RPRA: PREDICTING AN LLM-JUDGE FOR EFFICIENT BUT PERFORMANT INFERENCE

Anonymous authors
Paper under double-blind review

ABSTRACT

Large language models (LLMs) face a fundamental trade-off between computational efficiency (e.g., number of parameters) and output quality, especially when deployed on computationally limited devices such as phones or laptops. One way to address this challenge is by following the example of humans and have models ask for help when they believe they are incapable of solving a problem on their own; we can overcome this trade-off by allowing smaller models to respond to queries when they believe they can provide good responses, and deferring to larger models when they do not believe they can. To this end, in this paper, we investigate the viability of Predict-Answer/Act (PA) and Reason-Predict-Reason-Answer/Act (RPRA) paradigms where models predict—prior to responding—how an LLM judge would score their output. We evaluate three approaches: zero-shot prediction, prediction using an in-context report card, and supervised fine-tuning. Our results show that larger models (particularly reasoning models) perform well when predicting generic LLM judges zero-shot, while smaller models can reliably predict such judges well after being fine-tuned or provided with an in-context report card. Altogether, both approaches can substantially improve the prediction accuracy of smaller models, with report cards and fine-tuning achieving mean improvements of up to 55% and 52% across datasets, respectively. These findings suggest that models can learn to predict their own performance limitations, paving the way for more efficient and self-aware AI systems.

1 INTRODUCTION

The rise of large language models (LLMs) has been the defining narrative of the recent AI boom. The increasing investment in AI brought about by this has led to increasingly large resources being pooled into training LLMs. The compounding effect of this has led to mainstream LLMs needing upward of a terabyte of GPU memory to run. Such models are both incredibly costly to use (see, e.g., Noffsinger et al. (2025)) and necessitate that consumer devices rely on API calls to access them—which users do, making more than 2.5 billion requests to ChatGPT a day (Roth, 2025). To address these limitations of large models, there has been growing interest in developing intentionally small models (e.g., Chiang et al. (2023); Liu et al. (2024b); Meta AI (2024); Project Apertus (2025)).

Intentionally small models often demonstrate comparable performance to much bigger models on certain problem types but see their performance catastrophically collapse on other problem types (Liu et al., 2024b; Pecher et al., 2022). This non-uniform performance drop leads to famously erratic and embarrassing responses such as models incorrectly responding to "how many Rs are there in strawberry?" (BlakeSergin, 2024). It would be ideal to predict the quality of a response pre-hoc, allowing us to reduce the likelihood of an erratic response without needing to restrict ourselves to larger models.

Thankfully, a considerable body of historical work suggests this is easier than having the model produce an answer. Traditional computer science maintains the $P \neq NP$ conjecture while no converse exists (Cook, 1971; Garey & Johnson, 1979), and in machine learning, this asymmetry is a recurring theme. For example, reinforcement learning uses low-dimensional, often simple reward signals to steer large policies (Sutton & Barto, 1998; 2018), while reward models for LLMs train on much smaller datasets than the LLMs themselves (compare the work by Brown et al. (2020) and that

Reviewers: please read the Reviewer Guidelines (iclr.cc/Conferences/2027/ReviewerGuidelines) and the AI Policy for Reviewers (iclr.cc/Conferences/2027/AIPolicyForReviewers). If you used AI to expand, edit, or polish your review, please provide the input text to the LLM. Better still, consider skipping the LLM and submitting your original text: we, and the authors, are much more interested in your unedited thoughts than in what an LLM has to say. AI-assisted or not, you are putting your name and reputation behind your review: LLM-generated falsehoods, hallucinations or misrepresentations are subject to disciplinary action, which may include desk-rejecting all papers you have authored.

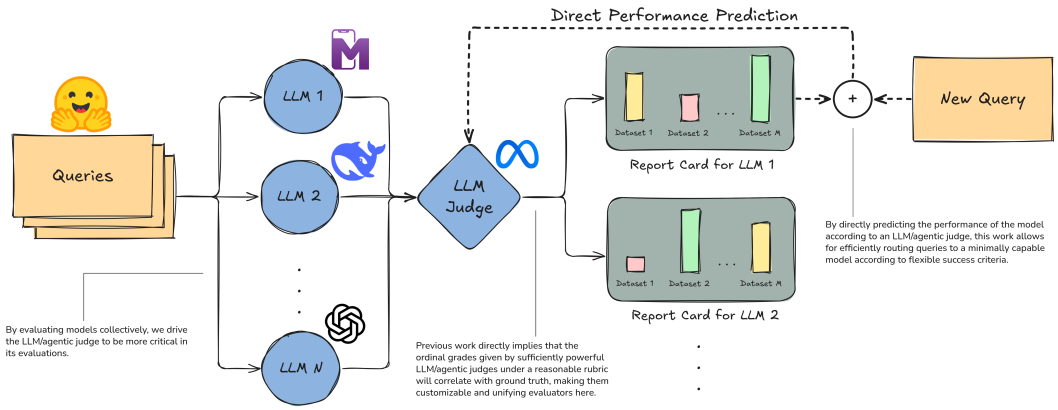


Figure 1: Overview of the report card framework. Queries are sent to multiple LLMs whose responses are jointly evaluated by an LLM/agentic judge. The judge's responses are converted into report cards that capture a model's performance across different query types. At inference time, the model predicts its own capability to answer a new query, enabling cost-efficient routing to a minimally capable model without the characteristic overconfidence of direct self-assessment.

by Ouyang et al. (2022)). For language models specifically, verifiers trained to score solutions have been shown to outperform and scale better than generators of the same size (Cobbe et al., 2021).

To predict the quality of a response, it is first necessary to be able to score a response. This is complicated by the fact that modern LLMs are expected to handle a wide variety of questions—from code and mathematical proofs to open-ended text and multi-step reasoning chains—making it difficult to define a single universal quality metric. To evaluate such diverse outputs without heavily constraining the kinds of responses that can be given, one needs to employ something like an LLM-based (or agentic) judge (Zheng et al., 2023; Zhuge et al., 2025). Such judges are costly as generating output tokens is dramatically more expensive than processing input tokens (Shi et al., 2024; Li et al., 2025a). This cost is both an increase in the literal cost and a delay to the user (as responses are often streamed to the user). Additionally, as our results show, LLM judges exhibit a subpar evaluation of responses when doing so in isolation (e.g., compare Figures 7 to 11 with Figures 13 to 17 in Appendix F), making fair evaluation using them even more expensive.

We formalize this pre-hoc prediction of an LLM/agentic judge as two paradigms: Predict-Answer/Act (PA), where a model predicts how a judge would score its response before generating it, and Reason-Predict-Reason-Answer/Act (RPRA), which extends PA by having the model reason before predicting and again before responding. This work investigates the viability of both paradigms across three approaches: tabula rasa (zero-shot), in-context learning, and fine-tuning. In practice, a PA/RPRA model could directly respond to queries it is confident it can answer well, and trigger routing to a larger model otherwise. LLM/agentic judges offer several advantages over traditional evaluation metrics: they provide reliable evaluations that correlate strongly with human evaluations (Zheng et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2024b; Liu et al., 2023; Fu et al., 2024a; Zhuge et al., 2025), support flexible evaluation criteria, and can be easily adapted to new alignment problems by modifying their prompts (Zhuge et al., 2025). They also align strongly with ground truth values (Zhuge et al., 2025), allowing them to serve as effective unifying proxies across different types of queries.

We evaluate our approaches across models of varying sizes: MobileLLM 0.9B, Llama 3.2 1B and 3B, Llama 3.1 8B, Qwen 2.5 14B and 32B, DeepSeek Distilled Qwen 14B and 32B, GPT OSS 20B and 120B, Llama 3.3 70B, DeepSeek Distilled 70B, and Llama 4 Scout. Our findings reveal that while large models—particularly reasoning models—show a good ability to predict judge scores, smaller models typically suffer from miscalibration, being either overconfident or underconfident in their self-assessments. This miscalibration reflects a well-documented tendency of LLMs toward overconfidence (Huang et al., 2025; Ren et al., 2023).

To address these calibration issues, we propose two distinct approaches. **Our first approach** provides models with a *report card*: a detailed performance summary based on the model's historical performance across multiple datasets. This method requires no additional training and can be applied

to any model, including closed-weight systems (e.g., ChatGPT (OpenAI, 2022)). We generate these report cards by evaluating models across diverse datasets (see Figure 1) and using the modal judge ratings to build performance descriptions.

Our second approach fine-tunes models specifically for performance prediction, enabling the PA paradigm without requiring report cards. While this requires additional training and access to the weights of the model, it offers greater inference efficiency by eliminating the need to process report card tokens. We construct training data using the hindsight trick (Andrychowicz et al., 2017), relabeling examples with judge scores, then apply supervised fine-tuning (Ouyang et al., 2022) to our smaller model variants (Llama 3.1 8B, and Llama 3.2 1B and 3B).

Both approaches successfully improve smaller models' ability to predict their own performance, with effectiveness varying significantly across datasets. Interestingly, models demonstrate stronger self-awareness on more challenging queries, suggesting that difficulty may serve as a useful signal for performance prediction. These findings open promising directions for developing more reliable and self-aware small language models. As a concrete demonstration of the potential of these models, we experiment with a naive routing system and find that, for example, our fine-tuned Llama 3.2 3B routes roughly two-thirds of its queries to a larger model (handling a full third itself), at a cost of only an additional 5% of queries answered badly (Section 6).

This paper presents a feasibility study for the PA and RPRA paradigms. Our primary contributions can thus be summarized as that **(1)** we propose the PA and RPRA paradigms where models estimate pre-hoc how their response to a query would be scored by an LLM or agentic judge (thereby allowing flexible evaluations) and show that large LLMs demonstrate a fair ability to do so tabula rasa; **(2)** we propose using a report card system that summarizes the mode of the performance of a model in a number of datasets and demonstrate that it can dramatically improve the accuracy of many small models in the aforementioned prediction task; **(3)** we propose bypassing the inference cost of the report card system by fine-tuning models using the hindsight trick, demonstrating that this leads to strong prediction performance in many small models; and **(4)** we show that these predictions enable cost-efficient routing, with our small Llama models routing 40%–89% of queries to larger models at a cost of only an additional 3%–9% of queries being answered badly as a result. Notably, no complex architectures or training procedures were necessary for the above; the data needed to produce report cards is readily available, and fine-tuning is often offered by service providers for even closed models.

2 PRELIMINARIES

Large Language Models (LLMs). LLMs are a class of (typically autoregressive) extremely large pretrained sequential models (in the billions of parameters), predominantly based on the transformer architecture (Vaswani et al., 2017) (see also the earlier Unnormalized Linear Transformer (Schmidhuber, 1992; Schlag et al., 2021)). They are trained on large text corpora, learning a probability distribution over a sequence of tokens which can be later used for text completion (i.e., text generation). As such, these models excel at understanding, generating, and processing human language. Mathematically, an LLM generates a sequence of tokens $y_1, \ldots, y_L$ for a given input prompt x by modeling the conditional probability $P(y_1, \ldots, y_L | x; \theta) = \prod_{t=1}^{L} P(y_t | y_{<t}, x; \theta)$, where $y_{<t}$ denotes previously generated tokens and θ represents the model's learned parameters. The transformer architecture (the backbone of most LLMs) models a sequence of input embeddings $X = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ using stacked layers of self-attention and feed-forward blocks. Each self-attention block computes new representations Z as $Z = \mathrm{softmax}\left(\frac{QK^\top}{\sqrt{d_k}}\right)V$, where $Q = XW_Q$, $K = XW_K$, $V = XW_V$ are learned linear projections of the input, and d_k is the key dimension. Positional encodings are added to X to retain order information. This architecture is exceptionally parallelizable and has an extraordinary ability for modeling long-range dependencies (Yun et al., 2020). Research has demonstrated that LLMs, particularly when augmented with an external read-write memory, are Turing complete, capable of simulating any algorithm (Schuurmans, 2023). The behavior of an LLM is heavily guided by *prompts*, with carefully crafted, context-rich instructions being essential for achieving high-quality and task-aligned outputs (FAANG, 2024). Although their pre-training imbues them with broad knowledge, to further align their output to human preferences and intents, LLMs are frequently fine-tuned (see, e.g., DeepSeek-AI et al. (2025); Muldrew et al. (2024)). This alignment helps to make models more helpful, harmless, and honest.

Agentic Systems/Agentic AI. Building upon the capabilities of individual LLMs, *agentic systems* (sometimes called Agentic AI) are modular AI architectures that orchestrate one or more LLM invocations through arbitrary control flow, often integrating external tool calls (Du et al., 2024; Schick et al., 2023; Zeng et al., 2023; Zhuge et al., 2023). These systems differ from standalone LLMs by their ability to engage in multi-step reasoning, planning, and acting to solve complex tasks autonomously or semi-autonomously (Zhuge et al., 2023; 2025). This multi-step approach enables decomposition of complex problems into manageable subtasks and allows for iterative refinement based on intermediate results—capabilities that single-pass LLM inference cannot achieve (Zhuge et al., 2025). The internal workflow of an agentic system can be conceptualized as a directed graph $G = (V, E)$, where each node $v \in V$ represents an LLM call, tool execution, or decision point, and the edges $(u, v) \in E$ denote dependencies between actions (Zhuge et al., 2025). Tool use represents a fundamental form of agentic AI, enabling systems to dynamically interact with environments and access specialized capabilities such as code interpreters and search engines (Schick et al., 2023; Qin et al., 2024). This approach extends LLM capabilities beyond their training limitations through external resource integration. A prominent application of agentic systems is automated evaluation through *LLM-as-a-Judge* frameworks, which utilize LLMs to assess text generation quality and model behavior (Li et al., 2024b). These frameworks can be extended into *Agent-as-a-Judge* systems that leverage full agentic capabilities to provide richer evaluation feedback, including assessment of tool use and multi-step reasoning processes (Zhuge et al., 2025).

3 Experimental Setup

We experiment with five (5) datasets that are commonly used in the literature: MedQA, which contains queries asking for a medical diagnosis (Jin et al., 2020); LongFact, which contains factual trivia (Wei et al., 2024); AIME 2024, which contains competition-level maths problems (HuggingFaceH4, 2025); SciCode, which contains requests for producing code for scientific purposes (Tian et al., 2024); and MMLU-Pro, which contains general undergraduate-level examination questions (Wang et al., 2024c). In Appendix H, we experiment with a sixth dataset, CommonsenseQA (Talmor et al., 2019), which contains common-sense knowledge questions, to measure the hold-out performance of the predictors. Altogether, these datasets cover a broad range of application cases for LLMs.

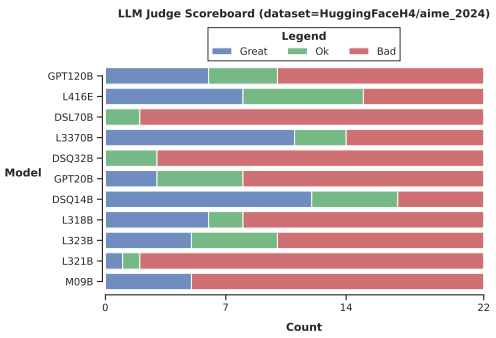


Figure 2: The distribution of the LLM judge scores for each of the models on the AIME 2024 dataset. Note that the poor performance of some reasoning models here was due to us limiting reasoning models to producing no more than 24576 tokens.

Our experiments considered 11 models spanning 0.9 billion (B) to 120B parameters. Non-reasoning models considered were MobileLLM 0.9B (**M09B**; 0.9B) (Liu et al., 2024b), Llama 3.1 8B Instruct (**L318B**; 8.03B) (Grattafiori et al., 2024), Llama 3.2 1B Instruct (**L321B**; 1.24B) and 3B Instruct (**L323B**; 3.21B) (Meta AI, 2024), Llama 3.3 70B Instruct (**L3370B**; 70.6B) (Meta AI, 2024), and Llama 4 Scout 17B 16E Instruct (**L416E**; 109B) (Meta AI, 2025). Reasoning models considered were DeepSeek R1 Distilled Qwen 14B (**DSQ14B**; 14.8B), Distilled Qwen 32B (**DSQ32B**; 32.8B), and Distilled Llama 70B (**DSL70B**; 70.6B) (DeepSeek-AI et al., 2025); as well as GPT OSS 20B (**GPT20B**; 21.5B) and 120B (**GPT120B**; 120B) (OpenAI, 2025). All parameter counts are taken from HuggingFace Safetensor values to ensure equal treatment between models. Note that all these models are instruct models, except MobileLLM, which is the base model, as no instruct version exists. We use Llama 3.3 70B as our judge, instructing it to evaluate all the responses of the models to the query (we also provided any relevant answers included in the dataset to the judge) according to a predefined rubric. Llama 3.3 70B remains a well-studied model with robust performance, making it well-suited to use as a judge here. We include an ablation using GPT OSS 120B as a judge in Appendix I, which confirms that our findings generalize across evaluators. The rubric used is shown in Prompt 11 alongside all the other prompts used in Appendix D. To ground evaluations more, we had the judge simultaneously evaluate the responses of all the models for one query. We performed an ablation experiment that confirms the independent evaluations led to less diversity between the models in Appendix F. In addition to providing a grade for each response of either "great," "ok," or

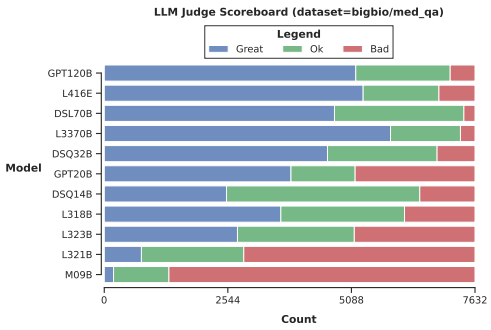


Figure 3: The distribution of the LLM judge scores for each of the models on the MedQA dataset. Note the wide spread of performance here across the different models.

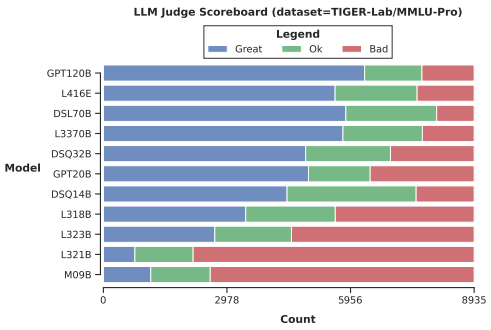


Figure 5: The distribution of the LLM judge scores for each of the models on the MMLU-Pro dataset. We provide a per-category breakdown in Figure 12 in Subsection 4.1.

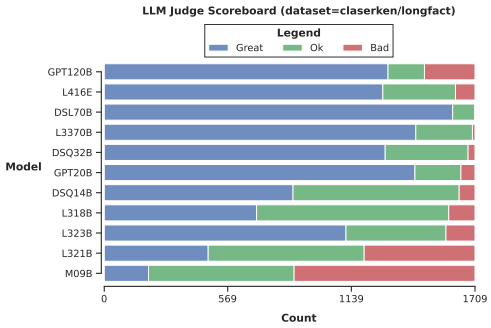


Figure 4: The distribution of the LLM judge scores for each of the models on the LongFact dataset. Much of this information is in-distribution, so most LLMs can do well here.

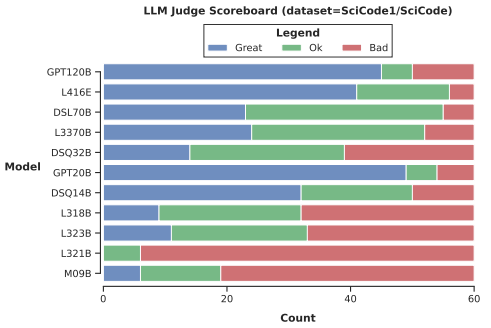


Figure 6: The distribution of the LLM judge scores for each of the models on the SciCode dataset. This dataset involves coding so most models struggle here.

"bad," the judge was instructed to provide a rationale for why it gave each response the grade it gave them. We selected Llama 3.3 70B as our ad-hoc observations found that it was able to effectively follow the instructions given and generally gave good rationales for its grading. In cases where the response given by the judge could not be parsed, one request was made to correct it. Cases where the corrected response could not be parsed were negligible.

The distribution of scores given by the LLM judge for each of the models on each of the datasets is shown in Figures 2 to 6. These results roughly conform to expectations, with most models doing **(1)** well with basic factual information, **(2)** poorly with mathematic questions, **(3)** larger and reasoning models doing better than smaller and non-reasoning models, and **(4)** newer models doing better for their size than older models.

3.1 Judge-noise Ceiling

To assess the judge's reliability, we re-graded the same judge's responses to the models' previous responses five (5) separate times, but with the judge's temperature set to 1. The responses are held fixed, so any disagreement among the five gradings reflects the judge's own inconsistency. This gives us the judge's own inconsistency, which we summarize using a leave-one-out estimate: for each response, we check if it matches the mode of the other four. When directly mapping a judge's responses to grades, we find that this gives an average prediction ceiling of about 83% (varying from 78% to 89% between models). When mapping judge responses to positive and negative (i.e., grouping "ok" and "great" together)—the relevant scenario for routing, this gives an average prediction ceiling of about 94% of the time (varying from 92% to 96% between models).

4 ZERO-SHOT AND IN CONTEXT PREDICTION

LLMs have demonstrated strong generalization abilities across a broad range of tasks (Brown et al., 2020; Wei et al., 2022), making it reasonable to think that a model might be able to predict their performance pre-hoc if the judge is provided with a generic rubric. We experiment with a model's ability to directly predict how an LLM judge would score their response without any context apart from the query (see Prompt 3 in Appendix D for the exact query given to the model here). The context for all the models was limited to one round of interactions, i.e., one query. The prediction performance of the models in the zero-shot case is shown alongside our other results in Figures 7 to 11. We provide a summary of these results in Table 3 in Appendix B.

Zero-shot Results. The key observation to take from the zero-shot results in Figures 7 to 11 is that **(1)** the prediction performance of the models varied wildly based on the dataset used, **(2)** reasoning models exhibited an often better ability to estimate their own performance, and **(3)** smaller models typically performed at or worse than a random guess accuracy.

Based on the large variation observed in model and prediction performance by dataset, it seems reasonable that a promising approach would be to determine the kind of query and predict based on that. To that end, we produce a "report card" for each model based on their performance on the datasets (see Figures 2 to 6). This report card simply provides the mode of the scores for that model on that dataset. These mode scores are given in Appendix E with the report card structure shown in Prompt 5 in Appendix D (we provide an ablation on the report card structure in Appendix J).

Contextual Results. The results of the report card-based, or contextual prediction performance are given alongside the previous results in Figures 7 to 11. The effect of the report card is particularly good on the smaller and non-reasoning models, enabling them to work in a PA paradigm. This suggests that the inclusion of the report card was effective with the small models on allowing them to categorize the query and match it to their skill sets, validating the hypothesis that even a small model can work in a PA paradigm with the right information. We further validate the report card approach with the ablation given in Appendix K, which confirms that the approach is reasonably robust to even major variations in the rubric.

4.1 MMLU-PRO CATEGORY RESULTS

One common argument against LLM judges is that they might be unreliable. While this has been refuted (see, e.g., Zheng et al. (2023)), this does not preclude the possibility that the particular judge used here could be highly stochastic. To test this, we split the queries in the MMLU-Pro dataset up by category and observed the performance score distribution of the models and their predictions as a function of the category. Figure 12 shows the probability that the judge gives a score of "great" or "ok" for each model on the MMLU-Pro dataset as a function of the category. The conclusion that can be drawn from Figure 12 is that the distribution of scores given by the judge is less affected by the category than by the model, implying a comparatively lower variance in the judging.

