

CASPO : CONFIDENCE-AWARE STEP-WISE PREFERENCE OPTIMIZATION FOR RELIABLE REASONING IN LARGE LANGUAGE MODELS

Anonymous authors

Paper under double-blind review

ABSTRACT

Large language models (LLMs) have demonstrated strong performance on tasks requiring multi-step reasoning, from mathematical derivations to knowledge-intensive open-domain generation. However, even when LLMs produce correct final answers, their reasoning processes often involve uncertain or inconsistent steps, which makes them prone to failure when facing similar problems again. To address this issue, we introduce CASPO, a framework that incorporates step-wise confidence into both training and inference. During training, CASPO constructs confidence-filtered preference pairs that capture both correct but low-confidence predictions and incorrect predictions, and optimizes them through iterative Direct Preference Optimization. During inference, we propose Confidence-aware Thought (CaT) strategy that prunes low-confidence reasoning trajectories to enhance reliability. Experiments on 10 reasoning benchmarks and across diverse model families show that CASPO yields improvements in both step-wise faithfulness and final-answer accuracy. We also release a step-wise dataset with confidence annotations to facilitate fine-grained analysis of model reasoning and expose hidden inconsistencies in existing benchmarks.

1 INTRODUCTION

LLMs such as OpenAI-O1 (Jaech et al., 2024), DeepSeek-R1 (Guo et al., 2025), and Kimi-K1.5 (Team et al., 2025) have achieved remarkable progress on complex reasoning tasks, ranging from commonsense inference and mathematical problem solving to multi-hop question answering (Liu et al., 2025; Xiong et al., 2025; Hu et al., 2025). However, prior studies (Arcuschin et al.) reveal that correct final answers often conceal flawed intermediate reasoning. LLMs may mix valid and invalid derivations, yielding reasoning traces that are inconsistent, fabricated, or only loosely connected to the solution. This discrepancy highlights a critical risk: even if models occasionally reach the right conclusion, their uncertainty and misalignment at the step wise mean they may easily fail when faced with similar problems again. In high-stakes domains such as medical diagnosis, finance, and scientific research, such unreliability undermines trust, interpretability, and safe deployment (Blundell et al., 2015; Tomani & Buettner, 2021; Fadeeva et al., 2024).

Recent advances have primarily enhanced reasoning reliability at the trajectory level, treating the reasoning process as a whole. Chain-of-thought prompting (CoT) (Wei et al., 2022) improves performance by eliciting explicit intermediate steps, while self-consistency (Wang et al., 2022) stabilizes accuracy by aggregating multiple reasoning paths via majority voting. Preference-based optimization methods such as Group Relative Policy Optimization (GRPO) (Guo et al., 2025) further align outputs with preferred reasoning trajectories using verifiable rewards. More sophisticated frameworks have also emerged to optimize full reasoning paths, rStar-Math (Guan et al., 2025) introduces self-evolution through deep thinking. While this trajectory-centric paradigm overlooks the fine-grained reliability of individual reasoning steps, which are essential for ensuring logical soundness and generalizability across tasks. Consequently, answers may still be rest on or be distorted by partially flawed derivations, yielding solutions that appear correct but are logically unsound.

To address this limitation, several studies have introduced step-wise supervision to enhance intermediate reasoning quality. Step-wise preference optimization methods (Razghandi et al., 2025)

054 provide valuable intermediate guidance, while process-based self-rewarding frameworks incorporate
055 step-wise evaluation into reinforcement learning pipelines (Tu et al., 2025). Weakness-driven aug-
056 mentation strategies such as SwS (Liang et al., 2025) also highlight the benefits of diagnosing and
057 addressing systematic reasoning failures. Nevertheless, these methods remain limited: most depend
058 on heuristic feedback and do not explicitly connect step correctness with confidence, which often
059 results in confident but inconsistent reasoning.

060 Parallel efforts (Xu et al., 2024) have explored confidence estimation via token probabilities, but em-
061 pirical evidence (Arcuschin et al.; Li et al., 2025a) and our analysis show that token-level confidence
062 often reflects surface fluency or frequent patterns rather than genuine reasoning reliability. LLMs
063 often assign high probabilities to superficial or frequent tokens that are syntactically well-formed but
064 semantically irrelevant to the reasoning process, while underestimating uncertainty in steps that are
065 crucial for maintaining consistent and valid reasoning. This miscalibration highlights the need for a
066 principled approach to step-wise confidence modeling.

067 In light of these findings, our main insight is to enhance step-wise certainty by explicitly aligning
068 model confidence with step correctness, and by leveraging this alignment to guide reasoning during
069 inference. Motivated by this idea, we propose CASPO (Confidence-Aware Step-wise Preference
070 Optimization), a framework that integrates step-wise confidence into both training and inference.

071 During training, CASPO aligns confidence with correctness by constructing preference pairs that
072 include both correct-but-uncertain and incorrect predictions, which are optimized via iterative Direct
073 Preference Optimization (DPO). During inference, we introduce a Confidence-aware Thought (CaT)
074 strategy that uses cumulative confidence to guide the expansion and pruning of reasoning trajectories.
075 Together, this two-stage design directly addresses the tension between exploration and reliability,
076 ensuring that step-wise improvements propagate into more faithful and robust final answers.

077 Our contributions are summarized as follows: First, we propose CASPO, a framework that explicitly
078 incorporates step-wise confidence into both training and inference. By aligning confidence with
079 correctness during training and leveraging cumulative confidence to guide path expansion and pruning
080 during inference, the method effectively mitigates the tension between exploration and reliability.
081 Second, experiments on ten reasoning benchmarks show consistent gains: e.g., on Qwen2.5-7B-
082 Instruct, CASPO improves average accuracy from 44.4 to 50.6 (+6.2), and further reaches 56.1 with
083 confidence-aware inference. Moreover, our method demonstrates robust improvements not only on
084 out-of-domain tasks but also across different model families, indicating its generality and adaptability.
085 Finally, we release a step-wise dataset annotated with confidence scores, which provides fine-grained
086 supervision and reveals hidden inconsistencies in existing reasoning benchmarks. Code is available
087 at [:https://anonymous.4open.science/r/CASPO-102K](https://anonymous.4open.science/r/CASPO-102K).

088 2 RELATED WORK

091 **Large Reasoning Models.** The development of large reasoning models (LRMs) has progressed
092 from simple prompting to more sophisticated strategies. CoT showed that explicit step-by-step
093 reasoning improves performance on complex tasks, while Self-Consistency (Wang et al., 2022)
094 enhanced robustness by aggregating multiple reasoning paths. Recent systems such as OpenAI’s
095 o1 (Jaeck et al., 2024) and DeepSeek-r1 (Guo et al., 2025) emphasize post-training methods that
096 elicit extended reasoning traces for greater transparency and accuracy. In parallel, distillation
097 techniques (Hsieh et al., 2023) transfer high-quality reasoning trajectories to smaller models for
098 efficiency. For instance, (Guan et al., 2025) explicitly utilizes rationales from large teacher models to
099 supervise smaller students, reducing data requirements while maintaining performance. Structured
100 approaches such as Tree-of-Thoughts (Yao et al., 2023), Graph-of-Thoughts (Besta et al., 2024), and
101 reinforcement learning (Zhang et al., 2024; Li et al., 2025b; Zhang et al., 2025) further expand the
102 reasoning space, albeit often at high computational cost.

103 **Reasoning Process Verification.** As reasoning traces grow longer, ensuring their faithfulness
104 and reliability has become increasingly important. One line of work introduces process reward
105 models (PRMs) (Lightman et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2023), trained on datasets such as PRM800K
106 (Lightman et al., 2023), to score intermediate reasoning steps; works like PURE (Cheng et al., 2025)
107 refine step-wise credit assignment in reinforcement learning. Complementing these scoring methods,
approaches such as (Patnaik et al., 2025a;b) demonstrate that models can significantly enhance

reliability by learning from collaborative deliberation or selective rationale optimization, effectively utilizing mutual verification to distill high-quality reasoning patterns through preference ranking. Another direction explores self-verification (Lightman et al., 2023; Qu et al., 2024), where models attempt to detect and correct their own errors through reflection (Du et al., 2023) and consistency checks (Saunders et al., 2022). While fully autonomous self-correction remains challenging, recent studies suggest that combining self-verification with lightweight external supervision can improve reasoning reliability without incurring the heavy cost of large reward models.

