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# Evaluating Human–LLM Alignment Requires Transparent and Adaptable Statistical Guarantees

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## Abstract

As Large Language Models (LLMs) become increasingly embedded in critical domains such as healthcare, education, and public services, ensuring their alignment with human values and intentions is of paramount importance. Misalignment in these contexts can lead to significant harm, underscoring the urgent need for rigorous, interpretable, and actionable evaluation methods. This position paper provides a critical examination of the current landscape of human–LLM alignment evaluation, with a particular focus on statistical guarantees in human annotation-based and LLM-based approaches. We identify key limitations in existing methodologies and **advocate for the development of more transparent, interpretable, and adaptable frameworks for alignment guarantees**. At the heart of our inquiry are two foundational questions: What constitutes a transparent foundation for alignment guarantees? And how can such guarantees be made operational and responsive to real-world conditions? We conclude by outlining future directions for designing alignment guarantee frameworks that are not only technically sound and transparent, but also socially attuned and practically adaptable.

## 1 Introduction

Large language models are increasingly integrated into real-world applications, from chat assistants to decision-support systems (OpenAI, 2024; Lin and Chen, 2023). However, ensuring that these models align with human values, preferences, and expectations has emerged as a central challenge (Dubois et al., 2023). This alignment—the degree to which LLM outputs match human expectations and values—represents both a technical and societal frontier in AI research.

Traditionally, the evaluation of LLM alignment has relied heavily on human judgments (Taori et al., 2023). While human-based annotation protocols offer direct insights into model-human agreement, they suffer from well-documented limitations, including subjectivity, limited diversity of annotators, poor inter-rater reliability, and high cost (Wu et al., 2023). Recent work has introduced more structured human evaluation protocols—such as pairwise comparisons and Elo-style rating systems—which offer greater statistical stability (Zheng et al., 2023; Dettmers et al., 2023), but do not resolve issues of scalability or systemic bias.

In parallel, the emergence of LLM-based evaluation has opened up promising new directions (Chiang and Lee, 2023). These approaches leverage LLMs themselves as evaluators, enabling scalable and cost-effective assessments across a range of tasks. However, they also come with significant limitations. Evaluator models are prone to positional and stylistic biases, self-enhancement effects, and susceptibility to subtle prompt manipulations (Wang et al., 2023a; Thakur et al., 2024). Moreover, as LLM-based evaluation inherits the limitations of its underlying models, it raises deep epistemological concerns about circularity, bias amplification, and the validity of using imperfect judges to evaluate other imperfect systems (Xiong et al., 2023).

37 To overcome these limitations, researchers have  
 38 recently begun introducing statistical guarantees  
 39 into alignment evaluation—borrowing tools  
 40 from conformal prediction (Angelopoulos et al.,  
 41 2022), PAC-style analysis (Jung et al., 2024),  
 42 and risk calibration. These methods aim to for-  
 43 malize notions of alignment risk, abstention con-  
 44 fidence, and human agreement, allowing for in-  
 45 terpretable, probabilistic control over evaluation  
 46 quality. However, despite these promising ad-  
 47 vances, current statistical approaches still face  
 48 limitations in terms of generalization, robustness  
 49 under distribution shift (Mohri and Hashimoto,  
 50 2024), interpretability for practitioners, and flex-  
 51 ibility for different domains.

52 **This position paper advocates for a more**  
 53 **transparent, interpretable, and adaptive sta-**  
 54 **tistical foundation for human-LLM align-**  
 55 **ment evaluation.** By transparent, we refer not  
 56 only to the availability of formal guarantees, but  
 57 also to the clarity with which their underlying  
 58 components, assumptions, and limitations are  
 59 communicated to users. A transparent frame-  
 60 work should enable practitioners—and, where relevant, the public—to understand exactly what is  
 61 being guaranteed (e.g., risk bounds, abstention criteria), under what conditions those guarantees  
 62 hold (e.g., calibration set representativeness, model stability), and where the limits of validity lie  
 63 (e.g., distribution shift, model uncertainty). By adaptive, we refer to the framework’s capacity to  
 64 accommodate task-specific requirements, user-defined risk tolerances, and domain variability. An  
 65 adaptive statistical foundation should allow for dynamic calibration and parameterization (e.g., adjust-  
 66 ing confidence thresholds or risk levels) to align with the practical demands and constraints of diverse  
 67 deployment scenarios. Our central claim is that without transparent and adaptive statistical guarantees,  
 68 alignment evaluations will remain fragmented, difficult to validate, and potentially misleading in  
 69 real-world use. To structure our discussion, we pose two foundational questions:

- 70 • **Transparency:** what constitutes a transparent and principled foundation for alignment  
 71 guarantees?
- 72 • **Adaptability:** how can such guarantees be made operational—measurable, interpretable,  
 73 and responsive to real-world deployment conditions?

74 We analyze existing evaluation methodologies (Sec. 2), review recent developments in statistical  
 75 alignment guarantees (Sec. 3), and identify conceptual and practical gaps that persist. Finally, in  
 76 Sec. 4, we argue that designing alignment guarantee frameworks with transparent and adaptable  
 77 components is essential—not only for ensuring technical soundness, but also for fostering social trust,  
 78 regulatory compliance, and safe deployment of generative models in high-stakes settings.

