

Kent Academic Repository

Gruffydd-Jones, Jamie (2025) *Call me by your name: The impacts of American human rights violations in authoritarian states.* British Journal of Political Science, 55 . ISSN 0007-1234.

Downloaded from

https://kar.kent.ac.uk/109467/ The University of Kent's Academic Repository KAR

The version of record is available from

https://doi.org/doi:10.1017/S0007123425000079

This document version

Publisher pdf

DOI for this version

Licence for this version

CC BY (Attribution)

Additional information

Versions of research works

Versions of Record

If this version is the version of record, it is the same as the published version available on the publisher's web site. Cite as the published version.

Author Accepted Manuscripts

If this document is identified as the Author Accepted Manuscript it is the version after peer review but before type setting, copy editing or publisher branding. Cite as Surname, Initial. (Year) 'Title of article'. To be published in *Title* of *Journal*, Volume and issue numbers [peer-reviewed accepted version]. Available at: DOI or URL (Accessed: date).

Enquiries

If you have questions about this document contact ResearchSupport@kent.ac.uk. Please include the URL of the record in KAR. If you believe that your, or a third party's rights have been compromised through this document please see our Take Down policy (available from https://www.kent.ac.uk/guides/kar-the-kent-academic-repository#policies).

ARTICLE

Call Me By Your Name: The Impacts of American Human Rights Violations in Authoritarian States

Jamie J. Gruffydd-Jones

Department of Politics and International Relations, University of Kent, Canterbury, Kent, UK Email: j.j.gruffydd-jones@kent.ac.uk

(Received 21 August 2024; revised 12 November 2024; accepted 23 January 2025)

Abstract

When the world's leading human rights advocates violate international norms, how does this affect support for those norms around the world? Rather than diffusing norm breaking across borders, I argue that authoritarian states' propaganda about liberal states' violations may increase the salience of human rights norms in places where those norms are normally censored. Focusing on American racial discrimination, I find that the Chinese Communist Party publicizes American human rights violations on to its citizens for strategic political reasons. Through two survey experiments I show that while exposure to news about American discrimination does provide substantial propaganda benefits to the regime, it also makes Chinese respondents more supportive of minority rights and more critical of their own country's respect for those rights. The study shows how prominent violations of international norms may be an underappreciated means of strengthening global public support for those norms.

Keywords: human rights; international norms; racism; authoritarian politics; China

The police killing of George Floyd, an unarmed black man, became headlines around the world in June 2020 (Haynes 2020). It even became front-page news in countries that would normally clamp down on public discussions of anything to do with race or human rights (Tharoor 2020). In China, state media was unsparing in its coverage (Bandurski 2020; Hernandez 2020), with Foreign Ministry spokesperson Zhao Lijian stating that 'racism against ethnic minorities in the U.S. is a chronic disease of American society' (CGTN 2020). For a time, Black Lives Matter protests and American racial discrimination became the most-discussed topics on Chinese social media (Daxue 2020). The tone of the articles was reminiscent of Soviet 1960s propaganda and its lavish coverage of racial tensions in the USA (Ioffe 2017; Dudziak 2011).

Many commentators have assumed that racist incidents like this in the USA would do untold damage to liberal norms around the world (Adkins and Devermont 2020; Dudziak 2020; Joshi 2020; Hernandez 2020). Yet the events of June 2020 also inspired local calls for better protection of minority rights, from policing in Europe (Nwabuzo and Sanaullah 2021) to the treatment of natives in Indonesia (Maulia 2020) – just as the American civil rights fight of the 1960s was taken on as inspiration by anti-colonial movements around the world (Vardaman 2015).

What are the global impacts of these kinds of prominent violations of human rights? When nations like the USA, which vehemently advocate for human rights protections abroad, tolerate the abuse of those rights at home, do these actions weaken human rights norms, making it more acceptable for others to violate them, or do they increase public commitment to their protection?

This is not just a question limited to racial discrimination. The USA has been accused of violating norms against torture (McKeown 2009), norms on the treatment of prisoners (Vasiliades 2005), and norms of democratic governance (McGee 2020). And while there is substantial literature on deliberate challenges to international norms (Wolff and Zimmermann 2016; Deitelhoff and Zimmerman 2019; Heller et al. 2012; McKeown 2009; Hurd 2013; Birdsall 2016), we know little about the consequences when states or their actors simply fail to respect those norms.

In this article, I examine the impacts of liberal states' human rights violations within authoritarian countries. I focus on authoritarian countries not only as leading violators of human rights themselves (Mitchell and McCormick 1988) but because a central feature of authoritarian regimes is their control of information, such that any information about human rights norms or violations that reaches the population is heavily dependent on the authorities. I argue that liberal states' violations of international human rights norms are an underappreciated way by which those norms are stimulated in authoritarian environments. Autocrats have incentives to strategically play up liberal rivals' violations of human rights to gain geopolitical propaganda advantages and to defend against attacks on their own behaviour. But by doing so, they increase the salience of those human rights norms amongst their citizens, norms that those citizens would otherwise have limited exposure to.

I examine this argument in China, using the case of racial discrimination in the USA. While this article began with the fallout from George Floyd's murder in 2020, it is about more than just that exceptional time. Through analysis of the *People's Daily* after 1979, I find that Chinese state media regularly covers racial issues in the USA, but is significantly more likely to do so after American criticism of human rights in China. In two survey experiments in China, both carried out in the years before George Floyd's murder, I demonstrate that, while exposure to information about discrimination in the USA does make Chinese respondents more negative about the USA and more positive about their own country, it also makes them significantly more supportive of policies that protect minority rights and significantly more likely to say that minorities are discriminated against at home. There is evidence that the authorities may recognize this trade-off, as Chinese state media discussions of minority rights in China also increased notably in the aftermath of reports about racism in the USA.

These findings have implications for our understanding of the spread of human rights norms. They demonstrate that for people living in America's authoritarian rivals where there is minimal opportunity to discuss sensitive issues around human rights, regime propaganda about American human rights violations may inadvertently open space for people to consider those norms and their (lack of) respect at home. While more research is needed on whether these findings extend to democracies or to geopolitical allies of the USA, the results show that prominent incidents of racial discrimination do not necessarily stall the progress of minority rights around the world. High-profile violations of international norms around racial equality and minority rights may be one way by which those norms attract attention and gain support, not least in authoritarian states.

Contestations and violations

Given that international norms are quite regularly – and publicly – broken, it is perhaps surprising that there has been little analysis of what these violations mean for those norms. Scholars have started to examine the other side of the longstanding International Relations literature on the emergence and spread of norms (for example Finnemore and Sikkink 1998; Kelley 2008) and explored how norms regress (Clark et al. 2018) or die (Panke and Petersohn 2012). A concept particularly relevant to this literature is norm contestation: the idea that norms are things that can be challenged, bolstered, and reinterpreted (Deitelhoff and Zimmerman 2019). Some studies of contestation have examined its challenges to the liberal world order (Wolff and Zimmermann 2016; Bettiza and Lewis 2020; Acharya 2011), while others have examined its local normative

implications (Bloomfield and Scott 2016; Bob 2012). Many have focussed on American challenges to international norms, most notably how the US government sought to contest and reinterpret the norm against torture after 2001 (Heller et al. 2012; McKeown 2009; Hurd 2013; Birdsall 2016).

According to Wiener (2014, 1), norm contestation is when an actor 'discursively' expresses their disapproval or opposition to a norm. But this only covers some occasions when norms are violated. In the War on Terror, for instance, US leaders, lawyers, and officials sought to redefine and legally justify torture (McKeown 2009), and to sell that justification to the American people and the world. But torture has also been carried out – at Abu Ghraib, for example, or in Chicago's prisons – by soldiers and police who were not seeking to deliberately contest that norm (Taylor 2016).

To date, there has been no work on how these kinds of violations of international norms – violations that are not explicit contestations – affect those norms. Violations are not just discursive, and they are not always expressive. When actors violate international norms – from engaging in torture to widespread racial discrimination – they are not necessarily doing so as part of an explicit attempt to express disapproval of that norm. They are not always what McKeown (2009, 11) calls 'norm revisionists': those who 'actively seek to reshape understandings of their country's relationship to the norm', or what Bloomfield and Scott (2016, 1) call 'norm antipreneurs', those who 'resist, as opposed to promote, normative change in world politics'. They may seek to hide or deny that violation, downplay or dismiss it, or seek an exemption or excuse to the norm – all while still upholding their commitment (Shannon 2000). Moreover, actors may contest or express disapproval of an international norm without violating that norm – they might question whether states should have a no-first-use nuclear posture without actually launching a nuclear strike, for example. As such, not all violations are contestations, nor are all contestations violations.

Moreover, the focus on norm revisionists and antipreneurs has meant that most work has examined only how those norms are publicly discussed or implemented by states or international organisations (see Deitelhoff and Zimmerman 2019). There has been almost no examination of what these challenges and violations mean for public support for the norms. And public opinion is not just a crucial barometer of the health of international norms, but a major factor in determining whether or not governments or organisations choose to implement or protect them. Even in China, public opinion has sparked changes in policies on issues as sensitive as women's rights (Rauhala 2015) and the death penalty (Kinzelbach 2014).

