# AutoPRM: Automating Procedural Supervision for Multi-Step Reasoning via Controllable Question Decomposition

Zhaorun Chen<sup>\*†1</sup>, Zhuokai Zhao<sup>†1</sup>, Zhihong Zhu<sup>†2</sup>, Ruiqi Zhang<sup>3</sup> Xiang Li<sup>4</sup>, Bhiksha Raj<sup>4</sup>, Huaxiu Yao<sup>5</sup>

<sup>1</sup>University of Chicago, <sup>2</sup>Peking University,<sup>3</sup>University of California, Berkeley <sup>4</sup>Carnegie Mellon University, <sup>5</sup>UNC-Chapel Hill

### Abstract

Recent advancements in large language models (LLMs) have shown promise in multi-step reasoning tasks, yet their reliance on extensive manual labeling to provide procedural feedback remains a significant impediment. To address this challenge, in this paper, we propose a novel self-supervised framework Auto-**PRM** that efficiently enhances the fine-tuning of LLMs for intricate reasoning challenges. Specifically, AutoPRM first decomposes complex problems into more manageable subquestions with a controllable granularity switch, then sequentially apply reinforcement learning to iteratively improve the subquestion solver. Additionally, we propose context-guided decoding to avoid reward tampering and guide the subquestion solver towards the solution of the holistic problem. Extensive experiments show that AutoPRM significantly improves performance on mathematical and commonsense reasoning tasks over SOTA. More encouragingly, AutoPRM can be easily integrated with other orthogonal reasoning pipelines.

## **1** Introduction

The landscape of natural language processing has been profoundly reshaped by the evolution of large language models (LLMs), which have demonstrated remarkable capabilities in a variety of complex tasks (Brown et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2021; Yuan et al., 2023). Among these, multi-step reasoning has emerged as a particularly challenging area and has drawn significant research attention (Bhattacharya, 2017; Hoffmann et al., 2022; Bubeck et al., 2023). To enhance complex reasoning capabilities for LLMs, recent prompting-based approaches, including chain-of-thought (CoT) (Kojima et al.; Wei et al., 2022) and self-evaluation

<sup>†</sup>Lead authors. Correspondence to: Zhaorun Chen: zhaorun@uchicago.edu, Huaxiu Yao: huaxiu@cs.unc.edu



Figure 1: The decoding pipeline of our proposed Auto-PRM, which consists of a unified question decomposition (QD) and question answering (QA) model. First, QD breaks down the problem into a series of subquestions according to a user-specified granularity. Then, the RL-optimized QA model solves them sequentially via context-guided decoding, which consistently guides QA toward the solution of the primary problem.

decoding (Wang et al., 2022; Yao et al., 2023; Xie et al., 2023), have proven to be successful. However, while being effective on large-sized models (*e.g.*, GPT-4 (OpenAI, 2023), PaLM-2 (Anil et al., 2023)), they are less effective for smaller-sized nonfinetuned models (*e.g.*, GPT-3 (Brown et al., 2020), LLaMA-2-7B (Touvron et al., 2023)) which are poor reasoners by nature (Stolfo et al., 2022).

On the other hand, fine-tuning methods are also known to be effective for enhancing complex reasoning capabilities, especially for smaller-sized models (Uesato et al., 2022; Luo et al., 2023; Shridhar et al., 2023). Therein, procedural supervisionbased fine-tuning (Wu et al., 2023; Lightman et al., 2023) has proved to be particularly effective (Uesato et al., 2022), which emulates human problemsolving process and provides step-by-step feedback, as opposed to outcome-based supervision which simply optimizes for the final-answers (Shridhar et al., 2023). Despite its advancements, the reliance on step-wise human annotations for these process-supervised reward models (PRM) presents a significant bottleneck. More specifically, such

June 16-21, 2024 ©2024 Association for Computational Linguistics

<sup>\*</sup>Work was done during Zhaorun Chen's remote internship at UNC-Chapel Hill.

annotation is not only resource-intensive in terms of both time and domain expertise (Lightman et al., 2023), but also introduces human bias due to subjective judgements, which could potentially undermine the fine-tuning performance (Casper et al., 2023; Lightman et al., 2023).

These challenges highlight a critical need for a more efficient and scalable approach to fine-tune smaller-sized LLMs for complex reasoning tasks. To address these challenges, we propose a novel self-supervised procedural reward model termed **AutoPRM** to boost the efficiency and accuracy in fine-tuning and inference for long-chained reasoning problems. Concretely, AutoPRM first breaks down the problem into a sequence of sub-questions with a trained question-decomposition (QD) model, then solves each subquestion with a Reinforcement Learning (RL)-optimized question-answering (QA) model (Silver et al., 2017).

Inspired by human cognitive process where questioning and answering reciprocally enhances each other (Xu et al., 2023), we train one unified model to handle both QD and QA.<sup>1</sup> Notably, instead of training a PRM that requires extensive manual annotations, AutoPRM adopts a more natural approach by directly training an intermediate outcome verifier to optimize the subquestion solver.

The main contributions of this paper are: (1) AutoPRM, a novel fine-tuning framework that enhances LLMs reasoning abilities. This framework reduces the need for extensive human annotations by employing automatic question decomposition and an RL-optimized subquestion solver. (2) Through extensive experiments conducted on two arithmetic reasoning datasets, GSM8K (Cobbe et al., 2021), MATH (Hendrycks et al., 2021a), and one commonsense reasoning dataset StrategyQA (Geva et al., 2021), we demonstrate Auto-PRM's effectiveness on improving LLMs generic multi-step reasoning capabilities.

## 2 AutoPRM

In this section, we detail our proposed framework **AutoPRM**. Our key insight is that automating stepwise question decomposition provides a natural perspective to reduce problem dimensions, through which model inference and optimization can be more precise and efficient. With decomposition, the fine-grained feedback can be obtained with a reliable step-wise verifier trained to predict intermediate results, which lead to a more powerful and bias-free reasoning model.

Preliminaries and Notations. Our problem formulation involves a dataset  $\mathcal{D} = \{(p_i, a_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ , where each problem  $p_i$  is associated with a final answer  $a_i$ that can be reached through reasoning. AutoPRM breaks the problem into multiple steps and models the reasoning process as a Markov Decision Process (MDP)  $\langle S, A, Q, \mathcal{R}, P, \gamma \rangle$  (Ramamurthy et al., 2022), where each MDP episode starts with a sampled problem input  $p_i$  and ends either when a final answer is generated or the model abstains. AutoPRM manages each individual reasoning step as a subquestion-solution pair  $\{(q_t, s_t), q_t \in \mathcal{Q}, s_t \in \mathcal{Q}, s_t \in \mathcal{Q}\}$  $\mathcal{S}$ , where  $\mathcal{S}$  is the state (subsolution) space and  $\mathcal{Q}$ is the subquestion space.<sup>2</sup> The transition function appends a subsolution  $s_t$  to the end of the cumulative state  $(p_i, s_0, s_1, \ldots, s_{t-1})$  at each step. A reward function (verifier)  $\mathcal{R} : \mathcal{Q} \times \mathcal{S} \to \mathbb{R}$  can be either outcome-based (Cobbe et al., 2021), which provides a sparse feedback at the end of generation, or process-based (Uesato et al., 2022), which evaluates each step individually and assigns a finegrained score for each intermediate step  $(q_t, s_t)$ .

