by American and Chinese law professors concluded that: 'The degree to which electronic recording is actually being implemented is much less clear and the degree to which it is reducing torture in interrogation is uncertain' (Zhu and Siegel 2015).

The PRC authorities' activities outside of formal detention facilities are even less well known because unofficial detention places are by nature intended to be secret. The Committee against Torture raised questions about a variety of 'administrative detention'

measures and emphasized that it 'remains seriously concerned at consistent reports from various sources about a continuing practice of illegal detention in unrecognized and unofficial detention places—the so-called "black jails" ...' (UN CAT 2016, paragraph 42).

# 17.2.3 The Party Disciplinary System and Anti-Corruption Efforts

The CCP's disciplinary process presents a nearly impenetrable human rights vacuum. The Central Commission on Discipline Inspection (CCDI) and its local counterparts can detain Party members for questioning at a designated time and place (shuanggui) for months or longer (McGregor 2010, pp. 137-8; Sapio 2008). This disciplinary system is directly relevant to the Party's approximately 88 million members. Shuanggui also has broader repercussions for non-Party family members. Moreover, it signals the Party leadership's attitude towards taking meaningful steps to eradicate torture.

Shuanggui is distinct from, but complementary to, formal criminal punishment. The Party must transfer the case to the criminal justice system before a suspect may be sentenced to prison. For the vast majority of Party members accused of wrongdoing, however, the Party disciplinary process is the only system to which they will be subject. Human Rights Watch (2016a) analyzed CCDI data to find that, in 2014, the Party punished 232,000 individuals internally but only 12,000 were handed over to the procuratorate (HRW 2016a, p. 15). The numbers for 2015 were 336,000 and 14,000, respectively (HRW 2016a, p. 15).

Xi Jinping's protracted anti-corruption campaign has increased concerns about the treatment of shuanggui detainees, regardless of whether there is ever a formal criminal conviction. In February 2016, a former deputy director of the PRC's National Energy Administration retracted a confession, claiming it was made while being tortured during shuanggui (Ramzy 2016; Luo Jieqi and Cui Houjian 2016). A December 2016 Human Rights Watch report (2016a) added to the growing accounts of treatment amounting to torture in the Party disciplinary process (see also Xie Yinzong and Liu Mingming 2015; Mudie 2014). Among the interviewees for the report were former shuanggui detainees, family members and lawyers, although the report noted that most people contacted 'did not respond to request for interviews, some citing the sensitivity of the issue and fears of speaking to a foreign human rights organization' (HRW 2016a, p. 5).

In recent years, Chinese legal experts (Pu Zhiqiang 2014; Ye Zhusheng 2013) and even a delegate to the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference (Luo Guoping 2015) called for the Party disciplinary system to be brought within the formal legal system. The CCP had rebuffed these calls but shifted course in late 2016 by announcing a pilot program to create supervision commissions in Beijing, Shanxi and Zhejiang (CCP 2016). In January 2017, the CCDI emphasized plans to expand these pilots into a National Supervision Commission under a new Supervision Law (CCDI 2017), which was passed by the NPC on 20 March 2018. This formidable new institution is being introduced as a merger of Party and state forces to create a central anti-corruption body (Chen and Ohlberg 2017). The government announced plans to establish the nationwide system in 2018, with supervision commissions empowered to employ various measures including 'surveillance, interrogation, detention, and freezing of assets' (Yin Pumin 2017).

In his address to the Nineteenth Party Congress in October 2017, Xi Jinping announced that the supervision system would use a new form of detention called *liuzhi* (Xi Jinping 2017). Under the Supervision Law, suspects can be held in liuzhi for three months, with a possible three-month extension. While *liuzhi* includes some procedural requirements (e.g., notification of family members), people subject to this restraint would not be granted access to counsel.

Legal scholars have raised serious questions regarding the impact of the planned supervision system on the rights of the accused. In a March 2017 address, Professor Chen Guangzhong, a prominent criminal procedure scholar, called for safeguarding the rights of people being investigated, including strictly prohibiting coerced confessions and guaranteeing the right to counsel (Shan Yuxiao 2017). After release of the draft law, Professor Han Dayuan (2017), former dean of Renmin University law school, publicly criticized the law as lacking a constitutional basis. Professors Chen Guangzhong, Oin Oianhong and Chen Ruihua similarly posted criticisms regarding the law's constitutionality and its impact on the rights of the accused (Wang Lina 2017).

In sum, even with the Party accepting a veneer of legality for its anti-corruption efforts, well-grounded concerns about torture in the formal criminal justice system suggest that a wait-and-see attitude is prudent as to whether reforms improve actual practice. Indeed, melding Party disciplinary mechanisms with the formal government structure could more firmly embed rights-abusing practices rather than result in rights-supporting reforms. The creation of an explicitly Party-state entity further underscores the lack of separation between Party and state (dang-zheng fenkai) with instead there merely being a division of labor (dang-zheng fengong).

# 17.2.4 Predicting the Future of Reform Efforts

How reforms to the Party discipline system will play out is but one area of uncertainty. As US baseball coach and armchair philosopher Yogi Berra cautioned: 'It's tough to make predictions, especially about the future'. This is certainly true for the path of legal reform in China. Even if reforms aimed at eliminating torture gain greater traction, there is little reason for optimism that a major shift in practices will occur given the current leadership's at least tacit acceptance of torture, combined with entrenched structural factors in the criminal justice system that create incentives to perpetuate torture.

