
CATS: Category-Aware Token-level Steering for Training-Free Redundancy Reduction in Large Reasoning Models

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Abstract

While Large Reasoning Models (LRMs) exhibit remarkable capabilities in complex tasks, they often suffer from excessive redundancy in their chain-of-thought reasoning. This significantly reduces inference efficiency and increases computational costs. We identify that LRM redundancy is not uniformly homogeneous but can be taxonomized according to whether it is destructive to the final answer: destructive redundancy (e.g., logical drift, hallucination amplification) versus non-destructive redundancy (e.g., repetition, over-elaboration). Moreover, LRM’s redundant and concise responses exhibit a significant distinction in their hidden layer representation spaces. Based on these insights, we propose CATS (Category-Aware Token-Level Steering), a training-free and lightweight method to reduce the redundancy phenomenon. CATS decomposes redundancy into six semantically interpretable characteristic dimensions. By flexibly weighting and combining the differential vectors corresponding to these dimensions, CATS synthesizes a composite intervention vector, enabling zero-parameter intervention in the hidden layers. Experiments across three LRM models and five mathematical reasoning datasets demonstrate that CATS reduces reasoning length by an average of 25% while maintaining or even slightly improving task accuracy. CATS offers a pluggable, training-free, and lightweight solution, making it particularly beneficial for users in low-resource environments. Our code can be found at <https://anonymous.4open.science/r/cats-63B6>

1 Introduction

Large Reasoning Models (LRMs) have demonstrated powerful capabilities in complex reasoning tasks through Chain-of-Thought (CoT) prompting [1, 2]. However, pervasive reasoning redundancy in CoT paths poses a significant challenge. Such redundancy not only increases inference latency and computational costs but may also introduce logical errors or hallucinations. Existing redundancy elimination methods, such as Supervised Fine-Tuning (SFT) [3–5], Reinforcement Learning (RL) [6, 7], or Prompt Engineering [8–10], often demand substantial computational resources and struggle with fine-grained control over redundancy types, thereby limiting their deployment flexibility.

We observe that redundancy in LRMs is not a uniformly homogeneous phenomenon. Instead, it can be taxonomized into six semantically interpretable characteristic dimensions. These dimensions can be further categorized into destructive redundancy (e.g., logical drift, hallucination amplification, internal contradiction) and non-destructive redundancy (e.g., repetition, over-elaboration, over-caution). More crucially, by analyzing the hidden layer representation space, we discover significant divergences between concise paths and various redundant paths in the representation space (see Appendix A), providing a theoretical basis for precise intervention.

Inspired by these insights, we propose CATS (Category-Aware Token-level Steering), a training-free and lightweight framework designed to systematically reduce reasoning redundancy through zero-parameter intervention in LRM hidden layers. The core idea of CATS is to extract differential vectors corresponding to each redundancy type and dynamically combine and apply these vectors to the model’s hidden layers during inference, thereby precisely suppressing specific types of redundancy. Our main contributions include:

- We are the first to categorize LRM redundancy into six semantically interpretable types and demonstrate their distinguishable representations in hidden layers.
- We propose CATS, a novel training-free intervention framework that enables fine-grained control over LRM redundancy through flexibly weighted and combined differential vectors.
- Extensive experiments across three LRM models and five mathematical reasoning datasets demonstrate that CATS reduces reasoning length by an average of 25% while maintaining or even slightly improving task accuracy, and significantly reducing the incidence of destructive redundancy by 21%.

2 Method

This section introduces the CATS framework, which focuses on reducing LRM reasoning redundancy through interventions in the model’s hidden layers. Given an input query x , a LRM generates a multi-step reasoning output $y = \{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n\}$. Our objective is to minimize the length of the reasoning chain $|y|$ without compromising the accuracy of the final answer:

$$\min |y| \quad s.t. \quad acc(y) \geq acc(y_0) \quad (1)$$

where $acc(y_0)$ is the accuracy of the original model output.

