

# 000 001 002 003 004 005 006 007 008 009 010 011 012 013 014 015 016 017 018 019 020 021 022 023 024 025 026 027 028 029 030 031 032 033 034 035 036 037 038 039 040 041 042 043 044 045 046 047 048 049 050 051 052 053 POLI-RL: A POINT-TO-LIST REINFORCEMENT LEARNING FRAMEWORK FOR CONDITIONAL SE- MANTIC TEXTUAL SIMILARITY

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## ABSTRACT

Conditional Semantic Textual Similarity (C-STS) measures the semantic proximity between text segments under a specific condition, thereby overcoming the ambiguity inherent in traditional STS. However, existing methods are largely confined to discriminative models, failing to fully integrate recent breakthroughs in the NLP community concerning Large Language Models (LLMs) and Reinforcement Learning (RL). RL is a particularly well-suited paradigm for this task, as it can directly optimize the non-differentiable Spearman ranking metric and guide the reasoning process required by C-STS. However, we find that naively applying listwise RL fails to produce meaningful improvements, as the model is overwhelmed by a complex, coarse-grained reward signal. To address this challenge, we introduce PoLi-RL, a novel Point-to-List Reinforcement Learning framework. PoLi-RL employs a two-stage curriculum: it first trains the model with simple pointwise rewards to establish fundamental scoring capabilities, then transitions to a hybrid reward that combines pointwise, pairwise, and listwise objectives to refine the model’s ability to discern subtle semantic distinctions. Crucially, we propose an innovative Parallel Slice Ranking Reward (PSRR) mechanism that computes ranking rewards in parallel slices, where each slice comprises same-indexed completions from different samples. This provides a precise, differentiated learning signal for each individual completion, enabling granular credit assignment and effective optimization. On the official C-STS benchmark, PoLi-RL achieves a Spearman correlation coefficient of 48.18, establishing a new SOTA for the cross-encoder architecture. As the first work to successfully apply RL to C-STS, our study introduces a powerful and effective paradigm for training LLMs on complex, ranking-based conditional judgment tasks. Our code and checkpoints are available at <https://anonymous.4open.science/r/PoLi-RL>.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

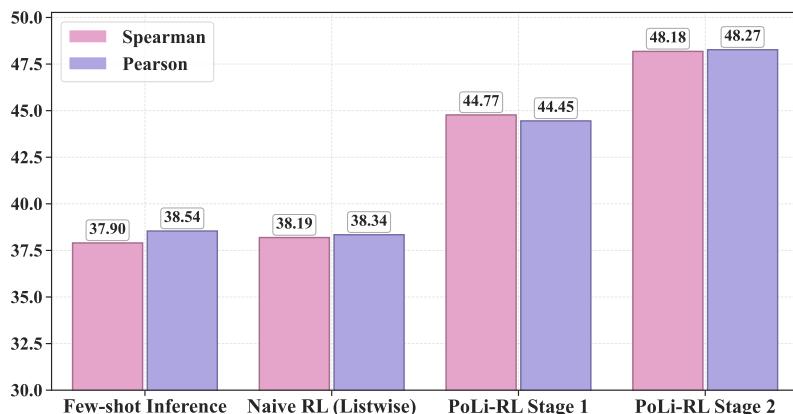
As a core research area in Computational Linguistics, Semantic Textual Similarity (STS) (Agirre et al., 2013) finds extensive applications across diverse scenarios, including topic modeling, dialogue systems, text summarization, and agent memory (Tang et al., 2025). However, traditional STS tasks exhibit inherent ambiguity because similarity definitions are often susceptible to observer bias. To address this limitation, the Conditional Semantic Textual Similarity (C-STS) task was developed (Deshpande et al., 2023). By incorporating an explicit natural language condition, C-STS enables more precise and objective similarity judgments, yet simultaneously imposes higher demands on a model’s reasoning capabilities. For instance, consider the following two text fragments: “A player is shooting from beyond the three-point line” and “A player is taking a free throw”. Under the condition “The activity of the player”, their similarity is high. However, under the condition “The player’s distance from the basket”, their similarity is low.

Research on this nascent task has yielded three primary paradigms: Bi-encoder (Liu et al., 2025), Tri-encoder (Lin et al., 2024), and Cross-encoder (Li et al., 2024). The Cross-encoder architecture, which processes the text pair and the guiding condition simultaneously, is the most compatible with modern generative pre-trained models. Despite this, the integration of C-STS with LLMs remains in its early stages. Current LLM applications are limited to two main approaches: direct

054 inference via few-shot prompting, where even state-of-the-art models struggle to achieve satisfactory  
 055 results (Deshpande et al., 2023); and their use as feature extractors for generating text embeddings  
 056 (Yamada & Zhang, 2025), which is an extension of the discriminative paradigm. To the best of our  
 057 knowledge, no prior work has applied an end-to-end LLM-based cross-encoder to the C-STS task,  
 058 nor has any integrated it with advanced training techniques like reinforcement learning (RL), leaving  
 059 a significant research gap.

060 This paper aims to fill this gap. We posit that incorporating RL into an LLM-based cross-encoder  
 061 paradigm is a natural fit. This is reflected in two aspects: First, C-STS requires sophisticated,  
 062 scenario-based reasoning. For example, in the basketball case described earlier, to correctly assess  
 063 similarity under the “distance” condition, the model must move beyond surface-level semantics to  
 064 identify the underlying spatial relationship between ‘beyond the three-point line’ and ‘at the free  
 065 throw line’, a process demanding strong abstraction and inference. RL, through its explicit reward  
 066 signals, can more effectively guide the reasoning process of LLMs (Guo et al., 2025). Second, from  
 067 an optimization standpoint, RL aligns closely with the task’s evaluation criteria. The Spearman cor-  
 068 relation coefficient (Zar, 2005), a core evaluation metric of C-STS, is a non-differentiable measure  
 069 of ranking quality. Traditional SFT methods can only indirectly and approximately optimize this  
 070 objective through loss functions like Mean Squared Error (MSE) (Zhang & Li, 2024b). In contrast,  
 071 RL allows for the direct optimization of ranking-based reward functions that are designed to corre-  
 072 late strongly with the final Spearman metric, maintaining a higher degree of consistency with the  
 073 final evaluation.

074 However, a naive application of RL to this task presents significant challenges. As illustrated in  
 075 Figure 1, our preliminary experiments indicate that directly applying a single listwise ranking re-  
 076 ward (e.g., Spearman’s correlation coefficient) across an entire batch of completions does not show  
 077 any advantages compared to the few-shot method. This approach suffers from two fundamental  
 078 problems. First, the ranking objective is too complex for a model that has not yet learned the task’s  
 079 fundamental scoring rules, often causing the training to collapse. Second, a single reward computed  
 080 across the entire batch is too coarse to provide precise credit assignment, as a few poor completions  
 081 can unfairly penalize other good ones.



096 Figure 1: Performance comparison of different strategies on the C-STS task. Directly applying  
 097 listwise ranking rewards for RL does not significantly outperform the few-shot baseline. In contrast,  
 098 both stages of our method (PoLi-RL) achieve substantial improvements, validating its effectiveness.

100 To address these challenges, we propose **PoLi-RL**, a two-stage **Point-to-List Reinforcement**  
 101 Learning framework. PoLi-RL features a two-stage curriculum to manage the complexity of the  
 102 learning task. In the first stage, we use simple pointwise rewards to ground the model in the basic  
 103 scoring rules of the task. Building on this foundation, the second stage introduces a richer, hybrid  
 104 reward signal that combines a stable pointwise anchor with more nuanced pairwise and listwise  
 105 ranking rewards. This progressive approach refines the model’s ability to discern subtle semantic  
 106 differences while ensuring stable and effective training.

