ON THE GENERALIZATION LIMITATION OF ON-POLICY DISTILLATION FOR POST-RL CONSOLIDATION

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ABSTRACT

Multi-teacher on-policy distillation (MOPD) extends on-policy distillation (OPD) to consolidate capabilities from multiple teachers, but near-perfect in-distribution (IND) distillation can mask incomplete capability consolidation beyond the supervised distribution. A preliminary synthetic reasoning study shows incomplete transfer of teacher generalization. We then experiment on real-world extrapolative and compositional generalization across mathematical reasoning, coding, agent, and long-context capabilities using Qwen3 models. Across extrapolative settings, OPD and MOPD reach 96.04-102.73% of their teachers' mean IND scores, yet their mean out-of-distribution (OOD) scores remain 2.45-16.25% below the base. Across three compositional settings, MOPD improves mean IND performance by 0.48-22.46% over the base but remains 18.19-24.34% below the best teachers on composed tasks. We analyse teacher capability and data coverage as two potential bottlenecks: jointly easing them eliminates OOD forgetting in our experiments and shows potential for generalization beyond the teacher. Moreover, relative to their RL baselines, OPD and MOPD reduce OOD forgetting on average. Geometry analysis finds more compact OPD and MOPD updates on average than those of their RL baselines, along with greater shared update structure under MOPD. Based on the analysis, we propose geometry-based patching and base-preserving replay to improve OOD performance while retaining most IND performance. Our findings identify a blind spot in capability consolidation via MOPD and motivate distillation algorithms that explicitly support OOD retention and generalization.

1 INTRODUCTION

On-policy distillation (OPD) trains a student model on its own generated trajectories using supervision from a teacher (Agarwal et al., 2024; Lu & Thinking Machines Lab, 2025). Its multi-teacher extension, multi-teacher on-policy distillation (MOPD), offers a way to consolidate capabilities from separately trained teachers into one model (Ma et al., 2026). This approach is used as a consolidation stage in large-scale post-training pipelines to combine domain-specialized teachers (Core Team et al., 2026; DeepSeek-AI et al., 2026; NVIDIA et al., 2026; Kimi Team et al., 2026), demonstrating strong performance distillation.

The intended outcome of post-RL consolidation is to learn the teachers' improvements while retaining the base model's capabilities and supporting their use beyond the supervised tasks. We find that achieving near-perfect in-distribution (IND) distillation does not reliably yield either out-of-distribution (OOD) retention or OOD generalization beyond the base. **Near-perfect IND distillation can therefore mask incomplete capability consolidation.**

We start from a preliminary study on a synthetic reasoning task (§ 3, Power et al. (2022); Zhang et al. (2025)) to illustrate the generalization limitation of OPD. The self-RL teacher and OPD student start from a common pretrained base. When the teacher generalizes beyond the supervised range, OPD does not fully transfer that generalization despite strong IND performance. This motivates testing whether the same limitation persists when consolidating capabilities on real-world tasks, where useful behavior can extend far beyond narrow distillation data and require distinct capabilities together.

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Our main experiments use Qwen3-based models (Yang et al., 2025) to study two forms of generalization across mathematical reasoning, coding, agent, and long-context capabilities (§ 2). *Extrapolative generalization* tests performance beyond the supervised range within a capability (Anil et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2025), using mathematical reasoning benchmarks of differing difficulty. *Compositional generalization* tests whether separately supervised capabilities can be used together (Lake & Baroni, 2018; Yuan et al., 2026). We also distinguish two teacher setups: self-RL specialist teachers are independently trained and distilled from a common base, modeling specialization followed by consolidation; external generalist teachers are obtained separately, modeling distillation from stronger teachers into a smaller student (§ 2.1).

First, across both teacher setups, near-perfect IND distillation coexists with OOD forgetting (§ 4). Across individual training datasets and mixtures, OPD and MOPD reach 96.04-102.73% of their teachers' mean IND scores, yet their mean OOD scores remain 2.45-16.25% below the base. The gap also persists with a stronger external generalist teacher, even when stronger OOD performance is available for transfer.

Second, component improvements do not ensure compositional generalization (§ 5). Across the three settings, MOPD improves mean IND performance by 0.48-22.46% over the base but remains 18.19-24.34% below the best teachers on composed tasks. For code plus long context, MOPD improves all three component benchmarks, yet long-context coding remains at about the base's performance, below both teachers. A student can therefore acquire improvements on separately supervised capabilities via MOPD without obtaining the expected performance when those capabilities must be combined.

Seeing the limitation on generalization in (M)OPD, we then investigate conditions that affect these gaps. We view teacher capability and data coverage as two potential bottlenecks to OOD performance: jointly easing them eliminates OOD forgetting and shows potential for OOD generalization beyond the teacher (§ 6.1).

Despite the remaining gaps, OPD and MOPD reduce average OOD forgetting relative to the self-RL teachers and mixed RL, respectively. To examine the associated parameter changes, we draw on analyses of multi-task training and OPD geometry (Zhu et al., 2026; Shen et al., 2026). (M)OPD produces smaller and more spectrally concentrated updates on average than their corresponding RL baselines, Moreover, across both generalization settings, MOPD updates are better explained by the span of single-teacher OPD updates than mixed-RL updates are by the span of single-RL updates (§ 6.2). Appendix E provides a complementary local theoretical analysis. Motivated by the observed update structure, we investigate geometry-based patching after distillation. Patching partially closes the OOD gap on AIME25 while retaining most of the teacher's IND performance. We also investigate base-preserving replay during distillation (§ 7). Replay improves five of eight OOD scores with a small IND change and surpasses both the student base and RL teacher on AIME25.

Overall, near-perfect IND distillation can mask incomplete capability consolidation, motivating explicit support for OOD retention and generalization.

2 Experimental Setting

2.1 Teachers and Consolidation Methods

In the main experiments, we initialize students from Qwen3-8B (Yang et al., 2025), with base parameters θ_0.

Self-RL specialist teachers are trained independently from this base on separate distributions (Ma et al., 2026; Core Team et al., 2026). This follows a post-RL pipeline that specializes individual capabilities before consolidating them into one student, often when directly advancing a frontier model's Pareto frontier across capabilities is difficult. Specialist teachers primarily improve their target capabilities but may exhibit forgetting on others (GLM-5-Team et al., 2026).

External generalist teachers are obtained from sources outside the student's training pipeline. These teachers are often generalists that outperform the student not only on the target capability (aligned with the training distribution) but also on other capabilities. This mirrors strong-to-weak distillation scenarios, such as distilling from a larger model into a smaller one (Yang et al., 2025; Lu & Thinking Machines Lab, 2025).

Let π_θ be the trainable model. For $i = 0, \ldots, K-1$, let $\mathcal{D}_i$ denote a prompt distribution, $r_i(x, y)$ its task reward, and π_i^* its fixed teacher. For response $y = (y_1, \ldots, y_T)$, write $h_t = (x, y_{<t})$. Mixture weights satisfy $\alpha_i \geq 0$ and $\sum_{i=0}^{K-1} \alpha_i = 1$. We consider the following training pipelines:

Single-task RL. Each self-RL teacher is trained from θ_0 with group relative policy optimization (GRPO) (Shao et al., 2024) to maximize expected reward on one task distribution, $\mathcal{J}_{\mathrm{RL}}^{(i)}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{x\sim\mathcal{D}_i,\, y\sim\pi_\theta(\cdot|x)}[r_i(x, y)]$.

OPD. OPD minimizes student-to-teacher reverse KL at each token position along student-generated trajectories (Agarwal et al., 2024; Lu & Thinking Machines Lab, 2025). By default, we use a single task distribution and its corresponding teacher:

$$\mathcal{J}_{\mathrm{OPD}}(\theta; \mathcal{D}, \pi^*) = \mathbb{E}_{x\sim\mathcal{D},\, y\sim\pi_\theta(\cdot|x)} \left[\sum_{t=1}^{T} D_{\mathrm{KL}}(\pi_\theta(\cdot \mid h_t) \,\|\, \pi^*(\cdot \mid h_t)) \right]. \tag{1}$$

MOPD. MOPD minimizes a mixture of OPD objectives on different tasks and teachers:

$$\mathcal{J}_{\mathrm{MOPD}}(\theta) = \sum_{i=0}^{K-1} \alpha_i \, \mathcal{J}_{\mathrm{OPD}}(\theta; \mathcal{D}_i, \pi_i^*). \tag{2}$$

Each data source uses its corresponding self-RL teacher or the strongest evaluated external teacher for that domain; teacher assignments remain fixed across steps and epochs in each training run.

Mixed RL. In our setting, mixed RL serves as a comparison method for MOPD. It maximizes $\mathcal{J}_{\text{mixed-RL}}(\theta) = \sum_{i=0}^{K-1} \alpha_i \mathcal{J}_{\mathrm{RL}}^{(i)}(\theta)$ using the same single-task RL recipes, with shuffled examples from all selected sources. Teacher selection, implementation details, and parameter-update notation are collected in § B.1.