The CATS framework comprises three key stages (as illustrated in Figure 1):

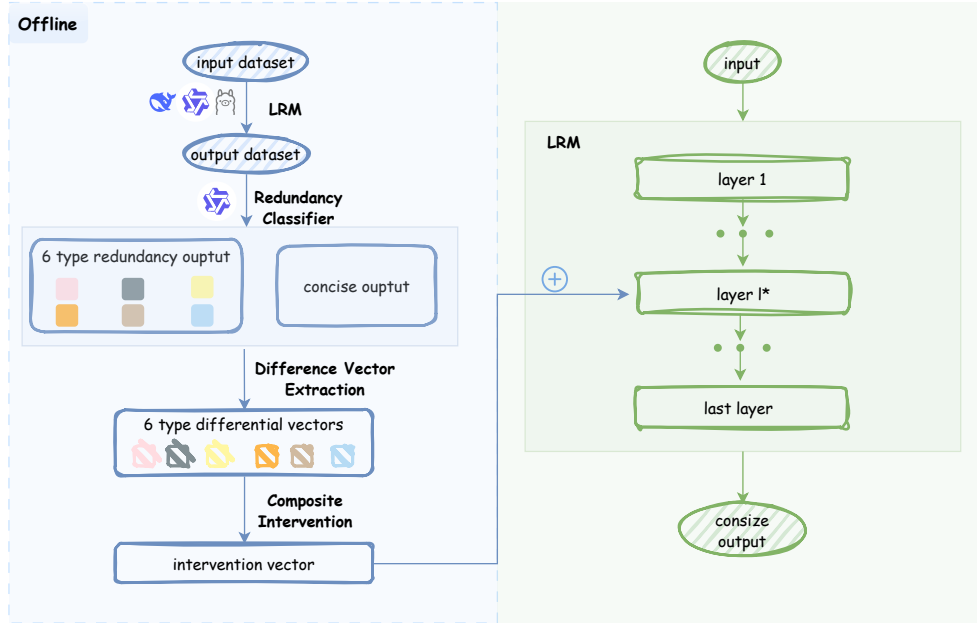


Figure 1: Overview of the CATS (Category-Aware Token-level Steering) Framework

2.1 Redundancy Classification

We classify LRM reasoning redundancy into six semantic categories by combining large language model annotation with human verification. These categories are primarily divided into two types:

- **Destructive Redundancy:** Includes logical drift, hallucination amplification, and internal contradiction. These redundancies can directly lead to reasoning failures or incorrect results.
- **Non-Destructive Redundancy:** Includes repetition, over-elaboration, and over-caution. These redundancies primarily increase reasoning length without directly causing logical errors.

This fine-grained categorization allows for a more precise understanding and suppression of different types of redundancy. Detailed classification rules and classifier evaluation are provided in the Appendix B.

2.2 Difference Vector Extraction

We extract difference vectors by analyzing the hidden status differences in LRM between concise reasoning paths and redundant reasoning paths. We selected 1,000 mathematical problems from the GSM8K dataset and generated 10 reasoning paths for each problem. Through annotation by Qwen3-235B-A22B, we constructed a concise sample set S_c and a redundant sample set $S_{r,k}$ for each redundancy type k .

For layer l of the LRM, we compute the average hidden state of the concise samples $\mu_{S_c}^l$ and the average hidden state for each redundancy type k , $\mu_{S_{r,k}}^l$. The difference vector v_k^l for each redundancy type k is defined as the difference between the average hidden states of the concise samples and the samples of that redundancy type:

$$v_k^l = \mu_{S_c}^l - \mu_{S_{r,k}}^l \quad (2)$$

These vectors capture the semantic information for the model in the direction of suppressing specific redundancy types.

2.3 Composite Intervention

During the inference phase, CATS linearly combines the extracted differential vectors and adds them to the hidden state of a specific model layer, thereby achieving redundancy suppression. The intervention formula is as follows:

$$h_{l^*, -1}' = h_{l^*, -1} + \sum_{k=1}^6 w_k \cdot v_k^{l^*} \quad (3)$$

where $h_{l^*, -1}$ is the hidden state of the original LRM at the last token of the input to layer l^* ; $v_k^{l^*}$ is the differential vector for the k -th redundancy type; and w_k are user-configurable weights used to adjust the suppression strength for each redundancy type. This process involves only a single forward pass, requiring no additional training, making it a zero-parameter intervention with extremely high deployment efficiency and flexibility.

3 Experiments

This section details the experimental configuration used to validate the effectiveness of the CATS method, including selected models, datasets, evaluation metrics, and baselines.

3.1 Setup

We evaluated CATS on DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Qwen-1.5B, DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Qwen-7B, and DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Llama-8B models [1]. Experiments were conducted on five mathematical reasoning datasets: MATH-500[11], AMC, AMC23, AIME 2024, and AIME 2025[12]. We primarily assessed the method’s effectiveness using task accuracy, average token length, and incidence rate of each redundancy type. All experimental details are available in the Appendix C.