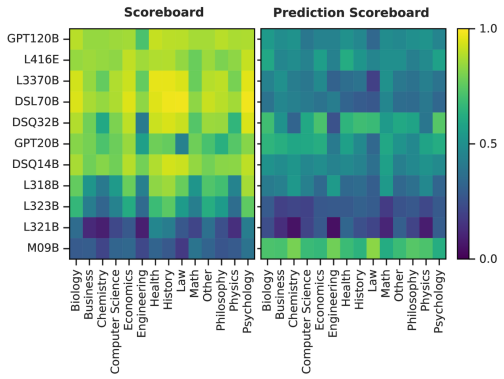


Figure 12: The probability of a model receiving a grade of "great" or "ok" (left) and correctly predicting its score zero-shot (right) as a function of the query's category on the MMLU-Pro dataset.

Figure 12 also shows the probability that the model correctly predicts its score zero-shot. Again, the variance is more visible across models than categories, suggesting that the categorization ability of the models has not been deeply affected by the variance of the judge (note that we would expect roughly equal performance on a dataset given the homogeneity of the datasets in the kind of queries they ask and the broad generalization of the models in certain kinds of queries).

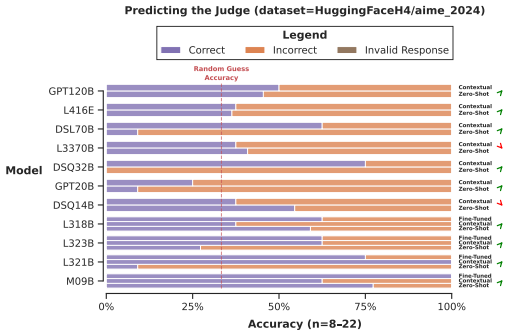


Figure 7: The prediction accuracy of all the models on the AIME 2024 dataset (a green arrow indicates improvement over zero-shot). Note the dramatic improvement for smallest models here.

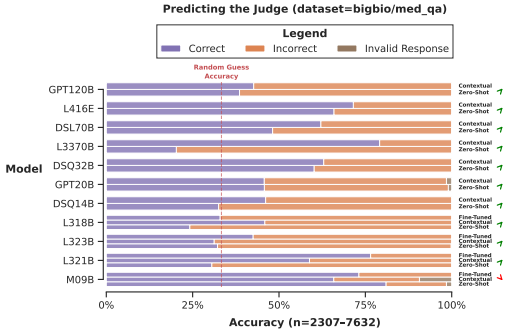


Figure 8: The prediction accuracy of all the models on the MedQA dataset (a green arrow indicates improvement over zero-shot). Note how dramatic the improvement offered to even big non-reasoning models is (i.e., L3370B here).

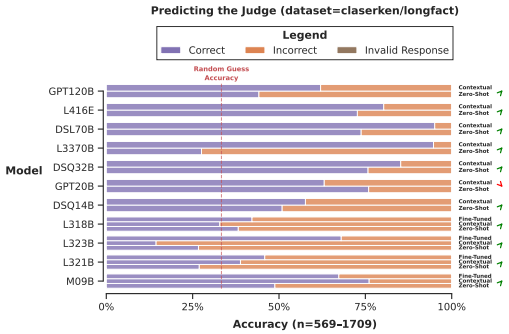


Figure 9: The prediction accuracy of all the models on the LongFact dataset (a green arrow indicates improvement over zero-shot). Note that, even on a dataset where all the models do well, their predictions are better in the contextual/fine-tuning setting.

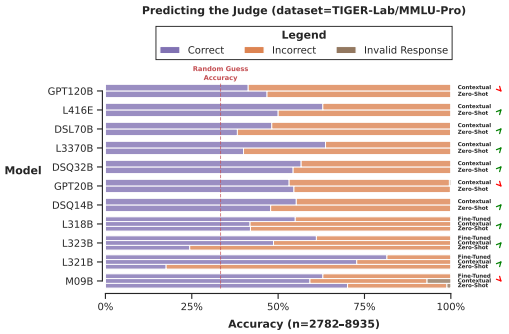


Figure 10: The prediction accuracy of all the models on the MMLU-Pro dataset (a green arrow indicates improvement over zero-shot). We provide a per-category breakdown of the zero-shot results in Figure 12 in Section 4.1.

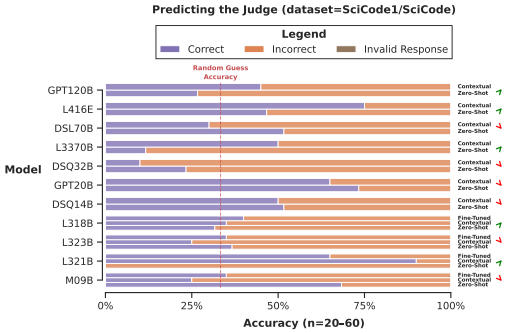


Figure 11: The prediction accuracy of all the models on the SciCode dataset (a green arrow indicates improvement over zero-shot). This is the only dataset where the contextual/fine-tuning approach frequently didn't help. We hypothesize that the judge was not sophisticated enough to evaluate models on this dataset (see, e.g., Zhuge et al. (2025)).

Dataset	**M09B**	**L321B**	**L323B**	**L318B**
MedQA	-.09	+.46	+.10	+.09
LongFact	+.19	+.19	+.41	+.04
AIME 2024	+.23	+.66	+.35	+.03
MMLU-Pro	-.07	+.64	+.37	+.13
SciCode	-.33	+.65	-.02	+.08
Mean	-.02	**+.52**	+.24	+.07

Table 1: Summary of the improvement in the prediction accuracy for the fine-tuned models as compared with the zero-shot setting. For a summary of the contextual setting results, see Table 3 in Appendix B.

5 FINE-TUNING APPROACH

The biggest drawback of using report cards to allow a model to estimate its performance is that it necessitates a model processing the large number of tokens needed for a comprehensive report card. While the cost of producing input tokens is relatively inexpensive compared to output tokens (Shi et al., 2024; Li et al., 2025a), we nevertheless conducted an ablation where we use shorter report cards (see Appendix J), but this resulted in a notable drop in prediction accuracy. To get the best of both worlds, in this section we experimented with fine-tuning versions of the small models to perform these predictions without a report card.

To accomplish the above, we produced a dataset of zero-shot prompts and the respective zero-shot model evaluations collected in Section 4. We then applied the hindsight trick (see, e.g., Andrychowicz et al. (2017)) to relabel the zero-shot predictions as though they were accurate. Afterwards, we applied supervised fine-tuning (Ouyang et al., 2022) using this data to MobileLLM 0.9B, Llama 3.1 8B, and Llama 3.2 1B and 3B. We refer to these models fine-tuned to predict as MP09B, LP318B, LP321B, and LP323B, respectively. Note that none of the base models are reasoning models (so these models enable the PA rather than RPRA paradigm) and the respective output for the prediction should be one token.

The results of this fine-tuning approach are presented alongside our other results in Figures 7 to 11, with an arrow annotation indicating if either the contextual or fine-tuning approach improved the prediction performance (a green arrow denotes an improvement). We provide a summary of these results in Table 1. The prediction quality of the fine-tuned models is clearly at or above the performance of even the report card-based predictions. However, as with the report cards, the prediction quality is heavily dependent on the dataset and is much stronger in the smaller models (where the distribution of judge evaluations is more concentrated).

Altogether, this suggests that models fine-tuned to predict can enable the PA paradigm with prediction performance at or above the endowment given by a report card.

6 COST-EFFICIENT ROUTING

One key benefit of these models is that they can route queries they believe they can't answer away to a larger model. In this section we look at the impact of this with the fine-tuning models (we give the full results for all the models in Appendix M). Table 2 reports the resulting routing behavior, macro-averaged over the five datasets. Notably, the number of bad answers a model gives is small relative to how much it is able to route away: the fine-tuned L323B (3.21B), for example, routes roughly two thirds of its queries to a larger model while only around 5% of all queries are kept yet graded bad. The smallest models route almost everything away, whereas the larger fine-tuned models keep more queries at the cost of letting somewhat more bad answers through. Altogether, this confirms that such models provide a compelling trade-off for a substantial reduction in computation in exchange for only a modest decline in overall output quality.

Model	Acc	Route%	Bad%
M09B	0.605	98.1	0.8
L321B	0.772	88.7	3.2
L323B	0.597	66.0	5.2
L318B	0.684	39.3	8.9

Table 2: Routing metrics for the fine-tuned predictors, averaged over the five datasets (each weighted equally). Acc is the binary bad-vs-not-bad prediction accuracy, Route% is the percentage of queries that are predicted to be bad (and so routed to a larger model), and Bad% is the percentage of all queries that would still be graded "bad" under this routing, assuming the larger model that queries are routed to is never graded bad, so that it approximates the additional accuracy cost incurred by the routing.

7 RELATED WORK

We present the most relevant related work below, with an additional supplementary discussion of other (less-)related work in Appendix A.

LLM and Agentic Judges. The advent of Large Language Models (LLMs) has catalyzed their adoption as automated evaluators, particularly through the *LLM-as-a-Judge* paradigm (Zheng et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2023; Fu et al., 2024a). This approach leverages powerful foundation models to

assess text quality, dialogue performance, and agent behavior, offering a scalable and cost-effective alternative to human evaluation. Studies demonstrate that single-LLM judges can achieve high correlation (Spearman coefficients of ≈ 0.8) with aggregated human preferences across diverse tasks (Zheng et al., 2023). However, this paradigm faces big limitations. Single-judge systems are prone to systematic biases, including preferences for specific output lengths, styles, or verbosity (Dubois et al., 2024). They also exhibit vulnerabilities to adversarial attacks and may fail to detect nuanced factual inaccuracies or complex reasoning errors (Eiras et al., 2025; Li et al., 2025b). Recent work has further highlighted position bias (Wang et al., 2024a) and limited reasoning depth in complex evaluation scenarios. To address these challenges, the research community has progressed to *Agent-as-a-Judge* and multi-agent evaluation frameworks. These systems employ multiple LLM agents that collaborate, debate, or assume specialized roles (e.g., Grader, Critic, Defender) to produce more robust and reliable assessments (Chen et al., 2025). Notable implementations include MAJ-EVAL (Chen et al., 2025), featuring a multi-agent jury; AGENTSCOURT (He et al., 2024) for competitive agent environments; and FINCON (Yu et al., 2024) for multi-agent financial decision making. Recent advancements also explore *debate-based evaluation* (Chan et al., 2024) and *iterative refinement* processes (Liang et al., 2024) to enhance judgment quality. Nevertheless, multi-agent judges introduce new complexities, such as potential collusion when agents share similar model backbones, emergent group biases, and increased computational costs (Chan et al., 2024; Liang et al., 2024). The search for optimal agent architectures and interaction protocols remains an active area of research (e.g., see the work by Qin et al. (2024) or Wu et al. (2024)). **Our work diverges** from these directions by not aiming to improve the judging mechanism itself. Instead, we focus on *preemptively predicting the scores* that an LLM or agentic judge would assign to a model's response *before* its generation. This approach enables more efficient system design, rapid prototyping, and optimal resource allocation by shifting the focus from *being* the evaluator to *anticipating* the evaluation outcome.

Predicting Model Performance. Another line of research explores models' abilities to self-assess or predict aspects of their own performance, particularly regarding confidence estimation and hallucination mitigation. CONFQA, for example, introduces a fine-tuning strategy that explicitly trains LLMs to express uncertainty when lacking confidence in factual statements, significantly reducing hallucination rates through dampening prompts and factual calibration (Huang et al., 2025). Similarly, Ren et al. (2023) proposed using self-evaluation scores for selective generation, where LLMs decide when to abstain from generating to boost accuracy by reformulating open-ended tasks into token-level predictions. DEEPCONF contributes to efficient reasoning by filtering low-confidence reasoning traces and enabling early termination based on local confidence signals, thereby optimizing computational overhead (Fu et al., 2024b). **Our work diverges** significantly from these internal confidence mechanisms. Rather than focusing on self-assessment or selective generation, we aim to predict the scores assigned by *external* LLM or agentic judges to a model's response *before* generation occurs. This involves learning to anticipate evaluator judgments directly, encompassing both zero-shot and contextual predictions based on historical performance data. This pre-hoc prediction enables resource optimization without requiring real-time introspection or response generation.

8 CONCLUSION

In this work, we examined the viability of PA and RPRA paradigms where language models predict the quality of their own responses as judged by an external agentic (LLM-based) evaluator. Our results show that while larger models tend to be better calibrated in their self-assessments, smaller models often exhibit overconfidence or underconfidence. To address this, we proposed two approaches: providing models with report cards summarizing their historical performance, and fine-tuning models specifically for performance prediction. Both methods enable smaller models to follow the PA paradigm effectively, with the degree of improvement depending on model size and task difficulty. Concretely, routing with a fine-tuned Llama 3.2 3B offloads about two-thirds of queries to a larger model while only about 5% of all queries are answered badly as a result of the one-third it answers. Altogether, we believe that this work represents a step forward in increasing the usability of small language models by enabling effective PA and RPRA paradigms.

This work looked at the realizability of obtaining these predictions and illustrated their use for cost-efficient routing. Future work will focus on optimizations in the use of these predictions in deployment scenarios, including in multi-turn interactions and with different judges, such as alignment-focused ones. We discuss other limitations of our approach in Appendix C.

USE OF LARGE LANGUAGE MODELS IN WRITING

LLMs were used throughout the writing of the paper as general-purpose assist tools. In particular, they were used to draft, refine, and polish sections of the paper as well as to discover and compare some relevant works. Only some Appendix sections can be said to be exempt of the above, with the contribution of the LLMs in writing being less pronounced around precise factual areas of the text (i.e., where the exact choice of words was critical for correctness). They were additionally used to draft and extend some parts of the source code used to run the experiments presented here.

ETHICS STATEMENT

This paper presents work that enables more efficient deployment of large language models. By enabling smaller models to recognize their own limitations, the PA and RPRA paradigms advocated for here could reduce computational costs and energy consumption associated with LLM inference. We see no obvious negative societal consequences of this work requiring special attention.

REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT

All experiments were performed on one machine with eight (8) NVIDIA H100 chips. Replicating all the experiments run in the paper requires approximately forty-eight (48) hours on such a machine. All of the datasets and models were taken from HuggingFace directly. Existing splits in the datasets were merged, and then a 75/25 split was made (using a static seed) to produce a training and testing set (hence the ranges of values in the value of n in several plots). The distribution of judge scores and zero-shot results in the paper refer to the training set (note that this acts as a test set for the zero-shot results and is statistically equivalent to producing these results on the test set). The contextual and fine-tuning results in the paper refer to the testing set. The full source code to replicate our experiments is available at REDACTED TO PRESERVE DOUBLE-BLIND

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

REDACTED TO PRESERVE DOUBLE-BLIND

REFERENCES

Marcin Andrychowicz, Dwight Crow, Alex Ray, Jonas Schneider, Rachel Fong, Peter Welinder, Bob McGrew, Josh Tobin, Pieter Abbeel, and Wojciech Zaremba. Hindsight experience replay. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 30:5048–5058, 2017. URL https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper_files/paper/2017/file/453fadbd8a1a3af50a9df4df899537b5-Paper.pdf.

Jacob Austin, Augustus Odena, Maxwell I. Nye, Maarten Bosma, Henryk Michalewski, David Dohan, Ellen Jiang, Carrie J. Cai, Michael Terry, Quoc V. Le, and Charles Sutton. *Program Synthesis with Large Language Models*. arXiv, 2021. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2108.07732.

BlakeSergin. *How many r's in Strawberry? Why is this a very difficult question for the AI?* Reddit, 2024. URL https://www.reddit.com/r/singularity/comments/1enqk04/how_many_rs_in_strawberry_why_is_this_a_very/.

Tom B. Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, Melanie Subbiah, Jared Kaplan, Prafulla Dhariwal, Arvind Neelakantan, Pranav Shyam, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, Sandhini Agarwal, Ariel Herbert-Voss, Gretchen Krueger, Tom Henighan, Rewon Child, Aditya Ramesh, Daniel M. Ziegler, Jeffrey Wu, Clemens Winter, Christopher Hesse, Mark Chen, Eric Sigler, Mateusz Litwin, Scott Gray, Benjamin Chess, Jack Clark, Christopher Berner, Sam McCandlish, Alec Radford, Ilya Sutskever, and Dario Amodei. Language models are few-shot learners. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 33:1877–1901, 2020. URL https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper_files/paper/2020/file/1457c0d6bfcb4967418bfb8ac142f64a-Paper.pdf.

Chi-Min Chan, Weize Chen, Yusheng Su, Jianxuan Yu, Wei Xue, Shanghang Zhang, Jie Fu, and Zhiyuan Liu. ChatEval: Towards better llm-based evaluators through multi-agent debate. *Proceedings of the 12th International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2024. URL https://openreview.net/pdf?id=FQepisCUWu.

Jiaju Chen, Yuxuan Lu, Xiaojie Wang, Huimin Zeng, Jing Huang, Jiri Gesi, Ying Xu, Bingsheng Yao, and Dakuo Wang. *Multi-Agent-as-Judge: Aligning LLM-Agent-Based Automated Evaluation with Multi-Dimensional Human Evaluation*. arXiv, 2025. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2507.21028.

Mark Chen, Jerry Tworek, Heewoo Jun, Qiming Yuan, Henrique Pondé de Oliveira Pinto, Jared Kaplan, Harri Edwards, Yuri Burda, Nicholas Joseph, Greg Brockman, Alex Ray, Raul Puri, Gretchen Krueger, Michael Petrov, Heidy Khlaaf, Girish Sastry, Pamela Mishkin, Brooke Chan, Scott Gray, Nick Ryder, Mikhail Pavlov, Alethea Power, Lukasz Kaiser, Mohammad Bavarian, Clemens Winter, Philippe Tillet, Felipe Petroski Such, Dave Cummings, Matthias Plappert, Fotios Chantzis, Elizabeth Barnes, Ariel Herbert-Voss, William Hebgen Guss, Alex Nichol, Alex Paino, Nikolas Tezak, Jie Tang, Igor Babuschkin, Suchir Balaji, Shantanu Jain, William Saunders, Christopher Hesse, Andrew N. Carr, Jan Leike, Joshua Achiam, Vedant Misra, Evan Morikawa, Alec Radford, Matthew Knight, Miles Brundage, Mira Murati, Katie Mayer, Peter Welinder, Bob McGrew, Dario Amodei, Sam McCandlish, Ilya Sutskever, and Wojciech Zaremba. *Evaluating Large Language Models Trained on Code*. arXiv, 2021. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2107.03374.

Wei-Lin Chiang, Zhuohan Li, Zi Lin, Ying Sheng, Zhanghao Wu, Hao Zhang, Lianmin Zheng, Siyuan Zhuang, Yonghao Zhuang, Joseph E. Gonzalez, Ion Stoica, and Eric P. Xing. *Vicuna: An Open-Source Chatbot Impressing GPT-4 with 90%* ChatGPT Quality*. LMSYS Corp., 2023. URL https://lmsys.org/blog/2023-03-30-vicuna/.

Karl Cobbe, Vineet Kosaraju, Mohammad Bavarian, Mark Chen, Heewoo Jun, Lukasz Kaiser, Matthias Plappert, Jerry Tworek, Jacob Hilton, Reiichiro Nakano, Christopher Hesse, and John Schulman. *Training Verifiers to Solve Math Word Problems*. arXiv, 2021. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2110.14168.

Stephen A. Cook. The complexity of theorem-proving procedures. *Proceedings of the 3rd Annual ACM Symposium on Theory of Computing*, pp. 151–158, 1971. doi: 10.1145/800157.805047.

DeepSeek-AI, Daya Guo, Dejian Yang, Haowei Zhang, Junxiao Song, Ruoyu Zhang, Runxin Xu, Qihao Zhu, Shirong Ma, Peiyi Wang, Xiao Bi, Xiaokang Zhang, Xingkai Yu, Yu Wu, Z. F. Wu, Zhibin Gou, Zhihong Shao, Zhuoshu Li, Ziyi Gao, Aixin Liu, Bing Xue, Bingxuan Wang, Bochao Wu, Bei Feng, Chengda Lu, Chenggang Zhao, Chengqi Deng, Chenyu Zhang, Chong Ruan, Damai Dai, Deli Chen, Dongjie Ji, Erhang Li, Fangyun Lin, Fucong Dai, Fuli Luo, Guangbo Hao, Guanting Chen, Guowei Li, H. Zhang, Han Bao, Hanwei Xu, Haocheng Wang, Honghui Ding, Huajian Xin, Huazuo Gao, Hui Qu, Hui Li, Jianzhong Guo, Jiashi Li, Jiawei Wang, Jingchang Chen, Jingyang Yuan, Junjie Qiu, Junlong Li, J. L. Cai, Jiaqi Ni, Jian Liang, Jin Chen, Kai Dong, Kai Hu, Kaige Gao, Kang Guan, Kexin Huang, Kuai Yu, Lean Wang, Lecong Zhang, Liang Zhao, Litong Wang, Liyue Zhang, Lei Xu, Leyi Xia, Mingchuan Zhang, Minghua Zhang, Minghui Tang, Meng Li, Miaojun Wang, Mingming Li, Ning Tian, Panpan Huang, Peng Zhang, Qiancheng Wang, Qinyu Chen, Qiushi Du, Ruiqi Ge, Ruisong Zhang, Ruizhe Pan, Runji Wang, R. J. Chen, R. L. Jin, Ruyi Chen, Shanghao Lu, Shangyan Zhou, Shanhuang Chen, Shengfeng Ye, Shiyu Wang, Shuiping Yu, Shunfeng Zhou, Shuting Pan, and S. S. Li. *DeepSeek-R1: Incentivizing Reasoning Capability in LLMs via Reinforcement Learning*. arXiv, 2025. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2501.12948.

Yilun Du, Shuang Li, Antonio Torralba, Joshua B. Tenenbaum, and Igor Mordatch. Improving factuality and reasoning in language models through multiagent debate. *Proceedings of the 41st International Conference on Machine Learning*, 235:11733–11763, 2024. URL https://raw.githubusercontent.com/mlresearch/v235/main/assets/du24e/du24e.pdf.

Yann Dubois, Balázs Galambosi, Percy Liang, and Tatsunori B. Hashimoto. *Length-Controlled AlpacaEval: A Simple Way to Debias Automatic Evaluators*. arXiv, 2024. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2404.04475.

Francisco Eiras, Eliott Zemour, Eric Lin, and Vaikkunth Mugunthan. *Know Thy Judge: On the Robustness Meta-Evaluation of LLM Safety Judges*. arXiv, 2025. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2503.04474.

FAANG. *Advanced Prompt Engineering: Building Production-Grade LLM Systems*. Medium, 2024. URL https://medium.com/@FAANG/advanced-prompt-engineering-building-production-grade-llm-systems-e2143fd7fffd.

Chrisantha Fernando, Dylan Banarse, Henryk Michalewski, Simon Osindero, and Tim Rocktäschel. Promptbreeder: Self-referential self-improvement via prompt evolution. *Proceedings of the 41st International Conference on Machine Learning*, 235:13481–13544, 2024. URL https://raw.githubusercontent.com/mlresearch/v235/main/assets/fernando24a/fernando24a.pdf.

Elias Frantar, Saleh Ashkboos, Torsten Hoefler, and Dan Alistarh. *GPTQ: Accurate Post-Training Quantization for Generative Pre-trained Transformers*. arXiv, 2022. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2210.17323.

Jinlan Fu, See-Kiong Ng, Zhengbao Jiang, and Pengfei Liu. GPTScore: Evaluate as you desire. *Proceedings of the 2024 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies*, pp. 6556–6576, 2024a. doi: 10.18653/v1/2024.naacl-long.365.

