

---

# FLEX-Judge: Text-Only Reasoning Unleashes Zero-Shot Multimodal Evaluators

---

Jongwoo Ko<sup>1\*</sup> Sungnyun Kim<sup>2\*</sup> Sungwoo Cho<sup>2</sup> Se-Young Yun<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Microsoft <sup>2</sup>KAIST AI

jongwooko@microsoft.com, {ksn4397, peter8526, yunseyoung}@kaist.ac.kr

<https://flex-judge.github.io>

## Abstract

Human-generated reward signals are critical for aligning generative models with human preferences, guiding both training and inference-time evaluations. While large language models (LLMs) employed as proxy evaluators, *i.e.*, LLM-as-a-Judge, significantly reduce the costs associated with manual annotations, they typically require extensive modality-specific training data and fail to generalize well across diverse multimodal tasks. In this paper, we propose **FLEX-Judge**, a reasoning-guided multimodal judge model that leverages minimal textual reasoning data to robustly generalize across multiple modalities and evaluation formats. Our core intuition is that structured textual reasoning explanations inherently encode generalizable decision-making patterns, enabling an effective transfer to multimodal judgments, *e.g.*, with images or videos. Empirical results demonstrate that FLEX-Judge, despite being trained on significantly fewer text data, achieves competitive or superior performance compared to state-of-the-art commercial APIs and extensively trained multimodal evaluators. Notably, FLEX-Judge presents broad impact in modalities like molecule, where comprehensive evaluation benchmarks are scarce, underscoring its practical value in resource-constrained domains. Our framework highlights reasoning-based text supervision as a powerful, cost-effective alternative to traditional annotation-intensive approaches, substantially advancing scalable multimodal model-as-a-judge.

## 1 Introduction

Human-generated reward signals play a crucial role in both training and deploying generative models. They are commonly used to fine-tune models toward human-aligned behavior through preference optimization [48, 56] or reinforcement learning [61, 91]. At inference time, they also guide inference-time decisions, *e.g.*, best-of- $N$  selection [24], output reranking [43], or filtering based on quality or safety criteria, making them essential tools for test-time control. As models become more capable and are applied across diverse modalities and tasks, the need for high-quality, consistent human feedback continues to grow. However, scaling human feedback process is highly resource-intensive and challenging to generalize across different domains, highlighting a critical demand for more scalable and cost-effective alternatives that can reliably approximate human judgments [71, 89].

A promising alternative to manual feedback collection is to use large language models (LLMs) as proxy evaluators—an approach known as LLM-as-a-Judge [89]. These models emulate human preferences via instruction-following prompts and have shown strong agreement with human ratings across tasks such as summarization [60, 61] and dialogue [29]. In addition to reducing annotation costs, they can serve as reusable, modular evaluators and are often comparable to human judges in consistency. However, existing approaches are largely restricted to text-only scenarios [36] and often

---

\*Two authors are equally contributed

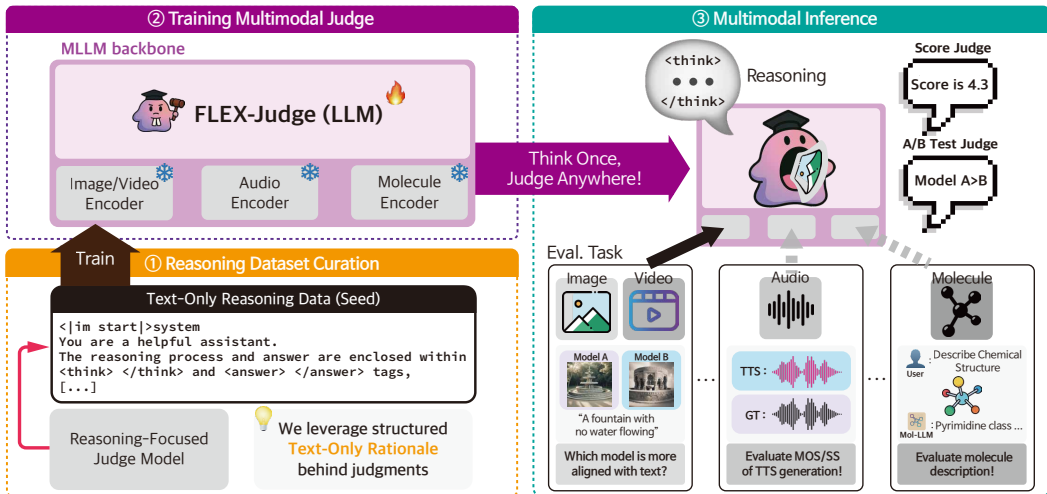


Figure 1: Conceptual overview of FLEX-Judge. We train a multimodal judge model using a small amount of text-only reasoning data. Unlike previous approaches that require modality-specific supervision, **FLEX-Judge leverages structured text-only rationale behind judgments to enable generalization across modalities**. Once trained, FLEX-Judge can be applied to various evaluation tasks, including vision-language tasks, audio quality scoring, and molecular structure, without the need for additional task-specific or modality-specific annotations.

require substantial amounts of paired preference data [29] to generalize across evaluation types, such as single-score grading, pairwise comparison, or batch-level assessments.

Extending this paradigm to multimodal domains (*e.g.*, vision-language generation or image caption ranking) presents unique challenges. Although some efforts have adapted LLM-as-a-Judge models into vision-language evaluators [11], they typically require extensive modality-specific annotations [76] and frequently fail to generalize across diverse formats without re-training or fine-tuning on each new task [32]. Moreover, the lack of publicly available multimodal preference datasets makes it difficult to systematically evaluate and train such models, often resulting in heavy reliance on proprietary models or benchmarks.

Motivated by these challenges, we ask a key question: *Can just a small amount of textual reasoning data serve to train a cost-efficient, modality-agnostic judge model?* Our core intuition is that textual reasoning chains, such as evaluative explanations or comparisons behind preference judgments, encode structured and interpretable rationale that can be transferred across modalities and evaluation formats. That is, models trained to make judgments by reasoning about why one answer is preferred over another may learn more generalizable decision rules. In addition, recent advances in multimodal large language models (MLLMs) suggest that their impressive generalization capabilities predominantly arise from their pretrained textual reasoning abilities.

**Contribution & Organization.** Inspired by this, we propose **FLEX-Judge**, a multimodal judge model trained solely on a small corpus of high-quality text reasoning data. Our central finding is that: *we do not need large-scale multimodal annotations to train an effective MLLM judge—just a small amount of good reasoning data is enough*. This text-only supervision is not only cheaper but also avoids the need for complex annotation tools or multimodal data curation, while achieving strong generalization across diverse modalities and evaluation settings. Refer to Figure 1 for the preview of this work. Our key contributions are:

- **Modality-agnostic Efficient Approach (Section 2):** We propose FLEX-Judge, a simple and cost-effective method that uses 1K-sized text-only reasoning data to generalize across modalities without modality-specific training. This facilitates zero-shot evaluation on unseen modalities with minimal annotation and compute overhead.
- **Comparison with State-of-the-art (Section 3):** We evaluate FLEX-Judge on image, video, and audio reward benchmarks against commercial APIs [1, 62], large vanilla MLLMs, and open-source judges trained on costly multimodal datasets [32, 76]. Despite its simplicity and efficiency, FLEX-Judge (7B model) outperforms open-source judges, even exceeding Gemini and GPT-4o on several MJ-Bench and GenAI-Bench subtasks. In-depth analyses are presented in Section 5.

- **Broader Impact (Section 4):** We demonstrate real-world applications of FLEX-Judge in the molecular domain by introducing FLEX-Mol-LLaMA, the first judge model designed for molecular modality [27]. We showcase its utility in two key scenarios: (1) serving as a best-of-N selector for inference-time scaling, and (2) constructing training data for direct preference optimization (DPO) [56]. In both cases, reward-guided molecular MLLM achieves significant improvements, highlighting the practical solution in domains where modality-specific reward models are infeasible.

## 2 Approach

### 2.1 Motivation

**Problem Statement.** Evaluating outputs across multiple modalities using foundation models is increasingly important, especially as generative models expand beyond language to include image, video, or audio [4, 16, 79]. While both proprietary LMs and open-source evaluators are widely used to assess the generative models’ response quality, two main challenges remain:

- **Concern of Commercial API:** Issues regarding transparency, controllability, and affordability persist when utilizing proprietary LMs for evaluation tasks [29]. API model changes can silently degrade evaluation quality, raising concerns about the reliability of LLM-as-a-Judge with closed-source models [9]. For instance, Xiong et al. [76] re-evaluated GPT-4V on the MLLM-as-a-Judge benchmark [11] and found a significant drop in evaluation performance.
- **Limited Support for Diverse Modalities:** While judge models for language [29] and vision-language tasks [32, 76] have advanced significantly thanks to the availability of assessment data, evaluating other modalities, *e.g.*, audio [15, 16], thermal heatmaps [84], 3D point clouds [25], and molecular structures [41], remains underexplored, with few effective judge models or publicly available training resources. For instance, evaluating a state-of-the-art molecular LLM [27] often relies on GPT-4o to assess the soundness and relevance of its responses, which is not only hard to reproduce but also unreliable, as GPT-4o cannot handle molecular modalities.

**Hypothesis.** In multilingual LLMs [20, 53, 74], it has been observed that fine-tuning on downstream tasks in one language can lead to performance improvements in other languages as well, demonstrating cross-lingual generalization. This suggests that when a shared representation space exists, task knowledge can effectively transfer across different languages.

We hypothesize that a similar phenomenon may occur in multimodal settings: *if a model learns a unified cross-modal representation, then fine-tuning on a single modality—especially text—may enable generalization to other modalities.* However, such investigations on cross-modal transfer are still rare in MLLMs. Motivated by findings from multilingual LLMs, we propose to build a practical multimodal judge model using a small amount of text-based reasoning data and demonstrate that this model can be applied across a variety of modalities, including those with scarce data resources.

### 2.2 FLEX-Judge: Reasoning-Guided MLLM as a Judge

Building on our hypothesis, we propose **FLEX-Judge**, a multimodal judge model framework trained *a priori* through textual reasoning annotations. Unlike existing judge models that heavily depend on extensive modality-specific preference data, our framework strategically leverages a small but carefully curated corpus of *reasoning* data (THINK ONCE)—explanatory textual annotations indicating why certain outputs are preferred over others—to foster robust evaluation capabilities across diverse modalities (JUDGE ANYWHERE).

**Data Curation.** We begin by generating a high-quality “seed” textual dataset leveraging JudgeLRM [12], a reasoning-focused judge LM explicitly trained to evaluate AI responses with structured explanations. JudgeLRM uses crafted prompt templates to assess single or paired AI-generated outputs, producing detailed rationales enclosed within specialized tags (<think></think>). These reasoning annotations are detailed and comprehensive, explicitly addressing criteria such as correctness, completeness, consistency, relevance, and coherence.

A critical advantage of our framework is the minimal data requirement. Specifically, we rely on only a **1K-sized** corpus of high-quality textual reasoning annotations on text-only evaluation samples, making our approach highly cost-efficient, compared to MLLM judges such as Prometheus-Vision [32] (150K image-text evaluation pairs for training) and LLaVA-Critic [76] (113K pairs). This corpus is carefully curated to exhibit the following properties:

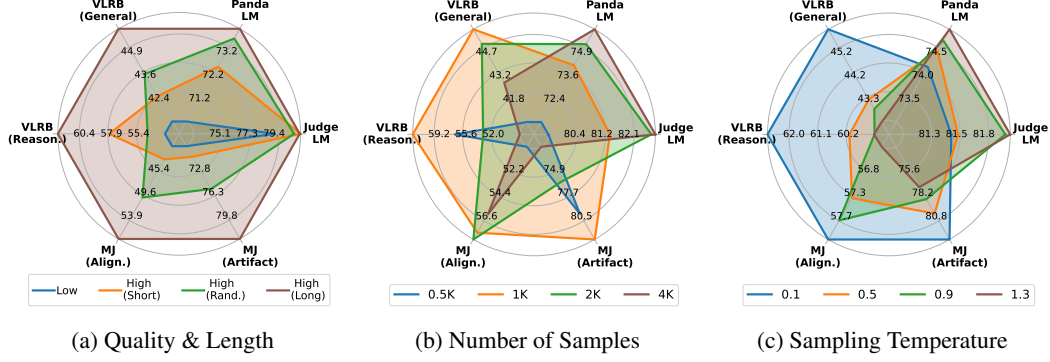


Figure 2: Comparisons on different perspectives of the seed dataset curation. All evaluations are done with our FLEX-Judge, where its backbone model is Qwen2.5-VL-7B (refer to Section 3.1 for model details) and has been trained on the JudgeLRM-7B response data.

- Quality & Difficulty:** Following Muennighoff et al. [50], we prioritize high-quality and high-difficulty samples when curating a training dataset for better sample efficiency. Specifically, we utilize JudgeLRM-7B to generate evaluation responses for prompts in the JudgeLM-100K dataset [90], and filter out responses whose predicted ratings mismatch with those annotated by GPT-4o in the original dataset. This quality-based selection process significantly improves the performance of the trained judge compared to random selection (*i.e.*, blue; low-quality in Figure 2a). Consistent with the findings of [50], we also observe that samples with longer reasoning chains (*i.e.*, brown) improve judge performance across both language-only and multimodal settings. This observation supports the hypothesis that longer reasoning indicates higher difficulty, thereby enhancing the effectiveness of limited training data.
- Number of Data Samples & On-policy:** We observe that training with a large number of samples can cause *catastrophic forgetting* [81], where the LLM backbone exhibits diminished capacity to encode visual or audio features. As shown in Figure 2b, while JudgeLM [90] and PandaLM [70] performances improve with more training data, performances on multimodal benchmarks (MLLM-as-a-Judge and MJ-Bench) degrade, indicating a modality shift detrimental to multimodal understanding. We also find in Figure 2c that lower-temperature decoding yields more effective training data, with lower initial losses. Since JudgeLRM-7B (the data generator) shares its LLM backbone with FLEX-Judge, using these lower-loss, on-policy samples helps prevent catastrophic forgetting while preserving the language-side judge performance.
- Format Diversity:** Compared to naively using unprocessed outputs from JudgeLRM-7B, which only supports pairwise scoring on a 1–10 scale as shown in Figure 7, we post-process the model’s outputs to support both single-score and pairwise grading, with scores mapped to either 1–10 or 1–5 scales depending on the instruction. FLEX-Judge trained on these post-processed outputs demonstrates improved generalization to diverse evaluation formats, including a single-score grading and a batch-level ranking (*i.e.*, where the number of response options exceeds three) as used in [11]. Furthermore, we find that the post-processed variant is more robust to varied instruction styles, particularly when prompts emphasize different evaluation criteria across input pairs. The detailed results are provided in Section 3.2 (Table 1).

**Training Multimodal Judge.** Next, we use the reasoning seed dataset to fine-tune an MLLM, such as Qwen2.5-VL [5] and Qwen2.5-Omni [79]. Despite being originally trained to handle both text and other modalities such as visual or audio inputs, the MLLM is fine-tuned exclusively on our textual reasoning annotations. We call this fine-tuned evaluator as FLEX-Judge. Consequently, the structured and explicit reasoning provided by JudgeLRM enables FLEX-Judge to learn how to systematically evaluate and justify preferences, significantly improving zero-shot transfer capabilities.

**Multimodal Inference: Reasoning-Guided Preference Judgments.** At inference time, our model performs multimodal evaluation without additional fine-tuning or modality-specific annotations (*i.e.*, training-free). We visualize an example output from FLEX-Judge in Figure 3, demonstrating that the textual reasoning behind judgments has transferred across modalities. Furthermore, unlike most other evaluators, our FLEX-Judge takes advantage of *inference-time scaling* to improve judgment performance by leveraging multiple reasoning paths, such as majority voting [69] or budget forcing [50], as addressed in Section 5.

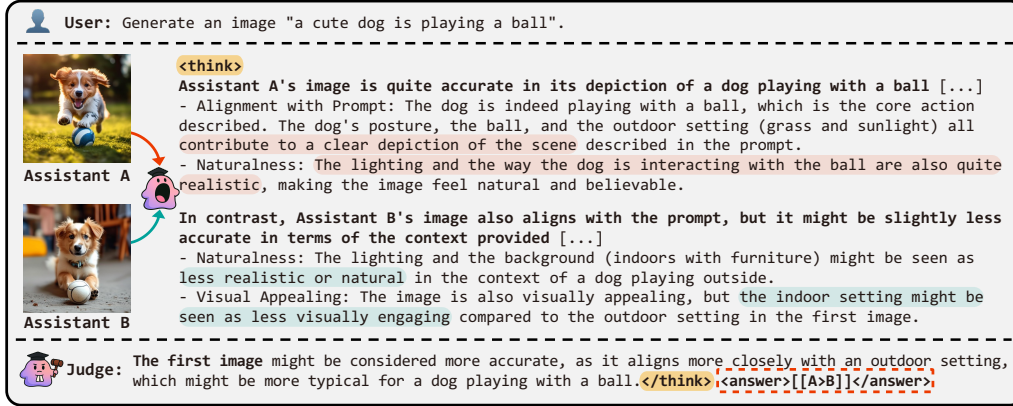


Figure 3: Reasoning process of FLEX-Judge on the text-image alignment task (GenAI-Bench [35]). Additional qualitative examples are found in Appendix D.

