

SELF-ALIGNED REWARD: TOWARDS EFFECTIVE AND EFFICIENT REASONERS

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ABSTRACT

Reinforcement learning with verifiable rewards has significantly advanced reasoning in large language models (LLMs), but such signals remain coarse, offering only binary correctness feedback. This limitation often results in inefficiencies, including overly verbose reasoning and high computational cost, while existing solutions often compromise accuracy. To address this, we introduce **self-aligned reward (SAR)**, a self-guided signal that complements verifiable rewards to encourage both reasoning accuracy and efficiency. SAR is defined as the relative perplexity difference between an answer conditioned on the query and the standalone answer, thereby favoring responses that are concise and query-specific. Quantitative analysis reveals that SAR reliably distinguishes answer quality: concise, correct answers score higher than redundant ones, and partially correct answers score higher than entirely incorrect ones. Evaluation on 4 models across 7 benchmarks shows that integrating SAR with prevalent RL algorithms like PPO and GRPO improves accuracy by 4%, while reducing inference cost by 30%. Further analysis demonstrates that SAR achieves a Pareto-optimal trade-off between correctness and efficiency compared to reward signals based on length or self-confidence. We also show that SAR shortens responses while preserving advanced reasoning behaviors, demonstrating its ability to suppress unnecessary elaboration without losing critical reasoning. These results highlight the promise of self-aligned reward as a fine-grained complement to verifiable rewards, paving the way for more efficient and effective LLM training.

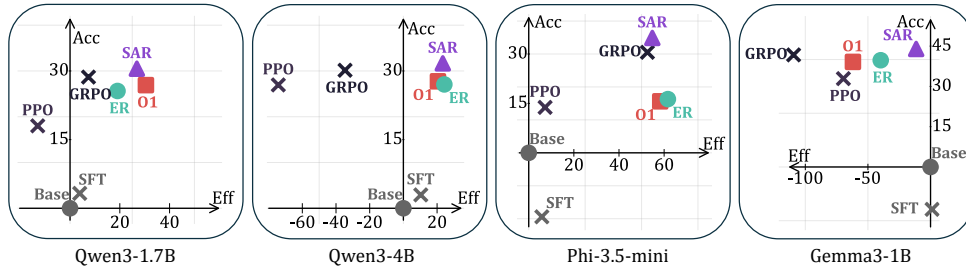


Figure 1: **Training with self-aligned reward enhances both efficiency and accuracy.** We present the relative gains in efficiency and accuracy compared to the respective base model in math reasoning benchmarks. Efficiency gain is measured as the drop in average response length.

1 INTRODUCTION

Recently, reinforcement learning (RL) with verifiable rewards has attracted broad attention in LLM training, demonstrating remarkable improvements in reasoning skills (Guo et al., 2025; Jaech et al., 2024). However, such verifiable signals—especially in domains like math—are inherently coarse:

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Table 1: Comparison of different reward designs.

Reward	Continuous	Internal	Content-Aware	Correctness	Conciseness
Correctness	✗	✓	✓	✓	✗
Reward Model(Ouyang et al., 2022)	✓	✗	✓	✓	✗
Length Penalty(Chen et al., 2025a)	✓	✓	✗	✗	✓
Entropy(Agarwal et al., 2025)	✓	✓	✓	✗	✗
Self-Aligned (Ours)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

they offer rule-based feedback on final answer correctness but fail to capture finer distinctions among responses. For instance, an unnecessarily long solution receives no penalty as long as the final answer is correct, while an almost correct response is treated the same as a completely wrong one. This limitation often induces “overthinking”, where models generate verbose explanations that increase latency and computational cost without improving reasoning quality (Sui et al., 2025). Moreover, relying on external signal sources such as reward models isn’t a favorable solution, as it’s computationally expensive and vulnerable to reward hacking. This underscores the necessity of developing internally grounded reward mechanisms that provide precise and nuanced guidance.

To this end, researchers have proposed heuristic constraints such as length penalties or brevity-oriented objectives (Luo et al., 2025; Aggarwal & Welleck, 2025). While effective in reducing output verbosity, these methods often penalize redundant and essential reasoning at the same time, thereby harming accuracy when necessary intermediate steps are suppressed. Consequently, these approaches struggle to balance efficiency with correctness, highlighting the challenge of designing internal signals that can distinguish necessary reasoning from redundant elaboration.

Of the various internal signals, *perplexity* offers a promising option, given its role as a natural proxy for model confidence (Friedland et al., 2024; Agarwal et al., 2025). Building on this insight, we introduce **Self-Aligned Reward (SAR)**, a self-guided proxy for answer quality (Equation (8)). SAR evaluates the perplexity of an answer both in isolation and when conditioned on the query, and then measures their relative difference between the two. Consequently, the reward promotes answers that are highly confident under the query context but unlikely to arise independently without the query, which typically corresponds to responses that are concise and aligned with the query. Table 1 compares SAR with existing rewards, from which we can observe that SAR is the only fine-grained approach that promotes accuracy and efficiency at the same time.

We conduct a quantitative analysis of different types of answers, showing that SAR encourages concise and well-targeted answers. This indicates SAR provides an accurate fine-grained reward landscape over answers of different qualities (Section 3). We then train LLMs with reinforcement learning by combining SAR and verifiable reward in PPO and GRPO. We found that self-aligned PPO and GRPO (**SA-PPO** and **SA-GRPO**) achieve notable gains over baselines across 4 models and 7 benchmarks, improving accuracy by 4% and efficiency by 30% (Section 4.2). Moreover, we show that SAR outperforms length-based rewards with a pareto-optimal front in the accuracy-efficiency trade-off (Section 4.3). In addition, we demonstrate the advantages of SAR over confidence-based methods (Section 5.1) and provide an analysis of its reasoning behaviors (Section 5.2). Our findings suggest that combining verifiable rewards with intrinsic model self-judgment offers a new paradigm for RL training, enabling both fine-grained improvements in reasoning and better efficiency.

2 METHODOLOGY

2.1 REINFORCEMENT LEARNING FORMULATION

Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO) (Schulman et al., 2017) and **Group Relative Policy Optimization (GRPO)** (Shao et al., 2024) are two widely adopted RL algorithms. PPO calculates advantages by estimating state values with the critic model, while GRPO compares the outcomes of multiple rollouts to obtain the advantage values. Given the current policy π_θ , query q , and the sampled rollout a , PPO and GRPO can be formulated as follows:

$$\mathcal{J}_{\text{PPO}}(\pi_\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{q \sim D, a \sim \pi_\theta(q)} \left[\frac{1}{|a|} \sum_{j=1}^{|a|} \min \{r_j A_j, \text{clip}(r_j, 1 - \epsilon, 1 + \epsilon) A_j\} - \beta \text{KL}(\pi_\theta \| \pi_{\text{ref}}) \right], \quad (1)$$

$$\text{where } r_j = \frac{\pi_\theta(a_j | q, a_{1 \dots j-1})}{\pi_{\text{old}}(a_j | q, a_{1 \dots j-1})}, \quad A_j = Q(q, a_{1 \dots j}) - V(q, a_{1 \dots j}). \quad (2)$$

$$\mathcal{J}_{\text{GRPO}}(\pi_\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{q \sim D, a_{1 \dots N} \sim \pi_\theta(q)} \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{L_{\max}} \sum_{j=1}^{|a_i|} \min \{r_{i,j} A_i, \text{clip}(r_{i,j}, 1 - \epsilon, 1 + \epsilon) A_i\} - \beta \text{KL}(\pi_\theta \| \pi_{\text{ref}}) \right], \quad (3)$$

$$\text{where } r_{i,j} = \frac{\pi_\theta(a_{i,j} | q, a_{i,1 \dots j-1})}{\pi_{\text{old}}(a_{i,j} | q, a_{i,1 \dots j-1})}, \quad A_i = R(q, a_i) - \text{mean}[R(q, a_{1 \dots N})]. \quad (4)$$

In the above formulas, A is the advantage, D is the training dataset, and r refers to the importance sampling ratio. N , ϵ , L_{\max} and β are hyperparameters. Specifically, we adopt Dr. GRPO (Liu et al., 2025a), a variant of GRPO, to train our models. Compared to GRPO, Dr. GRPO uses $\frac{1}{L_{\max}}$ instead of $\frac{1}{|a_i|}$ in Equation (3), and removes the denominator $\text{std}[R(q, a_{1 \dots N})]$ in advantage calculation (Equation (4))¹.

For reward signals, we adopt the standard verifiable reward by comparing the model answer with the ground truth (gt):

$$R_{\text{PPO/GRPO}}(q, a, gt) = R_{\text{VR}}(q, a, gt) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } gt \text{ in } a, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

2.2 VARIANTS OF GRPO REWARDS

Signals besides verifiable reward have also been widely studied, where enhancing efficiency is a prevalent direction. In this paper, we consider O1-pruner (Luo et al., 2025) and Efficient Reasoner (ER) (Arora & Zanette, 2025), two typical length-based methods as baselines. Since the original works used offline RL algorithms, we made slight changes to the formula in order to adapt to GRPO:

$$R_{\text{GRPO-O1}}(q, a_i, gt) = R_{\text{VR}} + \alpha R_{\text{O1}}, \quad R_{\text{O1}} = \text{clip}\left(\frac{\text{mean}[\text{len}(a_{1 \dots N})] - \text{len}(a_i)}{\text{len}(a_i)}, -1, 1\right) \quad (6)$$

$$R_{\text{GRPO-ER}}(q, a_i, gt) = R_{\text{VR}} + \alpha R_{\text{ER}}, \quad R_{\text{ER}} = \begin{cases} 2 * \sigma\left(\frac{\text{mean}[\text{len}(\mathbf{A}_{\text{cor}})] - \text{len}(a_i)}{\text{std}[\text{len}(\mathbf{A}_{\text{cor}})] + \text{eps}}\right) - 1 & \text{if } R_{\text{VR}} = 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

where $\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$ is the Sigmoid function, and $\mathbf{A}_{\text{cor}} = \{a | a \in a_{1 \dots N} \wedge R_{\text{VR}}(q, a, gt) = 1\}$ refers to the set of all correct answers.

