

000 001 002 003 004 005 RETOUCHLLM: TRAINING-FREE CODE-BASED IMAGE 006 RETOUCHING WITH VISION LANGUAGE MODELS 007 008 009

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ABSTRACT

Image retouching not only enhances visual quality but also serves as a means of expressing personal preferences and emotions. However, existing learning-based approaches require large-scale paired data and operate as black boxes, making the retouching process opaque and limiting their adaptability to handle diverse, user- or image-specific adjustments. In this work, we propose *RetouchLLM*, a training-free white-box image retouching system, which requires no training data and performs interpretable, code-based retouching directly on high-resolution images. Our framework progressively enhances the image in a manner similar to how humans perform multi-step retouching, allowing exploration of diverse adjustment paths. It comprises of two main modules: a visual critic that identifies differences between the input and reference images, and a code generator that produces executable codes. Experiments demonstrate that our approach generalizes well across diverse retouching styles, while natural language-based user interaction enables interpretable and controllable adjustments tailored to user intent.

1 INTRODUCTION

Image retouching is the process of enhancing the aesthetic visual quality of an image that suffers from photographic defects such as improper exposure, poor contrast, or color imbalance, typically through a sequence of global and/or region-specific adjustments. Image retouching plays a vital role in enhancing the visual quality of photographs and expressing personal emotions and aesthetics. The preferred retouching style varies significantly from person to person (Ouyang et al., 2023; Hu et al., 2018), and even for the same individual, it may differ depending on the subject or scene as different visual intentions arise (Wang et al., 2023). In response to this diversity, various automated deep learning-based image enhancement techniques (Duan et al., 2025; Ouyang et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2022; Kosugi, 2024; He et al., 2020) have been proposed. These methods typically involve training a model on image pairs, each consisting of an original and a retouched version in a desired style, allowing the model to learn and replicate the corresponding retouching patterns.

However, data-driven training approaches come with several notable limitations. They often require large-scale paired datasets for training, restricting the adaptability to new styles or environments, especially for general users without access to curated data. In addition, it is difficult to achieve fine-grained control that reflects specific user preferences or intentions, as the output tends to reflect an average learned from the training distribution (Wang et al., 2023). These models also function largely as black boxes, making it challenging to understand or intervene in the internal retouching process. Moreover, many of these methods apply edits to downsampled versions of the input image and later upscale the results, potentially degrading the original image quality.

In this work, we propose *RetouchLLM*, a training-free white-box image retouching system. Unlike data-driven approaches, our method (i) requires no training, (ii) provides transparent code-based retouching, and (iii) supports fine-grained adjustments through user instructions. Without relying on large-scale datasets of style-consistent paired images, *RetouchLLM* adapts flexibly to user-specific and image-specific preferences. A code-based design functions as a white-box, enabling the retouching process to be fully understandable and modifiable by users. By generating and executing code directly on high-resolution images without downscaling, it further enables high-fidelity enhancement suitable for real-world applications. In addition, the system accepts natural language instructions, enabling users to make personalized fine-grained edits in a controllable and interpretable manner.

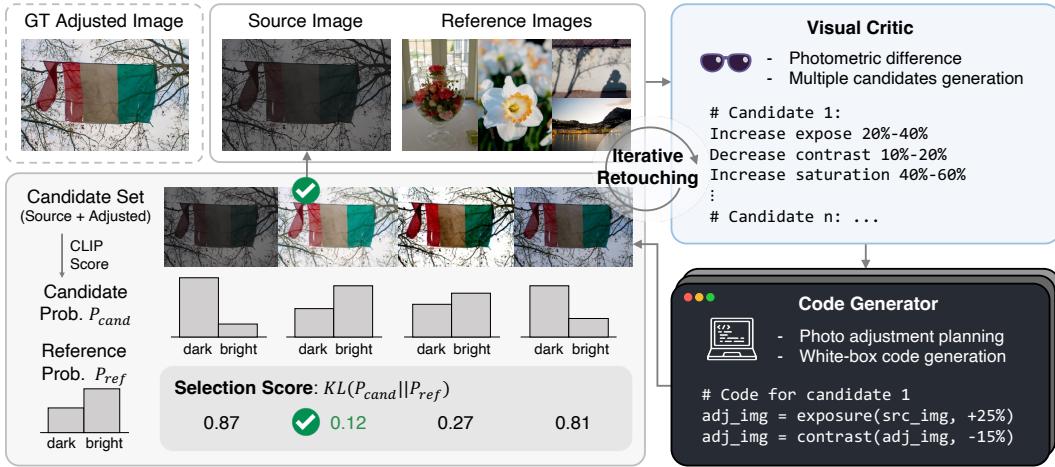


Figure 1: **Overview of our training-free white-box photo adjustment system.** Given a source image and style reference images, the visual critic gives multiple candidates of difference descriptions, and the code generator produces corresponding adjustment programs. The best candidate is selected according to the selection score, set as the new source, and the process iteratively continues until the stopping criterion is reached. The dashed box (GT Adjusted Image) is reference-only, outside the pipeline. Only dark/bright are shown for brevity, though eight prompts were used.

At its core, our approach uses an iterative retouching framework to progressively refine an image towards the target style rather than relying on one-shot edits. A selection score guides this process by reliably capturing style cues from reference images despite content differences, ensuring stable convergence and preventing drifting adjustments. RetouchLLM integrates two complementary modules: a visual critic, which identifies photometric differences and describes multiple candidate difference, and a code generator, which determines the editing sequence and produces executable retouching code. These components operate in a closed loop, enabling coarse global edits in early steps and fine local refinements later, thereby mirroring the natural workflow of human retouching.

We validate the effectiveness of RetouchLLM through both qualitative and quantitative experiments. Despite operating in a training-free manner, our model demonstrates favorable performance across various styles regardless of the backbone used. The results show that image quality improves progressively through iterative retouching. Ablation studies confirm that our selection score reliably captures style from reference images, even when the content differs, and both the visual critic and the code generator play essential roles in enhancing output quality. Moreover, we find that user interaction application via natural language instructions enables flexible and interpretable adjustments, allowing for fine-grained retouching. We summarize our key **contributions** as follows:

- We propose an iterative retouching framework guided by a style-guided selection score that ensures stable convergence toward the target style without requiring any training data.
- Our white-box, code-based design provides transparency and reproducibility, operating directly on high-resolution images and enabling reusable editing programs.
- By leveraging language-based models, our system supports interactive refinement via natural language instructions, enabling personalised retouching aligned with user intent.

2 RELATED WORK

Automatic photo retouching. Automatic photo retouching (Yan et al., 2016; Hu et al., 2018; Ke et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2024; Yang et al., 2024b; Duan et al., 2025; Tseng et al., 2022; Kim et al., 2020; Ouyang et al., 2023) has been extensively studied to automate the retouching pipeline by training deep models, allowing non-experts to attempt what was once an exclusive domain of professionals. These can be classified into two categories: Image-to-image translation methods and physics-based modeling methods. Translation methods train a model to generate a retouched image in the target style from an input image. Models such as U-Net (Ronneberger et al., 2015) and GANs (Goodfellow et al., 2014) are commonly used in this approach, but they often come with limitations in image

108 **Algorithm 1 RetouchLLM.** The algorithm iteratively adjusts the source image based on the given
 109 reference images. The process stops early (i) if the same image is selected for three consecutive steps,
 110 or (ii) if the generated descriptions suggest no additional edits are needed.
 111 **Require:** Visual critic $f(\cdot)$, code generator $g(\cdot)$
 112 **Input:** Initial source image x_0^{src} , reference set $\mathcal{Y} = \{y^j\}_{j=1}^M$, maximum iterations T , number of candidates N
 113 **Output:** Adjusted image x^*
 114 **for** $t = 0$ **to** $T - 1$ **do**
 115 Generate descriptions: $(d_1, \dots, d_N) = f(x_t^{\text{src}}, \mathcal{Y})$
 116 **for** $i = 1$ **to** N **do**
 117 Generate program: $g(d_i)$
 118 Adjust source image: $x_t^i = \text{Execute}(g(d_i), x_t^{\text{src}})$
 119 Construct candidate list: $\mathcal{C}_t = [x_t^{\text{src}}, x_t^1, \dots, x_t^N]$
 120 Best candidate selection: $i^* = \arg \min_{i \in \{0, \dots, N\}} \text{SelectionScore}(\mathcal{C}_t[i], \mathcal{Y})$
 121 Update source image: $x_{t+1}^{\text{src}} \leftarrow \mathcal{C}_t[i^*]$
 122 **if** stopping condition is met **then**
 123 **break**
 124
 125 **return** $x^* = x_{t+1}^{\text{src}}$

126 resolution. These models also function as black-box, making it difficult to interpret the retouching
 127 process. Physics-based modeling treats the retouching pipeline as a combination of actual retouching
 128 filters and reframes the problem as estimating the appropriate filter combinations and their parameters.
 129 This makes it easier to design a more interpretable white-box system. However, most existing
 130 methods (Dutt et al., 2025; Duan et al., 2025; Kosugi, 2024) require training a model on thousands of
 131 paired images, which makes it difficult to incorporate new styles or filters without costly retraining. In
 132 contrast, our system needs no training and retouches an image directly from a few reference images of
 133 the desired style. Moreover, new filters can be flexibly incorporated without any additional retraining.

134 **LLMs and VLMs as model agents.** Large Language Models (LLMs) (Achiam et al., 2023; Chiang
 135 et al., 2023; Touvron et al., 2023a;b; Jiang et al., 2023; Abdin et al., 2024; Team et al., 2024b; Yang
 136 et al., 2024a) and Vision Language Models (VLMs) (Achiam et al., 2023; Dai et al., 2023; Liu et al.,
 137 2024; 2023; Team et al., 2024a; Wang et al., 2024; Hong et al., 2024a) are capable of performing
 138 a wide range of tasks, including question answering, information comparison and extraction, and
 139 generating text in various formats, such as natural language, JSON, code, and equations. By
 140 employing these models as agents, complex tasks like programming (Shinn et al., 2024; Surís et al.,
 141 2023; Gupta & Kembhavi, 2023; Hu et al., 2024), GUI understanding (Hong et al., 2024b), and
 142 decision making (Zhao et al., 2024), have been solved in a more organized and structured manner.

143 However, prior work (Dutt et al., 2025; Kosugi, 2024) utilizing LLMs or VLMs does not incorporate
 144 any iterative feedback mechanism or support agent-like collaboration with the user, thereby limiting
 145 flexibility, personalization, and transparency in the process. In contrast, our approach is training-free,
 146 white-box, and supports interactive user collaboration. Specifically, we utilize a VLM as an agent
 147 to infer the photographic differences, and an LLM as an agent to generate a retouching process in
 148 Python code.

150 3 RETOUCHLLM: TRAINING-FREE WHITE-BOX IMAGE RETOUCHING

152
 153 Despite the success of existing retouching approaches, their reliance on style-specific training limits
 154 their adaptability to new domains or settings. Moreover, the black-box nature of some prior methods
 155 makes it difficult to interpret, intervene in, or modify the retouching process. In this work, we propose
 156 *RetouchLLM*, a training-free, white-box photo retouching pipeline that iteratively adjusts images, as
 157 illustrated in Fig. 1 and summarized in Algorithm 1. We do so using a language-based foundation
 158 model as a *visual critic* and a *code generator*. Our approach generalizes to a wide range of domains,
 159 and provides transparency and controllability by generating interpretable retouching program.

160 In Sec. 3.1, we describe how our method performs iterative image retouching, introduce the selection
 161 score, and analyze the convergence behavior. In Secs. 3.2 and 3.3, we provide explanations for each
 162 module. More details of the RetouchLLM, such as prompts, can be found in Sec. B of Appendix.

