
GAP: Graph-based Agent Planning with Parallel Tool Use and Reinforcement Learning

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Abstract

Autonomous agents powered by large language models (LLMs) have shown impressive capabilities in tool manipulation for complex task-solving. However, existing paradigms such as ReAct rely on sequential reasoning and execution, failing to exploit the inherent parallelism among independent sub-tasks. This sequential bottleneck leads to inefficient tool utilization and suboptimal performance in multi-step reasoning scenarios. We introduce **Graph-based Agent Planning** (GAP), a novel framework that explicitly models inter-task dependencies through graph-based planning to enable adaptive parallel and serial tool execution. Our approach trains agent foundation models to decompose complex tasks into dependency-aware sub-task graphs, autonomously determining which tools can be executed in parallel and which must follow sequential dependencies. This dependency-aware orchestration achieves substantial improvements in both execution efficiency and task accuracy. To train GAP, we construct a high-quality dataset of graph-based planning traces derived from the Multi-Hop Question Answering (MHQA) benchmark. We employ a two-stage training strategy: supervised fine-tuning (SFT) on the curated dataset, followed by reinforcement learning (RL) with a correctness-based reward function on strategically sampled queries where tool-based reasoning provides maximum value. Experimental results on MHQA datasets demonstrate that GAP significantly outperforms traditional ReAct baselines, particularly on multi-step retrieval tasks, while achieving dramatic improvements in tool invocation efficiency through intelligent parallelization. The project page is available at: <https://github.com/WJQ7777/Graph-Agent-Planning>.

23

1 Introduction

24 Recent advances in large language model (LLM)-based autonomous agents have demonstrated
25 remarkable capabilities in complex problem-solving tasks[1–6], ranging from scientific research and
26 code generation to interactive web navigation and data analysis. A key enabler of these capabilities is
27 tool-augmented reasoning, where agents leverage external tools such as search engines, calculators,
28 code interpreters, and APIs to extend their problem-solving capacity beyond the inherent limitations
29 of parametric knowledge.

30 Current approaches to tool-augmented reasoning can be broadly categorized into two paradigms:
31 multi-agent systems (MAS) and tool-integrated reasoning (TIR) models. Multi-agent frameworks or-
32 chestrate multiple specialized agents with distinct roles and tool sets to collaboratively solve complex
33 tasks. These systems have shown impressive performance on benchmarks requiring sophisticated
34 workflows, such as software development and scientific research. However, they suffer from criti-

35 cal limitations: (1) high computational overhead due to redundant inter-agent communication and
36 complex orchestration mechanisms; (2) inability to learn from data, as the underlying LLMs are not
37 specifically trained for multi-agent coordination; and (3) reliance on prompt engineering rather than
38 native model capabilities to achieve multi-turn, multi-tool workflows.

39 In contrast, Tool-Integrated Reasoning (TIR) models represent an emerging paradigm that explicitly
40 trains LLMs to incorporate tool usage into their reasoning process. Recent work such as Search-
41 R1[7] and WebThinker[5] has demonstrated that end-to-end training of models to invoke tools (e.g.,
42 `<search>` functions) at appropriate reasoning steps significantly outperforms prompt-engineered
43 approaches. The TIR framework naturally aligns with the ReAct paradigm[4], enabling models to
44 follow a “think-act-observe” pipeline in an end-to-end manner. However, existing TIR methods are
45 fundamentally limited to sequential reasoning trajectories. They execute one action at a time and thus
46 fail to exploit opportunities for parallel tool execution when sub-tasks are independent.

47 To address these limitations, we introduce Graph-based Agent Planning Paradigm (GAP), a novel
48 training paradigm that enables LLM-based agents to perform dependency-aware planning through
49 explicit graph-based reasoning. Our key insight is that by training models to construct and reason over
50 task dependency graphs, they acquire the capability to autonomously determine optimal execution
51 strategies, thereby executing independent tools in parallel when possible and sequential ones when
52 necessary. This approach combines the efficiency and learnability of TIR models with the expressive
53 power of multi-agent coordination, without the overhead of actual multi-agent orchestration. Our
54 main contributions are:

- 55 • We introduce GAP, a novel training paradigm for agent foundation models that incorporates
56 dependency-aware task planning, enabling dynamic parallel and serial tool execution. To
57 our knowledge, this is the first work to explicitly train LLMs for graph-based reasoning over
58 task dependencies in tool-augmented settings.
- 59 • We design and curate a high-quality dataset of 7,000 graph-based planning traces from
60 the Multi-Hop Question Answering (MHQA) benchmark, using GPT-4o to synthesize
61 dependency-aware reasoning trajectories. We apply a rigorous filter mechanism, ensuring
62 that training data emphasize dependency modeling.
- 63 • We demonstrate through extensive experiments across seven question-answering benchmarks
64 that GAP achieves a 0.9% average performance improvement on multi-hop reasoning tasks
65 over state-of-the-art baselines. Moreover, our method significantly enhances efficiency by
66 reducing interaction turns by up to 33.4%, while decreasing response length by 24.9% and
67 maintaining robust generalization to out-of-domain datasets.

