

000 001 MAGO: BEYOND FIXED HYPERPARAMETERS WITH 002 MULTI-OBJECTIVE PARETO OPTIMIZATION FOR HY- 003 BRID LLM REASONING 004 005

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ABSTRACT

012 Large language models (LLMs) with advanced step-by-step reasoning capabilities have achieved remarkable performance in complex problem-solving through
013 chain-of-thought (CoT) reasoning. However, uniformly applying elaborate reasoning to all queries creates substantial computational inefficiency, as many problems can be solved directly without extended reasoning chains. Current hybrid
014 reasoning approaches rely on static hyperparameters and heuristic single-objective
015 optimization, leading to suboptimal trade-offs and poor adaptation to varying
016 task complexities. To address these limitations, we propose a multi-objective
017 adaptive generation optimization (MAGO) framework, which integrates multi-
018 objective optimization with dynamic adaptive weighting into hybrid reasoning.
019 MAGO optimizes three competing objectives simultaneously: accuracy (main-
020 taining solution correctness), efficiency (minimizing computational costs through
021 appropriate mode selection), and calibration (ensuring mode selection aligns with
022 model capabilities). The framework employs Pareto frontier maintenance with
023 correlation-aware optimization to automatically explore the full trade-off space,
024 avoiding the spatial constraints that limit fixed-weight approaches to narrow cone-
025 shaped regions of the objective space. Unlike existing methods requiring manual
026 hyperparameter tuning, MAGO’s Pareto optimization dynamically adapts weights
027 based on task complexity and training progress, achieving principled and adaptive
028 decision-making across varying problem complexities. Comprehensive evalua-
029 tion on mathematical reasoning benchmarks including AIME, Minerva Algebra,
030 MATH-500, and GSM-8K shows $2.2 \times$ to $3 \times$ token-efficiency gains and relative
031 accuracy improvements of 0.6% to 9.4% over heuristic baselines, while remain-
032 ing competitive with the strongest task-specific models. Additional experiments
033 on CommonsenseQA and MedQA further confirm the framework’s generalizabil-
034 ity beyond mathematics, achieving 1 to 2% higher accuracy and approximately
035 $2 \times$ efficiency improvement without additional fine-tuning.
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038 1 INTRODUCTION

039 Recent breakthroughs in step-by-step reasoning capabilities have enabled LLMs to achieve unpre-
040 cedented performance in complex problem-solving. Reasoning-enabled models such as DeepSeek-
041 R1 (DeepSeek-AI, 2025) and Claude (Anthropic, 2025) employ CoT reasoning (Wei et al., 2022) to
042 decompose complex problems into manageable sub-steps, thereby simulating human cognitive pro-
043 cesses (Nye et al., 2021; Jung et al., 2022). This paradigm has proven particularly effective in math-
044 ematical reasoning (Hendrycks et al., 2021; Cobbe et al., 2021) and logical inference tasks (Saha
045 et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2023).

046 However, uniformly applying elaborate reasoning to all queries creates significant efficiency prob-
047 lems in practical deployment scenarios. Large-scale deployment scenarios must handle diverse
048 query types ranging from simple factual questions requiring direct answers to complex multi-step
049 problems necessitating extensive reasoning (Rajpurkar et al., 2018; Khashabi et al., 2020). Indis-
050 criminate use of reasoning models for all inputs leads to substantial computational waste, as rea-
051 soning models generate hundreds to thousands of tokens for problems that could be solved with
052 direct answers, resulting in 5 to 20 times higher resource consumption compared to non-reasoning
053 approaches (Kaplan et al., 2020; Hoffmann et al., 2022; Suzgun et al., 2022; Fu et al., 2023).



To address the substantial computational costs and resource consumption inherent in reasoning-enabled models, current research has concentrated on several key directions to improve inference efficiency. Hybrid reasoning mode selection approaches develop systems that dynamically choose between detailed reasoning and concise response generation through learnable control mechanisms (Fang et al., 2025; Zelikman et al., 2024; Raposo et al., 2024), utilizing specialized optimization algorithms for adaptive mode switching. Test-time compute scaling techniques allocate computational resources dynamically during inference to optimize the trade-off between accuracy and efficiency (Snell et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2025; Lyu et al., 2025), enabling models to achieve better performance through adaptive inference-time computation rather than larger model parameters. Token-budget-aware reasoning methods explicitly incorporate computational cost constraints into the reasoning process (Han et al., 2024), developing frameworks that balance reasoning depth with predefined computational budgets. However, these methods often produce suboptimal solutions that excel in one aspect (such as accuracy or efficiency) while sacrificing others.

To address these challenges, we propose the MAGO framework, a theoretically grounded approach that reformulates hybrid reasoning as a multi-objective optimization problem. MAGO incorporates dynamic weight adaptation mechanisms that adjust with training progress and implements Pareto frontier maintenance (Deb et al., 2002; Miettinen, 1999) with correlation-aware weight selection to support more refined reasoning decisions. This method eliminates the need for manual hyperparameter tuning while achieving mathematically sound trade-offs among three competing objectives: accuracy (maintaining solution correctness), efficiency (minimizing computational costs), and decision calibration (ensuring mode selection aligns with the model’s actual capabilities) (see Figure 1). The main contributions of this paper are as follows:

- We identify two performance gaps in existing hybrid reasoning systems: (1) static weight configurations lead to model under-performance across different scenarios, and (2) strong correlations between objectives cause multi-objective optimization to under-perform.
- We propose MAGO, a multi-objective optimization framework addressing these gaps through: (1) reformulating hybrid reasoning as a multi-objective optimization problem, (2) using Pareto optimization for dynamic weight selection, and (3) achieving end-to-end integration from training to deployment with zero inference overhead.
- Our framework achieves 2.2x to 3x computational efficiency improvements while simultaneously improving accuracy by 0.6% to 9.4% across mathematical reasoning benchmarks. Cross-domain evaluation on CommonsenseQA and MedQA demonstrates generalizability beyond mathematics without fine-tuning.