Yichao Fu, Xuewei Wang, Yuandong Tian, and Jiawei Zhao. *Deep Think with Confidence*. arXiv, 2024b. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2508.15260.

Michael R. Garey and David S. Johnson. *Computers and Intractability: A Guide to the Theory of NP-Completeness*. W. H. Freeman, 1979.

Aaron Grattafiori, Abhimanyu Dubey, Abhinav Jauhri, Abhinav Pandey, Abhishek Kadian, Ahmad Al-Dahle, Aiesha Letman, Akhil Mathur, Alan Schelten, Alex Vaughan, Amy Yang, Angela Fan, Anirudh Goyal, Anthony Hartshorn, Aobo Yang, Archi Mitra, Archie Sravankumar, Artem Korenev, Arthur Hinsvark, Arun Rao, Aston Zhang, Aurelien Rodriguez, Austen Gregerson, Ava Spataru, Baptiste Roziere, Bethany Biron, Binh Tang, Bobbie Chern, Charlotte Caucheteux, Chaya Nayak, Chloe Bi, Chris Marra, Chris McConnell, Christian Keller, Christophe Touret, Chunyang Wu, Corinne Wong, Cristian Canton Ferrer, Cyrus Nikolaidis, Damien Allonsius, Daniel Song, Danielle Pintz, Danny Livshits, Danny Wyatt, David Esiobu, Dhruv Choudhary, Dhruv Mahajan, Diego Garcia-Olano, Diego Perino, Dieuwke Hupkes, Egor Lakomkin, Ehab AlBadawy, Elina Lobanova, Emily Dinan, Eric Michael Smith, Filip Radenovic, Francisco Guzmán, Frank Zhang, Gabriel Synnaeve, Gabrielle Lee, Georgia Lewis Anderson, Govind Thattai, Graeme Nail, Gregoire Mialon, Guan Pang, Guillem Cucurell, Hailey Nguyen, Hannah Korevaar, Hu Xu, Hugo Touvron, Iliyan Zarov, Imanol Arrieta Ibarra, Isabel Kloumann, Ishan Misra, Ivan Evtimov, Jack Zhang, Jade Copet, Jaewon Lee, Jan Geffert, Jana Vranes, Jason Park, Jay Mahadeokar, Jeet Shah, Jelmer van der Linde, Jennifer Billock, Jenny Hong, Jenya Lee, Jeremy Fu, Jianfeng Chi, Jianyu Huang, Jiawen Liu, Jie Wang, Jiecao Yu, Joanna Bitton, Joe Spisak, Jongsoo Park, Joseph Rocca, Joshua Johnstun, Joshua Saxe, Junteng Jia, Kalyan Vasuden Alwala, Karthik Prasad, Kartikeya Upasani, Kate Plawiak, Ke Li, Kenneth Heafield, Kevin Stone, Khalid El-Arini, Krithika Iyer, Kshitiz Malik, Kuenley Chiu, Kunal Bhalla, Kushal Lakhotia, Lauren Rantala-Yeary, Laurens van der Maaten, Lawrence Chen, Liang Tan, Liz Jenkins, Louis Martin, Lovish Madaan, Lubo Malo, Lukas Blecher, Lukas Landzaat, Luke de Oliveira, Madeline Muzzi, Mahesh Pasupuleti, Mannat Singh, Manohar Paluri, Marcin Kardas, Maria Tsimpoukelli, Mathew Oldham, Mathieu Rita, Maya Pavlova, Melanie Kambadur, Mike Lewis, Min Si, Mitesh Kumar Singh, Mona Hassan, Naman Goyal, Narjes Torabi, Nikolay Bashlykov, Nikolay Bogoychev, Niladri Chatterji, Ning Zhang, Olivier Duchenne, Onur Çelebi, Patrick Alrassy, Pengchuan Zhang, Pengwei Li, Petar Vasic, Peter Weng, Prajjwal Bhargava, Pratik Dubal, Praveen Krishnan, Punit Singh Koura, Puxin Xu, Qing He, Qingxiao Dong, Ragavan Srinivasan, Raj Ganapathy, Ramon Calderer, Ricardo Silveira Cabral, Robert Stojnic, Roberta Raileanu, Rohan Maheswari, Rohit Girdhar, Rohit Patel, Romain Sauvestre, Ronnie Polidoro, Roshan Sumbaly, Ross Taylor, Ruan Silva, Rui Hou, Rui Wang, Saghar Hosseini, Sahana Chennabasappa, Sanjay Singh, Sean Bell, Seohyun Sonia Kim, Sergey Edunov, Shaoliang Nie, Sharan Narang, Sharath Raparthy, Sheng Shen, Shengye Wan, Shruti Bhosale, Shun Zhang, Simon Vandenhende, Soumya Batra, Spencer Whitman, Sten Sootla, Stephane Collot, Suchin Gururangan, Sydney Borodinsky, Tamar Herman, Tara Fowler, Tarek Sheasha, Thomas Georgiou, Thomas Scialom, Tobias Speckbacher, Todor Mihaylov, Tong Xiao, Ujjwal Karn, Vedanuj Goswami, Vibhor Gupta, Vignesh Ramanathan, Viktor Kerkez, Vincent Gonguet, Virginie Do, Vish Vogeti, Vítor Albiero, Vladan Petrovic, Weiwei Chu, Wenhan Xiong, Wenyin Fu, Whitney Meers, Xavier Martinet, Xiaodong Wang, Xiaofang Wang, Xiaoqing Ellen Tan, Xide

Xia, Xinfeng Xie, Xuchao Jia, Xuewei Wang, Yaelle Goldschlag, Yashesh Gaur, Yasmine Babaei, Yi Wen, Yiwen Song, Yuchen Zhang, Yue Li, Yuning Mao, Zacharie Delpierre Coudert, Zheng Yan, Zhengxing Chen, Zoe Papakipos, Aaditya Singh, Aayushi Srivastava, Abha Jain, Adam Kelsey, Adam Shajnfeld, Adithya Gangidi, Adolfo Victoria, Ahuva Goldstand, Ajay Menon, Ajay Sharma, Alex Boesenberg, Alexei Baevski, Allie Feinstein, Amanda Kallet, Amit Sangani, Amos Teo, Anam Yunus, Andrei Lupu, Andres Alvarado, Andrew Caples, Andrew Gu, Andrew Ho, Andrew Poulton, Andrew Ryan, Ankit Ramchandani, Annie Dong, Annie Franco, Anuj Goyal, Aparajita Saraf, Arkabandhu Chowdhury, Ashley Gabriel, Ashwin Bharambe, Assaf Eisenman, Azadeh Yazdan, Beau James, Ben Maurer, Benjamin Leonhardi, Bernie Huang, Beth Loyd, Beto De Paola, Bhargavi Paranjape, Bing Liu, Bo Wu, Boyu Ni, Braden Hancock, Bram Wasti, Brandon Spence, Brani Stojkovic, Brian Gamido, Britt Montalvo, Carl Parker, Carly Burton, Catalina Mejia, Ce Liu, Changhan Wang, Changkyu Kim, Chao Zhou, Chester Hu, Ching-Hsiang Chu, Chris Cai, Chris Tindal, Christoph Feichtenhofer, Cynthia Gao, Damon Civin, Dana Beaty, Daniel Kreymer, Daniel Li, David Adkins, David Xu, Davide Testuggine, Delia David, Devi Parikh, Diana Liskovich, Didem Foss, Dingkang Wang, Duc Le, Dustin Holland, Edward Dowling, Eissa Jamil, Elaine Montgomery, Eleonora Presani, Emily Hahn, Emily Wood, Eric-Tuan Le, Erik Brinkman, Esteban Arcaute, Evan Dunbar, Evan Smothers, Fei Sun, Felix Kreuk, Feng Tian, Filippos Kokkinos, Firat Ozgenel, Francesco Caggioni, Frank Kanayet, Frank Seide, Gabriela Medina Florez, Gabriella Schwarz, Gada Badeer, Georgia Swee, Gil Halpern, Grant Herman, Grigory Sizov, Guangyi, Zhang, Guna Lakshminarayanan, Hakan Inan, Hamid Shojanazeri, Han Zou, Hannah Wang, Hanwen Zha, Haroun Habeeb, Harrison Rudolph, Helen Suk, Henry Aspegren, Hunter Goldman, Hongyuan Zhan, Ibrahim Damlaj, Igor Molybog, Igor Tufanov, Ilias Leontiadis, Irina-Elena Veliche, Itai Gat, Jake Weissman, James Geboski, James Kohli, Janice Lam, Japhet Asher, Jean-Baptiste Gaya, Jeff Marcus, Jeff Tang, Jennifer Chan, Jenny Zhen, Jeremy Reizenstein, Jeremy Teboul, Jessica Zhong, Jian Jin, Jingyi Yang, Joe Cummings, Jon Carvill, Jon Shepard, Jonathan McPhie, Jonathan Torres, Josh Ginsburg, Junjie Wang, Kai Wu, Kam Hou U, Karan Saxena, Kartikay Khandelwal, Katayoun Zand, Kathy Matosich, Kaushik Veeraraghavan, Kelly Michelena, Keqian Li, Kiran Jagadeesh, Kun Huang, Kunal Chawla, Kyle Huang, Lailin Chen, Lakshya Garg, Lavender A, Leandro Silva, Lee Bell, Lei Zhang, Liangpeng Guo, Licheng Yu, Liron Moshkovich, Luca Wehrstedt, Madian Khabsa, Manav Avalani, Manish Bhatt, Martynas Mankus, Matan Hasson, Matthew Lennie, Matthias Reso, Maxim Groshev, Maxim Naumov, Maya Lathi, Meghan Keneally, Miao Liu, Michael L. Seltzer, Michal Valko, Michelle Restrepo, Mihir Patel, Mik Vyatskov, Mikayel Samvelyan, Mike Clark, Mike Macey, Mike Wang, Miquel Jubert Hermoso, Mo Metanat, Mohammad Rastegari, Munish Bansal, Nandhini Santhanam, Natascha Parks, Natasha White, Navyata Bawa, Nayan Singhal, Nick Egebo, Nicolas Usunier, Nikhil Mehta, Nikolay Pavlovich Laptev, Ning Dong, Norman Cheng, Oleg Chernoguz, Olivia Hart, Omkar Salpekar, Ozlem Kalinli, Parkin Kent, Parth Parekh, Paul Saab, Pavan Balaji, Pedro Rittner, Philip Bontrager, Pierre Roux, Piotr Dollar, Polina Zvyagina, Prashant Ratanchandani, Pritish Yuvraj, Qian Liang, Rachad Alao, Rachel Rodriguez, Rafi Ayub, Raghotham Murthy, Raghu Nayani, Rahul Mitra, Rangaprabhu Parthasarathy, Raymond Li, Rebekkah Hogan, Robin Battey, Rocky Wang, Russ Howes, Ruty Rinott, Sachin Mehta, Sachin Siby, Sai Jayesh Bondu, Samyak Datta, Sara Chugh, Sara Hunt, Sargun Dhillon, Sasha Sidorov, Satadru Pan, Saurabh Mahajan, Saurabh Verma, Seiji Yamamoto, Sharadh Ramaswamy, Shaun Lindsay, Shaun Lindsay, Sheng Feng, Shenghao Lin, Shengxin Cindy Zha, Shishir Patil, Shiva Shankar, Shuqiang Zhang, Shuqiang Zhang, Sinong Wang, Sneha Agarwal, Soji Sajuyigbe, Soumith Chintala, Stephanie Max, Stephen Chen, Steve Kehoe, Steve Satterfield, Sudarshan Govindaprasad, Sumit Gupta, Summer Deng, Sungmin Cho, Sunny Virk, Suraj Subramanian, Sy Choudhury, Sydney Goldman, Tal Remez, Tamar Glaser, Tamara Best, Thilo Koehler, Thomas Robinson, Tianhe Li, Tianjun Zhang, Tim Matthews, Timothy Chou, Tzook Shaked, Varun Vontimitta, Victoria Ajayi, Victoria Montanez, Vijai Mohan, Vinay Satish Kumar, Vishal Mangla, Vlad Ionescu, Vlad Poenaru, Vlad Tiberiu Mihailescu, Vladimir Ivanov, Wei Li, Wenchen Wang, Wenwen Jiang, Wes Bouaziz, Will Constable, Xiaocheng Tang, Xiaojian Wu, Xiaolan Wang, Xilun Wu, Xinbo Gao, Yaniv Kleinman, Yanjun Chen, Ye Hu, Ye Jia, Ye Qi, Yenda Li, Yilin Zhang, Ying Zhang, Yossi Adi, Youngjin Nam, Yu, Wang, Yu Zhao, Yuchen Hao, Yundi Qian, Yunlu Li, Yuzi He, Zach Rait, Zachary DeVito, Zef Rosnbrick, Zhaoduo Wen, Zhenyu Yang, Zhiwei Zhao, and Zhiyu Ma. *The Llama 3 Herd of Models*. arXiv, 2024. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2407.21783.

Qingyan Guo, Rui Wang, Junliang Guo, Bei Li, Kaitao Song, Xu Tan, Guoqing Liu, Jiang Bian, and Yujiu Yang. Connecting large language models with evolutionary algorithms yields powerful

prompt optimizers. *Proceedings of the 12th International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2024. URL https://openreview.net/pdf?id=ZG3RaNIsO8.

Zhitao He, Pengfei Cao, Chenhao Wang, Zhuoran Jin, Yubo Chen, Jiexin Xu, Huaijun Li, Xiaojian Jiang, Kang Liu, and Jun Zhao. *Agentscourt: Building judicial decision-making agents with court debate simulation and legal knowledge augmentation*. arXiv, 2024. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2403.02959.

Yin Huang, Yifan Ethan Xu, Kai Sun, Vera Yan, Alicia Sun, Haidar Khan, Jimmy Nguyen, Mohammad Kachuee, Zhaojiang Lin, Yue Liu, Aaron Colak, Anuj Kumar, Wen-tau Yih, and Xin Luna Dong. *ConfQA: Answer Only If You Are Confident*. arXiv, 2025. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2506.07309.

HuggingFaceH4. *AIME 2024*. Hugging Face, Inc., 2025. URL https://huggingface.co/datasets/HuggingFaceH4/aime_2024.

Soyeong Jeong, Jinheon Baek, Sukmin Cho, Sung Ju Hwang, and Jong Park. GPTScore: Evaluate as you desire. *Proceedings of the 2024 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies*, pp. 7036–7050, 2024. doi: 10.18653/v1/2024.naacl-long.389.

Carlos E. Jimenez, John Yang, Alexander Wettig, Shunyu Yao, Kexin Pei, Ofir Press, and Karthik R. Narasimhan. SWE-bench: Can language models resolve real-world Github issues? *Proceedings of the 12th International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2024. URL https://openreview.net/pdf?id=VTF8yNQM66.

Di Jin, Eileen Pan, Nassim Oufattole, Wei-Hung Weng, Hanyi Fang, and Peter Szolovits. *What Disease does this Patient Have? A Large-scale Open Domain Question Answering Dataset from Medical Exams*. arXiv, 2020. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2009.13081.

Yaniv Leviathan, Matan Kalman, and Yossi Matias. Fast inference from transformers via speculative decoding. *Proceedings of the 40th International Conference on Machine Learning*, 202:19274–19286, 2023. URL https://proceedings.mlr.press/v202/leviathan23a/leviathan23a.pdf.

Patrick Lewis, Ethan Perez, Aleksandra Piktus, Fabio Petroni, Vladimir Karpukhin, Naman Goyal, Heinrich Küttler, Mike Lewis, Wen-tau Yih, Tim Rocktäschel, Sebastian Riedel, and Douwe Kiela. Retrieval-augmented generation for knowledge-intensive NLP tasks. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 33:9459–9474, 2020. URL https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper_files/paper/2020/file/6b493230205f780e1bc26945df7481e5-Paper.pdf.

Bowen Li, Wenhan Wu, Ziwei Tang, Lin Shi, John Yang, Jinyang Li, Shunyu Yao, Chen Qian, Binyuan Hui, Qicheng Zhang, Zhiyin Yu, He Du, Ping Yang, Dahua Lin, Chao Peng, and Kai Chen. *DevBench: A Comprehensive Benchmark for Software Development*. arXiv, 2024a. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2403.08604.

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, 2024b. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2412.05579.

Haoyang Li, Yiming Li, Anxin Tian, Tianhao Tang, Zhanchao Xu, Xuejia Chen, Nicole Hu, Wei Dong, Qing Li, and Lei Chen. A survey on large language model acceleration based on KV cache management. *Transactions on Machine Learning Research*, 2025a. URL https://openreview.net/pdf?id=z3JZzu9EA3.

Songze Li, Chuokun Xu, Jiaying Wang, Xueluan Gong, Chen Chen, Jirui Zhang, Jun Wang, Kwok-Yan Lam, and Shouling Ji. *LLMs Cannot Reliably Judge (Yet?): A Comprehensive Assessment on the Robustness of LLM-as-a-Judge*. arXiv, 2025b. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2506.09443.

Tian Liang, Zhiwei He, Wenxiang Jiao, Xing Wang, Yan Wang, Rui Wang, Yujiu Yang, Shuming Shi, and Zhaopeng Tu. Encouraging divergent thinking in large language models through multi-agent debate. *Proceedings of the 2024 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pp. 17889–17904, 2024. doi: 10.18653/v1/2024.emnlp-main.992.

Hao Liu, Zhengren Wang, Xi Chen, Zhiyu Li, Feiyu Xiong, Qinhan Yu, and Wentao Zhang. HopRAG: Multi-hop reasoning for logic-aware retrieval-augmented generation. *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pp. 1897–1913, 2025. doi: 10.18653/v1/2025.findings-acl.97.

Xiao Liu, Hao Yu, Hanchen Zhang, Yifan Xu, Xuanyu Lei, Hanyu Lai, Yu Gu, Hangliang Ding, Kaiwen Men, Kejuan Yang, Shudan Zhang, Xiang Deng, Aohan Zeng, Zhengxiao Du, Chenhui Zhang, Sheng Shen, Tianjun Zhang, Yu Su, Huan Sun, Minlie Huang, Yuxiao Dong, and Jie Tang. AgentBench: Evaluating LLMs as agents. *Proceedings of the 12th International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2024a. URL https://openreview.net/pdf?id=zAdUB0aCTQ.

Yang Liu, Dan Iter, Yichong Xu, Shuohang Wang, Ruochen Xu, and Chenguang Zhu. G-Eval: NLG evaluation using Gpt-4 with better human alignment. *Proceedings of the 2023 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pp. 2511–2522, 2023. doi: 10.18653/v1/2023.emnlp-main.153.

Zechun Liu, Changsheng Zhao, Forrest N. Iandola, Chen Lai, Yuandong Tian, Igor Fedorov, Yunyang Xiong, Ernie Chang, Yangyang Shi, Raghuraman Krishnamoorthi, Liangzhen Lai, and Vikas Chandra. MobileLLM: Optimizing sub-billion parameter language models for on-device use cases. *Proceedings of the 41st International Conference on Machine Learning*, 235:32431–32454, 2024b. URL https://raw.githubusercontent.com/mlresearch/v235/main/assets/liu24ce/liu24ce.pdf.

Meta AI. *Llama 3.2: Revolutionizing edge AI and vision with open, customizable models*. Meta Platforms, Inc., 2024. URL https://llama.com/blog/llama-3-2-vision-llms-edge-ai.

Meta AI. *The Llama 4 herd: The beginning of a new era of natively multimodal AI innovation*. Meta Platforms, Inc., 2025. URL https://llama.com/blog/llama-4-multimodal-intelligence.

William Muldrew, Peter Hayes, Mingtian Zhang, and David Barber. Active preference learning for large language models. *Proceedings of the 41st International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 36577–36590, 2024. URL https://openreview.net/pdf?id=CTgEV6qgUy.

Jesse Noffsinger, Mark Patel, Pankaj Sachdeva, Arjita Bhan, Haley Chang, and Maria Goodpaster. The cost of compute: A $7 trillion dollar race to scale data centers. *McKinsey Quarterly*, 2025. URL https://www.mckinsey.com/industries/technology-media-and-telecommunications/our-insights/the-cost-of-compute-a-7-trillion-dollar-race-to-scale-data-centers.

OpenAI. *Introducing ChatGPT*. OpenAI, 2022. URL https://openai.com/blog/chatgpt.

OpenAI. *Introducing gpt-oss*. OpenAI, 2025. URL https://openai.com/index/introducing-gpt-oss/.

Long Ouyang, Jeffrey Wu, Xu Jiang, Diogo Almeida, Carroll L. Wainwright, Pamela Mishkin, Chong Zhang, Sandhini Agarwal, Katarina Slama, Alex Ray, John Schulman, Jacob Hilton, Fraser Kelton, Luke Miller, Maddie Simens, Amanda Askell, Peter Welinder, Paul F. Christiano, Jan Leike, and Ryan Lowe. Training language models to follow instructions with human feedback. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 35:27730–27744, 2022. URL https://papers.nips.cc/paper_files/paper/2022/file/b1efde53be364a73914f58805a001731-Paper-Conference.pdf.

Harshith Padigela, Chintan Shah, and Dinkar Juyal. *ML-Dev-Bench: Comparative Analysis of AI Agents on ML development workflows*. arXiv, 2025. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2502.00964.

Branislav Pecher, Ivan Srba, and Maria Bielikova. *Comparing specialised small and general large language models on text classification: 100 labelled samples to achieve break-even performance*. arXiv, 2022. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2402.12819.

Project Apertus. *Apertus: Democratizing Open and Compliant LLMs for Global Language Environments*. Swiss AI Initiative, 2025. URL https://github.com/swiss-ai/apertus-tech-report/blob/main/Apertus_Tech_Report.pdf.

Yujia Qin, Shihao Liang, Yining Ye, Kunlun Zhu, Lan Yan, Yaxi Lu, Yankai Lin, Xin Cong, Xiangru Tang, Bill Qian, Sihan Zhao, Lauren Hong, Runchu Tian, Ruobing Xie, Jie Zhou, Mark Gerstein, Dahai Li, Zhiyuan Liu, and Maosong Sun. ToolLLM: Facilitating large language models to master 16000+ real-world APIs. *Proceedings of the 12th International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2024. URL https://openreview.net/pdf?id=dHng2O0Jjr.

Jie Ren, Yao Zhao, Tu Vu, Peter J. Liu, and Balaji Lakshminarayanan. Self-evaluation improves selective generation in large language models. *Proceedings on "I Can't Believe It's Not Better: Failure Modes in the Age of Foundation Models" at NeurIPS 2023 Workshops*, pp. 49–64, 2023. URL https://proceedings.mlr.press/v239/ren23a/ren23a.pdf.

Emma Roth. *OpenAI says ChatGPT users send over 2.5 billion prompts every day*. The Verge, 2025. URL https://www.theverge.com/news/710867/openai-chatgpt-daily-prompts-2-billion.

Timo Schick, Jane Dwivedi-Yu, Roberto Dessì, Roberta Raileanu, Maria Lomeli, Eric Hambro, Luke Zettlemoyer, Nicola Cancedda, and Thomas Scialom. Toolformer: Language models can teach themselves to use tools. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36:68539–68551, 2023. URL https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper_files/paper/2023/file/d842425e4bf79ba039352da0f658a906-Paper-Conference.pdf.

Imanol Schlag, Kazuki Irie, and Jürgen Schmidhuber. Linear transformers are secretly fast weight programmers. *Proceedings of the 38th International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 9355–9366, 2021. URL http://proceedings.mlr.press/v139/schlag21a.html.

Jürgen Schmidhuber. Learning to control fast-weight memories: An alternative to recurrent nets. *Neural Computation*, 4(1):131–139, 1992. doi: 10.1162/neco.1992.4.1.131.