2.2 IND Performance and Two Forms of Generalization

We define the *in-distribution (IND)* evaluations relative to the distributions directly supervised during distillation. *Out-of-distribution (OOD)* evaluations probe distributions or combinations of capabilities outside that supervision. In multi-teacher experiments, the supervised distribution includes the data supplied by all teachers.

Extrapolative generalization. We evaluate performance beyond the range covered by the supervised distribution, such as more complex problems within the same domain. We separately measure *OOD retention*, meaning maintenance of the base model's OOD performance, and *OOD generalization*, meaning improvement beyond the base on OOD evaluations. Incomplete transfer of a teacher's positive OOD improvement and a student's loss relative to the base are distinct possible outcomes.

Compositional generalization. We train on data for separate component capabilities and evaluate on tasks requiring their combination. We compare the student with the base and both teachers. Improvement over the base establishes a benefit on the composed task; surpassing both teachers would provide stronger evidence that consolidation yields an additional benefit from combining their capabilities. We report component and composed-task evaluations separately.

2.3 Training Data and Evaluation Benchmarks

For mathematical reasoning, we train on GSM8K, MATH, and DAPO, and evaluate on GSM8K, MATH500, AMC23, and AIME24/25. For coding, we train on Nemotron competitive-coding data and evaluate on HumanEval, MBPP, and their EvalPlus extensions. For agent capabilities, we train on synthetic BFCL live/non-live data, xLAM60K, and ToolACE, and evaluate primarily on BFCL V4's non-live and live subsets. For long context, we train on DocQA-RL-1.6K (DocQA) and evaluate on LongBench-v2, primarily its Hard subset. We mainly probe extrapolative generalization through mathematical reasoning, using shifts from narrow training distributions such as GSM8K to harder benchmarks such as AIME24/25. This follows prior work evaluating mathematical reasoning beyond the training difficulty (Hu et al., 2026; Li et al., 2026b; Motwani et al., 2025; Cui et al., 2026; Lee et al., 2026). We test compositional generalization through long-context math reasoning on GSM-Infinite and DocMath, long-context coding on LongBench-v2 Code, and agentic coding on

SWE-bench Verified. Per-run data assignments, evaluation subsets, and scoring protocols are detailed in §§ B.2 and B.3.

3 Preliminary Study: Strong IND Performance Leaves an OOD Gap

OPD can achieve near-perfect IND distillation within relatively few training steps (Lu & Thinking Machines Lab, 2025; Ma et al., 2026). Yet grokking shows that generalization can emerge long after a model fits its training data (Power et al., 2022). This motivates asking whether rapid IND convergence in OPD is accompanied by transfer of the teacher's generalization. We examine this question in a controlled synthetic mathematical reasoning study.

Settings. Following Zhang et al. (2025), we pretrain a randomly initialized Qwen2-100M on GSM-Infinite-based problems (Zhou et al., 2025) requiring 2-10 operations to obtain π_0. We train a self-RL teacher from π_0 on problems requiring 11-14 operations; its OPD student uses the same base and post-training distribution. We report the pretraining and post-training IND ranges separately and test OOD extrapolation on 15-17 operations.

Findings. Figure 1 shows near-perfect IND distillation alongside incomplete OOD transfer. While the distillation ratio of OPD is approximately 96-104% on pretraining IND and 93-96% on post-training IND, it falls to 76-86% on OOD problems. Thus, **when the teacher generalizes beyond the supervised range, OPD does not fully transfer that generalization despite strong IND performance.** We next test whether this limitation persists when consolidating capabilities on real-world tasks.

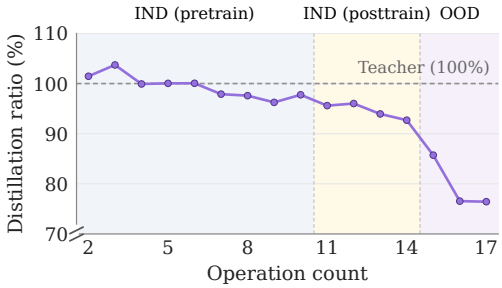

Figure 1: Near-perfect IND distillation leaves an OOD transfer gap. The distillation ratio is $\frac{s_{\text{student}} - s_{\text{base}}}{s_{\text{teacher}} - s_{\text{base}}}$, where s is acc@1 at each operation count. Pretraining IND covers 2-10 operations, post-training IND covers 11-14, and OOD covers 15-17. The dashed line marks complete transfer of the teacher's improvement over the base.

4 Strong IND Performance Does Not Ensure Extrapolative Generalization

We examine whether near-perfect IND distillation yields extrapolative generalization in mathematical reasoning, using self-RL specialist teachers and external generalist teachers.

Overall findings. Across both teacher setups, **near-perfect IND distillation coexists with OOD forgetting**. OPD and MOPD reduce average forgetting relative to the self-RL teachers and mixed RL, respectively, but still fall below the base on OOD evaluations.

4.1 Self-RL Specialist Teachers

Single-teacher OPD. OPD achieves near-perfect IND distillation, reaching 97.10% of its teachers' IND score on average across all three training datasets (Figure 2). Yet **its OOD performance decreases relative to the base** by 10.78% (8.56 percentage points). [1] We find that the three self-RL teachers also exhibit OOD forgetting, similar results reported in Li et al. (2026a); Phan et al. (2026), which are more severe than the corresponding OPD. **OPD reduces average OOD forgetting by 25.09% relative to its teachers from RL**: the mean loss from the base falls from 11.43 to 8.56 percentage points. Overall, near-perfect IND distillation does not ensure OOD improvement over the base. § 6.2 examines the parameter-update differences accompanying OPD's milder forgetting. This leaves open whether the student's OOD forgetting is inherited from teacher-side forgetting. § 4.2 tests

[1] For the aggregate comparisons in this section, we use a descriptive cutoff: benchmarks on which each self-RL teacher shows significant surpasses of the base score are grouped as IND, and the rest as OOD) (Hu et al., 2026).

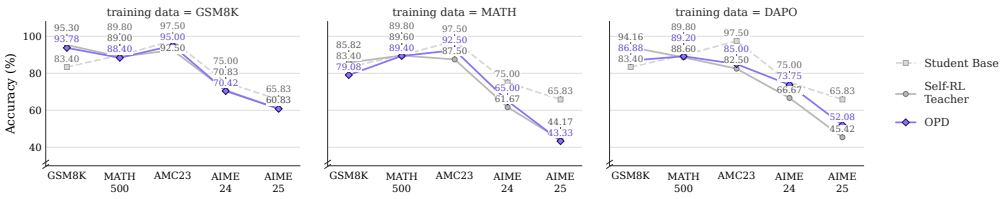

Figure 2: Near-perfect IND distillation does not ensure OOD retention. Self-RL specialists and their OPD students share a common base. AIME scores report avg@8.

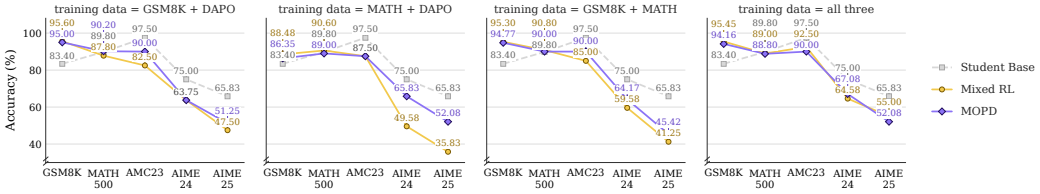

Figure 3: MOPD reduces average OOD forgetting relative to mixed RL but remains below the base. Results cover all pairwise and three-teacher mixtures; AIME scores report avg@8. These comparisons do not imply equal training compute.

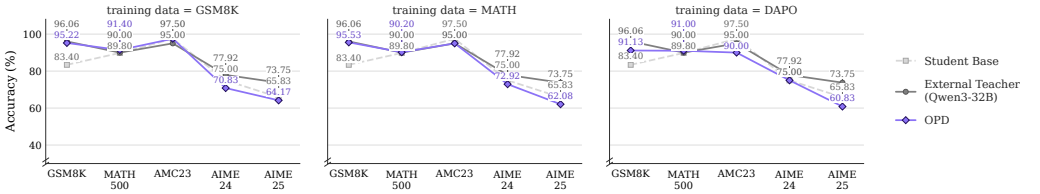

Figure 4: A stronger external teacher does not eliminate OOD gaps under narrow distillation. Qwen3-32B teaches Qwen3-8B; AIME scores report avg@8. All three figures use the same Qwen3-8B base scores.

whether the gaps persist with external generalist teachers that provide stronger OOD performance. Coding evaluations show that forgetting extends to more distant OOD tasks (Figure A2).

