

Does task decomposition improve automatic NLG evaluation?

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Abstract

The LLM-as-a-judge (LLMaJ) framework has emerged as a promising solution for cheap, reproducible, reference-free Natural Language Generation (NLG) evaluation. Prior work seeks to improve LLMaJ by decomposing evaluation tasks into simpler sub-tasks. In this work, we systematically compare LLMaJ methods with and without decomposition on multiple NLG datasets. We find no evidence that LLMaJ with task decomposition leads to performance gains over a fair baseline that does not use decomposition. Instead, we find that previously reported performance gains in decomposition-based LLMaJ stem from using human labels as training data, and not task decomposition itself. Also, we find that, when human labels are available, LLMaJ without using task decomposition can perform comparably to human annotators.

1 Introduction

Evaluating the output quality of automatic Natural Language Generation (NLG) methods is intricate: widely used reference-based metrics such as ROUGE (Lin, 2004) and BERTScore (Zhang et al., 2020) rely on expensive human annotations, operate on surface-level features, and correlate poorly with human judgments (Gehrmann et al., 2023). The LLM-as-a-judge (LLMaJ) framework (Zheng et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2023) has thus gained attention as a reference-free alternative (Gao et al., 2025). A recent line of work proposes decomposing each evaluation criterion into simpler sub-criteria, aiming to improve alignment with human annotations and reduce variance across models and executions (Min et al., 2023; Saha et al., 2024; Liu et al., 2024b; Lee et al., 2025).

In this paper, we perform a systematic analysis of decomposition-based LLMaJ (Figure 1). These methods follow a three-stage pipeline: an LLM decomposes a given evaluation criterion (e.g., Coherence) into subcriteria, scores each subcrite-

tion, and an aggregator produces a single score, either by using a learned regressor (Liu et al., 2024b) or by a simple average of subcriteria scores (Lee et al., 2025). We ask whether this decomposition step is actually beneficial. To answer this, we construct a strong baseline that directly predicts the score for a given criterion without decomposition, granting it access to the same human labels used by Liu et al. (2024b) to ensure a fair comparison (we also report results without human labels). Additionally, we attempt to improve decomposition-based LLMaJ itself through more principled decomposition logic and In-Context Learning (ICL) (Brown et al., 2020).

Our experimental results show no evidence of decomposition-based LLMaJ being superior to the baseline that does not use decomposition. In fact, our analysis showed that previously reported gains of decomposition-based LLMaJ are not due to task simplification by decomposition, but rather due to using human labels as training data. In summary, our main contributions are: i) a systematic comparison of decomposition-based and direct prediction LLMaJ approaches, ii) insights into why decomposition-based LLMaJ is not beneficial, iii) evidence that direct prediction LLMaJ can reach human-level performance on some evaluation criteria when using human ratings as training data.

2 Problem Statement

Given a text t to be evaluated according to an evaluation criterion d (e.g. Coherence), we define the annotation score from an LLMaJ f as $s = f(t, d)$. The goal is to align s as closely as possible to the human score $s^* = \text{human}(t, d)$. We follow the notation from Liu et al. (2024b) and denote with L_1 the set of evaluation criteria rated by humans and with L_n the set of sub-criteria after $n - 1$ decomposition steps. For example, the L_1 criterion Coherence could be broken down into the L_2 sub-