68 Our work establishes graph-based dependency modeling as a critical direction for developing more
69 efficient autonomous agents, bridging the gap between sequential TIR models and complex multi-
70 agent coordination. Through extensive experiments on MHQA, we demonstrate that GAP achieves
71 significant improvements over traditional ReAct baselines in both accuracy and efficiency.

72 2 Background

73 Complex task reasoning often requires structured decomposition, specialized capabilities, and external
74 tool integration. We review two prominent paradigms that used in single agent:

75 **ReAct-style Tool-Using** The ReAct-style approach, exemplified by ReAct[4], leveraged few-shot
76 exemplars to guide an LLM to interleave reasoning traces and actions within a "Thought-Action-
77 Observation" cycle. This framework augments LLMs with structured reasoning by interleaving
78 `thought` steps $\tau_t \in \mathcal{T}$ for planning, `action` steps $a_t \in \mathcal{A}$ for tool use, and `observation` steps $o_t \in \mathcal{O}$ for
79 outcome processing. The reasoning trajectory follows:

$$(\tau_1, a_1, o_1, \tau_2, a_2, o_2, \dots, \tau_T) \tag{1}$$

80 where each thought τ_t conditions on the history $h_t = [\tau_{1:t-1}, a_{1:t-1}, o_{1:t-1}]$ to determine next action.

81 **Tool-Integrated Reasoning** Tool-Integrated Reasoning (TIR) enhances LLMs' code reasoning ca-
82 pabilities by tightly coupling natural language reasoning with external tool execution environments[8–
83 10]. This approach enables a single agent to leverage external tools $\mathcal{T} = \{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_M\}$ by main-
84 taining a global state S_t and selecting tools via policy $\pi(t_k | S_t)$. After executing tool t_k , the agent

85 observes outcome $o_t \sim \mathcal{O}(t_k, S_t)$ and updates its state:

$$S_t = f(S_{t-1}, t_k, o_{t-1}) \quad (2)$$

86 where S_t denotes the reasoning state, t_k represents the selected tool, and o_t captures tool execution
87 outcomes.

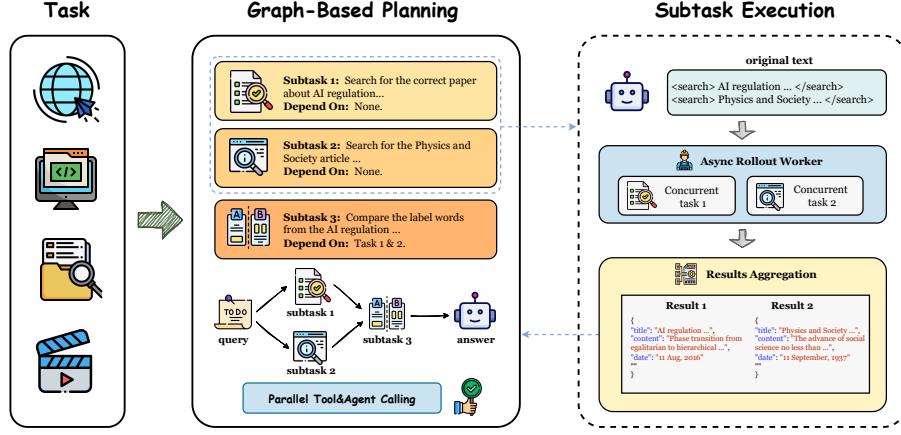


Figure 1: Illustration of Graph-based Agent Planning paradigm. GAP decomposes tasks into dependency-aware subtasks in the planning stage, enabling identification of parallelizable tool operations. The system supports parallel tool and agent calling for enhanced computational efficiency.

