
Med-FoT: Boosting Real-World Diagnostic Accuracy and Reasoning in LLMs via Structured Medical Flow-of-Thought

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Abstract

Recent advancements in large language models (LLMs) have improved performance on standardized medical benchmarks. However, existing medical benchmarks often rely on truncated context and idealized scenarios. In reality, clinical diagnosis involves analyzing extensive patient history, physical examination, laboratory test, and imaging reports under time constraints to reach a reliable conclusion. Consequently, LLMs often struggle with diagnostic accuracy and may generate inaccurate information, or "hallucinations," when faced with authentic patient cases. To address this challenge, we propose an agentic workflow named Flow-of-Thought (FoT), which breaks down clinical information into four stages: retrieval, preliminary diagnosis, final diagnosis, and recheck. Our pipeline mimics the thought processes of expert doctors and helps prevent random or misguided inferences that could lead to serious medical errors. We generate 2,000 cases covering 15 categories of abdominal diseases, complete with detailed FoT annotations to fine-tune our model. We also encourage the model to explore its reasoning paths using group relative policy optimization for reinforcement learning. Finally, we introduce **Med-FoT**, an LLM specifically designed for medical diagnosis. Experiments show that after both supervised fine-tuning and reinforcement learning, Med-FoT outperforms state-of-the-art medical reasoning models such as HuatuoGPT-o1 and MedReason, achieving accuracy comparable to closed-source models (e.g., OpenAI o4-mini). We also invite professional doctors to validate that our reasoning chains closely align with real-world clinical thought processes.

1 Introduction

The reasoning capacity of large language models (LLMs) has emerged as a primary metric for assessing progress toward artificial general intelligence (AGI) [? ?]. Recent breakthroughs, such as OpenAI o4 and Deepseek-R1, have achieved remarkable results on mathematical problem-solving and code-generation benchmarks [? ?]. However, the development of medical reasoning LLMs remains at an early stage. Recent research has investigated approaches for constructing medical chain-of-thought (CoT) datasets and used them to train reasoning models that achieve state-of-the-art performance on standard clinical benchmarks [? ? ?]. Yet these approaches concentrate on relatively simplified, human-curated scenarios that differ markedly from real-world clinical practice [?], where clinicians must assemble a patient's full spectrum of diagnostic data rather than work from pre-filtered excerpts.

For the real-world application, a common cost-efficient strategy is to distill knowledge from open-source LLMs that can natively generate extended CoT trajectories, e.g., Qwen-QwQ and Deepseek-R1. These models generate extended reasoning chains that systematically decompose complex

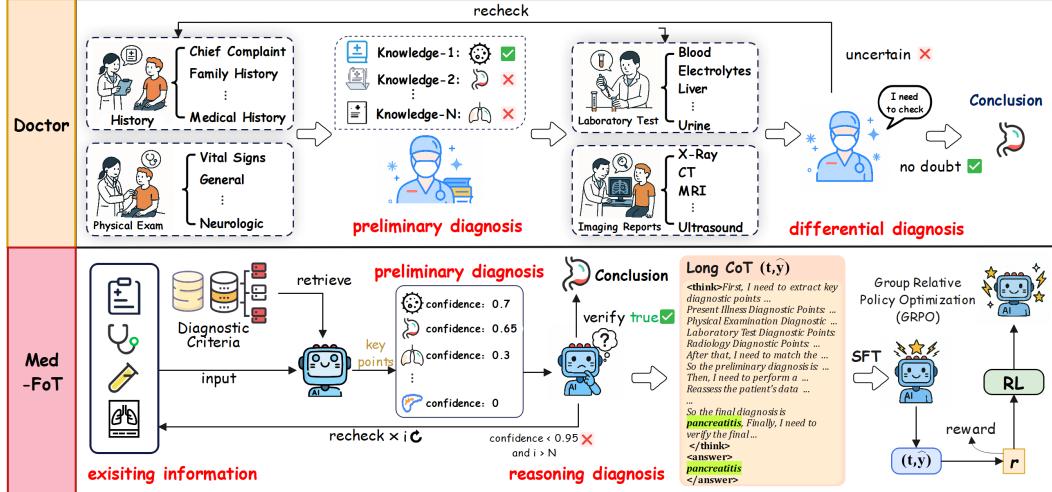


Figure 1: **Med-FoT** performs similar cognitive pathways as medical experts. The top part illustrates the typical diagnostic process, which combines different data sources and requires clinicians to keep their reasoning consistent. The bottom part shows the overview of Med-FoT.

36 problems and, when necessary, backtrack to correct errors before producing the final conclusion.
 37 Recent studies—most notably S1[?] and LIMO[?]—corroborate that high-quality, long-form CoT
 38 supervision is pivotal for robust LLM reasoning. [?] demonstrate that a corpus of merely 17k CoT
 39 samples can enable a 32B model to perform approaching that of GPT-4o. Recent findings highlight
 40 that CoT reasoning, when coupled with large-scale reinforcement learning, can significantly enhance
 41 model performance [? ? ?]. They further contend that the structural integrity of the reasoning
 42 chain outweighs its lexical content. Yet, when transferred to clinical contexts, these trajectories
 43 often introduce domain-specific medical hallucinations. For instance, fabricated patient histories or
 44 erroneous medication dosages—thereby posing significant safety risks[? ?].

