Beyond the Last Answer
Your Reasoning Trace Uncovers More than You Think

Anonymous ACL submission

Abstract

Large Language Models (LLMs) leverage step-by-step reasoning to solve complex problems. Standard evaluation practice involves generating a complete reasoning trace and assessing the correctness of the final answer. In this paper, we challenge the reliance on the final answer by posing the following two questions: Does the final answer reliably represent the model's optimal conclusion? Can alternative reasoning paths yield different results? To answer these questions, we analyze intermediate reasoning steps, termed *subthoughts*, and propose a method based on our findings. Our approach segments reasoning traces into subthoughts using linguistic cues. We then prompt the model for continuations from each subthought's endpoint, extracting a potential answer from each. We find that aggregating these answers by selecting the most frequent one (the mode) often yields significantly higher accuracy compared to relying solely on the last answer. Analyzing the consistency among the answers derived from different subthoughts reveals characteristics that correlate with the model's correctness, suggesting potential for identifying incorrect responses. Our experiments across various LLMs and two mathematical reasoning datasets, AIME2024 and AIME2025, show consistent accuracy improvements, with gains reaching up to 13% and 10% respectively.

1 Introduction

Large Language Models (LLMs) have demonstrated remarkable capabilities in solving complex tasks when prompted to articulate their reasoning process step-by-step (Wei et al., 2022). Reasoning does not only require sufficient knowledge base acquired by scaling up pre-training, but also by increasing computational resources during inference (test-time compute). This allows models to engage in deliberate, multi-step reasoning process akin to human "System 2 thinking" (Kahneman, 2011), moving beyond immediate, intuitive "System 1" responses (Kahneman, 2011). Models like OpenAI's o1 (Jaech et al., 2024) and DeepSeek-R1 (Guo et al., 2025) showed the importance of scaling test-time compute by dedicating substantial inference resources to generate elaborate reasoning traces before producing a final output. Standard evaluation typically assesses only the *single final answer* produced after a model generates a reasoning trace.

However, relying on the final answer can potentially overlook valuable information encoded within the reasoning process itself. It implicitly assumes that the single generated path represents the model's definitive reasoning, neglecting the possibility that slight variations in the thought process could lead to different, and perhaps more accurate, conclusions. This raises a fundamental question: **Can we establish a more reliable assessment of the reasoning ability of an LLM by analyzing the evolution and consistency of its answers throughout the reasoning process?**

In this paper, we propose a method to investigate this question by probing the internal consistency of an LLM's reasoning. Our core idea involves interrupting the reasoning process at intermediate points, or "subthoughts", and examining the conclusions reached from these states as illustrated in Figure 1. Specifically, our methodology entails:

1. Generating an initial, complete reasoning trace for a given problem using standard greedy decoding.
2. Segmenting this trace into a sequence of subthoughts based on natural linguistic cues that often indicate shifts or progressions in reasoning (e.g., "Wait," "Alternatively," "Hmm").
3. Prompting the *same* model to generate a complete solution starting from an intermediate state (i.e., after each cumulative sequence of subthoughts).
4. Extracting the final numerical answer derived

Question

The length of a rectangular garden is 12 meters, and the width is 8 meters. What is the area of the garden?

Thoughts — **Solution**

First, to find the area of a rectangle, I need to multiply its length by its width. — 20 — $\mathcal{A}_1$

Hmm, the length of the rectangle is 12 meters and the width is 8 meters. I'll calculate the area as length × width = 12 × 8. — 90 — $\mathcal{A}_2$

So, computing 12 × 8 = 96. So the area of the rectangular garden is 96 square meters. — **96** — $\mathcal{A}_3$

Let me double-check this calculation. The formula for the area of a rectangle is length × width. With length = 12 meters and width = 8 meters, we get 12 × 8 = 96 square meters. — **96** — $\mathcal{A}_4$

Actually, I think 12 x 8 is 50 not 96 square meters. — 50 — $\mathcal{A}_5$

Reasoning LLM

$\mathcal{A}_{\text{last}} = 50$ ❌ $\mathcal{A}_{\text{mode}} = 96$ ✅

Figure 1: **Subthought Analysis.** We show that by examining intermediate reasoning steps and their corresponding answers ($A_1, \ldots, A_5$), taking the mode of these answers (A_{mode}) often leads to better performance than using only the final answer (A_{last}), as is typically done. This figure illustrates a case where $A_{mode} = 96$ is correct, while $A_{last} = 50$ is not.

from *each* of these generated continuations producing a set of potential answers reflecting answers reached from various points within the initial reasoning structure.

This process yields a distribution of answers for the original problem. We analyze this distribution with two primary goals: First, we investigate how the model's answer evolves across different subthought stages. We examine whether the final answer in the original trace is consistently reached from earlier points. We also look into how the distribution of answers differs between problems the model ultimately answers correctly versus incorrectly. We hypothesize that inconsistent or high variability in the answers across different subthought sequences might indicate difficulty or potential errors, serving as a signal of low confidence or hallucination.

Second, based on the insights from this analysis, we explore whether aggregating the collected answers can lead to a more robust final result. Specifically, we hypothesize that the most frequently occurring answer (the mode) across all generated completions represents a more reliable conclusion, reflecting convergence across slightly perturbed reasoning trajectories.

Our experiments on challenging mathematical reasoning datasets (AIME2024, AIME2025) using seven open-weight LLMs validate these hypotheses. We observe that the consistency patterns indeed differ for correctly and incorrectly solved problems. Furthermore, aggregating answers via the mode significantly improves accuracy compared to using

only the final answer from the initial trace, demonstrating the practical benefit of our analysis.

Our contributions are:

- A methodology for systematically analyzing LLM reasoning by generating and evaluating conclusions derived from intermediate subthoughts.
- An analysis showing how answer consistency evolves during the reasoning process, revealing distinct patterns for correct versus incorrect solutions and suggesting potential for error detection based on answer distribution characteristics (e.g., entropy).
- Empirical evidence demonstrating that aggregating answers from subthought completions, specifically by taking the mode, significantly improves accuracy over the standard final-answer approach (up to 13% on AIME2024, 10% on AIME2025).