88 3 Graph-based Agent Planning Paradigm

89 In this section, we introduce the Graph-based Agent Planning (GAP) paradigm, a novel framework
90 that enables LLM-based agents to perform dependency-aware reasoning and adaptive tool execution.
91 We first formalize the problem setting (§3.1), then describe the core components of GAP including
92 graph-based task decomposition (§3.2) and the dependency-aware execution strategies (§3.3). Figure 1
93 presents the complete GAP reasoning workflow, integrating task decomposition, graph construction,
94 and adaptive execution.

95 3.1 Problem Formulation

96 We consider a task-solving scenario where an agent must answer a complex query q by leveraging
97 a set of external tools $\mathcal{T} = \{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n\}$. Each tool t_i represents a specific capability, such as
98 information retrieval (search), numerical computation (calculator), or code execution (python).

99 **Task Decomposition.** Given a complex query q , the agent must decompose it into a sequence of
100 sub-tasks $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_m\}$, where each sub-task s_i requires invoking one or more tools from \mathcal{T} .
101 The goal is to determine both which tools to invoke and when to invoke them.

102 **Dependency Graph.** We model task dependencies as a directed acyclic graph (DAG): $G = (V, E)$,
103 where each vertex $v_i \in V$ represents a sub-task s_i and each directed edge $(v_i, v_j) \in E$ indicates that
104 sub-task s_j depends on the output of sub-task s_i .

105 The absence of an edge between two vertices indicates independence, meaning those sub-tasks can
106 be executed in parallel. The agent's objective is to construct this dependency graph and execute tools
107 accordingly to maximize both efficiency and correctness.

108 3.2 Graph-based Task Decomposition

109 Unlike traditional sequential reasoning approaches (e.g., ReAct) that generate one action at a time,
110 GAP explicitly constructs a task dependency graph during the planning phase. This process consists
111 of three steps:

112 **Sub-task Identification.** The model first analyzes the input query q and identifies the atomic
 113 sub-tasks required to solve it. For example, given the query “What are the populations of the capitals
 114 of France and Germany?”, the model identifies four sub-tasks: s_1 retrieves the capital of France,
 115 s_2 retrieves the capital of Germany, s_3 retrieves the population of s_1 ’s result, and s_4 retrieves the
 116 population of s_2 ’s result.

117 **Dependency Analysis.** The model then reasons about dependencies between sub-tasks by analyzing
 118 their input-output relationships. A sub-task s_j depends on s_i if and only if s_j requires the output
 119 of s_i as input. In the example above, s_3 depends on s_1 as it needs to know Paris before querying
 120 its population, and similarly s_4 depends on s_2 as it needs to know Berlin. However, s_1 and s_2 are
 121 independent and can be executed in parallel, as are s_3 and s_4 given their respective dependencies are
 122 satisfied.

123 **Graph Construction.** Based on the dependency analysis, the model constructs the dependency
 124 graph G . We represent this graph using an adjacency structure that explicitly encodes:

125 Graph G :
 126 Nodes: $[s_1, s_2, s_3, s_4]$
 127 Edges: $[(s_1, s_3), (s_2, s_4)]$
 128 Parallel Groups: $[\{s_1, s_2\}, \{s_3, s_4\}]$

129 The model outputs this graph structure in a structured format that enables downstream execution
 130 planning. We train the model to generate this representation using a special token sequence:

131

```
<graph>
132 <node id="s1">search("capital of France")</node>
133 <node id="s2">search("capital of Germany")</node>
134 <node id="s3" depends="s1">search("population of {s1}")</node>
135 <node id="s4" depends="s2">search("population of {s2}")</node>
136 </graph>
```

137 3.3 Dependency-Aware Execution Strategies

138 Given the constructed dependency graph G , GAP determines an optimal execution strategy that
 139 balances parallelization opportunities with dependency constraints. We formalize this as a scheduling
 140 problem.

141 **Execution Levels.** We partition the graph G into execution levels L_0, L_1, \dots, L_k using topological
 142 sorting, where:

- 143 • Level L_0 contains all nodes with no incoming edges (independent initial tasks)
- 144 • Level L_i (for $i > 0$) contains nodes whose dependencies are all in levels L_0, \dots, L_{i-1}

145 All sub-tasks within the same level L_i can be executed in parallel, as they have no dependencies on
 146 each other.

147 **Parallel Execution.** For sub-tasks in the same execution level, the model generates a parallel tool
 148 call batch:

$$\text{Batch}_i = \{(t_j, \text{args}_j) \mid s_j \in L_i\}$$

149 where t_j is the tool selected for sub-task s_j and args_j are its arguments. All tools in Batch_i are
 150 invoked simultaneously, and the model waits for all results before proceeding to the next level. In
 151 Algorithm 1, we demonstrate the reasoning process of our proposed method.