## 79 2 Existing evaluation methodologies

### 80 2.1 Human-based evaluation

81 Human-AI alignment evaluation has long been a central topic of study, early human evaluation  
 82 frameworks adopted ordinal classification schemes, where annotators assigned responses to predefined  
 83 quality levels. For example, Wang et al. (2022); Wu et al. (2023) used a four-point scale: acceptable,  
 84 minor errors, major errors, and unacceptable. However, these categorical approaches suffer from  
 85 substantial subjectivity, as evidenced by poor inter-annotator agreement in prior studies (Kalpathy-  
 86 Cramer et al., 2016), highlighting the difficulty of applying rigid evaluation criteria to nuanced and  
 87 context-dependent language outputs.

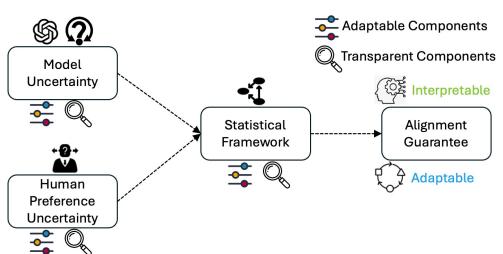


Figure 1: This figure illustrates a conceptual framework for generating statistical alignment guarantees that are both transparent and adaptable. The framework accounts for two primary sources of uncertainty: model uncertainty and human preference uncertainty. These uncertainties are modeled with both transparent components—such as calibration sets and empirical risk estimation—and adaptable elements, including task-specific uncertainty measures and tunable hyper-parameters. By integrating statistical tools with user-defined risk parameters, the framework yields formal guarantees on human–model agreement.

88 To mitigate these limitations, Taori et al. (2023) proposed a pairwise comparison protocol, where  
89 annotators judge which of two model responses is superior. This relative evaluation format reduces  
90 cognitive load and improves annotation consistency. Building on this, recent work such as Zheng  
91 et al. (2023); Dettmers et al. (2023) incorporates Elo rating systems, originally developed for ranking  
92 chess players, to dynamically assess model performance. In these systems, model scores are updated  
93 iteratively based on pairwise “wins” and “losses,” enabling statistically robust comparisons across  
94 multiple LLMs.

95 More recently, human-based evaluation has advanced beyond static taxonomies and simple compar-  
96 isons through the use of fine-grained rubrics and context-aware annotations. For instance, Fan et al.  
97 (2025) introduced SedarEval, a rubric-driven framework where task-specific rubrics are automatically  
98 constructed from prompts and refined through human judgment. In the safety domain, Xie et al.  
99 (2025) developed SORRY-bench, a large-scale corpus of over 7,000 human-annotated refusal cases,  
100 emphasizing diversity and inter-annotator agreement to assess LLM safety behavior. Arabzadeh  
101 and Clarke (2025) benchmarked LLM-generated judgments against expert relevance assessments in  
102 TREC RAG tasks, demonstrating the advantage of hybrid human-machine adjudication over fully  
103 automated metrics. Additionally, Yu et al. (2025a) proposed RPGBENCH, where humans interact  
104 with LLMs in role-playing scenarios to evaluate their behavioral consistency and narrative plausibility.  
105 Collectively, these works reflect a clear shift toward context-rich, trait-grounded human evaluation  
106 paradigms that more accurately capture the complexity of aligning LLMs with human expectations.

107 Through these progressive refinements in human evaluation protocols, the field has evolved toward  
108 more reliable and systematic assessment methodologies. However, several key challenges remain.

109 **Challenge (Subjectivity):** Human-based alignment evaluation is inherently subjective (Binns et al.,  
110 2018; Chang et al., 2024), often reflecting narrow cultural or demographic biases due to limited anno-  
111 tator diversity. This can skew alignment objectives and marginalize underrepresented perspectives.  
112 Moreover, a preference articulation gap—the mismatch between evaluators’ intentions and how they  
113 score—introduces noise, as annotators may struggle to express preferences clearly or rationalize them  
114 inconsistently. Evolving social norms further complicate evaluation, making human preferences a  
115 moving target. Finally, conflicts between expert and general-user priorities—such as accuracy versus  
116 empathy—raise unresolved questions about whose preferences should define alignment.

117 **Challenge (Scalability):** Human evaluations face serious scalability constraints (Li et al., 2023).  
118 Recruiting and compensating annotators is costly, limiting coverage across use cases and depth in  
119 rare scenarios. As LLMs evolve rapidly, manual evaluations struggle to keep pace, often becoming  
120 outdated before deployment. The vast space of possible inputs makes exhaustive testing infeasible,  
121 especially for rare but critical failures. Additionally, annotator fatigue and limited domain expertise  
122 reduce evaluation quality over time, highlighting the need for more scalable, systematic alternatives.

## 123 2.2 LLM-based evaluation

124 While human evaluation provides high-quality insights, it faces well-known challenges in terms of  
125 scalability, efficiency, and cost. At the same time, the increasing fluency of LLMs has made it difficult  
126 for annotators to reliably distinguish between human- and model-generated text in open-ended tasks  
127 (Clark et al., 2021), prompting growing interest in using LLMs themselves as evaluators.