We believe these findings offer valuable insights into the nature of LLM reasoning and suggest that evaluating beyond the final single answer can lead a to a better understanding of model capabilities and lead to improved performance evaluation.

2 Related Work

Test-Time Scaling and Reasoning. Chain of thought (CoT) (Wei et al., 2022) prompting is a pivotal work on the scaling of test time or inference time compute. It explicitly asks an LLM to generate a structured reasoning chain before arriving at the final answer. Self-consistency CoT (Wang et al., 2023b) is a CoT variant technique that re-

places greedy-decoding with sampling-based decoding to sample multiple reasoning chains and select the best answer through consistency aggregation. Other prompting techniques focus on constructing reasoning-provoking structured prompts (Paranjape et al., 2021; Sanh et al., 2021; Mishra et al., 2021). Search and planning prompting based techniques divide the reasoning task into a set of sub-tasks (Dua et al., 2022; Zhou et al., 2022; Khot et al., 2022; Suzgun and Kalai, 2024). These methods can be categorized into methods that evaluate the final outcome or the reasoning process (Lightman et al., 2023). Prompting based test-time scaling techniques guide the model to select the best reasoning chain without updating its parameters. Our approach utilizes the full reasoning chain generated from vanilla CoT prompting. It then prompts the same model with a growing sequence of sub-thoughts to elicit an answer at different reasoning chain length. The distribution of answers are then aggregated with the mode akin to self-consistency CoT. It is worth noting that our method can be utilized with any test-time scaling method that generates explicit series of subthoughts.

Training-Based Reasoning. Training based techniques train the model to enhance its reasoning capabilities. The key challenge for these methods is the scarcity of human-annotated step-by-step reasoning chains. Research in this direction focus on developing techniques to automatically generate valid reasoning traces or propose training techniques that effectively leverage the available data. The most straingtforward approach to train reasoning models is to finetune a model with supervised finetuning (SFT) on reasoning trajectories (Huang et al., 2024; Min et al., 2024). Other works have shown that preference learning further improves reasoning capabilities. (Min et al., 2024; Hui et al., 2024; Jiao et al., 2024) all have explored DPO (Rafailov et al., 2023). (Zhang et al., 2024; Lai et al., 2024) have explored step-level DPO instead of outcome level. Most recent methods bypass the need for annotated reasoning chains and by leveraging reinforcement learning (RL). A particular success in this direction is GRPO (Shao et al., 2024) that shows that RL is sufficient for the emergence of complex reasoning capabilities even without an initial supervised fine-tuning step. The methods discussed so far use explicit natural language reasoning traces. A recent line of work explores using latent reasoning that represent reasoning chains implicitly. These methods focus on compressing natural language chains into much smaller number of tokens (Deng et al., 2023, 2024). Other works introduce learnable tokens that are thought to enable the model to perform additional non-verbal steps before outputting an answer token. (Goyal et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2023a). More effectively, (Hao et al., 2024) proposed to use the last layer hidden feature as implicit reasoning tokens that are fed back to the model to generate the next token autoregressively. Our method is a test-time method and does not update model parameters. It works with any reasoning model that outputs explicit natural language thought process before the final answer.

Overthinking Phenomenon in Reasoning Models. The overthinking phenomenon in reasoning models occurs when the model generates excessively detailed and redundant reasoning steps for relatively simple problems (Chen et al., 2024). This phenomenon compromises the inference efficiency of reasoning models and in some cases lead to incorrect answers. Several recent works explicitly addressed computational efficiency and reasoning quality by posing a length-based reward to control the length of CoT reasoning (Arora and Zanette, 2025; Yeo et al., 2025). The s1 approach (Muennighoff et al., 2025) introduced "budget forcing" to effectively control compute through targeted prompt modifications. Similarly, L1 (Aggarwal and Welleck, 2025) introduced Length Controlled Policy Optimization (LCPO), precisely managing reasoning complexity. Contrary to budgeted reasoning techniques, our method operates in high compute regime.

Our method is inspired from the observation that overthinking may lead to wrong answers. It analyzes the dynamics of the thought process as the model proceeds to think for longer. It extracts a self-consistent answer, and provides insights on the correctness by measuring the entropy of the model's answers.

3 Methodology

3.1 Problem Setting and Initial Trace Generation

Let P represent a problem statement that requires complex reasoning (e.g., a mathematical proof or calculation). We employ a reasoning language model, denoted by $\mathcal{M}$, to solve P. The process begins by formulating an initial prompt, $\Pi(P)$, designed to instruct $\mathcal{M}$ to provide step-by-step reasoning enclosed within specific delim-

3

iters (e.g., `<thought>...</thought>`) followed by a final answer in a designated format (e.g., `\boxed{Answer}`).

Using this prompt, we generate an initial full response R_{full} via greedy decoding to obtain the model's most probable reasoning path:

$$R_{full} = \mathcal{M}(\Pi(P), \text{Params}_{greedy})$$

From this full response R_{full}, we extract two critical components:

- The primary reasoning trace T, typically identified as the content within the final `<thought>...</thought>` block.
- The final answer A_{last}, extracted from the concluding part of R_{full}, usually conforming to the `\boxed{...}` format. This extraction is performed by a dedicated extraction procedure or model, denoted $\mathcal{M}_{extract}$.

The answer A_{last} serves as a baseline for comparison which is the standard approach of taking the single answer produced at the end of the initial trace.

3.2 Subthought Identification and Segmentation

At the core of our method is segmenting the initial reasoning trace T into a sequence of meaningful intermediate steps or *subthoughts*, denoted $(s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_n)$. This segmentation aims to capture points where the model might pause, reflect, change direction, or move to a distinct next step in its reasoning.

We perform segmentation based on occurrences of words or phrases from a predefined set W, which we refer to as **Subthought Transition Markers**. These markers often signal reflection, correction, sequencing, or the exploration of alternatives. The set W used in our experiments is:

Subthought Transition Markers *(W)*

"Wait", "Alternatively", "Another angle", "Another approach", "But wait", "Hold on", "Hmm", "Maybe", "Looking back", "I think", "Let me double-check", "Let's see", "Now" ...

