

PATHFINDER: GRAPH-STRUCTURED REASONING FOR MEDICAL VISUAL QUESTION ANSWERING

Anonymous authors

Paper under double-blind review

ABSTRACT

Medical Visual Question Answering (MVQA) aims not only to predict correct diagnoses but also to provide explicit, clinically-grounded reasoning to enhance interpretability, to foster clinician trust, and to support AI-assisted decision-making. Despite the recent advances, the explanations of existing MVQA are often incomplete and non-causal, neglecting key evidence, intermediate steps, and alternative hypotheses. In this paper, we present PathFinder, a graph-structured reasoning framework, in which medical entities are represented as nodes and causal/evidential relations as edges, enabling systematic traversal of diagnostic pathways. In PathFinder, we define two structural reasoning dimensions: step-wise exploration, which encourages PathFinder to traverse intermediate entities with causal links, and branch-wise exploration, which encourages exploring alternative diagnostic routes and ruling out unlikely options. Further, we introduce Graph-GRPO to integrate graph-structured supervision with two process-level rewards: a Step Reward for causally coherent reasoning, and a Branch Reward for systematic exploration of alternatives, complemented by outcome accuracy. Experiments on seven multimodal and seven text-only benchmarks consistently show that PathFinder outperforms state-of-the-art methods, while producing reasoning results that are causally coherent and structurally comprehensive. Codes will be released.

1 INTRODUCTION

Reasoning-based Vision-Language Models (VLMs) have recently emerged in Medical Visual Question Answering (MVQA) aiming not only to predict answers but also to generate explicit explanations that justify diagnostic decisions (Lai et al., 2025; Pan et al., 2025; Huang et al., 2025a; Sun et al., 2025a; Xu et al., 2025b; Chen et al., 2024b; Lin et al., 2025). Unlike methods that focus solely on producing correct answers, MVQA prioritize clinically-grounded reasoning, to improve interpretability, build clinician trust, and enable safer AI-assisted decision-making in clinical practice.

Despite these efforts, the quality of reasoning in practice often falls short. Even when the model outputs correct answers, their reasoning chains are frequently superficial or lack causal coherence. See two failure cases in Figure 2: MedVLM-R1 (Pan et al., 2025) and Med-R1 (Lai et al., 2025) select the correct answer but fail to specify any key imaging findings or supporting evidence. This may mislead surgeons, potentially causing them to overlook alternative procedures, thereby increasing the likelihood of intraoperative complications. Moreover, insufficient reasoning prevents clinicians from assessing answer reliability, ultimately jeopardizing patient safety (Cross et al., 2024; Xu et al., 2025a; Sokol et al., 2025; Challen et al., 2019). Therefore, answer correctness alone is insufficient in high-stakes medical settings: diagnostic reasoning should be *clinically-grounded*, integrating relevant evidence and systematically ruling out alternatives. In practice, reasoning rarely unfolds as a linear chain but instead forms a network of interdependent relations, where clinicians connect heterogeneous entities and weigh both supportive and contradictory evidence (Croskerry et al., 2023).

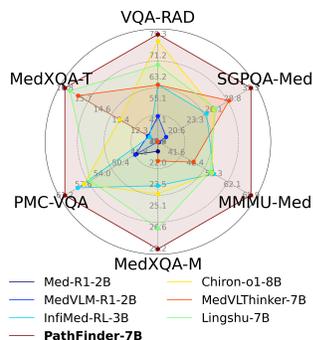
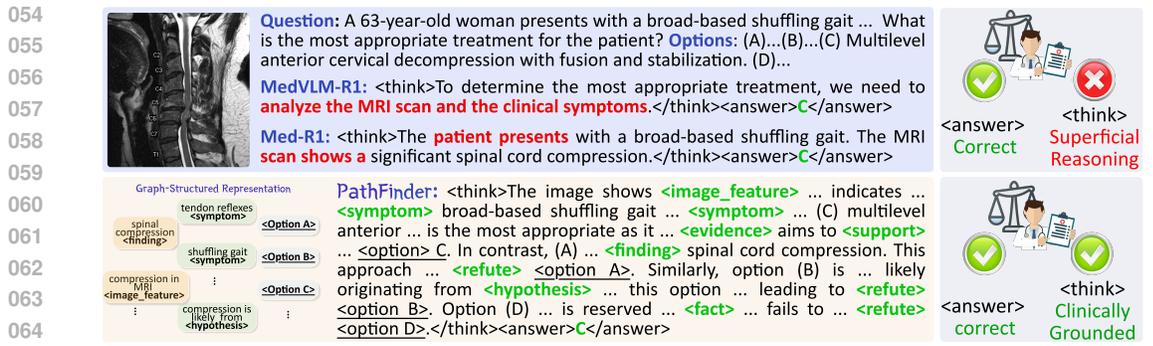


Figure 1: Comparing with six recent reasoning-based medical VLMs on six benchmarks. PathFinder-7B achieves the leading performance.



065 Figure 2: Examples of models choosing correct option but providing incomplete and non-causal
 066 reasoning without medical findings, imaging features or meaningful clues as intermediate steps. In
 067 contrast, **PathFinder-7B** arrives at the correct choice by traversing intermediate entities and inte-
 068 grating evidential and causal relations via its graph-structured representation.

069 Motivated by this observation, we introduce **PathFinder**, a graph-structured reasoning framework
 070 that links medical entities through evidential and causal relations to enable systematic exploration
 071 of diagnostic paths and construction of clinical reasoning chains. In PathFinder, reasoning is repre-
 072 sented as a graph, with *nodes* corresponding to intermediate findings, symptoms, hypotheses, or con-
 073 clusions, and *edges* representing causal or evidential links. This representation enables two comple-
 074 mentary evaluation dimensions: (i) **Step-Wise Exploration**, whether reasoning progresses through
 075 intermediate entities and connects them causally; and (ii) **Branch-Wise Exploration**, whether alter-
 076 native diagnostic routes are systematically considered and unlikely options eliminated. Evaluation
 077 of state-of-the-art general and medical VLMs reveals corresponding deficiencies: (i) *step deficiency*,
 078 reasoning chains are incomplete or non-causal, omitting key evidence; and (ii) *branch deficiency*,
 079 models produce narrow or overconfident predictions that fail to explore or eliminate alternative hy-
 080 potheses. Figures 4 and 5 illustrate these issues, showing clinically shallow reasoning or premature
 081 commitment to a single option. More examples are in Appendix. A.2.

082 To address these deficiencies, we propose **Graph-GRPO**, to improve reasoning quality by integrat-
 083 ing a graph-structured representation. Specifically, a **Step Reward** steers the model to generate
 084 complete and causally-coherent reasoning chains, while a **Branch Reward** promotes probing al-
 085 ternative hypotheses. These process-level rewards provide verifiable supervision for step-wise and
 086 branch-wise exploration. In addition, an outcome accuracy reward helps to ensure correct final pre-
 087 dictions. As shown in Figure 1, our PathFinder achieves state-of-the-art accuracy comparing with
 088 recent reasoning-based medical VLM on both multi-modal benchmarks (VQA-RAD (Lau et al.,
 089 2018), PMC-VQA (Zhang et al., 2023), MMMU-Med (Yue et al., 2024), MedXQA-M (Zuo et al.,
 090 2025)) and tex-only benchmarks (SGPQA-Med (Team et al., 2025) and MedXQA-T (Zuo et al.,
 091 2025)), also generates richer, clinically-grounded reasoning, shown in Table 1.

092 Our contributions are threefold:

- 093 • We introduce PathFinder, a graph-structured reasoning framework that links medical en-
 094 tities via evidential and causal relations, enabling systematic construction of clinical rea-
 095 soning chains and formalizes two complementary evaluation dimensions: step-wise and
 096 branch-wise exploration.
- 097 • We design Graph-GRPO, a reinforcement learning algorithm that leverages graph-
 098 structured rewards. Step Reward encourages causally coherent reasoning chains, while
 099 Branch Reward promotes exploration and elimination of alternatives.
- 100 • We develop PathFinder-7B and evaluate it on seven multimodal and seven text-only medical
 101 benchmarks. The model achieves state-of-the-art performance and significantly improves
 102 reasoning quality in both step- and branch-wise dimensions.

103
 104
 105 **2 RELATED WORKS**

106 **General Reasoning-based Vision Language Model.** Reasoning has become a central capability
 107 for large models, with significant progress made in both text-only and multimodal domains. Early

advances such as Chain-of-Thought (CoT) prompting (Wei et al., 2022) demonstrate that decomposing complex questions into intermediate steps improves logical consistency and problem-solving ability. Beyond supervised fine-tuning (SFT) on curated reasoning traces, reinforcement learning (RL) approaches have emerged as powerful alternatives, most notably Reinforcement Learning with Verifiable Rewards (RLVR), which directly optimizes answer correctness without requiring explicit reasoning supervision. Efficient RL algorithms such as Group Relative Policy Optimization (GRPO) (Shao et al., 2024) further enable scalable training without a critic network. Building on these ideas, models like DeepSeek-R1 (DeepSeek-AI et al., 2025) and Qwen-QwQ (Team, 2025) show that combining SFT with RL yields stronger reasoning skills, especially for long-context or multimodal tasks. Very recently, researchers (Wang et al., 2025; Yang et al., 2025; Zhang et al., 2025; Chen et al., 2025b) extend these pipelines to vision-language settings by first distilling reasoning traces from strong text-only LLMs then applying RL to improve visual reasoning.

Chain-of-Thought Reasoning in Medical AI. Chain-of-Thought (CoT) prompting has been widely used in general-domain LLMs to elicit interpretable intermediate reasoning. Its extension to the medical domain has recently drawn increasing attention, as clinical decision-making naturally follows multi-step diagnostic reasoning. Early works (Wu et al., 2024; Wei et al., 2024; Jiang et al., 2025; Liu et al., 2024; Gai et al., 2024) primarily explored CoT prompting for medical (V)QA, showing that exposing intermediate reasoning improves performance. These methods demonstrated that CoT can encourage models to articulate differential diagnoses or key clinical observations, but they often suffer from hallucinated steps, limited grounding, and a lack of evaluation on reasoning quality (Kim et al., 2025; Zuo & Jiang, 2024). More recently, reflective reasoning frameworks or multi-agent workflow, including MedPrompt (Chen et al., 2024c), MedReflect (Huang et al., 2025b) and MedReason (Sun et al., 2025b), enforce multi-step verification or reflection to partially mitigate overconfident clinical reasoning. However, these methods are still limited to linear reasoning chains and cannot capture the inherently branch and step-exploration nature of clinical workflows.

Medical Reasoning-based Vision Language Model. The development of medical vision-language models largely follows the trace of adapting general-purpose multimodal LLMs with domain-specific data. Early works such as Med-Flamingo (Moor et al., 2023), LLaVA-Med (Li et al., 2023), and RadFM (Wu et al., 2023) scaled training with large collections of medical image-text pairs, primarily focusing on improving representation alignment and clinical relevance. While these models achieve strong performance on image understanding and report generation, they are not designed for structured reasoning. Recently, there has been growing interest in equipping medical VLMs with reasoning capabilities. HuatuoGPT-o1 (Chen et al., 2024a) integrates reinforcement learning to elicit diagnostic reasoning. MedVLM-R1 (Pan et al., 2025) and Med-R1 (Lai et al., 2025) adopted reinforcement learning with verifiable rewards to improve reasoning quality across radiology and pathology tasks, albeit with limited data scales. More recent efforts such as GMAI-VL-R1 (Su et al., 2025), MedVLThinker (Huang et al., 2025a), Chiron-o1 (Sun et al., 2025a), InfiMed (Liu et al., 2025) and Lingshu (Xu et al., 2025b) extend this paradigm to broader multimodal medical reasoning. These studies highlight the emerging direction of integrating reasoning supervision and reinforcement learning into medical VLMs, marking an important step toward models capable of systematic diagnostic reasoning. However, the analysis in Table 1 reveals step and branch deficiencies in these prior medical VLMs, which skip critical intermediate reasoning steps or fail to explore alternative diagnostic routes. In comparison, our PathFinder framework explicitly addresses these deficiencies, yielding more comprehensive and clinically-grounded reasoning and setting a new state-of-the-art performance on multimodal and text-only benchmarks.

3 PATHFINDER: GRAPH-STRUCTURED REASONING FRAMEWORK

We introduce **PathFinder**, a graph-structured reasoning framework for MVQA. It consists of two core components: (a) **Graph-Structured Reasoning Representation** for CoT data construction, and (b) **Graph-GRPO** for reinforcement learning with two process-level rewards, Step Reward and Branch Reward, as well as outcome accuracy reward. This section is organized as follows: Section 3.1 defines two structural metrics for reasoning analysis; Section 3.2 details the graph-structured reasoning representation, and Section 3.3 introduces Graph-GRPO. Throughout this pipeline, we use OpenAI GPT-4o (Hurst et al., 2024) as an LLM-as-a-Judge for reasoning assessment and graph construction, and a licensed medical expert further manually verifies the generated outputs.

Table 1: Comparing with general- and medical-domain VLMs across four medical benchmarks. Each entry reports Accuracy (Acc., %), average Branch Exploration (BExp., %), and average Step Exploration (SExp.). Bold and underline values indicate the best and second-best accuracies among all compared models, while *italic bold* highlights our PathFinder-7B results. MedX-M and MedX-T denote MedXpertQA-MM and MedXpertQA-Text, respectively.

Type	Method	MedX-M	MMMU-Med	MedX-T	MMLU-Pro
		Acc.↑/BExp.↑/SExp.↑	Acc.↑/BExp.↑/SExp.↑	Acc.↑/BExp.↑/SExp.↑	Acc.↑/BExp.↑/SExp.↑
General	VL-Rethinker-7B	22.6 / 81.7 / 8.43	62.8 / 70.1 / 6.71	13.4 / 78.6 / 12.53	56.1 / 85.9 / 10.95
	R1-Onevision-7B	21.1 / 82.9 / 10.69	55.2 / 71.1 / 8.57	10.7 / 78.8 / 16.11	42.1 / 83.4 / 13.70
	R1-VL-7B	20.9 / 62.4 / 6.21	<u>57.2</u> / 48.0 / 4.99	11.1 / 47.8 / 7.57	44.3 / 45.6 / 5.87
	VLAA-Thinker-7B	23.0 / 59.0 / 7.05	56.6 / 54.6 / 5.08	12.5 / 37.3 / 7.05	50.0 / 56.4 / 5.08
Medical	Med-R1-2B	21.1 / 22.5 / 1.95	44.1 / 28.5 / 1.70	9.3 / 9.6 / 1.57	25.2 / 15.0 / 1.74
	MedVLM-R1-2B	19.1 / 22.7 / 2.09	42.1 / 28.1 / 2.39	9.0 / 9.4 / 1.50	24.8 / 16.5 / 1.92
	Chiron-o1-8B	24.6 / 69.3 / 8.32	48.3 / 57.8 / 5.92	<u>13.5</u> / 58.8 / 10.85	47.2 / 63.9 / 9.68
	Lingshu-7B	25.1 / 48.1 / 5.77	54.0 / 57.7 / 5.46	15.3 / 27.1 / 5.66	<u>50.2</u> / 54.1 / 6.74
<i>PathFinder-7B (Ours)</i>		28.2 / 98.5 / 14.17	68.9 / 98.9 / 11.42	16.8 / 97.9 / 18.53	55.4 / 98.9 / 10.92

Table 2: Comparison of two reasoning structure metrics between accurate (Acc.) and failed cases for all 4 medical VLMs (Med-R1-2B, MedVLM-R1-2B, Chiron-o1-8B and Lingshu-7B) and 4 general VLMs (VL-Rethinker-7B, R1-Onevision-7B, R1-VL-7B and VLAA-Thinker-7B) across four datasets.

(a) Comparison of mean average BranchExploration. (b) Comparison of mean average StepExploration.

Type		MedX-M	MMMU-Med	MedX-T	MMLU-Pro	Type		MedX-M	MMMU-Med	MedX-T	MMLU-Pro
General	✓ Acc.	70.8	59.6	58.1	67.3	General	✓ Acc.	7.90	6.28	10.72	9.10
	✗ Failed	71.7	62.8	61.0	68.3		✗ Failed	8.00	6.38	10.83	9.79
	↓	-0.9	-3.2	-2.9	-1.0		↓	-0.10	-0.10	-0.09	-0.69
Medical	✓ Acc.	42.3	44.2	28.9	43.3	Medical	✓ Acc.	4.82	4.01	5.69	5.92
	✗ Failed	40.2	41.8	25.8	33.9		✗ Failed	4.45	3.71	4.79	4.49
	↑	+2.1	+2.4	+3.1	+9.4		↑	+0.37	+0.30	+0.90	+1.43

3.1 STEP-WISE EXPLORATION & BRANCH-WISE EXPLORATION

To quantitatively evaluate the reasoning quality, we introduce two complementary structure metrics: (1) Step-Wise Exploration. We define StepExploration as the sum of number of reasoning steps per candidate option, reflecting whether the model provides layered and causally connected explanations rather than shallow justifications. (2) Branch-Wise Exploration. We denote BranchExploration as the fraction of candidate answer options for which the model produces a valid reasoning path. A valid path explicitly connects the question to the candidate option through a sequence of clinically meaningful intermediate steps.

$$\text{StepExploration} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_r} D_i, \text{BranchExploration} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_r} C_i}{N_r}, C_i = H(D_i) = \begin{cases} 1, & D_i > 0, \\ 0, & D_i = 0. \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

where D_i denotes the number of reasoning step for each option, N_r denotes the total number of candidate option, C_i denotes if reasoning for option i is valid with Heaviside function.