128 LLM-based evaluation approaches vary in design. Some extend traditional reference-based metrics by  
129 prompting LLMs to generate multiple paraphrased references, thereby expanding evaluation coverage  
130 (Tang et al., 2023). However, such methods still rely on at least one human-written reference. More  
131 recent reference-free approaches have emerged, where LLMs are prompted to directly assess response  
132 quality using task descriptions and evaluation rubrics (Liu et al., 2023; Fu et al., 2023; Chen et al.,  
133 2023; Chiang and Lee, 2023). These methods have been adapted to tasks such as summarization  
134 (Gao et al., 2023), code generation (Zhuo, 2023), open-ended QA (Bai et al., 2023), and dialogue  
135 evaluation (Lin and Chen, 2023), with prompt engineering enabling multi-dimensional assessments  
136 over quality, coherence, and factuality (Fu et al., 2023; Lin and Chen, 2023). Factuality remains a core  
137 focus of LLM-based evaluation. Studies have assessed factual correctness using both closed-source  
138 and open-source models (Min et al., 2023; Zha et al., 2023). Building on the success of human-based  
139 pairwise evaluation, models like GPT-4 have been used to conduct direct comparisons between  
140 candidate outputs (Dubois et al., 2023; Zheng et al., 2023).

141 Despite promising results, LLM-based evaluators exhibit notable biases. Wang et al. (2023a) observed  
142 positional bias, where models favor the first option regardless of content quality; mitigation strategies  
143 include candidate shuffling and chain-of-thought prompting. Wu and Aji (2023) reported that LLM  
144 judges often over-penalize grammatical issues and brevity while overlooking factual inaccuracies.  
145 To address this, a multi-dimensional Elo system has been proposed to separately score accuracy,  
146 helpfulness, and fluency. Zheng et al. (2023) also identified self-enhancement bias, where models  
147 tend to favor their own outputs. Remedies include randomized candidate positioning, exemplar  
148 conditioning, and reasoning-enhanced prompting.

149 Although LLMs like GPT-4 can match human raters in accuracy (Dubois et al., 2024; Li et al., 2024b),  
150 their use raises concerns about cost and bias. To improve efficiency and interpretability, researchers  
151 have explored judge model distillation (Kim et al., 2024; Zhu et al., 2023), peer review ensembles  
152 (Verga et al., 2024), and multi-agent debate systems (Chan et al., 2023). Still, most of these methods  
153 lack formal guarantees of reliability. Emerging studies further reveal that LLM judges are susceptible  
154 to cognitive and stylistic biases (Zeng et al., 2023; Koo et al., 2023; Panickssery et al., 2024), calling  
155 into question their robustness and generalizability. To address privacy and accessibility concerns  
156 associated with closed-source evaluators, Wang et al. (2023b) developed PandaLM, a fine-tuned  
157 LLaMA-7B model which achieves evaluation quality comparable to GPT-3.5 and GPT-4.

158 Recently, Wang et al. (2025b) proposed OpenForecast, where LLMs perform both forecasting and  
159 evaluation using retrieval-augmented prompts—eliminating the need for human-written references.  
160 Yu et al. (2025b) introduced xFinder, a unified interface for summarization and translation evaluation  
161 using instruction-tuned LLMs to assess fluency, adequacy, and factuality with improved human  
162 agreement. Badshah and Sajjad (2025) developed DAFE, a confidence-aware ensemble of multiple  
163 LLM judges. Cao et al. (2025) proposed the Multi-Agent LLM Judge, which assigns distinct personas  
164 to LLMs to support personalized, context-sensitive evaluations across traits such as coherence,  
165 specificity, and style. While such LLM-based evaluation methods represent substantial progress,  
166 several critical challenges remain for future investigation.

167 **Challenge (Echo Chamber Effects):** Using LLMs to evaluate other LLMs introduces circular  
168 reference problems that complicate alignment evaluation (Wataoka et al., 2024). When models  
169 evaluate outputs similar to what they might generate themselves, they often exhibit biases toward  
170 familiar patterns and approaches (Bommasani et al., 2023). The evaluating model itself may have  
171 alignment issues, creating a recursive problem of determining who evaluates the evaluators. Small  
172 changes in evaluation prompts can dramatically shift model judgments, raising questions about the  
173 stability of LLM-based evaluation methods. Judge models may show inconsistent calibration across  
174 different contexts, being overconfident in some domains and under-confident in others. Perhaps most  
175 concerning is the potential for bias amplification—when judge models with subtle biases are used to  
176 evaluate and train new models, these biases may be reinforced through successive iterations, creating  
177 problematic feedback loops in alignment systems that rely on model-based evaluation.

178 **Challenge (Inherent Uncertainty):** LLM-based alignment evaluation is fundamentally limited  
179 by the model’s own epistemic and aleatoric uncertainties (Farquhar et al., 2024). As evaluators,  
180 LLMs generate preference judgments based on patterns learned from data, but lack true grounding  
181 or access to objective truth. This introduces epistemic uncertainty, especially in out-of-distribution  
182 or ambiguous cases where the model’s internal representations are unreliable. In addition, aleatoric  
183 uncertainty arises when the evaluation instruction itself admits multiple reasonable interpretations,  
184 causing variability in outputs across different runs or prompts. Without principled mechanisms to  
185 quantify and communicate these uncertainties, model-generated evaluations may project a false sense  
186 of confidence, undermining their trustworthiness. This challenge is further exacerbated when such  
187 evaluations are used in downstream systems to guide training decisions, as unrecognized uncertainty  
188 can propagate misaligned updates and erode human trust in alignment processes.