Verification-Enhanced Reasoning. Beyond evaluation, recent work integrates verification directly into reasoning. Test-time scaling generates multiple candidate solutions and selects the most reliable one, improving accuracy at high computational cost. At training time, reinforcement learning with verifiable rewards (e.g., SimpleRL (Zeng et al., 2025), PURE (Cheng et al., 2025)) has been shown to iteratively refine reasoning ability by filtering or rewarding faithful traces. To further reduce reliance on explicit reward models, DPO-based approaches approximate reward signals with likelihood estimation, lowering overhead. Co-training frameworks that jointly optimize generator and verifier have also been explored (Ouyang et al., 2022), although challenges of scalability and stability remain. Grounded in these directions, CASPO differs from these collaborative or external-distillation approaches: rather than relying on multi-model collaboration or mimicking teacher preferences, it unifies training and inference through *intrinsic step-wise confidence calibration*, utilizing the student’s own token entropy to guide reliable reasoning paths.

3 METHODS

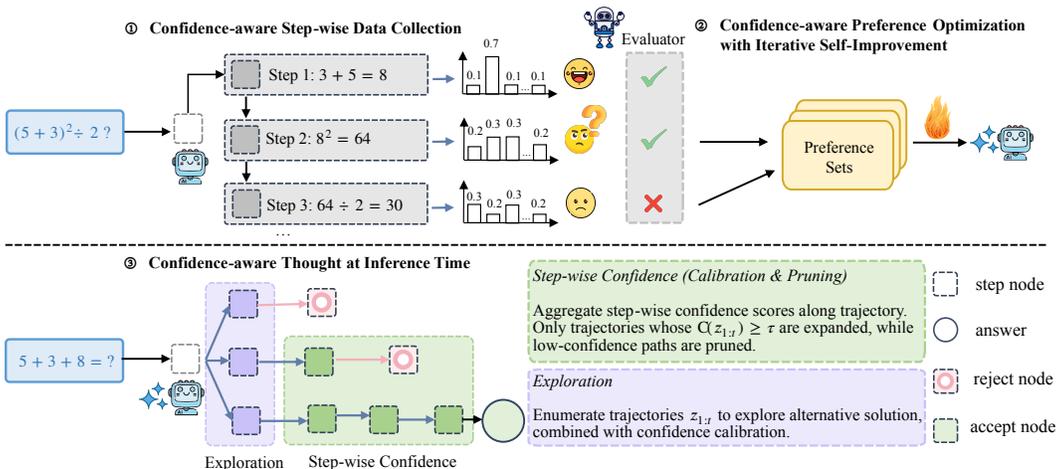


Figure 1: Overview of CASPO : Confidence-Guided Reasoning and Preference Optimization

In this section, we present the core design of CASPO , which integrates confidence estimation into both training and inference. As illustrated in Figure 1, our framework consists of two main phases: (i) Training with confidence-aware preference optimization, where step-wise data collection captures both low-confidence correctness and confident mistakes to guide preference learning, and (II) inference with a confidence-aware thoughts (CaT) strategy, where reasoning paths are dynamically expanded or pruned based on cumulative confidence.

3.1 MOTIVATION AND PRE-ANALYSIS

Recent progress (Wang et al., 2022; Zuo et al., 2025; Li et al., 2025b) in LRMs have demonstrated that sampling multiple candidate chains of thought can boost both robustness and accuracy. However, this practice also makes a central tension explicit: how to balance broad exploration of reasoning with faithful, stepwise verification. Excessive diversity invites plausible yet flawed traces, whereas excessive consistency collapses search into overly narrow trajectories. Either failure mode undermines reliability in real-world settings.

To address this issue, our objective is to enable models to assign a calibrated confidence estimate to each step within the reasoning process. Importantly, the framework seeks to ensure that high-confidence predictions are more reliably associated with correct reasoning. We propose a paradigm that integrates structured method enumeration with fine-grained, step-wise confidence estimation and external verification. The goal is twofold: to preserve the breadth of exploration across possible solution routes, while more accurately identifying and retaining genuinely correct reasoning. This formulation provides the foundation for the method described in the next section.

3.2 CASPO : CONFIDENCE-AWARE STEP-WISE PREFERENCE OPTIMIZATION

Confidence-aware Step-wise Data Collection. We consider an auto-regressive language model θ , which defines a next-token distribution $\pi_\theta(\cdot|x)$ given an input prompt x . Then, for each query $x \in \mathcal{D}$, suppose the reasoning path contains m steps. At step $i \in [1, m]$, the model conditions on the original problem and the partial chain-of-thought generated so far, forming an intermediate q_i , and produces a corresponding step-wise answer s_j , where $j \in [1, m]$. These step-wise predictions collectively lead to the final answer a . During generation, let the step answer s_j consist of tokens $\{t_l\}_{l=1}^L$, the confidence of this answer s_j is computed by the token entropy:

$$\text{confidence}(s_j|q_j) = -\frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^L \sum_{v \in \mathcal{V}} \pi_\theta(v|q_j) \log \pi_\theta(v|q_j) \quad (1)$$

Where L is the length of the step answer, \mathcal{V} is the vocabulary, and $\pi_\theta(v|q_j)$ denotes the predictive distribution over tokens v . Higher cumulative entropy indicates greater uncertainty and, hence, lower confidence in the generation. We adopt token-level entropy as our uncertainty metric because it captures the model’s intrinsic uncertainty during generation, avoiding the overconfidence bias and hallucination sensitivity inherent in frequency-based diversity measures. This reference-free criterion evaluates each candidate’s confidence independently of the ground truth.

To obtain reliable supervision, we employ Qwen2.5-Math-7B-Instruct as an external evaluator. The evaluator verifies whether the step-wise answer s_i is correct, and the model θ gives the confidence to the corresponding question q_j :

- If s_j is correct and high confidence, omit.
- If s_j is correct but has low confidence, set y_w to s_j , and y_l to the second highest probability word in $\pi_\theta(\cdot|x)$.
- If s_j is incorrect, set y_w to the correct answer and y_l to s_j .

Preference Optimization with Iterative Self-Improvement. Based on the step-centric dataset \mathcal{D} constructed in Algorithm 1, we form preference pairs (q_j, y_j^w, y_j^l) . This design ensures that both reliable but uncertain predictions and confidently wrong predictions contribute to preference learning.

The training objective follows the DPO formulation, which encourages the target model π_θ to increase the relative likelihood of the preferred answer compared to the dispreferred one:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{DPO}} = -\log \sigma \left(\beta \left[\log \frac{\pi_\theta(y_j^w|q_j)}{\pi_{\text{ref}}(y_j^w|q_j)} - \log \frac{\pi_\theta(y_j^l|q_j)}{\pi_{\text{ref}}(y_j^l|q_j)} \right] \right), \quad (2)$$

where β controls the strength of preference alignment.

To enable iterative self-improvement, we adopt an *Iterative DPO* scheme: at each iteration k , the target model π_{θ_k} is optimized using the above loss with respect to the previous model $\pi_{\text{ref}} = \pi_{\theta_{k-1}}$ as the reference. After optimization, we set $\pi_{\text{ref}} \leftarrow \pi_{\theta_k}$ for the next step. This iterative update makes the reference distribution progressively stronger, allowing the model to bootstrap its own improvements and continuously refine its reasoning preferences.

Confidence-aware Thought. After iterative preference optimization, the model not only learns to prefer correct reasoning steps but also calibrates its confidence estimation at each step. This enables a *Confidence-Aware Thought* (CaT) inference strategy: instead of committing to a single linear chain,

the model explores a reasoning tree where each node corresponds to a partial reasoning trajectory $z_{1:t} = (z_1, \dots, z_t)$ with an associated confidence score

$$C(z_{1:t}) = \prod_{i=1}^t \text{confidence}(z_i | z_{1:i-1}), \quad (3)$$

where $\text{conf}(z_i | z_{1:i-1})$ denotes the normalized confidence of reasoning step z_i given the previous context.

During inference, a path is expanded only if its cumulative confidence $C(z_{1:t})$ exceeds a threshold τ :

$$C(z_{1:t}) \geq \tau, \quad (4)$$

otherwise the path is pruned. In this way, the model self-regulates its reasoning: high-confidence trajectories are pursued, while uncertain or misleading trajectories are terminated early.

This confidence-aware pruning naturally acts as a *self-improvement* mechanism. Since paths with insufficient confidence are discarded, the search process prioritizes reliable reasoning steps without requiring external supervision. The resulting reasoning tree thus balances exploration and reliability, ensuring that generated solutions reflect both correctness and confidence.

4 EXPERIMENTS

In this section, we present the experimental setup used to assess CASPO and compare it with models trained by other state-of-the-art methods. In our main evaluation, we use consistent sampling settings across all reasoning models, with the default decoding parameters. More Training budgets (steps, batch size, total tokens, learning-rate schedule, and optimizer hyperparameters) detailed can be seen in Appendix A.