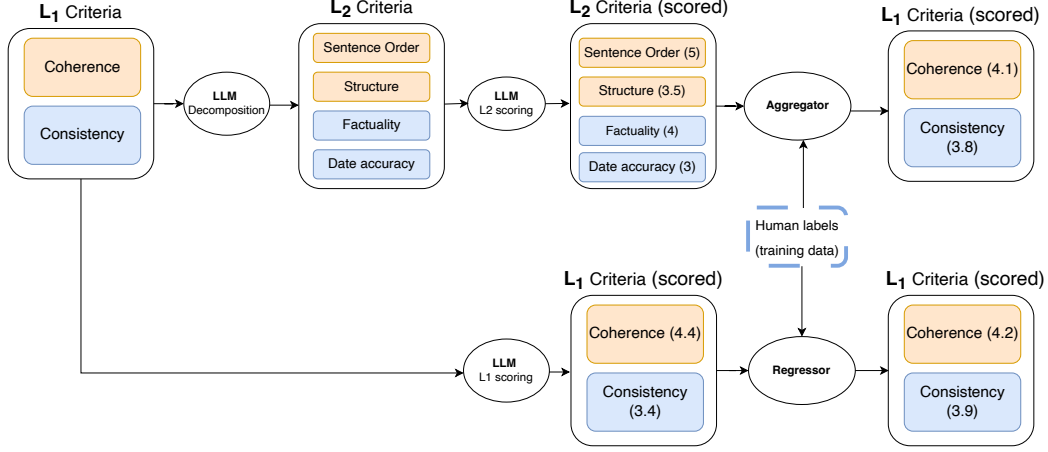


Figure 1: Visualization of decomposition-based LLMAJ (upper part), and Direct Prediction LLMAJ (lower part). Human labels are optional: they are used by HD-Eval, can be used by Direct Prediction but are not used by CheckEval. The input text t is not shown.

criteria Sentence Order, Structure, and others.

We study two approaches for predicting a score s for an L_1 criterion: decomposition-based, where L_1 is decomposed to sub-criteria and then aggregated back to L_1 to make a prediction (Section 3), and direct prediction, where L_1 is predicted directly without decomposition (Section 4).

3 Decomposition-based LLMAJ

Fig. 1 (upper part) shows an overview of the decomposition-based LLMAJ. Given a text t , it first uses an LLM to decompose an L_1 evaluation criterion into L_2 sub-criteria and then score each sub-criterion. Then, it aggregates the scores of sub-criteria to output a single score s . We study decomposition-based approaches both when human labels are used to train an aggregator, and when they are withheld. Note that human annotations are only available at the L_1 level; no ground-truth exists for the decomposed sub-criteria.

3.1 Existing approaches

Existing approaches differ along three axes: the *structure* of the decomposition (flat vs. hierarchical), the *scale* used for scoring (binary vs. ordinal), and the *aggregation* mechanism (label-free vs. learned). We focus on HD-Eval (Liu et al., 2024b) and CheckEval (Lee et al., 2025) as representative instantiations of this template, since they decompose into a general set of sub-criteria rather than generating instance-level checklists (Wei et al., 2025). Both are evaluated on the same well-known NLG benchmarks, enabling direct comparison. Re-

lated but out of scope is LLM-Rubric (Hashemi et al., 2024), which defines evaluation criteria but trains a calibrator to map LLM scores to human scores without a decomposition step, making it a calibration method rather than a decomposition method. Also, Li et al. (2024) focus on pairwise evaluation whereas we consider a single instance at a time.

HD-Eval (Liu et al., 2024b) HD-Eval decomposes an L_1 evaluation criterion into L_2 and L_3 sub-criteria in a hierarchical manner, which are then scored by the LLM on an ordinal scale (e.g., 1-5). As an aggregator, HD-Eval uses a regressor trained on human labeled data (that are assumed to be available at the L_1 level) to output the score s .¹ In our reproduction of HD-Eval we use the L_2 and L_3 sub-criteria as input to the regressor.²

CheckEval (Lee et al., 2025) CheckEval decomposes an L_1 evaluation criterion into L_2 sub-criteria that are binary yes/no questions. Differently from HD-Eval, they do not use human labeled data to aggregate the L_2 scores. Instead, the aggregator simply outputs the proportion of positively answered binary questions as the score s . This approach is fully equivalent to TICK (Cook et al., 2024).

¹We do not consider Liu et al. (2024a) since it has consistently inferior performance than HD-Eval.

²Note that, unless stated otherwise, we do not use direct L_1 predictions as input as they do in the original paper, since that would not allow us to disentangle the effect of decomposition and direct prediction. Nevertheless, we find that also using L_1 criteria as input does not lead to performance gains.