As Simmons and Jo (2019, 23) point out: 'to ignore public opinion when thinking through norm robustness is to ignore the very agents on whose behalf these norms are supposed to operate. When publics support international... norms, it helps to make them more robust' (original emphasis). To understand how violations affect the spread and regression of norms, we need to pay attention to how members of the public react to those violations.

The Impacts of International Norm Violations

The evidence from the sociology, economics, and psychology literature is that norm violations are contagious.³ Observing others break norms makes people realize that norms could be violated without punishment (Becker 1968) and re-evaluate whether the norms are even appropriate (Cialdini et al. 1990). In this case, people (partly) base their views about a norm on the behaviour of others, and whether others – particularly high-status others – respect that norm is a cue for whether it is worth respecting (Cialdini and Goldstein 2004; Diekmann et al. 2015).

¹The articles in this special issue are the only in-depth analysis of the impacts of norm contestation.

²The one exception is Simmons and Jo (2019) on public support for international criminal law.

³See, for example, Wilson and Kelling (1982); Cialdini et al. (1990); Glaeser et al. (1996); Keizer et al. (2008); Hill et al. (2012); Diekman et al. (2015); Georg et al. (2024).

And on the individual level at least, we know that when people hear about others' discriminatory beliefs or see them discriminating against ethnic minorities, they become more likely to do the same themselves (Blanchard et al. 1994; Stangor et al. 2001; Spörlein and Schlueter 2020; Álvarez-Benjumea 2023).

This feeds into an assumption of the contestation literature, which is that when actors see an international norm being violated by other states, they will perceive it to be less legitimate - and so become less likely to respect it (Panke and Petersohn 2012; McKeown 2009; Hurd 2007; Chow and Levin 2024; Carnegie and Carson 2018). Indeed, for some scholars, the only way that norms erode is if they are not respected (Onuf 1994; Panke and Petersohn 2012; McKeown 2009; Hurd 2007). Onuf (1994, 18) argues that 'every time agents choose not to follow a rule, they change the rule by weakening it and in so doing they may well contribute to the constitution of some new rule'.

If this argument is correct, then information about high-profile violations of international norms should reduce support and respect for those norms. And if minority rights norms are broken by the USA, a high-status leader of the liberal international order and proponent of minority rights after the First World War (Fink 2000), then the effect on the legitimacy of those norms should be even stronger. McKeown argues that American contestations of the norm against torture brought about a 'crisis of legitimacy in the international norm' (McKeown 2009, 5), and other governments used American abuses to justify their own use of torture (Johnson et al. 2016; Schmidt and Sikkink 2019). Chow and Levin find that referencing US human rights violations significantly diminishes American citizens' criticism of other states' behaviour, arguing that their actions 'reshape Americans' views on whether other countries' actions were norm violating' (2024, 109).

Some scholars have argued, however, that states' contestations may end up strengthening international norms. When a state expresses a public challenge to a norm, the subsequent reaction from civil society and the international community helps others reach a shared understanding of that norm (Wiener 2014; Badescu and Wiess 2010; Deitelhoff and Zimmerman 2019). So, while America's use of torture did worsen human rights amongst those countries who had joined in US-led counterterrorism programmes (Schmidt and Sikkink 2019), it also made other countries come out and publicly reiterate their commitment to the norm against torture, clarifying where it did and did not apply (Keating 2014), arguably increasing the norm's robustness in the long term.

This suggests that there may be a difference between the immediate license that norm violations give to some people or states to go on and break the norms themselves and the longerterm impacts those violations have on wider public internalisation of that norm.

Norm salience

Rosert (2019) argues that the salience of a norm is a critical factor behind its success. People's preferences about policy issues are inconsistent and often determined by whatever is at the front of their minds at a given time (Zaller 1992) - something that the news cycle has a crucial role in. Research on agenda setting has shown that the level of media coverage can significantly affect how concerned people are about a particular issue (Dearing and Rogers 1996; McCombs and Reynolds 2009), from crime (Romer et al. 2003) to the European Union (Peter 2003) and, importantly for this study, racism (Wang 2000). People are much more likely to care about issues that are salient to them, and therefore more likely to become norm entrepreneurs - and mobilize behind norm entrepreneurs – on salient issues (Rosert 2019). The more information that is publicly available about a norm at any given time, then the more likely that people will develop common knowledge around what their peers think about the norm (Chwe 2001; Morris and Shin 2002), making it easier for them to coordinate and mobilize around it (McAdams 2000).

As we have seen, prominent violations of international norms – like the George Floyd killing or the CIA torture revelations - often receive worldwide coverage, pushing issues like racial

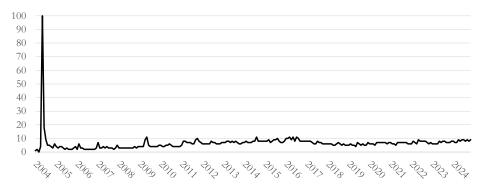


Figure 1. Weekly Google search trends for نعزيب (Arabic for 'torture') around the world, from 2004-2024. The scale is a relative measure of search volume over time from 0–100, whereby a volume of 10 is a tenth of the volume of 100. The 'peak' date encompasses the full five weeks from 25 April – 30 May 2004. The Abu Ghraib abuses hit the news on 28 April.

discrimination or torture to the front pages of newspapers around the world for weeks, in a way they rarely are in the normal news cycle. Unlike when individuals observe their peers cheating (Hill et al. 2012) or see hate speech online (Álvarez-Benjumea 2023), what makes prominent international violations distinctive is that they are often accompanied by a news cycle filled with mass domestic and international criticism, debates, protests, and deep examination of the norm and its consequences. In the aftermath of George Floyd's murder, for example, Google searches and tweets about racism (Thelwall and Thelwall 2021) rose to unprecedented levels, ⁴ criticism poured in from international leaders and organisations (Hernandez and Mueller 2020), and debates surged around the world over norms towards racial equality, minority rights, and police brutality (Hassan and Noack 2021). Even following US attempts to contest norms around torture (McKeown 2009), as Figure 1 shows, over the month following the Abu Ghraib revelations in 2004, Arab attention to the issue reached extraordinarily high levels. It was the high-profile violation of these norms of torture and racial equality that made them more salient than at any other point before or afterwards.

This all suggests that when norms like these are made so salient, then instead of a contagion of violations, we may see a rise in awareness and support among observers around the world (Opp 2012; Mäs and Opp 2016). Rosert (2019) shows that the reason the norm against the use of napalm became so strong was because its devastating use in the Korean War made the norm so salient that it was taken on by anti-war campaigners and stayed on their agenda even after the war ended. One feature of the global George Floyd protests was how they took on not just police brutality in Minneapolis, but respect for norms around racial and ethnic equality in their own locality. Amidst the dramatic global rise in tweets about racism in early June 2020, only 12 per cent of tweets referenced George Floyd or Black Lives Matter, with most talking more generally about systemic racism and discrimination (Thelwall and Thelwall 2021). In the aftermath, people in Houston, Texas – the other side of the country – became 12 percentage points less likely to say that race relations in their own town were 'excellent' or 'good' (Olin 2021). Protestors in Australia called on local leaders to defend the rights of Indigenous communities; protestors in France sought to highlight the death in police custody of one of their own, Adama Traoré; and Belgian demonstrators called on the country to face up to its colonial legacy. According to the ACLED database of protests, in May/June 2020 there were at least 800 global protests related to George Floyd. At least 85 per cent of these involved some kind of protest at racial injustice in their own country. Local activist groups around the world sought to co-opt their own public's heightened attention towards what was going on in the USA to launch protests about issues of racial justice and police brutality at home (Mohdin et al. 2020).

⁴See Supplementary Materials Figure 2 for global search trends around the George Floyd killing.

The George Floyd case does highlight an important scope condition: the presence of a negative global or local response to the norm violation – and highlights the difference between violations and contestation. The norm of racial equality is a strong one (Búzás 2018) that has not been explicitly contested by the USA, and the global reaction to prominent instances of American racism has – in general – been highly critical (Dudziak 2011). As such, global coverage of these violations has not just increased the salience of the norms of racial equality to people, but also the salience of the globally critical response.

But prominent norm violations may not always meet such a widespread negative reaction, and some countries will be far less critical of those violations than others. Strong allies of the violator may try to defend or justify its behaviour, for example, or the norm itself may be locally contested, with some local actors openly welcoming the violator's challenges to the norm. Carnegie and Carson (2018) argue that norms may be weakened when actors see that violators have not been punished sufficiently by the international community, while Adler-Nissen (2014) posits the same when states shamed for their norm violations choose to actively contest that stigmatisation. Implicit in both arguments is the idea that violations may be more likely to weaken norms when there are actors who openly accept or justify those violations.

For watching foreign publics, this kind of acceptance or justification is normally less prevalent, however. If human rights violations are prominent in international news, it is invariably because they are being widely criticised by foreign leaders, journalists, or civil society. Rarely are a country's violations of human rights celebrated around the world, especially violations of strong norms like the ones around racial equality discussed in this study. Nonetheless, we should bear in mind that the argument may not necessarily hold in countries where the local media narrative is more accepting of the norm violations.