162 3.1 ITERATIVE RETOUCHING
163

164 Iterative image retouching is performed by integrating the visual critic and code generator modules. At
165 each iteration t , a source image x_t^{src} and style reference images $\mathcal{Y} = \{y^j\}_{j=1}^M$ are passed to the visual
166 critic, which produces N difference descriptions. Given each description, the code generator plans
167 how to adjust the image accordingly and generates executable program to perform the retouching.
168 As a result, N programs are generated and executed, producing N retouched images x_t^1, \dots, x_t^N .
169 By exploring multiple adjustment paths in parallel, the system avoids overcommitting to a single
170 direction, ensuring that potentially more optimal adjustment strategies are considered.
171

171 **Selection score.** At each iteration t , we select one retouched image from the candidate set \mathcal{C}_t , which
172 consists of $N + 1$ images: N retouched images $\{x_t^i\}_{i=1}^N$ and one source image x_t^{src} . We include the
173 source image in the set \mathcal{C}_t to prevent degenerate updates. To select one appropriately, we propose a
174 SelectionScore, which identifies the most suitable image while avoiding unnecessary computational
175 cost. Our SelectionScore is formulated based on CLIP space alignment (Radford et al., 2021). Since
176 the contents of retouched images and reference images differ, we focus on extracting retouching
177 style using filter-related text prompts. We use K text prompts $\{z_1, \dots, z_K\}$, constructed as pairs of
178 contrasting prompts for $K/2$ filters, where K is even. Although we employ seven filters in total, text
179 prompts are constructed only for the four global filters, yielding $K = 8$ prompts in total.
180

181 With CLIP, let the image encoder be $\phi_{\text{img}}(\cdot) : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^D$ and the text encoder be $\psi_{\text{text}}(\cdot) : \mathcal{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^D$.
182 The image embedding is $\mathbf{v}(y) = \phi_{\text{img}}(y)$, and the text embedding is $\mathbf{e}_k = \psi_{\text{text}}(z_k)$. For each
183 candidate image $x_t \in \mathcal{C}_t$ in iteration t , and reference image $y \in \mathcal{Y}$, we compute their logits with
184 respect to the K text embeddings as
185

$$\ell_k(x_t) = \langle \mathbf{v}(x_t), \mathbf{e}_k \rangle, \quad \ell_k(y) = \langle \mathbf{v}(y), \mathbf{e}_k \rangle. \quad (1)$$

186 These logits can be converted to probabilities:
187

$$P_{\text{cand}} = p_k(x_t) = \frac{\exp(\ell_k(x_t))}{\sum_{r=1}^K \exp(\ell_r(x_t))}, \quad q_k(y) = \frac{\exp(\ell_k(y))}{\sum_{r=1}^K \exp(\ell_r(y))}. \quad (2)$$

188 Then, we define the SelectionScore $\sigma : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ used by Algorithm 1 as
189

$$\sigma(x_t, Y) = D_{\text{KL}}(p(x_t) \parallel \bar{q}) = \sum_{k=1}^K p_k(x_t) (\log p_k(x_t) - \log \bar{q}_k), \quad (3)$$

190 where $P_{\text{ref}} = \bar{q}_k = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^M q_k(y^j)$ summarizes all of the reference images with respect to the text
191 prompts. Finally, the selected image in iteration t is obtained by
192

$$x_{t+1}^{\text{src}} \leftarrow \mathcal{C}_t[i^*], \quad \text{where } i^* = \arg \min_{i \in \{0, \dots, N\}} \sigma(\mathcal{C}_t[i], \mathcal{Y}), \quad (4)$$

193 with $\mathcal{C}_t = [x_t^{\text{src}}, x_t^1, \dots, x_t^N]$ being the candidate set for the current iteration t .
194

195 **Role of the source image in convergence.** As iterations progress, the difference between the
196 source and reference images decreases, and the visual critic reports fewer differences. This dynamic
197 feedback enables the code generator to adjust its planning, focusing solely on the remaining elements
198 that require adjustment. By always including the current source image in the candidate list, the
199 process ensures that the selected image cannot be strictly worse than in the previous iteration.
200

201 Formally, let $\sigma_t = \sigma(x_t, \mathcal{Y})$ denote the selection score at iteration t .
202

$$\sigma_{t+1} = \sigma(x_{t+1}, \mathcal{Y}) \leq \sigma(x_t, \mathcal{Y}), \quad (5)$$

203 showing that the sequence (σ_t) is nonincreasing. Since
204

$$\sigma_t = D_{\text{KL}}(p(x_t) \parallel \bar{q}) \geq 0, \quad (6)$$

205 the sequence (σ_t) is bounded below by zero. By the properties of bounded monotone sequences,
206 (σ_t) therefore converges to some finite limit. Although this convergence does not imply global
207 optimality (since the candidate set \mathcal{C}_t may only partially cover the search space), we observe that
208 further improvements beyond 10 iterations are small. We therefore fix the iteration budget to $T = 10$.
209

210 In summary, the iterative process continues until one of two stopping conditions holds: (1) the visual
211 critic reports no significant differences across all retouching elements, or (2) a predefined maximum
212 number of $T = 10$ iterations is reached.
213

216 3.2 VISUAL CRITIC: DESCRIBING PHOTOMETRIC DIFFERENCES
217

218 We aim to predict the photometric differences of each filter between a source image and style
219 reference images in a training-free manner. Traditionally, such differences have been predicted by
220 training models for each style, which incurs the cost of re-collecting thousands of paired images and
221 retraining the model whenever a new style is needed for image adjustment. Moreover, the preferred
222 retouching style varies from person to person and even between images, further increasing the need
223 for personalized models. To address these problems, we employ a vision–language model as a visual
224 critic to understand diverse images and identify their differences.

225 Nevertheless, accurately identifying the photometric differences remains a challenge, even for
226 humans. Furthermore, there is often no single correct answer since preferred adjustments may vary
227 significantly between individuals depending on their subjective taste and intent. To mitigate this
228 ambiguity, we generate multiple candidate difference descriptions and propagate them for further
229 exploration. At each iteration t , we produce N descriptions $\{d_t^i\}_{i=1}^N$. This strategy increases the
230 chance of including a valid description. If the probability of generating a suboptimal description in the
231 single-candidate case is p , then the probability of success, *i.e.*, having at least one useful description, is
232 $P(\text{success}) = 1 - p^N$, where $P(\text{all suboptimal}) = p^N$. Thus, increasing N substantially improves the
233 likelihood of capturing a valid adjustment direction, providing robustness against error accumulation.

234 To empirically support this intuition, we conduct a toy experiment on
235 brightness range prediction in Table 1 (see Sec. C.1 of Appendix for
236 experimental details). The probability that the search space contains
237 a correct direction is 24.3% with a single prediction and 71.3% with
238 two candidates. This simplified test highlights the effectiveness of
239 multi-candidate generation, supporting our theoretical analysis and
240 motivating its use in our iterative image retouching setting. Once
241 the visual critic is unable to describe the photometric differences,
242 the retouched image will be close to the reference images and the
243 retouching process will be complete (after stopping condition is met).

244 3.3 CODE GENERATOR: PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTING

245 Given the difference descriptions d , we perform actual image retouching by generating the program
246 $g(d)$. However, this task introduces two significant challenges: the interdependencies among retouching
247 elements, and the computational burden caused by high-resolution images. For example, DSLR
248 images often have extremely high resolution, making it computationally expensive for the model to
249 directly modify pixel values at full resolution (Bakhtiarnia et al., 2024). To address these issues, we
250 leverage the planning and executable code generation capabilities of a large language model.

251 The retouching program $g(d)$ is expressed as a composition of 7 photometric operations (exposure,
252 contrast, saturation, temperature, highlight, shadow, texture), but the framework can be readily
253 extended to a larger set. The photometric operation pool is

$$\mathcal{P}_\theta = \{\text{exposure}(\theta_{\text{exp}}), \dots, \text{texture}(\theta_{\text{tex}})\}. \quad (7)$$

254 More formally, for each photometric description, the code generator selects a subset of filters h , their
255 ordering, and computes their arguments θ , and applies them sequentially to the source image.

$$h = (h_1, h_2, \dots) \subset \text{Perm}_t(\mathcal{P}_\theta) \rightarrow x_t^i = (h_1 \circ h_2 \circ \dots)(x_t^{\text{src}}), \quad (8)$$

256 where $\text{Perm}_t(\cdot)$ describes permuting the order of filter operations for time-step t . Each operation
257 in \mathcal{P}_θ can be applied to images of any size without additional processing. Thus, the procedure is
258 resolution-independent. In addition, unlike black-box models that map an input image directly to its
259 retouched image, our approach is fully white-box: the generated program h explicitly specifies all
260 operations and parameters, ensuring interpretability, editability, and reproducibility.

261 4 EXPERIMENTS

262 4.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

263 **Datasets.** We evaluate our method using two publicly available datasets: MIT-Adobe FiveK (By-
264 chkovsky et al., 2011) and PPR10K (Liang et al., 2021). While traditional methods need training, our

265 **Table 1: Photo adjustment
266 brightness range prediction.**

267 Model	268 Correct
269 Random	16.7
GPT-5 (Single)	24.3
GPT-5 (Multi)	71.3

270
 271 **Table 2: Retouching performance across multiple styles.** Gray text indicates models fine-tuned on
 272 the target style using reference images. Black text denotes zero-shot models evaluated without any
 273 task-specific training. Results for RetouchLLM are reported using the GPT-5 implementation.

274 Style	275 Method	276 MIT-Adobe FiveK				277 PPR10K			
		278 PSNR(↑)	279 SSIM(↑)	280 LPIPS(↓)	281 ΔE(↓)	282 PSNR(↑)	283 SSIM(↑)	284 LPIPS(↓)	285 ΔE(↓)
286 1	287 RSFNet	288 18.03	289 0.773	290 0.178	291 18.34	292 17.81	293 0.819	294 0.106	295 19.77
	296 PG-IA-NILUT	297 20.54	298 0.743	299 0.168	300 12.13	301 19.60	302 0.674	303 0.146	304 15.24
	305 Z-STAR	306 16.01	307 0.607	308 0.397	309 17.70	310 16.13	311 0.662	312 0.325	313 19.63
	314 RetouchLLM	315 21.68	316 0.900	317 0.072	318 10.89	319 19.31	320 0.817	321 0.150	322 14.95
323 2	324 RSFNet	325 17.89	326 0.754	327 0.188	328 18.09	329 21.93	330 0.870	331 0.079	332 13.21
	333 PG-IA-NILUT	334 18.04	335 0.632	336 0.221	337 17.46	338 21.42	339 0.760	340 0.104	341 11.82
	342 Z-STAR	343 16.23	344 0.592	345 0.412	346 19.39	347 16.89	348 0.629	349 0.336	350 16.62
	351 RetouchLLM	352 21.13	353 0.867	354 0.094	355 12.20	356 20.91	357 0.837	358 0.116	359 12.07
360 3	361 RSFNet	362 17.60	363 0.780	364 0.162	365 17.36	366 21.27	367 0.834	368 0.072	369 13.50
	370 PG-IA-NILUT	371 19.48	372 0.686	373 0.232	374 14.35	375 21.25	376 0.710	377 0.112	378 12.59
	379 Z-STAR	380 15.40	381 0.597	382 0.379	383 20.54	384 18.38	385 0.679	386 0.321	387 15.50
	388 RetouchLLM	389 21.32	390 0.897	391 0.081	392 12.17	393 21.49	394 0.853	395 0.105	396 12.27

286 approach does not require a training phase. Thus, we only utilize the test pairs for evaluation. To
 287 evaluate our RetouchLLM, we construct source-reference image pairs. The pairs reflect a common
 288 user behavior in real-world retouching workflows, where users often refer to similar content images
 289 as references, *e.g.*, refer to a green nature image when retouching a mountain scene. To mimic
 290 this behavior, we utilize CLIP (Radford et al., 2021) to extract image-level logits and compute the
 291 pairwise KL divergence across the dataset. Reference images are selected based on their similarity.

292 **Training-free baseline.** Since existing image retouching methods typically require training, we
 293 adopt Z-STAR (Deng et al., 2024), a zero-shot style transfer model, as our training-free baseline.
 294 Z-STAR represents the content and style images through dual denoising paths in the latent space and
 295 guides the denoising process of the content image using the style latent codes via cross-attention
 296 reweighting. We use the source image to be retouched as the content image and the reference image
 297 as the style image, and treat the resulting output as the training-free baseline results.

298 **Implementation details.** We use five reference images per sample ($M = 5$), and the visual critic
 299 generates three candidate descriptions per iteration ($N = 3$) by default. To improve fine-grained
 300 retouching stability, we provide the visual critic with image-level statistics, *e.g.*, pixel mean, std,
 301 etc, in the prompt. We implement the visual critic and code generator using four LLMs: GPT-
 302 5 (OpenAI, 2025), Gemini-1.5-Pro (Team et al., 2024a), Qwen2.5-VL-72B (Bai et al., 2025), and
 303 InternVL3-14B (Zhu et al., 2025). Further implementation details are provided in Sec. C of Appendix.

304 **Metrics.** Following previous work (Ke et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2024), we utilize
 305 Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio (PSNR), Structural Similarity Index Measure (SSIM), Learned Perceptual
 306 Image Patch Similarity (LPIPS), and ΔE , which represents the \mathcal{L}_2 distance in the CIELAB color
 307 space. Higher PSNR and SSIM values, with lower LPIPS and ΔE values, indicate better performance.

309 4.2 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

310 **Retouching performance across diverse styles.** We evaluate RetouchLLM on diverse retouch-
 311 ing styles against (1) Z-STAR, a training-free retouching baseline, and (2) supervised models
 312 RSFNet (Ouyang et al., 2023) and PG-IA-NILUT (Kosugi, 2024), each fine-tuned to the target style
 313 using reference images. Details of fine-tuned models are provided in Sec. C.2 of the Appendix.