2 MOTIVATION

In this section, we introduce static weight challenges and multi-objective optimization challenges.

Challenge #1: Static Weight. Current hybrid reasoning approaches (Fang et al., 2025; Shao et al., 2024) rely on fixed hyperparameters that fail to adapt to varying task complexities across different queries and training datasets. We make a series of attempts across various α values on mathematical reasoning benchmarks to explore this limitation. The results reveal three critical limitations of static weighting schemes. First, different α values cause severe mode selection imbalances (Figure 2A): $\alpha = 0.0001$ leads to over 90% short-mode usage, sacrificing accuracy on complex problems, while $\alpha = 0.01$ results in over 80% think-mode usage, negating efficiency gains. Second, optimal α varies significantly across datasets (Figure 2B), and no single fixed weight achieves consistent performance across diverse problem types. Third, exhaustive hyperparameter search for optimal α values is computationally prohibitive, requiring independent model training for each configuration with costs scaling linearly with search space size. These limitations demonstrate that static approaches can-

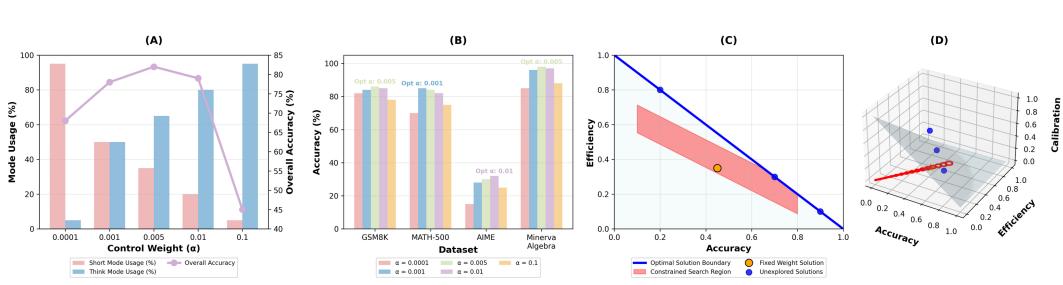


Figure 2: Static weight limitations in hybrid reasoning optimization. (A) Mode selection imbalance across control weight α values with accuracy performance. (B) Dataset-specific α sensitivity across mathematical reasoning benchmarks. (C) Fixed weight search constraints in objective space. (D) Cone-shaped optimization limitations in multi-objective landscape.

not accommodate the inherent variability in problem complexity and dataset characteristics while remaining computationally feasible. More details can be found in Appendix A.1.

Challenge #2: Multi-objective Optimization. The hybrid reasoning problem involves three competing objectives: accuracy, efficiency, and decision calibration. These objectives exhibit interdependencies creating optimization challenges. High accuracy often requires longer reasoning chains, creating tension with efficiency goals. Decision calibration considerations may favor conservative mode selection strategies, potentially affecting both accuracy and efficiency outcomes (Song et al., 2024; Wilde et al., 2024; Albeaik et al., 2024). Traditional single-weight approaches constrain optimization to narrow regions within the objective space, as illustrated in Figure 2C. Fixed weight values restrict the search trajectory to predetermined directions, preventing exploration of alternative regions with superior solutions. This spatial constraint confines optimization to limited cone-shaped regions (Figure 2D), missing optimal solutions in unexplored objective space areas. The limitation becomes pronounced when objectives exhibit different gradient scales and convergence rates, causing premature convergence to spatially constrained local optima rather than exploring the full solution landscape. More details can be found in Appendix A.2.

3 BACKGROUND

In this section, we present reinforcement learning and multi-objective pareto optimization.

Reinforcement Learning. GRPO (Shao et al., 2024) provides the foundation for training hybrid reasoning models through reinforcement learning. In this framework, x represents an input query or problem that requires the model to generate a response. Given control tokens $\mathcal{C} = \{\langle \text{short} \rangle, \langle \text{think} \rangle\}$, the hybrid reasoning model is parameterized as a policy π_θ :

$$\pi_\theta(c, a|x) = \pi_\theta(c|x) \cdot \pi_\theta(a|x, c), \quad (1)$$

where $c \in \mathcal{C}$ denotes the reasoning mode selection and a represents the generated response sequence. The sequence $a_i = (a_{i,0}, \dots, a_{i,T_i})$ has length $T_i + 1$, where $a_{i,0} \in \mathcal{C}$ is the control token and $(a_{i,1}, \dots, a_{i,T_i})$ form the response (Shao et al., 2024).

The standard GRPO objective treats all tokens uniformly through a single normalization factor:

$$J_{\text{GRPO}}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{x, a_i} \left[\frac{1}{G} \sum_{k=1}^G \left(\frac{1}{T_k + 1} \left[L_{k,0}(\theta) + \sum_{j=1}^{T_k} L_{k,j}(\theta) \right] - \beta D_{\text{KL}}[\pi_\theta(\cdot|x) \parallel \pi_{\text{ref}}(\cdot|x)] \right) \right], \quad (2)$$

where $L_{k,0}(\theta)$ and $L_{k,j}(\theta)$ represent control and response token losses, respectively. This creates two imbalances: the control token is overshadowed by T_k response tokens, and longer sequences suppress control gradients via the shared normalization $\frac{1}{T_k + 1}$. DeGRPO (Fang et al., 2025) introduces separate normalization and a weight parameter α to balance mode selection against response accuracy, preventing mode collapse. More details can be found in Appendix A.3.