We evaluate four *medical VLMs* (Med-R1-2B (Lai et al., 2025), MedVLM-R1-2B (Pan et al., 2025), Chiron-o1-8B (Sun et al., 2025a) and Lingshu-7B (Xu et al., 2025b)) and four *general VLMs* (VL-Rethinker-7B (Wang et al., 2025), R1-Onevision-7B (Yang et al., 2025), R1-VL-7B (Zhang et al., 2025) and VLAA-Thinker-7B (Chen et al., 2025b)), all reasoning-oriented, across four benchmarks (two multimodal: MedXpertQA-MM (Zuo et al., 2025) and MMMU-Medical (Yue et al., 2024), and two text-only: MedXpertQA-Text (Zuo et al., 2025) and MMLU-Pro (Wang et al., 2024)). As shown in Table 1, medical VLMs often exhibit limited reasoning structure: their StepExploration and BranchExploration remain relatively low compared to general models, despite being specialized for the medical expertise. This indicates two prevalent issues: a *step-wise deficiency*, where models produce shallow or incomplete reasoning chains that may undermine the reliability of their diagnostic recommendations, and a *branch-wise deficiency*, where models fail to systematically explore all candidate options.

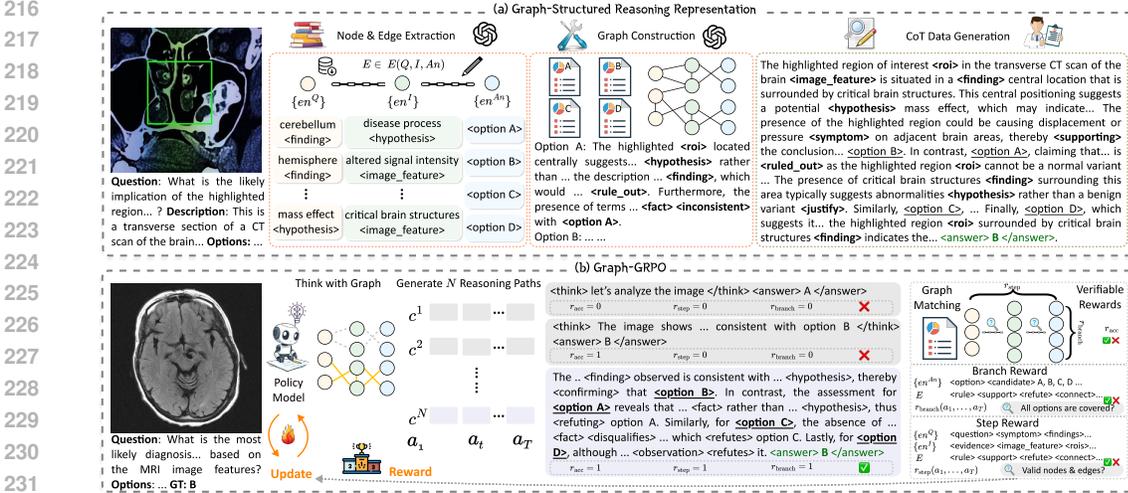


Figure 3: Overview of the proposed **PathFinder**. **PathFinder** consists of two key components: (a) **Graph-Structured Reasoning Representation**: given a medical VQA instance with image(s), question, and candidate options, we extract medical entities as nodes $\{en^Q, en^I, en^{An}\}$ and connect them via edges encoding causal or evidential relations $E \in E(Q, I, An)$. Multiple reasoning routes are constructed and pruned to form a coherent diagnostic reasoning graph, subsequently constructing graph-based CoT data for supervised cold-start. (b) **Graph-GRPO**: the constructed graph provides nodes and edges for reasoning path matching and generates structured process-level rewards (r_{step} and r_{branch}) and outcome-level rewards (r_{acc}) for reinforcement learning.

To further investigate this effect, we compare these two exploration indicators between correct and incorrect cases in Table 2. The analysis reveals two important insights. (i) For medical VLMs, correct cases consistently exhibit higher step- and branch-wise exploration, suggesting that structured reasoning, when grounded in domain expertise, enhances performance. (ii) For general VLMs evaluated on medical datasets, the opposite trend emerges: incorrect cases tend to show greater reasoning complexity, possibly indicating that excessive or irrelevant reasoning may harm performance without sufficient medical knowledge. Overall, these findings highlight that *step- and branch-wise exploration within the reasoning structure serve as helpful indicators of improved performance for medical VLMs equipped with adequate domain knowledge.*

3.2 GRAPH-STRUCTURED REASONING REPRESENTATION

As shown in Figure 3(a), we construct a structured graph to represent diagnostic reasoning. This graph is built for a medical VQA pair consisting of medical image(s) with accompanying description I , a related question Q , a set of candidate options An , and the ground-truth answer $An_{gt} \in An$. First, we prompt the LLM to extract multiple sets of medical entities: $\{en^Q\}$ from the question, $\{en^I\}$ from the image, and $\{en^{An}\}$ from the candidate options. These entities are defined as *nodes*, which include *medical findings*, *clinical symptoms*, *hypotheses*, *rules*, *evidence*, and *imaging features* or *regions of interest*. Next, we establish *edges* to connect nodes. Each edge $E \in E(Q, I, An)$ encodes an inference operation such as *support*, *derive*, *refute*, or *rule out*, representing causal or evidential relationships among nodes. This design allows the reasoning graph to explicitly capture both confirmatory and eliminative diagnostic logic. For each candidate option $An_i \in An$, multiple reasoning paths may be generated that link $\{en^Q\}$ to en^{An_i} through intermediate entities in $\{en^I\}$. To ensure conciseness and interpretability, we employ the LLM to prune irrelevant or redundant paths and retain a single coherent reasoning path for step-by-step generation. Finally, by repeating this process for all candidate options, we construct a complete graph-structured representation of the diagnostic reasoning process. This representation serves as the basis for subsequent reinforcement learning with Graph-GRPO. Detailed procedure for constructing the graph is provided in Appendix A.4.

3.3 GRAPH-GRPO

Task Definition. We formulate the reasoning process of a VLM as a sequential decision-making problem. Each medical VQA instance is denoted as $\{I, Q, An\}$, where I represents the medical image(s), Q is the clinical question and An is the candidate options. The policy model π_θ generates a reasoning trajectory $c = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_T)$, where each action a_t is sampled from π_θ , corresponds to a reasoning unit, and T is the maximum sequence length. The state s_t denotes the partial reasoning chain generated up to step t , and updates as $s_{t+1} = (s_t, a_t)$. The overall objective is to optimize π_θ such that the generated trajectory is both clinically correct and structurally coherent. In reinforcement learning, this corresponds to maximizing the cumulative reward, where $r(s_t, a_t, s_{t+1})$, simplified as $r(a_t)$, denotes the reward for producing a_t given s_t and transitioning to s_{t+1} . Following prior works (Zhang et al., 2025; Yao et al., 2024), we define one action a_t as generating a reasoning step, typically consisting of one or more sentences with multiple text tokens.

Cold start via CoT Data SFT. Before the reinforcement learning stage, we warm up the policy model π_θ through supervised fine-tuning with chain-of-thought (CoT) data. Importantly, the CoT data used here is not obtained by naive prompting, but is systematically derived from the graph-structured reasoning representation introduced in Section 3.2. Specifically, for each medical VQA pair, we leverage the constructed diagnostic graph to obtain reasoning trajectories: nodes and edges are unfolded into natural language explanations, forming coherent paths from question entities to candidate options. These structured routes provide high-quality CoT supervision that explicitly captures both the breadth of alternative branches and the depth of reasoning chains. The resulting trajectories are used as targets for maximum likelihood training, which encourages the policy to produce faithful, structured reasoning while also stabilizing subsequent reinforcement learning updates by initializing π_θ with clinically-grounded reasoning behaviors.

Graph-based Group Relative Policy Optimization. As illustrated in Figure 3(b), after cold start, we conduct reinforcement learning, which is built on the graph-structured reasoning representation. Each generated reasoning path of Graph-GRPO is mapped to the constructed diagnostic graph, enabling the computation of two complementary process-level rewards r_{step} and r_{branch} . Unlike sparse accuracy rewards, these process-level rewards offer dense supervision at the level of individual reasoning steps, encouraging both step-wise logical coherence and route-wise comprehensiveness.

(1) **Step Reward** (r_{step}) enforces a *step-wise, clinically coherent reasoning process*. At each reasoning step, the trajectory is rewarded only if the action a_t correctly incorporates relevant intermediate entities from the graph- $\{en^Q\}$ from the question and $\{en^I\}$ from the image—and links them through the appropriate causal or evidential edges E . We formalize this as: at each step, a reward is granted only when the action a_t includes entities nodes $\{en^Q\} \cup \{en^I\}$ and links them correctly according to the graph edges $E(Q, I, An)$. r_{step} is defined as $r_{\text{step}}(a_1, \dots, a_T) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T r_{\text{step}}(a_t)$, where

$$r_{\text{step}}(a_t) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } N(a_t) \subset \{en^Q\} \cup \{en^I\} \text{ and } E(a_t) \subset E(Q, I, An), \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

here $N(a_t)$ and $E(a_t)$ denote the set of entities and edges included in action a_t .

(2) **Branch Reward** (r_{branch}) enforces *branch-wise exploration*, ensuring that the reasoning trajectory does not tunnel toward a single candidate option but systematically considers all candidate options An . Formally, r_{branch} is defined as the fraction of candidate options that are explicitly examined during reasoning. A candidate An_i is counted as covered if it appears in at least one reasoning step a_τ . r_{branch} is formalized as:

$$r_{\text{branch}}(a_1, \dots, a_T) = \frac{1}{|An|} \sum_i \mathbf{1}[\exists a_\tau \text{ s.t. } en^{An_i} \in a_\tau] \quad (3)$$

The overall reward integrates both process-level and outcome-level signals. At the process level, we combine the above two dimensions, ensuring that the learned policy produces reasoning chains that are simultaneously step-wise coherent and branch-wise comprehensive. At the outcome level, an accuracy reward enforces correctness of the final prediction. Formally, the process-level reward for one generated reasoning path is defined as:

$$r_{\text{proc}} = \lambda_{\text{step}} r_{\text{step}}(a_1, \dots, a_T) + \lambda_{\text{branch}} r_{\text{branch}}(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_T), \quad (4)$$

Table 3: Comprehensive evaluation on medical multimodal benchmarks. **Bold** and underline scores indicate the best and the second-best performance excluding close-source models. OMVQA and MedXQA represent OmniMedVQA and MedXpertQA-MM benchmarks.

Models	Out-of-Domain		In-Domain				
	MedXQA \uparrow	MMMU-Med \uparrow	VQA-RAD \uparrow	PMC-VQA \uparrow	PathVQA \uparrow	SLAKE \uparrow	OMVQA \uparrow
<i>Close-source proprietary models</i>							
GPT-4.1	45.2	75.2	65.0	55.2	55.5	72.2	75.5
Claude Sonnet	43.3	74.6	67.6	54.4	54.2	70.6	65.5
Gemini-2.5-Flash	52.8	76.9	68.5	55.4	55.4	75.8	71.0
<i>Open-source non-reasoning models</i>							
BiomedGPT	-	24.9	16.6	27.6	11.3	13.6	27.9
MedGemini-4B	22.3	43.7	72.5	49.9	48.8	76.4	69.8
LLaVA-Med-7B	20.3	29.3	53.7	30.5	38.8	48.0	44.3
HuatuoGPT-V-7B	21.6	47.3	67.0	53.3	48.0	67.8	74.2
BioMediX2-8B	21.8	39.8	49.2	43.5	37.0	57.7	63.3
<i>Open-source reasoning-based models</i>							
Med-R1-2B	21.1	34.8	39.0	47.4	15.3	54.5	69.9
MedVLM-R1-2B	20.4	35.2	48.6	47.6	32.5	56.0	<u>77.7</u>
InfiMed-RL-3B	23.6	55.3	60.5	<u>58.7</u>	62.0	82.4	71.7
GMAI-VL-R1-7B	23.8	57.3	-	-	-	-	61.0
Lingshu-7B	<u>26.7</u>	54.0	67.9	56.3	61.9	<u>83.1</u>	82.9
Chiron-o1-8B	24.2	<u>54.6</u>	<u>76.8</u>	57.5	<u>74.0</u>	83.2	65.7
MedVLThinker-7B	21.8	47.8	60.3	43.2	51.4	55.2	62.1
<i>PathFinder-7B (Ours)</i>	28.2	68.9	79.3	61.2	87.0	80.3	63.5

where $\lambda_{\text{step}}, \lambda_{\text{branch}} \geq 0$ are tunable coefficients that balance the two objectives. The final outcome reward is given by: $r_{\text{acc}}^i(y, \hat{y}) = \mathbb{1}[\hat{y} = y]$, where y is the ground-truth answer, \hat{y} is the model’s final prediction, and $\mathbb{1}[\cdot]$ is the indicator function. Accordingly, the overall reward for a trajectory is:

$$r = r_{\text{proc}} + \lambda_{\text{acc}} r_{\text{acc}}(y, \hat{y}) = \lambda_{\text{step}} r_{\text{step}}(a_1, \dots, a_T) + \lambda_{\text{branch}} r_{\text{branch}}(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_T) + \lambda_{\text{acc}} r_{\text{acc}}(y, \hat{y}) \quad (5)$$

where λ_{acc} controls the relative weight of the final accuracy reward. Finally, GRPO normalizes the rewards by using their mean and standard deviation, and computes the advantage as:

$$A^i = \frac{r^i - \text{mean}\{r^1, r^2, \dots, r^N\}}{\text{std}\{r^1, r^2, \dots, r^N\}} \quad (6)$$

where A^i with $i \subseteq [1, N]$ represents the advantage of the i -th candidate reasoning trajectory $c^i = (a_1^i, a_2^i, \dots, a_T^i)$. Here, N represents total number candidate reasoning trajectory.

4 EXPERIMENT

4.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

Data Source. To support both cold start initialization and Graph-GRPO, we leverage a diverse collection of multimodal and text-only medical datasets. For the cold start stage, we construct around 100k chain-of-thought data via graph-structured reasoning representation strategy from both multimodal and text-only data sources. For multimodal data, we sample from PubMedVision (Chen et al., 2024b), MedTrinity-25M (Xie et al., 2025), and GMAI-Reasoning10K-SFT (Su et al., 2025). For the text-only data, we sample from Medical23k (Huang et al., 2025a), medical-o1-reasoning-SFT (Chen et al., 2024a), Medical-R1-Distill-Data (Chen et al., 2024a), and MedReason (Wu et al., 2025). For the Graph-GRPO stage, we sample training data from VQA-RAD (Lau et al., 2018), PathVQA (He et al., 2020), PMC-VQA (Zhang et al., 2023), SLAKE (Liu et al., 2021) and GMAI-Reasoning10K-RL (Su et al., 2025) as multimodal data, and from MedAgentsBench (Tang et al., 2025) as text-only data, yielding around 14k samples in total. Detailed data distribution is described in Appendix. A.4.

Implementation Details. We use the state-of-the-art open-source VLM, Qwen2.5-VL-7B-Instruct (Bai et al., 2025) as baseline. For cold start, we set the batch size of 4 per device and learning rate of $2e^{-5}$ with cosine decay scheduler to train 2 epochs. For Graph-GRPO, we set the number of generation per sample $N = 4$ with batch size of 4 per device, $\lambda_{\text{depth}} = \lambda_{\text{breadth}} = 0.5$ and $\lambda_{\text{final}} = 1$

with learning rate of $1e^{-5}$ to train 1 epoch. For both stages, we freeze the vision encoder and vision-language merger for finetuning. All experiments are conducted on 4xA6000-48GB GPUs.

Table 4: Comprehensive evaluation on medical text-only benchmarks. **Bold** and underline scores indicate the best and the second-best performance excluding close-source models. MedXQA and SGPQA-Med represents MedXpertQA-Text and SuperGPQA medicine discipline benchmark.