314 We present the results in Table 2. Our
 315 RetouchLLM significantly outperforms Z-
 316 STAR in all metrics and styles. Further-
 317 more, it outperforms the two fine-tuning
 318 methods in all metrics in MIT-Adobe
 319 FiveK, while reaching competitive results
 320 in PPR10K, demonstrating the adaptabil-
 321 ity of RetouchLLM across a wide range
 322 of retouching styles. In addition, Table 3
 323 highlights the extensibility of Retouch-
 324 LLM to different model backbones, con-

325 **Table 3: Retouching performance across multiple**
 326 **models.** All values are averaged over eight retouching
 327 styles: five from Adobe FiveK and three from PPR10K.

328 Model	329 PSNR(↑)	330 SSIM(↑)	331 LPIPS(↓)	332 ΔE(↓)
333 RSFNet	334 18.69	335 0.798	336 0.144	337 16.82
338 PG-IA-NILUT	339 19.73	340 0.692	341 0.173	342 14.05
343 Z-STAR	344 16.28	345 0.623	346 0.368	347 18.30
348 RetouchLLM				
349 w/ GPT-5	350 20.75	351 0.858	352 0.101	353 12.76
354 w/ Gemini-1.5-Pro	355 20.41	356 0.857	357 0.102	358 13.03
359 w/ Qwen2.5-VL-72B	360 20.00	361 0.844	362 0.103	363 13.68
364 w/ InternVL3-14B	365 20.72	366 0.857	367 0.106	368 12.75

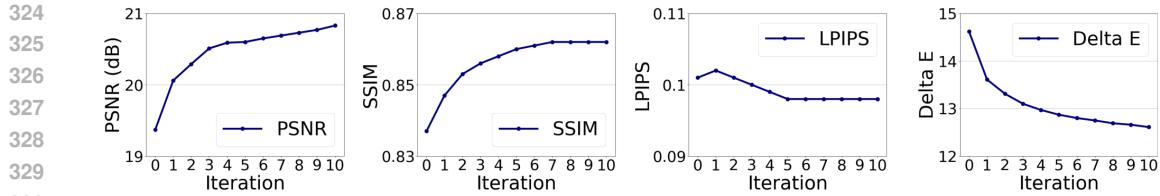


Figure 2: **Quantitative results over 10 iterations.** All metrics show consistent improvement over iterations. Higher PSNR and SSIM, and lower LPIPS and ΔE , indicate closer similarity to the GT.

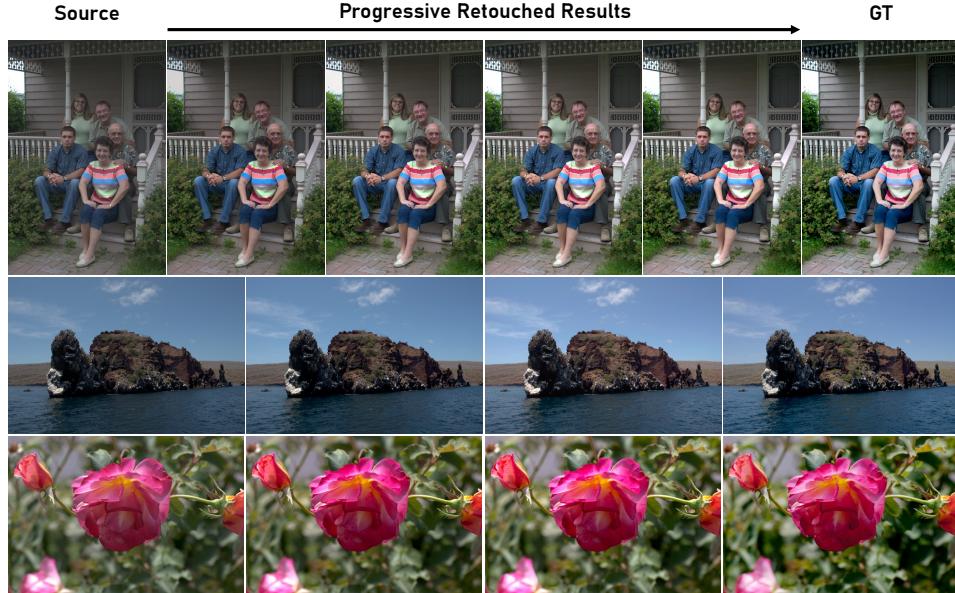


Figure 3: **Qualitative results of progressively retouched images.** In each row, the leftmost image is the source, the rightmost is the GT, and the middle images show the progressively retouched results.

sistently yielding superior performance over existing methods regardless of the backbone used. The style-wise full results of Table 2 and Table 3 are given in Sec. A.1 of the Appendix.

Iterative retouching. To evaluate the effectiveness of our iterative retouching framework, we conduct experiments with the GPT-5 version of RetouchLLM. The quantitative results in Fig. 2 report the metric-wise trend averaged over all 8 retouching styles, revealing consistent improvements as the image is progressively retouched. The most significant changes occur in the early iterations, while the gains diminish in later steps, suggesting convergence. This behavior indicates that RetouchLLM performs image retouching in a coarse-to-fine manner, making significant global adjustments in the beginning and gradually refining finer details as the iterations proceed. The qualitative results in Fig. 3, starting from the source image on the left, show a progressive enhancement toward the target style, as verified by comparison with the ground truth (GT) image on the right. Notably, all retouching operations are performed directly on the original high-resolution images without any resizing, preserving fine details throughout the iterative process. The qualitative results of high-resolution images are provided in Figs. 7, 8, and 9 of the Appendix.

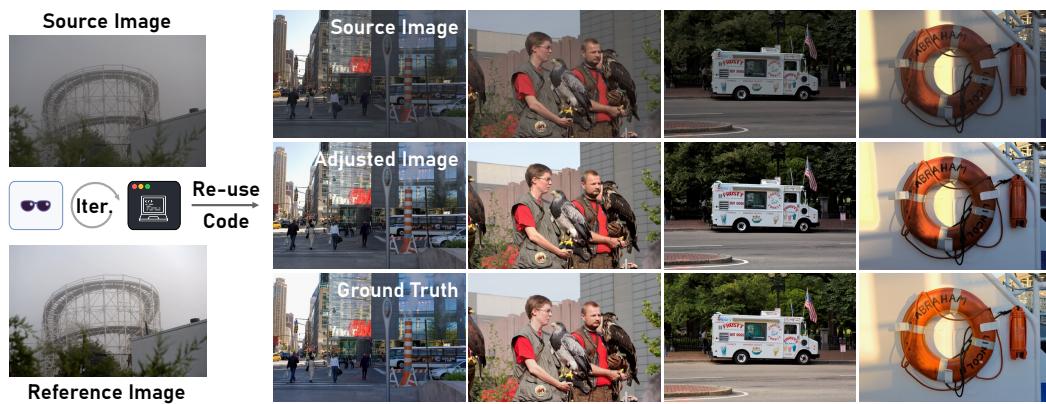
Plausibility assessment. We evaluate our method in the plausibility assessment setting (Dutt et al., 2025), where each input image is associated with five expert retouchings and the model output is scored against the closest among them. This protocol evaluates how well

Table 4: Score consistency (mean \pm standard deviation) under a similar-content reference setting.

Method	PSNR(\uparrow)	SSIM(\uparrow)	LPIPS(\downarrow)	$\Delta E(\downarrow)$
Exposure (Hu et al., 2018)	15.12	0.63	0.14	-
Unpaired (Kosugi & Yamasaki, 2020)	21.73	0.83	0.12	-
RSFNet (Ouyang et al., 2023)	21.85	0.88	0.08	-
InstructP2P (Brooks et al., 2023)	16.99	0.61	0.22	-
MGIE (Fu et al., 2024)	22.94	0.74	0.08	-
MonetGPT (Dutt et al., 2025)	23.75	0.90	0.07	-
RetouchLLM	25.48	0.92	0.09	7.57

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384 **Table 5: Ablation of RetouchLLM modules.** Z-STAR is the baseline for training-free retouching.
385 (a) The code generator produces the retouching code based on the statistics of images instead of using
386 a textual description. (b) The visual critic directly generates codes. (c) Our RetouchLLM. In the
387 paired setup, the ground truth retouched image corresponding to the source is available. The unpaired
388 setup is a more general case, where the reference images have different contents but a desirable style.

384	Visual Critic	Code Generator	Paired				Unpaired			
			PSNR(\uparrow)	SSIM(\uparrow)	LPIPS(\downarrow)	$\Delta E(\downarrow)$	PSNR(\uparrow)	SSIM(\uparrow)	LPIPS(\downarrow)	$\Delta E(\downarrow)$
385		Z-STAR	20.01	0.732	0.196	13.60	16.29	0.595	0.399	18.99
386	(a)		26.78	0.947	0.050	6.69	19.74	0.866	0.096	13.78
387	(b)		27.58	0.959	0.052	5.79	20.71	0.863	0.092	12.81
388	(c)		29.21	0.956	0.053	5.23	22.19	0.909	0.070	10.07



403 **Figure 4: Applying the restored filter.** The paired setup enables extracting a more faithful and
404 reusable retouching code that can be applied to other images like a preset filter.

408 a model can produce edits that fall within the range of human editing preferences. Following this
409 protocol, we evaluate our method by randomly sampling 400 images from the 500 test images in
410 MIT-Adobe FiveK (Bychkovsky et al., 2011) and reporting the corresponding scores. Table 4 shows
411 that our method achieves strong performance, suggesting that its outputs are not only quantitatively
412 superior to other methods but also more closely aligned with the diversity of expert-level adjustments.

414 **Ablation and comparison of selection**
415 **scores.** In Table 6, we evaluate the ef-
416 fectiveness of the proposed selection score
417 introduced in Sec. 3.1 against alternative
418 methods: (1) RGB-channel histograms, (2)
419 YUV-channel histograms, (3) Gram matrix
420 similarity commonly used in style transfer,
421 (4) our KL CLIP score using prompts re-
422 garding all filters including local ones, and (5)
423 our default KL CLIP score using only global filters.
424 Details of each score are given in Sec. C.3 of the Appendix. The result shows that our proposed
425 method (global) achieves the best performance, demonstrating its ability to reliably capture style
426 characteristics from reference images even when their content differs from the source image.

427 **Ablation of RetouchLLM modules.** In Table 5, we conduct an ablation study on MIT-Adobe
428 FiveK style 1 using InternVL3, systematically modifying or removing modules. We design two
429 ablation variants: (a) we remove the visual critic and instead feed image-level statistics (e.g., mean,
430 standard deviation) directly to the code generator, which provides insight about how the form of
431 image information representation affects retouching performance; (b) we merge the visual critic and
432 code generator into a single VLM that directly generates retouching code by comparing the source
433 and reference images, without explicitly describing their differences, which examines the role of
434 natural language as a semantic textual bottleneck in guiding the image retouching process.

435 **Table 6: Effectiveness of the proposed selection score.**
436 Results are reported using InternVL3 on FiveK style 1.