4.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETTINGS

Models. We conducted experiments with three open-source models: Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct (Grattafiori et al., 2024), Qwen2.5-Math-7B and Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct (Yang et al., 2024), which serve as our primary base models. To provide performance upper bounds, we further report results from large-scale models including GPT-4o (Jaech et al., 2024), o1-mini (o1 Team, 2024), and Claude-3.5-Sonnet (Anthropic, 2024), which are known for their strong reasoning capabilities. For answer calibration in training data, Qwen2.5-Math-7B-Instruct was used as the evaluator.

Baselines. We consider two categories of baselines: (i) *training-based methods*, which update model parameters from verifiable self-improvement signals, and (ii) *inference-time strategies*, which adjust decoding without modifying parameters.

Training-based methods (Table 1). We compare CASPO with four representative training-based methods that update model parameters from self-improvement signals, all relying on verifiable rewards but without additional SFT data. GRPO (Shao et al., 2024) is an off-policy group-relative policy optimization method: it leverages stored rollouts to compute verifiable rewards and optimizes relative advantages within a batch. Simple-RL-Zero (Zeng et al., 2025) adopts a lightweight PPO-style reinforcement learning setup trained solely with verifiable rewards; despite its simplicity, it still requires repeated on-policy sampling and updates, and the “Zero” denotes versions released at the time points. PURE-VR (Cheng et al., 2025) extends reinforcement learning to the trajectory level by propagating verifiable rewards across reasoning steps through a minimal credit assignment scheme. Finally, DPO-VP (Tu et al., 2025) applies iterative direct preference optimization on verifiable pairs of correct versus incorrect outputs, aligning the model policy through offline likelihood-based preference updates. These methods all treat reasoning at the trajectory level: they optimize which final answer is preferred but do not explicitly regulate the correctness or confidence of intermediate steps.

Inference-time strategies (Table 2). We also compare against reasoning-time methods that leave model parameters unchanged but influence the generation process. CoT (Kojima et al., 2022) unfolds intermediate reasoning steps; Self-Consistency (Wang et al., 2022) samples multiple reasoning chains and aggregates answers by majority vote; DiPT (Just et al., 2024) leverages diverse prompt

Table 1: Training-based comparison. Detailed performance of CASPO versus training-based baselines (GRPO (Guo et al., 2025), Simple-RL-Zero (Zeng et al., 2025), PURE-VR (Cheng et al., 2025), DPO-VP (Tu et al., 2025)) across multiple math benchmarks and base models. AIME24 is reported using two metrics: Pass@1 (single run) and Avg@32 (average score from 32 runs). AMC23 has 40 test items (2.5% per item).

Models	Math 500	Minerva Math	Olympiad Bench	AIME24 (Avg@ 1 / 32)	AMC23	Avg
Claude-3.5-Sonnet	78.3	-	32.5	16.0	57.5	46.1
GPT-4o	76.6	-	43.3	9.3	47.5	44.2
o1-mini	90.0	-	65.3	56.7	95.0	76.8
Qwen2.5-Math-7B-Instruct	76.4	33.5	38.4	20.0	62.5	46.2
Qwen2.5-Math-7B	64.8	15.4	25.6	16.7	37.5	32.0
+ GRPO	76.2	32.7	38.1	16.7	55.0	43.7
+ Simple-RL-Zero	78.0	33.1	36.6	20.0	57.5	45.0
+ PURE-VR	79.8	36.8	41.9	20.0	57.5	47.5
+ DPO-VP	74.8	35.3	36.9	23.3	60.0	46.1
+ CASPO	76.6	37.8	43.8	23.3	62.5	48.8
Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct	76.2	37.6	43.0	13.3	52.5	44.4
+ GRPO	79.0	41.0	46.5	13.3	55.0	46.6
+ Simple-RL-Zero	80.2	41.5	45.8	16.7	57.5	47.8
+ PURE-VR	81.5	43.0	47.5	16.7	57.5	48.9
+ DPO-VP	79.8	42.5	46.2	20.0	60.0	49.1
+ CASPO	82.0	44.0	48.3	20.0	62.5	50.6
Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct	49.6	13.2	23.5	6.7	27.5	24.1
+ GRPO	52.0	15.0	25.0	6.7	30.0	25.5
+ Simple-RL-Zero	53.2	15.5	25.6	10.0	30.0	26.9
+ PURE-VR	54.0	16.0	26.8	10.0	32.5	27.6
+ DPO-VP	54.8	16.5	27.2	13.3	32.5	28.8
+ CASPO	55.2	15.6	27.6	13.3	35.0	29.1

templates to enhance coverage. While these methods improve robustness, they operate without explicit confidence calibration and may retain logically inconsistent reasoning paths.

Our method differs from both categories by unifying them into a *two-stage framework*. At the training stage, CASPO introduces step-wise confidence-aware preference optimization, leveraging both correct-but-uncertain and confidently-incorrect predictions as informative signals to align confidence with correctness at the step-wise. At the inference stage, it incorporates *CaT*, which dynamically expands or prunes reasoning trajectories according to cumulative step-wise confidence. Together, these two stages ensure that improvements accumulate across intermediate steps during training and are faithfully exploited at inference, achieving both stronger supervision and more reliable search than prior baselines.

Evaluation and Benchmarks. Our main evaluation focuses on mathematical reasoning benchmarks widely used in prior research, including MATH500 (subset of the MATH test set) (Lightman et al., 2023), Minerva-Math (Lewkowycz et al., 2022), and OlympiadBench (He et al., 2024), as well as competition-level benchmarks AMC2023 (MAA, a) and AIME2024 (MAA, b).

Beyond mathematics, we also examine the general reasoning transferability of the models on diverse out-of-domain benchmarks. These cover board game reasoning (BoardgameQA, BGQA) (Kazemi et al., 2023), code reasoning (CRUXEval, CRUX) (Gu et al., 2024), commonsense reasoning (StrategyQA, STGQA) (Geva et al., 2021), tabular reasoning (TableBench) (Wu et al., 2025), and STEM-specific reasoning (STEM subsets of MMLU-Pro) (Wang et al., 2024). This suite spans multiple disciplines, including physics, chemistry, computer science, engineering, biology, and economics, ensuring that CASPO is evaluated not only on mathematical tasks but also across a broad spectrum of reasoning challenges. More detailed can be seen in Appendix A.2.

Table 2: Inference-time comparison. Results of different inference strategies (CoT (Wei et al., 2022; Kojima et al., 2022), Self-Consistency(Wang et al., 2022), DiPT (Just et al., 2024), CaT) applied on top of CASPO-trained models. All methods are evaluated on the same math benchmarks with identical training; only inference-time strategies differ.

Models	Math 500	Minerva Math	Olympiad Bench	AIME24 (Avg@1/32)	AMC23	Avg
Qwen2.5-Math-7B-CASPO	76.6	37.8	43.8	23.3	62.5	48.8
+ CoT	78.2	38.6	44.7	23.3	63.8	49.7
+ Self-Consistency	79.6	39.3	45.6	26.7	65.0	51.2
+ DiPT	80.0	39.5	45.8	23.3	65.0	50.7
+ CaT (Ours)	81.9	40.5	46.9	26.7	67.5	52.7
Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct-CASPO	82.0	44.0	48.3	20.0	62.5	50.6
+ CoT	83.6	44.9	49.3	20.0	63.8	52.3
+ Self-Consistency	85.3	45.8	50.2	23.3	65.0	53.9
+ DiPT	85.7	46.0	50.5	20.0	65.0	53.4
+ CaT (Ours)	87.7	47.1	51.7	26.7	67.5	56.1
Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct-CASPO	55.2	15.6	27.6	13.3	35.0	29.1
+ CoT	56.3	15.9	28.1	13.3	36.3	30.0
+ Self-Consistency	57.4	16.2	28.7	16.7	37.5	31.3
+ DiPT	57.7	16.3	28.8	13.3	37.5	30.7
+ CaT (Ours)	59.1	16.7	29.5	20.0	40.0	33.1

4.2 MAIN RESULTS

Training-based comparison. Table 1 compares CASPO with training baselines under matched training and inference budgets. Across all three bases, CASPO delivers consistent gains; e.g., with **Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct** it reaches an Avg of **50.6**, surpassing GRPO, Simple-RL-Zero, PURE-VR, and DPO-VP. These improvements arise from *step-wise confidence-aware preference learning*, which better aligns probabilities with intermediate-step correctness. Figure 5 shows accuracy trends: despite occasional noise from ambiguous items, the overall trajectory is monotonic, indicating stable self-improvement as calibration accumulates.