107 Furthermore, to resolve the problem of a coarse-grained reward signals that arises from ranking all  
 108 completions in a batch together, we innovatively introduce a Parallel Slice Ranking Reward (PSRR)

108 mechanism, which utilizes a two-level decomposition. First, for a batch of input samples, the model  
 109 generates  $G$  completions for each. We then form  $G$  ‘parallel slices’, where the  $i$ -th slice is com-  
 110 posed of the  $i$ -th completion from every sample. Second, and more importantly, within each slice,  
 111 rather than assigning a single reward, we compute the rank difference for each individual completion  
 112 against its ideal rank. This two-level decomposition allows each of the  $N \times G$  completions to receive  
 113 a unique and precise reward that reflects its quality, thereby enabling granular credit assignment and  
 114 stable training.

115 The primary contributions of this paper are outlined as follows:  
 116

- 117 • To the best of our knowledge, this is the first work to propose an end-to-end, LLM-based  
 118 cross-encoder for the C-STS task and the first to employ reinforcement learning for training  
 119 in this domain.
- 120 • We design and implement PoLi-RL, a novel two-stage training curriculum that mitigates  
 121 the instability of direct rank-based optimization by progressing from a simple pointwise  
 122 reward to a more complex hybrid reward.
- 123 • We propose the Parallel Slice Ranking Reward (PSRR) mechanism, which delivers precise  
 124 and differentiated learning signals by computing ranking rewards within independent ‘par-  
 125 allel slices.’ This mechanism offers a generalizable strategy for other ranking and retrieval  
 126 tasks involving multiple generation candidates.
- 127 • On the official C-STS benchmark, PoLi-RL achieves a Spearman’s correlation coefficient  
 128 of 48.18, establishing a new SOTA for the cross-encoder architecture and surpassing strong  
 129 closed-source models, including GPT-4 (43.6) (Achiam et al., 2023). Our qualitative anal-  
 130 ysis further reveals our method’s advantages in understanding complex conditions.

## 131 2 METHODOLOGY

132 This section details our proposed strategy. We begin by formulating the C-STS task within an end-  
 133 to-end, LLM-based cross-encoder paradigm in subsection 2.1. Then, in subsection 2.2, we map  
 134 this task onto the mathematical framework of Reinforcement Learning and specify its optimiza-  
 135 tion objective. Finally, in subsection 2.3, we provide a comprehensive description of our PoLi-RL  
 136 framework, including its two-stage design and the innovative PSRR mechanism.

### 137 2.1 PROBLEM FORMULATION

138 The core objective of C-STS is to learn a scoring function that accurately reflects the semantic sim-  
 139 ilarity between two text segments under a specific condition. Formally, each C-STS data sample is  
 140 defined as a tuple  $x = (t_1, t_2, c, y)$ , where  $t_1, t_2$  are two text segments,  $c$  is the natural language  
 141 condition, and  $y \in [1, 5]$  is the human-annotated similarity judgement on the Likert scale (Likert,  
 142 1932). Notably, the label  $y$  corresponds to a fine-grained set of semantic criteria. According to the  
 143 C-STS annotation guidelines, the meanings of the scores are as follows: (1) Completely dissimilar;  
 144 (2) Thematically related but dissimilar; (3) Roughly equivalent, but with some important informa-  
 145 tion differences; (4) Mostly equivalent, with some unimportant details differing; (5) Completely  
 146 equivalent. This level of granularity demands that the model perform fine-grained reasoning beyond  
 147 surface-level semantics, posing a significant challenge to its capabilities.

148 A unique characteristic of the C-STS dataset is its paired structure: samples are organized in adja-  
 149 cent pairs that share the same text segments ( $t_1, t_2$ ) but feature different conditions and maintain a  
 150 deterministic ordinal relationship between their labels, i.e.,  $y_{\text{high}} \geq y_{\text{low}}$ . This structure provides a  
 151 solid foundation for our pairwise reward design, as detailed in subsection 2.3.

152 Our task is to train a scoring model  $\pi_\theta$ , parameterized by  $\theta$ . For each sample  $x$ , the model takes a  
 153 unified prompt  $p = [\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{E}, x]$  (detailed in Appendix A.2) as input, comprising the instruction  $\mathcal{I}$ ,  $K$   
 154 few-shot demonstrations  $\mathcal{E} = \{(x_k, y_k)\}_{k=1}^K$ , and the data sample  $x$ , to generate an output sequence  
 155  $o = \pi_\theta(p)$ . From this sequence, we parse the final predicted score,  $\tilde{y} = \text{Parse}(o)$ . The overall  
 156 training objective is to maximize the ranking consistency between the set of predicted scores  $\{\tilde{y}_i\}_{i=1}^N$   
 157 and the ground-truth scores  $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^N$  by optimizing the policy  $\pi_\theta$ , a process primarily measured  
 158 by Spearman’s correlation coefficient. Since this metric is rank-based and non-differentiable, RL  
 159 emerges as a more promising optimization paradigm than traditional supervised fine-tuning.

162 2.2 REINFORCEMENT LEARNING FOR C-STS  
163

164 We formulate the C-STS task as a Markov Decision Process (MDP), defined by a tuple  $\mathcal{M} =$   
165  $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{R}, \gamma)$ , where the agent is the LLM policy  $\pi_\theta$ . The generation process is modeled as a  
166 sequence of decisions, where each step involves generating a single token. A state  $s_t \in \mathcal{S}$  at timestep  
167  $t$  is the sequence of tokens generated so far, conditioned on the initial prompt, i.e.,  $s_t = (p, o_{<t})$ .  
168 An action  $a_t \in \mathcal{A}$  is the selection of the next token  $o_t$  from the model's vocabulary, governed by the  
169 policy  $\pi_\theta(a_t|s_t)$ , which provides a probability distribution over all possible tokens. The transition  
170 function  $\mathcal{T}$  is deterministic, where the next state  $s_{t+1}$  is formed by appending the selected token  $a_t$  to  
171  $s_t$ . We employ a terminal reward setting, where a reward  $\mathcal{R}_T = \mathcal{R}(x, o)$  is given only after the entire  
172 sequence  $o$  has been generated. Finally, the discount factor  $\gamma$  is set to 1 to ensure that the terminal  
173 reward is backpropagated without decay to all actions that contributed to the final output. Based on  
174 this framework, the objective is to find the optimal parameters  $\theta^*$  that maximize the expected reward  
175 over the data distribution  $\mathcal{D}$ :

$$176 \theta^* = \arg \max_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathcal{D}, o \sim \pi_\theta(p)} [R(x, o)] \quad (1)$$

177 To optimize this objective, we employ Decoupled Clip and Dynamic Sampling Policy Optimization  
178 (DAPO) (Yu et al., 2025), an extension of GRPO (Shao et al., 2024) that introduces several key  
179 techniques for effective RL. For each sample  $x$ , the policy generates a set of  $G$  completions  $\{o_i\}_{i=1}^G$ .  
180 A scalar reward  $r_i = R(x, o_i)$  is computed for each completion. The advantage  $\hat{A}_i$  for each completion  
181 is then calculated by normalizing its reward against the statistics of the entire group's rewards  
182 via Z-score normalization:

$$184 \hat{A}_i = \frac{r_i - \text{mean}(\{r_i\}_{i=1}^G)}{\text{std}(\{r_i\}_{i=1}^G) + \epsilon} \quad (2)$$