#### 2.1 Collecting Subquestion-Subsolution Pairs

In this subsection, we illustrate the procedures to prepare the subquestion-subsolution dataset  $\mathcal{D}_{sub} = \{\{q_{i,t}, s_{i,t}\}_{t=1}^{n_i}\}_{i=1}^N$ .  $\mathcal{D}_{sub}$  will be used to train the QD and QA models, which are the core modules of the proposed AutoPRM.

Instead of manually providing subquestions as seen in prior works (Xie et al., 2023), AutoPRM adopts an efficient and unified framework to collect subquestions by training an auxiliary subquestion collection (SQC) Model. The core idea behind SQC is based on the assumption that each sentence in the groundtruth solution represents a valid step that progressively leads to the final solution (Lightman et al., 2023). In practice, we treat each sentence in the groundtruth solution as a subsolution, and take these subsolutions as inputs to SQC to generate the corresponding subquestions.

To train this SQC model, we initially select a small subset of the original dataset D and prompt GPT-3.5 (prompts are detailed in A.2) to find ap-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Note that while we refer to QD and QA separately, they refer to the dual functions of a unified model in the remaining of the paper.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Note that while state  $s_t \in S$  should strictly refer to the cumulative subsolutions  $\sum_{0}^{t} s_i$  (and action  $a_i \in A$  denotes the *i*<sup>th</sup> subsolution), we represent  $s_t$  as the *t*<sup>th</sup> subsolution for the simplification of notation.

propriate subquestions that would reasonably induce these subsolutions. Next, we fine-tune an open-source Language Model (LM) (e.g. LLaMA-2 (Touvron et al., 2023)) on this training set to obtain the SQC model. We employ the SQC model to break each question-solution pair in the original dataset  $\mathcal{D}$  into corresponding subquestions and subsolutions, yielding a new dataset  $\mathcal{D}_{sub}$ .

#### 2.2 Reciprocal Question Answering

The core idea of our proposed AutoPRM is to finetune LLMs via automatically generated intermediate solutions. This process consists of two parts, which are question decomposition (QD) and question answering (QA). More specifically, QD divides each question into a sequence of subquestions, while QA answers these subquestions and generates corresponding subsolutions.

Both QD and QA naturally connect and influence each other. Therefore, to leverage the interconnections between them and better refine the overall effectiveness of AutoPRM, we propose *Reciprocal Question Answering (RQA)*. In fact, RQA is inspired and theoretically grounded by the cognitive learning theory stating that a mutual enhancement does exist between learning to ask relevant questions and solving problems, or in other words, improved problem-solving skills lead to more precise questions, and vice versa (Xu et al., 2023).

Different from SQC which relies on the ground truth solutions to obtain the subquestions, our QD is designed to automatically break down any arbitrary question without access to the ground truths. Precisely, the QD model takes each problem  $p_i$  as input and generates a set of decomposed subquestions  $(q_t, s_t)_{t=1}^{n_i}$ . However, exclusively training this QD model may result in overfitting, potentially diverting the model from its primary purpose of facilitating multi-step reasoning. To tackle this challenge, we encompass the original QD objective with the additional QA objective, which aims to infer subsolutions based on the corresponding subquestions and their surrounding context.

In practice, we adopt two separate prompting mechanisms specified for QD and QA (prompt detailed in A.3). For QD, during the training phase, we concatenate each subquestion with a special split token to form an ordered sequence of subquestions. And in inference, we use the same prompt but parse the output directly into a set of subquestions. In terms of QA, we propose *Context-Guided*  Decoding (CGD) that is similar to the Fill-In-the-Middle (FIM) Decoding (Li et al., 2023; Liang et al., 2023), where each subquestion solver is guided by appending the subsequent subquestion to the beginning of the subsolutions that is being inferred. The detailed formulation of CGD is showed in Eqn (1), with  $\circ$  denoting the concatenation.

$$\langle \mathsf{PRE} \rangle \circ q_t \circ \langle \mathsf{SUF} \rangle \circ q_{t+1} \circ \langle \mathsf{MID} \rangle \circ [s_0, \dots, s_{t-1}]$$
 (1)

Through CGD, we can train the QA model to derive holistically rational subsolutions that respond well to  $q_t$  while making good progress towards the final solution, instead of focusing only on the partial context associated with  $q_t$  and deviating from the original task.

Based on these two prompting mechanisms, we construct an auto-regressive language modeling loss  $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{sub})$ :

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}_{sub}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left( \underbrace{-\sum_{t=1}^{n_i} \log P(q_t | q_{< t}, p_i)}_{\text{QD Loss}} - \underbrace{\sum_{t=0}^{n_i} \log P(s_t | s_{< t}, q_t, q_{t+1})}_{\text{OA Loss}} \right)$$
(2)

where  $P(q_t|q_{<t}, p_i)$  is the probability of generating subquestion  $q_t$  conditioned on all the previous subquestions  $q_{<t}$  and input problem  $p_i$ , aligning with the QD objective. And  $P(s_t|s_{<t}, q_t, q_{t+1})$  is the probability of the model generating the subsolution  $s_t$  conditioned on all the preceding subsolutions  $s_{<t}$ , current subquestion  $q_t$  and subsequent subquestion  $q_{t+1}$ , aligning with the QA objective.

Empirically, we observe that some of the decomposed subquestion-subsolution pairs obtained in §2.1 are redundant and do not significantly contribute to the original final solutions. To this end, we propose a user-defined parameter  $\epsilon \in [0, 1]$ to manage the granularity of the decompositions. Switching between decomposition granularity is tied to the specific choice of words within the problem context, which is equivalent to a linear transform in the embedding space (Han et al., 2023).

When  $\epsilon = 1$ , the original question-solution pairs are fully-decomposed into the subquestionsubsolution pairs, while decomposition with  $\epsilon = 0$ being practically the same as the one-shot CoT results. For an intermediate  $\epsilon$ , we select a subset of  $\tilde{n}_i$  subquestions from the fully-decomposed pairs



Figure 2: A diagram illustrating the three steps of AutoPRM: (1) supervised fine-tuning (SFT) on a merged dataset of question decomposition dataset  $\mathcal{D}_{QD}$  and the FIM-transformed question answering dataset  $\mathcal{D}_{QA}$ ; (2) step-wise result verifier trained on the LLM generated solutions from  $\mathcal{D}_{QA}$ ; (3) RL fine-tuning against the step-wise verifier. The base model first decomposes the question into several intermediate subquestions and solve them sequentially via CGD. Then the candidates with high rewards are selected to fine-tune the policy via expert iteration.

that significantly contribute to the final answer via a heuristic, and assign  $\epsilon = \tilde{n}_i/n_i$ . Finally, this  $\epsilon$  is integrated into the QD prompt and optimized using Eqn. (2). We refer more details to A.5.