45 Taking these challenges into account, we collaborate with board-certified physicians to introduce a
 46 novel flow-of-thought (**FoT**) framework. The FoT paradigm orchestrates heterogeneous LLMs and
 47 elevates zero-shot diagnostic performance by explicitly mimicking the reasoning steps of experts..
 48 Building upon the FoT paradigm, we structure our methodology into three sequential phases that
 49 strengthen clinical reasoning: (1) A closed-loop data pipeline that, for each case, iterates through
 50 guideline retrieval, key-point extraction, preliminary diagnosis, definitive confirmation, and retrospec-
 51 tive audit. (2) This pipeline yields 2,000 extended CoT samples spanning 14 abdominal pathologies,
 52 which we employ for supervised fine-tuning. (3) Lastly, we further improve long-context coherence
 53 via online gradient-regret policy optimization.

54 Leveraging LLaMA-3.1-8B-Instruct [?] and Qwen-2.5-7B-Instruct [?], we construct a domain-
 55 specialized medical language model, Med-FoT. Fine-tuned on curated MIMIC-IV clinical records [?]
 56 covering 15 abdominal pathologies [?], Med-FoT outperforms peer baselines (with 7-8B parameters)
 57 and even eclipses several 70B models on a demanding multi-step diagnostic benchmark. Empirical
 58 results demonstrate that our FoT framework concurrently optimizes diagnostic accuracy, reasoning
 59 depth, and interpretability. Our primary contributions are as follows:

- 60 1. We introduce the complex clinical diagnosis problem, a challenging multi-step test across
 61 15 abdominal diseases that requires LLMs to integrate comprehensive patient history, exam-
 62 ination findings, and test results into a diagnostic process.
- 63 2. With complex clinical problems, we propose an **agentic Flow of Thought (FoT) workflow**,
 64 which orchestrates LLMs with retrieval-augmented generation (RAG) to yield temporally
 65 and clinically coherent reasoning trajectories. Moreover, FoT supports training-free infer-
 66 ence by emulating expert reasoning to bolster LLM performance in diagnosis.
- 67 3. Using our FoT framework, we design an end-to-end diagnostic pipeline that mimics expert
 68 clinician workflow and constructed 2K dataset for supervised fine-tuning, and further refine
 69 reasoning via GRPO-based reinforcement learning.

70 4. Through a two-stage training approach, we develop the medical reasoning LLM **Med-FoT**
71 for real-world diagnosis . Two physicians judged our FoT rationale consistant with authentic
72 clinical reasoning.

73 2 Related works

74 **Medical LLMs** Driven by the shortcomings of generic LLMs on real clinical questions, research has
75 moved toward purpose-built medical models. Open-weight Med42-v2[?] now tops MedQA[?] while
76 providing a fully reproducible recipe , and Llama-3 Meditron[?] matches these gains on MedQA[?]]
77 and PubMedQA[?] with an equally open pipeline. Compute-efficient variants-BioMistral[?]]
78 and OpenBioLLM-Llama-3-close[?] much of the gap using ~2 B additional tokens, while Me-
79 LLaMA[?] demonstrates similar benefits from moderate continual pre-training. Beyond benchmark
80 scores, current work emphasises robustness, safety, and broader domain coverage. Med-PaLM-2/3
81 introduce specialised safety tuning and expert feedback loops to reduce hazardous recommendations
82 at scale[? ?]; Baichuan-M1[?] and PMC-LLaMA[?] extend coverage to under-represented
83 specialties via 20 T-token from-scratch training; multilingual initiatives such as HuatuoGPT-o1[?]]
84 and BioMistral-Multilingual[?] broaden access to non-English clinical practice; and long-context
85 adaptations (e.g., DeepSeek-R1[?]) show that efficient attention plus prompt design can retain
86 accuracy across thousands-token notes. Prompt-only routes remain attractive: AutoMedPrompt[?]]
87 automatically tunes system prompts via text-gradients for zero-compute adaptation. In contrast, our
88 approach emphasizes enabling LLMs to excel in medical reasoning, offering a distinct solution.

89 **Reasoning in LLMs** Chain-of-Thought (CoT) prompting boosts clinical text reasoning accu-
90 rac[], yet collecting large expert-annotated chains is costly for complex case[]. Model-generated
91 rationales screened by medical verifiers ease this burden but still degrade as case complexity rise.
92 Reinforcement-learning variants-e.g. RL with verifiable rewards and preference optimisation-can
93 align reasoning without explicit labels, though they incur high compute and sparse-reward hurdle[]].
94 Recent token-efficient prompts such as Chain-of-Draft and Chain-of-Preference Optimisation retain
95 gains while halving onte cost[]. Reflective techniques-including self-reflection, self-consistency
96 voting, and internalised self-correction-lower hallucination rates in diagnostic QA[], but depend on
97 reliable automatic scorers. Self-training pipelines that distil verified chains into smaller models
98 show promise for low-resource specialties[], while retrieval-augmented reflection further stabilises
99 long-note inerence[]. Despite these advances, fully domain-aligned pipelines that mirror physician
100 workflows reman scarce[]. To bridge this gap, we propose a physician-inspired Flow-of-Thought
101 workflow combined with GRPO-based alignment, providing clinically grounded reasoning without
102 expensive expert supervision.

103 3 Methodology

104 In this section, we first formalize the complex diagnostic problem and describe how we assemble
105 and process our clinical dataset. We then introduce our agentic workflow and the reasoning data
106 generation pipeline. Finally, we use Group Relative Policy Optimization to refine model reasoning
107 through reinforcement learning.

