


PUSHING TEST-TIME SCALING LIMITS OF DEEP SEARCH WITH ASYMMETRIC VERIFICATION

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ABSTRACT

Test-time compute can be scaled both sequentially and in parallel. Sequential scaling involves lengthening the generation process, while parallel scaling involves verifying and selecting among multiple candidate outputs. Combining these two strategies has led to the most powerful AI systems, such as Grok 4 Heavy, GPT-5 Pro, and Gemini-2.5 Pro Deep Think. A key observation is that, in certain contexts (e.g., solving Sudoku puzzles), verifying responses can be substantially easier than generating them. This property, referred to as *asymmetric verification*, highlights the strong potential of test-time scaling. In this work, we study both sequential and parallel test-time scaling of deep search agents, motivated by the intuition that verification in this setting is often much easier than generation. In experiments, we first show that sequential scaling methods, such as budget forcing, can be effective initially but eventually degrade performance when over-applied in agentic search. Due to asymmetric verification, however, we are able to achieve substantial improvements by allocating only a modest amount of compute to the verifier. We conduct experiments with flagship open-source models, including GLM-4.5, K2, Qwen3-2507 and Tongyi-DeepResearch, and extend them to their “Heavy” variants through test-time scaling. These deep research agents achieve improvements of up to 20 absolute points on benchmarks such as BrowseComp. Remarkably, as an open-source alternative, GLM-4.5 Heavy reaches accuracy of **54.0%** on BrowseComp, **66.0%** on GAIA, and **68.0%** on xbench-DeepSearch, placing it on par with the best proprietary choices such as OpenAI Deep Research and o3. Tongyi-DeepResearch Heavy pushes performance even further, attaining **69.0%** accuracy on BrowseComp.

1 INTRODUCTION

Test-time scaling underpins the progress of most advanced AI systems, such as Grok 4 Heavy (xAI, 2025b), GPT-5-Thinking-Pro (OpenAI, 2025b), and Gemini 2.5 Pro (DeepMind, 2025). It operates through two complementary strategies (Snell et al., 2024): sequential scaling and parallel scaling. Sequential scaling deepens reasoning by extending chains of thought, as in OpenAI-o1 (Jaech et al., 2024), DeepSeek-R1 (DeepSeek-AI et al., 2025), and Kimi-k1.5 (Team et al., 2025b), where reinforcement learning encourages reflective reasoning that can unravel complex tasks. Parallel scaling, by contrast, broadens the exploration space by producing multiple candidate outputs and selecting among them through aggregation methods such as Best-of-K selection. This strategy is widely used in advanced closed-source systems such as GPT-5-Thinking-Pro (OpenAI, 2025b) and Gemini-2.5 Pro (DeepMind, 2025). While expanding exploration space greatly increases the likelihood of capturing the correct solution, it also imposes steep computational costs.

Compared to spending test-time compute on endlessly expanding the number of candidate outputs, allocating compute to verification to evaluate and select outputs introduces a new and orthogonal scaling dimension. Many tasks, such as Sudoku, exhibit an *Asymmetry of Verification* (Wei, 2025): they are far easier to verify than to solve, meaning that allocating compute to verifiers may yield disproportionate benefits. Many applications of deep search are prime examples of this property. In deep search, the models are often required to search deeply over the web through multiple recursive searching operations, browse hundreds or even thousands of pages, and identify information that

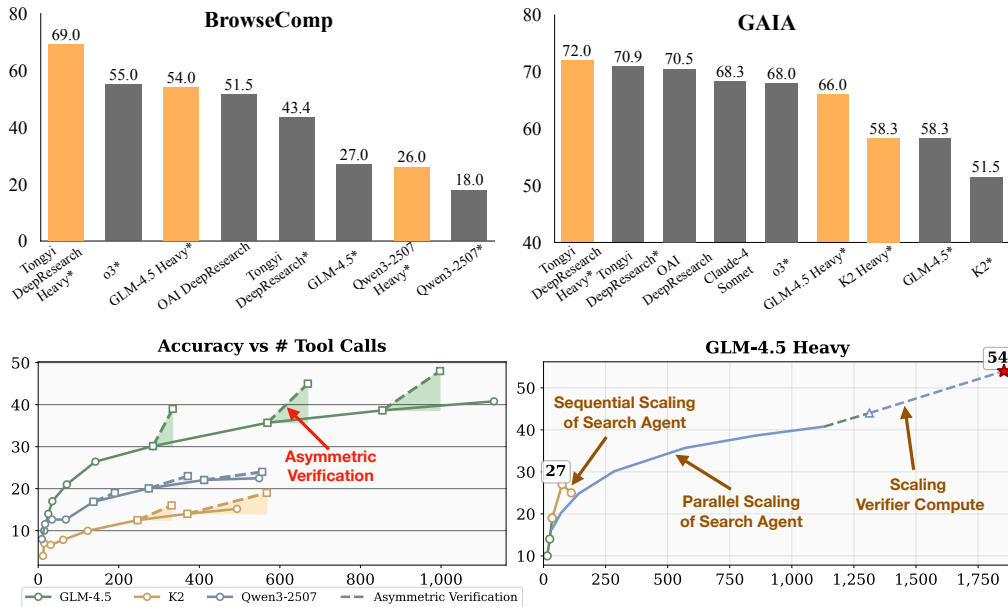


Figure 1: **Top part** shows accuracy on BrowseComp and GAIA. Results marked with * are from our test runs; *-Heavy denotes the accuracy after our test-time scaling. **Bottom left** shows how accuracy on BrowseComp varies with tool calls. Solid lines indicate scaling the search agent’s compute, dashed lines indicate allocating compute to a verifier. **Bottom right** shows strategies for extending GLM-4.5 to GLM-4.5 Heavy on BrowseComp.

satisfies the users’ needs. In such scenarios, forward search must navigate an enormous, sparsely informative space, while backward verification begins with a candidate answer and checks whether it satisfies well-defined conditions (Wei et al., 2025), drastically shrinking the search space and making far more efficient use of compute. Research on test-time scaling for deep search, particularly leveraging this asymmetry, therefore opens the path to building powerful and cost-effective agentic search systems such as Deep Research (OpenAI, 2025a; Google, 2025; xAI, 2025a).

In this work, we use the deep search capabilities of Deep Research systems as a representative case to study how scaling test-time compute affects complex information-seeking behavior. Under a simple agentic scaffold, we first investigate strategies that encourage models to increase search tool usage within a single trajectory. For example, we adopt the *budget forcing* strategy of Muennighoff et al. (2025). By forcing models to make additional tool calls after premature termination, we incentivize exploration of alternative reasoning paths. This substantially boosts tool usage and Pass@1 accuracy: GLM-4.5 (Zeng et al., 2025) improves from 19% to 27%, and Qwen3-0527 from 8% to 18% on the challenging BrowseComp benchmark (Wei et al., 2025). However, excessive budget forcing eventually degrades performance. To address this, we turn to *parallel scaling*, where expanding compute in parallel further strengthens exploration: GLM-4.5 achieves 67% Pass@32 accuracy on BrowseComp. However, these gains expose a critical bottleneck: scaling compute broadens the search space but does not help the search agent effectively identify the best candidates—pointing to the need to shift compute from search toward verification.