MOPD and mixed RL. Like single-teacher OPD, MOPD and mixed RL improve average IND performance over the base but forget on OOD evaluations (Figure 3). Across all three pairwise mixtures and the three-teacher mixture, MOPD's average OOD performance remains 14.07% (11.18 percentage points) below the base. Nevertheless, **MOPD reduces average OOD forgetting by 28.92% relative to mixed RL**, whose mean loss from the base is 15.73 points.

4.2 External Generalist Teachers

To test whether the gaps depend on teacher-side forgetting, we use an external generalist teacher that is not obtained by specializing the student base through our self-RL pipeline. Specifically, we distill Qwen3-32B into Qwen3-8B (Figure 4). The teacher model generally outperforms the student base across most evaluations. This setup therefore makes stronger OOD performance available for transfer on OOD tasks like AIME.

Across the three distillation datasets, OPD achieves near-perfect IND distillation, reaching 99.34% of the teacher's IND score (0.62 points below it), yet remains 3.73% below the base on OOD evaluations (2.96 points). **Stronger teacher performance alone therefore does not ensure OOD transfer or retention under narrow supervision.** § 6.1 further examines whether broader distillation data improves these outcomes.

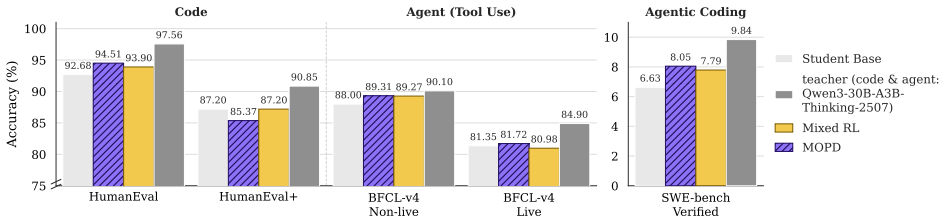

Figure 5: Compositional generalization to agentic coding: MOPD reaches 96.6% of the teacher's mean IND score but remains 18.2% below the shared teacher OOD on SWE-bench Verified. IND scores average HumanEval, HumanEval+, and BFCL-v4 Non-live/Live. MOPD outperforms mixed RL on SWE-bench Verified and three of four IND evaluations.

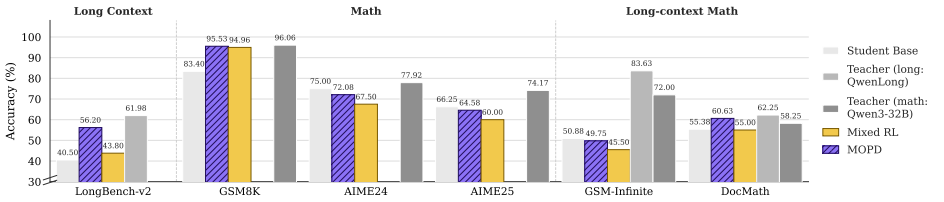

Figure 6: Compositional generalization to long-context math: MOPD reaches 96.0% of the teachers' mean IND score but remains 24.3% below the best teacher on composed tasks. IND scores average LongBench-v2 and GSM8K; composed scores average GSM-Infinite and DocMath. MOPD outperforms mixed RL on all displayed benchmarks. GSM-Infinite uses the 8K mini800 subset; DocMath uses test-mini.

5 Component Improvements Do Not Ensure Compositional Generalization

We next ask whether MOPD can consolidate separate capabilities to benefit tasks requiring their combination, i.e., compositional generalization. Specifically, we study code plus agent, math plus long context, and code plus long context. The desired outcome is a student that learns both components and surpasses its teacher or teachers on the composed task. In the experiments, MOPD assigns an external teacher to each component's training data. For comparison, we construct mixed RL from single-task recipes, including training data, that achieve component performance comparable to MOPD. Both methods use the same fixed mixture proportions and random shuffling without further tuning to balance tasks for fair comparison.

Overall findings. Across the three settings, **MOPD improves IND performance by 9.24% over the base (3.97% below the corresponding teachers), but remains 23.82% below the best teachers on composed tasks** (Figures 5 to 7). Mixed RL shows a similar compositional gap (26.10%); MOPD's mean composed-task score is 3.08% (1.07 percentage points) higher than mixed RL's.

Code and Agent. Coding and tool-use supervision improves SWE-bench Verified from the base's 6.63 to 8.05, above mixed RL (7.79) but below the shared teacher (9.84; Figure 5). MOPD also improves over the base on all component benchmarks except HumanEval+.

Math and Long Context. MOPD improves LongBench-v2 from 40.50 to 56.20 and GSM8K from 83.40 to 95.53, yet the composed-task outcomes diverge (Figure 6). DocMath improves from 55.38 to 60.63, whereas GSM-Infinite falls from 50.88 to 49.75; both remain below the best teacher. MOPD nevertheless outperforms mixed RL on all displayed benchmarks.

Code and Long Context. MOPD improves all three component benchmarks, yet LongBench-v2 Code remains at the base's 44.00, below both teachers (50.00 and 58.00; Figure 7). Mixed RL raises this composed-task score to 46.00 but lowers the LongBench-v2 component score from 40.50 to 38.84, illustrating a trade-off between component retention and composed-task performance. Additional results show that single-component OPD improves its target benchmarks, while MOPD fails to improve over the base on the composed task (§ C.1).

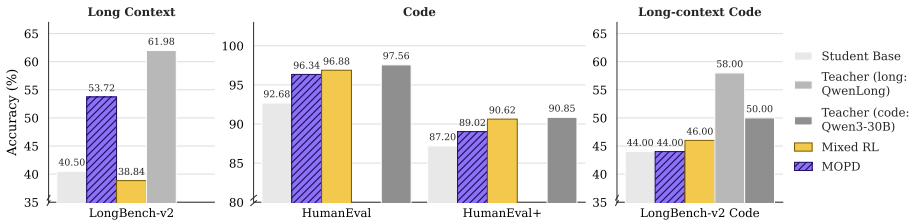

Figure 7: Compositional generalization to long-context code: MOPD reaches 95.5% of the teachers' mean IND score but remains 24.1% below the best teacher on LongBench-v2 Code. IND scores average LongBench-v2, HumanEval, and HumanEval+. MOPD outperforms mixed RL on long context, but scores lower on coding and the composed task.

The code plus agent, math plus long-context, and code plus long-context evaluations show a compositional generalization limitation: a student can acquire improvements on separately supervised capabilities without obtaining the expected performance when those capabilities must be combined.

6 Discussion

6.1 Teacher Capability and Data Coverage Contribute to OOD Gaps

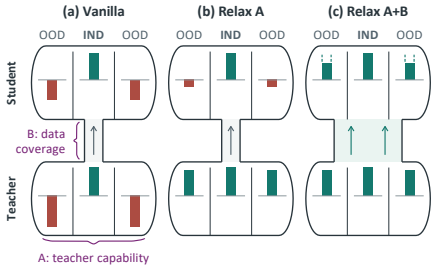

Figure 8: Teacher capability (A) and data coverage (B) as bottlenecks. In the flask analogy (Ujjain et al., 2021), lower/upper vessels denote teacher/student, and neck width denotes coverage. Teal/red bars illustrate qualitative gains/losses relative to the base; all panels show near-perfect IND distillation.

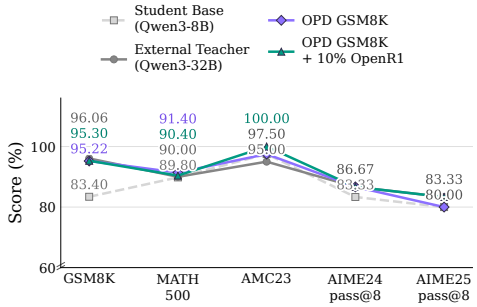

Figure 9: Broader data eliminates OOD forgetting on the reported metrics. With Qwen3-32B supervision and 10% OpenR1, the Qwen3-8B student matches the teacher's AIME pass@8, surpasses it on AMC23, and exceeds the base on all five benchmarks. AIME reports pass@8; other benchmarks report accuracy.

Under narrow supervision, students can remain below the base on OOD evaluations with either self-RL specialists (§ 4.1) or stronger external generalists (§ 4.2). Thus, stronger teacher capability alone is insufficient for OOD retention (panels a-b of Figure 8). To relax both bottlenecks (panel c), we keep Qwen3-32B as teacher and train on 90% GSM8K plus 10% OpenR1 (Open R1 Team, 2025). Compared with GSM8K-only distillation, it exceeds the base on all five benchmarks. The student matches the teacher's AIME24/25 pass@8 (86.67/83.33) and exceeds on AMC23 from 97.50 to 100.00 (Figure 9).