#### 2.3 Question Answering Refining

### 2.3.1 Automated Procedural Supervision

While the reciprocal QA model trained in Section 2.2 is sufficient to handle complex reasoning problems, they suffer from partial context and a loss of holistic view to obatin the final answer, due to decomposition. Thus we aim to further enhance the QA model with automated procedural supervision via RL. Specifically, this is achieved by first letting the QD model decompose problem  $p_i$  into intermediate subquestions, and then acquiring feedback  $r_t$  for each subsolution  $s_t$  via a step-wise binary verifier. As shown in Figure 2, we implement a step-wise verifier (reward model, RM) as a language model to predict a binary label as either a 'correct' or 'incorrect' token after each step. To train this verifier, we first obtain a sample set of subquestion-subsolution pairs, as shown in the middle step of Figure 2. Then the intermediate result of each subsolution is compared with the groundtruth

and assigned values based on:

$$I(QA(s_{i,t}), a_{i,t}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } QA(s_{i,t}) = a_{i,t}, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$
(3)

where  $a_{i,t}$  is the intermediate groundtruth answer for the  $t^{\text{th}}$  subquestion of problem  $p_i$ . Notice that the policy that maximizes the score of intermediate steps also maximizes the RM-estimated probability of eventually reaching the correct final answer. Finally, the output label from Eqn. (3) is appended after each subsolution and trained via the QA loss as defined in Eqn. (2).

#### 2.3.2 RL Fine-tuning

After obtaining the step-wise verifier, the last step of our pipeline, as showed in Figure 2, is to apply RL via expert iteration (Silver et al., 2017) to further fine-tune the SFT models. Different from policy gradient methods, expert iteration alternates between policy improvement and policy distillation. In policy improvement, QA model produces k candidates for each problem  $p_i$  in the dataset  $\mathcal{D}_{sub}$  via a decoding method. Then in policy distillation, we select the candidates with the highest scores based on the verifier and perform supervised-learning to improve the policy.

When the training converges, we adopt Reward-Reranking (RR) decoding which selects the can-

#### Algorithm 1 AutoPRM Decoding Procedure

<b>Require:</b>	Fine-tuned	model $\mathcal{M}$	, problem $p$ ,	gran-
ularity	y parameter	$\epsilon$ , abstaini	ng threshold	au.

- 1: The model  $\mathcal{M}$  decomposes the problem p into multiple sub-questions  $\{q_1, q_2, ..., q_N\}$ .
- 2: for t = 1, ..., N do
- 3: Take each one of the k generated solution  $s_{< t}$  as prefix, append  $q_t$  and  $q_{t+1}$  to the beginning of  $s_t$  via context-guided decoding
- 4: Sample m candidates of  $s_t$
- 5: if the score of all mk candidates are less than  $\tau$  then
- 6: Abstain.
- 7: else
- 8: Choose top k candidates of  $s_t$  from all mk samples according to the score in Eqn.(4).
- 9: **end if**
- 10: **end for**

didate subsolutions via RM-weighted probability (Uesato et al., 2022; Xie et al., 2023) as the new score. Mathematically, we have:

$$s_t = \arg\max_{s_t} P_{\mathcal{M}}(s_t | s_{< t}, q_t, q_{t+1}) \cdot \mathcal{R}(s_t) \quad (4)$$

where  $\mathcal{R}(s_t)$  is the probability for predicting "correct" by reward model  $\mathcal{R}$ . The insight here is that a correct reasoning step should be confirmed by both the inference model and the verifier.

In the decoding process, RR is coupled with beam search (BS), a step-wise tree-based algorithm, to select the most probable sequence of words or tokens. Specifically in AutoPRM, as QA generates m candidate steps for each decomposed subquestion q, the top k candidates are selected according to their decoding scores as showed in Eqn. (4). This process is repeated until the model outputs the final answer or abstains from answering. The abstaining condition triggers when the scores of all mk candidates drop below the threshold  $\tau$  at any step (Geifman and El-Yaniv, 2017). The complete AutoPRM decoding procedure for multi-step reasoning is illustrated in in Algorithm 1. Through these strategies, we can eventually build a reliable and efficient QA model.

## **3** Experiments

In this section, we assess AutoPRM, our proposed framework, by exploring three key questions: (1) to what extent does AutoPRM enhance the reasoning capabilities of LLMs? (2) how do individual sub-modules contribute to AutoPRM's overall performance improvement? and (3) what are the limitations and opportunities in enhancing multi-step reasoning for smaller-scaled models?

#### 3.1 Experimental Setups

**Datasets.** We assess AutoPRM on two arithmetic reasoning datasets, namely GSM8K (Cobbe et al., 2021), MATH (Hendrycks et al., 2021b), and one additional commonsense reasoning dataset, StrategyQA (Geva et al., 2021) in our experiments.

GSM8K (Cobbe et al., 2021) features 8.5k gradeschool-level math problems, which is ideal for assessing AutoPRM's basic arithmetic reasoning skills. And MATH (Hendrycks et al., 2021b), on the other hand, contains 12.5k more complex problems that covers a wider range of mathematical topics, further challenging LLMs' ability to conduct complex mathematical reasoning.

On the other hand, StrategyQA (Geva et al., 2021) serves to assess AutoPRM's capability for commonsense reasoning, which involves understanding implicit assumptions and making inferences based on contexual information and internal model knowledge to answer questions that are not strictly mathematical but rely heavily on logical thinking. We follow existing work (Shridhar et al., 2023) for data split and pre-processing.

**Baselines.** We compare AutoPRM with a wide range of SOTA models. WizardMath (Luo et al., 2023) and MetaMath (Yu et al., 2023) are two SOTA models that enhance mathematical reasoning with external data augmentation. Distilling-LM (Shridhar et al., 2023) is a decompositionbased reasoning framework that adopts two separate models for QD and QA, and then distills the reasoning capabilities from GPT-3.5 (by SFT).

As for reward-based (verifier-based) models, we consider ORM-RL (Cobbe et al., 2021) and PRM-RL (Lightman et al., 2023) as our baselines, and follow the exact training procedures outlined in their papers. Except for LLaMA-2-70B model that adopts a few-shot decoding without fine-tuning, all other approaches have been fine-tuned based on LLaMA-2-7B (Touvron et al., 2023)<sup>3</sup>.

**Experimental Settings.** To fairly compare with PRM baselines, we follow Uesato et al. (2022) and annotate a comparative amount of procedural feedback data equivalent to the subquestion-subsolution

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Since Distilling-LM did not publish its results on LLaMA-2 nor its training data, we report the result using our dataset.

Model	GSM8K	MATH
LLaMA-2 (70B)	56.8	13.5
LLaMA-2 (7B)	41.6	4.7
WizardMath*	54.9	10.7
MetaMath*	66.4	19.4
Distilling-LM	51.8	10.2
ORM-RL	52.9	6.9
PRM-RL	56.1	10.5
AutoPRM	59.3 (+3.2)	13.2 (+2.7)
AutoPRM*	70.8 (+4.4)	23.6 (+4.2)

Table 1: Comparison on GSM8K and MATH dataset. All models are fine-tuned based on LLaMA-2 7B by default. \* indicates SFT on external data.

pairs used to train our step-wise verifier in Auto-PRM. Please refer to Appendix A.4 for detailed annotation procedures.

During decoding, WizardMath (Luo et al., 2023) and MetaMath (Yu et al., 2023) adopt one-shot greedy decoding, while other models adopt a beam search of size eight. We consistently set granularity  $\epsilon = 0.8$  across all tests. In addition, the iterative process of RL through expert iteration was conducted over five epochs, with the best model being selected based on its performance in final-answer error on the validation set. All model training was conducted using Huggingface (Wolf et al., 2020). The detailed hyperparameters are reported in A.1.