3.2 Baselines

We compared CATS against the following baselines:

- **Original LRM:** The raw model without any intervention.
- **Generic Intervention:** This baseline uses only a single "longest-concise" differential vector for intervention, not distinguishing between redundancy types. This aims to simulate approaches that treat all redundancy as homogeneous, highlighting the advantages of fine-grained classification.

3.3 Main Results

As shown in table 1, CATS consistently demonstrated significant redundancy reduction capabilities across all models and datasets. On average, CATS reduced the reasoning path length by 25.0% while maintaining or even slightly improving task accuracy in most cases. Moreover, CATS outperforms the generic intervention baseline in both length compression and accuracy. This highlights the critical role of fine-grained redundancy classification, enabling CATS to precisely target different redundancy types for a more intelligent and safe efficiency optimization.

Table 1: Overview of Main Results of CATS across Different Models and Datasets

	MATH-500		AMC		AMC23		AIME 2024		AIME 2025	
	len(↓)	acc(↑)	len(↓)	acc(↑)	len(↓)	acc(↑)	len(↓)	acc(↑)	len(↓)	acc(↑)
DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Qwen-1.5B	4528.31	83.21	8982.86	58.52	8697.42	55.42	11758.16	27.54	11709.96	25.43
+ Generic Intervention	3935.10	79.55	6902.43	57.12	7338.45	54.25	10637.61	26.54	10503.83	24.80
+ CATS	3577.36	82.01	6108.34	60.13	6523.07	56.22	9759.27	27.94	9133.77	25.83
DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Qwen-7B	3817.48	92.96	6572.61	79.07	6204.70	81.03	10220.63	51.64	10051.13	36.85
+ Generic Intervention	3169.55	91.34	4814.84	76.20	5425.86	78.15	9390.91	48.66	8661.53	34.55
+ CATS	2855.45	93.20	4115.25	79.37	4559.55	82.26	7825.76	52.32	7278.60	37.15
DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Llama-8B	3863.48	89.73	6878.65	77.80	6639.62	79.21	11404.50	44.80	11579.90	30.84
+ Generic Intervention	3256.30	87.81	5175.50	76.65	5969.68	78.81	10318.79	43.83	9944.82	32.17
+ CATS	2936.24	90.06	4539.91	78.21	5378.09	80.01	8895.51	46.14	8800.72	34.22
avg. Δ len = -25%, avg. Δ acc = 1.2%										

Table 2: Occurrence Rates of Redundancy Categories in Model Responses

	Destructive Redundancy			Non-Destructive Redundancy		
	Log. Drift	Hall. Amp.	Int. Contr.	Rep.	Over-Elab.	Over-Caut.
DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Qwen-1.5B	39.09	3.20	4.90	15.81	13.65	13.70
+ CATS	31.27	2.62	3.43	11.38	10.51	10.41
DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Qwen-7B	31.50	3.60	4.40	15.94	17.82	16.57
+ CATS	26.15	2.81	3.34	11.64	12.47	12.10
DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Llama-8B	32.20	2.70	5.40	16.72	14.57	17.37
+ CATS	25.44	1.89	3.24	11.70	11.22	12.16
avg. Δ Occurrence Rate of Destructive Redundancy = -21%						
avg. Δ Occurrence Rate of Non-Destructive Redundancy = -27%						

From Table 2, CATS intervention effectively reduced the occurrence rate of all redundancy categories. Specifically, the average occurrence rate of destructive redundancy decreased by 21%, while that of non-destructive redundancy decreased by 27%, further enhancing the conciseness and reliability of model outputs. Further analysis on ablation study is shown in Appendix D.

4 Conclusion

This paper presents CATS, a novel training-free framework for category-aware, token-level redundancy reduction in large reasoning models. By decomposing redundancy into six semantically interpretable types and leveraging differential vectors in hidden layers for precise intervention, CATS successfully reduced reasoning length by an average of 25% while maintaining or slightly improving task accuracy, and effectively suppressing destructive redundancy. CATS's lightweight, training-free, and highly interpretable nature makes it a powerful tool for optimizing LRM inference efficiency. Future work will explore adaptive weight optimization and extend its application to larger-scale models and broader multimodal reasoning scenarios.

