

# CRetor: A Mandarin Counter-Speech Dataset Annotated for Rhetorical Strategy

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## Abstract

We introduce CRetor, the first Mandarin counter-speech corpus with annotations of rhetorical strategies. We extend existing taxonomies for English to reflect culturally specific nuances in Chinese online discourse by identifying six rhetorical strategies employed in anti-bias responses and analyzing their distributions across platforms. Following our guidelines, human annotators curated and annotated corpus consisting of 824 gold standard question-answer pairs. To enable large-scale analysis, we develop a three-stage annotation pipeline: embedding-based classification, GEPA-optimized LLM topic extraction, and rhetorical strategy labeling that lead to the creation of a machine annotated corpus consisting of 114,479 items. Our cross-platform analysis reveals that Chinese counter-speech tends to be more succinct and favors structural explanations or evidential rebuttals, in contrast to English corpora, where redirecting the conversation toward other positive qualities of a group is more prevalent. This indicates that culturally aware models must adapt to localized rhetorical norms. Our dataset establishes a critical foundation for future research comparing human and machine-generated counter-speech in Mandarin and beyond.

## 1 Introduction

Many young people are exposed to online hate-speech (Hawdon et al., 2017). Exposure to hate speech can weaken the brain’s capacity to empathize and cause adverse psychological effects in adolescents (Obermaier and Schmuck, 2022; Wachs et al., 2022). Research analyzing online discourse in Western countries shows that organized counter-speech can be more effective than individual efforts in curbing hate speech, but inappropriate counter-speech may

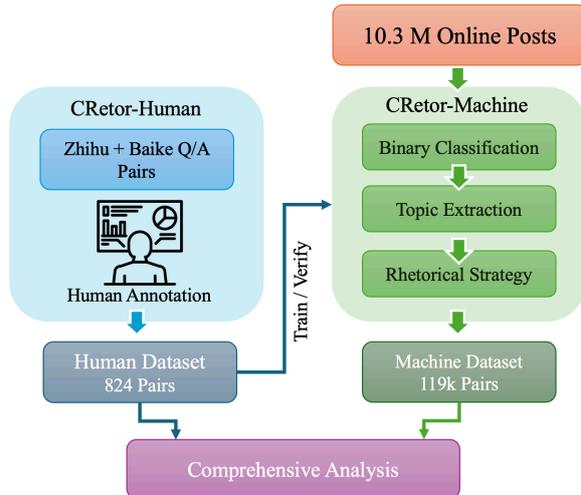


Figure 1: Generation process of CRetor dataset.

also backfire (Garland et al., 2022; Schäfer et al., 2024). Previous experiments on social media, Hangartner et al. (2021) found that empathy-based counter-speech is particularly effective in English-language contexts, but the role counter-speech plays in other languages is still up for debate.

To counter hate speech online and reduce its negative emotional impact, researchers have focused on Large-Language-Models (LLMs)’s counter-speech generation ability (Deng et al., 2022; Bennie et al., 2025a; Hong et al., 2024). However, current approaches still have limitations. Firstly, LLMs suffer from inaccuracy while evaluating the hate speech target, as they tend to misinterpret the original hateful content to a notable degree (Zheng et al., 2023). Second, LLMs employ different rhetorical strategies than humans when constructing counter-speech. It has been shown that they often fail to address the nuanced, implied stereotypes that human responders typically refute in English (Mun et al., 2024). As such, more human written and annotated data from

other languages, like Mandarin, is needed before larger, cross linguistic language models can be evaluated.

While various research has focused on counter-speech rhetoric in English, other languages remain understudied. This linguistic imbalance stems from the predominance of English content on major Western platforms (Das et al., 2024). Unlike many other understudied, non-Western languages, Mandarin Chinese is spoken by nearly a billion people; yet, research on counter-speech is still limited. Existing Mandarin hate-speech corpora (Zhou et al., 2022; Deng et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2023) have mapped what biases appear in online discourse, but lack annotations for argumentative structure or rhetorical strategies. As such, it is an open question as to what linguistic qualities constitute effective counter speech in Mandarin Chinese.

Understanding how rhetorical strategies are used in Mandarin counter-speech is critical, as prior research shows that strategy choice significantly impacts counter-speech effectiveness; appropriate approaches reduce the spread of hate speech, while other strategies show minimal effect (Hangartner et al., 2021; Bär et al., 2024). To address this gap, we introduce CRetor, the first Mandarin counter-speech corpus systematically annotated for rhetorical strategies. Figure 1 illustrates the construction process of our dataset with two subsets: CRetor-Human and CRetor-Machine. Native Mandarin speakers manually annotated 824 high-quality question-answer pairs from two major Chinese online platforms. Then we developed a three-stage machine annotation pipeline and applied it to 10.3 million online posts from different platforms: (i) binary classification to identify bias-related content, (ii) LLM-based topic extraction to label bias categories, and (iii) rhetorical strategy annotation. The CRetor-Human data serves as a golden standard for training the classifier and verifying the final result for CRetor-Machine. This yields 119,181 high-quality machine-annotated hate-speech counter-speech pairs. Together, these datasets enable comprehensive analysis of six rhetorical strategies across multiple platforms.

Our work makes three key contributions:

1. **High-quality benchmark** We extend existing taxonomies to identify rhetorical strategies, which capture Mandarin-specific argumentative patterns. Through a rigorous annotation process and uncertainty-driven active learning loop, we achieve a high inter-annotator agreement.
2. **Machine-annotated method** We develop a three-stage machine annotation pipeline and apply it to 10.3M Mandarin-language posts, which finally yields 62,916 hate-speech counter-speech pairs with high-precision annotations.
3. **Cross-linguistic insights** Our analyses reveal divergences between Mandarin and English counter-speech, providing a theoretical foundation that culturally aware counter-speech models must adapt to localized rhetorical norms.

## 2 Related Work

Early Chinese resources (CDial-Bias(Zhou et al., 2022) and its follow-up variants) mapped what biases appear in Zhihu exchanges, but did not include annotations for argumentative structure. Other corpora, such as CHBias (Zhao et al., 2023) and COLD (Deng et al., 2022), focus on labeling toxicity spans rather than recording reparative dialogue. As a result, we still lack data on how Mandarin speakers counter stereotypes in everyday question-and-answer (Q/A) threads. A detailed comparison of previous Chinese hate-speech/counter-speech corpora can be found in Table 1. Notably, our work fills this gap by providing a dataset that contains contextualized, multi-platform data on hate speech and counter-speech, while serving as the first Mandarin corpus to include rhetorical device annotations.

