The Role of Feedback Alignment in Self-Distillation

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Abstract

Process supervision (assigning credit to individual steps of a reasoning trace) has been shown to outperform outcome-only rewards for mathematical reasoning. The standard implementation trains a process reward model (PRM) on step-labeled data, which is expensive to collect. We show that using step-aligned critique as context in self-distillation provides PRM-like credit assignment. It correctly signs and localizes per-token advantages at error-prone steps in the solver's trace, without training a reward model.

We compare three training signals in a solver–critic setup on a filtered subset of OpenMathReasoning: (i) a binary reward (GRPO), (ii) self-distillation with the reference solution, and (iii) self-distillation with a step-by-step critique aligned to the solver's reasoning trace.

Step-aligned critique yields the largest gains, beating GRPO by 16.11 points in Avg@12 on the evaluation set and reference-solution-conditioned self-distillation by 5.27 points. Per-token advantage analysis explains why: step-aligned feedback concentrates distributional shifts at the tokens where reasoning fails, acting as implicit process supervision. In contrast, the reference solution spreads signal across all tokens, because an alternative derivation diverges from the solver's trace even at correct steps. Self-distillation with step-aligned critique therefore recovers the localization benefit of process supervision within a simpler training pipeline.

1. Introduction

Post-training with reinforcement learning has become the dominant recipe for improving LLM reasoning. The standard approach is reinforcement learning from verifiable

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rewards (RLVR) (Shao et al., 2024), which learns from a single scalar reward per rollout. For mathematical reasoning, however, this signal is often too coarse: the reward says whether the final answer is correct, but not where in the reasoning trace the model went wrong. *Process supervision* addresses this by assigning credit to individual steps of a reasoning trace. Process reward models (PRMs) (Lightman et al., 2024; Uesato et al., 2022) implement this idea with per-step scalar rewards and outperform outcome-only rewards for math (Cobbe et al., 2021). The cost is step-labeled training data (collected by hand (Lightman et al., 2024) or estimated via rollouts to the final answer (Wang et al., 2024)) and a separate reward model maintained alongside the policy. We ask whether natural-language step-level feedback, which is comparatively cheap to produce, can provide a similar training signal without an explicit reward model.

Self-distillation (Hübotter et al., 2026; Zhao et al., 2026; Shenfeld et al., 2026) provides a mechanism. The same model plays two roles: a *student* conditioned on the question alone, and a *self-teacher* conditioned on the question plus some additional context c (e.g., execution traces, follow-up prompts, reference solutions, feedback from another model, etc.). Training minimizes a divergence between these two distributions, distilling capabilities that emerge in-context (Brown et al., 2020) into the context-free policy. When c is feedback from a critic, the per-token advantage in this objective is the log-probability shift induced by the feedback at each position (see Section 2). This turns natural-language signal into dense, position-specific credit, without training a reward model or accessing the logits of a stronger teacher.

Prior work has used various forms of context for self-distillation: code execution traces (Hübotter et al., 2026), ground-truth solutions (Zhao et al., 2026), and feedback from other models (Song et al., 2026) or users (Wang et al., 2026; Buening et al., 2026). In all cases, the context is treated as a fixed choice. No prior work, to our knowledge, studies how the design of the context affects what the model learns. When the context is feedback from another model, the practitioner controls its structure. This raises the question: **does feedback structure matter, and if so, what structure best supports mathematical reasoning?**

We study this in a solver–critic setup on math problems (Section 3). We compare three training signals: (i) a binary reward (GRPO), (ii) the reference solution as self-distillation context (REFSOL), and (iii) a step-by-step critique aligned to the solver's reasoning trace (STEPALIGNFB). Our main findings are:

- **STEPALIGNFB outperforms GRPO and REFSOL.** Step-aligned critique outperforms both GRPO and self-distillation with the reference solution on all aggregation-style accuracy metrics in our evaluation (see Section 4).

- **STEPALIGNFB provides implicit process supervision.** Per-token advantage analysis shows that step-aligned feedback concentrates distributional shifts at error-adjacent tokens, while solution-level feedback produces a more diffuse signal. The localization mirrors what a PRM provides (Lightman et al., 2024; Uesato et al., 2022), but is obtained without training a reward model or collecting per-step scalar labels.

- **Feedback alignment matters as much as feedback quality.** A complete, correct reference derivation is a strong signal, but in self-distillation it diffuses across the solver's rollout because the derivation diverges from the solver's trace in surface form even at correct steps. Step-aligned critique, by referring to the solver's actual trace, concentrates the signal at the tokens where reasoning goes wrong.

2. Background

Process vs. outcome supervision in math. Process supervision assigns credit to individual steps of a reasoning trace; outcome supervision only scores the final answer. For mathematical reasoning, per-step scalar rewards from a process reward model (PRM) have been shown to outperform outcome-only rewards (Lightman et al., 2024; Uesato et al., 2022; Cobbe et al., 2021). PRMs offer two advantages: they localize errors to the exact step where reasoning breaks down, and they discourage models from reaching correct answers via flawed intermediate steps. However, they require step-labeled training data and a separately trained reward model, which is costly.

Distillation. Knowledge distillation (Hinton et al., 2015) trains a student model π_θ to match a stronger teacher π_T by minimizing the per-token forward KL divergence:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{KD}} = \mathbb{E}_{y \sim \pi_T(\cdot|x)} \left[\text{KL}\big(\pi_T(y \mid x) \,\big\|\, \pi_\theta(y \mid x)\big) \right]. \quad (1)$$

This provides dense, token-level supervision but requires access to the logits of a strong teacher model (which is often not available). Standard distillation is also off-policy: the student trains on the teacher's rollouts[1], not its own. Thus,

errors compound as the student's distribution drifts from the teacher's at inference time (Ross et al., 2011). On-policy distillation (Agarwal et al., 2024; Lu & Thinking Machines, 2025) addresses this by having the student generate its own rollouts and optimizing a reverse-KL-style distillation objective using token-level supervision from the teacher, but it *still requires access to the logits of a stronger teacher*.

RLVR. Reinforcement learning with verifiable rewards removes the need for a teacher. Given a question x, the model samples G rollouts $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^G \sim \pi_\theta(\cdot \mid x)$, each scored by a binary reward $r_i \in \{0, 1\}$. GRPO (Shao et al., 2024) estimates per-rollout advantages via group normalization: $A_i^{\text{GRPO}} = (r_i - \bar{r})/\sigma(r)$ where $\bar{r}$ and $\sigma(r)$ are the mean and standard deviation of the rewards within the group. The policy is updated by maximizing[2]:

$$\mathcal{J}_{\text{GRPO}}(\theta)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{\{y_i\}_{i=1}^G \sim \pi_\theta(\cdot|x)} \left[\sum_{i=1}^G \frac{1}{|y_i|} \sum_{t=1}^{|y_i|} \log \pi_\theta(y_{i,t} \mid x, y_{i,<t}) A_{i,t} \right]$$

where $A_{i,t} = A_i^{\text{GRPO}}$ is constant across all tokens within a rollout.