Inference-time comparison. Table 2 evaluates inference strategies on *CASPO-trained* models under the same sampling budget ($K=10$). The number of generated path K is set to 10, the choice supported by previous research (Zhang et al., 2023; Duan et al., 2023; Qiu & Miikkulainen, 2024; Fadeeva et al., 2024; Razghandi et al., 2025). Both Self-Consistency and CaT yield larger deltas on CASPO models than on instruct-tuned counterparts, showing that training-time calibration transfers to inference-time search. Specifically, CaT achieves the best averages across bases while keeping the sampling budget fixed.

Out-of-Domain Transferability Although CASPO is trained on mathematical data, it transfers reliably to non-math reasoning under the same prompts and sampling budget. As shown in Table 3, CASPO consistently improves performance across diverse benchmarks, including commonsense reasoning (STGQA), code reasoning (CRUX), tabular reasoning (TableBench), and STEM knowledge (MMLU-Pro STEM). For MMLU-Pro STEM, Across 6 STEM subsets (physics, chemistry, computer science, engineering, biology, economics; 5,371 problems in total), CASPO improves Qwen2.5-Math-7B from 52.8 to 57.2, Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct from 58.2 to 61.6, and Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct from 47.6 to 50.5. These gains demonstrate that step-wise aggregation generalizes beyond mathematics, providing a lightweight yet robust inference-time strategy for diverse reasoning challenges.

4.3 ANALYSIS

Training Dynamics. Following prior work on DPO training dynamics (Ren & Sutherland, 2024), we examine reward evolution during optimization. As shown in Figure 2, all models exhibit the expected dual-pressure mechanism: chosen rewards initially drop before recovering near zero, while rejected rewards decrease monotonically, confirming the theoretical framework of simultaneous

Table 3: Consistent out-of-domain reasoning enhancement with CASPO : Achieving generalization at equivalent model scales beyond mathematical training.

Models	BGQA	CRUX	STGQA	TableBench	MMLU-STEM	Avg
Qwen2.5-Math-7B	48.0	50.0	88.0	38.0	40.0	52.8
+ GRPO	50.5	53.0	89.5	39.0	42.0	54.8
+ Simple-RL-Zero	51.5	53.5	90.0	40.0	42.5	55.5
+ PURE-VR	52.0	54.0	90.5	40.5	43.0	56.0
+ DPO-VP	52.5	54.5	91.0	41.0	43.5	56.5
+ CASPO	53.5	55.5	91.5	41.5	44.0	57.2
+ CASPO + CaT	56.2	58.3	96.1	43.6	46.2	60.1
Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct	53.0	58.1	91.3	43.2	45.2	58.2
+ GRPO	54.5	59.9	92.1	44.0	46.2	59.3
+ Simple-RL-Zero	55.5	60.9	92.5	44.4	46.7	60.0
+ PURE-VR	56.0	61.4	92.8	44.7	47.0	60.4
+ DPO-VP	56.8	62.1	93.3	45.2	47.4	61.0
+ CASPO	57.5	62.9	93.8	45.7	48.0	61.6
+ CASPO + CaT	60.4	66.0	98.5	48.0	50.4	64.7
Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct	40.0	45.0	82.0	35.0	36.0	47.6
+ GRPO	41.5	46.5	83.0	35.8	37.0	48.8
+ Simple-RL-Zero	42.0	47.0	83.5	36.2	37.2	49.2
+ PURE-VR	42.5	47.5	83.8	36.5	37.5	49.6
+ DPO-VP	43.0	48.0	84.2	37.0	38.0	50.0
+ CASPO	43.5	48.5	84.5	37.5	38.5	50.5
+ CASPO + CaT	45.7	51.0	88.8	39.4	40.4	53.1

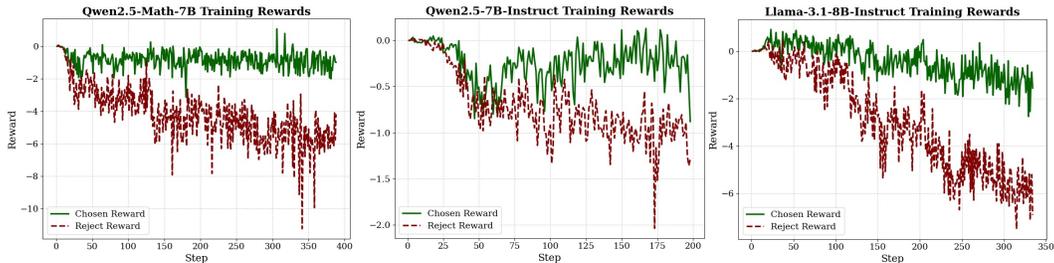


Figure 2: Reward evolution during DPO training across Qwen2.5-Math-7B, Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct, and Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct models

upward and downward pressures. For completeness, we also examine the evolution of training accuracy and loss, with the corresponding curves provided in Appendix C.

Our results reveal clear model-specific patterns: Qwen2.5-Math-7B converges the fastest and with the greatest stability, achieving the largest reward separation of about 6.0. This reflects its strong alignment with mathematical reasoning preferences, strengthened by domain-specific pre-training. Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct converges efficiently within 200 steps, reaching a moderate separation of about 1.5, which indicates a balance between training efficiency and preference learning. Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct shows higher volatility during optimization but eventually achieves a separation comparable to the Math model, although this requires more careful tuning of hyperparameters.

The evolution of training accuracy and loss closely mirrors the reward dynamics. As chosen rewards recover and separate from rejected ones, accuracy steadily increases and stabilizes at a high level, indicating that the models are learning to generate consistently preferred responses. At the same time, the training loss decreases in a smooth downward trajectory, with sharper drops aligning with phases of rapid accuracy improvement. These observations reinforce the interpretation that reward separation not only drives preference alignment at the signal level but also translates into tangible accuracy gains and more confident optimization. Together, the three perspectives—reward, accuracy, and loss—offer a coherent view of how DPO training progresses and validate the robustness of our implementation across different base models.

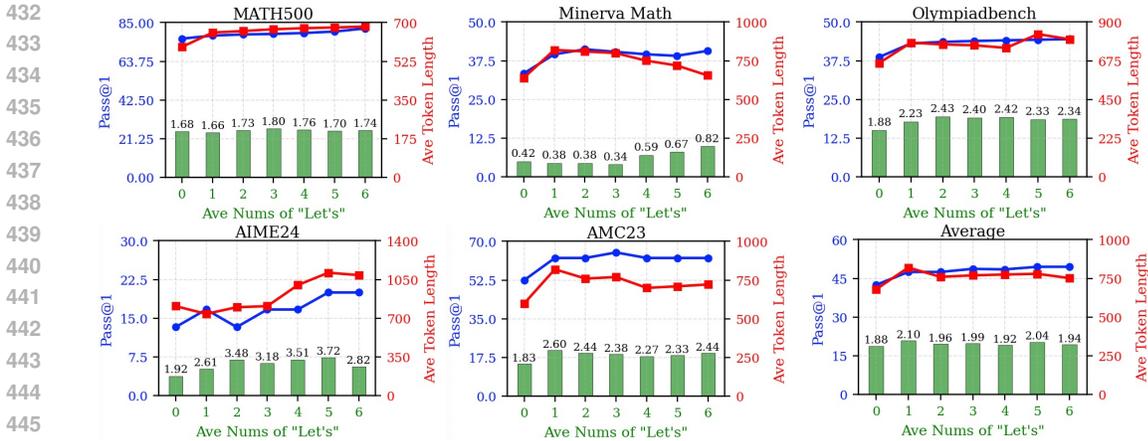


Figure 3: Pass@1 accuracy improves consistently across DPO rounds without a substantial increase in token length. Meanwhile, the use of self-talk triggers (Let’s) declines or stabilizes, suggesting that DPO guides models toward more concise and targeted reasoning.

Token Length and Reasoning Pattern Evolution. Across multiple rounds of DPO training, Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct shows steadily increasing Pass@1 accuracy on math benchmarks, while the overall token length of generated solutions remains relatively stable, indicating that performance gains are not driven by longer reasoning chains. To capture shifts in reasoning task, we follow prior studies (Zhou et al., 2025) and use the frequency of the self-talk trigger (let’s) as a proxy (Tu et al., 2025) for explicit self-checking. As shown in Figure 3, we observe a gradual decline in its occurrence, suggesting that the model reduces redundant self-reflection and instead relies more directly on preference signals optimized by DPO to produce correct answers. This pattern implies that training does not create a new reflective ability but rather strengthens the model’s existing tendency to self-check, enabling it to achieve higher-quality reasoning with fewer triggers and without additional inference cost.