2.3 SELF-ALIGNED REWARD

Traditional approaches use length-based rewards for shorter answers, which sacrifices accuracy, or involve external reward models, which suffers from reward hacking. To address this deficiency, we propose **Self-Aligned Reward (SAR)** (denoted R_{SA}), an unsupervised signal that measures answer quality, conciseness, and query-answer relevance. Combining SAR and verifiable rewards, we formulate the reward for self-aligned PPO (SA-PPO) and self-aligned GRPO (SA-GRPO) as:

$$R_{\text{SA-PPO/GRPO}}(q, a_i, gt) = R_{\text{VR}} + \alpha R_{\text{SA}}, \quad R_{\text{SA}} = \text{clip}\left(\frac{\text{ppl}(a_i) - \text{ppl}(a_i|q)}{\text{ppl}(a_i)}, -1, 1\right) \quad (8)$$

$$\text{where } \text{ppl}(a) = e^{-\frac{1}{|a|} \sum_{j=1}^{|a|} \log(P(a_j | a_{1 \dots j-1}))}, \quad \text{ppl}(a|q) = e^{-\frac{1}{|a|} \sum_{j=1}^{|a|} \log(P(a_j | q, a_{1 \dots j-1}))}. \quad (9)$$

¹We adopt these two modifications as we found traditional GRPO may lead to unexpected length reduction when efficiency-related rewards are introduced, similar to Arora & Zanette (2025).

The self-aligned reward captures the relative difference between $\text{ppl}(a)$ and $\text{ppl}(a|q)$, or the **conditioned perplexity drop**. Perplexity reflects the likelihood of a model to produce a given response, with lower values indicating higher confidence. Thus, R_{SA} can be interpreted as: “How much less likely does the answer become if the query is not present?”

When an answer is tightly tailored to the query, the conditioned perplexity $\text{ppl}(a|q)$ will be significantly lower than the standalone perplexity $\text{ppl}(a)$, leading to a higher R_{SA} . In contrast, if parts of the answer are independent to the query, the two perplexities will be similar, leading to a small or even negative R_{SA} . Therefore, a larger value of R_{SA} indicates stronger dependence on the query and better alignment between the question and the response. As demonstrated in Section 3, self-aligned reward encourages concise reasoning and effective use of query information, thereby improving both accuracy and training efficiency. In addition, the computation of R_{SA} integrates seamlessly into the reinforcement learning pipeline with negligible computational overhead, as shown in Sections B and 5.3.

3 CASE ANALYSIS: WHY SELF-ALIGNED REWARD WORKS

This section analyzes the self-aligned reward formulation, providing insights on how SAR enhances the reasoning effectiveness and efficiency.

3.1 SAR PROVIDES ACCURATE AND FINE-GRAINED SIGNALS

A favorable reward design should be able to rate different types of answers based on their qualities. To assess different reward functions, we analyze 6 different types of answers as shown in Table 2.

Types (1) to (4) are typical cases in model rollouts. We sample rollouts from Qwen3-1.7B with temperature = 1, and use GPT-4o to annotate the responses (refer to Section C for details). Types (5) and (6) are artificially synthesized to simulate memorization, where the LLM directly extracts answers from its knowledge without reasoning. We select 200 questions from math domain datasets; for each question, one answer for each type is sampled. We then calculate the advantage values of different reward metrics for these answers.

Table 2: We calculate advantage values over the 6 answers of the same question with $\alpha = 1$ (i.e. $R_{\text{SA-GRPO}} = R_{\text{VR}} + R_{\text{SA}}$, similar for O1 and ER), and report the average over 200 questions. **The advantage values of SA-GRPO accurately rates answers of different qualities.**

Answer Type	Length	A_{GRPO}	$A_{\text{GRPO-O1}}$	$A_{\text{GRPO-ER}}$	$A_{\text{SA-GRPO}}$ (Ours)
(1): Correct and concise	143.5	0.5	1.04	0.81	1.15
(2): Correct but redundant	236.0	0.5	0.35	-0.11	1.00
(3): Partly correct with wrong answer	457.1	-0.5	-1.28	-0.65	-0.01
(4): Completely wrong or irrelevant	405.8	-0.5	-1.19	-0.65	-1.44
(5): Correct but no thought	50.0	0.5	1.04	1.25	-0.04
(6): Incorrect and no thought	50.0	-0.5	0.04	-0.65	-0.68

From Table 2, we can observe that SAR excels in providing appropriate reward scores to different types of answers. Among the baselines, the correctness reward (GRPO) fails to discern answers that are both correct or incorrect; O1 and ER focus solely on response length, making signals biased and not suitable for maximizing accuracy. For instance, ER isn’t applicable to wrong answers, and O1 favors (possibly shorter) irrelevant answers over partly correct ones. The self-aligned reward, however, provides rich and accurate signals to different types of answers, exhibiting the following features:

- SAR favors concise and correct answers; it gives a lower reward to long and redundant answers, promoting efficiency. Section 3.2 explains this phenomenon in detail.
- SAR provides partial credit to partly correct answers and penalizes completely irrelevant ones, helping the model learn basic reasoning patterns in the initial stage of training.
- SAR penalizes the synthesized “No thought” answers, even if they’re correct and short. This indicates reasoning process plays a critical role in SAR, and memorization is discouraged.

We also provide a qualitative example in Table 12.

3.2 SAR PROMOTES CONCISENESS AND QUERY-RELEVANCY

In the previous experiment, we demonstrated the effectiveness of self-aligned reward at the sequence level. We then take a deeper look at this metric at the token level, aiming to reveal which tokens contribute more to the overall score. Specifically, we decompose the self-aligned reward (Equations (8) and (9)) to calculate the token-level score²:

$$R_{SA} = 1 - \frac{\text{ppl}(a|q)}{\text{ppl}(a)} = 1 - e^{-\frac{1}{|a|} \sum_{j=1}^{|a|} \log \frac{P(a_j|q, a_{1..j-1})}{P(a_j|a_{1..j-1})}}. \quad (10)$$

We define $v(a_j) = \log \frac{P(a_j|q, a_{1..j-1})}{P(a_j|a_{1..j-1})}$, which can be used to measure the importance of each token a_j on the whole metric R_{SA} . A token with a higher $v(a_j)$ is considered a valuable and query-sensitive, while a token with a low or even negative $v(a_j)$ indicates it's independent to the query.

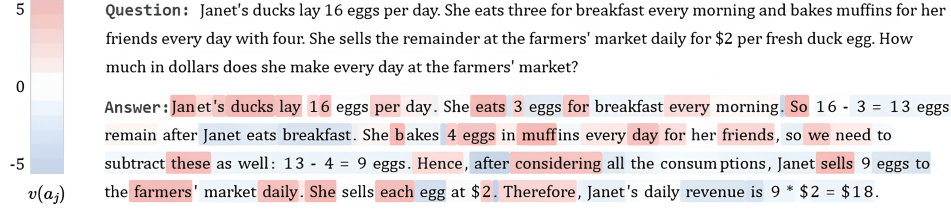


Figure 2: An illustration of token-level importance scores (i.e. $v(a_j)$). Red color means the token is considered valuable for our self-aligned reward, and blue indicates a negative $v(a_j)$.

We can observe the following phenomenon from Figure 2:

- Tokens that utilize information in the question for the first time will get a high score, like the numbers “16”, “3”, “4”. Since such information can only be found in the query but not in previous answer tokens, $P(a_j|q, a_{1..j-1})$ is relatively high and $P(a_j|a_{1..j-1})$ is very low. This feature helps the model focus on the exact information in the query, rather than hallucinating or generating information aimlessly.
- Repeating information that has appeared before leads to a low score. Since such information can be found in previous answer tokens, both $P(a_j|q, a_{1..j-1})$ and $P(a_j|a_{1..j-1})$ are equally high. This feature penalizes redundancy and repetition.
- Tokens in the early part generally have higher $v(a_j)$ values than later ones, as extracting new query information is easier in the early stage. In the latter part, most information has already appeared in $a_{1..j-1}$, making it harder to exploit new content from the query. This explains why SAR favors short and concise answers, making the model more efficient.

4 EXPERIMENTS

4.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETTINGS

Datasets. We utilize five math reasoning datasets covering a difficulty range from primary school to competition level: GSM8k (Cobbe et al., 2021), MATH (Hendrycks et al., 2021), NuminaMath 1.5 (Li et al., 2024), GSM-symbolic (Mirzadeh et al., 2024), and AIME 1983–2024 (Veeraboina, 2024). For training, we combine the training splits of the first three datasets, while the remaining two are not present during training to evaluate generalization.

Models. We utilize four base models: Qwen3-1.7B (Base), Qwen3-4B (Base) (Yang et al., 2025), Phi-3.5-mini (Instruct, 3.8B) (Abdin et al., 2024), and Gemma3-1B (Instruct) (Team et al., 2025a), covering different sizes and model families.

Settings. We train reasoning models with the following methods:

²We omit the clipping (which is extremely uncommon in practice) for simplicity.

Table 3: Evaluation on math benchmarks. **Self-aligned reward significantly reduces token usage while achieving the best reasoning accuracy.** GRPO-O1 and GRPO-ER results in the table use $\alpha = 0.05$, and SA-GRPO uses $\alpha = 0.2$. Best results among each model are bolded.