We utilize regular expressions derived from W to split the trace T. The pattern ensures that a transition marker from W typically indicates the start of a new subthought chunk s_j (for $j > 1$), and the marker itself is included at the beginning

of s_j. If no markers from W are found within T, the entire trace is treated as a single subthought ($n = 1$). Letting $\oplus$ denote string concatenation, the original trace can be reconstructed as $T = s_1 \oplus s_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus s_n$.

3.3 Subthought Completion Generation

For each identified subthought boundary $i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$, we construct a cumulative partial thought trace T_i, representing the reasoning up to the end of subthought s_i:

$$T_i = s_1 \oplus s_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus s_i$$

We then create a modified prompt P_i based on the original prompt $\Pi(P)$. This prompt P_i contains the original problem description but replaces the full reasoning trace T with the partial trace T_i. P_i is formatted such that T_i appears within the appropriate reasoning delimiters (e.g., `<thought>...</thought>`) and ends in a way that prompts the model $\mathcal{M}$ to continue the reasoning process from that specific state. Let $\text{Format}(\Pi(P), T_i)$ represent this formatting function:

$$P_i = \text{Format}(\Pi(P), T_i)$$

Each partial prompt P_i is then fed back into the *same* reasoning model $\mathcal{M}$ to generate a completion C_i. The concatenation $R_i = P_i \oplus C_i$ forms a complete response initiated from the intermediate state T_i. This process is repeated for each i from 1 to n, resulting in n full response variations.

We experiment with two distinct sampling strategies for generating these completions C_i:

- **Greedy Subthought Completion** (Params_{greedy}): Uses temperature = 0.0 and top-p = 1.0. This strategy forces the model to follow its deterministic, highest-probability reasoning path continuation from the state defined by T_i.
- **Non-Greedy Subthought Completion** ($\text{Params}_{diverse}$): Uses temperature = 1.0 and top-p = 0.95. This encourages stochasticity and allows the model to explore alternative, potentially less probable but still viable, reasoning paths extending from T_i.

It is important to note that the initial trace T (used for segmentation) is always generated using Params_{greedy}. The choice between greedy and non-greedy strategies applies only during the generation of the n completions C_i from the partial prompts P_i.

3.4 Answer Extraction from Completions

For each of the n generated response variations $R_i = P_i \oplus C_i$, corresponding to completions starting after subthoughts $s_1, \ldots, s_n$, we extract the final numerical answer A_i. This extraction uses the same procedure or model $\mathcal{M}_{extract}$ employed for obtaining A_{last}:

$$A_i = \mathcal{M}_{extract}(R_i)$$

$\mathcal{M}_{extract}$ is designed to robustly identify and isolate the final numerical answer, parsing specific formats like \boxed{...} or identifying the most salient numerical result if the expected format is absent. This procedure yields a set of n potential answers for the original problem P:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n\}$$

This set $\mathcal{A}$ captures the conclusions reached by the model when forced to complete the reasoning process from different intermediate stages.

3.5 Analysis and Aggregation Metrics

The set of answers $\mathcal{A}$ forms the basis for our analysis. As detailed in the results section, we first analyze the properties of this set, such as the evolution of answers $(A_1, \ldots, A_n)$ and their distribution (e.g., using consistency measures or entropy) to understand how stability relates to correctness.

Based on this analysis, we evaluate the effectiveness of aggregating these answers. Let A_{true} be the ground truth answer for problem P. We define an indicator function for correctness: IsCorrect$(A, A_{true}) = 1$ if answer A matches A_{true}, and 0 otherwise. We compare performance using two primary metrics, averaged over a dataset of problems:

1. **Last Answer Accuracy (Acc$_{Last}$)**: The accuracy of the single answer A_{last} extracted from the initial, uninterrupted greedy trace R_{full}. This serves as our baseline.

$$\text{Acc}_{Last} = \mathbb{E}_{P \sim \text{Dataset}}[\text{IsCorrect}(A_{last}, A_{true})]$$

2. **Most Frequent Answer Accuracy (Acc$_{MostFreq}$)**: The accuracy of the most frequent answer (mode) A_{mode} within the set $\mathcal{A} = \{A_1, \ldots, A_n\}$ derived from subthought completions.

$$A_{mode} = \underset{A \in \mathcal{A}}{\text{argmax}} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbb{I}(A_j = A) \right)$$

where $\mathbb{I}(\cdot)$ is the indicator function. Ties for the mode are broken by selecting the answer that appeared earliest in the sequence $(A_1, \ldots, A_n)$ (i.e., the one corresponding to the smallest index j).

$$\text{Acc}_{MostFreq} = \mathbb{E}_{P \sim \text{Dataset}}[\text{IsCorrect}(A_{mode}, A_{true})]$$

Our central hypothesis, explored in the experiments, is that analyzing the set $\mathcal{A}$ provides valuable insights. Specifically, aggregating the responses by mode yields a significant improvement over the baseline in both greedy and non-greedy completion strategies $\text{Acc}_{MostFreq} \geq \text{Acc}_{Last}$.

4 Experiments

4.1 Experimental Setup.

Datasets. We consider two datasets AIME2024 and AIME2025 which are based on American Invitational Mathematics Examination. Both datasets are known to require reasoning capabilities in order to solve successfully.
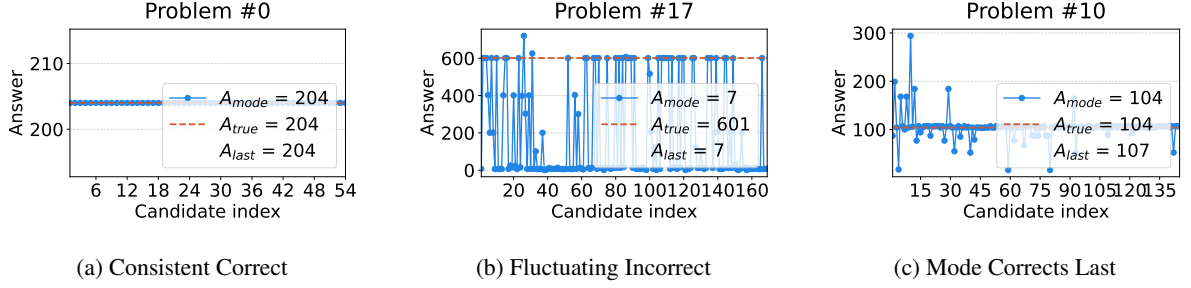
Models. In order to evaluate our hypothesis, we consider seven open source models: DeepScaleR-1.5B-Preview, DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Qwen-1.5B, DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Qwen-14B, EXAONE-Deep-7.8B, Light-R1-7B-DS, QwQ-32B, and Skywork-OR1-Math-7B. For answer extraction ($\mathcal{M}_{extract}$), we consistently used Qwen/Qwen2.5-14B-Instruct, prompted specifically to extract the final numerical answer in the \boxed{...} format or identify the most likely and final numerical result otherwise.