### 3 Experimental Evaluation of FLEX-Judge

We comprehensively evaluate FLEX-Judge across diverse modalities, including images, videos, and audio, demonstrating its generalization capability and competitive performance against state-of-the-art judge models. Notably, it matches closed-source commercial APIs on vision tasks and outperforms all training-free evaluators in audio understanding. These strong results suggest that FLEX-Judge can be used with confidence in modalities even when expert judge models are not applicable, which we further explore in Section 4.

#### 3.1 Experimental Setup

**Implementation.** Based on *1K-sized* training dataset introduced in Section 2.2, we develop FLEX-Omni-7B (image, video, and audio) and FLEX-VL-7B (image and video) from Qwen2.5-Omni-7B [79] and Qwen2.5-VL-7B [5], respectively. We compare them against both commercial models with costly API usage [1, 62] and open-source models that require either extensive training data [32, 76] or significantly more parameters [40, 67]. For more implementation details, refer to Appendix B.

**Evaluation Protocol for Judge Models.** To evaluate the quality of judge models, we measure how closely their assessments align with human annotations (or human-verified model evaluations [14, 38]). The specific metric depends on the evaluation format: we measure (1) Pearson correlation [33] for single-score grading tasks, (2) accuracy for pairwise (A/B) comparisons, and (3) normalized Levenshtein distance [34] for batch-level rankings (e.g., ABCD). Detailed descriptions for each benchmark and the evaluation prompts are provided in Appendix B.3.

**Evaluation Benchmarks.** We evaluate image understanding capabilities of FLEX-Judge using the MLLM-as-a-Judge benchmark [11], which comprises 14 diverse vision-language tasks including captioning and website browsing, and the VL-RewardBench benchmark<sup>1</sup> [38], which focuses on complex reasoning tasks like visual hallucination detection. For image generation assessment, we use MJ-Bench [14] to assess image quality and alignment. We use GenAI-Bench [35] for evaluating video generation and image editing. For audio understanding, following the prior work [68], we conduct speech quality assessment task, specifically performing mean opinion score (MOS) prediction by using the NISQA [49], BVCC [18], and SOMOS [46] datasets, and speaker similarity score (SS) prediction with VoxSim [2] dataset for assessing speaker similarity score (SS). For additional results of Multimodal RewardBench [82] and JudgeAnything [54] benchmarks, refer to Appendix C.1. We also provide the language-only assessment results in Appendix C.4.

#### 3.2 Comparison with State-of-the-arts

**Image Understanding.** In Table 1, model judgments are compared with human ratings in MLLM-as-a-Judge benchmark. We compare FLEX-Judge with the following model groups: commercial

<sup>1</sup>Disclaimer: We completed all experiments on May 9<sup>th</sup>, but both VL-RewardBench and MJ-Bench were later modified on May 13<sup>th</sup> and 16<sup>th</sup>, respectively.



Table 1: The overall performance of different MLLMs in judging, compared with human annotations on different datasets. We sample all judgments three times and average them to mitigate the bias. w. and w.o. tie represents tie and non-tie situations, respectively, by following [11].  $\diamond$ : reported results from LLaVA-Critic [76].  $\clubsuit$ : results from the original paper of MLLM-as-a-Judge [11].  $\dagger$ : Prometheus-Vision-13B [32] is only trained under the Score setting, incapable of following Pair/Batch instructions. *Training-free (TF)* models have not been trained on multimodal evaluation data.

	Model	TF?	COCO	C.C.	Diff.	Graphics	Math	Text	WIT	Chart	VisIT	CC-3M	M2W	SciQA	Aes	MM-Vet	Ave.
Score (†)	GPT-4V $\diamond$	-	0.410	0.444	0.361	0.449	0.486	0.506	0.457	0.585	0.554	0.266	0.267	0.315	0.472	0.367	0.424
	Gemini-1.0-Pro-Vision $\clubsuit$	-	0.262	0.408	-	0.400	0.228	0.222	0.418	0.343	0.336	0.374	0.324	0.073	0.360	0.207	0.304
	Gemini-2.5-Pro	-	0.409	0.426	0.467	0.559	0.471	0.553	0.254	0.636	0.563	0.254	0.073	0.600	0.139	0.058	0.390
	Prometheus-V-13B $\diamond\dagger$	-	0.289	0.342	0.106	0.172	0.182	0.214	<b>0.209</b>	0.224	0.226	0.228	0.089	0.174	0.368	0.157	0.213
	LLaVA-Critic-7B $\diamond$	$\times$	<b>0.382</b>	<b>0.450</b>	0.103	0.316	0.356	0.378	0.179	0.421	0.322	0.246	0.301	0.269	0.395	0.272	0.314
	LLaVA-1.6-34B $\clubsuit$	$\checkmark$	0.285	0.251	-0.012	0.262	0.238	0.258	0.151	0.318	0.198	0.109	0.022	0.206	0.025	0.265	0.184
	Qwen2.5-Omni-7B	$\checkmark$	0.150	0.017	-0.045	0.087	-0.003	0.049	0.060	-0.010	0.136	0.073	0.136	0.097	0.148	0.108	0.072
	Qwen2.5-VL-7B	$\checkmark$	0.294	0.247	-0.020	-0.041	0.095	0.170	0.056	0.011	0.328	0.178	0.255	0.311	0.327	0.103	0.165
	FLEX-Omni-7B	$\checkmark$	0.324	0.281	<b>0.126</b>	<b>0.371</b>	0.116	<b>0.429</b>	0.118	<b>0.501</b>	<b>0.479</b>	<b>0.275</b>	<b>0.375</b>	0.351	0.309	0.232	0.306
	FLEX-VL-7B	$\checkmark$	0.363	0.235	0.114	0.338	<b>0.448</b>	0.423	0.125	0.471	0.452	0.189	0.357	<b>0.380</b>	<b>0.407</b>	<b>0.343</b>	<b>0.332</b>
Pair w.o. Tie (†)	GPT-4V $\diamond$	-	0.539	0.634	0.668	0.632	0.459	0.495	0.536	0.369	0.591	0.544	0.544	0.389	0.620	0.517	0.538
	Gemini-1.0-Pro-Vision $\clubsuit$	-	0.616	0.787	-	0.650	0.436	0.664	0.605	0.500	0.660	0.560	0.370	0.262	0.190	0.312	0.509
	Gemini-2.5-Pro	-	0.540	0.606	0.753	0.618	0.455	0.532	0.508	0.370	0.604	0.555	0.660	0.365	0.690	0.527	0.556
	LLaVA-Critic-7B $\diamond$	$\times$	<b>0.593</b>	<b>0.687</b>	0.707	<b>0.587</b>	0.432	0.544	<b>0.564</b>	0.338	<b>0.596</b>	<b>0.628</b>	0.591	0.370	<b>0.686</b>	0.464	<b>0.556</b>
	LLaVA-1.6-34B $\clubsuit$	$\checkmark$	0.493	0.600	0.570	0.300	0.374	<b>0.551</b>	0.543	0.254	0.398	0.392	0.513	0.434	0.524	0.499	0.460
	Qwen2.5-Omni-7B	$\checkmark$	0.462	0.479	<b>0.733</b>	0.422	0.385	0.432	0.411	0.394	0.489	0.501	0.508	0.395	0.517	0.462	0.471
	Qwen2.5-VL-7B	$\checkmark$	0.446	0.474	0.507	0.326	0.397	0.383	0.366	0.364	0.461	0.483	0.358	<b>0.442</b>	0.494	0.420	0.423
	FLEX-Omni-7B	$\checkmark$	0.496	0.647	0.713	0.490	0.429	0.485	0.445	<b>0.432</b>	0.592	0.579	0.593	0.384	0.636	<b>0.524</b>	0.532
	FLEX-VL-7B	$\checkmark$	0.538	0.685	0.653	0.532	<b>0.446</b>	0.534	0.458	0.386	0.586	0.586	<b>0.595</b>	0.391	0.636	0.500	0.538
Pair w.o. Tie (†)	GPT-4V $\diamond$	-	0.729	0.772	0.884	0.853	0.665	0.661	0.760	0.495	0.785	0.707	0.697	0.639	0.741	0.654	0.717
	Gemini-1.0-Pro-Vision $\clubsuit$	-	0.717	0.840	-	0.770	0.678	0.793	0.688	0.658	0.711	0.652	0.471	0.358	0.265	0.400	0.615
	Gemini-2.5-Pro	-	0.699	0.677	0.783	0.768	0.518	0.611	0.604	0.513	0.724	0.649	0.740	0.645	0.709	0.705	0.668
	LLaVA-Critic-7B $\diamond$	$\times$	<b>0.771</b>	0.774	0.755	<b>0.758</b>	<b>0.596</b>	0.658	0.680	0.488	<b>0.727</b>	<b>0.742</b>	0.692	0.658	<b>0.715</b>	0.635	<b>0.689</b>
	LLaVA-1.6-34B $\clubsuit$	$\checkmark$	0.607	<b>0.824</b>	<b>0.855</b>	0.402	0.587	<b>0.750</b>	<b>0.758</b>	0.381	0.503	0.564	<b>0.712</b>	0.679	0.694	<b>0.762</b>	0.648
	Qwen2.5-Omni-7B	$\checkmark$	0.559	0.518	0.755	0.478	0.407	0.456	0.464	0.443	0.557	0.557	0.545	0.617	0.525	0.489	0.526
	Qwen2.5-VL-7B	$\checkmark$	0.479	0.492	0.510	0.268	0.368	0.394	0.334	0.348	0.506	0.538	0.330	0.511	0.486	0.388	0.425
	FLEX-Omni-7B	$\checkmark$	0.648	0.720	0.748	0.621	0.560	0.566	0.534	<b>0.609</b>	0.711	0.679	0.666	<b>0.706</b>	0.655	0.674	0.650
	FLEX-VL-7B	$\checkmark$	0.689	0.763	0.685	0.670	0.580	0.613	0.542	0.548	0.702	0.686	0.666	0.684	0.655	0.683	0.655
Batch (‡)	GPT-4V $\clubsuit$	-	0.318	0.353	0.070	0.385	0.348	0.319	0.290	0.347	0.300	0.402	0.597	0.462	0.453	0.411	0.361
	Gemini-1.0-Pro-Vision $\clubsuit$	-	0.287	0.299	-	0.473	0.462	0.430	0.344	0.520	0.426	0.357	0.613	0.412	0.467	0.529	0.432
	Gemini-2.5-Pro	-	0.517	0.509	0.290	0.595	0.599	0.532	0.488	0.557	0.530	0.505	0.532	0.501	0.503	0.512	0.512
	LLaVA-Critic-7B $\diamond$	$\times$	0.541	0.455	0.525	0.612	0.576	0.599	0.603	0.580	0.481	0.592	0.588	0.627	0.618	0.515	0.565
	LLaVA-1.6-34B $\clubsuit$	$\checkmark$	0.449	0.411	0.500	0.561	0.575	0.544	0.483	0.552	0.542	0.479	0.529	<b>0.437</b>	0.500	0.450	0.501
	Qwen2.5-Omni-7B	$\checkmark$	0.545	0.518	0.635	0.591	0.589	0.602	0.588	0.545	0.582	0.538	0.594	0.576	0.574	0.581	0.576
	Qwen2.5-VL-7B	$\checkmark$	0.562	0.450	0.593	0.630	0.607	0.582	0.631	0.570	0.569	0.519	0.639	0.703	0.558	0.572	0.585
	FLEX-Omni-7B	$\checkmark$	<b>0.392</b>	0.328	<b>0.404</b>	<b>0.452</b>	0.439	0.417	<b>0.462</b>	0.455	<b>0.342</b>	0.450	0.442	0.484	0.515	<b>0.362</b>	<b>0.425</b>
	FLEX-VL-7B	$\checkmark$	0.419	<b>0.325</b>	0.414	0.462	<b>0.437</b>	<b>0.412</b>	0.477	<b>0.445</b>	0.398	<b>0.392</b>	<b>0.420</b>	0.487	<b>0.471</b>	0.405	0.426

Table 2: Comparison of MLLM evaluator performances on VL-RewardBench (*Left*) and MJ-Bench (*Right*).  $\diamond$ : results from the original works [14, 38]. **Best** and second best results.

Model	TF?	General	Hallu.	Reason.	Overall	Macro
GPT-4o $\diamond$	-	49.1	67.6	70.5	65.8	62.4
Gemini-1.5-Pro $\diamond$	-	50.8	72.5	64.2	62.5	58.4
Gemini-2.5-Pro	-	44.3	49.1	53.0	48.4	48.8
LLaVA-OneVision-7B $\diamond$	$\checkmark$	32.2	20.1	57.1	29.6	36.5
InternVL2-8B $\diamond$	$\checkmark$	35.6	41.1	59.0	44.5	45.2
Qwen2.5-Omni-7B	$\checkmark$	32.6	18.3	28.7	23.5	26.6
Qwen2.5-VL-7B	$\checkmark$	37.7	33.1	48.2	36.3	39.7
Pixtral-12B $\diamond$	$\checkmark$	35.6	25.9	59.9	35.8	40.4
Qwen2-VL-72B $\diamond$	$\checkmark$	38.1	32.0	61.0	39.5	43.0
Molmo-72B $\diamond$	$\checkmark$	38.3	42.5	<u>62.6</u>	44.1	43.7
NVLM-D-72B $\diamond$	$\checkmark$	38.9	31.6	62.0	40.1	44.3
LLaVA-Critic-7B	$\times$	<b>47.4</b>	38.5	53.8	43.7	46.6
FLEX-Omni-7B	$\checkmark$	47.01	42.72	61.08	48.02	50.27
FLEX-VL-7B	$\checkmark$	46.11	<b>43.39</b>	<b>62.87</b>	<b>48.60</b>	<b>50.79</b>

Model	TF?	Alignment	Safety	Artifact
		w. Tie w.o. Tie	w. Tie w.o. Tie	w. Tie w.o. Tie
GPT-4o $\diamond$	-	61.5 62.5	35.3 100.0	97.6 98.7
Gemini Ultra $\diamond$	-	67.2 69.0	13.1 95.1	55.7 96.7
Claude 3 Opus $\diamond$	-	57.1 55.9	13.4 78.9	11.9 70.4
PickScore-v1 $\diamond$	$\times$	<u>58.8</u> 64.6	37.2 42.2	<b>83.8</b> 89.6
HPS-v2.1 $\diamond$	$\times$	47.3 <b>70.1</b>	18.8 41.3	67.3 <b>93.5</b>
ImageReward $\diamond$	$\times$	50.9 <u>64.7</u>	24.9 38.7	63.5 81.8
LLaVA-1.6-13B $\diamond$	$\checkmark$	29.1 60.3	27.9 45.6	36.8 62.5
Prometheus-Vision-13B $\diamond$	$\times$	11.8 64.3	28.6 <b>71.4</b>	8.7 67.9
FLEX-Omni-7B	$\checkmark$	<b>60.84</b> 62.46	<u>47.69</u> 65.21	75.80 <u>91.66</u>
FLEX-VL-7B	$\checkmark$	58.16 59.13	<b>57.51</b> 66.88	<u>82.32</u> 89.08

models including Gemini and GPT-4V (state-of-the-art closed-source models), and latest open-source baselines including Prometheus-Vision-7B [32] and LLaVA-Critic-7B [76], trained on large-scale (>100K) curated MLLM-as-a-judge datasets.

We highlight that prior open-source judges are limited to specific evaluation formats, *e.g.*, LLaVA-Critic-7B faltering in batch-level ranking, making them less utilitarian. In contrast, our models are capable of handling diverse evaluation criteria, matching or outperforming much larger models like Gemini, GPT-4V, and LLaVA-1.6-34B. Notably, LLaVA-Critic-7B, trained on 113K vision-language understanding data, underperforms both FLEX-Omni-7B and FLEX-VL-7B on VL-RewardBench (see Table 2; left). These results mark the simplicity and efficiency of our approach, learning from 1K text reasoning annotations without any modality-specific supervision (training-free; TF).

**Image Generation.** Table 2 (right) presents the judge performance of generated images in MJ-Bench, whether they are well-aligned with a prompt, safe, or have artifacts. FLEX-Judge models achieve higher scores than some commercial models (e.g., Claude 3 Opus) and all training-required judge models (PickScore-v1 [30], HPS-v2.1 [75], and ImageReward [78]) by a large margin. While the baselines have high variance according to tasks, especially poor in safety check, our models perform highly consistent. The superiority of FLEX-Judge in image generation assessment is further demonstrated in Table 3, where FLEX-VL-7B with majority voting evaluation [69] outperforms GPT-4o and Gemini-1.5-Pro.

**Image Editing & Video Generation.** We further report judge performance on GenAI-Bench, including image generation, image editing, and video generation tasks, in Table 3. Notably, our FLEX-VL-7B achieves the highest overall performance, as well as strong results in both image editing and video generation tasks, when inference-time scaling is applied [69]. A detailed discussion of inference-time scaling is provided in Section 5. While FLEX-Omni-7B shows lower performance initially, it also benefits significantly from inference-time scaling—unlike its non-reasoning baseline, Qwen2.5-VL-7B.

Table 3: Comparison of MLLM evaluator performance on GenAI-Bench.  $\diamond$ : results from the original work [35].