Deep search benefits from this shift because of the *Asymmetry of Verification*, where verifying an answer may be much easier than generating one. For instance, on BrowseComp, GLM-4.5 needs about 75 search tool calls on average to solve a problem, but verifying a candidate answer requires only about 18 tool calls. We leverage this asymmetry by adapting the search agent into a verifier agent with minimal modifications, which produces substantial efficiency gains (see Figure 1 bottom left). Specifically, we rollout multiple trajectories and answers from the search agent, use the verifier agent to evaluate the search agent’s predicted answers by conducting several rounds of search operations, and then select candidates using strategies such as Best-of-K, which uses the highest verifier’s confidence score among the K sampled trajectories. On BrowseComp, scaling search agent alone is costly: for GLM-4.5, raising accuracy from 30% to 40% requires roughly 500 additional tool calls. In contrast, adding a verifier achieves the same 10-point accuracy increase with only about 100 extra calls. Moreover, verifier performance scales well with additional compute, where budget forcing and parallel sampling further improve the accuracy on filtering correct answers.

These results highlight a compute-optimal paradigm for test-time scaling. Rather than allocating all resources to exploration, dedicating a substantial share of compute to verification yields disproportionately larger gains. By striking the right balance between search agents and verifier agents, selecting scaling strategies appropriate to the task (sequential or parallel), and applying effective aggregation metrics, we transform open-source models such as GLM-4.5, K2, Qwen3-2507 and Tongyi-DeepResearch into their “Heavy” variants through test-time scaling as exemplified in Figure 1 bottom right. In this way, open-source models achieve performance levels comparable to leading commercial systems as exemplified in Figure 1 top part. Particularly, GLM-4.5 Heavy, an open-source system, performs on par with commercial leaders such as OpenAI DeepResearch and o3 across most benchmarks, achieving 54.0% accuracy on BrowseComp, 49.0% on BrowseComp-zh, 66.0% on GAIA, and 68.0% on xbench-DeepSearch. Tongyi-DeepResearch, designed for long-horizon information-seeking, further boosts performance, with the “Heavy” variant reaching 69% accuracy on BrowseComp.

2 SCALING SEARCH COMPUTE

In this section, we begin by presenting the framework of the search agent and methods for scaling compute. We then outline the experimental setup, specifying the benchmarks, models, and evaluation metrics employed. Lastly, we report the experimental results on scaling the search agent’s test-time compute within the proposed framework.

2.1 OVERVIEW OF THE SEARCH AGENT FRAMEWORK

To ensure scalability and generality, we design a streamlined framework based on ReAct (Yao et al., 2023). In this framework, the search agent handles user problems by iteratively reasoning, generating and executing actions, and processing observations received from real-world web environments. The agent’s action space includes either generating a final answer or invoking search tools. The search tool itself combines the web search and browsing functionalities introduced in WebThinker (Li et al., 2025b): it takes as input a search query and an explicit search intent, and returns organized information retrieved from the web. Within this tool, an auxiliary model determines how to organize retrieved content or whether additional browsing is needed. To study test-time compute scaling in a controlled setting, we select K2 as the auxiliary model across the entire paper and do not change it (see Appendix B for details on this choice). Similar frameworks with searching and browsing functionalities based on ReAct have been widely adopted to develop web searching agents (Li et al., 2025a; Liu et al., 2025; Gao et al., 2025).

2.2 TEST-TIME SCALING APPROACHES

We categorize methods for scaling the search agent’s compute into two types:

Sequential Scaling increases computational resources along a single agentic trajectory for each individual problem. We introduce two straightforward yet effective methods: (1) *Max # Tool Call*: It is common practice to establish a maximum number of tool calls allowed for the search agent, which is explicitly defined in the agent’s system prompt. Once the agent reaches this limit, no additional results are provided from the search tool. We experiment with this approach to encourage more tool callings, and details of the system prompt configuration are available in Figure 13. (2) *Budget Forcing*: Our experiments revealed that agents often terminate tasks prematurely, even when the system prompt permits sufficient tool calls. Inspired by the approach in Muennighoff et al. (2025), after the agent produces an initial final answer, we allocate additional budget for further tool usage and instruct the agent to continue exploring alternative solution paths or search strategies. Examples of budget forcing scenarios can be found in the Figure 15.

Parallel Scaling expands computation by generating multiple independent solution trajectories for the same problem in parallel and then applying aggregation methods to determine the final output. We classify these aggregation methods into two types, depending on whether they rely on an external verifier: (1) *Majority Voting*: This approach follows the self-consistency principle (Wang et al., 2022), where the model independently produces multiple trajectories, and the most frequently predicted answer is selected as the final output. However, majority voting has limited practicality, as it cannot

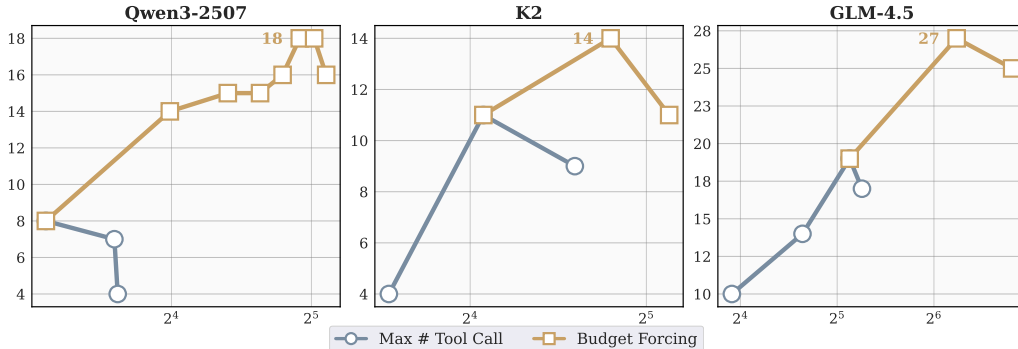


Figure 2: Sequential scaling of compute, with the x-axis representing the actual number of tool calls, and the y-axis representing Pass@1 accuracy on BrowseComp. For Max # Tool Call, search tool limits are set to 15, 30, and 50 for Qwen3-2507 and K2, and 15, 30, 50, and 100 for GLM-4.5. Budget Forcing begins from each model’s peak Max # Tool Call setting and expands until saturation: Qwen3-2507 starts at 15, adding 15 tools per step (7 expansions); K2 starts at 30, adding 30 per step (2 expansions); GLM-4.5 starts at 50, adding 50 per step (2 expansions).

easily extend to open-ended generation tasks where answers are diverse and not strictly comparable. (2) *Verifier-Based*: These approaches employ an external verifier to assign scores to the sampled trajectories. Based on these scores, one can either adopt *Best-of-K*, which selects the trajectory with the highest score, or *Weighted Voting*, which aggregates candidate trajectories by weighting them according to their verifier-assigned scores. In what follows, we first report results obtained using *Majority Voting* where we focus on analyzing the search agent alone, while in §3 we present experiments incorporating verifier-based strategies.

2.3 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

Benchmarks and Models To rigorously evaluate the agent’s information-seeking capabilities, we use benchmarks that are substantially more challenging than standard QA tasks. For this section and §3, we use BrowseComp (Wei et al., 2025) to study test-time scaling in a series of controlled experiments, where the search queries are complex and require navigation through a vast space of potential answers. Since the complete BrowseComp includes about 1200 questions, completing the full test consumes substantial computational resources. Therefore, a random sample of 100 is used to reduce costs while still being representative enough to reflect performance on the full dataset. In §4, we will include more benchmarks to present the final test-time scaling results. We select three open-source models with strong reasoning and agentic capabilities, GLM-4.5 (Zeng et al., 2025), K2 (Team et al., 2025a), and Qwen3-235B-A22B-Instruct-2507 (Yang et al., 2025), as search agents to evaluate their effectiveness when scaling test-time compute.