Models	Out-of-Domain		In-Domain				
	MedXQA \uparrow	SGPQA-Med \uparrow	MMLU \uparrow	PubMedQA \uparrow	MedMCQA \uparrow	MedQA \uparrow	Medbullets \uparrow
<i>Close-source proprietary models</i>							
GPT-4.1	30.9	49.9	89.6	75.6	77.7	89.1	77.0
Claude Sonnet	33.6	56.3	91.3	78.6	79.3	92.1	80.2
Gemini-2.5-Flash	35.6	53.3	84.2	73.8	73.6	91.2	77.6
<i>Open-source non-reasoning models</i>							
MedGemma-4B	12.8	21.6	66.7	72.2	52.2	56.2	45.6
LLaVA-Med-7B	9.9	16.1	50.6	26.4	39.4	42.0	34.4
HuatuoGPT-V-7B	10.1	21.9	69.3	72.8	51.2	52.9	40.9
BioMediX2-8B	13.4	25.2	68.6	75.2	52.9	58.9	45.9
<i>Open-source reasoning-based models</i>							
Med-R1-2B	11.2	17.9	51.5	66.2	39.1	39.9	33.6
MedVLM-R1-2B	11.8	19.1	51.8	66.4	39.7	42.3	33.8
InfMed-RL-3B	11.7	25.0	68.8	75.0	50.5	53.5	40.3
Lingshu-7B	16.5	26.3	74.5	76.6	<u>55.9</u>	<u>63.3</u>	56.2
Chiron-o1-8B	13.5	26.1	68.5	70.0	51.5	49.7	38.6
MedVLThinker-7B	16.0	28.3	76.4	65.0	52.1	60.3	44.8
<i>PathFinder-7B (Ours)</i>	16.8	31.5	80.2	77.2	56.8	66.3	46.4

4.2 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

To comprehensively evaluate our proposed **PathFinder**, we compare it with state-of-the-art VLMs, including close-source proprietary models, open-source non-reasoning and reasoning-based models, across 7 multimodal and 7 text-only benchmarks on leaderboards (Xu et al., 2025b). For multimodal evaluation, MedXpertQA-MM (Zuo et al., 2025) and MMMU Medical validation (Yue et al., 2024) represents out-of-domain benchmarks, while VQA-RAD (Lau et al., 2018), PathVQA (He et al., 2020), PMC-VQA (Zhang et al., 2023), SLAKE (Liu et al., 2021) and OmniMedVQA (Hu et al., 2024) are in-domain benchmarks since in Graph-GRPO, we include training samples from VQA-RAD, PathVQA and PMC-VQA, with GMAI-Reasoning10K sharing the same curated dataset distribution with OmniMedVQA. For text-only evaluation, MedXpertQA-Text (Zuo et al., 2025) and SuperGPQA medicine (Team et al., 2025) represent out-of-domain benchmarks, whereas MMLU (Hendrycks et al., 2020), PubMedQA (Jin et al., 2019), MedMCQA (Pal et al., 2022), MedQA (Jin et al., 2021) and MedBullets (Chen et al., 2025a) are in-domain benchmarks since MedAgentsBench and MedReason are sampled from these datasets. Open-source models are smaller than 10B.

Multimodal Results in Table 3. For BiomedGPT (Zhang et al., 2024), we note that it does not support multi-image input of MedXpertQA-MM. For MedVLThinker-7B (Huang et al., 2025a), we select its model which follows the SFT+RL training paradigm. We include the reported results from Chiron-o1-8B (Sun et al., 2025a) and InfMed-RL-3B (Liu et al., 2025). As GMAI-VL-R1-7B (Su et al., 2025) has not yet released its model, we only compare its reported numbers. Overall, our proposed PathFinder-7B demonstrates **state-of-the-art** performance across both out-of-domain and in-domain benchmarks. In particular, it achieves the *best results* among open-source models on the out-of-domain expert-level understanding and reasoning datasets, MedXpertQA-MM and MMMU-Medical, surpassing the previous model, Lingshu-7B and Chiron-o1-8B, by a substantial margin (28.2 vs. 26.7 on MedXQA and 68.9 vs. 54.6 on MMMU-Med). On in-domain datasets, PathFinder-7B also attains top performance on several benchmarks, including VQA-RAD, PMC-VQA, and PathVQA, demonstrating its ability to integrate multimodal medical evidence for accurate answer and clinically-grounded reasoning. While Chiron-o1-8B achieves the highest score on SLAKE, PathFinder maintains overall superior reasoning performance across datasets. On OMVQA, PathFinder-7B achieves 63.5, which is lower than the best model, Lingshu-7B (82.9). This is primarily because PathFinder-7B’s in-domain training data is derived from GMAI-Reasoning10K, which shares the same curated dataset distribution with OMVQA. Notably, PathFinder-7B still surpasses its source model GMAI-VL-R1 (from 61.0 to 63.5), indicating that

our graph-structured reasoning and Graph-GRPO meaningfully improves the performance beyond the original training data.

Text-only Results in Table 4. As Chiron-o1-8B (Sun et al., 2025a) only report the results of MedXpertQA-Text, we inference the model to obtain the rest of results following its official settings. Similarly, we infer the InfiMed-RL-3B and MedVLThinker-7B to produce the results. Our proposed PathFinder-7B achieves **state-of-the-art** performance among open-source models across both out-of-domain and in-domain text-only benchmarks. On out-of-domain datasets, it surpasses previous best models on MedXQA (16.8 vs. 16.5 for Lingshu-7B) and SGPQA-Med (31.5 vs. 28.3 for MedVLThinker-7B). For in-domain benchmarks, PathFinder-7B also attains top performance on MMLU, PubMedQA, MedMCQA, and MedQA, demonstrating its ability to leverage structured reasoning over textual medical evidence. While Lingshu-7B achieves the highest score on Medbullets (56.2), PathFinder-7B maintains the second-best performance (46.4).

More than Accurate. Prior medical VLMs primarily optimize on accuracy, they often exhibit *step-deficiency* and *branch-deficiency*, failing to fully explore intermediate reasoning steps or alternative diagnostic routes. As shown in Table 1, although Chiron-o1-8B and Lingshu-7B achieve competitive accuracies (24.6 and 25.1 on MedX-M; 13.5 and 15.3 on MedX-T), their step-wise exploration (DExp.) and branch-wise exploration (BExp.) remain limited (e.g., $\leq 69.3\%$ BExp. and ≤ 10.85 DExp.). In contrast, PathFinder-7B, optimized via Graph-GRPO, not only attains the highest accuracy across benchmarks (e.g., 28.2 on MedX-M and 16.8 on MedX-T) but also demonstrates substantially improved reasoning quality, achieving comprehensive branch-wise exploration ($\sim 98\text{--}99\%$) and significantly deeper step-wise reasoning chains (14.17 and 18.53). This indicates that Graph-GRPO effectively mitigates step and branch deficiency, guiding the model toward more comprehensive, and grounded reasoning rather than relying on shallow or narrow solution paths. Examples are illustrated in Appendix A.9.

4.3 ABLATION STUDY

We perform ablation studies on Qwen2.5-VL-7B to evaluate the contribution of each component in our PathFinder framework on both multimodal and text-only benchmarks. Table 5 summarizes the results. (1) **Effectiveness of r_{acc} without cold-start:** comparing the first and third rows, we observe that applying accuracy-based reinforcement learning alone, without cold-start initialization of explicit medical knowledge, yields minimal improvements. (2) **Impact of cold-start initialization via graph-structured representation CoT data:** adding cold-start initialization substantially boosts performance (from the first to the second row), confirming that explicit domain knowledge is crucial to guide the model toward medically relevant reasoning trajectories. (3) **Effectiveness of r_{acc} with cold start:** introducing accuracy reward on top of cold start initialization further improves performance (from the second to the fourth row), showing that reinforcement learning becomes more effective once the model is properly initialized. (4) **Effectiveness of structural rewards:** incorporating step-wise ($r_{\text{st.}}$) or branch-wise ($r_{\text{br.}}$) rewards leads to additional improvements, with each dimension contributing progressively. (5) **PathFinder:** combining cold start initialization, accuracy reward, and two structural rewards achieves the best overall performance across all benchmarks, validating the synergistic effect of accuracy-driven optimization and structured reasoning guidance. More ablation results are provided in Appendix. A.7.

Table 5: Ablation study of different components in PathFinder.

Training Strategy				Multi-Modal		Text-Only	
init.	r_{acc}	$r_{\text{st.}}$	$r_{\text{br.}}$	MedX-M \uparrow	VQA-RAD \uparrow	MedX-T \uparrow	MMLU \uparrow
				22.2	64.5	12.9	73.4
✓				26.1	77.1	15.0	78.1
	✓			22.7	65.2	13.0	73.8
✓	✓			27.4	78.5	16.1	79.1
✓	✓	✓		28.0	78.8	16.3	79.7
✓	✓		✓	27.9	79.0	16.5	79.4
✓	✓	✓	✓	28.2	79.3	16.8	80.2

5 CONCLUSION

In this work, we tackle two persistent reasoning deficiencies in medical vision-language models (VLMs): step-wise deficiency, where reasoning chains are incomplete or non-causal, and branch-wise deficiency, where models fail to systematically explore alternative diagnostic routes. To address these limitations, we propose PathFinder, a graph-structured reasoning framework that represents

486 diagnostic processes as interconnected medical entities with causal and evidential links. To encour-
 487 age both step- and branch-wise exploration, we introduce Graph-GRPO, which leverages graph-
 488 structured supervision and incorporates Step Reward, Branch Reward, and outcome accuracy. Step
 489 Reward encourages causally coherent, layered reasoning, while Branch Reward ensures thorough
 490 consideration of alternative diagnostic paths. Extensive experiments on seven multimodal and seven
 491 text-only medical benchmarks demonstrate that our PathFinder not only achieves state-of-the-art
 492 accuracy but also produces reasoning that is deeper, more comprehensive, and clinically-grounded.
 493 Overall, PathFinder with Graph-GRPO provides a principled framework for verifiable and trustwor-
 494 thy diagnostic reasoning in medical VLMs.

495 **Reproducibility Statement.** Codes in this work will be publicly released to facilitate reproducibil-
 496 ity. The graph-structured reasoning framework, PathFinder, and Graph-GRPO, are described in
 497 Section 3 and 3.3, including architecture details, reward definitions, and training procedures. Ap-
 498 pendix A.4 provides a detailed description of dataset construction and preprocessing for both mul-
 499 timodal and text-only medical data source. Prompts for constructing the graph-structured chain-
 500 of-thought (CoT) data are also provided in Appendix A.4. All experimental configurations, hyper-
 501 parameters are reported in the main text and Appendix. Together, these resources ensure that the
 502 results reported in this paper can be reproduced.

504 **Ethics Statement.** This work adheres to the ICLR Code of Ethics. Our study does not in-
 505 volve direct interaction with patients or the collection of personally identifiable medical data. All
 506 datasets used are either publicly available under appropriate research licenses or constructed from
 507 de-identified resources (e.g., PubMedVision (Chen et al., 2024b), MedTrinity-25M (Xie et al., 2025),
 508 GMAI-Reasoning10k Su et al. (2025), Medical23k Huang et al. (2025a), medical-o1-reasoning-SFT
 509 Chen et al. (2024a), Medical-R1-Distill-Data (Chen et al., 2024a), MedReason (Wu et al., 2025),
 510 VQA-RAD (Lau et al., 2018), PathVQA (He et al., 2020), PMC-VQA (Zhang et al., 2023), SLAKE
 511 (Liu et al., 2021), MedAgentsBench (Tang et al., 2025), MedXperQA (Zuo et al., 2025), MMMU
 512 Medical Validation (Yue et al., 2024), OmniMedVQA (Hu et al., 2024), SuperGPQA (Team et al.,
 513 2025), MMLU (Hendrycks et al., 2020), MMLU-Pro (Wang et al., 2024), PubMedQA (Jin et al.,
 514 2019), MedMCQA (Pal et al., 2022), MedQA (Jin et al., 2021), MedBullets Chen et al. (2025a)).
 515 We ensure that no private, sensitive or confidential health information is included. The reasoning
 516 data constructed with GPT-4o is further verified by licensed medical experts to mitigate potential er-
 517 rors or misleading medical content. We acknowledge that medical AI research carries potential risks
 518 if misapplied. To reduce such risks, our work is intended solely for research purposes and should
 519 not be used for clinical decision-making without human oversight. We highlight the limitations of
 520 our approach in requiring extensive domain knowledge and stress the need for careful expert val-
 521 idation before any downstream deployment. Code, data construction procedures, and prompts are
 522 transparently documented (Appendix A.4 and A.4) to promote reproducibility and responsible use.

523 REFERENCES

- 524 Josh Achiam, Steven Adler, Sandhini Agarwal, Lama Ahmad, Ilge Akkaya, Florencia Leoni Ale-
 525 man, Diogo Almeida, Janko Altenschmidt, Sam Altman, Shyamal Anadkat, et al. Gpt-4 technical
 526 report. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.08774*, 2023.
- 527 Shuai Bai, Keqin Chen, Xuejing Liu, Jialin Wang, Wenbin Ge, Sibong Song, Kai Dang, Peng Wang,
 528 Shijie Wang, Jun Tang, et al. Qwen2. 5-vl technical report. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2502.13923*,
 529 2025.
- 530 Robert Challen, Joshua Denny, Martin Pitt, Luke Gompels, Tom Edwards, and Krasimira Tsaneva-
 531 Atanasova. Artificial intelligence, bias and clinical safety. *BMJ quality & safety*, 28(3):231–237,
 532 2019.
- 533 Pierre Chambon, Jean-Benoit Delbrouck, Thomas Sounack, Shih-Cheng Huang, Zhihong Chen,
 534 Maya Varma, Steven QH Truong, Chu The Chuong, and Curtis P Langlotz. Chexpert plus:
 535 Augmenting a large chest x-ray dataset with text radiology reports, patient demographics and
 536 additional image formats. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2405.19538*, 2024.
- 537 Hanjie Chen, Zhouxiang Fang, Yash Singla, and Mark Dredze. Benchmarking large language mod-
 538 els on answering and explaining challenging medical questions. In *Proceedings of the 2025 Con-*
 539

- 540 *ference of the Nations of the Americas Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics:*
541 *Human Language Technologies (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pp. 3563–3599, 2025a.
- 542
- 543 Hardy Chen, Haoqin Tu, Fali Wang, Hui Liu, Xianfeng Tang, Xinya Du, Yuyin Zhou, and Cihang
544 Xie. Sft or r1? an early investigation into training r1-like reasoning large vision-language models.
545 *arXiv preprint arXiv:2504.11468*, 2025b.
- 546 Junying Chen, Zhenyang Cai, Ke Ji, Xidong Wang, Wanlong Liu, Rongsheng Wang, Jianye Hou,
547 and Benyou Wang. Huatuogpt-o1, towards medical complex reasoning with llms. *arXiv preprint*
548 *arXiv:2412.18925*, 2024a.
- 549
- 550 Junying Chen, Chi Gui, Ruyi Ouyang, Anningzhe Gao, Shunian Chen, Guiming Chen, Xidong
551 Wang, Zhenyang Cai, Ke Ji, Xiang Wan, et al. Towards injecting medical visual knowledge
552 into multimodal llms at scale. In *Proceedings of the 2024 Conference on Empirical Methods in*
553 *Natural Language Processing*, pp. 7346–7370, 2024b.
- 554 Xuhang Chen, Shenghong Luo, Chi-Man Pun, and Shuqiang Wang. Medprompt: Cross-modal
555 prompting for multi-task medical image translation. In *Chinese Conference on Pattern Recogni-*
556 *tion and Computer Vision (PRCV)*, pp. 61–75. Springer, 2024c.
- 557
- 558 Pat Croskerry, Samuel G Campbell, and David A Petrie. The challenge of cognitive science for
559 medical diagnosis. *Cognitive Research: Principles and Implications*, 8(1):13, 2023.
- 560 James L Cross, Michael A Choma, and John A Onofrey. Bias in medical ai: Implications for clinical
561 decision-making. *PLOS Digital Health*, 3(11):e0000651, 2024.
- 562
- 563 DeepSeek-AI et al. Deepseek-r1: Incentivizing reasoning capability in llms via reinforcement learn-
564 ing. *ArXiv*, abs/2501.12948, 2025.
- 565 Dina Demner-Fushman, Marc D Kohli, Marc B Rosenman, Sonya E Shooshan, Laritza Rodriguez,
566 Sameer Antani, George R Thoma, and Clement J McDonald. Preparing a collection of radiol-
567 ogy examinations for distribution and retrieval. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics*
568 *Association*, 23(2):304–310, 2015.
- 569
- 570 Xiaotang Gai, Chenyi Zhou, Jiaxiang Liu, Yang Feng, Jian Wu, and Zuozhu Liu. Medthink: Ex-
571 plaining medical visual question answering via multimodal decision-making rationale. *arXiv*
572 *preprint arXiv:2404.12372*, 2024.
- 573 Xuehai He, Yichen Zhang, Luntian Mou, Eric Xing, and Pengtao Xie. Pathvqa: 30000+ questions
574 for medical visual question answering. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2003.10286*, 2020.
- 575
- 576 Dan Hendrycks, Collin Burns, Steven Basart, Andy Zou, Mantas Mazeika, Dawn Song, and
577 Jacob Steinhardt. Measuring massive multitask language understanding. *arXiv preprint*
578 *arXiv:2009.03300*, 2020.
- 579 Edward J Hu, Yelong Shen, Phillip Wallis, Zeyuan Allen-Zhu, Yuanzhi Li, Shean Wang, Lu Wang,
580 and Weizhu Chen. LoRA: Low-rank adaptation of large language models. In *International Con-*
581 *ference on Learning Representations*, 2022.
- 582
- 583 Yutao Hu, Tianbin Li, Quanfeng Lu, Wenqi Shao, Junjun He, Yu Qiao, and Ping Luo. Omnimedvqa:
584 A new large-scale comprehensive evaluation benchmark for medical lvlm. In *Proceedings of the*
585 *IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pp. 22170–22183, 2024.
- 586 Xiaoke Huang, Juncheng Wu, Hui Liu, Xianfeng Tang, and Yuyin Zhou. Medvlthinker: Simple
587 baselines for multimodal medical reasoning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2508.02669*, 2025a.
- 588
- 589 Yue Huang, Yanyuan Chen, Dexuan Xu, Weihua Yue, Huamin Zhang, Meikang Qiu, and Yu Huang.
590 Medreflect: Teaching medical llms to self-improve via reflective correction. *arXiv preprint*
591 *arXiv:2510.03687*, 2025b.
- 592
- 593 Aaron Hurst, Adam Lerer, Adam P Goucher, Adam Perelman, Aditya Ramesh, Aidan Clark, AJ Os-
trow, Akila Welihinda, Alan Hayes, Alec Radford, et al. Gpt-4o system card. *arXiv preprint*
arXiv:2410.21276, 2024.