162 **Multi-objective Pareto Optimization.** Multi-objective optimization addresses problems with
 163 multiple competing objectives that cannot be simultaneously optimized. Rather than seeking a single
 164 optimal solution, the goal of Pareto optimization is to find the set of Pareto-optimal solutions:

$$\mathcal{P} = \{x^* \in \mathcal{X} : \nexists x \in \mathcal{X}, \mathbf{f}(x) \preceq \mathbf{f}(x^*), \mathbf{f}(x) \neq \mathbf{f}(x^*)\}, \quad (3)$$

167 where $\mathbf{f}(x) = [f_1(x), f_2(x), \dots, f_m(x)]$ represents the objective vector, and \preceq denotes Pareto dominance
 168 (Deb et al., 2023; Feng et al., 2021). Traditional single-objective approaches using fixed
 169 weight combinations $\sum_i \lambda_i f_i(x)$ often fail to capture the full trade-off space, as they restrict optimi-
 170 zation to predetermined directions in the objective space. Multi-objective methods enable explo-
 171 ration of diverse trade-offs by adapting weights dynamically based on the problem characteristics
 172 and solution quality. More details can be found in Appendix A.4.

4 METHOD

175 In this section, we introduce the problem formulation and then present our solutions, including the
 176 MAGO framework, Pareto frontier maintenance, and end-to-end integration.

4.1 PROBLEM FORMULATION

180 In order to address the *Challenge #1* mentioned in previous sections, we formulate hybrid reasoning
 181 training as a dynamic adaptive optimization problem:

$$182 J(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{x, a_i} \left[\frac{1}{G} \sum_{k=1}^G \left(\underbrace{m(x)}_{\text{adaptive}} L_{k,0}(\theta) + \frac{1}{T_k} \sum_{j=1}^{T_k} L_{k,j}(\theta) - \beta D_{\text{KL}}[\pi_\theta(\cdot|x) \parallel \pi_{\text{ref}}(\cdot|x)] \right) \right], \quad (4)$$

187 where $m(x)$ represents an adaptive weighting mechanism that adjusts based on input characteristics.
 188 Unlike existing approaches that rely on fixed hyperparameters, $m(x)$ dynamically adapts to balance
 189 competing training objectives without requiring manual tuning or hyperparameter search.

4.2 MULTI-OBJECTIVE ADAPTIVE GENERATION OPTIMIZATION

192 To realize the adaptive weighting mechanism $m(x)$ introduced in Equation 4, we propose MAGO
 193 that dynamically balances competing objectives. The framework integrates three objectives:

$$194 m_{\text{MAGO}}(x) = \beta_1 \cdot S_{\text{accuracy}}(x) + \beta_2 \cdot S_{\text{efficiency}}(x) + \beta_3 \cdot S_{\text{calibration}}(x), \quad (5)$$

196 where $(\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3)$ are dynamically adapted weights that automatically balance the three competing
 197 objectives without manual tuning, and the three task-specific objectives are defined below:

199 **Accuracy Objective.** The accuracy objective $S_{\text{accuracy}}(x)$ measures the correctness of responses
 200 generated under different reasoning modes:

$$201 S_{\text{accuracy}}(x) = \mathbb{E}_{(c, a) \sim \pi_\theta(c, a|x)} [\mathbb{I}(\phi(a) = y^*)], \quad (6)$$

202 where $\mathbb{I}(\cdot)$ is the indicator function, y^* is the ground-truth answer, and $\phi(a)$ extracts the final answer
 203 from the response sequence a . This function parses the generated response to identify the con-
 204 cluding numerical or textual answer, enabling direct comparison with the ground truth regardless of
 205 reasoning mode length.

207 **Efficiency Objective.** The efficiency objective $S_{\text{efficiency}}(x)$ captures the potential for computa-
 208 tional savings through appropriate mode selection by measuring the expected response efficiency:

$$210 S_{\text{efficiency}}(x) = \mathbb{E}_{(c, a) \sim \pi_\theta(c, a|x)} \left[1 - \frac{|a|}{T_{\max}} \right], \quad (7)$$

212 where $|a|$ denotes the token length of the generated response sequence a , and T_{\max} represents the
 213 maximum allowed sequence length. The normalization term $\frac{|a|}{T_{\max}}$ measures the relative computa-
 214 tional cost, and subtracting from 1 converts this to an efficiency score where values approaching 1
 215 indicate highly efficient responses. This expectation is computed by sampling responses and calcu-
 lating their average normalized efficiency.

216 **Calibration Objective.** The decision calibration objective addresses a critical challenge in hybrid
 217 reasoning: ensuring that the model’s mode selection decisions are well-calibrated with its problem-
 218 solving capabilities. Specifically, when the model chooses the short reasoning mode, it should be
 219 confident that it can solve the problem correctly without extended reasoning. Conversely, when it
 220 selects the think mode, this should indicate that the problem requires more elaborate reasoning for
 221 solution. Poor calibration occurs when the model overconfidently chooses short mode for difficult
 222 problems or unnecessarily defaults to think mode for simple problems it could solve directly.

223 The decision calibration objective $S_{\text{calibration}}(x)$ ensures that mode selection decisions align with the
 224 model’s actual capability on the specific input by measuring decision calibration quality:

$$226 \quad S_{\text{calibration}}(x) = 1 - \mathbb{E}_{(c,a) \sim \pi_{\theta}(c,a|x)} [|P_{\text{model}}(\text{correct}|x, c) - \mathbb{I}(\phi(a) = y^*)|]. \quad (8)$$

227 To compute the model’s confidence estimate, we first extract the raw confidence score from the final
 228 answer tokens. Let L_{answer} denote the logits over the answer vocabulary at the final token position.
 229 The raw confidence score is defined as:

$$231 \quad \text{RawConf}(a) = \max(\text{softmax}(L_{\text{answer}})), \quad (9)$$

232 which represents the model’s highest probability assignment among all possible answer tokens. We
 233 then discretize this continuous confidence score into predefined intervals:

$$235 \quad b = \text{Bin}(\text{RawConf}(a)) = \lfloor \text{RawConf}(a) \times N_{\text{bins}} \rfloor, \quad (10)$$

236 where N_{bins} is the number of confidence bins (e.g., 5 or 10).