Model	Image Gen.	Image Edit.	Video Gen.	Overall
GPT-4o $\diamond$	45.59	53.54	48.46	49.20
Gemini-1.5-Pro $\diamond$	44.67	55.93	46.21	48.94
Gemini-2.5-Pro	<b>47.55</b>	<b>65.51</b>	<b>50.33</b>	<b>54.46</b>
LLaVA $\diamond$	37.00	26.12	30.40	31.17
LLaVA-NeXT $\diamond$	22.65	25.35	21.70	23.23
Qwen2.5-Omni-7B	34.87	31.88	38.45	35.07
Qwen2.5-VL-7B	31.93	38.63	37.61	36.06
FLEX-Omni-7B	38.15	46.73	37.10	40.66
+ Majority Voting [69]	41.67	52.01	44.25	45.98
FLEX-VL-7B	43.32	47.41	44.78	45.17
+ Majority Voting [69]	<b>46.34</b>	<b>54.19</b>	<b>47.34</b>	<b>49.29</b>

**Audio Understanding.** Table 4 demonstrates the performance of our approach in speech quality evaluation, where the linear correlation coefficient (LCC) and Spearman’s rank correlation coefficient (SRCC) are calculated to assess the agreement between the model’s predicted scores and the human-annotated MOS and SS values. As observed in [10, 68, 86], existing open-source audio LLMs like Qwen2-Audio struggle in quality assessment without specific fine-tuning, often exhibiting widespread hallucinations. While audio LLMs are primarily pretrained on semantics-related tasks like audio question answering (AQA) or captioning (AAC), they are less familiar with such qualitative evaluations, which are challenging due to different MOS standards depending on the dataset [68]. Still, FLEX-Omni-7B outperforms all training-free judges and even Gemini-2.0-Flash.

Table 4: Audio MOS/SS prediction results on the test sets of the NISQA [49], BVCC [18], SOMOS [46], and VoxSim [2] datasets. System-level results are computed by averaging the utterance-level results within each text-to-speech system (not provided for NISQA due to the absence of system labels).  $\diamond$ : task-specific fine-tuning results from [68].

Model	TF?	NISQA (MOS)		BVCC (MOS)				SOMOS (MOS)				VoxSim (SS)	
		utterance-level LCC	SRCC	utterance-level LCC	SRCC	system-level LCC	SRCC	utterance-level LCC	SRCC	system-level LCC	SRCC	utterance-level LCC	SRCC
Gemini-2.0-Flash	-	0.408	0.415	0.044	0.038	0.092	0.096	0.119	0.129	0.256	0.317	0.451	0.457
Gemini-2.5-Pro	-	0.567	0.586	0.261	0.266	0.495	0.504	0.193	0.186	0.434	0.436	0.661	0.667
Single-task SOTA $\diamond$	$\times$	0.894	0.887	0.899	0.896	0.939	0.936	0.687	0.681	0.911	0.917	0.835	0.836
Qwen2-Audio $\diamond$	$\times$	0.768	0.780	0.681	0.678	0.800	0.797	0.583	0.572	0.850	0.873	0.415	0.505
Qwen2.5-Omni-7B	$\checkmark$	0.210	0.243	0.056	0.055	-0.075	-0.079	0.074	0.097	0.136	0.159	0.211	0.204
Qwen2-Audio	$\checkmark$	0.004	-0.002	-0.067	-0.062	0.093	0.120	-0.016	-0.013	0.058	0.077	0.042	0.044
FLEX-Omni-7B	$\checkmark$	<b>0.545</b>	<b>0.590</b>	<b>0.081</b>	<b>0.067</b>	<b>0.144</b>	<b>0.128</b>	<b>0.150</b>	<b>0.138</b>	<b>0.323</b>	<b>0.325</b>	<b>0.271</b>	<b>0.268</b>

## 4 Broader Impact: Case Study on Molecule Evaluator

Trained only on textual reasoning data without any modality-specific supervision, FLEX-Judge demonstrates strong generalization across image, video, and audio tasks. This suggests that FLEX-Judge can serve as a practical solution in domains where constructing modality-specific reasoning datasets is infeasible or prohibitively expensive.

A particularly compelling use case arises in scientific domains such as molecular modeling [3, 58, 83], where no existing reward model or judge is available due to limited data and domain complexity. To test our hypothesis, we build a molecular judge using Mol-LLaMA [27], which is based on LLaMA3.1-8B [23] and understands both 2D and 3D molecule representations. We fine-tune its LLM backbone as a reasoning-aware judge, while keeping its modality-aware modules (LoRA

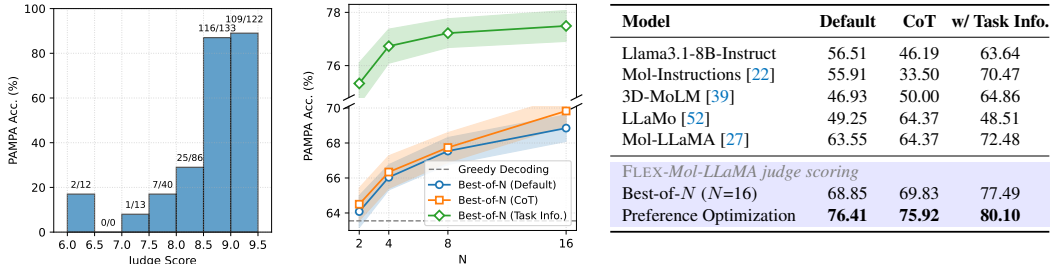


Figure 4: (Left) Accuracy (%) trends on the parallel artificial membrane permeability assay (PAMPA; [64]) task with different judgment scores. (Middle) Accuracy trends on the number of sampled responses in best-of- $N$  sampling. (Right) Performance comparison with reward-guided Mol-LLaMA. We report accuracy with prompt styles of default, CoT, and task information, as described in [27].

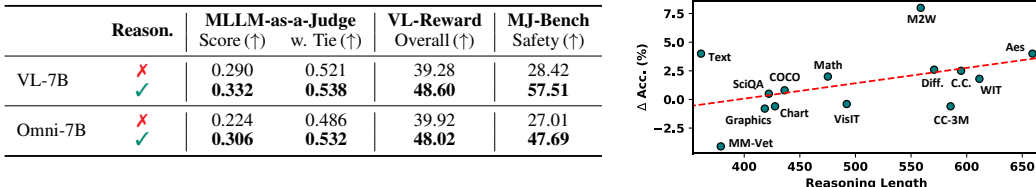


Figure 5: (Left) Performance comparison of FLEX-Judge with and without reasoning. (Right) Relationship between the average reasoning length of FLEX-VL-7B and the accuracy gain from reasoning over non-reasoning evaluation across subcategories in MLLM-as-a-Judge (Pair w. Tie).

adapters [26], molecular encoders, and Q-Formers [37]) unchanged. We refer to this model as **FLEX-Mol-LLaMA**.

We evaluate FLEX-Mol-LLaMA via two approaches. (1) Best-of- $N$  selector: FLEX-Mol-LLaMA guides best-of- $N$  sampling from Mol-LLaMA outputs, a method correlated with judge model performance [38]. (2) Direct preference optimization (DPO): Given a prompt  $x$ , Mol-LLaMA generates two responses  $y_1$  and  $y_2$ , and FLEX-Mol-LLaMA judge selects the preferred ( $y_w$ ) over the less preferred ( $y_l$ ) by score evaluation, forming triplets  $(x, y_w, y_l)$  [51]. These are then used to fine-tune Mol-LLaMA via DPO [56]. Strong downstream performance indicates that FLEX-Mol-LLaMA effectively curates high-quality preference data.

**Best-of- $N$  Selector.** We use FLEX-Mol-LLaMA to score the Mol-LLaMA’s understanding of chemical property (permeability), following Kim et al. [27]. Our key findings include:

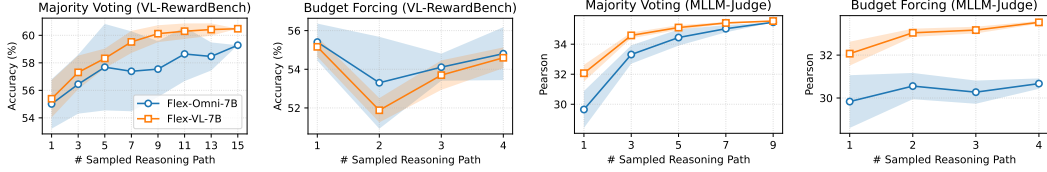
- **Score-Accuracy Correlation:** The judge scores strongly correlate with actual task performance (Figure 4; left), demonstrating that FLEX-Mol-LLaMA captures meaningful evaluation signals from molecular content and effectively detects high-quality responses.
- **Best-of- $N$  Sampling:** Selecting the highest-scoring ones among  $N$  sampled responses yields a significant accuracy improvement (Figure 4; middle, up to 77.49% when  $N = 16$ ), indicating that our judge model provides reliable preference signals.

**Reward-Guided Training via DPO.** In this sense, we further explore using FLEX-Mol-LLaMA judge as a reward source for DPO. We collect 4K samples of FLEX-Mol-LLaMA preferences  $(x, y_w, y_l)$  of the training set—covering chemical structures, properties, and biological features—and further fine-tune Mol-LLaMA. As shown in Figure 4 (right), DPO reaches up to 80.10%, surpassing the previous state-of-the-art. This result confirms that our judge model can also act as an effective reward model in underexplored modalities, enabling a scalable preference optimization. For the FLEX-Mol-LLaMA’s reasoning and judgment results, refer to Appendix D.3.

## 5 Analysis

**Effect of Reasoning.** To investigate the impact of reasoning in FLEX-Judge, we compare it against a non-reasoning variant where the training segments `<think>` and `<answer>` are reversed—that is, the model is trained to generate the final answer first, followed by the reasoning. This answer-





(a) Majority Voting (Pair) (b) Budget Forcing (Pair) (c) Majority Voting (Score) (d) Budget Forcing (Score)

Figure 6: Inference-time scaling of FLEX-(VL/Omni)-7B. Unlike prior MLLM evaluators [38], our model supports parallel inference-time scaling via majority voting, showing consistent gains. Surprisingly, budget forcing also offers minor but consistent improvements in score-based evaluations.

then-reason format is commonly used in open-source datasets [76, 90]. As shown in Figure 5 (left), our proposed FLEX-Judge consistently outperforms this variant, demonstrating that reasoning-first evaluation leads to more robust and generalizable performance. Furthermore, in Figure 5 (right), we find that accuracy gains on MLLM-as-a-Judge correlate with the average reasoning length produced by FLEX-VL-7B. This suggests that more difficult tasks elicit deeper reasoning, highlighting the importance of reasoning capabilities in accurate evaluation. Notably, the M2W dataset [19], which involves complex website browsing scenarios and thus requires fine-grained reasoning paths, stands out with a larger performance gain than the general trend.

**Inference-time Scaling Works in FLEX-Judge.** We examine inference-time scaling techniques, including majority voting [69] and self-refinement through budget forcing [44, 50], to enhance the reasoning ability of our FLEX-Judge. In the VL-RewardBench (Reasoning) pairwise comparison, applying majority voting steadily improves performance, which is in stark contrast to prior work [38] that reported performance drops under inference-time scaling (Figure 6a). For budget forcing, we inject the keyword "Wait", shown to be effective in Muennighoff et al. [50]. Although performance drops after the first trial, it consistently improves in subsequent trials and nearly recovers to its original level (Figure 6b). In score-based evaluation, both methods show consistent gains (6c and 6d). These results highlight that, unlike existing MLLM-based judges, our evaluator benefits from increased inference-time computation, especially in reasoning-heavy tasks. Thanks to its reasoning-based training, our FLEX-Judge produces more diverse reasoning paths than prior non-reasoning evaluators, allowing inference-time scaling methods to be more effective.

**Data Quality vs. Modality Alignment.** To further assess the effectiveness of our cost-efficient approach, we compare FLEX-VL-7B with a variant trained on image-text evaluation pairs. Using the RLHF-V dataset [85], we curated 1K image-text pairs with reasoning-guided evaluation where FLEX-VL-7B judged the chosen response as better—without relying on explicit GPT-4o-annotated scores, *potentially* resulting in weaker quality than our original dataset (▲). As shown in Table 5, these variants consistently underperform FLEX-Judge, emphasizing that dataset quality outweighs modality-awareness.

Table 5: Comparison of variants trained on potentially lower-quality image-text data. VL and HQ denote vision-language training and high-quality data.

	VL	HQ	MLLM-as-a-Judge		VL-Reward	GenAI
			Score (↑)	w. Tie (↑)	Overall (↑)	Video (↑)
VL-7B	✓	▲	0.274	0.198	43.84	43.41
	✗	✓	<b>0.332</b>	<b>0.538</b>	<b>48.60</b>	<b>44.78</b>

As shown in Table 5, these variants consistently underperform FLEX-Judge, emphasizing that dataset quality outweighs modality-awareness.

## 6 Related Work

LLMs have increasingly been used as proxy evaluators in place of costly human annotators, a direction formalized under the LLM-as-a-Judge paradigm [8, 89], which has demonstrated strong alignment with human preferences [28, 60, 61, 63]. These model-based judgments can be leveraged in various downstream techniques such as best-of- $N$  selection [24] and preference-driven optimization using DPO [56, 65] or listwise reranking [43, 55]. However, most LLM-as-a-Judge approaches remain limited to text-only domains [36], while their multimodal variants (*e.g.*, ImageReward [78]) require large-scale, modality-specific annotations [6, 32, 76]. Recent work has highlighted the advantages of *reasoning*-guided supervision, training models with explanations or chain-of-thought rationales [7, 71, 72], to improve judgment quality and generalization [12]. Yet, collecting high-quality multimodal rationales is costly and especially difficult for underexplored modalities [11, 30,

88], limiting applicability to new domains. Our work addresses this gap by showing that textual reasoning alone can effectively train multimodal judge models to generalize across modalities, including tasks like molecular evaluation where no modality-specific preference data exists [27]. Additional related works are discussed in Appendix A.

## 7 Conclusion

In this work, we introduce **FLEX-Judge**, a reasoning-guided multimodal evaluator trained solely on textual preference explanations. By leveraging structured reasoning from a pretrained model, we have shown that FLEX-Judge generalizes to diverse modalities including image, video, audio, and molecules, without modality-specific supervision. Despite using far fewer annotations, it matches or outperforms state-of-the-art commercial APIs and open-source evaluators. These results highlight reasoning supervision as a scalable, cost-effective alternative for training general-purpose judge models in complex multimodal settings.

## Acknowledgements

SK, SC and SY were supported by Institute of Information & communications Technology Planning & Evaluation (IITP) grant funded by the Korea government (MSIT) (No. RS-2019-II190075, Artificial Intelligence Graduate School Program (KAIST); 10%) and the Institute of Information & communications Technology Planning & Evaluation (IITP) grant funded by the Korea government (MSIT) (No. 2022-0-00871, Development of AI Autonomy and Knowledge Enhancement for AI Agent Collaboration; 90%). We would like to thank Yeongjun Kim from the Georgia Institute of Technology for helpful discussions on the molecule evaluator.

## References

- [1] Josh Achiam, Steven Adler, Sandhini Agarwal, Lama Ahmad, Ilge Akkaya, Florencia Leoni Aleman, Diogo Almeida, Janko Altenschmidt, Sam Altman, Shyamal Anadkat, et al. Gpt-4 technical report. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.08774*, 2023.
- [2] Junseok Ahn, Youkyum Kim, Yeunju Choi, Doyeop Kwak, Ji-Hoon Kim, Seongkyu Mun, and Joon Son Chung. Voxsim: A perceptual voice similarity dataset. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2407.18505*, 2024.
- [3] Microsoft Research AI4Science and Microsoft Azure Quantum. The impact of large language models on scientific discovery: a preliminary study using gpt-4. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2311.07361*, 2023.
- [4] Jinze Bai, Shuai Bai, Yunfei Chu, Zeyu Cui, Kai Dang, Xiaodong Deng, Yang Fan, Wenbin Ge, Yu Han, Fei Huang, et al. Qwen technical report. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2309.16609*, 2023.
- [5] Shuai Bai, Keqin Chen, Xuejing Liu, Jialin Wang, Wenbin Ge, Sibor Song, Kai Dang, Peng Wang, Shijie Wang, Jun Tang, et al. Qwen2.5-vl technical report. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2502.13923*, 2025.
- [6] Tianyi Bai, Hao Liang, Binwang Wan, Yanran Xu, Xi Li, Shiyu Li, Ling Yang, Bozhou Li, Yifan Wang, Bin Cui, et al. A survey of multimodal large language model from a data-centric perspective. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2405.16640*, 2024.
- [7] Yuntao Bai, Andy Jones, Kamal Ndousse, Amanda Askell, Anna Chen, Nova DasSarma, Dawn Drain, Stanislav Fort, Deep Ganguli, Tom Henighan, et al. Training a helpful and harmless assistant with reinforcement learning from human feedback. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2204.05862*, 2022.
- [8] Anna Bavaresco, Raffaella Bernardi, Leonardo Bertolazzi, Desmond Elliott, Raquel Fernández, Albert Gatt, Esam Ghaleb, Mario Giulianelli, Michael Hanna, Alexander Koller, et al. Llm instead of human judges? a large scale empirical study across 20 nlp evaluation tasks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2406.18403*, 2024.