Setting	GSM8k		GSM-sym		MATH		NuminaMath		AIME		Average		
	acc	len	acc	len	acc	len	acc	len	acc	len	acc	len	AES
Qwen3-1.7B	69.22	281	46.76	365	56.89	700	24.58	1242	9.97	1539	41.48	825.4	0.000
+PPO	82.71	332	62.88	460	63.04	784	27.02	1358	9.11	1718	48.95	930.4	0.773
+SA-PPO	85.51	281	68.02	369	66.27	587	32.05	866	10.61	1015	52.49	623.6	1.572
+GRPO	84.53	335	67.66	413	67.31	697	33.44	1091	13.93	1278	53.37	762.8	1.509
+GRPO-O1	84.15	285	65.78	363	66.51	528	33.15	775	13.61	910	52.64	572.2	1.652
+GRPO-ER	82.71	244	64.74	320	66.54	557	34.35	980	12.22	1232	52.11	666.6	1.474
+SA-GRPO	85.51	267	67.66	346	67.96	564	36.03	841	13.50	992	54.13	602.0	1.795
Qwen3-4B	76.19	315	66.22	435	63.79	652	38.80	1142	20.15	1281	53.03	765.0	0.000
+PPO	91.36	373	85.42	485	82.15	1132	50.80	1995	26.90	2680	67.33	1333.0	0.606
+SA-PPO	92.12	266	83.52	345	78.67	652	49.09	1133	28.19	1397	66.32	758.6	1.260
+GRPO	92.62	320	86.30	414	82.51	821	53.79	1485	30.11	2113	69.07	1030.6	1.165
+GRPO-O1	91.89	262	86.76	350	80.41	549	51.06	866	28.62	1016	67.75	608.6	1.592
+GRPO-ER	92.80	219	85.24	297	79.48	503	50.47	854	28.94	1022	67.38	579.0	1.596
+SA-GRPO	93.40	239	87.64	323	82.63	762	57.70	1358	35.69	1788	71.41	894.0	1.564
Phi-3.5-mini	71.19	287	56.86	398	33.83	1132	11.56	1492	2.35	943	35.15	850.4	0.000
+PPO	82.49	209	64.88	322	38.56	831	11.45	1707	3.85	926	40.24	799.0	0.784
+SA-PPO	87.04	238	73.52	344	46.34	300	17.43	586	2.79	501	45.42	393.8	1.997
+GRPO	87.56	235	73.76	337	48.69	415	16.37	582	3.21	672	45.91	448.2	2.003
+GRPO-O1	79.83	203	62.24	279	44.41	390	14.08	509	2.57	583	40.62	392.8	1.316
+GRPO-ER	82.03	154	63.54	240	43.61	363	12.55	511	2.47	606	40.84	374.8	1.368
+SA-GRPO	87.95	207	72.72	289	50.99	356	16.08	455	3.22	535	46.19	368.4	2.137
Gemma3-1B	42.15	325	19.58	427	36.40	1042	12.40	1414	2.25	2279	22.56	1097	0.000
+PPO	56.86	942	30.28	1187	44.17	1408	15.57	1904	1.60	2422	29.69	1572.6	1.146
+SA-PPO	55.80	683	31.00	936	42.94	1025	14.22	1523	1.50	1683	29.10	1170.0	1.383
+GRPO	59.97	1208	34.70	1552	45.40	1693	16.59	2264	2.25	2613	31.78	1866.0	1.343
+GRPO-O1	60.80	873	32.06	1157	44.76	1298	16.16	1871	2.35	2449	31.23	1529.6	1.528
+GRPO-ER	59.44	748	32.36	1063	46.23	1131	16.41	1545	2.04	1696	31.29	1236.6	1.808
+SA-GRPO	61.26	552	34.52	772	46.60	952	16.70	1302	2.14	1509	32.24	1017.4	2.218

- PPO, GRPO: two traditional RL algorithms, using only the correctness reward.
- GRPO-O1, GRPO-ER: variants of GRPO with length-based rewards. See Section 2.2 for details.
- SA-PPO, SA-GRPO: algorithms using **self-aligned reward (SAR)**. See Section 2.3 for details.

For training details and hyperparameters, refer to Section B.3.

Metrics. In this work, we focus on accuracy and efficiency (measured by average answer length) of LLM reasoning. We report these two metrics as well as an Accuracy-Efficiency trade-off Score (AES). For a trained policy π_θ and its base model π_{ref} , we define $\Delta \text{len} = \frac{\text{len}(\pi_{\text{ref}}) - \text{len}(\pi_\theta)}{\text{len}(\pi_{\text{ref}})}$ and $\Delta \text{acc} = \frac{\text{acc}(\pi_\theta) - \text{acc}(\pi_{\text{ref}})}{\text{acc}(\pi_{\text{ref}})}$. Then, $\text{AES}(\pi_\theta) = \Delta \text{len} + \gamma \Delta \text{acc}$ measures the trade-off.³

4.2 MAIN RESULTS

From Table 3, we observe that **baseline approaches struggle to balance accuracy and efficiency**. PPO and GRPO significantly improve accuracy at the cost of longer and possibly redundant answers. While GRPO-O1 and GRPO-ER effectively reduce computation overhead, they do so by compromising reasoning capability. Since answer accuracy remains the top priority in most real-world applications, these purely efficiency-focused methods have limited practical utility.

In contrast, **SAR delivers substantial improvements in both accuracy and efficiency**. Across four base models and five datasets, SA-GRPO consistently achieves the highest reasoning accuracy while maintaining highly efficient reasoning, with at least 4% improvement in accuracy and 30% reduction in length compared to GRPO. Notably, the length of SA-GRPO’s answers is comparable

³The choice of γ value reflects which aspect does the user prioritize. Since accuracy is the most important factor in most use cases, we set $\gamma = 5$ in practice.

to, or even shorter than, those generated by GRPO-O1 and GRPO-ER in most cases, which are specifically designed for efficient reasoning. In addition, SA-PPO also significantly outperforms PPO, indicating that self-aligned reward is applicable to diverse RL algorithms.

These findings highlight the superiority of the self-aligned reward mechanism. With a more fine-grained and intelligent signal, SAR makes the model preserve the necessary reasoning which are closely related to query information, and reduces unnecessary content that introduces token burdens, leading to more effective and efficient reasoning.

We also show two examples illustrating the benefits of SAR in Section F.2.

4.3 SELF-ALIGNED REWARD ACHIEVES A PARETO-OPTIMAL IN DYNAMIC BALANCE

The hyperparameter α in Equation (8) controls the weights of verifiable reward and self-aligned reward, offering flexibility to focus more on efficiency or accuracy. Therefore, we train SA-GRPO with different α values and compare it with GRPO-O1 and GRPO-ER on 2-dimensional plots.

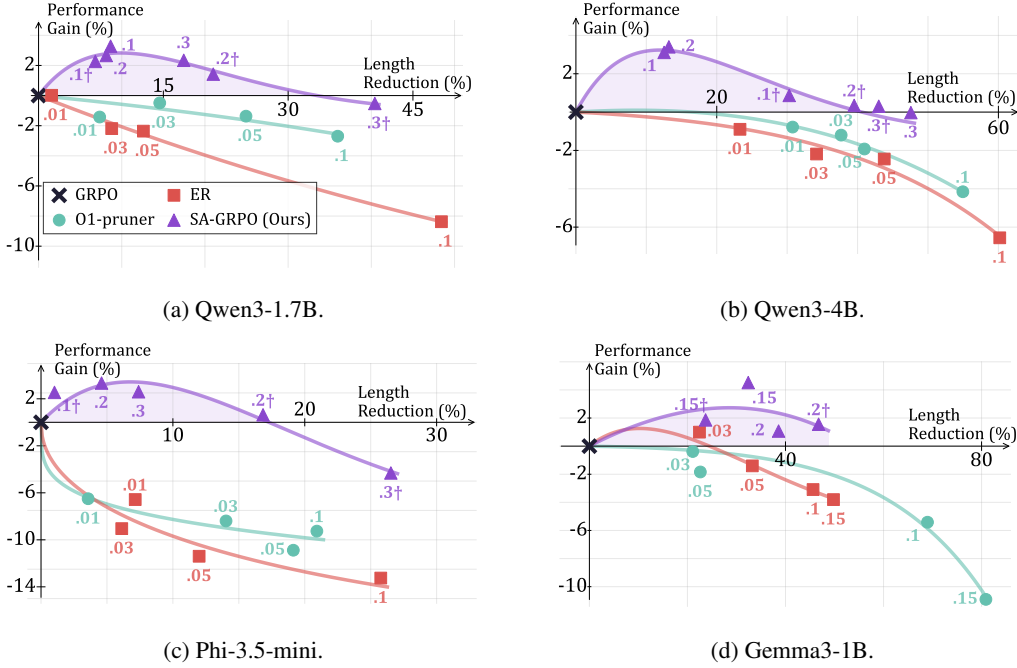


Figure 3: Accuracy-efficiency balance of different algorithms. Among all algorithms, **SA-GRPO reaches a Pareto-optimal and is the only method that achieves steady gains on both axes**. Numbers around each point indicate the α values, and † indicates using 20% of total training data with the same total training steps.

From Figure 3, we can observe that the curves for SA-GRPO are consistently on the top-right side over curves for GRPO-O1 and GRPO-ER, indicating SA-GRPO balances accuracy and efficiency better than length-based methods. Moreover, length-based methods are always under the x-axis in most cases, showing that these methods sacrifice accuracy for reduced tokens. On the contrary, SA-GRPO is the only method consistently above the x-axis (illustrated in light purple in the figure), showing better accuracy and better efficiency compared to vanilla GRPO. The Pareto-optimal balance between accuracy and efficiency of SA-GRPO further demonstrates the superiority of SAR.

4.4 SELF-ALIGNED REWARD GENERALIZES TO LOGICAL REASONING

In this section, we examine the generalization ability of self-aligned reward (SAR) in a different domain—logical reasoning. While logical reasoning shares similarities with mathematical reasoning, the training data does not include such tasks. To assess generalization, we evaluate the models on two benchmark datasets: LogicBench (Parmar et al., 2024) and ProntoQA (Saparov & He, 2022).