Implementation Details. For efficient inference we build our pipeline based on VLLM (Kwon et al., 2023). We limit the maximum number of newly generated tokens at every LLM call to 8192. Experiments were run on one A100-80GB GPU.
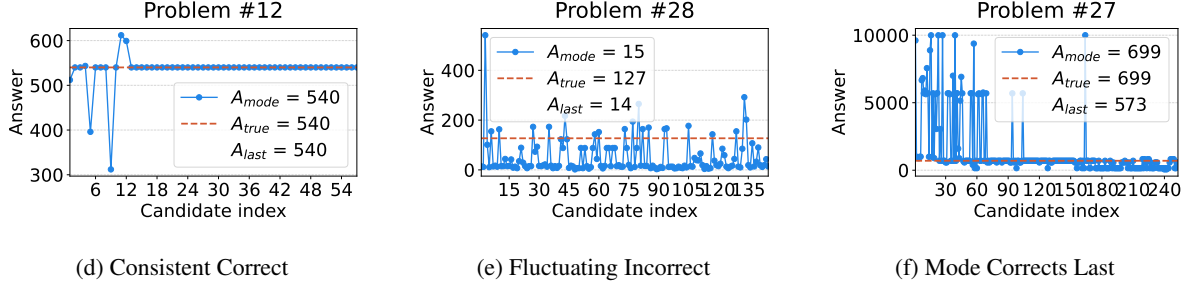
4.2 Analysis of Answer Evolution Across Subthoughts

We first investigate how the final answer A_i derived from completing the reasoning after the i-th subthought (T_i) evolves as i increases from 1 to n. Figure 2 illustrate this evolution for different models on selected problems from AIME2024 using greedy subthought completion. Each plot shows the sequence of answers $A_1, \ldots, A_n$ (y-axis) against the subthought index i (x-axis, labeled "Candidate Index"). The plots also mark the

DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Qwen-14B

(a) Consistent Correct   (b) Fluctuating Incorrect   (c) Mode Corrects Last

Light-R1-7B-DS

(d) Consistent Correct   (e) Fluctuating Incorrect   (f) Mode Corrects Last

QwQ-32B

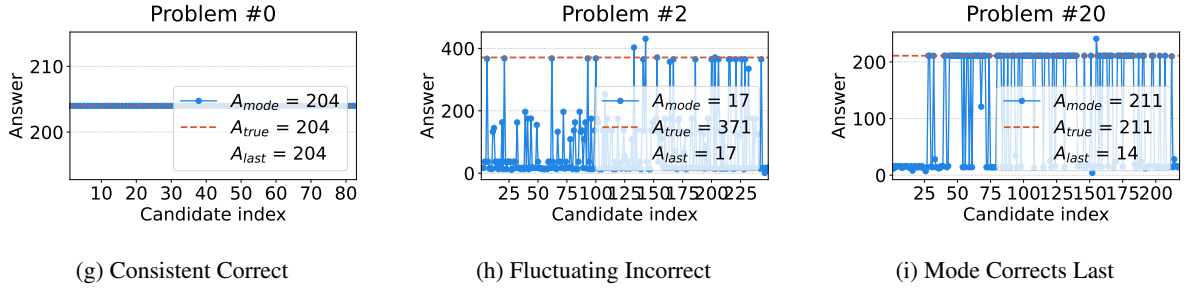(g) Consistent Correct   (h) Fluctuating Incorrect   (i) Mode Corrects Last

Figure 2: **Answer Evolution Across Models on AIME2024 (Greedy Completion).** Each row corresponds to a different model.

ground truth answer (A_{true}), the final answer from the original full trace (A_{last}), and the most frequent answer from the sequence (A_{mode}).

We observe distinct patterns:

- **Consistent Correctness (e.g., Left):** When the model solves the problem correctly and confidently, the sequence of answers ($A_1, \ldots, A_n$) often converges quickly to the correct answer A_{true}. In these cases, $A_{last} = A_{true}$ and $A_{mode} = A_{true}$. The answers derived from most subthoughts are identical and correct, indicating stable reasoning.

- **Fluctuating Incorrectness (e.g., Middle):** When the model struggles with a problem and produces an incorrect final answer ($A_{last} \neq A_{true}$), the sequence of answers often exhibits high fluctuation. Many different incorrect answers are generated, and the most frequent answer A_{mode} is also typically incorrect. Some-

times, the true answer A_{true} appears sporadically or not at all. This suggests unstable reasoning or exploration of incorrect paths.

- **Mode Corrects Last Answer Error (e.g., Right):** Perhaps the most interesting case is when the initial trace yields an incorrect final answer ($A_{last} \neq A_{true}$), but analyzing the subthought completions reveals a consistent, correct answer ($A_{mode} = A_{true}$). This occurs when the model frequently reaches the correct conclusion from various intermediate states, but the specific path taken in the initial greedy generation happens to derail near the end. This highlights scenarios where A_{last} is misleading, while A_{mode} captures a more robust consensus from the model's internal states.