3.2 Proposed Extensions

We investigate two extensions to HD-Eval (Liu et al., 2024b), in an attempt to further improve the performance of decomposition-based LLMaJ. First, we introduce Atomic, Observable, and Independent (AOI) decomposition, which creates sub-criteria that are meant to be uncorrelated (Atomic, Independent) and clearly derivable from the text (Observable) (see Fig. 7). Second, we apply ICL during decomposition (Brown et al., 2020; Sanh et al., 2022; Dong et al., 2024) to guide the LLM to infer human-aligned sub-criteria.³ Both can be seen as additional decomposition variants that extend the reasoning underlying the decomposition approach. Thus, one would hypothesize that they lead to better decompositions and consequently better alignment to humans.

4 Direct Prediction LLMaJ

We establish a strong, Direct Prediction LLMaJ baseline that predicts a score s for an L_1 evaluation criterion without decomposition (Fig. 1, lower part). Following common practices (Gao et al., 2025), the prompt contains the criterion name and definition, the rating scale, a CoT-inducing statement (Fig. 3), and five ICL (Brown et al., 2020) examples showcasing human evaluations at low, medium, and high scores.⁴ Since this baseline directly predicts the target L_1 score, no aggregation step is needed. However, for fair comparison with HD-Eval, we also train a regressor on the uni-dimensional LLM output using human labels, which shifts predictions closer to the human distribution without influencing LLM inference.⁵

5 Experimental Setup

Datasets Following Liu et al. (2024b) and Lee et al. (2025), we use SummEval (Fabbri et al., 2021) and TopicalChat (Gopalakrishnan et al., 2019) as the main datasets. Additionally, we use Seahorse (Clark et al., 2023) as an alternative summarization dataset with multiple evaluation criteria.

Metrics To evaluate the quality of LLMaJ methods, we measure their alignment to human labels for L_1 criteria. We follow standard practices and

report alignment as measured by correlation metrics. Concretely, we report Spearman’s ρ .⁶ Moreover, we adopt the alt-test (Calderon et al., 2025) for SummEval and TopicalChat, where we have access to scores from multiple (three) annotators. We report the Average Advantage Probability (AP) and Winning-Rate (WR), which are both in $[0, 1]$ (higher is better). AP represents the probability that the LLM annotations are as good as or better than those of a randomly chosen annotator, and can be used to compare judges against each other. WR is the percentage of annotators against which the LLMaJ “wins”. For the Seahorse dataset it is not possible to use the alt-test since only one annotation per sample is available. We thus report accuracy and Krippendorff’s α , and calculate Inter-Annotator Agreement (IAA) to compare to human labels, following Clark et al. (2023).

Implementation Details We use Claude-4 (Sonnet) (Anthropic, 2025) with temperature $t = 0$ as the base LLM for our main results. We also provide results with Qwen3-32B (Yang et al., 2025) and GPT-OSS-120B (Agarwal et al., 2025) in the Appendix E. We observe generally the same trends across these models. To ensure the best possible comparison, we re-implement HD-Eval (Liu et al., 2024b) and CheckEval (Lee et al., 2025) with Claude-4 using their provided code or prompts, and additionally also include the results reported in the original publications. We use a 50/50 train/test split as in (Liu et al., 2024b). We follow HD-Eval (Liu et al., 2024b) and experiment with different regressors: Linear Regression, Decision Tree, Random Forest, Multilayer Perceptron (details in Appendix D.4). We report results from the best regressor per setting. The best regressor is selected for every evaluated setting individually and chosen by the combination of Spearman’s ρ and AP score. The same regressor is used for all evaluation dimensions to ensure fair comparison. The best regressors are shown in the full results in Tables 7 and 8. All methods under comparison output floats.⁷ We report results on a single run, but did not observe significant variations across runs.

³Implementation details in Appendix D.1.

⁴Here, ICL is used for directly predicting L_1 scores, not for guiding decomposition as in Section 3.2.