A rich literature in English suggests that rebuttals do more than merely “call out” hate: strategies that supply counter-examples, alternative qualities, or structural explanations measurably shift bystanders’ attitudes (Fantón, Margherita and Bonaldi, Helena and Tekiroğlu, Serra Sinem and Guerini, Marco, 2021). Yet those findings stem almost entirely from Western or cross-platform data

Name	Counter / Total Instances	Contextualized	Multi-platform	Bias Type	Rhetorical Devices
PANDA (Bennie et al., 2025b)	785 / 785	y	y		
COLD (Deng et al., 2022)	668 / 37,480		y		
CDial (Zhou et al., 2022)	454 / 28,343	y		y	
Political (Wang et al., 2022)	0 / 315,795				
CHSD (Zhu and Bhat, 2021)	0 / 17,430				
ToxiCN (Lu et al., 2023)	0 / 12,011		y	y	
SWSR (Jiang et al., 2022)	0 / 8,969				
Human Annotation (Ours)	414 / 824	y	y	y	y
Machine Annotations (Ours)	62,916 / 114,479	y	y	y	y

Table 1: Dataset statistics for previous and current Mandarin hate speech and counter speech corpora. Columns indicate instance counts and characteristics such as format, platform, and presence of bias or rhetorical features.

such as CONAN, Change-My-View, and Twitter crawls, where communicative norms differ starkly from Chinese fora.

From a rhetorical perspective, previous research has found that American English tend to use more heterogenetic engagement resources compared to Mandarin prose, while Mandarin speakers tended to avoid outright rejecting other viewpoints as much (Pinying, 2018). Likewise, Chinese projection clauses are markedly different from their English counterparts (Xuan and Chen, 2020). Given the different social and linguistic background of Mandarin Chinese speakers compared to the previous studies English and German speakers, it is not self-evident that Mandarin speakers will have a similar distribution of argumentative strategies when compared to previous corpora. Existing cross-cultural rhetoric studies suggest that Chinese argumentation tends to be more indirect and context-oriented, prioritizing harmony over direct confrontation (Yang and Cahill, 2008). Based off the previous research, we would infer that counter speech in Mandarin may be more euphemistic, such as using “external factors,” rather than directly challenging the other party’s claims with “general denouncement” claims. Yet, the paper will later show that Mandarin speakers are more likely to directly criticize hate-speech on online platforms.

### 3 Labeling

Our annotation scheme extends the context-sensitive taxonomy introduced in Zhou et al. (2022) and the rhetorical-strategy typology of Mun et al. (2023). It comprises two main layers: bias labeling, which operates at the question level, and rhetorical labeling, which oper-

ates at the response level.

**Question-level Annotation:** For every question, we apply two labels:

- **Bias Type:** 偏见表达 (BIAS-EXPRESSION); 偏见讨论 (BIAS-DISCUSSION); and 不相关 (IRRELEVANT).
- **Topic:** Targeted social groups, separating gender and sexuality into distinct classes.

**Response-level Annotation:** Each response is labeled for its **attitude** toward the implied bias: 反偏见/正面 (ANTI-BIAS), 中立无偏 (NEUTRAL), 偏见/负面 (PREJUDICED), and 不相关 (IRRELEVANT). If the response is labeled as ANTI-BIAS, we additionally annotate the specific rhetorical strategies it uses to counter the bias:

1. **Alternate Groups (替代群体)** –Highlight that other groups exhibit the same behavior.
2. **Alternate Qualities (替代特质)** –Attribute contrasting traits to the target group.
3. **Counterexamples (反例)** –Cite concrete individuals or sub-groups who disprove the blanket claim.
4. **External Factors (外部因素)** –Explain the behavior by external reasons rather than group character.
5. **Expansion (扩展)** –Emphasize human commonality or intra-group diversity.
6. **General Denouncing (普遍谴责)** –Simply condemn the hate speech.

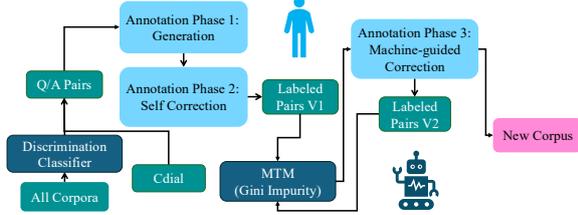


Figure 2: Generation process of the CRetor-Human Dataset.

## 4 CRetor-Human

### 4.1 Data Sources

The data used for CRetor-Human was primarily sourced from two corpora: Zhihu (Zhou et al., 2022) and Baike2018QA, a general web scrape of Q/A data, (Xu, 2019).

To filter contents about social bias, we trained a binary logistic regression classifier using 1,951 labeled questions from the CDial, COLD, PANDA, and SWSR datasets, as well as 800 hand-labeled examples from Baike. Input texts were converted into semantic embedding vectors using a Chinese GTE model (gte-base-zh) (Li et al., 2023).

The classifier achieved a mean F1 score of 0.93 and was then applied to 100,000 randomly sampled Baike entries. From this, 1,730 lines were identified as potentially containing bias.

We then use the Llama 4-Maverick model to remove irrelevant or sexually explicit questions. This model was used due to previous comparisons of the Llama-4 Maverick model (rank in lmarena.ai against other LLM models in Mandarin Chinese text generation) shows that it has similar performance to other Chinese focused models like Qwen2.5-plus-1127 and Qwen2.5-72b-instruct. Finally we combined 589 items from Baike with 235 items from Zhihu, yielding a dataset of 824 question-answer pairs.

### 4.2 Human Annotation

All eleven annotators are native Mandarin Chinese speakers who. Each annotator completed a one-hour, synchronous training session before the annotation process. In addition to the rhetorical devices, topics, and stances, our dataset also contains the scores of how well each response was from 1 to 10. 100% of CRetor-Human received annotations from at

least two independent annotators.

To resolve the issue of annotator disagreements, we utilize the multi-task model (MTM) from Davani et al. (2022) to generate a probability distribution for each label and simulate a majority vote for each item. We use the Gini impurity function to calculate uncertainty in annotations. As shown in figure Figure 2, the uncertainty scores were then used in an iterative process of reviewing the top 20 Q/A pairs with the highest scores over 8 rounds of updating. The median of each annotation’s scores was used as the gold standard, as more complex models performed similarly on numerical/ordinal annotator aggregation tasks (Braylan et al., 2023).