237 The model’s calibrated confidence estimate is then computed using statistical calibration based on
 238 historical performance:

$$240 \quad P_{\text{model}}(\text{correct}|x, c) = \text{HistoricalAccuracy}(c, b), \quad (11)$$

241 where $\text{HistoricalAccuracy}(c, b)$ returns the empirical accuracy for mode c in confidence bin b :

$$243 \quad \text{HistoricalAccuracy}(c, b) = \frac{\sum_{t \in \mathcal{H}(c,b)} \mathbb{I}(\text{correct}_t)}{|\mathcal{H}(c,b)|}, \quad (12)$$

245 where $\mathcal{H}(c, b)$ represents the set of historical samples with mode c and confidence bin b , and
 246 $\mathbb{I}(\text{correct}_t)$ indicates whether sample t produced the correct answer.

248 The historical statistics are maintained using exponential decay to prioritize recent performance:

$$249 \quad \text{HistoricalAccuracy}_{t+1}(c, b) = \lambda \cdot \text{HistoricalAccuracy}_t(c, b) + (1 - \lambda) \cdot \mathbb{I}(\text{correct}_{t+1}), \quad (13)$$

251 where $\lambda \in (0, 1)$ is the decay factor. This approach leverages the model’s intrinsic confidence distri-
 252 bution while correcting for systematic overconfidence or underconfidence patterns through empiri-
 253 cal calibration, requiring no additional neural components while providing more reliable confidence
 254 estimates than raw token probabilities. More details can be found in Appendix A.5.

255 4.3 PARETO FRONTIER

257 The Pareto frontier mechanism provides the mathematical foundation for dynamic weight adap-
 258 tation in MAGO to address *Challenge #2* mentioned in previous sections. We formalize the
 259 multi-objective optimization problem as maintaining an evolving set of weight configura-
 260 tions $\mathcal{F}_t = \{\beta^{(1)}, \beta^{(2)}, \dots, \beta^{(k)}\}$, where each $\beta^{(i)} = [\beta_1^{(i)}, \beta_2^{(i)}, \beta_3^{(i)}]$ represents a distinct combination of
 261 weights for the three competing objectives (accuracy, efficiency, and calibration). By maintaining
 262 a diverse set of non-dominated weight combinations, the Pareto optimization framework avoids the
 263 cone entrapment problem that constrains fixed-weight approaches to narrow regions of the objective
 264 space, enabling principled adaptation to varying task requirements.

265 At each iteration t , we evaluate the performance of weight configurations using the training batch
 266 \mathcal{B}_t . For a given weight vector $\beta^{(i)}$, we define the objective vector based on batch-level performance:

$$268 \quad \mathbf{S}_t(\beta^{(i)}) = \left[\frac{1}{|\mathcal{B}_t|} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{B}_t} S_{\text{accuracy}}(x), \frac{1}{|\mathcal{B}_t|} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{B}_t} S_{\text{efficiency}}(x), \frac{1}{|\mathcal{B}_t|} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{B}_t} S_{\text{calibration}}(x) \right]_{\beta^{(i)}}, \quad (14)$$

270 where $|\mathcal{B}_t|$ denotes the batch size, each component represents the average performance of the corre-
 271 sponding objective over the current batch, evaluated under the policy π_θ trained with weight config-
 272 uration $\beta^{(i)}$.
 273

274 The Pareto frontier is maintained as the set of non-dominated weight configurations:

$$275 \quad \mathcal{F}_t = \{\beta^{(i)} \mid \nexists \beta^{(j)} \in \mathcal{S}_t : \mathbf{S}_t(\beta^{(j)}) \succ \mathbf{S}_t(\beta^{(i)})\}, \quad (15)$$

276 where \mathcal{S}_t represents the set of all evaluated weight configurations up to iteration t , superscripts (i)
 277 and (j) index different weight vectors in the frontier, and \succ denotes Pareto dominance relation.
 278

279 To address objective correlations that lead to cone entrapment, we introduce a correlation-aware
 280 weight selection mechanism. For each training batch \mathcal{B}_t at iteration t , we compute the empirical
 281 correlation matrix between the three objectives:

$$282 \quad \mathbf{C}_t[i, j] = \frac{\sum_{x \in \mathcal{B}_t} (S^{(i)}(x) - \mu_t^{(i)})(S^{(j)}(x) - \mu_t^{(j)})}{\sqrt{\sum_{x \in \mathcal{B}_t} (S^{(i)}(x) - \mu_t^{(i)})^2 \sum_{x \in \mathcal{B}_t} (S^{(j)}(x) - \mu_t^{(j)})^2}}, \quad (16)$$

285 where $S^{(i)}(x)$ denotes the i -th objective function (accuracy, efficiency, or calibration) evaluated on
 286 input x , and $\mu_t^{(i)} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{B}_t|} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{B}_t} S^{(i)}(x)$ represents the batch mean of objective i . This correlation
 287 structure guides the selection of weight combinations from the current frontier, ensuring that highly
 288 correlated objectives receive balanced attention while conflicting objectives maintain proper balance.
 289

290 The weight selection process employs a correlation-adaptive scoring function $\Psi_t(\beta)$ that evaluates
 291 the quality of each weight configuration in the current Pareto frontier and penalizes configurations
 292 leading to high correlation between conflicting objectives:

$$293 \quad \Psi_t(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^3 \beta_i \hat{S}_t^{(i)} - \beta_{\text{corr}} \sum_{i < j} |\mathbf{C}_t[i, j]| \cdot |\beta_i - \beta_j|, \quad (17)$$

296 where $\hat{S}_t^{(i)}$ represents the moving average of the i -th objective performance over recent iterations,
 297 and $\beta_{\text{corr}} > 0$ is a hyperparameter controlling the penalty strength for correlated objectives. The first
 298 term rewards weight configurations that emphasize well-performing objectives, while the second
 299 term $|\beta_i - \beta_j|$ penalizes unbalanced weight allocations when objectives i and j are highly correlated,
 300 encouraging more uniform distribution across correlated objectives. The optimal weight vector for
 301 the current iteration is selected as:

$$302 \quad \beta_t^* = \arg \max_{\beta \in \mathcal{F}_t} \Psi_t(\beta). \quad (18)$$