Self-distillation. Self-distillation (Hübotter et al., 2026; Zhao et al., 2026; Shenfeld et al., 2026) unifies the dense supervision of distillation with the teacher-free and on-policy properties of RL. The same model serves as both student and teacher under different prompting contexts. The *student* is conditioned on the question alone, $\pi_\theta(\cdot \mid x, y_{<t})$, whereas the *self-teacher* is conditioned on the question augmented with additional context c, giving $\pi_\theta(\cdot \mid x, c, y_{<t})$.

Training minimizes a per-token divergence (forward KL, reverse KL, or Janson-Shannon divergence) between these two distributions, yielding the loss function:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{SD}} = \mathbb{E}_{y \sim \pi_\theta(\cdot|x)} \left[\text{KL}\big(\pi_\theta(y \mid x) \,\big\|\, \text{sg}\left[\pi_\theta(y \mid x, c)\right]\big) \right],$$
$$(2)$$

where D is a divergence and $\text{sg}[\cdot]$ denotes stop-gradient. Hübotter et al. (2026) show that, when D is the KL divergence, the gradient of $\mathcal{L}_{\text{SD}}$ has the same form as the gradient of $-\mathcal{J}_{\text{GRPO}}$, but with per-token advantages given by

$$A_t^{\text{SD}}(\hat{y}_t) = \log \pi_\theta(\hat{y}_t \mid x, c, y_{<t}) - \log \pi_\theta(\hat{y}_t \mid x, y_{<t}). \quad (3)$$

A_t^{SD} quantifies how much the context shifts the model's next-token prediction. Unlike the GRPO advantage, the self-distillation advantage varies at every token position, providing dense credit assignment automatically.

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[1] In next-token prediction, a rollout is the model's complete response to the question.

[2] We present the simplified, on-policy expression (without clipping) and remove the KL penalty. We refer to (Shao et al., 2024) for details.

3. Solver minimizes $\mathcal{L}_{\text{SD}}$
with $(f_i)_{i=1}^G$ as context.

1. Solver produces G
answers to question x.

$(y_i)_{i=1}^G \sim \pi_\theta(\cdot \mid x)$

Solver π_θ

Critic π_{critic}

2. Critic provides
feedback f_i for each y_i.

$(f_i)_{i=1}^G \sim \pi_{\text{critic}}(\cdot \mid x, y_i)$

Figure 1. Solver–critic training loop. The critic produces feedback to each response y_i. Only the solver is updated.

Self-distillation uses the *same* model π_θ in both roles, distinguished only by the context c. The quality of the resulting advantage (Eq. 3) therefore depends heavily on c. When c is feedback from another model, the practitioner has control over its structure.

3. Methodology

3.1. Setup

Solver–critic setup. To isolate the effect of feedback structure on what the self-distilled model learns, we set up a solver–critic configuration (Figure 1) in which the feedback f is the only variable across experimental conditions. The solver, loss function, divergence, and all hyperparameters remain fixed. The three conditions we compare span a spectrum of feedback structure: scalar outcome supervision (GRPO), dense but non-aligned supervision (REFSOL), and dense step-aligned supervision (STEPALIGNFB).

For each math question x, a trainable *solver* π_θ generates step-tagged reasoning traces

$$y = \langle \text{step}_1 \rangle \ldots \langle \text{step}_N \rangle \langle \text{answer} \rangle.$$

A frozen *critic* π_{critic} produces feedback f on the solver's response. The solver is then trained with self-distillation (Eq. 2) using f as the context c.

The only variable across our experimental conditions is f. The solver, loss function, divergence, and all hyperparameters remain fixed, isolating feedback structure as the independent variable. We investigate what kind of feedback makes self-distillation act more like process supervision, and compare the training efficacy of this signal against scalar outcome supervision (GRPO) and dense but non-aligned supervision (REFSOL).

A more detailed description of the context/feedback that we compare are:

- **GRPO (no feedback.)** Standard RLVR baseline. The solver generates G rollouts per question, each scored

with a binary reward. Advantages are group-normalized rewards. No critic, no self-distillation.

- **REFSOL (reference solution).** A chain-of-thought reference solution produced by a stronger model, either generated on-the-fly by the critic, or precomputed during dataset construction as in (Li et al., 2024; Moshkov et al., 2025). REFSOL mirrors the setup of Zhao et al. (2026).

- **STEPALIGNFB (step-aligned critique).** The critic receives both the solver's step-tagged response and the dataset's reference solution, then produces per-step feedback. We prompt it to copy correct steps verbatim and fix incorrect or incomplete steps while staying as close to the solver's reasoning trace as possible. We observed that copying correct steps verbatim activates the model's in-context copying behavior (Olsson et al., 2022), which sharpens advantage estimates, especially for correct steps. We give more details in Section 4.2.

3.2. Training Details

Our training recipe follows Zhao et al. (2026) with three modifications: no per-token KL clipping, increased student token generation limit, and a critic-conditioned teacher in the STEPALIGNFB experiments.

Self-distillation recipe. We use Qwen3-1.7B (Yang et al., 2025) as the solver. All rollouts are sampled on-policy, at temperature $T{=}1.1$ with a maximum token cap of 2048. We use a group size of $G = 1$ for self-distillation experiments, and set $G = 8$ for GRPO. Divergence measure is forward KL. We use the Thinking-Mode-Off student / Thinking-Mode-On teacher pairing identified as optimal by Zhao et al.. The teacher is held fixed at the initial (LoRA-free) base policy by disabling adapters at the teacher forward; no separate teacher checkpoint is loaded. LoRA (Hu et al., 2021) adapters are trained on all attention and MLP projections ($r{=}64$, $\alpha{=}128$) with AdamW (Loshchilov & Hutter, 2019), learning rate $5{\times}10^{-6}$, effective batch size 32, bf16 precision, gradient checkpointing, and Flash Attention 2 (Dao et al., 2022). Distributed training uses DeepSpeed ZeRO-2 with CPU optimizer offload (Rasley et al., 2020) across 4 H100 GPUs; on-policy generation is served in-process by vLLM (Kwon et al., 2023) in colocate mode. Details of the training configuration are in Appendix A.2.

Step-aligned feedback variant. In the STEPALIGNFB variant, the teacher conditions on the critique f instead of the raw reference solution (for a group size of 1, we denote $f := f_1$). The critique is produced once per rollout by a frozen reasoning model (Qwen/QwQ-32B; greedy decoding, $T{=}0$, Thinking-Mode-On) served via vLLM. We send a single user-message prompt that contains schema-driven grading instructions, the problem, the reference solution, and the student rollout; we strip the reasoning trace

(<think>...</think>) from the returned content and splice only the structured grader output into the teacher context. The detailed critic prompt template is in Appendix A.1. The critic prompt is long, by design, to keep its feedback actionable and aligned step-by-step with the solution. Nonetheless, vLLM's automatic prefix caching substantially mitigates the resulting overhead.

Dataset. We train on a difficulty and formatting-filtered subset of OpenMathReasoning (Moshkov et al., 2025). Prior work suggest that self-distillation's advantage over RLVR is most pronounced on harder problems. Since our focus is on how the *form* of feedback affects self-distillation, we deliberately target this harder-question regime, where self-distillation is the more relevant choice over RLVR. We additionally require that the problems be tractable for the trained Qwen3-1.7B, so that the model receives *actionable feedback* rather than failing outright and being handed a full reference-like solution by the critic (which would have collapsed REFSOL and STEPALIGNFB into the same setup). We also require that the critic itself can solve the problem, ensuring that its feedback is coherent and high quality. Concretely, we start from the subset of OpenMathReasoning with pass_rate_72b_tir > 0.85 (pass_rate_72b_tir is provided within the dataset), then compute Avg@16 and average formatting accuracy over 16 attempts from the 1.7B model, keeping only problems where Avg@16 $< 5/16$ and the formatting accuracy is greater than 0.9. This yields 312 samples, of which we reserve 30 for evaluation and use the remaining 282 for training. We train for 7 epochs, saving checkpoints every 10 optimizer steps.