### 189 3 Existing statistical guarantee for alignment

190 To address the limitations of prior human- and LLM-based methods, recent research has increasingly  
191 turned to enhancing LLMs with rigorous statistical guarantees aimed at controlling risk in high-stakes  
192 applications. Notable efforts include reducing hallucination rates in factual generation tasks (Yadkori  
193 et al., 2024; Mohri and Hashimoto, 2024) and controlling false discovery rates in medical decision-  
194 making (Gui et al., 2024). These approaches frequently leverage conformal methods (Angelopoulos

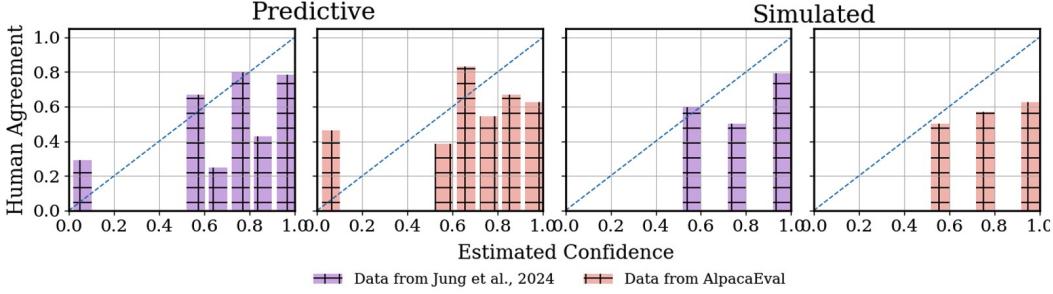


Figure 2: Reliability plot for confidence estimation methods (**left**: predictive probability measure; **right**: simulated annotators measure), using GPT-4 as judge on the data from [Jung et al. \(2024\)](#) (purple) and additional 500 records from AlpacaEval (orange) ([Li et al., 2023](#)). Horizontal axis represents the estimated LLM confidence, vertical axis represents the rate of human-LLM agreement, and dashed lines denote perfect calibration. More experimental details are given in [Appendix A](#).

195 et al., 2022), which provide marginal control over prescribed risks. Complementary work has  
 196 investigated fine-tuning objectives for LLMs to improve truthfulness ([Kang et al., 2024](#); [Tian et al., 2023](#)) or to enable appropriate abstention when knowledge is insufficient ([Zhang et al., 2024](#)).

198 Notably, [Yadkori et al. \(2024\)](#) introduces a principled method to reduce hallucinations (enhance  
 199 alignment) in LLMs by employing a conformal prediction-based abstention mechanism. The authors  
 200 propose leveraging the LLM itself to evaluate the consistency among multiple responses generated  
 201 for a given query, thereby measuring model uncertainty. Based on this uncertainty, their approach  
 202 decides whether the model should respond or abstain, providing rigorous theoretical guarantees on  
 203 limiting the rate of hallucinations. [Mohri and Hashimoto \(2024\)](#) also integrates conformal prediction  
 204 into LLMs to ensure high-probability correctness guarantees for generated outputs. The authors  
 205 conceptualize the correctness of an LLM’s output as an uncertainty quantification problem, where  
 206 each output corresponds to an entailment-based uncertainty set. By progressively “backing off” or  
 207 making outputs less specific based on uncertainty estimates, the proposed method ensures that model  
 208 outputs meet user-specified correctness levels with rigorous statistical guarantees.

209 Building on these foundations, [Jung et al. \(2024\)](#) extends them by developing an unsupervised  
 210 confidence measure and establishing an exact upper bound on disagreement risk conditional on  
 211 calibration set. Rather than issuing a decision unconditionally, the framework introduces a selective  
 212 evaluation mechanism: the LLM makes a judgment only when it is sufficiently confident in its  
 213 preference. This confidence is quantified by the confidence measure  $C_{LM}(x)$  for each input  $x$ , and a  
 214 prediction is accepted if and only if the confidence exceeds a predefined threshold  $\lambda$ ; otherwise, the  
 215 model abstains.

216 [Jung et al. \(2024\)](#) frames the selection of  $\lambda$  as a multiple hypothesis testing problem. Given access  
 217 to a small calibration set of human preferences, they measure the empirical risk of disagreeing  
 218 with humans when using threshold  $\lambda$ . Since the empirical risk follows a binomial distribution, they  
 219 compute the exact  $(1 - \delta)$  upper confidence bound of the risk. The risk tends to increase as  $\lambda$   
 220 decreases, allowing to use fixed sequence testing ([Bauer, 1991](#)) to choose the threshold.

221 For a threshold chosen as above, and a selective evaluator operating based on the threshold, given a  
 222 user-defined risk tolerance  $\alpha$  and an error level  $\delta$ , they obtain the guarantee that:

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{human-model agreement} | C_{LM}(x) \geq \lambda) \geq 1 - \alpha \quad (1)$$

223 holds with probability at least  $1 - \delta$ . While this statistical guarantee represents a significant advancement,  
 224 several challenges remain to be addressed in future work.