4.4 ABLATIONS

Iterative Training. To understand the effect of iterative training, we let CASPO run for three rounds, where in each round the current best model generates fresh step-wise data for the next update. This setup differs from standard multi-epoch fine-tuning, since the data distribution itself evolves with the model. As shown in Figure 4, all benchmarks improve steadily across the three iterations. The first round contributes the largest boost—for example, Math500 jumps from 64.8 to 76.6 and AMC23 rises from 37.5 to 60.0 in a single step. Later rounds still bring non-trivial but smaller gains, such as OlympiaBench from 37.8 to 38.7, and AMC23 from 60.0 to 62.5. This pattern suggests a natural dynamic: the first iteration corrects the most obvious miscalibrations, while subsequent iterations act more like refinements, gradually aligning confidence with reasoning quality. Overall, the results support our claim that step-wise iterative self-generation creates a positive feedback loop—better models produce better training data, and better data in turn makes the models stronger.

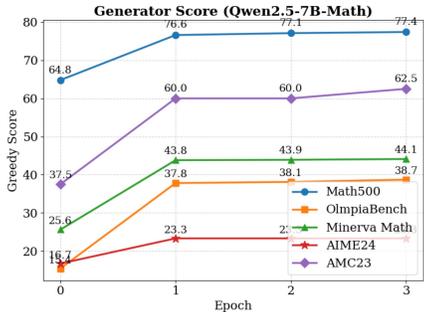


Figure 4: Effect of Iterative Training with CASPO on Qwen2.5-7B-Math across Multiple Benchmarks.

Balance between Diversity and Reliability. The ablation studies complement the comparisons in Table 2 by highlighting how CASPO reshapes the balance between diversity and reliability. Models trained with CASPO already benefit from more accurate confidence signals, which makes the candidates generated under pass@k sampling more dependable. Consequently, when diversity is introduced through sampling, the resulting pool of answers contains less noise and better reflects the model’s calibrated preferences. On top of this, aggregation strategies such as majority voting or

Self-Consistency further amplify the advantage: instead of averaging over unreliable candidates, they combine multiple high-quality and well-calibrated reasoning paths. This explains why methods like CaT deliver consistently stronger gains when applied to CASPO-trained models, not only improving average performance but also enhancing stability across benchmarks.

5 CONCLUSION

This work investigates the limitations of large language models in generating faithful intermediate reasoning, where correct final answers may sometimes result from logically inconsistent steps. We introduce CASPO, a framework that unifies confidence-aware preference optimization in training with confidence-guided self-revision at inference, aligning step-wise confidence with correctness and using it to refine reasoning trajectories. Experimental results on mathematical and out-of-domain benchmarks demonstrate that CASPO consistently enhances both accuracy and reasoning faithfulness compared to strong baselines, indicating its potential to support further advances in multi-step reasoning with LLMs.

Limitations. While CASPO shows consistent gains across benchmarks and model families, it also has limitations. It currently relies on an external evaluator for step-wise verification, which may introduce bias, and its entropy-based confidence estimation may not fully capture uncertainty. Future work could explore self-contained verification and more advanced calibration methods to further improve robustness and generality.

ETHICAL STATEMENT

Our method enhances reasoning performance through step-wise optimization, enabling language models to generate more reliable and interpretable solutions. While this contributes positively to building trustworthy AI systems, stronger reasoning ability may also amplify risks if misapplied in sensitive domains. We therefore encourage researchers and practitioners to adopt CASPO responsibly, with careful consideration of downstream applications and potential societal impacts.

LARGE LANGUAGE MODEL USAGE

During the preparation of this manuscript, LLMs were employed exclusively for editorial purposes, including language polishing, grammar correction, and style refinement. Their use was restricted to improving readability and presentation. LLMs did not contribute to the conception of ideas, experimental design, analysis, or interpretation of results. All scientific content is solely the work of the authors.

REFERENCES

- Anthropic. Claude 3.5 sonnet. <https://www.anthropic.com/news/claude-3-5-sonnet>, 2024.
- Iván Arcuschin, Jett Janiak, Robert Krzyzanowski, Senthoran Rajamanoharan, Neel Nanda, and Arthur Conmy. Chain-of-thought reasoning in the wild is not always faithful, 2025. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2503.08679>.
- Maciej Besta, Nils Blach, Ales Kubicek, Robert Gerstenberger, Michal Podstawski, Lukas Gianinazzi, Joanna Gajda, Tomasz Lehmann, Hubert Niewiadomski, Piotr Nyczyk, et al. Graph of thoughts: Solving elaborate problems with large language models. In *Proceedings of the AAAI conference on artificial intelligence*, volume 38, pp. 17682–17690, 2024.
- Charles Blundell, Julien Cornebise, Koray Kavukcuoglu, and Daan Wierstra. Weight uncertainty in neural network. In *International conference on machine learning*, pp. 1613–1622. PMLR, 2015.
- Jie Cheng, Ruixi Qiao, Lijun Li, Chao Guo, Junle Wang, Gang Xiong, Yisheng Lv, and Fei-Yue Wang. Stop summation: Min-form credit assignment is all process reward model needs for reasoning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2504.15275*, 2025.

- 540 Yilun Du, Shuang Li, Antonio Torralba, Joshua B Tenenbaum, and Igor Mordatch. Improving
541 factuality and reasoning in language models through multiagent debate. In *Forty-first International*
542 *Conference on Machine Learning*, 2023.
- 543
544 Jinhao Duan, Hao Cheng, Shiqi Wang, Alex Zavalny, Chenan Wang, Renjing Xu, Bhavya Kailkhura,
545 and Kaidi Xu. Shifting attention to relevance: Towards the predictive uncertainty quantification of
546 free-form large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.01379*, 2023.
- 547 Ekaterina Fadeeva, Aleksandr Rubashevskii, Artem Shelmanov, Sergey Petrakov, Haonan Li, Hamdy
548 Mubarak, Evgenii Tsymbalov, Gleb Kuzmin, Alexander Panchenko, Timothy Baldwin, et al.
549 Fact-checking the output of large language models via token-level uncertainty quantification. *arXiv*
550 *preprint arXiv:2403.04696*, 2024.
- 551 Mor Geva, Daniel Khashabi, Elad Segal, Tushar Khot, Dan Roth, and Jonathan Berant. Did aristotle
552 use a laptop? a question answering benchmark with implicit reasoning strategies. *Transactions of*
553 *the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 9:346–361, 2021.
- 554
555 Aaron Grattafiori, Abhimanyu Dubey, Abhinav Jauhri, Abhinav Pandey, Abhishek Kadian, Ahmad
556 Al-Dahle, Aiesha Letman, Akhil Mathur, Alan Schelten, Alex Vaughan, et al. The llama 3 herd of
557 models. *arXiv:2407.21783*, 2024.
- 558
559 Alex Gu, Baptiste Rozière, Hugh Leather, Armando Solar-Lezama, Gabriel Synnaeve, and Sida I
560 Wang. Cruxeval: A benchmark for code reasoning, understanding and execution. *arXiv preprint*
561 *arXiv:2401.03065*, 2024.
- 562 Xinyu Guan, Li Lina Zhang, Yifei Liu, Ning Shang, Youran Sun, Yi Zhu, Fan Yang, and Mao Yang.
563 rstar-math: Small llms can master math reasoning with self-evolved deep thinking. *arXiv preprint*
564 *arXiv:2501.04519*, 2025.
- 565
566 Daya Guo, Dejian Yang, Haowei Zhang, Junxiao Song, Ruoyu Zhang, Runxin Xu, Qihao Zhu,
567 Shirong Ma, Peiyi Wang, Xiao Bi, et al. Deepseek-r1: Incentivizing reasoning capability in llms
568 via reinforcement learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2501.12948*, 2025.
- 569 Chaoqun He, Renjie Luo, Yuzhuo Bai, Shengding Hu, Zhen Leng Thai, Junhao Shen, Jinyi Hu,
570 Xu Han, Yujie Huang, Yuxiang Zhang, et al. Olympiadbench: A challenging benchmark for
571 promoting agi with olympiad-level bilingual multimodal scientific problems. *arXiv preprint*
572 *arXiv:2402.14008*, 2024.
- 573
574 Dan Hendrycks, Collin Burns, Steven Basart, Andy Zou, Mantas Mazeika, Dawn Song, and
575 Jacob Steinhardt. Measuring massive multitask language understanding. *arXiv preprint*
576 *arXiv:2009.03300*, 2020.
- 577
578 Dan Hendrycks, Collin Burns, Saurav Kadavath, Akul Arora, Steven Basart, Eric Tang, Dawn Song,
579 and Jacob Steinhardt. Measuring mathematical problem solving with the math dataset. *arXiv*
preprint arXiv:2103.03874, 2021.
- 580
581 Cheng-Yu Hsieh, Chun-Liang Li, Chih-Kuan Yeh, Hootan Nakhost, Yasuhisa Fujii, Alex Ratner,
582 Ranjay Krishna, Chen-Yu Lee, and Tomas Pfister. Distilling step-by-step! outperforming larger
583 language models with less training data and smaller model sizes. In *Findings of the Association*
584 *for Computational Linguistics: ACL 2023*, pp. 8003–8017, 2023.
- 585
586 Jian Hu, Xibin Wu, Wei Shen, Jason Klein Liu, Zilin Zhu, Weixun Wang, Songlin Jiang, Haoran
587 Wang, Hao Chen, Bin Chen, et al. Openrlhf: An easy-to-use, scalable and high-performance rlhf
framework. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2405.11143*, 2024.
- 588
589 Jingcheng Hu, Yinmin Zhang, Qi Han, Daxin Jiang, Xiangyu Zhang, and Heung-Yeung Shum.
590 Open-reasoner-zero: An open source approach to scaling up reinforcement learning on the base
591 model. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2503.24290*, 2025.
- 592
593 Aaron Jaech, Adam Kalai, Adam Lerer, Adam Richardson, Ahmed El-Kishky, Aiden Low, Alec
Helyar, Aleksander Madry, Alex Beutel, Alex Carney, et al. Openai o1 system card. *arXiv preprint*
arXiv:2412.16720, 2024.