Table 4: Evaluation on logic benchmarks. **SA-PPO and SA-GRPO maintains robustness and efficiency in out-of-domain tasks.**

(a) LogicBench.									(b) ProntoQA.								
Model	Qwen3 -1.7B		Qwen3 -4B		Phi-3.5 -mini		Gemma3 -1B		Model	Qwen3 -1.7B		Qwen3 -4B		Phi-3.5 -mini		Gemma3 -1B	
	acc	len	acc	len	acc	len	acc	len		acc	len	acc	len	acc	len	acc	len
Base	56.0	182	75.4	336	66.0	309	50.6	303	Base	69.0	616	89.6	988	94.8	339	56.2	712
PPO	60.2	340	80.0	455	60.8	229	48.8	264	PPO	71.8	920	97.8	561	96.4	301	56.4	904
SA-PPO	64.6	368	77.6	342	64.2	205	55.6	241	SA-PPO	65.6	735	99.0	405	98.2	304	57.6	690
GRPO	64.2	372	78.4	416	67.6	243	53.0	277	GRPO	74.0	756	100.0	546	98.2	254	57.4	963
GRPO-O1	60.6	264	76.0	350	51.0	212	52.6	223	GRPO-O1	73.0	505	98.8	469	87.2	227	59.0	938
GRPO-ER	61.4	206	77.6	263	49.8	143	50.0	250	GRPO-ER	73.6	424	99.0	309	86.6	205	58.6	919
SA-GRPO	65.0	278	80.4	208	57.4	173	55.2	222	SA-GRPO	77.8	482	99.8	301	90.8	216	60.6	733

From Table 4, we can find that SA-GRPO maintains or enhances accuracy compared to GRPO on 5 out of 8 columns, and outperforms length-based methods (GRPO-O1 and ER) on all cases. Similarly, SA-PPO outperforms the PPO baseline on 6 columns. In addition, SAR also exhibits an efficiency benefit in the logical domain, not only reducing answer length compared to GRPO, but is even more efficient than length-based methods in most cases. These results show that SAR generalizes well to out-of-domain tasks, benefiting from the reward design that ensures answers are tailored to the input questions and rich in information.

5 ANALYSIS

5.1 ABLATION STUDY

In this section, we investigate two critical components of our algorithm that make internal signals effective and stable during training, overcoming the challenges discussed in Zhang et al. (2025). Firstly, the self-aligned reward (Equation (8)) measures the relative difference between $ppl(a|q)$ and $ppl(a)$, whereas existing methods mainly focus on $a|q$ alone (Zhao et al., 2025; Agarwal et al., 2025). Through computing the **conditioned perplexity drop**, the self-aligned reward the coherence between question and answer instead of self-confidence. Secondly, our approach combines **verifiable reward** with self-aligned reward.

We ablate these components and derive three reward functions to compare against SA-GRPO ($R = R_{VR} + \alpha R_{SA}$):

- $R = R_{SA}$: removing the **verifiable reward**, using only the self-aligned reward.
- $R = R_{VR} + \alpha R_{EM} = R_{VR} - \alpha \log ppl(a|q)$: using “entropy minimization”, a metric measuring self-confidence, as the internal reward, instead of **conditioned perplexity drop**;
- $R = R_{EM}$ (Agarwal et al., 2025): The entropy minimization reward, ablating both components.

Table 5: Comparison of different internal reward signals ($\alpha = 0.2$). The base model is Qwen3-4B, and the RL algorithm is GRPO.

Setting	GSM8k		GSM-sym		MATH		NuminaMath		AIME		Average	
	acc	len	acc	len	acc	len	acc	len	acc	len	acc	len
Base	76.19	315	66.22	435	63.79	652	38.80	1142	20.15	1281	53.03	765.0
R_{VR}	92.62	320	86.30	414	82.51	821	53.79	1485	30.11	2113	69.07	1030.6
R_{EM}	79.15	319	67.94	414	68.89	970	39.86	1885	21.44	2556	55.46	1228.8
R_{SA}	39.65	87	19.54	102	24.72	74	16.48	80	4.39	79	20.96	84.4
$R_{VR} + \alpha R_{EM}$	92.25	351	87.36	414	81.83	779	54.78	1371	33.01	1767	69.85	936.4
$R_{VR} + \alpha R_{SA}$	93.40	239	87.64	323	82.63	762	57.70	1358	35.69	1788	71.41	894.0

From Table 5, we can observe that verifiable signal and conditioned drop measurement are critical for optimal performance. Specifically, R_{EM} shows limited accuracy gain but a large efficiency drop, and R_{SA} converges to shallow reasoning with less tokens and poor accuracy⁴. Failure of these methods indicates that the ground-truth guidance is critical for models to develop reasoning skills and ensure training stability. $R_{VR} + \alpha R_{EM}$ also underperforms SA-GRPO on both accuracy and efficiency, showing that maximizing confidence is less effective than maximizing conditioned perplexity drop. From Section 3, we observe that the conditioned perplexity drop in SAR can effectively measure answer quality. In addition, using conditioned perplexity drop avoids overconfidence or entropy collapse, which may hinder exploration (Zhang et al., 2025; Cui et al., 2025).

5.2 REASONING BEHAVIORS OF SA-GRPO

Table 6: Frequency of reasoning behaviors. **B**, **V**, **S**, **E** refer to **B**acktracking, **V**erification, **S**ubgoal setting and **E**numeration, respectively. Scores are in percentages. The base model is Qwen3-1.7B. Unlike length-based methods, **SA-GRPO maintains a high usage of reasoning behaviors**.

Dataset Behavior	MATH				NuminaMath				AIME				Avg
	B	V	S	E	B	V	S	E	B	V	S	E	
Base	0.8	24.2	90.8	12.2	5.4	27.0	93.4	34.8	4.4	36.2	93.2	37.4	38.0
GRPO	1.0	29.2	95.4	14.6	4.6	38.8	97.8	44.2	5.0	42.2	98.2	49.0	43.4
GRPO-O1	1.2	26.6	90.4	14.6	4.8	37.0	93.2	39.6	4.2	43.4	96.0	42.8	40.6
GRPO-ER	1.4	26.0	89.8	13.4	6.2	37.0	90.4	40.4	5.8	44.2	96.2	47.6	41.2
SA-GRPO	0.8	29.2	93.4	13.8	7.0	36.0	93.8	43.8	8.8	47.0	97.0	49.6	43.0

Previous work (Gandhi et al., 2025; Zeng et al., 2025) have shown that certain reasoning behaviors are critical to effective and deep reasoning. In this section, we investigate four typical behaviors: backtracking, verification, subgoal setting and enumeration. Specifically, we use GPT-4o to annotate the reasoning behaviors for models trained with different algorithms (refer to Section C for details).

From Table 6, we can observe that:

- Reinforcement learning increases the occurrence of reasoning behaviors, which are more frequent in challenging datasets like NuminaMath and AIME. This indicates these behaviors are useful when solving complex math problems.
- GRPO-O1 and GRPO-ER exhibit fewer reasoning behaviors compared to GRPO, as reasoning behaviors require additional tokens, which are penalized by their reward functions.
- **SA-GRPO maintains the same frequency of reasoning behaviors with GRPO.** Remarkably, SA-GRPO achieves this while using 30% fewer tokens, which stems from the self-aligned rewards’ ability to identify useful reasoning behaviors and unnecessary content. This further shows that SA-GRPO provides more accurate, unbiased signals compared to GRPO-O1 and GRPO-ER.

5.3 TRAINING COST OF SELF-ALIGNED REWARD

We report the training cost for SA-GRPO in Table 7. We find SA-GRPO doesn’t introduce additional cost during “Update” compared to vanilla GRPO. Contrarily, SA-GRPO even requires less computation compared to GRPO due to reduced answer lengths.

The only additional computation in SAR is $ppl(a)$, which is highly efficient (refer to Section B for details). This suggests that enhancing reasoning efficiency is not only

Table 7: Comparison of training time. We report GPU hours (Training time \times GPU count) of training Qwen3-4B for the first 200 steps.

Method	Rollout	Update	Total
GRPO	32.95	15.13	48.08
GRPO-O1	30.36	15.92	46.28
GRPO-ER	30.92	15.24	46.16
SA-GRPO	31.44	15.20	46.64

⁴We believe training with R_{SA} alone may lead to reward hacking. In Equation (8), R_{SA} reaches the maximum value 1 only when $ppl(a) \rightarrow +\infty$ and $ppl(a|q) = 1$. Therefore, the model loses the deep reasoning ability. This is confirmed in Figure 4.

valuable during inference – it can also accelerate training and maximize reasoning capability under limited computation.

6 RELATED WORK

Reinforcement Learning for LLMs. Reinforcement learning (RL) has emerged as a powerful paradigm for fine-tuning large language models (LLMs) (Ouyang et al., 2022; Guo et al., 2025) to enhance their performance in reasoning tasks. RL has shown great potential in many fields such as math reasoning (Shao et al., 2024), retrieval-augmented generation (Kulkarni et al., 2024), reward modeling (Chen et al., 2025b), debating (Han et al., 2025a), and temporal reasoning (Liu et al., 2025b). Recently, a new RL algorithm, Group Relative Policy Optimization (GRPO) (Shao et al., 2024), was introduced to avoid the need for training a critic network. Several improvements to GRPO have also been proposed. For instance, Dr.GRPO reduces the bias introduced by GRPO (Liu et al., 2025a), GSPO utilizes sequence-level importance sampling (Zheng et al., 2025), and Clip-Cov promotes exploration by controlling the speed of entropy drop (Cui et al., 2025).