- 594 Yue Jiang, Jiawei Chen, Dingkan Yang, Mingcheng Li, Shunli Wang, Tong Wu, Ke Li, and Lihua
595 Zhang. Comt: Chain-of-medical-thought reduces hallucination in medical report generation. In
596 *ICASSP 2025-2025 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing*
597 (*ICASSP*), pp. 1–5. IEEE, 2025.
- 598 Di Jin, Eileen Pan, Nassim Oufattole, Wei-Hung Weng, Hanyi Fang, and Peter Szolovits. What dis-
599 ease does this patient have? a large-scale open domain question answering dataset from medical
600 exams. *Applied Sciences*, 11(14):6421, 2021.
- 601 Qiao Jin, Bhuwan Dhingra, Zhengping Liu, William W Cohen, and Xinghua Lu. Pubmedqa: A
602 dataset for biomedical research question answering. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1909.06146*, 2019.
- 603 Yubin Kim, Hyewon Jeong, Shan Chen, Shuyue Stella Li, Mingyu Lu, Kumail Alhamoud, Jimin
604 Mun, Cristina Grau, Minseok Jung, Rodrigo Gameiro, et al. Medical hallucinations in foundation
605 models and their impact on healthcare. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2503.05777*, 2025.
- 606 Yuxiang Lai, Jike Zhong, Ming Li, Shitian Zhao, and Xiaofeng Yang. Med-r1: Reinforce-
607 ment learning for generalizable medical reasoning in vision-language models. *arXiv preprint*
608 *arXiv:2503.13939*, 2025.
- 609 Jason J Lau, Soumya Gayen, Asma Ben Abacha, and Dina Demner-Fushman. A dataset of clinically
610 generated visual questions and answers about radiology images. *Scientific data*, 5(1):1–10, 2018.
- 611 Chunyuan Li, Cliff Wong, Sheng Zhang, Naoto Usuyama, Haotian Liu, Jianwei Yang, Tristan Nau-
612 mann, Hoifung Poon, and Jianfeng Gao. Llava-med: Training a large language-and-vision assis-
613 tant for biomedicine in one day. In Alice Oh, Tristan Naumann, Amir Globerson, Kate Saenko,
614 Moritz Hardt, and Sergey Levine (eds.), *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*
615 *36: Annual Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems 2023, NeurIPS 2023, New*
616 *Orleans, LA, USA, December 10 - 16, 2023*, 2023.
- 617 Tianwei Lin, Wenqiao Zhang, SIJING LI, Yuqian Yuan, Binhe Yu, Haoyuan Li, Wanggui He, Hao
618 Jiang, Mengze Li, Song xiaohui, Siliang Tang, Jun Xiao, Hui Lin, Yueting Zhuang, and Beng Chin
619 Ooi. HealthGPT: A medical large vision-language model for unifying comprehension and gen-
620 eration via heterogeneous knowledge adaptation. In *Forty-second International Conference on*
621 *Machine Learning*, 2025.
- 622 Bo Liu, Li-Ming Zhan, Li Xu, Lin Ma, Yan Yang, and Xiao-Ming Wu. Slake: A semantically-
623 labeled knowledge-enhanced dataset for medical visual question answering. In *18th IEEE In-*
624 *ternational Symposium on Biomedical Imaging, ISBI 2021, Nice, France, April 13-16, 2021*, pp.
625 1650–1654. IEEE, 2021. doi: 10.1109/ISBI48211.2021.9434010.
- 626 Jiaxiang Liu, Yuan Wang, Jiawei Du, Joey Tianyi Zhou, and Zuozhu Liu. Medcot: Medical chain of
627 thought via hierarchical expert. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2412.13736*, 2024.
- 628 Zeyu Liu, Zhitian Hou, Yining Di, Kejing Yang, Zhijie Sang, Congkai Xie, Jingwen Yang, Siyuan
629 Liu, Jialu Wang, Chunming Li, et al. Infi-med: Low-resource medical mllms with robust reason-
630 ing evaluation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2505.23867*, 2025.
- 631 Michael Moor, Qian Huang, Shirley Wu, Michihiro Yasunaga, Yash Dalmia, Jure Leskovec, Cyril
632 Zakka, Eduardo Pontes Reis, and Pranav Rajpurkar. Med-flamingo: a multimodal medical
633 few-shot learner. In Stefan Heggelmann, Antonio Parziale, Divya Shanmugam, Shengpu Tang,
634 Mercy Nyamewaa Asiedu, Serina Chang, Tom Hartvigsen, and Harvineet Singh (eds.), *Machine*
635 *Learning for Health, ML4H@NeurIPS 2023, 10 December 2023, New Orleans, Louisiana, USA*,
636 volume 225 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pp. 353–367. PMLR, 2023.
- 637 Sahal Shaji Mullappilly, Mohammed Irfan Kurpath, Sara Pieri, Saeed Yahya Alseiri, Shanavas
638 Cholakkal, Khaled Aldahmani, Fahad Khan, Rao Anwer, Salman Khan, Timothy Baldwin,
639 et al. Bimedix2: Bio-medical expert lmm for diverse medical modalities. *arXiv preprint*
640 *arXiv:2412.07769*, 2024.
- 641 Ankit Pal, Logesh Kumar Umapathi, and Malaikannan Sankarasubbu. Medmcqa: A large-scale
642 multi-subject multi-choice dataset for medical domain question answering. In *Conference on*
643 *health, inference, and learning*, pp. 248–260. PMLR, 2022.

- 648 Jiazhen Pan, Che Liu, Junde Wu, Fenglin Liu, Jiayuan Zhu, Hongwei Bran Li, Chen Chen, Cheng
649 Ouyang, and Daniel Rueckert. Medvlm-r1: Incentivizing medical reasoning capability of vision-
650 language models (vlms) via reinforcement learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2502.19634*, 2025.
- 651
652 Tan-Hanh Pham and Chris Ngo. Rarl: Improving medical vlm reasoning and generalization
653 with reinforcement learning and lora under data and hardware constraints. *arXiv preprint*
654 *arXiv:2506.06600*, 2025.
- 655 Andrew Sellergren, Sahar Kazemzadeh, Tiam Jaroensri, Atilla Kiraly, Madeleine Traverse, Timo
656 Kohlberger, Shawn Xu, Fayaz Jamil, Cían Hughes, Charles Lau, et al. Medgemma technical
657 report. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2507.05201*, 2025.
- 658
659 Zhihong Shao, Peiyi Wang, Qihao Zhu, Runxin Xu, Junxiao Song, Xiao Bi, Haowei Zhang,
660 Mingchuan Zhang, YK Li, Yang Wu, et al. Deepseekmath: Pushing the limits of mathemati-
661 cal reasoning in open language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.03300*, 2024.
- 662 Haozhan Shen, Peng Liu, Jingcheng Li, Chunxin Fang, Yibo Ma, Jiajia Liao, Qiaoli Shen, Zilun
663 Zhang, Kangjia Zhao, Qianqian Zhang, Ruochen Xu, and Tiancheng Zhao. Vlm-r1: A stable and
664 generalizable r1-style large vision-language model. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2504.07615*, 2025.
- 665
666 Kacper Sokol, James Fackler, and Julia E Vogt. Artificial intelligence should genuinely support
667 clinical reasoning and decision making to bridge the translational gap. *npj Digital Medicine*, 8
668 (1):345, 2025.
- 669 Yanzhou Su, Tianbin Li, Jiyao Liu, Chenglong Ma, Junzhi Ning, Cheng Tang, Siboj Ju, Jin Ye,
670 Pengcheng Chen, Ming Hu, et al. Gmai-vl-r1: Harnessing reinforcement learning for multimodal
671 medical reasoning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2504.01886*, 2025.
- 672
673 Haoran Sun, Yankai Jiang, Wenjie Lou, Yujie Zhang, Wenjie Li, Lilong Wang, Mianxin Liu, Lei
674 Liu, and Xiaosong Wang. Enhancing step-by-step and verifiable medical reasoning in mllms.
675 *arXiv preprint arXiv:2506.16962*, 2025a.
- 676
677 Yu Sun, Xingyu Qian, Weiwen Xu, Hao Zhang, Chenghao Xiao, Long Li, Deli Zhao, Wenbing
678 Huang, Tingyang Xu, Qifeng Bai, et al. Reasonmed: A 370k multi-agent generated dataset for
679 advancing medical reasoning. In *Proceedings of the 2025 Conference on Empirical Methods in*
Natural Language Processing, pp. 26457–26478, 2025b.
- 680 Xiangru Tang, Daniel Shao, Jiwoong Sohn, Jiapeng Chen, Jiayi Zhang, Jinyu Xiang, Fang Wu,
681 Yilun Zhao, Chenglin Wu, Wenqi Shi, et al. Medagentsbench: Benchmarking thinking models
682 and agent frameworks for complex medical reasoning, 2025.
- 683
684 M-A-P Team et al. Supergpqa: Scaling llm evaluation across 285 graduate disciplines, 2025. URL
685 <https://arxiv.org/abs/2502.14739>.
- 686
687 Qwen Team. Qwq-32b: Embracing the power of reinforcement learning, March 2025. URL
688 <https://qwenlm.github.io/blog/qwq-32b/>.
- 689
690 Haozhe Wang, Chao Qu, Zuming Huang, Wei Chu, Fangzhen Lin, and Wenhui Chen. VI-
691 rethinker: Incentivizing self-reflection of vision-language models with reinforcement learning.
arXiv preprint arXiv:2504.08837, 2025.
- 692
693 Yubo Wang, Xueguang Ma, Ge Zhang, Yuansheng Ni, Abhranil Chandra, Shiguang Guo, Weiming
694 Ren, Aaran Arulraj, Xuan He, Ziyang Jiang, et al. Mmlu-pro: A more robust and challenging multi-
695 task language understanding benchmark. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*,
37:95266–95290, 2024.
- 696
697 Jason Wei, Xuezhi Wang, Dale Schuurmans, Maarten Bosma, Fei Xia, Ed Chi, Quoc V Le, Denny
698 Zhou, et al. Chain-of-thought prompting elicits reasoning in large language models. *Advances in*
699 *neural information processing systems*, 35:24824–24837, 2022.
- 700
701 Lai Wei, Wenkai Wang, Xiaoyu Shen, Yu Xie, Zhihao Fan, Xiaojin Zhang, Zhongyu Wei, and Wei
Chen. Mc-cot: A modular collaborative cot framework for zero-shot medical-vqa with llm and
mllm integration. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2410.04521*, 2024.

- 702 Chaoyi Wu, Xiaoman Zhang, Ya Zhang, Yanfeng Wang, and Weidi Xie. Towards generalist
703 foundation model for radiology by leveraging web-scale 2d&3d medical data. *arXiv preprint*
704 *arXiv:2308.02463*, 2023.
- 705 Juncheng Wu, Wenlong Deng, Xingxuan Li, Sheng Liu, Taomian Mi, Yifan Peng, Ziyang Xu,
706 Yi Liu, Hyunjin Cho, Chang-In Choi, Yihan Cao, Hui Ren, Xiang Li, Xiaoxiao Li, and Yuyin
707 Zhou. Medreason: Eliciting factual medical reasoning steps in llms via knowledge graphs, 2025.
708 URL <https://arxiv.org/abs/2504.00993>.
- 709 Zhaolong Wu, Abul Hasan, Jinge Wu, Yunsoo Kim, Jason PY Cheung, Teng Zhang, and Honghan
710 Wu. Chain-of-thought (cot) prompting strategies for medical error detection and correction. *arXiv*
711 *preprint arXiv:2406.09103*, 2024.
- 712 Yunfei Xie, Ce Zhou, Lang Gao, Juncheng Wu, Xianhang Li, Hong-Yu Zhou, Sheng Liu, Lei Xing,
713 James Zou, Cihang Xie, and Yuyin Zhou. Medtrinity-25m: A large-scale multimodal dataset with
714 multigranular annotations for medicine. In *The Thirteenth International Conference on Learning*
715 *Representations, ICLR 2025, Singapore, April 24-28, 2025*. OpenReview.net, 2025.
- 716 He Xu, Yueqing Wang, Yangqin Xun, Ruitai Shao, and Yang Jiao. Artificial intelligence for clinical
717 reasoning: the reliability challenge and path to evidence-based practice. *QJM: An International*
718 *Journal of Medicine*, pp. hcaf114, 2025a.
- 719 Weiwen Xu, Hou Pong Chan, Long Li, Mahani Aljunied, Ruifeng Yuan, Jianyu Wang, Cheng-
720 hao Xiao, Guizhen Chen, Chaoqun Liu, Zhaodonghui Li, et al. Lingshu: A generalist founda-
721 tion model for unified multimodal medical understanding and reasoning. *arXiv preprint*
722 *arXiv:2506.07044*, 2025b.
- 723 Yi Yang, Xiaoxuan He, Hongkun Pan, Xiyan Jiang, Yan Deng, Xingtao Yang, Haoyu Lu, Dacheng
724 Yin, Fengyun Rao, Minfeng Zhu, et al. R1-onevision: Advancing generalized multimodal rea-
725 soning through cross-modal formalization. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2503.10615*, 2025.
- 726 Huanjin Yao, Jiaying Huang, Wenhao Wu, Jingyi Zhang, Yibo Wang, Shunyu Liu, Yingjie Wang,
727 Yuxin Song, Haocheng Feng, Li Shen, et al. Mulberry: Empowering mllm with o1-like reasoning
728 and reflection via collective monte carlo tree search. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2412.18319*, 2024.
- 729 Xiang Yue, Yuansheng Ni, Kai Zhang, Tianyu Zheng, Ruoqi Liu, Ge Zhang, Samuel Stevens,
730 Dongfu Jiang, Weiming Ren, Yuxuan Sun, et al. Mmmu: A massive multi-discipline multi-
731 modal understanding and reasoning benchmark for expert agi. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF*
732 *Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pp. 9556–9567, 2024.
- 733 Jingyi Zhang, Jiaying Huang, Huanjin Yao, Shunyu Liu, Xikun Zhang, Shijian Lu, and Dacheng
734 Tao. R1-vl: Learning to reason with multimodal large language models via step-wise group
735 relative policy optimization. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2503.12937*, 2025.
- 736 Kai Zhang, Rong Zhou, Eashan Adhikarla, Zhiling Yan, Yixin Liu, Jun Yu, Zhengliang Liu, Xun
737 Chen, Brian D Davison, Hui Ren, et al. A generalist vision–language foundation model for diverse
738 biomedical tasks. *Nature Medicine*, pp. 1–13, 2024.
- 739 Xiaoman Zhang, Chaoyi Wu, Ziheng Zhao, Weixiong Lin, Ya Zhang, Yanfeng Wang, and Weidi
740 Xie. Pmc-vqa: Visual instruction tuning for medical visual question answering. *arXiv preprint*
741 *arXiv:2305.10415*, 2023.
- 742 Yaowei Zheng, Richong Zhang, Junhao Zhang, Yanhan Ye, Zheyang Luo, Zhangchi Feng, and
743 Yongqiang Ma. Llamafactory: Unified efficient fine-tuning of 100+ language models. In *Pro-*
744 *ceedings of the 62nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume*
745 *3: System Demonstrations)*, Bangkok, Thailand, 2024. Association for Computational Linguis-
746 tics. URL <http://arxiv.org/abs/2403.13372>.
- 747 Kaiwen Zuo and Yirui Jiang. Medhallbench: A new benchmark for assessing hallucination in med-
748 ical large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2412.18947*, 2024.
- 749 Yuxin Zuo, Shang Qu, Yifei Li, Zhangren Chen, Xuekai Zhu, Ermo Hua, Kaiyan Zhang, Ning Ding,
750 and Bowen Zhou. Medxpertqa: Benchmarking expert-level medical reasoning and understanding.
751 *ArXiv*, abs/2501.18362, 2025.