We measure the inter-annotator agreement using Krippendorff’s alpha ( $\kappa$ ). This ranges from 0.77 to 0.99 for response attitude and rhetorical strategies, comparable to other standard hate-speech datasets (Baheti et al., 2021) and exceeded previous agreement scores from other Chinese datasets who had  $\kappa$  ranging from 0.4 to 0.74 (Zhou et al., 2022).

### 4.3 Platform-specific strategies

Data from Zhihu (CDial) heavily favor Counterexamples (60.3%) and General Denouncing (43.8%), whereas Baike authors utilize a more balanced range of strategies, notably External Factors (38.7%) and General Denouncing (39.3%). A chi-square test confirms a significant difference between these two platforms in terms of rhetorical strategy distribution ( $\chi^2(5) = 86.08, p < 0.001$ ). A plausible explanation for this difference is response length, as the median Baike response length (100 characters) is significantly longer than Zhihu’s (26 characters), allowing for more comprehensive discussions of external contexts.

Combination	% of CS
Counterexamples	21.0
General Denouncing	15.5
Counterexamples + Alt. Qual.	7.7
Counterexamples + Gen. Denouncing	7.5
External Factors	6.9
Ext. Factors + Gen. Denouncing	6.4

Table 2: Most used strategies and combinations across both datasets (anti-prejudice responses only).

Figure 11 illustrates these distributions

clearly, indicating both platforms frequently use multiple rhetorical tactics within a single response. A Mann-Whitney U test indicates this small difference is not statistically significant ( $U = 17,182.5$ ,  $p = 0.324$ ), suggesting similar inclinations toward combining rhetorical strategies in both Zhihu and Baike anti-prejudice discussions.

## 5 CRetor-Machine

While we already have gold-standard dataset CRetor-Human for Mandarin rhetorical strategy analysis, its limited size and high amount of time required to manually annotate additional data constrains broader comparative analyses.

To overcome these constraints,

a three-stage annotation pipeline is adopted to ensure high-precision identification of HS and CS:

1. An embedding-based binary classifier that filters questions into *non-biased* vs. *biased* / *bias-discussing* content.
2. An LLM-based topic category model that assigns the bias topics to each candidate question and maps phrases related to bias to named entities of targeted groups occurring in the text.
3. An LLM-based counter speech recognition model that predicts (a) the bias type of the original content, (b) the respondent’s attitude toward that bias, and (c) the rhetorical strategies used.

Table 3 summarizes the scale and main usage location of each resource. The Zhihu-KOL dataset is composed of question-response pairs from Zhihu, a social media platform for question answering. Importantly, it is the only corpus in the list that provides extensive response metadata, including post date and number of stars.

Datasets from three other social media platforms, Tieba, PTT, and Weibo, were also chosen for machine annotation, as they represent several different types of text-based social media. Alongside the social media corpora, the Baike2018QA dataset was also used, as it contains a general web scrape of question-answer data drawn from multiple platforms on Chinese internet.

### 5.1 Embedding-Based Binary Classification

We trained a binary classifier to distinguish bias-related content (BIAS-EXPRESSION or BIAS-DISCUSSION) from non-bias text (NON-BIAS). At this stage, all instances that neither express nor discuss social bias are treated as a single NON-BIAS category.

Each question was embedded using three different prompts into a vector space using a sentence-embedding model. For models that support Matryoshka Representation Learning (Kusupati et al., 2022), each prompt’s vector was truncated to 512 dimensions and concatenated. This was used to reduce the chances of overfitting to the relatively small 22k item dataset.

We evaluated seven different models with eight different binary classification heads, and measure their performance with a 20-fold cross-validation. Results shows the Qwen-8B model consistently outperforms other models across multiple classification heads (precision = 0.97 and F1 = 0.94).

**Active Learning Loop** To improve classification on edge cases, we applied pool-based active learning over six rounds, prioritizing uncertain instances where  $|p(\text{bias} | x) - 0.5|$  was smallest.

**Labeling Results** After retraining on the full 24,839-item set, the classifier was applied to datasets from Table 3 to identify bias-related content. Table 4 shows the distribution of predicted probabilities: 7.39% of 10.2M items exceeded 0.5, and 3.36% exceeded 0.75. Most datasets showed distributions heavily skewed toward zero, except Tieba where 9.9% exceeded 0.75, possibly due to platform-specific discourse characteristics or collection strategies.

### 5.2 Topic and Relation Extraction

After flagged as bias-related, an LLM will assign topic categories and extract relational tuples of the form  $\langle \text{topic category, targeted phrase, evaluative phrase} \rangle$  (Figure 3). This structured output grounds predictions in specific text spans, and reduces spurious labels (Sap et al., 2020; Mun et al., 2023).

The topic-labeling prompt was optimized us-

Corpus	Source platform	# entries	Main usage region	License	Citation
Zhihu-KOL	Zhihu (2011–2023)	1,006,218	China	MIT	Wang (2023)
PTT-Gossiping	PTT (2015–2017)	418,201	Taiwan	Apache-2.0	Yang (2019)
Tieba	Baidu Tieba forum (pre-2017)	3,059,172	China	Apache-2.0	codemayq (2018)
Weibo	Weibo microblog (pre-2017)	4,435,959	China	Apache-2.0	codemayq (2018)
Baike2018QA	General forum webscrape (pre-2018)	1,470,142	China	MIT	Xu (2019)
<b>Total</b>		<b>10,389,692</b>			

Table 3: Chinese corpora used for CRetor-Machine.

data source	%>0.5	%>0.75
Baike	1.09% (15,995)	0.42% (6,179)
PTT	6.58% (27,509)	2.46% (10,269)
Tieba	20.93% (640,315)	9.91% (303,044)
weibo	0.57% (25,450)	0.15% (6,649)
zhihu	5.42% (44,007)	2.01% (16,280)

Table 4: Distribution of predicted bias probabilities by data source.

ing GEPA (Agrawal et al., 2025) algorithm via the dspy framework. The CRetor-Human data is utilized for training (40%), validation (30%), and testing (30%). The objective balanced correct topic identification and tuple consistency, without penalizing Other labels due to low inter-annotator agreement ( $\kappa = 0.22$ ). We used the state-of-the-art model Qwen3-Next-80B-A3B-Thinking for this process (Team, 2025).