The criminal justice system's longstanding reliance on confessions (kougong) as the dominant form of evidence in criminal cases is difficult to shake (Belkin 2011). There is growing interest in China for incorporating varied forms of evidence, including use of DNA. For example, the Ministry of Public Security's 2013 Notice on Further Strengthening and Improving the Work of Implementing the Law in Criminal Matters and Avoiding the Occurrence of Cases of Miscarriages of Justice (MPS 2013) built on 2012 revisions to the CPL by calling for the need to improve the review of evidence in criminal trials. Yet confessions remain the cheapest and most prevalent form of evidence, and incentive structures are such that law enforcement authorities' careers can suffer for failing to close a case. Discussions regarding ending the use of quotas for arrests, indictments, guilty verdicts and case conclusions in performance evaluations could lighten pressure on police to coerce confessions if proposals are adopted and earnestly carried out (HRW 2015a, pp. 33-4; Chin 2015; Tiezzi 2015). Again, the vardstick of progress requires a searching review of actual practice, not just stated intentions.

Another barrier to reducing torture is persistent, misplaced confidence by at least some law enforcement personnel that forceful interrogation methods will help get 'the bad guys'. A former shuanggui detainee told Human Rights Watch (2016a, p. 1): 'I am also a Communist Party member ... Why did it happen to me? ... The judge in charge of my case told me, in private, that right now we have to fight corruption, so we need to employ these illegal and extraordinary channels—otherwise we can't catch the bad guys'. This argument is not new, nor is it unique to China. It echoes arguments made in post 9/11 United States when the US government used interrogation tactics that meant, as President Obama later admitted: 'We tortured some folks' (White House Office of the Press Secretary 2014).

Interrogation methods amounting to torture still violate international human rights norms regardless of whether the information obtained is accurate. There is no 'ticking time bomb' exception to the prohibition on torture. Moreover, there is growing recognition that torture is largely ineffective in obtaining accurate information. In an August 2016 report, the UN Special Rapporteur on torture and other cruel or unusual punishment cited a growing body of studies that undermine supporters of harsh questioning techniques: 'Irrefutable evidence from the criminal justice system demonstrates that coercive methods of questioning, even when not amounting to torture, produce false confessions' (Méndez 2016, paragraph 19). Put more bluntly, turning from former US Secretary of Defense Rumsfeld to a quote from one of his successors, Secretary James Mattis: 'I've always found, give me a pack of cigarettes and a couple of beers and I do better with that than I do with torture' (Apuzzo and Risen 2016).

There is mounting evidence across legal systems that torture is not only inhumane, but also it can lead authorities to proceed on the basis of inaccurate information. That this is a shared concern across countries counsels strongly in favor of increased international collaboration. Each country's legal, historical and cultural conditions are to a certain extent unique. There are, however, benefits to sharing experiences, both negative and positive, because it is common across countries to use a tripartite system of police, prosecutors and judges to investigate, prosecute and adjudicate criminal cases. The PRC government's current resistance to international collaboration has chilled but not frozen projects connecting Chinese officials and scholars with their foreign counterparts. One of many concerns is a reduction in the flow of information into China regarding what other countries are learning about the pernicious effects of coercive interrogation practices.

# 17.3 THE UNKNOWN UNKNOWNS

An effort to grasp how the right to be free from torture is playing out in the context of China should recognize the possible presence of unknown unknowns. The intentional opacity of the Party-state creates daunting obstacles to obtaining a nuanced, informed understanding of the treatment experienced by people who have their liberty restrained by the authorities in China. The international community must thus extrapolate from limited data points. The Committee against Torture complained of both the lack of statistical data and barriers to collaborating with civil society organizations, with several PRC citizen human rights defenders being prevented from leaving China for the Committee's hearings (UN CAT 2016, paragraph 38).

The current leadership's stern control over the media and distrust of non-governmental organizations does not bode well for shifting the unknown unknowns first to known unknowns and ultimately known knowns. There has long been a debate regarding the extent to which outside pressure can generate positive change to the human rights situation in China. The track record indicates that significant steps to eradicate torture must come from the PRC government itself, though international pressure might help nudge reforms. Even if no noticeable change is forthcoming, international attention at least provides moral support for victims of torture and their families.

The limited effectiveness of international condemnation raises the question of what strategies are available to, at a minimum, not have the PRC government benefit from the lack of transparency surrounding the treatment of people whose liberty has been restrained. One step is for other parties to CAT to place greater emphasis on human rights when the PRC government requests repatriation of its nationals (Lewis 2017b). In particular, parties to CAT agree not to return persons to another state 'where there are substantial grounds for believing that he would be in danger of being subjected to torture' (CAT, Article 3). Countries like the United States that put the burden of proof on the person who cites torture as a reason to oppose the return of a suspect, allow the PRC government to benefit from its opaque system: you must prove the likelihood of torture, but so little information is available that this is a tremendous hurdle (US DOJ 2017, p. M1).

The international community should not waver in drawing attention to the situation in China (*Washington Post* Editorial Board 2017), especially because the domestic Chinese media faces intense censorship. The combined injustice of censorship, violations of defendants' rights, and a lack of transparency were on full display when in December 2015 lawyer Pu Zhiqiang was tried on charges of 'inciting ethnic hatred' and 'picking quarrels and provoking trouble' through comments on his microblogs. The United States and other foreign observers were not granted access to the trial. Undeterred, the US Embassy released a statement expressing grave concerns about Mr. Pu's treatment and had a senior diplomat read the statement outside the courthouse. Interestingly, one of the sensitive cases for which Mr. Pu provided representation prior to his arrest was that of a Party official who was allegedly tortured to death while undergoing *shuanggui*. The subjection of government officials themselves to mistreatment if they are accused of malfeasance raises an intriguing possibility: some of the officials who had a hand in convicting Mr. Pu might wish that they had access to his services. Whether that is true is, at least for now, unknown.

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