#### 3.2 Results on Arithmetic Reasoning

For arithmetic reasoning tasks, we have trained two sets of models: one is based on the groundtruth training dataset provided in GSM8K (Cobbe et al., 2021) and MATH (Hendrycks et al., 2021b), and the other one is augmented using MetaMath (Yu et al., 2023). The results are reported in Table 1.

Results indicate that AutoPRM achieves the best performance compared with other models. Specifically, AutoPRM reaches 59.3% on GSM8K and 13.2% on MATH with beam search, which outperforms PRM-RL by 3.2% and 2.7% respectively. Additionally, when applying our proposed pipeline to the MetaMath dataset for data augmentation and fine-tuning the model <sup>4</sup>, AutoPRM's effectiveness is further improved, reaching 70.8% (+4.4%) on GSM8K and 23.6% (+4.2%) on MATH. These results highlight AutoPRM's substantial performance improvements and its versatility when combining with other methods.

<sup>4</sup>https://huggingface.co/meta-math/ MetaMath-7B-V1.0

Approach	Final-Answer	Trace Result
SFT	56.8	61.0
SFT+ORM-RL	58.2	60.5
SFT+PRM-RL	65.1	66.0
SFT-AutoPRM-RL	<b>66.3</b> (+1.2)	67.4 (+1.4)

Table 2: The accuracy of final-answer and stepwise (trace) result on StrategyQA dataset. The result indicates that while AutoPRM still improve upon ORM and PRM-based methods, its improvement is not as significant as in arithmetic reasoning tasks, probably due to model scale.

#### 3.3 Results on Commonsense Reasoning

For the commonsense reasoning task tested with StrategyQA (Geva et al., 2021), we consider the fine-tuned model on LLaMA-2-7B as our baseline. For ORM-RL, we directly train an outcome verifier based on the final binary prediction. And for PRM-RL, we follow Uesato et al. (2022) and annotate step-by-step to train a procedural supervised reward. The results are reported in Table 2.

The final-answer accuracy is verified with the groundtruth binary label. And to supervise stepwise (trace) result, we transform all open-ended subquestions to be close-ended, which can be answered with either "yes" or "no". Results confirm that procedural-supervised methods outperform outcome-based methods, and AutoPRM further achieves an accuracy gain of 1.2% on final-answer and 1.4% on intermediate trace result, provided with the precise and unbiased feedback. While the result indicates the effectiveness of our proposed method, the performance gain is less significant comparing to the large gains we observe in the arithmetic reasoning tasks.

We suspect that such result could be due to the model knowledge gap (Petroni et al., 2019), as StrategyQA highly depends on factual truthfulness, which cannot be further enhanced by simply improving the reasoning framework. Therefore, we believe increasing the model scale or combining with the retrieval from external database (Lewis et al., 2020) is the key factor to further improve accuracy on such knowledge-intensive reasoning tasks (Anil et al., 2023).

#### 3.4 Analysis

In this section, we investigate the contributions of each sub-module to the improvement of AutoPRM, including decoding methods and controllable question decomposition. Additionally, we analyze the

Approach	GSM8K	MATH
SFT	41.6	4.7
ORM-RL+Greedy	45.4	5.1
ORM-RL+SC	51.9	6.9
PRM-RL+Greedy	51.3	7.4
PRM-RL+BS	56.1	10.5
AutoPRM+Greedy	52.8	10.4
AutoPRM+BS	58.2 (+2.1)	11.9 (+1.4)
AutoPRM+RR	58.9 (+2.8)	12.7 (+2.2)
AutoPRM+CGD	59.3 (+3.2)	13.2 (+2.7)

Table 3: Comparison of testing accuracy on arithmetic datasets w.r.t. reward models and decoding strategies. All approaches is fine-tuned on LLaMA-2-7B model and use naive greedy decoding. RR refers to Reward Ranking. (+Number) indicates the improvement performance compared to the best baseline PRM-RL+BS.

trace error and examine the correlation between AutoPRM's performance and problem length.

**Decoding Methods.** We compare AutoPRM's performance against various reward models such as ORM and PRM, and with different decoding strategies. The results are reported in Table 3.

Since ORM-RL is an outcome-supervised method, we apply self-consistency and use the majority answer as the final-answer. All other methods apply a beam search process to yield the final-answer. The beam search baseline selects candidates by maximizing the RM score at each step, while the Reward-Reranking (RR) decoding, as outlined in Xie et al. (2023), maximizes the RM-reweighted score as showed in Eqn. (4).

Notice that RR achieves a better performance than beam search since they can select a more rational candidate by incorporating signals from both the LM and verifier. Similar to the RR decoding, our CGD decoding, which guides the individual subsolutions towards solving the original problem, can further mitigate the intrinsic issues brought by decomposition (*e.g.*, diminished context, task oblivion) and effectively enchance final performance.

**Decomposition Granularity.** We evaluate Auto-PRM performance across varying decomposition granularity on GSM8K. As shown in Figure 3, while we can see that more precise and fine-grained decomposition generally leads to better accuracy and more certain factual inference (Chuang et al., 2023), interestingly, an intermediate level of granularity ( $\epsilon = 0.8$ ) achieves the highest accuracy in final answers. Additionally, the increased similarity to the groundtruth solutions indicate that our model can effectively break down questions in a



Figure 3: Assessment on GSM8K dataset w.r.t decomposition granularity  $\epsilon$ . We evaluate the final-answer accuracy, perplexity and BERT similarity (to groundtruth solutions). Accuracy demonstrates that an intermediate granularity level ( $\epsilon$ =0.8) yields best performance. Perplexity denotes that fine-grained guidance enhances the model's certainty in problem-solving. The increased similarity to the groundtruth solutions imply that Auto-PRM effectively decompose questions that align with the human labeller.

Approach	GSM8K	MATH
SFT+ORM-RL	53.4	6.5
SFT+PRM-RL	70.5	13.1
AutoPRM-SFT	71.2	14.5
AutoPRM-SFT+RL	72.0	14.7

Table 4: Comparison of different fine-tuning methods in solving the decomposed dataset of subquestion-solution pairs. The results indicate that models with process-supervision can also solve the individual subquestions effectively. Conversely, the poor performance of ORM methods in solving the subquestions confirms that direct fine-tuning against ORM can lead to correct final-answer with the incorrect reasoning trace.

manner that aligns with human cognitive process to solve multi-step reasoning problems.

**Step-wise (Trace) Error Analysis.** To evaluate the internal reasoning reliability, we assess the performance on each decomposed subquestionsubsolution pair and present the results in Table 4. Results show that while process-supervised models adeptly solves subquestions, AutoPRM gains more from precise, unbiased, and fine-grained feedback. Additionally, the fact that ORM-based methods only show slight improvements in original question solving (Table 3), suggests that they struggle to link correct final answers with their reasoning traces, which is also discussed in (Lightman et al., 2023). **Varying Problem Length.** We further assess its reasoning performance w.r.t. the number of subquestions per question, which is a natural reflection



Figure 4: Comparing AutoPRM and CoT+SC decoding on problems of varing complexity and with different number of subquestions. AutoPRM outperforms CoT+SC by a large margin, especially for problems with longer reasoning chains.

of the question complexity and an approximation of the amount of reasoning needed to derive the final answers. The results are showed in Figure 4. In general, we notice that the performance gain (absolute accuracy gain over self-consistency) increases as the reasoning chain becomes longer, which verifies the effectiveness of our method in guiding the reasoning trace to attain the correct final-answer, especially for longer-chained problems.