Table 5 shows Qwen3-Next-80B-A3B-Instruct achieved the best non-thinking model performance (macro F1: 0.7001), while Qwen3-VL-30B-A3B-Thinking scored highest overall (0.7075). It is also 40 times faster (2.03 minutes vs. 1 hour 25 minutes on 8 NVIDIA B200 GPUs). We therefore adopt Qwen3-Next-80B-A3B-Instruct with the optimized prompt as our primary topic category model, and exam it’s further ability on the test set.

Table 6 shows the model performs well on most categories, but the lowest F1 scores appear for *vocation/education, religion* and *other*. Error inspection reveals the model frequently labeled phrases like athletic or military roles as professions for the vocation/education category, while human annotators did not consistently treat these as vocational bias targets.

Although the embedding-based classifier exhibits high recall, it can over-trigger on bias-related keywords like ”黑人” (Black people) and ”贤惠” (virtuous or submissive), without any social bias being expressed or discussed.

### Topic Labeling Example

#### Input (Title):

亚洲男人在欧美会很受女人欢迎吗?

(Translation: Are Asian men very unpopular with women in Europe and America?)

#### Output (Extracted Tuples):

- **Groups:** [种族文化, 性别]  
(Race, Gender)
- **Relations:**
  - [ 种族文化, 亚洲男人, 很不受女人欢迎 ]  
(Race, Asian men, very unpopular)
  - [ 性别, 亚洲男人, 很不受女人欢迎 ]  
(Gender, Asian men, very unpopular)

Figure 3: An example of the relation extraction task illustrating the mapping from a question to group-quality tuples. The group “亚洲男人” (asian men) refers to a specific gender and race, so it was repeated twice in the Relations section.

In contrast, the LLM produces explicit group–relation tuples, providing structured evidence of social group references and evaluations. We access three scoring variants: (1) baseline using only embedding probability  $p_{\text{embed}}(x)$ ; (2) tuple-scaled multiplying  $p_{\text{embed}}(x)$  by weight  $w(k) = 1 - \alpha \exp(-\beta k)$  based on tuple count  $k$ ; (3) binary-switch clamping probability to zero when no tuples exist.

We use Qwen3 model for category tuple generation and the same Qwen3-Embedding-8B SVM classifier for generating probability scores. Cross-validation (Table 13) showed the binary-switch model achieved 0.99 precision at threshold 0.75, though with lower recall. Since the downstream goal requires high-precision

Model	Params	Prompt	Macro F1 $\uparrow$	Macro Accuracy $\uparrow$	Hamming $\downarrow$	Subset $\uparrow$
Qwen3-VL-2B-Instruction	2B	basic	0.4762	0.8278	0.1722	0.3035
Qwen3-VL-2B-Thinking*	2B	optim.	0.4180	0.8997	0.1003	0.3187
		basic	0.5495	0.9298	0.0702	0.5171
Qwen3-VL-30B-Instruction	30B	optim.	0.3855	0.8997	0.1003	0.3187
		basic	0.5280	0.9366	0.0634	0.5535
Qwen3-VL-30B-Thinking*	30B	optim.	0.6501	0.9330	0.0670	0.6345
		basic	0.6549	0.9466	0.0534	0.6151
Kimi-Linear-48B-Instruction	48B	optim.	0.7075	0.9553	0.0447	0.6715
		basic	0.5197	0.9264	0.0736	0.5556
Qwen3-Next-80B-Instruction	80B	optim.	0.5460	0.9284	0.0716	0.5782
		basic	0.5871	0.9482	0.0518	0.5958
Qwen3-Next-80B-Thinking*	80B	optim.	<b>0.7001</b>	<b>0.9539</b>	<b>0.0461</b>	<b>0.6765</b>
		basic	0.6748	0.9413	0.0587	0.6164
Ring-flash-2.0*	100B	optim.	0.6833	0.9454	0.0546	0.6490
		basic	0.6323	0.9486	0.0514	0.6089
Ling-flash-2.0*	100B	optim.	0.6970	0.9488	0.0512	0.6282
		basic	0.4097	0.8603	0.1397	0.3280
GLM-4.6-FP8 $\dagger$	358B	optim.	0.4762	0.9204	0.0796	0.4202
		basic	0.7009	0.9500	0.0500	0.6405
		optim.	0.6895	0.9527	0.0473	0.6422

Table 5: Topic-label prediction performance for different LLMs with basic vs. GEPA-optimised prompts. Thinking models are marked with \*, and the hybrid model is labeled with a  $\dagger$ . **Macro F1** ( $\uparrow$ ) and **Macro Accuracy** ( $\uparrow$ ) are macro-averaged over labels. For each metric column, **bold** numbers indicate the best-performing non-thinking model, and underlined numbers indicate the best-performing thinking model.

Topic	F1	Precision	Recall
Chinese Minorities	0.9891	1.0000	0.9783
Disability	0.9286	1.0000	0.8667
Sexual Orientation	0.8333	1.0000	0.7143
Gender	0.8000	1.0000	0.6667
Race	0.7826	0.7750	0.7905
Region	0.7181	0.9375	0.5819
Vocation/Education	0.3676	0.6667	0.2404
Religion	0.4000	1.0000	0.2500
Other	0.1875	0.3333	0.1304

Table 6: Per-topic F1, precision, and recall for Qwen3-Next-80B-A3B-Instruct (optimized prompt), sorted by F1.

candidates, we only label items with probability  $> 0.75$  and containing non-“other” tuples.

### 5.3 Rhetorical Strategies

The final step assigns counter-speech attributes to each post-response pair. Given bias-labeled posts and extracted tuples, an LLM determines the post type (expressing or discussing bias), response stance, and rhetorical strategies. Each strategy is encoded as a 4-tuple that includes the strategy name, targeted group, biased phrase from the original post, and the counter speech phrase found in the response. This was done to encourage strategies to be anchored to specific bias content and can be later used for co-occurrence analysis of key words.

The prompt was tuned using the GEPA algorithm using Qwen3-Next-80B-A3B-Thinking. After prompt optimization, a series of non-thinking models were tested on the optimized and non-optimized prompts and the results can be found in Table 7 shows non-thinking models performed well on bias-expressing posts but struggled with bias-discussing posts and comprehensive rhetorical labeling. Overall Qwen3-Next-80B-A3B-Instruct achieved best and was used to label all the items in the dataset that were previously marked as possibly containing bias during embedding-based binary classification and topic extraction.