Authoritarian states

In authoritarian states, especially those that are geopolitical rivals of the US, I argue that the media narrative is not only likely to be highly critical, but that the impacts of American human rights violations may be especially strong.

Regimes like the Chinese Communist Party rarely allow news of any human rights violations at home, and heavily censor discussions of ethnicity, religion, and minority rights, particularly over issues like Xinjiang and Tibet (Brady 2012; Tai 2014). Repnikova (2017, 81) cites one Chinese journalist's account that there are 'some clearly outlawed topics, such as . . . the issues concerning contentious minorities'. There is a stark difference here with the attention that Chinese media has given to racial and ethnic issues in the USA. Through the summer of 2020, for example, Chinese newspapers featured hundreds of news stories and editorials about George Floyd's killing and the subsequent protests (Bandurski 2020), making highly salient the normally taboo topics of racial equality, respect for ethnic minorities, and police brutality. And like the rest of the world, in China, there was an outpouring of sympathy and outrage for George Floyd on social media (Daxue 2020), with extraordinary levels of internet searches for 'racism' and 'ethnic minorities'.⁵

And in China, state media articles about US human rights violations are indeed invariably critical. In contrast to the way that human rights in China is talked about,⁶ Chinese state media reports about the USA have highlighted the individual and social suffering caused and played up the need to respect international norms and values of racial equality and justice. After George Floyd, for example, state media protested 'the painful struggle of American minorities under the weight of racial discrimination' (Beijing Youth Daily 2020), how 'in America, racial discrimination has the most unbearably dark history and scars' (Xinhua 2020a), discrimination that violated 'the general consensus of the international community' (Xinhua 2020b). Even two years later, state

⁵See 种族偏见https://trends.so.com/result?query = 种族偏见; and 少数民族https://trends.so.com/result?query = 少数民族.

⁶For a deeper discussion of how human rights issues are framed by Chinese state media, see Chen and Hsu (2018).

media was continuing its criticism, with an article under the leadership's official pen name 'Zhong Sheng' (钟声) entitled: 'Minorities 'Can't Breathe': Racism Runs Through the US Political System' (People's Daily 2022).

As such, in authoritarian states like China, mass reporting of prominent American human rights violations significantly increases the salience of human rights norms and brings rare cues from the state that those norms should be respected. This may not just increase public support for those norms, but even open up space for discussion of domestic issues that would have otherwise seemed impossible. Mokhtari (2009) gives a superb example of these dynamics in the Middle East after revelations of US troops' torture of Iraqis in Abu Ghraib in 2004. She notes how the revelations provoked an impassioned outcry from autocrats across the region – autocrats who had been using very similar techniques against their own citizens (and suppressing any criticism of their actions). But in this case, the widespread state-sanctioned media and public outrage at American violations opened up space for citizens in Jordan, Yemen, and beyond to discuss and criticize those same violations at home. Local activists across the region took advantage of the increased public attention to human rights and the space to discuss the issues more freely to put pressure on their own governments, calling for the abolition of torture as well as other rights abuses. Mokhtari quotes one news commentator (2009, 157) saying:

Since the Abu Ghraib prison crime was exposed, the biggest discussion group in the Arab world has been human rights, and this is a fine thing. The subject of human rights, freedom, and the state of the prison has taken over every conversation (in the Arab world), after many years when the Arabs talked little about the value of the individual and the severity of the torture and killing.

Why then, given these dangers and given their control over information, would authoritarian regimes allow their citizens to hear about these violations? It may be that the violations are just too high-profile to be censored – given the scale of international coverage of the Black Lives Matter protests, it would be hard to hide the protests from the population. But as we have discussed, Abu Ghraib, George Floyd, and indeed many other far less publicised human rights issues in the USA have been front-page news in authoritarian states across the Middle East, Russia, and China, often for weeks, and often accompanied by extensive criticism from government officials. There appears to be a strategy behind the coverage of these abuses.

Geopolitics

One explanation is geopolitical – for states like Russia and China at least, the USA is a geopolitical rival, and an accusation of human rights abuse is a useful tool to denigrate and delegitimize that rival both on the international stage and at home. Friendly countries, on the other hand, may be more likely to play down or justify their ally's actions, especially if that ally itself fights back against the criticism (Adler-Nissen 2014). Certainly, the most extensive coverage (in authoritarian states at least) of American human rights violations has come amongst its geopolitical rivals (Dugyala 2020). That is not to say that America's authoritarian allies have not covered or even criticised its violations, especially in the case of Abu Ghraib⁸ – but this coverage has often been less enthusiastically negative than that of its adversaries.

⁷See, for example, Bachman and Brito Ruiz (2024) for a discussion of how geopolitical relationships influence coverage of human rights abuses.

⁸Mokhtari (2009).

⁹In the Middle East, for example, coverage of George Floyd was far more critical in Iran than in Egypt (although US-ally Jordan was a dissenting exception, Abdelaziz and Katz 2020).

For these adversaries, highlighting American human rights violations may help to entrench their citizens' negative opinions of the USA and its behaviour, bolster their views about the comparative superiority of their own country, ¹⁰ and make them more likely to consider how well – in comparison - their own leaders respect those same rights. ¹¹

Whataboutism

Authoritarian states are also particularly likely to be shamed and sanctioned by the international community for their own human rights violations (Lebovic and Voeten 2006). In the first place, as mentioned above, highlighting American abuses may show that these kinds of violations are not that unusual or counter-normative. Moreover, given that the USA is often at the forefront of any human rights shaming, highlighting American leaders' own inability to live up to their words helps to frame those criticisms as hypocritical and illegitimate (Chow and Levin 2024).

And just as a common response in the Soviet Union to American critiques of their political system was 'and you lynch negros',¹² Chinese propagandists have regularly accused the USA of hypocrisy when it pressures Beijing over human rights (Gruffydd-Jones 2022). This also works the other way: Egyptian state media's comparatively restrained response to George Floyd was plausibly linked to the Trump administration's recent refusal to condemn Cairo's own crackdowns (Abdelaziz and Katz 2020).

This implies that America's geopolitical rivals, as well as those countries subjected to its human rights criticism, have incentives to play up American violations. In practice, there will be substantial overlaps between the two. States are far more likely to put pressure on their geopolitical opponents over human rights (Terman 2023), while human rights pressure can critically damage bilateral relations – China in particular has increasingly conditioned its diplomatic relationships on silence over human rights. How under-pressure US allies might deal with American violations is a question for another study – but the above argument does imply that authoritarian rivals of the USA subject to regular American pressure over their human rights will see strategic advantages from reporting highly critical accounts of America's own violations on to their people.

But while these propaganda tactics may well lend those states a temporary ideological victory, as Mokhtari (2009, 163) says: 'governments can be trapped by their own appropriations'. Autocratic rivals' efforts to gain a strategic advantage from naming and shaming liberal states' human rights violations leave them vulnerable to giving oxygen to those same norms at home. While authoritarian state media coverage of the norms may not necessarily tell people what their peers at home think, it does give space for those peers to consider and talk about those norms in a way they may not have done otherwise. Geopolitical rivalry may even strengthen these dynamics. We would expect that publics who are already highly anti-American will be especially critical of the USA when it breaks an international norm. In order to be consistent with this criticism, they may persuade themselves that the norm is highly important to them (Acharya et al. 2018), and, as a result, pay more attention to how well their own country protects that norm.

In China, the CCP's attempts to rally its populace against a hypocritical USA has, on occasion, led to unintended consequences, spreading awareness of human rights at home (Gruffydd-Jones 2022). In April 2022, for example, at the height of the COVID-19 lockdowns in Shanghai, the CCP sought to battle back against a U.S. Congressional report on human rights in China by issuing its own heated denunciation of the conditions in America, under the hashtag 'America is the country with the world's biggest human rights deficit.' In one night, the hashtag received over 580 million

¹⁰See Kayser and Peress (2012); Aytaç (2020) for the role of international comparisons in public approval.

¹¹See Terman (2023) and Gruffydd-Jones (2022) for the importance of geopolitical rivalry in shaping public responses to international shaming.

¹²Ioffe (2017).

¹³美国就是全球最大的人权赤字国https://s.weibo.com/weibo?q=percent23美国就是全球最大的人权赤字国percent23.

views on Weibo – but not in the way intended. Instead, accompanied by the phrase 'Call me by your name', the hashtag became the focal point for an extraordinary burst of criticism towards COVID-19 restrictions, human rights, and authoritarianism in China (Ma 2022).¹⁴

To summarize, prominent violations of international human rights norms by liberal powers may be a way by which those norms develop and spread in information-poor authoritarian environments. Regimes seeking to gain (geo)political advantages against their liberal rivals have incentives to publicize and condemn their rivals' failures to respect human rights norms. However, the subsequent unusual salience afforded to these norms and to the criticisms of their violation may increase support for the norms themselves and make citizens more critical of the (lack of) respect for those norms at home. This gives us four hypotheses:

H1a: Authoritarian regimes will be more likely to publicize information about liberal states' violations of human rights norms to their citizens when geopolitical rivalry with those states is greater.