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A Hidden State Visualization

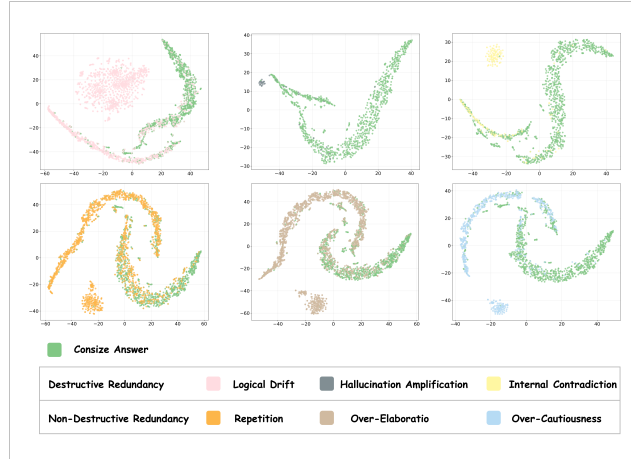


Figure 2: Hidden State Differences between Redundancy Categories and Concise Paths (t-SNE Visualization). This figure presents the t-SNE dimensionality reduction visualization of the hidden states from the 15th layer of the DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Qwen-7B model. It clearly shows a distinct separation of the six redundancy categories from concise paths in the representation space, validating the discriminability of our category-specific difference vectors. Similar patterns were observed in other models and layers.

B Redundancy Classification Details

B.1 Redundancy Definition

We categorize redundant content into two main types, encompassing six specific kinds of redundancy (as shown in Figure 3):

Destructive Redundancy

This type of redundancy interferes with the original reasoning path and reduces the correctness of the final answer.

- **Logical Drift:** Deviation from the task objective during reasoning, producing reasoning steps in an unrelated direction.
- **Hallucination Amplification:** Continuously expanding reasoning based on false or unestablished premises, constructing seemingly plausible but actually incorrect paths.
- **Internal Contradiction:** The reasoning path contains logically inconsistent statements, where the subsequent reasoning attempts to reconcile or proceeds despite these inconsistencies.

Non-Destructive Redundancy

This type of redundancy does not affect the correctness of the final answer but significantly increases output length and reduces reasoning efficiency.

- **Repetition:** Repeatedly expressing existing information or rephrasing the same content with different wordings.
- **Over-Elaboration:** Introducing definitions, background, or redundant explanations unrelated to problem-solving, thereby extending the reasoning chain.
- **Over-Cautiousness:** Using vague expressions such as “might”, “probably”, or “seems like” to describe definitive information.

Classification Process: We utilize the Qwen3-235B-A22B model as a classifier to automatically label redundancy types in model outputs. For each category, 50 samples were randomly selected and manually reviewed (two independent annotators, majority voting for decisions, Kappa coefficient of 0.86) to ensure classification quality. The distribution of each redundancy category in DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Qwen-7B model outputs is shown in Figure 4.

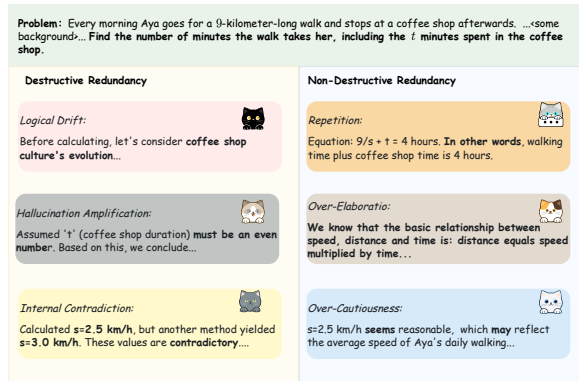


Figure 3: Examples of Redundancy Categorization. This figure illustrates our proposed six semantically interpretable redundancy categories using a mathematical reasoning problem.