- 594 Hoang Anh Just, Mahavir Dabas, Lifu Huang, Ming Jin, and Ruoxi Jia. Dipt: Enhancing llm
595 reasoning through diversified perspective-taking. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2409.06241*, 2024.
596
- 597 Mehran Kazemi, Quan Yuan, Deepti Bhatia, Najoung Kim, Xin Xu, Vaiva Imbrasaite, and Deepak
598 Ramachandran. Boardgameqa: A dataset for natural language reasoning with contradictory
599 information. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36:39052–39074, 2023.
600
- 601 Takeshi Kojima, Shixiang Shane Gu, Machel Reid, Yutaka Matsuo, and Yusuke Iwasawa. Large
602 language models are zero-shot reasoners. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 35:
603 22199–22213, 2022.
- 604 Aitor Lewkowycz, Anders Andreassen, David Dohan, Ethan Dyer, Henryk Michalewski, Vinay Ra-
605 masesh, Ambrose Slone, Cem Anil, Imanol Schlag, Theo Gutman-Solo, et al. Solving quantitative
606 reasoning problems with language models. *Advances in neural information processing systems*,
607 35:3843–3857, 2022.
- 608 Xiaomin Li, Zhou Yu, Zhiwei Zhang, Xupeng Chen, Ziji Zhang, Yingying Zhuang, Narayanan
609 Sadagopan, and Anurag Beniwal. When thinking fails: The pitfalls of reasoning for instruction-
610 following in llms. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2505.11423*, 2025a.
611
- 612 Yizhi Li, Qingshui Gu, Zhoufutu Wen, Ziniu Li, Tianshun Xing, Shuyue Guo, Tianyu Zheng, Xin
613 Zhou, Xingwei Qu, Wangchunshu Zhou, et al. Treepo: Bridging the gap of policy optimiza-
614 tion and efficacy and inference efficiency with heuristic tree-based modeling. *arXiv preprint*
615 *arXiv:2508.17445*, 2025b.
- 616 Xiao Liang, Zhong-Zhi Li, Yeyun Gong, Yang Wang, Hengyuan Zhang, Yelong Shen, Ying Nian Wu,
617 and Weizhu Chen. Sws: Self-aware weakness-driven problem synthesis in reinforcement learning
618 for llm reasoning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2506.08989*, 2025.
619
- 620 Hunter Lightman, Vineet Kosaraju, Yuri Burda, Harrison Edwards, Bowen Baker, Teddy Lee, Jan
621 Leike, John Schulman, Ilya Sutskever, and Karl Cobbe. Let’s verify step by step. In *The Twelfth*
622 *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2023.
- 623 Zichen Liu, Changyu Chen, Wenjun Li, Penghui Qi, Tianyu Pang, Chao Du, Wee Sun Lee, and Min
624 Lin. Understanding r1-zero-like training: A critical perspective. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2503.20783*,
625 2025.
626
- 627 MAA. American mathematics competitions (AMC 10/12). Mathematics Competition Series, 2023a.
628 URL <https://maa.org/math-competitions/amc>.
- 629 MAA. American invitational mathematics examination (AIME). Mathematics Competition Series,
630 2024b. URL <https://maa.org/math-competitions/aime>.
631
- 632 Skywork o1 Team. Skywork-o1 open series. <https://huggingface.co/Skywork>, Novem-
633 ber 2024. URL <https://huggingface.co/Skywork>.
- 634 Long Ouyang, Jeffrey Wu, Xu Jiang, Diogo Almeida, Carroll Wainwright, Pamela Mishkin, Chong
635 Zhang, Sandhini Agarwal, Katarina Slama, Alex Ray, et al. Training language models to follow
636 instructions with human feedback. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 35:27730–
637 27744, 2022.
638
- 639 Sohan Patnaik, Milan Aggarwal, Sumit Bhatia, and Balaji Krishnamurthy. It helps to take a second
640 opinion: Teaching smaller llms to deliberate mutually via selective rationale optimisation. *arXiv*
641 *preprint arXiv:2503.02463*, 2025a.
- 642 Sohan Patnaik, Milan Aggarwal, Sumit Bhatia, and Balaji Krishnamurthy. Learning together to
643 perform better: Teaching small-scale llms to collaborate via preferential rationale tuning. *arXiv*
644 *preprint arXiv:2506.02519*, 2025b.
645
- 646 Xin Qiu and Risto Miikkulainen. Semantic density: Uncertainty quantification for large language
647 models through confidence measurement in semantic space. *Advances in neural information*
processing systems, 37:134507–134533, 2024.

- 648 Yuxiao Qu, Tianjun Zhang, Naman Garg, and Aviral Kumar. Recursive introspection: Teaching
649 language model agents how to self-improve. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*,
650 37:55249–55285, 2024.
- 651 Ali Razghandi, Seyed Mohammad Hadi Hosseini, and Mahdieh Soleymani Baghshah. Cer: Confi-
652 dence enhanced reasoning in llms. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2502.14634*, 2025.
- 653 Yi Ren and Danica J Sutherland. Learning dynamics of llm finetuning. *arXiv preprint*
654 *arXiv:2407.10490*, 2024.
- 655 William Saunders, Catherine Yeh, Jeff Wu, Steven Bills, Long Ouyang, Jonathan Ward, and Jan
656 Leike. Self-critiquing models for assisting human evaluators. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2206.05802*,
657 2022.
- 658 Zhihong Shao, Peiyi Wang, Qihao Zhu, Runxin Xu, Junxiao Song, Xiao Bi, Haowei Zhang,
659 Mingchuan Zhang, YK Li, Yang Wu, et al. Deepseekmath: Pushing the limits of mathemat-
660 ical reasoning in open language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.03300*, 2024.
- 661 Kimi Team, Angang Du, Bofei Gao, Bowei Xing, Changjiu Jiang, Cheng Chen, Cheng Li, Chenjun
662 Xiao, Chenzhuang Du, Chonghua Liao, et al. Kimi k1. 5: Scaling reinforcement learning with
663 llms. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2501.12599*, 2025.
- 664 Christian Tomani and Florian Buettner. Towards trustworthy predictions from deep neural networks
665 with fast adversarial calibration. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*,
666 volume 35, pp. 9886–9896, 2021.
- 667 Songjun Tu, Jiahao Lin, Xiangyu Tian, Qichao Zhang, Linjing Li, Yuqian Fu, Nan Xu, Wei He, Xi-
668 angyuan Lan, Dongmei Jiang, et al. Enhancing llm reasoning with iterative dpo: A comprehensive
669 empirical investigation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2503.12854*, 2025.
- 670 Peiyi Wang, Lei Li, Zhihong Shao, RX Xu, Damai Dai, Yifei Li, Deli Chen, Yu Wu, and Zhifang Sui.
671 Math-shepherd: Verify and reinforce llms step-by-step without human annotations. *arXiv preprint*
672 *arXiv:2312.08935*, 2023.
- 673 Xuezhi Wang, Jason Wei, Dale Schuurmans, Quoc Le, Ed Chi, Sharan Narang, Aakanksha Chowdh-
674 ery, and Denny Zhou. Self-consistency improves chain of thought reasoning in language models.
675 *arXiv preprint arXiv:2203.11171*, 2022.
- 676 Yubo Wang, Xueguang Ma, Ge Zhang, Yuansheng Ni, Abhranil Chandra, Shiguang Guo, Weiming
677 Ren, Aaran Arulraj, Xuan He, Ziyang Jiang, et al. Mmlu-pro: A more robust and challenging multi-
678 task language understanding benchmark. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 37:
679 95266–95290, 2024.
- 680 Jason Wei, Xuezhi Wang, Dale Schuurmans, Maarten Bosma, Fei Xia, Ed Chi, Quoc V Le, Denny
681 Zhou, et al. Chain-of-thought prompting elicits reasoning in large language models. *Advances in*
682 *neural information processing systems*, 35:24824–24837, 2022.
- 683 Xianjie Wu, Jian Yang, Linzheng Chai, Ge Zhang, Jiaheng Liu, Xeron Du, Di Liang, Daixin Shu,
684 Xianfu Cheng, Tianzhen Sun, et al. Tablebench: A comprehensive and complex benchmark
685 for table question answering. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*,
686 volume 39, pp. 25497–25506, 2025.
- 687 Wei Xiong, Jiarui Yao, Yuhui Xu, Bo Pang, Lei Wang, Doyen Sahoo, Junnan Li, Nan Jiang, Tong
688 Zhang, Caiming Xiong, et al. A minimalist approach to llm reasoning: from rejection sampling to
689 reinforce. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2504.11343*, 2025.
- 690 Yuancheng Xu, Udari Madhushani Sehwag, Alec Koppel, Sicheng Zhu, Bang An, Furong Huang,
691 and Sumitra Ganesh. Genarm: Reward guided generation with autoregressive reward model for
692 test-time alignment. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2410.08193*, 2024.
- 693 An Yang, Baosong Yang, Beichen Zhang, Binyuan Hui, Bo Zheng, Bowen Yu, Chengyuan Li,
694 Dayiheng Liu, Fei Huang, Haoran Wei, et al. Qwen2.5 technical report. *arXiv:2412.15115*, 2024.