A APPENDIX

A.1 LLM USAGE DISCLOSURE

Large Language Models (LLMs), specifically OpenAI ChatGPT¹, were employed in several auxiliary roles during the preparation of this manuscript. First, LLMs were used for writing assistance, including language polishing, grammar correction, and improving the overall readability of the manuscript. Second, LLMs were utilized as *LLM-as-a-Judge* to assist in the evaluation process, particularly in accessing model outputs for evaluation. Third, LLMs were incorporated into parts of the data construction pipeline, where they are used for our Graph-based reasoning representation and CoT data construction. Finally, LLMs were leveraged to assist in case study analysis, helping to structure observations and highlight key reasoning patterns. LLMs were not involved in the conception of research ideas or in the design of the proposed methodology implementation. The authors take full responsibility for all research findings and the content of this paper.

A.2 FAILURE CASE STUDY

In this paper, all the example cases are inferred following the official settings of individual repo. We provide failed case of Med-R1 (Lai et al., 2025), MedVLM-R1 (Pan et al., 2025), Chiron-o1 (Sun et al., 2025a) and Lingshu (Xu et al., 2025b) on MedXpertQA-MM (Zuo et al., 2025) and MMMU Medical Validation in (Chen et al., 2024b) in Figure 4, 5, 6 and 7.

In Figure 4, cases (a–f) illustrate the problem of *step-wise deficiency*, where models produce reasoning chains that appear superficially coherent but fail to capture the full causal or evidential progression. For instance, in (a) the patient with ischemic toe discoloration and an abdominal aortic aneurysm, the model chose “calcific sclerosis,” overlooking the embolic mechanism of mural thrombus generating fibrinous fragments that lodge in distal arteries. The absence of a pathophysiologic bridge from aneurysm to digital ischemia exemplifies shallow reasoning. In (b), the chronic finger injury with failed splinting was attributed to postoperative stiffness, while the correct answer required recognizing hardware prominence as the clinically significant complication; here, the model truncated its analysis to joint mobility without incorporating radiographic evidence of fixation hardware. Similarly, (c) involved integrating T1-weighted MRI with FDG PET; the model incorrectly chose metastatic thymoma, reflecting failure to link metabolic homogeneity and anatomic mediastinal involvement toward lymphoma. In (d), acute intoxication with abdominal tenderness was misclassified as septic shock, revealing the model’s tendency to stop at surface-level vital instability rather than connecting alcohol use, abdominal pain, and thrombocytopenia to pancreatitis. In (e), the musculoskeletal lesion was labeled as PVNS, but the correct diagnosis of rheumatoid arthritis required reasoning over chronic inflammatory features that were ignored. Finally, (f) demonstrates symbolic grounding gaps: the model recognized circular DNA as mitochondrial but mismatched the labeled diagram, exposing an incomplete linkage between genetic reasoning and visual grounding. Collectively, these failures reveal step deficiency as an inability to sustain multi-step, evidence-linked causal reasoning.

Additionally, cases (g–l) in Figure 5 highlight *branch deficiency*, where models prematurely narrow diagnostic space and neglect to compare against more plausible alternatives. In (g), the patient with necrotizing soft tissue infection was attributed to *Vibrio vulnificus*, an exotic pathogen, while ignoring the overwhelmingly likely cause of group A streptococcus; the model failed to weigh prevalence and exposure history in its reasoning. In (h), fibular plating was described as reducing hardware prominence, but the correct consideration was increased intra-articular screw penetration risk; the model privileged a single surface-level benefit without systematically evaluating trade-offs. In (i), a case of varicocele was incorrectly tied to infection (positive chlamydia NAAT) rather than its established association with impaired semen quality, underscoring insufficient exploration of canonical sequelae. Similarly, in (j), a testicular mass complication was predicted as abscess rather than atrophy, missing the broader range of longitudinal consequences. In (k), when selecting a biomarker for endocrine tumor, the model chose β 2-microglobulin, a nonspecific marker, while neglecting the disease-defining calcitonin—again narrowing prematurely instead of comparing discriminative markers. Finally, in (l), orbital swelling was judged least likely due to oral contraceptives, yet the more appropriate elimination was dermatomyositis; here, the model overemphasized trivial exclu-

¹<https://chat.openai.com/chat>

810

811  A 75-year-old man visits the primary care clinic due to painful discoloration of the toes on both feet ... What is the most likely underlying cause? **Options:** (A) Cholesterol crystals (B) Adipose globules (C) Calcific sclerosis (D) Vegetative growths (E) Fibrinous thrombi

812

813

814  <think> To determine the most likely underlying cause of the patient's clinical presentation, **let's analyze the symptoms and medical history.** </think><answer>**C**</answer>

815

816 **GT: E**

817  A 39-year-old man presents with a history of an index finger injury ... ? **Options:** (A) Range of motion of the DIP joint in the affected finger ... (B) High risk of symptomatic implant (C) Immobilization of the distal interphalangeal joint is required for 2 weeks post-operatively (D) High rates of post-operative infection are common (E) Open reduction via an approach through the nail bed leads to significant post-operative nail deformity

818

819

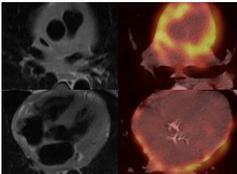
820

821

822  <think>To determine the correct statement, **let's analyze the provided images and the options provided.**</think><answer>**A**</answer>

823

824 **GT: B**

825  When examining the axial T1 non-fat saturated black blood MR images alongside ... which diagnosis is MOST likely?**Options:** (A) Vasculitis (B) Angiosarcoma (C) Metastatic thymoma (D) Lymphoma (E) Pericarditis

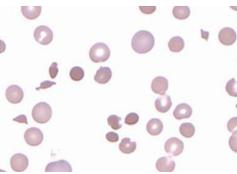
826

827  <think>To determine the most likely diagnosis, **let's analyze the axial T1 non-fat saturated black blood MR images and the corresponding fused axial F-18 FDG PET-CT images at the level of the heart.**</think><answer>**C**</answer>

828

829

830 **GT: D**

831  A 45-year-old homeless man arrives at the emergency department in a state of acute intoxication ... What is the most likely diagnosis? **Options:** (A) Immune thrombocytopenic purpura (B) Septic shock (C) Pancreatitis (D) Cirrhosis (E) Rattlesnake bite"

832

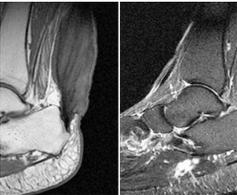
833

834

835  <think>To determine the most likely diagnosis, **let's analyze** the patient's symptoms and laboratory results.</think><answer>**B**</answer>

836

837 **GT: C**

838  What is the MOST probable diagnosis? **Options:** (A) Pigmented villonodular synovitis (PVNS) (B) Lipoma (C) Chronic tendinosis (D) Xanthoma (E) Rheumatoid arthritis

839

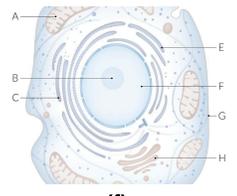
840

841  <think> **Let's think about** how to solve this question carefully.</think><answer>The final answer is: **A**</answer>

842

843 **GT: D**

844

845  A 10-year-old boy is brought to the physician because of a 1-day history of spasms in his upper and lower ... The mutated gene most likely originated from which of the following labeled organelles? **Options:** (A) C (B) B (C) A (D) F (E) D

846

847

848  <think>The image provided is a cross-sectional diagram of a cell, highlighting various organelles. The question involves identifying the origin of a mutated gene encoded by circular dsDNA, which is characteristic of mitochondrial DNA. **In the diagram, the mitochondria are labeled as 'F'.** </think> <answer>**D**</answer>

849

850

851 **GT: C**

852

853

854 Figure 4: Failure case of *step-wise deficiency*(a)(b)(c)(d)(e)(f) of Med-R1 (Lai et al., 2025),

855 MedVLM-R1 (Pan et al., 2025), Chiron-o1 (Sun et al., 2025a) and Lingshu (Xu et al., 2025b) on

856 MedXpertQA-MM.

857

858

859

860 sion while failing to reject a clinically inconsistent autoimmune cause. These branch errors illustrate

861 a tendency to commit early to plausible but incomplete explanations, without maintaining wide-

862 enough diagnostic coverage. Together, step and branch deficiencies show complementary failure

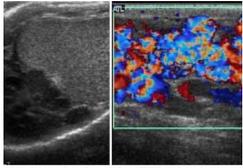
863 modes: the former yields shallow causal chains, while the latter collapses the hypothesis space too

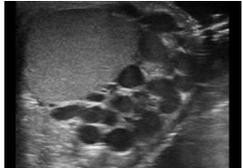
early both undermining safe and reliable clinical reasoning.

864
865
866
867
868
869
870
871
872
873
874
875
876
877
878
879
880
881
882
883
884
885
886
887
888
889
890
891
892
893
894
895
896
897
898
899
900
901
902
903
904
905
906
907
908
909
910
911
912
913
914
915
916
917

(g)  A 53-year-old male with a history ... What is the most common pathogen responsible for this condition? **Options:** (A) *Vibrio vulnificus* (B) Group A streptococcus (C) Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (D) *Clostridium perfringens* (E) *Bacteroides fragilis*

(h)  When comparing the fibular plating techniques depicted in Figures A and B, ... ? **Options:** (A) Increased risk of intra-articular screw penetration (B) Decreased rate of hardware prominence (C) Increased peroneal tendinitis (D) Increased strength (E) Increased stiffness

(i)  A 36-year-old man comes to the primary ... Which additional finding is most likely in this patient? **Options:** (A) Increased urinary hCG (B) Positive Chlamydia NAAT (C) Cremasteric areflexia (D) Abnormal semen analysis (E) Positive transillumination

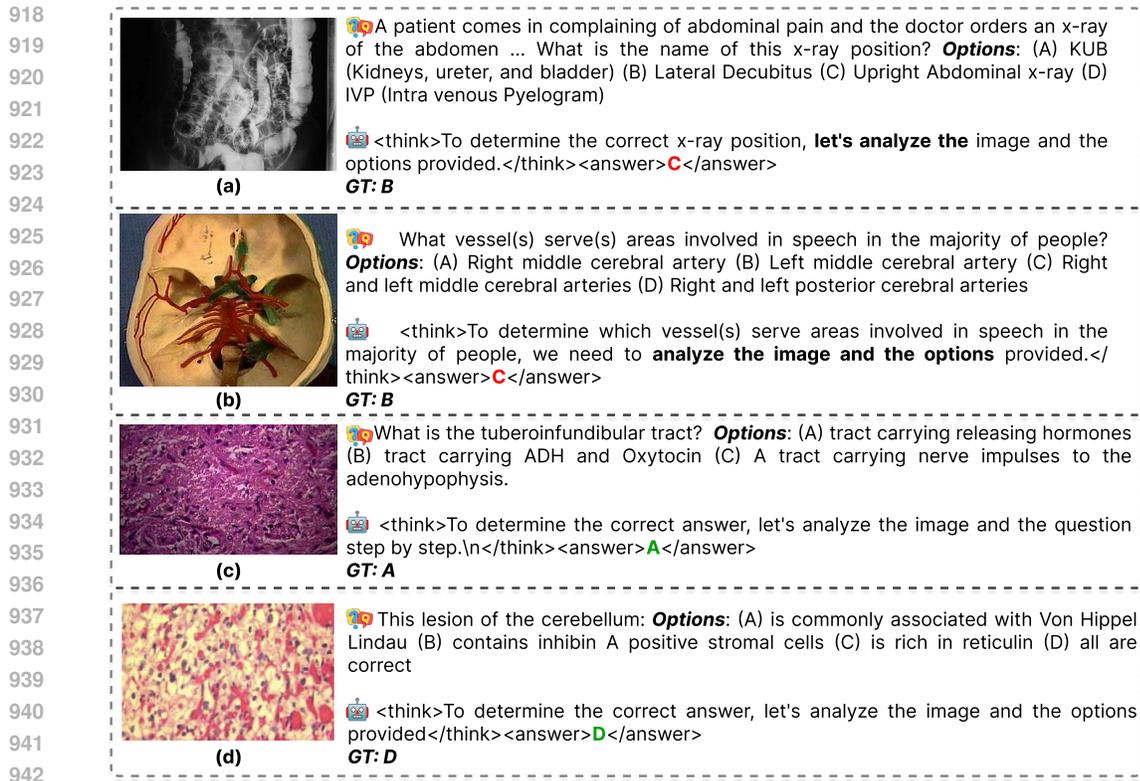
(j)  A 14-year-old boy presents to clinic ... What potential complication could develop if this condition remains untreated? **Options:** (A) Testicular atrophy (B) Testicular necrosis (C) Testicular rupture (D) Intestinal necrosis (E) Testicular abscess

(k)  What laboratory test is most appropriate for this patient? **Options:** (A) Alpha-fetoprotein (B) Beta2-microglobulin (C) Red-cell transketolase (D) Insulin-like growth factor-1 (E) Calcitonin

(l)  Which of the following is the least probable cause of this patient's retrobulbar swelling and double vision? **Options:** (A) Oral contraceptive use (B) Facial trauma (C) Cancer (D) Dermatomyositis (E) Sinusitis

Figure 5: Failure case of *branch deficiency*(g)(h)(i)(j)(k)(l) of Med-R1 (Lai et al., 2025), MedVLM-R1 (Pan et al., 2025), Chiron-o1 (Sun et al., 2025a) and Lingshu (Xu et al., 2025b) on MedXpertQA-MM.

In Figure 6, (a) in abdominal radiography, the model incorrectly classifies a lateral decubitus x-ray as an upright abdominal film, overlooking positional cues in the imaging context. (b) For cerebrovascular supply, the model wrongly selects bilateral MCA rather than the left MCA, reflecting a failure to integrate the language-dominant hemisphere in speech. (c) In neuroanatomy, although the model answers correctly about the tuberoinfundibular tract, the reasoning provided is generic and does not specify its neuroendocrine role, illustrating shallow explanation. (d) For cerebellar lesions, the model correctly chooses “all are correct” but provides no justification, skipping over



943 Figure 6: Failure case of MedVLM-R1 (Pan et al., 2025) on MMMU Medical Validation in (Chen
944 et al., 2024b)

945
946
947 the individual pathological features that support the choice, thus yielding an incomplete reasoning
948 chain.

949
950 In Figure 7, (a) in vestibular pathology, the model wrongly excludes loss of facial sensation, in-
951 stead mislabeling vertigo as the least likely outcome, failing to distinguish cranial nerve VII vs VIII
952 involvement. (b) For myocardial ischemia, the model selects heterophagocytosis instead of free rad-
953 ical injury, showing both a content error and neglect of pathophysiological time-course reasoning.
954 (c) In cell classification, although the model outputs the correct choice (“eukaryotic with a nucleus”),
955 the explanation is superficial and does not clearly contrast prokaryotic vs eukaryotic structures, re-
956 flecting step deficiency. (d) For regeneration of cranial nerves, the model outputs the correct “no
957 regeneration” but again fails to elaborate the biological rationale (CNS vs PNS regenerative capac-
958 ity), underscoring incomplete causal reasoning.

959 Taken together, these supplemental cases reinforce the observation that even when answers are some-
960 times correct, explanations are often *generic*, *incomplete*, or *clinically shallow*, leaving reasoning
961 chains insufficient to support reliable medical decision-making.