### 4 Related Work

LLMs struggle with complex reasoning tasks (Lu et al., 2022). To mitigate this limitation, promptbased methods including Chain-of-Thought (CoT) (Wei et al., 2022) and its variants such as automatic CoT (Zhang et al., 2022), Complex CoT (Fu et al., 2022), Tree-of-Thought (Yao et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2024), Graph-of-Thought (Besta et al., 2023) and Exchange-of-Thought (Yin et al., 2023) are developed. Although effective for larger LLMs, the performance of these methods is limited in smaller models (OpenAI, 2023; Anil et al., 2023; Lewkowycz et al., 2022), which leads to the exploration of problem decomposition into subquestions and sequential handling (Wei et al., 2022; Gao et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2022, 2024b), coupled with step-wise feedback using self-verification (Miao et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2024a), external LLMs (Miao et al., 2023; Xie et al., 2023), heuristics (Yao et al., 2023), and human-annotated rewards (Uesato et al., 2022; Lightman et al., 2023). However, these methods often either depend on external large models, or require intensive human effort or specific designs (Lightman et al., 2023), which

severely limit their applicability.

Besides these prompt-based methods, finetuning has been another main line of research showing promise in enhancing LLMs reasoning capabilities for both large and smaller models (Uesato et al., 2022; Luo et al., 2023; Shridhar et al., 2023; Tian et al., 2023), especially when pairing with data augmentation techniques such as multi-view question bootstrapping (Luo et al., 2023) and instruction evaluation (Yu et al., 2023). Among numerous fine-tuning approaches, existing studies suggest procedural supervision yields better accuracy than outcome-only methods (Wu et al., 2023; Lightman et al., 2023; Shridhar et al., 2023). However, procedural supervision approaches often require extensive, unbiased manual labeling, which greatly limits their generalizability (Uesato et al., 2022).

Inspired by the step-wise approaches as seen in the prompt-based methods, as well as procedural supervision used in fine-tuning approaches, in this paper, we introduce a novel self-supervised finetuning approach that significantly enhances LLMs reasoning capabilities while not requiring either external large models, or additional human efforts.

#### 5 Conclusions and Future Work

In this paper, we introduce AutoPRM, a novel framework that automates procedural supervision for multi-step reasoning in LLMs. The core of AutoPRM consists of two reciprocal components: a QD model that systematically breaks down complex problems into manageable subquestions, and a QA model that accurately answers these subquestions. AutoPRM employs a robust training methodology, incorporating supervised fine-tuning, feedback-based step-wise verifier, and a final RL fine-tuning for the best performance. Through extensive experiments, we demonstrate that Auto-PRM significantly outperforms SOTA methods in terms of efficiency and accuracy on three arithmetic and commonsense reasoning tasks. Results show that our automated QD process, coupled with a RL-optimized QA model, leads to a substantial improvement in handling complex reasoning tasks.

Future developments of AutoPRM could focus on expanding its application to a wider range of complex problem domains to test its versatility and identify domain-specific challenges. Additionally, extending its capabilities for long-term reasoning and exploring interdisciplinary applications could also be another promising direction.

## Limitations

While AutoPRM significantly improves reasoning accuracy on arithmetic tasks, we observe marginal improvement on StrategyQA (Geva et al., 2021), regardless of fine-tuning or decoding methods, as showed in Table 2. However, instead of an indicator for poor reasoning capability, we suspect such result could be due to the model knowledge gap, as discussed in (Petroni et al., 2019), since StrategyQA highly depends on factual truthfulness. In this case, continuing to enhance reasoning reliability might provide very limited performance gain. And we believe increasing the scale of model parameters and training data or combining with retrieval knowledge from external database (Lewis et al., 2020) is the key factor to further improve accuracy on such knowledge-intensive reasoning tasks (Anil et al., 2023).

### Acknowledgements

We thank Google Cloud Research Credits program for supporting our computing needs. We also thank all anonymous reviewers for their constructive comments.

#### References

- Rohan Anil, Andrew M Dai, Orhan Firat, Melvin Johnson, Dmitry Lepikhin, Alexandre Passos, Siamak Shakeri, Emanuel Taropa, Paige Bailey, Zhifeng Chen, et al. 2023. Palm 2 technical report. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:2305.10403.
- Maciej Besta, Nils Blach, Ales Kubicek, Robert Gerstenberger, Lukas Gianinazzi, Joanna Gajda, Tomasz Lehmann, Michal Podstawski, Hubert Niewiadomski, Piotr Nyczyk, et al. 2023. Graph of thoughts: Solving elaborate problems with large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2308.09687*.
- Arindam Bhattacharya. 2017. A survey of question answering for math and science problem. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:1705.04530.
- Tom Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, Melanie Subbiah, Jared D Kaplan, Prafulla Dhariwal, Arvind Neelakantan, Pranav Shyam, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, et al. 2020. Language models are few-shot learners. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 33:1877–1901.
- Sébastien Bubeck, Varun Chandrasekaran, Ronen Eldan, Johannes Gehrke, Eric Horvitz, Ece Kamar, Peter Lee, Yin Tat Lee, Yuanzhi Li, Scott Lundberg, et al. 2023. Sparks of artificial general intelligence: Early experiments with gpt-4. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.12712*.

- Stephen Casper, Xander Davies, Claudia Shi, Thomas Krendl Gilbert, Jérémy Scheurer, Javier Rando, Rachel Freedman, Tomasz Korbak, David Lindner, Pedro Freire, et al. 2023. Open problems and fundamental limitations of reinforcement learning from human feedback. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.15217*.
- Mark Chen, Jerry Tworek, Heewoo Jun, Qiming Yuan, Henrique Ponde de Oliveira Pinto, Jared Kaplan, Harri Edwards, Yuri Burda, Nicholas Joseph, Greg Brockman, et al. 2021. Evaluating large language models trained on code. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2107.03374*.
- Wenhu Chen, Xueguang Ma, Xinyi Wang, and William W Cohen. 2022. Program of thoughts prompting: Disentangling computation from reasoning for numerical reasoning tasks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2211.12588*.
- Zhaorun Chen, Zhuokai Zhao, Hongyin Luo, Huaxiu Yao, Bo Li, and Jiawei Zhou. 2024a. HALC: Object hallucination reduction via adaptive focal-contrast decoding. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2403.00425*.
- Zhaorun Chen, Zhuokai Zhao, Wenjie Qu, Zichen Wen, Zhiguang Han, Zhihong Zhu, Jiaheng Zhang, and Huaxiu Yao. 2024b. PANDORA: Detailed LLM jailbreaking via collaborated phishing agents with decomposed reasoning. In *ICLR 2024 Workshop on Secure and Trustworthy Large Language Models*.
- Yung-Sung Chuang, Yujia Xie, Hongyin Luo, Yoon Kim, James Glass, and Pengcheng He. 2023. Dola: Decoding by contrasting layers improves factuality in large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2309.03883*.
- Karl Cobbe, Vineet Kosaraju, Mohammad Bavarian, Mark Chen, Heewoo Jun, Lukasz Kaiser, Matthias Plappert, Jerry Tworek, Jacob Hilton, Reiichiro Nakano, et al. 2021. Training verifiers to solve math word problems. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2110.14168*.
- Yao Fu, Hao Peng, Ashish Sabharwal, Peter Clark, and Tushar Khot. 2022. Complexity-based prompting for multi-step reasoning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.00720*.
- Luyu Gao, Aman Madaan, Shuyan Zhou, Uri Alon, Pengfei Liu, Yiming Yang, Jamie Callan, and Graham Neubig. 2023. Pal: Program-aided language models. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 10764–10799. PMLR.
- Yonatan Geifman and Ran El-Yaniv. 2017. Selective classification for deep neural networks. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 30.
- Mor Geva, Daniel Khashabi, Elad Segal, Tushar Khot, Dan Roth, and Jonathan Berant. 2021. Did aristotle use a laptop? a question answering benchmark with implicit reasoning strategies. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 9:346– 361.