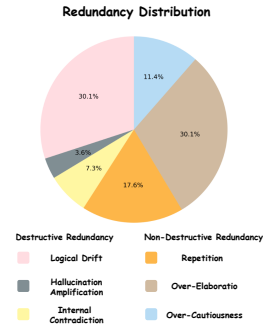


Figure 4: Distribution of Redundancy Categories in DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Qwen-7B Model Outputs

B.2 Classification Prompt

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184 You are a professional text analysis assistant, skilled at
185
186     ↳ identifying redundancy phenomena in large language model (
187     ↳ LLM) responses.
188 Your task is to analyze the LLM response I provide and
189     ↳ categorize it into the redundancy categories I define.
190
191 Redundancy Category Definitions:
192 Detrimental Redundancy: This type of redundancy directly causes
193     ↳ or exacerbates errors, inconsistencies, or unreliability
194     ↳ in model outputs.
195 1. Logical Deviation: During reasoning, the model forgets what
196     ↳ it was supposed to do and starts talking randomly about
197     ↳ various things, causing redundancy and errors.
198 2. Hallucination Amplification: The model generates a non-
199     ↳ existent false premise during reasoning, then continuously
200     ↳ reasons based on this premise to reach a final "answer",
201     ↳ causing redundancy of false premises and incorrect
202     ↳ reasoning.
203 3. Internal Inconsistency: The model reaches two completely
204     ↳ contradictory conclusions during reasoning, then continues
205     ↳ to debate between these two conclusions, causing
206     ↳ redundant argumentation.
207
208 Non-Detrimental Redundancy: This type of redundancy mainly
209     ↳ causes inefficiency and information overload, but usually
210     ↳ does not directly lead to core answer errors.
211 4. Repetition/Restatement: Repeatedly saying the same thing
212     ↳ without providing new information or substantial progress.
213 5. Unnecessary Elaboration: Providing too many, overly specific,
214     ↳ or unnecessary examples, analogies, background
215     ↳ information, or detailed descriptions for a point or step.
216     ↳ For example, when asked "what is 1+1?", starting from the
217     ↳ definition of addition.
218 6. Over-Cautiousness/Defensiveness: Adding too many unnecessary
219     ↳ qualifiers, possibility descriptions (like "maybe", "
220     ↳ perhaps", "in some cases"), disclaimers, or listing all
221     ↳ possible edge cases when they're not actually necessary.
222
223 Classification Instructions:
224 1. I will provide a "user question" with a "correct answer", and
225     ↳ the LLM's "response" to that question.
226 2. Please carefully read and analyze the LLM's response.
227 3. Determine whether the response contains the redundancy types
228     ↳ defined above.
229 4. If redundancy exists, please select at least one category
230     ↳ that best represents the redundancy phenomenon. If
231     ↳ multiple types of redundancy exist, please list all
232     ↳ applicable categories and indicate the most prominent one.
233 5. If the response is very concise and contains no redundancy,
234     ↳ please mark it as "none".
235 6. Your output format must be the following JSON format:
236 {
237     "redundancy_type": ["main redundancy type, return redundancy
238     ↳ type number (1-6)"],
239     "secondary_redundancy_type": ["other applicable redundancy
240     ↳ types, empty list if none"],
241     "analysis_explanation": "Brief explanation of why it's
242     ↳ categorized as this type, and point out specific
243     ↳ redundant parts in the response."
244 }
245
246 Example:
247 User Question: "Is the Earth square?"

```

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248 LLM Response: "The Earth is not square. From what we know about
249     ↳ physics and astronomy, the Earth is an approximately
250     ↳ spherical body, more accurately described as an oblate
251     ↳ spheroid, because the equator is slightly bulged and the
252     ↳ poles are slightly flattened. This shape is the result of
253     ↳ the combined action of centrifugal force generated by
254     ↳ Earth's rotation and its own gravity. Therefore,
255     ↳ describing it as 'round' in everyday context is completely
256     ↳ understandable and acceptable, but in the precise
257     ↳ definition of science and astronomy, it is not a perfect
258     ↳ geometric sphere. For example, Earth's ocean tidal
259     ↳ movements, atmosphere, and internal geological structure
260     ↳ all affect its precise shape, and these are all reasons
261     ↳ why it's not completely a perfect sphere."
262 Your output:
263 {
264     "redundancy_type": ["6"],
265     "secondary_redundancy_type": ["5"],
266     "analysis_explanation": "When answering a simple yes/no
267         ↳ question, the LLM added too many unnecessary qualifiers
268         ↳ and scientific details, such as 'strictly speaking it's
269         ↳ an oblate spheroid', 'understandable in everyday context
270         ↳ ' disclaimers, and excessive explanations for why its
271         ↳ shape is imperfect, showing excessive caution and
272         ↳ defensiveness. At the same time, these excessive
273         ↳ scientific details also constitute unnecessary
274         ↳ elaboration for a simple affirmative/negative answer."
275 }
276
277 User Question: "{input_text}"
278 Correct Answer: "{final_answer}"
279 LLM Response: "{generated_text}"
280

```

281 C Experimental Detail

282 Models

283 To evaluate the performance of CATS, we selected the following three representative reasoning-
284 optimized models from the DeepSeek-R1-Distill series as experimental subjects:

- 285 • DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Qwen-1.5B
- 286 • DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Qwen-7B
- 287 • DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Llama-8B

288 These models are representative in their reasoning capabilities and encompass different underlying
289 architectures, which helps to investigate CATS's effectiveness under various conditions.