225 **Challenge (Confidence Measure):** While the simulated annotators confidence measure introduced  
 226 by [Jung et al. \(2024\)](#) provides a promising approach to calibrating model judgments, its generalization  
 227 capabilities across diverse tasks and domains remain uncertain. As LLMs are deployed in open-world  
 228 environments, confidence scores derived from context-limited simulations may fail to capture the  
 229 full variability of real-world queries. As shown in [Fig. 2](#), the performance of the same confidence  
 230 measure can vary substantially depending on the calibration set used. Moreover, the effectiveness of  
 231 this measure in scenarios with highly technical or specialized content—where even human annotators  
 232 might disagree significantly—requires further investigation. Future work should explore adaptive

233 confidence measures that dynamically adjust to task complexity and domain-specific characteristics,  
234 potentially incorporating domain knowledge and uncertainty quantification techniques.

235 **Challenge (Calibration Set):** The statistical guarantees provided by the framework rely critically  
236 on the assumption that the calibration set is representative of the distribution encountered during  
237 deployment (Malinin et al., 2021; Gui et al., 2024). In real-world scenarios, however, user queries  
238 may differ significantly from those in the calibration set—both in linguistic style and semantic content.  
239 This distributional shift jeopardizes the reliability of the estimated risk and its upper bound, leading  
240 to a potential mismatch between theoretical guarantees and practical performance. Future research  
241 should explore robust calibration methods that remain valid under distribution shifts, potentially  
242 incorporating concepts from domain adaptation, transfer learning, and human performance modeling  
243 to continuously update calibration parameters in response to evolving environments.

244 **Challenges in Transparency and Adaptability:** While the the previous works introduce promising  
245 statistical tools for alignment guarantees, the foundational underpinnings of these methods remain  
246 insufficiently examined. The effectiveness of current frameworks hinges on several assumptions  
247 that are often unverifiable or oversimplified in practice—such as the generalizability of confidence  
248 measures across domains, the monotonic behavior of empirical risk bounds, and the representativeness  
249 of calibration sets relative to deployment conditions (Angelopoulos and Bates, 2021). When these  
250 assumptions are violated—as is often the case in real-world settings—the guarantees provided become  
251 difficult to interpret, unreliable to uphold, and potentially misleading. This lack of clarity in the  
252 statistical foundation obscures the true meaning of alignment risk estimates and complicates their  
253 communication to developers, users, and regulators. Furthermore, in practice, different applications  
254 of LLMs impose distinct requirements on risk tolerance, abstention behavior, and evaluation criteria.  
255 Therefore, a key challenge lies in designing adaptive statistical guarantee frameworks that can  
256 be tuned to different tasks—whether through configurable risk parameters, dynamic confidence  
257 thresholds, or domain-specific calibration strategies. Without this adaptability, even well-calibrated  
258 guarantees risk being either too permissive in high-stakes settings or overly restrictive in low-stakes  
259 applications, ultimately limiting their real-world usability.

## 260 4 Future: A transparent and adaptable guarantee framework

261 To advance the interpretability and real-world applicability of human–LLM alignment guarantees, we  
262 advocate for the development of transparent and adaptable statistical frameworks. These directions  
263 aim not only to enhance the technical rigor of evaluation methods but also to ensure that alignment  
264 guarantees are trustworthy, interpretable, and practically deployable across diverse tasks and domains.

### 265 4.1 Transparency

266 Transparency is a prerequisite for trust—particularly in high-stakes applications where the con-  
267 sequences of model misalignment may be severe (Afroogh et al., 2024). While recent methods  
268 provide formal alignment guarantees, the internal mechanics, assumptions, and limitations of these  
269 frameworks are often opaque to both practitioners and end-users. We argue that statistical guarantees  
270 for alignment must not only be valid, but also interpretable and auditable. To achieve this, future  
271 frameworks should offer four essential pillars.

272 First, **explicit decomposition of guarantee components** is critical for demystifying the statistical  
273 machinery behind alignment evaluation. Each guarantee should be broken down into interpretable  
274 elements that explain its construction and function (Wei et al., 2024). This includes detailing how  
275 confidence scores are computed, how decision thresholds are selected to balance precision and  
276 coverage and how risk metrics—such as empirical disagreement rates or abstention-adjusted error  
277 bounds—are calculated. Furthermore, the abstention mechanism itself should be clearly explained,  
278 outlining when and why the model chooses to abstain, and what that implies for the overall evaluation  
279 coverage. Making these elements modular and transparent not only enhances trust but also facilitates  
280 debugging, tuning, and context-specific adaptation by downstream users (Wang et al., 2025a).

281 Second, any meaningful statistical guarantee must be accompanied by a **clear articulation of its**  
282 **assumptions and scope of validity**. Guarantees are only as strong as the premises on which they  
283 rest (Li et al., 2024a). Therefore, the framework must explicitly state the assumptions made about the  
284 data—such as the independence and identically distributed nature of calibration and test samples, the

285 representativeness of human preference annotations, or the reliability of confidence measures across  
286 input types. Additionally, assumptions about the model—such as the monotonicity of risk-confidence  
287 relationships or the correctness of label predictions—should be clearly noted. Where appropriate,  
288 the framework should specify for which domains, input styles, or task settings the guarantees are  
289 valid, and include warnings or diagnostics when these conditions are likely violated (e.g., due to  
290 distribution shift (Chopra et al., 2024), adversarial inputs (Chaudhary et al., 2025), or semantic  
291 ambiguity (Chaudhary et al., 2024)). This clarity is essential to avoid a false sense of security in  
292 settings where the guarantees may no longer be valid.