- Chi Han, Jialiang Xu, Manling Li, Yi Fung, Chenkai Sun, Nan Jiang, Tarek Abdelzaher, and Heng Ji. 2023. Lm-switch: Lightweight language model conditioning in word embedding space. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2305.12798*.
- Dan Hendrycks, Collin Burns, Saurav Kadavath, Akul Arora, Steven Basart, Eric Tang, Dawn Song, and Jacob Steinhardt. 2021a. Measuring mathematical problem solving with the math dataset. *NeurIPS*.
- Dan Hendrycks, Collin Burns, Saurav Kadavath, Akul Arora, Steven Basart, Eric Tang, Dawn Song, and Jacob Steinhardt. 2021b. Measuring mathematical problem solving with the math dataset. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2103.03874*.
- Jordan Hoffmann, Sebastian Borgeaud, Arthur Mensch, Elena Buchatskaya, Trevor Cai, Eliza Rutherford, Diego de Las Casas, Lisa Anne Hendricks, Johannes Welbl, Aidan Clark, et al. 2022. Training compute-optimal large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2203.15556*.
- Takeshi Kojima, Shixiang Shane Gu, Machel Reid, Yutaka Matsuo, and Yusuke Iwasawa. Large language models are zero-shot reasoners. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 35:22199–22213.
- Patrick Lewis, Ethan Perez, Aleksandra Piktus, Fabio Petroni, Vladimir Karpukhin, Naman Goyal, Heinrich Küttler, Mike Lewis, Wen-tau Yih, Tim Rocktäschel, et al. 2020. Retrieval-augmented generation for knowledge-intensive nlp tasks. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 33:9459–9474.
- Aitor Lewkowycz, Anders Andreassen, David Dohan, Ethan Dyer, Henryk Michalewski, Vinay Ramasesh, Ambrose Slone, Cem Anil, Imanol Schlag, Theo Gutman-Solo, et al. 2022. Solving quantitative reasoning problems with language models. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 35:3843– 3857.
- Raymond Li, Loubna Ben Allal, Yangtian Zi, Niklas Muennighoff, Denis Kocetkov, Chenghao Mou, Marc Marone, Christopher Akiki, Jia Li, Jenny Chim, et al. 2023. Starcoder: may the source be with you! *arXiv preprint arXiv:2305.06161*.
- Jacky Liang, Wenlong Huang, Fei Xia, Peng Xu, Karol Hausman, Brian Ichter, Pete Florence, and Andy Zeng. 2023. Code as policies: Language model programs for embodied control. In 2023 IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation (ICRA), pages 9493–9500. IEEE.
- Hunter Lightman, Vineet Kosaraju, Yura Burda, Harri Edwards, Bowen Baker, Teddy Lee, Jan Leike, John Schulman, Ilya Sutskever, and Karl Cobbe. 2023. Let's verify step by step.
- Pan Lu, Liang Qiu, Wenhao Yu, Sean Welleck, and Kai-Wei Chang. 2022. A survey of deep learning for mathematical reasoning. arXiv preprint arXiv:2212.10535.

- Haipeng Luo, Qingfeng Sun, Can Xu, Pu Zhao, Jianguang Lou, Chongyang Tao, Xiubo Geng, Qingwei Lin, Shifeng Chen, and Dongmei Zhang. 2023. Wizardmath: Empowering mathematical reasoning for large language models via reinforced evol-instruct. arXiv preprint arXiv:2308.09583.
- Ning Miao, Yee Whye Teh, and Tom Rainforth. 2023. Selfcheck: Using llms to zero-shot check their own step-by-step reasoning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2308.00436*.

OpenAI. 2023. Gpt-4 technical report.

- Fabio Petroni, Tim Rocktäschel, Patrick Lewis, Anton Bakhtin, Yuxiang Wu, Alexander H Miller, and Sebastian Riedel. 2019. Language models as knowledge bases? *arXiv preprint arXiv:1909.01066*.
- Rajkumar Ramamurthy, Prithviraj Ammanabrolu, Kianté Brantley, Jack Hessel, Rafet Sifa, Christian Bauckhage, Hannaneh Hajishirzi, and Yejin Choi. 2022. Is reinforcement learning (not) for natural language processing?: Benchmarks, baselines, and building blocks for natural language policy optimization. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.01241*.
- Kumar Shridhar, Alessandro Stolfo, and Mrinmaya Sachan. 2023. Distilling reasoning capabilities into smaller language models. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: ACL 2023*, pages 7059–7073.
- David Silver, Julian Schrittwieser, Karen Simonyan, Ioannis Antonoglou, Aja Huang, Arthur Guez, Thomas Hubert, Lucas Baker, Matthew Lai, Adrian Bolton, et al. 2017. Mastering the game of go without human knowledge. *nature*, 550(7676):354–359.
- Alessandro Stolfo, Zhijing Jin, Kumar Shridhar, Bernhard Schölkopf, and Mrinmaya Sachan. 2022. A causal framework to quantify the robustness of mathematical reasoning with language models. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:2210.12023.
- Katherine Tian, Eric Mitchell, Huaxiu Yao, Christopher D Manning, and Chelsea Finn. 2023. Finetuning language models for factuality. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2311.08401*.
- Hugo Touvron, Louis Martin, Kevin Stone, Peter Albert, Amjad Almahairi, Yasmine Babaei, Nikolay Bashlykov, Soumya Batra, Prajjwal Bhargava, Shruti Bhosale, et al. 2023. Llama 2: Open foundation and fine-tuned chat models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.09288*.
- Jonathan Uesato, Nate Kushman, Ramana Kumar, Francis Song, Noah Siegel, Lisa Wang, Antonia Creswell, Geoffrey Irving, and Irina Higgins. 2022. Solving math word problems with process-and outcomebased feedback. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2211.14275*.
- Xuezhi Wang, Jason Wei, Dale Schuurmans, Quoc Le, Ed Chi, Sharan Narang, Aakanksha Chowdhery, and Denny Zhou. 2022. Self-consistency improves chain

of thought reasoning in language models. *arXiv* preprint arXiv:2203.11171.