304 To prevent premature convergence and ensure frontier diversity, we employ an exploration mecha-
 305 nism that generates new candidate solutions through guided perturbation:

$$307 \quad \beta^{\text{new}} = \beta_t^* + \epsilon_t \cdot \mathbf{d}, \quad (19)$$

308 where β_t^* is the currently selected optimal weight vector, \mathbf{d} is sampled uniformly from the constraint
 309 surface $\{\mathbf{d} \in \mathbb{R}^3 : \|\mathbf{d}\|_2 = 1, \sum_{i=1}^3 d_i = 0\}$ to preserve weight normalization, and ϵ_t is scaled based
 310 on the current frontier diversity measure:

$$311 \quad \epsilon_t = \epsilon_0 \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{D(\mathcal{F}_t)}{D_{\text{target}}}\right), \quad (20)$$

314 where $\epsilon_0 > 0$ is the base exploration rate hyperparameter, $D_{\text{target}} > 0$ is the target diversity threshold
 315 hyperparameter, and $D(\mathcal{F}_t) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{F}_t|^2} \sum_{\beta^{(i)}, \beta^{(j)} \in \mathcal{F}_t} \|\beta^{(i)} - \beta^{(j)}\|_2$ measures the average pairwise
 316 Euclidean distance among frontier solutions (Deb et al., 2002).

317 The frontier update mechanism integrates newly evaluated candidate solutions and maintains non-
 318 dominance:

$$319 \quad \mathcal{F}_{t+1} = \text{NonDominated}(\mathcal{F}_t \cup \{\beta^{\text{new}}\}) \cap \text{DiversityFilter}(\cdot, \tau_{\text{div}}), \quad (21)$$

320 where $\text{DiversityFilter}(\cdot, \tau_{\text{div}})$ ensures minimum pairwise distance τ_{div} between frontier solutions to
 321 prevent clustering. In implementation, the number of frontier vectors $|\mathcal{F}_t|$ grows gradually in early
 322 training and stabilizes around 20–25, remaining below the upper bound $|\mathcal{F}_{\text{max}}| = 30$. When the limit
 323 is reached, dominated or redundant vectors are pruned through cosine-similarity filtering to preserve
 representative diversity. More details about algorithm convergence can be found in Appendix A.6.

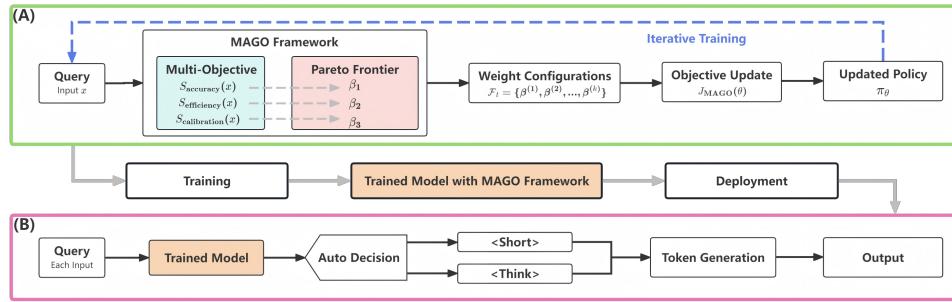


Figure 3: MAGO framework efficiently implements end-to-end integration from training to deployment and inference. (A) Training pipeline with multi-objective optimization and frontier updates. (B) Inference pipeline with learned adaptive mode selection.

4.4 END-TO-END INTEGRATION

Training and Deployment. MAGO integrates into the hybrid reasoning training framework by replacing static weight parameters with dynamic multi-objective optimization (Figure 3A). At each training iteration, the system selects an optimal weight vector $\beta_t^* = [\beta_1^*, \beta_2^*, \beta_3^*]$ from the current Pareto frontier \mathcal{F}_t using correlation-aware selection (Eq. 18). The selected weights instantiate the adaptive weighting function $m_{\text{MAGO}}(x; \beta_t^*) = \beta_1^* S_{\text{accuracy}}(x) + \beta_2^* S_{\text{efficiency}}(x) + \beta_3^* S_{\text{calibration}}(x)$, which determines the control token weight for the current batch in the training objective:

$$J(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{x, a_i} \left[\frac{1}{G} \sum_{k=1}^G \left(m_{\text{MAGO}}(x; \beta_t^*) L_{k,0}(\theta) + \frac{1}{T_k} \sum_{j=1}^{T_k} L_{k,j}(\theta) - \beta D_{\text{KL}}[\pi_\theta(\cdot|x) \parallel \pi_{\text{ref}}(\cdot|x)] \right) \right]. \quad (22)$$

In training (Figure 3A), the framework iteratively performs policy updates using the selected weights, evaluates objective performance on the current batch, and maintains the Pareto frontier through non-dominated sorting in this closed-loop process. During deployment (Figure 3B), the trained model automatically selects between `<short>` and `<think>` modes with zero inference overhead through learned decision-making, followed by standard token generation. More details can be found in Appendix A.7.

Training Process and Reward Design. We use a minimal reward function in training which encourages efficiency while maintaining correctness:

$$r(a, y^*, c) = \begin{cases} 1.0, & \text{if } c = \text{<short>} \text{ and } \phi(a) = y^*, \\ 1.0 - \gamma, & \text{if } c = \text{<think>} \text{ and } \phi(a) = y^*, \\ -1.0, & \text{if } \phi(a) \neq y^*, \end{cases} \quad (23)$$

where $\phi(a)$ extracts the final answer and $0 < \gamma < 1$ creates preference for efficient correct responses (Fang et al., 2025). Additional details including the relative advantage computation and token-level loss formulations are provided in Appendix A.8.

Framework Summary. While MAGO framework introduces training overhead, this cost is amortized across millions of inference queries, yielding substantial operational savings. The framework enables automatic adaptation to changing model capabilities and data characteristics, providing principled trade-offs between accuracy, efficiency, and calibration without manual tuning, operating entirely during training with zero additional inference parameters or computation.