108 3.1 Preliminaries: Real-World Clinical Diagnosis Problems

109 **Problem Formalization** In contrast to normal closed-set medical Q&A benchmarks, we craft
110 diagnostic tasks that include comprehensive patient-level clinical information, requiring the model
111 to identify the most probable disease y within the candidate set \mathcal{D}_{dis} . Where \mathcal{D}_{dis} denote the set
112 of 15 abdominal disease labels $\mathcal{D}_{dis} = \{d_1, \dots, d_{15}\}$. As illustrated in Figure ??, we first retrieve
113 standardized diagnostic guidelines, then integrate the patient’s history (H), physical examination
114 (PE), laboratory test (Lab), and radiology reports (Rad) to predict the most probable disease
115 $y \in \mathcal{D}_{dis}$. Each patient case is represented as follows:

$$x = (S, I) \quad \text{with} \quad I = \{H, PE, Lab, Rad\}, \quad (1)$$

116 where $S = \{S_k\}_{k=1}^{15}$ constitutes the diagnostic-criteria library. Each criterion S_k for disease d_k
117 comprises the four components of information I .

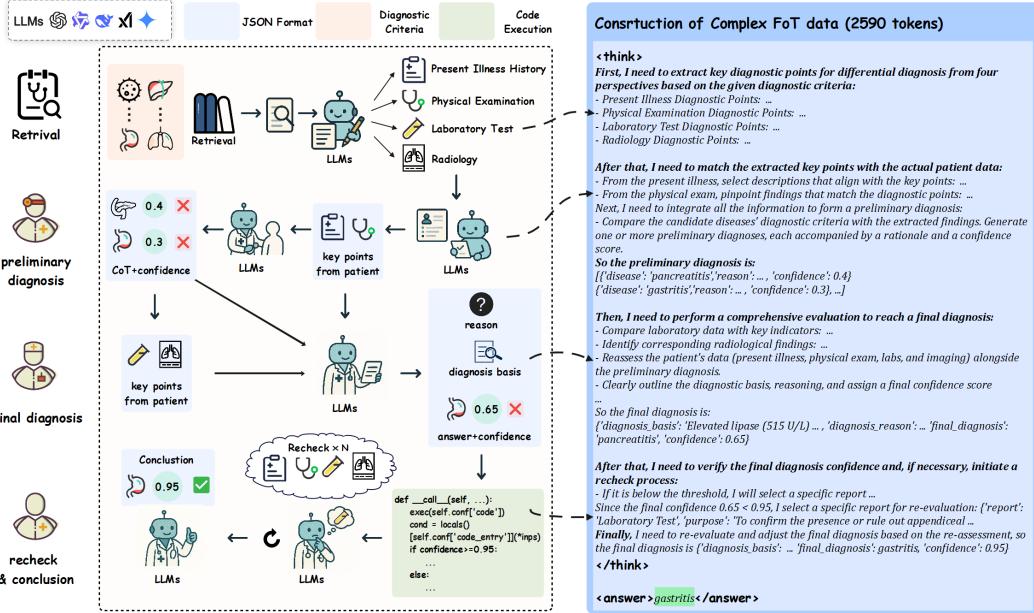


Figure 2: **Overview of FoT Data Generation Pipeline.** **Left:** We present a structured pipeline comprising the retrieval module, the initial diagnosis module, the final diagnosis module, and the recheck and conclusion module. **Right:** The instantiated diagnostic example.

118 **Data Collection & Process** To achieve this, we leverage de-identified, real-world clinical data to
 119 ensure both authenticity and scalability. Specifically, we collect 5K patient cases from the MIMIC-IV
 120 database[?], each labeled with one of 15 abdominal pathologies from the electronic health record
 121 (EHR) system. Some of these cases have incomplete information (e.g., lack of patient medical
 122 history). In addition, some questions are not suitable due to they may lack a unique correct answer
 123 or are too simple to require reasoning with comprehensive information. To address this, we first
 124 aggregate all ICD-9/10 codes and retain only digestive-system codes with at least 500 occurrences.
 125 Next, We harvest hospital admissions by matching these codes via regex and extract the full EHR
 126 records for each admission. In addition, we keep cases whose primary discharge diagnosis matches
 127 the target pathology and remove any cases annotated with multiple different disease labels.

128 The code used for filtering and processing can be found in Appendix. After this filtering and
 129 processing, we ultimately construct a dataset of 4K real-world clinical diagnostic cases denoted as
 130 $\mathcal{D} = \{(x, \hat{y})\}_{i=1}^N$, where \hat{y} is the ground-truth disease from \mathcal{D}_{dis} .

131 3.2 FoT Generation and SFT

132 3.2.1 FoT Overview

133 The core of FoT is an agentic workflow that exploits LLMs to simulate tailored, high-efficiency
 134 medical reasoning pipelines. We formalize FoT as a directed graph comprising three categories
 135 of workflow nodes and seven distinct operations. The complete node set is denoted by $\mathcal{F} =$
 136 $\{N_1, N_2, \dots, N_s\}$, where each node N_i belongs to one of the operations in the set \mathcal{N} :

- 137 • Model M : The model node (such as LLM) generates a response using a given prompt,
 138 connecting input data to the outputs.
- 139 • Tools T : Including RAG node R , code node C and web serach node W , each responsible
 140 for a specific function.
- 141 • Logic L : Logic node controls the transitions of workflow, including branch node B (directs
 142 flow based on conditions), for loop node F (iterates through data individually).