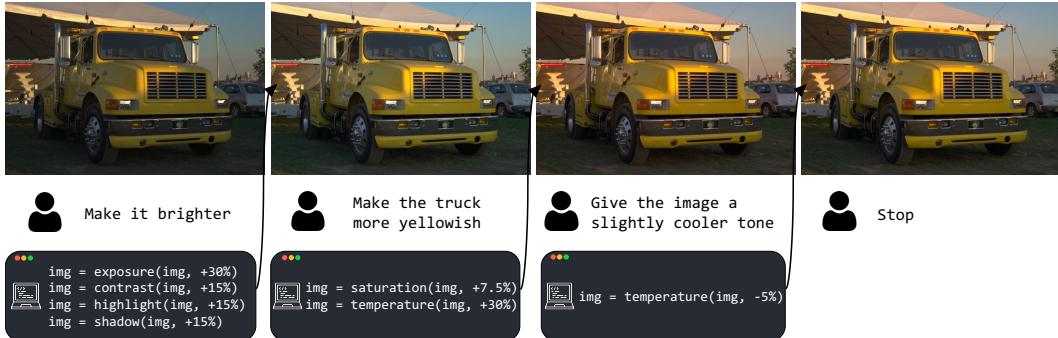
Selection Score	PSNR(\uparrow)	SSIM(\uparrow)	LPIPS(\downarrow)	$\Delta E(\downarrow)$
(1) RGB hist.	21.62	0.906	0.078	11.51
(2) YUV hist.	20.94	0.894	0.078	11.66
(3) Gram matrix	21.49	0.906	0.072	11.15
(4) KL CLIP all	21.93	0.899	0.072	10.58
(5) KL CLIP global	22.19	0.909	0.070	10.07

432 **Table 7: Ablation of the number of candidates.** (Default: $N = 3$)

# Cand.	PSNR(\uparrow)	SSIM(\uparrow)	LPIPS(\downarrow)	$\Delta E(\downarrow)$
1	21.27	0.889	0.078	10.91
3	22.19	0.909	0.070	10.07
5	22.76	0.914	0.069	9.74

433 **Table 8: Ablation of the number of style reference images.** (Default: $M = 5$)

# Ref.	PSNR(\uparrow)	SSIM(\uparrow)	LPIPS(\downarrow)	$\Delta E(\downarrow)$
1	20.35	0.890	0.080	11.37
3	21.80	0.904	0.070	10.13
5	22.19	0.909	0.070	10.07



439 **Figure 5: User interactive retouching.** The user gives instructions to retouch images towards the
440 desired style. These retouched images can then be fed back into the pipeline for further retouching.
441

442 We compare variants under paired and unpaired setups. In the paired setup, the target image paired
443 with the source serves as a reference, allowing direct validation of the generated code against
444 expert retouching. In the unpaired setup, which we take as the default and more general setting,
445 reference images with different content but similar style are used, requiring the model to generalize its
446 retouching logic. In Table 5, all variants outperform the baseline Z-STAR. RetouchLLM (c) achieves
447 the best performance across all metrics in the unpaired setup, and in the paired setup it also attains
448 the highest PSNR and ΔE , with the values of other metrics that are nearly indistinguishable from the
449 top-performing variants. This suggest that both components contribute to retouching quality. The
450 strong performance in the paired setup further suggests that a training-free approach can effectively
451 leverage prior knowledge to handle fine-grained photo retouching. In addition, Fig. 4 illustrates a
452 practical case of the paired setup, showing that the generated program can be reused to achieve a
453 similar style.

454 **Ablation of design choices.** We conduct ablation studies on two key system design choices: the
455 number of candidates and the number of reference images. In Table 7, as the number of candidates
456 increases, the performance improves, which is consistent with the explanation in Sec. 3.2 and the
457 results of Table 1. However, since a larger number also increases computational cost, we use three
458 candidates in practice. Table 8 shows that increasing the number of reference images improves
459 performance, with the best results obtained using five, as the model benefits from richer stylistic cues.

460 **User study.** We conducted a user study to assess perceptual preferences across methods. We
461 collected responses from 40 participants over 30 samples (1,200 responses in total). We ensured that
462 the participants cover different genders, nationalities, and come from geographically different regions.
463 More details are in Appendix C.4. The results show a strong preference for our method: **NILUT: 16.42%, RSFNet: 9.67%, Z-STAR: 3.17%, and Ours: 70.75%**. This indicates that users consistently
464 favored the outputs of RetouchLLM over the other baselines in terms of matching the target style.

465 **Robustness to changes in reference images.** Users generally rely on reference images with similar content. To
466 evaluate the score consistency under such conditions, we randomly select five images from the top ten candidates
467 produced by CLIP-based retrieval and use each of them as a reference for retouching. This procedure is repeated seven times, and we report the trimmed mean and standard deviation by excluding
468 the maximum and minimum values. The evaluation set is identical to that used in Table 4 for the
469 470 471 472 473 474 475 476 477 478 479 480 481 482 483 484 485

486 **Table 9: Score consistency (mean \pm standard deviation under a similar-content reference setting.**

PSNR(\uparrow)	SSIM(\uparrow)	LPIPS(\downarrow)	$\Delta E(\downarrow)$
22.34 ± 1.55	0.918 ± 0.016	0.068 ± 0.011	9.44 ± 1.04

486 ablation study. Table 9 shows that the standard deviation remains small, indicating that the method
 487 behaves reliably when the reference images contain different but semantically similar content.
 488

489 However, when the reference images contain very different content, the performance may decrease
 490 because current VLMs can struggle to consistently perceive and abstract the same style across hetero-
 491 geneous scenes. Incorporating additional adaptation using retouching data to improve robustness in
 492 such challenging cases would be a promising direction for future work.
 493

494 4.3 APPLICATION: USER INTERACTION

495 We further demonstrate an application where RetouchLLM is adapted from reference-based retouch-
 496 ing to user-interactive retouching. In this setting, reference images are replaced with natural language
 497 instructions, and the automatic selection score is replaced with explicit user choices. This design
 498 allows the system to more directly reflect user preferences and supports an interactive workflow in
 499 which the retouching process can be iteratively refined through simple language commands.
 500

501 The qualitative results of Fig. 5 illustrate how RetouchLLM progressively improves image quality
 502 while reflecting the user’s intended style. We observe that the model effectively retrieves and
 503 composes relevant filters based on user instructions, while also adjusting their intensity in a controlled
 504 and interpretable manner. For instance, in response to an instruction such as “make the truck more
 505 yellowish,” the model increases both saturation and color temperature to enhance the yellow tone.
 506 When subsequently asked to “give the image a slightly cooler tone,” it reduces the temperature by a
 507 relatively small amount (e.g., 5%). These results demonstrate that the model can faithfully interpret
 508 and execute user-provided natural language instructions for personalized retouching. More user
 509 interactive retouching examples can be found in Figs. 17 and 18 in the Sec. A.4 of the Appendix.
 510

511 5 CONCLUSION

512 In this work, we present RetouchLLM, a training-free white-box system for interactive image
 513 retouching. By integrating an iterative refinement framework with a style-guided selection score,
 514 our approach achieves stable convergence without the need for paired training data. Extensive
 515 experiments demonstrate that it generalizes well across diverse styles and supports high-resolution
 516 editing with transparent, code-based operations. Beyond quantitative improvements, the ability to
 517 follow natural language instructions enables personalized and user-aligned retouching. For future
 518 work, we plan to extend our system with a broader set of editing filters and operations, enabling richer
 519 adjustment paths beyond the current set of retouching tools. Another important direction is evaluating
 520 human–AI interaction in practical workflows, studying how users issue natural language instructions
 521 and how effectively the system adapts to their preferences. We believe these directions will push
 522 interactive retouching toward more practical, personalized, and trustworthy real-world applications.
 523

524 525 ETHICS STATEMENT

526 This work includes a user study to evaluate the quality of generated results. We collected responses
 527 from 40 participants. Participants were volunteers who provided informed consent. We ensured
 528 diversity in gender, nationality, and geographic region among the participants. No personally
 529 identifiable information was collected, and no compensation was provided. The study posed no
 530 foreseeable risk of harm and was conducted in accordance with the ICLR Code of Ethics.
 531

532 533 534 REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT

535 We take several steps to ensure the reproducibility of our work. Detailed experimental settings,
 536 dataset descriptions, and implementation details are included in the main paper and appendix. The
 537 core algorithm is provided in the main paper for clarity. In addition, we provide the source code and
 538 instructions as part of the supplementary materials to facilitate replication of our results.
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702 In this Appendix, we include additional qualitative and quantitative results, method details, and
 703 experimental details, which are not included in the main paper.
 704

705 **A ADDITIONAL RESULTS**

707 **A.1 RETOUCHING ACROSS MULTIPLE STYLES**

709 We complement Table 2 and Table 3 in the main paper by providing evaluations across all retouching
 710 styles in Table 10. We evaluate RetouchLLM on eight diverse retouching styles, including five
 711 styles from the MIT-Adobe FiveK dataset and three from the PPR10K dataset. For each style, we
 712 randomly select 30 source images for testing, and each source image is paired with five reference
 713 images. Unlike conventional source–GT pairs that share the same content but differ in style, our
 714 setting uses source–reference style pairs, where the content may differ and the goal is to adjust the
 715 source image to match the reference style. As described in the main text, we construct these pairs
 716 using CLIP (Radford et al., 2021), where we extract image-level logits and compute pairwise KL
 717 divergence across the dataset. The list of test images will be released along with the code.

718 RetouchLLM retouches images without any task-specific training. We compare our method against
 719 (1) Z-STAR (Deng et al., 2024), a training-free retouching baseline, and (2) RSFNet (Ouyang et al.,
 720 2023) and PG-IA-NILUT (Kosugi, 2024), two supervised models fine-tuned for each style using the
 721 corresponding reference images. The results in Table 10 demonstrate the adaptability of RetouchLLM
 722 across a wide range of retouching styles, and extensibility to different model backbones. In addition,
 723 we provide a qualitative comparison in Figure 6, where Z-STAR produces distorted results due to its
 724 diffusion-based style transfer mechanism, while our method yields results most similar to the ground
 725 truth compared to supervised methods.

726 **A.2 HIGH-RESOLUTION IMAGE RETOUCHING RESULTS**

728 RetouchLLM retouches the image based on Python code; thus, it can operate independently of the
 729 image resolution. Figures 7, 8, and 9 present the retouching results on high-resolution images from
 730 MIT-Adobe FiveK (Bychkovsky et al., 2011). RetouchLLM infers the target style from five reference
 731 images and then applies iterative code-based adjustments to retouch the source image. The results
 732 demonstrate that RetouchLLM effectively extracts the photometric style attributes from the reference
 733 images and applies them to high-resolution content without degradation, confirming its capability for
 734 resolution-agnostic and content-preserving retouching.

735 **A.3 APPLYING RESTORED FILTER**

738 Figure 16 presents additional examples demonstrating the practical utility of the paired setup introduced in Fig. 4 of the main paper. Given a single pair of a source image and a corresponding target
 739 image, our RetouchLLM extracts a retouching program that can be reused as a preset filter. This
 740 enables consistent adjustments across multiple photos taken under similar conditions (e.g., the same
 741 scene or session). The extracted program can also be applied to new images independent of image
 742 resolution, as long as their starting point and intended target style are comparable, demonstrating the
 743 flexibility and scalability of our approach.

745 **A.4 USER INTERACTION RESULTS**

747 Our default pipeline takes a source image and a set of reference images as input. Using a visual critic
 748 and a code generator, RetouchLLM iteratively produces adjusted image candidates. Among these, the
 749 most style-consistent image is selected via a score-based selection mechanism and then used as the
 750 source image for the next iteration. This iterative process continues until the final result is obtained.

751 In contrast, the user-interaction mode replaces the reference images with user instructions as input.
 752 Instead of automated score-based selection, the user can manually select the preferred result at each
 753 iteration, allowing RetouchLLM to adapt to the preferences of the individual user. This interactive
 754 loop continues until the user is satisfied with the result. This application is made possible by our
 755 language model-based modules and iterative design, which together allow the system to flexibly
 interpret user guidance.

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 757 **Table 10: Retouching performance across multiple styles (full results of Table 2 in the main**
 758 **paper).** Gray text indicates models fine-tuned on the target style using reference images. Black text
 759 denotes zero-shot models evaluated without any task-specific training.