Together, these results support considering teacher capability and data coverage jointly: a stronger teacher makes OOD capabilities available, while broader supervision helps the student retain or acquire them. Easing both bottlenecks can reduce OOD forgetting and potentially encourage further generalization.

6.2 Geometry of (M)OPD: Compact Updates and Shared Update Structure

MOPD exhibits a smaller OOD generalization gap than mixed RL in several matched task mixtures. We examine the associated parameter updates to understand how the two consolidation procedures differ. For each model, we measure its update relative to the common base, $\Delta W = W - W_0$.

Table 1: MOPD has smaller updates on average and shares more structure with corresponding single-teacher updates than mixed RL does in both generalization settings. Left: single-teacher update norms and top-64 energy. Right: means across the extrapolative and compositional settings; the norm ratio is MOPD/mixed RL. R^2 uses the single-OPD span for MOPD and the single-RL span for mixed RL.

Single-teacher updates	RL	OPD
Absolute update norm	0.278	0.154
Top-64 energy	0.399	0.690

Generalization	Norm ratio	R^2	
		Mixed RL	MOPD
Extrapolative	0.477	0.00173	0.157
Compositional	0.617	0.000245	0.121

(M)OPD produces more compact updates than (mixed) RL. Both OPD and MOPD produce smaller updates on average than their corresponding RL baselines (Table 1). Across the extrapolative experiments, at approximately matched IND performance, OPD's update norm is 55.4% of RL's (0.154 versus 0.278). For MOPD, the mean update norm is also smaller than that of mixed RL.

OPD updates are also more spectrally concentrated. OPD's top 64 singular directions capture 69.0% of update energy, compared with 39.9% for its RL teachers. Stable rank, defined as $\|\Delta W\|_F^2/\|\Delta W\|_2^2$, measures concentration relative to the largest singular direction and decreases from 19.0 for RL to 6.90 for OPD. OPD also rotates the measured principal subspace of the base weights less. OPD can therefore achieve near-perfect IND distillation while producing substantially more concentrated parameter updates than RL.

MOPD shares more structure with single-teacher updates. For each mixture, we project the MOPD update onto the span of the corresponding single-teacher OPD updates and the mixed-RL update onto the span of the corresponding single-RL updates. We measure the explained fraction of each update's squared norm, $R^2 = 1 - \|\Delta - \widehat{\Delta}\|_F^2/\|\Delta\|_F^2$, where $\widehat{\Delta}$ is the least-squares projection. **MOPD is better explained by the single-OPD span than mixed RL is by the single-RL span.** The respective spans explain 11.0-18.6% of MOPD's squared update norm and less than 0.240% of mixed RL's (Table 1). Using the same single-RL teacher span for both methods also yields a higher R^2 for MOPD than for mixed RL. These measurements suggest that MOPD is an algorithm with more shared update structure.

Discussion. Mergeability remains an open question across models, capabilities, and algorithms, offering a perspective on capability consolidation. The literature considers factors including update direction (Ilharco et al., 2023), weight disentanglement (Ortiz-Jiménez et al., 2023), parameter-wise sign conflicts (Yadav et al., 2023), and subspace and gradient alignment (Zhou et al., 2026). Smaller OPD and MOPD updates on average and MOPD's greater shared update structure with single-teacher OPD motivate the hypothesis that compact updates may limit disruption to component capabilities and support compositional generalization. This also motivates model-merging-style editing for OOD performance (§ 7). Appendix E provides a complementary local theoretical analysis. These connections remain preliminary; a causal link between update geometry and generalization has yet to be established.

7 Exploring Patching Methods for Mitigating OOD Gap

Since near-perfect IND distillation can coexist with an OOD performance gap, improving generalization also requires preserving capabilities beyond the training distribution. We investigate two explicit interventions: geometry-based patching after distillation and base-preserving replay during distillation.

Geometry-Based Patching. The compact, spectrally concentrated OPD updates in § 6.2 motivate post-hoc editing: OPD students can forget less than self-RL teachers at similar IND performance.

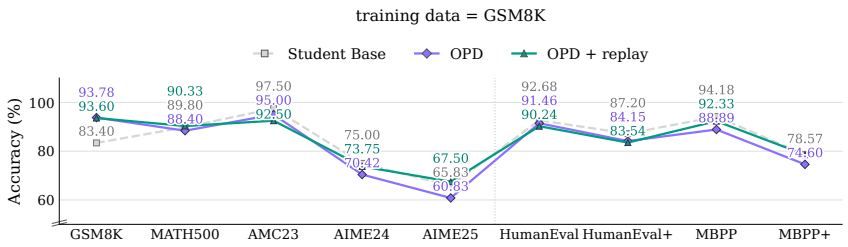

Figure 11: Base-preserving replay improves five of eight OOD scores over plain OPD with a small IND change, and surpasses both the student base and RL teacher on AIME25. AIME scores report avg@8.

We hypothesize that suppressing update components that harm OOD retention but contribute little to IND performance can reduce forgetting; these components may arise from optimization noise.

We propose *Procrustes-attention patching*, based on orthogonal Procrustes alignment (Schönemann, 1966; Yang et al., 2026). For each selected attention weight matrix, define $\Delta_S = W_{\mathrm{OPD}} - W_0$ and $\Delta_T = W_{\mathrm{RL\ teacher}} - W_0$, where W_0 denotes the base weights. We align the OPD update to the RL-teacher update by solving $R^\star = \arg\min_{R^\top R = I} \|\Delta_S R - \Delta_T\|_F^2$. We then define the unmatched component $E_{\mathrm{Proc}} = \Delta_T - \Delta_S R^\star$ and apply $W_{\mathrm{patch}} = W_{\mathrm{OPD}} - \alpha E_{\mathrm{Proc}}$. If $\Delta_S^\top \Delta_T = U\Sigma V^\top$ is a singular value decomposition, then $R^\star = UV^\top$; α controls the patch strength. Conceptually, E_{Proc} mainly reflects the OOD behavior direction but has a minor impact on IND, since OPD and RL-teacher share near IND performance. At $\alpha = 0.40$, patching raises AIME25 avg@8 from 60.83% to 65.00% (+4.17 percentage points), leaving a gap of 0.83 percentage points to the base while retaining most of the teacher's IND performance (Figure 10).

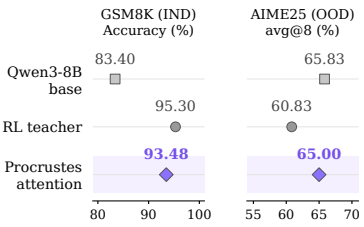

Figure 10: Procrustes-attention patching ($\alpha = 0.40$) retains most of the teacher's IND performance (GSM8K as an example) with higher OOD performance (AIME25 as an example).

Base-Preserving Replay. KL-regularized RLVR constrains policy drift from a reference model (Shao et al., 2024). In contrast, the (M)OPD objectives in § 2.1 match task teachers without an explicit constraint to preserve the base model's behavior. We hypothesize that this missing constraint contributes to OOD forgetting. Motivated by replay methods for capability preservation during RL post-training (Phan et al., 2026), we introduce base-preserving replay for (M)OPD. Base-preserving replay mixes IND examples supervised by the task teachers with additional prompts supervised by the base model, using the same OPD loss. We test coding and instruction-following data as replay sources outside the specialist's mathematical training distribution; Figure 11 reports coding replay for the GSM8K OPD student distilled from a self-RL teacher.

Relative to plain OPD, coding replay improves five of eight OOD scores, including a 6.67-point increase in AIME25 avg@8 to 67.50, surpassing both the student base and RL teacher with only a 0.18-point reduction in GSM8K accuracy. These results suggest that replay can support both retention and generalization beyond the replay domain.

8 Further Discussion and Limitations

Our main post-training findings concern Qwen3-8B students, with limited mixture tuning and incomplete evaluation across sampling seeds owing to computational constraints. The MOPD and mixed RL comparison mainly focuses on practical real-world post-training tasks; we further discuss it in synthetic settings. The connection between update geometry, OOD retention, and compositional generalization remains a hypothesis. The full discussion, limitations, and arithmetic study appear in Appendix D.

AI USE STATEMENT

In this work, we used generative AI tools to help develop theoretical models and conceptual frameworks, propose and refine hypotheses, implement methods, assist with writing, and discuss interpretations of results. Additionally, we used these tools to create and modify scientific figures, format references, and improve the writing quality of author-written drafts. The authors reviewed all AI-assisted contributions. We checked AI-assisted numerical summaries and descriptions against the experimental results and reviewed the theoretical arguments with their stated assumptions. We revised AI-generated suggestions where necessary to preserve the intended claims and avoid unsupported conclusions. We take responsibility for the final content of this work, including text, claims, code, and figures produced with the assistance of generative AI.