293 Third, **human-interpretable reporting** is indispensable for bridging the gap between technical  
294 precision and user-facing clarity. Statistical guarantees should be communicated in formats that  
295 facilitate understanding, decision-making, and trust (Wei et al., 2024). This involves translating  
296 formal quantities—such as confidence levels, coverage percentages, and upper bounds on alignment  
297 error—into natural language summaries that explain what these numbers mean in practice (Dubois  
298 et al., 2023; Lin and Chen, 2023). For example, rather than stating that "the upper bound on empirical  
299 disagreement is 0.05", the system could report that "the model is expected to agree with human  
300 preferences at least 95% of the time when confident". Visualization tools such as risk-vs-coverage  
301 curves (Ao et al., 2023), abstention frequency histograms (Tayebati et al., 2025), or error calibration  
302 plots can further enhance comprehension. Additionally, contextual explanations that clarify why the  
303 model abstained or flagged uncertainty in a particular instance can empower users to make informed  
304 judgments, especially in domains such as medicine or law where interpretability is non-negotiable.

305 Finally, to support transparency at the ecosystem level, **auditable and reproducible evaluation**  
306 processes must be a cornerstone of any guarantee framework. This requires that the entire pipeline—from  
307 data collection and calibration to risk computation and threshold selection—be open to inspection,  
308 verification, and reuse. Practically, this means releasing detailed descriptions (or ideally open-source  
309 code) of how calibration datasets were sampled and processed (Yao et al., 2024), how risk statistics  
310 were computed (Tayebati et al., 2025), and how decision thresholds were derived (Sarmah et al.,  
311 2024). Evaluation tools should be modular and version-controlled, enabling consistent application  
312 across models and tasks while allowing traceability over time. Furthermore, when statistical claims  
313 are made—such as "the model meets a 95% alignment threshold"—external auditors should be able  
314 to reproduce the result from public artifacts. This level of transparency is essential not only for  
315 academic reproducibility, but also for regulatory oversight and responsible deployment in sensitive  
316 environments (Machado, 2025).

## 317 4.2 Adaptability

318 An adaptable statistical guarantee framework must be capable of responding to the diverse and  
319 evolving demands of real-world deployment contexts (Badawi et al., 2025). Unlike fixed, one-  
320 size-fits-all approaches, adaptability requires a framework that can be tuned to domain-specific  
321 constraints, task complexity, and operational realities. We identify the following characteristics of  
322 such a framework.

323 First, a statistically grounded guarantee framework should be **task-specific and configurable**. Alignment  
324 requirements and acceptable error rates vary substantially across use cases—what constitutes a  
325 tolerable mistake in a casual chatbot may be completely unacceptable in a clinical decision-support  
326 system (Kumar et al., 2025). Consequently, evaluation pipelines must offer control over key par-  
327 ameters such as abstention thresholds, acceptable risk bounds, and confidence thresholds. These  
328 parameters should not be hard-coded, but rather dynamically configurable based on the risk sensitivity  
329 of the task, its user base, or the deployment environment (Gallego, 2024). For example, an application  
330 in legal reasoning may demand a very low risk of misalignment with authoritative interpretations,  
331 justifying a high abstention rate; meanwhile, a creative writing assistant might prioritize broader  
332 coverage and fluency over strict alignment with normative content. An adaptable framework should  
333 allow such trade-offs to be explicitly set and monitored.

334 Beyond static configuration, alignment guarantee should also be **context-aware**—that is, sensitive  
335 to the semantic, social, and operational context in which the LLM is operating. Context-awareness  
336 includes the ability to incorporate auxiliary metadata, user roles (Sundaram et al., 2024), domain-  
337 specific knowledge (Zhao et al., 2024), or even prompt uncertainty (Martinson et al., 2025) into the  
338 evaluation logic. For instance, a system responding to novice users in educational settings might  
339 weight helpfulness and clarity more heavily than technical correctness, while the reverse may apply  
340 in scientific or engineering contexts. Guarantee criteria might also vary depending on input types