- [9] Will Cai, Tianneng Shi, Xuandong Zhao, and Dawn Song. Are you getting what you pay for? auditing model substitution in llm apis. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2504.04715*, 2025.
- [10] Chen Chen, Yuchen Hu, Siyin Wang, Helin Wang, Zhehuai Chen, Chao Zhang, Chao-Han Huck Yang, and Eng Siong Chng. Audio large language models can be descriptive speech quality evaluators. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2501.17202*, 2025.
- [11] Dongping Chen, Ruoxi Chen, Shilin Zhang, Yaochen Wang, Yinuo Liu, Huichi Zhou, Qihui Zhang, Yao Wan, Pan Zhou, and Lichao Sun. Mllm-as-a-judge: Assessing multimodal llm-as-a-judge with vision-language benchmark. In *Forty-first International Conference on Machine Learning*, 2024.
- [12] Nuo Chen, Zhiyuan Hu, Qingyun Zou, Jiaying Wu, Qian Wang, Bryan Hooi, and Bingsheng He. Judgelrm: Large reasoning models as a judge. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2504.00050*, 2025.
- [13] Xiuxi Chen, Gaotang Li, Ziqi Wang, Bowen Jin, Cheng Qian, Yu Wang, Hongru Wang, Yu Zhang, Denghui Zhang, Tong Zhang, et al. Rm-r1: Reward modeling as reasoning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2505.02387*, 2025.
- [14] Zhaorun Chen, Yichao Du, Zichen Wen, Yiyang Zhou, Chenhang Cui, Zhenzhen Weng, Haoqin Tu, Chaoqi Wang, Zhengwei Tong, Qinglan Huang, et al. Mj-bench: Is your multimodal reward model really a good judge for text-to-image generation? *arXiv preprint arXiv:2407.04842*, 2024.
- [15] Yunfei Chu, Jin Xu, Xiaohuan Zhou, Qian Yang, Shiliang Zhang, Zhijie Yan, Chang Zhou, and Jingren Zhou. Qwen-audio: Advancing universal audio understanding via unified large-scale audio-language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2311.07919*, 2023.
- [16] Yunfei Chu, Jin Xu, Qian Yang, Haojie Wei, Xipin Wei, Zhifang Guo, Yichong Leng, Yuanjun Lv, Jinzheng He, Junyang Lin, Chang Zhou, and Jingren Zhou. Qwen2-audio technical report. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2407.10759*, 2024.
- [17] Hyung Won Chung, Le Hou, Shayne Longpre, Barret Zoph, Yi Tay, William Fedus, Yunxuan Li, Xuezhi Wang, Mostafa Dehghani, Siddhartha Brahma, et al. Scaling instruction-finetuned language models. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 25(70):1–53, 2024.
- [18] Erica Cooper and Junichi Yamagishi. How do voices from past speech synthesis challenges compare today? *arXiv preprint arXiv:2105.02373*, 2021.
- [19] Xiang Deng, Yu Gu, Boyuan Zheng, Shijie Chen, Samuel Stevens, Boshi Wang, Huan Sun, and Yu Su. Mind2web: Towards a generalist agent for the web. In *Thirty-seventh Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems Datasets and Benchmarks Track*, 2023. URL <https://openreview.net/forum?id=kiYqb03wqw>.
- [20] Ameet Deshpande, Partha Talukdar, and Karthik Narasimhan. When is BERT multilingual? isolating crucial ingredients for cross-lingual transfer. In Marine Carpuat, Marie-Catherine de Marneffe, and Ivan Vladimir Meza Ruiz, editors, *Proceedings of the 2022 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies*, pages 3610–3623, Seattle, United States, July 2022. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/2022.naacl-main.264. URL <https://aclanthology.org/2022.naacl-main.264/>.
- [21] Daniel Deutsch, George Foster, and Markus Freitag. Ties matter: Meta-evaluating modern metrics with pairwise accuracy and tie calibration. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2305.14324*, 2023.
- [22] Yin Fang, Xiaozhuan Liang, Ningyu Zhang, Kangwei Liu, Rui Huang, Zhuo Chen, Xiaohui Fan, and Huajun Chen. Mol-instructions: A large-scale biomolecular instruction dataset for large language models. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2024.
- [23] Aaron Grattafiori, Abhimanyu Dubey, Abhinav Jauhri, Abhinav Pandey, Abhishek Kadian, Ahmad Al-Dahle, Aiesha Letman, Akhil Mathur, Alan Schelten, Alex Vaughan, et al. The llama 3 herd of models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2407.21783*, 2024.

- [24] Lin Gui, Cristina Garbacea, and Victor Veitch. BoNBon alignment for large language models and the sweetness of best-of-n sampling. In *The Thirty-eighth Annual Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2024. URL <https://openreview.net/forum?id=haSKMlrbX5>.
- [25] Yining Hong, Haoyu Zhen, Peihao Chen, Shuhong Zheng, Yilun Du, Zhenfang Chen, and Chuang Gan. 3d-LLM: Injecting the 3d world into large language models. In *Thirty-seventh Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2023. URL <https://openreview.net/forum?id=YQA28p7qNz>.
- [26] Edward J Hu, yelong shen, Phillip Wallis, Zeyuan Allen-Zhu, Yuanzhi Li, Shean Wang, Lu Wang, and Weizhu Chen. LoRA: Low-rank adaptation of large language models. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2022. URL <https://openreview.net/forum?id=nZeVKeeFYf9>.
- [27] Dongki Kim, Wonbin Lee, and Sung Ju Hwang. Mol-llama: Towards general understanding of molecules in large molecular language model. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2502.13449*, 2025.
- [28] Seungone Kim, Jamin Shin, Yejin Cho, Joel Jang, Shayne Longpre, Hwaran Lee, Sangdo Yun, Seongjin Shin, Sungdong Kim, James Thorne, et al. Prometheus: Inducing fine-grained evaluation capability in language models. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2023.
- [29] Seungone Kim, Juyoung Suk, Shayne Longpre, Bill Yuchen Lin, Jamin Shin, Sean Welleck, Graham Neubig, Moontae Lee, Kyungjae Lee, and Minjoon Seo. Prometheus 2: An open source language model specialized in evaluating other language models. In Yaser Al-Onaizan, Mohit Bansal, and Yun-Nung Chen, editors, *Proceedings of the 2024 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 4334–4353, Miami, Florida, USA, November 2024. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/2024.emnlp-main.248. URL <https://aclanthology.org/2024.emnlp-main.248/>.
- [30] Yuval Kirstain, Adam Polyak, Uriel Singer, Shahbuland Matiana, Joe Penna, and Omer Levy. Pick-a-pic: An open dataset of user preferences for text-to-image generation. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36:36652–36663, 2023.
- [31] Andrew K Lampinen, Nicholas Roy, Ishita Dasgupta, Stephanie CY Chan, Allison Tam, James McClelland, Chen Yan, Adam Santoro, Neil C Rabinowitz, Jane Wang, et al. Tell me why! explanations support learning relational and causal structure. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 11868–11890. PMLR, 2022.
- [32] Seongyun Lee, Seungone Kim, Sue Park, Geewook Kim, and Minjoon Seo. Prometheus-vision: Vision-language model as a judge for fine-grained evaluation. In Lun-Wei Ku, Andre Martins, and Vivek Srikumar, editors, *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: ACL 2024*, pages 11286–11315, Bangkok, Thailand, August 2024. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/2024.findings-acl.672. URL <https://aclanthology.org/2024.findings-acl.672/>.
- [33] Joseph Lee Rodgers and W Alan Nicewander. Thirteen ways to look at the correlation coefficient. *The American Statistician*, 42(1):59–66, 1988.
- [34] Vladimir I Levenshtein et al. Binary codes capable of correcting deletions, insertions, and reversals. In *Soviet physics doklady*, volume 10, pages 707–710. Soviet Union, 1966.
- [35] Baiqi Li, Zhiqiu Lin, Deepak Pathak, Jiayao Li, Yixin Fei, Kewen Wu, Tiffany Ling, Xide Xia, Pengchuan Zhang, Graham Neubig, et al. Genai-bench: Evaluating and improving compositional text-to-visual generation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2406.13743*, 2024.
- [36] Haitao Li, Qian Dong, Junjie Chen, Huixue Su, Yujia Zhou, Qingyao Ai, Ziyi Ye, and Yiqun Liu. Llms-as-judges: a comprehensive survey on llm-based evaluation methods. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2412.05579*, 2024.
- [37] Junnan Li, Dongxu Li, Silvio Savarese, and Steven Hoi. BLIP-2: Bootstrapping language-image pre-training with frozen image encoders and large language models. In Andreas Krause, Emma Brunskill, Kyunghyun Cho, Barbara Engelhardt, Sivan Sabato, and Jonathan Scarlett,

- editors, *Proceedings of the 40th International Conference on Machine Learning*, volume 202 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pages 19730–19742. PMLR, 23–29 Jul 2023. URL <https://proceedings.mlr.press/v202/li23q.html>.
- [38] Lei Li, Yuancheng Wei, Zhihui Xie, Xuqing Yang, Yifan Song, Peiyi Wang, Chenxin An, Tianyu Liu, Sujian Li, Bill Yuchen Lin, et al. Vlrewardbench: A challenging benchmark for vision-language generative reward models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2411.17451*, 2024.
  - [39] Sihang Li, Zhiyuan Liu, Yanchen Luo, Xiang Wang, Xiangnan He, Kenji Kawaguchi, Tat-Seng Chua, and Qi Tian. Towards 3d molecule-text interpretation in language models. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2024.
  - [40] Haotian Liu, Chunyuan Li, Yuheng Li, and Yong Jae Lee. Improved baselines with visual instruction tuning. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 26296–26306, 2024.
  - [41] Yuyan Liu, Sirui Ding, Sheng Zhou, Wenqi Fan, and Qiaoyu Tan. Moleculargpt: Open large language model (llm) for few-shot molecular property prediction. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2406.12950*, 2024.
  - [42] Zijun Liu, Peiyi Wang, Runxin Xu, Shirong Ma, Chong Ruan, Peng Li, Yang Liu, and Yu Wu. Inference-time scaling for generalist reward modeling. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2504.02495*, 2025.
  - [43] Xueguang Ma, Xinyu Zhang, Ronak Pradeep, and Jimmy Lin. Zero-shot listwise document reranking with a large language model. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2305.02156*, 2023.
  - [44] Aman Madaan, Niket Tandon, Prakhar Gupta, Skyler Hallinan, Luyu Gao, Sarah Wiegrefe, Uri Alon, Nouha Dziri, Shrimai Prabhumoye, Yiming Yang, et al. Self-refine: Iterative refinement with self-feedback. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2023.
  - [45] Dakota Mahan, Duy Van Phung, Rafael Rafailov, Chase Blagden, Nathan Lile, Louis Castricato, Jan-Philipp Fränken, Chelsea Finn, and Alon Albalak. Generative reward models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2410.12832*, 2024.
  - [46] Georgia Maniati, Alexandra Vioni, Nikolaos Ellinas, Karolos Nikitaras, Konstantinos Klapsas, June Sig Sung, Gunu Jho, Aimilios Chalamandaris, and Pirros Tsiakoulis. Somos: The samsung open mos dataset for the evaluation of neural text-to-speech synthesis. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2204.03040*, 2022.
  - [47] Kenneth Marino, Mohammad Rastegari, Ali Farhadi, and Roozbeh Mottaghi. Ok-vqa: A visual question answering benchmark requiring external knowledge. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/cvf conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pages 3195–3204, 2019.
  - [48] Yu Meng, Mengzhou Xia, and Danqi Chen. Simpo: Simple preference optimization with a reference-free reward. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 37:124198–124235, 2024.
  - [49] Gabriel Mittag, Babak Naderi, Assmaa Chehadi, and Sebastian Möller. Nisqa: A deep cnn-self-attention model for multidimensional speech quality prediction with crowdsourced datasets. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2104.09494*, 2021.
  - [50] Niklas Muennighoff, Zitong Yang, Weijia Shi, Xiang Lisa Li, Li Fei-Fei, Hannaneh Hajishirzi, Luke Zettlemoyer, Percy Liang, Emmanuel Candès, and Tatsunori Hashimoto. s1: Simple test-time scaling. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2501.19393*, 2025.
  - [51] Long Ouyang, Jeffrey Wu, Xu Jiang, Diogo Almeida, Carroll Wainwright, Pamela Mishkin, Chong Zhang, Sandhini Agarwal, Katarina Slama, Alex Ray, et al. Training language models to follow instructions with human feedback. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 35:27730–27744, 2022.
  - [52] Jinyoung Park, Minseong Bae, Dohwan Ko, and Hyunwoo J Kim. Llamogpt: Large language model-based molecular graph assistant. In *The Thirty-eighth Annual Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2024.



- [53] Telmo Pires, Eva Schlinger, and Dan Garrette. How multilingual is multilingual BERT? In Anna Korhonen, David Traum, and Lluís Màrquez, editors, *Proceedings of the 57th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 4996–5001, Florence, Italy, July 2019. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/P19-1493. URL <https://aclanthology.org/P19-1493/>.
- [54] Shu Pu, Yaochen Wang, Dongping Chen, Yuhang Chen, Guohao Wang, Qi Qin, Zhongyi Zhang, Zhiyuan Zhang, Zetong Zhou, Shuang Gong, et al. Judge anything: Mllm as a judge across any modality. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2503.17489*, 2025.
- [55] Zhen Qin, Rolf Jagerman, Kai Hui, Honglei Zhuang, Junru Wu, Le Yan, Jiaming Shen, Tianqi Liu, Jialu Liu, Donald Metzler, et al. Large language models are effective text rankers with pairwise ranking prompting. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: NAACL 2024*, pages 1504–1518, 2024.
- [56] Rafael Rafailov, Archit Sharma, Eric Mitchell, Christopher D Manning, Stefano Ermon, and Chelsea Finn. Direct preference optimization: Your language model is secretly a reward model. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36:53728–53741, 2023.
- [57] Nazneen Fatema Rajani, Bryan McCann, Caiming Xiong, and Richard Socher. Explain yourself! leveraging language models for commonsense reasoning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1906.02361*, 2019.
- [58] Shaghayegh Sadeghi, Alan Bui, Ali Forooghi, Jianguo Lu, and Alioune Ngom. Can large language models understand molecules? *BMC bioinformatics*, 25(1):225, 2024.
- [59] Amanpreet Singh, Vivek Natarajan, Meet Shah, Yu Jiang, Xinlei Chen, Dhruv Batra, Devi Parikh, and Marcus Rohrbach. Towards vqa models that can read. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pages 8317–8326, 2019.
- [60] Hwanjun Song, Taewon Yun, Yuho Lee, Jihwan Oh, Gihun Lee, Jason Cai, and Hang Su. Learning to summarize from LLM-generated feedback. In Luis Chiruzzo, Alan Ritter, and Lu Wang, editors, *Proceedings of the 2025 Conference of the Nations of the Americas Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 835–857, Albuquerque, New Mexico, April 2025. Association for Computational Linguistics. ISBN 979-8-89176-189-6. URL <https://aclanthology.org/2025.naacl-long.38/>.
- [61] Nisan Stiennon, Long Ouyang, Jeffrey Wu, Daniel Ziegler, Ryan Lowe, Chelsea Voss, Alec Radford, Dario Amodei, and Paul F Christiano. Learning to summarize with human feedback. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 33:3008–3021, 2020.
- [62] Gemini Team, Rohan Anil, Sebastian Borgeaud, Jean-Baptiste Alayrac, Jiahui Yu, Radu Soricut, Johan Schalkwyk, Andrew M Dai, Anja Hauth, Katie Millican, et al. Gemini: a family of highly capable multimodal models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2312.11805*, 2023.
- [63] Weixi Tong and Tianyi Zhang. Codejudge: Evaluating code generation with large language models. In *Proceedings of the 2024 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 20032–20051, 2024.
- [64] Alejandro Velez-Arce, Michelle M Li, Wenhao Gao, Xiang Lin, Kexin Huang, Tianfan Fu, Bradley L Pentelute, Manolis Kellis, and Marinka Zitnik. Signals in the cells: multimodal and contextualized machine learning foundations for therapeutics. *bioRxiv*, 2024.
- [65] Bram Wallace, Meihua Dang, Rafael Rafailov, Linqi Zhou, Aaron Lou, Senthil Purushwalkam, Stefano Ermon, Caiming Xiong, Shafiq Joty, and Nikhil Naik. Diffusion model alignment using direct preference optimization. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 8228–8238, 2024.
- [66] Peiyi Wang, Lei Li, Liang Chen, Zefan Cai, Dawei Zhu, Binghuai Lin, Yunbo Cao, Qi Liu, Tianyu Liu, and Zhifang Sui. Large language models are not fair evaluators. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2305.17926*, 2023.