ETHICS STATEMENT

We study capability consolidation using publicly available models and datasets and controlled synthetic tasks. Our findings identify reliability risks from OOD forgetting and incomplete compositional generalization, which can be consequential when models are used beyond their supervised distributions. We do not evaluate safety alignment, fairness, or privacy; gains on the reported benchmarks therefore do not establish safe deployment. Applications involving code generation or tool use require separate safety assessment.

REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT

§ 2 defines the teachers, consolidation objectives, training datasets, and evaluation benchmarks. Appendix B reports teacher assignments, training and inference configurations, evaluation subsets, scoring, and aggregation rules. The controlled synthetic studies are described in § 3 and Appendix D.3.1; Appendix E provides the assumptions and derivations for the theoretical analysis. Limitations of the experimental scope and evaluation across training seeds are discussed in Appendix D.

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A Related Work

A.1 On-Policy Distillation and Multi-teacher On-Policy Distillation

On-policy distillation (OPD) trains a student on trajectories sampled from its own policy, using the teacher's next-token predictions as supervision (Agarwal et al., 2024; Lu & Thinking Machines Lab, 2025). It combines the nature of on-policy state distribution, like reinforcement learning with verifiable rewards (RLVR), with the dense token-level supervision signal of knowledge distillation (Shao et al., 2024; Hinton et al., 2015). Prior work reports strong distillation of teacher performance and rapid convergence in mathematical reasoning, knowledge question answering (Lu & Thinking Machines Lab, 2025), and multi-turn agentic tasks (Liao et al., 2026; Wu et al., 2026). Multi-teacher on-policy distillation (MOPD) extends this approach by assigning training domains to teachers with corresponding capabilities (Ma et al., 2026). It is increasingly used for post-RL consolidation in frontier model development: domain experts are trained separately and then distilled into a single student (Core Team et al., 2026; DeepSeek-AI et al., 2026; NVIDIA et al., 2026; Kimi Team et al., 2026). Much of the methodological work (Wu et al., 2026; Xing et al., 2026; Jiang et al., 2026) aims to improve target-task performance in domain. However, we complement these studies by focusing on OOD performance, suggesting that near-perfect IND distillation can conceal incomplete generalization. Two recent studies are close to ours but different. Gao et al. (2026) diagnose capability conflict and imbalance in MOPD, but the capabilities are all within the training distribution (i.e., IND). Li et al. (2026b) examine generalization across domains (e.g., from math to science) or across languages, which differs from our generalization forms; it is more about the closeness of different tasks but not the algorithm's potential.

A.2 Generalization in Post-Training

Generalization is a model's ability to perform well on examples out of the training distribution. Grokking demonstrates that generalization on algorithmic datasets emerges long after a model fits the training data (Power et al., 2022). Studies on modular arithmetic also show that models can generalize to tasks requiring skill composition (He et al., 2024). In LLM post-training, RLVR can improve reasoning on the training domain while producing inconsistent gains on unseen domains (Hu et al., 2026; Zhang et al., 2025; Fu & Liu, 2026; Yuan et al., 2026). These findings motivate treating rapid IND convergence and OOD generalization as separate empirical questions. Although OPD can approach teacher performance within relatively few updates (Lu & Thinking Machines Lab, 2025), such convergence alone does not establish whether the student inherits the teacher's generalization. We hence study whether (M)OPD transfers performance beyond the supervised distribution.

A.3 Capability Consolidation

Capability consolidation aims to combine multiple capabilities in a single model, often at the final stage of post-training. Established approaches include model merging and mixed RL. Model merging combines separately trained models directly in parameter space (Ainsworth et al., 2023; Ilharco et al., 2023; Yadav et al., 2023; Yu et al., 2024; Yang et al., 2026). Mixed RL jointly optimizes a single model on data from multiple tasks using their corresponding rewards (Lambert et al., 2024; Yang et al., 2025). On another thread, related work studies relationships among capabilities, for example, by pairwise transfer and latent factors in transfer matrices (Kim et al., 2023; for Computational Linguistics 2025 et al., 2025) or by using sparse autoencoder features (Deng et al., 2026). Our evaluations ask whether consolidation preserves performance beyond the supervised distribution, generalizing to tasks requiring multiple capabilities together.

B Experimental Details

B.1 Training and Teacher Assignment

Self-RL specialists and their OPD students start independently from the same Qwen3-8B base. Each specialist supervises its own training distribution. External teachers are Qwen3-32B for mathematical reasoning, QwenLong-L1.5-30B-A3B for long context, and Qwen3-30B-A3B-Thinking-2507 for coding and tool use. Code plus agent uses one shared teacher; the other composed settings use

separate teachers for the two components. We select external teachers from a pool of open-source Qwen3-family models (including domain-specific models) and fine-tuned model based on them released on huggingface, with compatible vocabularies for token-level distillation. Among candidates whose sizes fit our compute budget, we choose the best-performing model on the relevant benchmarks under our inference setup. Scores under this setup may differ slightly from published results.

In Equation (1), both policies are evaluated at student-generated histories and the teacher is fixed. Interactive histories include tool observations, but the loss sums only over model-generated tokens. Mixed RL uses the single-task GRPO recipes. Each method's recipe and checkpoint are selected by the highest mean IND score among evaluated configurations. In Mixed RL experiments, the component recipes are selected for IND performance comparable to MOPD, then combined with equal data proportions and random shuffling, without additional tuning of reward balance. External teachers have additional prior training, so note that these comparisons do not isolate the training objective alone.

The main extrapolative and compositional generalization experiments use a learning rate of 10^{-6}. (M)OPD mainly uses the `k1` distillation loss with policy gradients enabled and task rewards disabled. We smoke test that different distillation loss have non-significant difference in performance after sufficient training steps in our experiments. MOPD selects the teacher by data source. RL uses GRPO with one PPO epoch per update, a KL loss coefficient of 0.001, and an entropy coefficient of 0. (M)OPD rollouts in these experiments use temperature 1.0 and top-p 1.0; these values do not apply to every standalone coding or agent OPD run.

Table A1: Training configurations for the main extrapolative and compositional generalization experiments. Paired entries are (M)OPD / RL. Batch size counts prompts; PPO mini-batch size is the configured value. Lengths are in tokens.

Setting	Train batch	PPO mini-batch	Responses per prompt	Max. prompt	Max. response
GSM8K	16 / 64	16 / 8	1 / 8	1,024	8,192
DAPO	16 / 64	16 / 8	1 / 8	2,048	16,384
Other math (single/mixed)	16 / 64	16 / 8	1 / 8	2,048	8,192
Code & agent (single/mixed)	32 / 32	16 / 16	1 / 8	8,192	12,288
Long context (single/mixed)	16 / 16	16 / 16	1 / 8	59,561	16,384

[a] Long context tasks use YaRN with scaling factor 4.

B.2 Data and Evaluation Protocols

Mathematical reasoning comparisons use GSM8K (Cobbe et al., 2021), MATH (Hendrycks et al., 2021), and DAPO (Yu et al., 2025) (held-out set from training), MATH500 (Lightman et al., 2023), AMC23 (AI-MO, 2024) and AIME24/25 (Hugging Face H4, 2024; OpenCompass, 2025). The extrapolative evaluation setup follows prior work evaluating mathematical reasoning beyond the training difficulty (Hu et al., 2026; Li et al., 2026b; Motwani et al., 2025; Cui et al., 2026; Lee et al., 2026).

Nemotron competitive-coding (NVIDIA, 2025) denotes `nvidia/Nemotron-RL-coding-competitive_coding`. Coding evaluations use HumanEval (Chen et al., 2021), MBPP (Austin et al., 2021), and their EvalPlus extensions (Liu et al., 2023).

For agent capabilities, we train on synthetic BFCL live/non-live data (Patil et al., 2025), xLAM60K (Liu et al., 2024b), and ToolACE (Liu et al., 2024a), and evaluate primarily on BFCL V4's non-live and live subsets.

DocQA denotes `Tongyi-Zhiwen/DocQA-RL-1.6K` (Wan et al., 2025). Long-context evaluations use LongBench-v2 (Bai et al., 2024), primarily its Hard subset.

All evaluation benchmarks are checked to be held out from all training datasets.

Table A2 summarizes generation configs in evaluations, i.e., budgets, sampling, and prompting. EvalPlus v0.3.1 reports pass@1 under the protocol. Completed thinking blocks are removed before

scoring; unclosed blocks are invalid. **All generation (evaluation and rollouts in training) are thinking enabled in the experiments.**

Table A2: Evaluation configurations. Generation and input limits are in tokens; context limits include input and generated tokens.