4. Results

4.1. Accuracy Results

We evaluate the three feedback variants on a held-out 30-sample test split from OpenMathReasoning. We report aggregation-style accuracy metrics over $n = 12$ samples per problem, averaged across the test set: Avg@12 (mean fraction of correct samples), Majority-Vote@12 (correctness of the majority answer), and Pass@12 (fraction of problems with at least one correct sample), alongside mean answer length.

We compare GRPO against the self-distillation variants (REFSOL and STEPALIGNFB) at matched generation compute. GRPO requires $G{=}8$ rollouts per prompt for its group-relative advantage estimate, while self-distillation uses a single rollout ($G{=}1$); at equal compute, GRPO thus consumes $8\times$ fewer prompts per step. Nonetheless, each method trains for 7 epochs, ruling out the reduced dataset exposure as a confound.

Figure 2 plots each metric as a function of optimization step, showing how the three methods evolve through training. Table 1 summarizes the *per-metric best value attained by each method across checkpoints* (steps 10–70), with the step at which the maximum (or minimum, for answer length) occurred annotated as *s*. Because the methods reaches peak evaluation performance at different steps, we select the best checkpoint independently for each metric rather than reporting end-of-run values or fixing a single checkpoint per method.

Observations. We see that feeding step-aligned feedback as additional context outperforms feeding the reference solution. Despite never seeing the ground-truth derivation, STEPALIGNFB outperforms REFSOL on the Avg@12 metric at the per-metric best values: +2.33 Pass@12, +13.33 Maj@12, and +5.27 Avg@12 (Table 1). The large Majority-Vote gain in particular suggests STEPALIGNFB's policy concentrates probability on correct answers more sharply, rather than merely covering them, which is the regime that benefits most from test-time aggregation.

As with other post-training methods (Stollenwerk, 2022), self-distillation benefits from early stopping (also reported by Zhao et al. (2026)). We trained for 7 epochs but found that 5–6 sufficed to reach peak performance across all metrics. This is promising for compute efficiency, however carries a methodological caveat: a fixed end-of-run evaluation can systematically understate STEPALIGNFB's ceiling, so per-checkpoint selection on a held-out validation set is necessary to fairly compare methods with different convergence dynamics.

Finally, both distillation methods dominate GRPO throughout training at all fronts except answer length. While GRPO maintains token efficiency, both REFSOL and STEPALIGNFB stay above GRPO in terms of accuracy throughout training, with a final Avg@12 gap on the order of 8 points.

4.2. Token-Level Credit Assignment

In this section, we identify the mechanism by which STEPALIGNFB outperforms REFSOL. The self-distillation advantages (Eq. 3) tell a clear story: step-aligned feedback causes the self-distillation signal to behave like a process reward model, reinforcing correct steps in the solver's trace while suppressing erroneous ones. Feeding the reference solution as feedback, by contrast, suppresses even fully correct solver trajectories, preventing self-distillation from fully realizing its on-policy benefits. We present sample problems, student and reference solutions, critiques, and the resulting per-token advantage plots in Appendix B.

STEPALIGNFB concentrates signal at errors and reinforces correct steps. When the critic identifies an incorrect

Figure 2. STEPALIGNFB matches or exceeds GRPO and REFSOL on OpenMathReasoning. REFSOL conditions the teacher on the reference solution provided in the OpenMathReasoning dataset; STEPALIGNFB substitutes step-level feedback; GRPO is the reward-only baseline.

step, the self-teacher's distribution diverges sharply from the student's at the tokens in that step, producing large negative advantages (Figure 4). At correct steps, including those preceding the erroneous one, the critic faithfully preserves the solver's reasoning path. The result is a targeted learning signal that penalizes errors while reinforces the valid trace that surrounds them. This is analogous to a process reward model, but derived entirely from natural-language feedback, with no reward model training required.

Solution-level feedback produces diffuse signal. Under REFSOL, the self-teacher sees a complete alternative derivation: one that reaches the right answer but follows a different reasoning path, uses different notation, and phrases steps differently from the solver's trace. Even at steps where the solver was correct, the alternative solution diverges in surface form, creating diffuse negative advantages at almost all tokens (see Figures 3 and 4). The self-teacher thus mixes genuine error correction with stylistic disagreement. The gradient must average over both, diluting the learning signal.

Connection to PRMs. Process reward models for math (Lightman et al., 2024; Uesato et al., 2022) provide per-step scalar rewards by training a separate verifier on step-labeled data. Step-aligned critique recovers the same

step-level localization, but differs in two ways: (i) the supervision signal is natural-language text rather than a scalar, so it can describe *what* went wrong at a step rather than only *whether* the step was wrong; and (ii) the conversion into per-token credit happens through the self-distillation advantage (Eq. 3) directly, with no reward model trained and no per-step scalar labels collected. In effect, step-aligned critique acts as a process reward signal without requiring a process reward model.

4.3. Verbatim Repetition and the Role of Induction-Head Copying

Our per-token advantage analysis shows that PRM-like credit assignment requires careful design of what the critic includes in its feedback. Specifically, how much of the solver's output the critic repeats verbatim determines the quality of the advantage signal. We identify three regimes in the advantage plots. These led us to the "faithful-scribe convention": the critic repeats correct steps almost verbatim and rewrites only the incorrect ones (see Hard Rules 3 and 4 in Appendix A.1).

Table 1. **Per-metric best evaluation results on OpenMathReasoning.** For each (method, metric) pair we report the best value across all training checkpoints and annotate the step (s) at which the maximum (or minimum, for answer length) was attained. Bold marks the per-column winner.

	Pass@12	Maj@12	Avg@12	Mean Answer Length
GRPO	76.67 (s=40)	26.67 (s=50)	19.72 (s=30)	**1681.49 (s=50)**
REFSOL	86.67 (s=60)	43.33 (s=60)	30.56 (s=40)	1935.83 (s=10)
STEPALIGNFB	**90.00 (s=60)**	**56.67 (s=50)**	**35.83 (s=50)**	1996.07 (s=10)

Figure 3. **Fully-correct rollout.** Per-token advantage $A_t^{\text{SD}}(\hat{y}_t)$ (see Eq. 3) along a single student trajectory that reaches the correct boxed answer. STEPALIGNFB (top) produces positive advantages throughout the trace, reinforcing the student's correct reasoning trace. REFSOL (bottom) produces diffuse negative advantages across the entire rollout: the teacher prefers the alternative derivation's surface form even though the student's answer is correct, mixing stylistic disagreement into the gradient.