152 4 Training Pipeline

153 4.1 Data Synthesis

154 During the Supervised Fine-Tuning (SFT) stage, we generate Graph-based Action Planning (GAP)
 155 trajectories using our proprietary multi-agent system. This approach is inspired by the multi-agent

Algorithm 1 Graph-based Agent Planning with Parallel Tool Execution

Require: Input query x , policy model π_θ , tool set \mathcal{T} , maximum turns B
Ensure: Final answer y

- 1: Initialize rollout $y \leftarrow \emptyset$, turn count $b \leftarrow 0$
- 2: **// Phase 1: Planning**
- 3: Generate $y_{\text{plan}} \sim \pi_\theta(\cdot \mid x, y)$ until $\langle/\text{plan}\rangle$
- 4: Parse dependency graph $G = (V, E) \leftarrow \text{ParseGraph}(y_{\text{plan}})$
- 5: Compute execution levels $\{L_0, \dots, L_k\} \leftarrow \text{TopologicalSort}(G)$
- 6: $y \leftarrow y + y_{\text{plan}}$
- 7: **// Phase 2: Level-wise Execution**
- 8: **for** each level L_i and $b < B$ **do**
- 9: Generate $y_b \sim \pi_\theta(\cdot \mid x, y)$ until $\langle/\text{tool}\rangle$
- 10: $y \leftarrow y + y_b$
- 11: **if** $\langle\text{tool}\rangle$ detected in y_b **then**
- 12: Extract queries $\{q_j\}_{j=1}^{|L_i|} \leftarrow \text{Parse}(y_b)$
- 13: Execute in parallel: $\{o_j = \mathcal{T}(q_j)\}_{j=1}^{|L_i|}$
- 14: $y \leftarrow y + \langle\text{observation}\rangle[o_1, \dots, o_{|L_i|}] \langle/\text{observation}\rangle$
- 15: $b \leftarrow b + 1$
- 16: **end if**
- 17: **end for**
- 18: **// Phase 3: Synthesis**
- 19: Generate $y_{\text{ans}} \sim \pi_\theta(\cdot \mid x, y)$ until $\langle/\text{answer}\rangle$
- 20: **return** $y + y_{\text{ans}} = 0$

156 distillation framework proposed by Chain-of-Agents[11]. Starting with the Natural Questions (NQ)
157 [12] and HotpotQA [13] datasets, we employ GPT-4o as the backend model to simulate the graph-
158 based planning process. The prompt template refers to Section B.
159 To ensure the quality of the GAP training, we implemented a filtering process to select only high-
160 quality, non-trivial trajectories from the varied data sources. We apply three key filtering criteria to
161 curate the training data:
162 (1) *Complexity threshold*: We remove samples that can be completed with fewer than 3 search
163 operations, as such trajectories are overly simplistic and do not benefit from parallel retrieval
164 strategies.
165 (2) *Task diversity*: We maintain a 6:4 ratio between samples utilizing parallel retrieval and those using
166 sequential retrieval, ensuring the model's generalization capability across different retrieval patterns.
167 (3) *Length constraint*: We filter out excessively long samples, retaining only those within approx-
168 imately 2000 tokens. Overlong samples typically indicate missing relevant content in the offline
169 dataset rather than genuine retrieval difficulty, and such redundant samples are detrimental to training
170 efficiency, particularly given our objective of minimizing redundancy and maximizing retrieval
171 efficiency.
172 Following this pipeline, approximately 7,000 high-quality training trajectories were generated through
173 trajectory synthesis and quality filtering.

174 **4.2 Supervised Fine-tuning for Cold Start**

175 We fine-tuned the Qwen2.5-3B-Instruct model on our filtered dataset. The model learns to internalize
176 graph-based planning strategies, enabling it to solve tasks by leveraging graph representations. The
177 training objective minimizes:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{SFT}} = - \sum_{i \notin \mathcal{O}} \log \pi_\theta(\tau_i \mid \tau_{<i}, \mathbf{q})$$

178 with observation masking (\mathcal{O}) to prevent environmental noise propagation. This establishes robust
179 cold start for downstream RL.