Notably, we did not observe cases in our experiments where A_{last} was correct but A_{mode} was incorrect.
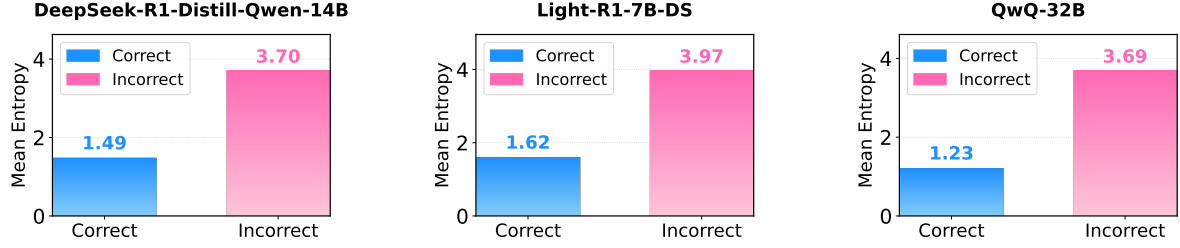
6

Figure 3: **Mean Entropy of Subthought Answer Distributions on AIME2024 (Greedy Completion).** Comparison between problems answered correctly ($A_{last} = A_{true}$) and incorrectly ($A_{last} \neq A_{true}$). Lower entropy correlates with correct answers.

4.3 Answer Distribution Entropy and Correctness

The visual patterns in Figure 2 suggest that the distribution of answers in $\mathcal{A} = \{A_1, \ldots, A_n\}$ carries information about the model's reasoning process. To quantify the diversity or uncertainty within this distribution, we calculate the Shannon entropy for each problem:

$$H(\mathcal{A}) = - \sum_{a \in \text{Unique}(\mathcal{A})} p(a) \log_2 p(a)$$

where $p(a) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbb{I}(A_j = a)$ is the frequency of answer a in the sequence $\mathcal{A}$. Higher entropy indicates a wider spread of different answers (less consistency), while lower entropy indicates convergence towards one or a few answers (more consistency).

Figure 3 compares the average entropy of the answer distributions for problems that were ultimately answered correctly (using A_{last} as the final answer) versus those answered incorrectly, across three different models on AIME2024 with greedy completions. Across all models, we observe a clear trend: the average entropy for correctly answered problems is significantly lower than for incorrectly answered problems. This quantitatively confirms that successful reasoning paths exhibit higher internal consistency (lower entropy) across subthoughts than unsuccessful ones, which show more variability. In the future, this can be used as a metric presented to the user to indicate how likely the answer of the model is correct.

4.4 Subthought Aggregation Boosts Accuracy

We now quantitatively evaluate whether A_{mode} yields higher accuracy than A_{last}. We compare $\text{Acc}_{MostFreq}$ with the baseline Acc_{Last} across all tested models and both datasets (AIME2024, AIME2025). We also investigate the impact of the subthought completion strategy by reporting results for both Greedy and Non-Greedy completions.

Figure 4 presents the main accuracy results. The figure compares the baseline Last Answer Accuracy (Acc_{Last}, blue bars) with the Most Frequent Answer Accuracy ($\text{Acc}_{MostFreq}$, orange bars) under four conditions: AIME2024 with Greedy completions (top-left), AIME2024 with Non-Greedy completions (top-right), AIME2025 with Greedy completions (bottom-left), and AIME2025 with Non-Greedy completions (bottom-right). The numbers above the bars indicate the absolute accuracy percentage point difference ($\text{Acc}_{MostFreq} - \text{Acc}_{Last}$).

The results strongly support our hypothesis. Aggregating answers using the mode ($\text{Acc}_{MostFreq}$) consistently outperforms or matches the baseline accuracy (Acc_{Last}) across almost all models, datasets, and completion strategies. The improvements can be substantial:

- On **AIME2024**, gains reach up to **+13.33%** (Light-R1-7B-DS, Non-Greedy) and frequently exceed +6%, with several models showing +10% gains (e.g., DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Qwen-14B, Skywork-OR1-Math-7B, QwQ-32B under Non-Greedy).
- On **AIME2025**, gains reach up to **+10.0%** (DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Qwen-14B Greedy, Skywork-OR1-Math-7B Non-Greedy), with multiple models showing gains over +6%.
- Even when the gain is 0%, our method generally does not hurt performance significantly. The few minor decreases observed (-6.66% for DeepScaleR on AIME2024 Greedy; -3.33% for QwQ-32B on AIME2025 Non-Greedy) might be attributed to noise, particularly for smaller models, or specific problem interactions rather than a systemic flaw.
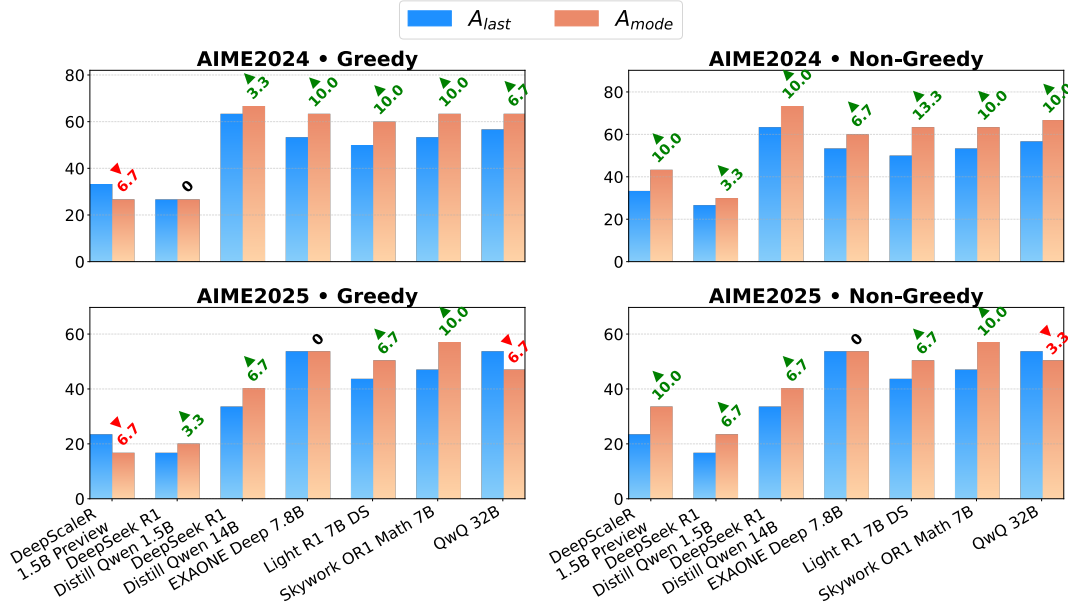
When comparing the subthought completion