962 A.3 STEP-WISE EXPLORATION & BRANCH-WISE EXPLORATION

963 A.3.1 EXPLORATION DETAILS

964
965
966 In Section. 3.1, we employ LLM-as-Judge and prompt OpenAI GPT-4o (Achiam et al., 2023) to
967 evaluate the step-wise and branch-wise exploration of each reasoning process. The detailed prompt
968 template is provided in Appendix A.3.1. Based on the LLM-extracted reasoning steps for each candi-
969 date option, we compute StepExploration and BranchExploration according to Eq. 1. These
970 two indicators quantitatively capture how progressively it develops causal or evidential links (step-
971 wise exploration) and how comprehensively the reasoning process explores alternative diagnostic
972 routes (branch-wise exploration). The corresponding statistics are reported in Table 1 and Table 2,

972
973
974
975
976
977
978
979
980
981
982
983
984
985
986
987
988
989
990
991
992
993
994
995
996
997
998
999
1000

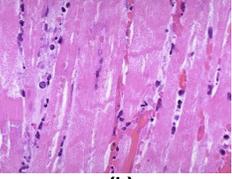


(a)

🗣️ The vestibular system can be stimulated or irritated by an infection of the inner ear or by a tumor (arrow) pressing on the vestibulocochlear nerve. Which of the following would NOT occur? **Options:** (A) Decreased auditory acuity (B) Vertigo (C) Tinnitus (D) Loss of facial sensation

🤖 <think>The image provided is a magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) scan of the brain, specifically showing the inner ear and the vestibulocochlear nerve. The yellow arrow points to a potential area of interest, which is likely to be a tumor pressing on the vestibulocochlear nerve.</think><answer>B</answer>

GT: D

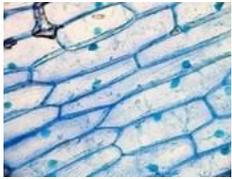


(b)

🗣️ A 53-year-old man suffers a cardiac arrest and his wife calls paramedics ... Which of the following cellular changes is most likely to now be occurring within his myocardium? **Options:** (A) Apoptosis (B) Free radical injury (C) Heterophagocytosis (D) Squamous metaplasia

🤖 <think>The image provided is a microscopic view of a tissue sample, which is not relevant to the question about cellular changes in the myocardium. **Therefore, we cannot use this image** to answer the question</think><answer>C</answer>

GT: B



(c)

🗣️ How can you tell that this is a prokaryote or eukaryote cell ? **Options:** (A) It is a prokaryote because it doesn't have a nucleus (B) It is a eukaryotic cell because it has a cell wall and a nucleus (C) It is eukaryotic because it does not a nucleus nor a cell membrane (D) It is prokaryote because it has a cell wall

🤖 <think>To determine whether the cell is prokaryotic or eukaryotic, **we need to look at the cell's structure** and compare it to the characteristics of prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells.</think><answer>B</answer>

GT: B



(d)

🗣️ If the optic nerve (II) or olfactory tract is interrupted, will it regenerate? **Options:** (A) No, will not regenerate. (B) Yes, will regenerate.

🤖 <think>The image provided is a medical illustration of a human eye, specifically showing the optic nerve (II) and the olfactory tract. **The question asks whether** the optic nerve or olfactory tract will regenerate if they are interrupted.</think><answer>A</answer>

GT: A

1001 Figure 7: Failure case of Med-R1 (Lai et al., 2025) on MMMU Medical Validation in (Chen et al.,
1002 2024b)

1003
1004
1005 providing complementary insights into the structural quality of reasoning beyond final-answer ac-
1006 curacy.

1007 Prompt Template

1008
1009 You are given a medical multiple-choice question and an answer explanation generated by
1010 an AI model.

1011 The ****medical question**** is: {QUESTION}.

1012 The ****answer explanation**** is: {ANSWER_TEXT}.

1013 Your Task:

- 1014 • For each option, count the number of ****distinct reasoning steps**** in the explana-
1015 tion.
1016 (1) A reasoning step is a unique clinical statement or justification.
1017 (2) Do not count repeated or paraphrased content.
1018 (3) If an option is not mentioned, assign ****0****.
1019
- 1020 • Report all options in order.

1021 Output Format (Plain Text Only):

1022 Option A: X

1023 Option B: X

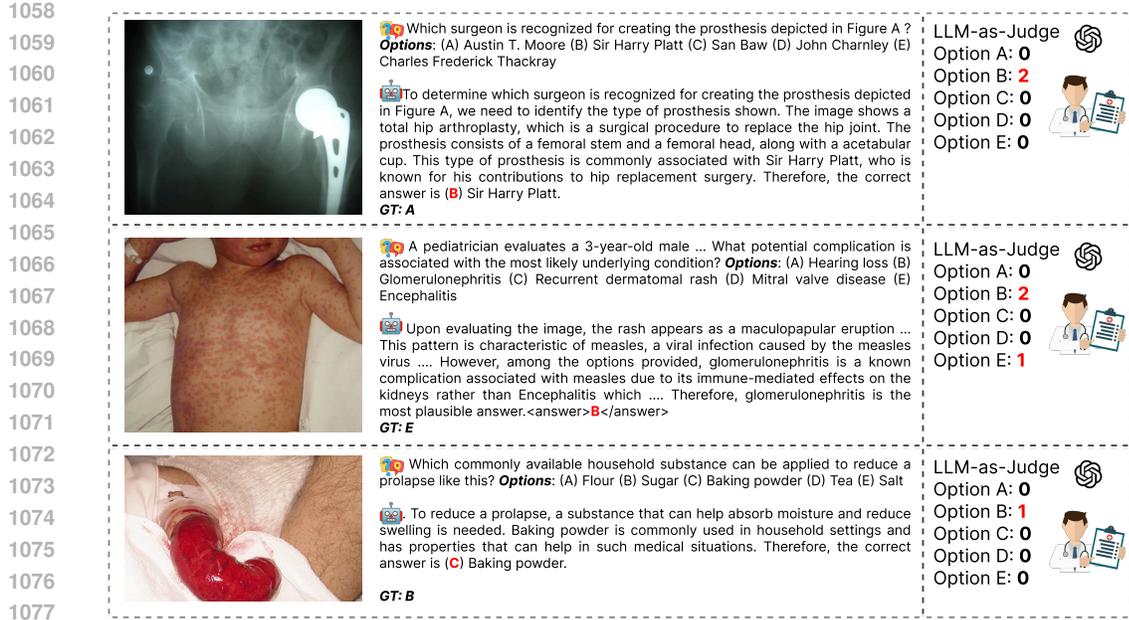
1024 Option C: X

1025 Option D: X

1026 We illustrate the evaluation process with several representative cases. As shown in Figure 8, when
 1027 the model produces a fake” reasoning path (e.g., generic statements such as let’s analyze”), GPT-4o
 1028 (Achiam et al., 2023) correctly judges that all options contain zero valid reasoning steps. In contrast,
 1029 Figure 9 demonstrates how GPT-4o identifies the number of clinically meaningful reasoning steps
 1030 for each option when valid explanations are present. To ensure alignment with human preference,
 1031 we further conduct human verification by licensed physicians, confirming the reliability of GPT-4o
 1032 as an automatic evaluator.



1054 Figure 8: Evaluation provided by OpenAI GPT-4o (Achiam et al., 2023) to access the number of
 1055 steps for each option in the reasoning process.



1078 Figure 9: Evaluation provided by OpenAI GPT-4o (Achiam et al., 2023) to access the number of
 1079 steps for each option in the reasoning process.

Table 6: **Inter-rater reliability between LLM-as-Judge scores and expert ratings** across four datasets for two reasoning-structure metrics. We report Spearman rank correlation (ρ). Higher ρ indicates stronger agreement.

(a) Spearman correlation for BranchExploration.					(b) Spearman correlation for StepExploration.						
	MedX-M	MMMU	MedX-T	MMLU-Pro	Avg.		MedX-M	MMMU	MedX-T	MMLU-Pro	Avg.
ρ -value	0.849	0.884	0.824	0.826	0.846	ρ -value	0.818	0.858	0.813	0.801	0.822

A.3.2 INTER-RATER RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

To validate the reliability of our LLM-as-Judge evaluation results in Table. 1, we first select 10 samples for each model (including 9 models: VL-Rethinker-7B, R1-Onevision-7B, R1-VL-7B, VLAAA-Thinker-7B, Med-R1-2B, MedVLM-R1-2B, Chiron-o1-8B, Lingshu-7B, and PathFiner-7B) on each dataset (including 4 datasets: MedX-M, MMMU-Med, MedX-T, MMLU-Pro), totally 360 samples and have them evaluated with same metrics by a licensed medical expert. Then we perform a quantitative inter-rater agreement analysis on these 360 samples, comparing LLM-as-Judge ratings with expert evaluation on Spearman correlation value. As shown in Table. 6, the Spearman ρ -value is **0.846** and **0.822**, demonstrating strong correlation between LLM-as-Judge and human expert ratings.

A.4 METHODOLOGY

Data Source for Graph-Structured Reasoning Representation. For multimodal settings, our data source consists of PubMedVision (Chen et al., 2024b), MedTrinity-25M (Xie et al., 2025) and GMAI-Reasoning10k (Su et al., 2025). PubMedVision and MedTrinity-25M provide visual-question-answer pair accompanied with detailed image descriptions while GMAI-Reasoning10k provides visual-question-answer pair with tailed CoT reasoning process. We sample 10k, 10k and 9k VQA pairs from PubMedVision, MedTrinity-25M and GMAI-Reasoning10k datasets respectively. For text-only settings, our data source consists of QA pairs with detailed reasoning, including 32.7k from MedReason (Wu et al., 2025), 8k from medical-o1-reasoning-SFT (Chen et al., 2024a), 7k from Medical-R1-Distill-Data (Chen et al., 2024a), 23.5k from Medical23k (Huang et al., 2025a).

Data Construction for Graph-Structured Reasoning Representation. We construct our graph-based chain-of-thought (CoT) data by systematically integrating both multimodal and text-only medical sources. Our goal is to represent each diagnostic reasoning process as a structured graph, where nodes correspond to medical entities (e.g., symptoms, findings, hypotheses) and edges encode causal or evidential relationships. We illustrate the pipeline of constructing multimodal data as example: **(Step 1): Node Identification.** For each question-answer pair, we first identify relevant medical entities to serve as graph nodes. To standardize this process, we prompt GPT-4o (Achiam et al., 2023) with a carefully designed template (Appendix A.4) to extract candidate entities from the textual content, and from image captions or clinical descriptions when available. Nodes are categorized into types such as findings, hypotheses, symptoms, or conclusions, ensuring consistent semantic representation across datasets. **(Step 2): Edge Construction and Reasoning Paths.** Once the nodes are defined, we generate edges that capture causal or evidential relationships between nodes. For each answer option, GPT-4o is prompted (Appendix A.4) to produce reasoning paths connecting the nodes in a coherent, step-wise manner. Each edge is annotated to indicate the type of relationship to facilitate downstream process-level reward modeling in Graph-GRPO. **(Step 3): Graph Reformatting.** The generated reasoning paths are then reorganized into a graph-based CoT format, where multiple paths corresponding to different answer options are represented in a consistent structure. This enables explicit step-wise and branch-wise exploration during model training. **(Step 4): Quality Verification.** To ensure clinical reliability, all generated graphs undergo review by licensed medical experts. Experts verify node correctness, edge validity, and the logical consistency of reasoning paths. Any inconsistencies or missing links are corrected before finalizing the CoT data. Finally, we analyze the frequency of nodes and edges across all datasets to identify the most common medical entities and reasoning relationships, which are visualized in Figure 10. This analysis provides an overview of the typical structure and distribution of graph-structured reasoning in medical VLM tasks.

1134 **Dataset-Specific Adaptations.** Multimodal datasets (PubMedVision, MedTrinity-25M): We utilize
 1135 both the question–answer pairs and the accompanying detailed image descriptions or captions, en-
 1136 abling GPT-4o (Achiam et al., 2023) to generate nodes and reasoning paths that integrate visual and
 1137 textual evidence. Multimodal datasets (GMAI-Reasoning10k): As this dataset provides detailed rea-
 1138 soning without descriptive context, we modify the prompting procedure to omit description-based
 1139 inputs while still constructing complete reasoning graphs. Text-only datasets: For datasets without
 1140 images, GPT-4o is prompted using the original reasoning traces as references, ensuring that nodes
 1141 and edges remain consistent with the underlying medical logic.

1142
1143
1144
1145
1146
1147
1148
1149
1150
1151
1152
1153
1154
1155
1156
1157
1158
1159
1160
1161
1162
1163
1164
1165
1166
1167
1168
1169
1170
1171
1172
1173
1174
1175
1176
1177
1178
1179
1180
1181
1182
1183
1184
1185
1186
1187

Prompt Template

You are an AI assistant specialized in biomedical and medical topics. You will receive a **medical question**, and/or **description of the image** and/or **reference reasoning** and the **image**. Your task is to **only extract related clinical entities or phrases from the description** and categorize each into one of the following types: *< symptom >*, *< finding >*, *< hypothesis >*, *< fact >*, *< rule >*, *< evidence >*, *< imag_feature >*, *< roi >*, *< question >*, and other important types et al.
Output Format (strictly follow this template):
 name of entity 1: *< type >*
 name of entity 2: *< type >*

 The **medical question** is: {QUESTION}.
 The **description of the image** is: {DESCRIPTION}.
 The **reference reasoning** is: {REASONING}.
 The **image** is: {Encoded_Image}.

1188
1189
1190
1191
1192
1193
1194
1195
1196
1197
1198
1199
1200
1201
1202
1203
1204
1205
1206
1207
1208
1209
1210
1211
1212
1213
1214
1215
1216
1217
1218
1219
1220
1221
1222
1223
1224
1225
1226
1227
1228
1229
1230
1231
1232
1233
1234
1235
1236
1237
1238
1239
1240
1241

Prompt Template

You are an AI assistant specialized in biomedical and medical topics. You will receive a **medical question**, a **description** of an image, **incorrect answer**, **correct answer**, and reference **reason**. Your task is to **construct reasoning chains that rule out the incorrect answer** and **construct reasoning chains that support the incorrect answer** using **important entities** and logic from the caption or question. You should only keep important medical entities *< tag >* that are related to the question and options. You should include the type of important entity inside the *< >*, following the entity name. The reasoning should contain important steps that clearly explain why the incorrect answer is incorrect and why the correct answer is correct.

Output Format Example:

... entity *< type >* ... entity *< type >* ... *< refute >* *< option >* X.
 ... entity *< type >* ... entity *< type >* ... *< support >* *< option >* X.

Strictly Follow Output Format Requirements:

1. Replace the *< type >* with the type of the entity, such as *< symptom >*, *< finding >*, *< hypothesis >*, *< fact >*, *< rule >*, *< evidence >* and et al.
2. Replace the *entity* with the actual entity name.
3. The *entity* and *< type >* should come from the **question entity and its type** and the **image entity and its type**.
4. You can replace the *< support >* and *< refute >* with any other tag that you think is more appropriate, such as *< support >*, *< justify >*, *< rule out >*, *< lead to >* and et al.
5. Replace all the ... with the actual reasoning process complete sentence and make the reasoning process as detailed.
6. The reasoning should be based on the **caption**, the reference **reason** and the **image**.
7. Fully consider the underlying medical knowledge and logic to explain.

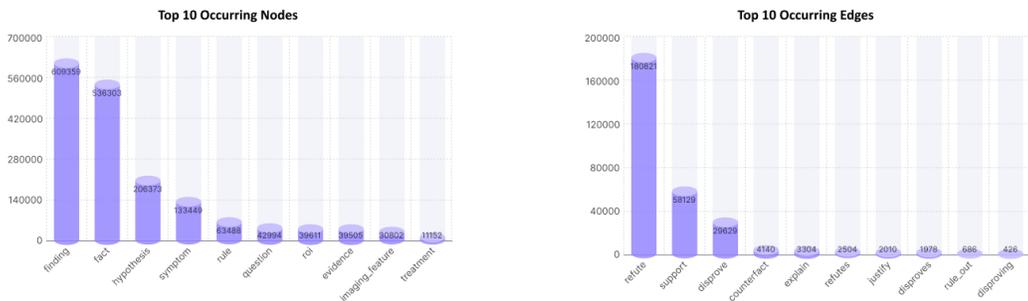
The **medical question** is: {QUESTION}.

The **description of the image** is: {DESCRIPTION}.

The **reference reasoning** is: {REASONING}.

The **image** is: {Encoded_Image}.

The **entity nodes** are: {NODES}



(a) Top 10 occurring nodes. (b) Top 10 occurring edges.

Figure 10: Statistics of top 10 occurring nodes and edges in the structured graph.

Data Source for Graph-based Group Relative Policy Optimization. We acude both multimodal and text-only data for reinforcement learning stage. Specifically, we sample 1.6k from PMC-VQA (Zhang et al., 2023), 1.6k from PathVQA (He et al., 2020), 1.6k form SLAKE (Liu et al., 2021), 1k from VQA-RAD (Lau et al., 2018) and 1.2k from GMAI-Reasoning10K (Su et al., 2025) as multimodal dataset and 7k from MedAgentsBench (Tang et al., 2025), including training samples from MMLU (Hendrycks et al., 2020), PubMedQA (Jin et al., 2019), MedMCQA (Pal et al., 2022), MedQA (Jin et al., 2021) and Medbullets (Chen et al., 2025a) as text-only dataset.

Table 7: Comprehensive evaluation on medical report generation tasks.