### 5.4 Results

Table 8 summarizes key corpus-level statistics. Machine generation pipeline produced 118,605 labeled pairs; 114,479 were predicted to be bias-related posts (BIAS-EXPRESSION or BIAS-DISCUSSION) and form the analysis pool. Within this pool, 62,916 responses were classified as COUNTER-SPEECH. Platform contributions were highly imbalanced: Tieba accounts for 98,023 bias-related pairs, while Baike and Zhihu contribute smaller but substantially longer-form Q/A exchanges (median CS response lengths: 99 and 232 characters,

Model	Params	Prompt	Post macro F1 ↑	Bias expression F1 ↑	Resp. Macro F1 ↑	Resp. CS F1 ↑	Rhetorical Devices Macro F1 ↑
Qwen3-VL-2B-Instruct	2B	basic	0.41	0.58	0.21	0.14	0.22
		optim.	0.40	0.76	0.30	0.55	0.29
Qwen3-VL-30B-A3B-Instruct	30B	basic	0.45	0.57	0.35	0.25	0.27
		optim.	0.46	0.75	0.35	0.56	0.29
Kimi-Linear-48B-A3B-Instruct	48B	basic	0.42	0.55	<b>0.38</b>	0.20	0.29
		optim.	0.45	0.73	0.35	0.52	0.30
Qwen3-Next-80B-A3B-Instruct	80B	basic	0.50	0.59	0.33	0.26	0.31
		optim.	0.45	<b>0.79</b>	0.36	<b>0.66</b>	<b>0.37</b>
Ling-flash-2.0	100B	basic	0.50	0.57	0.35	0.42	0.33
		optim.	<b>0.51</b>	0.71	0.32	0.57	0.35

Table 7: Performance by model and prompt (basic vs. optimized). **Post macro F1** is the macro-averaged F1 over post-level bias-tuple labels. **Bias expression F1** is the F1 for the post-level bias-expression label. **Response Macro F1** is the macro-averaged F1 over response-level bias-tuple labels. **Response CS F1** is the F1 for the response counter-speech label. **Rhetorical Devices Macro F1** is the macro-averaged F1 over eligible rhetorical-device labels.

Corpus	#Pairs	%CS	Med. CS len	Mean #strat.
Baike	6,086	61.6	99	1.74
Zhihu	5,792	74.2	232	1.99
PTT	1,367	56.9	35	1.05
Weibo	3,211	36.6	24	1.02
Tieba	98,023	54.0	24	1.05
<b>Combined</b>	<b>114,479</b>	54.9	-	1.15

Table 8: Composition of the CRETOR-MACHINE analysis pool (bias-related posts only). **#Pairs** denotes the number of post-response pairs retained after bias filtering. **%CS** is the proportion of responses predicted as counter-speech. **Med. CS len** is the median character length of counter-speech responses. **Mean #strat.** is the mean number of unique rhetorical strategies per counter-speech response (Stage 3).

respectively), compared to microblog/forum corpora like Weibo and Tieba (median CS response lengths: 24 and 24 characters).

**Bias type and response stance varied by platform.** Platform was strongly associated with whether a post was predicted as BIAS-EXPRESSION versus BIAS-DISCUSSION ( $\chi^2(4) = 14513.96$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , Cramér’s  $V = 0.36$ ). As shown in Figure 5, Zhihu contained a substantially higher share of BIAS-DISCUSSION posts (52.2%) than Tieba (13.4%), which may be due to the more long form, Q/A style of Zhihu encouraging meta-level discussion (e.g., “why do people say X?”) rather than direct stereotyping.

**Targeted groups varied by Mandarin social media platforms.** Before comparing topic distributions, we normalized raw topic strings generated by the LLM into a fixed set of canonical topics. After normalization, topic distributions differed strongly by platform ( $\chi^2(28) = 14385.60$ ,  $p < 10^{-300}$ , Cramér’s  $V = 0.18$ ). Figure 9 shows clear platform signatures: Weibo and Baike were

dominated by gender-related tuples, while Tieba contained substantially more region- and vocation/education-related tuples, and PTT showed relatively higher representation of region and sexuality topics.

Pairwise co-occurrence statistics showed that the most common tuple pairs involve *region*, *gender*, and *vocation/education*. The high co-occurrence of gender and regional bias across all categories suggests that there is high *intersectionality* between gender/regional bias and other sensitive categories across online forums. For example, in the sentence “为什么上海本地人，尤其是老太太特别有优越感？” (Why do native Shanghainese people, especially older women, have such a sense of superiority over other people?), the first clause’s target (Shanghainese people) was later intersected with the group “older women.” As such, a model that would generate effective Counter-Speech (CS) to counter these biases would need to address both components simultaneously.

**Rhetorical strategy use was partially platform-specific and correlated with response length.** We next analyzed rhetorical strategies among responses classified as COUNTER-SPEECH. Because a single response may employ multiple strategies, we compared corpora using strategy-instance counts. Strategy distributions differed substantially across platforms ( $\chi^2(20) = 4569.49$ ,  $p < 10^{-300}$ , Cramér’s  $V = 0.14$ ). Figure 7 highlights two consistent patterns. First, GENERAL DENOUNCING appeared broadly across all corpora (about 61% of CS responses overall), suggesting that brief normative condemnation is a cross-platform default. Second, Evidence- or explanation-heavy strategies were much more

platform-dependent. For example, COUNTEREXAMPLES and EXTERNAL FACTORS were most prevalent on long-form Q/A platforms (Zhihu: 35.4% and 12.1%; Baike: 10.0% and 11.6%), but were far rarer on Tieba and Weibo (e.g., COUNTEREXAMPLES 6.5% and 5.5%).

## 6 Conclusion

This study presents the first systematic study of rhetorical strategies in Mandarin counter-speech, combining a human-annotated corpus with a machine-annotated hate speech-counter speech pairs from five major Chinese platforms. We extend existing English taxonomies to identify six rhetorical strategies and analyzing their distributions across platforms.

Our findings reveal a markedly different rhetorical landscape for Mandarin counter-speech than the one for English in Mun et al. (2023). While prior English-language research found that counter-speech overwhelmingly favored ALTERNATE QUALITIES and treated EXTERNAL FACTORS as rare and less persuasive, our Mandarin data presents a more nuanced platform-dependent pattern.

We also observe that Chinese counterspeakers typically keep their tactical repertoire small. This differs from finding from Mun et al. (2023) that persuasive English comments cluster around two to three tactics. This remains true even when responses had relatively high ratings of a rating of 8 or higher or higher ( $mean = 1.66$ ). This may suggest that Chinese counter-speech argumentative strategies may naturally be more succinct.