143 FoT supports simulation of tree, graph, network and other structures by defining node relationships
 144 with edges.

145 **3.2.2 FoT generation Pipeline**

146 This section details how the FoT framework instantiates reasoning trajectories aligned with canonical
 147 clinical decision pathways. The existing methods for generating long chains of thought (LongCoT)
 148 - including knowledge distillation and multi-agent coordination - remain unstable and clinically
 149 unreliable. Inspired by the routine diagnostic practice of physicians, we instead cast the procedure as
 150 a flexible workflow that coordinates multiple LLMs, thus producing reliable LongCoT demonstrations
 151 while preserving the agent’s reasoning autonomy.

152 As shown in the Figure ??, we divide the data generation pipeline into four parts, namely retrieval,
 153 initial diagnosis, final diagnosis, recheck and conclusion. All LLM nodes output in JSON format.

154 **Retrieval** In this stage, we employ Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG) to retrieve the diagnostic
 155 criteria for 15 disease categories. Two physicians independently prepared diagnostic guidelines for
 156 each disease in four modalities: medical history, physical examination, laboratory tests, and imaging
 157 studies. The aggregated retrieval results, denoted as S , are then encoded as key-value pairs according
 158 to the diseases, thereby constructing a “working memory” for inference. In this way, we hope the
 159 model can lay a traceable data foundation for the long-term thinking chain.

160 **Preliminary Diagnosis** Since emergency physicians rapidly form a preliminary diagnosis based on
 161 physical examination (PE) and patient history (H), we similarly cue a LLM to perform an initial
 162 assessment. We prompt the LLM to summarize key diagnostic points from the retrieved guidelines:
 163 *“Diagnostic criteria... Based on the diagnostic criteria given above, list key diagnostic points...”*,
 164 yielding a set of Diagnostic Points P . Then LLM maps diagnostic criteria to observed clinical
 165 features. From this alignment, we extract the patient’s salient diagnostic information F_k for each part
 166 $k \in \{H, PE, Lab, Rad\}$. The LLM uses F_k to conduct a coarse-grained screening over the disease
 167 set \mathcal{D}_{dis} , producing a set of preliminary candidate diagnoses y_{pre} . Each candidate is accompanied by
 168 an explanatory rationale and a confidence score p_i . This enables rapid localization of the most likely
 169 etiology under limited information and guiding subsequent diagnostic testing.

170 **Final Diagnosis** In the final diagnosis phase, After the patient obtains further laboratory test (Lab)
 171 and imaging (Rad) results, we instruct the LLM to make a diagnosis based on comprehensive evidence.
 172 Specifically, we prompt LLM with: *“Diagnostic criteria:... please think carefully and give the final
 173 diagnosis results.”* We define the final diagnosis using the following formula:

$$(y_{final}, R_f, B_f, C_f) = \text{LLM}(S, H, PE, Lab, Rad, , y_{pre}) \quad (2)$$

174 where LLM integrates all evidence chains H , PE , Lab , Rad to get a refined diagnosis y_{final} ,
 175 simultaneously gives the diagnosis basis C_f , rationale R_f and global confidence C_f .

176 **Recheck and Conclusion** Before writing the final conclusion, physicians drill down into any
 177 uncertain details, triggering a back-verification loop. Specifically, if the final diagnosis confidence C_f
 178 (evaluated by the code execution node) falls below the threshold of 0.95, the loop node enables the
 179 LLM to select and recheck one of the four information sources (e.g., radiology) with the diagnostic
 180 criteria. The process iterates until C_f is verified as correct or is given up to $N = 3$ attempts. If all
 181 attempts fail or the eventual diagnosis remains incorrect, the case is discarded and moved to the test
 182 set. Once a successful flow is found, it is reformatted into a coherent language reasoning process.

183 **3.3 Enhance Reasoning with RL**

184 Following the development of foundational diagnostic reasoning abilities, we apply reinforcement
 185 learning (RL) to advance complex inference capabilities. After supervised fine-tuning (SFT), the
 186 large language model successfully analyzes four patient information components using diagnostic
 187 evidence, though the resulting reasoning paths may be suboptimal. We adopt the Group Relative
 188 Policy Optimization (GRPO[?]) algorithm for strategy optimization, employing a reward function to
 189 enhance the accuracy and generalization of diagnostic reasoning.

190 **GRPO objective** The Group Relative Policy Optimization (GRPO) objective can be written as:

$$J(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{q \sim P(Q), \{o_i\}} \left[\frac{1}{G} \sum_{i=1}^G \min(r_i A_i, \text{clip}(r_i, 1 - \epsilon, 1 + \epsilon) A_i) - \beta D_{KL}(\pi_\theta \| \pi_{ref}) \right]. \quad (3)$$