5 EXPERIMENTS

5.1 IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

Experimental Setup. We employ DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Qwen-1.5B (Guo et al., 2025) as the base model for hybrid reasoning training. To construct paired long-short response data for warm-up distillation, we leverage DeepSeek-R1-671B (Guo et al., 2025) to generate extended reasoning chains and

378 Qwen2.5-Math-1.5B-Instruct (Yang et al., 2024a) for concise responses. The training corpus
 379 comprises approximately 40K samples aggregated from DeepScaleR (Luo et al., 2025), OpenR1 (Face,
 380 2025), OpenThoughts-114K (Team, 2025), and additional open-source mathematical reasoning
 381 corpora (Jebali et al., 2024; Langlais et al., 2025). To demonstrate scalability, we conduct experiments
 382 across Qwen2.5 series backbones of varying sizes (1.5B, 7B, 14B, 32B parameters) (Yang et al.,
 383 2024a). All experiments are conducted on 4 to 8 NVIDIA H100 GPUs depending on model size.
 384

385 **Training Configuration.** Training involves supervised fine-tuning (1 epoch) followed by MAGO
 386 reinforcement learning (600 steps), implemented using VeRL (Jiang et al., 2025) and Mega-
 387 tron (Shoeybi et al., 2019). We optimize using AdamW (AbuKaraki et al., 2024) with learning rate
 388 1×10^{-6} , batch size 128, weight decay 0.01, and momentum $\beta = (0.9, 0.999)$. Context length is
 389 16K during warm-up and 24K during reinforcement learning. MAGO hyperparameters: correlation
 390 penalty $\beta_{\text{corr}} = 0.1$, exploration rate $\epsilon_0 = 0.05$, diversity threshold $\tau_{\text{div}} = 0.2$, maximum frontier
 391 size $|\mathcal{F}_{\text{max}}| = 30$, calibration bins $N_{\text{bins}} = 10$, decay factor $\lambda = 0.95$ for historical accuracy, and
 392 reward preference $\gamma = 0.1$ favoring correct short responses.
 393

394 **Evaluation Benchmarks and Baselines.** We evaluate on six benchmarks: AIME 2024 (Ji et al.,
 395 2025b), Minerva Algebra (Hendrycks et al., 2021), MATH-500 (Lightman et al., 2023), and GSM-
 396 8K (Cobbe et al., 2021) for mathematical reasoning, CommonsenseQA (Talmor et al., 2019) and
 397 MedQA-USMLE (Jin et al., 2021) for cross-domain generalization. All benchmarks report Pass@1
 398 accuracy and token usage per query. We compare against three baseline categories: (1) *Base
 399 LLMs*: DeepSeek-R1-1.5B (Guo et al., 2025), Qwen2.5-1.5B-Instruct, and Qwen2.5-Math-1.5B-
 400 Instruct (Yang et al., 2024a); (2) *Shortened CoT*: Model Merging (Team et al., 2025) with coeffi-
 401 cients (0.5, 0.6, 0.7) and CoT-Valve (Ma et al., 2025) with $\alpha \in \{4, 6, 8\}$; (3) *Hybrid Reasoning*:
 402 DeGRPO (Fang et al., 2025) with fixed $\alpha = 0.001$, random router, and Qwen2.5-7B router (Ong
 403 et al., 2024). Additional details are provided in Appendix A.9.
 404

405 5.2 RESULT

406 **Multi-Objective Optimization Evaluation.** We first evaluate MAGO on the 1.5B backbone.
 407 Across mathematical reasoning benchmarks, MAGO yields $2.2 \times$ to $3 \times$ token-efficiency gains and
 408 0.6% to 9.4% relative accuracy improvements over heuristic baselines, with consistent improve-
 409 ments across all evaluated tasks. Table 1 shows that MAGO achieves superior token efficiency
 410 (7,164 vs. 18,063+ baseline tokens on AIME) and competitive or superior accuracy on most bench-
 411 marks, including AIME (0.2741) and MATH-500 (0.8247), while remaining close to the best scores
 412 on Minerva Algebra (0.9483 vs. 0.9577) and GSM-8K (0.8469 vs. 0.8572). Unlike baseline meth-
 413 ods that require dataset-specific hyperparameter tuning and router-based approaches that struggle
 414 with complex datasets, MAGO’s Pareto optimization framework automatically calibrates reason-
 415 ing strategies to achieve optimal efficiency–accuracy trade-offs, demonstrating the effectiveness of
 416 principled multi-objective optimization over heuristic approaches in hybrid reasoning systems. To
 417 validate scalability, we further apply MAGO to larger backbones (7B, 14B, and 32B). As model
 418 capacity increases, Pass@1 improves consistently across all benchmarks while average token usage
 419 per query decreases slightly, indicating that MAGO’s Pareto optimization generalizes effectively to
 420 larger-scale models without increasing inference cost. More details can be found in Appendix A.10.
 421

422 **Mode Collapse in RL.** Our Pareto optimization prevents mode collapse by maintaining balanced
 423 reasoning mode selection throughout training, avoiding the extreme preference for short responses
 424 that characterizes vanilla GRPO. Figure 4 (A) illustrates the *Mode Collapse* issue in standard GRPO,
 425 where the model develops an excessive preference for short outputs during training, with the num-
 426 ber of think samples dropping precipitously to near zero within 120 training steps. In contrast, the
 427 proposed framework demonstrates significantly more stable training dynamics, maintaining a bal-
 428 anced distribution between think and short samples throughout the process. The vanilla GRPO’s
 429 rapid collapse to predominantly short-mode usage (below 10 think samples) indicates a failure to
 430 properly balance competing objectives of accuracy and efficiency. Our Pareto-based optimization
 431 prevents this catastrophic collapse by maintaining diverse weight configurations that ensure neither
 432 reasoning mode is abandoned, enabling adaptive strategy selection based on query complexity rather
 433 than converging to suboptimal modes.