Metrics Following prior work (Gao et al., 2025; Li et al., 2025a), we approximate the test-time compute of search agents by counting the actual number of tool calls they make to solve each problem. This choice reflects the nature of deep research tasks, which often require interacting with external tools to gather information. We also compare two ways of measuring the scaling compute budget: the total number of tokens and the number of tool calls in Appendix F. To evaluate the performance of the search agent, we use two metrics: **Pass@K**, which measures whether the search agent finds the correct answer at least once among K independently sampled trajectories; and **Maj@K**, which measures whether the correct answer matches the majority vote among the answers from K independently sampled trajectories.

2.4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The Max # Tool Call method underutilizes compute, while Budget Forcing boosts tool use and performance. Figure 2 illustrates how different models scale with test-time compute on BrowseComp under two methods: Max # Tool Call and Budget Forcing. Under the Max # Tool Call setting, even when models are allotted generous tool call quotas, they often terminate early. For instance, Qwen3-2507 shows diminishing returns—increasing its quota from 15 to 50 results in only marginal increases in tool usage and even performance drops. In contrast, Budget Forcing actively drives models to exploit available compute. After a single application of budget forcing, GLM-4.5’s

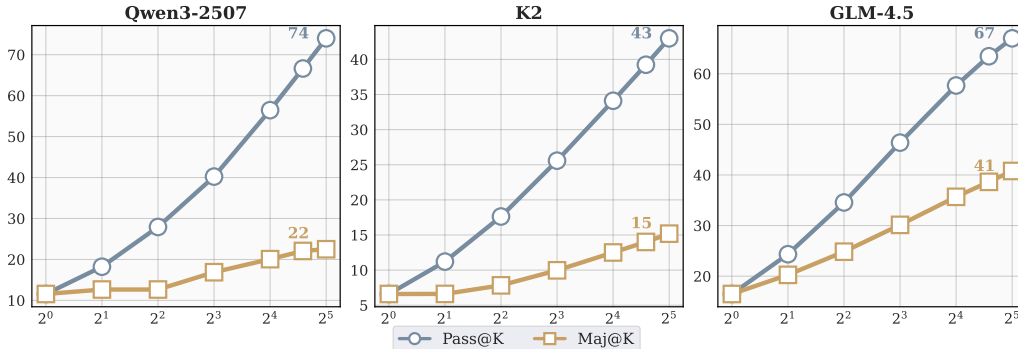


Figure 3: Parallel scaling of compute, where the x-axis shows K and the y-axis shows Pass@ K and Maj@ K accuracy on BrowseComp. For K2 and GLM-4.5, we first apply the Max # Tool Call strategy, setting maximum tool usage to 30 and 50 respectively, then perform parallel scaling by independently sampling $K = 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 24, 32$ trajectories. For Qwen3-2507, we apply the Max # Tool Call strategy with a maximum of 15 tools, then apply Budget Forcing to add 15 more, followed by parallel scaling with $K = 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 24, 32$ trajectories.

tool usage more than doubles, and its Pass@1 accuracy rises from 19% to 27%. Qwen3-2507 exhibits an even more pronounced jump, with its performance ceiling increasing from 8% to 18% across multiple rounds. However, we observe diminishing gains as the number of tool calls within a single trajectory increases. This saturation suggests that long trajectories challenge models to perform coherent long-range reasoning.

Models exhibit strong exploration capabilities but struggle with exploitation. As shown in Figure 3, surprisingly, increasing compute via parallel scaling leads to a rapid rise in Pass@ K accuracy, indicating that with more sampled trajectories, models are increasingly likely to find at least one correct answer. For instance, GLM-4.5’s Pass@ K accuracy increases from 16% to 67% when scaling K from 1 to 32 on the extremely challenging BrowseComp benchmark. Figure 8 in Appendix C further shows that combining Budget Forcing with parallel scaling enhances exploration even more. However, this does not translate into efficient exploitation: while K2 reaches a Pass@16 of about 34%, its Maj@16 accuracy—reflecting the ability to identify the correct answer through majority voting—is only around 12%. This gap suggests that simply encouraging broader exploration is insufficient. Instead, improving the model’s ability to recognize and select high-quality answers is critical. This suggests that instead of simply promoting more diverse exploration, we should focus on improving the model’s ability to exploit promising candidates. In the following sections, we explore how incorporating external verification signals can improve exploitation efficiency in §3 and how balancing exploration with exploitation (Zeng et al., 2024; Liu et al., 2024) leads to better overall performance in §4.

3 SCALING VERIFICATION COMPUTE

In this section, we begin by introducing the *asymmetric verification*, followed by the framework of the verifier we implemented. We then outline the experimental setup and present the results.

3.1 ASYMMETRIC VERIFICATION

Asymmetric Verification has become a central concept in AI, highlighting tasks where verifying a solution is far easier than generating one. Many problems have this “easy to verify” property. For instance, in Sudoku or the Eight Queens problem, generating a valid solution requires extensive search, but once a candidate solution is given, verification is trivial by simply checking whether all constraints are satisfied. Some tasks, however, show near-symmetry of verification, where checking correctness takes almost as much effort as solving. A classic example is matrix multiplication: confirming the product of two large matrices is essentially as costly as performing the multiplication itself. At the other extreme, certain problems are hard to verify: writing code may be relatively straightforward, but rigorously verifying that it is free from security vulnerabilities can demand exhaustive formal verification or full security audits. This “easy to verify” property allows the construction of robust reward systems at relatively low cost. By leveraging inexpensive verification, AI performance can be significantly boosted through scaling during training or at test time.

Table 1: Average number of tool calls for searching and verification across models and benchmarks. Since xbench-DeepSearch has relatively simple search requirements and balanced difficulty between search and verification, we report only the tool calls needed for search.

| Model | BrowseComp | | BrowseComp-zh | | GAIA | | xbench-DeepSearch |
|------------|------------|--------|---------------|--------|-------|--------|-------------------|
| | Solve | Verify | Solve | Verify | Solve | Verify | Solve |
| Qwen3-2507 | 32.4 | 11.3 | 18.8 | 9.7 | 9.7 | 7.9 | 13.4 |
| K2 | 27.8 | 11.2 | 38.2 | 6.3 | 6.2 | 5.8 | 2.9 |
| GLM-4.5 | 75.3 | 18.0 | 48.3 | 9.0 | 17.4 | 10.6 | 6.1 |

The deep search task similarly exhibits this asymmetry. While forward search requires models to navigate a vast space and retrieve hard-to-find information—often through extensive exploration—verification only needs minimal effort to confirm whether a predicted answer satisfies the necessary conditions. Consider the following example from BrowseComp:

Please provide the name of a video game released in 1992. The series’ first game was featured in a globally recognized record book, and it earned a spot in an Australian photographer publication. The third game inspired a legacy sequel. The fifth installment was the first to have a Chinese dub.

Given a video game, one can easily verify its validity via simple web searches by checking its release year, whether the first game was in the record book, and so on. We also evaluate different models on search and verification tasks across multiple benchmarks, measuring the number of tool calls each requires in Table 1. The results show that most deep research tasks exhibit asymmetric verification, and this asymmetry grows with task difficulty. For instance, in BrowseComp, GLM-4.5 uses about 75.3 tool calls to search for a candidate answer but only 18 tool calls to verify it. In this section, we aim to harness this asymmetry by introducing verifiers to filter candidate answers, thereby improving the efficiency of test-time compute usage.

3.2 OVERVIEW OF THE VERIFIER FRAMEWORK

Our verifier shares the same design principles, framework, and search tools as the search agent in §2.1, differing only in the system prompt. In the verifier’s prompt, the model is instructed to use search tools specifically to check the correctness of a predicted answer and to assign a confidence score based on whether the answer meets the necessary conditions confirmed by the search results. The full system prompt is provided in Figure 14 in the Appendix.