186 These advantages are used to define the objective function for updating the model parameters  $\theta$ :

$$188 \mathcal{J}_{\text{DAPO}}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathcal{D}, \{o_i\}_{i=1}^G \sim \pi_\theta(\cdot|p)} \left[ \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^G |o_i|} \sum_{i=1}^G \sum_{t=1}^{|o_i|} \left( \frac{\pi_\theta(o_{i,t}|p, o_{i,<t})}{[\pi_\theta(o_{i,t}|p, o_{i,<t})]_{\text{nograd}}} \hat{A}_{i,t} \right) \right] \quad (3)$$

191 2.3 POLI-RL: A TWO-STAGE REINFORCEMENT LEARNING FRAMEWORK  
192

193 As previously established, our optimization goal is to maximize the expected reward, making the  
194 design of the reward function  $\mathcal{R}$  central to our method. To ensure stable and effective optimization,  
195 we propose Poli-RL, a framework built upon a two-stage progressive reward curriculum. This  
196 subsection details our pipeline and its reward mechanisms, as illustrated in Figure 2.

197 **Stage I: Foundational Skill Acquisition.** The goal of Stage I is to ground the model in the funda-  
198 mental scoring rules of the C-STS task. For each input sample, the policy generates  $G$  completions,  
199 from which we parse a set of predicted scores  $\{\tilde{y}_j\}_{j=1}^G$ . The total reward for Stage I,  $R_{S1}$ , is a  
200 weighted sum of three components:

$$202 R_{S1} = \lambda_1 R_{\text{pointwise}} + \lambda_2 R_{\text{binary}} + \lambda_3 R_{\text{format}} \quad (4)$$

204 The Pointwise Accuracy Reward ( $R_{\text{pointwise}}$ ) is the primary component in Stage I. It measures the  
205 normalized distance between the predicted score  $\tilde{y}_j$  and the ground-truth score  $y_j$ .

$$207 R_{\text{pointwise}} = 1 - \frac{|\tilde{y}_j - y_j|}{\max(Y) - \min(Y)} \quad (5)$$

209 where  $\max(Y) = 5$  and  $\min(Y) = 1$  are the bounds of the label space.

210 To counter reward hacking, where the model tends to output safe intermediate scores, we introduce  
211 a Binary Judgement Reward ( $R_{\text{binary}}$ ). According to the C-STS guideline that scores  $\geq 3$  indicate  
212 similarity while scores  $\leq 2$  indicate dissimilarity, this reward encourages the model to first master  
213 this basic binary classification:

$$215 R_{\text{binary}} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (\tilde{y}_j \geq 3 \wedge y_j \geq 3) \vee (\tilde{y}_j < 3 \wedge y_j < 3) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

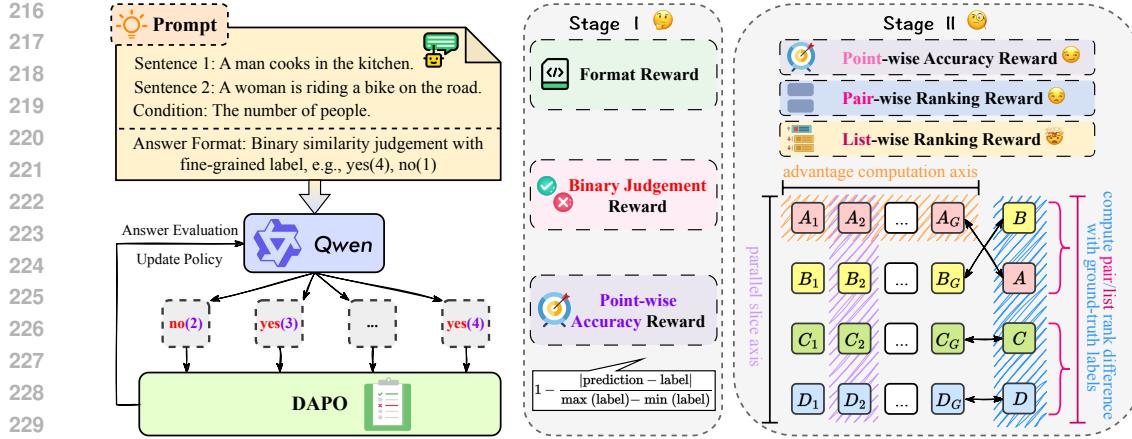


Figure 2: An overview of the PoLi-RL framework. The framework employs a two-stage curriculum, progressing from Stage I, where the model learns foundational scoring rules, to Stage II, which refines the model’s ability to discern fine-grained semantic differences. The core of our method is the PSRR mechanism in Stage II, where pairwise and listwise ranking rewards are computed vertically within slices of same-indexed completions to provide precise, differentiated learning signals.

Finally, a simple Format Reward ( $R_{\text{format}}$ ) ensures the output adheres to the required structure, which consists of a binary judgment (‘yes’ or ‘no’) followed by the numerical score in parentheses.

**Stage II: Fine-Grained Semantic Refinement.** After the model has acquired basic scoring abilities in Stage I, Stage II refines its capacity to discern subtle semantic differences by introducing a richer, hybrid reward signal that incorporates both pairwise and listwise ranking objectives.

**PSRR: A FINE-GRAINED REWARD MECHANISM.** A primary challenge in directly optimizing ranking metrics is that a single, batch-wide reward signal is too coarse to assign credit precisely. To address this, we propose the Parallel Slice Ranking Reward (PSRR) mechanism. The core idea of PSRR is to restructure the generated outputs to enable more granular reward computation. For a batch of  $N$  samples, we begin by having the policy generate  $G$  completions  $\{o_{i,1}, \dots, o_{i,G}\}$  for each sample  $x_i$ . From each completion  $o_{i,j}$ , we then parse the predicted score  $\tilde{y}_{i,j}$ . Instead of treating the completions as a single flat list, we organize these  $N \times G$  predicted scores into  $G$  “parallel slices”. Each slice, denoted as  $Y_{\text{pred}}^j$ , is defined as the collection of the  $j$ -th predicted score from all  $N$  samples in the batch:  $Y_{\text{pred}}^j = \{\tilde{y}_{1,j}, \tilde{y}_{2,j}, \dots, \tilde{y}_{N,j}\}$ , where  $j \in \{1, \dots, G\}$ . This slicing architecture is the foundation upon which our advanced ranking rewards are built, ensuring that each completion receives a specific learning signal based on its relative performance within its slice.

A sufficiently large slice size  $N$  is crucial for a stable and meaningful ranking signal. To make this computationally feasible with limited GPU memory, we leverage gradient accumulation. Specifically, we first generate the full set of  $N \times G$  completions and organize them into parallel slices to compute rewards and advantages globally. Subsequently, we process smaller sub-batches sequentially to compute losses and accumulate gradients over multiple backward passes before executing a single optimizer step. This strategy makes our reward design practically feasible, enabling the model to learn from a rich, large-scale ranking signal without requiring prohibitive memory.