Benchmark	Max. generated tokens	Sampling and prompting
GSM8K	8,192	Mainly 1 sample per problem; sample counts follow the corresponding run configuration.
MATH500 / AMC23	32,768	Mainly 1 sample per problem; sample counts follow the corresponding run configuration.
AIME24 / AIME25	32,768	8 samples per problem; main metric: avg@8.
HumanEval(+) / MBPP(+)	32,768	Main metric: pass@1; context limit 40,960.
BFCL-v4	8,192	`qwen_fc` handler.
LongBench-v2	50,000	Input limit 81,000; context limit 131,072; Qwen3 uses YaRN $\times 4$.
DocMath	50,000	Temperature 0.7, top-p 0.95 following the original benchmark settings; input limit 131,072; Qwen3 uses YaRN $\times 6$ and context limit 196,608.

For a given model and evaluation task, sampling parameters are fixed across evaluation runs. For mathematical reasoning, EvalPlus, BFCL, and LongBench-v2, parameters not explicitly overridden in the task's evaluation configuration follow the model's defaults in `generation_config.json`.

Composed-task evaluations use GSM-Infinite's 8K mini800 subset (Zhou et al., 2025) and DocMath (Zhao et al., 2023) test-mini for long-context math, LongBench-v2 Code for long-context coding, and SWE-bench Verified (Jimenez et al., 2024) for agentic coding. Model comparisons are under matched benchmark subsets and scoring rules.

B.3 Scores and Aggregation

AIME avg@8 averages correctness over eight sampled responses per problem; pass@8 counts whether any response is correct. Student/teacher score ratios compare performance, while OOD retention compares the student with the base when teacher is forgetting. For mean OOD forgetting $L_m = \bar{s}_{\text{base}} - \bar{s}_m$, the reduction relative to reference r is $100(L_r - L_m)/L_r\%$. OOD generalization compares the student with best teacher on how much performance beyond.

Compositional summaries first average the component or composed benchmarks within each setting, then weight the three settings equally. Component references use the assigned teachers; composed-task references use the highest teacher score on each benchmark. AIME scores do not enter these aggregates. These summaries describe the reported comparisons, not uncertainty across training seeds.

C Additional Results

C.1 Single-Component OPD and Compositional Generalization

Figure A1 and table A3 compare single-component OPD and MOPD from the same Qwen3-8B base. Code-only OPD improves HumanEval from 92.68 to 95.12 and HumanEval+ from 87.20 to 88.41; DocQA-only OPD improves LongBench-v2 EH from 40.50 to 56.20. Thus, both single-component OPD runs improve their respective target benchmarks.

MOPD improves all three component benchmarks over the base, exceeds code-only OPD on both coding benchmarks, and retains $(53.72 - 40.50)/(56.20 - 40.50) = 84.2\%$ of the DocQA-only student's positive LongBench-v2 EH gain. Nevertheless, its LongBench-v2 Code score remains at the base's 44.00. This exceeds the single-component students' 42.00 and 40.00 but remains below both teachers (50.00 and 58.00). These results show that gains on the individual components can coexist with a failure to improve the composed-task score.

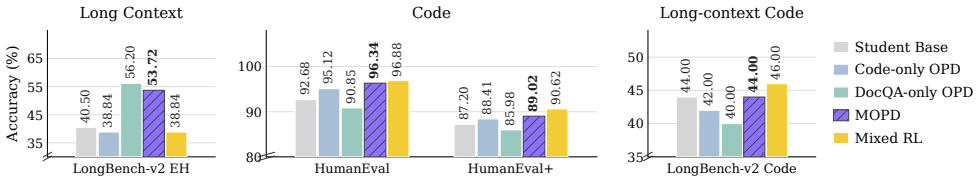

Figure A1: Single-component OPD improves its target benchmarks, while MOPD's component improvements do not yield a gain over the base on LongBench-v2 Code. All students start from Qwen3-8B. Full scores, including both external teachers, appear in Table A3.

Table A3: Code and long-context component and composed-task scores (%). MOPD exceeds both single-component students on LongBench-v2 Code, but matches the base and remains below both teachers. Blank cells indicate teacher evaluations not reported in the original comparison. Teacher assignments are specified in § B.1.

Model	HumanEval	HumanEval+	LongBench-v2 EH	LongBench-v2 Code
Qwen3-8B base	92.68	87.20	40.50	44.00
Code-only OPD	95.12	88.41	38.84	42.00
DocQA-only OPD	90.85	85.98	56.20	40.00
Code + DocQA MOPD	96.34	89.02	53.72	44.00
Code + DocQA mixed RL	96.88	90.62	38.84	46.00
Coding teacher	97.56	90.85		50.00
Long-context teacher			61.98	58.00

C.2 Distant Coding Evaluations

Mathematical reasoning specialists and their OPD students are evaluated on coding benchmarks in Figure A2. Forgetting extends beyond mathematics, although the pattern varies: the MATH OPD student exceeds the base on HumanEval, and the DAPO OPD student improves on its teacher across all four coding evaluations. Mathematical reasoning and replay scores are reported in the main text.

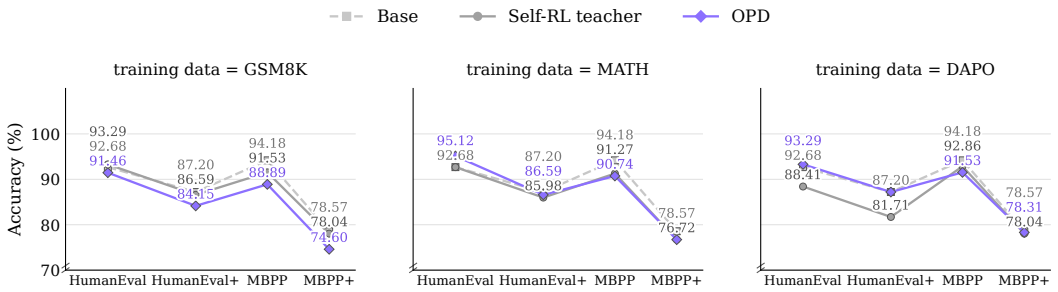

Figure A2: Coding performance after mathematical reasoning specialization and distillation. Each panel compares the base, self-RL teacher, and OPD student trained on the named dataset. Scores are percentages under the EvalPlus protocol in § B.2.

D Further Discussion and Limitations

D.1 Operational Definition of IND and OOD

For the cross-benchmark mathematical aggregates, we use an operational IND/OOD grouping based on the teachers' empirical response to post-training. This choice addresses a practical challenge:

training corpora assembled from multiple sources and independently constructed evaluation benchmarks need not provide corresponding train/test splits. Evaluating across these benchmarks allows us to examine a broader range of post-training settings, while requiring an explicit criterion for grouping their relationships to training.

Performance-based, model-relative operationalizations have precedents. Kim et al. (2025) define in-distribution questions through a model's probability of answering correctly, while Guo et al. (2023) construct ID/OOD labels from prediction correctness relative to reference models. Jesson et al. (2025) similarly use performance to distinguish in-capability and out-of-capability tasks when the pre-training distribution is opaque. These approaches motivate using observable model behavior to characterize task compatibility when distributional membership is difficult to establish.

Our specific criterion groups a benchmark as IND when each of the three self-RL teachers exceeds 97% of the base model's score, identifying evaluations on which performance is improved or largely preserved after teacher training. The remaining benchmarks are grouped as OOD. Thresholds of 95%, 96%, and 98% produce the same partition.

This grouping is a descriptive proxy for compatibility with the teachers' post-training regime. Teacher responses also depend on optimization, interference, and ceiling effects, so the labels do not establish distributional membership or pre-training exposure. Our controlled study in Figure 1 provides complementary evidence using an explicitly specified training range, independently of this performance-based grouping.

D.2 Limitations

Our main post-training experiments are on Qwen3-8B students, and our largest external teacher is Qwen3-32B given computation constraints. Fixing the student supports within-model comparisons, but leaves dependence on student capacity, teacher strength, and model family under-explored.

Public datasets make our comparisons inspectable, but do not reproduce the breadth or adaptive data selection of full post-training pipelines in frontier model development. Our OOD labels are relative to post-training data, not pretraining exposure. Broader training data from the real world and held-out evaluations with graded difficulty would test generalization under more demanding conditions.

Mixed RL and MOPD both combine component recipes without extensive tuning of reward balancing, mixture weights, or curricula (§ B.1). They may not establish each objective's best achievable performance. However, we have tuned hyperparameters for single OPD and single RL recipes to ensure optimal performance. Considering the much larger tuning space for Mixed RL and MOPD, we view this as a box-of-the-box usage and see this comparison as a fair setting.

Computational constraints prevent us from repeating every experiment with multiple sampling seeds. For mathematical reasoning, we repeat evaluation with four sampling seeds on a 10% subset of the evaluation questions and observe consistent qualitative conclusions across these checks. These checks assess variability in sampled responses; they do not establish robustness across independent training runs.