3.3 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

We use the same open-source models introduced in §2.3 and evaluate them on the most challenging benchmark, BrowseComp. To fairly compare the computational efficiency of scaling search agents versus scaling verifier agents, we start from the models that have already undergone parallel scaling. From this baseline, we explore two directions: (1) further scaling the search agent’s computation, continuing to generate more trajectories through parallel sampling (2) introducing a verifier agent to evaluate the predicted answers from the existing trajectories. For the verifier-based approach, we filter candidates using the verifier’s confidence scores, testing strategies such as Best-of-K and Weighted Voting. We note that verifier computation can also be scaled sequentially (e.g., Budget Forcing) or in parallel, where multiple verification trajectories are generated for each candidate answer. The final confidence score is the average across trajectories, reducing bias from any single sample. We provide the details of the experiments introducing the verifier agent (i.e., Figure 4) and the experiments on scaling verifier computation (i.e., Figure 5) in the Appendix D.

3.4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Verifier yields superior accuracy–cost trade-off. Figure 4 illustrates that the asymmetry property of verification consistently appears across different models when scaling test compute. In other words, adding a verifier allows accuracy to grow more quickly than simply increasing the computation of the search agent. For example, with GLM-4.5, increasing search computation alone requires about an

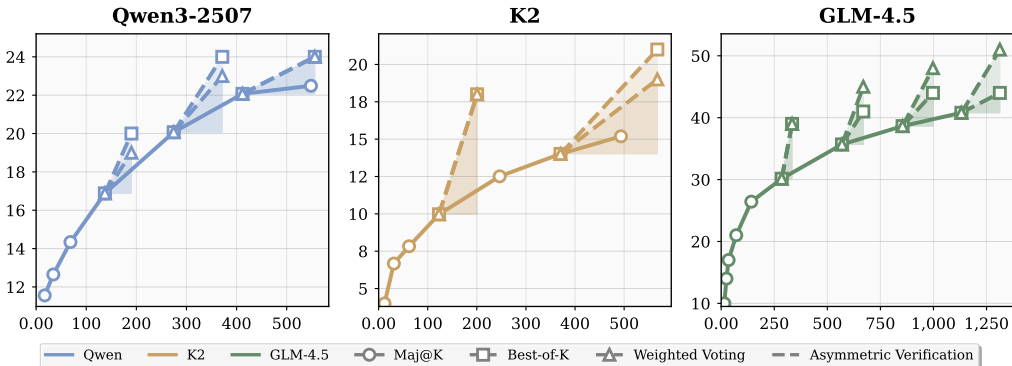


Figure 4: Parallel scaling results of different models on BrowseComp. The x-axis shows the number of tool calls counting both the searcher and the verifier. The solid lines represent the growth of Maj@K corresponding to scaling the searcher’s compute, while the dashed lines represent the growth of Best-of-K and Weighted Voting after introducing a verifier.

additional 560 tool calls just to raise accuracy from 35.7% with Maj@16 to 40.8% with Maj@32. By contrast, introducing a verifier achieves a larger gain with far less cost: only about 100 additional tool calls are needed to improve from 35.7% with Maj@8 to 45% with Weighted Voting. A similar pattern emerges with K2. Without a verifier, raising performance from around 10% with Maj@8 to 15.2% with Maj@32 requires an increase of about 370 tool calls. With a verifier, however, the same starting point improves to 18% with Best-of-8 or Weighted Voting after only about 77 additional tool calls.

Scaling the verifier can further raise the performance ceiling, though the gains depend on the model and strategy used. We apply the scaling methods like Max # Tool Call, Budget Forcing and Parallel Scaling to the verifier, with results shown in Figure 5. These methods lead to notable improvements. For example, in the K2 case, applying Budget Forcing increases actual tool usage and boosts accuracy from 10% to 20%. Scaling methods such as budget forcing or parallel scaling, and answer aggregation schemes such as Best-of-N or Weighted Voting produce distinct improvement patterns. For example, with GLM-4.5, parallel scaling paired with the Best-of-8 approach achieves the largest gain, reaching 42% on BrowseComp. In contrast, K2 attains better Best-of-8 accuracy with lower compute using budget forcing. These results show that, in practical deployments, the choice of scaling target (e.g., search agent or verifier agent), scaling strategy, and answer aggregation metric should be guided by both the model’s characteristics and the available compute budget, to maximize performance per unit of cost.

4 PUSHING TEST-TIME SCALING LIMITS OF OPEN MODELS

4.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

Building on the results from §2 and §3, we can conceptualize test-time compute scaling through three orthogonal dimensions: scaling target, scaling strategy, and aggregation metric. **Scaling target** defines what part of the system is being expanded—either the search agent, which explores candidate solutions, or the verifier agent, which evaluates and filters them. **Scaling strategy** specifies how the additional compute is applied, encompassing approaches such as Max # Tool Call (adjusting the maximum number of tool calls allowed), Budget Forcing (actively increasing tool invocation), and Parallel Scaling (running multiple trajectories concurrently). **Aggregation metric** determines how the outputs are combined and assessed, using criteria like Pass@1 (single-best answer), Maj@K (majority voting), Weighted Voting (confidence-weighted voting), or Best-of-K (selecting the highest-scoring candidate). This unified view helps disentangle where to allocate extra computation, how to deploy it, and how to measure its benefits, clarifying trade-offs and guiding compute-optimal scaling decisions.

Benchmarks and Models Compared to evaluating the agent on QA tasks that are relatively simple, we aim to assess its information-seeking capabilities using significantly more challenging benchmarks. Specifically, we evaluate on the following benchmarks: (1) BrowseComp (Wei et al., 2025), which

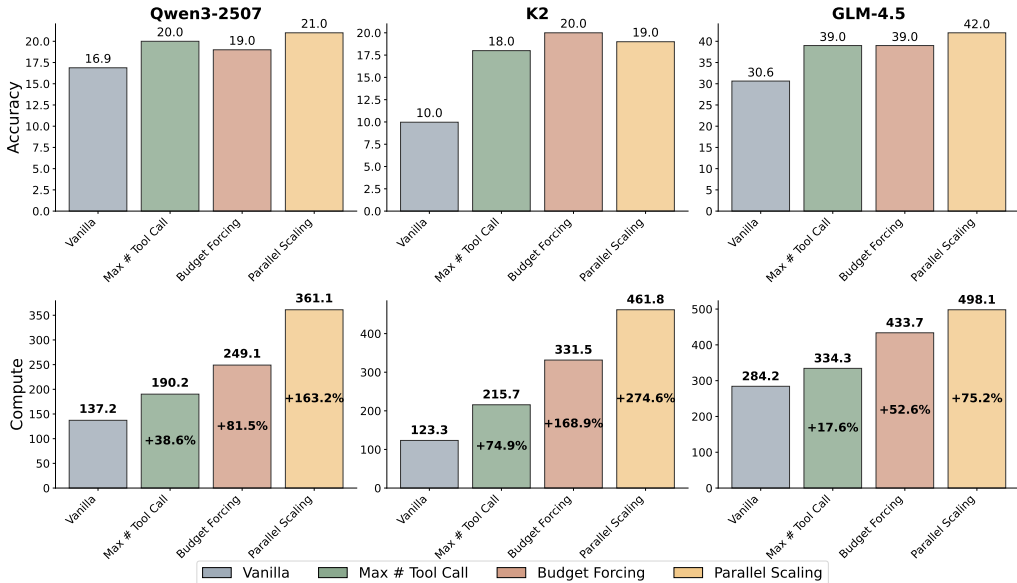


Figure 5: Different strategies for scaling verifier computation across models. The top panel shows accuracy, and the bottom panel shows the corresponding number of tool calls. Along the x-axis, vanilla indicates the Maj@8 accuracy achieved by scaling the search agent without verification, while Max # Tool Call, Budget Forcing, and Parallel Scaling show the Best-of-8 results when applying these strategies to increase verifier compute.