180 **4.3 End-to-End Agentic Reinforcement Learning**

181 While supervised training establishes a baseline understanding of parallel execution, it merely guides
182 the model to imitate the provided demonstrations, and does not optimize computational efficiency or
183 reasoning effectiveness. We further fine-tune the language model with fully end-to-end reinforcement
184 learning. During RL-based finetuning, we iteratively sample reasoning traces from our current policy,
185 assign them a reward according to the correctness of the proposed solution, and optimize policy
186 parameters with DAPO[14]. In this stage, the model learns to strategically determine when, how, and
187 how broadly to invoke child threads, maximizing performance by balancing the trade-offs between
188 parallel exploration and the context window constraint. We use the VeRL framework[15] for DAPO
189 training.

190 **Reward function** Reward signals are critical for shaping RL dynamics in open-ended web agent
191 tasks. Our framework adopts a graph-based design, built on two key considerations: Format con-
192 sistency is inherently ensured through high-quality supervised fine-tuning and effective cold-start,
193 obviating the need for explicit format validation rewards. For evaluating answer correctness, we use
194 rule-based metrics to provide binary assessments. Our reward function is:

$$\mathcal{R}_{\text{acc}}(\tau) = \text{score}_{\text{answer}} \quad (10)$$

195 where $\text{score}_{\text{answer}} \in \{0, 1\}$ is 1 if the final prediction is correct. Future work could productively
196 explore multi-objective reward formulations that incorporate auxiliary signals.

197 **5 Experiments**

198 **5.1 Setup**

199 **Datasets** We select seven benchmark datasets that encompass a diverse range of search with
200 reasoning challenges by following the setup of [7]. These datasets are categorized as follows: (1)
201 General Question Answering: NQ[12], TriviaQA[16], and PopQA[17]. (2) Multi-Hop Question
202 Answering: HotpotQA[13], 2WikiMultiHopQA[18], Musique[19], and Bamboogle[20]. Following
203 [7], we merge the training sets of NQ and HotpotQA as the training data and conduct evaluations on
204 the validation or test sets.

205 **Metrics** We use Exact Match (EM) as the evaluation metric to assess both in-domain and out-of-
206 domain performance. In Figure 2, we follow [21] and adopt the cost-of-pass metric to quantify model
207 efficiency. The cost-of-pass metric, denoted as $v(m, p)$, represents the expected monetary cost of
208 using a model m to generate a correct solution for a problem p . It is computed as the ratio of the cost
209 of a single inference attempt, $C_m(p)$, to the success rate, $R_m(p)$:

$$v(m, p) = \frac{C_m(p)}{R_m(p)}$$

210 Here, the cost of a single inference attempt, $C_m(p)$, is defined as:

$$C_m(p) = n_{\text{in}}(m, p) + n_{\text{out}}(m, p)$$

211 where $n_{\text{in}}(m, p)$ and $n_{\text{out}}(m, p)$ are the number of input and output tokens for model m on problem
212 p , respectively. The success rate $R_m(p)$ is estimated by the proportion of correct responses. This
213 metric represents the expected cost of using a model to generate a correct solution for a problem.

214 **Baseline** We conduct comprehensive comparisons against state-of-the-art methods to evaluate our
215 approach across MHQA datasets. We systematically evaluate a suite of tool-augmented methods,
216 including Search-R1[7], ZeroSearch[22], StepSearch[23] and Chain of Agents[11].

217 **Implementation Details** We conduct experiments using Qwen2.5-3B models (Yang et al., 2024) as
218 the backbone of the agent, E5[24] as the embedding model, and 2018 Wikipedia dump[25] as the
219 corpus. All experiments are conducted on 8 NVIDIA A100 GPUs.

Table 1: Performance comparison on various QA datasets, with Qwen2.5-3B-Instruct serving as the foundation model. **Bold** indicates best results among all methods. $\dagger/*$ denote in-domain/out-ofdomain datasets respectively.

Methods	Single-Hop QA			Multi-Hop QA			
	NQ †	TriviaQA *	PopQA *	HotpotQA †	2wiki *	Musique *	Bamboogle *
Qwen2.5-3B-Instruct	10.5	13.2	18.8	9.9	20.2	4.7	1.2
Search-R1	38.3	59.3	43.5	37.6	31.7	15.1	37.1
ZeroSearch	43.3	61.6	41.4	27.4	30.0	9.8	11.1
StepSearch	-	-	-	34.5	32.0	17.4	34.4
AFM-RL-3B	39.3	58.2	42.4	41.1	39.8	19.0	43.2
GAP-3B (Ours)	39.6	59.1	40.1	42.5	41.7	18.7	43.8