Full verbatim repetition overrides the corrective signal. A natural first design is to expose the error to the teacher by quoting it directly: *"Here is your previous attempt:* `<previous_attempt>`*. Step N is incorrect; the correct step should be* `<corrected_step>`*."* We found this consistently fails. The verbatim quote, placed earlier in the teacher context, anchors the model at the erroneous step: the teacher reproduces tokens from the original (incorrect) attempt, and the per-token advantages are diffusely positive (Figure 6). The corrective text appended after the quote does not override the in-context copy, and the gradient does not see the error.

Omitting the solution suppresses correct reasoning. The dual failure mode arises when we don't provide the solution verbatim for the correct steps. The natural shorthand is to acknowledge correctness without reproducing the trace, e.g. *'This step is correct."* However, without the student's tokens in the teacher context, the teacher's distribution can drift away from the student's at the positions the student got right. The per-token advantages on the correct trace come out diffusely negative (Figure 7), echoing the diffuse-suppression pattern REFSOL produces in Figure 3 despite the feedback endorsing the student.

Partial verbatim repetition up to the first error preserves both properties. The configuration that works is to repeat the student's solution verbatim only up to (but not includ-

ing) the erroneous step, replace that step with the correct claim, and continue from there. The teacher's distribution then aligns with the student's tokens on the correct prefix (producing positive advantages), while the absence of an in-context anchor at the erroneous position lets the corrected continuation govern the teacher's predictions there (producing the sharp negative cluster). This is the pattern shown in Figure 4, and it is precisely the behavior our critic prompt is engineered to elicit.

A mechanistic hypothesis: induction-head copying. These three regimes mirror the prefix-matching-and-copying behavior of induction heads characterized by Olsson et al. (2022). An induction head implements the pattern $[A][B]\ldots[A] \to [B]$: when a token sequence appears earlier in the context, attending back to it increases the logit of the token that followed it, *biasing the model toward repeating the in-context continuation.* Under this account, a full verbatim quote of the student's incorrect step installs the erroneous continuation as the in-context $[B]$; subsequent corrective text arrives too late and too disconnected from the matching prefix to override the copy. Omitting the student's solution removes the anchor entirely, so the teacher's distribution drifts even at correct tokens.

Partial repetition is the only configuration that uses copying *selectively*: the correct prefix is anchored, so induction-head copying reinforces it; the erroneous step is left un-anchored, so the corrected continuation freshly written by the critic

Figure 4. **Incorrect step.** Per-token advantages for a rollout containing an arithmetic/reasoning error at the step marked by the dashed line. STEPALIGNFB (top) produces a sharp negative cluster concentrated at the tokens of the erroneous step. In addition, STEPALIGNFB reinforces the correct reasoning traces prior to the erroneous step. REFSOL (bottom) produces broadly negative advantages across the entire trace, conflating the error with everywhere the student's path diverges from the canonical solution.

Figure 5. **Incomplete solution.** Per-token advantages for a rollout that exhausted the token budget without producing a final answer. The student's reasoning trace quickly devolves into guessing values for the variable before running out of budget. The critic responds by producing a complete alternative solution, yielding update signals similar to those of the reference solution itself.

governs the teacher's predictions there. In effect, the faithful-scribe convention recruits induction-head copying as a tool for credit assignment rather than a source of error reinforcement.

Hübotter et al. (2026) report a closely related effect in a different setting. Ablating whether the student's original attempt y is included in the teacher template, they find that "including it biases the teacher towards the student's attempt ... thereby reducing exploration" (their Table 6), and that "naively including only solutions or initial attempts y significantly reduces diversity in the teacher and student." Our findings are consistent with this result and we supply a mechanism: in-context copying via induction heads is what makes verbatim repetition act as a positive bias on the student's tokens. The practical implication, however, is sharper than "do not repeat the attempt." Repetition is not uniformly harmful; it can be harmful only where the student's tokens are wrong. Repeating the *correct prefix* while withholding the erroneous step converts the copying bias from a liability into the mechanism that concentrates the self-distillation signal at errors. This recovers, by prompt design alone, the localization property that PRMs obtain

through step-labeled training.

5. Related Work

Self-distillation for LLMs. Main references for self-distillation are Hübotter et al. (2026); Shenfeld et al. (2026); Song et al. (2026); Zhao et al. (2026). Hübotter et al. (2026) introduced SDPO and used code execution trace, reference solutions from datasets, and stronger models' solutions as feedback. OPSD Zhao et al. (2026) used ground-truth solutions as teacher context. RLTF (Song et al., 2026) formalized learning from text feedback using both self-distillation and feedback-modeling objectives, though they re-sample in-context rollouts from the solver. SDFT (Shenfeld et al., 2026) applied self-distillation to continual learning from demonstrations.

Process reward models for math. We discuss PRMs and their advantages over outcome supervision in Section 2. Beyond manual step annotation (Lightman et al., 2024) and Monte-Carlo-based automation (Wang et al., 2024), PRMs are widely used both as verifiers for best-of-N selection and as dense reward signals for RL. Our step-aligned critique

Figure 6. **Full verbatim repetition with appended correction.** The critic includes the student's incorrect step verbatim and follows it with a textual correction. Induction-head copying of the original (incorrect) tokens dominates the teacher's distribution; per-token advantages are overwhelmingly positive.

Figure 7. **Solution omitted from the teacher context.** For a fully correct student solution, the critic acknowledges correctness without reproducing the trace. With no in-context anchor on the student's tokens, the teacher's distribution drifts toward alternative surface forms, producing negative advantages across the correct trajectory.

recovers the localization benefit of PRMs without training a separate reward model.

Multi-agent debate and LLM-as-judge. Multi-agent debate (Du et al., 2024) and LLM-as-judge (Zheng et al., 2023) introduced inter-model interaction for improving reasoning at inference time. Since then, LLM-generated judgments have been widely adopted as training signals (Yuan et al., 2024; Chan et al., 2023; Zhao et al., 2025). Our solver–critic setup follows this paradigm.

Structured reasoning. Chain-of-thought prompting Wei et al. (2022), along with the closely related scratchpad approach (Nye et al., 2021), established that exposing intermediate computations dramatically improves reasoning, and that prompting alone is often enough to elicit it (Kojima et al., 2022). STaR (Zelikman et al., 2022) extends this by turning CoT from a prompting trick into a training signal: it samples rationales from the model, keeps those that yield the correct answer, and fine-tunes on them, iterating to bootstrap stronger reasoning from the model's own outputs.

6. Conclusion

As demonstrated with experimental results, the structure of feedback is a central determinant of self-distillation effectiveness. Among the three training signals we study, step-aligned feedback (STEPALIGNFB) performs best on all accuracy metrics, outperforming both the sparse binary reward (used in GRPO) and self-distillation with reference solution (REFSOL). This comparison highlights a clear trade-off. Firstly, as observed by prior work as well Hübotter et al. (2026); Zhao et al. (2026); Song et al. (2026), GRPO is simple and inexpensive, but its scalar reward provides only weak credit assignment over long reasoning traces.

Secondly, REFSOL offers richer supervision than GRPO, yet because it is not explicitly aligned to the solver's intermediate steps, its learning signal remains diffuse. By contrast, STEPALIGNFB preserves the token-level benefits of self-distillation while adding structural alignment to the solver's reasoning process, yielding an implicit form of process supervision that concentrates updates around error-prone parts of the trace. At the same time, this stronger signal comes with an important practical drawback: producing high-quality step-aligned critiques requires a capable critique model, which can substantially increase training cost and system complexity relative to the other methods. Reference solutions with chain-of-thought are also commonly sampled from strong models. Nonetheless, unlike solution-specific feedback, they are not tailored to an individual rollout and can be reused across many training runs.