Table 2: Accuracy (%) of proprietary and open-source agentic systems across multiple benchmarks. Results marked with † are from our test runs, indicating the maximum Pass@1 that models can achieve when provided with sufficient tool calls without budget forcing. For Tongyi DeepResearch, we report both the results of our test runs and the officially reported results

| | BrowseComp | BrowseComp-zh | GAIA | xbench-DeepSearch |
|--|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| Proprietary Deep-Research Systems / Models | | | | |
| Gemini 2.5 Pro | 7.6 | 27.3 | - | - |
| OpenAI o1 | 9.9 | 29.1 | - | - |
| OpenAI o3† | 55.0 | 59.0 | 68.0 | 68.0 |
| OpenAI GPT-5 | 19.8 | 34.3 | - | 30.0 |
| Grok3 DeepResearch | - | 12.9 | - | 50+ |
| Doubao DeepResearch | - | 26.0 | - | 50+ |
| OpenAI DeepResearch | 51.5 | 42.9 | 70.5 | 66.7 |
| Open-Source Models | | | | |
| DeepSeek-R1 | 2.0 | 23.2 | 16.5 | 32.7 |
| Qwen3-2507† | 8.0 | 23.0 | 44.7 | 45.5 |
| K2† | 11.0 | 22.0 | 50.0 | 54.0 |
| GLM-4.5† | 19.0 | 27.0 | 58.0 | 58.0 |
| DeepSeek-V3.1 | 30.0 | 49.2 | - | 71.2 |
| Tongyi DeepResearch† | 43.0 | 39.0 | 70.6 | 68.0 |
| Tongyi DeepResearch | 43.4 | 46.7 | 70.9 | 75.0 |
| Open-Source Models (Heavy Version) | | | | |
| Qwen3-2507 Heavy | 29.0 (+21.0) | 42.0 (+19.0) | 53.4 (+8.7) | 63.0 (+17.5) |
| K2 Heavy | 24.0 (+13.0) | 36.0 (+14.0) | 58.3 (+8.3) | 57.0 (+3.0) |
| GLM-4.5 Heavy | 54.0 (+35.0) | 49.0 (+22.0) | 66.0 (+8.0) | 68.0 (+10.0) |
| Tongyi DeepResearch Heavy | 69.0 (+26.0) | 55.0 (+16.0) | 72.8 (+2.2) | 80.0 (+12.0) |

includes complex search problems that require navigating through a large space of potential answers, where relevant information is difficult to locate. (2) BrowseComp-zh (Zhou et al., 2025), the Chinese counterpart of BrowseComp to evaluate LLM agents on the Chinese web. (3) GAIA (Mialon et al., 2023), which evaluates multi-modality and tool-use capabilities; following previous work (Li et al., 2025a), we focus on its text-only validation set. (4) xbench-DeepSearch (Chen et al., 2025), another challenging benchmark designed to assess tool usage capabilities specifically in search and information retrieval contexts. The models used remain consistent with those in §2 and §3. We

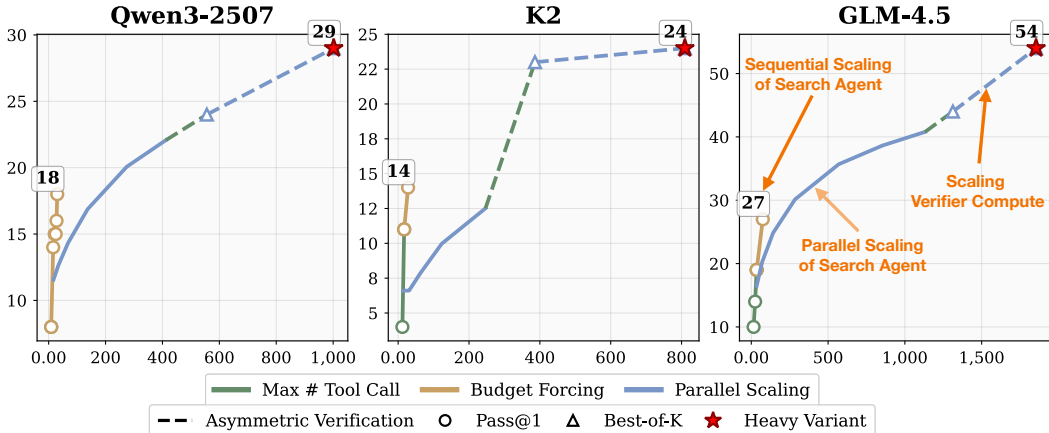


Figure 6: Scaling test time compute for different models on BrowseComp, where the x-axis represents the actual number of tool calls, and the y-axis represents accuracy.

also include Tongyi-DeepResearch-30B-A3B (Team, 2025), a model that is specifically designed for long-horizon, deep information-seeking tasks. Our evaluation uses 100 randomly sampled tasks from BrowseComp and BrowseComp-zh, since running the full test is computationally expensive. This sampling balances cost efficiency with representativeness. To ensure that our randomly selected subsets are representative, we conduct robustness analyses on three mutually exclusive random subsets in Appendix E. In contrast, evaluations for other benchmarks are conducted on their full datasets.

Scaling Details We scale performance by combining Max # Tool Call scaling with Budget Forcing to reach the Pass@1 peaks of different models. To broaden the exploration space of the search agents, we apply parallel scaling on top of sequential scaling. For example, on BrowseComp, GLM-4.5 generates 32 parallel samples, K2 generates 24, and Qwen3-2507 generates 16, while on other benchmarks every model samples 8 times in parallel. Once these trajectories are produced, a verifier selects the answers, after which parallel scaling or budget forcing is applied again to the verifier to increase the verifier’s test-time compute. These scaling approaches lead to the heavy variant of different models. We document the specific scaling setup for GLM-4.5 Heavy, K2 Heavy, and Qwen3-2507 Heavy in Appendix G.

4.2 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Table 2 presents the experimental results of GLM-4.5 Heavy, K2 Heavy, and Qwen3-2507 Heavy. The three models after test-time scaling achieve substantial performance gains across all benchmarks. For example, Qwen3-2507 Heavy improves accuracy over Qwen3-2507 by about 20 absolute points on BrowseComp, BrowseComp-zh, and xbench-DeepSearch. Notably, GLM-4.5 Heavy reaches 54.0% accuracy on BrowseComp, 66.0% on GAIA, and 68.0% on xbench-DeepSearch, putting it on par with the best commercial agents such as o3 and OpenAI Deep Research on these three benchmarks. We also introduce a heavy variant of Tongyi Deep Research, which achieves 69% accuracy on BrowseComp, 55% accuracy on BrowseComp-zh, 72.8% on GAIA and 80.0% on xbench-DeepSearch as shown in Figure 1. Full implementation details are provided in the Appendix G.

Figure 6 presents the results of scaling test-time compute for different models on BrowseComp. Sustained compute expansion can bring open-source systems close to closed-source performance. Verifier introduction further accelerates performance gains. For K2, adding a verifier increases Best-of-16 to 23%, with a slope much steeper than simply expanding the search agent. Figure 10 in Appendix H shows that performance patterns on BrowseComp-zh closely mirror those on BrowseComp. On BrowseComp-zh, GLM-4.5 attains a Best-of-8 score of 49%, exceeding the level of OpenAI Deep Research (see Table 2). Notably, parallel scaling of the verifier yields consistent accuracy gains: for K2, Best-of-8 rises from 31% to 36%. This is because parallel sampling mitigates variance in individual confidence scores, making the selection process more robust to noise by reducing the impact of extreme values. Figure 11 in Appendix I presents the results of scaling test-time compute for different models on GAIA. Across models, different scaling strategies still yield notable performance gains for both search agents and verifier agents. We report xbench-DeepSearch results in

Figure 12 of the Appendix. Because solving and verifying tasks in this benchmark are nearly equally difficult (as detailed in Appendix J), we only evaluate search-agent scaling in Figure 12 and Table 2.