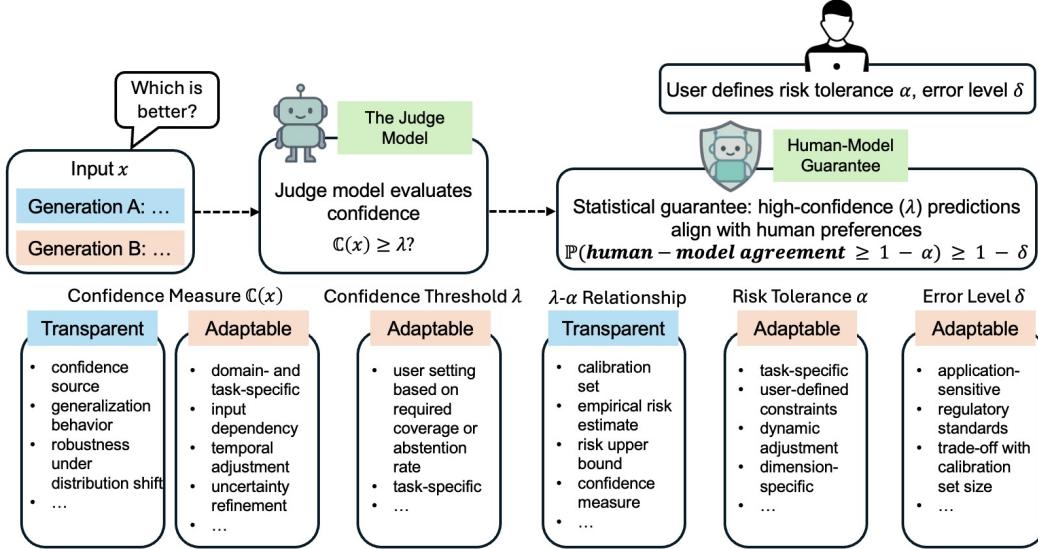


Figure 3: An example of the guarantee framework (Jung et al., 2024) with more transparent and adaptable components.

341 (e.g., structured queries vs. free-form dialogue) or user intent (e.g., exploratory vs. authoritative  
 342 use). By embedding contextual signals into both risk estimation and abstention logic, the guarantee  
 343 framework can become more aligned with the practical demands of different usage settings.

344 A major threat to the stability of statistical guarantees is distribution shift on calibration set. Therefore,  
 345 adaptability also requires that the framework be **robust to domain shift**. Most existing methods  
 346 assume that the calibration set used to construct statistical guarantees is representative of the de-  
 347 ployment distribution—a condition that is rarely sustained in practice (Liu et al., 2024). A truly  
 348 adaptable framework should include mechanisms to detect and respond to such shifts. This might  
 349 involve monitoring model confidence drift, estimating divergence between calibration and live input  
 350 distributions, or leveraging techniques from transfer learning and domain adaptation to re-calibrate  
 351 guarantees in situ. Incorporating human-in-the-loop feedback, either through active learning (Goel  
 352 et al., 2025) or post-deployment auditing (Cherian and Candès, 2024), can also help maintain the  
 353 validity of guarantees over time. Without this robustness, statistical guarantees risk becoming brittle  
 354 and misleading as models are deployed in new or evolving environments.

355 Finally, to support scalability and long-term usability, the guarantee framework should be **composable**  
 356 and **extensible**. This means it should be modular in design, allowing components such as confidence  
 357 estimation, calibration logic, and risk computation to be reused, replaced, or improved independently.  
 358 Such modularity facilitates integration with different LLM architectures, evaluation settings, and  
 359 interface modalities. It also enables researchers and practitioners to extend the framework—e.g.,  
 360 by incorporating new types of uncertainty quantification, social value priors, or hybrid human-AI  
 361 judgment protocols—without requiring a complete system overhaul. A composable framework  
 362 encourages experimentation and evolution, making it more likely to remain relevant as alignment  
 363 research and model capabilities progress.

### 364 4.3 An example

365 Fig. 3 illustrates an enhanced version of the statistical guarantee framework introduced by Jung  
 366 et al. (2024), enriched with explicit transparency and adaptability across its core components. The  
 367 framework operates by assessing whether a judge model is confident enough—based on a confidence  
 368 measure  $C(x)$ —to make a reliable preference judgment between different generations. A prediction  
 369 is only accepted if the confidence exceeds a threshold  $\lambda$ , thereby invoking a formal guarantee: with  
 370 high probability  $1 - \delta$ , the probability of agreement with human preferences is at least  $1 - \alpha$ . This  
 371 process ensures that the selected threshold satisfies the desired risk tolerance  $\alpha$  under controlled  
 372 sampling variability  $\delta$ , thus grounding the guarantee in observable empirical data.

373 This refined schematic highlights how each component of the evaluation pipeline—ranging from  
 374 confidence estimation to risk quantification—can be made both transparent and adaptable. Trans-

375 transparency is ensured through the explicit decomposition of evaluation elements, including the source  
376 and calibration of confidence scores, the construction of risk bounds, and the role of the empirical  
377 calibration set. Assumptions are made visible, such as the expected generalization behavior and the  
378 statistical relationship between confidence and error.

379 At the same time, adaptability is introduced through user-configurable parameters that tailor the  
380 framework to specific deployment scenarios. The confidence measure can be domain- and input-  
381 dependent, dynamically refined, and robust to distribution shifts. The confidence threshold  $\lambda$  is  
382 adjustable based on desired abstention or coverage, while the risk tolerance  $\alpha$  can be adjusted in  
383 accordance with task sensitivity. These dimensions collectively allow the framework to be customized  
384 for diverse applications—from high-stakes decision-making to exploratory human–AI interaction.

385 Together, these enhancements make the alignment guarantee framework not only more interpretable  
386 and auditable for developers and evaluators, but also significantly more practical for real-world,  
387 context-sensitive deployment.