Table 1: Comparison of MAGO against baseline reasoning methods on mathematical benchmarks.

Models	Type	AIME 2024		Minerva Algebra		MATH-500		GSM8K	
		Pass@1	#Tokens	Pass@1	#Tokens	Pass@1	#Tokens	Pass@1	#Tokens
DeepSeek-R1-1.5B (Guo et al., 2025)	Base LLM	0.2800	18063	0.9577	3029	0.8608	5675	0.8347	1919
Q-1.5B (Yang et al., 2024a)		0.0200	1300	0.7771	933	0.5168	855	0.7022	466
QMath-1.5B (Yang et al., 2024a)		0.1133	1128	0.9184	586	0.7604	721	0.8572	447
Merging-0.5 (Team et al., 2025)	Short Cot	0.1333	8636	0.9292	834	0.7740	1524	0.8332	601
Merging-0.6 (Team et al., 2025)		0.1733	10615	0.9321	1091	0.7900	3000	0.8381	747
Merging-0.7 (Team et al., 2025)		0.1667	15854	0.9398	1834	0.8108	4347	0.8458	1201
CoT-Valve $\alpha = 8$ (Ma et al., 2025)		0.2000	10692	0.8079	1903	0.7060	3723	0.7726	773
CoT-Valve $\alpha = 6$ (Ma et al., 2025)		0.1933	17245	0.9468	2656	0.8024	5167	0.7970	1009
CoT-Valve $\alpha = 4$ (Ma et al., 2025)		0.2267	17722	0.9439	2965	0.8036	5820	0.8108	1396
Router Random (Fang et al., 2025)	Hybrid	0.1300	8093	0.9032	1736	0.7484	3096	0.8205	1086
Router Q-7B (Ong et al., 2024)		0.1480	9296	0.9049	795	0.7781	2748	0.8587	563
DeGRPO-Qwen-1.5B (Fang et al., 2025)	Hybrid	0.2506	7262	0.9216	1228	0.8037	2644	0.8418	649
MAGO-Qwen-1.5B (Ours)		0.2741	7164	0.9483	1174	0.8247	2578	0.8469	633
MAGO-Qwen-7B (Ours)	Pareto	0.2960	6890	0.9562	1102	0.8424	2426	0.8611	592
MAGO-Qwen-14B (Ours)		0.3112	6724	0.9621	1041	0.8538	2368	0.8723	571
MAGO-Qwen-32B (Ours)		0.3254	6587	0.9689	992	0.8652	2294	0.8834	552

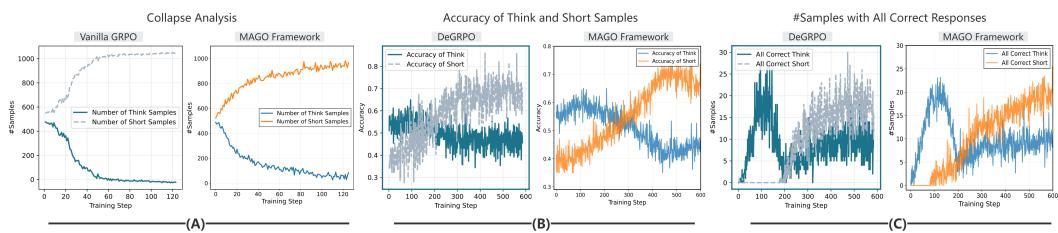


Figure 4: Training dynamics comparison between vanilla GRPO, DeGRPO, and MAGO frameworks. (A) Mode collapse analysis showing sample distribution over training steps. (B) Accuracy evolution for think and short reasoning modes during training. (C) Number of samples achieving correct responses for both reasoning modes.

Table 2: Cross-domain generalization on CommonsenseQA.

Model	Accuracy (%) \uparrow	Tokens / Query \downarrow	Token Reduction
DeGRPO	73.1	312	-
CoT-Valve	73.8	298	1.05
MAGO (ours)	74.9	152	2.05

The U-Shape Learning Curve. Figure 4 (B) reveals that our approach achieves more balanced training dynamics across 600 steps, with both reasoning modes converging smoothly after approximately 300 steps. While DeGRPO exhibits high volatility with fluctuations in accuracy for both modes, the proposed method demonstrates stable convergence patterns with reduced variance. The think mode maintains consistent performance around 0.6-0.7 accuracy while the short mode gradually improves from 0.4 to 0.5, contrasting sharply with DeGRPO’s chaotic dynamics where accuracy fluctuates wildly between 0.3 and 0.8. Figure 4 (C) demonstrates superior sample efficiency, showing that the model quickly learns to activate short mode while ensuring correctness. The intersection point between think and short correct responses occurs later in training (around step 400), indicating more thorough exploration of reasoning mode trade-offs before settling on optimal strategies.

Cross-Domain Generalization. To evaluate the generalization ability of MAGO beyond mathematical reasoning, we perform additional experiments on CommonsenseQA, a benchmark that assesses everyday reasoning and contextual understanding. The objective is to examine whether our proposed Pareto-based adaptive optimization, trained only on mathematical reasoning data, can effectively transfer to a different reasoning domain without further fine-tuning. The same inference settings described in Section 5.1 are adopted for all methods. Representative hybrid reasoning baselines, including DeGRPO and CoT-Valve, are used for comparison. The experimental results are presented in Table 2. All results are averaged over three random seeds to ensure stability. MAGO achieves 74.9% accuracy, outperforming DeGRPO and CoT-Valve by 1.8% and 1.1%, respectively, while reducing the average number of generated tokens from 312 to 152, corresponding to a $2.05 \times$ improvement in efficiency. These findings demonstrate that MAGO’s Pareto-based adaptive optimization generalizes effectively across reasoning domains and maintains a stable balance between

accuracy and computational efficiency. We also evaluate MAGO on MedQA-USMLE (Jin et al., 2021), a medical question answering benchmark, where MAGO achieves over $2.0\times$ efficiency improvement while maintaining competitive accuracy. More details can be found in Appendix A.18.