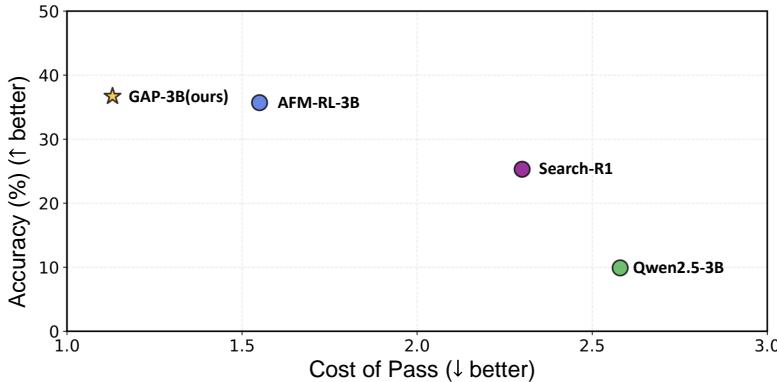


Figure 2: Performance-cost trade-off comparison across different models on HotpotQA. GAP-3B achieves the best balance with highest accuracy at lowest cost.

220 5.2 Results and Efficiency Analysis

221 Table 1 presents comprehensive results comparing GAP against baseline methods across seven
 222 benchmarks using four model configurations. Beyond accuracy improvements, GAP demonstrates
 223 significant efficiency gains on multi-hop reasoning tasks through parallel decomposition of inde-
 224 pendent sub-queries. As shown in Table 2 and Figure 3, our method achieves superior performance
 225 across multiple efficiency metrics compared to sequential baselines. Figure 2 further illustrates this
 226 advantage through a performance-cost trade-off analysis on HotpotQA. Our analysis reveals several
 227 key findings:

228 **Superior performance on complex multi-hop reasoning.** Our method demonstrates particular
 229 strength on multi-hop benchmarks, outperforming the best baseline by 0.9% on average across four
 230 multi-hop datasets (HotpotQA, 2Wiki, Musique, Bamboogle). This indicates that GAP successfully
 231 learns strategies for decomposing and parallelizing complex queries. On single-hop questions, GAP
 232 achieves comparable performance to ZeroSearch, which trains an LLM to simulate search engines
 233 and generate pseudo-context. Compared to Search-R1, our method shows a substantial 3.95%
 234 improvement.

235 **Reduced interaction turns and faster execution.** Compared to Search-R1, which retrieves infor-
 236 mation via sequential query generation, GAP significantly reduces the number of LLM interaction
 237 turns. On HotpotQA, GAP requires only 1.78 turns compared to Search-R1’s 2.27 turns (21.6%
 238 reduction), while on 2Wiki, the reduction is even more pronounced (2.03 vs. 3.05 turns, 33.4%
 239 reduction). The cumulative distribution functions in Figure 3 further illustrate this advantage: our
 240 method efficiently responds to questions within 2 turns in most cases, whereas Search-R1 typically
 241 requires 3-6 turns. This reduction in interaction turns directly translates to faster execution times,
 242 with GAP achieving 32.3% and 21.4% time cost reductions on HotpotQA (168 vs. 248s) and 2Wiki
 243 (206s vs. 262s), respectively. Notably, the model autonomously determines parallelizability based on
 244 learned patterns during inference, demonstrating strong generalization ability.

245 **Shorter response length and lower deployment cost.** GAP also significantly reduces response
 246 length compared to baselines. As shown in Figure 3, Search-R1 generates substantially more tokens
 247 to support reasoning over retrieved documents, while GAP learns efficient reasoning strategies that
 248 reduce response length by 24.9% on HotpotQA (416 vs. 554 tokens) and 20.3% on 2Wiki (452 vs.
 249 567 tokens). This reduction in generated tokens directly decreases deployment costs and increases
 250 throughput, which are critical factors for real-world applications. Furthermore, these efficiency
 251 gains generalize across domains: while HotpotQA is an in-domain dataset, similar improvements
 252 are observed on out-of-domain benchmarks, demonstrating that the learned parallel decomposition
 253 patterns transfer effectively to new scenarios. These results validate that GAP not only improves
 254 accuracy but also makes multi-hop reasoning more practical and cost-effective for deployment.

Table 2: Efficiency comparison on HotpotQA and 2wiki, with Qwen2.5-3B-Instruct serving as the backbone. **Time cost** refers to the time required to infer a batch of data. **Bold** indicates best results among all methods. \dagger/\ast denote in-domain/out-ofdomain datasets respectively.