702 Shunyu Yao, Dian Yu, Jeffrey Zhao, Izhak Shafran, Tom Griffiths, Yuan Cao, and Karthik Narasimhan.
703 Tree of thoughts: Deliberate problem solving with large language models. *Advances in neural*
704 *information processing systems*, 36:11809–11822, 2023.

705
706 Weihao Zeng, Yuzhen Huang, Qian Liu, Wei Liu, Keqing He, Zejun Ma, and Junxian He. Simplerl-
707 zoo: Investigating and taming zero reinforcement learning for open base models in the wild. *arXiv*
708 *preprint arXiv:2503.18892*, 2025.

709 Dan Zhang, Sining Zhoubian, Ziniu Hu, Yisong Yue, Yuxiao Dong, and Jie Tang. Rest-mcts*: Llm
710 self-training via process reward guided tree search. *Advances in Neural Information Processing*
711 *Systems*, 37:64735–64772, 2024.

712
713 Jiaxin Zhang, Zhuohang Li, Kamalika Das, Bradley A Malin, and Sricharan Kumar. Sac3: reliable
714 hallucination detection in black-box language models via semantic-aware cross-check consistency.
715 *arXiv preprint arXiv:2311.01740*, 2023.

716 Shimao Zhang, Xiao Liu, Xin Zhang, Junxiao Liu, Zheheng Luo, Shujian Huang, and Yeyun Gong.
717 Process-based self-rewarding language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2503.03746*, 2025.

718
719 Hengguang Zhou, Xirui Li, Ruochen Wang, Minhao Cheng, Tianyi Zhou, and Cho-Jui Hsieh. R1-
720 zero's "aha moment" in visual reasoning on a 2b non-sft model. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2503.05132*,
721 2025.

722 Yuxin Zuo, Kaiyan Zhang, Shang Qu, Li Sheng, Xuekai Zhu, Biqing Qi, Youbang Sun, Ganqu
723 Cui, Ning Ding, and Bowen Zhou. Ttrl: Test-time reinforcement learning, 2025. URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2504.16084>.
724
725
726
727
728
729
730
731
732
733
734
735
736
737
738
739
740
741
742
743
744
745
746
747
748
749
750
751
752
753
754
755

In this appendix, we provide comprehensive information on the Experimental Setup A, Critic Evaluation Process B, and Additional Results C.

A EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

A.1 DETAILS OF TRAINING AND EVALUATION

The base models include Qwen2.5-Math-7B, Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct, and Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct. All model-centric training was conducted with full-parameter fine-tuning using the Open-RLHF framework Hu et al. (2024). Random seeds are fixed at 42 for reproducibility. All experiments are trained on 4 NVIDIA A800 GPUs (80GB) with mixed-precision (FP16) enabled.

Optimization hyperparameters. The SFT stage uses a learning rate of 5×10^{-6} , while the Direct Preference Optimization (DPO) stage adopts 5×10^{-7} to stabilize preference-based updates. Both stages share a maximum sequence length of 2048 tokens and a batch size of 64. The DPO loss coefficient β is fixed at 0.1. For each DPO round, candidate responses were sampled with temperature $t = 0.7$, and preference pairs were filtered according to the verifiable-pair criterion described in Section 3.2.

Training schedule. Each training run lasts six epochs. For the first three epochs, the sampling temperature is fixed at $t = 0.7$ to keep the data distribution close to the initial policy. For epochs four and five, it is increased to $t = 1.0$, and further raised to $t = 1.2$ in the final epoch. This annealed schedule reflects the observation that performance plateaus after three epochs, while higher temperatures promote exploration of novel reasoning paths without destabilizing optimization.

Evaluation protocol. We follow the Qwen-Math evaluation suite. For every benchmark and model, generations are produced with greedy decoding ($t=0.0$), one output per input (no sampling, no self-consistency), and a 2048-token generation limit. All models use the same zero-shot CoT prompt template (shown below) to avoid prompt-engineering confounds. We report pass@1. For datasets that provide official scoring scripts, we use those scripts; otherwise, answers are extracted from the boxed span (see below) and matched after standard normalization.

```
Prompt Template:
<|im_start|>user
Solve the following math problem efficiently and clearly.
Please reason step by step, and put your final answer within {\boxed{}}.
Problem: <<your instruction>>
<|im_end|>
<|im_start|>assistant
```

A.2 DETAILS OF BENCHMARKS

MATH500 (Lightman et al., 2023) is a subset of the MATH benchmark (Hendrycks et al., 2021), containing 500 uniformly sampled problems. Its distribution of subjects and difficulty levels is representative of the full MATH test set, making it a widely adopted evaluation for mathematical reasoning.

Minerva-Math (Lewkowycz et al., 2022) is a high-difficulty math problem dataset consisting of 272 challenging problems. Some problems are also relevant to scientific topics in other subjects, such as physics.

OlympiadBench (He et al., 2024) is a bilingual, multimodal benchmark featuring 8,476 Olympiad-level math and physics problems, including problems adapted from the Chinese college entrance exam. We use the text-only, open-ended math competition subset, which contains 674 problems.

AMC2023 and **AIME2024** are competition-style benchmarks. AMC2023 includes 40 text-only problems from the 2023 American Mathematics Competition, while AIME2024 contains 30 text-only problems from the 2024 American Invitational Mathematics Examination.

BoardgameQA (BGQA) (Kazemi et al., 2023) is a logical reasoning dataset with 15K unique problems designed to test LLMs’ ability to handle defeasible reasoning, where contradictions are resolved via credibility or recency cues.

CRUXEval (Gu et al., 2024) evaluates code reasoning and execution. It contains 800 Python functions (3–13 lines) with input–output pairs, where models must generate the correct outputs given a function snippet and input example.

StrategyQA (Geva et al., 2021) contains 2,780 multi-hop reasoning questions where the reasoning steps are implicit and must be inferred using a strategy. Each example is paired with a decomposition into sub-steps and supporting evidence from Wikipedia.

TableBench (Wu et al., 2025) evaluates tabular reasoning in real-world data analysis tasks across 18 domains. We use the subsets on fact-checking and numerical reasoning, resulting in 491 unique problems. Tasks cover fact validation, numerical calculation, and reasoning over structured tables.

MMLUPro-STEM (Wang et al., 2024) is a subset of MMLU-Pro, an enhanced version of MMLU (Hendrycks et al., 2020) with more reasoning-focused questions and expanded answer choices (four to ten). We select six STEM domains—physics, chemistry, computer science, engineering, biology, and economics—excluding math as it overlaps with in-domain tasks. The final test set contains 5,371 unique problems.