5 RELATED WORK

Previous work on test-time scaling has mostly focused on narrow reasoning domains such as coding and mathematics (Muennighoff et al., 2025; Luo et al., 2025), where increasing the number of “thinking tokens” reliably improves performance. Existing methods for scaling test-time compute can be organized along two axes: parallel and sequential (Muennighoff et al., 2025; Snell et al., 2024). In parallel methods, the model independently generates multiple candidate solutions via repeated sampling (Brown et al., 2024), and a final answer is chosen either by majority voting or by an external verifier using Best-of-N strategies (Brown et al., 2024; Irvine et al., 2023; Levi, 2024). In sequential methods, the model repeatedly revises and refines its own previous outputs to produce better solutions (Hou et al., 2025; Lee et al., 2025).

Verification is central to test-time scaling, but fully automated verification is only available in a few settings (Brown et al., 2024), such as proof checkers for formal theorems (Zheng et al., 2021) or unit tests for code (Jain et al., 2025). As a result, most settings rely on LLM-as-judge (i.e., reward models) for verification. Current reward models are typically either outcome-based (Xin et al., 2024; Ankner et al., 2024), which assign a single global score to each candidate solution and are often used in Best-of-N Selection methods, or process-based (Lightman et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2024; Wu et al., 2024; Wang, 2025), which score individual reasoning steps and are commonly used to guide generation in tree-search methods (Gandhi et al., 2024; Wu et al., 2024) that combine both parallel and sequential exploration (Liu et al., 2023; Xie et al., 2023; Wu et al., 2024).

Different from previous studies in which the verifier is not “agentic” (Brown et al., 2024; Jain et al., 2025), our work investigates a verifier agent capable of invoking tools. Because deep research operates in open-ended, real-world environments where solving a problem requires not only reasoning but also active information gathering via web tools—retrieving, assessing, and integrating external evidence that cannot be inferred from the model’s internal knowledge alone (Wei et al., 2025; Li et al., 2025a). In prior works (Lightman et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2024; Brown et al., 2024), each verification step requires a roughly fixed amount of computation, and test-time compute scaling primarily occurs along the search dimension. For the first time, however, our work explores verifier compute scaling in the context of an agentic verifier and quantitatively analyzes the allocation of computational resources between search and verification within asymmetric verification (Wei, 2025) situations.

6 DISCUSSION

In this paper, we present a systematic study of test-time scaling for deep research agents, examining both sequential and parallel scaling. Our approach primarily exploits the properties of asymmetric verification, where we apply test-time scaling to a range of flagship open-source models, extending them into “heavy variants” that achieve substantially higher performance on deep research tasks. Although our current use of asymmetric verification is relatively simple by employing a verifier to select final answers, it nevertheless proves highly effective, significantly improving the efficiency of test-time scaling. Looking ahead, we aim to adopt more flexible strategies. For example, verifiers could be applied at each step along the search trajectory, or even used to actively guide the search process. In addition, we envision incorporating asymmetric verification more deeply into training, enabling search agents to internalize verification capabilities and using them directly during inference.

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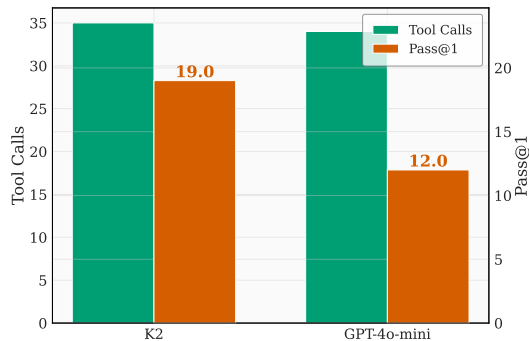


Figure 7: Pass@1 and the average number of actual tool uses per problem for different auxiliary models, under a maximum limit of 50 search tool calls.

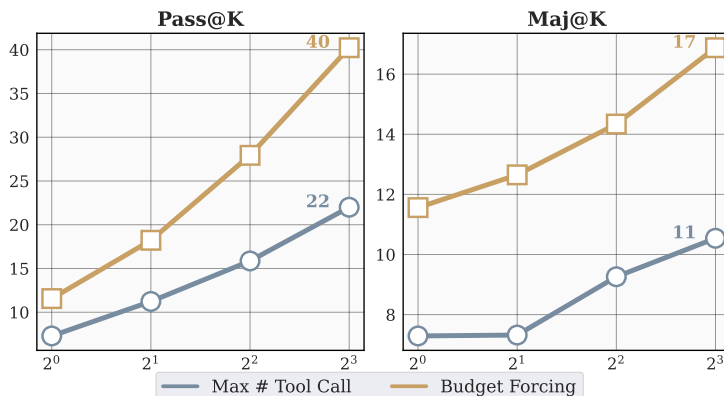


Figure 8: A comparison of Qwen3-2507’s performance after applying Max # Tool Call and Budget Forcing followed by parallel scaling. The x-axis represents K; the y-axis shows Pass@K and Maj@K. Max # Tool Call limits tool usage to 15 calls and applies Parallel Scaling with K = 1, 2, 4, 8 independent trajectories. Budget Forcing increases this limit by 15 calls and uses the same K values.

A THE USE OF LARGE LANGUAGE MODELS

Large language models (LLMs) were used exclusively to refine the writing of this paper. All aspects of the research process—including ideation, design, analysis, and interpretation—were conducted entirely without the assistance of LLMs.

B IMPACT OF AUXILIARY MODEL ON SEARCH TOOL

The auxiliary model in the search tool is responsible for extracting information from retrieved content based on the search intent, initiating follow-up queries, and selectively accessing relevant URLs. We assess how its capabilities affect search tool performance by using GLM-4.5 as the search agent and comparing a stronger auxiliary model (K2) with a weaker one (GPT-4o-mini) with a maximum of 50 tool calls. Figure 7 shows performance on BrowseComp along with the actual number of tool calls. While both auxiliary models make a similar number of calls, their accuracy diverges sharply: GPT-4o-mini reaches only 12%, whereas K2 attains 19%. This gap demonstrates that auxiliary model strength directly impacts the quality of search results and, consequently, the search agent’s final performance. For this reason, we use K2 as the default auxiliary model in our experiments.

C COMBINING BUDGET FORCING WITH PARALLEL SCALING

In Figure 8, we compare Qwen3-2507’s performance after applying Max # Tool Call and Budget Forcing, followed by parallel scaling. The results show that combining Budget Forcing with parallel scaling further enhances exploration.