## Limitations

Moreover, although 71% of items were encoded by 3 or more annotators, the remaining double-coded (28%) and could still be strongly biased by a single annotator’s latent biases. The use of an aggregation model that models each speaker’s labeling preferences was used to simulate having all eleven annotators and reduce individual bias as described in other papers (Davani et al., 2022). While we trained annotators carefully, personal biases or misunderstandings could still influence the labels, especially for tricky categories like deciding whether a question expresses or just discusses bias. Additionally, our annotators were mostly

young, educated, urban Mandarin speakers, which may limit how well the dataset represents the views of older, rural, or more linguistically diverse communities.

While we aim to enhance the diversity of the current HS/CS corpus, we recognize several potential risks. First, it can be exploited to train models for generating more sophisticated toxic dialogues (Zhou et al., 2022). In addition, stereotypes may be reinforced if counter-speech is not thoughtfully crafted (Jia and Schumann, 2025). Furthermore, the dataset might reflect specific cultural and linguistic biases, given the fact that the dialogues are extracted only from online platforms, potentially limiting the diversity and fairness of Chinese-speaking communities. To mitigate these concerns, we suggest mitigation strategies, such as including a broader range of representatives and conducting ethical reviews involving community stakeholders (Eder, 2023).

Another important point is that the labels in our dataset show how people responded to biased questions, but they do not tell us whether those responses were actually effective in changing opinions or reducing harm. Just because a comment uses a certain rhetorical strategy does not mean it works better. Future work should connect these strategies to actual outcomes, like how people respond or whether harmful behavior decreases.

When selecting answers, machine-assisted filtering may have favored stereotypical content that fits existing Western taxonomies as the majority of the data used to train LLaMA 4 was English. As such, the exact distribution of targeted groups may not actually be that representative. Finally, training the MTM took about four hours on an A100 GPU. This contributed some energy use and emissions, though relatively small compared to larger AI models. Training and annotating the models from Experiment 2 required 8 B100 GPUs and took 80 hours in total.

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## A Appendix

### B Semantic Classifiers

Age range	Annotators ( $n$ )	Share (%)	General Categories	Accuracy (%)	$\kappa$
15-19	3	27	Question Type	52.9	0.75
20-24	4	36	Response Attitude	78.3	0.68
25-29	4	36			
Current residence			Topics		
Mainland China	4	36	Region	89.4	0.91
United States	6	54	Chinese Minorities	98.6	0.93
United Kingdom	1	10	Race	94.5	0.92
			Gender	77.3	0.81
			Sexual Orientation	96.3	0.88
			Disability	98.4	0.88
			Vocation/Education	96.5	0.89
			Religion	99.7	1.00
			Other	83.3	0.22

Table 9: Aggregate demographic profile of the annotation team.

Rating	Avg. Strategies
1	1.000
2	1.159
3	1.214
4	1.318
5	1.533
6	1.378
7	1.513
8	1.667
9	2.000
10	1.632

Table 10: Average number of argumentative strategies per rating across both datasets for CS responses.

## C Embedding Results

### Response Strategies

Alternative Group	92.8	0.71
Alternative Trait	82.3	0.71
Counterexample	76.8	0.78
External Factors	86.2	0.67
Expansion	89.4	0.64
General Denouncing	79.3	0.72

Table 11: Inter-annotator agreement: Accuracy and Krippendorff’s alpha ( $\kappa$ ) for each item type after 4 rounds of uncertainty corrections.

### C.1 Prompt Engineering References

The following lists the three prompts used to generate the combined embedding vector. In all prompts, the placeholder `{text}` is replaced with the input sentence to be embedded. In the few-shot prompt, the labels `True` and `False` indicate whether the example text involves social bias. Specifically, `True` denotes content that either expresses or discusses bias, while `False` represents content not expressing bias to a social group.

1. **Raw Input:**

`{text}`

2. **Direct Interrogation:**

“Does the input ‘`{text}`’ talk about race, ethnicity, gender, sex, occupations, or sexuality and hint at discrimination?”

3. **Few-Shot Examples (Chinese):**

“下面是一些示例：‘那你有哪里来的样本说明贵州人素质低了？’ (True)，‘你喜欢美国人歧视亚裔的文化吗？你喜欢中国人歧视越南人的文化吗？你不喜欢，仅仅是受益人不是你罢了，人家没违法没犯罪，

Embedding Model	AdaBoost	Dec. Tree	KNN (k=10)	LogReg	Rand. Forest	SVM (C=1)	SVM (Lin.)	SVM (Sig.)
Qwen3-0.6B	0.91	0.87	0.90	0.94	0.92	0.95	0.95	0.94
GTE-Base-ZH	0.91	0.87	0.90	0.94	0.92	0.95	0.95	0.94
Xiaobu-v2	0.91	0.87	0.90	0.94	0.92	0.95	0.95	0.94
E5-Large-Instruct	0.91	0.87	0.90	0.94	0.92	0.95	0.95	0.94
RIRetrieve-v1	0.91	0.87	0.90	0.94	0.92	0.95	0.95	0.94
Qwen3-4B	0.91	0.87	0.90	0.94	0.92	0.95	0.95	0.94
Qwen3-8B	<b>0.96</b>	<b>0.96</b>	<b>0.97</b>	<b>0.97</b>	<b>0.97</b>	<b>0.97</b>	<b>0.97</b>	<b>0.97</b>

Table 12: Semantic classification precision of different embedding models, reported to two decimal places.

Model	Threshold	Accuracy	Precision	Recall	F1
Baseline (embed)	0.50	<b>0.952</b>	0.949	<b>0.857</b>	<b>0.901</b>
Baseline (embed)	0.75	0.923	0.984	0.705	0.822
Tuple-scaled	0.50	<b>0.952</b>	0.949	<b>0.857</b>	<b>0.901</b>
Tuple-scaled	0.75	0.923	0.984	0.705	0.822
Binary-switch	0.50	0.918	0.976	0.692	0.810
Binary-switch	0.75	0.897	<b>0.991</b>	0.594	0.743
<b>AUC</b> (all Baseline / Tuple-scaled)			<b>0.988</b>		
<b>AUC</b> (Binary-switch)			0.867		

## C.2 Binary labeling Distributions

Table 13: Ablation of embedding-only vs. embedding + LLM tuple models for predicting bias. The tuple-scaled model’s optimal parameters are  $\alpha = \beta = 0$ , making it equivalent to the baseline.