**PAIRWISE RANKING REWARD.** Computed within each parallel slice  $P_j$ , this reward leverages the paired structure of the C-STS dataset to provide a local ranking signal. It is applied only to adjacent input samples  $(x_i, x_{i+1})$  that form a valid pair. For such a pair, we define the predicted difference as  $\Delta_{\text{pred}} = \tilde{y}_{i,j} - \tilde{y}_{i+1,j}$  and the true difference as  $\Delta_{\text{true}} = y_i - y_{i+1}$ . The reward  $R_{i,j}^{\text{pairwise}}$  is then a piecewise function:

$$R_{i,j}^{\text{pairwise}} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \text{sgn}(\Delta_{\text{pred}}) \neq \text{sgn}(\Delta_{\text{true}}) \\ R_{\text{base}} + (1 - R_{\text{base}}) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{|\Delta_{\text{pred}} - \Delta_{\text{true}}|}{\text{max\_error}}\right) & \text{if } \text{sgn}(\Delta_{\text{pred}}) = \text{sgn}(\Delta_{\text{true}}) \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

270 This function first checks if the basic ranking preference is correct using the sign function  $\text{sgn}(\cdot)$ .  
 271 If the order is wrong, the reward is zero. If correct, a base reward  $R_{\text{base}}$  is given, plus an additional  
 272 reward that measures the normalized distance between the predicted and true score differences.  
 273 Here, `max_error` is the maximum possible score difference, which is 3 for paired samples.  
 274

275 LISTWISE RANKING REWARD. While the pairwise reward focuses on local comparisons, the list-  
 276 wise reward provides a more global ranking perspective within each slice. It is calculated as the  
 277 normalized difference between a completion’s predicted rank within its slice and the ideal rank of  
 278 its ground-truth label, formulated as:

$$279 \quad R_{i,j}^{\text{listwise}} = 1 - \frac{|\text{Rank}(\tilde{y}_{i,j}, Y_{\text{pred}}^j) - \text{Rank}(y_i, Y_{\text{true}})|}{N-1} \quad (8)$$

282 where  $Y_{\text{true}} = \{y_1, \dots, y_N\}$  is the set of true labels for the current batch, the function  $\text{Rank}(v, S)$   
 283 returns the rank of element  $v$  within the set  $S$  (from 1 to  $N$ ), and the division by  $N-1$  normalizes  
 284 the rank error to the range  $[0, 1]$ .

285 The final reward for Stage II,  $R_{S2}$ , combines the robust Pointwise Reward from Stage I as a stabi-  
 286 lizing anchor with the new ranking-based rewards enabled by PSRR. The total reward is a weighted  
 287 combination of these three components:

$$289 \quad R_{S2} = \mu_1 R_{\text{pointwise}} + \mu_2 R_{\text{pairwise}} + \mu_3 R_{\text{listwise}} \quad (9)$$

### 291 3 EXPERIMENTS

293 To empirically validate the effectiveness of our proposed PoLi-RL framework, we conduct a com-  
 294 prehensive set of experiments. We begin by detailing our experimental setup in subsection 3.1,  
 295 including the dataset, evaluation metrics, baselines, and implementation details. Following this, in  
 296 subsection 3.2, we present the main results, comparing PoLi-RL against a suite of strong baselines.  
 297 Finally, in subsection 3.3, we conduct a series of ablation studies to analyze the contributions of our  
 298 framework’s key components.

#### 300 3.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

302 We build PoLi-RL upon the Qwen3-8B (Yang et al., 2025) model using the *ms-swift* framework  
 303 (Zhao et al., 2024) for RL training. All experiments are conducted on the official C-STS dataset  
 304 (Deshpande et al., 2023). Following prior work, we use Spearman correlation as the primary metric  
 305 and Pearson as the secondary. We compare our method against three baseline categories: First,  
 306 the discriminative models in the cross-encoder setting. Second, powerful generative LLMs, such  
 307 as Flan-UL (Tay et al., 2022), Flan-T5 (Chung et al., 2024) and Tk-Instruct (Wang et al., 2022).  
 308 Finally, our own SFT and few-shot implementations on Qwen3-8B for direct comparison.

#### 309 3.2 MAIN RESULTS

311 Table 1 summarizes the performance of our framework, PoLi-RL, which establishes a new state-  
 312 of-the-art (SOTA) for the cross-encoder architecture with a Spearman correlation of **48.18**. The  
 313 significance of this achievement is best understood through a series of key comparisons. First,  
 314 PoLi-RL surpasses the previous cross-encoder SOTA, SEAVER, by a significant margin of **4.35**  
 315 points. Second, the advantage of our method is particularly stark on the Qwen3-8B model, where  
 316 it yields substantial absolute improvements of **10.28** points over few-shot inference and **7.76** points  
 317 over standard SFT, showcasing the substantial benefits of our progressive, multi-component reward  
 318 optimization.

319 More remarkably, the efficacy of our framework is further highlighted when benchmarked against  
 320 vastly larger models. Our 8B parameter model not only substantially outperforms powerful pro-  
 321 prietary models like GPT-4 but also demonstrates a commanding lead over other large open-source  
 322 models like Flan-T5. This result illustrates that our RL-based method can cultivate nuanced rea-  
 323 soning capabilities in moderately-sized models, making them highly capable and competitive for  
 complex conditional judgment tasks without relying on scale alone.

324  
 325 Table 1: Main results on the official C-STS benchmark. All scores are reported as Spearman/Pearson  
 326 correlation coefficients multiplied by 100. Results marked with  $\dagger$  are obtained from (Deshpande  
 327 et al., 2023), while  $\ddagger$  denotes results from (Li et al., 2024).

328 <b>Methods</b>	329 <b>Training Paradigm</b>	330 <b>Parameters</b>	331 <b>Spearman <math>\uparrow</math></b>	332 <b>Pearson <math>\uparrow</math></b>
<i>Discriminative Model Baselines (Cross-Encoder Architecture)</i>				
333 RoBERTa <sub>LARGE</sub> $\dagger$	334 SFT	335 355M	336 40.7	337 40.8
338 SimCSE <sub>LARGE</sub> $\dagger$	339 SFT	340 355M	341 43.2	342 43.2
343 SEAVER SimCSE <sub>LARGE</sub> $\ddagger$	344 SFT	345 355M	346 43.83	347 43.81
<i>Generative Large Language Model Baselines</i>				
348 Flan-T5 <sub>XXL</sub> $\dagger$	349 Few-shot	350 11B	351 30.6	352 -
353 Flan-UL2 $\dagger$	354 Few-shot	355 20B	356 23.5	357 -
358 Tk-Instruct $\dagger$	359 Few-shot	360 11B	361 17.8	362 -
363 GPT-3.5 $\dagger$	364 Few-shot	365 175B	366 15.3	367 -
368 GPT-4 $\dagger$	369 Few-shot	370 -	371 43.6	372 -
<i>Our Implementation on Qwen3-8B</i>				
374 Qwen3-8B	375 Few-shot	376 8B	377 37.9	378 38.54
379 Qwen3-8B	380 SFT	381 8B	382 40.42	383 40.83
384 PoLi-RL (Ours)	385 RL	386 8B	387 <b>48.18</b>	388 <b>48.27</b>

### 344 3.3 ABLATION STUDIES

349 **Effectiveness of the Two-Stage Curriculum and Reward Components.** Table 2 dissects the  
 350 effectiveness of our progressive training schedule. We first observe that a Naive RL approach (Row  
 351 2), which uses only a single, batch-wise listwise reward from scratch, yields negligible improvement  
 352 over the few-shot baseline (Row 1), demonstrating the need for a more structured curriculum. Our  
 353 PoLi-RL Stage I (Row 3) addresses this by building a robust foundation, substantially outperforming  
 354 the few-shot baseline by 6.87 points. Within this stage, ablating the binary reward (Row 4) leads to  
 355 a discernible dip in performance, validating its role in grounding the model in the task’s basic binary  
 356 judgment.