760	Style	Method	PSNR(\uparrow)	SSIM(\uparrow)	LPIPS(\downarrow)	$\Delta E(\downarrow)$
761	FiveK A	RSFNet	17.55	0.747	0.204	17.34
762		PG-IA-NILUT	20.00	0.713	0.189	13.46
763		Z-STAR	16.61	0.622	0.383	16.77
764		RetouchLLM (GPT-5)	21.24	0.860	0.086	12.43
765		RetouchLLM (Gemini-1.5-Pro)	21.08	0.862	0.082	12.27
766		RetouchLLM (Qwen2.5-VL)	20.04	0.856	0.084	12.69
767		RetouchLLM (InternVL3)	21.55	0.871	0.090	11.95
768	FiveK B	RSFNet	18.03	0.773	0.178	18.34
769		PG-IA-NILUT	20.54	0.743	0.168	12.13
770		Z-STAR	16.01	0.607	0.397	17.70
771		RetouchLLM (GPT-5)	21.68	0.900	0.072	10.89
772		RetouchLLM (Gemini-1.5-Pro)	21.55	0.905	0.074	10.99
773		RetouchLLM (Qwen2.5-VL)	21.39	0.889	0.075	11.42
774		RetouchLLM (InternVL3)	22.19	0.909	0.070	10.07
775	FiveK C	RSFNet	17.89	0.754	0.188	18.09
776		PG-IA-NILUT	18.04	0.632	0.221	17.46
777		Z-STAR	16.23	0.592	0.412	19.39
778		RetouchLLM (GPT-5)	21.13	0.867	0.094	12.20
779		RetouchLLM (Gemini-1.5-Pro)	21.06	0.872	0.092	12.44
780		RetouchLLM (Qwen2.5-VL)	20.24	0.843	0.101	13.95
781		RetouchLLM (InternVL3)	20.69	0.871	0.097	12.46
782	FiveK D	RSFNet	17.40	0.765	0.160	16.97
783		PG-IA-NILUT	17.68	0.615	0.224	14.95
784		Z-STAR	14.60	0.593	0.391	20.27
785		RetouchLLM (GPT-5)	18.93	0.834	0.105	15.08
786		RetouchLLM (Gemini-1.5-Pro)	17.94	0.809	0.109	16.16
787		RetouchLLM (Qwen2.5-VL)	17.33	0.818	0.112	16.32
788		RetouchLLM (InternVL3)	18.30	0.812	0.114	15.95
789	FiveK E	RSFNet	17.60	0.780	0.162	17.36
790		PG-IA-NILUT	19.28	0.687	0.222	14.79
791		Z-STAR	15.40	0.597	0.379	20.54
792		RetouchLLM (GPT-5)	21.32	0.897	0.081	12.17
793		RetouchLLM (Gemini-1.5-Pro)	20.22	0.882	0.084	13.22
794		RetouchLLM (Qwen2.5-VL)	19.06	0.864	0.092	14.71
795		RetouchLLM (InternVL3)	21.24	0.897	0.089	11.64
796	PPR10K A	RSFNet	17.81	0.819	0.106	19.77
797		PG-IA-NILUT	19.60	0.674	0.146	15.24
798		Z-STAR	16.13	0.662	0.325	19.63
799		RetouchLLM (GPT-5)	19.31	0.817	0.150	14.95
800		RetouchLLM (Gemini-1.5-Pro)	19.62	0.828	0.144	14.67
801		RetouchLLM (Qwen2.5-VL)	18.98	0.804	0.148	16.15
802		RetouchLLM (InternVL3)	19.13	0.807	0.156	15.23
803	PPR10K B	RSFNet	21.93	0.870	0.079	13.21
804		PG-IA-NILUT	21.42	0.760	0.104	11.82
805		Z-STAR	16.89	0.629	0.336	16.62
806		RetouchLLM (GPT-5)	20.91	0.837	0.116	12.07
807		RetouchLLM (Gemini-1.5-Pro)	20.82	0.855	0.117	12.10
808		RetouchLLM (Qwen2.5-VL)	21.17	0.845	0.113	12.26
809		RetouchLLM (InternVL3)	21.19	0.842	0.119	12.03
810	PPR10K C	RSFNet	21.27	0.872	0.072	13.50
811		PG-IA-NILUT	21.25	0.710	0.112	12.59
812		Z-STAR	18.38	0.679	0.321	15.50
813		RetouchLLM (GPT-5)	21.49	0.853	0.105	12.27
814		RetouchLLM (Gemini-1.5-Pro)	20.96	0.842	0.116	12.39
815		RetouchLLM (Qwen2.5-VL)	21.78	0.831	0.101	11.93
816		RetouchLLM (InternVL3)	21.50	0.845	0.111	12.71

817 From the second iteration, we incorporate retouching history to improve the precision of the model’s
 818 interpretation of the user’s instructions. Specifically, the visual critic receives the adjustment history,
 819 represented as image statistics, from previous iterations. This helps narrow down the ambiguity in the
 820 user instructions by providing contextual cues based on prior adjustments. The detailed qualitative
 821 process of user interaction is illustrated in Fig. 17, and additional qualitative results are in Fig. 18.

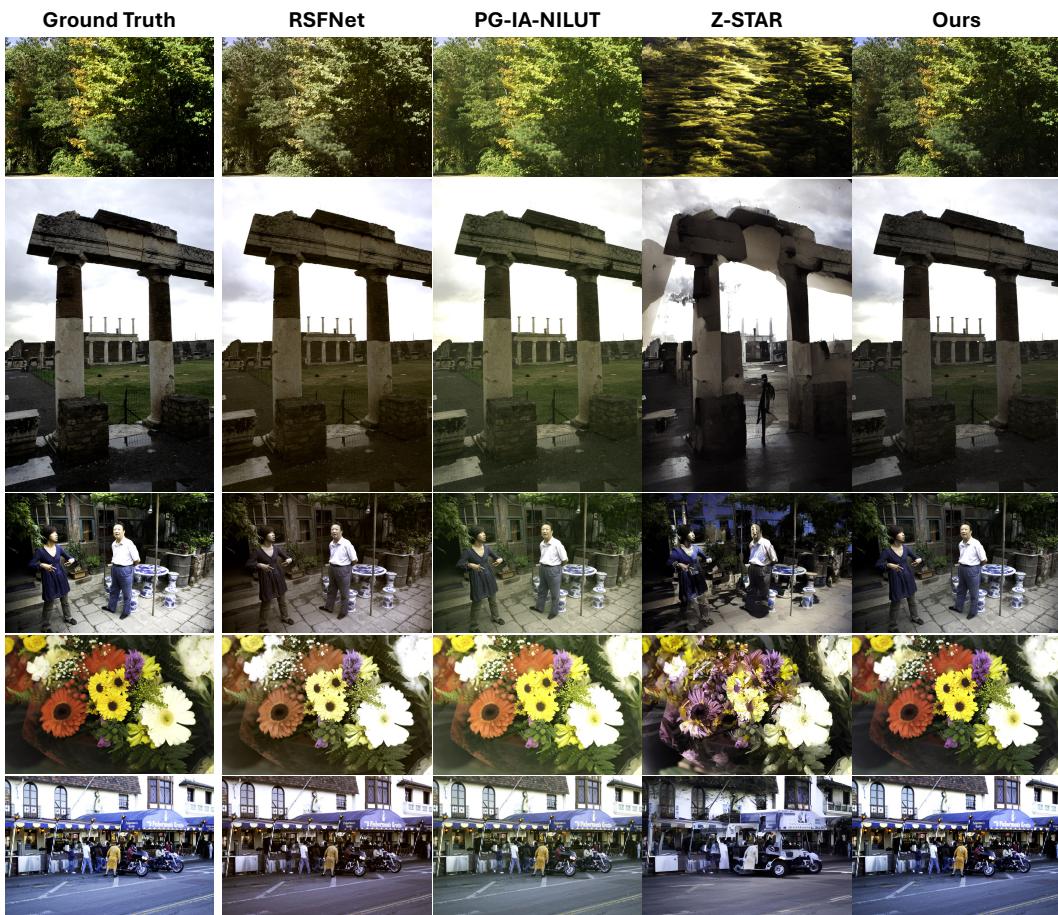


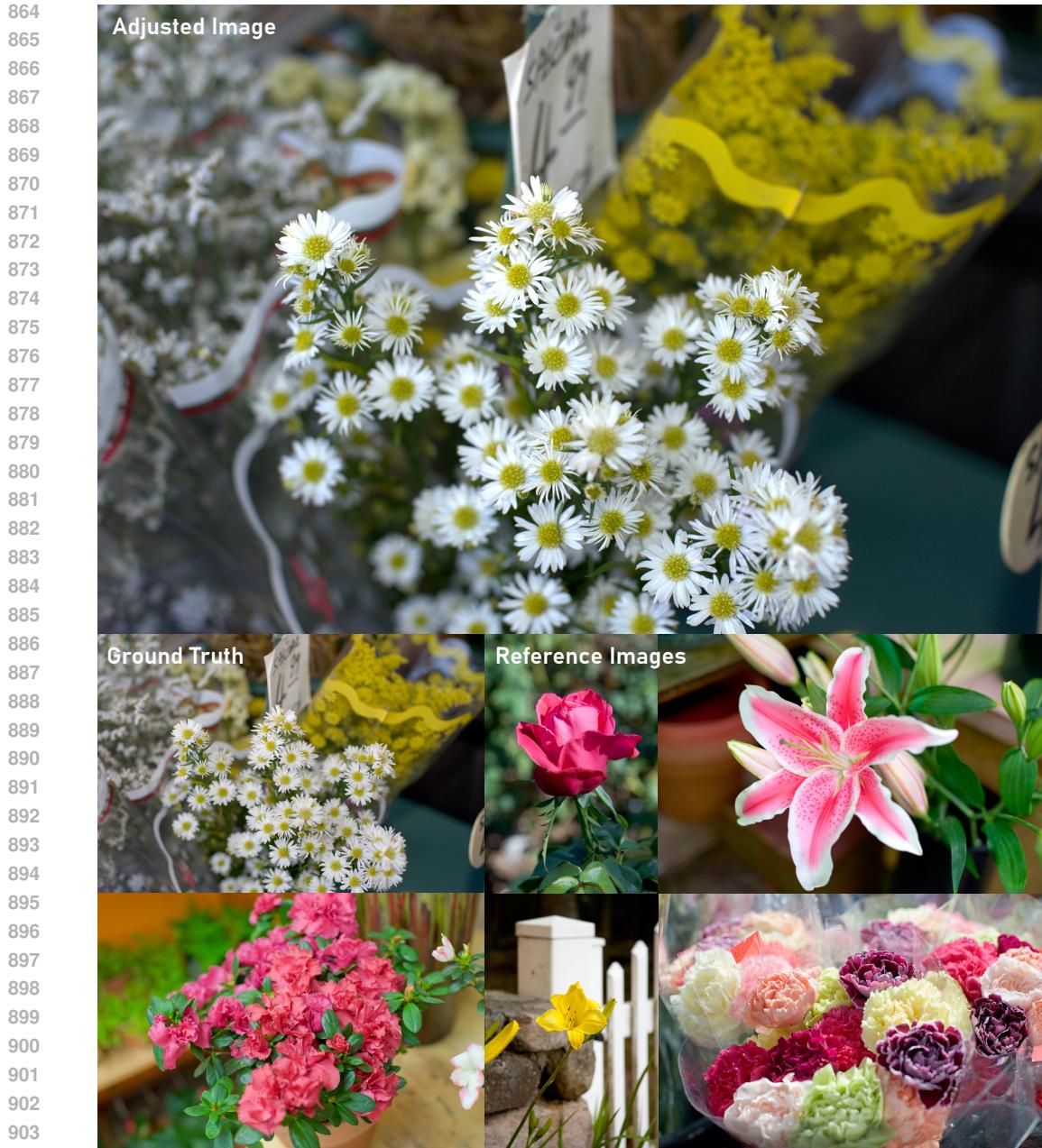
Figure 6: Qualitative comparison results

In Fig. 17, the user intends to make the source image significantly brighter with a warmer tone. Since RetouchLLM cannot determine the precise degree of adjustment in a single step, it generates three candidate images using different adjustment strategies. Specifically, the exposure is increased by approximately 30% to 80%, and the color temperature is raised by 15% to 50%, respectively. This range of candidates allows the model to explore diverse interpretations of the user’s instruction. After the user selects the most preferred image among the three candidates, the selected image is used as the source for the next iteration of editing based on a new instruction from the user. This process is repeated iteratively: in each iteration, RetouchLLM generates three new candidates, and the user selects one to proceed. For simplicity, the three candidate outputs and user selections are omitted in Fig. 6 of the main paper and Fig. 18 of the supplementary material. Instead, only the final selected outputs for each iteration are shown to better illustrate the progressive retouching process.

In the bottom example of Fig. 18, the model reduces the saturation by 30% in the first iteration. In the second round, the user provides a vague instruction “reduce the saturation further”, which the model interprets as requiring a stronger adjustment relative to the previous one and applies an 80% reduction. In the third iteration, the user says “slightly lower the saturation”. Compared to the previous 80% change, the model interprets the given instruction as a much smaller adjustment, reducing saturation by 29%. This example demonstrates how the system leverages the retouching history to interpret ambiguous instructions more precisely. By referencing the magnitude and context of previous adjustments, the model can better infer relative terms such as “further” or “slightly”, allowing for more user-aligned and consistent retouching behavior across iterations.

A.5 GENERATED DESCRIPTIONS AND CORRESPONDING CODES SAMPLES

RetouchLLM performs image retouching using difference descriptions from the visual critic and retouching code generated by the code generator. Figures 20, 21, and 22 show examples of actual

Figure 7: **High resolution qualitative samples 1**

outputs produced by both components. The visual critic generates three candidates of difference descriptions, each of which describes the difference across all filters. Based on each description, the code generator produces the corresponding retouching code.

In particular, rather than adjusting all components simultaneously, RetouchLLM first applies a global brightness adjustment, followed by local brightness, color tone, and texture adjustments. Since the effect of a given adjustment can depend on the sequence of operations, retouching workflows typically begin with global edits such as brightness or exposure before proceeding to more fine-grained adjustments. Our model incorporates this knowledge and plans a process for each iteration based on both the difference description and general editing conventions. As illustrated in Fig. 19, our method selectively applies adjustments across iterations and progressively refines the image, resembling an interactive human workflow.