Model	CheXpert Plus			IU-Xray		
	ROUGE-L	CIDEr	RaTE	ROUGE-L	CIDEr	RaTE
<i>Close-source proprietary models</i>						
GPT-4.1	24.5	78.8	45.5	30.2	124.6	51.3
Claud Sonnet 4	22.0	59.5	43.5	25.4	88.3	55.4
Gemmi-2.5-Flash	23.6	72.2	44.3	33.5	129.3	55.6
<i>Open-source models (<10B)</i>						
Med-R1-2B	18.6	37.1	38.5	16.1	38.3	41.4
MedVLM-R1-2B	20.9	43.5	38.9	22.7	61.1	46.1
MedGemma-4B-IT	27.1	<u>79.0</u>	47.2	30.8	103.6	57.0
LLaVA-Med-7B	18.4	45.5	38.8	18.8	68.2	40.9
HuatuoGPT-V-7B	21.3	64.7	44.2	29.6	104.3	52.9
BioMediX2-8B	18.1	47.9	40.8	19.6	58.8	40.1
Qwen2.5VL-7B	22.2	62.0	41.0	26.5	78.1	48.4
InternVL2.5-8B	20.6	58.5	43.1	24.8	75.4	51.1
InternVL3-8B	20.9	65.4	44.3	22.9	76.2	51.2
Lingshu-7B	26.5	<u>79.0</u>	45.4	41.2	180.7	57.6
<i>PathFinder-7B (Ours)</i>	26.1	88.7	<u>46.9</u>	<u>35.0</u>	<u>153.6</u>	63.5

A.5 EXPERIMENTAL SETUPS

Training Details. For cold-start SFT, we utilize LlamaFactory (Zheng et al., 2024) as codebase. We fully finetune language model of Qwen2.5-VL-7B-Instruct (Bai et al., 2025) by freezing the vision encoder and multimodal projector, for 2 epoch with learning rate $2e^{-5}$, cosine scheduler and deepspeed zero3 stage. For reinforcement learning, we apply our proposed Graph-GRPO on VLM-R1 (Shen et al., 2025) codebase. Due to $4 \times A6000$ -48GB GPU memory limitation, we utilize LoRA (Hu et al., 2022) with 64 rank, 128 alpha and 0.05 dropout, with learning rate $1e^{-5}$ and 4 number of generations to train 1 epoch. The rest of parameter settings follow the default of LlamaFactory and VLM-R1 codebases.

A.6 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Close-End Task In Table. 1, VL-Rethinker-7B (Wang et al., 2025), R1-Onevision-7B (Yang et al., 2025), R1-VL-7B (Zhang et al., 2025) and VLAA-Thinker-7B (Chen et al., 2025b) are utilized as general models. Med-R1-2B (Lai et al., 2025), MedVLM-R1-2B (Pan et al., 2025), Chiron-8B (Sun et al., 2025a) and Lingshu-7B (Xu et al., 2025b) represent the medical domain-specific models. All models are inferenced following their official settings to produce the reasonings. Thus, the results in accuracy slightly differ from the leaderboards in Table. 3 and Table. 4. In Table. 3, we follow the leaderboards in (Xu et al., 2025b) which includes GPT-4.1, Claude Sonnet and Gemini-2.5-Flash as close-source proprietary models, BiomedGPT (Zhang et al., 2024), MedGemma-4B (Sellersgren et al., 2025), LLaVA-Med (Li et al., 2023), HuatuoGPT-V-7B (Chen et al., 2024b) and BioMediX2-8B (Mullappilly et al., 2024) as open-source non-reasoning models, as well as Med-R1-2B (Lai et al., 2025), MedVLM-R1-2B (Pan et al., 2025), Lingshu-7B (Xu et al., 2025b), Chiron-o1-8B (Sun et al., 2025a) and MedVLThinker-7B (Huang et al., 2025a) as open-source reasoning-based models. Since the original leaderboards in (Xu et al., 2025b) do not include Chiron-o1-8B and MedVLThinker-7B, we add these two results from their own papers, where MedVLThinker-7B does not report results on OmniMedVQA dataset and any text-only benchmarks. Even we sample data from GMAI-Reasoning10K (Su et al., 2025), we exclude comparison of GMAI-VL-R1 (Su et al., 2025) since the model has yet been released at the time of our paper submission and (Su et al., 2025) its paper only reports on a small number of benchmark.

Open-End Task In addition to conventional QA and VQA benchmarks, we further evaluate the performance of our PathFinder model on a practical task of high clinical relevance: medical report generation, a setting where there are no predefined candidate answers. We adopt the same

SFT→Graph-GRPO training pipeline used for closed-ended tasks, with adaptations to graph construction and reward design. We randomly sample 4k data (2k for SFT and 2k for RL) from the training split of CheXpert Plus dataset (Chambon et al., 2024). (1) **Graph Construction:** For each training sample, we constructs a diagnostic graph using the same node and edge schema as in Section 3. Nodes are extracted and edges are generated from free-form relations among these entities, capturing both confirmatory and eliminative reasoning even without explicit answer options. (2) **SFT Data Generation:** The diagnostic graph is unfolded into a reasoning trajectory that precedes the final report. The output format follows the template: ... *'Reasoning Process'* ... *<Final Report> Findings: ... Impression: ... </Final Report>*. Although the task is open-ended, the reasoning path still includes exploration of alternative hypotheses and rule-out logic, enabling PathFinder to learn structured reasoning similar to differential diagnosis. (3) **Graph-GRPO Adaptation for Open-Ended Output:** Process-level rewards (*Step Reward* and *Branch Reward*) remain unchanged: Step Reward verifies that each reasoning step correctly uses nodes and edges from the constructed graph, while Branch Reward encourages exploration of multiple inferred hypotheses. Since open-ended tasks do not provide categorical correctness, the outcome reward is replaced with a sentence-level semantic reward. Specifically we adopt BERTScore F1, continuous value between 0.0 and 1.0 following (Pham & Ngo, 2025). The final reward is $r = \lambda_{\text{step}}r_{\text{step}} + \lambda_{\text{branch}}r_{\text{branch}} + \lambda_{\text{acc}}\text{BERTScore_F1}(y, \hat{y})$. These hyperparameters $\lambda_{\text{step}}, r_{\text{step}}, \lambda_{\text{branch}}, r_{\text{branch}}, \lambda_{\text{acc}}$ are consistent with close-end task defined in Section. 3.3. The results are summarized in Table 7, including two widely adopted benchmarks: CheXpert Plus (Chambon et al., 2024), and IU-Xray (Demner-Fushman et al., 2015). We follow the leaderboard in (Xu et al., 2025b) and specifically report two semantic-based metrics ROUGE-L and CIDEr, one model-based metrics RaTE. Our PathFinder-7B model achieves competitive or superior results compared with both open-source and proprietary models. On CheXpert Plus, PathFinder obtains a CIDEr of 88.7, surpassing all open-source baselines and proprietary model performance. Notably, it achieves the highest RaTE score (63.5) on IU-Xray, indicating strong clinical correctness and relevance in generated reports. These results demonstrate that PathFinder can generate detailed and clinically accurate reports, confirming its effectiveness in open-end medical language tasks beyond traditional (V)QA benchmarks. We provide a visualization example in Figure 11.

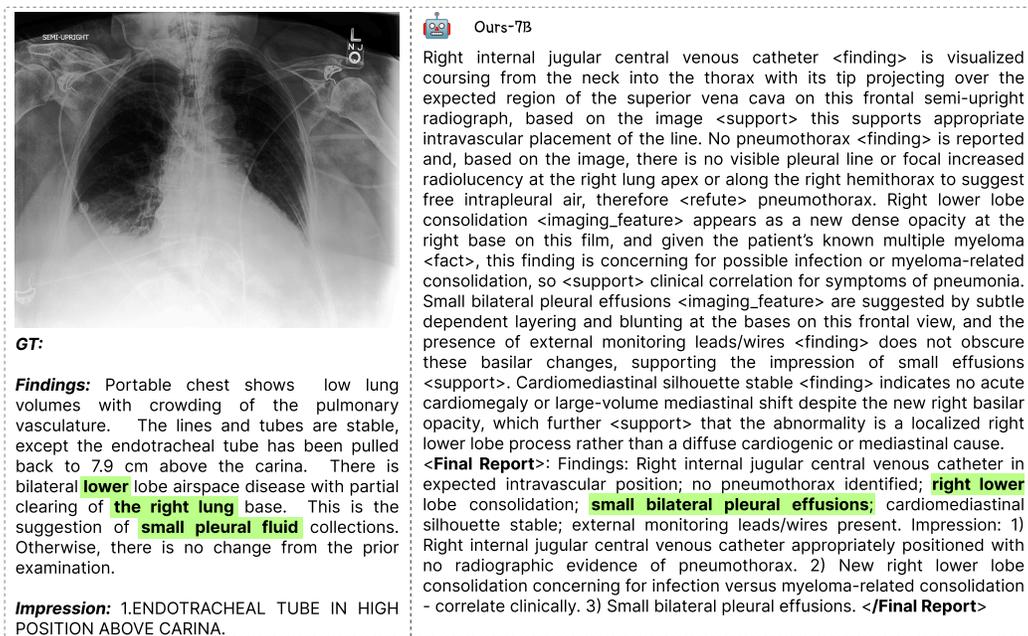


Figure 11: Example of report generation on CheXpert Plus (Chambon et al., 2024) dataset.

Training Process We visualize the training progress of Graph-GRPO by plotting the Step Reward (r_{step}), Branch Reward (r_{branch}) and Accuracy Reward (r_{acc}) over the first 50 global steps. As shown in Figure 12, both r_{step} and r_{branch} increase steadily alongside the accuracy reward, indicating

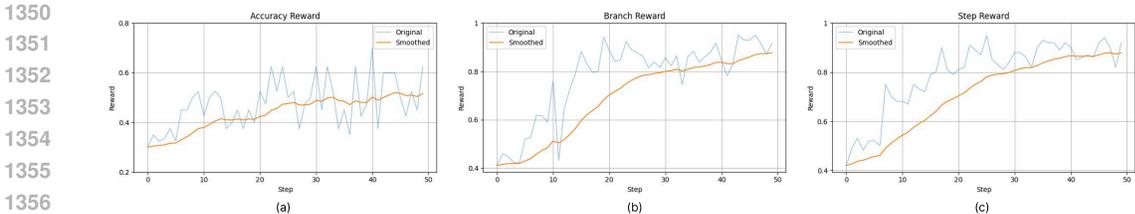


Figure 12: Training progress over the first 50 global steps. We visualize the Accuracy Reward, Branch Reward, and Step Reward, showing both the original data and the time-weighted EMA-smoothed curves.

that the model learns to improve step-wise and branch-wise reasoning in a balanced manner. This demonstrates that these rewards can be jointly optimized without conflict during the training stage.

A.7 ABLATION STUDY

We conduct full ablation studies on Qwen2.5-VL-7B across both text-only and multimodal benchmarks, as shown in Tables 8 and 9. Starting from the baseline model, we first add a *Cold-Start* stage, which consistently improves performance across both in-domain and out-of-domain datasets. Building on this, integrating our proposed **Graph-GRPO** further enhances accuracy, yielding the highest gains in both text-only (Table 9) and multimodal (Table 8) settings. These results confirm that (i) Cold-Start training provides a stronger initialization and (ii) Graph-GRPO offers additional improvements by explicitly optimizing step- and branch-wise reasoning quality.

Table 8: Full ablation study on Qwen2.5-VL-7B across multimodal benchmarks.

Models	Out-of-Domain		In-Domain				
	MedXQA↑	MMMU-Med↑	VQA-RAD↑	SLAKE↑	PathVQA↑	PMC-VQA↑	OMVQA↑
Baseline-7B	22.2	50.6	64.5	67.2	44.1	51.9	58.4
+ Cold-start	26.1	62.8	77.1	77.2	75.2	56.6	60.4
+ Graph-GRPO	28.2	68.9	79.3	80.3	87.0	61.2	63.5

Table 9: Full ablation study on Qwen2.5-VL-7B across text-only benchmarks.

Models	Out-of-Domain			In-Domain				
	MedXQA↑	SGPQA-Med↑	MMLU↑	PubMedQA↑	MedMCQA↑	MedQA↑	Medbullets↑	MMLU-Pro↑
Baseline-7B	12.9	26.3	73.4	73.1	52.6	57.3	42.1	46.5
+ Cold-Start	15.0	30.5	78.1	75.4	54.3	64.1	43.1	54.4
+ Graph-GRPO	16.8	31.5	80.2	77.2	56.8	66.3	46.4	55.4

A.8 SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS

To evaluate the robustness of PathFinder with respect to hyperparameter choices, we conducted a sensitivity analysis by varying the temperature τ in the model’s output sampling. Table 10 reports the performance on the MedXpert-MM (Zuo et al., 2025) benchmark under different temperature settings ($\tau = 1.0, 0.75, 0.50, 0.25$). Typically, we report $\tau = 1$ in all other table results through this paper. We observe that both PathFinder-SFT and PathFinder-RL maintain stable performance across a wide range of τ , with small standard deviations, indicating that the model’s reasoning quality and final prediction are robust to stochasticity in sampling. In particular, PathFinder-RL consistently outperforms the baseline Qwen2.5VL-7B under all tested temperatures, demonstrating the effectiveness of graph-structured reasoning and the RL-based fine-tuning in producing reliable answers.

Table 10: Sensitivity analysis by setting different temperature τ hyperparameter.

Models	MedX-M				Average
	$\tau = 1$	$\tau = 0.75$	$\tau = 0.50$	$\tau = 0.25$	
Baseline-7B	22.2	22.0	21.0	21.1	21.6±0.53
+ Cold-start	26.1	26.5	26.0	26.5	26.3±0.23
+ Graph-GRPO	28.2	28.4	26.5	28.5	27.9±0.82

A.9 OURS CASE STUDY

We provide both accurate and failed cases of our model compared with Med-R1 (Lai et al., 2025), MedVLM-R1 (Pan et al., 2025), Chiron-o1 (Sun et al., 2025a) and Lingshu (Xu et al., 2025b) on MedXpertQA-MM benchmark (Zuo et al., 2025).

In Figure 13, a 75-year-old man with hypertension, diabetes, and a heavy smoking history presented with painful toe discoloration and a pulsatile abdominal mass, with intact peripheral pulses. The ground-truth diagnosis is fibrinous thrombi due to embolization from an abdominal aortic aneurysm. MedVLM-R1 misclassifies the case as calcific sclerosis, reflecting a superficial reliance on atherosclerosis-related cues without integrating the acute ischemic manifestation or the abdominal finding. In contrast, our model correctly identifies fibrinous thrombi by explicitly linking the ischemic discoloration to distal embolization and connecting the pulsatile abdominal mass to an underlying aneurysm, thereby capturing both step-wise exploration (reasoning through the causal chain from aneurysm to thromboembolism) and branch-wise exploration (considering risk factors and multiple findings). This illustrates how our approach mitigates distractor bias and achieves more faithful pathophysiological reasoning.



Q A 75-year-old man visits the primary care clinic due to painful discoloration of the toes on both feet. His medical history includes hypertension, type 2 diabetes mellitus, and a 50-pack-year smoking history, with ongoing smoking of one pack per day. He denies illicit drug use or recent contact with sick individuals. His temperature is 98.6°F, blood pressure is 140/90 mmHg, pulse is 84/min, and respiratory rate is 12/min. On examination, a non-tender pulsatile mass is palpated along the abdominal midline. The right foot is shown in the accompanying image. Popliteal and pedal pulses are +2 bilaterally. What is the most likely underlying cause of this patient's clinical presentation? **Options:** (A) Cholesterol crystals (B) Adipose globules (C) Calcific sclerosis (D) Vegetative growths (E) Fibrinous thrombi
GT: E

MedVLM-R1-2B

<think> To determine the most likely underlying cause of the patient's clinical presentation, let's analyze the symptoms and medical history. </think><answer>C</answer>

Ours-7B

Based on the image showing <finding> painful discoloration of the toes </finding>, it indicates significant vascular compromise consistent with <hypothesis> thromboembolic events </hypothesis>. The presence of a <finding> pulsatile mass </finding> in the abdominal midline suggests a potential <hypothesis> abdominal aortic aneurysm (AAA) </hypothesis>, which is known to lead to complications such as <fact> emboli </fact> that travel to the lower extremities, causing ischemia and resulting in the observed discoloration. Therefore, the most likely underlying cause of this patient's clinical presentation is <support> option E: Fibrinous thrombi </support>.\n\nIn contrast, the option A: Cholesterol crystals does not align with the clinical findings. The presence of a <finding> pulsatile mass </finding> indicates a vascular issue rather than a metabolic one associated with cholesterol crystals, which typically do not cause such symptoms. Additionally, the patient's history of <fact> ongoing smoking </fact> and <fact> type 2 diabetes mellitus </fact> further supports the likelihood of thromboembolic events over metabolic causes, thus <refute> option A: Cholesterol crystals </refute>.\n\nSimilarly, for option B: Adipose globules, the clinical presentation of <finding> painful discoloration of the toes </finding> suggests ischemic changes rather than a condition related to adipose tissue. The pulsatile mass in the abdomen is more indicative of an <hypothesis> abdominal aortic aneurysm (AAA) </hypothesis>, which can lead to emboli affecting peripheral circulation, making <refute> option B: Adipose globules </refute> incorrect.\n\nRegarding option C: Calcific sclerosis, the patient's symptoms of <symptom> painful discoloration of the toes </symptom> indicate ischemia, which is not typically associated with calcific sclerosis. This condition usually presents with chronic pain and does not correlate with the acute ischemic changes seen here. Thus, <refute> option C: Calcific sclerosis </refute> is also incorrect.\n\nLastly, option D: Vegetative growths is ruled out because the clinical signs suggest vascular issues rather than infectious processes. The presence of a <finding> pulsatile mass </finding> and the patient's risk factors point towards an <hypothesis> abdominal aortic aneurysm (AAA) </hypothesis> leading to emboli, making <refute> option D: Vegetative growths </refute> incorrect.\n<answer>E</answer>

Figure 13: Comparison between MedVLM-R1 (Pan et al., 2025) and Ours.