H1b: Authoritarian regimes will be more likely to publicize information about liberal states' violations of human rights norms to their citizens when facing human rights pressure from those states.

H2a: Information about liberal states' violations of human rights norms will reduce support for the liberal state and increase support for the home state amongst citizens of authoritarian states.

H2b: Information about liberal states' violations of human rights norms will increase support for the norm and decrease the belief that it is respected at home amongst citizens of authoritarian states.

Chinese media coverage of race in America

In this paper, I focus on how American discrimination against ethnic, racial, and religious minorities affects the attitudes of citizens in China. The relevant norms here are the norm of racial equality, a strong international norm (Klothz 1995; Búzás 2018) containing as its core elements the norm of equality of treatment, equality of opportunity, and equality of outcomes, ¹⁵ as well as the range of global and regional norms and laws aimed at the protection of ethnic minorities (Kymlicka 2017).

The USA signed the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD) in 1966, although the country's subsequent compliance has been accused of being 'grossly inadequate' in many areas (Human Rights Watch 2022). The People's Republic of China has also been an advocate for international norms around racial equality and minority rights (Sautman 1999) and signed the ICERD in 1981. Despite criticism from the United Nations and others that it has also widely violated these norms and laws (OHCHR 2022), the CCP has publicly proclaimed itself a defender of minority rights and racial equality and has implemented hundreds of national and local laws and regulations aimed at protecting the rights of its 125 million ethnic minority citizens (Leibold 2016). Despite this, as discussed above, the treatment of minorities is a highly censored topic in China.

Firstly, I examine how violations of minority rights in the USA are reported in China's state media, in order to understand what the CCP wishes its public to be exposed to. To do this, I use

¹⁴This is a good case of how incessant state media coverage of American problems may backfire in other ways, as 'netizens' expressed their irritation towards the government's repeated efforts to appeal to anti-Americanism, despite troubles at home (Koetse 2022).

¹⁵See Búzás (2018), pp. 364-5 for more details.

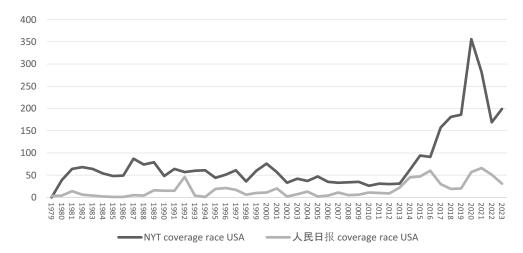


Figure 2. Number of articles mentioning 'racism' or 'racial discrimination' and 'United States' in the People's Daily and New York Times by year from 1979-2023.

the *People's Daily* (人民日报), the most authoritative and tightly controlled source of CCP propaganda (Stockmann 2013). As Figure 2 demonstrates, the paper's coverage of racial issues in the USA does not appear to neatly follow domestic coverage in the US. So, what does explain this coverage?

If H1a is correct, Chinese state media coverage of American racial issues should be more likely at times of particularly intense geopolitical tension between China and the USA. If H1b is correct, then coverage should be more likely at times of American criticism of human rights in China. To test this, I conducted time-series regressions of *People's Daily* mentions of racial discrimination in the USA ¹⁶ between 1979 and 2023, examining the change in the twenty-eight days after a major international incident between China and the USA ¹⁷ and the twenty-eight days after any American criticism of human rights in China. ¹⁸ Further details of the time series model are in Supplementary Materials 1A, including a discussion of covariates. ¹⁹

As we might expect, American media coverage of racial issues in the USA does predict coverage in Chinese state media. But the *People's Daily* is also significantly more likely to write about this discrimination in the period after American pressure on human rights in China. In the twenty-eight days after (any) American pressure, on average the newspaper includes almost twice as many stories about racial issues in the USA than at other times.²⁰ It is over twice as likely to write about these issues in the aftermath of geopolitical incidents with the USA, although this is only weakly statistically significant.²¹

Much of the coverage was a direct response to American criticism of human rights in China. Some *People's Daily* stories that reported on recent American criticism of China also sought to play up the hypocrisy of those comments by highlighting racism in the USA,²² while *People's Daily*

¹⁶Coding details in Supplementary Materials 1A.

¹⁷Between 1979 and 2023 (see Supplementary Materials 1A for details). For robustness, I also examine a monthly aggregate of US-China tensions between 1993 and 2023, taken from Rogers et al. (2024).

¹⁸Extending Gruffydd-Jones's (2022) dataset on American pressure on human rights in China (1979-2023). See Supplementary Materials 1A for full details.

¹⁹These include a control for NYT coverage of racial discrimination in the USA. The model is robust to the inclusion of various covariates (Supplementary Materials Table 1).

 $^{^{20}}$ An increase from 0.033 to 0.06 stories a month (p<0.001).

 $^{^{21}}$ p = 0.067. We also see no relationship to Rogers et al.'s (2024) US-China tension index, suggesting the results are not highly robust. See the Supplementary Materials for full regression tables.

²²For example, People's Daily (2011).

stories about Congressional reports on human rights in China were often featured right next to China's own reports on the USA.²³ Indeed, issues of the *People's Daily* that mention American human rights pressure are almost three times as likely to also contain references to American racial discrimination (whether in the same article or not, see Supplementary Materials Table 3). The timing and content of these articles suggest that the goal is to delegitimize the USA as a global leader and arbiter of human rights, rather than to rile the public up against a rival. Issues of the *People's Daily* that discuss American racial discrimination are significantly more likely to describe the USA as a 'hegemon', for example, but are no more likely to refer to it as an 'enemy'.²⁴

The coverage is overwhelmingly critical. In none of the articles is there an attempt to justify or contest the norms around racial discrimination or minority rights. Sometimes the coverage itself takes a highly critical tone,²⁵ at other times it highlights other states' criticisms,²⁶ and at others it explicitly emphasizes the fact that international norms and laws have been violated.²⁷ Indeed, the *People's Daily* mentions the ICERD significantly more often in the aftermath of stories about the USA's racial problems than at any other time,²⁸ showing how in Chinese state media, international laws are most likely to be talked about when the USA breaks them.

Experiments on the impacts of American racial discrimination in China

The above analysis shows that Chinese citizens are regularly exposed to information about discrimination in the USA, and not necessarily at the times when the discrimination occurs. Next, I examine how American violations of international norms affect attitudes and preferences at an individual level, using online survey experiments with Chinese citizens.

Study 1

The first goal was to test **H2b**: how exposure to American discrimination against minorities influences Chinese attitudes towards minority rights at home. The experimental design was a simple one. Respondents were randomly assigned to one of two groups. Those in the control group were given a paragraph containing generic information about minority groups around the world (see Supplementary Materials for full texts).²⁹ Those in the main treatment group were given a paragraph about systemic discrimination against minority groups in the USA that was designed to closely reflect storie, 2022). This text contained generic information rather than news about a specific incident to ensure that respondents' views were not influenced by potential biases around the incident itself.³⁰ While the text highlighted the human and social costs of discrimination, the language used was designed to be as neutral as possible:³¹

²³For example, People's Daily (2015).

²⁴See Supplementary Materials Table 4.

²⁵For example, People's Daily (2024a).

²⁶For example, People's Daily (2020).

²⁷For example, People's Daily (2024b).

²⁸See Supplementary Materials Table 5.

²⁹The text was designed to ensure that control group respondents also read about minority rights, such that we can be sure that the treatment effect was not merely due to treatment groups being primed to think about minorities. It was designed to do so as neutrally as possible without mentioning the treatment of those rights (positive or negative) and was designed to be roughly the same length as the treatment. See the Supplementary Materials for more details on the neutrality of the control.

³⁰The randomisation procedures were successful (see Supplementary Materials Tables 8 and 13). There are no statistically significant differences in demographic variables.

³¹The treatment includes information on how the USA has violated each aspect of the norm of racial equality (equality of treatment, equality of opportunity, and equality of outcomes: see Búzás 2018).

Treatment (translated from Chinese)

Ethnic minorities in the United States face varying degrees of discrimination. There is a deep-rooted prejudice in the field of law enforcement in the United States and the basic human rights of ethnic minorities are often arbitrarily trampled. According to United Nations statistics, ethnic minorities like African-Americans and Muslims are often targets of arbitrary arrest for peaceful activities and are disproportionately more likely to be arrested and sentenced by police than the majority whites. In the economic field, ethnic minorities are in an all-round disadvantage in terms of employment, career development, wage income, and economic status. In addition, the US government has also heavily monitored its Muslim community, and the Muslim community is experiencing increasingly serious discrimination. Ethnic and racial discrimination in the United States runs through its history.

After questions on their understanding of the text, respondents were given two main items.³² The first tests the belief that norms against discrimination are respected at home, and asks (on a 1–100 scale, from 'none at all' to 'very serious'): 'Does discrimination exist in China against any minority religious or ethnic groups?' To test support for norms around minority rights, respondents were asked the extent to which they agreed with three questions, which were aggregated to form one 'norms' measure:³³

- o Religious or ethnic discrimination should be illegal in China.
- o Minority religious and ethnic groups in China should be given preferential access to education to ensure equal representation.
- o Workplaces should provide discrimination training to ensure good ethnic and religious relations.