Algorithm 1 Applying Large Language Models to Advanced Medical Reasoning

Definition: Complex diagnostic task $\mathcal{D} = (x, \hat{y})$, LLM module, RAG module R , branch node B , loop node F , code execution node C , medical input $I = \{H, PE, Lab, Rad\}$, candidate diseases \mathcal{D}_{dis} , diagnostic criteria S , max retries N , policy π_θ

```

1:  $D_{SFT} \leftarrow \emptyset$ 
2: for all  $(x, \hat{y}) \in \mathcal{D}$  do
3:    $S \leftarrow F(\mathcal{D}_{dis}, R)$ 
4:    $P \leftarrow \text{LLM}(S)$                                       $\triangleright$  Get Diagnostic Points
5:   for all  $k \in [H, PE, Lab, Rad]$  do
6:      $F_k \leftarrow \text{LLM}(k, P)$                                  $\triangleright$  Extract Findings
7:   end for
8:    $y_{pre} \leftarrow \text{LLM}(S, H, PE, F_H, F_{PE})$             $\triangleright$  Preliminary Diagnosis
9:    $y_{final} \leftarrow \text{LLM}(S, Lab, Rad, F_{Lab}, F_{Rad}, y_{pre})$   $\triangleright$  Final Diagnosis
10:  while  $i < N$  do
11:    if  $C(y_{final}[\text{confidence}] \geq 0.95)$  then
12:       $y \leftarrow y_{final}[\text{diagnosis}]$                           $\triangleright$  Exit with high-confidence diagnosis
13:      if  $y = \hat{y}$  then
14:         $D_{SFT} \leftarrow (x, y_{pre}, y_{final}, S, H, PE, Lab, Rad, F_H, F_{PE}, F_{Lab}, F_{Rad})$ 
15:      end if
16:      break
17:    else
18:       $r_i \leftarrow \text{LLM}(S, y_{final})$                             $\triangleright$  Select Recheck information
19:       $y_{final} \leftarrow \text{LLM}(S, y_{final}, r_i)$                    $\triangleright$  Rediagnose
20:    end if
21:  end while
22: end for

```

191 Where $r_i = \frac{\pi_\theta(o_i|q)}{\pi_{\theta_{old}}(o_i|q)}$, and its corresponding advantage estimate A_i . The clipping mechanism limits
192 extreme updates by capping r_i within $[1 - \epsilon, 1 + \epsilon]$. A KL-divergence term with weight β penalizes
193 large deviations from the reference policy π_{ref} .

194 **Rewards Definition** Let c be a generated completion and \hat{y} its ground truth answer. We follow [?]
195 and define two binary reward functions. First, we prompt model to output the think process in
196 "`<think>...</think>`" tags and its final answer in "`<answer>...</answer>`" tags. We verify that both
197 tags appear and are used correctly. If so, the model earns a reward of 1.0. This encourages clear,
198 well-structured outputs. Let $\hat{a}(c)$ denote the answer inside the "`<answer>...</answer>`". We define
199 the accuracy reward as follows:

$$R_{acc}(c, \hat{y}) = \mathbb{I}[\hat{a}(c) = y^*] = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \hat{a}(c) = \hat{y} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

200 **4 Experiments**

201 **Datasets** According to [?], we extracted 4000 diagnostic cases covering 15 abdominal disease
202 categories from MIMIC-IV [?]. Using our FoT framework, we selected 2331 cases with correct
203 reasoning trajectories for supervised fine-tuning (SFT) from QwQ-32B and reserved 3678 cases for
204 reinforcement learning (RL). We strictly separate the wrong cases with reasoning errors (i.e., highly
205 challenging examples including 13 diseases) from the training set and designate ten percent of the
206 total as the test sets. Furthermore, consistent with prior work [?], we incorporated the original
207 closed-question dataset (providing only disease labels) to enhance generalization.

208 **Implementation Details** We use the data constructed by FoT pipeline to train our model Med-FoT-
209 LLaMA-8B and Med-FoT-Qwen-7B based on *LLaMA-3.1-8B-Instruct* and *Qwen-2.5-7B-Instruct*
210 respectively. All experiments are run on a single node with 8xA100(80GB) GPUs. In SFT stage, we
211 down-weight the loss on all tokens preceding the `<think>` tag by a factor of 0.02, thereby mitigating
212 the optimization challenges inherent in learning long chain-of-thought sequences. In addition, we
213 use LoRA to train 4 epochs with a learning rate of 1.0e-4 and per-GPU batch size 1(2-step gradient

Table 1: **Main Results on Medical diagnosis.** LLMs with are fine-tuned for the medical domain, and means LLMs are trained for long chain-of-thought reasoning. Meanwhile, **bold** highlights the best performance.