- Jason Wei, Xuezhi Wang, Dale Schuurmans, Maarten Bosma, Fei Xia, Ed Chi, Quoc V Le, Denny Zhou, et al. 2022. Chain-of-thought prompting elicits reasoning in large language models. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 35:24824–24837.
- Thomas Wolf, Lysandre Debut, Victor Sanh, Julien Chaumond, Clement Delangue, Anthony Moi, Pierric Cistac, Tim Rault, Rémi Louf, Morgan Funtowicz, et al. 2020. Transformers: State-of-the-art natural language processing. In *Proceedings of the 2020 conference on empirical methods in natural language processing: system demonstrations*, pages 38–45.
- Zeqiu Wu, Yushi Hu, Weijia Shi, Nouha Dziri, Alane Suhr, Prithviraj Ammanabrolu, Noah A Smith, Mari Ostendorf, and Hannaneh Hajishirzi. 2023. Fine-grained human feedback gives better rewards for language model training. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2306.01693*.
- Yuxi Xie, Kenji Kawaguchi, Yiran Zhao, Xu Zhao, Min-Yen Kan, Junxian He, and Qizhe Xie. 2023. Decomposition enhances reasoning via self-evaluation guided decoding. arXiv preprint arXiv:2305.00633.
- Enwei Xu, Wei Wang, and Qingxia Wang. 2023. The effectiveness of collaborative problem solving in promoting students' critical thinking: A meta-analysis based on empirical literature. *Humanities and Social Sciences Communications*, 10(1):1–11.
- Shunyu Yao, Dian Yu, Jeffrey Zhao, Izhak Shafran, Thomas L Griffiths, Yuan Cao, and Karthik Narasimhan. 2023. Tree of thoughts: Deliberate problem solving with large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2305.10601*.
- Zhangyue Yin, Qiushi Sun, Cheng Chang, Qipeng Guo, Junqi Dai, Xuanjing Huang, and Xipeng Qiu. 2023. Exchange-of-thought: Enhancing large language model capabilities through cross-model communication. arXiv preprint arXiv:2312.01823.
- Longhui Yu, Weisen Jiang, Han Shi, Jincheng Yu, Zhengying Liu, Yu Zhang, James T Kwok, Zhenguo Li, Adrian Weller, and Weiyang Liu. 2023. Metamath: Bootstrap your own mathematical questions for large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2309.12284*.
- Zheng Yuan, Hongyi Yuan, Chengpeng Li, Guanting Dong, Chuanqi Tan, and Chang Zhou. 2023. Scaling relationship on learning mathematical reasoning with large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2308.01825*.
- Zhen-Yu Zhang, Siwei Han, Huaxiu Yao, Gang Niu, and Masashi Sugiyama. 2024. Generating chain-ofthoughts with a direct pairwise-comparison approach to searching for the most promising intermediate thought. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.06918*.

Zhuosheng Zhang, Aston Zhang, Mu Li, and Alex Smola. 2022. Automatic chain of thought prompting in large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2210.03493*.

# A Appendix

## A.1 Detailed Training Procedures

The complete procedures and hyperparameters (Table 5) for fine-tuning AutoPRM are detailed in this section. All models including SFT and RL-fine-tuned models are fully fine-tuned based on LLaMA-2-7B (Touvron et al., 2023). Specifically, the RL via expert iteration process is iterated for five epochs, with the best model being selected based on its performance w.r.t. final-answer accuracy on the validation set. All model training was conducted using Huggingface Library (Wolf et al., 2020).

Parameters	Value
learning rate (SFT)	1e-4
learning rate (RL)	5e-5
learning rate scheduler	cosine
batch size	32
weight decay	0.05
warmup steps	100

Table 5: AutoPRM hyperparameter settings.

## A.2 Data Retrieval Prompts

## A.2.1 Subquestion Collection (SQC) Prompts

Here is is a subsolution to a grade school math question. You should first (1) rephrase information (e.g. numbers, conditions) from the context necessary to reconstruct the subsolution, (2) delete redundant information not used in the subsolution, (3) ask a subquestion based on this subsolution. Please make sure you include all the necessary information in the subsolution.

## Example 1:

**Context**: 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.

**Subsolution**: Janet sells 16 - 3 - 4 = (16 - 3 - 4 = 9) duck eggs a day. **Subquestion**: Janet's ducks lay 16 eggs per day. She eats three herself and bakes muffins with four. She sells the remainder to the market. How many duck eggs does Janet sell a day?

## Example 2:

**Context**: Every day, Wendi feeds each of her chickens three cups of mixed chicken feed, containing seeds, mealworms and vegetables to help keep them healthy. She gives the chickens their feed in three separate meals. In the morning, she gives her flock of chickens 15 cups of feed. In the afternoon, she gives her chickens another 25 cups of feed.

**Subsolution**: If each chicken eats 3 cups of feed per day, then for 20 chickens they would need 3\*20=(3\*20=60)(60) cups of feed per day.

**Subquestion**: Each day Wendi feeds each of her chickens three cups of mixed chicken feed. How many cups of feed do 20 chickens need per day?

Now let's find the subquestion for some subsolutions!

Context: Subsolution: Subquestion:

Table 6: The prompt input to GPT-3.5 for subq-question collection on GSM8K dataset

Here is a solution of multiple steps to a grade school math question. Please break the question down into several intermediate questions that ask the result of each intermediate step of the solution. You should provide the context of the original question first, then provide the intermediate questions and corresponding interemediate solutions. For example:

**Original Question**: Lana is brewing cups of tea for her friends. She has 27 cups, and she divides these into 3 rows. In each row, she creates equal amounts of chamomile and mint tea cups. She then uses the remaining cups to brew a total of 15 cups of cinnamon tea. How many cups of mint tea are in each row?

**Original Solution**: If there are 15 cups of cinnamon tea, then there are a total of 27 - 15 = (27-15=12) 12 cups of chamomile or mint tea.

As there are equal amounts of chamomile tea and mint tea, there is a total of  $12 \text{ cups} / 2 = (12/2) = 6 \times 6 \text{ cups}$  of mint tea.

Dividing these into rows shows that each row holds  $6/3 = \ll 6/3 = 2 \gg 2$  cups of mint tea. ##### 2

The answer is: 2

## **Break Down**:

**Context**: Lana is brewing cups of tea for her friends. She has 27 cups, and she divides these into 3 rows. In each row, she creates equal amounts of chamomile and mint tea cups. She then uses the remaining cups to brew a total of 15 cups of cinnamon tea.

Intermediate Question 1: How many cups of chamomile or mint tea are there? Intermediate Solution 1: If there are 15 cups of cinnamon tea, then there are a total of 27 - 15 = «27-15=12»12 cups of chamomile or mint tea. ##### 12 The answer is: 12

Intermediate Question 2: How many cups of mint tea are there?

**Intermediate Solution 2**: If there are 15 cups of cinnamon tea, then there are a total of  $27 - 15 = (27-15=12) \times 12$  cups of chamomile or mint tea.

As there are equal amounts of chamomile tea and mint tea, there is a total of  $12 \text{ cups} / 2 = (12/2) = 6 \times 6 \text{ cups}$  of mint tea.