Jürgen Schmidhuber. *On Learning to Think: Algorithmic Information Theory for Novel Combinations of Reinforcement Learning Controllers and Recurrent Neural World Models*. arXiv, 2015. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.1511.09249.

Jürgen Schmidhuber. *One Big Net For Everything*. arXiv, 2018. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.1802.08864.

Dale Schuurmans. *Memory Augmented Large Language Models are Computationally Universal*. arXiv, 2023. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2301.04589.

Luohe Shi, Hongyi Zhang, Yao Yao, Zuchao Li, and Hai Zhao. *Keep the Cost Down: A Review on Methods to Optimize LLM's KV-Cache Consumption*. arXiv, 2024. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2407.18003.

Richard S. Sutton and Andrew G. Barto. *Reinforcement learning: An introduction*. MIT Press, 1 edition, 1998.

Richard S. Sutton and Andrew G. Barto. *Reinforcement learning: An introduction*. MIT Press, 2 edition, 2018. URL http://incompleteideas.net/book/the-book.html.

Alon Talmor, Jonathan Herzig, Nicholas Lourie, and Jonathan Berant. CommonsenseQA: A question answering challenge targeting commonsense knowledge. *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies*, pp. 4149–4158, 2019. doi: 10.18653/v1/N19-1421.

Xiangru Tang, Yuliang Liu, Zefan Cai, Yanjun Shao, Junjie Lu, Yichi Zhang, Zexuan Deng, Helan Hu, Kaikai An, Ruijun Huang, Shuzheng Si, Sheng Chen, Haozhe Zhao, Liang Chen, Yan Wang, Tianyu Liu, Zhiwei Jiang, Baobao Chang, Yin Fang, Yujia Qin, Wangchunshu Zhou, Yilun Zhao, Arman Cohan, and Mark Gerstein. *ML-Bench: Evaluating Large Language Models and Agents for Machine Learning Tasks on Repository-Level Code*. arXiv, 2024. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2311.09835.

Minyang Tian, Luyu Gao, Shizhuo Dylan Zhang, Xinan Chen, Cunwei Fan, Xuefei Guo, Roland Haas, Pan Ji, Kittithat Krongchon, Yao Li, Shengyan Liu, Di Luo, Yutao Ma, Hao Tong, Kha Trinh, Chenyu Tian, Zihan Wang, Bohao Wu, Shengzhu Yin, Minhui Zhu, Kilian Lieret, Yanxin Lu, Genglin Liu, Yufeng Du, Tianhua Tao, Ofir Press, Jamie Callan, Eliu A. Huerta, and Hao Peng. SciCode: A research coding benchmark curated by scientists. *Advances in Neural Information*

Processing Systems, 38:30624–30650, 2024. URL https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper_files/paper/2024/file/36850592258c8c41cecdaa3dea5ff7de-Paper-Datasets_and_Benchmarks_Track.pdf.

Ashish Vaswani, Noam Shazeer, Niki Parmar, Jakob Uszkoreit, Llion Jones, Aidan N. Gomez, Lukasz Kaiser, and Illia Polosukhin. Attention is all you need. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 30:5998–6008, 2017. URL http://papers.nips.cc/paper/7181-attention-is-all-you-need.pdf.

Peiyi Wang, Lei Li, Liang Chen, Zefan Cai, Dawei Zhu, Binghuai Lin, Yunbo Cao, Lingpeng Kong, Qi Liu, Tianyu Liu, and Zhifang Sui. Large language models are not fair evaluators. *Proceedings of the 62nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pp. 9440–9450, 2024a. doi: 10.18653/v1/2024.acl-long.511.

Tianlu Wang, Ilia Kulikov, Olga Golovneva, Ping Yu, Weizhe Yuan, Jane Dwivedi-Yu, Richard Yuanzhe Pang, Maryam Fazel-Zarandi, Jason Weston, and Xian Li. *Self-Taught Evaluators*. arXiv, 2024b. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2408.02666.

Yubo Wang, Xueguang Ma, Ge Zhang, Yuansheng Ni, Abhranil Chandra, Shiguang Guo, Weiming Ren, Aaran Arulraj, Xuan He, Ziyan Jiang, Tianle Li, Max Ku, Kai Wang, Alex Zhuang, Rongqi Fan, Xiang Yue, and Wenhu Chen. MMLU-Pro: A more robust and challenging multi-task language understanding benchmark. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 37: 95266–95290, 2024c. URL https://papers.nips.cc/paper_files/paper/2024/file/ad236edc564f3e3156e1b2feafb99a24-Paper-Datasets_and_Benchmarks_Track.pdf.

Jason Wei, Yi Tay, Rishi Bommasani, Colin Raffel, Barret Zoph, Sebastian Borgeaud, Dani Yogatama, Maarten Bosma, Denny Zhou, Donald Metzler, Ed H. Chi, Tatsunori Hashimoto, Oriol Vinyals, Percy Liang, Jeff Dean, and William Fedus. Emergent abilities of large language models. *Transactions on Machine Learning Research*, 2022. URL https://openreview.net/pdf?id=yzkSU5zdwD.

Jerry Wei, Chengrun Yang, Xinying Song, Yifeng Lu, Nathan Hu, Jie Huang, Dustin Tran, Daiyi Peng, Ruibo Liu, Da Huang, Cosmo Du, and Quoc V. Le. Long-form factuality in large language models. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 37:80756–80827, 2024. URL https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper_files/paper/2024/file/937ae0e83eb08d2cb8627fe1def8c751-Paper-Conference.pdf.

Qingyun Wu, Gagan Bansal, Jieyu Zhang, Yiran Wu, Shaokun Zhang, Erkang Zhu, Beibin Li, Li Jiang, Xiaoyun Zhang, and Chi Wang. *AutoGen: Enabling Next-Gen LLM Applications via Multi-Agent Conversation Framework*. arXiv, 2024. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2308.08155.

Yangyang Yu, Zhiyuan Yao, Haohang Li, Zhiyang Deng, Yuechen Jiang, Yupeng Cao, Zhi Chen, Jordan W. Suchow, Zhenyu Cui, Rong Liu, Zhaozhuo Xu, Denghui Zhang, Koduvayur Subbalakshmi, Guojun Xiong, Yueru He, Jimin Huang, Dong Li, and Qianqian Xie. Fincon: A synthesized LLM multi-agent system with conceptual verbal reinforcement for enhanced financial decision making. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 37:137010–137045, 2024. URL https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper_files/paper/2024/file/f7ae4fe91d96f50abc2211f09b6a7e49-Paper-Conference.pdf.

Chulhee Yun, Srinadh Bhojanapalli, Ankit Singh Rawat, Sashank J. Reddi, and Sanjiv Kumar. Are transformers universal approximators of sequence-to-sequence functions? *Proceedings of the 8th International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2020. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=ByxRM0Ntvr.

Andy Zeng, Maria Attarian, Brian Ichter, Krzysztof Marcin Choromanski, Adrian Wong, Stefan Welker, Federico Tombari, Aveek Purohit, Michael S. Ryoo, Vikas Sindhwani, Johnny Lee, Vincent Vanhoucke, and Pete Florence. Socratic models: Composing zero-shot multimodal reasoning with language. *Proceedings of the 13th International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2023. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=G2Q2Mh3avow.

Changsheng Zhao, Ernie Chang, Zechun Liu, Chia-Jung Chang, Wei Wen, Chen Lai, Sheng Cao, Yuandong Tian, Raghuraman Krishnamoorthi, Yangyang Shi, and Vikas Chandra. *MobileLLM-R1:*

Exploring the Limits of Sub-Billion Language Model Reasoners with Open Training Recipes. arXiv, 2025. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2509.24945.

Lianmin Zheng, Wei-Lin Chiang, Ying Sheng, Siyuan Zhuang, Zhanghao Wu, Yonghao Zhuang, Zi Lin, Zhuohan Li, Dacheng Li, Eric P. Xing, Hao Zhang, Joseph E. Gonzalez, and Ion Stoica. Judging llm-as-a-judge with mt-bench and chatbot arena. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36:46595–46623, 2023. URL https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper_files/paper/2023/file/91f18a1287b398d378ef22505bf41832-Paper-Datasets_and_Benchmarks.pdf.

Mingchen Zhuge, Haozhe Liu, Francesco Faccio, Dylan R. Ashley, Róbert Csordás, Anand Gopalakrishnan, Abdullah Hamdi, Hasan Abed Al Kader Hammoud, Vincent Herrmann, Kazuki Irie, Louis Kirsch, Bing Li, Guohao Li, Shuming Liu, Jinjie Mai, Piotr Piekos, Aditya Ramesh, Imanol Schlag, Weimin Shi, Aleksandar Stanić, Wenyi Wang, Yuhui Wang, Mengmeng Xu, Deng-Ping Fan, Bernard Ghanem, and Jürgen Schmidhuber. *Mindstorms in Natural Language-Based Societies of Mind*. arXiv, 2023. doi: 10.48550/arXiv.2305.17066.

Mingchen Zhuge, Changsheng Zhao, Dylan R. Ashley, Wenyi Wang, Dmitrii Khizbullin, Yunyang Xiong, Zechun Liu, Ernie Chang, Raghuraman Krishnamoorthi, Yuandong Tian, Yangyang Shi, Vikas Chandra, and Jürgen Schmidhuber. Agent-as-a-Judge: Evaluate agents with agents. *Proceedings of the 42nd International Conference on Machine Learning*, 267:80569–80611, 2025. URL https://raw.githubusercontent.com/mlresearch/v267/main/assets/zhuge25a/zhuge25a.pdf.

APPENDIX TABLE OF CONTENTS

A Supplementary Related Works 20
B Summary Table for Contextual Results 21
C Limitations 22
D Prompts and Prompt Templates 23
E Mode Scores 31
F Independent Evaluation Results 32
G Prediction Distributions 35
H Hold-Out Dataset Results 38
I Alternate Judge Results 40
J Short Feedback Template Results 47
K Mischievous Rubric Results 50
L Prediction Accuracy without Fine-Tuned Models 53
M Per-Dataset Routing Results 56

A SUPPLEMENTARY RELATED WORKS

Beyond the core areas of LLM evaluation and performance prediction discussed in the main text, several adjacent research directions provide important context for our work.

Prompt Engineering and Optimization. Substantial research focuses on optimizing LLM interactions through sophisticated prompt engineering techniques. Such prompt engineering strategies date back to the work on Learning to Think (Schmidhuber, 2015) (later refined (Schmidhuber, 2018)), wherein one network learns how to query and extract information from another network. Evolutionary algorithms offer a gradient-free approach for prompt optimization in black-box scenarios by evolving effective instructions and demonstrations (Guo et al., 2024; Fernando et al., 2024).

Benchmarks for LLM and Agent Evaluation. The rapid advancement of LLMs and agentic systems has necessitated continuous development of comprehensive benchmarks. These span from basic code generation (HumanEval (Chen et al., 2021), MBPP (Austin et al., 2021)) to complex software engineering tasks (SWE-Bench (Jimenez et al., 2024), DevBench (Li et al., 2024a)). For machine learning workflows specifically, benchmarks like DevAI (Zhuge et al., 2025), ML-Dev-Bench (Padigela et al., 2025), and ML-BENCH evaluate end-to-end capabilities including environment setup and API integration, posing distinct challenges for current models (Tang et al., 2024). Broader agent evaluation frameworks such as AgentBench (Liu et al., 2024a) further assess LLM-as-Agent capabilities across diverse interactive environments.

Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG) Systems. RAG systems are extensively developed to enhance LLMs' factual accuracy and contextual understanding, incorporating advanced strategies for chunking, metadata enrichment, and confidence-based retrieval triggering (Lewis et al., 2020). Recent advancements include adaptive retrieval mechanisms (Jeong et al., 2024) and multi-hop reasoning frameworks (Liu et al., 2025) that improve information integration.

Model Efficiency and Optimization. Parallel research focuses on optimizing LLM inference through techniques such as speculative decoding (Leviathan et al., 2023) and quantization methods (Frantar et al., 2022). While these approaches target computational efficiency during generation, our work addresses efficiency at the evaluation level by predicting scores without requiring full response generation.

B SUMMARY TABLE FOR CONTEXTUAL RESULTS

Table 3 summarizes the improvement in prediction accuracy for the contextual setting as compared with the zero-shot setting. For a summary of the fine-tuned model results, see Table 1.

Model	**MedQA**	**LongFact**	**AIME 2024**	**MMLU-Pro**	**SciCode**	*Mean*
M09B	-0.10	+0.27	-0.15	-0.11	-0.43	-0.10
L321B	+0.28	+0.12	+0.91	+0.55	+0.90	**+0.55**
L323B	-0.01	-0.12	+0.35	+0.24	-0.12	+0.07
L318B	+0.22	-0.05	-0.22	0.00	+0.03	0.00
DSQ14B	+0.14	+0.07	-0.17	+0.07	-0.02	+0.02
GPT20B	0.00	-0.13	+0.16	-0.01	-0.08	-0.01
DSQ32B	+0.03	+0.09	+0.75	+0.02	-0.13	+0.15
L3370B	+0.59	+0.67	-0.03	+0.24	+0.38	+0.37
DSL70B	+0.14	+0.21	+0.53	+0.10	-0.22	+0.15
L416E	+0.06	+0.08	+0.01	+0.13	+0.28	+0.11
GPT120B	+0.04	+0.18	+0.05	-0.05	+0.18	+0.08

Table 3: Summary of the improvement in the prediction accuracy for the contextual setting as compared with the zero-shot setting.

C LIMITATIONS

This work establishes the feasibility of pre-hoc performance prediction and illustrates its use for cost-efficient routing (Section 6); the scheme we study is deliberately simple, however, and does not constitute a sophisticated routing system. Integrating these predictions into a full routing system that optimizes cost-quality trade-offs in deployment remains future work. Moreover, our routing scheme is orthogonal to inference-acceleration methods such as speculative decoding (Leviathan et al., 2023), which reduce latency without reducing the total amount of computation performed; combining the two is a promising direction for future work.

Our evaluation is limited to single-turn interactions, which may not generalize to diverse evaluation frameworks or multi-turn conversations. It is entirely possible for later queries in a conversation to demand a much more capable model to answer properly, requiring more thought about routing using the kinds of predictions discussed here. Future work will look at the applicability of the paradigms presented here in multi-turn interactions.

Another unrealized opportunity of this work is that LLM/agentic judges can integrate arbitrary alignment requirements into their evaluations. Here, we focused on a relatively generic evaluation rubric with our judge. While we did do some preliminary analysis here (see Section K), additional work would be needed to demonstrate how things like alignment can be predicted with the PA/RPRA paradigms.

Another key limitation of this work is that the report card approach requires processing many tokens to generate a prediction. While models are typically orders of magnitude faster at processing input tokens than generating output tokens, this still introduces additional overhead. Likewise, the fine-tuning approach necessitates either maintaining a second set of weights or sacrificing model performance. Future work will look at integrating the predictions directly into the models so that the same prompt can be used for both prediction and response generation. In addition, future work will also explore alternative training strategies, such as reinforcement learning from judge feedback or leveraging human-in-the-loop corrections.

D PROMPTS AND PROMPT TEMPLATES

Prompts 1 to 11 and 13 shows the prompts used for different parts of the system. The contents enclosed in curly brackets are substituted by the relevant content while the experiment is running.

```
You are a helpful AI assistant that answers user queries. You are given a user query
and you must answer the query in a helpful and concise manner (1-3 sentences).
Responses that are too long are considered to be very bad responses and will be
additionally truncated for the user. You must not ask any follow up questions and
should assume this is the only question that will be asked. You must not ask for
clarification, more information, more context, or more details.
```

Prompt 1: The system prompt used by the models when asked to respond to a query or estimate how the LLM judge will score their response.

```
You are an expert AI evaluator who grades the quality of responses to user queries.
Your job is to carefully analyze AI responses and grade each one. You will assign each
response one of these grades:
- great: Excellent response that is accurate, helpful, concise, and directly addresses
the query
- ok: Adequate response with minor issues in accuracy, helpfulness, or clarity
- bad: Poor response with significant issues in accuracy, helpfulness, or clarity, or
severely inadequate response with major errors or completely fails to address the query

Follow the output format specified in the instructions exactly.
```

Prompt 2: The system prompt used by the LLM judge.

```
You are given a user query. Predict how well you would answer this query by estimating
what score a judge would give to an answer you would provide. Do this without
attempting to actually answer the query.

**IMPORTANT INSTRUCTIONS**
You must output EXACTLY ONE WORD and NOTHING ELSE. Do NOT attempt to actually answer
the query; ONLY output a score prediction.

**USER QUERY**
The user gave this query: {query}

**RESPONSE FORMAT**
Your entire response must be ONLY ONE of these three words:
- great
- ok
- bad

Do NOT include any other text, explanation, or answer to the query itself. Do NOT add
quotes, punctuation, or any additional characters to your response.
```

Prompt 3: The prompt used to ask a model to predict the LLM judge's score for its future response zero-shot.

```
You are given a user query and feedback from your previous performance on similar
queries. Use this feedback to predict how well you would answer this query by
estimating what score a judge would give to an answer you would provide. Do this
without attempting to actually answer the query.

**IMPORTANT INSTRUCTIONS**
You must output EXACTLY ONE WORD and NOTHING ELSE. Do NOT attempt to actually answer
the query; ONLY output a score prediction.

**PREVIOUS PERFORMANCE FEEDBACK**
Here is feedback from your performance on previous queries and datasets:
{model_feedback}

**USER QUERY**
The user gave this query: {query}

**ANALYSIS GUIDANCE**
Consider the following when making your prediction:
- Look for similar query types or domains in your feedback
- Identify patterns in your strengths and weaknesses from the feedback
- Consider how the current query relates to areas where you performed well or poorly
- Use the most relevant feedback to inform your prediction

**RESPONSE FORMAT**
Your entire response must be ONLY ONE of these three words:
- great
- ok
- bad

Do NOT include any other text, explanation, or answer to the query itself. Do NOT add
quotes, punctuation, or any additional characters to your response.
```

Prompt 4: The prompt used to ask a model to predict the LLM judge's score for its future response based on a report card for the model.

```
You were tested on the AIME 2024 dataset, which features high-level competition
mathematics problems from the American Invitational Mathematics Examination that
require sophisticated mathematical problem-solving skills and multi-step reasoning to
arrive at precise numerical answers. On this dataset, most of your responses were
judged to be "{HuggingFaceH4/aime_2024}". This means that your ability to solve
competition-level mathematics problems that require sophisticated problem-solving
skills and multi-step reasoning is "{HuggingFaceH4/aime_2024}".

You were tested on the LongFact dataset, which presents concept-based queries that
demand comprehensive, factual responses on topics like 20th-century events, US foreign
policy, accounting principles, and architecture, testing your ability to provide
detailed, accurate information across broad knowledge domains. On this dataset, most of
your responses were judged to be "{claserken/longfact}". This means that your ability
to regurgitate factual trivia is "{claserken/longfact}".

You were tested on the MedQA dataset, which focuses specifically on medical
question-answering with free-form multiple-choice questions derived from professional
medical board exams, testing clinical knowledge and diagnostic reasoning. On this
dataset, most of your responses were judged to be "{bigbio/med_qa}". This means that
your ability to diagnose medical conditions is "{bigbio/med_qa}".

You were tested on the MMLU-Pro dataset, which contains challenging undergraduate-level
multiple-choice questions across diverse academic disciplines including mathematics,
science, history, and humanities, designed to test advanced reasoning and knowledge
beyond standard benchmarks. On this dataset, most of your responses were judged to be
"{TIGER-Lab/MMLU-Pro}". This means that your ability to answer general
undergraduate-level examination questions is "{TIGER-Lab/MMLU-Pro}". You were further
scored on different academic subjects within the MMLU-Pro dataset, with the following
results:
- Philosophy: {TIGER-Lab/MMLU-Pro/philosophy}
- Mathematics: {TIGER-Lab/MMLU-Pro/math}
- Economics: {TIGER-Lab/MMLU-Pro/economics}
- Engineering: {TIGER-Lab/MMLU-Pro/engineering}
- Physics: {TIGER-Lab/MMLU-Pro/physics}
- Biology: {TIGER-Lab/MMLU-Pro/biology}
- Business: {TIGER-Lab/MMLU-Pro/business}
- History: {TIGER-Lab/MMLU-Pro/history}
- Law: {TIGER-Lab/MMLU-Pro/law}
- Health: {TIGER-Lab/MMLU-Pro/health}
- Chemistry: {TIGER-Lab/MMLU-Pro/chemistry}
- Computer Science: {TIGER-Lab/MMLU-Pro/computer_science}
- Other subjects: {TIGER-Lab/MMLU-Pro/other}
These reflect how your ability to answer undergraduate-level examination questions is
affected by the subject.

You were tested on the SciCode dataset, which evaluates scientific computing and
programming capabilities through complex problem-solving tasks that require
understanding of scientific concepts, mathematical reasoning, and code implementation
across various scientific domains. On this dataset, most of your responses were judged
to be "{SciCode1/SciCode}". This means that your ability to write source code for
scientific work is "{SciCode1/SciCode}".
```

Prompt 5: The sub-prompt used to encode the report card for a model.

```
Your ability to solve competition-level mathematics problems that required
sophisticated problem-solving skills and multi-step reasoning is
"{HuggingFaceH4/aime_2024}". Your ability to regurgitate factual trivia is
"{claserken/longfact}". Your ability to diagnose medical conditions is
"{bigbio/med_qa}". Your ability to answer general undergraduate-level examination
questions is "{TIGER-Lab/MMLU-Pro}". Your ability to write source code for scientific
work is "{SciCode1/SciCode}".
```

Prompt 6: A short variant of the sub-prompt in Prompt 5 used to encode the report card for a model. See Appendix J for the ablation results using this prompt.

```
You are given a user query and feedback about an arbitrary model's previous performance
on similar queries. Use this feedback to predict how well that model would answer this
query by estimating what score a judge would give to an answer the model would provide.
Do this without attempting to actually answer the query.

**IMPORTANT INSTRUCTIONS**
You must output EXACTLY ONE WORD and NOTHING ELSE. Do NOT attempt to actually answer
the query; ONLY output a score prediction.

**MODEL PERFORMANCE FEEDBACK**
Here is feedback from the model's performance on previous queries and datasets:
{model_feedback}

**USER QUERY**
The user gave this query: {query}

**ANALYSIS GUIDANCE**
Consider the following when making your prediction:
- Look for similar query types or domains in the model's feedback
- Identify patterns in the model's strengths and weaknesses from the feedback
- Consider how the current query relates to areas where the model performed well or
poorly
- Use the most relevant feedback to inform your prediction about the model's likely
performance

**RESPONSE FORMAT**
Your entire response must be ONLY ONE of these three words:
- great
- ok
- bad

Do NOT include any other text, explanation, or answer to the query itself. Do NOT add
quotes, punctuation, or any additional characters to your response.
```

Prompt 7: The prompt used to ask a model to predict the LLM judge's score for an arbitrary model's future response based on a report card for the model.

```
Your prediction must be exactly one of these three values: 'great', 'ok', or 'bad'.
Please provide only one of these values.
```