7

Figure 4: **Accuracy Comparison: Last Answer vs. Mode Answer.** Comparison of Last Answer Accuracy (Acc$_{last}$, blue) with Mode Answer Accuracy (Acc$_{mode}$, orange) using Greedy and Non-Greedy subthought completions across various models and AIME datasets. Numbers above bars show the absolute gain (Acc$_{mode}$ − Acc$_{last}$). Green upward triangles indicate improvement, red downward triangles indicate decrease. Our method consistently improves or matches baseline accuracy.

strategies, **Non-Greedy** completion tends to yield slightly larger or more frequent improvements than Greedy completion, especially visible on the AIME2024 results (e.g., compare top-left vs. top-right panels for Light-R1, Skywork, QwQ-32B). This suggests that exploring alternative reasoning paths via sampling (Non-Greedy) is often more effective at revealing the model's robust consensus answer compared to simply reinforcing the most likely path from intermediate states (Greedy). Nonetheless, Greedy completion also provides consistent benefits over the baseline method.

Importantly, the pattern of improvement holds across a diverse set of models (ranging from 1.5B to 32B parameters) and both challenging AIME datasets. This consistency highlights the general applicability and robustness of analyzing subthought stability and using the mode answer as a more reliable indicator of the model's reasoning outcome than the single last answer.

5 Conclusion

Analyzing intermediate subthoughts and aggregating answers from their completions, rather than relying only on the final answer of a trace, reveals the following:

Conclusions:

1. **Mode Aggregation Enhances Accuracy:** Selecting the most frequent answer (A_{mode}) from completions originating at intermediate subthoughts significantly boosts accuracy compared to relying solely on the final answer (A_{last}) of the initial trace.

2. **Answer Consistency Signals Reliability:** The distribution of answers generated from subthoughts provides a valuable signal. High consistency (low entropy) correlates strongly with correct baseline solutions (A_{last}), while high fluctuation (high entropy) is characteristic of incorrect solutions or model struggle. This suggests potential for using distribution metrics for confidence estimation or error detection.

3. **Non-Greedy Completion Often Maximizes Gains:** Both greedy and non-greedy subthought completions improve accuracy via mode aggregation, but non-greedy sampling frequently yields larger improvements.

Our findings highlight the value of looking beyond the final step to better understand and evaluate LLM reasoning capabilities, offering a simple yet effective method to extract more reliable answers from existing reasoning processes.

8

6 Limitations

The proposed subthought reasoning approach is only suitable for verifiable problems where a final solution can be extracted such as math. Additionally, subthought reasoning approach can be applied on top of (Wang et al., 2023b) were non-greedy decoding is used to generated several full thought traces which we can apply our approach to after and evaluate. This baseline has not been included due to computational cost.

References

Pranjal Aggarwal and Sean Welleck. 2025. L1: Controlling how long a reasoning model thinks with reinforcement learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2503.04697*.

Daman Arora and Andrea Zanette. 2025. Training language models to reason efficiently. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2502.04463*.

Xingyu Chen, Jiahao Xu, Tian Liang, Zhiwei He, Jianhui Pang, Dian Yu, Linfeng Song, Qiuzhi Liu, Mengfei Zhou, Zhuosheng Zhang, and 1 others. 2024. Do not think that much for 2+ 3=? on the overthinking of o1-like llms. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2412.21187*.

Yuntian Deng, Yejin Choi, and Stuart Shieber. 2024. From explicit cot to implicit cot: Learning to internalize cot step by step. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2405.14838*.

Yuntian Deng, Kiran Prasad, Roland Fernandez, Paul Smolensky, Vishrav Chaudhary, and Stuart Shieber. 2023. Implicit chain of thought reasoning via knowledge distillation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2311.01460*.

Dheeru Dua, Shivanshu Gupta, Sameer Singh, and Matt Gardner. 2022. Successive prompting for decomposing complex questions. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2212.04092*.

Sachin Goyal, Ziwei Ji, Ankit Singh Rawat, Aditya Krishna Menon, Sanjiv Kumar, and Vaishnavh Nagarajan. 2023. Think before you speak: Training language models with pause tokens. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.02226*.

Daya Guo, Dejian Yang, Haowei Zhang, Junxiao Song, Ruoyu Zhang, Runxin Xu, Qihao Zhu, Shirong Ma, Peiyi Wang, Xiao Bi, and 1 others. 2025. Deepseek-r1: Incentivizing reasoning capability in llms via reinforcement learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2501.12948*.

Shibo Hao, Sainbayar Sukhbaatar, DiJia Su, Xian Li, Zhiting Hu, Jason Weston, and Yuandong Tian. 2024. Training large language models to reason in a continuous latent space. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2412.06769*.

Zhen Huang, Haoyang Zou, Xuefeng Li, Yixiu Liu, Yuxiang Zheng, Ethan Chern, Shijie Xia, Yiwei Qin, Weizhe Yuan, and Pengfei Liu. 2024. O1 replication journey–part 2: Surpassing o1-preview through simple distillation, big progress or bitter lesson? *arXiv preprint arXiv:2411.16489*.

Binyuan Hui, Jian Yang, Zeyu Cui, Jiaxi Yang, Dayiheng Liu, Lei Zhang, Tianyu Liu, Jiajun Zhang, Bowen Yu, Keming Lu, and 1 others. 2024. Qwen2. 5-coder technical report. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2409.12186*.

Aaron Jaech, Adam Kalai, Adam Lerer, Adam Richardson, Ahmed El-Kishky, Aiden Low, Alec Helyar, Aleksander Madry, Alex Beutel, Alex Carney, and 1 others. 2024. Openai o1 system card. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2412.16720*.

Fangkai Jiao, Chengwei Qin, Zhengyuan Liu, Nancy F Chen, and Shafiq Joty. 2024. Learning planning-based reasoning by trajectories collection and process reward synthesizing. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.00658*.