#### 6

The answer is: 6

**Intermediate Question 3**: How many cups of mint tea are in each row?

**Intermediate Solution 3**: If there are 15 cups of cinnamon tea, then there are a total of  $27 - 15 = (27-15=12) \times 12$  cups of chamomile or mint tea.

As there are equal amounts of chamomile tea and mint tea, there is a total of  $12 \text{ cups} / 2 = (12/2) = 6 \times 6 \text{ cups}$  of mint tea.

Dividing these into rows shows that each row holds  $6/3 = (6/3) = 2 \times 2$  cups of mint tea.

#### 2

The answer is: 2

Please strictly follow the format I give you.

Table 7: The prompt input to GPT-3.5 for question decomposition on GSM8K dataset

Let's generate the subquestions(or sub-instructions) and subsolutions to obtain the final answer for this math problem. Use exactly one operation per step. Mathematical expression should be in latex format (e.g.  $\binom{5}{2}5^3$ ). Put your final answer in a box (e.g.  $\boxed{\frac{625}{640}}$ ).

s.g.  $\binom{2}{2}$  5°). Put your linal answer in a box (e.g.

Example 1:

**Original Question**: Find the value of n that satisfies 2(n + 1)! + 6n! = 3(n + 1)!, where  $n! = n \cdot (n - 1) \cdot (n - 2) \cdots 2 \cdot 1$ .

**Groundtruth answer**: 5

**Subquestion 1**: Move all terms to the right side.

Subsolution 1: Moving all terms to the right side:

$$0 = 3(n+1)! - 2(n+1)! - 6n!$$

$$0 = (n+1)! - 6n!$$

**Subquestion 2**: Take out a factor of *n*!. **Subsolution 2**:

$$0 = n!(n + 1 - 6)$$
  
 $0 = n!(n - 5)$ 

Subquestion 3: Divide out *n*!.

**Subsolution 3**: We know that  $n! \neq 0$ , so we can divide out n! and solve for n:

$$0 = n - 5$$
$$n = 5$$

Example 2:

**Original Question**: Steve has one quarter, two nickels and three pennies. Assuming no items are free, for how many different-priced items could Steve individually pay for with exact change?

Groundtruth answer: 23

Subquestion 1: How many possibilities does the quaters contribute?

**Subsolution 1**: Steve can use no quarters or one quarter, for 2 possibilities.

Subquestion 2: How many possibilities do the nickels provide?

**Subsolution 2**: Steve can use 0, 1, or 2 nickels, for 3 possibilities.

Subsolution 3: How many possibilities will the pennies provide? Subsolution 3: Steve can use 0, 1, 2, or 3 pennies, for  $\boxed{4}$  possibilities. Subquestion 4: How many possibilies in total? Subsolution 4: That gives  $2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 = 24$  possible combinations. But we must remove the combination where Steve does not use any coins, leaving us with  $24 - 1 = \boxed{23}$ .

Original Question: Groundtruth answer:

Table 8: The prompt input to GPT-3.5 for question decomposition on MATH dataset

Here are several facts that will help answer a question. Please organize an inference with the given facts to answer the question, with an explicit answer of either True or False at the end. Then break the question down into several intermediate questions that ask the stage of each intermediate step of your inference. For example:

Original Question: Do the anchors on Rede Globo speak Chinese?

## Facts:

1. Rede Globo is a Brazilian television network.

2. The official language of Brazil is Portuguese.

**Inference Solution**: No. Rede Globo is a Brazilian television network, and Brazil's official language is Portuguese. Thus anchors on Rede Globo do not speak Chinese. The answer is: False.

## Break Down:

**Intermediate Question 1**: What country broadcasts Rede Globo? **Intermediate Solution 1**: Rede Globo is a Brazilian television network. The answer is: Brazil.

**Intermediate Question 2**: What is the official language of Brazil? **Intermediate Solution 2**: The official language of Brazil is Portuguese. The answer is: Portuguese.

**Intermediate Question 3**: Is Portuguese Chinese? **Intermediate Solution 3**: The Portuguese is not Chinese. The answer is: False.

Please strictly follow the format I give you. Generate the Inference Solution first, and then break down the question into several Intermediate Question and Intermediate Solution.

Table 9: The prompt input to GPT-3.5 for question decomposition on StrategyQA dataset

## A.3 AutoPRM Model Prompt

## A.3.1 Question Decomposition (QD) Model Prompt

Let's break down this question into a chain of subquestions.

**Context**: John is buying a new pair of shoes that costs \$95. He has been saving up his money each month for the past three months. He gets a \$5 allowance a month. He also mows lawns and shovels driveways. He charges \$15 to mow a lawn and \$7 to shovel. After buying the shoes, he has \$15 in change.

Question: If he mows 4 lawns, how many driveways did he shovel?

**Chain of subquestions**: How much money did John save up in total? -> How much money did John save from his allowance? -> How much money did John earn from mowing lawns? -> How much money did John earn from shoveling driveways? -> How many driveways did he shovel?

Table 10: The prompt input to AutoPRM for question decomposition (QD)

## A.3.2 Question Answering (QA) Model Prompt

Below is a math question. Write a solution that answers to the question. The solution may not use all the conditions provided in the question.

Question: Solution

Table 11: The prompt input to AutoPRM for question answering (QA)

## A.4 Process-supervised Data Annotations

In this section, we detail the data annotation procedure to train Process-supervised Reward Model (PRM) baselines (Lightman et al., 2023; Uesato et al., 2022) to compare with our proposed model. As outlined in Section 3.1, the PRM is trained using step-wise labels to assess the correctness of each step. We gather this data by having human annotators review the original question and standard solution from the arithmetical and commonsense reasoning dataset (GSM8K (Cobbe et al., 2021), MATH (Hendrycks et al., 2021b), and StrategyQA (Geva et al., 2021)), as well as the solution generated by the model. Specifically, annotators are asked to identify the first step in the model solution that contains a significant error, if any. A significant error, as defined in existing works (Uesato et al., 2022), is a step where the reasoning is either incorrect or makes it impossible to reach the correct solution anymore without revising that step. Based on these assessments, each step receives a binary label: steps preceding the first significant error are marked as 'correct', while subsequent steps are labeled 'incorrect'.

#### A.5 Data Preparation for Interpreting Decomposition Granularity

To prepare data to train AutoPRM to interprete with the decomposition granularity parameter, we follow (Han et al., 2023) and assign  $\epsilon = 1$  to all the fully-decomposed subquestion-subsolution pairs and  $\epsilon = 0$  to the one-shot CoT prompt of each problem  $p_i$ . Specifically, for an intermediate  $\epsilon$ , we select a subset of  $\tilde{n}_i$  subquestions from the fully-decomposed pairs that significantly contribute to the final answer via a heuristic, and assign  $\epsilon = \tilde{n}_i/n_i$ .

The heuristic determines if a subsolution in a reasoning process is important by checking if it introduces a new condition or calculation into the reference context. Specifically, we adopt a simple token-matching method via regex to sequentially check for new conditions. For example, for GSM8K we extract two types of tokens: entities and numbers. Sequentially, we check if each subsolution in the decomposed subquestion-solution pairs set introduces a new entity (implying new condition) or new number (implying calculation). If yes, we consider this subsolution as contributive to the final-answer. Finally, this  $\epsilon$  is integrated into the QD prompt and optimized using Eqn. (2).