A.3 STEP-WISE AGGREGATION FUNCTION CHOICE

In CASPO, we define a step-wise aggregation function f that quantifies the confidence of a step-level answer by leveraging the probabilities of its constituent tokens. Intuitively, this function serves as a bridge from token-level uncertainty to step-level confidence. We consider two common formulations for f :

- **Mean Entropy.** Compute the average entropy of all tokens in the answer. A lower entropy indicates higher confidence, as the model is more certain about its token predictions:

$$f_{\text{entropy}}(s) = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{v \in \mathcal{V}} p(t_i = v) \log p(t_i = v). \quad (5)$$

- **Multiplicative Probability.** Compute the joint probability of the entire answer by multiplying the probabilities of its tokens. A higher value indicates greater confidence in the step:

$$f_{\text{mult}}(s) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(t_i). \quad (6)$$

We also conduct ablation experiments to compare these choices, and find that both metrics capture different aspects of confidence: mean entropy emphasizes uncertainty calibration, while multiplicative probability reflects overall likelihood of a step.

A.4 CASPO ALGORITHM

The algorithm explicitly describes how step-wise answers are generated, confidence is estimated, and preference pairs are constructed for Direct Preference Optimization. In particular, it clarifies how both “correct but low-confidence” predictions and “confidently incorrect” predictions are incorporated into the preference dataset, which is then used in the iterative DPO optimization loop. This pseudocode is intended to complement the main text by offering an implementation-oriented view of our framework

Algorithm 1 CASPO

Input: Dataset with math questions: $\mathcal{D}_{\text{math}} = \{x\}$; target model π_{θ} ; target model tokenizer \mathcal{T}_{θ} ; alignment hyper-parameter β ; Iterations: K .

- 1: $\mathcal{D} \leftarrow \{\}$ // Construct preference dataset \mathcal{D} for training.
- 2: **for** each question x in $\mathcal{D}_{\text{math}}$ **do**
- 3: **for** $j = 1, \dots, m$ **do**
- 4: $\mathbb{P}[\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{V})] \leftarrow \pi_{\theta}(\cdot|q_j)$ // Generate answer for the sub question q_j .
- 5: $s_j \leftarrow$ top-1 token with highest likelihood (greedy decoding).
- 6: $c_j \leftarrow$ confidence(s_j) // Get the confidence of answer s_j with Eq.1
- 7: $g_j \leftarrow \pi_{\text{critic}}(\cdot|q_j)$ // Get the ground true answer from the critic model.
- 8: **if** $s_j == g_j$ **then**
- 9: **if** $c_j > \tau$ **then**
 Continue
- 10: **else**
- 11: $y_w \leftarrow s_j$ Correct but low confidence.
- 12: $y_l \leftarrow$ the token with the second highest likelihood.
- 13: **end if**
- 14: **else**
- 15: $y_w \leftarrow g_j$
- 16: $y_l \leftarrow s_j$
- 17: **end if**
- 18: $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D} \cup \{q_j, y_j^w, y_j^l\}$
- 19: **end for**
- 20: **end for**
- 21: **for** $k = 1, \dots, K$ **do**
- 22: $\pi_{\theta_k} \leftarrow \text{argmin}_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\pi_{\theta_k}, \pi_{\text{ref}})$ //Update target model.
- 23: $\pi_{\text{ref}} \leftarrow \pi_{\theta_k}$ //Update reference model.
- 24: **end for**

B CRITIC EVALUATION PROMPT**Critic verifies correctness**

```

## General Guidelines
You are a student. Your task is to carefully review the correct
partial solution to a math problem, and adhere to the
following guidelines:

1. Verify the correctness of the solution and explain the reason:
"Verify: [Explanation of why you are correct with one sentence]"

2. You are provided with the question, the ground truth solution,
and your step-by-step partial solution.

3. Your response should be exactly in the following format: Verify:
[brief explanation of why you are correct with one sentence]

## Test Example
### Question
<<<question>>>

### Ground truth solution
<<<gt_solution>>>

### Your partial solution
<<<student_solution>>>

### Your review

```

918
919
920
921
922
923
924
925
926
927
928
929

LLM	Math			Open-domain
	Math500	Minerva Math	OlympiadBench	MMLU-STEM
<i>Multiplication</i>				
Qwen2.5-Math-7B	63.2	14.7	24.9	41.9
Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct	80.5	32.7	38.1	45.2
Llama3.1-8B-Instruct	48.7	12.8	22.6	36.1
<i>Entropy</i>				
Qwen2.5-Math-7B	64.8	15.4	25.6	42.5
Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct	83.2	33.5	38.4	45.6
Llama3.1-8B-Instruct	49.6	13.6	23.5	36.0

Table 4: Accuracy comparison of LRMs on mathematical reasoning and open-domain datasets. The math datasets include Math500, Minerva Math, and OlympiadBench; the open-domain dataset is MMLU-STEM. Results are reported for two variations of the step-wise aggregate function f : Multiplication and Entropy.

934
935

C ADDITIONAL RESULTS

936
937
938
939
940
941
942
943
944
945
946

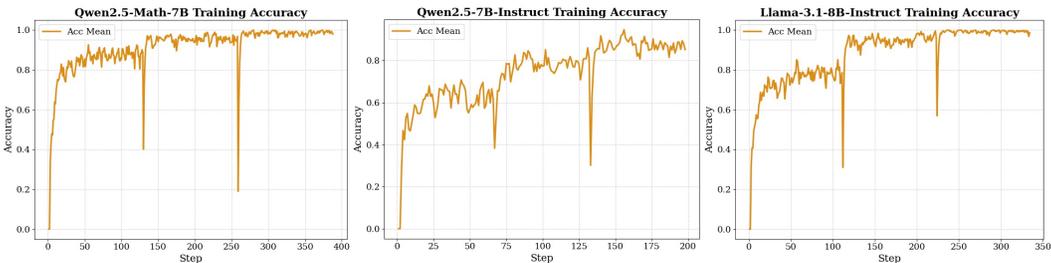


Figure 5: Training accuracy trajectories of Qwen2.5-Math-7B, Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct, and Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct across different optimization steps

947
948
949
950
951
952
953
954
955
956
957
958



Figure 6: Loss reduction patterns for Qwen2.5-Math-7B, Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct, and Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct during DPO training optimization process

959
960
961
962
963
964
965
966
967

Accuracy and Loss Dynamics. Figures 5 and 6 illustrate how accuracy and loss evolve alongside reward dynamics. Across all models, training accuracy improves steadily as reward separation emerges, ultimately stabilizing at high levels. Loss curves show a consistent downward trend, with sharper decreases during phases of rapid accuracy gains. Together, these two signals provide complementary evidence that preference learning is not only separating rewards but also improving the reliability of correct predictions.

968
969
970
971

Qwen2.5-Math-7B again shows the smoothest trajectory, with accuracy quickly approaching near-perfect levels and loss decreasing steadily. Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct reaches stable accuracy around 0.9 within 200 steps, accompanied by moderate but consistent loss reduction. Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct improves more slowly and exhibits more fluctuations in loss, but ultimately converges to strong accuracy with sufficiently long training.

972 **step-wise aggregate function f .** To construct the confidence of a reasoning path, we need to
973 aggregate the step-wise confidences into a single score. We consider two natural choices for the
974 aggregate function f : (i) Multiplication, here the cumulative confidence of a path is obtained by
975 multiplying the confidence values across all steps. This strict formulation penalizes any step with low
976 confidence, effectively ensuring that only trajectories with uniformly reliable reasoning are preserved.
977 (ii) Entropy-based aggregation, where the token-level entropy across steps is averaged to measure the
978 overall uncertainty of a trajectory. This softer formulation emphasizes calibration by capturing the
979 global uncertainty pattern, rather than enforcing per-step reliability.

980 Table 4 compares the two approaches. Multiplication favors precision by aggressively pruning
981 uncertain branches, while entropy aggregation provides more tolerant coverage and may preserve
982 diverse but moderately confident paths. The empirical results highlight the trade-off: multiplication
983 often achieves higher accuracy on deterministic math tasks, whereas entropy can be advantageous
984 when some steps carry inherent ambiguity, as in open-domain settings.

985

986

987

988

989

990

991

992

993

994

995

996

997

998

999

1000

1001

1002

1003

1004

1005

1006

1007

1008

1009

1010

1011

1012

1013

1014

1015

1016

1017

1018

1019

1020

1021

1022

1023

1024

1025