These findings suggest that effective process supervision for math does not require training a process reward model: structurally-aligned natural-language critique, routed through self-distillation, produces step-localized credit assignment at the cost of one critic forward pass per rollout. The bottleneck shifts from collecting step-labeled data and training a PRM to producing high-quality critique. Our study, however, is limited in scope: all experiments are conducted on a filtered subset of OpenMathReasoning, so it remains unclear how well these conclusions transfer to other mathematical benchmarks (e.g., MATH, AIME), broader reasoning domains, or different solver–critic configurations. Future work should test whether the benefits of step-aligned critique persist across datasets, model sizes, and tasks, and whether cheaper critique-generation strategies can narrow the cost gap that currently limits the practicality of STEPALIGNFB.

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A. Experiment details

A.1. Prompt templates

Solver Prompt

```
Problem:
{problem}
Solve the problem step by step. Format each step as:
### Step N: <topic>
<reasoning for step N>
Please reason step by step, and put your final answer within \boxed{}.
```

Figure 8. **Solver prompt.** The solver sees only the problem statement, with the same step-formatted instruction used in evaluation.

Teacher Prompt — REFSOL (reference-solution conditioning)

```
Question: {problem}
A reference solution is given below. Use it only to ensure correctness.
Reference solution:
{reference_solution}
Instructions:
- Produce a fresh, self-contained solution to the original problem.
- Use the reference solution only to ensure correctness; do not mention or refer to it.
Let's think step by step and produce a final answer in the format \boxed{}.
```

Figure 9. **Teacher prompt for REFSOL.** The reference solution provided in the dataset is the privileged context.

Teacher Prompt — STEPALIGNFB (step-aligned feedback conditioning)

```
Question: {problem}
Expert feedback on a prior attempt at this problem is given below. The feedback
    diagnoses where the attempt went wrong (by step number) and carries the corrected
    continuation.
Expert feedback:
{expert_critique}
Instructions:
- Produce a fresh, self-contained solution to the original problem.
- Use the feedback only to ensure correctness; do not mention or refer to it.
Let's think step by step and produce a final answer in the format \boxed{}.
```

Figure 10. **Teacher prompt for STEPALIGNFB.** The expert_critique is produced by Qwen/QwQ-32B (prompted as in Figure 11).

Critic Prompt (Qwen/QwQ-32B)

```
You are a math grader producing feedback to a student's solution.
    Your default behavior is faithful scribe: when the student's work is correct up to
    some point, reproduce that portion. The exceptions:
    - In Case D, at the erroneous step only, replace the student's claim with the
    correct one.
    - In Case C, you may compress the student's correct steps because the student ran
    out of room -- this exception applies ONLY to Case C and nowhere else.

    # Decision procedure

    **Step 1: Classify into ONE case.** Check in order, stop at first match:
    - No final answer (no \\boxed{{}}, trails off, stops mid-derivation) -> Case C
    - Boxed answer doesn't match reference (allow equivalent forms: 1/2 == 0.5) -> Case
     D
    - Boxed answer matches but a non-routine (non-routine = named theorem, substitution,
     key equation, or non-algebraic claim) step is unjustified or invalid -> Case B
    - Else -> Case A

    **Step 2: Identify the pivotal step N.**
    - B: step with the unjustified claim.
    - C: last step before stopping.
    - D: earliest erroneous step (not inherited errors).

    **Step 3: Output the matching schema below. No preamble, no postamble, no
    commentary outside the schema.**

    # Schemas

    Every schema begins with a `### Summary` block giving a one-line verdict per
    student step. The body that follows uses headers and `---` delimiters to make the
    structure of the feedback explicit.

    ## Case A

    ### Summary
    Step 1: Correct.
    Step 2: Correct.
    ...
    Step <final>: Correct.

    # Your solution is fully correct.
    ---
    <Reproduce the student's solution, including the \\boxed{{}} answer.>
    ---

    ## Case B

    ### Summary
    Step 1: Correct.
    Step 2: Correct.
    ...
    Step <N>: Correct, but missing justification -- <one phrase naming what's missing>.
    Step <N+1>: Correct.
    ...
    Step <final>: Correct.

    # Your solution reaches the correct answer, but Step <N> is missing justification.
    # This is the part of your solution before the gap:
    ---
    <Student's steps 1 through N-1, reproduced.>
    ---
```

```
# Step <N> needs the following justification added:
---
<Student's step N copied, with the missing justification -- named theorem, formula,
 or equation -- appended.>
---
# The remainder of your solution is correct:
---
<Student's steps N+1 through final, reproduced, including the \\boxed{{}} answer.>
---

## Case C

### Summary
Step 1: Correct.
Step 2: Correct.
...
Step <N>: Correct, but stopped here without producing a final answer.

# Your solution was correct up to Step <N> but ran out of room before finishing.
Below is a condensed version of your work followed by the completion.
# This is the correct part of your solution, condensed:
---
<Student's steps 1 through N, condensed.>
---
# Here is the rest of the solution:
---
<Continue the derivation in the student's notation, concisely. One operation per
step.>
---
# Final answer
\\boxed{{<answer>}}

## Case D

### Summary
Step 1: Correct.
Step 2: Correct.
...
Step <N>: Incorrect -- <one phrase naming the error>.
Step <N+1>: <verdict>.
...
Step <final>: <verdict>.

# Your solution has an error at Step <N>. Below is your correct work, the corrected
 step, and the remainder of the solution.
# This is the correct part of your solution:
---
<Student's steps 1 through N-1, reproduced.>
---
# You made an error at Step <N>. Here is the corrected step:
---
Step <N>: <Write the correct claim in the student's style -- same notation, same
step granularity, same level of detail as the surrounding correct steps. Do NOT
reproduce the student's incorrect step.>
---
# Continuing the solution from the corrected step:
---
<Continue the derivation correctly from the corrected step N, in the student's
notation and style. Include the final \\boxed{{}} answer.>
---

# Hard rules
```

```
    1. Output ONE schema only. Every schema starts with `### Summary`. No preamble
    before `### Summary`, no postamble after the final delimiter.
    2. The `### Summary` block contains one line per student step in the format `Step <
    i>: <verdict>` where verdict is "Correct" or "Incorrect -- <one phrase>" or a
    similar terse marker.
    3. In Cases A, B, and D, your reproduction of the student's correct steps should
    follow same or similar equation, notations, wording. If the student's reasoning
    trace correct, do not deviate from the student's solution.
    4. In Case D, at step N only, replace the student's incorrect claim with the
    correct claim in the student's style. Correct steps before and after are copied
    exactly per rule 3.
    5. Every hypothesis in the problem must appear in the steps at a named step.
    6. No advisory phrases ("be more rigorous", "needs justification") unless
    immediately followed by the specific content.
    7. Equivalent approaches reaching the same answer are CORRECT. The reference is an
    answer key, not a required path.
    8. In Case D, continuations after step N match the student's style: same notation,
    same step granularity, same level of formality. In Case C, continuations are
    written concisely -- one operation per step, no exploration.
    9. Don't invent formulas absent from the reference or not derivable from the
    problem.

    Problem:
    {problem}

    Reference answer:
    {reference_solution}

    Student's solution:
    {student_sol}
```

Figure 11. **Critic prompt.** A single user-turn message sent to a frozen Qwen/QwQ-32B. The grader is instructed to classify the student rollout into one of four cases (A: fully correct; B: correct answer with an unjustified non-routine step; C: ran out of tokens; D: incorrect answer) and emit feedback in a schema specific to that case. The returned reasoning trace (`<think>...</think>`) is stripped before the structured grader output is spliced into the final feedback f for the STEPALIGNFB teacher prompt (Figure 10). Unicode characters in the deployed prompt have been transliterated here for printability.