Daniel Kahneman. 2011. *Thinking, fast and slow*. macmillan.

Tushar Khot, Harsh Trivedi, Matthew Finlayson, Yao Fu, Kyle Richardson, Peter Clark, and Ashish Sabharwal. 2022. Decomposed prompting: A modular approach for solving complex tasks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.02406*.

Woosuk Kwon, Zhuohan Li, Siyuan Zhuang, Ying Sheng, Lianmin Zheng, Cody Hao Yu, Joseph E. Gonzalez, Hao Zhang, and Ion Stoica. 2023. Efficient memory management for large language model serving with pagedattention. In *Proceedings of the ACM SIGOPS 29th Symposium on Operating Systems Principles*.

Xin Lai, Zhuotao Tian, Yukang Chen, Senqiao Yang, Xiangru Peng, and Jiaya Jia. 2024. Step-dpo: Step-wise preference optimization for long-chain reasoning of llms. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2406.18629*.

Hunter Lightman, Vineet Kosaraju, Yuri Burda, Harrison Edwards, Bowen Baker, Teddy Lee, Jan Leike, John Schulman, Ilya Sutskever, and Karl Cobbe. 2023. Let's verify step by step. In *ICLR*.

Yingqian Min, Zhipeng Chen, Jinhao Jiang, Jie Chen, Jia Deng, Yiwen Hu, Yiru Tang, Jiapeng Wang, Xiaoxue Cheng, Huatong Song, and 1 others. 2024. Imitate, explore, and self-improve: A reproduction report on slow-thinking reasoning systems. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2412.09413*.

Swaroop Mishra, Daniel Khashabi, Chitta Baral, and Hannaneh Hajishirzi. 2021. Cross-task generalization via natural language crowdsourcing instructions. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2104.08773*.

9

Niklas Muennighoff, Zitong Yang, Weijia Shi, Xiang Lisa Li, Li Fei-Fei, Hannaneh Hajishirzi, Luke Zettlemoyer, Percy Liang, Emmanuel Candès, and Tatsunori Hashimoto. 2025. s1: Simple test-time scaling. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2501.19393*.

Bhargavi Paranjape, Julian Michael, Marjan Ghazvininejad, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Hannaneh Hajishirzi. 2021. Prompting contrastive explanations for commonsense reasoning tasks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2106.06823*.

Rafael Rafailov, Archit Sharma, Eric Mitchell, Christopher D Manning, Stefano Ermon, and Chelsea Finn. 2023. Direct preference optimization: Your language model is secretly a reward model. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36:53728–53741.

Victor Sanh, Albert Webson, Colin Raffel, Stephen H Bach, Lintang Sutawika, Zaid Alyafeai, Antoine Chaffin, Arnaud Stiegler, Teven Le Scao, Arun Raja, and 1 others. 2021. Multitask prompted training enables zero-shot task generalization. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2110.08207*.

Zhihong Shao, Peiyi Wang, Qihao Zhu, Runxin Xu, Junxiao Song, Xiao Bi, Haowei Zhang, Mingchuan Zhang, YK Li, Y Wu, and 1 others. 2024. Deepseekmath: Pushing the limits of mathematical reasoning in open language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.03300*.

Mirac Suzgun and Adam Tauman Kalai. 2024. Meta-prompting: Enhancing language models with task-agnostic scaffolding. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2401.12954*.

Xinyi Wang, Lucas Caccia, Oleksiy Ostapenko, Xingdi Yuan, William Yang Wang, and Alessandro Sordoni. 2023a. Guiding language model reasoning with planning tokens. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.05707*.

Xuezhi Wang, Jason Wei, Dale Schuurmans, Quoc V Le, Ed H. Chi, Sharan Narang, Aakanksha Chowdhery, and Denny Zhou. 2023b. Self-consistency improves chain of thought reasoning in language models. In *ICLR*.

Jason Wei, Xuezhi Wang, Dale Schuurmans, Maarten Bosma, Fei Xia, Ed Chi, Quoc V Le, Denny Zhou, and 1 others. 2022. Chain-of-thought prompting elicits reasoning in large language models. *NeurIPS*, 35:24824–24837.

Edward Yeo, Yuxuan Tong, Morry Niu, Graham Neubig, and Xiang Yue. 2025. Demystifying long chain-of-thought reasoning in llms. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2502.03373*.

Xuan Zhang, Chao Du, Tianyu Pang, Qian Liu, Wei Gao, and Min Lin. 2024. Chain of preference optimization: Improving chain-of-thought reasoning in llms. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 37:333–356.

Denny Zhou, Nathanael Schärli, Le Hou, Jason Wei, Nathan Scales, Xuezhi Wang, Dale Schuurmans, Claire Cui, Olivier Bousquet, Quoc Le, and 1 others. 2022. Least-to-most prompting enables complex reasoning in large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2205.10625*.