⁵For fair comparison with CheckEval, which uses no human labels, we also report results without the regressor.

⁶Pearson’s r and Kendall’s τ shown in the full results in the Appendix.

⁷Float outputs gain a numerical advantage over integer outputs through tie elimination and better fit to float ground truths; we provide results both with and without rounding to ensure fair comparison (Appendix D.3).

Method	Decomp.	Human labels	SummEval			TopicalChat		
			$\rho \uparrow$	AP $\uparrow$	WR $\uparrow$	$\rho \uparrow$	AP $\uparrow$	WR $\uparrow$
HD-Eval*	yes	yes	0.535	–	–	0.638	–	–
HD-Eval (Claude 4)	yes	yes	0.567	0.833	1.0	0.563	0.848	0.58
HD-Eval (Claude 4) + L_1	yes	yes	0.560	0.828	1.0	0.582	0.843	0.58
CheckEval* (Mistral-Large)	yes	no	0.549	–	–	0.645	–	–
CheckEval* (GPT-4o)	yes	no	0.504	–	–	0.640	–	–
CheckEval (Claude 4)	yes	no	0.411	–	–	0.428	–	–
ICL Decomposition	yes	yes	0.567	0.842	1.0	0.575	0.840	1.0
AOI Decomposition	yes	yes	0.586	0.831	1.0	0.574	0.839	1.0
Direct Prediction	no	no	0.553	0.593	0.5	0.701	0.864	0.5
Direct Prediction (+ICL)	no	no	0.552	0.638	0.75	0.716	0.870	0.58
Direct Prediction	no	yes	0.560	0.835	1.0	0.672	0.885	1.0
Direct Prediction (+ICL)	no	yes	0.545	0.846	1.0	0.687	0.888	1.0

Table 1: Main results of our study. We show the results averaged across all criteria. We report sample-wise Spearman’s ρ , Advantage Probability (AP), and Win-Rate (WR). Pearson’s r and Kendall’s τ are shown with the per-criterion results in the Appendix F. Column "Decomp." refers to whether decomposition is performed. Column "Human Labels" refers to whether human labels are used either during the aggregation step (HD-Eval) or for aligning direct prediction scores. Note that we do not report AP and WR for CheckEval since the output is on a different scale than the human responses, making their calculation not meaningful. *:As originally reported.

6 Results and Discussion

6.1 Decomposition VS Direct Prediction

Table 1 shows the performance of different LLMaJ methods on the SummEval and TopicalChat datasets. First, we see that Direct Prediction combinations perform better or only slightly worse than the best decomposition-based approaches, with one of them achieving the best overall AP on both datasets. Also, we see that even the Direct Prediction combination that does not use human labels is on par or better than CheckEval.⁸ Furthermore, our proposed extensions to decomposition-based approaches (ICL and AOI) show some marginal improvements but do not consistently outperform Direct Prediction. Our second main finding is that using human labels for Direct Prediction leads to improved performance. Part of the improvement can be attributed to numerical benefits from the regressor outputting floating-point numbers. More details in Appendix D.3. Results on Seahorse (Table 2 in Appendix A) confirm the trend: none of the decomposition-based approaches evaluated in this work consistently outperforms the Direct Prediction baseline.

To further test whether decomposition from L_1 criteria improves performance through task simplification, we modify HD-Eval to be L_1 -agnostic:

⁸Note that our re-production of CheckEval with the original code but with Claude-4 led to worse results than originally reported. Nevertheless, the conclusions we make here hold even with their best reported results.

we ask the LLM to generate 25 general quality criteria for the task without specifying the target L_1 criterion, then train the regressor on human labels as usual. This L_1 -agnostic variant performs on par with both standard decomposition and Direct Prediction (Table 3, Appendix C), indicating that HD-Eval’s gains stem from the learned aggregation rather than decomposition itself. This might suggest that the LLM already possesses an internal understanding of quality that the regressor can align to specific L_1 criteria.