Model	Appendicitis	Cholecystitis	Diverticulitis	Pancreatitis	Hepatitis	Pyelonephritis	Cholangitis	Peritonitis	Gastritis	Esophagitis	Duodenitis	Cystitis	Enteritis	Mean
Closed-Source Model														
gpt-o4-mini	97.6	85.0	64.5	72.1	54.5	80.0	32.5	79.3	44.0	27.3	14.3	50.0	68.8	67.1
Claude-3.5-sonnet-20241022	92.7	83.8	58.1	60.5	88.6	70.0	55.0	48.3	40.0	9.1	14.3	75.0	43.8	66.2
Grok-3-Beta	95.1	91.3	61.3	62.8	72.7	93.3	62.5	75.9	48.0	9.1	14.3	62.5	43.8	71.6
Deepseek-R1	90.2	82.5	58.1	69.8	79.5	76.7	70.0	79.3	48.0	9.1	14.3	25.0	62.5	70.3
~8B Open-Source Model														
BioMistral-7B	46.3	13.8	16.1	9.3	15.9	3.3	7.5	3.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	12.5	0.0	12.7
OpenBioLLM-8B	34.1	11.3	29.0	2.3	6.8	0.0	2.5	6.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.3	9.8
UltraMedical-8B	78.0	45.0	41.9	53.5	45.5	30.0	15.0	27.6	24.0	9.1	0.0	0.0	6.3	38.0
HuatuoGPT-o1-8B	90.2	71.3	54.8	62.8	56.8	53.3	52.5	51.7	28.0	0.0	14.3	12.5	25.0	55.9
MedReason-8B	82.9	76.3	58.1	34.9	50.0	43.3	62.5	31.0	32.0	18.2	14.3	25.0	12.5	52.2
Mistral-7B-Instruct	82.9	80.0	41.9	51.2	50.0	36.7	17.5	20.7	12.0	18.2	0.0	25.0	31.3	46.8
Yi-1.5-9B	92.7	50.0	48.4	41.9	36.4	40.0	17.5	37.9	24.0	0.0	14.3	25.0	31.3	41.9
InternLM2.5-7B	82.9	80.0	41.9	51.2	50.0	36.7	17.5	20.7	12.0	18.2	0.0	25.0	31.3	46.8
LLaMA-3.1-8B-Instruct	85.4	73.8	61.3	53.5	40.9	40.0	12.5	27.6	48.0	0.0	0.0	37.5	12.5	48.0
Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct	97.6	73.8	41.9	48.8	59.1	30.0	22.5	48.3	28.0	0.0	28.6	12.5	12.5	50.0
DeepSeek-R1-Distill-LLaMA-8B	85.4	66.3	74.2	27.9	50.0	43.3	42.5	34.5	36.0	0.0	0.0	37.5	12.5	48.8
Qwen3-8B	90.2	73.8	71.0	74.4	63.6	66.7	37.5	51.7	64.0	0.0	14.3	37.5	25.0	62.0
>30B Open-Source Model														
Citrus1.0-llama-70B	97.6	88.8	54.8	65.1	56.8	73.3	40.0	51.7	40.0	9.1	14.3	37.5	25.0	62.3
HuatuoGPT-o1-70B	95.1	82.5	54.8	60.5	54.5	46.7	52.5	62.1	44.0	27.3	14.3	50.0	37.5	61.5
LLaMA-3.1-70B-Instruct	82.9	73.8	58.1	55.8	47.7	56.7	27.5	31.0	40.0	9.1	14.3	50.0	25.0	52.5
Qwen3-32B	92.7	82.5	67.7	55.8	65.9	76.7	50.0	62.1	48.0	0.0	14.3	62.5	43.8	65.0
Qwen2.5-72B-Instruct	95.1	76.3	61.3	46.5	72.7	70.0	35.0	34.5	52.0	18.2	14.3	37.5	6.3	58.1
QwQ-32B	92.7	78.8	64.5	60.5	63.6	73.3	42.5	69.0	56.0	18.2	14.3	62.5	62.5	65.2
DeepSeek-R1-Distill-LLaMA-70B	92.7	70.0	64.5	55.8	61.4	53.3	35.0	44.8	48.0	9.1	14.3	37.5	25.0	56.4
Med-FoT-LLaMA-7B	97.6	88.8	61.3	76.7	65.9	93.3	57.5	65.5	28.0	0.0	0.0	25.0	43.8	68.4
Med-FoT-Qwen-7B	95.1	87.5	64.5	65.1	65.9	73.3	55.0	79.3	32.0	0.0	0.0	12.5	37.5	66.2

214 accumulation). In RL stage, We use GRPO to train 2 epoch with full parameter tuning. We follow the
215 configuration of [?]. We set the learning rate to 5e-7 for LLaMA and 1e-6 for Qwen. Following [?],
216 the KL divergence coefficient β is set to 0.04 by default. The GRPO policy generates eight candidate
217 rationales per sample with a maximum completion length of 8192 tokens.

218 **Baselines & Evaluation Metric** We compare our Med-FoT models with three types of baselines:
219 **(1) Closed-Source Models:** GPT-o4-Mini [?], Claude-3.5-Sonnet [?], Grok-3-Beta [?], DeepSeek-
220 R1 [?]; **(2) General Open-Source Models:** Mistral-Instruct [?], InternLM [?], Yi [?],
221 LLaMA-3.1-Instruct [?], Qwen-2.5-Instruct [?], Qwen3, Citrus-llama; **(3) Medical-Specific**
222 **Open-Source Models:** BioMistral [?], OpenBioLLM [?], UltraMedical [?], HuatuoGPT-o1 [?]
223], and MedReason [?]. We evaluate model performance by diagnostic accuracy on each of the 15
224 abdominal disease categories and by the macro-average across all categories (Mean).

225 4.1 Experimental Results

226 **Main Results** As shown in Table ???. We evaluated Med-FoT on a challenging 13-category
227 abdominal disease diagnostic test set and compared it against state-of-the-art closed-source and
228 open-source models.