你为什么讨厌? ’ (True), ‘hub 么? 我在国外都不用翻墙 ’ (False), ‘你搁发廊作市场调研是吧, 剩下的一个是不是扫黄的警察? 说实话是不是集体蹲墙角刚被放出来? ’ (False), ‘作者你有父母吗? 来把匿名打开, 你在那装你妈’ (False)。请问以上示例是否涉及敏感话题或含有歧视性内容? {text}”

Table 14: Binary classification performance using different embedding models, measured by F1 score to two decimal places.

Model	AdaBoost	Dec. Tree	KNN (k=10)	LogReg	Rand. Forest	SVM (C=1)	SVM (Lin)	SVM (Sig)
Qwen-0.6B	0.92	0.87	0.86	<b>0.94</b>	<b>0.91</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.94</b>
GTE-Base-ZH	0.92	0.87	0.86	<b>0.94</b>	<b>0.91</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.94</b>
Xiaobu-v2	0.92	0.87	0.86	<b>0.94</b>	<b>0.91</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.94</b>
E5-Large-Instruct	0.92	0.87	0.86	<b>0.94</b>	<b>0.91</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.94</b>
RITrieve-v1	0.92	0.87	0.86	<b>0.94</b>	<b>0.91</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.94</b>
Qwen-4B	0.92	0.87	0.86	<b>0.94</b>	<b>0.91</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.94</b>
Qwen-8B	<b>0.93</b>	<b>0.89</b>	<b>0.90</b>	0.93	<b>0.91</b>	0.94	0.94	<b>0.94</b>

Table 15: Semantic Classification Performance using different embedding models, measured by accuracy to two decimal places.

Embedding Model	AdaBoost	Dec. Tree	KNN (k=10)	LogReg	Rand. Forest	SVM (C=1)	SVM (Lin)	SVM (Sig)
Qwen-0.6B	<b>0.92</b>	<b>0.87</b>	0.88	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.92</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.95</b>	0.94
GTE-Base-ZH	<b>0.92</b>	<b>0.87</b>	0.88	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.92</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.95</b>
Xiaobu-v2	<b>0.92</b>	<b>0.87</b>	0.88	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.92</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.95</b>
E5-Large-Instruct	<b>0.92</b>	<b>0.87</b>	0.88	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.92</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.95</b>
RITrieve-v1	<b>0.92</b>	<b>0.87</b>	0.88	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.92</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.95</b>
Qwen-4B	<b>0.92</b>	<b>0.87</b>	0.88	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.92</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.95</b>	<b>0.95</b>
Qwen-8B	0.91	0.86	<b>0.90</b>	0.93	0.91	0.93	0.93	0.93

## Counterspeech Labeling Example

### Input (Post):

为什么有人说“女生不适合学理工”？

*(Why do some people say “women are not suited for STEM”?)*

### Input (Response):

这种说法不对。我认识的女生做算法很强，而且问题不在性别，是教育资源和机会分配不均。

*(This claim is wrong. I know women who are great at algorithms, and the issue isn't gender; it's unequal access to educational resources and opportunities.)*

### Stage 2 evidence (Extracted tuple):

[ 性别, 女生, 不适合学理工 ] [*gender, women, not suited for stem*]

### Stage 3 outputs:

- **Post type:** 偏见讨论  
*(Bias-Discussion)*
- **Response stance:** 反偏见/正面  
*(Anti-Bias)*
- **Rhetorical strategy tuples:**
  - [ 普遍谴责, 性别, 不适合学理工, 说法不对 ]  
*[General Denouncement, gender, not suited for STEM, that's incorrect to say]*
  - [ 替代特质, 性别, 不适合学理工, 女生做算法很强 ]  
*[Alternate Qualities, gender, not suited for STEM, women are very good at algorithms]*
  - [ 外部因素, 性别, 不适合学理工, 教育资源和机会分配不均 ]  
*[External Factors, gender, not suited for STEM, that's due to differences in educational opportunities]*

Figure 4: Stage 3 assigns response stance and rhetorical strategies. Strategy labels are encoded as tuples grounded in the Stage 2 group-evaluation evidence, enabling scalable aggregation and co-occurrence analysis across topics and platforms.

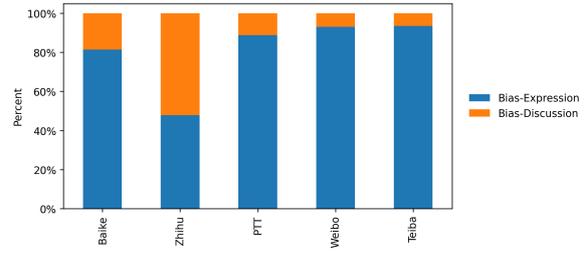


Figure 5: Model-predicted post type distribution by corpus (BIAS-EXPRESSION vs. BIAS-DISCUSSION).

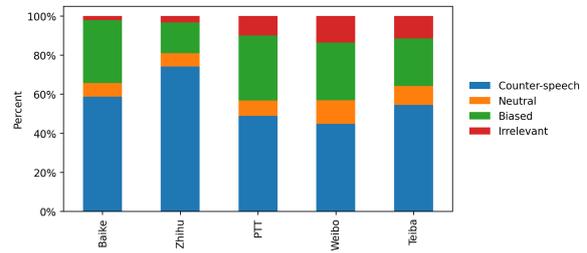


Figure 6: Model-predicted response stance distribution by corpus.

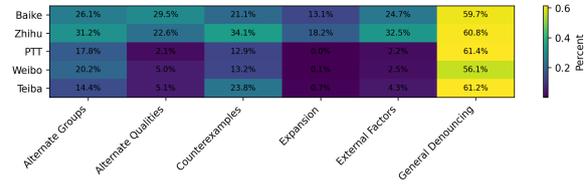


Figure 7: Rhetorical strategy prevalence by corpus among COUNTER-SPEECH responses. Each cell shows the percentage of CS responses in that corpus that contain the strategy.

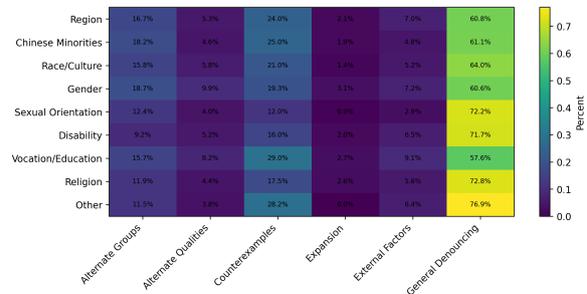


Figure 8: Topic-strategy heatmap. Values show the conditional distribution of strategies within each topic (strategy-instance proportions).