6.2 How far is Direct Prediction LLMaJ from human-level performance

Table 1 shows that, even without using human labels, Direct Prediction achieves a $WR \geq 0.5$ on both datasets, which is the threshold at which LLMs are considered as good as human annotators (Calderon et al., 2025). However, when we consider per-criterion scores instead of the average across all criteria (Tables 7 and 8 in Appendix F), we identify criteria where Direct Prediction LLMaJ outperforms human annotators even without using human labels (e.g. Coherence in SummEval), whereas for other dimensions it does not (e.g. Relevance). When using human labels, Direct Prediction can reach a WR of 100% on both datasets, which means that the LLM is closer to the average human rating than the humans individually (Calderon et al., 2025). Results on Seahorse are similar (see Table 2 in Appendix A). We see that, while on average the LLMs still lack behind

humans, the difference is mostly due to two criteria, namely Grammar and Main Ideas. On the other three criteria, Direct Prediction is close enough to humans to consider it a valid alternative.⁹

7 Conclusion

We studied two decomposition-based LLMaJ methods for NLG evaluation across three datasets and multiple LLMs, finding that they do not consistently outperform a fair Direct Prediction baseline we designed. Our analysis shows that HD-Eval’s gains stem from access to human labels, not from task decomposition as previously claimed. Thus, despite the intuitive appeal of decomposition (Lommel et al., 2013), we find no compelling evidence that it improves LLMaJ. Finally, we show that Direct Prediction with human labels can reach human-level performance on some evaluation tasks on both SummEval and TopicalChat. Future work might study how decomposition-based evaluation performs in settings where humans rate not only the original criteria, but also the decomposed criteria.

Limitations

First, the number of NLG tasks and datasets that we consider is limited, but is consistent with the prior work we base our study upon and diverse enough to support our conclusions. While we find no compelling evidence that decomposition is beneficial for typical NLG tasks, this finding does not necessarily extend to complicated, multi-step reasoning tasks. Further, studying LLMaJ from the perspective of bias, fine-tuning, and human-LLM-collaboration (Gao et al., 2025) is out of the scope for our work. Moreover, our replication of the CheckEval results using their published code but replacing the LLM with Claude-4 to be consistent with the rest of the methods led to much worse performance than reported by Lee et al. (2025). We want to stress that our findings remain true, even when comparing to the better, originally reported performance. Lastly, a general limitation of our study is that we cannot determine whether the evaluated LLMs were exposed to our benchmark datasets during pre-training.

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⁹A more detailed analysis is provided in Appendix A.

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A Results on Seahorse

For the Seahorse dataset, we do not have multiple annotations for the examples, and so there is no principled way of considering the cost-benefit tradeoff as in the alt-test. Therefore, we can only

rely on the IAA published by [Clark et al. \(2023\)](#) as a comparison. However, we see again that the decompositions do not improve above the baseline. In most cases, they are actually worse. This might be partly because the criteria are already relatively atomic. The metrics used are the accuracy and Krippendorff’s α . While the accuracy has limited meaningfulness, since i) the criteria are binary, increasing per-chance agreement, and ii) some criteria show a significant class-imbalance. Therefore, Krippendorff’s α is the main metric. We still report accuracy to enable comparison to the results from [Clark et al. \(2023\)](#). While on average, the LLMs still lack behind the humans in the Krippendorff’s α , the difference comes mostly from two criteria, namely *Grammar* and *Main Ideas*. On the other three criteria, the LLM is at minimum close enough to humans to consider it a valid alternative. Tab. 2 shows the results on the Seahorse dataset.

B Further Qualitative Examples

In Fig. 2 we show another qualitative example that shows outputs from different methods for a given input before and after applying the Regressor or the Aggregator.

C L_1 -agnostic Decomposition

Table 3 shows the results for L_1 -agnostic decomposition, i.e., asking the LLM to come up 25 criteria or questions that can be used to evaluate the quality of a text, ignoring the L_1 criteria.