- [67] Peng Wang, Shuai Bai, Sinan Tan, Shijie Wang, Zhihao Fan, Jinze Bai, Keqin Chen, Xuejing Liu, Jialin Wang, Wenbin Ge, et al. Qwen2-vl: Enhancing vision-language model’s perception of the world at any resolution. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2409.12191*, 2024.
- [68] Siyin Wang, Wenyi Yu, Yudong Yang, Changli Tang, Yixuan Li, Jimin Zhuang, Xianzhao Chen, Xiaohai Tian, Jun Zhang, Guangzhi Sun, et al. Enabling auditory large language models for automatic speech quality evaluation. In *ICASSP 2025-2025 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP)*, pages 1–5. IEEE, 2025.
- [69] Xuezhi Wang, Jason Wei, Dale Schuurmans, Quoc V Le, Ed H. Chi, Sharan Narang, Aakanksha Chowdhery, and Denny Zhou. Self-consistency improves chain of thought reasoning in language models. In *The Eleventh International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2023. URL <https://openreview.net/forum?id=1PL1NIMMrw>.
- [70] Yidong Wang, Zhuohao Yu, Wenjin Yao, Zhengran Zeng, Linyi Yang, Cunxiang Wang, Hao Chen, Chaoya Jiang, Rui Xie, Jindong Wang, Xing Xie, Wei Ye, Shikun Zhang, and Yue Zhang. PandaLM: An automatic evaluation benchmark for LLM instruction tuning optimization. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2024. URL <https://openreview.net/forum?id=5Nn2BLV7SB>.
- [71] Yufei Wang, Wanjun Zhong, Liangyou Li, Fei Mi, Xingshan Zeng, Wenyong Huang, Lifeng Shang, Xin Jiang, and Qun Liu. Aligning large language models with human: A survey. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.12966*, 2023.
- [72] Jason Wei, Xuezhi Wang, Dale Schuurmans, Maarten Bosma, Fei Xia, Ed Chi, Quoc V Le, Denny Zhou, et al. Chain-of-thought prompting elicits reasoning in large language models. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 35:24824–24837, 2022.
- [73] Chenxi Whitehouse, Tianlu Wang, Ping Yu, Xian Li, Jason Weston, Ilia Kulikov, and Swarnadeep Saha. J1: Incentivizing thinking in llm-as-a-judge via reinforcement learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2505.10320*, 2025.
- [74] Shijie Wu and Mark Dredze. Beto, bentz, becas: The surprising cross-lingual effectiveness of BERT. In Kentaro Inui, Jing Jiang, Vincent Ng, and Xiaojun Wan, editors, *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and the 9th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (EMNLP-IJCNLP)*, pages 833–844, Hong Kong, China, November 2019. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/D19-1077. URL <https://aclanthology.org/D19-1077/>.
- [75] Xiaoshi Wu, Yiming Hao, Keqiang Sun, Yixiong Chen, Feng Zhu, Rui Zhao, and Hongsheng Li. Human preference score v2: A solid benchmark for evaluating human preferences of text-to-image synthesis. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2306.09341*, 2023.
- [76] Tianyi Xiong, Xiyao Wang, Dong Guo, Qinghao Ye, Haoqi Fan, Quanquan Gu, Heng Huang, and Chunyuan Li. Llava-critic: Learning to evaluate multimodal models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2410.02712*, 2024.
- [77] Guowei Xu, Peng Jin, Li Hao, Yibing Song, Lichao Sun, and Li Yuan. Llava-o1: Let vision language models reason step-by-step. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2411.10440*, 2024.
- [78] Jiazheng Xu, Xiao Liu, Yuchen Wu, Yuxuan Tong, Qinkai Li, Ming Ding, Jie Tang, and Yuxiao Dong. Imagereward: learning and evaluating human preferences for text-to-image generation. In *Proceedings of the 37th International Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, pages 15903–15935, 2023.
- [79] Jin Xu, Zhifang Guo, Jinzheng He, Hangrui Hu, Ting He, Shuai Bai, Keqin Chen, Jialin Wang, Yang Fan, Kai Dang, et al. Qwen2.5-omni technical report. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2503.20215*, 2025.
- [80] Senqiao Yang, Jiaming Liu, Renrui Zhang, Mingjie Pan, Ziyu Guo, Xiaoqi Li, Zehui Chen, Peng Gao, Hongsheng Li, Yandong Guo, et al. Lidar-llm: Exploring the potential of large language models for 3d lidar understanding. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, volume 39, pages 9247–9255, 2025.

- [81] Zhaorui Yang, Tianyu Pang, Haozhe Feng, Han Wang, Wei Chen, Minfeng Zhu, and Qian Liu. Self-distillation bridges distribution gap in language model fine-tuning. In Lun-Wei Ku, Andre Martins, and Vivek Srikumar, editors, *Proceedings of the 62nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 1028–1043, Bangkok, Thailand, August 2024. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/2024.acl-long.58. URL <https://aclanthology.org/2024.acl-long.58/>.
- [82] Michihiro Yasunaga, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Marjan Ghazvininejad. Multimodal reward-bench: Holistic evaluation of reward models for vision language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2502.14191*, 2025.
- [83] Botao Yu, Frazier N Baker, Ziqi Chen, Xia Ning, and Huan Sun. Llasmlol: Advancing large language models for chemistry with a large-scale, comprehensive, high-quality instruction tuning dataset. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.09391*, 2024.
- [84] Shoubin Yu, Jaehong Yoon, and Mohit Bansal. CREMA: Generalizable and efficient video-language reasoning via multimodal modular fusion. In *The Thirteenth International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2025. URL <https://openreview.net/forum?id=3Ua01zDEt2>.
- [85] Tianyu Yu, Yuan Yao, Haoye Zhang, Taiwen He, Yifeng Han, Ganqu Cui, Jinyi Hu, Zhiyuan Liu, Hai-Tao Zheng, Maosong Sun, et al. RLhf-v: Towards trustworthy mlms via behavior alignment from fine-grained correctional human feedback. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 13807–13816, 2024.
- [86] Ryandhimas E Zezario, Sabato M Siniscalchi, Hsin-Min Wang, and Yu Tsao. A study on zero-shot non-intrusive speech assessment using large language models. In *ICASSP 2025-2025 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP)*, pages 1–5. IEEE, 2025.
- [87] Lunjun Zhang, Arian Hosseini, Hritik Bansal, Mehran Kazemi, Aviral Kumar, and Rishabh Agarwal. Generative verifiers: Reward modeling as next-token prediction. In *The 4th Workshop on Mathematical Reasoning and AI at NeurIPS’24*, 2024. URL <https://openreview.net/forum?id=CxHRoTLmPX>.
- [88] Yi-Fan Zhang, Tao Yu, Haochen Tian, Chaoyou Fu, Peiyan Li, Jianshu Zeng, Wulin Xie, Yang Shi, Huanyu Zhang, Junkang Wu, et al. Mm-rlhf: The next step forward in multimodal llm alignment. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2502.10391*, 2025.
- [89] Lianmin Zheng, Wei-Lin Chiang, Ying Sheng, Siyuan Zhuang, Zhanghao Wu, Yonghao Zhuang, Zi Lin, Zhuohan Li, Dacheng Li, Eric Xing, et al. Judging llm-as-a-judge with mt-bench and chatbot arena. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36:46595–46623, 2023.
- [90] Lianghui Zhu, Xinggang Wang, and Xinlong Wang. JudgeLM: Fine-tuned large language models are scalable judges. In *The Thirteenth International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2025. URL <https://openreview.net/forum?id=xsELpEPn4A>.
- [91] Daniel M Ziegler, Nisan Stiennon, Jeffrey Wu, Tom B Brown, Alec Radford, Dario Amodei, Paul Christiano, and Geoffrey Irving. Fine-tuning language models from human preferences. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1909.08593*, 2019.

# FLEX-Judge: Text-Only Reasoning Unleashes Zero-Shot Multimodal Evaluators

## Supplementary Material

### A Additional Related Work

#### A.1 (M)LLMs as Judges

Large language models (LLMs) have recently been explored as a cost-effective alternative to human raters, a paradigm referred to as LLM-as-a-Judge [89]. By encoding human-like reasoning and leveraging instruction prompts, these models can approximate human preference judgments in tasks such as summarization, dialogue, or code generation [29, 60, 61, 63]. Because human annotations are expensive and time-consuming to scale, the LLM-based evaluation promises a reusable, modular approach that can reduce reliance on direct human supervision. For instance, BoNBon Alignment [24] explores using best-of-N selection guided by LLM-generated scores, while LRL [43] relies on LLM-based ranking signals to optimize model outputs at inference time.

However, most LLM-as-a-Judge approaches have focused on text-only use cases [36], and extending these models to multimodal content (*e.g.*, vision-language or speech tasks) remains challenging [10, 11, 68]. While multimodal variants do exist [76, 78], they often rely on large-scale, manually crafted, and modality-specific annotated datasets for training or fine-tuning [6, 77, 88], which becomes overly expensive at scale. For example, LLaVA-Critic [76] curates 46K images and 113K evaluation data by using GPT-4/4V on 8 multimodal datasets, as well as manually crafted prompt templates. Prometheus-Vision [32] involves a number of data processing steps, with 5K images and 15K customized score rubrics, and GPT-4V generating 150K response-feedback pairs.

Furthermore, the lack of high-quality, publicly available multimodal preference benchmarks makes it difficult to develop MLLM judge models [11, 30]. Our work addresses this gap by demonstrating that an MLLM can effectively judge multimodal outputs without requiring extensive modality-specific preference supervision. This approach suggests that LLMs as judge models can be extended to a wider range of modalities (*e.g.*, 3D point clouds [25], LiDAR [80], molecular [27, 83]) that have not yet been explored due to limited resources.

#### A.2 Reasoning-Guided Reward Models

A growing body of research suggests that equipping reward models with the ability to reason—often captured through chain-of-thought prompts or explicit textual rationales—can significantly improve alignment with human preferences [7, 61, 72]. Rather than learning only from binary or scalar labels, these models benefit from learning how humans arrive at a decision, providing a more interpretable and generalizable internal mechanism for preference modeling [31, 57].

Recent advances in this area have shown that training on textual explanations can improve zero-shot and few-shot performance in downstream tasks requiring nuanced judgments [29, 60]. For example, Zheng et al. [89] find that when LLMs articulate the rationale behind their preference for one sample over another, they achieve higher consistency with human annotators. Building on the success of reasoning-based models in other domains, Zhang et al. [87] and Mahan et al. [45] introduced generative reward models, which significantly outperform non-reasoning judge models. More recently, JudgeLRM [12] demonstrates that reinforcement learning with reasoning-annotated data leads to substantial gains on reasoning-intensive evaluation tasks, significantly outperforming standard SFT-trained models. Concurrent with JudgeLRM, models such as J1 [73], DeepSeek-GRM [42], and RM-R1 [13] also adopt reinforcement learning frameworks to enhance the reasoning capabilities of reward models.

Despite these benefits, most reasoning-based reward modeling remains constrained to text-only applications, due in part to the higher cost and complexity of collecting multimodal rationales [11, 76]. In contrast, our work shows that *textual* reasoning supervision alone can be leveraged to enable robust multimodal evaluation. By training models on a small set of high-quality textual explanation data, we demonstrate an effective cross-modal generalization without the need for domain-specific

```

<|im_start|>system
You are a helpful assistant. The assistant first performs a detailed,
step-by-step reasoning process in its mind and then provides the user with
the answer. The reasoning process and answer are enclosed within <think>
</think> and <answer> </answer> tags, respectively, i.e., <think> detailed
reasoning process here, explaining each step of your evaluation for both
assistants </think><answer> answer here </answer>. Now the user asks you
to judge the performance of two AI assistants in response to the question.
Score assistants 1-10 (higher=better). Criteria includes helpfulness,
relevance, accuracy, and level of detail. Avoid order, length, style or
other bias. After thinking, when you finally reach a conclusion, clearly
provide your evaluation scores within <answer> </answer> tags, i.e., for
example, <answer>3</answer><answer>5</answer>
<|im_end|>
<|im_start|>user
[Question]
{question}

[Assistant 1's Answer]
{answer_1}

[Assistant 2's Answer]
{answer_2}
<|im_end|>
<|im_start|>assistant
<think>

```

Figure 7: System prompt for JudgeLRM [12].

preference labels. This approach reduces annotation overhead and paves the way for more scalable, modality-agnostic judge models.

## B Experimental Details

### B.1 Dataset Description

We first describe our **training dataset** (seed): To generate reasoning-based judgments, we use JudgeLRM-7B [12] to sample responses based on the given contexts from JudgeLM-100K [90], using the prompts shown in Figure 7 with a temperature of 0.1. Among the 100K samples, we filter out those with rating mismatches compared to the GPT-4o evaluation results provided in Zhu et al. [90], resulting in approximately 20K samples remaining after this process.

To construct the single-score format, we post-process 500 samples by truncating the reasoning and answer of Assistant 2, selecting cases where the reasoning length of Assistant 1 exceeds 375 tokens. For the pairwise format, we use the 500 longest reasoning samples where the combined length of both assistants’ responses exceeds 750 tokens. For both pairwise and single-score formats, we randomly transform the grading scale from 1–10 to 1–5 by dividing the score by 2. We provide our final training dataset in the supplementary material.

We also describe all the benchmarks used in our experiments:

- **MLLM-as-a-Judge:** The MLLM-as-a-Judge benchmark [11] is introduced to specifically assess the judgment ability of MLLMs in the domain of image understanding across diverse scenarios. The benchmark consists of 14 datasets covering tasks such as image captioning, mathematical reasoning, text recognition, and infographic understanding. In total, it includes 4,414 image-instruction pairs, curated to evaluate whether MLLMs can generalize their evaluative abilities across different modalities.
- **VL-RewardBench:** VL-RewardBench [38] is a diagnostic benchmark for evaluating vision-language models on multimodal understanding, hallucination detection, and complex reasoning.



Table 6: Description of the evaluation format, metrics used, and bias handling approach for evaluation benchmarks in Section 3.

Benchmark	Eval. format	Metric	Bias handling
MLLM-as-a-judge	Single-score grading	Pearson correlation	Average on 3 samples
	Pairwise comparison	Accuracy	Average on 3 samples, tie option [21]
	Batch-level ranking	Norm. Levenshtein distance	Average on 3 samples
VL-RewardBench	Pairwise comparison	Accuracy	Average on 5 samples, random order [66]
MJ-Bench	Pairwise comparison	Accuracy	Order reverse [66], tie option [21]
GenAI-Bench	Pairwise comparison	Accuracy	-
Audio MOS/SS	Single-score grading	LCC & SRCC	System-level evaluation [68]

It comprises 1,250 high-quality examples curated through an AI-assisted pipeline with human verification.

- **MJ-Bench:** MJ-Bench [14] is a benchmark designed to evaluate multimodal foundation models in the role of a judge for image generation tasks. It includes preference data across four key perspectives—text-image alignment, safety, image quality, and generation bias—each further divided into detailed subcategories. Each example consists of an instruction paired with a chosen and rejected image, enabling fine-grained assessment of model judgment.
- **GenAI-Bench:** GenAI-Bench [35] is a human-curated benchmark for evaluating image and video generation models across diverse composition skills. It includes 1,600 prompts from professional designers, avoiding subjective or inappropriate content, and covers over 5,000 human-verified skill tags. Unlike prior work, each prompt is annotated with multiple fine-grained tags. Specifically, GenAI-Bench supports image generation, image editing, and video generation tasks.
- **Audio MOS/SS Benchmark:** There is no unified, structured benchmark for audio evaluation tasks. Instead, Wang et al. [68] assessed speech quality and speaker similarity using four datasets: NISQA [49], BVCC [18], and SOMOS [46] for speech quality (712, 742, and 3,000 test samples, respectively), and VoxSim [2] for speaker similarity (2,776 test pairs). All datasets include human-annotated scores. For the MOS prediction task, auditory LLMs are asked to assign the MOS score on a scale from 1.0 to 5.0 for a given speech input. While Wang et al. [68] designed dataset-specific prompts to help models account for each dataset’s unique standards, we evaluate models using a unified prompt format without dataset-specific tuning. For the SS prediction task, models rate the similarity between two speech samples on a scale from 1.0 to 6.0, where higher scores indicate greater speaker similarity. Since the human annotations of MOS and SS are averaged over multiple individuals, they are predicted in the form of floats.

## B.2 Training Details

Here, we describe the hyperparameters and implementation details for training FLEX-VL-7B and FLEX-Omni-7B. Using a *1K-sized* training dataset, we fine-tune Qwen2.5-VL-7B and Qwen2.5-Omni-7B with learning rates of  $1 \times 10^{-5}$  and  $7 \times 10^{-6}$ , respectively. For both models, we use a batch size of 2 and a maximum sequence length of 4096 for a single epoch. Training is conducted on **2 NVIDIA A6000 GPUs**, taking approximately **1.5 hours** per run, which highlights cost-efficiency of our FLEX-Judge. For FLEX-Mol-LLaMA, we use the same hyperparameters as for FLEX-VL-7B.

## B.3 Details of Evaluation Protocol

All experiments in this work are designed to evaluate the quality of judge models, focusing on how closely their judgments align with human preferences when scoring or comparing AI-generated responses. Since our goal is to assess models that act as *evaluators*, we compare their decisions directly to human annotations across several evaluation formats.

**Table 6** summarizes the evaluation formats, metrics, and bias-handling strategies used across all benchmarks used in our paper. Below, we elaborate on the evaluation settings:

- **Single-score Grading:** The judge assigns a scalar score to a single response. We evaluate performance using Pearson correlation (for vision-language tasks) or Spearman and LCC (for

```

<|im_start|>system
You are a helpful assistant. The assistant first performs a detailed,
step-by-step reasoning process in its mind and then provides the user with
the answer. The reasoning process and answer are enclosed within <think>
</think> and <answer> </answer> tags, respectively, i.e., <think> detailed
reasoning process here, explaining each step of your evaluation for an
assistant </think><answer> answer here </answer>. Now the user asks you to
judge the performance of an AI assistant (multiple AI assistants) in response
to the question. Score assistant 1-10 (higher=better). Criteria includes
helpfulness, relevance, accuracy, and level of detail. DO NOT assign the
same score to multiple assistants. Avoid order, length, style or other
bias. After thinking, when you finally reach a conclusion, clearly provide
your evaluation scores within <answer> </answer> tags, i.e., for example,
<answer>3</answer><answer>5</answer><answer>6</answer>
<|im_end|>
<|im_start|>user
[Question]
{question}

[Assistant 1's Answer]
{answer_1}

[Assistant 2's Answer]
{answer_2}

[Assistant 3's Answer]
{answer_3}

[Assistant 4's Answer]
{answer_4}

<|im_end|>
<|im_start|>assistant
<think>

```

Figure 8: System prompt for single-score and batch-level ranking evaluations. The part colorized in red denotes the additional instruction used only for batch-level ranking evaluation.

audio), measuring the alignment between the judge’s scores and human-annotated ratings. For audio benchmarks, evaluation is also conducted at the system level, averaging across all utterances from the same text-to-speech system.