A.2. Training configuration (full)

This appendix lists complete hyperparameters for the self-distillation (with reference solution and) and GRPO runs reported in the main paper. See Tables 2, 3, 4, and 5 for the values.

B. Sample solution, critique, and self-distillation advantage plots

B.1. Example correct student solution

> **Problem**
> ```
> Let $\mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ be the set of positive integers. Find all functions $f :
>     \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ such that
> $$f(2m+2n)=f(m)^{2021}f(n)^{2021}$$
> for all $m,n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$.
> ```

> **Reference Solution**
> ```
> To solve the functional equation \( f(2m + 2n) = f(m)^{2021} f(n)^{2021} \) for all
>     positive integers \( m \) and \( n \), we proceed as follows:
>
> 1. **Initial Substitution and Simplification:**
>    - Set \( m = n \). Then the equation becomes:
> ```

```
        \[
        f(4m) = f(m)^{4042}
        \]
      - This indicates that \( f \) at even arguments can be expressed in terms of \( f
        \) at smaller arguments.

2. **General Form Analysis:**
      - For any positive integers \( m \) and \( n \), the argument \( 2m + 2n = 2(m +
        n) \). Thus, \( f(2(m + n)) = f(m)^{2021} f(n)^{2021} \).
      - Consider \( m = 1 \) and vary \( n \):
        - For \( n = 1 \):
          \[
          f(4) = f(1)^{4042}
          \]
        - For \( n = 2 \):
          \[
          f(6) = f(1)^{2021} f(2)^{2021}
          \]

3. **Constant Function Hypothesis:**
      - Suppose \( f(k) = c \) for all \( k \). Substitute into the original equation:
        \[
        c = c^{4042}
        \]
      - The only positive integer solution to this equation is \( c = 1 \).

4. **Verification:**
      - Verify that \( f(k) = 1 \) satisfies the original equation:
        \[
        f(2m + 2n) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad f(m)^{2021} f(n)^{2021} = 1^{2021} \cdot
        1^{2021} = 1
        \]
      - Both sides are equal, confirming that \( f(k) = 1 \) is a solution.

5. **Uniqueness:**
      - To show that \( f(k) = 1 \) is the only solution, consider the necessity for \(
        f(m) f(n) \) to be constant for each \( t \geq 2 \) where \( m + n = t \). This
        implies \( f \) must be constant.
      - If \( f \) were not constant, the recursive relationships derived would lead to
        inconsistencies, as shown by the recursive nature of the equation.

Thus, the only function that satisfies the given equation is:

\[
\boxed{1}
\]
```

Student Solution

```
We are given the functional equation:

$$
f(2m + 2n) = f(m)^{2021} f(n)^{2021}
$$

for all $ m, n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0} $, and we are to find all functions $ f :
    \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \to \mathbb{Z}_{>0} $ satisfying this.

---

### Step 1: Try simple functions
```

```
Let's try simple functions like constant functions, linear functions, or exponential
    functions.

#### Try: $ f(n) = c $, a constant.

If $ f(n) = c $, then:

$$
f(2m + 2n) = c = c^{2021} \cdot c^{2021} = c^{4042}
$$

This implies $ c = c^{4042} $, which is only true if $ c = 1 $, since $ c \in
    \mathbb{Z}_{>0} $.

So $ f(n) = 1 $ is a possible solution.

Check:

$$
f(2m + 2n) = 1, \quad f(m)^{2021} f(n)^{2021} = 1^{2021} \cdot 1^{2021} = 1
$$

So this satisfies the equation.

#### Try: $ f(n) = n^k $ for some exponent $ k \in \mathbb{Z} $.

Then:

$$
f(2m + 2n) = (2m + 2n)^k = (2(m + n))^k = 2^k (m + n)^k
$$

On the other hand:

$$
f(m)^{2021} f(n)^{2021} = (m^k)^{2021} (n^k)^{2021} = (mn)^{2021k}
$$

So the equation becomes:

$$
2^k (m + n)^k = (mn)^{2021k}
$$

This is not generally true for all $ m, n $. So $ f(n) = n^k $ is not a solution
    unless $ k = 0 $, which gives $ f(n) = 1 $.

---

### Step 2: Consider functional equations with exponents

We notice that the equation has a multiplicative structure. Let's try to analyze the
    form of $ f $.

Define:

$$
f(n) = g(n)^{2021}
$$

Then:

$$
```

```
f(2m + 2n) = g(2m + 2n)^{2021}
$$
```

On the other hand:

```
$$
f(m)^{2021} f(n)^{2021} = [g(m)^{2021}]^{2021} [g(n)^{2021}]^{2021} = g(m)^{2021^2}
    g(n)^{2021^2}
$$
```

So the equation becomes:

```
$$
g(2m + 2n)^{2021} = g(m)^{2021^2} g(n)^{2021^2}
$$
```

This is a functional equation for $ g $. It's similar in form to the original one,
    but with the exponent $ 2021^2 $ instead of $ 2021 $. So the structure is
    consistent.

We can iterate this and try to find a function $ g $ such that this holds.

Step 3: Try $ g(n) = 1 $ for all $ n $

Then:

```
$$
g(2m + 2n) = 1, \quad g(m)^{2021^2} g(n)^{2021^2} = 1^{2021^2} \cdot 1^{2021^2} = 1
$$
```

So this works. Then:

```
$$
f(n) = g(n)^{2021} = 1^{2021} = 1
$$
```

Thus, $ f(n) = 1 $ is a solution.

Step 4: Uniqueness

Suppose there is another function $ f $ satisfying the condition.

Suppose $ f(n) \neq 1 $ for some $ n $.

Let's try $ f(1) \neq 1 $. Then we can define $ f(2m + 2n) = f(m)^{2021} f(n)^{2021}
    $, which is a multiplicative function in $ m, n $, but not necessarily additive.

If we consider the form of the function, we can try to look for functions that are
    multiplicative or power functions.

Suppose $ f(n) = c^{\alpha(n)} $, with some function $ \alpha(n) $.