Table 3: GLM-4.5’s Pass@8, Maj@8, and Best-of-8 on three mutually exclusive subsets of BrowseComp and BrowseComp-zh.

| Dataset | Metric | Run 1 | Run 2 | Run 3 | Mean \pm Std |
|---------------|-----------|-------|-------|-------|----------------|
| BrowseComp | Pass@8 | 46.4 | 48.0 | 50.0 | 48.1 \pm 1.8 |
| | Maj@8 | 30.1 | 30.9 | 32.0 | 31.0 \pm 0.9 |
| | Best-of-8 | 39.0 | 38.0 | 40.0 | 39.0 \pm 1.0 |
| BrowseComp-zh | Pass@8 | 64.0 | 67.0 | 65.9 | 65.6 \pm 1.5 |
| | Maj@8 | 39.8 | 38.2 | 42.6 | 40.2 \pm 2.2 |
| | Best-of-8 | 42.0 | 41.0 | 46.6 | 43.2 \pm 3.0 |

D SCALING DETAILS OF THE VERIFIER

We introduce a verifier agent that evaluates predicted answers derived from search agent’s trajectories. In this verifier-based approach, we filter candidate answers using the verifier’s confidence scores, exploring strategies such as Best-of-K and Weighted Voting. The search agent’s computation is scaled in exactly the same way as in § 2: each model samples up to 32 trajectories, from which we extract the predicted answers. The verifier then evaluates each answer, producing confidence scores that guide downstream aggregation. Different aggregation strategies can be used. In the Best-of-K setting, we select the answer with the highest verifier score among the K sampled trajectories. In the Weighted Voting setting, we aggregate the candidate answers by weighting each one according to its verifier-assigned confidence. Results for these strategies are shown in Figure 4. Verifier computation itself can also be scaled in different ways, either sequentially or in parallel. In the sequential case, the verifier can be given additional tool usage after providing its initial score. This Budget Forcing setup encourages the verifier to explore alternative verification paths, refining its confidence estimate before the updated score is used for filtering. In the parallel case, the verifier runs multiple independent evaluations of the same candidate answer. The confidence score used for filtering is then the average of these evaluations. We report scaling verifier’s compute results in Figure 5.

E ROBUSTNESS ANALYSIS VIA RANDOM SAMPLING

To verify that the originally selected subsets are representative, we conduct additional experiments by randomly sampling two new sets of 100 mutually exclusive samples from BrowseComp. For BrowseComp-zh, since the full dataset contains fewer than 300 samples, we split the remaining data into two groups, one with 100 samples and the other with 89 samples, and evaluate both. For each group, we measure GLM 4.5’s Pass@8, Maj@8, and Best-of-8 (using the verifier) and compute the mean and standard deviation over the three runs. The results are shown in Table 3, where Run 1 corresponds to the subset used in §2, §3, and §4. These results show that across all three mutually exclusive subsets, the Pass@8, Maj@8, and Best-of-8 scores remain consistent, indicating that the subsets used in Run 1 provide a reliable reflection of model performance on the full datasets.

F DIFFERENT METHODS FOR MEASURING SCALING BUDGET

We compare two ways of measuring the scaling compute budget: the total number of tokens and the number of tool calls. In this comparison, we replace the x-axis metric for GLM-4.5 in Figure 4 with the total number of tokens and present the resulting comparison in Figure 9. It shows that the asymmetry verification phenomenon remains clear and consistent even when the scaling budget is measured by total tokens rather than by tool calls.

G SCALING DETAILS OF THE HEAVY VARIANT

We scale performance by combining Max # Tool Call scaling with Budget Forcing to reach the Pass@1 peaks of different models. In BrowseComp, Budget Forcing is applied to Qwen3-2507 by expanding it five times, with each expansion adding 15 additional tool calls. For K2, the expansion is performed once with 30 additional tool calls, while GLM-4.5 is expanded once with 50 additional

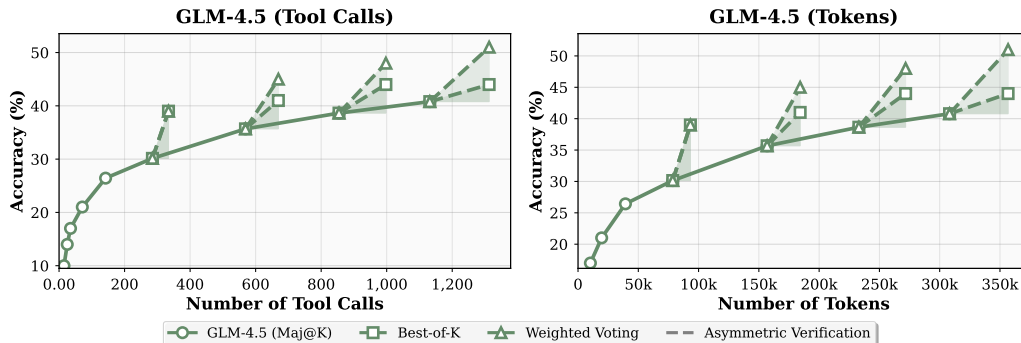


Figure 9: The parallel scaling results of GLM-4.5 on BrowseComp are evaluated in two ways: by the number of tool calls and by the total number of tokens used. In the left figure, the horizontal axis represents the number of tool calls; in the right figure, it represents the total token count. Both measurements include contributions from the searcher and the verifier. The solid curves show how Maj@K improves as the searcher’s compute increases, while the dashed curves show how Best-of-K and Weighted Voting improve when a verifier is added.

tool calls. In BrowseComp-zh, Budget Forcing is also applied to Qwen3-2507, this time expanding it three times with 30 additional tool calls at each step. K2 achieves its highest Pass@1 performance when the Max # Tool Call is set to 15, whereas GLM-4.5 is expanded once with 50 additional tool calls. In GAIA, Budget Forcing is again used to expand Qwen3-2507, adding 15 additional tool calls at each of three expansion steps. K2 is expanded once with 30 additional tool calls, while GLM-4.5 achieves its peak Pass@1 score when the Max # Tool Call is set to 30. Finally, in xbench-DeepSearch, Qwen3-2507 is expanded five times, with each step adding 15 additional tool calls. K2 reaches its highest Pass@1 score when the maximum number of tool calls is set to 100, whereas GLM-4.5 reaches its peak with the maximum number of tool calls set to 15.

To broaden the exploration space of the search agents, we apply parallel scaling on top of sequential scaling. On BrowseComp, for instance, GLM-4.5 generates 32 parallel samples, K2 generates 16, and Qwen3-2507 generates 24, while on other benchmarks every model produces 8 parallel samples. Once these trajectories are generated, a verifier evaluates the answers, after which we apply either parallel scaling or budget forcing again to the verifier in order to increase its test-time compute. On BrowseComp with Qwen3-2507, each trajectory from the search agent is verified four times in parallel, and the verifier’s average score is taken as the trajectory score, yielding a Best-of-24 accuracy. With K2, the same process produces a Best-of-16 accuracy, and with GLM-4.5 it yields a Best-of-32 accuracy. On BrowseComp-zh, the procedure is similar: Qwen3-2507, K2, and GLM-4.5 all rely on four parallel verifications per trajectory, with the average score determining the outcome, leading in each case to a Best-of-8 accuracy. On GAIA, Qwen3-2507 and K2 follow the same approach and also obtain Best-of-8 accuracy. For GLM-4.5 on GAIA, however, we used budget forcing to expand the verifier’s compute once, with the resulting verification score taken as the trajectory score, again producing a Best-of-8 result. Finally, since solving and verifying tasks in xbench-DeepSearch are of nearly equal difficulty, we did not employ a verifier on that benchmark.

We apply test-time extension to Tongyi Deep Research on BrowseComp. Because this model does not perform well as a verifier, we rely on GLM 4.5 for verification. The process works as follows: Tongyi Deep Research first generates 16 parallel samples, and GLM 4.5 then extracts answers from these responses. Next, GLM 4.5 serves as a verifier to check the extracted answers. Finally, through weighted voting, this approach achieves an accuracy of 69%. For other benchmarks such as BrowseComp-zh, GAIA and xbench-DeepSearch, we take similar steps, where Tongyi Deep Research first generates 8 parallel samples, and GLM 4.5 then extracts answers from these responses. Next, GLM 4.5 serves as a verifier to check the extracted answers. Finally, through weighted voting, this approach achieves 55.0%, 72.8%, and 80.0% on BrowseComp-zh, GAIA and xbench-DeepSearch respectively.