D.3 Arithmetic Study

MOPD achieves higher mean composed-task accuracy than mixed RL in our main comparisons on practical post-training tasks (§ 5), but this ordering need not hold across all possible settings. Conceptually, MOPD learns from teacher distributions without an independent correctness signal, whereas RL uses verifier feedback on its training tasks. There might be a soft bound on teacher OOD accuracy when teacher exists inaccuracy at the first place, which might be harder for MOPD to generalize beyond either teacher.

A controlled synthetic arithmetic experiment run on a 3-layer Transformer model provides a counterexample (Figure A3; setup in § D.3.1). Models train on operators A and B and their repetitions, with AB and BA held out from both MOPD and mixed RL. We design the task and model architecture that direct SFT on AB/BA reaches 100% accuracy, establishing learnability under direct supervision. In the displayed run, both MOPD variants from warm-RL teachers improve rapidly and then remain around 80-90% composed-task accuracy within the observed training budget, while mixed warm RL later surpasses them. The five-seed final results support this finding.

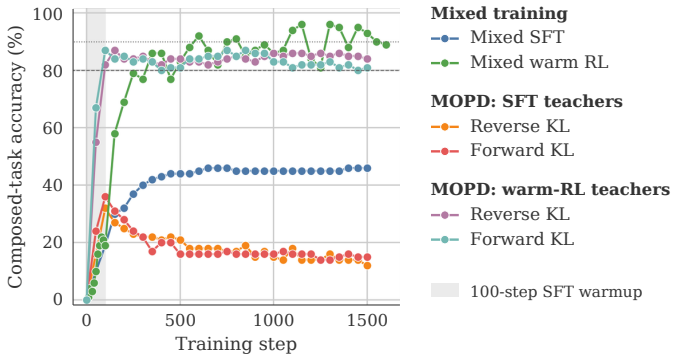

Figure A3: Mixed warm RL can surpass MOPD on held-out arithmetic compositions. The training dynamics show $\min(\text{AB accuracy}, \text{BA accuracy})$ (%). MOPD uses SFT or warm-RL teachers with reverse or forward KL; all MOPD students start from the pretrained base. Shading marks mixed warm RL's 100-step SFT warmup (which contributes to better performce that directly RL).

These results reveal that, considering different model architectures, task learnability, interference between tasks, etc., there can be different balances between component performance and compositional generalization. Isolating their effects across architectures and training objectives remains future work. Our main conclusions concern the LLMs and practical post-training tasks studied here.

D.3.1 Setup and Additional Results

Task. The base model is pretrained on arithmetic operators $\tau_i(x) = (a_i x + b_i) \bmod K$, for $i = 1, \ldots, n$. Conceptually, we analogy each operator as an atomic capability. Post-training introduces two held-out operators, A and B. Component training covers A, B, AA, and BB, with a small set of bridge examples composing A or B with pretrained operators. The target compositions AB and BA are excluded from component training, bridge examples, and distillation, and are used to evaluate compositional generalization.

Training. SFT specialists learn A/AA or B/BB separately; warm-RL specialists use SFT warmup followed by RL with verifiable rewards. Mixed SFT and mixed warm RL jointly train on both components. MOPD students start from the shared pretrained base and distill either the SFT specialists or the warm-RL specialists, using reverse KL or its forward-KL counterpart. A separate direct-SFT control receives AB/BA supervision to test task learnability. The mixed warm-RL trajectory in Figure A3 includes its 100-step SFT warmup; MOPD trajectories show student training, excluding teacher preparation.

Evaluation and findings. Figure A3 plots $\min(\text{AB accuracy}, \text{BA accuracy})$ for seed 0; final accuracies are averaged over five seeds and results are consistent. On average, Mixed warm RL attains mean AB/BA accuracies of $93\%/90\%$, compared with $78\%/74\%$ for MOPD from warm-RL teachers and $77\%/74\%$ for its forward-KL variant. For reference, direct SFT on the composed tasks reaches 100% on both across all five seeds. The warm-RL specialists individually attain only 1-2% mean accuracy on AB/BA, so MOPD already generalizes beyond their composed-task performance.

D.4 Future Work

The connection between update geometry, OOD retention, and compositional generalization remains a hypothesis. Causal tests should manipulate update directions while controlling update magnitude, training budget, and IND performance. Beyond post-hoc patching, step-level parameter-space control could project or regularize updates during training, with random-direction controls. Future work should also jointly study teacher assignment, data coverage, and base-preserving replay under a fixed budget, testing retention and further generalization beyond expanded training coverage.

E OPD–RL GEOMETRY: NORM, VARIANCE, AND TASK INTERFERENCE

We seek a local geometric explanation for two observations: OPD approaches RL's IND performance with less OOD forgetting, and MOPD exhibits less cross-task conflict than mixed RL. The analysis concerns the initial step at the base policy and provides a local approximation for multi-step training; it does not establish universal superiority of OPD.

E.1 LOCAL OPD AND RL UPDATE DIRECTIONS

For a fixed context h, let $p_0(a \mid h) = \pi_{\theta_0}(a \mid h)$ be the base student policy and $q(a \mid h)$ the fixed teacher. Define the score function and teacher log-ratio as

$$S_0(a,h) = \nabla_\theta \log \pi_\theta(a \mid h)|_{\theta=\theta_0}, \qquad L(a,h) = \log \frac{q(a \mid h)}{p_0(a \mid h)}. \tag{E.1}$$

Unless stated otherwise, expectations, variances, and covariances below are over $a \sim p_0(\cdot \mid h)$, and we suppress the context argument where convenient. Let $A = R - \mathbb{E}_{p_0}[R]$ denote the reward advantage, with the reward scale chosen so that $\mathbb{E}_{p_0}[A] = 0$ and $\mathrm{Var}_{p_0}(A) = 1$, analogous to advantage normalization in GRPO. The sampled-token OPD update direction and ideal on-policy RL gradient are

$$g_{\mathrm{OPD}}(h) = \mathbb{E}_{p_0}[LS_0], \qquad g_{\mathrm{RL}}(h) = \mathbb{E}_{p_0}[AS_0]. \tag{E.2}$$

Here g_{OPD} follows the direction of decreasing reverse KL, while g_{RL} follows the direction of increasing reward.

E.2 DECOMPOSITION FOR A GENERAL REWARD-BETTER TEACHER

Suppose the teacher improves expected reward over the base, $\mathbb{E}_q[R] > \mathbb{E}_{p_0}[R]$, without necessarily being RL-optimal. Writing $w = q/p_0$, this condition is equivalent to $\mathbb{E}_{p_0}[wA] > 0$. It constrains the density ratio w, whereas sampled-token OPD uses $L = \log w$; higher teacher reward alone therefore does not imply alignment between the OPD and RL gradients.

Project the centered log-ratio onto the normalized advantage:

$$L - \mathbb{E}_{p_0}[L] = \eta A + \xi, \qquad \eta = \frac{\mathrm{Cov}_{p_0}(L,A)}{\mathrm{Var}_{p_0}(A)} = \mathrm{Cov}_{p_0}(L,A), \tag{E.3}$$

where $\mathbb{E}_{p_0}[\xi] = 0$ and $\mathrm{Cov}_{p_0}(\xi, A) = 0$. The score identity $\mathbb{E}_{p_0}[S_0] = \nabla_\theta \sum_a \pi_\theta(a \mid h)|_{\theta=\theta_0} = 0$ eliminates the action-independent term $\mathbb{E}_{p_0}[L]$, giving

$$\begin{aligned} g_{\mathrm{OPD}}(h) &= \mathbb{E}_{p_0}[(L - \mathbb{E}_{p_0}[L])S_0] = \eta \mathbb{E}_{p_0}[AS_0] + \mathbb{E}_{p_0}[\xi S_0] \\ &= \eta g_{\mathrm{RL}}(h) + r(h), \qquad r(h) = \mathbb{E}_{p_0}[\xi S_0]. \end{aligned} \tag{E.4}$$

The first term is the reward-aligned component of OPD. The residual $r(h)$ captures teacher-specific changes not explained by the reward advantage, such as shifts in style, format, or domain distribution.

E.3 GRADIENT NORM AND COEFFICIENT VARIANCE

Define $F(h) = \mathbb{E}_{p_0}[\|S_0\|_2^2]$ and $\sigma_\xi^2(h) = \mathrm{Var}_{p_0}(\xi)$. Orthogonality of A and ξ gives $\mathrm{Var}_{p_0}(L) = \eta^2 + \sigma_\xi^2(h)$. By Cauchy–Schwarz,

$$\begin{aligned} \|g_{\mathrm{OPD}}(h)\|_2^2 &= \big\|\mathbb{E}_{p_0}[(L - \mathbb{E}_{p_0}[L])S_0]\big\|_2^2 \le \big(\eta^2 + \sigma_\xi^2(h)\big)F(h), \\ \|g_{\mathrm{RL}}(h)\|_2^2 &= \big\|\mathbb{E}_{p_0}[AS_0]\big\|_2^2 \le \mathrm{Var}_{p_0}(A)F(h) = F(h). \end{aligned} \tag{E.5}$$

Thus, when $\eta^2 + \sigma_\xi^2(h) < 1$, the OPD gradient-norm upper bound is smaller than the corresponding bound for normalized RL.