## 388 5 Discussion

389 To address the challenges of subjectivity, inconsistency, and low inter-rater reliability in human  
390 evaluation (Binns et al., 2018; Chang et al., 2024), the proposed framework centers on the explicit  
391 decomposition of statistical guarantee components and human-interpretable reporting. This involves  
392 systematically modeling and exposing the uncertainties associated with both LLM predictions and  
393 human preference annotations—such as variability in annotator agreement or instability in model  
394 outputs. By breaking down the guarantee into its constituent parts (e.g., confidence scores, abstention  
395 thresholds, empirical risk bounds), the framework makes transparent what is being guaranteed, under  
396 which assumptions (e.g., representativeness of the calibration set), and where the limitations lie  
397 (e.g., under distribution shift or in edge cases). This transparency enhances interpretability not  
398 only for developers and model evaluators, but also for downstream stakeholders—particularly in  
399 sensitive domains where trust and accountability are essential. At the same time, the framework  
400 improves scalability (Li et al., 2023) by embedding statistical guarantees within LLM-based evaluation  
401 pipelines. Rather than relying on extensive human annotation for every deployment setting, it  
402 leverages a compact human-labeled calibration set to compute risk bounds, enabling consistent reuse  
403 of calibration, evaluation, and abstention logic across multiple tasks. This significantly reduces the  
404 dependence on costly, large-scale manual annotation.

405 In response to the limitations of LLM-based evaluation and the fragility of current statistical guarantee  
406 frameworks, the design incorporates transparent and adaptable components, selective evaluation,  
407 and robustness to calibration set shift (Malinin et al., 2021) as foundational principles. Given that  
408 LLM-based evaluators inevitably inherit biases—such as positional or stylistic preferences—from the  
409 underlying models they are built upon (Farquhar et al., 2024), the framework allows for user-defined  
410 risk tolerances and abstention criteria to adapt the evaluation process to specific task requirements, risk  
411 levels, and fairness considerations. Additionally, it introduces mechanisms for dynamic adjustment  
412 of guarantees based on the quality and characteristics of the calibration data, as well as detection  
413 of distributional drift between calibration and deployment inputs (Angelopoulos and Bates, 2021).  
414 This adaptive architecture ensures that alignment guarantees remain both valid and meaningful  
415 when applied to diverse real-world conditions, from high-stakes professional domains to more  
416 flexible consumer applications. Taken together, these elements form a robust, interpretable, and  
417 scalable foundation for alignment guarantee—capable of supporting both principled assessment and  
418 responsible deployment of LLMs.

## 419 6 Conclusion

420 In this position paper, we argued that ensuring reliable and trustworthy human–LLM alignment  
421 requires more than formal guarantees—it demands frameworks that are transparent in construction  
422 and adaptable to diverse deployment scenarios. We examined the limitations of current human- and  
423 LLM-based evaluation methodologies, as well as recent statistical guarantee approaches. To address  
424 these challenges, we argued for a principled framework that decomposes guarantees into modular  
425 components, clarifies assumptions, enables human-interpretable reporting, and supports task-specific  
426 configuration. By embedding transparency and adaptability as core design goals, we aim to bridge  
427 the gap between statistical rigor and real-world usability, advancing alignment evaluation methods  
428 that are not only technically sound but also socially accountable and practically implementable.

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619 **A Confidence measures**

620 To calibrate when to trust each model’s judgment, [Jung et al. \(2024\)](#) introduces simulated annotators  
621 confidence measure. This method simulates multiple human-like preferences to improve the cali-  
622 bration of the model’s confidence estimation, ensuring that its evaluations are reliable and aligned  
623 with human preferences. For a given test instance  $x$ , and its associated preference labels  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$  (e.g.,  
624  $a_1$  or  $a_2$  being preferred), the model calculates the probability  $\mathbb{P}_{LM}(y|x)$  of each possible outcome  
625 (i.e., the preference label  $y$ ). The model is given a few ( $K$ ) examples of preferences provided by  
626 simulated annotators. These are used as context for the model’s decision-making. The model is then  
627 prompted to predict a preference label based on this context, for a total of  $N$  different simulations  
628 (i.e., simulating  $N$  different annotators). Each simulated annotator produces a prediction for the  
629 preference label. Then, the **simulated annotators confidence measure** is defined as

$$\mathbb{C}_{LM}(x) = \max_y \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \mathbb{P}_{LM}(y|x; (x_{1,j}, y_{1,j}), \dots, (x_{K,j}, y_{K,j})), \quad (2)$$

630 where  $(x_{1,j}, y_{1,j}), \dots, (x_{K,j}, y_{K,j})$  are  $K$  examples of preferences provided by  $j$ -th simulated  
631 annotator. Specifically, the confidence measure is the average probability over all simulated annotators’  
632 predictions for the preference label. If the simulated annotators agree, the confidence measure is high;  
633 if they disagree, the confidence is lower.

634 The **predictive probability confidence measure** was proposed by [Geifman and El-Yaniv \(2017\)](#) in  
635 selective classification, it represents the probability assigned by LLM to its predicted label.

636 The code and original data for AlpacaEva were obtained from: <https://github.com/jaehunjung1/cascaded-selective-evaluation>.

638 In addition, we collected 500 supplementary records from AlpacaEval (Li et al., 2023), which have  
639 also been made available in the uploaded material.