357 Building upon this, the full PoLi-RL model (Row 5) further boosts performance by another 3.41  
 358 points (Row 5). Deconstructing the success of this final stage reveals that both ranking signals are  
 359 vital: removing the listwise reward (Row 6) incurs the most significant penalty, while removing the  
 360 pairwise reward (Row 7) also hinders performance. These findings confirm that both the two-stage  
 361 curriculum and each of its constituent reward signals are essential for achieving optimal results, with  
 362 the listwise signal being the most critical component in the final refinement stage.

363 Table 2: Ablation study on PoLi-RL’s two-stage training design and its reward components. The  $\Delta$   
 364 column shows the absolute improvement in Spearman correlation over the indicated baseline.

365 <b>Method</b>	366 <b>Reward Compo-</b>	367 <b>Spearman <math>\uparrow</math></b>	368 <b>Pearson <math>\uparrow</math></b>	369 <b><math>\Delta</math> (Spearman)</b>
	370 <b>component(s)</b>			
371 (1) Few-shot Inference	372 -	373 37.9	374 38.54	375 -
376 (2) Naive RL	377 Listwise	378 38.19	379 38.34	380 +0.29 vs. (1)
381 (3) PoLi-RL (Stage I)	382 Pointwise + Binary	383 44.77	384 44.45	385 +6.87 vs. (1)
386 (4) - w/o Binary	387 Pointwise	388 44.19	389 43.54	390 -0.58 vs. (3)
391 (5) PoLi-RL (Full)	392 Pointwise + Pairwise 393 + Listwise	394 <b>48.18</b>	395 <b>48.27</b>	396 +3.41 vs. (3)
397 (6) - w/o Listwise	398 Pointwise + Pairwise	399 46.71	400 46.37	401 -1.47 vs. (5)
402 (7) - w/o Pairwise	403 Pointwise + Listwise	404 47.6	405 47.59	406 -0.58 vs. (5)

377 **Sensitivity to Reward Weights in PoLi-RL Stage II.** Table 3 details our analysis of the frame-  
 378 work’s sensitivity to reward weights in Stage II. The results reveal that the framework is robust to

378 weight variations, with peak performance achieved by moderately increasing the pairwise weight  
 379 to 1.5. The model performs strongly even with the default equidistant weights (1:1:1), and shows  
 380 considerable tolerance to pairwise signal, as halving its weight to 0.5 results in only a marginal  
 381 performance drop to 47.77. Similarly, for the pointwise and listwise weights, deviations from their  
 382 baseline of 1.0 result in only minor fluctuations. Crucially, despite these variations, the framework  
 383 exhibits stable convergence across all configurations, exhibiting no training collapse. This confirms  
 384 that our hybrid reward design effectively resolves the optimization difficulties encountered by naive  
 385 listwise approaches.

386

387

Table 3: Ablation study on the reward weights ( $\mu_1, \mu_2, \mu_3$ ) in PoLi-RL’s Stage II.

Method	$\mu_1$ (Pointwise)	$\mu_2$ (Pairwise)	$\mu_3$ (Listwise)	Spearman $\uparrow$	Pearson $\uparrow$
PoLi-RL (Stage II)	1.0	1.0	1.0	47.83	47.83
	1.0	1.5	1.0	<b>48.18</b>	<b>48.27</b>
	1.5	1.0	1.0	47.3	47.23
	1.0	1.0	1.5	47.46	47.48
	1.0	0.5	1.0	47.77	47.31
	0.5	1.0	1.0	47.36	47.18
	1.0	1.0	0.5	47.39	47.27

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**Sensitivity to Parallel-Slice Size.** To determine the optimal configuration for our PSRR mechanism, we study the impact of the slice size  $N$ , with results presented in Table 4. The empirical results reveal a clear trend: performance peaks at an intermediate slice size of  $N = 24$  and degrades as the size deviates in either direction. This suggests that an optimal balance is required for the ranking signal. A slice that is too small may provide a less stable ranking signal, while one that is too large makes the ranking task overly complex for the model to learn effectively. This finding validates the design principle behind our PSRR mechanism: a carefully-sized, localized ranking signal is more effective than a purely global or an overly-restricted one.

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Table 4: Analysis on the impact of the parallel slice size ( $N$ ) in Stage II.  $N$  represents the number of samples used for listwise ranking reward computation in each slice.

Method	$N$ (Slice Size)	Spearman $\uparrow$	Pearson $\uparrow$
PoLi-RL(Stage II)	16	47.16	46.96
	24	<b>48.18</b>	<b>48.27</b>
	32	47.44	47.19
	40	47.18	47.32
	48	46.78	46.84

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## 4 ANALYSIS

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### 4.1 ANALYSIS OF PREDICTION ERROR DISTRIBUTION

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Figure 3 visualizes the distribution of absolute prediction errors on the C-STS validation set. The plot reveals several key insights into the models’ behaviors. While an error of 1 is the most frequent outcome for all models, likely reflecting the inherent nuances of the C-STS scale, a clear progression of improvement is evident. Compared to the raw and SFT model, PoLi-RL demonstrates a more favorable error distribution. Firstly, it achieves the highest density of perfect predictions (error=0). More importantly, the density of the PoLi-RL curve in the high-error regions is consistently the lowest. This shows that our method significantly reduces the frequency of large, unreliable errors, yielding a more stable and reliable model.

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### 4.2 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS: A CASE STUDY ON NUANCED REASONING

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To qualitatively analyze our framework’s nuanced reasoning ability, we present a case study in Figure 4 on the challenging condition “The person’s connection with the ground”. The baseline models

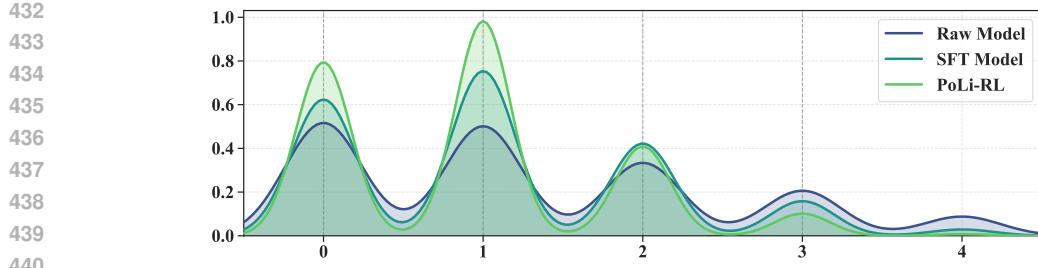


Figure 3: Distribution of absolute prediction errors for the raw model, SFT model, and PoLi-RL. The  $x$ -axis represents the absolute error ( $|\text{Predicted} - \text{True}|$ ), and the  $y$ -axis is the probability density.

show clear deficiencies: the Few-shot model exhibits a brittle, literal interpretation, fixating on the preposition ‘on’ while ignoring the real-world context, leading to an incorrect prediction. The SFT Baseline, while achieving a closer score, shows uncertainty and fails to make the necessary fine-grained distinction. In contrast, PoLi-RL applies world knowledge to infer that both “jumping” and “doing a flip” result in the same “not connected” state, arriving at the accurate score of 4 by identifying the differing actions leading to the state as unimportant details. This case study demonstrates that PoLi-RL cultivates the contextual inference ability required for complex conditional judgments.