Efficient Reasoning. While reasoning models like Deepseek-R1 and OpenAI-o1 exhibits remarkable reasoning abilities, they often suffer from over-thinking (Su et al., 2025; Cuadron et al., 2025), leading to unnecessary computation burdens. Researchers have explored diverse strategies to make LLM reasoning more efficient (Sui et al., 2025). Prompt engineering (Han et al., 2024; Ma et al., 2025a; Renze & Guven, 2024a) and instruction tuning (Yu et al., 2024; Kang et al., 2025; Xia et al., 2025; Han et al., 2024; Ma et al., 2025b) have been widely used to achieve this goal. Recently, researchers have also explored using RL to elicit efficient reasoning abilities. Through designing reward signals that penalize overly lengthy answers (Aggarwal & Welleck, 2025; Team et al., 2025b) or more redundant answers (Luo et al., 2025; Arora & Zanette, 2025), these methods ensure concise yet accurate reasoning outputs for resource-constrained applications. In addition, Yeo et al. (2025) explores the length penalty’s relationship with reasoning behaviors, and Chen et al. (2025a) proposes that easy problems should be the focus of token compression. However, these methods all sacrifice performance in order to gain efficiency, which is the key issue this paper aims to address.

Self-judging of LLMs. Self-judging is a fundamental capability of LLMs (Renze & Guven, 2024b), playing a key role in scalable training and self-evolution. The concept of self-judging is widely adopted. For instance, confidence estimation is widely used to reduce hallucination (Geng et al., 2023; Wen et al., 2024; Ji et al., 2023), probing internal states provides a lens to analyses model behavior (Han et al., 2025b; Chen et al., 2024), and majority voting (Wang et al., 2022) is critical in inference-time scaling techniques (Snell et al., 2024).

Internal signals have also been used in RL (Agarwal et al., 2025; Lei et al., 2025; Zhao et al., 2025), aiming to train reasoning models without verifiable rewards. Zhang et al. (2025) discussed the theoretical foundation and limitations of self-judged signals. Our work also focuses on this direction, and we novelly propose the self-aligned reward measuring question-answer relevancy instead of self-confidence, and combine it with verifiable signals.

7 CONCLUSION

In this work, we propose **Self-Aligned Reward (SAR)**, an internal perplexity-based signal evaluating the answer’s relevancy with the query, enabling fine-grained supervision beyond binary correctness. Through comprehensive experiments across 4 base models and 7 benchmarks, we demonstrated that SAR enables reinforcement learning to achieve consistent gains of up to 4% in accuracy while reducing response length and computational cost by 30%. Moreover, SAR exhibits a favorable accuracy–efficiency trade-off compared with length-based baselines, offering a fine-grained and content-aware reward signal that complements verifiable correctness. These findings highlight the significance of incorporating intrinsic model self-assessment into the reinforcement learning framework, establishing a new paradigm that advances both the effectiveness and efficiency of large language model training.

REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT

We ensure the reproducibility of the paper from the following aspects:

- **Dataset:** In Section A, we describe the datasets and their preprocessing methods. All datasets are open-sourced.
- **Method:** Our core contribution is self-aligned reward (SAR), a simple yet effective internal signal. We present the formula and explanations of SAR in Section 2.3, and show the core code for implementing SAR in Section B. In addition, formulations and implementations of the baselines are also presented. Our code is based on VERL, an open-sourced and widely adopted RL framework.
- **Training:** Training configurations are presented in Section B.3. Readers can reproduce the exact training results following these settings.
- **Prompting:** The paper’s analytical experiments involve annotating with a LLM. Prompts for such annotation is presented in Section C.

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A DATASETS

We evaluate our approach on five mathematical reasoning datasets with varying difficulty levels, and two logical reasoning datasets. We list the datasets and provide details below.

A.1 MATHEMATICAL REASONING BENCHMARKS

1. **GSM8k** (Cobbe et al., 2021): A dataset of grade school math word problems.
2. **MATH** (Hendrycks et al., 2021): A challenging dataset of mathematics problems covering various topics.
3. **NuminaMath 1.5** (Li et al., 2024): A comprehensive dataset containing 860k pairs of competition math problems and solutions. We select a subset from the Open-r1 project⁵.
4. **GSM-symbolic** (Mirzadeh et al., 2024): A dataset of GSM8k-style problems with different numbers. This dataset is free from data contamination, making it suitable to evaluate generalization ability.
5. **AIME 1983-2024** (Veeraboina, 2024)<https://www.kaggle.com/datasets/hemishveeraboina/aime-problem-set-1983-2024>: A collection of problems from the American Invitational Mathematics Examination spanning over four decades. Requires complex reasoning.

To ensure parsing correctness, we only select questions where the answer is a single integer or fraction number, and remove questions involving geometric plots or hyperlinks. During training, we combined the training splits of GSM8k, MATH, and NuminaMath. GSM-symbolic and AIME were used exclusively for evaluation to test out-of-distribution generalization.

A.2 LOGICAL REASONING BENCHMARKS

To evaluate the generalization capabilities of our approach beyond mathematical reasoning, we used the following logical reasoning benchmarks:

1. **ProntoQA** (Saparov & He, 2022): A dataset evaluating multi-step syllogistic reasoning.
2. **LogicBench** (Parmar et al., 2024): A comprehensive benchmark for evaluating logical reasoning capabilities of language models across various logical relationships.

These datasets were used only for evaluation purposes and were not part of the training process. Both datasets are in the form of multiple-choice questions, where ProntoQA has 2 choices and LogicBench has 4 for each question.

Table 8 shows the statistics of all datasets used.

A.3 EVALUATION DETAILS

We construct a unified prompt format for all questions:

System Prompt: You are a reasoning expert assistant. Given a question, you will use your reasoning skills to solve the problem.
User Prompt: [Question]
Please explain your reasoning process before providing an answer.

During evaluation, we parse the last integer or fraction number in the model’s output and compare it with the ground truth using `math_verify` package. We don’t introduce a strict answer format, as previous work (Zeng et al., 2025) suggest it may hinder exploration.

⁵<https://huggingface.co/datasets/open-r1/OpenR1-Math-220k>

Table 8: Sizes of datasets.

Dataset	GSM8k	MATH	NuminaMath	GSM-sym	AIME	ProntoQA	LogicBench
# Train	7473	5654	10000	-	-	-	-
# Eval	1319	3742	2742	5000	933	500	500

B IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

B.1 IMPLEMENTATION OF SAR

We implemented all baselines, as well as our approach building on the VERL open-source framework [Sheng et al. \(2025\)](#). The VERL framework provides standard implementations of SFT, PPO and GRPO. To implement our approach, we estimated the perplexity values for the rollouts given the query ($\text{ppl}(a|q)$) as well as the perplexity of standalone rollouts ($\text{ppl}(a)$).

In most RL algorithms, calculating log probabilities for rollouts are necessary to apply KL penalty. These log-probs can be directly applied to calculate $\text{ppl}(a|q)$ without extra cost:

```

1 def compute_ppl(log_probs, mask):
2     """
3     log_probs: Tensor[batch_size, seq_len]
4     mask: Boolean Tensor[batch_size, seq_len], positions of the answer part are 1; positions
5           of query and padding tokens are 0.
6     """
7     sum_log_probs = (log_probs * mask).sum(dim=1)
8     lengths = mask.sum(dim=1)
9     avg_log_probs = sum_log_probs / lengths
10    return torch.exp(-avg_log_probs)

```

The calculation of $\text{ppl}(a)$ consists of two steps. The first step is to construct the sequence without the user prompt (we still keep the system prompt):

```

1 def construct_empty_question_data(data, tokenizer, q_max_len):
2     """
3     data: DataProto, a standard protocol for data exchange in VERL.
4     data contains "input_ids", "attention_mask" and "position_ids", which are Tensors[
5           batch_size, q_max_len+a_max_len]. Query are left-padded and answers are right-padded,
6           which means the answer always begin at index q_max_len.
7     """
8     empty_q = f"System:{sys_prompt}\nUser:\nAssistant:"
9     empty_q_tokens = tokenizer(empty_q, padding="left", max_length=q_max_len)
10
11    batch_size = data["input_ids"].shape[0]
12    for key in ["input_ids", "attention_mask", "position_ids"]:
13        data[key][:, :q_max_len] = empty_q_tokens[key].repeat(batch_size, 1)
14
15    last_query_pos = data["position_ids"][:, q_max_len - 1]
16    first_answer_pos = data["position_ids"][:, q_max_len] # the first answer token
17    gap = first_answer_pos - last_query_pos - 1 # this gap should be zero
18    data["position_ids"][:, q_max_len:] -= gap.unsqueeze(-1) # Shift the answer positions
19    # backward by this gap so they are continuous
20
21    return data

```

The second step is to calculate log probabilities for the “new” sequences. Combining them, we implement the self-aligned reward:

```

1 def R_SA(data, tokenizer, q_max_len, policy):
2     ppl_qa = compute_ppl(data["log_probs"], data["response_mask"])
3
4     empty_q_data = construct_empty_question_data(data, tokenizer, q_max_len)
5     empty_q_log_probs = policy.calc_log_probs(empty_q_data)
6     ppl_a = compute_ppl(empty_q_log_probs, data["response_mask"])
7
8     return max((ppl_a - ppl_qa) / ppl_a, -1)

```

In conclusion, the self-aligned reward calculation is fully compatible with VERL’s existing optimizations, making it highly efficient for training large models.

B.2 IMPLEMENTATION OF GRPO-O1 AND GRPO-ER

We also provide the pseudocode for calculating R_{O1} and R_{ER} for reference.

```

1  def R_O1(length: List[int], correctness: List[bool]):
2      avg = statistics.mean(length)
3      ol_scores = []
4      for len in length:
5          x = (avg - len) / len
6          x = max(min(x, 1), -1)
7          ol_scores.append(x)
8      return ol_scores
9
10
11 def R_ER(length: List[int], correctness: List[bool]):
12     if correctness.count(True) <= 1:
13         return [0] * len(length)
14
15     cor_lens = [len for len, correct in zip(length, correctness) if correct]
16
17     avg = statistics.mean(cor_lens)
18     std = statistics.stdev(cor_lens)
19     er_scores = []
20     for len, cor in zip(length, correctness):
21         if cor:
22             x = (avg - len) / std
23             x = 2 / (1 + math.exp(-x)) - 1
24             er_scores.append(x)
25         else:
26             er_scores.append(0)
27     return er_scores

```

B.3 TRAINING SETTINGS

Models are trained on 4 NVIDIA H100 80GB GPUs. For PPO and GRPO, we list all training hyperparameters in Table 9. PPO and SA-PPO use the same config; GRPO, GRPO-O1, GRPO-ER and SA-GRPO also use the same config; the only exception is α in the reward function. The default α for GRPO-O1 and GRPO-ER are 0.05, and 0.2 for SA-GRPO. Using a different α will make these algorithms focus more on accuracy or efficiency, as shown in Figure 3.