Figure 8: **High resolution qualitative samples 2**

A.6 FAILURE CASES

While our system performs robustly in most cases, we do observe several types of failure cases during the process. First, the visual critic occasionally omits the decision for further editing. If any per-filter analysis is present but the final decision omits further editing, we proceed as if additional retouching is still required. Second, the code generator may occasionally output code that is not directly executable. For example, including placeholder comments such as "source_image = ... # assume source_img is already defined" can lead to execution errors. In such cases, we re-query the model with a different temperature, allowing up to three attempts. If all three retries fail, the system skips the current retouching and proceeds to the next iteration. In practice, these cases are not very common at all and are often resolved by the subsequent iteration. Both failure cases stem from the dependency on the existing external modules of VLMs and LLMs. As these modules improve, the failure cases of the overall proposed system will be reduced.

Figure 10 illustrates failure cases observed in the final results. In the first row, although the dark stone tomb is successfully brightened so that its boundaries become clearly visible, this also leads to an over-exposed sky region. In the second row, while the sky is stylized well according to the target style, the floor area becomes slightly less yellow than desired. These errors are expected to be alleviated once mask-based local editing is incorporated in the future. The last row shows cases where the overall adjustment does not perfectly match the ground truth, resulting in either insufficient brightness or a slightly cool tone. Since our method infers the style from a reference image that does not share the same content, rather than learning from paired data, the result is not identical to the ground truth. Nevertheless, it still produces plausible adjustments compared to the original image.

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973**Adjusted Image**974
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Figure 9: **High resolution qualitative samples 3****A.7 APPLICABILITY FOR LOCAL IMAGE EDITING**

To evaluate whether our pipeline can be extended toward localized retouching, we additionally incorporated local editing using segmentation-based masking. Specifically, a target region mask was obtained via SAM (Kirillov et al., 2023) and applied after the original global enhancement. The results in Fig. 11 demonstrate that local editing further improves similarity to the ground truth compared to using global operations alone, *e.g.*, the first sample’s PSNR is increased from 23.79 to 29.33, indicating that the framework can be extended beyond purely global corrections by integrating mask-guided refinements.

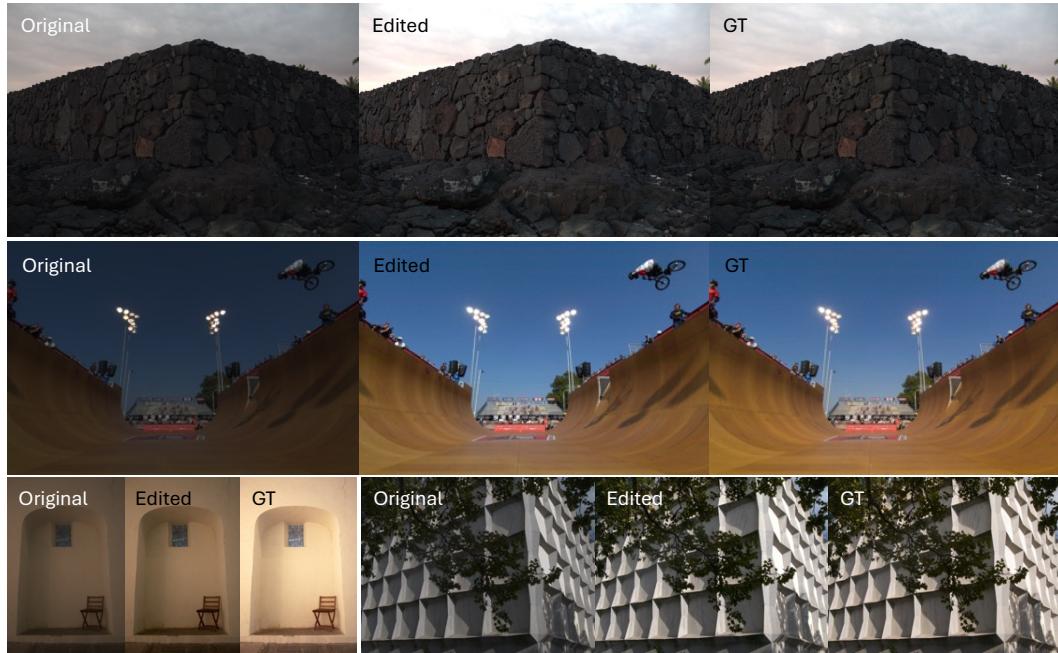


Figure 10: **Failure cases.** (Top) the sky area is overexposed. (Middle) the floor area looks less yellow. (Bottom left) the overall exposure is a bit low. (Bottom right) the colors lean slightly cool.

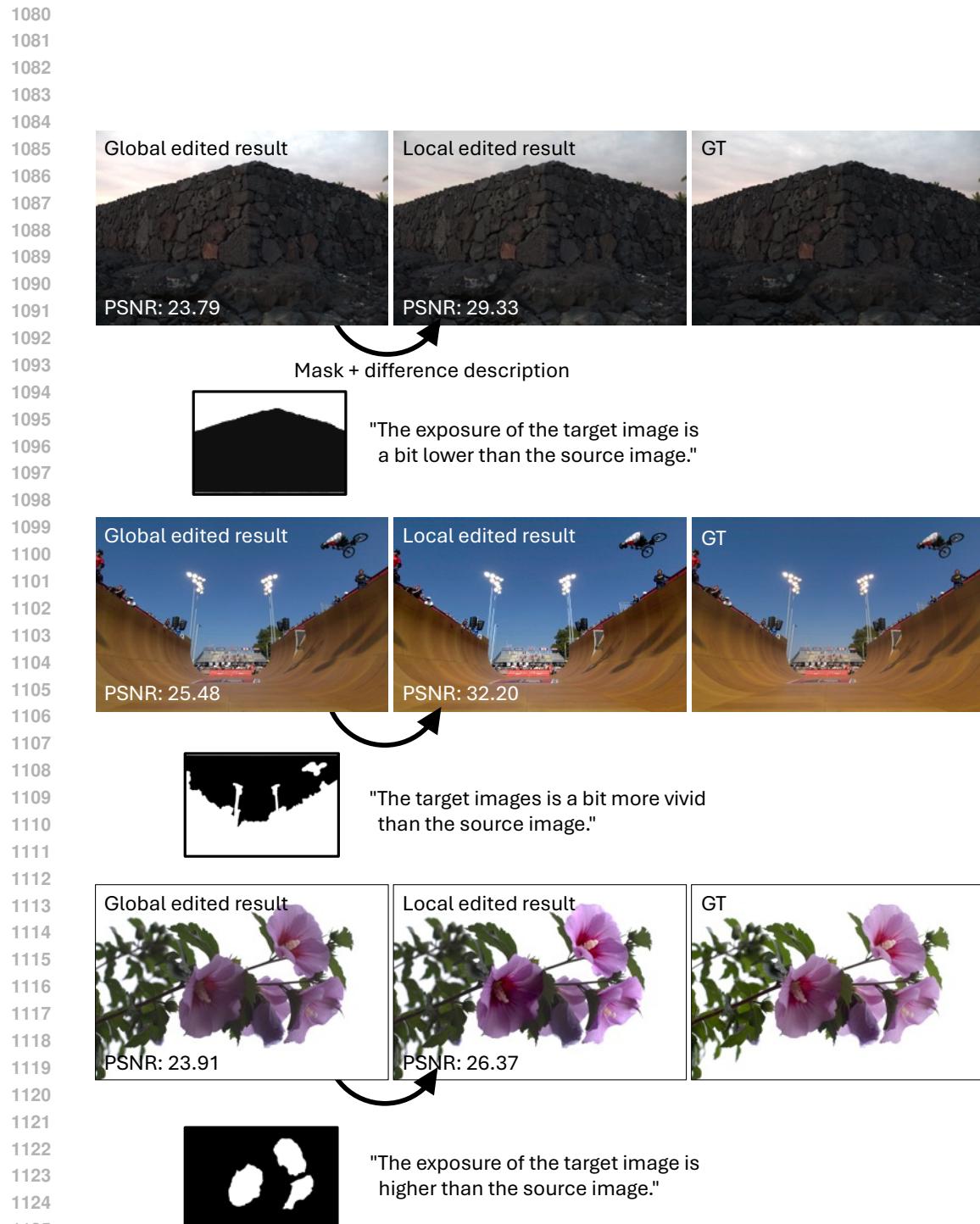
B DETAILS OF RETOUCHLLM

B.1 PIPELINE

We summarize the full procedure of RetouchLLM in Algorithm 1. RetouchLLM employs a visual critic based on a vision-language model (VLM) and a code generator based on a large language model (LLM). Notably, neither model has been explicitly trained for the image retouching task. The system performs iterative retouching until either the maximum number of iterations T is reached or the early stopping conditions are met. We define two stopping conditions: (1) Score-based early stopping, and (2) stop signal from the visual critic. First, if the source image is selected as the best candidate for three consecutive iterations, we assume that no further improvement is necessary. Second, if the visual critic explicitly includes a “stop” in the overall component of its difference description, the process is terminated early. During the iteration, the source image of the current iteration is included in the selection candidate set to ensure the reversibility in case the model outputs an unsatisfactory result. In the first iteration, a rule-based adjusted image is included as a warm-start image in the selection candidate set.

When the visual critic produces a description, we include statistics of the given images as well as those of the source and reference images, to enable a more fine-grained and quantitative explanation of inter-image differences. To support fine-grained analysis, we computed a set of image statistics: pixel-level mean, median, and standard deviation; top and bottom 10% intensities; RGB channel-wise means; Laplacian variance (for sharpness); saturation mean, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum; and the mean values of the L and b channels.

RetouchLLM retouches an image in under two minutes without any fine-tuning, whereas both RSFNet and PG-IA-NILUT require a very large corpus of training data and more than two days of training (using the authors’ provided code). Fine-tuning on a smaller subset reduces this cost but severely degrades performance, as both models are prone to overfitting when trained on a few examples.



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B.2 PROMPT

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We provide the exact prompt used in our system below. The system prompt for the visual critic is in 12, the user prompt for the visual critic in 13, the system prompt for the code generator in 14, and the user prompt for code generator in 15.

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System Prompt for Visual Critic.

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Task:

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Definition:

- Exposure refers to the overall brightness of the image. A higher factor results in a brighter image, while a lower factor makes the image darker.
- Contrast refers to the difference in brightness between light and dark areas of an image. A higher factor increases the difference, making the image more vivid but losing detail, while a lower factor reduces the difference, retaining more detail but making the image look softer.
- Highlight refers to the brightest areas in an image. A higher factor brightens these regions further, which can lead to loss of detail in overexposed areas, while a lower factor reduces brightness, helping to recover details lost in the highlights.
- Shadow refers to the darkest areas in an image. A higher factor brightens these regions, revealing details hidden in underexposed areas, while a lower factor darkens the shadows, enhancing contrast and creating a more dramatic effect, which can result in a loss of detail in the darkest areas.
- Saturation refers to the intensity of colors in an image. A higher factor enhances the vibrancy of colors, making them more intense, while a lower factor reduces the intensity, eventually leading to a grayscale image, where all color is removed.
- Temperature refers to the balance between warm and cool tones in an image. A higher factor adds warmth with reddish tones, while a lower factor introduces coolness with bluish tones.
- Texture refers to the level of detail and high-frequency variations in an image, influencing its perceived sharpness and surface characteristics. A higher factor enhances fine details and edges, while a lower factor softens the image by reducing these variations.

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Instructions:

1. Choose whether to increase, decrease, or maintain the factor for each aspect. If adjusting, select the appropriate adjustment range from the given options, and if maintaining, write 'N/A' for that aspect.
2. If adjustments are needed for one or more aspects, write 'go' for the Overall part, while no adjustments are needed for any aspect, write 'stop'.

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Output Format:

- Exposure: [description of exposure difference, e.g., the brightness of the target image is 10-20% higher than the one of the source image. or N/A.]
- Contrast: [description of contrast difference, e.g., the contrast of the target image is 10-20% higher than the one of the source image. or N/A.]
- Highlight: [description of highlight difference, e.g., the highlight of the target image is 10-20% higher than the one of the source image. or N/A.]
- Shadow: [description of shadow difference, e.g., the shadow of the target image is 10-20% higher than the one of the source image. or N/A.]
- Saturation: [description of saturation difference, e.g., the saturation of the target image is 10-20% higher than the one of the source image. or N/A.]
- Temperature: [description of temperature difference, e.g., the temperature of the target image

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is 10-20% higher than the one of the source image. or N/A.]
 - Texture: [description of texture difference, e.g., the texture of the target image is 10-20% higher than the one of the source image. or N/A.]
 - Overall: Write 'Stop' if there is an N/A for all aspects, and 'Go' if one or more aspects have differences.

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User Prompt for Visual Critic.

Task:

You should describe the similar parts between the source image and the target images and generate 3 candidate descriptions. Each candidate should include the difference of all the aspects. Compare the source image and the target images in terms of the photometric adjustments made to the image, and describe the difference in each aspect. You can choose the range from the following list: {range_list}%. Do not exceed the range. You can use the color statistics and the scores between the source and target image as a guide.