The first pilot study was carried out online in summer 2018, with a sample of 409 respondents recruited through a Chinese crowdsourcing company. The surveys were drawn from all walks of life, but the sample more closely resembles the social media population – more urban, rich, and well-educated – than the overall population, and those who participated are likely to be those citizens who are more interested in social issues (they chose to take a survey on 'social attitudes'). However, the social media population, in 2019 almost 60 per cent in China,³⁴ are arguably those most likely to find out about news of racial discrimination in the USA, as well as being especially likely to participate in public political and social discussions (Yang 2009). Studies of Chinese online samples (Li et al. 2018) have found that they are largely consistent with population-based surveys.

Results

Study 1 provides initial support for **H2b.** As Figure 3 shows, information about discrimination in the USA increased Chinese citizens' willingness to support policies that protect minority rights by 0.14 on a 1–4 scale (p = 0.015) and increased their perception that minorities were discriminated against in China by 5 percentage points (p = 0.06).

³²These questions were created to allow respondents to give their opinions on general questions of minority rights and discrimination without asking sensitive questions about specific issues or ethnic/ religious groups.

³³Please see Supplementary Materials Table 9 for a discussion of these three measures. There was a reasonable degree of consistency in these measures in both surveys, with a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.65. Results were similar for the measures individually as for the aggregation.

³⁴Cheung (2019).

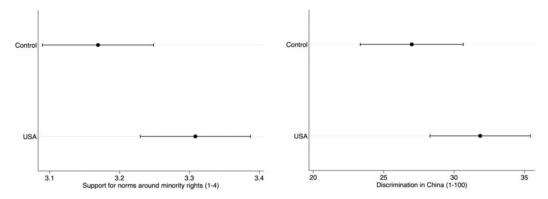


Figure 3. Study 1's Average Treatment Effects of US discrimination on beliefs about the seriousness of discrimination in China and support for minority rights (combined three measures), 95 per cent confidence intervals.

Study 2

Given the small sample size, the first study has only moderate power.³⁵ To replicate and extend our findings, I carried out a second study in 2019, this time with an online sample of 974 respondents from across China. This experiment provided the same prompts in the control and US treatment group and measured the same two main dependent variables. It also extended the study in two ways.

The first goal was to test **H2a**: that exposure to information about American human rights violations would provide propaganda benefits to the Chinese Communist Party. The survey included two post-treatment questions asking respondents to state their opinions towards the US government; and their level of patriotic sentiment (both on a 1–4 scale). In this survey, questions directly asking about support for the CCP were removed for political sensitivity reasons, but the CCP has promoted patriotism for political purposes (Zhao 1998), and patriotism is a strong predictor in surveys of support for the Party (Dickson et al. 2017). Nonetheless, even by itself, an increase in patriotic sentiment would demonstrate clear propaganda benefits of this strategy.

The second goal was to understand whether the effects in Study 1 were driven by the fact that violations occurred in the USA. On one hand, we might expect that any information about human rights violations would increase the salience of those norms, regardless of their location. On the other hand, the USA is a liberal democracy, a global hegemon and leader of the human rights movement over the last three decades, and a geopolitical rival to China. As such, violations in the USA should be more noteworthy than violations in allied or other authoritarian states. To test this, in Study 2, respondents in a second treatment group were given a similar paragraph to Treatment 1 about discrimination against minority groups in Iran (see Supplementary Materials).

Results

Exposure to information about discrimination in the USA increased the proportion of respondents who saw the USA in a negative light from 59 per cent to 69 per cent and increased those who reported the highest level of patriotism from 66 per cent to 75 per cent.³⁶ As with Study 1, however, this information also significantly increased Chinese citizens' belief that minorities were discriminated against in their own country, and increased their willingness to support policies that protect minority rights (Figure 4). In the control group, Chinese people were highly supportive of policies that protected minority rights, but relatively sceptical of the existence

³⁵⁶⁹ per cent power.

 $^{^{36}}$ Both are statistically significant at p<0.05. Both split into binary scales for ease of interpretation, but are also significant on the ordinal scale, see Supplementary Materials Figure 1.

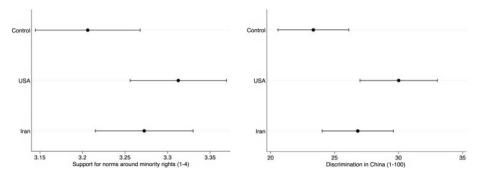


Figure 4. Study 2's average treatment effects of US and Iranian discrimination on beliefs about the seriousness of discrimination in China and support for minority rights (combined three measures), 95 per cent confidence intervals.

of discrimination at home. US discrimination increased their already-high support for minority rights by around 0.1 on a 1–4 scale (difference significant at p = 0.013), and their perceptions of discrimination at home by almost 7 percentage points (p = 0.0015).

For the Iran treatment, while the direction of the effects was the same as for the USA, the strength of those effects was weaker. Given that respondents were equally critical in the survey about US and Iranian violations,³⁷ this suggests that there may be something about the fact that violations occurred in the USA that made these norms particularly salient.³⁸

These results are robust to the inclusion of covariates and the disaggregation of the norms measures (see Supplementary Materials Tables 14 and 15). Despite the low starting point for perceptions of discrimination in the control group, the results do not appear to be due to floor effects. After splitting the variable into two blocks ('high' (over 50) and 'low' (below 50), the treatment makes significantly more Chinese citizens (from 16 per cent to 24 per cent) believe that discrimination is 'high' in their country.³⁹

Limitations

The online samples are more well-educated and urban than the Chinese population, and more reflective of social media users. ⁴⁰ The impact of violations on support for norms was higher for university-educated than non-university-educated respondents (although the non-university sample size was low and there was no difference in perceptions of discrimination: Supplementary Materials Table 17), suggesting that the effects may not extend to more rural and less highly-educated citizens. We should note also that since there are very few minority respondents in this survey (although the proportion of the majority Han ethnic group in the survey is similar to the population), the study can tell us little about non-majority groups.

We also cannot rule out the role of social desirability biases, whereby exposure to a passage that is critical of discrimination in the USA makes respondents more aware of the social costs of expressing support for discrimination rather than actually changing their views. Other responses are consistent with this: in Study 2, for example, exposure to American discrimination also made respondents more likely to say they would accept a family member marrying a black person (with

 $^{^{37}}$ On average, respondents in the US treatment condition said that the seriousness of discrimination in the USA was 79 on a 1–100 scale, whereas, in the Iran treatment condition, respondents scored Iran as 78.5.

³⁸The difference between the Iran and US treatments for both norms and discrimination was not significant, however, which limits too much interpretation of this finding. The Iran treatment had no impact on views towards China or the USA, or indeed towards Iran.

³⁹We see similar effects for norms (Supplementary Materials Table 18). The results are also all robust to attentiveness measures: see Supplementary Materials Table 15 for details.

⁴⁰Full breakdown of characteristics in Supplementary Materials Table 7.

no impacts on Muslims or white people, Supplementary Materials Table 21).⁴¹ However, social desirability does not explain the difference in responses between the US and Iran treatments, of which respondents were otherwise equally critical. There were also low levels of non-response for the questions on norms and discrimination, suggesting that these questions were not highly socially sensitive.⁴² Perhaps more importantly, even if respondents are displaying social desirability biases, the findings are still relevant for our understanding of the impacts of overseas violations. Even if exposure to overseas violations does not actually lead to genuine changes in attitudes, the studies show at the minimum that exposure makes Chinese citizens – and especially the kinds of citizens who tend to use social media – more likely to openly express their support for human rights norms rather than embolden them to express support for the violation of these norms.

Semi-structured interviews with Chinese citizens suggest that these responses are not merely superficial reactions to surveys. In spring 2016, our team randomly approached seventy citizens in public places across a city in eastern China. As part of the interviews, we provided them with information about gender discrimination in the USA, and asked them for their thoughts, without any further prompts. Most respondents offered their views on women's rights in the USA, both positive and negative, and some (fifteen interviewees) mentioned that they thought the information made the USA look hypocritical in its approach to human rights in China and beyond. Only five respondents dismissed women's rights as irrelevant or unconcerning to them. Importantly, for this study, however, over a third of the interviewees then proactively brought up women's rights in China, however, over a third of the interviewees then proactively brought up women's rights in China, and went on to discuss their own concerns about the conditions for women at home. While many of these comments were nuanced in comparing the US and Chinese approaches to gender equality, it is clear that for these interviewees, information about discrimination in the USA opened up space for a conversation about those issues in China.