- **Pairwise Comparison:** The judge selects the preferred response between two candidates. Accuracy is computed by counting the agreement between the judge and human preferences. We handle position bias by using randomized response orders [66] or incorporating the tie option [21], depending on the benchmark.
- **Batch-level Ranking:** The judge ranks multiple candidate responses (more than two) based on quality. Human-annotated rankings are treated as ground-truth, and we consolidate the ranking results into sequences (e.g., ABCD  $\leftrightarrow$  CDAB) and measure their similarity using Normalized Levenshtein Distance [34].

**List of Prompts.** We provide our applied system prompts for diverse evaluations setup. For pairwise evaluation which is the most common setup in our experiments, we utilize the system prompt as in Figure 7 and post-process the results by comparing the scores provided from the FLEX-Judge. For single-score and batch-level ranking evaluations, our prompts are introduced in Figure 8, thanks to its applicability via post-processing. Despite minor variations among evaluation setups, models trained on datasets that do not incorporate the format diversity we introduce in Section 2.2 often fail to follow the given instructions. In contrast, our judge model—trained on data that reflects this format diversity—consistently adheres to the prompts across all setups.

```

<|im_start|>system
You are a helpful assistant. The assistant first performs a detailed,
step-by-step reasoning process in its mind and then provides the user with
the answer. The reasoning process and answer are enclosed within <think>
</think> and <answer> </answer> tags, respectively, i.e., <think> detailed
reasoning process here, explaining each step of your evaluation for an
assistant </think><answer> answer here </answer>. Now the user asks you to
judge the performance of an AI assistants. You have only FOUR Option:

Option 1. Model A is better: [[A>B]]
Option 2. Model B is better: [[B>A]]
Option 3. Tie, relatively the same acceptable quality: [[A=B=Good]]
Option 4. Both are bad: [[A=B=Bad]]

Assess the quality of generated videos. Consider inappropriateness the
following sub-dimensions: Alignment with editing prompt, Overedited,
Naturalness, Artifact, and Visual Appealing, are correctly represented.
Avoid order, length, style or other bias. After thinking, when you finally
reach a conclusion, clearly provide your evaluation scores within <answer>
</answer> tags, i.e., for example, <answer>[[B>A]]</answer>.
<|im_end|>
<|im_start|>user
[Question]
{question}

[Assistant A's Video]
{video_1}

[Assistant B's Video]
{video_2}

<|im_end|>
<|im_start|>assistant
<think>

```

Figure 9: System prompt for GenAI-Bench (edition) evaluation. We colorized the different parts in red compared to the training samples and observed that FLEX-Judge closely follows the given instructions, as shown in Figure 15.

For GenAI-Bench [35] and audio evaluations, which use different label formats (e.g., [[A=B=Good]] or [[A=B=Bad]] for GenAI-Bench, and the first decimal point for audio evaluation) compared to our training samples, we use different prompts, as shown in Figure 9 and Figure 10. Thanks to our format-diversity-aware training dataset, FLEX-Judge can reliably follow instructions with high variation, as demonstrated in Figure 15 and <https://flex-judge.github.io/>. Further detailed prompts can be found in our provided code implementation.

#### B.4 FLEX-Mol-LLaMA Judge

In this section, we present the training details of FLEX-Mol-LLaMA, a reasoning-augmented molecular judge model built on top of Mol-LLaMA [27]. Mol-LLaMA is a molecule-focused LLM, pretrained and fine-tuned on molecular understanding datasets. Its structure is based on the frozen LLaMA3.1-8B, with LoRA adapters, molecule encoders, and Q-Formers attached to enable effective encoding of 2D and 3D molecular structures.

To construct FLEX-Mol-LLaMA, we reuse the molecular encoders and adapter modules of Mol-LLaMA and fine-tune only the LLaMA3.1-8B backbone using the same text-only reasoning dataset employed for training FLEX-Omni-7B and FLEX-VL-7B. This results in a model that retains full molecular understanding while acquiring generalizable reasoning capabilities. LoRA modules are re-attached after fine-tuning, allowing us to preserve the domain-specific functionality of Mol-LLaMA while transforming it into a judge model.

```

<|im_start|>system
You are a helpful assistant. The assistant first performs a detailed,
step-by-step reasoning process in its mind and then provides the user with
the answer. The reasoning process and answer are enclosed within <think>
</think> and <answer> </answer> tags, respectively, i.e., <think> detailed
reasoning process here, explaining each step of your evaluation for an
assistant </think><answer> answer here </answer>. Now the user asks you to
judge the performance of an audio generative AI assistant in response to the
question. Listen to the generated speech audio, and score this speech on a
scale from 1.0 to 5.0 in FIRST DECIMAL. Consider the following criteria when
scoring:

1 - Very Bad: The speech is very unnatural, has poor audio quality, and is
nearly impossible to understand.
2 - Poor: The speech sounds unnatural and/or noisy. Only a few words are
understandable.
3 - Fair: The speech is somewhat unnatural or contains noticeable noise, but
the overall meaning is understandable.
4 - Good: The speech is generally natural and clear, with most of the
content easy to understand.
5 - Excellent: The speech is very natural, high in audio quality, and fully
intelligible.

Do NOT consider the content of the speech. After thinking, when you finally
reach a conclusion, clearly provide your evaluation scores within <answer>
</answer> tags, i.e., for example, <answer>3.8</answer>.
<|im_end|>
<|im_start|>user
[Question]
Generate clear, natural, and understandable high-quality speech audio.

[Assistant's Answer]
Here is the speech I generated: {audio}

<|im_end|>
<|im_start|>assistant
<think>

```

Figure 10: System prompt for speech quality assessment. We colorized the different parts in red compared to the training samples.

#### B.4.1 Best-of-N Sampling

We first evaluate FLEX-Mol-LLaMA as a reward model for inference-time scaling. Specifically, we apply it to the best-of- $N$  sampling setup, where  $N$  number of responses are sampled from the base Mol-LLaMA, and the best one is selected using FLEX-Mol-LLaMA’s predicted scores. Importantly, each response includes not only the Mol-LLaMA’s final prediction label (i.e., “high permeability” or “low-to-moderate permeability”), but also its accompanying analysis and explanation for the prediction. Scores assigned by FLEX-Mol-LLaMA generally range between 6.0–9.5 and show a strong correlation with downstream task accuracy (see Figure 4; left), suggesting that the model effectively distinguishes between higher- and lower-quality outputs.

Since there exist responses that receive identically best scores, we repeat the sampling and selection process over 10 random trials and report the average performance. As shown in Figure 4 (middle), increasing  $N$  consistently improves accuracy, validating that FLEX-Mol-LLaMA provides reliable, fine-grained reward signals.

#### B.4.2 DPO Training

Beyond inference-time selection, we also use FLEX-Mol-LLaMA as a reward model for DPO to further fine-tune Mol-LLaMA. For this, we curate a DPO training dataset from Mol-LLaMA’s instruc-

tion tuning corpus, which consists of two main types: (1) detailed chemical structural descriptions, and (2) structure-to-feature relationship explanations covering both chemical and biological attributes. We excluded the multi-turn conversation type.

For each query  $x$ , we sample two responses from Mol-LLaMA using different decoding temperatures, 0.8 and 1.2. We use FLEX-Mol-LLaMA to compare the two and include the example in the DPO training set only if the response from temperature 0.8 receives a higher score than the one from 1.2. Also, since there is a position bias [66] in pairwise comparisons, we flip the order of the two responses in prompt and evaluate again, retaining only those pairs where the winning response remains consistent. Consequently, we construct 4,253 high-quality preference triplets  $(x, y_w, y_l)$ .

Fine-tuning Mol-LLaMA with this DPO dataset results in a substantial accuracy boost on the downstream permeability prediction task. As shown in Figure 4 (right), the final model achieves up to 80.10% accuracy, surpassing prior models by a large margin. This result confirms that FLEX-Mol-LLaMA provides not only reliable evaluation at inference but also effective supervision for preference-based training in specialized, underexplored domains.

## C Additional Results

### C.1 Additional Benchmarks

We extend our evaluation to include results on two recent and comprehensive MLLM evaluation benchmarks: Multimodal RewardBench [82], which focuses on image understanding, and JudgeAnything [54], which covers wide range of any-to-any tasks. JudgeAnything includes not only image/video/audio understanding ( $I \rightarrow T$ ,  $V \rightarrow T$ ,  $A \rightarrow T$ ) but also image/video/audio generation from text ( $T \rightarrow I$ ,  $T \rightarrow V$ ,  $T \rightarrow A$ ) and more complex tasks like video-to-audio ( $V \rightarrow A$ ) or audio-visual-to-text ( $V+A \rightarrow T$ ).

The results are summarized in Table 7 and Table 8, respectively. We note that FLEX-VL-7B is not capable of evaluating audio-related tasks. Across both benchmarks, FLEX-Judge achieves comparable performance to proprietary models while consistently outperforming existing open-source baselines.

Table 7: Comparison of MLLM evaluator performance on Multimodal RewardBench.  $\diamond$ : results from the original work [82].

Model	General		Knowledge	Reasoning		Safety	VQA	Overall
	Correctness	Preference		Math	Coding			
GPT-4o $\diamond$	<b>0.626</b>	<b>0.690</b>	<b>0.720</b>	<b>0.676</b>	<b>0.621</b>	<b>0.748</b>	<b>0.872</b>	<b>0.715</b>
LLaMA-3.2-90B-Vision $\diamond$	0.600	<u>0.684</u>	0.612	0.563	0.531	0.520	0.771	0.624
LLaVA-1.5-13B $\diamond$	0.533	0.552	0.505	0.535	0.493	0.201	0.518	0.489
FLEX-Omni-7B	0.616	0.612	<u>0.657</u>	0.625	<u>0.582</u>	0.362	0.777	0.631
FLEX-VL-7B	<u>0.620</u>	0.618	0.630	<u>0.677</u>	0.550	<u>0.732</u>	<u>0.837</u>	<u>0.686</u>

Table 8: Comparison of MLLM evaluator performance on JudgeAnything within the *Overall* setting and pair comparison with tie.  $\diamond$ : results from the original work [54].

Model	Multimodal Understanding					Multimodal Generation										Overall
	T $\rightarrow$ T	I $\rightarrow$ T	V $\rightarrow$ T	A $\rightarrow$ T	V+A $\rightarrow$ T	T $\rightarrow$ I	T $\rightarrow$ V	T $\rightarrow$ A	I $\rightarrow$ I	I $\rightarrow$ V	I $\rightarrow$ A	V $\rightarrow$ V	V $\rightarrow$ A	A $\rightarrow$ V	A $\rightarrow$ A	
GPT-4o $\diamond$	<b>52.5</b>	<u>73.0</u>	<u>58.0</u>	<b>69.5</b>	<b>53.0</b>	<b>52.5</b>	<u>56.0</u>	26.0	49.0	42.0	68.0	<u>78.0</u>	38.0	<u>58.5</u>	<u>57.5</u>	<u>55.4</u>
Gemini-1.5-Pro $\diamond$	<u>49.0</u>	<b>79.0</b>	57.5	68.5	48.5	<u>52.0</u>	<u>56.0</u>	38.0	<b>57.0</b>	39.0	69.0	<b>88.5</b>	33.0	47.0	<b>67.5</b>	<b>56.6</b>
Gemini-2.0-Flash $\diamond$	43.5	67.5	<b>59.0</b>	<u>69.0</u>	51.5	46.5	<b>58.0</b>	<b>50.5</b>	<u>51.0</u>	<u>43.5</u>	57.5	77.0	<u>41.0</u>	58.0	38.5	54.1
Qwen2.5-Omni-7B	35.5	50.5	42.9	51.5	44.5	36.0	31.5	39.5	29.5	40.0	32.5	34.5	35.5	53.0	40.5	39.8
Qwen2.5-VL-7B	36.5	33.5	33.5	-	-	36.5	34.5	-	27.0	34.0	-	34.0	-	-	-	-
FLEX-Omni-7B	46.5	70.0	53.5	67.0	<u>52.0</u>	49.0	<u>56.0</u>	<u>40.5</u>	47.0	<b>45.0</b>	<b>72.5</b>	78.0	<b>44.0</b>	<b>70.0</b>	38.0	55.3
FLEX-VL-7B	45.0	68.5	53.5	-	-	43.5	54.5	-	47.5	42.0	-	70.5	-	-	-	-

### C.2 Scaling Law for FLEX-Judge

To examine how model scale affects judge performance, we conduct an additional experiment using a smaller LLM backbone, where results are found in Table 9. Specifically, we train FLEX-VL-3B



by fine-tuning Qwen2.5-VL-3B on our curated seed dataset. Despite its significantly smaller size, FLEX-VL-3B also demonstrates reasoning capabilities and generalizes across modalities. However, it consistently underperforms compared to our base 7B model, indicating that larger-scale LLM-based models are better equipped to internalize reasoning patterns and serve as more reliable judges. These results suggest that while reasoning-guided supervision is effective even at smaller scales, model capacity remains an important factor in achieving high-quality, generalizable judgments. Meanwhile, despite its slightly lower performance compared to the 7B model, FLEX-VL-3B shows comparable performance to LLaVA-1.6-34B on MLLM-as-a-Judge and both Qwen2.5-VL-7B and LLaVA-NeXT on GenAI-Bench.

Table 9: Comparison of FLEX-Judge performance across different MLLM sizes. ♠: results from Table 1. ♥: results from Table 2. ♦: results from Table 3. †: 32B model was trained with LoRA [26].

Model	Size	MLLM-as-a-Judge				VL-Reward			GenAI-Bench		
		Score (↑)	w. Tie (↑)	w.o. Tie (↑)	Batch (↓)	General (↑)	Hallu. (↑)	Reason. (↑)	Image (↑)	Edition (↑)	Video (↑)
LLaVA-1.6♠	34B	0.184	0.460	0.648	0.501	-	-	-	-	-	-
Qwen2-VL♥	72B	-	-	-	-	38.1	32.0	61.0	-	-	-
LLaVA-NeXT♦	Unk.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	22.65	25.35	21.70
Qwen2.5-VL♦	7B	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	31.93	38.63	37.61
FLEX-VL	3B	0.176	0.493	0.650	0.478	46.39	36.85	58.08	36.71	33.62	42.93
	7B	0.332	0.538	0.655	<b>0.426</b>	46.11	<b>43.39</b>	62.87	43.32	47.41	44.78
	32B†	<b>0.361</b>	<b>0.587</b>	<b>0.716</b>	0.432	<b>54.52</b>	41.92	<b>64.46</b>	<b>44.32</b>	<b>53.54</b>	<b>47.33</b>

### C.3 Reliability of FLEX-Judge

**Length Bias.** In Chen et al. [11], models such as GPT-4V [1] and Gemini [62] tend to favor longer answers over concise yet correct ones, exhibiting a phenomenon known as verbosity bias [89]. In contrast, our FLEX-Omni-7B and FLEX-VL-7B demonstrate length preferences that are more consistent with human evaluators, unlike previous judge models reported in Chen et al. [11]. As illustrated in Figure 11, our models do not systematically prefer lengthy answers, but instead align well with human judgments regardless of response lengths. This suggests that FLEX-Judge can serve as a reliable judge.

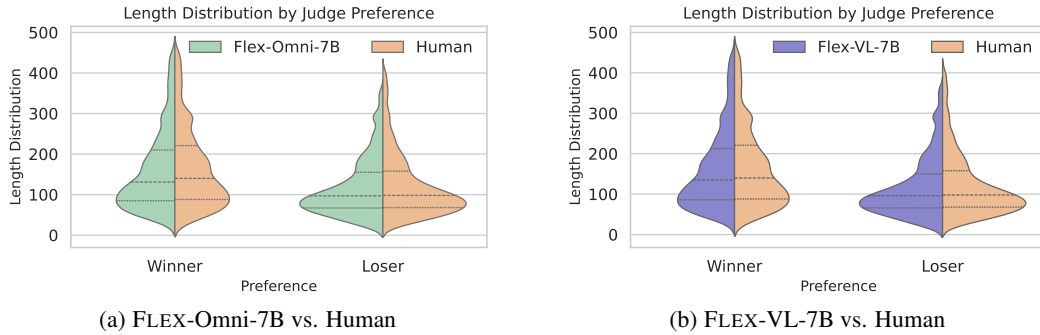


Figure 11: Examination on length bias of FLEX-Omni-7B and FLEX-VL-7B compared to human evaluators in pairwise comparisons (excluding ties) on the MLLM-as-a-Judge benchmark [11].

**Position bias.** Models as judges consistently favor answers in specific positions, often influenced by training data that typically place correct responses at the beginning or end of prompts [89]. We observed similar behavior in our FLEX-Judge during pairwise comparison evaluations. In Figure 12, we examine the behavior of our judge models against human preferences. While human evaluators show less bias towards the first or second response and frequently opt for the Tie option when appropriate, our judge models, particularly FLEX-Omni-7B, tend to favor the first response more often. Additionally, our models are less likely to output Tie judgments, instead preferring one over another. As detailed in Table 6, we address the positional bias via randomly changing the response orders.