A Entropy Plots

Plots for the mean entropy for subthough answer distribution for AIME2024 and AIME2025 are shown in Figure 5 and 6. We observed in Section 4.3, the mean entropy for correctly solved problems is always lower than those of incorrectly solved problems highlighing how models tend to give a diverse selection of answers per subthought for questions they are having hard time solving correctly.
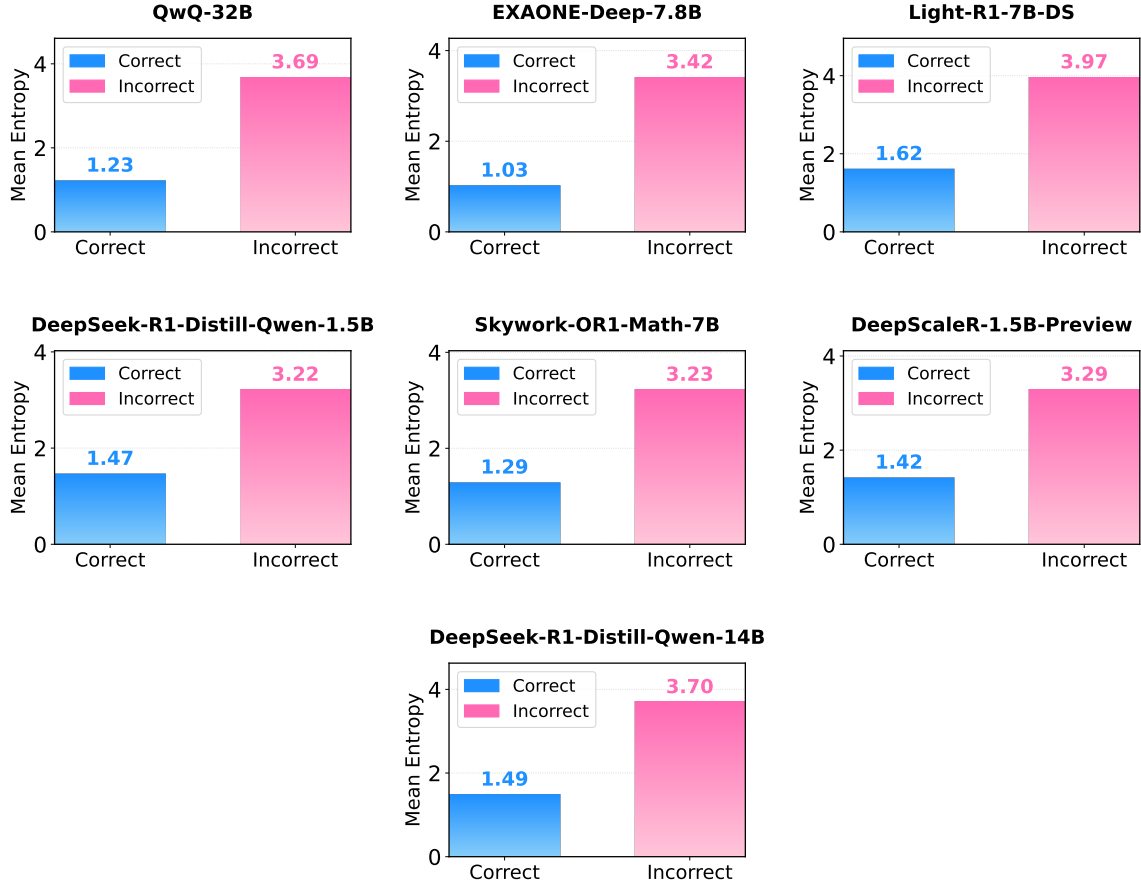

Figure 5: **Mean Entropy of Subthought Answer Distributions on AIME2024 (Greedy Completion).** Comparison between problems answered correctly ($A_{last} = A_{true}$) and incorrectly ($A_{last} \neq A_{true}$). Lower entropy correlates with correct answers.
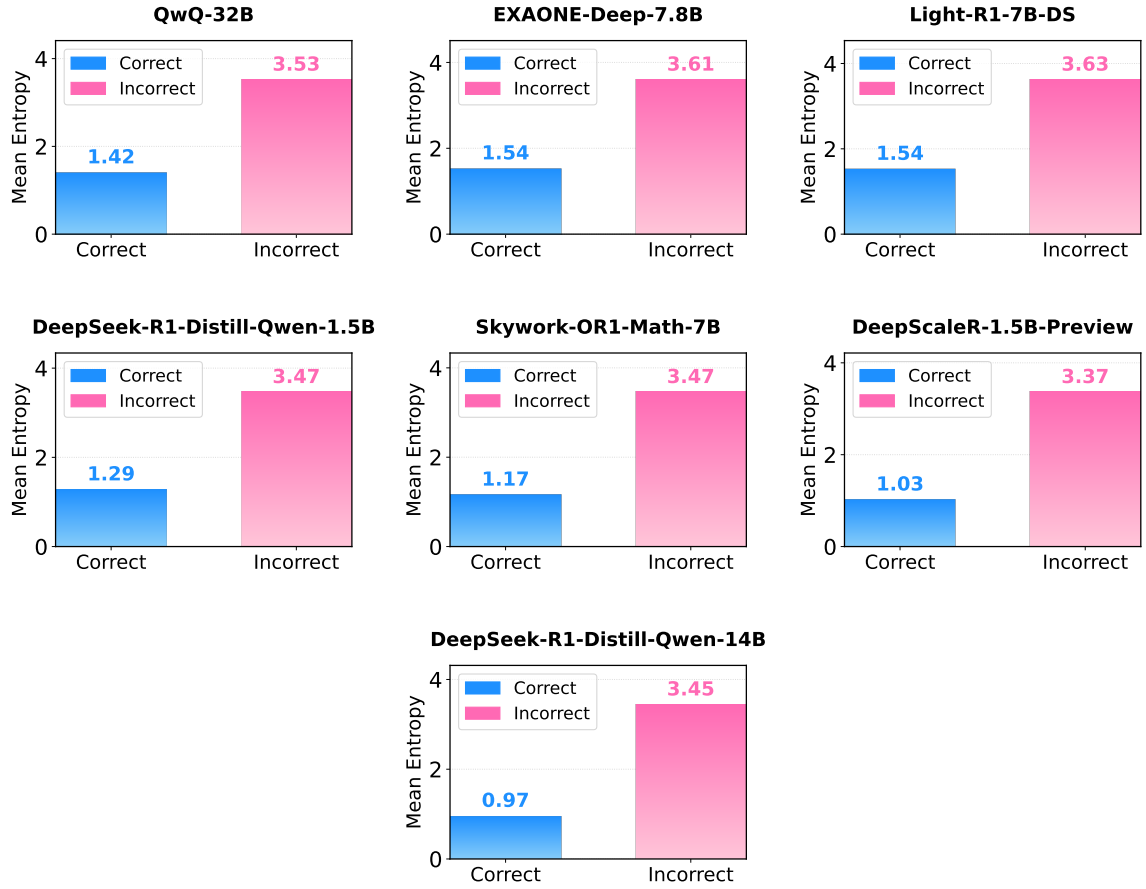
Figure 6: **Mean Entropy of Subthought Answer Distributions on AIME2025 (Greedy Completion).** Comparison between problems answered correctly ($A_{last} = A_{true}$) and incorrectly ($A_{last} \neq A_{true}$). Lower entropy correlates with correct answers.