#### Case Study: Model Comparison on a Reasoning Sample

**Sentence 1:** A person riding a snowboard jumps high over the snowy hill.

**Sentence 2:** A man in a blue snowsuit does a flip on a huge snowy mountain.

**Condition:** The person’s connection with the ground.

**Gold Label:** 4 (Mostly equivalent)

**Few-shot Inference Prediction:** no(1)

**Reasoning:** In Sentence 1... , the key action is jumping, which implies the person is airborne and not in contact with the ground. In Sentence 2... , the preposition ‘on’ suggest that he’s on the mountain’s surface. So, he’s connected to the ground. Therefore, the two sentences have different connections with the ground. Hence, the answer is ‘no(1)’.

**SFT Baseline Prediction:** yes(3)

**PoLi-RL Prediction:** yes(4)

**Reasoning:** Sentence 1 describes... . So he’s airborne during the jump, meaning he’s not connected to the ground. Sentence 2 talks about ... I infer that this action, similar to a jump or a trick in a snow-sports context, also means he is in the air. Therefore, they are similar because both have the person not connected to the ground. But the final score should be 4 because the action (jumping/flipping) leading to this state represent minor, differing details.

Figure 4: A detailed case study comparing the reasoning processes and final outputs of the Few-shot, SFT baselines, and PoLi-RL on a C-STS sample that requires nuanced reasoning.

## 5 CONCLUSION

We introduce PoLi-RL, a two-stage reinforcement learning framework that resolves the complex credit assignment problem associated with listwise objectives in C-STS through a progressive curriculum and an innovative Parallel-Slice Ranking Reward (PSRR) mechanism. Our method establishes a new state-of-the-art for the cross-encoder architecture, significantly outperforming SFT baselines and even large models like GPT-4. As the first successful application of reinforcement learning to this task, our study validates a powerful paradigm for aligning LLMs with complex ranking objectives, [demonstrating the framework’s potential to other ranking-based tasks](#).

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## 574 A APPENDIX

### 575 A.1 RELATED WORK

576 **577 Conditional Semantic Textual Similarity.** C-STS is a recent advancement over traditional STS  
 578 that introduces a natural language condition to disambiguate the measurement of similarity between  
 579 two texts. Research in this area has primarily established three mainstream paradigms: Bi-encoder,  
 580 Tri-encoder, and Cross-encoder. Given two texts and a condition, the bi-encoder architecture typi-  
 581 cally uses a Siamese network to encode two text-condition pairs, while the tri-encoder architecture  
 582 encodes each text and the condition separately before an aggregation step. A prevalent optimiza-  
 583 tion strategy for these paradigms is contrastive learning. For instance, (Liu et al., 2025) propose  
 584 a conditional contrastive learning framework that pulls representations of the same text pair under  
 585 a high-similarity condition closer, while pushing them apart under a low-similarity one. Extending  
 586 this, Hyper-CL (Yoo et al., 2024) utilizes a tri-encoder setup where a hypernetwork generates  
 587 condition-specific projectors to dynamically adapt sentence representations within a contrastive ob-  
 588 jective. More recently, CSR introduced a parameter-free router for the tri-encoder, using the condi-  
 589 tion to re-weight sentence tokens to amplify relevant information without increasing model size.  
 590

594 In contrast, the cross-encoder architecture processes the concatenated texts and condition as a single input, enabling deep, token-level interaction. However, this theoretical advantage did not consistently translate to superior performance in earlier discriminative models. The state-of-the-art  
 595 method in this setting, SEAVER, addressed this discrepancy by identifying that such models can be  
 596 distracted by condition-irrelevant tokens. To resolve this, SEAVER (Li et al., 2024) introduces an  
 597 attention reallocation mechanism that optimizes the model by re-weighting internal attention scores  
 598 during fine-tuning, forcing a focus on the most salient information.  
 599

600 The advent of LLMs has introduced new approaches, mainly few-shot inference and using LLMs  
 601 as feature extractors (Yamada & Zhang, 2025) (Li & Li, 2023). However, all these prior works,  
 602 regardless of architecture, are confined to supervised paradigms like SFT or contrastive learning.  
 603 Our work is the first to apply reinforcement learning to this task.  
 604

605 **Reinforcement Learning for Large Language Models.** Reinforcement Learning (RL) is pivotal  
 606 for aligning and enhancing Large Language Models (LLMs), with algorithms like Proximal Policy  
 607 Optimization (PPO) (Schulman et al., 2017) widely used to optimize non-differentiable objectives  
 608 in tasks such as reasoning and code generation. To address PPO’s limitations, such as high variance  
 609 in long-sequence tasks, advanced variants have emerged.  
 610

611 Group Relative Policy Optimization (GRPO) (Guo et al., 2025) addresses these limitations by intro-  
 612 ducing a group-relative advantage estimation, which eliminates the need for a separate value function  
 613 through Z-score normalization of rewards within sample groups. This approach simplifies training  
 614 and enhances sample efficiency, as demonstrated in models like DeepSeek-R1. Building on this,  
 615 Decoupled Clip and Dynamic Sampling Policy Optimization (DAPO) (Yu et al., 2025) provides an  
 616 open-source, scalable RL system tailored for LLMs. DAPO incorporates key improvements, includ-  
 617 ing dynamic sampling to adaptively adjust the number of generated completions based on reward  
 618 variance, making it particularly effective for long-horizon reasoning tasks.  
 619

620 Leveraging DAPO’s powerful optimization engine, our work, PoLi-RL, marks a significant depar-  
 621 ture by being the first to introduce a reinforcement learning framework to the C-STS task, thereby  
 622 establishing a new optimization paradigm.  
 623

## 624 A.2 PROMPT TEMPLATE FOR PoLi-RL

625 Below is the detailed few-shot prompt used for both the few-shot inference baseline and the training,  
 626 evaluation process of PoLi-RL.  
 627

### 628 Prompt for C-STS Task

630 Judge the semantic similarity between Sentence 1 and Sentence 2 based **completely** on the given  
 631 Condition. The final output must be exactly in this format: the similarity judgment (‘yes’ or  
 632 ‘no’) followed by the score in parentheses, wrapped in `<answer></answer>` tags. Examples:  
 633 `<answer>yes (4)</answer>`, `<answer>no (1)</answer>`. Include no other text, tags, or  
 634 explanations.

635 To arrive at this output, follow these two steps:  
 636

637 **Step 1: Binary Judgment.** Determine if the sentences are ‘similar’ (‘yes’) or ‘not similar’ (‘no’).  
 638

- 639 – ‘similar’: The sentences are roughly, mostly, or completely equivalent under the con-  
 640 dition.
- 641 – ‘not similar’: The sentences are dissimilar under the condition.

642 **Step 2: Fine-grained Score.** Assign an integer score based on Step 1:  
 643

- 644 – For a ‘yes’ judgment:
  - 645 \* **5:** The two sentences are completely equivalent as they mean the same thing with  
 646 respect to the condition.
  - 647 \* **4:** The two sentences are mostly equivalent, but some unimportant details differ  
 648 with respect to the condition.
  - 649 \* **3:** The two sentences are roughly equivalent, but some important information dif-  
 650 fers or is missing with respect to the condition.
- 651 – For a ‘no’ judgment:

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- \* **2:** The two sentences are dissimilar, but are on a similar topic with respect to the condition or shares a close semantic relationship. This applies when items are clearly different, but not direct opposites.
- \* **1:** The two sentences are dissimilar with respect to the condition, representing a direct opposition or a clear, unrelated difference. (e.g., ‘man’ vs. ‘woman’).