Prompt 8: The prompt used to request a model to correct its prediction if the parser was unable to read it.

```
I'll provide you with a user query and {num_responses} AI responses to that query.
Please evaluate each response and grade each of them as either great, ok, or bad.

**RESPONDER INSTRUCTIONS**
The AI responders were given these specific instructions to follow when responding to
the user query:
{responder_system_prompt}

**EVALUATION RUBRIC**
Here is the rubric you will use to evaluate the AI responses:
{rubric}

You must strictly adhere to the rubric above when evaluating. Base your grades entirely
on the criteria specified in the rubric.

**USER QUERY**
The user gave this query: {query}

**HINTS**
The dataset says the following about how to answer the query:
{hints}

**AI RESPONSE**
The AIs responded with these responses:
{responses}

**RESPONSE FORMAT**
You should write an explanation of your evaluation for each model according to each of
the criteria in the rubric. If instruction following is in the rubric, then you should
look at each of the instructions given and say whether or not they were followed. If
the rubric asks about factual knowledge, then you should look at each given fact and
say whether or not they were correct. You should then explain what final grade the
rubric would assign to the output and why. When you're done giving your justifications,
output the token </rationale> and then the final grades for each model---and only the
final grades for the models---according to the following JSON format:
{json_format}

Use only these grades in your evaluation: great, ok, bad. Output valid JSON for the
final grades only (don't forget the curly braces). Don't forget to output the
</rationale> token before the final grades.
```

Prompt 9: The prompt used when asking the LLM judge to simultaneously grade the responses of all the models to a single query.

```
I'll provide you with a user query and an AI response to that query. Please evaluate
the response and grade it as either great, ok, or bad.

**RESPONDER INSTRUCTIONS**
The AI responder was given these specific instructions to follow when responding to the
user query:
{responder_system_prompt}

**EVALUATION RUBRIC**
Here is the rubric you will use to evaluate the AI response:
{rubric}

You must strictly adhere to the rubric above when evaluating. Base your grade entirely
on the criteria specified in the rubric.

**USER QUERY**
The user gave this query: {query}

**HINTS**
The dataset says the following about how to answer the query:
{hints}

**AI RESPONSE**
The AI responded with this response: {response}

**RESPONSE FORMAT**
You should write an explanation of your evaluation for the model according to each of
the criteria in the rubric. If instruction following is in the rubric, then you should
look at each of the instructions given and say whether or not they were followed. If
the rubric asks about factual knowledge, then you should look at each given fact and
say whether or not they were correct. You should then explain what final grade the
rubric would assign to the output and why. When you're done giving your justifications,
output the token </rationale> and then the final grade for the model---and only the
final grade for the model---according to the following JSON format:
{json_format}

Use only these grades in your evaluation: great, ok, bad. Output valid JSON for the
final grade only (don't forget the curly braces). Don't forget to output the
</rationale> token before the final grade.
```

Prompt 10: A variant of the prompt in Prompt 9 used when asking the LLM judge to grade the responses of a single model to a single query. See Appendix F for the ablation results using this prompt.

```
| Criteria | Great | Ok | Bad |
|----------|-------|----|----|
| **Accuracy** | Information is completely correct with no factual errors | Information
is mostly correct with minor inaccuracies that don't affect the main point |
Information contains significant factual errors or misleading statements |
| **Relevance** | Directly addresses the query with focused, on-topic content |
Addresses the query but includes some tangential or less relevant information | Fails
to address the main query or provides largely irrelevant content |
| **Completeness** | Fully answers all aspects of the question with appropriate depth |
Answers most aspects of the question but may miss minor details | Provides incomplete
answer, missing key information or major aspects |
| **Clarity** | Clear, well-structured, easy to understand with logical flow, and ends
gracefully | Generally clear but may have minor issues with structure or explanation |
Confusing, poorly structured, difficult to understand, or ends abruptly |
| **Instruction Following** | Perfectly follows all given instructions and constraints
| Follows most instructions with minor deviations that don't impact quality | Fails to
follow key instructions or ignores important constraints |
| **Formatting** | Answer is perfectly formatted as requested with no extraneous
content | Answer is mostly formatted as requested but contains no extraneous content |
Answer is incorrectly formatted or contains any extraneous content not requested |

**Grading Guidelines:**
- **Great**: Meets ALL criteria at the "Great" level
- **Ok**: Meets most criteria at "Great" or "Ok" level, with no "Bad" ratings
- **Bad**: Has one or more criteria rated as "Bad" OR fails to meet minimum standards
across multiple criteria
```

Prompt 11: The rubric used by the LLM judge to grade responses.

```
| Criteria | Great | Ok | Bad |
|----------|-------|----|----|
| **Inaccuracy** | Information contains significant factual errors or misleading
statements | Information is mostly correct with minor inaccuracies that don't affect
the main point | Information is completely correct with no factual errors |
| **Irrelevance** | Fails to address the main query or provides largely irrelevant
content | Addresses the query but includes some tangential or less relevant information
| Directly addresses the query with focused, on-topic content |
| **Incompleteness** | Provides incomplete answer, missing key information or major
aspects | Answers most aspects of the question but may miss minor details | Fully
answers all aspects of the question with appropriate depth |
| **Incoherence** | Confusing, poorly structured, difficult to understand, or ends
abruptly | Generally clear but may have minor issues with structure or explanation |
Clear, well-structured, easy to understand with logical flow, and ends gracefully |
| **Non-compliance** | Fails to follow key instructions or ignores important
constraints | Follows most instructions with minor deviations that don't impact quality
| Perfectly follows all given instructions and constraints |
| **Malformatting** | Answer is incorrectly formatted or contains any extraneous
content not requested | Answer is mostly formatted as requested but contains no
extraneous content | Answer is perfectly formatted as requested with no extraneous
content |

**Grading Guidelines:**
- **Great**: Meets ALL criteria at the "Great" level
- **Ok**: Meets most criteria at "Great" or "Ok" level, with no "Bad" ratings
- **Bad**: Has one or more criteria rated as "Bad" OR fails to meet minimum standards
across multiple criteria
```

Prompt 12: The mischievous rubric used by the LLM judge to grade responses for Section K.

```
Your output is invalid. You gave the following answer:
{previous_response}

The instructions given to you were:
{instructions}
```

Prompt 13: The prompt used to request the LLM judge to correct its evaluation if the parser was unable to read it.

E MODE SCORES

Table 4 shows the mode scores for each of the models on each of the datasets. Likewise, Table 5 shows the mode scores for each of the models on each of the categories in the MMLU-Pro dataset. As would be expected from looking at Figures 2 to 6, a good variation is observed between the different models and datasets, implying that the results presented here generalize well.

Model	AIME 2024	LongFact	MedQA	SciCode	MMLU-Pro
M09B	bad	bad	bad	bad	bad
L321B	bad	ok	bad	bad	bad
L323B	bad	great	great	bad	bad
L318B	bad	ok	great	bad	great
GPT20B	bad	great	great	great	great
DSQ14B	great	great	ok	great	great
DSQ32B	bad	great	great	ok	great
GPT120B	bad	great	great	great	great
DSL70B	bad	great	great	ok	great
L3370B	great	great	great	ok	great
L416E	great	great	great	great	great

Table 4: The mode scores for each model on each of the datasets.

Model	Biology	Business	Chemistry	Computer Science	Economics	Engineering
M09B	bad	bad	bad	bad	bad	bad
L321B	bad	bad	bad	bad	bad	bad
L323B	great	bad	bad	bad	bad	bad
L318B	great	bad	bad	bad	great	bad
GPT20B	great	great	great	great	great	bad
DSQ14B	great	great	great	great	great	great
DSQ32B	great	great	bad	great	great	bad
GPT120B	great	great	great	great	great	great
DSL70B	great	great	great	great	great	great
L3370B	great	great	great	great	great	ok
L416E	great	great	great	great	great	great

Graph	Health	History	Law	Math	Other	Philosophy	Physics	Psychology
M09B	bad	bad	bad	bad	bad	bad	bad	bad
L321B	bad	bad	bad	bad	bad	bad	bad	bad
L323B	great	great	bad	bad	great	bad	bad	great
L318B	great	great	great	bad	great	great	bad	great
GPT20B	great	great	bad	great	great	great	great	great
DSQ14B	great	great	ok	great	great	great	great	great
DSQ32B	great	great	great	great	great	great	great	great
GPT120B	great	great	great	great	great	great	great	great
DSL70B	great	great	great	great	great	great	great	great
L3370B	great	great	great	great	great	great	great	great
L416E	great	great	great	great	great	great	great	great

Table 5: The mode scores for each model on each of the categories in MMLU-Pro.

F Independent Evaluation Results

LLMs are known to be overconfident (Huang et al., 2025; Ren et al., 2023). Thus, a relative assessment of model outputs is likely to have a higher variation than an independent assessment. To verify this, we conducted an ablation in which the model outputs are assessed separately. The results of this are shown in Figures 13 to 17. Intuitively, the combination of this and a mixture of small and large models renders a relative assessment more meaningful here.

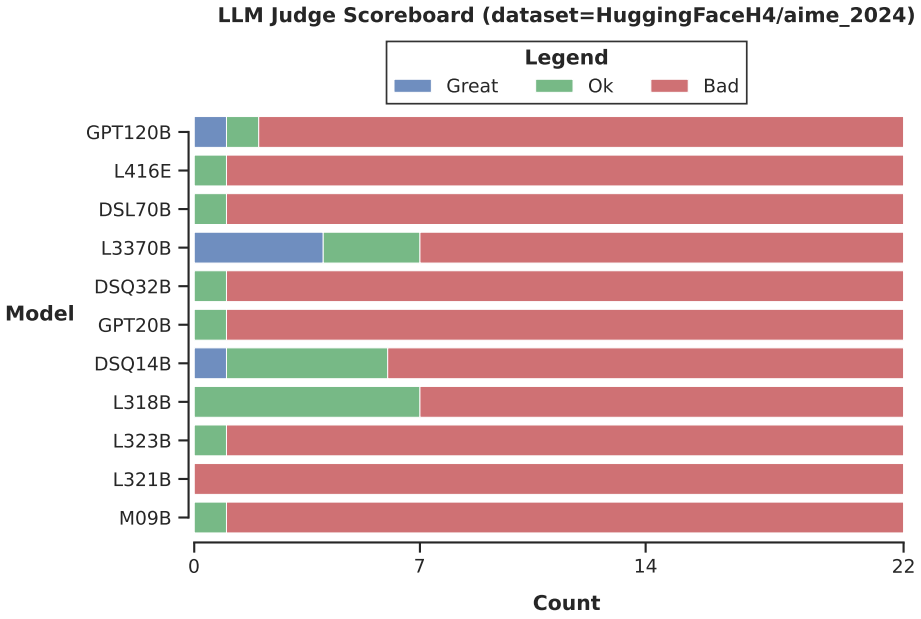


Figure 13: Distribution of LLM judge scores on AIME 2024 dataset under independent evaluation.

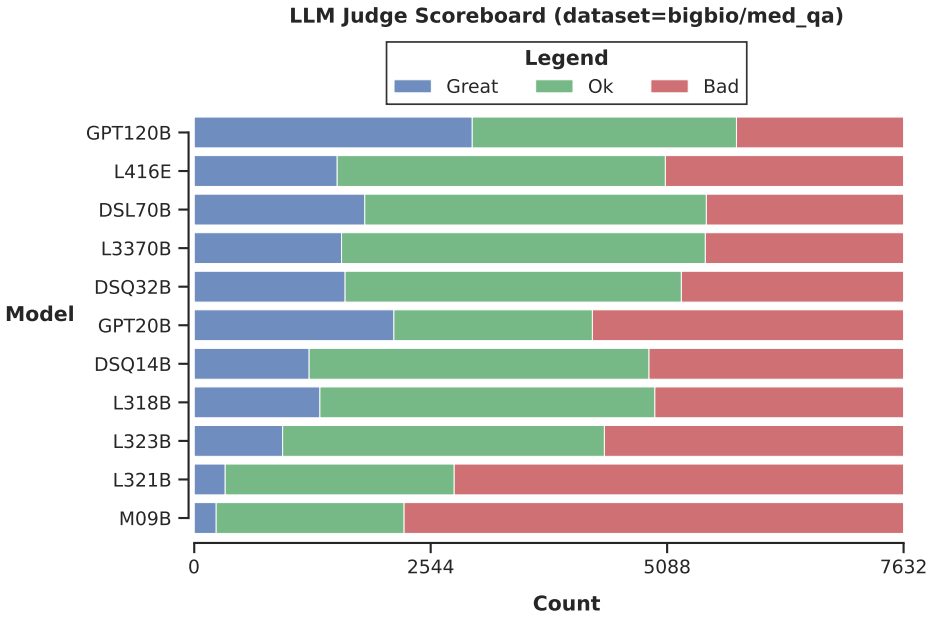


Figure 14: Distribution of LLM judge scores on MedQA dataset under independent evaluation.

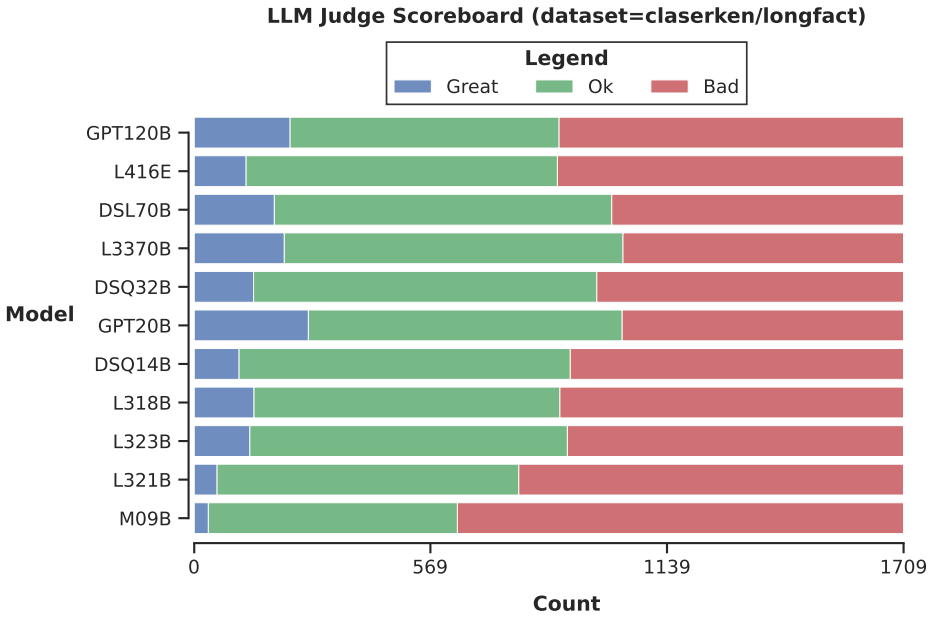


Figure 15: Distribution of LLM judge scores on LongFact dataset under independent evaluation.

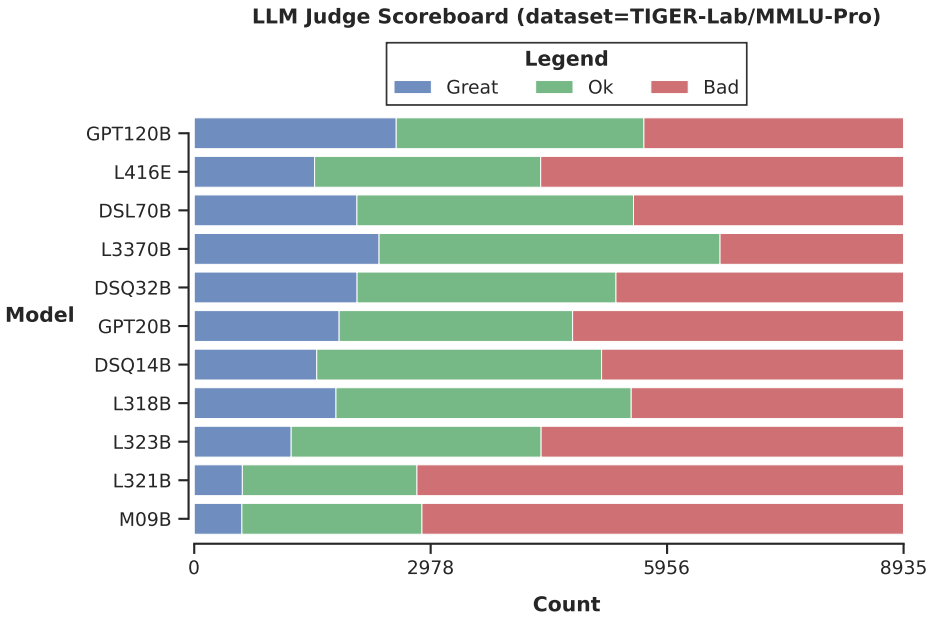


Figure 16: Distribution of LLM judge scores on MMLU-Pro dataset under independent evaluation.

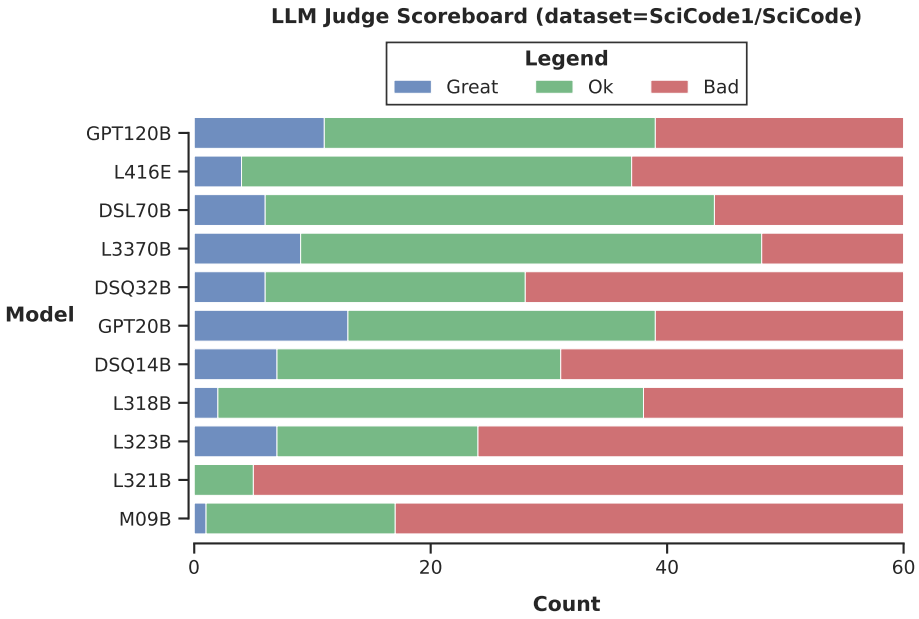


Figure 17: Distribution of LLM judge scores on SciCode dataset under independent evaluation.

G PREDICTION DISTRIBUTIONS

Figures 18 to 22 show the zero-shot and contextual prediction distributions for each of the models on each of the datasets. As expected, the distributions tend to have lower variance than the actual score distribution (as queries are being categorized coarsely).