Color Statistics:

- Source: {source image statistics}.
- Targets (averaged): {average of target images statistics}.

Averaged scores (PSNR, SSIM, LPIPS, Delta E):

{Scores between source and reference images}

Output Format:

Similar parts

[Description of the similar parts]

Candidate 1

[Description of the first candidate]

Candidate 2

[Description of the second candidate]

Candidate 3

[Description of the third candidate]

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System Prompt for Code Generator.

Task:

You are an expert Python programmer. Your task is to generate Python code that sets the appropriate filters and parameter values based on the given photometric aspect-wise description of the color tone difference between the source image and the target image, and arranges the sequence of those steps to make the source image resemble the target image.

Based on the given description, choose one of the following three options and proceed with the corresponding photometric adjustments:

- Global Brightness Adjustment (exposure, contrast): If global brightness adjustments are needed more than 1%, focus on modifying elements that affect overall brightness. Do not adjust local brightness, color tone, and texture elements at this stage, only global brightness-related factors.
- Local Brightness Adjustment (highlight, shadow): If the global brightness adjustments are completed with less than 1% differences, focus on modifying elements that affect local brightness. Do not adjust global brightness, color tone, and texture elements at this stage, only local brightness-related factors.
- Color Tone and Texture Adjustment (saturation, temperature, texture): If both the global and local brightness adjustments are completed with less than 1% differences, focus on

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 1243 modifying elements that affect color tone and texture. Do not adjust global brightness and
 1244 local brightness elements at this stage, only color tone and texture-related factors.
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1246 Code Generation Instructions
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1248 Instructions:

- 1249 1. Examine the given photometric difference description to determine which option to choose,
 1250 and select only one option from the three options. Ensure that no other options are executed
 1251 in the code.
 1252 2. Select the appropriate filters for the selected adjustment option, and arrange filters in the
 1253 correct order.
 1254 3. The filter parameters can be chosen randomly within the range specified in the description.
 1255 4. The variable name of the adjusted image is "`{save_adj_img_name}`".

1256 Difference Description:

1257 `{Difference description from Visual Critic}.`

1259 Available Functions:

- 1260 - "filter.exposure(f_exp: float) -> np.ndarray": Adjusts the exposure (overall brightness) of an
 1261 image. The `f_exp` parameter is an exposure adjustment factor, ranging from -1 to 1. The
 1262 positive `f_exp` values brighten the overall image, while negative values darken it.
 1263 - "filter.contrast(f_cont: float) -> np.ndarray": Adjusts the contrast of an image by scaling its
 1264 pixel values relative to the mean brightness of the image. The `f_cont` parameter is a contrast
 1265 adjustment factor, ranging from -1 to 1. Positive `f_cont` values increase the contrast, making
 1266 the image more vivid but potentially losing detail in bright and dark areas, while negative
 1267 values reduce the contrast, retaining more detail but making the image look softer.
 1268 - "filter.highlight(f_high: float) -> np.ndarray": Adjusts the brightness of the bright areas of
 1269 an image. The `f_high` parameter is a highlight adjustment factor, ranging from -1 to 1. The
 1270 positive `f_high` values intensify the highlights, and negative values reduce them to recover
 1271 details.
 1272 - "filter.shadow(f_shad: float) -> np.ndarray": Adjusts the brightness of the dark areas of
 1273 an image. The `f_shad` parameter is a shadow adjustment factor, ranging from -1 to 1. The
 1274 positive `f_shad` values brighten the shadows and negative values deepen them.
 1275 - "filter.saturation(f_sat: float) -> np.ndarray": Adjusts the saturation of an image. The `f_sat`
 1276 parameter is a saturation adjustment factor, ranging from -1 to 1. The positive `f_sat` values
 1277 increase color vibrancy, while negative values desaturate the image towards grayscale.
 1278 - "filter.temperature(f_temp: float) -> np.ndarray": Adjusts the color temperature of an image
 1279 by modifying the balance between warm and cool tones in the RGB color space. The `f_temp`
 1280 parameter is a temperature adjustment factor, ranging from -1 to 1. The positive `f_temp`
 1281 values shift colors toward warmer tones by increasing red, while negative values shift colors
 1282 toward cooler tones by enhancing blue.
 1283 - "filter.texture(f_text: float) -> np.ndarray": Adjusts the texture of an image by modifying its
 1284 high-frequency details using Gaussian blur. The `f_text` parameter is a texture adjustment
 1285 parameter, ranging from -1 to 1. The positive `f_text` values enhance texture by amplifying
 1286 high-frequency details, while negative values soften texture.

1285 Please return the code directly without any imports or additional explanations.
 1286 Ensure the code is clear, correct, and follows the steps logically.
 1287

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 1289 B.3 SELECTION SCORE
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1291 At each iteration, we generate three candidate images and select one as the source image for the next
 1292 iteration. For the selection process, we employ a CLIP (Radford et al., 2021)-based scoring method.
 1293 Specifically, we compute the probabilities of alignment between each image in the candidate set and
 1294 the reference image with respect to eight textual prompts from four global filters: "a dark light
 1295 photo" and "a bright light photo" from the exposure, "a low-contrast photo"
 1296 and "a high-contrast photo" from the contrast, "a desaturated colours photo"

1296 and “a vivid colours photo” from the saturation, and “a cool-toned photo” and “a
 1297 warm-toned photo” from the temperature. We then calculate the KL Divergence between the
 1298 probability distribution of each candidate image and that of the reference image. The image with
 1299 the lowest score is selected. If multiple reference images are provided, we average their probability
 1300 distributions before computing the error.

1301 While we use CLIP-based similarity as selection scores in our experiments, exploring more sophis-
 1302 ticated or perceptually aligned scoring metrics remains an open direction. For example, learning a
 1303 task-specific scoring model may improve candidate selection and overall retouching quality. Devel-
 1304 oping an adaptive selection criterion that better aligns with user preferences or aesthetic judgments
 1305 could further enhance the robustness and flexibility of the system.

1307 B.4 REFERENCE IMAGE SET CONSTRUCTION

1309 We construct source–reference image pairs that simulate realistic user behavior in image retouching.
 1310 In practice, users often choose reference images with semantically similar content. To mimic this
 1311 behavior, we use CLIP (Radford et al., 2021) to extract image-level embeddings and compute pairwise
 1312 KL divergence across the dataset. Reference images are selected based on similarity in the embedding
 1313 space. Examples of such source–reference pairs are shown in Fig. 23.

1315 C DETAILS OF EXPERIMENTS

1317 C.1 BRIGHTNESS RANGE PREDICTION TEST

1319 In Table 1 of the main paper, the vision language model (VLM) with GPT-5 (OpenAI, 2025) is
 1320 evaluated on its ability to infer the brightness adjustment range given a pair of images: the original
 1321 and a manually brightened version. The task is framed as a classification problem over six predefined
 1322 discrete intervals: (0–5), (5–10), (10–20), (20–40), (40–60), and (60–100). Given this setup, the
 1323 accuracy of random guessing is approximately 16.7%. The prompt used for VLM can be found in 24.

VLM prompt for range prediction test

1326 **System Prompt:** You are an image comparison model. Given two images, determine
 1327 the brightness difference between them and choose the appropriate difference range from
 1328 the following list: [(0,5), (5,10), (10,20), (20,40), (40,60), (60,100)]. For example, if the
 1329 brightness difference is approximately 15%, respond with "(10,20)". Do not provide any
 1330 additional explanations or details.

1331 **User Prompt:** (Single) Choose the two most appropriate brightness difference range between
 1332 the two images. (Multi) Choose the appropriate brightness difference range between the
 1333 two images. The pixel means of the first image is {The mean pixel value of the
 1334 original image} and the second image is {The mean pixel value of the
 1335 manually brightened image}.

1337 C.2 FINE-TUNING SUPERVISED MODELS

1339 To provide a fair and comprehensive comparison, we fine-tune the RSFNet (Ouyang et al., 2023) and
 1340 PG-IA-NILUT (Kosugi, 2024) models on the same set of reference images used in our training-free
 1341 photo retouching pipeline. Importantly, the supervised baselines are not trained from scratch using
 1342 only five examples. Instead, they are fully trained in the standard manner on other styles, and the five
 1343 target-style images are used solely for adaptation. For the MIT-Adobe FiveK evaluation, we initialize
 1344 the baselines from weights trained on the PPRK10K dataset and adapt them using the five reference
 1345 images from the target style of MIT-Adobe FiveK; conversely, for the PPRK10K evaluation, we start
 1346 from weights trained on MIT-Adobe FiveK and adapt using the five reference images from the target
 1347 style of PPRK10K. The results are shown in Table 10, where we look at five different styles for
 1348 MIT-Adobe FiveK and three different styles for PPRK10K.

1349 We use the exact same training parameters provided by the authors’ code. For PG-IA-NILUT this
 involves three training stages and for RSFNet this involves just a single training stage. Due to the

1350 smaller training set, we determined the number of training iterations through experimentation to
 1351 avoid overfitting. For RSFNet, we used 100 iterations, and for PG-IA-NILUT we used 200 iterations.
 1352 Training for longer resulted in degraded performance. However, despite this advantage, our training-
 1353 free approach is still competitive or even outperforms both of these fine-tuned baselines across all
 1354 evaluation metrics.

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1356 C.3 OTHER SELECTION SCORES

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1358 In Table 6 in the main text, we compare our selection score with alternative methods: (1) RGB-
 1359 channel histograms, (2) YUV-channel histograms, (3) Gram matrix similarity commonly used in
 1360 style transfer, (4) our KL CLIP score using prompts regarding all filters including local ones, and (5)
 1361 our default KL CLIP score using only global filters.

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1363 For (1) RGB-channel and (2) YUV-channel histogram-based scores, we compute the channel-wise
 1364 histogram matching loss L between the images from the candidate set $x^i \in \mathcal{C}$ and the reference
 1365 images $\mathcal{Y} = \{y^j\}_{j=1}^M$, and add all of them to get the distance

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$$D_i^{RGB} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^M (L_{ij}^R + L_{ij}^G + L_{ij}^B), \quad D_i^{YUV} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^M (L_{ij}^Y + L_{ij}^{UV}). \quad (9)$$

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1368 For (3) gram matrix similarity, for each layer $\ell \in \mathcal{L}$, where \mathcal{L} is a set of layers in VGG (Simonyan &
 1369 Zisserman, 2015), the feature map of image I is

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$$F_\ell(I) \in \mathbb{R}^{C_\ell \times (H_\ell W_\ell)}, \quad G_\ell(I) = \frac{1}{C_\ell H_\ell W_\ell} F_\ell(I) F_\ell(I)^\top. \quad (10)$$

1371

1372 The Gram-based style distance between source x_i and target y_j is

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$$D_i^{\text{Gram}} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^M \sum_{\ell \in \mathcal{L}} \|G_\ell(x^i) - G_\ell(y^j)\|_F^2. \quad (11)$$

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1375 Finally, the candidate with the smallest distance is selected:

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$$i^* = \arg \min_i D_i. \quad (12)$$

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1378 For (4), we additionally incorporate six prompts corresponding to three local filters, *e.g.*, highlight,
 1379 shadow, and texture, when computing the CLIP alignment probabilities Radford et al. (2021).
 1380 The prompts are: “a photo with dim highlights” and “a photo with bright
 1381 highlights” for the highlight filter, “a photo with dark shadows” and “a photo
 1382 with bright shadows” for the shadow filter, and “a smooth photo” and “a sharp
 1383 photo” for the texture filter. All equations remain the same as in Sec. 3.1, except that the number of
 1384 prompts K is increased from 8 to 14.