While none of the interviewees explicitly highlighted China's geopolitical rivalry with the USA, it is plausible that the survey respondents' desire to condemn the behaviour of a rival may have led them to overemphasize their own concern about the violated norms. Certainly, as Figure 2 shows, similar violations in a non-rival (Iran) did have a weaker impact. However, as noted, respondents were equally critical towards discrimination in the USA and Iran, suggesting that a) geopolitical rivalry was not driving their criticism, and b) their desire to condemn those countries' abuses was not driving their views towards discrimination at home. There is little evidence that respondents were merely seeking consistency in their views about discrimination across countries: indeed, the respondents who were the most critical of American discrimination against minorities were not only no more likely to support minority rights norms but were also the least critical of discrimination in China.⁴⁶

Moreover, if geopolitics were indeed the driving factor, we would expect that the US treatment would have its biggest impact on anti-American respondents. But in Study 1, respondents'

⁴¹Although the US treatment did also make respondents significantly more likely to say they would accept their family member marrying a Buddhist, suggesting that they are not just superficially expressing answers on the subject matter of the vignette but are thinking about minority groups and discrimination more deeply.

⁴²Nederhof (1985). See Supplementary Materials Tables 19 and 20.

⁴³For a discussion of the sampling method please see Supplementary Materials, Section 4. While we approached people from as wide a range of backgrounds as possible, this sample is not representative of the Chinese population. It was based in an affluent city and overestimated people who would spend time in public places. Nonetheless, the interviews do help illustrate how ordinary Chinese people react to American discrimination in their own words.

⁴⁴This was done as part of a wider project on women's rights (see Gruffydd-Jones 2022). At this time, women's rights and gender equality were relatively openly discussed in China. We judged that it would have been too sensitive to encourage interviewees to speak even in the abstract about minority rights, as unstructured conversations may have risked discussions of politically sensitive topics.

⁴⁵Twenty-six interviewees, of whom twenty were women.

⁴⁶See Supplementary Materials Table 22.

attitudes towards the USA had no impact on their response to the treatment, ⁴⁷ and in Study 2, although I only asked about these attitudes post-treatment, it was just more educated respondents (who were more pro-American in the control group) who became more supportive of minority rights norms. ⁴⁸ While this suggests that the results do not appear to be driven by people's dislike of the USA, further studies should address this question in an authoritarian American ally, where geopolitical considerations are less relevant.

Discussion

This study examines how prominent American violations of international human rights norms affect the strength of those norms for citizens of authoritarian rivals. It shows that, in China, the ruling party chooses to proactively pass on news of racial discrimination in the USA to its public when it is facing human rights pressure, and (less robustly) at times of higher bilateral tensions. Passing on this news does have propaganda benefits – it bolsters patriotic and anti-American sentiment – but it also makes Chinese citizens significantly more supportive of minority rights norms and more likely to believe that discrimination is a problem in China.

The findings imply that high-profile transgressions of international norms may not always weaken those norms. On the contrary, human rights violations – especially when they come from a self-professed 'world leader' of human rights like the USA⁴⁹ – may end up strengthening those norms in authoritarian states where their public discussion is normally censored. This suggests that prominent American human rights violations may be an underappreciated way by which norms around human rights gain attention and support in authoritarian environments.

This marks a notable contrast to the naming and shaming literature, which has found that being *targeted* for international criticism – especially by rivals – may sometimes increase people's support for their government's human rights violations (Terman 2023; Gruffydd-Jones 2022; Abramson et al. 2025; Bassan-Nygate 2024). As such, this gives us the counterintuitive finding that, while being stigmatised by rivals over human rights violations may make a country's public *less* concerned about respect for those norms at home, stigmatising rivals for their violations may make the home public *more* concerned about the norms. This opens up the question of whether the act of being a 'human rights shamer' might itself help to promote support for human rights at home.

The study also highlights some potential negative externalities of state propaganda (Rosenfeld and Wallace 2024), not least how pandering to geopolitical incentives may pose domestic social challenges for authoritarian leaders. This may explain why the Chinese government has sometimes found itself torn between highlighting American human rights violations and censoring them, even in the aftermath of George Floyd's death and the Black Lives Matter protests (Bandurski 2020).

Looking at Chinese state media, there is evidence that the CCP is indeed aware of the ramifications of this kind of propaganda push. In the twenty-eight days after any *People's Daily* mentions of racial discrimination in the United States, the paper is 50 per cent more likely to write about minority rights in China than at any other time of the year. ⁵⁰ Given the overwhelmingly positive tone of these articles, a plausible interpretation is that propaganda chiefs use this coverage to compensate for their citizens' heightened awareness of ethnic and religious minority rights by providing positive coverage of those issues at home. While authoritarian reporting of American abuses is unlikely to lead to the kinds of Black Lives Matter protests that arose in Europe in 2020,

⁴⁷See Supplementary Materials Table 10.

⁴⁸See Supplementary Materials Table 17.

⁴⁹At least according to the State Department https://www.state.gov/policy-issues/human-rights-and-democracy/.

⁵⁰An increase from 0.106 to 0.140 stories a month, significant at p<0.001, using a similar time series model, controlling for foreign human rights criticism and other covariates. See Supplementary Materials, Section 2.

we saw in the Middle East, after Abu Ghraib, how autocratic political opportunism may nonetheless open up some space for liberal change (Mokhtari 2009). Certainly, Arab leaders appeared to have learned their lessons from Abu Ghraib and were far less willing to publicize the 2014 reports of American torture in the region than they had been ten years before (Leber 2014).

Future research should examine the external validity of these findings. Most immediately, it should extend the survey samples to citizens who are older, rural, less likely to be university-educated, and more likely to receive their news through state media. Secondly, while the study is the first to explore the impacts of overseas violations on public support for international norms, the findings strictly only tell us about authoritarian rivals' response to American violations of strong existing norms. It will be useful to examine not only how these findings extend to America's authoritarian allies, but how they affect more democratic places where the norms are already highly salient and openly discussed or places where the norms themselves are weaker and more locally contested. Future work should also consider how these findings apply to norm revisionists or antipreneurs – where states do not just violate norms but actively contest the norm or even fight back against the stigma imposed on them (Adler-Nissen 2014).

Nonetheless, this study demonstrates that norms are not just strengthened when they are respected. When states protect norms, they may well provide a positive example to other states and their citizens, who may seek to emulate that behaviour. But respect for norms is rarely featured in global media (Cole 2010). International norms normally only receive mass coverage, opinion pieces, and debates when they are contested or violated. The heightened salience of norms that comes when they are violated may be an important means by which support for those norms is spread across borders.

Supplementary material. For supplementary material accompanying this paper visit https://doi.org/10.1017/50007123425000079

Data availability statement. Replication data for this paper can be found at the BJPS Dataverse: https://doi.org/10.7910/DVN/HYSZT2.

Financial support. This work was supported by the University of Kent's School of Politics and International Relations Research Support Fund.

Competing interests. None.

Ethical standard. The surveys and interviews in this article were conducted in accordance with the protocols approved by the University of Kent's Research Ethics and Governance Committee and by Princeton University's Institutional Review Board.

References

Spörlein C and Schlueter E (2020). Ethnic insults in YouTube comments: social contagion and selection effects during the German 'Refugee Crisis'. European Sociological Review 37, 411–28.

Acharya A (2011) Norm subsidiarity and regional orders: Sovereignty, regionalism, and rule-making in the third world. *International Studies Quarterly* 55 (1): 95–123.

Abdelaziz M and Katz S (2020) Arab Media Reactions to U.S. Protests: How Regional Considerations Shape Media Coverage. *Washington Institute*, 22 June.

Abramson Y, Menon A and Gitlin A (2025) Whose Critique Matters? The Effects of Critic Identity and Audience on Public Opinion. *American Journal of Political Science* 69 (1): 355–370.

Acharya A, Blackwell M and Sen M (2018) Explaining preferences from behavior: A cognitive dissonance approach. The Journal of Politics 80 (2): 400–411.

Adkins TL and Devermont J (2020) The legacy of American racism at home and abroad. Foreign Policy, 19 June. Accessed at: https://foreignpolicy.com/2020/06/19/american-racism-foreign-policy-impact/

Adler-Nissen R (2014) Stigma management in international relations: Transgressive identities, norms, and order in international society. *International Organization* 68 (1): 143–76.

Alesina A, Devleeschauwer A, Easterly W, Kurlat S and Wacziarg R (2003) Fractionalization. *Journal of Economic Growth* 8 (2): 155–94.

Álvarez-Benjumea A (2023) Uncovering hidden opinions: Social norms and the expression of xenophobic attitudes. European Sociological Review 39 (3): 449–63.

Aytaç SE (2020) Do voters respond to relative economic performance? Evidence from survey experiments. Public Opinion Quarterly 84 (2): 493–507.

Bachman JS and Brito Ruiz E (2024) The geopolitics of human suffering: A comparative study of media coverage of the conflicts in Yemen and Ukraine. Third World Quarterly 45(1): 24–42.

Badescu CG and Weiss TG (2010). Misrepresenting R2P and advancing norms: An alternative spiral? *International Studies Perspectives* 11 (4): 354–74.

Bandurski D (2020) Is China revelling in US woes? China Media Project, 3 June.

Bassan-Nygate L (2024) The micro-foundations of naming and shaming: Evidence from proposed annexation of the West Bank. Working Paper.

Becker GS (1968) Crime and punishment: An economic approach. Journal of Political Economy 76 (2): 169-217.