Then the equation becomes:

```
$$
f(2m + 2n) = c^{\alpha(2m + 2n)} = f(m)^{2021} f(n)^{2021} = (c^{\alpha(m)})^{2021}
    (c^{\alpha(n)})^{2021} = c^{2021\alpha(m) + 2021\alpha(n)}
$$
```

```
So:

$$
\alpha(2m + 2n) = 2021(\alpha(m) + \alpha(n))
$$

This is a recursive functional equation. It implies that $ \alpha(n) $ must be linear
    in the binary representation of $ n $. This is possible only if $ \alpha(n) = k
    \cdot \log_2 n $, which is not in $ \mathbb{Z}_{>0} $ unless $ k = 0 $.

So the only solution is:

$$
\alpha(n) = 0 \Rightarrow f(n) = 1
$$

---

### Final Answer:

$$
\boxed{f(n) = 1}
$$<|im_end|>
```

Step-level Critique

```
### Summary
Step 1: Correct.
Step 2: Correct.
Step 3: Correct.
Step 4: Correct.
Step 5: Correct.

# Your solution is fully correct.
---
We are given the functional equation:

$$
f(2m + 2n) = f(m)^{2021} f(n)^{2021}
$$

for all $ m, n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0} $, and we are to find all functions $ f :
    \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \to \mathbb{Z}_{>0} $ satisfying this.

---

### Step 1: Try simple functions

Let's try simple functions like constant functions, linear functions, or exponential
    functions.

#### Try: $ f(n) = c $, a constant.

If $ f(n) = c $, then:

$$
f(2m + 2n) = c = c^{2021} \cdot c^{2021} = c^{4042}
$$

This implies $ c = c^{4042} $, which is only true if $ c = 1 $, since $ c \in
    \mathbb{Z}_{>0} $.

So $ f(n) = 1 $ is a possible solution.
```

```
Check:
```

$$
f(2m + 2n) = 1, \quad f(m)^{2021} f(n)^{2021} = 1^{2021} \cdot 1^{2021} = 1
$$

```
So this satisfies the equation.
```

Try: $ f(n) = n^k $ for some exponent $ k \in \mathbb{Z} $.

```
Then:
```

$$
f(2m + 2n) = (2m + 2n)^k = (2(m + n))^k = 2^k (m + n)^k
$$

```
On the other hand:
```

$$
f(m)^{2021} f(n)^{2021} = (m^k)^{2021} (n^k)^{2021} = (mn)^{2021k}
$$

```
So the equation becomes:
```

$$
2^k (m + n)^k = (mn)^{2021k}
$$

```
This is not generally true for all $ m, n $. So $ f(n) = n^k $ is not a solution
    unless $ k = 0 $, which gives $ f(n) = 1 $.
```

Step 2: Consider functional equations with exponents

```
We notice that the equation has a multiplicative structure. Let's try to analyze the
    form of $ f $.
```

```
Define:
```

$$
f(n) = g(n)^{2021}
$$

```
Then:
```

$$
f(2m + 2n) = g(2m + 2n)^{2021}
$$

```
On the other hand:
```

$$
f(m)^{2021} f(n)^{2021} = [g(m)^{2021}]^{2021} [g(n)^{2021}]^{2021} = g(m)^{2021^2} g(n)^{2021^2}
$$

```
So the equation becomes:
```

$$
g(2m + 2n)^{2021} = g(m)^{2021^2} g(n)^{2021^2}
$$

This is a functional equation for $ g $. It's similar in form to the original one, but with the exponent $ 2021^2 $ instead of $ 2021 $. So the structure is consistent.

We can iterate this and try to find a function $ g $ such that this holds.

Step 3: Try $ g(n) = 1 $ for all $ n $

Then:

$$
g(2m + 2n) = 1, \quad g(m)^{2021^2} g(n)^{2021^2} = 1^{2021^2} \cdot 1^{2021^2} = 1
$$

So this works. Then:

$$
f(n) = g(n)^{2021} = 1^{2021} = 1
$$

Thus, $ f(n) = 1 $ is a solution.

Step 4: Uniqueness

Suppose there is another function $ f $ satisfying the condition.

Suppose $ f(n) \neq 1 $ for some $ n $.

Let's try $ f(1) \neq 1 $. Then we can define $ f(2m + 2n) = f(m)^{2021} f(n)^{2021} $, which is a multiplicative function in $ m, n $, but not necessarily additive.

If we consider the form of the function, we can try to look for functions that are multiplicative or power functions.

Suppose $ f(n) = c^{\alpha(n)} $, with some function $ \alpha(n) $.

Then the equation becomes:

$$
f(2m + 2n) = c^{\alpha(2m + 2n)} = f(m)^{2021} f(n)^{2021} = (c^{\alpha(m)})^{2021} (c^{\alpha(n)})^{2021} = c^{2021\alpha(m) + 2021\alpha(n)}
$$

So:

$$
\alpha(2m + 2n) = 2021(\alpha(m) + \alpha(n))
$$

This is a recursive functional equation. It implies that $ \alpha(n) $ must be linear in the binary representation of $ n $. This is possible only if $ \alpha(n) = k \cdot \log_2 n $, which is not in $ \mathbb{Z}_{>0} $ unless $ k = 0 $.

So the only solution is:

$$
\alpha(n) = 0 \Rightarrow f(n) = 1
$$

```
---

### Final Answer:

$$
\boxed{f(n) = 1}
$$
```

Figure 12. Per-token advantage under each teacher context for correct student solution.

B.2. Example incorrect student solution

Problem

```
How many solutions are there to the equation \(2x + 3y = 763\)?
```

Reference Solution

```
To determine the number of non-negative integer solutions to the equation \(2x + 3y =
    763\), we proceed as follows:

1. **Check for the existence of solutions**: The greatest common divisor of 2 and 3
    is 1, and since 1 divides 763, there exist integer solutions to the equation.

2. **Express \(x\) in terms of \(y\)**:
    \[
    x = \frac{763 - 3y}{2}
    \]
    For \(x\) to be an integer, \(763 - 3y\) must be even. Since 763 is odd, \(3y\)
     must also be odd, implying that \(y\) must be odd. Let \(y = 2k + 1\) where \(k\)
     is a non-negative integer.

3. **Substitute \(y = 2k + 1\) into the equation**:
    \[
    x = \frac{763 - 3(2k + 1)}{2} = \frac{763 - 6k - 3}{2} = \frac{760 - 6k}{2} = 380
     - 3k
    \]
```

```
4. **Ensure \(x\) is non-negative**:
   \[
   380 - 3k \geq 0 \implies 380 \geq 3k \implies k \leq \frac{380}{3} \approx 126.67
   \]
   Since \(k\) must be an integer, \(k\) ranges from 0 to 126, inclusive.

5. **Count the number of possible values for \(k\)**:
   The number of integers from 0 to 126 is:
   \[
   126 - 0 + 1 = 127
   \]

Therefore, the number of non-negative integer solutions to the equation \(2x + 3y =
    763\) is \(\boxed{127}\).
```