653 Here are some examples:

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**Example 1:**

<Sentence1>: A girl is cooking in a kitchen and a man is standing next to her.  
 <Sentence2>: A man sitting with a pizza in his hand in front of pizza on the table.  
 <Condition>: The number of people.  
 <answer>no (1) </answer>

*Explanation: The first sentence mentions two people, while the second sentence mentions only one person.*

**Example 2:**

<Sentence1>: A wood table sitting by a wood framed bed with a lamp on it.  
 <Sentence2>: A microwave, refrigerator, television, and wooden drawers sit in the corner of a bedroom.  
 <Condition>: The room type.  
 <answer>yes (5) </answer>

*Explanation: We can infer from the two sentences that the room type are both bedroom.*

**Example 3:**

<Sentence1>: A small crowd gathered around the injured person.  
 <Sentence2>: A crowd jumps up and down to the tunes played by an artist.  
 <Condition>: The number of people  
 <answer>yes (3) </answer>

*Explanation: While both sentences mention crowds, it is important and unclear how many people there are.*

677 Now, apply these steps to the following sentences:

678  
 679 <Sentence1>: {sentence1}  
 680 <Sentence2>: {sentence2}  
 681 <Condition>: {condition}

684 [A.3 HYPERPARAMETER SETTINGS AND SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS](#)

685 This section details the hyperparameter settings and provides empirical justification for selections  
 686 not covered in the main paper. The default configurations used for our main results are summarized  
 687 in Table 5.

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Table 5: Default hyperparameter configurations for the main results.

HyperParameter	Default Value
$\lambda_1 : \lambda_2 : \lambda_3$	1:0.25:1
$\mu_1 : \mu_2 : \mu_3$	1:1.5:1
$R_{\text{base}}$	0.5
$G$	8
$N$	24

700 In addition to the ablation studies presented in the main paper, we conducted sensitivity analyses on  
 701 three key hyperparameters: the binary reward weights in Stage I, generation multiplicity ( $G$ ) and the  
 pairwise base reward ( $R_{\text{base}}$ ).

702 **Sensitivity to Reward Weights in PoLi-RL Stage I.** In Stage I, the Binary Judgment Reward  
 703 serves as an auxiliary signal to prevent the model from converging to "safe" median scores. We test  
 704 the sensitivity to the weight of this component ( $\lambda_2$ ). Results in Table 6 show that PoLi-RL is highly  
 705 robust to variations in  $\lambda_2$ , consistently establishing a strong foundation for Stage II training.  
 706

707 Table 6: **Sensitivity to Binary Reward Weight ( $\lambda_2$ ) in PoLi-RL's Stage I.**

Method	$\lambda_1$ (Pointwise)	$\lambda_2$ (Binary)	$\lambda_3$ (Format)	Spearman $\uparrow$	Pearson $\uparrow$
PoLi-RL (Stage I)	1.0	0.1	0.1	<b>44.94</b>	<b>44.93</b>
	1.0	0.25	0.1	44.77	44.45
	1.0	0.5	0.1	44.67	44.42
	1.0	1.0	0.1	44.76	44.92

714 **Impact of Generation Multiplicity.** We investigate the trade-off between exploration diversity  
 715 and computational overhead by varying  $G \in \{4, 8, 12\}$ . As shown in Table 7, while increasing  $G$   
 716 theoretically aids RL exploration, empirical results indicate that  $G = 4$  offers insufficient explo-  
 717 ration coverage: while the restricted search space may suffice for basic scoring, it fails to gener-  
 718 ate the diverse candidates necessary for learning the fine-grained semantic distinctions in Stage II.  
 719 Conversely, scaling to  $G = 12$  leads to performance saturation and incurs higher computational  
 720 overhead. These results validate our selection of  $G = 8$  as the optimal configuration for balancing  
 721 performance and efficiency.  
 722

724 Table 7: **Ablation on generation multiplicity ( $G$ ) in PoLi-RL both stages.**

$G$	Method	Spearman $\uparrow$	Pearson $\uparrow$
4	PoLi-RL(Stage I)	44.55	44.49
4	PoLi-RL(Stage II)	47.47	47.45
8 (original)	PoLi-RL(Stage I)	44.77	44.45
8 (original)	PoLi-RL(Stage II)	<b>48.18</b>	<b>48.27</b>
12	PoLi-RL(Stage I)	45.51	45.61
12	PoLi-RL(Stage II)	47.98	48.06

733 **Rationale for Pairwise Base Reward.** The pairwise reward (Eq. 7) incorporates a constant base  
 734 reward  $R_{base}$  to ensure a guaranteed positive signal when the model correctly predicts the ranking  
 735 direction (ordinality), even if the exact score gap (cardinality) is imprecise. We compare the default  
 736  $R_{base} = 0.5$  against removing it (0.0) or overweighting it (0.75). Table 8 demonstrates that 0.5  
 737 yields the best performance, justifying the need for a balanced reward structure.  
 738

740 Table 8: **Sensitivity analysis of the pairwise base reward ( $R_{base}$ ).**

Method	$R_{base}$	Spearman $\uparrow$	Pearson $\uparrow$
PoLi-RL (Stage II)	0	47.90	47.59
	0.25	47.78	47.81
	0.5	<b>48.18</b>	<b>48.27</b>
	0.75	47.54	47.33

749 

#### A.4 PERFORMANCE ACROSS DIFFERENT MODEL SIZES

751 To evaluate the efficiency of PoLi-RL and its performance across different parameter scales, we  
 752 extend our experiments to include Qwen3-0.6B and Qwen3-4B backbones. Table 9 presents a com-  
 753 prehensive comparison against few-shot prompting, SFT baselines and previous SOTA methods.  
 754

755 The results provide compelling evidence for the efficacy of PoLi-RL. Our 0.6B model (44.34)  
 achieves a massive 19.09 point improvement over its few-shot baseline and, remarkably, outperforms

756  
 757 Table 9: **Performance comparison across different model sizes.** We compare PoLi-RL against Few-  
 758 shot, SFT baselines and previous SOTA methods across Qwen3-0.6B and 4B backbones.

Methods	Training Paradigm	Parameters	Spearman $\uparrow$	Pearson $\uparrow$
<i>Previous SOTA on Discriminative Model and Generative Model</i>				
SEAVER SimCSE <sub>LARGE</sub>	SFT	355M	43.83	43.81
GPT-4	Few-shot	-	43.6	-
<i>Our Implementation on Qwen3-0.6B</i>				
Qwen3-0.6B	Few-shot	0.6B	25.25	25.19
Qwen3-0.6B	SFT	0.6B	35.59	36.83
PoLi-RL (Qwen3-0.6B)	RL	0.6B	<b>44.34</b>	<b>44.36</b>
<i>Our Implementation on Qwen3-4B</i>				
Qwen3-4B	Few-shot	4B	37.97	38.48
Qwen3-4B	SFT	4B	38.41	39.45
PoLi-RL (Qwen3-4B)	RL	4B	<b>46.23</b>	<b>46.19</b>
<i>Our Implementation on Qwen3-8B</i>				
Qwen3-8B	Few-shot	8B	37.9	38.54
Qwen3-8B	SFT	8B	40.42	40.83
PoLi-RL (Qwen3-8B)	RL	8B	<b>48.18</b>	<b>48.27</b>

766  
 767 both the proprietary giant GPT-4 (43.60) (Achiam et al., 2023) and the previous Cross-Encoder  
 768 SOTA SEAVER (43.83) (Li et al., 2024). These findings demonstrate that the performance gains  
 769 stem from PoLi-RL’s ability to align reasoning processes with ranking objectives, rather than relying  
 770 solely on large-scale parameters.