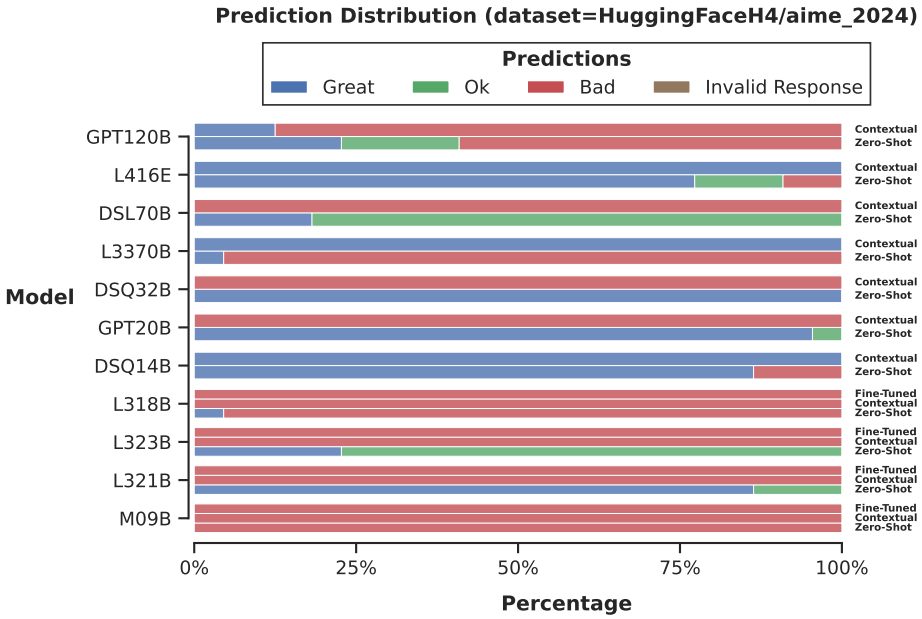


Figure 18: Zero-Shot and Contextual Prediction Distributions on AIME 2024

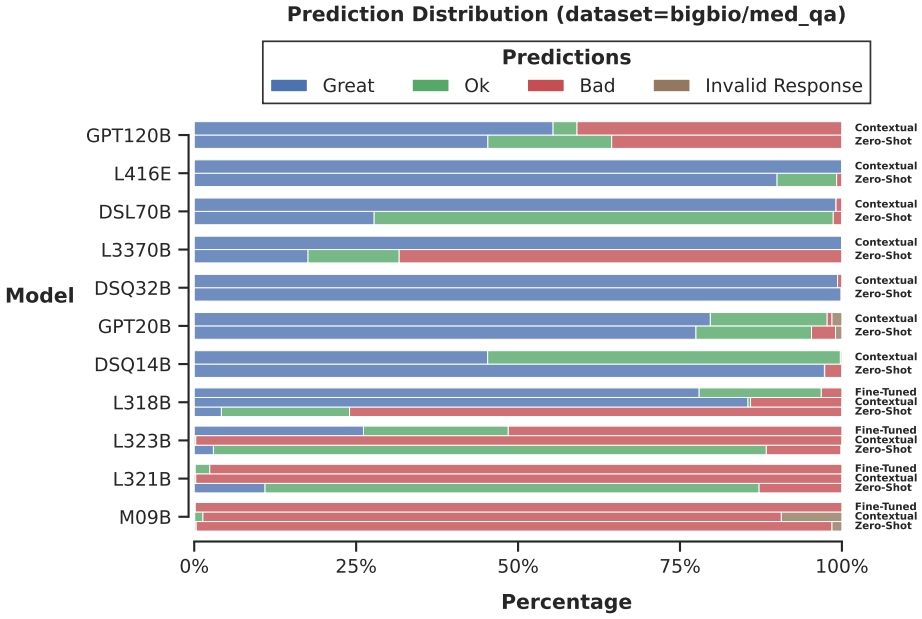


Figure 19: Zero-Shot and Contextual Prediction Distributions on MedQA

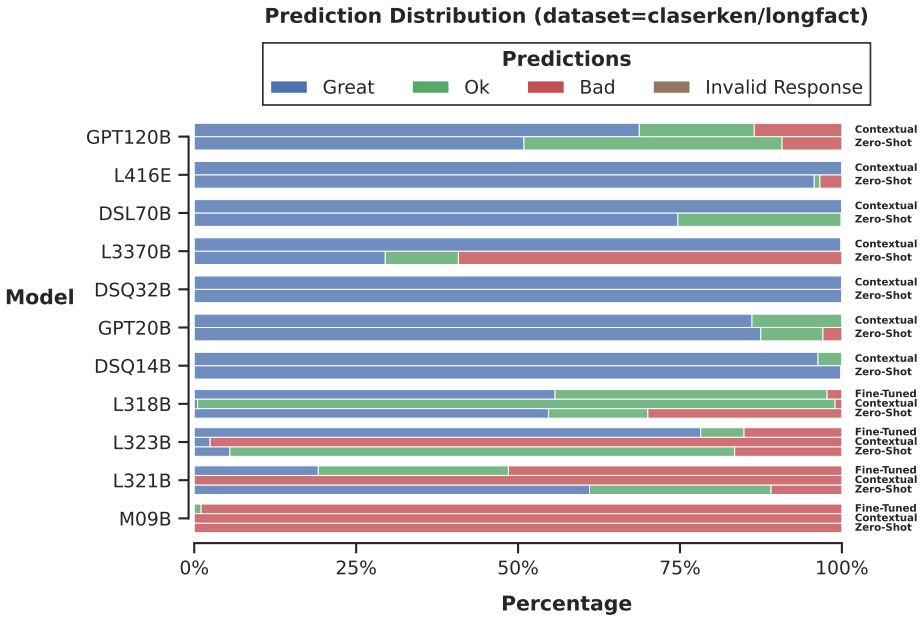


Figure 20: Zero-Shot and Contextual Prediction Distributions on LongFact

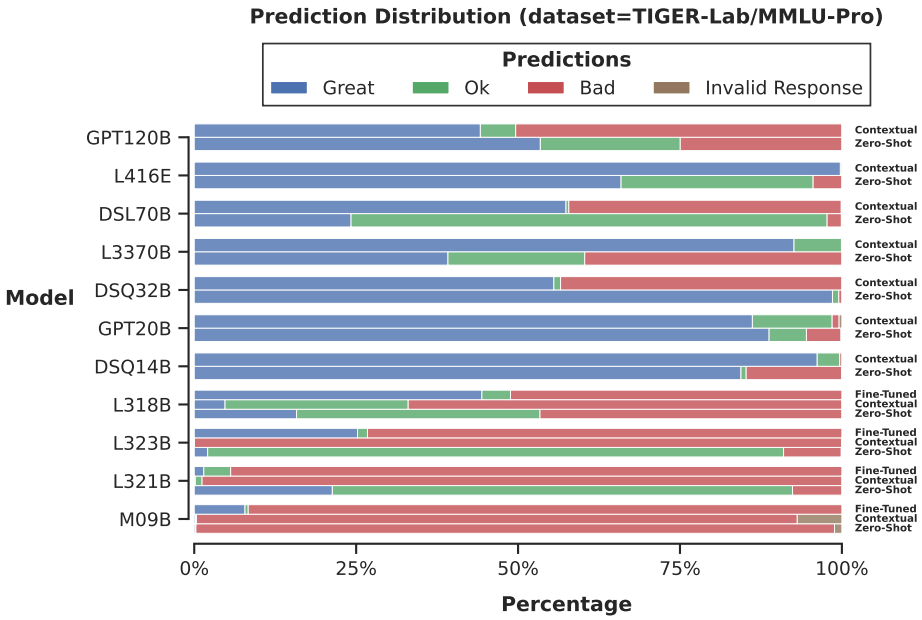


Figure 21: Zero-Shot and Contextual Prediction Distributions on MMLU-Pro

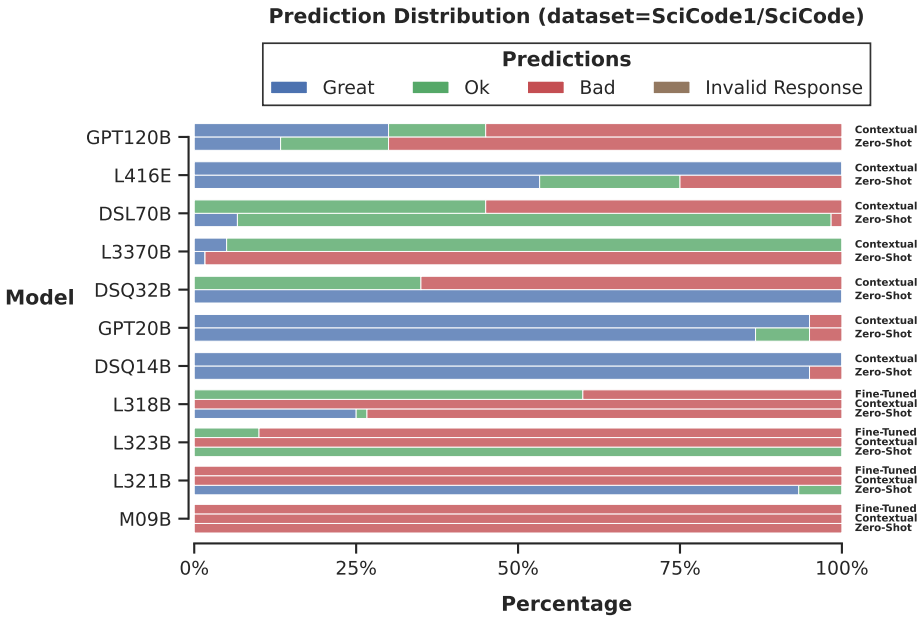


Figure 22: Zero-Shot and Contextual Prediction Distributions on SciCode

H HOLD-OUT DATASET RESULTS

To assess how well our predictors generalize to novel query domains, we evaluate their prediction accuracy on CommonsenseQA (Talmor et al., 2019). CommonsenseQA differs from all the other datasets used in this work as it is composed of common-sense knowledge questions, and thus serves as a strong hold-out set (we report results here over the whole of the dataset, ignoring splits as they serve no purpose in a hold-out experiment). We otherwise use the same experimental setup, judge, and rubric as in the main experiments (see Section 3).

Figure 23 shows that the LLM judge again assigns a wide spread of grades that varies more across models than within the dataset, consistent with the other datasets. Figure 24 shows that most models still predict their own performance above the random-guess baseline here, and that the models that benefited the most from our methods continue to reap those benefits on this new dataset. The predictive ability demonstrated in the main experiments therefore largely persists on hold-out data, subject to a similar model-dependent variation.

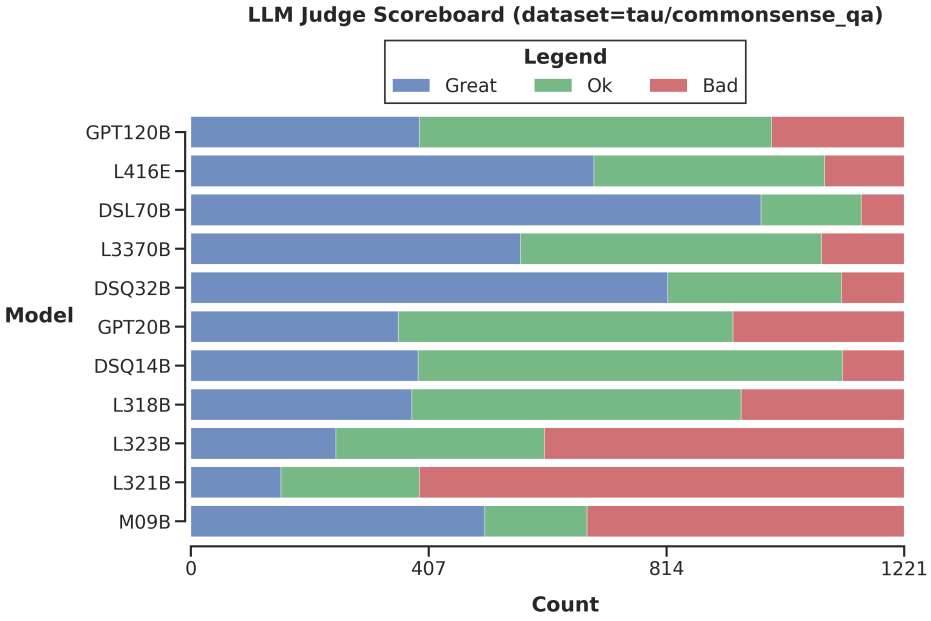


Figure 23: Distribution of LLM judge scores on CommensenseQA, a hold-out dataset.

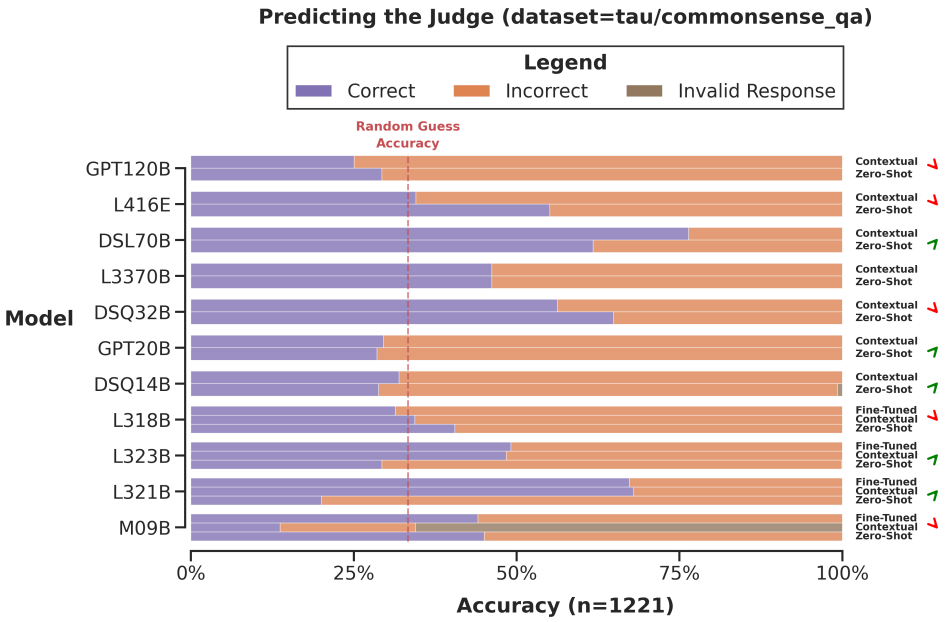


Figure 24: The prediction accuracy of all the models on the CommonsenseQA dataset (a green arrow indicates improvement over zero-shot). The invalid responses generated by M09B are likely due to it being a base model.

I ALTERNATE JUDGE RESULTS

The use of Llama 3.3 70B as a judge was done as it's a well-studied and reliable large model. As such, the evaluations it gives to the output of different models can be safely assumed to be meaningful. This is sufficient for the goals of this work. However, to validate that this continues to hold if the judge model is trained, we repeated the experiments with GPT OSS 120B as the judge model, replacing it as a model to be evaluated by MobileLLM-R1 (Zhao et al., 2025) in order to keep the number of models being evaluated constant. The results are shown in Figures 25 to 36. While these results bear some similarities to the results in the main text, several differences are present. Most notably, GPT OSS 120B is a harsher judge than Llama 3.3 70B. Despite this, the report card strategy is still able to generally improve the predictive performance of the system.

We noted that when running these experiments, our experiences suggest that GPT OSS 120B is much less suitable as a judge, being prone to (1) low-variety blanket evaluations of responses, and (2) producing corrupted outputs where arbitrary thinking tokens not included in the specification for GPT OSS 120B are present. These observations are consistent with the fact that this task is most certainly outside the training regime of these models, and the trend of the newest generation of models (from around the time of Llama 4 onwards) is that they are heavily overfitted to benchmarks. A full analysis of this behaviour is outside the scope of this work.

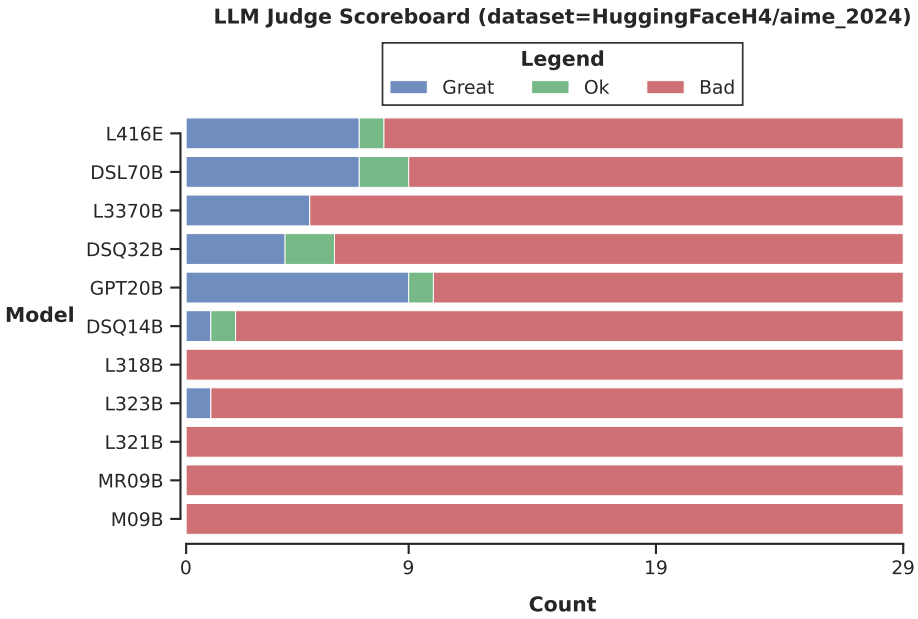


Figure 25: Distribution of LLM judge scores on AIME 2024 dataset with GPT OSS 120B as the judge.

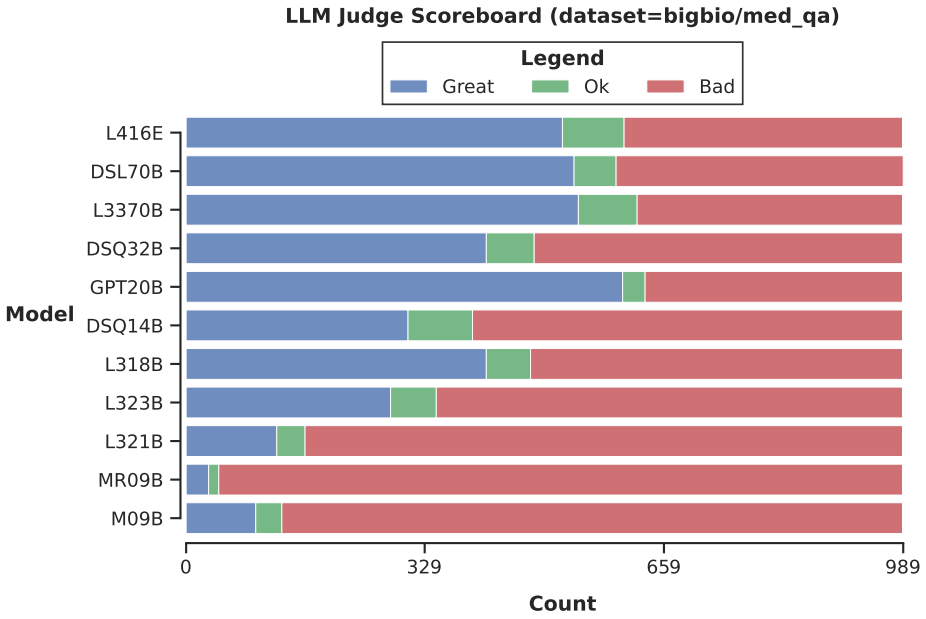


Figure 26: Distribution of LLM judge scores on MedQA dataset with GPT OSS 120B as the judge.

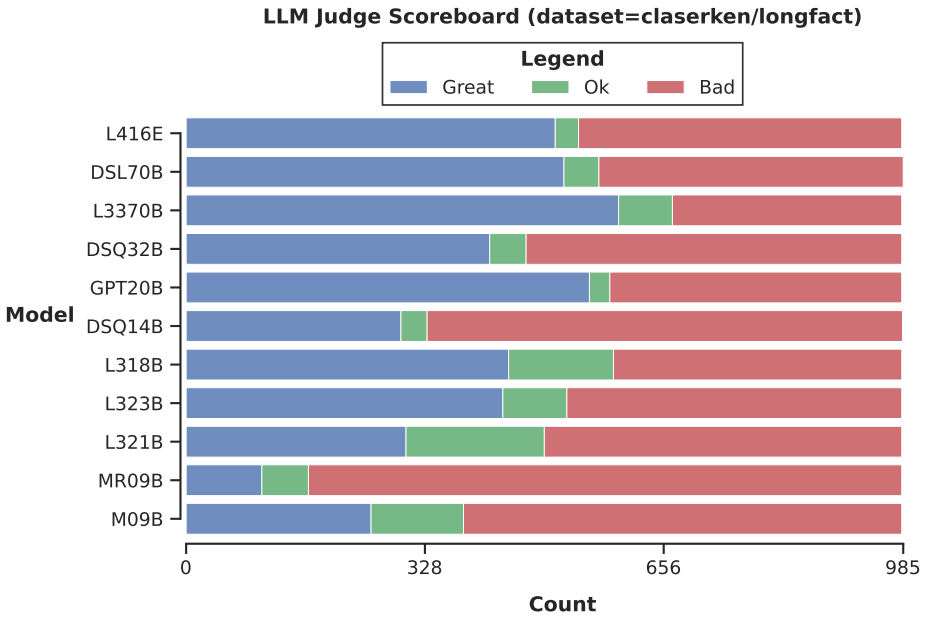


Figure 27: Distribution of LLM judge scores on LongFact dataset with GPT OSS 120B as the judge.

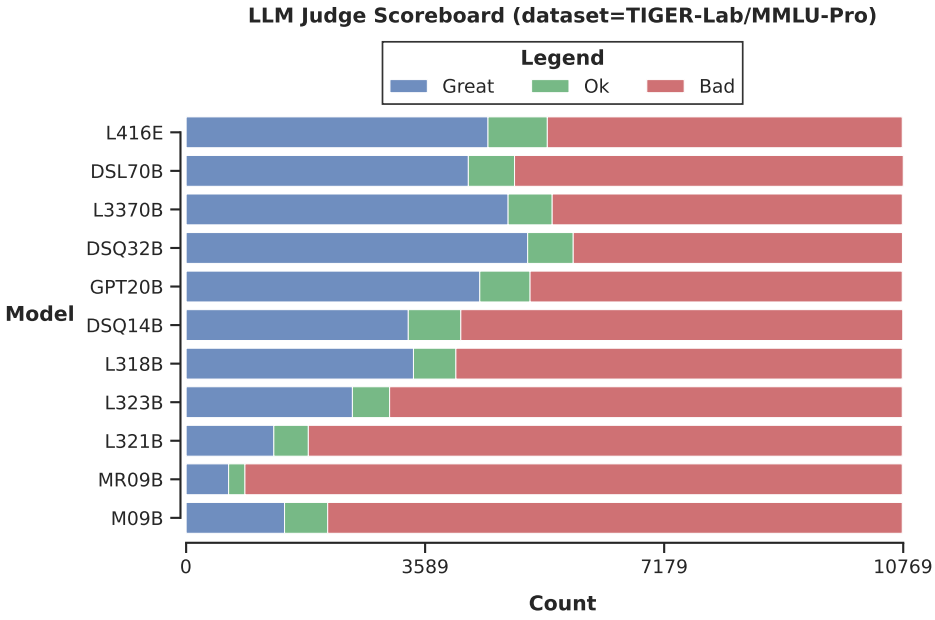


Figure 28: Distribution of LLM judge scores on MMLU-Pro dataset with GPT OSS 120B as the judge.

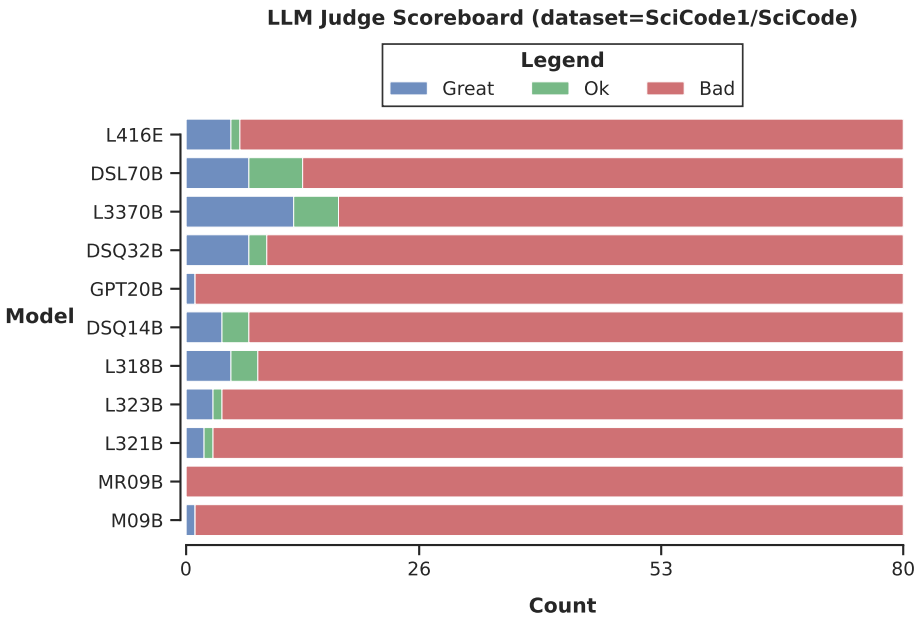


Figure 29: Distribution of LLM judge scores on SciCode dataset with GPT OSS 120B as the judge.

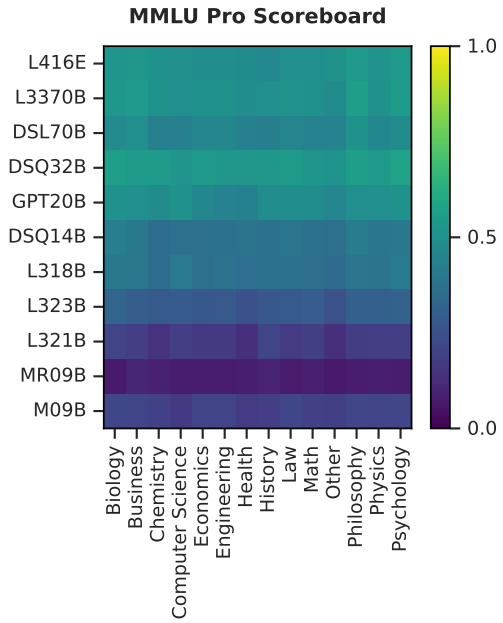


Figure 30: The probability of a model receiving a grade of either "great" or "ok" as a function of the query's category on the MMLU-Pro dataset when using GPT OSS 120B as the judge.

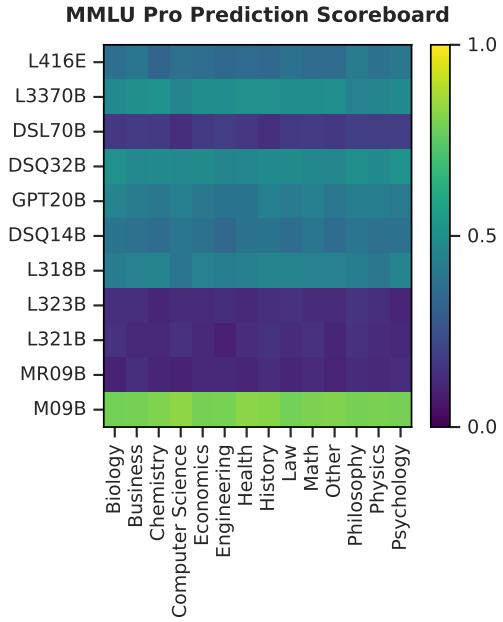


Figure 31: The probability of a model correctly predicting its score zero-shot as a function of the query's category on the MMLU-Pro dataset when using GPT OSS 120B as the judge.