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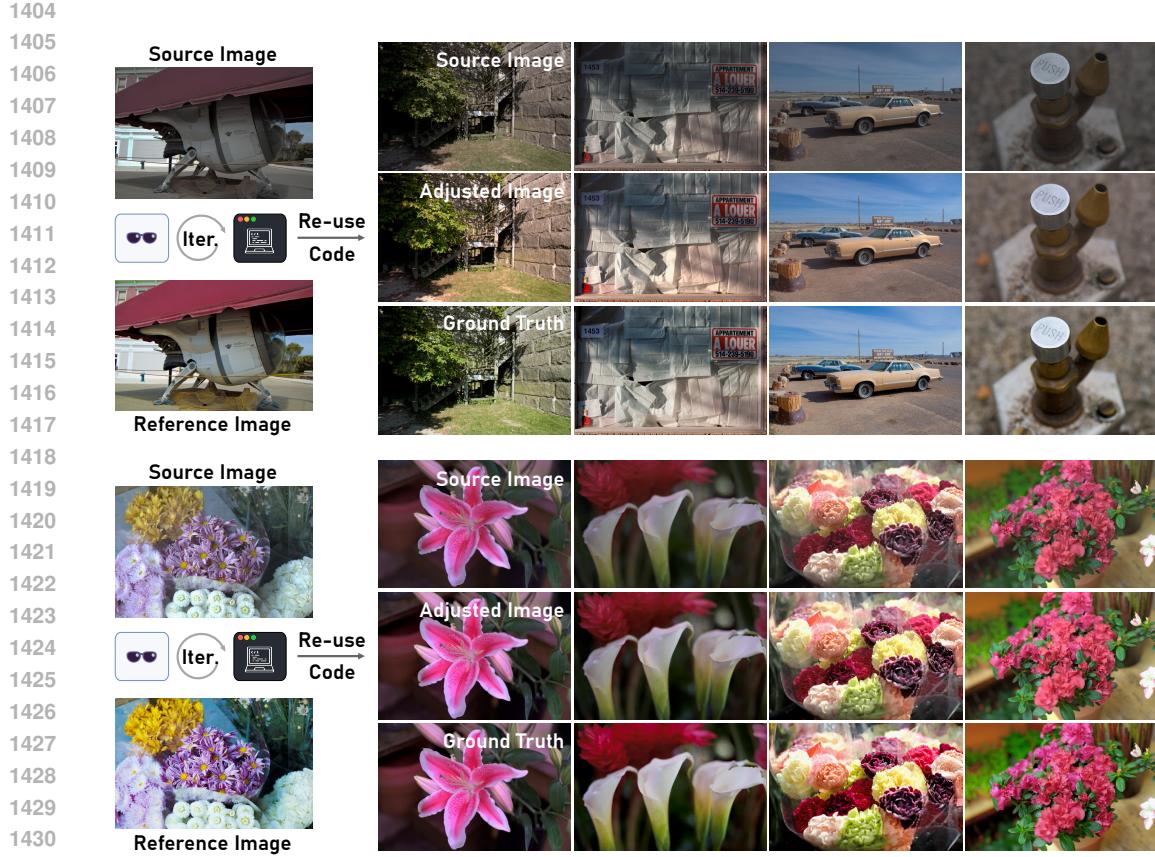


Figure 16: **Additional qualitative results for applying the restored filter, corresponding to Fig. 4 in the main paper.** The paired setup enables extracting a reusable retouching code that can be applied to other images like a preset filter. As shown, the code extracted from the left image pair can be reused to retouch other images, achieving a style similar to the GT without additional supervision.



Figure 17: **User interactive retouching with user selection (qualitative process of user interaction corresponding to Fig. 5 in the main paper).** The user can provide natural language instructions to retouch images towards the desired style and select a preferred image among the adjusted candidates. At each iteration, RetouchLLM generates three new candidates, and the user selects one to proceed.

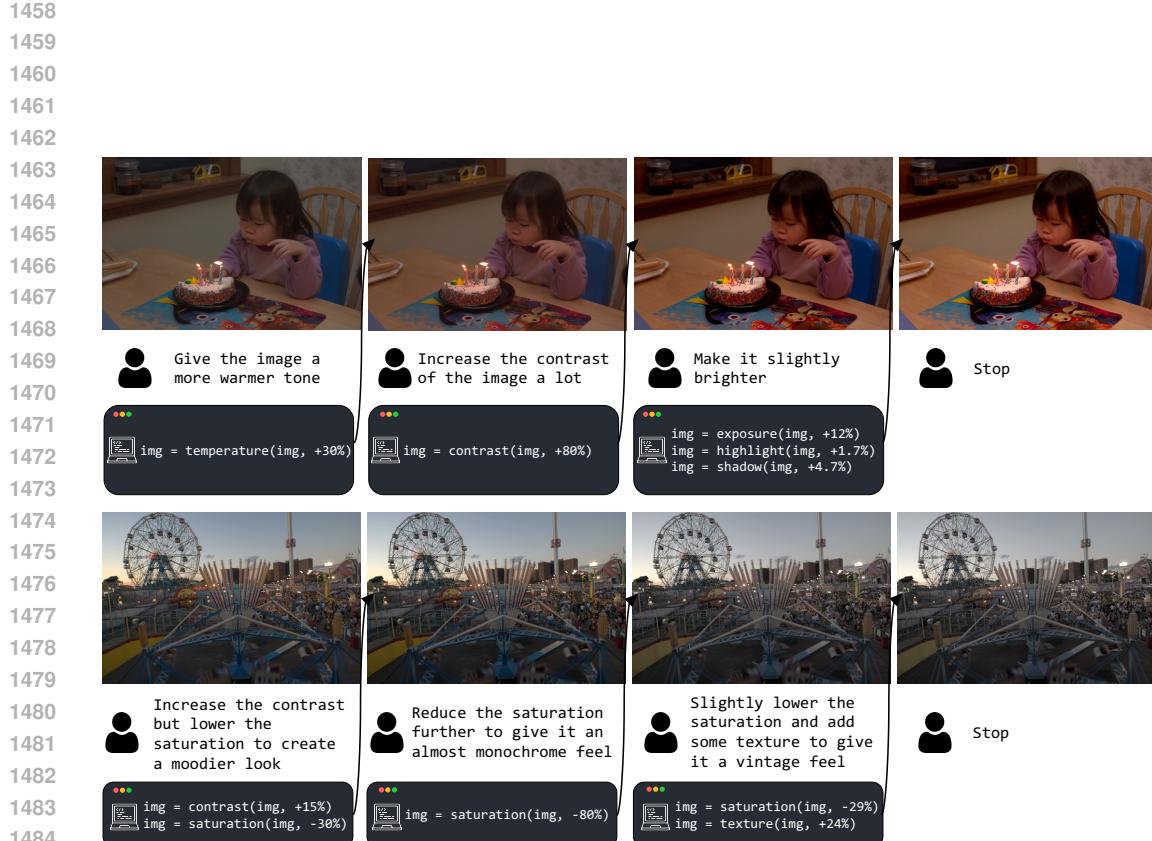


Figure 18: **Additional examples of user interactive retouching, corresponding to Fig. 5 in the main paper.** The user can provide instructions to retouch images towards the desired style.



Figure 19: **Qualitative results for code generation.** The code generator plans the coarse-to-fine retouching process by starting with global adjustments and then focusing on the finer details.

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[3rd Iteration]

Similar parts

The source and target images share a natural landscape theme, with elements like trees, water, and sky. Both sets of images exhibit a range of lighting conditions and color variations, contributing to a dynamic visual experience.

Candidate 1

- Exposure: The brightness of the target images is 5-10% higher than the source image.
- Contrast: The contrast of the target images is 3-5% higher than the source image.
- Highlight: The highlight of the target images is 3-5% higher than the source image.
- Shadow: The shadow of the target images is 3-5% higher than the source image.
- Saturation: The saturation of the target images is 1-3% higher than the source image.
- Temperature: The temperature of the target images is 3-5% higher than the source image.
- Texture: The texture of the target images is 5-10% higher than the source image.
- Overall: Go

Candidate 2

- Exposure: The brightness of the target images is 3-5% higher than the source image.
- Contrast: The contrast of the target images is 5-10% higher than the source image.
- Highlight: The highlight of the target images is 3-5% higher than the source image.
- Shadow: The shadow of the target images is 1-3% higher than the source image.
- Saturation: The saturation of the target images is 3-5% higher than the source image.
- Temperature: The temperature of the target images is 1-3% higher than the source image.
- Texture: The texture of the target images is 3-5% higher than the source image.
- Overall: Go

Candidate 3

- Exposure: The brightness of the target images is 1-3% higher than the source image.
- Contrast: The contrast of the target images is 3-5% higher than the source image.
- Highlight: The highlight of the target images is 5-10% higher than the source image.
- Shadow: The shadow of the target images is 5-10% higher than the source image.
- Saturation: The saturation of the target images is 1-3% higher than the source image.
- Temperature: The temperature of the target images is 5-10% higher than the source image.
- Texture: The texture of the target images is 1-3% higher than the source image.
- Overall: Go

Global Brightness Adjustment
source_img = ... # Assume source_img is already defined
Adjust exposure
exposure_adjustment = 0.07 # Randomly chosen within 5-10% range
adjusted_img_30 = filter.exposure(exposure_adjustment)

Adjust contrast
contrast_adjustment = 0.04 # Randomly chosen within 3-5% range
adjusted_img_30 = filter.contrast(contrast_adjustment)

Global Brightness Adjustment
source_img = ... # Assume source_img is already defined
Adjust exposure
exposure_adjustment = 0.04 # Randomly chosen within 3-5% range
adjusted_img_31 = filter.exposure(exposure_adjustment)

Adjust contrast
contrast_adjustment = 0.07 # Randomly chosen within 5-10% range
adjusted_img_31 = filter.contrast(contrast_adjustment)

Local Brightness Adjustment
source_img = ... # Assume source_img is already defined
Adjust highlight
highlight_adjustment = 0.07 # Randomly chosen within 5-10% range
adjusted_img_32 = filter.highlight(highlight_adjustment)

Adjust shadow
shadow_adjustment = 0.08 # Randomly chosen within 5-10% range
adjusted_img_32 = filter.shadow(shadow_adjustment)

Figure 20: Generated descriptions and corresponding codes samples 1



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[2nd Iteration]

Similar parts

The source and target images share a similar range in saturation, with both having a saturation max of 255.00 and a saturation min of 0.00. This indicates that both sets of images have areas of full color intensity and areas with no color, maintaining a similar color range.

Candidate 1

- Exposure: The brightness of the target images is 5-10% higher than the source image.
- Contrast: The contrast of the target images is 5-10% higher than the source image.
- Highlight: The highlight of the target images is 5-10% higher than the source image.
- Shadow: The shadow of the target images is 5-10% higher than the source image.
- Saturation: The saturation of the target images is 1-3% higher than the source image.
- Temperature: The temperature of the target images is 5-10% lower than the source image.
- Texture: The texture of the target images is 1-3% lower than the source image.

Candidate 2

- Exposure: The brightness of the target images is 3-5% higher than the source image.
- Contrast: The contrast of the target images is 3-5% higher than the source image.
- Highlight: The highlight of the target images is 3-5% higher than the source image.
- Shadow: The shadow of the target images is 3-5% higher than the source image.
- Saturation: The saturation of the target images is 3-5% higher than the source image.
- Temperature: The temperature of the target images is 3-5% lower than the source image.
- Texture: The texture of the target images is 3-5% lower than the source image.

Candidate 3

- Exposure: The brightness of the target images is 1-3% higher than the source image.
- Contrast: The contrast of the target images is 1-3% higher than the source image.
- Highlight: The highlight of the target images is 1-3% higher than the source image.
- Shadow: The shadow of the target images is 1-3% higher than the source image.
- Saturation: The saturation of the target images is 5-10% higher than the source image.
- Temperature: The temperature of the target images is 1-3% lower than the source image.
- Texture: The texture of the target images is 5-10% lower than the source image.



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[1st Iteration]

Similar Parts

Both the source and target images share a warm, elegant atmosphere with a focus on wedding themes. The lighting in both sets of images is soft and romantic, enhancing the overall mood.

Candidate 1

- Exposure: The brightness of the target images is 5-10% higher than the source image.
- Contrast: The contrast of the target images is 3-5% lower than the source image.
- Highlight: The highlight of the target images is 3-5% lower than the source image.
- Shadow: The shadow of the target images is 5-10% higher than the source image.
- Saturation: The saturation of the target images is 5-10% lower than the source image.
- Temperature: The temperature of the target images is 1-3% lower than the source image.
- Texture: The texture of the target images is 3-5% lower than the source image.

Candidate 2

- Exposure: The brightness of the target images is 3-5% higher than the source image.
- Contrast: The contrast of the target images is 5-10% lower than the source image.
- Highlight: The highlight of the target images is 3-5% lower than the source image.
- Shadow: The shadow of the target images is 3-5% higher than the source image.
- Saturation: The saturation of the target images is 3-5% lower than the source image.
- Temperature: The temperature of the target images is 5-10% lower than the source image.
- Texture: The texture of the target images is 1-3% lower than the source image.

Candidate 3

- Exposure: The brightness of the target images is 1-3% higher than the source image.
- Contrast: The contrast of the target images is 1-3% lower than the source image.
- Highlight: The highlight of the target images is 5-10% lower than the source image.
- Shadow: The shadow of the target images is 1-3% higher than the source image.
- Saturation: The saturation of the target images is 1-3% lower than the source image.
- Temperature: The temperature of the target images is 3-5% lower than the source image.
- Texture: The texture of the target images is 5-10% lower than the source image.

Figure 22: Generated descriptions and corresponding codes samples 3