We use vLLM (Kwon et al., 2023) framework for inference. Models are evaluated using 1 NVIDIA G100 80GB GPU. By default, the maximum response length is 4096, and greedy decoding is used ($\tau = 0$).

Table 9: Training configs for PPO and GRPO.

Hyperparameter	PPO	GRPO
Actor learning rate	$1e - 6$	
Critic learning rate	$2e - 6$	-
train_batch_size ⁶	128	
mini_batch_size	64	
micro_batch_size	16	
Training step	500	
Max response length	4096	
Num of rollouts	-	8
Rollout temp (τ)	1.0	
KL penalty (β)	$1e - 3$	
Advantage clip (ϵ)	0.2	

⁶The three batch sizes in the table are hyperparameters in the VERL framework. train_batch_size is the batch size for sampling rollouts, mini_batch_size is the batch size to perform policy updates, and micro_batch_size is the batch size for rollouts and back-propagation. Theoretically, micro_batch_size won't affect the training result, so one can set a smaller or larger value depending on the compute resources.

C LLM ANNOTATION PROMPTS

Below is the prompt to categorize responses to 4 types in Section 3:

System Prompt: You are an expert reasoner and LLM judge. Given a reasoning problem and an answer, you need to category the answer into one of the following categories:

- 1: Correct and concise answer. Small mistakes are acceptable.
- 2: Correct answer, but a bit lengthy, or contains unnecessary steps. Small mistakes are acceptable.
- 3: Partly correct answers, which makes some mistake and fails to reach the final ground truth.
- 4: Completely wrong or irrelevant answers, indicating the model doesn't understand the problem.
- 0: The answer is correct but contains extra content after the answer, like random characters or talking about an irrelevant topic.

****Output Format:****

[thought] Provide your thought process on how you identify the reasoning behaviors.[/thought]

[answer] One single number, indicating the type of the answer. [/answer]

The one-shot example:

Query: Making a cake requires 1 cup of flour, 1 cup of sugar, and 2 eggs. Suppose you have 2 cups of flour, 3 cups of sugar, and 6 eggs, how many cakes can you make?

Ground truth answer: 2

Answer: I shall first determine how many cakes each ingredient can support. Flour allows 2 cakes ($2/1=2$), sugar allows 3 ($3/1=3$), and eggs allow 3 ($6/2=3$). Therefore, I can make at most 3 cakes. Wait a second, the maximum number actually depends on the the low-resource ingredient. In this case, it's flour, which only supports 2 cakes. The final answer is 2.

[thought] The answer correctly understands the problem and provides a concise solution. It identifies the limiting ingredient (flour) and calculates the maximum number of cakes that can be made based on that. The reasoning is clear and follows a logical sequence. [/thought]

[answer] 1 [/answer]

Below is the prompt to identify reasoning behaviors in Section 5.2:

System Prompt: You are an expert reasoner and LLM judge. Given a reasoning problem and an answer, you need to identify the reasoning behaviors exhibited in the solution. There are four reasoning behaviors that requires identification:

1. ****Verification****: This behavior involves systematically checking intermediate results or assumptions to ensure they are correct.
- Example: "Let's verify this result by checking if the two expressions are always equal."
2. ****Backtracking****: This behavior occurs when the model explicitly revises its approach after detecting an error or realizing that the current path won't lead to the solution.
- Example: "The assumption that $a > 0$ doesn't work, we need to try something else."
3. ****Subgoal Setting****: This behavior involves breaking down a complex problem into smaller, more manageable steps.
- Example: "The first step is to find the range of a and b respectively."
4. ****Enumeration****: Solving problems by exhaustively considering multiple cases or possibilities.
- Example: "After investigating 7 days of a week, only Wednesday and Friday satisfies the condition."

****Guidelines for Identification:****

- It is possible for a single solution to exhibit multiple behaviors or none of them.
- Your annotation should based on the reasoning process, not just the final answer.
- You should only count a behavior if it concretely contributes to the reasoning process.

****Output Format:****

[thought] Provide your thought process on how you identify the reasoning behaviors. [/thought]

[answer] Behavior(s) separated by commas, or "None" if no behavior is identified. [/answer]

D ADDITIONAL ANALYSIS AND THEORY

D.1 GRPO GRADIENT ANALYSIS

To understand how GRPO and our SA-GRPO approach optimize model parameters, we analyze the gradient computation. The gradient of the GRPO objective is:

$$\nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{J}_{\text{GRPO}}(\theta) = \nabla_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{q \sim \mathcal{D}, \{a_i\}_{i=1}^N \sim \pi_{\theta_{\text{old}}}(\cdot|q)} \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{|a_i|} \sum_{j=1}^{|a_i|} w_{i,j}(\theta) A_i \right] \quad (11)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{q \sim \mathcal{D}, \{a_i\}_{i=1}^N \sim \pi_{\theta_{\text{old}}}(\cdot|q)} \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N A_i \cdot \frac{1}{|a_i|} \sum_{j=1}^{|a_i|} r_{i,j} \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(a_{i,j} | q, a_{i,<j}) \right] \quad (12)$$

where

$$r_{i,j} = \frac{\pi_{\theta}(a_{i,j} | q, a_{i,<j})}{\pi_{\theta_{\text{old}}}(a_{i,j} | q, a_{i,<j})}, \quad w_{i,j}(\theta) = r_{i,j}.$$

This gradient formulation reveals that GRPO updates model parameters by adjusting the likelihood of generating each token in the rollout responses, weighted by the importance sampling ratio $r_{i,j}$ and the normalized advantage A_i . The advantage is calculated based solely on the verifiable reward or other explicit reward functions, without considering the intrinsic quality or relevance of responses.

In standard GRPO, the advantage value A_i is the same for all tokens within a single answer, computed as:

$$A_i = R(q, a_i) - \text{mean}[R(q, a_{1..N})] \quad (13)$$

For correct answers, the advantage is positive, pushing the model to increase the probability of generating such answers. For incorrect answers, the advantage is negative, steering the model away from these outputs.

However, this approach treats all correct answers equally, regardless of their efficiency, relevance, or quality of reasoning. Similarly, it gives all incorrect answers the same negative feedback, missing opportunities to reinforce partially correct reasoning paths or penalize completely irrelevant outputs differently.

D.2 THEORETICAL ANALYSIS OF SAR

D.2.1 SELF-ALIGNED REWARD FUNCTION

The key innovation, self-aligned reward R_{SA} , can be derived from the perplexity measures:

$$R_{\text{SA}} = \max \left(\frac{\text{ppl}(a) - \text{ppl}(a|q)}{\text{ppl}(a)}, -1 \right) \quad (14)$$

$$= 1 - \min \left(\frac{\text{ppl}(a|q)}{\text{ppl}(a)}, 2 \right) \quad (15)$$

Expanding with the definitions of perplexity:

$$R_{\text{SA}} = 1 - \min \left(\frac{e^{-\frac{1}{|a|} \sum_{j=1}^{|a|} \log(P(a_j|q, a_{1..j-1}))}}{e^{-\frac{1}{|a|} \sum_{j=1}^{|a|} \log(P(a_j|a_{1..j-1}))}}, 2 \right) \quad (16)$$

$$= 1 - \min \left(e^{-\frac{1}{|a|} \sum_{j=1}^{|a|} [\log(P(a_j|q, a_{1..j-1})) - \log(P(a_j|a_{1..j-1}))]}, 2 \right) \quad (17)$$

$$= 1 - \min \left(e^{-\frac{1}{|a|} \sum_{j=1}^{|a|} \log \left(\frac{P(a_j|q, a_{1..j-1})}{P(a_j|a_{1..j-1})} \right)}, 2 \right) \quad (18)$$

Defining the token-level contribution $v(a_j) = \log \left(\frac{P(a_j|q, a_{1...j-1})}{P(a_j|a_{1...j-1})} \right)$, we get:

$$R_{SA} = 1 - \min \left(e^{-\frac{1}{|a|} \sum_{j=1}^{|a|} v(a_j)}, 2 \right) \quad (19)$$

This formulation reveals that R_{SA} measures the geometric mean of the likelihood ratio between generating tokens conditioned on the question versus generating them without the question context. Each token a_j contributes $v(a_j)$ to the overall reward.

A positive $v(a_j)$ indicates that token a_j is more likely to be generated when conditioned on the question, suggesting that it leverages information from the query. Conversely, a negative $v(a_j)$ suggests that the token is less likely when conditioned on the question, indicating potential irrelevance or redundancy.

D.2.2 SA-GRPO OPTIMIZATION TRAJECTORIES

The combined reward $R_{SA-GRPO}(q, a_i, gt) = R_{VR} + \alpha R_{SA}$ leads to a modified advantage calculation:

$$A_i^{SA-GRPO} = (R_{VR}(q, a_i, gt) + \alpha R_{SA}(q, a_i)) - \text{mean}[(R_{VR}(q, a_{1...N}, gt) + \alpha R_{SA}(q, a_{1...N}))] \quad (20)$$

During optimization, SA-GRPO’s gradient updates follow three key paths:

1. **Correctness Optimization:** Through R_{VR} , SA-GRPO increases the likelihood of generating outputs that contain correct answers, similar to standard GRPO.
2. **Self-Alignment Optimization:** Through R_{SA} , SA-GRPO encourages: - Higher probability for tokens that effectively utilize question information (positive $v(a_j)$) - Lower probability for tokens that are redundant or irrelevant (negative $v(a_j)$) - Concise reasoning by penalizing unnecessary repetition, since repeated information yields low $v(a_j)$ values as it becomes predictable from previous tokens
3. **Memorization Penalty:** SAR naturally penalizes memorized answers. If an answer is memorized, $\text{ppl}(a)$ will be low due to the model’s strong prior on the memorized sequence, while the relative drop in perplexity when conditioned on the question would be minimal, resulting in a low or negative R_{SA} .