For stochastic updates, write $Z_{\mathrm{RL}} = \widehat{A}S_0$ and $Z_{\mathrm{OPD}} = LS_0$, where $\widehat{A}$ is the estimated advantage. If $\mathrm{Var}(\widehat{A}) \approx 1$, the same condition gives OPD a smaller coefficient variance. With comparable score-norm weighting and baseline effects, this can also reduce gradient-estimator variance. This is a secondary mechanism: lower estimator variance can reduce random non-target drift during stochastic optimization.

E.4 An RL-Optimal Teacher Preserves the RL Direction

Consider the ideal case in which the teacher solves KL-regularized policy improvement from the base, with $\eta > 0$:

$$q^\star = \arg\max_\pi \left\{ \mathbb{E}_{a\sim\pi}[A(a,h)] - \frac{1}{\eta} D_{\mathrm{KL}}\big(\pi(\cdot \mid h) \| p_0(\cdot \mid h)\big) \right\}. \tag{E.6}$$

The solution is the exponentially tilted policy

$$q^\star(a \mid h) = \frac{p_0(a \mid h) e^{\eta A(a,h)}}{Z(h)}, \qquad Z(h) = \mathbb{E}_{p_0}[e^{\eta A}], \qquad \log \frac{q^\star}{p_0} = \eta A - \log Z(h). \tag{E.7}$$

The score identity eliminates $-\log Z(h)$, yielding the exact local relation

$$g^\star_{\mathrm{OPD}}(h) = \mathbb{E}_{p_0}[(\eta A - \log Z(h)) S_0] = \eta g_{\mathrm{RL}}(h). \tag{E.8}$$

Here $\xi = r = 0$, $\|g^\star_{\mathrm{OPD}}(h)\|_2 = \eta \|g_{\mathrm{RL}}(h)\|_2$, and $\mathrm{Var}_{p_0}(\log(q^\star/p_0)) = \eta^2$. An ideal RL teacher therefore preserves the RL direction and contracts its magnitude when $0 < \eta < 1$.

Interpreting the contraction factor. For normalized A and sufficiently small η, $\log Z(h) = \log \mathbb{E}_{p_0}[e^{\eta A}] \approx \eta^2/2$. Consequently,

$$D_{\mathrm{KL}}(p_0 \| q^\star) = \log Z(h) \approx \frac{\eta^2}{2}, \qquad \eta \approx \sqrt{2 D_{\mathrm{KL}}(p_0 \| q^\star)}. \tag{E.9}$$

A token-level KL of 0.02–0.30 nats/token corresponds approximately to $\eta \in [0.20, 0.77]$. This range reflects the base models and post-training tasks in our experiments, rather than a universal property of post-training. Empirically, we observe OPD gradient norms of approximately 60% of those of RL.

E.5 Implications for IND Performance and OOD Retention

In the low-residual teacher regime, $g_{\mathrm{OPD}} = \eta g_{\mathrm{RL}} + r$ with $0 < \eta < 1$ and small $\|r\|_2$. OPD approximately preserves RL's reward-improving direction while contracting the update magnitude and reducing coefficient variance.

IND performance. A smaller update need not imply substantially worse IND performance: the local improvement depends on its projection onto the reward-improving direction. For an IND objective J_{in},

$$J_{\mathrm{in}}(\theta_0 + \Delta\theta) - J_{\mathrm{in}}(\theta_0) \approx \langle \nabla J_{\mathrm{in}}(\theta_0), \Delta\theta \rangle. \tag{E.10}$$

When $g_{\mathrm{OPD}} \approx \eta g_{\mathrm{RL}}$, OPD retains the reward-aligned direction. A sufficiently large positive projection onto that direction can therefore yield IND improvement close to RL's, despite a smaller total update norm.

OOD forgetting. OOD forgetting depends on the displacement from the base policy. A local second-order expansion of the OOD loss gives

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta L_{\mathrm{ood}} &\equiv L_{\mathrm{ood}}(\theta_0 + \Delta\theta) - L_{\mathrm{ood}}(\theta_0) \\ &\approx \langle \nabla L_{\mathrm{ood}}(\theta_0), \Delta\theta \rangle + \tfrac{1}{2} \Delta\theta^\top H_{\mathrm{ood}} \Delta\theta, \end{aligned} \tag{E.11}$$

where H_{ood} is the Hessian at θ_0. If the base lies in a locally stable region for the OOD capability, the first-order term is small and the quadratic term dominates:

$$\Delta L_{\mathrm{ood}} \lesssim \frac{\lambda_{\max}(H_{\mathrm{ood}})}{2} \|\Delta\theta\|_2^2. \tag{E.12}$$

The corresponding local policy-space displacement is

$$\mathbb{E}_{h\sim\mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{ood}}} D_{\mathrm{KL}}(\pi_{\theta_0}(\cdot \mid h) \| \pi_{\theta_0+\Delta\theta}(\cdot \mid h)) \approx \tfrac{1}{2} \Delta\theta^\top F_{\mathrm{ood}} \Delta\theta, \tag{E.13}$$

where F_{ood} is the Fisher information matrix under the base policy and OOD contexts. For approximately aligned, contracted updates, $\Delta\theta_{\mathrm{OPD}} \approx \eta \Delta\theta_{\mathrm{RL}}$, we have $\|\Delta\theta_{\mathrm{OPD}}\|_2 \approx \eta \|\Delta\theta_{\mathrm{RL}}\|_2$. The local quadratic approximation then suggests

$$\Delta L^{\mathrm{OPD}}_{\mathrm{ood}} \lesssim \eta^2 \Delta L^{\mathrm{RL}}_{\mathrm{ood}}. \tag{E.14}$$

Thus, for $\eta < 1$, contraction reduces the quadratic contribution to OOD drift under these local assumptions. Lower stochastic coefficient variance, when $\mathrm{Var}(L) = \eta^2 + \sigma_\xi^2 < 1$, provides a secondary mechanism for reducing random non-target drift and improving retention.

E.6 Two-Task Interference in MOPD and Mixed RL

Consider an equal mixture of tasks A and B. With task-specific teachers satisfying $g_i^{\mathrm{OPD}} = \eta_i g_i^{\mathrm{RL}} + r_i$ for $i \in \{A, B\}$, the expected mixture gradients are

$$\begin{aligned} g_{\mathrm{mix}}^{\mathrm{RL}} &= \tfrac{1}{2} g_A^{\mathrm{RL}} + \tfrac{1}{2} g_B^{\mathrm{RL}}, \\ g_{\mathrm{mix}}^{\mathrm{MOPD}} &= \tfrac{1}{2}(\eta_A g_A^{\mathrm{RL}} + r_A) + \tfrac{1}{2}(\eta_B g_B^{\mathrm{RL}} + r_B). \end{aligned} \tag{E.15}$$

Measure cross-task interference by the gradient inner product, $I_{\mathrm{RL}}(A, B) = \langle g_A^{\mathrm{RL}}, g_B^{\mathrm{RL}} \rangle$. For MOPD,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle g_A^{\mathrm{OPD}}, g_B^{\mathrm{OPD}} \rangle = \eta_A \eta_B \langle g_A^{\mathrm{RL}}, g_B^{\mathrm{RL}} \rangle + \eta_A \langle g_A^{\mathrm{RL}}, r_B \rangle \\ + \eta_B \langle r_A, g_B^{\mathrm{RL}} \rangle + \langle r_A, r_B \rangle. \end{aligned} \tag{E.16}$$

The residual contribution admits the deterministic bound

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \langle g_A^{\mathrm{OPD}}, g_B^{\mathrm{OPD}} \rangle - \eta_A \eta_B \langle g_A^{\mathrm{RL}}, g_B^{\mathrm{RL}} \rangle \right| \le |\eta_A| \|g_A^{\mathrm{RL}}\|_2 \|r_B\|_2 \\ + |\eta_B| \|r_A\|_2 \|g_B^{\mathrm{RL}}\|_2 + \|r_A\|_2 \|r_B\|_2. \end{aligned} \tag{E.17}$$

When both residuals are small, $\langle g_A^{\mathrm{OPD}}, g_B^{\mathrm{OPD}} \rangle \approx \eta_A \eta_B \langle g_A^{\mathrm{RL}}, g_B^{\mathrm{RL}} \rangle$. For $0 < \eta_A, \eta_B < 1$, MOPD approximately preserves the RL task directions while reducing the magnitude of cross-task interference, providing a possible explanation for smaller multi-task conflict.