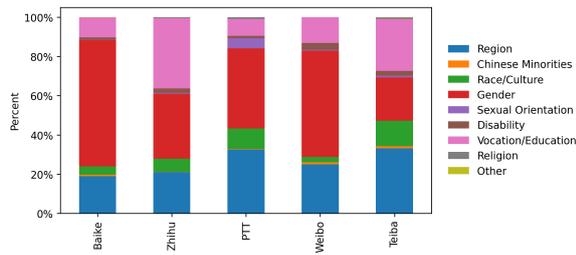


Figure 9: Distribution of normalized topic tuples by corpus (counts aggregated over Stage 2 group-evaluation tuples).

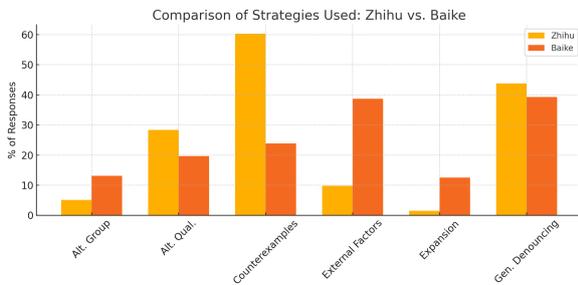


Figure 10: Comparison of strategies used between the Q/A platforms Zhihu and Baiké. Stars above a category indicate a statistically significant difference between the two platforms ( $p < 0.05$ ).

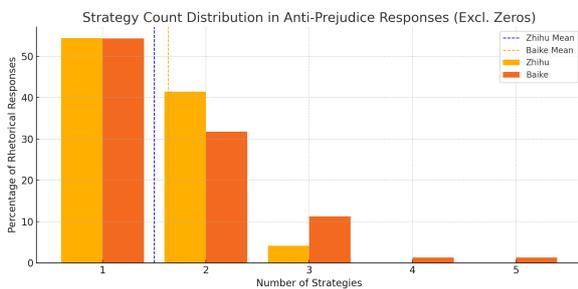


Figure 11: The relative frequencies of rhetorical strategy counts per item from all annotators. Each bar reflects the percentage of rhetorical items in each dataset used that number of strategies. The dashed vertical lines mark the mean number of strategies per item for each dataset.



Figure 12: Screenshot of the browser-based interface shown to annotators. The prompt contains a biased question from Baiké asking why college girls are "so cheap," which expresses a strong negative stereotype. The response attempts to mediate by attributing confusion to broader societal factors and discouraging derogatory language. Annotators classified the question as "偏见表达" (bias expression), with the topics of "性别" (gender) and "职业/教育" (education). The response was labeled as having a "反偏见/正面" (anti-bias/positive) attitude, using rhetorical strategies such as "外部因素" (external factors), "扩展" (generalization), and "普遍谴责" (general denouncing).



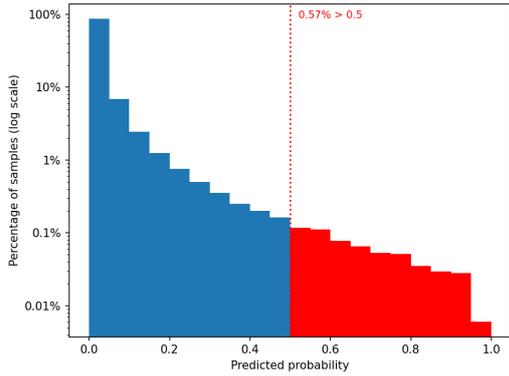


Figure 17: Distribution of predicted bias probabilities for the Weibo data source. The distribution is sharply concentrated near zero, with almost no mass above 0.5 (0.57%; 25,450 items) or 0.75 (0.15%; 6,649 items).

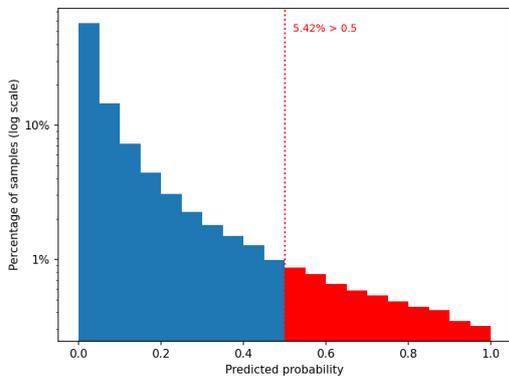


Figure 18: Distribution of predicted bias probabilities for the Zhihu data source. Zhihu shows a moderate right tail, with 5.42% (44,007 items) exceeding 0.5 and 2.01% (16,280 items) exceeding 0.75.

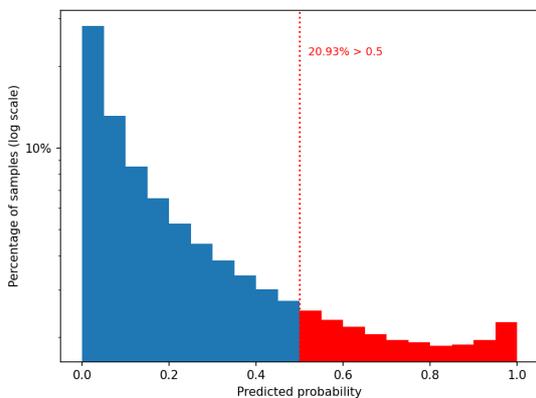


Figure 19: Distribution of predicted bias probabilities for the Tieba data source. Tieba is unique among all data sources in exhibiting a clear bimodal distribution, with a pronounced second peak near 1.0.

Dataset / datasource	Region / locality	Gender	Education / profession	Race / culture	Disability (physical/mental)	Sexual orientation	Chinese minorities / ethnicity	Religion	Other
baike	19.8	64.2	9.37	4.26	1.23	0.231	0.756	0.115	0.0641
ppt	33.2	40.5	7.83	11	0.928	5.51	0.29	0.754	0
tieba	34	22.5	24.7	13.5	2.28	0.971	1.1	0.766	0.133
weibo	27.9	52.4	11.3	2.46	4.72	0	1.12	0	0
zhihu	21.9	34.9	33.2	6.52	2.23	0.411	0.378	0.454	0
Overall	32.5	26.7	23.3	12.3	2.27	1.05	1.02	0.694	0.113

Figure 20: Distribution of category labels for HS across the 5 corpora.