These optimization paths allow SA-GRPO to simultaneously improve accuracy and efficiency without requiring separate reward models or human preference data. The α hyperparameter controls the balance between correctness and self-alignment objectives, enabling flexible tuning for different accuracy-efficiency trade-offs. As training progresses, we observe from fig. 4:

1. **Early Training Phase:** During early iterations, SA-GRPO primarily optimizes for correctness, as R_{VR} provides the strongest gradient signal. This establishes a foundation of accurate reasoning.
2. **Mid Training Phase:** Once the model achieves reasonable accuracy, the self-alignment reward R_{SA} becomes more influential. The optimization begins to focus on improving the efficiency of correct responses by: - Removing tokens with low $v(a_j)$ values (those that don’t effectively leverage question information) - Preserving tokens with high $v(a_j)$ values (those that directly address the question)
3. **Late Training Phase:** In the later stages, SA-GRPO fine-tunes the balance between accuracy and efficiency. The combined reward creates a Pareto frontier where further improvements in efficiency come at diminishing costs to accuracy.

Unlike efficiency-focused methods like O1-pruner or Efficient Reasoner, which directly reward shorter responses regardless of content quality, SA-GRPO’s optimization is content-aware. It selectively preserves tokens that contribute meaningful information relative to the question, while removing those that don’t. In contrast, length-based rewards may inadvertently remove important reasoning steps if they blindly optimize for shorter responses.

The theoretical convergence of SA-GRPO can be expressed as finding the optimal policy π_θ^* that maximizes:

Table 10: SAR results on vision-language models.

Setting	GSM8k		GSM-sym		MATH		NuminaMath		AIME		Average	
	acc	len	acc	len	acc	len	acc	len	acc	len	acc	len
Qwen2-2B-VL	14.33	1573	5.98	1873	14.94	15.84	3.65	2411	0.54	2404	7.89	1969.0
+GRPO	60.96	150	27.72	209	25.25	321	9.19	512	0.86	561	24.80	350.6
+GRPO-O1	58.38	115	25.44	164	23.20	79	9.99	22	0.32	17	23.47	79.4
+GRPO-ER	58.30	122	26.52	179	23.73	212	8.32	330	0.43	383	23.46	245.2
+SA-GRPO	59.59	121	27.66	174	21.22	84	9.52	56	1.29	57	23.86	98.4
Gemma3-4B	74.75	264	57.40	373	68.33	837	35.81	1370	18.76	1843	51.01	937.4
+GRPO	89.01	409	78.68	644	76.54	1177	41.9	2012	18.01	2357	60.83	1355.8
+GRPO-O1	87.87	292	75.02	464	76.67	834	41.68	1435	18.54	1814	59.95	967.8
+GRPO-ER	88.17	338	73.36	623	75.73	979	41.94	1817	17.36	2268	59.31	1205.0
+SA-GRPO	89.16	407	79.04	654	75.55	1130	40.48	1920	18.11	2379	60.47	1298.0

$$\pi_{\theta}^* = \arg \max_{\pi_{\theta}} \mathbb{E}_{q \sim \mathcal{D}, a \sim \pi_{\theta}(\cdot|q)} \left[R_{\text{VR}}(q, a, gt) + \alpha \max \left(\frac{\text{ppl}(a) - \text{ppl}(a|q)}{\text{ppl}(a)}, -1 \right) \right] \quad (21)$$

At this optimal policy, each generated token in the response contributes maximally to either obtaining the correct answer or efficiently utilizing information from the question, with minimal redundancy or irrelevance.

In practice, this theoretical optimum must balance against the KL divergence penalty that prevents the model from straying too far from the reference policy, ensuring that the learned improvements remain grounded in the model’s original capabilities.

E ADDITIONAL EXPERIMENTS

E.1 TRAINING TRAJECTORIES

In this section, we show the training trajectories of GRPO, SA-GRPO and SA-GRPO without verifiable reward (a setting discussed in Section 5.1). We report the verifiable reward, self-aligned reward, and average response length at each step.

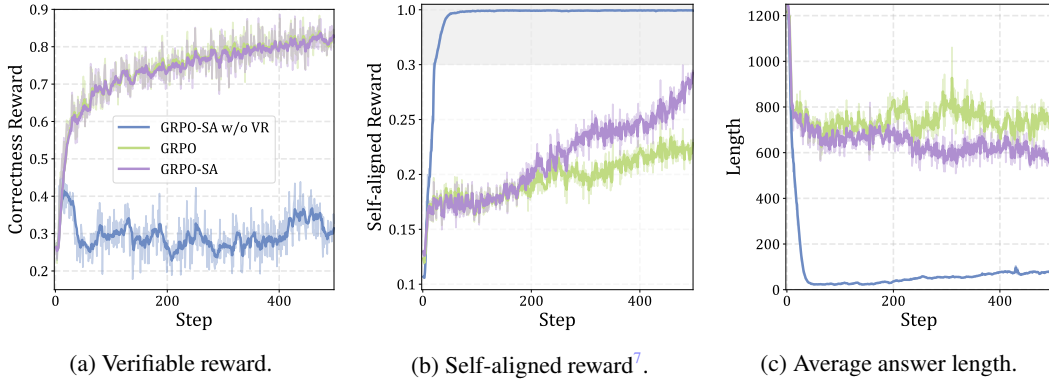


Figure 4: Training plots for Qwen3-4B.

E.2 SELF-ALIGNED REWARD ON VISION LANGUAGE MODELS

In this section, we extend SA-GRPO to vision language models.

⁷While R_{SA} isn’t used in training the GRPO model, we still calculate and record the values for comparison.

Table 10 summarizes the performance of Qwen2-2B-VL and Gemma3-4B across five reasoning benchmarks under different optimization strategies. Consistent with prior findings, SA-GRPO yields strong gains for purely text-based reasoning—most notably in GSM8k, MATH, and Numina—where its self-aligned reward mechanism effectively tailors outputs to the specific query. For Gemma3-4B, SA-GRPO achieves the highest average accuracy (72.64%), exceeding the best GRPO variant by over one percentage point, while maintaining competitive output lengths. These improvements suggest that SA-GRPO’s reward shaping promotes concise, context-aware reasoning paths in textual domains.

However, the results also reveal a notable limitation: SA-GRPO’s advantages do not transfer as strongly to vision-language models such as Qwen2-2B-VL. While modest gains are observed in certain benchmarks, its performance is less consistent compared to GRPO, particularly in tasks like GSM-sym and AIME where visual interpretation is coupled with reasoning. We hypothesize that SA-GRPO’s self-alignment mechanism, optimized for semantic relevancy in text, is less effective when the query interpretation depends heavily on multimodal fusion. In such cases, reward signals based solely on linguistic alignment may fail to capture errors introduced in the visual grounding stage, leading to weaker overall gains.

These findings suggest that while SA-GRPO is well-suited for text-centric reasoning, its application to multimodal settings may require integrating visual-aware reward components. Future work could explore hybrid reward functions that jointly evaluate semantic correctness and perceptual grounding, enabling SA-GRPO to extend its benefits to vision-language reasoning tasks.

E.3 EFFECT OF REMOVING THE KL COEFFICIENT

Table 11: Effect of removing the KL penalty. The base model is Qwen3-1.7B in this experiment.

Setting	GSM8k		GSM-sym		MATH		NuminaMath		AIME		Average	
	acc	len	acc	len	acc	len	acc	len	acc	len	acc	len
Base	69.22	281	46.76	365	56.89	700	24.58	1242	9.97	1539	41.48	825.4
GRPO	84.53	335	67.66	413	67.31	697	33.44	1091	13.93	1278	53.37	762.8
GRPO (no KL)	84.69	341	69.72	430	68.31	685	33.55	1121	13.61	1320	53.97	779.0
GRPO-O1	84.15	285	65.78	363	66.51	528	33.15	775	13.61	910	52.64	572.2
GRPO-O1 (no KL)	83.93	275	66.40	356	67.13	578	32.46	875	14.15	1086	52.82	634
SA-GRPO	85.51	267	67.66	346	67.96	564	36.03	841	13.50	992	54.13	602.0
SA-GRPO (no KL)	85.75	246	67.62	322	66.73	511	34.06	788	12.43	933	53.31	560

In Equation (3), the KL penalty term is used to control the divergence between the reference model and the actor policy, which is critical to preserving the base model’s capabilities. We investigate the effect of removing the KL Coefficient (i.e. setting $\beta = 0$ in Equation (3)) in this section.

From Table 11, we observe that for all RL algorithms, the performance gap between using and not using KL is relatively small. This indicates that training remains stable and does not diverge significantly from the base model. It also suggests that the self-aligned signal is sufficiently consistent and well-aligned to guide learning even without strong distributional anchoring.

Notably, removing the KL penalty produces opposite effects for GRPO/GRPO-O1 and SA-GRPO. For GRPO and GRPO-O1, it increases accuracy but reduces efficiency, while for SA-GRPO, it decreases accuracy but improves efficiency. Since the verifiable reward R_{VR} is directly linked to accuracy and the self-aligned reward R_{SA} is not, this pattern suggests that R_{VR} dominates in GRPO-O1 (reward = $R_{VR} + \alpha R_{O1}$), whereas the self-aligned reward R_{SA} dominates in SA-GRPO (reward = $R_{VR} + \alpha R_{SA}$). Across all variants, there’s a consistent trade-off between accuracy and efficiency: moving toward higher accuracy tends to reduce efficiency, and vice versa.

F CASES

F.1 DIFFERENT ANSWER TYPES AND ADVANTAGE VALUES

Table 12: An example for different types of answers and their advantage values.