H SCALING RESULTS ON BROWSECOMP-ZH

Figure 10 presents the results of scaling test-time compute for various models on Browsecomp-zh.

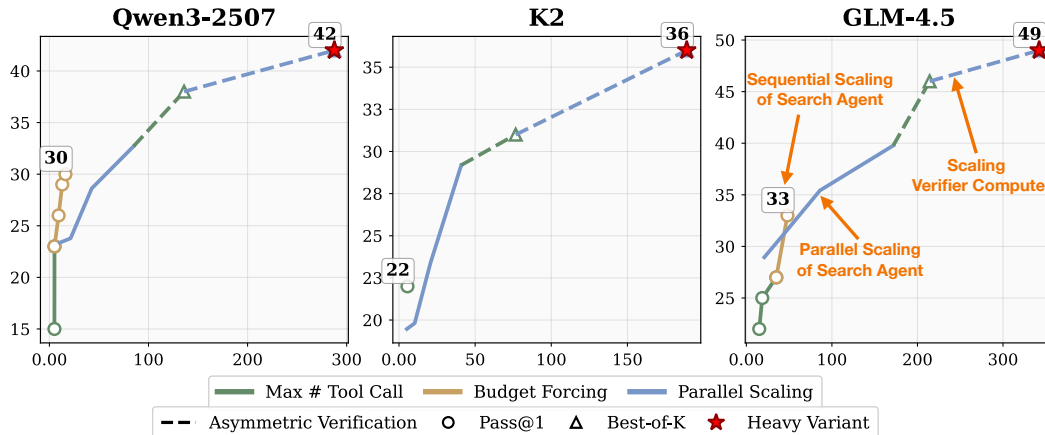


Figure 10: Scaling test time compute for different models on Browsecomp-zh, where the x-axis represents the actual number of tool calls, and the y-axis represents accuracy.

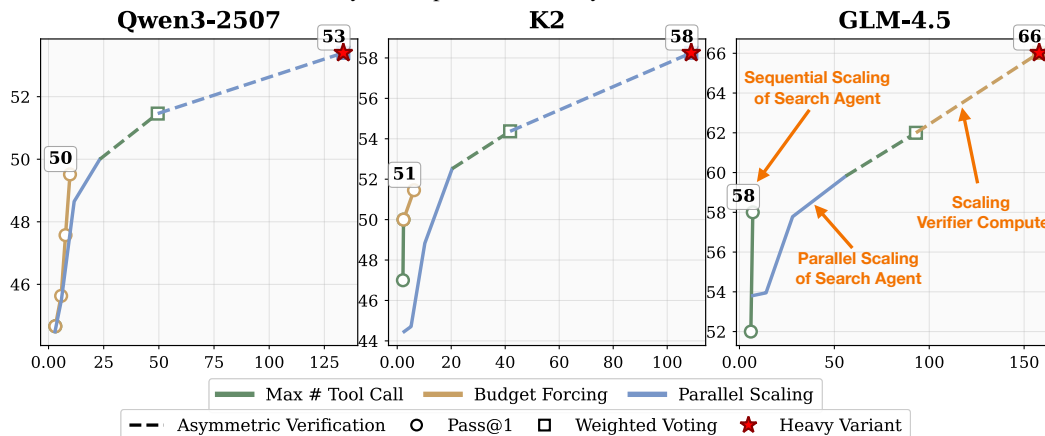


Figure 11: Scaling test time compute for different models on GAIA, where the x-axis represents the actual number of tool calls, and the y-axis represents accuracy.

I SCALING RESULTS ON GAIA

Figure 11 presents the results of scaling test-time compute for various models on GAIA.

J SCALING RESULTS ON XBENCH-DEEPSEARCH

Figure 12 presents the results of scaling test-time compute for various models on xbench-DeepSearch. Scaling the search agent’s compute consistently yields substantial performance gains. In contrast, verifier scaling offers little improvement. For example, with GLM-4.5, Maj@8 reaches 67.61%, yet adding a verifier only raises weighted voting to 68.0%. This minimal gain arises because, on xbench-DeepSearch, solving a problem and verifying it require comparable effort. For instance, consider the query: *As of May 18 2025, what is the maximum context token count supported by OpenAI’s codex-1 agent?* The correct answer is 192k, but confirming this demands nearly the same search intensity as finding it.

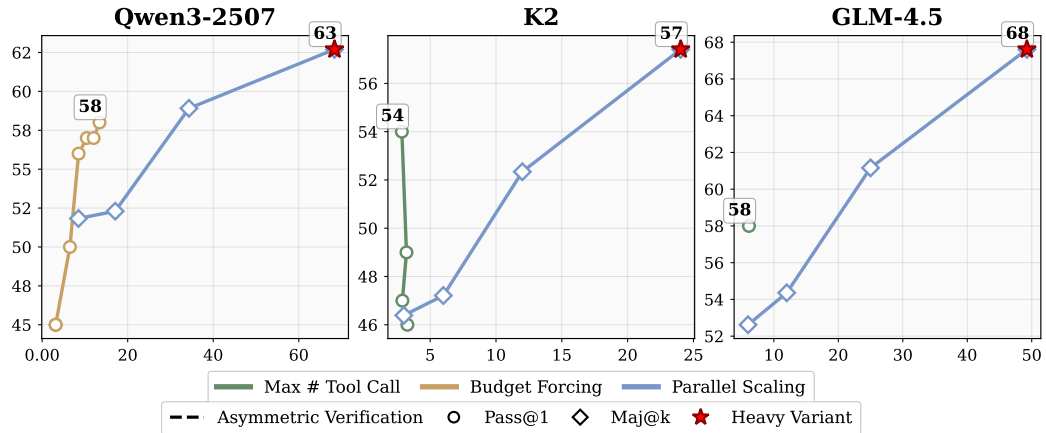


Figure 12: Scaling test time compute for different models on xbench-DeepSearch, where the x-axis represents the actual number of tool calls, and the y-axis represents accuracy.

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You are a reasoning assistant equipped with web search capabilities to help
solve problems. Use the "deep_websearch" tool whenever you need additional
information or evidence. You may use this tool multiple times, up to a maximum
of {max_search_calls} times.

Your answer must be provided within a boxed environment like this:

\\[
\\boxed{{{<your final answer>}}
\\]
    
```

Figure 13: Details of the Max # Tool Call’s system prompt for search agent.

You are a reasoning assistant equipped with web search capabilities to fact-check and verify the accuracy of a predicted answer to a user's question. Your sole task is to verify the predicted answer, not to answer the question yourself. To ensure rigorous and reliable verification, actively use the "deep_websearch" tool whenever supporting evidence is needed. You may use this tool multiple times, up to a maximum of {max_search_calls} searches.

Follow these steps carefully:

Carefully read the user's question and extract all conditions that a correct answer must satisfy. These are the requirements imposed by the question - not properties of the predicted answer alone.

For each condition, check whether the predicted answer satisfies it. Use deep_websearch to find evidence. A condition is considered verified only if:

It is explicitly supported by search results obtained through deep_websearch, and

The search results confirm that the predicted answer does indeed satisfy the condition.

Compute the confidence score as the ratio of conditions that are both

- (i) verified using deep_websearch and
- (ii) confirmed to be satisfied, to the total number of identified conditions.

Finally, present the confidence score in the following format:

```
\\[\n\\boxed{\\text{<confidence_score>}}\n\\]
```

Here, <confidence_score> = (number of conditions both verified and satisfied via deep_websearch) / (total number of conditions from the question).

Figure 14: Details of the Max # Tool Call's system prompt for verifier agent.



Figure 15: Examples of budget forcing scenarios.