Beijing Youth Daily (2020) '欧洲各界强烈反对美警涉嫌种族歧视暴力执法' ('European countries strongly oppose American police's suspected racial discrimination and violent law enforcement'). 4 June

Bettiza G and Lewis D (2020) Authoritarian powers and norm contestation in the liberal international order: Theorizing the power politics of ideas and identity. *Journal of Global Security Studies* 5 (4): 559–77.

Birdsall A (2016) But we don't call it 'torture'! Norm contestation during the US 'War on Terror'.' *International Politics* **53** (2): 176–97.

Blanchard FA, Crandall CS, Brigham JC and Ann Vaughn L (1994) Condemning and condoning racism: A social context approach to interracial settings. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 79 (6): 993.

Bloomfield A and Scott SV (Eds.). (2016) *Norm antipreneurs and the politics of resistance to global normative change.* Oxon: Routledge.

Boas TC, Christenson DP and Glick DM (2020) Recruiting large online samples in the United States and India: Facebook, Mechanical Turk, and Qualtrics. Political Science Research and Methods 8 (2): 232–50.

Bob C (2012) The Global Right Wing and the Clash of World Politics. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Bower A (2019) Contesting the International Criminal Court: Bashir, Kenyatta, and the status of the nonimpunity norm in world politics. *Journal of Global Security Studies* **4** (1): 88–104.

Brady A-M (2012) "We are all part of the same family': China's ethnic propaganda.' *Journal of Current Chinese Affairs* 41 (4): 159–81.

Búzás ZI (2018) Is the good news about law compliance good news about norm compliance? The case of racial equality. International Organization 72 (2): 351–85.

Carnegie A and Carson A (2018) The spotlight's harsh glare: rethinking publicity and international order. *International Organization* 72 (3): 627–657.

CGTN (2020) China urges U.S. to eliminate racial discrimination, protect minorities. CGTN, 1 June. Accessed at: https://news.cgtn.com/news/2020-06-01/China-urges-U-S-to-eliminate-racial-discrimination-in-all-forms-QY4LJpMofe/index.html

Chen TC and Hsu C-H (2018) Double-speaking human rights: Analyzing human rights conception in Chinese politics (1989–2015). *Journal of Contemporary China* 27 (112): 534–53.

Cheung M-C (2019) China Social Network Users 2019. eMarketer. Accessed at: https://www.emarketer.com/content/china-social-network-users-2019

Chow WM and Levin DH (2024) The diplomacy of Whataboutism and US foreign policy attitudes. *International Organization* 78 (1): 103–33.

Chwe MS-Y (2001) Rational ritual: Culture, coordination, and common knowledge. Princeton University Press, Princeton and Oxford.

Cialdini RB and Goldstein NJ (2004) Social influence: Compliance and conformity. Annual Review of Psychology 55, 591-621.

Cialdini RB, Reno RR and Kallgren CA (1990) A focus theory of normative conduct: Recycling the concept of norms to reduce littering in public places. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 58: 1015–26.

Clark I, Kaempf S, Reus-Smit C and Tannock E (2018) Crisis in the laws of war? Beyond compliance and effectiveness. European Journal of International Relations 24 (2): 319–43.

Cole WM (2010) No news is good news: Human rights coverage in the American print media, 1980–2000. *Journal of Human Rights* **9** (3): 303–25.

Daxue (2020) 'How Chinese netizens react to the Black Lives Matter protests in the US' Daxue Consulting, 11 June. Accessed at: https://daxueconsulting.com/chinese-react-to-the-black-lives-matter-protests/

Dearing JW, Rogers EM and Rogers E (1996) Agenda-setting. Sage, London.

Deitelhoff N and Zimmermann L (2019) Norms under challenge: Unpacking the dynamics of norm robustness. Journal of Global Security Studies 4 (1): 2–17.

Devlin K, Silver L, Huang C, Kent N and Connaughton A (2020) Outside U.S., Floyd's killing and protests sparked discussion on legislators' Twitter accounts. Pew Research Centre, 4 August. Accessed at: https://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2020/08/04/outside-u-s-floyds-killing-and-protests-sparked-discussion-on-legislators-twitter-accounts/

Dickson BJ, Shen M and Yan J (2017) Generating regime support in contemporary China: Legitimation and the local legitimacy deficit. *Modern China* 43 (2): 123–55.

Diekmann A, Przepiorka W and Rauhut H (2015) Lifting the veil of ignorance: An experiment on the contagiousness of norm violations. *Rationality and Society* 27: 309–33

Dudziak ML (2011) Cold war civil rights: Race and the image of American democracy. Princeton University Press, Princeton.
Dudziak ML (2020) George Floyd Moves the World. The Legacy of Racial Protest in America and the Imperative of Reform.
Foreign Affairs, 11 June. Accessed at: https://www.foreignaffairs.com/articles/united-states/2020-06-11/george-floyd-move s-world

Dugyala R (2020) Foreign foes taking advantage of divide over race, national security adviser says. Politico, 31 May.

Ewe K (2020) China Is Condemning Racism in the US. Here's Why Its Brand of Propaganda Is Problematic. Vice, 15 June. Accessed at: https://www.vice.com/en/article/dyz7kk/china-racism-propaganda-black-lives-matter

Fink, C. (2000) Minority rights as an international question. Contemporary European History 9(3): 385-400.

Finnemore M and Sikkink K (1998) International norm dynamics and political change. *International Organization* **52** (4): 887–917.

Glaeser EL, Sacerdote B and Scheinkman JA (1996) Crime and social interactions. The Quarterly Journal of Economics 111 (2): 507–48.

Glasserman A (2022) Is assimilation the new norm for China's ethnic policy? *Epicenter*, 25 February. Accessed at: https://epicenter.wcfia.harvard.edu/blog/assimilation-new-norm-chinas-ethnic-policy

Goerg SJ, Himmler O and König T (2024) Norm violations and behavioral spillovers—Evidence from the lab and the field. European Economic Review 166, 104776.

Gruffydd-Jones JJ (2022) Hostile Forces: How the Chinese Communist Party Resists International Pressure on Human Rights. Oxford University Press, Oxford.

Gruffydd-Jones JJ (2024) Replication Data for: Call me by your name: The impacts of American Human Rights Violations in authoritarian states. https://doi.org/10.7910/DVN/HYSZT2, Harvard Dataverse, V1.

Hassan J and Noack R (2021) How George Floyd's killing sparked a global reckoning. Washington Post, 25 May. Accessed at: https://www.washingtonpost.com/world/2021/05/25/george-floyd-anniversary-global-change/

Haynes S (2020) As Protesters Shine a Spotlight on Racial Injustice in America, the Reckoning Is Going Global'. *Time*, 11 June. Accessed at: https://time.com/5851879/racial-injustice-protests-europe/

Heller R, Kahl M and Pisoiu D (2012) The dark side of normative argumentation-the case of counterterrorism policy. GlobCon 1: 278.

Hernandez JC (2020) As Protests Engulf the United States, China Revels in the Unrest. *New York Times*, 2 June. Accessed at: https://www.nytimes.com/2020/06/02/world/asia/china-george-floyd.html

Hernandez JC and Mueller B (2020) Global anger grows over George Floyd death, and becomes an anti-Trump cudgel. *New York Times*, 1 June. Accessed at: https://www.nytimes.com/2020/06/01/world/asia/george-floyd-protest-global.html

Hill RV, Maruyama E and Viceisza A (2012) Breaking the norm: An empirical investigation into the unraveling of good behavior. *Journal of Development Economics* 99 (1): 150–62.

Human Rights Watch (2022) Racial Discrimination in the United States. Human Rights Watch, 8 August.

Hurd I (2007) Breaking and making norms: American revisionism and crises of legitimacy. International Politics 44 (2): 194–213.

Hurd I (2013) Torture and the politics of legitimation in international law. The Legitimacy of International Human Rights Regimes: Legal, Political and Philosophical Perspectives 4: 165.

Ioffe J (2017) The history of Russian involvement in America's race wars. The Atlantic 21, 17 October.

Johnson DA, Mora A and Schmidt A (2016) The Strategic Costs of Torture How 'Enhanced Interrogation' Hurt America. Foreign Policy, 26 May.

Joshi S (2020) Why Indians Angered by the Racism and Police Brutality in the US Don't Care About the Same Issues in Their Own Country. Vice, 2 June.

Kayser MA and Peress M (2012) Benchmarking across borders: Electoral accountability and the necessity of comparison. American Political Science Review 106 (3): 661–84.

Keating VC (2014) Contesting the international illegitimacy of torture: The Bush Administration's failure to legitimate its preferences within international society. British Journal of Politics and International Relations 16 (1): 1–27.

Keizer K, Lindenberg S and Steg L (2008) The spreading of disorder. Science 322 (5908): 1681-5.

Kelley J (2008) Assessing the complex evolution of norms: The rise of international election monitoring. *International Organization* 62 (2): 221–55.

Kinzelbach K (2014) The EU's human rights dialogue with China: Quiet diplomacy and its limits. Routledge, London and New York.

Klotz A (1995) Norms reconstituting interests: Global racial equality and US sanctions against South Africa. *International Organization* 49(3): 451–78.

Koetse M (2022) How Chinese State Media's 'America is Bad' Hashtags Are Backfiring on Weibo. What's on Weibo, 16 April.