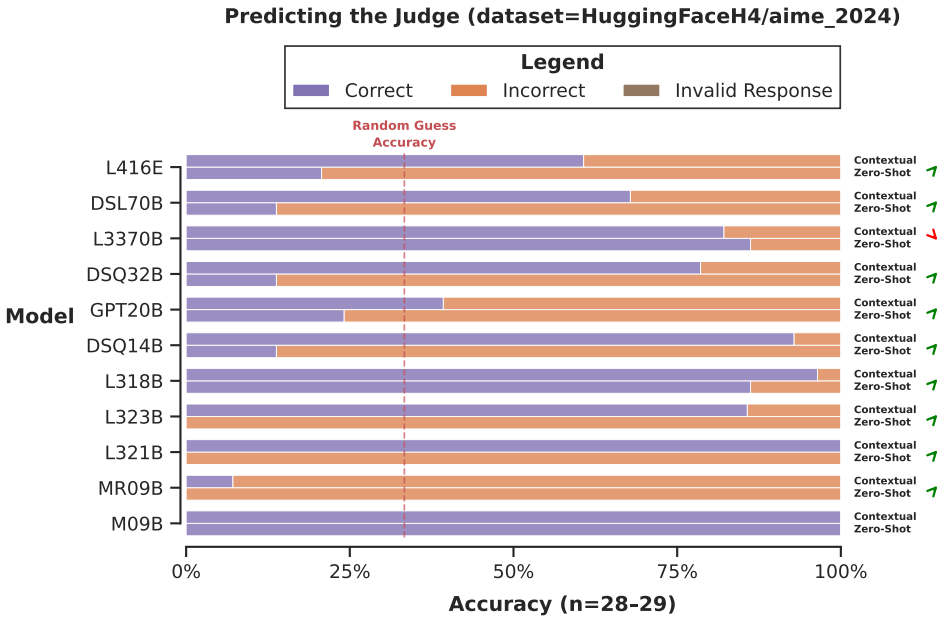


Figure 32: Contextual prediction accuracy of models on AIME 2024 dataset when using GPT OSS 120B as the judge.

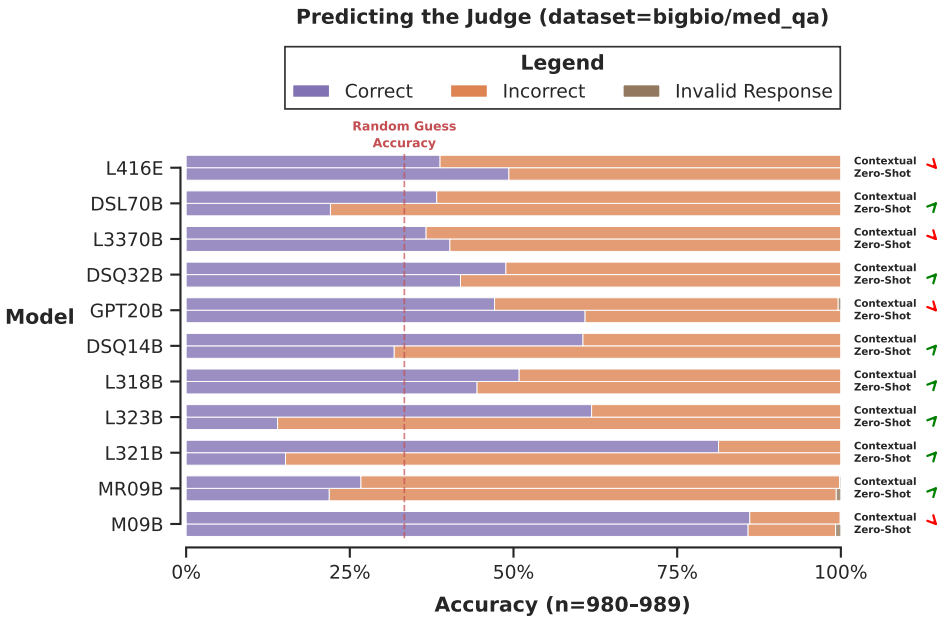


Figure 33: Contextual prediction accuracy of models on MedQA dataset when using GPT OSS 120B as the judge.

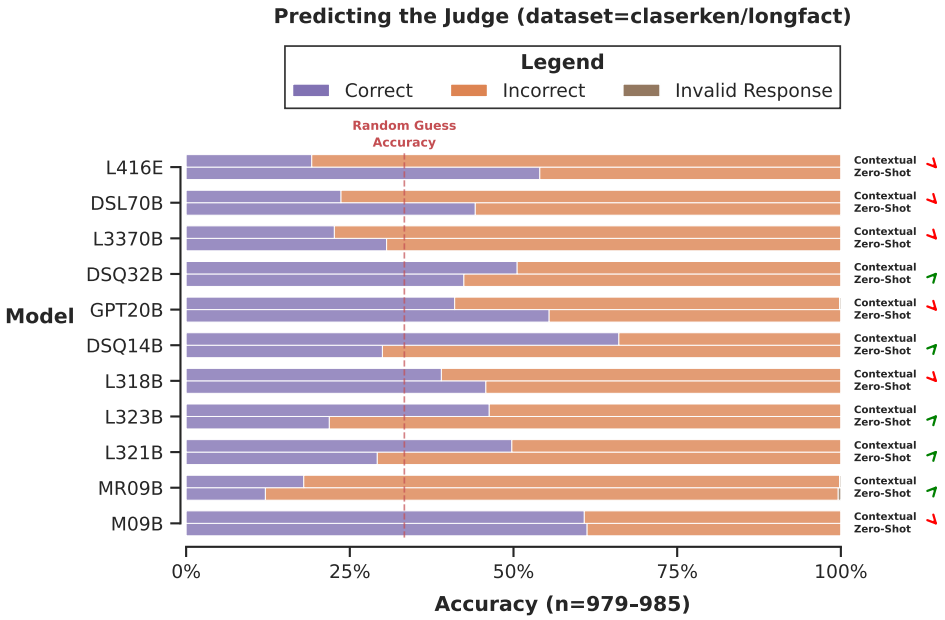


Figure 34: Contextual prediction accuracy of models on LongFact dataset when using GPT OSS 120B as the judge.

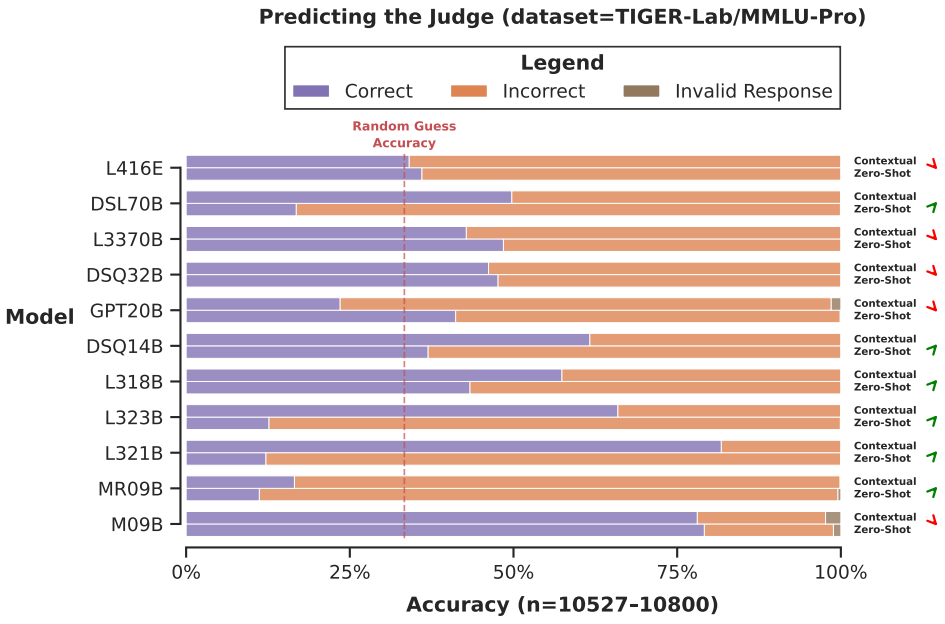


Figure 35: Contextual prediction accuracy of models on MMLU-Pro dataset when using GPT OSS 120B as the judge.

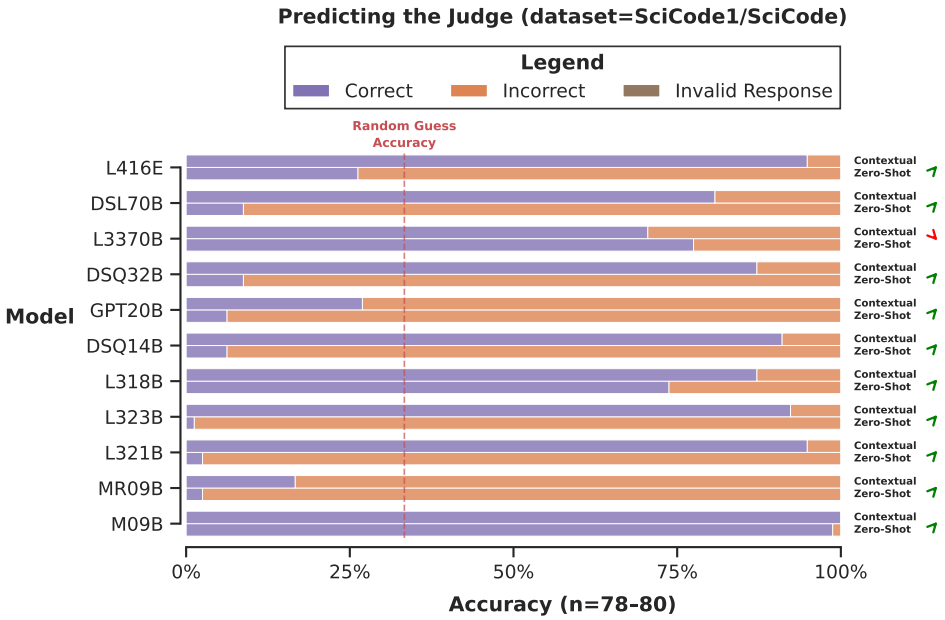


Figure 36: Contextual prediction accuracy of models on SciCode dataset when using GPT OSS 120B as the judge.

J SHORT FEEDBACK TEMPLATE RESULTS

The feedback template shown in Prompt 5 and used in our primary experiments is exceedingly long. To determine whether this is important or not, we repeated our zero-shot experiments with the shorter feedback template shown in Prompt 6. The results are shown in Figures 37 to 41. The principal takeaway from this ablation is that the longer and more comprehensive template led to a much stronger performance than the short template.

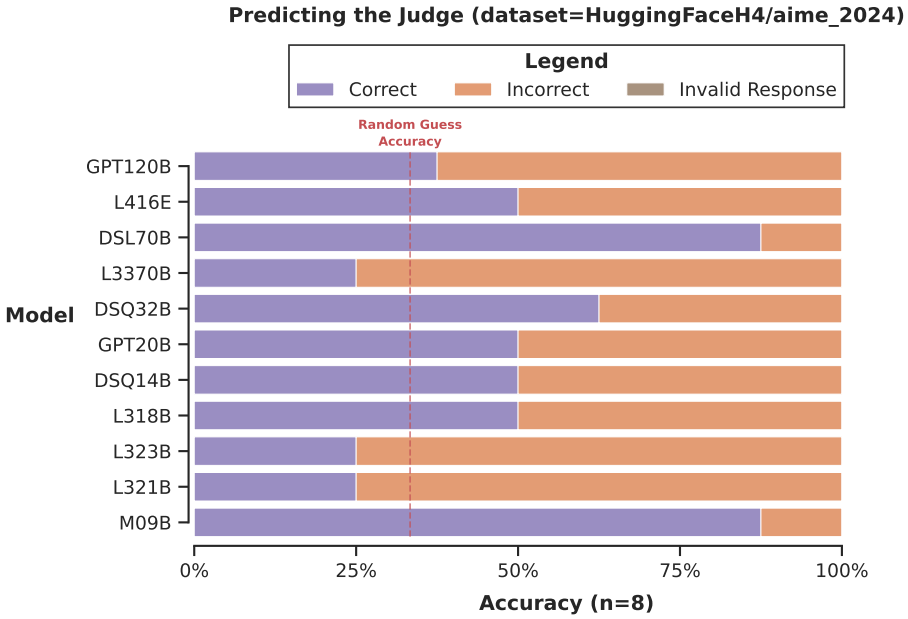


Figure 37: Contextual prediction accuracy of models on AIME 2024 dataset when using the short feedback template given in Prompt 6.

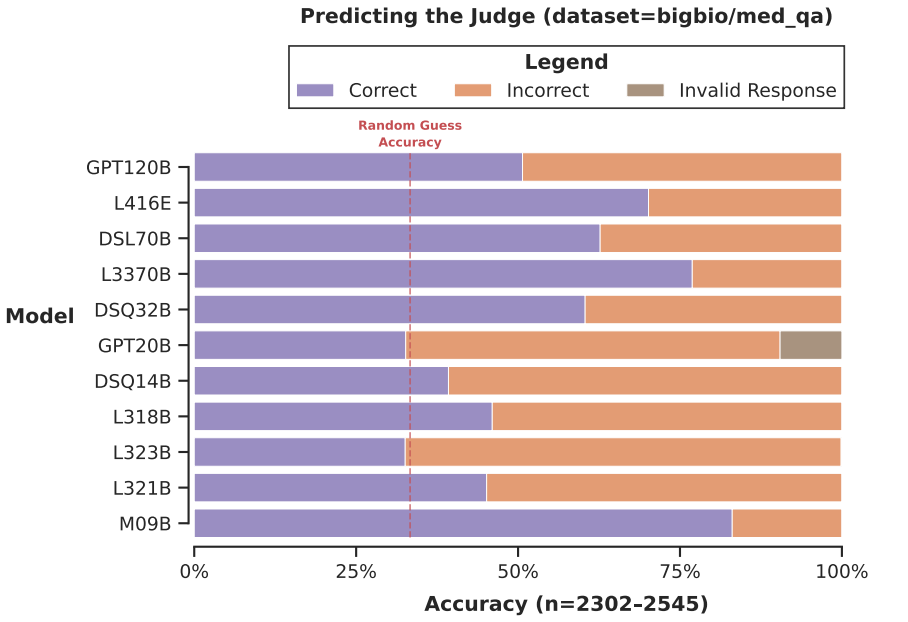


Figure 38: Contextual prediction accuracy of models on MedQA dataset when using the short feedback template given in Prompt 6.

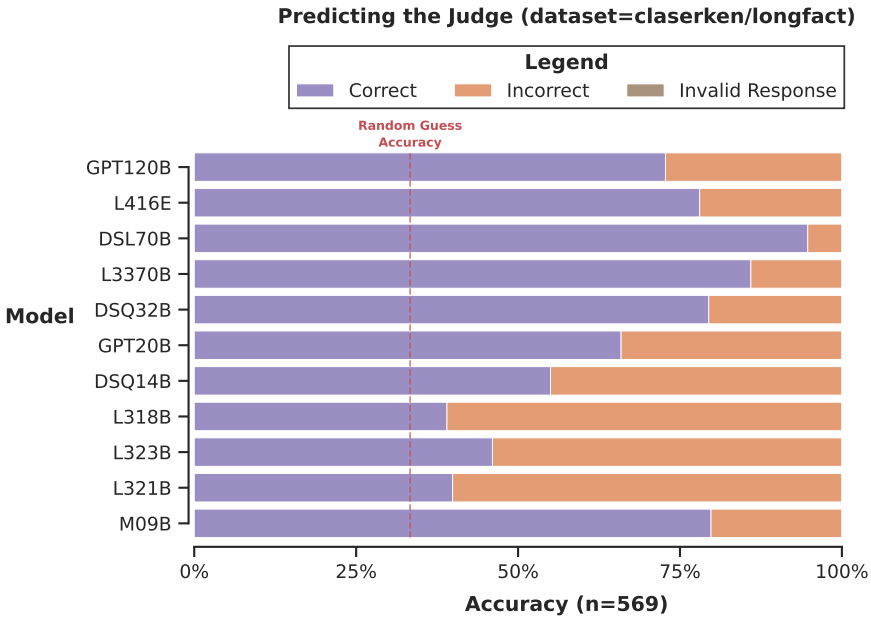


Figure 39: Contextual prediction accuracy of models on LongFact dataset when using the short feedback template given in Prompt 6.

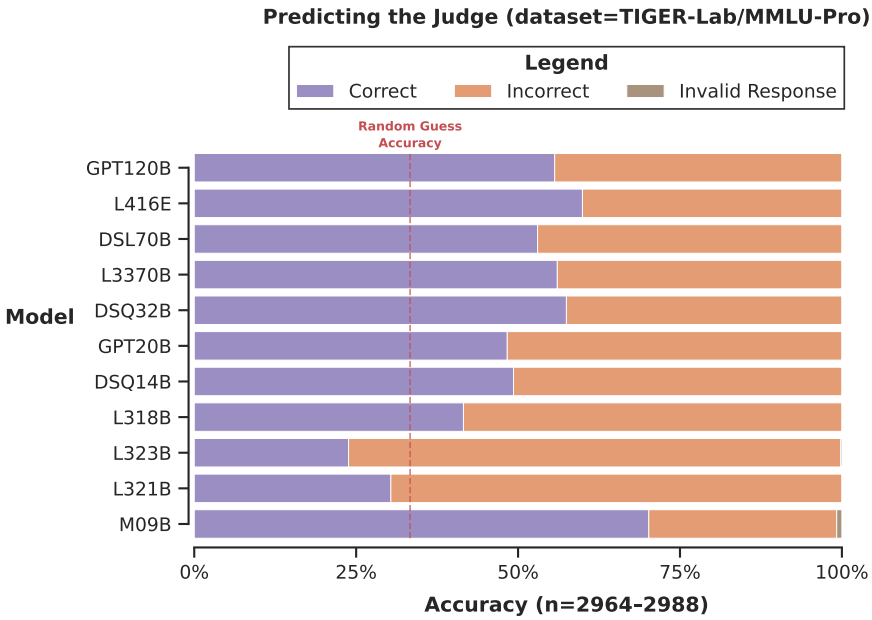


Figure 40: Contextual prediction accuracy of models on MMLU-Pro dataset when using the short feedback template given in Prompt 6.

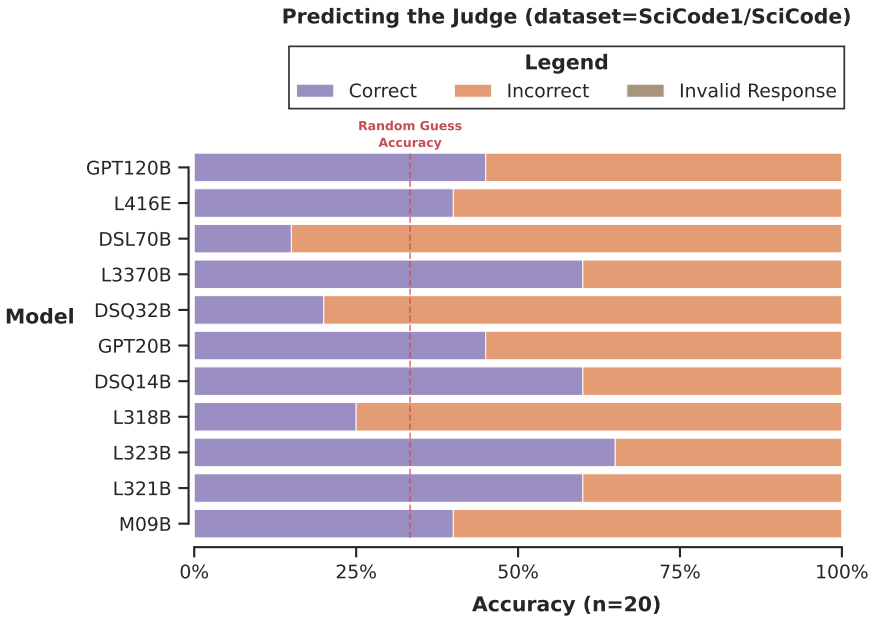


Figure 41: Contextual prediction accuracy of models on SciCode dataset when using the short feedback template given in Prompt 6.

K MISCHIEVOUS RUBRIC RESULTS

The rubric used in our primary experiments (and shown in Prompt 11) scores models according to a naive interpretation of performance. Part of the benefit of using a LLM or agentic judge is that you can define the evaluation criteria in a freeform manner. To demonstrate that this flexibility carries over to the prediction task, we repeated our experiment using an alternative, reversed rubric for evaluating the models. This rubric is shown in Prompt 12 with the rest of the prompt template used in Prompt 7. The results of this experiment are shown in Figures 42 to 46. While the predictive ability of the models given in Figures 42 to 46 is clearly less than those given in Figures 7 to 11, a clear (better than random) predictive ability is displayed by most of the models on most of the datasets. This suggests that—in addition to using the report cards—the models are relying on their intrinsic understanding of themselves or the difficulty of the questions.

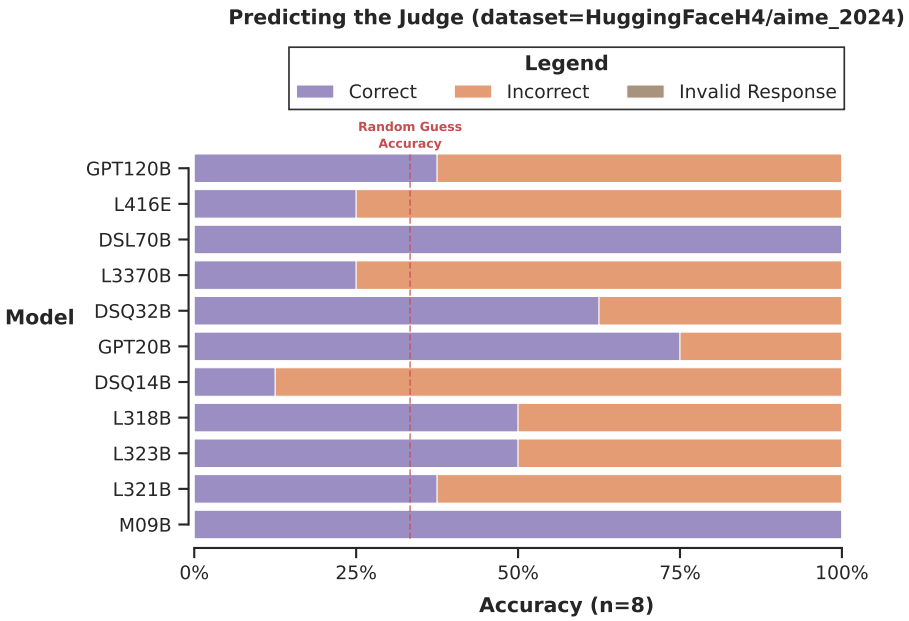


Figure 42: Contextual prediction accuracy of models on AIME 2024 dataset when evaluation is performed according to the mischievous rubric given in Prompt 12.

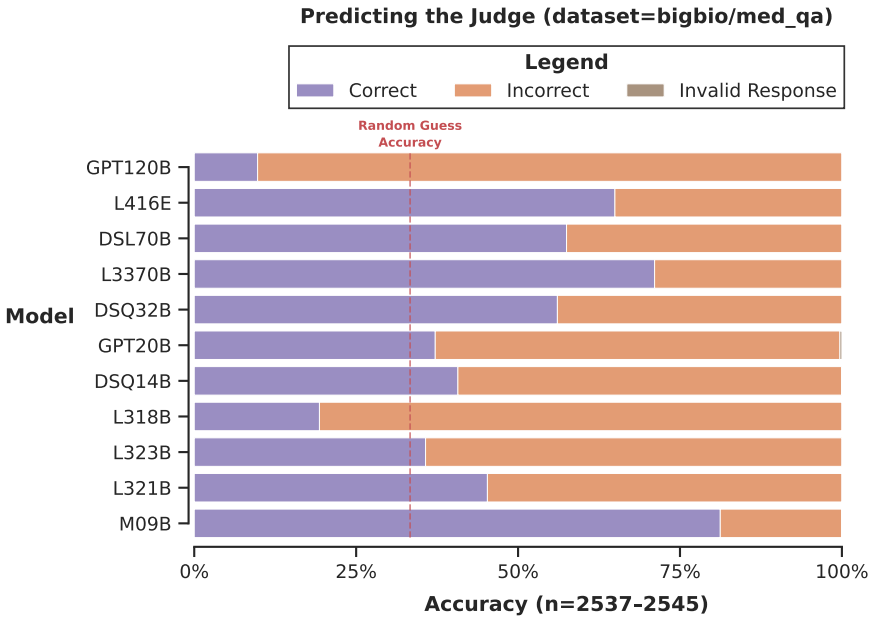


Figure 43: Contextual prediction accuracy of models on MedQA dataset when evaluation is performed according to the mischievous rubric given in Prompt 12.