### 771 A.5 COMPARISON WITH STATE-OF-THE-ART REASONING MODELS

772 In this section, we benchmark PoLi-RL against current state-of-the-art general reasoning models.  
 773 We evaluate GPT-4o and DeepSeek-R1 (Guo et al., 2025) on the C-STS test set using the same  
 774 few-shot prompting setup described in Appendix A.2.

775 As shown in Table 10, our 8B model outperforms GPT-4o by 3.95 points and DeepSeek-R1 by  
 776 5.33 points. Even more remarkably, our 0.6B model slightly surpasses these massive proprietary  
 777 models. This suggests that while proprietary models possess strong general reasoning capabilities,  
 778 they struggle to strictly align with the fine-grained quantization standards of C-STS (i.e., the 1-5  
 779 Likert scale) in a few-shot setting. PoLi-RL bridges this gap by explicitly optimizing this alignment  
 780 via RL, proving that a specialized, smaller model can surpass general-purpose giants on complex  
 781 conditional ranking tasks.

782 Table 10: **Benchmarking against state-of-the-art proprietary reasoning models under the same few-  
 783 shot setting as PoLi-RL.**

Methods	Training Paradigm	Spearman $\uparrow$	Pearson $\uparrow$
DeepSeek-R1	Few-shot	42.85	42.36
GPT-4o	Few-shot	44.23	44.07
PoLi-RL (Qwen3-0.6B)	RL	44.34	44.36
PoLi-RL (Qwen3-4B)	RL	46.23	46.19
PoLi-RL (Qwen3-8B)	RL	<b>48.18</b>	<b>48.27</b>

### 804 A.6 COMPARISON WITH DIFFERENTIABLE RANKING OBJECTIVES

805 In this section, we explicitly compare PoLi-RL against a strong cross-encoder regression baseline  
 806 trained with differentiable ranking objectives. The goal is to determine whether optimizing a surro-  
 807 gate loss is sufficient to capture the rank-based nuances of C-STS. Specifically, we compare PoLi-RL  
 808 against a baseline trained with the Pearson Correlation Coefficient (Pcc) Loss (Zhang & Li, 2024a),

810 a state-of-the-art differentiable proxy for Spearman metric. Pcc loss is defined as:  
 811

$$812 \quad 813 \quad \mathcal{L} = 1 - \frac{\text{cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} \quad (10)$$

814 where  $X$  represents the predicted scores and  $Y$  is the ground-truth labels. Table 11 shows that  
 815 while the regression baseline outperforms standard SFT, PoLi-RL still maintains a clear advantage  
 816 (1.74). This superiority stems from the paradigm shift: Regression treats the model as a "black box"  
 817 that maps embeddings to a scalar. In contrast, PoLi-RL optimizes the reasoning process itself. By  
 818 aligning the token-level generation probability with the non-differentiable ranking metric, the model  
 819 learns how to reason towards the correct score, enabling better generalization in complex conditional  
 820 scenarios.  
 821

822 Table 11: Comparison between PoLi-RL and SFT with differentiable Pearson Correlation Coeffi-  
 823 cient (Pcc) Loss regression.

824 Methods	825 Training Paradigm	826 Spearman $\uparrow$	827 Pearson $\uparrow$
828 Qwen3-8B	Few-shot	37.90	38.54
829 Qwen3-8B	SFT (Auto-regressive)	40.42	40.83
830 Qwen3-8B	SFT (Regression)	46.44	46.59
831 PoLi-RL (Qwen3-8B)	RL	<b>48.18</b>	<b>48.27</b>

### A.7 PERFORMANCE ON RE-ANNOTATED C-STS DATASET

833 Recent work by Tu et al. (2024) identified potential label noise in the original C-STS dataset and  
 834 released a re-annotated validation set. Subsequently, Zhang et al. (2025) further refined the dataset  
 835 by correcting the condition descriptions and utilizing LLMs to clean the training labels. To ensure  
 836 the robustness of our method against data quality issues, we re-evaluate PoLi-RL on the cleaner  
 837 dataset provided by Zhang et al. (2025).  
 838

839 Table 12: Performance on the Re-annotated C-STS Dataset. Evaluation performed on the 30% hold-  
 840 out split of the validation set following the protocol of Tu et al. (2024) and Zhang et al. (2025).

841 Methods	842 Training Paradigm	843 Spearman $\uparrow$	844 Pearson $\uparrow$
845 Qwen3-8B	Few-shot	64.42	64.50
846 Qwen3-8B	SFT	72.09	70.41
847 PoLi-RL (Stage I)	RL	74.74	73.49
848 PoLi-RL (Stage II)	RL	<b>76.08</b>	<b>74.16</b>

849 As detailed in Table 12, PoLi-RL maintains its significant performance advantage on the re-  
 850 annotated data, achieving a 76.08 Spearman correlation and outperforming the SFT baseline by  
 851 nearly 4 points. This confirms that our reported improvements are robust and valid, rather than an  
 852 artifact of overfitting to label noise.  
 853

### A.8 GENERALIZABILITY ON OUT-OF-DOMAIN TASKS

854 To empirically validate the generalizability of our framework beyond the C-STS domain, we applied  
 855 PoLi-RL to the WMT-QE 2020 task (Fomicheva et al., 2020). This task shares the goal of optimizing  
 856 Global Spearman correlation but differs fundamentally from C-STS in three aspects:  
 857

- 858 1. Different Domain: Multilingual translation quality estimation.
- 859 2. Different Scale: Continuous 0-100 scores.
- 860 3. Different Structure: Independent samples without adjacent pairing.

861 For this experiment, we simply disable the C-STS-specific Pairwise and Binary rewards, relying  
 862 solely on Stage I (Pointwise) and Stage II (Listwise via PSRR). The prompt settings are adapted  
 863 from Sato et al. (2024).  
 864

864  
 865 Table 13: Generalization performance on WMT-QE 2020 task (en-zh subset) using only the core  
 866 PSRR mechanism, excluding C-STS-specific reward components.

867 Methods	868 Training Paradigm	869 Spearman $\uparrow$	870 Pearson $\uparrow$
868 Qwen3-8B	869 Few-shot	870 45.03	871 44.18
870 Qwen3-8B	871 SFT	872 50.90	873 <b>51.09</b>
871 PoLi-RL (Stage I)	872 RL	873 51.72	874 50.58
872 PoLi-RL (Stage II)	873 RL	874 <b>54.33</b>	875 <b>51.09</b>

876 As shown in Table 13, PoLi-RL achieves a 3.43 Spearman gain over the strong SFT baseline. This  
 877 empirically validates the adaptability of the PSRR mechanism to ranking tasks with fundamentally  
 878 different label scales and data structures.

### 879 A.9 LLM USAGE STATEMENT

880 The large language model (LLM) was utilized during the preparation of this manuscript. The use  
 881 of this technology was strictly confined to the role of a writing assistant for the sole purpose of  
 882 improving the linguistic quality of the text. Specifically, the LLM was employed for tasks related to  
 883 grammar, syntax, phrasing, and overall readability. Its function was exclusively to perform surface-  
 884 level linguistic refinements on text already written by the human authors. Crucially, the LLM did  
 885 not contribute to any substantive or intellectual aspects of the research. The conceptualization of the  
 886 study, the design of the methodology, the execution of experiments, the interpretation of results, and  
 887 the formulation of conclusions were all executed by the human authors.