Table 2: Zero-shot performance of various LLM under Original and FoT frameworks, “w/” means “with”

Model	Average		Appendicitis		Cholecystitis		Diverticulitis		Pancreatitis	
	Original	w/ FoT	Original	w/ FoT	Original	w/ FoT	Original	w/ FoT	Original	w/ FoT
DeepSeek-R1-Distill-LLaMA-70B	66.1	93.9 (+27.8)	96.2	99.2 (+3.0)	50.2	93.2 (+43.0)	49.8	90.7 (+40.9)	68.2	86.8 (+18.6)
LLaMA-3.3-70B-Instruct	83.9	93.0 (+9.1)	97.9	98.9 (+1.0)	82.6	92.7 (+10.1)	72.0	89.9 (+17.9)	82.9	84.4 (+1.5)
LLaMA-3.3-70B-Instruct (4-bit)	77.7	92.5 (+14.8)	97.5	98.9 (+1.4)	76.4	92.1 (+15.7)	68.9	88.7 (+19.8)	78.1	83.3 (+5.2)
Gemma-2-27B	81.0	86.7 (+5.7)	98.1	95.9 (-2.2)	86.7	88.0 (+1.3)	69.6	78.6 (+9.0)	82.9	72.5 (-10.4)

229 We first compare Med-FoT with medical-specialized open-source models. We can observe that
230 Citrus1.0-llama-70B (62.3%) and UltraMedical-8B (38.0%) lag by 4.6 and 28.9 percentage points,
231 respectively. Even medical reasoning models such as MedReason-8B (52.2%) and HuatuoGPT-o1-8B
232 (55.9%) are outperformed by 14.7 and 11.0 points. These discrepancies indicate that domain-specific
233 pretraining or naive CoT fine-tuning alone is insufficient for complex multi-disease diagnostics. In
234 addition, in comparison with general open-source reasoning models, Med-FoT exceeds DeepSeek-
235 R1-Distill-LLaMA-70B (56.4%), QwQ-32B (65.0%), and Qwen3-32B (65.0%) by 10.5, 1.9, and
236 1.9 percentage points, respectively. This performance underscores the parameter efficiency and
237 robustness of our approach, validating the effectiveness of structured Flow-of-Thought alignment and
238 RL fine-tuning for small-scale models tackling complex medical reasoning tasks. Additionally, we
239 compare Med-FoT-LLaMA-7B with closed-source baselines including gpt-o4-mini (67.1%), Claude-
240 3.5-sonnet-20241022 (66.2%), and Grok-3-Beta (71.6%), achieves a mean accuracy of 66.9%, trailing
241 only gpt-o4-mini by 0.2%. It demonstrates that our model can approximate the reasoning capacity of
242 much larger. For example, on Appendicitis, Med-FoT-LLaMA-7B attains 100.0% accuracy, matching
243 the top closed-source benchmark.

244 **Training-free adoption in LLMs** Following our Main Results, we evaluate two distinct training-
245 free inference protocols on the abdominal disease test sets: (1) the standard zero-shot prompt-based
246 approach, where each model directly generates a diagnosis from the input prompt; and (2) our agentic
247 FoT pipeline, which orchestrates the model through a sequence of intermediate reasoning steps before
248 arriving at a final decision.

249 We restrict this comparison to the four diseases tracked by the MIMIC-CDM leaderboard[?] to
250 maintain consistency with prior evaluations. As shown in Table ??, the prompt-based strategy
251 (Original) yields an average accuracy of 66.1% for DeepSeek-R1-Distill-LLaMA-70B, 83.9% for
252 LLaMA-3.3-70B-Instruct, 77.7% for its 4-bit , and 81.0% for Gemma-2-27B. When applying our
253 FoT framework (w/ FoT), each model’s accuracy improves substantially—for example, DeepSeek-R1
254 jumps from 66.1% to 93.9%, and LLaMA-3.3-Instruct from 83.9% to 93.0%.

255 These results demonstrate that the FoT pipeline effectively compensates for the limitations of direct
256 prompt-based inference by structuring the model’s reasoning into discrete, self-verifiable steps.
257 Unlike naive prompt engineering, our agentic workflow supplies intermediate diagnostics and checks,
258 leading to more accurate and robust predictions. Consequently, the FoT framework offers a general,
259 model-agnostic mechanism to elevate zero-shot performance on complex, multi-disease diagnostic
260 tasks without additional per-disease fine-tuning.

261 4.2 Ablation Study and Expert evaluation

262 **Effect of FoT & RL** We perform ablation experiments on *LLaMA-3.1-8B-Instruct* and *Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct* as baselines. In Table ??, we first study the effect of our CoT data. The baseline LLaMA
263 and Qwen models achieve mean accuracies of only 48.0% and 50.0%, respectively. Fine-tuning
264 with CoT demonstrations increases accuracy by 17.2 and 12.3 percentage points respectively and
265 demonstrates that explicit flow-of-thought supervision significantly improves diagnostic performance.
266 In addition, we compare the impact of RL without FoT. Applying RL alone yields a comparable
267 improvement but reduces the average number of generated tokens. When combining FoT data with
268 RL, accuracy rises further by 1.7 and 4.9 points on top of RL alone. This observation suggests that while RL can
269 independently shape effective reasoning, longer reasoning chains offer richer deliberations that allow
270 the model to discover higher-reward solutions.

Table 3: The results of ablation experiments on Med-FoT. **Bold** highlights the best performance, "w" and "w/o" denote "with" and "without".