HotpotQA \dagger	Acc \uparrow	Length \downarrow	Time Cost(s) \downarrow	# Turns \downarrow
<i>Qwen2.5-3B-Instruct</i>	9.9	256	114	1.11
Search-R1	25.3	584	221	2.69
AFM-RL-3B	35.7	554	248	2.27
GAP-3B (Ours)	36.7	416	168	1.78
2wiki \ast	Acc \uparrow	Length \downarrow	Time Cost(s) \downarrow	# Turns \downarrow
<i>Qwen2.5-3B-Instruct</i>	10.5	277	121	1.12
Search-R1	31.7	651	254	3.05
AFM-RL-3B	39.8	567	262	2.64
GAP-3B (Ours)	41.7	452	206	2.03

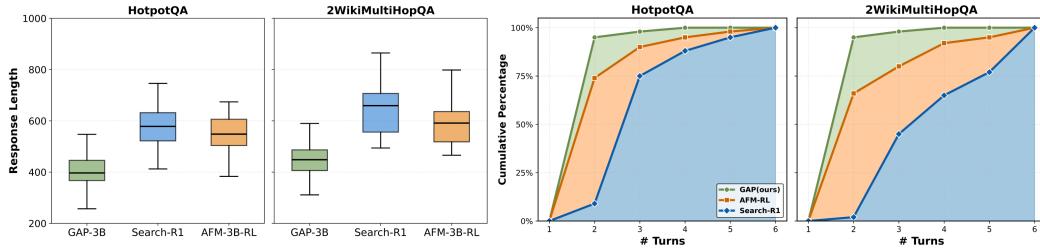


Figure 3: Illustration of total turns and response length on HotpotQA and 2WikiMultiHopQA datasets. Left panels show response length distribution, right panels show cumulative percentage of problems solved within different numbers of turns.

255 6 Conclusion

256 In this paper, we introduced GAP (Graph-based Agent Planning), a novel paradigm that enables
 257 LLM-based agents to perform dependency-aware reasoning and adaptive tool execution. By explicitly
 258 modeling task dependencies through graph-based planning, GAP addresses the fundamental limitation
 259 of sequential execution in existing approaches like ReAct, achieving significant improvements in both
 260 efficiency and accuracy. Our key contribution lies in training agent foundation models to decompose
 261 complex queries into dependency graphs, autonomously determining which tools can be executed in
 262 parallel and which must follow sequential dependencies. Through a carefully designed two-stage
 263 training strategy, we demonstrate that GAP substantially outperforms traditional sequential baselines,
 264 particularly on multi-step retrieval tasks requiring sophisticated reasoning.

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369 **A Related Work**

370 **A.1 Tool-Integrated Reasoning Method**

371 Training Large Language Models for multi-turn Tool-Integrated Reasoning (TIR) represents a promis-
 372 ing frontier in Reinforcement Learning. Representative works such as ARPO[26], SimpleTIR[9],
 373 and ToRL[8] adopt similar strategies: models are post-trained with SFT or RL, and outputs are struc-
 374 tured (e.g., <code>...</code>) to trigger tool execution, feeding results back into the reasoning loop.
 375 Some extend RL-based Tool-Integrated Reasoning by improving small LLMs' tool-use capability,
 376 stabilizing multi-turn reasoning, and rewarding tool-use sequences independent of final answers.
 377 Today, such tool-integrated reasoning is no longer a niche capability but a baseline feature of advanced
 378 agentic models. Mature commercial and open-source systems, such as OpenAI's DeepResearch
 379 and o3[27], Kimi K2[28], Microsoft rStar2-Agent[29] and Meituan LongCat[30], routinely incor-
 380 porate these RL-honed strategies, underscoring the centrality of outcome-driven optimization in
 381 tool-augmented intelligence. Recent work theoretically proves that TIR fundamentally expands LLM
 382 capabilities beyond the "invisible leash" of pure-text RL by introducing deterministic tool-driven
 383 state transitions, establishes token-efficiency arguments for feasibility under finite budget.

384 **A.2 Agent Foundation Model**

385 The development of Agent Foundation Models (AFMs) marks a pivotal shift towards building
 386 models with innate reasoning and tool-use capabilities. A significant insight driving this field is that
 387 exceptional agentic performance is not solely dependent on model scale. Recent pioneering works,
 388 notably Chain-of-Agents[11] and Cognitive Kernel-Pro[31], have demonstrated that even models at
 389 smaller scales can achieve state-of-the-art agentic abilities when trained with rigorous, purpose-built
 390 paradigms.