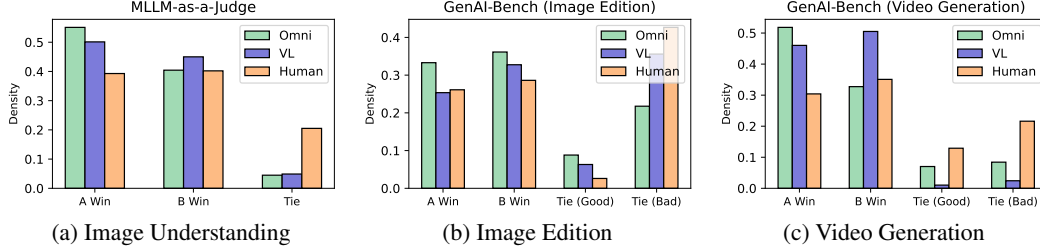


Figure 12: Examination on position bias of FLEX-Omni-7B and FLEX-VL-7B compared to human evaluators in pairwise comparisons (including ties). “A Win” indicates that the model preferred the first response, and “B Win” indicates preference for the second response.

#### C.4 Text Judgment Performance

We also evaluate FLEX-Judge on text-only assessment tasks, with results shown in Table 10. Interestingly, both FLEX-Omni-7B and FLEX-VL-7B outperform the base judge model, JudgeLRM-7B, in terms of judgment accuracy—despite being trained on the JudgeLRM’s response data. This suggests that our high-quality dataset curation (as discussed in Section 2.2) may lead to stronger textual reasoning performance.

While increasing the size of the training set could further improve test-time judgment accuracy, our primary focus is on multimodal generalization. Moreover, as discussed in Section 2.2, we observe catastrophic forgetting on the non-textual modalities when training with excessive text data. To balance effectiveness and modality retention, we limit the training set to a 1K-sized text corpus throughout our experiments.

Table 10: Comparison of (M)LLM evaluator performance on JudgeLM [90] and PandaLM [70]. ♠: results from Chen et al. [12]. †: re-implemented results.

Model	JudgeLM ( <i>GPT-4o as Ground-Truth</i> )				PandaLM ( <i>Human as Ground-Truth</i> )			
	Agreement	Precision	Recall	F1	Agreement	Precision	Recall	F1
GPT-3.5♠	73.83	70.70	52.80	52.85	62.96	61.95	63.59	58.20
GPT-4♠	-	-	-	-	66.47	66.20	68.15	61.80
PandaLM-7B♠	68.61	40.75	38.82	39.41	59.26	57.28	59.23	54.56
Auto-J-13B♠	74.86	61.65	57.53	58.14	-	-	-	-
JudgeLM-33B♠	<b>89.03</b>	80.97	84.76	82.64	75.18	69.30	74.93	69.73
Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct♠	76.85	78.71	77.85	78.28	63.96	61.95	67.61	59.81
JudgeLRM-7B♠	83.74	<b>85.84</b>	83.65	84.73	<b>78.28</b>	<b>74.90</b>	<b>75.74</b>	<b>75.05</b>
JudgeLRM-7B†	82.26	<u>84.86</u>	82.47	83.64	76.41	71.41	71.30	71.16
FLEX-Omni-7B	84.12	80.95	<b>93.51</b>	<b>86.78</b>	76.24	<u>73.38</u>	71.15	<u>71.74</u>
FLEX-VL-7B	<u>84.21</u>	82.65	<u>90.06</u>	<u>86.65</u>	<u>76.84</u>	72.15	70.06	70.74

#### C.5 Non-judgment Visual-Language Task Performance

To further examine potential catastrophic forgetting or degradation of multimodal abilities, we also evaluate our model on standard visual question answering (VQA) tasks that are unrelated to judgment, specifically TextVQA [59] and OK-VQA [47]. As shown in Table 11, FLEX-VL-7B exhibits only a slight decrease on TextVQA and even outperforms the base model on OK-VQA. These results suggest that our well-structured methodology preserves the multimodal capabilities of the base model and does not cause forgetting.

Table 11: Evaluation on standard visual question answering tasks.

Model	TextVQA	OK-VQA
Qwen2.5-VL-7B	80.80	67.46
FLEX-VL-7B	80.31	72.10

## D Qualitative Examples

We provide qualitative examples of FLEX-Judge’s reasoning and judgments across different modalities. These examples illustrate how the model understands, compares, and scores AI-generated outputs as well as multimodal inputs using structured textual reasoning.

### D.1 Image Understanding and Generation Tasks

We showcase examples of the image understanding and generation tasks with vision-language benchmarks. All judgments are made by FLEX-VL-7B.

**Figure 13** illustrates an image understanding task, involving OCR of a Hindi phrase. Both assistants output similar-looking responses, but FLEX-Judge correctly recognizes the image content by referring to an “unexpected election” rather than a “financial crisis”. It assigns a significantly higher score to Assistant 2, whose response accurately reflects the OCR content.

**Figure 14** presents a quality assessment task of generated images. Both assistants generate images, and FLEX-judge evaluates them based on clarity, focus, and presence of artifacts. Assistant 1 receives

**User:** <OCR> (ड) "आकस्मिक निर्वाचन" से वह निर्वाचन अभिप्रेत है जो आकस्मिक रिक्ति को भरने के लिए किया जाता है;

(Hindi→English: "By-election" refers to the type of election that is conducted to fill a sudden or unexpected vacancy.)

**Assistant 1:** (ख) "आर्थिक निचोड़ से वह निचोड़ प्राप्त है जो आर्थिक स्थिति को और भी विकट बना देता है.

**Assistant 2:** (ड) "आकस्मिक निर्वाचन" से वह निर्वाचन अभिप्रेत है जो आकस्मिक रिक्ति को भरने के लिए किया जाता है;

---

**Judge:**

<think>

Assistant 1's answer is inaccurate and irrelevant to the question asked. The question specifically asked about "आकस्मिक निर्वाचन," which translates to "sudden election" or "unexpected election" in English. This refers to a situation where an election is held to fill a sudden vacancy in a position, such as a seat in a legislative body or a position in a government.

The answer provided by Assistant 1, "आर्थिक निचोड़ से वह निचोड़ प्राप्त है जो आर्थिक स्थिति को और भी विकट बना देता है," translates to "The financial crisis leads to a situation that makes the financial situation even more difficult." This answer does not accurately describe the concept of an "unexpected election," which is the core of the question. It seems to be discussing the effects of a financial crisis, which is a different topic and does not align with the context of an unexpected election.

In contrast, Assistant 2's answer is accurate and relevant. It correctly defines "आकस्मिक निर्वाचन" as "the kind of election that is held to fill a sudden vacancy," which is the correct definition and aligns well with the question asked. This answer is accurate because it correctly identifies the nature of an unexpected election, which is a specific type of election that occurs to fill a sudden vacancy, such as a seat in a parliament or a position in a government that has become vacant unexpectedly.

Given the accuracy and relevance of the definitions provided, it is clear that Assistant 2's answer is more accurate and relevant to the question asked, while Assistant 1's answer is inaccurate and irrelevant.</think>
 <answer>2</answer>
 <answer>10</answer>

Figure 13: Reasoning process of FLEX-Judge on the OCR task (VL-RewardBench).

**User:** Generate an image "A television is turned on, displaying a cartoon featuring two cats".

---

**Assistant 1**

<think>

Assistant 1 provided a clear, focused image of a living room with a television mounted [...] - Clarity and Focus: The image is clear and well-focused, making it easy to identify the objects and the scene. The television is the central focus, and the cartoon being [...] - Artifacts: There are no visible artifacts in the image, such as blurriness, distortion, or illogical representations. The image is straightforward and does identify specific details.

**Assistant 2**

In contrast, the image provided by Assistant 2 is quite blurry and lacks clear focus, [...] - Clarity and Focus: The image is significantly blurred, which makes it hard to discern the exact details of the scene. This lack of clarity could be due to movement or a low-quality camera, which might mislead the viewer about the content being displayed on the television. - Artifacts: It might be unclear whether the television is even turned on, or if the content being displayed is a cartoon, as the details are not clear.

---

**Judge:** Given the clarity and relevance of the image provided by Assistant 1, it is more accurate in representing the scenario described in the question.</think>
 <answer>8</answer>
 <answer>2</answer>

Figure 14: Reasoning process of FLEX-Judge on the image quality assessment task (MJ-Bench).

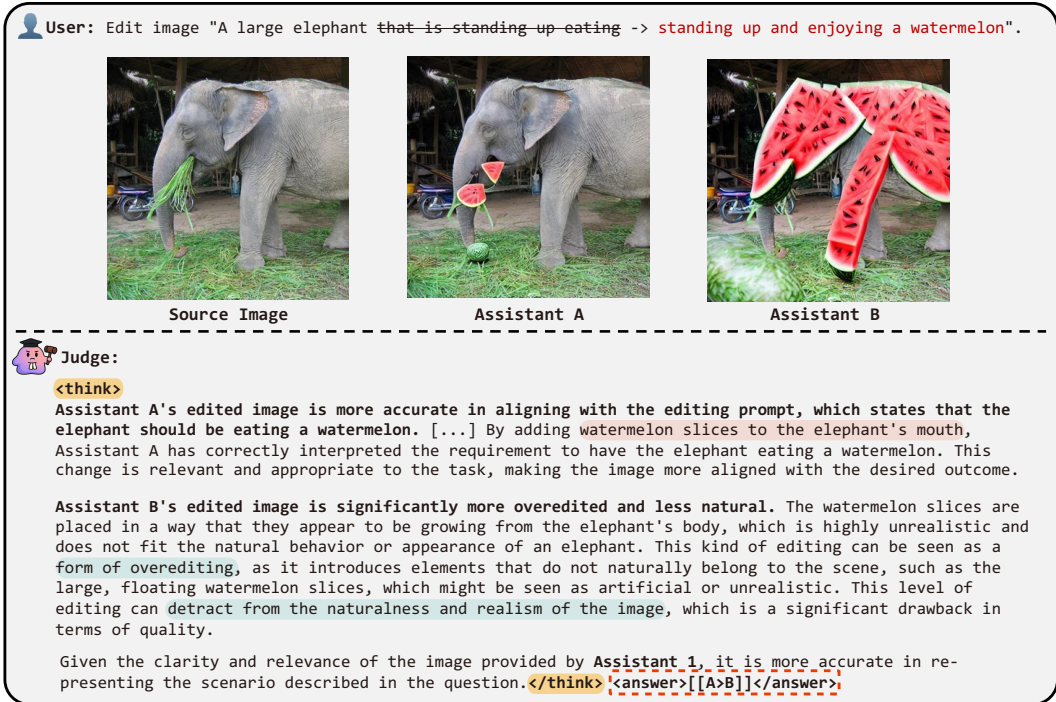


Figure 15: Reasoning process of FLEX-Judge on the image editing task (GenAI-Bench).

a higher score due to its “clear and well-focused” image with “no visible artifacts”, whereas Assistant 2’s image shows blurs, which could be “due to movement or a low-quality camera”.

Figure 15 shows an image editing task, where the judge assesses whether the edited image by each assistant aligns with the revised prompt. FLEX-Judge identifies that Assistant B’s output exhibits “overediting”, detracting from the “naturalness and realism”, and thus assigns it a lower score.

These examples highlight the FLEX-Judge’s ability to explain its preferences based on semantic accuracy, relevance, and consistency with visual content, even in fine-grained evaluation scenarios.

## D.2 Video and Audio Tasks

Since we cannot include video and audio content directly into the paper, we provide full qualitative examples—including input prompts, AI responses, and FLEX-Judge’s reasoning—for video and audio evaluation tasks at the following anonymized project page.<sup>2</sup>

## D.3 Molecular Tasks

Figure 16 and Figure 17 illustrate the reasoning and judgment outputs of FLEX-Mol-LLaMA, our molecular judge model. Figure 16 presents two examples from the PAMPA prediction task, the primary evaluation task for Mol-LLaMA. These samples were used in the best-of-N sampling experiment (Section 4). We display both a low-scoring and a high-scoring response examples, along with FLEX-Mol-LLaMA’s reasoning, to highlight its ability to distinguish response quality based on molecular analysis. Figure 17 shows a pairwise judgment example from Mol-LLaMA’s instruction tuning set, which includes prompts about biological property prediction. Here, we sample two responses from Mol-LLaMA and use FLEX-Mol-LLaMA to evaluate and score both. These pairwise preferences are then used to construct training triplets for DPO, guiding further alignment of Mol-LLaMA with high-quality response patterns.

<sup>2</sup><https://flex-judge.github.io/>

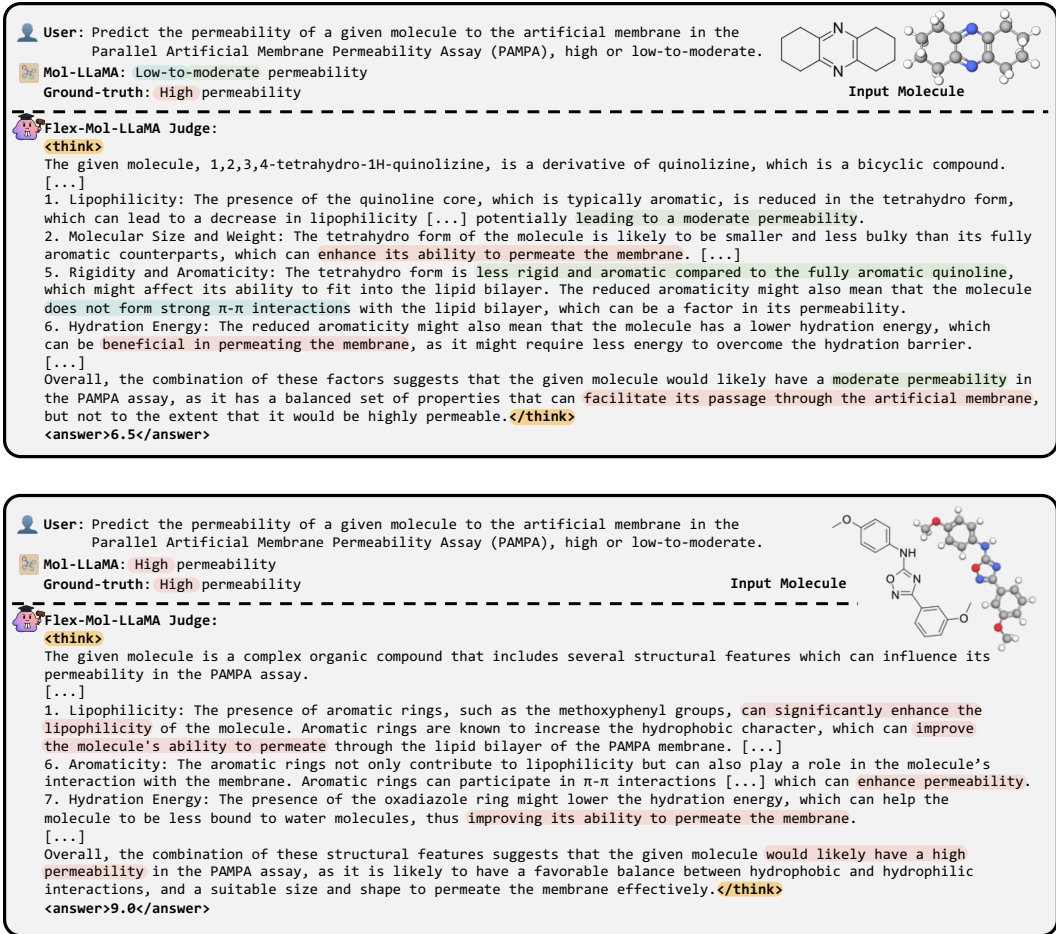


Figure 16: Reasoning process of FLEX-Mol-LLaMA judge on the PAMPA task.

## E Limitations

We have demonstrated that textual reasoning alone can effectively train multimodal judge models that generalize across modalities. While training only the LLM part is an innovative idea, it consists of a pitfall: the underlying LLM must possess (or at least can learn) sufficient reasoning capability. Our method is efficient and broadly applicable, but it implicitly requires that the backbone model be capable of generating coherent, structured reasoning.

We observed this limitation when attempting to extend our approach to 3D-LLM [25], which can process and encode 3D point clouds using Flan-T5-XL [17] as its language backbone. Despite the model’s 3D understanding, its limited context window (512 tokens) and lack of strong reasoning pretraining made it unsuitable for generating high-quality reasoning data. As a result, we were unable to successfully train a FLEX-3D-LLM judge using our framework. This highlights a key constraint of our approach: it is less effective when applied to MLLMs built on weak or constrained LLMs that lack the capacity for textual reasoning.

While FLEX-Judge naturally inherits the capabilities of its MLLM backbone, this is an inherent assumption shared by all LLM-as-a-Judge paradigms. Our key contribution lies not in developing a better backbone but in demonstrating that minimal textual supervision can yield strong cross-modal evaluation with a fixed MLLM, eliminating the need for expensive modality-specific training.