Computational Complexity. We analyze the computational and memory complexity introduced by the multi-objective optimization process. Let $|\mathcal{B}|$ denote the batch size, $M = 3$ the number of objectives, and $|\mathcal{F}_t|$ the number of maintained frontier vectors, with an upper bound $|\mathcal{F}_{\max}| = 30$.

Per-step time cost consists of several components. Computing objective statistics and scores is $\mathcal{O}(|\mathcal{B}| \cdot M)$. Correlation estimation among objectives is $\mathcal{O}(|\mathcal{B}| \cdot M^2)$. Updating the Pareto frontier requires non-dominated sorting and diversity filtering, which is $\mathcal{O}(|\mathcal{F}_t|^2 \cdot M)$, and remains constant in practice since $|\mathcal{F}_t| \leq |\mathcal{F}_{\max}|$. The guided perturbation and projection to the simplex is $\mathcal{O}(M)$. Therefore, the overall additional time complexity per step is $\mathcal{O}(|\mathcal{B}| \cdot M^2 + |\mathcal{F}_{\max}|^2 \cdot M)$, which is dominated by the batch term and treated as a small constant overhead due to the tight cap on $|\mathcal{F}_{\max}|$.

The memory cost is linear in the frontier size, $\mathcal{O}(|\mathcal{F}_{\max}| \cdot M)$, corresponding to at most 90 scalars in our configuration, plus $\mathcal{O}(M \cdot N_{\text{bins}})$ for calibration bins. All operations are performed in the objective space and are independent of model parameters, ensuring scalability to larger backbones.

6 RELATED WORK

Reasoning (Hybrid and Efficient). Recent hybrid reasoning advances combine multiple paradigms for efficiency. Chain-of-thought and program-aided reasoning integrate natural language with code (Gao et al., 2022; Ranaldi et al., 2024), while self-refinement methods iteratively improve chains (Madaan et al., 2023; Ji et al., 2025a). Tree-of-thoughts structures reasoning as search (Yao et al., 2023; Pandey et al., 2025), adaptive frameworks select strategies by complexity (Zhou et al., 2023; Tu et al., 2025), and multi-path reasoning aggregates diverse chains (Zhu et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2024c). Compression (Omri et al., 2025; Han et al., 2024) and selective generation (Jo et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2024b) reduce tokens while maintaining accuracy. However, these lack principled frameworks for jointly optimizing strategy selection and efficiency across diverse distributions.

Effective Reasoning (Single Methods). Single-paradigm optimizations enhance reasoning without hybridization. Prompt compression preserves semantics with 20x ratios (Jiang et al., 2023), knowledge distillation transfers capabilities to smaller models (Shridhar et al., 2023), and speculative decoding accelerates inference (Leviathan et al., 2022). Structured pruning removes redundant steps (Tao et al., 2023; Men et al., 2024), early-exit uses confidence thresholds (Tang et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2025), token-level optimization skips steps (Lee et al., 2024), and cache-based approaches reuse patterns (Yang et al., 2025a;b). These optimize singular objectives, missing opportunities.

Multi-Objective Optimization (MOO). MOO in language models balances competing goals. Pareto-optimal solutions identify accuracy-efficiency trade-offs (Mukherjee et al., 2024; Huang et al., 2024), weighted scalarization combines objectives (Yang et al., 2024c; Li & Ma, 2018), and RL optimizes multiple rewards (Zhang et al., 2024b). Constraint-based methods ensure safety (Zhang et al., 2024a; Peng et al., 2025), dynamic adjustment adapts priorities (Low & Kumar, 2024; Krishna & Vali, 2025), preference learning captures values (Dai et al., 2023; Shen et al., 2025), and evolutionary algorithms handle trade-offs (Bai et al., 2023; Li et al., 2024). However, MOO in inference mode selection remains underexplored, missing context-aware optimization opportunities.

7 CONCLUSION

We present MAGO, a multi-objective adaptive generation optimization framework that integrates Pareto frontier maintenance with correlation-aware weight selection for hybrid reasoning in LLMs. Our framework combines three competing objectives (accuracy, efficiency, and calibration) through dynamic weight adaptation using Pareto frontier maintenance and correlation-aware selection. This principled approach eliminates hyperparameter tuning while preventing the mode collapse observed in existing reinforcement learning methods. Experiments show that MAGO delivers $2.2\times$ to $3\times$ token-efficiency gains along with 0.6% to 9.4% relative accuracy improvements over heuristic methods on mathematical reasoning tasks. Cross-domain evaluation on CommonsenseQA and MedQA further confirms the framework’s transferability beyond mathematics without additional fine-tuning.

540 ETHICS STATEMENT
541542 This work adheres to the ICLR Code of Ethics. Our research focuses on developing multi-objective
543 optimization for adaptive reasoning in large language models. We identify the following ethical
544 considerations:
545546 **Privacy.** No personally identifiable information is collected or processed.
547548 **Environmental Impact.** We report detailed computational requirements in Appendix A.9.
549550 **Potential Harms.** Our optimization framework could potentially be applied to harmful applica-
551 tions. We emphasize the importance of responsible deployment and adherence to AI safety guide-
552 lines.
553554 REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT
555556 To facilitate reproduction of our results:
557558 **Code.** Complete implementation including training scripts and evaluation code will be released
559 upon paper acceptance. For review purposes, we provide pseudocode in Appendix.
560561 **Experimental Details.** Hyperparameters and experimental setup are fully specified in Appendix
562 A.9. Hardware specifications are provided in Appendix A.9.
563564 **Data.** We use publicly available datasets: AIME 2024, Minerva Algebra, MATH-500, and GSM-
565 8K for mathematical reasoning evaluation; CommonsenseQA and MedQA-USMLE for cross-
566 domain evaluation; DeepScaleR, OpenR1, and OpenThoughts-114K for training.
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A APPENDIX

841 All appendices are provided in the supplementary text.