391 These approaches address the limitations of scale-dependent capabilities through two key innovations:
 392 sophisticated data synthesis and specialized agent-centric training. The Chain-of-Agents framework
 393 employs a process of multi-agent knowledge distillation and outcome-driven reinforcement learning.
 394 This teaches a single, smaller model to internally simulate the collaborative roles of a multi-agent
 395 team, enabling it to rival the performance of much larger models or complex systems on benchmarks
 396 like GAIA[32] and WebArena[33], but with dramatically improved inference efficiency.

397 Similarly, Cognitive Kernel-Pro demonstrates that a meticulously designed open-source framework,
 398 combined with a systematic methodology for generating high-quality, verifiable training data across
 399 various domains (web, file, code), can produce smaller models that compete with systems relying on
 400 massive proprietary APIs. Collectively, these works prove that the strategic focus on training quality
 401 and architectural innovation is a viable path to creating highly capable and practical agents, making
 402 advanced agentic intelligence more accessible and efficient.

403 **B Case Study**

404 We conduct case studies to gain a deeper understanding of the behavior and capabilities of our GAP
 405 framework. The results are shown in the following tables.

Table 3: Template of *GAP* framework on MHQA benchmark. **question** will be replaced with the specific question during training and inference.

<p>You can respond to questions using the following 6 functions: think, plan, search, observation, reflection and answer. Function Descriptions:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. think: Provide reasoning, justification, and synthesis of information before using other functions. Begin with <think> and end with </think>. 2. plan: Break down the question into sub-tasks with explicit dependencies. Format each task as - Task ID: unique identifier (Task1, Task2, etc.), Description: what to search/investigate, Dependencies: which tasks must complete first (use "none" if independent). Begin with <plan> and end with </plan>. 3. search: Execute search queries. For parallel searches, separate multiple queries with . For single search, use one query. Begin with <search> and end with </search>. 4. observation: Results from search functions. Begin with <observation> and end with </observation>. 5. reflection: Evaluate progress and suggest plan modifications if needed. Begin with <reflection> and end with </reflection>. 6. answer: Final confident answer. Begin with <answer> and end with </answer>. <p>Execution Rules:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Always use think before other functions. 2. Use <plan> to create a task dependency graph. 3. Execute independent tasks in parallel by using separator in <search>. 4. Use think to synthesize and analyze results from multiple searches. 5. Tasks with dependencies execute only after prerequisites complete. 6. Use reflection if the plan needs major adjustment. 7. Multiple final answers should be separated by . <p>Question: question.</p>
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Table 4: Case trajectory of *GAP* framework on MHQA benchmark. We select a typical case of parallelizable multi-hop execution for reference.

<p>Question: What occupation was shared by both John Frankenheimer and Tiffanie DeBartolo?</p> <p><think>This question requires finding information about two different people and identifying their shared occupation. I need to search for each person's career information and then compare them to find commonalities.</think></p> <p><plan></p> <p>Task 1: Search for John Frankenheimer's occupations and career</p> <p>- Dependencies: none</p> <p>Task 2: Search for Tiffanie DeBartolo's occupations and career</p> <p>- Dependencies: none</p> <p>Task 3: Compare their occupations to identify shared ones</p> <p>- Dependencies: Task 1, Task 2 </plan></p> <p><think>Tasks T1 and T2 are independent and can be executed in parallel using the separator in search. After getting both results, I'll analyze them to find the shared occupation.</think></p> <p><search>John Frankenheimer occupation career director Tiffanie DeBartolo occupation career director novelist</search></p> <p><observation> Doc 1 - John Frankenheimer: John Frankenheimer (1930-2002) was an American film and television director. He was known for directing films such as "The Manchurian Candidate" (1962), "Seven Days in May" (1964), and "The French Connection II" (1975). He was primarily recognized as a director in both film and television industries.</p> <p>Doc 2 - Tiffanie DeBartolo: Tiffanie DeBartolo is an American novelist and film director. She is the author of novels including "God-Shaped Hole" and "How to Kill a Rock Star." She also directed the independent film "Dream for an Insomniac" (1996). She works as both a writer and director. </observation></p> <p><think>Now I can synthesize the results from both parallel searches: - John Frankenheimer: Film and television director - Tiffanie DeBartolo: Novelist and film director</p> <p>The shared occupation between them is "director" - both have worked as film directors. John Frankenheimer was primarily known as a director, while Tiffanie DeBartolo works as both a novelist and director.</think></p> <p><answer>director</answer></p>