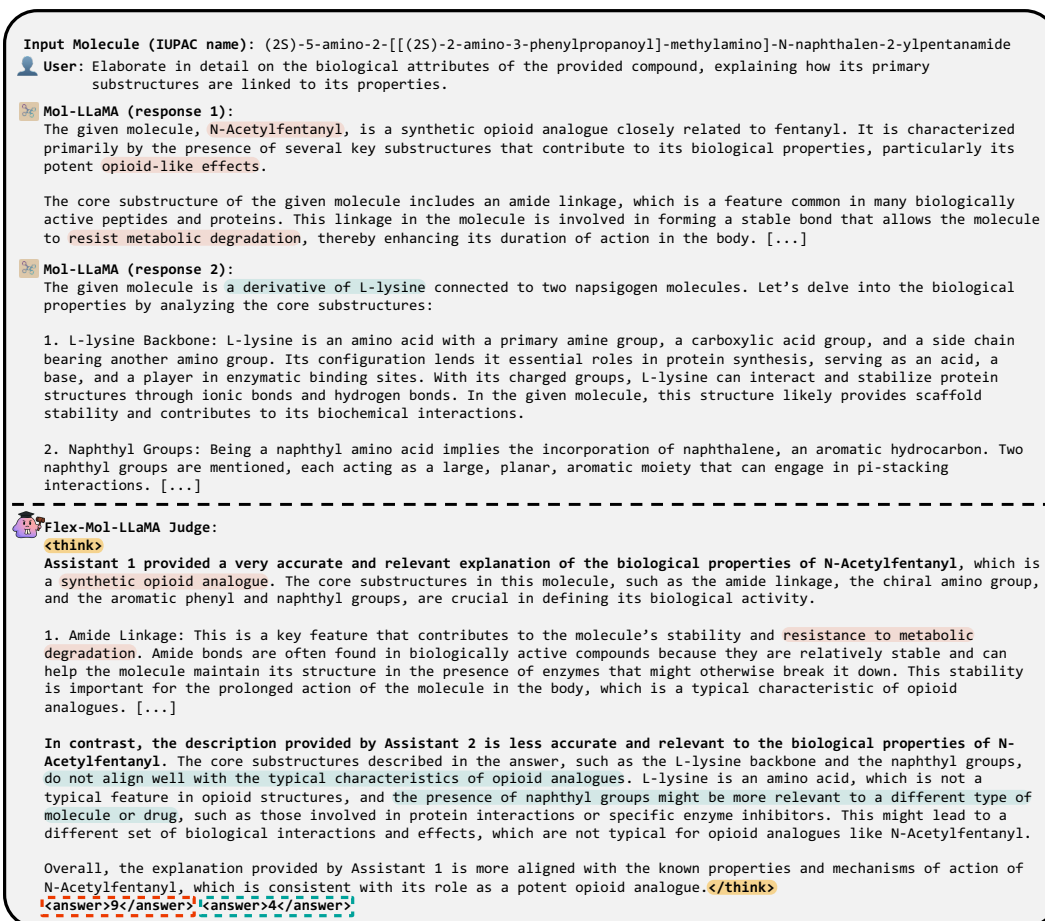


Figure 17: Reasoning process of FLEX-Mol-LLaMA, judging the preference of two Mol-LLaMA responses on biological attributes prediction data. Here, the response 1 is preferred (score 9) against the response 2 (score 4).

## NeurIPS Paper Checklist

### 1. Claims

Question: Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper's contributions and scope?

Answer: [\[Yes\]](#)

Justification: Abstract and Introduction sufficiently contain our main contributions: utilizing a small amount of text reasoning corpus to train FLEX-Judge, a multimodal reasoning judge model.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the abstract and introduction do not include the claims made in the paper.
- The abstract and/or introduction should clearly state the claims made, including the contributions made in the paper and important assumptions and limitations. A No or NA answer to this question will not be perceived well by the reviewers.
- The claims made should match theoretical and experimental results, and reflect how much the results can be expected to generalize to other settings.
- It is fine to include aspirational goals as motivation as long as it is clear that these goals are not attained by the paper.

### 2. Limitations

Question: Does the paper discuss the limitations of the work performed by the authors?

Answer: [\[Yes\]](#)

Justification: Our method is cost-efficient and generalizable, but it implicitly requires that the backbone LLM should be capable of reasoning. We have included the detailed limitations in Appendix [E](#).

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper has no limitation while the answer No means that the paper has limitations, but those are not discussed in the paper.
- The authors are encouraged to create a separate "Limitations" section in their paper.
- The paper should point out any strong assumptions and how robust the results are to violations of these assumptions (e.g., independence assumptions, noiseless settings, model well-specification, asymptotic approximations only holding locally). The authors should reflect on how these assumptions might be violated in practice and what the implications would be.
- The authors should reflect on the scope of the claims made, e.g., if the approach was only tested on a few datasets or with a few runs. In general, empirical results often depend on implicit assumptions, which should be articulated.
- The authors should reflect on the factors that influence the performance of the approach. For example, a facial recognition algorithm may perform poorly when image resolution is low or images are taken in low lighting. Or a speech-to-text system might not be used reliably to provide closed captions for online lectures because it fails to handle technical jargon.
- The authors should discuss the computational efficiency of the proposed algorithms and how they scale with dataset size.
- If applicable, the authors should discuss possible limitations of their approach to address problems of privacy and fairness.
- While the authors might fear that complete honesty about limitations might be used by reviewers as grounds for rejection, a worse outcome might be that reviewers discover limitations that aren't acknowledged in the paper. The authors should use their best judgment and recognize that individual actions in favor of transparency play an important role in developing norms that preserve the integrity of the community. Reviewers will be specifically instructed to not penalize honesty concerning limitations.

### 3. Theory assumptions and proofs

Question: For each theoretical result, does the paper provide the full set of assumptions and a complete (and correct) proof?

Answer: [NA]

Justification: We do not include any theoretical results in this paper.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not include theoretical results.
- All the theorems, formulas, and proofs in the paper should be numbered and cross-referenced.
- All assumptions should be clearly stated or referenced in the statement of any theorems.
- The proofs can either appear in the main paper or the supplemental material, but if they appear in the supplemental material, the authors are encouraged to provide a short proof sketch to provide intuition.
- Inversely, any informal proof provided in the core of the paper should be complemented by formal proofs provided in appendix or supplemental material.
- Theorems and Lemmas that the proof relies upon should be properly referenced.

#### 4. Experimental result reproducibility

Question: Does the paper fully disclose all the information needed to reproduce the main experimental results of the paper to the extent that it affects the main claims and/or conclusions of the paper (regardless of whether the code and data are provided or not)?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: In Section 3.1 and Appendix B, we have elaborated the experimental details to enable the reader to reproduce our approach and results. We also include the *seed* dataset (1K-sized text reasoning) and the source code in the supplementary material for better reproducibility.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not include experiments.
- If the paper includes experiments, a No answer to this question will not be perceived well by the reviewers: Making the paper reproducible is important, regardless of whether the code and data are provided or not.
- If the contribution is a dataset and/or model, the authors should describe the steps taken to make their results reproducible or verifiable.
- Depending on the contribution, reproducibility can be accomplished in various ways. For example, if the contribution is a novel architecture, describing the architecture fully might suffice, or if the contribution is a specific model and empirical evaluation, it may be necessary to either make it possible for others to replicate the model with the same dataset, or provide access to the model. In general, releasing code and data is often one good way to accomplish this, but reproducibility can also be provided via detailed instructions for how to replicate the results, access to a hosted model (e.g., in the case of a large language model), releasing of a model checkpoint, or other means that are appropriate to the research performed.
- While NeurIPS does not require releasing code, the conference does require all submissions to provide some reasonable avenue for reproducibility, which may depend on the nature of the contribution. For example
  - (a) If the contribution is primarily a new algorithm, the paper should make it clear how to reproduce that algorithm.
  - (b) If the contribution is primarily a new model architecture, the paper should describe the architecture clearly and fully.
  - (c) If the contribution is a new model (e.g., a large language model), then there should either be a way to access this model for reproducing the results or a way to reproduce the model (e.g., with an open-source dataset or instructions for how to construct the dataset).
  - (d) We recognize that reproducibility may be tricky in some cases, in which case authors are welcome to describe the particular way they provide for reproducibility. In the case of closed-source models, it may be that access to the model is limited in

some way (e.g., to registered users), but it should be possible for other researchers to have some path to reproducing or verifying the results.

## 5. Open access to data and code

Question: Does the paper provide open access to the data and code, with sufficient instructions to faithfully reproduce the main experimental results, as described in supplemental material?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We have added our source code and dataset in the supplementary material. We also plan to make all the assets available upon acceptance.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that paper does not include experiments requiring code.
- Please see the NeurIPS code and data submission guidelines (<https://nips.cc/public/guides/CodeSubmissionPolicy>) for more details.
- While we encourage the release of code and data, we understand that this might not be possible, so “No” is an acceptable answer. Papers cannot be rejected simply for not including code, unless this is central to the contribution (e.g., for a new open-source benchmark).
- The instructions should contain the exact command and environment needed to run to reproduce the results. See the NeurIPS code and data submission guidelines (<https://nips.cc/public/guides/CodeSubmissionPolicy>) for more details.
- The authors should provide instructions on data access and preparation, including how to access the raw data, preprocessed data, intermediate data, and generated data, etc.
- The authors should provide scripts to reproduce all experimental results for the new proposed method and baselines. If only a subset of experiments are reproducible, they should state which ones are omitted from the script and why.
- At submission time, to preserve anonymity, the authors should release anonymized versions (if applicable).
- Providing as much information as possible in supplemental material (appended to the paper) is recommended, but including URLs to data and code is permitted.

## 6. Experimental setting/details

Question: Does the paper specify all the training and test details (e.g., data splits, hyperparameters, how they were chosen, type of optimizer, etc.) necessary to understand the results?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: Section 3.1 and Appendix B contain all the experimental settings and details.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not include experiments.
- The experimental setting should be presented in the core of the paper to a level of detail that is necessary to appreciate the results and make sense of them.
- The full details can be provided either with the code, in appendix, or as supplemental material.

## 7. Experiment statistical significance

Question: Does the paper report error bars suitably and correctly defined or other appropriate information about the statistical significance of the experiments?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: In our main results (Table 1–Table 4), we have reported average performances over a few random samples (see Appendix B.3 for details). Also, Figure 4 and Figure 6 show standard deviations across random seeds.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not include experiments.

- The authors should answer "Yes" if the results are accompanied by error bars, confidence intervals, or statistical significance tests, at least for the experiments that support the main claims of the paper.
- The factors of variability that the error bars are capturing should be clearly stated (for example, train/test split, initialization, random drawing of some parameter, or overall run with given experimental conditions).
- The method for calculating the error bars should be explained (closed form formula, call to a library function, bootstrap, etc.)
- The assumptions made should be given (e.g., Normally distributed errors).
- It should be clear whether the error bar is the standard deviation or the standard error of the mean.
- It is OK to report 1-sigma error bars, but one should state it. The authors should preferably report a 2-sigma error bar than state that they have a 96% CI, if the hypothesis of Normality of errors is not verified.
- For asymmetric distributions, the authors should be careful not to show in tables or figures symmetric error bars that would yield results that are out of range (e.g. negative error rates).
- If error bars are reported in tables or plots, The authors should explain in the text how they were calculated and reference the corresponding figures or tables in the text.

#### 8. Experiments compute resources

Question: For each experiment, does the paper provide sufficient information on the computer resources (type of compute workers, memory, time of execution) needed to reproduce the experiments?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: In Appendix B.2, we elaborate the details on compute resource we have used for the experiments and report the elapsed time.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not include experiments.
- The paper should indicate the type of compute workers CPU or GPU, internal cluster, or cloud provider, including relevant memory and storage.
- The paper should provide the amount of compute required for each of the individual experimental runs as well as estimate the total compute.
- The paper should disclose whether the full research project required more compute than the experiments reported in the paper (e.g., preliminary or failed experiments that didn't make it into the paper).

#### 9. Code of ethics

Question: Does the research conducted in the paper conform, in every respect, with the NeurIPS Code of Ethics <https://neurips.cc/public/EthicsGuidelines>?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We have reviewed the NeurIPS Code of Ethics and conform to the instruction.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the authors have not reviewed the NeurIPS Code of Ethics.
- If the authors answer No, they should explain the special circumstances that require a deviation from the Code of Ethics.
- The authors should make sure to preserve anonymity (e.g., if there is a special consideration due to laws or regulations in their jurisdiction).

#### 10. Broader impacts

Question: Does the paper discuss both potential positive societal impacts and negative societal impacts of the work performed?

Answer: [NA]

Justification: This study does not invoke considerable societal concerns.



Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that there is no societal impact of the work performed.
- If the authors answer NA or No, they should explain why their work has no societal impact or why the paper does not address societal impact.
- Examples of negative societal impacts include potential malicious or unintended uses (e.g., disinformation, generating fake profiles, surveillance), fairness considerations (e.g., deployment of technologies that could make decisions that unfairly impact specific groups), privacy considerations, and security considerations.
- The conference expects that many papers will be foundational research and not tied to particular applications, let alone deployments. However, if there is a direct path to any negative applications, the authors should point it out. For example, it is legitimate to point out that an improvement in the quality of generative models could be used to generate deepfakes for disinformation. On the other hand, it is not needed to point out that a generic algorithm for optimizing neural networks could enable people to train models that generate Deepfakes faster.
- The authors should consider possible harms that could arise when the technology is being used as intended and functioning correctly, harms that could arise when the technology is being used as intended but gives incorrect results, and harms following from (intentional or unintentional) misuse of the technology.
- If there are negative societal impacts, the authors could also discuss possible mitigation strategies (e.g., gated release of models, providing defenses in addition to attacks, mechanisms for monitoring misuse, mechanisms to monitor how a system learns from feedback over time, improving the efficiency and accessibility of ML).

#### 11. Safeguards

Question: Does the paper describe safeguards that have been put in place for responsible release of data or models that have a high risk for misuse (e.g., pretrained language models, image generators, or scraped datasets)?

Answer: [NA]

Justification: This paper does not contain such risks for data/model misuse.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper poses no such risks.
- Released models that have a high risk for misuse or dual-use should be released with necessary safeguards to allow for controlled use of the model, for example by requiring that users adhere to usage guidelines or restrictions to access the model or implementing safety filters.
- Datasets that have been scraped from the Internet could pose safety risks. The authors should describe how they avoided releasing unsafe images.
- We recognize that providing effective safeguards is challenging, and many papers do not require this, but we encourage authors to take this into account and make a best faith effort.

#### 12. Licenses for existing assets

Question: Are the creators or original owners of assets (e.g., code, data, models), used in the paper, properly credited and are the license and terms of use explicitly mentioned and properly respected?

Answer: [NA]

Justification: We follow the conventional evaluation protocols for every experiment and dataset, which we assume are properly cited and detailed in Appendix B.3.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not use existing assets.
- The authors should cite the original paper that produced the code package or dataset.
- The authors should state which version of the asset is used and, if possible, include a URL.
- The name of the license (e.g., CC-BY 4.0) should be included for each asset.

- For scraped data from a particular source (e.g., website), the copyright and terms of service of that source should be provided.
- If assets are released, the license, copyright information, and terms of use in the package should be provided. For popular datasets, [paperswithcode.com/datasets](https://paperswithcode.com/datasets) has curated licenses for some datasets. Their licensing guide can help determine the license of a dataset.
- For existing datasets that are re-packaged, both the original license and the license of the derived asset (if it has changed) should be provided.
- If this information is not available online, the authors are encouraged to reach out to the asset's creators.

### 13. **New assets**

Question: Are new assets introduced in the paper well documented and is the documentation provided alongside the assets?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We detailed the dataset curation process in Section 2.2, as well as providing the training dataset and instruction file along with the supplementary material.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not release new assets.
- Researchers should communicate the details of the dataset/code/model as part of their submissions via structured templates. This includes details about training, license, limitations, etc.
- The paper should discuss whether and how consent was obtained from people whose asset is used.
- At submission time, remember to anonymize your assets (if applicable). You can either create an anonymized URL or include an anonymized zip file.

### 14. **Crowdsourcing and research with human subjects**

Question: For crowdsourcing experiments and research with human subjects, does the paper include the full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots, if applicable, as well as details about compensation (if any)?

Answer: [NA]

Justification: We do not deal with crowdsourcing nor human subjects in this research.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not involve crowdsourcing nor research with human subjects.
- Including this information in the supplemental material is fine, but if the main contribution of the paper involves human subjects, then as much detail as possible should be included in the main paper.
- According to the NeurIPS Code of Ethics, workers involved in data collection, curation, or other labor should be paid at least the minimum wage in the country of the data collector.

### 15. **Institutional review board (IRB) approvals or equivalent for research with human subjects**

Question: Does the paper describe potential risks incurred by study participants, whether such risks were disclosed to the subjects, and whether Institutional Review Board (IRB) approvals (or an equivalent approval/review based on the requirements of your country or institution) were obtained?

Answer: [NA]

Justification: We do not deal with crowdsourcing nor human subjects in this research.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not involve crowdsourcing nor research with human subjects.

- Depending on the country in which research is conducted, IRB approval (or equivalent) may be required for any human subjects research. If you obtained IRB approval, you should clearly state this in the paper.
- We recognize that the procedures for this may vary significantly between institutions and locations, and we expect authors to adhere to the NeurIPS Code of Ethics and the guidelines for their institution.
- For initial submissions, do not include any information that would break anonymity (if applicable), such as the institution conducting the review.

#### 16. **Declaration of LLM usage**

Question: Does the paper describe the usage of LLMs if it is an important, original, or non-standard component of the core methods in this research? Note that if the LLM is used only for writing, editing, or formatting purposes and does not impact the core methodology, scientific rigorousness, or originality of the research, declaration is not required.

Answer: [NA]

Justification: We do not involve LLMs for the core method development in this research.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the core method development in this research does not involve LLMs as any important, original, or non-standard components.
- Please refer to our LLM policy (<https://neurips.cc/Conferences/2025/LLM>) for what should or should not be described.