In Figure 14, when evaluating axial T1 non-fat saturated black blood MR images with corresponding fused FDG PET-CT at the level of the heart and great vessels, the ground-truth diagnosis was lymphoma, characterized by high metabolic uptake in the mediastinal region. Med-R1 incorrectly predicts metastatic thymoma, likely due to overfitting to the presence of mediastinal involvement

without recognizing the diffuse and metabolically aggressive pattern. In contrast, our model correctly identify lymphoma by integrating the imaging findings of markedly increased metabolic activity with the anatomical context of mediastinal lymph node involvement, while systematically excluding vasculitis, angiosarcoma, metastatic thymoma, and pericarditis. This case highlights how our method leverages structured step (reasoning through pathophysiological hallmarks such as metabolic aggressiveness) and branch (considering all plausible differential diagnoses) to reach the correct conclusion where baseline models fail.

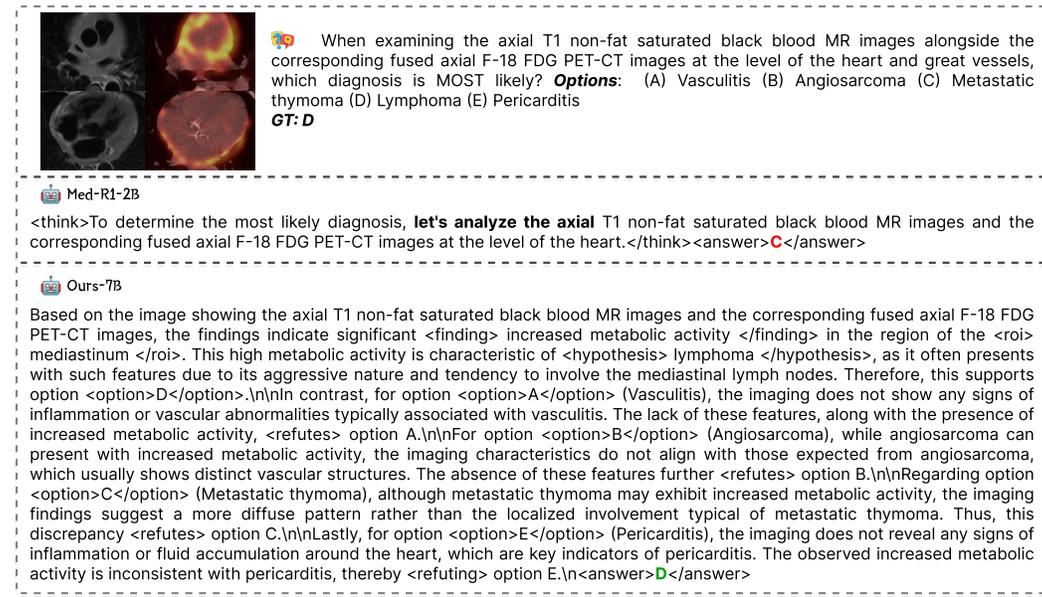


Figure 14: Comparison between Med-R1 (Lai et al., 2025) and Ours.

In Figure 15 trauma case, a 32-year-old woman with bilateral anterior sacroiliac joint diastasis underwent pelvic stabilization with iliac and sacroiliac screws. The ground-truth complication is dyspareunia, a common long-term sequela resulting from pelvic structural changes after such surgery. Chiron-01 incorrectly predicts symptomatic anterior pelvis instability, likely focusing only on mechanical stability while overlooking functional complications specific to pelvic anatomy. In contrast, our model correctly identifies dyspareunia by integrating surgical context with clinical sequelae, reasoning that the primary risk is not failure of fixation but altered pelvic biomechanics affecting intercourse. By systematically excluding unrelated options such as ankle weakness, hardware symptoms, and thigh adduction weakness, our method demonstrated superior step-wise exploration and branch-wise exploration of reasoning, aligning with the ground-truth outcome.

In Figure 16, a 12-year-old girl presented with a prominent tibial mass below the knee that was asymptomatic at rest but tender on impact, with imaging and histology provided. The ground-truth diagnosis is osteofibrous dysplasia. The Lingshu model incorrectly predicts an aneurysmal bone cyst, over-interpreting the lytic and septated appearance as cystic rather than fibro-osseous. In contrast, our model correctly identifies osteofibrous dysplasia by integrating clinical presentation (absence of systemic symptoms and preserved function), imaging features (soap-bubble-like lytic lesion with benign margins), and histologic evidence of fibrous tissue within bone trabeculae. Moreover, it systematically ruled out other differentials: low-grade chondrosarcoma and adamantinoma due to their aggressive course, aneurysmal bone cyst due to greater symptomatic burden, and non-ossifying fibroma due to mismatch in clinical prominence. This case highlights our model's ability to align multimodal evidence into a coherent diagnostic reasoning chain, distinguishing benign fibro-osseous pathology from cystic and malignant mimics.

For comparison, we include cases where our model fails to provide the correct answers while Chiron-01 and Lingshu predict correctly. In Figure 17, our method misclassifies the erythrocyte inclusions as basophilic stippling corresponding to ribosomal RNA accumulation, leading to the incorrect selection of B. Ribosomes. The error arose from over-interpreting the Giemsa smear features while

1512
1513
1514
1515
1516
1517
1518
1519
1520
1521
1522
1523
1524
1525
1526
1527
1528
1529
1530
1531
1532
1533
1534
1535
1536
1537
1538
1539
1540
1541
1542
1543
1544
1545
1546
1547
1548
1549
1550
1551
1552
1553
1554
1555
1556
1557
1558
1559
1560
1561
1562
1563
1564
1565

A 32-year-old woman arrives at the trauma bay following a head-on motor vehicle collision. She has sustained multiple facial fractures and the injury depicted in Figure A. A CT scan confirms bilateral anterior sacroiliac (SI) joint diastasis. After successful resuscitation, she undergoes the procedure shown in Figure B. Which long-term complication is this patient most at risk of developing?
Options: (A) Ankle plantar flexion weakness (B) Symptomatic hardware (C) Symptomatic anterior pelvis instability (D) Thigh adduction weakness (E) Dyspareunia
GT: E

Chiron-o1-8B

Step 1: Evaluate the mechanism of injury and the surgical intervention. The patient sustained a high-energy trauma with bilateral anterior sacroiliac joint diastasis, which is a significant injury to the pelvic ring. The surgical intervention shown in Figure B involves the placement of bilateral iliac screws and a sacroiliac screw, which is a standard procedure to stabilize the pelvic ring and restore anterior pelvic stability.

Step 2: Consider the potential long-term complications associated with this type of surgical intervention. The primary concern with such stabilization is maintaining pelvic stability while minimizing complications. The most common long-term complications include hardware-related issues (such as pain or hardware failure) and instability-related issues (such as chronic pelvic pain or dysfunction).

Step 3: Analyze the specific risks associated with the hardware and the surgical technique used. The bilateral iliac screws and sacroiliac screw are designed to provide robust stabilization. However, the hardware may sometimes cause symptoms such as pain or discomfort, especially if it leads to altered biomechanics or nerve irritation. While hardware-related symptoms are possible, they are not the most common complication in this context.

Step 4: Assess the risk of anterior pelvic instability. Given the nature of the injury (bilateral anterior sacroiliac joint diastasis) and the surgical goal (restoration of anterior pelvic stability), the patient is at significant risk for developing symptomatic anterior pelvic instability if the stabilization is not successful. This can manifest as chronic pelvic pain, instability, or functional limitations, which are well-documented long-term complications of such injuries and surgeries.

Step 5: Compare the risks with other potential complications. While other complications like ankle plantar flexion weakness, thigh adduction weakness, or dyspareunia are possible, they are less directly related to the specific surgical intervention and the primary injury pattern. These complications are more likely to arise from other factors or secondary injuries sustained in the trauma.

The final answer is: **C. Symptomatic anterior pelvis instability**

Ours-7B

Based on the image showing the surgical intervention involving screws and plates for the bilateral anterior sacroiliac (SI) joint diastasis, it is evident that the patient underwent a surgical stabilization to address her pelvic injuries. This surgical intervention carries significant risks, particularly regarding dyspareunia, which is characterized by pain during intercourse due to pelvic structural changes resulting from the surgery. Therefore, option E, dyspareunia, is supported as the most likely long-term complication.

In contrast, option A, ankle plantar flexion weakness, is not relevant because the surgical focus was on the pelvic region, specifically the sacroiliac joints. The complications associated with this type of surgery do not typically involve ankle function, thus refuting option A.

Similarly, option B, symptomatic hardware, while a potential concern after surgery, does not represent the primary long-term complication expected from the surgical stabilization of the sacroiliac joints. The more pressing issue is the risk of dyspareunia due to pelvic structural changes, making option B less likely and disproving its relevance.

For option C, symptomatic anterior pelvis instability, although it may seem plausible given the surgical intervention, the focus of the surgery was to stabilize the sacroiliac joints rather than directly addressing anterior pelvic instability. Thus, the risk of instability is not the primary concern, leading to the counterfactual of option C being incorrect.

Lastly, option D, thigh adduction weakness, is also unlikely since the surgical intervention primarily involved the sacroiliac joints and not the muscles responsible for thigh adduction. Therefore, this option can be disproved as well.

In summary, the reasoning clearly supports option E, dyspareunia, as the most likely long-term complication arising from the surgical stabilization of the sacroiliac joints, while effectively ruling out options A, B, C, and D based on their lack of relevance to the surgical context.

Answer: E

Figure 15: Comparison between Chiron-o1 (Sun et al., 2025a) and Ours.

overlooking the confirmatory Prussian blue staining, which specifically highlights iron deposits. As a result, our approach fails to integrate cross-modal evidence from both stains and instead focused narrowly on a single morphological pattern. By contrast, the correct diagnosis A. Iron is supported by the Prussian blue positivity, which directly indicates sideroblastic changes with iron accumulation. This case illustrates a failure mode where the model over-relies on surface morphological resemblance without grounding the reasoning in stain-specific biochemical validation.

In Figure 18, our method attributes the patient’s acute pruritic rash following intravenous ceftriaxone to IgE-independent mast cell activation, selecting E. This reflects an overemphasis on the rapid onset of symptoms while neglecting the underlying vascular mechanism. Our model incorrectly generalizes the timing to a non-IgE mast cell pathway, whereas the characteristic feature of immune-mediated dermal vascular hyperpermeability better explains the urticarial appearance. The correct answer, A. Hyperpermeability of the superficial dermal microvasculature, accounts for the localized erythematous macules and the typical pathophysiology of an acute drug eruption. This failure highlights a reasoning bias where temporal cues (rapid onset) is overweighted, while the specific dermatological morphology and mechanism are under-integrated into the final judgment.



Figure 16: Comparison between Lingshu (Xu et al., 2025b) and Ours.



Figure 17: Comparison between Chiron-01 (Sun et al., 2025a) and Ours.

A.10 SURVEY FOR HUMAN EVALUATION

1615
1616
1617
1618
1619

To systematically assess the quality of our constructed SFT data and our model outputs, we design a targeted survey focusing on the use and logical consistency of structured reasoning. The survey includes three key evaluation dimension: (1) **factuality**, which examines whether the use of structured nodes correctly reflects the underlying content; (2) **consistency**, which evaluates the logical



Figure 18: Comparison between Lingshu (Xu et al., 2025b) and Ours.

coherence among multiple nodes via constructed edges within the output; (3) **justification**, which assesses whether the structured output provides sufficient reasoning to support the model's conclusions. Specifically, human medical experts are asked to carefully annotate each dimension with a binary response (Yes/No) for the following questions: (1) Are the structured nodes accurately representing the relevant medical entity? (2) Are the logical relationships of edges among nodes coherent? (3) Does the structured reasoning sufficiently justify the model's conclusion?

SFT Data Verification: we randomly sample 200 cases from our constructed SFT data. The human verification results, summarized in Table 11. Each entry represents the number of "Yes" responses out of 200 samples for each dimension. This table shows a pass rate above 98% across all three dimensions, indicating that the majority of the constructed reasoning paths are factually accurate and logically coherent. While a full human verification of the entire dataset is infeasible, this sample provides strong evidence of the overall quality of the SFT data.

Model Output Evaluation: To rigorously assess the reliability of the structured reasoning produced by our model, we adopt a two-stage human evaluation protocol involving board-certified medical experts. (i) *Blind Correctness Assessment:* We sample 40 VQA examples (MedX-M (Zuo et al., 2025) and MMMU-Med (Yue et al., 2024)) and 40 QA examples (MedX-T (Zuo et al., 2025) and MMLU-Pro (Wang et al., 2024)) generated by PathFinder-7B. Each benchmark contributes an equal number of correct and incorrect model predictions, yielding 40 correct and 40 incorrect cases overall. These examples are randomly mixed, and the ground-truth answers are concealed. The medical expert is asked to independently judge whether the final answer is clinically correct based solely on the model's structured reasoning output. This blind evaluation eliminates label leakage and ensures that clinician judgments reflect the intrinsic interpretability and clinical validity of the reasoning process. Table 12 reports the results. The clinician correctly identifies 38 out of 40 correct predictions and 40 out of 40 incorrect predictions, demonstrating that the structured reasoning produced by PathFinder-7B provides sufficient clinical cues for experts to accurately assess correct-

ness. (ii) *Reasoning Quality Assessment*: We further select the 40 correctly predicted samples from PathFinder-7B (10 samples from each dataset, MedX-M, MMMU-Med, MedX-T and MMLU-Pro), and ask the expert to further evaluate the structured reasoning along the three dimensions: factuality, consistency and justification. The results are summarized in Table 13. Each entry represents the number of “Yes” responses out of 10 samples for each dimension, with higher scores indicating better performance. From the results, we observe that PathFinder-7B demonstrates high factual accuracy and logical consistency across both VQA and QA datasets, with average scores above 95.0% in all three dimensions. Notably, these results indicate that the model not only generates correct structured nodes but also organizes them into coherent reasoning chains that adequately support its conclusions. These findings provide further evidence of the reliability and interpretability of the model’s structured outputs, complementing the quantitative performance metrics reported in the main paper.

Table 11: Survey of human evaluation of SFT data.

Dimension	Factuality	Consistency	Justification	Average
SFT Data	198/200	196/200	195/200	98.2%

Table 12: Blind correctness assessment of model output.

Model \ Human	TRUE	FALSE
	Correct (40)	38
Incorrect (40)	0	40

Table 13: Reasoning quality assessment of model output.

Dimension	MedX-M	MMMU-Med	MedX-T	MMLU-Pro	Average
Factuality	9/10	10/10	10/10	10/10	97.5%
Consistency	9/10	10/10	9/10	10/10	95.0%
Justification	9/10	10/10	9/10	10/10	95.0%

A.11 LIMITATIONS

While PathFinder substantially improves step- and branch-wise reasoning, several limitations remain. First, the model still relies heavily on broad and highly specialized medical knowledge; uncommon pathologies or rare multimodal cues can lead to misinterpretation, as illustrated in Figures 17 and 18. Second, integrating cross-modal evidence remains challenging: the model can overemphasize a single modality or superficial features, occasionally failing to reconcile conflicting cues from multiple sources. Third, reasoning fidelity is contingent on the quality of the underlying CoT data and expert annotations; errors or omissions in the graph-structured supervision can propagate into model predictions. Finally, the current framework primarily focuses on structured VQA and may require adaptation for more open-ended clinical tasks, such as free-text report generation or complex longitudinal reasoning. These limitations highlight areas for future improvement, including enhanced multimodal integration, continual medical knowledge updating, and robust handling of rare or ambiguous cases.