Query: Janet's ducks lay 16 eggs per day. She eats three for breakfast every morning and bakes muffins for her friends every day with four. She sells the remainder at the farmers' market daily for \$2 per fresh duck egg. How much in dollars does she make every day at the farmers' market?					
Answer Type and Example	Length	A_{GRPO}	$A_{GRPO-0.1}$	$A_{GRPO-ER}$	$A_{SA-GRPO}$ (Ours)
(1) Correct and Concise: We can break this down step by step: Janet's ducks lay 16 eggs per day. She eats 3 eggs for breakfast every morning. So, $16 - 3 = 13$ eggs remain after Janet eats breakfast. She bakes 4 eggs in muffins every day for her friends. So, we need to subtract these as well: $13 - 4 = 9$ eggs. Hence, Janet sells 9 eggs to the farmers' market daily. She sells each egg at \$2. Therefore Janet's daily revenue is $9 \text{ eggs} \times \$2 = \18 . So, Janet makes \$18 per day at the farmers' market.	143	0.5	0.64	0.63	0.99
(2) Correct but redundant: To answer the question, we need to first calculate how many eggs Janet uses for breakfast and for baking daily. Janet eats 3 eggs for breakfast every morning. Additionally, she bakes muffins with 4 eggs daily. Let's sum the total number of eggs used for both breakfast and baking: $3 \text{ (breakfast)} + 4 \text{ (baking)} = 7$ eggs total used daily. Now that we know she uses 7 eggs daily, we can determine how many fresh eggs she has left after accounting for her usage. Since her ducks lay 16 eggs per day, we subtract her total egg usage from the daily egg production: $16 \text{ (total eggs produced)} - 7 \text{ (total eggs used)} = 9$ fresh eggs remaining. Finally, to find out how much money Janet makes selling the fresh eggs, we multiply the number of remaining fresh eggs by the price per egg. She makes \$2 per fresh duck egg: $9 \text{ (fresh eggs left)} \times \$2 \text{ (price per egg)} = \18 daily revenue. Therefore, Janet makes \$18 per day at the farmers' market, selling the leftover fresh eggs from her ducks.	236	0.5	0.29	-0.29	0.84
(3) Partly Correct, Wrong Answer: Janet's ducks lay 16 eggs per day. To determine how many fresh eggs she sells each day, we need to subtract the number of eggs she eats for breakfast and the number she uses for muffins: Fresh eggs daily = 16 eggs per day - 3 eggs for breakfast - 4 eggs for muffins = $16 - 3 - 4 = 2$ eggs per day So, Janet sells 2 fresh duck eggs daily at the farmers' market. Since she sells each egg for \$2, her daily earnings can be calculated by multiplying the number of fresh ducks by their price: Daily earnings = Number of eggs sold x Price per egg = 2 eggs x \$2 per egg = \$4 Therefore, Janet makes \$4 every day at the farmers' market... (Truncated)	457	-0.5	-1.5	-0.83	-0.16
(4) Irrelevant or Completely Wrong: It is never 30 °C in winter. On the shortest day, in the Arctic Circle, the low is -17 °C. On the longest day, the low is 17 °C. Thus, 10 °C is the average low. We can transform this into a simpler version. Janet's ducks lay 16 eggs per day, eat 3, use 4. Janet makes 13 eggs. She sells them for \$0.05 each: $13 \times 0.05 = \$0.65$... (Truncated)	256	-0.5	-0.77	-0.83	-0.29
(5) Correct, but no reasoning (likely memorized): The answer is 18.	50	-0.5	1.17	1.17	-0.16
(6) Incorrect, and no reasoning: The answer is 0.	50	-0.5	0.17	0.17	-1.20

F.2 COMPARISON OF GRPO AND SA-GRPO

F.2.1 CASE 1: IMPROVED CONCISENESS

Question: Let r , s , and t be solutions to the equation

$$2x^3 - 3x^2 + 4x - 1 = 0.$$

Find $r^2 + s^2 + t^2$.

Ground truth: $\boxed{-\frac{7}{4}}$

Qwen3-1.7B + GRPO Answer:

To find $r^2 + s^2 + t^2$ where r , s , and t are the solutions to the equation $2x^3 - 3x^2 + 4x - 1 = 0$, we can use the relationships between the roots and the coefficients of the polynomial. Specifically, we can use the identity:

$$r^2 + s^2 + t^2 = (r + s + t)^2 - 2(rs + rt + st)$$

First, we need to find the values of $r + s + t$, $rs + rt + st$, and rst using the coefficients of the polynomial.

The general form of a cubic polynomial is $ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d = 0$. For our polynomial $2x^3 - 3x^2 + 4x - 1 = 0$, we have:

$$a = 2, \quad b = -3, \quad c = 4, \quad d = -1$$

Using Vieta's formulas, we know:

$$r + s + t = -\frac{b}{a} = -\frac{-3}{2} = \frac{3}{2},$$

$$rs + rt + st = \frac{c}{a} = \frac{4}{2} = 2,$$

$$rst = -\frac{d}{a} = -\frac{-1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Now, we can substitute these values into the identity for $r^2 + s^2 + t^2$:

$$r^2 + s^2 + t^2 = (r + s + t)^2 - 2(rs + rt + st)$$

Substituting the values we found:

$$r^2 + s^2 + t^2 = \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^2 - 2^2$$

Calculating each term:

$$\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{9}{4}, \quad 2^2 = 4$$

So,

$$r^2 + s^2 + t^2 = \frac{9}{4} - 4$$

To subtract these, we need a common denominator:

$$4 = \frac{16}{4}$$

Thus,

$$r^2 + s^2 + t^2 = \frac{9}{4} - \frac{16}{4} = \frac{9-16}{4} = \frac{-7}{4}$$

Therefore, the answer is:

$$\boxed{-\frac{7}{4}}$$

Qwen3-1.7B + SA-GRPO Answer:

To solve this problem, we can use Vieta's formulas, which relate the coefficients of the polynomial to sums and products of its roots. For the polynomial

$$2x^3 - 3x^2 + 4x - 1 = 0,$$

the roots are r , s , and t .

Vieta's formulas tell us:

- The sum of the roots $r + s + t = -\frac{-3}{2} = \frac{3}{2}$.
- The sum of the product of the roots taken two at a time $rs + rt + st = \frac{4}{2} = 2$.
- The product of the roots $rst = -\frac{-1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$.

We need to find $r^2 + s^2 + t^2$. We can use the identity:

$$r^2 + s^2 + t^2 = (r + s + t)^2 - 2(rs + rt + st).$$

Substituting the values from Vieta's formulas:

$$r^2 + s^2 + t^2 = \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^2 - 2(2).$$

$$r^2 + s^2 + t^2 = \frac{9}{4} - 4.$$

$$r^2 + s^2 + t^2 = \frac{9}{4} - \frac{16}{4}.$$

$$r^2 + s^2 + t^2 = \frac{9-16}{4}.$$

$$r^2 + s^2 + t^2 = \frac{-7}{4}.$$

Therefore, the answer is $\boxed{-\frac{7}{4}}$.

F.2.2 CASE 2: IMPROVED CONCISENESS AND ACCURACY

Question: How many integers x satisfy

$$|x| + 5 < 7 \quad \text{and} \quad |x - 3| > 2?$$

Ground truth: $\boxed{2}$

Qwen3-1.7B + GRPO Answer:

To solve the problem, we need to find the integers x that satisfy both inequalities:

$$1. |x| + 5 < 7 \quad 2. |x - 3| > 2$$

Let's solve each inequality step by step.

Step 1: Solve the first inequality $|x| + 5 < 7$

Subtract 5 from both sides:

$$|x| < 2$$

This absolute value inequality can be rewritten as:

$$-2 < x < 2$$

So, the integers x that satisfy this inequality are:

$$x = -1, 0, 1$$

Step 2: Solve the second inequality $|x - 3| > 2$

This absolute value inequality can be split into two separate inequalities:

$$x - 3 > 2 \quad \text{or} \quad x - 3 < -2$$

Solving these inequalities:

$$x > 5 \quad \text{or} \quad x < 1$$

So, the integers x that satisfy this inequality are:

$$x = \dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots$$

Step 3: Find the intersection of the solutions from both inequalities

We need to find the integers that satisfy both $-2 < x < 2$ and $x > 5$ or $x < 1$.

From the first inequality, the integers are:

$$x = -1, 0, 1$$

From the second inequality, the integers are:

$$x = \dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots$$

The intersection of these two sets of integers is:

$$x = -1, 0, 1$$

Step 4: Count the number of integers in the intersection

The integers that satisfy both inequalities are:

$$x = -1, 0, 1$$

There are 3 integers in this set.

Therefore, the number of integers x that satisfy both inequalities is:

$$\boxed{3}$$

Qwen3-1.7B + SA-GRPO Answer:

To solve the problem, we need to analyze the two inequalities separately and then find the intersection of the solutions.

Step 1: Solve the first inequality $|x| + 5 < 7$

Subtract 5 from both sides:

$$|x| < 2$$

This means that x must be within 2 units of 0:

$$-2 < x < 2$$

Step 2: Solve the second inequality $|x - 3| > 2$

This inequality can be broken into two separate inequalities:

$$x - 3 > 2 \quad \text{or} \quad x - 3 < -2$$

Solving these, we get:

$$x > 5 \quad \text{or} \quad x < 1$$

Step 3: Find the intersection of the solutions

We need to find the values of x that satisfy both inequalities:

$$-2 < x < 2$$

$$x > 5 \quad \text{or} \quad x < 1$$

The intersection of these intervals is:

$$-2 < x < 1$$

Step 4: Identify the integers in the interval $-2 < x < 1$

The integers in this interval are:

$$-1, 0$$

Step 5: Count the integers

There are 2 integers that satisfy both inequalities.

Therefore, the number of integers x that satisfy the given conditions is:

$$\boxed{2}$$