Kymlicka W (2017) The internationalization of minority rights. In *Global Minority Rights* pp. 35–66. Routledge, London and New York.

Leber A (2014) A Resounding Silence: Regional Reactions to the Senate's Report on U.S. Use of Torture. Brookings Institute, 29 December. Accessed at: https://www.brookings.edu/articles/a-resounding-silence-regional-reactions-to-the-senates-report-on-u-s-use-of-torture/

Lebovic JH and Voeten E (2006) The politics of shame: The condemnation of country human rights practices in the UNCHR. *International Studies Quarterly* **50** (4): 861–88.

Leibold J (2016) Preferential policies for ethnic minorities in China. In Zang, X. (Ed.) *Handbook on ethnic minorities in China* 165–88. Edward Elgar Publishing, Cheltenham and Northampton.

Li X, Shi W and Zhu B (2018) The face of internet recruitment: Evaluating labor markets of online crowdsourcing in China. Research and Politics 5 (1): 1–8.

Ma WH (2022) Weibo users 'secretly delight' in using anti-American propaganda to criticize Chinese authorities. Voice of America, 16 April. Accessed at: https://www.voachinese.com/a/chinese-netizens-unleash-criticism-on-government-20220415/6531623.html

Mäs M and Opp K-D (2016) When is ignorance bliss? Disclosing true information and cascades of norm violation in networks. *Social Networks* 47: 116–29.

Maulia E (2020) George Floyd protests inspire campaigns against racism across Asia: US police killing spotlights oppression of Papuans and Duterte's anti-drug war. Nikkei, 9 June. Accessed at: https://asia.nikkei.com/Spotlight/Society/George-Floyd-protests-inspire-campaigns-against-racism-across-Asia

McAdams RH (2000) The focal point theory of expressive law. In Smits, J. M. (Ed.) *Encyclopedia of Law and Economics*. Edward Elgar Publishing Limited, Cheltenham and Northampton.

McCombs M and Reynolds A (2009) How the news shapes our civic agenda. *Media Effects: Advances in Theory and Research* 3: 1–16.

McGee L (2020) Trump's trashing of democracy will have consequences far beyond America. CNN. 31 July. Accessed at: https://edition.cnn.com/2020/07/31/politics/trump-election-delay-global-consequences-intl/index.html

McKeown R (2009). Norm regress: US revisionism and the slow death of the torture norm. *International Relations* 23 (1): 5–25

Mitchell NJ and McCormick JM (1988) Economic and political explanations of human rights violations. World Politics 40 (4): 476–98.

Mohdin A, Swann G and Bannock C (2020) How George Floyd's death sparked a wave of UK anti-racism protests. *The Guardian*, 29 July. Accessed at: https://www.theguardian.com/uk-news/2020/jul/29/george-floyd-death-fuelled-anti-racism-protests-britain

Mokhtari S (2009) After Abu Ghraib: exploring human rights in America and the Middle East. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Morris S and Song Shin H (2002) Social value of public information. American Economic Review 92 (5): 1521-34.

Nederhof AJ (1985) Methods of coping with social desirability bias: A review. European journal of social psychology 15 (3): 263–80.

Nwabuzo O and Sanaullah N (2021) George Floyd's murder lifted the veil on racism in Europe's policing. *Euronews*, 25 May. Accessed at: https://www.euronews.com/2021/05/25/george-floyd-s-murder-lifted-the-veil-on-racism-in-europe-s-policing-view

OHCHR (2022) UN Human Rights Office issues assessment of human rights concerns in Xinjiang, China. Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, 31 August.

Olin A (2021) The killing of George Floyd altered views of racial discrimination in Houston. *Urban Edge*, 12 May. Accessed at: https://kinder.rice.edu/urbanedge/2021/05/12/killing-george-floyd-altered-houston-area-views-racial-discrimination

Onuf N (1994). The constitution of international society. European Journal of International Law 5 (1): 1-19.

Opp K-D (2012) The beneficial and unintended consequences of false beliefs about norm violation. When is there a 'preventive effect of ignorance'. In Mica A, Peisert A, and Winczorek J (eds.) Sociology and the Unintended. Robert Merton Revisited, Frankfurt: 257-83.

Pan J and Xu Y (2018) China's ideological spectrum. The Journal of Politics 80 (1): 254-73.

Panke D and Petersohn U (2012) Why international norms disappear sometimes. European Journal of International Relations 18 (4): 719–42.

People's Daily (2011) The human rights teacher can rest. People's Daily, 12 April.

People's Daily (2015) China releases report in fight back against American human rights allegations. *People's Daily*, 27 June. People's Daily (2020) The United Nations Urges the US to Implement Structural Reforms to End Racial Discrimination. *People's Daily*, 16 June.

People's Daily (2022) Minorities 'Can't Breathe': Racism Runs Through the US Political System. *People's Daily*, 25 May. People's Daily (2024a) The Historical, Cultural, and Institutional of Racial Discrimination in the US. *People's Daily*, 18 June.

People's Daily (2024b) 2023 Report on US Human Rights Violations. People's Daily, 30 May.

Peter J (2003) Country characteristics as contingent conditions of agenda setting: The moderating influence of polarized elite opinion. *Communication Research* 30 (6): 683–712.

Rauhala E (2015) China's domestic violence law is a victory for feminists. But they say it doesn't go far enough. The Washington Post, 29 December.

Repnikova M (2017). Media politics in China: Improvising Power under Authoritarianism. Cambridge University Press Rogers JH, Sun B and Sun T (2024) 'U.S.-China Tension' Working paper.

Romer D, Hall Jamieson K and Aday S (2003) Television news and the cultivation of fear of crime. *Journal of Communication* 53 (1): 88–104.

Rosenfeld B and Wallace J (2024) Information Politics and Propaganda in Authoritarian Societies. *Annual Review of Political Science* 27: 263–281.

Rosert E (2019) Salience and the emergence of international norms: Napalm and cluster munitions in the inhumane weapons convention. Review of International Studies 45 (1): 77–99.

Sautman B (1999) Ethnic law and minority rights in China: Progress and constraints. Law and Policy 21 (3): 283-314.

Schmidt A and Sikkink K (2019). Breaking the ban? The heterogeneous impact of US contestation of the torture norm. Journal of Global Security Studies 4(1): 105–122.

Shannon VP (2000) Norms are what states make of them: The political psychology of norm violation. *International Studies Quarterly* **44** (2): 293–316.

Simmons BA and Jo H (2019). Measuring norms and normative contestation: the case of international criminal law. *Journal of Global Security Studies* 4 (1): 18–36

Stangor C, Sechrist GB and Jost JT (2001). Changing racial beliefs by providing consensus information. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin* 27 (4): 486–96

Stockmann D (2013) Media Commercialization and Authoritarian Rule in China. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge. Tai Q (2014) China's media censorship: A dynamic and diversified regime. Journal of East Asian Studies 14 (2): 185–210 Taylor GF (2016) The long path to reparations for the survivors of Chicago Police torture. Nw. JL and Soc. Pol'y 11: 330.

Terman R (2023) The Geopolitics of Shaming: When Human Rights Pressure Works and When It Backfires. Princeton University Press, Princeton and Oxford.

Tharoor I (2020) A wave of protests puts a spotlight on U.S. hypocrisy. Washington Post, 1 June. Accessed at: https://www.washingtonpost.com/world/2020/06/01/floyd-protests-us-hypocrisy-china/

Thelwall M and Thelwall S (2021) Twitter during COVID-19: George Floyd Opening a Space to Address Systematic and Institutionalized Racism? *Working Paper*.

Vardaman JM (2015) Civil Rights Movements. In Wright, James. D (ed.) International Encyclopedia of the Social and Behavioral Sciences 3, 691-94.

Vasiliades E (2005). 'Solitary Confinement and International Human Rights: Why the US prison system fails global standards.' Am. U. Int'l L. Rev. 21, 71.

Wang TL (2000) Agenda-setting online: An experiment testing the effects of hyperlinks in online newspapers. Southwestern Mass Communication Journal 15 (2): 59–70.

Wiener A (2014) A Theory of Contestation. Springer, Berlin.

Wilson J and Kelling G (1982) The police and neighborhood safety: Broken windows. Atlantic Monthly 127: 29-38.

Wolff J and Zimmerman L (2016) Between Banyans and battle scenes: Liberal norms, contestation, and the limits of critique. Review of International Studies 42 (3): 513–34.

Xinhua (2020a) "我们的国家病了'—黑人枉死再揭美国种族歧视疮疤' ("Our country is sick' – Black people die tragically and expose the scars of American racism'). Xinhua, 1 June.

Xinhua (2020b) '外交部:希望美方正视并认真倾听非洲的正义呼声'('Ministry of Foreign Affairs: We hope the US will listen seriously and carefully to Africa's calls for justice'). Xinhua, 1 June.

Yang G (2009) The Power of the Internet in China: Citizen Activism Online. Columbia University Press, New York.

Zaller JR (1992) The Nature and Origins of Mass Opinion. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Zhao S (1998) A state-led nationalism: The patriotic education campaign in post-Tiananmen China. Communist and Post-Communist Studies 31 (3): 287–302.