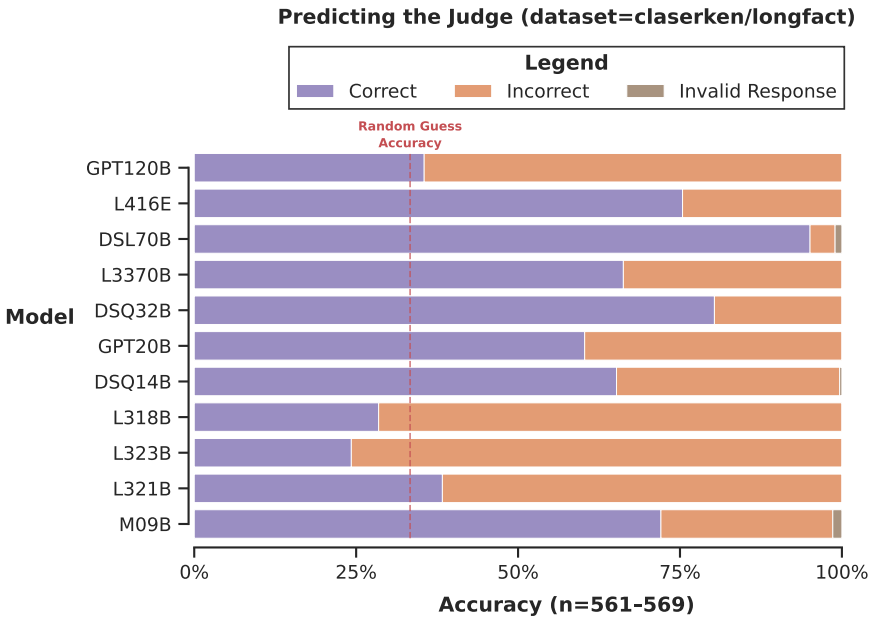


Figure 44: Contextual prediction accuracy of models on LongFact dataset when evaluation is performed according to the mischievous rubric given in Prompt 12.

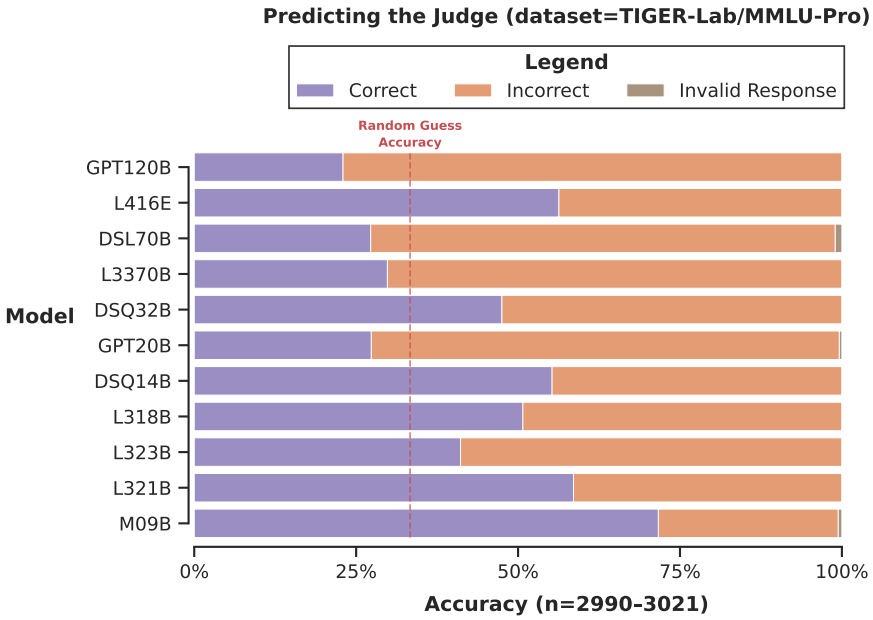


Figure 45: Contextual prediction accuracy of models on MMLU-Pro dataset when evaluation is performed according to the mischievous rubric given in Prompt 12.

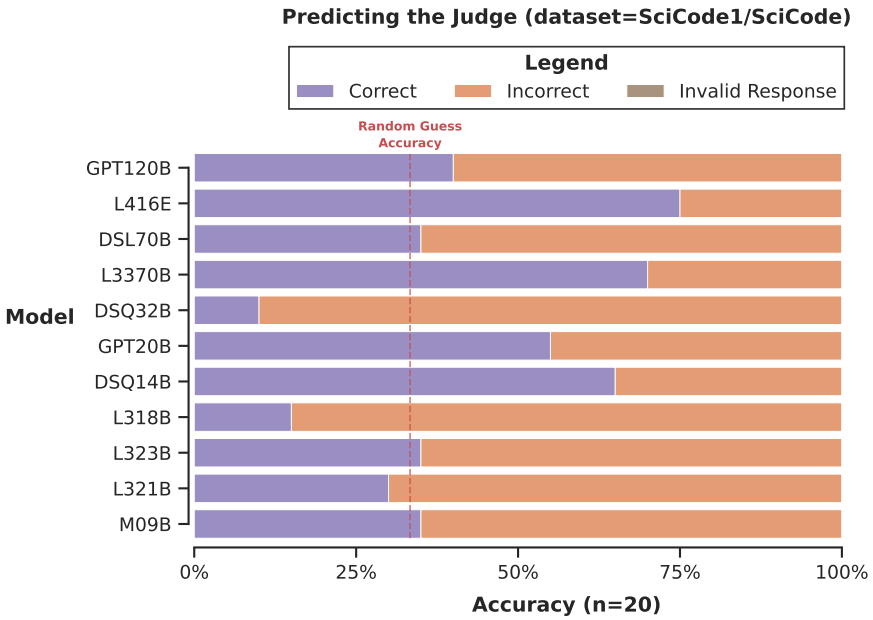


Figure 46: Contextual prediction accuracy of models on SciCode dataset when evaluation is performed according to the mischievous rubric given in Prompt 12.

L PREDICTION ACCURACY WITHOUT FINE-TUNED MODELS

As the evaluation is contextual, the results shown in Sections 4 and 5 occur in the context of the fine-tuned models. Figures 47 to 51 show both the zero-shot and contextual prediction accuracy of the models when the fine-tuned models are excluded from the experiment. Evidently, the effect of the fine-tuned models being added to the mix are relatively minimal here.

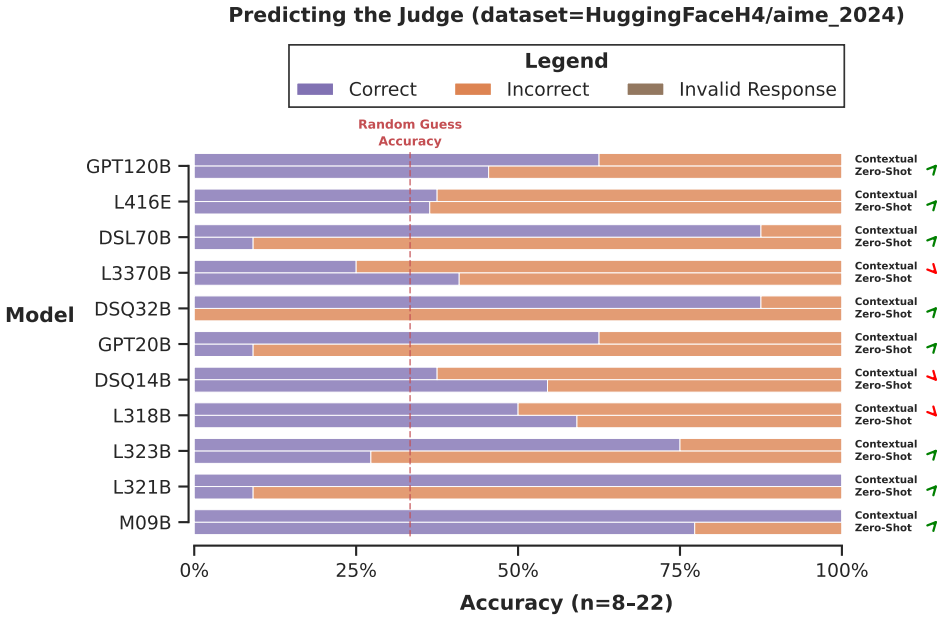


Figure 47: The zero-shot and contextual prediction accuracy of the models on the AIME 2024 dataset.

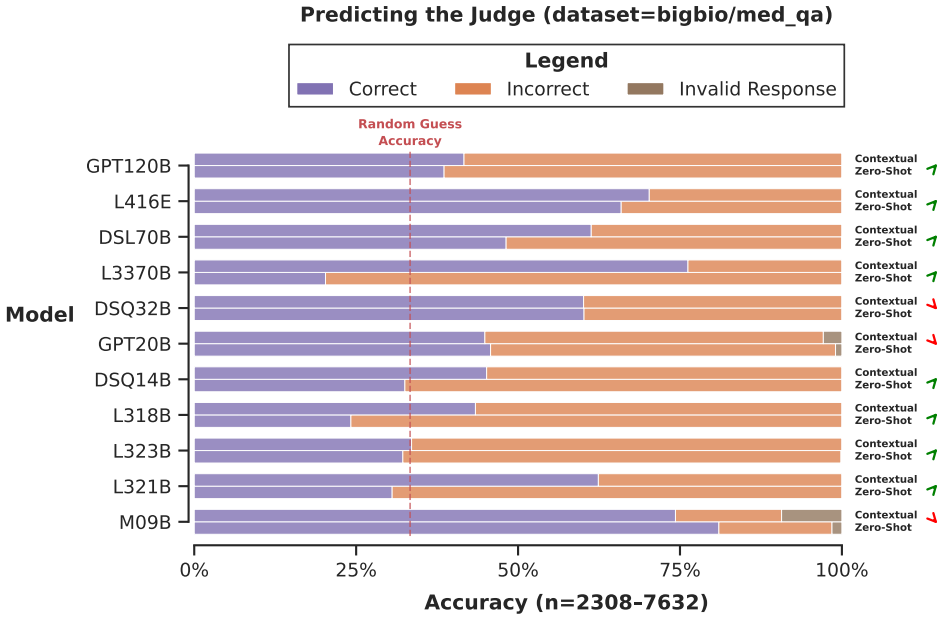


Figure 48: The zero-shot and contextual prediction accuracy of the models on the MedQA dataset.

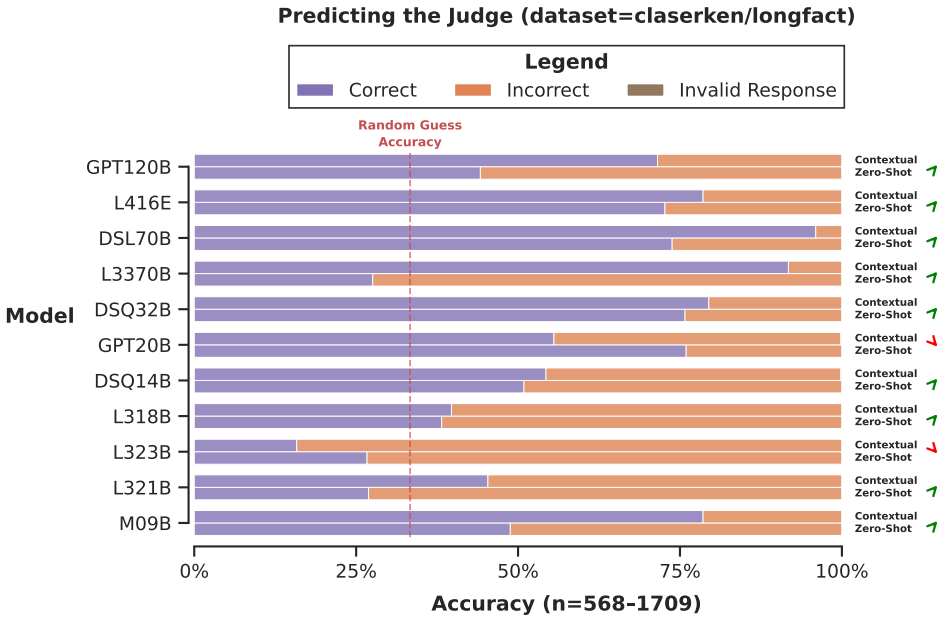


Figure 49: The zero-shot and contextual prediction accuracy of the models on the LongFact dataset.

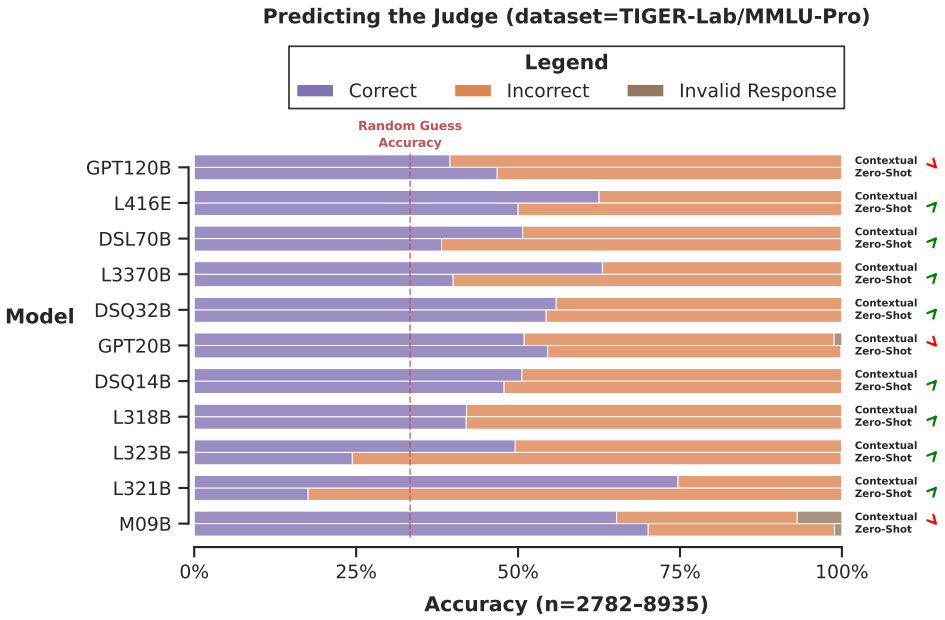


Figure 50: The zero-shot and contextual prediction accuracy of the models on the MMLU-Pro dataset.

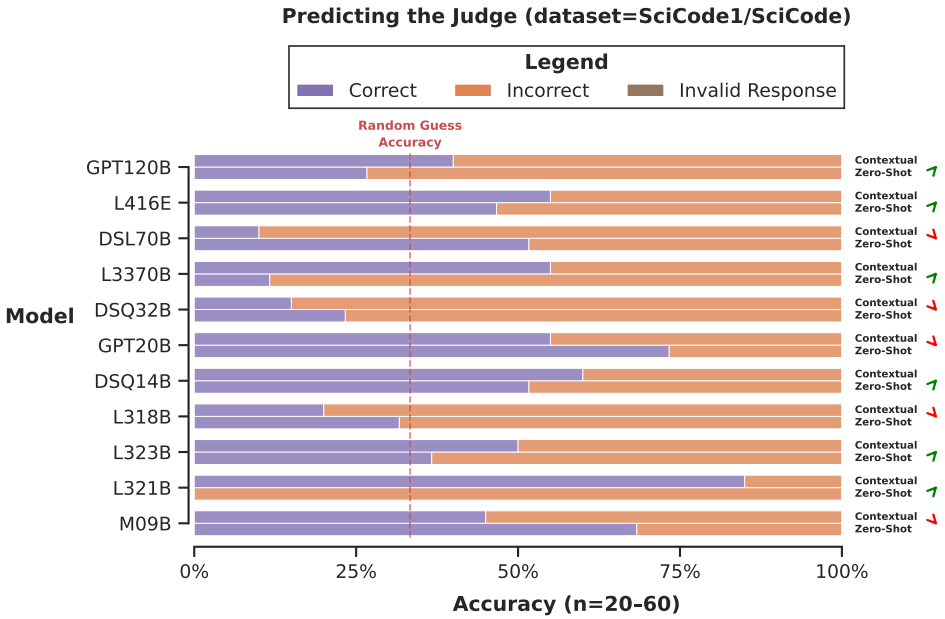


Figure 51: The zero-shot and contextual prediction accuracy of the models on the SciCode dataset.

M PER-DATASET ROUTING RESULTS

Section 6 summarizes our routing analysis by macro-averaging the per-dataset results for the fine-tuned models. Macro-averaging is preferable to query-averaging, as the datasets experimented with here have wildly different sizes. We focused on the fine-tuned models due to page-limit constraints. In this appendix, we provide the full per-dataset breakdown of the routing analysis.

In the naive routing system we experiment with, the idea is to treat each predictor as a binary gate: a query is answered by the model when it is predicted to produce a good response, and is otherwise routed to some larger, more powerful model. For each predictor, we report the binary bad-vs-not-bad prediction accuracy (Acc), the percentage of queries the model recommends be routed away (Route%), and the percentage of all queries that would still be answered badly under the resulting routing (Bad%). For Bad%, we assume the larger model that queries are routed to never answers badly, so that it captures only the queries the smaller model keeps yet answers badly and thus approximates the additional accuracy cost incurred by the routing.

Tables 6 to 10 report these metrics for AIME 2024, SciCode, MMLU-Pro, MedQA, and LongFact, respectively. The per-dataset results mirror the aggregate trend discussed in Section 6: the smaller models route most of their queries to a larger model while keeping only a small fraction of all queries that are graded bad, whereas the larger models retain more queries at the cost of somewhat more of all queries being graded bad.

	Contextual			Fine-tuned		
Model	**Acc**	**Route%**	**Bad%**	**Acc**	**Route%**	**Bad%**
M09B	0.625	100.0	0.0	0.625	100.0	0.0
L321B	1.000	100.0	0.0	1.000	100.0	0.0
L323B	0.625	100.0	0.0	0.625	100.0	0.0
L318B	0.375	100.0	0.0	0.375	100.0	0.0
DSQ14B	0.750	0.0	25.0	N/A	N/A	N/A
GPT20B	0.250	100.0	0.0	N/A	N/A	N/A
DSQ32B	0.750	100.0	0.0	N/A	N/A	N/A
L3370B	0.375	0.0	62.5	N/A	N/A	N/A
DSL70B	0.625	100.0	0.0	N/A	N/A	N/A
L416E	0.625	0.0	37.5	N/A	N/A	N/A
GPT120B	0.500	87.5	12.5	N/A	N/A	N/A

Table 6: Per-query routing/prediction metrics on AIME 2024 (n=8). Acc = binary bad-vs-not-bad prediction accuracy; Route% = fraction routed (predicted bad); Bad% = fraction of all queries still graded bad under the routing, assuming the larger model routed to is never bad (the approximate accuracy cost of the routing).

	Contextual			Fine-tuned		
Model	**Acc**	**Route%**	**Bad%**	**Acc**	**Route%**	**Bad%**
M09B	0.250	100.0	0.0	0.250	100.0	0.0
L321B	0.900	100.0	0.0	0.900	100.0	0.0
L323B	0.250	100.0	0.0	0.350	90.0	0.0
L318B	0.350	100.0	0.0	0.550	40.0	20.0
DSQ14B	0.850	0.0	15.0	N/A	N/A	N/A
GPT20B	0.650	5.0	30.0	N/A	N/A	N/A
DSQ32B	0.250	65.0	20.0	N/A	N/A	N/A
L3370B	0.800	0.0	20.0	N/A	N/A	N/A
DSL70B	0.500	55.0	5.0	N/A	N/A	N/A
L416E	0.950	0.0	5.0	N/A	N/A	N/A
GPT120B	0.500	55.0	15.0	N/A	N/A	N/A

Table 7: Per-query routing/prediction metrics on SciCode (n=20). Acc = binary bad-vs-not-bad prediction accuracy; Route% = fraction routed (predicted bad); Bad% = fraction of all queries still graded bad under the routing, assuming the larger model routed to is never bad (the approximate accuracy cost of the routing).

	Contextual			Fine-tuned		
Model	**Acc**	**Route%**	**Bad%**	**Acc**	**Route%**	**Bad%**
M09B	0.637	99.6	0.3	0.663	91.7	3.0
L321B	0.728	98.8	1.0	0.753	94.4	1.9
L323B	0.487	100.0	0.0	0.643	73.3	5.6
L318B	0.582	67.0	5.5	0.702	51.2	7.4
DSQ14B	0.871	0.3	12.6	N/A	N/A	N/A
GPT20B	0.747	1.1	24.7	N/A	N/A	N/A
DSQ32B	0.692	43.4	4.4	N/A	N/A	N/A
L3370B	0.862	0.1	13.7	N/A	N/A	N/A
DSL70B	0.606	42.1	2.4	N/A	N/A	N/A
L416E	0.864	0.0	13.6	N/A	N/A	N/A
GPT120B	0.512	50.4	5.9	N/A	N/A	N/A

Table 8: Per-query routing/prediction metrics on MMLU-Pro (n=2988). Acc = binary bad-vs-not-bad prediction accuracy; Route% = fraction routed (predicted bad); Bad% = fraction of all queries still graded bad under the routing, assuming the larger model routed to is never bad (the approximate accuracy cost of the routing).

	Contextual			Fine-tuned		
Model	**Acc**	**Route%**	**Bad%**	**Acc**	**Route%**	**Bad%**
M09B	0.727	98.5	1.3	0.736	99.8	0.1
L321B	0.589	99.8	0.1	0.585	97.6	1.3
L323B	0.313	99.8	0.1	0.545	51.5	12.6
L318B	0.754	14.1	13.4	0.829	3.2	15.1
DSQ14B	0.868	0.2	13.0	N/A	N/A	N/A
GPT20B	0.690	0.8	30.4	N/A	N/A	N/A
DSQ32B	0.906	0.7	8.8	N/A	N/A	N/A
L3370B	0.968	0.0	3.2	N/A	N/A	N/A
DSL70B	0.973	0.9	1.8	N/A	N/A	N/A
L416E	0.912	0.0	8.8	N/A	N/A	N/A
GPT120B	0.579	40.9	3.2	N/A	N/A	N/A

Table 9: Per-query routing/prediction metrics on MedQA (n=2545). Acc = binary bad-vs-not-bad prediction accuracy; Route% = fraction routed (predicted bad); Bad% = fraction of all queries still graded bad under the routing, assuming the larger model routed to is never bad (the approximate accuracy cost of the routing).

	Contextual			Fine-tuned		
Model	**Acc**	**Route%**	**Bad%**	**Acc**	**Route%**	**Bad%**
M09B	0.761	100.0	0.0	0.754	98.9	0.9
L321B	0.388	100.0	0.0	0.620	51.5	12.7
L323B	0.148	97.5	0.4	0.824	15.1	7.7
L318B	0.965	1.1	2.5	0.963	2.3	1.9
DSQ14B	0.968	0.0	3.2	N/A	N/A	N/A
GPT20B	0.889	0.0	11.1	N/A	N/A	N/A
DSQ32B	0.979	0.0	2.1	N/A	N/A	N/A
L3370B	0.998	0.0	0.2	N/A	N/A	N/A
DSL70B	0.998	0.0	0.2	N/A	N/A	N/A
L416E	0.963	0.0	3.7	N/A	N/A	N/A
GPT120B	0.817	13.5	5.6	N/A	N/A	N/A

Table 10: Per-query routing/prediction metrics on LongFact (n=569). Acc = binary bad-vs-not-bad prediction accuracy; Route% = fraction routed (predicted bad); Bad% = fraction of all queries still graded bad under the routing, assuming the larger model routed to is never bad (the approximate accuracy cost of the routing).