290 Datasets

291 Experiments were primarily validated on the following five classic mathematical reasoning
292 datasets: MATH-500 [11], AMC, AMC23, AIME 2024, AIME 2025 [12]. These datasets all require
293 complex chain-of-thought reasoning, and the generated thought processes often contain a rich
294 variety of redundancy types, making them ideal scenarios for observing, classifying, and quantifying
295 redundancy phenomena.

296 For generation, we set the maximum generation length (including both reasoning trace and final
297 answer) for all models to 16384 tokens. For each test question, we sample 4 to 16 outputs with a
298 temperature of 0.7.

299

D Ablation Study

Per-Category Intervention Ablation

Within the CATS framework, we further individually removed the intervention vector for specific redundancy categories (i.e., setting their w_k to 0), observing the impact on the average change in accuracy and length, to reveal the unique contribution of each category’s intervention, as shown in Figure 5.

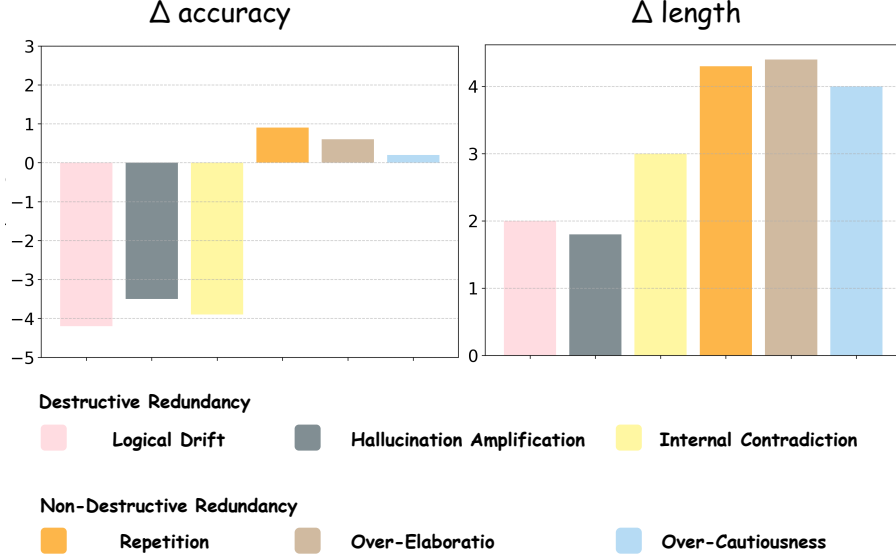


Figure 5: Impact of Removing Specific Redundancy Category Interventions on Core Metrics (Accuracy and Length)

Example Analysis:

- **Removing “Logical Drift” category intervention:** As seen in Figure 5, when intervention for the “Logical Drift” category is removed, the model’s average accuracy decreases by 4.2%, and the average length only increases by 2.0%. This strongly proves the critical role of the “Logical Drift” category and its corresponding intervention vector in ensuring model output quality and suppressing destructive redundancy. It alerts us that not all redundancy is harmless, and identifying and intervening in specific destructive redundancies is crucial.
- **Removing “Repetition” category intervention:** Conversely, when we remove intervention for the “Repetition” category, the average length increases by 4.3%, but accuracy remains almost unchanged (change less than 1.0%). This indicates that intervention for non-destructive redundancies like “Repetition” primarily focuses on text conciseness and contributes significantly to length compression without affecting core performance.

These ablation results collectively demonstrate the rationality and effectiveness of our six-category redundancy classification system, as well as each category’s unique contribution to achieving the overall optimization goals.

E Related work

E.1 Large Reasoning Models (LRMs) Background

Large Reasoning Models (LRMs), such as OpenAI’s o1 [2] and DeepSeek-R1 [1], extend Large Language Models’ reasoning ability by incorporating explicit Chain-of-Thought (CoT) mechanisms.