Model	Appendicitis	Cholecystitis	Diverticulitis	Pancreatitis	Hepatitis	Pyelonephritis	Cholangitis	Peritonitis	Gastritis	Esophagitis	Duodenitis	Cystitis	Enteritis	Mean	Avg Tokens
LLaMA Series															
LLaMA-3.1-8B-Instruct	85.4	73.8	61.3	53.5	40.9	40.0	12.5	27.6	48.0	0.0	0.0	37.5	12.5	48.0	824
SFT w/CoT	100.0	86.3	61.3	67.4	77.3	90.0	32.5	48.3	44.0	0.0	0.0	37.5	37.5	65.2 ^(+17.2)	3111
RL	97.6	85.0	74.2	93.0	50.0	86.7	52.5	62.1	28.0	9.1	33.3	0.0	31.3	66.7 ^(+18.7)	131
SFT w/CoT + RL	97.6	88.8	61.3	76.7	65.9	93.3	57.5	65.5	28.0	0.0	0.0	25.0	43.8	68.4 ^(+20.4)	962
Qwen Series															
Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct	97.6	73.8	41.9	48.8	59.1	30.0	22.5	48.3	28.0	0.0	33.3	12.5	12.5	50.0	386
SFT w/CoT	95.1	83.8	64.5	62.8	75.0	60.0	52.5	55.2	20.0	0.0	33.3	12.5	37.5	62.3 ^(+12.3)	2339
RL	95.1	82.5	51.6	74.4	68.2	63.3	45.0	55.2	16.0	0.0	33.3	12.5	18.8	60.3 ^(+10.3)	288
SFT w/CoT + RL	97.6	85.0	61.3	74.4	70.5	70.0	37.5	51.7	44.0	18.2	66.7	25.0	37.5	65.2 ^(+15.2)	804

273 **Effect of RAG** We evaluate the impact of Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG) within our
 274 Flow-of-Thought framework and observe a pronounced, model-size-dependent improvement. Models
 275 with fewer than 8 billion parameters benefit most: for instance, LLaMA-3.2-3B improves from
 276 40 % to 48 %, and Qwen-2.5-7B from 55 % to 62 %. This demonstrates that RAG effectively
 277 supplements the limited internal knowledge of smaller models. By contrast, large models, such as
 278 DeepSeek-R1-Distill-Llama-70B and Llama-3.3-70B-Instruct, exhibit only marginal gains, as their
 279 scale already provides substantial medical reasoning capability. These findings confirm that RAG
 280 serves as a lightweight, generalizable augmentation strategy that narrows the performance gap on
 281 complex diagnostic tasks for compact LLMs.

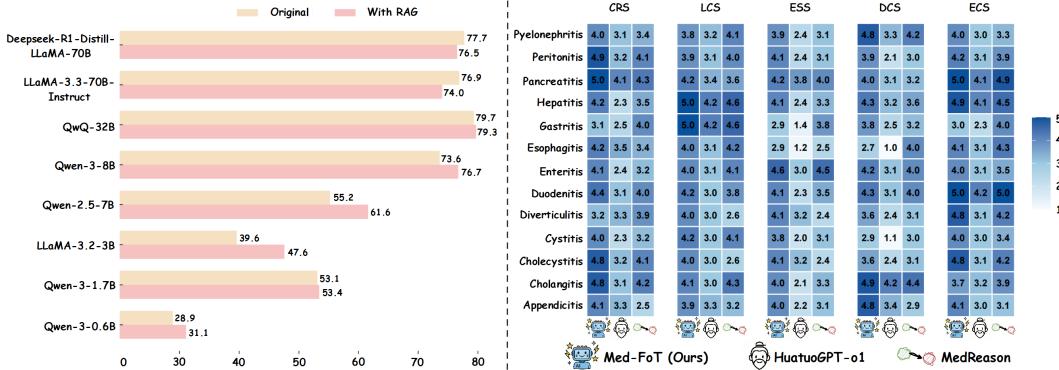


Figure 3: **Left:** The performance of different models with and without RAG. **Right:** Expert assessment on CoT data quality, comparing Med-FoT with MedReason and HuatuoGPT-o1.

282 **Expert Assessment** To evaluate Med-FoT’s reasoning accuracy and soundness, we invite a gastroenterologist with 20 years of diagnostic experience to conduct a blind review of 65 cases (five cases
 283 for each of 13 disease categories). The expert rates Med-FoT, HuatuoGPT-o1, and MedReason on
 284 five dimensions: Clinical Relevance Score (CRS), Logical Coherence Score (LCS), Evidence Support
 285 Score (ESS), Differential Coverage Score (DCS), and Explanation Clarity Score (ECS), using integer
 286 values from 1 (poor) to 5 (excellent). As shown in Figure ??, Med-FoT achieves average scores of
 287 4.2, 4.2, 4.0, 4.0, and 4.3, outperforming HuatuoGPT-o1 (2.9, 3.1, 2.2, 2.6, 3.2) and MedReason (3.4,
 288 3.5, 3.1, 3.2, 4.2). These results underscore Med-FoT’s superior trustworthiness and clinical utility.
 289

290 5 Conclusion

291 This paper proposes Flow-of-Thought (FoT), a structured agentic framework that automatically
 292 generates high-quality medical chain-of-thought data. We then apply a two-stage training pro-

293 cess—supervised fine-tuning (SFT) followed by GRPO-based reinforcement learning—to produce
294 Med-FoT. Med-FoT tackles real-world clinical diagnostic challenges by simulating authentic diag-
295 nóstic pathways. Experiments show that Med-FoT performs well on real-world clinical tests, rivaling
296 much larger LLMs, and experts confirm the high quality of its reasoning. We hope our work will
297 inspire further exploration of real-world medical problems and drive the advancement of medical AI.

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