Student Solution

```
We are given the equation:

$$
2x + 3y = 763
$$

We are to find the number of **integer solutions** $(x, y)$ that satisfy this
    equation.

---

### Step 1: Express $x$ in terms of $y$

We solve the equation for $x$:

$$
2x = 763 - 3y
$$

$$
x = \frac{763 - 3y}{2}
$$

For $x$ to be an integer, the expression $763 - 3y$ must be even.

---

### Step 2: Determine conditions on $y$

We require:

$$
763 - 3y \text{ is even}
$$

Let's consider the parity (even or odd nature) of the numbers involved:

- $763$ is **odd**
- $3y$ is **odd** if $y$ is **odd**, and **even** if $y$ is **even**

So, odd minus odd = even
odd minus even = odd

Therefore, for $763 - 3y$ to be **even**, $3y$ must be **odd**, which means $y$ must
    be **odd**.
```

```
---

### Step 3: Let $y = 2k + 1$, where $k$ is an integer

Substitute $y = 2k + 1$ into the equation:

$$
x = \frac{763 - 3(2k + 1)}{2}
$$

$$
x = \frac{763 - 6k - 3}{2}
$$

$$
x = \frac{760 - 6k}{2}
$$

$$
x = 380 - 3k
$$

---

### Step 4: Find all integer values of $k$ such that $x$ and $y$ are integers

We have:

$$
x = 380 - 3k
$$
$$
y = 2k + 1
$$

There are no restrictions on $k$, so $k$ can be any integer.

---

### Step 5: Count the number of integer solutions

Since $k$ can be any integer, there are **infinitely many integer solutions** to the
    equation.

---

### Final Answer:

$$
\boxed{\text{Infinitely many}}
$$$<|im_end|>
```

Step-level Critique

```
### Summary
Step 1: Correct.
Step 2: Correct.
Step 3: Correct.
Step 4: Incorrect -- failed to consider non-negative constraints on x and y.
Step 5: Correct.
```

```
# Your solution has an error at Step 4. Below is your correct work, the corrected
    step, and the remainder of the solution.
# This is the correct part of your solution:
---
We are given the equation:

$$
2x + 3y = 763
$$

We are to find the number of **integer solutions** $(x, y)$ that satisfy this
    equation.

---

### Step 1: Express $x$ in terms of $y$

We solve the equation for $x$:

$$
2x = 763 - 3y
$$

$$
x = \frac{763 - 3y}{2}
$$

For $x$ to be an integer, the expression $763 - 3y$ must be even.

---

### Step 2: Determine conditions on $y$

We require:

$$
763 - 3y \text{ is even}
$$

Let's consider the parity (even or odd nature) of the numbers involved:

- $763$ is **odd**
- $3y$ is **odd** if $y$ is **odd**, and **even** if $y$ is **even**

So, odd minus odd = even
odd minus even = odd

Therefore, for $763 - 3y$ to be **even**, $3y$ must be **odd**, which means $y$ must
    be **odd**.

---

### Step 3: Let $y = 2k + 1$, where $k$ is an integer

Substitute $y = 2k + 1$ into the equation:

$$
x = \frac{763 - 3(2k + 1)}{2}
$$

$$
x = \frac{763 - 6k - 3}{2}
$$
```

```
$$
x = \frac{760 - 6k}{2}
$$

$$
x = 380 - 3k
$$
---

# You made an error at Step 4. Here is the corrected step:
---
### Step 4: Find all integer values of $k$ such that $x$ and $y$ are non-negative
    integers

We need both \(x\) and \(y\) to be non-negative integers.

For \(x = 380 - 3k \geq 0\):
\[
380 - 3k \geq 0 \implies k \leq \frac{380}{3} \approx 126.67 \implies k \leq 126
\]

For \(y = 2k + 1 \geq 0\):
\[
2k + 1 \geq 0 \implies k \geq -\frac{1}{2}
\]
Since \(k\) is an integer, the smallest possible \(k\) is \(0\).

Thus, \(k\) must satisfy \(0 \leq k \leq 126\).

---

# Continuing the solution from the corrected step:
---
### Step 5: Count the number of integer solutions

The integer values of \(k\) range from \(0\) to \(126\) inclusive. The number of
    integers in this range is:
\[
126 - 0 + 1 = 127
\]

Therefore, the number of non-negative integer solutions to the equation \(2x + 3y =
    763\) is \(\boxed{127}\).
```

Figure 13. Per-token advantage under each teacher context for incorrect student solution.

Table 2. Self-distillation training configuration. The step-aligned feedback block lists the additional critic-server settings.

Parameter	Value
Model and adapters	
Base model	Qwen3-1.7B
Precision	bfloat16
Attention implementation	Flash Attention 2
LoRA rank r	64
LoRA α	128
LoRA dropout	0.0
LoRA target modules	$\{$`q`,`k`,`v`,`o`,`gate`,`up`,`down`$\}$_`proj`
Optimization	
Optimizer	AdamW
Learning rate	5×10^{-6}
LR schedule	constant
Weight decay	0.0
Gradient clipping (global)	0.1
Per-device train batch size	2
Gradient accumulation steps	4
GPUs (data-parallel)	4
Effective batch size	**32**
Gradient checkpointing	Enabled
DeepSpeed ZeRO stage	2 (CPU optimizer offload)
Epochs (max)	7
Save / eval interval	every 10 optimizer steps
Sequence lengths	
Max student completion $|\hat{y}|_{\max}$	2048
Max packed sequence length	20,000
On-policy sampling	
Sampling backend	vLLM (colocate)
Temperature	1.1
Top-p	0.95
Top-k	20
Rollouts per problem	1
Student thinking mode	OFF
Teacher thinking mode	ON
Distillation objective	
Objective	Full-vocabulary generalized JSD
β (forward KL)	0
Per-token KL clip τ	disabled
Teacher policy	Fixed = initial (LoRA-disabled) base
Teacher temperature	1.0
λ (student-mixing)	1
STEPALIGNFB *only: critic server*	
Critic model	Qwen/QwQ-32B (frozen)
Critic inference backend	vLLM (separate node, OpenAI-compat HTTP)
Critic sampling	greedy ($T{=}0$), top-p 0.95, top-k off
Critic max output tokens	8,000
Critic request timeout	240 s
Fallback on truncation	Enabled
Reasoning-trace handling	Strip everything up to and including `</think>`

Table 3. GRPO baseline configuration (Shao et al., 2024). Effective batch size and learning rate are matched to self-distillation experiments (REFSOL and STEPALIGNFB); the larger generation cap and group size are the standard GRPO configuration.

Parameter	Value
Base model	Qwen3-1.7B
Learning rate	5×10^{-6}
Per-device batch size	1
Gradient accumulation	8
GPUs	4
Effective batch size	32
LoRA r / α	64 / 128
LoRA target modules	$\{$q,k,v,o,gate,up,down$\}$_proj
Max prompt length	2,048
Max completion length	8,000
Rollouts per prompt G	8
Sampling temperature	1.2
Loss type	grpo
Reward scaling	group-normalized
KL coefficient β	0
PPO inner iterations	2
Reward signal	binary, verified by math_verify

Table 4. Deltas of our setup from Zhao et al. (2026). Items not listed are unchanged.

Item	Zhao et al.	Ours
Training corpus	OpenThoughts math subset	OpenMathReasoning (difficulty and format-filtered)
Teacher conditioning	Reference solution (REFSOL)	Critic feedback f (STEPALIGNFB)
Student rollout cap	1,024 tokens	2,048 tokens
Per-token KL clip τ	Enabled (untuned)	Disabled
Training budget	100 optimizer steps	Up to 7 epochs

Table 5. Evaluation configuration.

Parameter	Value
Inference backend	vLLM
Tensor parallel size	4
Samples per problem (n)	12
Temperature	1.0
Top-p	0.95
Top-k	disabled
Max new tokens	38,912
Thinking mode	Enabled
Benchmarks	Left-out 30 problem test split from difficulty and format-filtered OpenMathReasoning