325 This simulates the human process of step-by-step problem decomposition, iterative verification, and
 326 idea refinement, significantly boosting model performance in mathematical, scientific, and common-
 327 sense reasoning tasks. Their typical inference process involves generating multi-step intermediate
 328 reasoning before outputting the final answer.
 329 Despite the significant success of this strategy in improving accuracy, it also introduces substantial
 330 reasoning redundancy. To ensure answer reliability, LRMs tend to “over-explain for stability”, leading
 331 to reasoning paths that can span hundreds to thousands of tokens for a single problem. Consequently,
 332 this results in issues such as increased inference latency and higher computational costs.
 333 Existing redundancy mitigation strategies primarily fall into two categories: (1) training-based
 334 compression via Supervised Fine-Tuning (SFT) or Reinforcement Learning (RL), and (2) training-
 335 free compression through Prompt Engineering.

336 **E.2 Supervised Fine-Tuning Strategies: Constructing “Verbose-Concise” Pairs for** 337 **Compression**

338 The core idea of these methods is to construct paired “verbose-concise” reasoning path data to train
 339 the model to generate more concise answers while maintaining reasoning validity. The specific
 340 process includes: collecting multiple reasoning paths for the same problem; selecting the shortest
 341 correct path as the gold standard; designing appropriate loss functions to guide the model to learn
 342 concise expressions during training.
 343 For example, Self-training [3] constructs a dataset with multiple solutions for the same problem
 344 and selects the shortest correct path for training to enhance the model’s compression capability.
 345 The TokenSkip [4] method identifies and skips tokens that contribute minimally to the final answer,
 346 thereby compressing reasoning length while preserving semantic integrity. C3oT [5] designs a
 347 GPT-4-based compressor that generates shorter chain-of-thought paths by retaining critical reasoning
 348 steps.

349 **E.3 Reinforcement Learning Strategies: Designing Dual-Objective Rewards for** 350 **Length-Accuracy Trade-off**

351 Reinforcement learning approaches focus on designing reward functions that guide the model to
 352 compress reasoning path length while ensuring output accuracy. This typically involves setting
 353 dual-objective rewards: a conciseness reward (penalizing redundant tokens) and an accuracy reward
 354 (ensuring the final answer’s correctness).
 355 For instance, O1-Pruner [6] uses length and accuracy as baselines for its reward function, encouraging
 356 the model to generate shorter reasoning paths without sacrificing precision. ThinkPrune [7] introduces
 357 a length-aware reward, requiring the model to complete correct reasoning within a given token budget,
 358 only receiving positive feedback when both objectives are met.

359 **E.4 Prompt Engineering Strategies: Zero-Training Compression of Reasoning Paths**

360 These methods do not rely on additional training. Instead, they guide the model to control reasoning
 361 length through prompt design, achieving immediate compression.
 362 For example, CCoT [8] explicitly prompts the model to “Be concise”. Token-Budget [9] sets a token
 363 usage limit in the prompt, guiding the model to complete reasoning tasks within the budget. Chain of
 364 Draft [10] requires the model to retain only core information in each reasoning step, even limiting the
 365 word count per step to reduce redundant descriptions.
 366 In summary, while existing solutions can compress LRMs’ lengthy reasoning to varying degrees, they
 367 each suffer from distinct shortcomings: SFT and RL require retraining, incurring high computational
 368 and human costs due to annotation or reward design; prompt engineering relies on manual prompt
 369 granularity, with effects drifting across tasks and lacking precise control; other hidden intervention
 370 methods [13] use only a single directional vector, overlooking the semantic diversity of redundancy.
 371 In contrast, our proposed CATS requires no training, achieving 25% reasoning compression on
 372 different reasoning models by weighting and fusing six categories of differential vectors. It balances
 373 accuracy with interpretability, providing a plug-and-play, fine-grained, and cost-effective redundancy
 374 mitigation solution for resource-constrained scenarios.

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Question: Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper's contributions and scope?

Answer: [\[Yes\]](#)

Justification: The abstract and introduction of the paper accurately present its core contribution, which is proposing the CATS method to reduce redundancy in large inference models. Experimental results demonstrate that this method can shorten the inference length while maintaining or slightly improving accuracy. The paper clearly distinguishes between the classifications of "destructive redundancy" and "non-destructive redundancy," and it is noted that CATS is a lightweight method that does not require training, all of which are consistent with the experimental findings of the paper.

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