D Implementation Details

D.1 ICL and AOI decomposition

We investigate two modifications to the HD-Eval framework, in an attempt to further improve the performance of decomposition approaches. Both modifications are motivated by the intuition of the frameworks working mechanism. First, we use ICL ([Brown et al., 2020](#); [Sanh et al., 2022](#); [Dong et al., 2024](#)) while decomposing (ICL Decomposition). The rationale is that seeing not only the description of the evaluation criteria, but also examples of how concrete examples were rated, allows the LLM to infer what features the annotators paid attention to. Thus, the fine-grained criteria can be better aligned to the criteria the raters used to find their score.

As a second approach, we propose a novel decomposition, which we call atomic, observable and independent (AOI). It uses three prompts in sequence to create sub-criteria that are AOI, aim-

ing to maximize their usefulness for the aggregation step (cf. Fig. 7 in the Appendix). The AOI-decomposition additionally tries to enforce sub-criteria that are simpler to evaluate, more objective, and more informative in the aggregation step. First, the LLM is tasked to decompose the evaluation criteria into atomic sub-criteria, that is, criteria that measure only one thing. This should simplify the evaluation from the perspective of the LLMaJ. Next, it is prompted to make them directly observable from the text. This is aimed to increase the objectivity. Finally, it is prompted to make the now atomic and observable sub-criteria as independent from each other as possible. The motivation for this is to increase the information contained in those sub-criteria when used as input to the regression model, by reducing the overlap (correlation) between them. While the decomposition step could be applied recursively, the ablations showed that the gain after L_2 becomes marginal ([Liu et al., 2024b](#)). For the ICL and AOI decomposition, we remain at L_2 . When reproducing the HD-Eval scores with Claude-4, we do not provide the direct L_1 predictions to the aggregator. Contrary to HD-Eval, we do not aggregate the values horizontally, but vertically. That is, only the children of a given L_1 criterion are used to train the regressor, instead of all decomposed sub-criteria. This practice is more aligned with the theoretical motivation of task-decomposition. A more detailed discussion and performance comparison of both approaches is given in the Appendix D.2.

For the alt-test, we follow the instructions from [Calderon et al. \(2025\)](#) and set the False Discovery Rate $q := 0.05$ and the cost-benefit penalty to $\epsilon := 0.2$ and $\epsilon := 0.1$ for SummEval and TopicalChat, respectively. The difference in ϵ represents the fact that in SummEval we compare to expert annotators and in TopicalChat to crowd-workers.

D.2 Vertical or horizontal aggregation

HD-Eval performs the aggregation in what we call horizontal fashion. That is, while training one regressor for each of the L_1 criteria, they use *all* decomposed sub-criteria as input. Thus, the regressor uses information from e.g. the prediction of *Grammar*, which was decoded from *Fluency*, to predict the score of *Consistency*. In our understanding, this practice is not aligned with the idea of decomposition. Instead, to follow the principles of breaking down a task into sub-tasks, whose can be aggregated into a solution to the original task,

Method	Grammar		Attributable		Main Ideas		Conciseness		Repetition		Average	
	Acc.	α	Acc.	α	Acc.	α	Acc.	α	Acc.	α	Acc.	α
Human IAA	0.94	0.87	0.95	0.35	0.69	0.47	0.61	0.40	0.69	0.41	0.78	0.50
Direct Prediction	0.81	0.33	0.74	0.48	<u>0.65</u>	0.27	0.72	<u>0.39</u>	0.95	0.68	0.77	0.43
Decomposition (AOI)	0.76	0.21	0.66	0.38	<u>0.65</u>	0.28	0.72	0.40	<u>0.93</u>	<u>0.62</u>	0.74	0.38
Decomposition (ICL)	<u>0.78</u>	<u>0.27</u>	<u>0.72</u>	<u>0.45</u>	0.66	0.30	0.71	0.38	0.91	0.54	<u>0.75</u>	<u>0.39</u>

Table 2: Results on the Seahorse (Clark et al., 2023) dataset. Reporting Accuracy (Acc.) and Krippendorff’s α . All results use vertical aggregation.

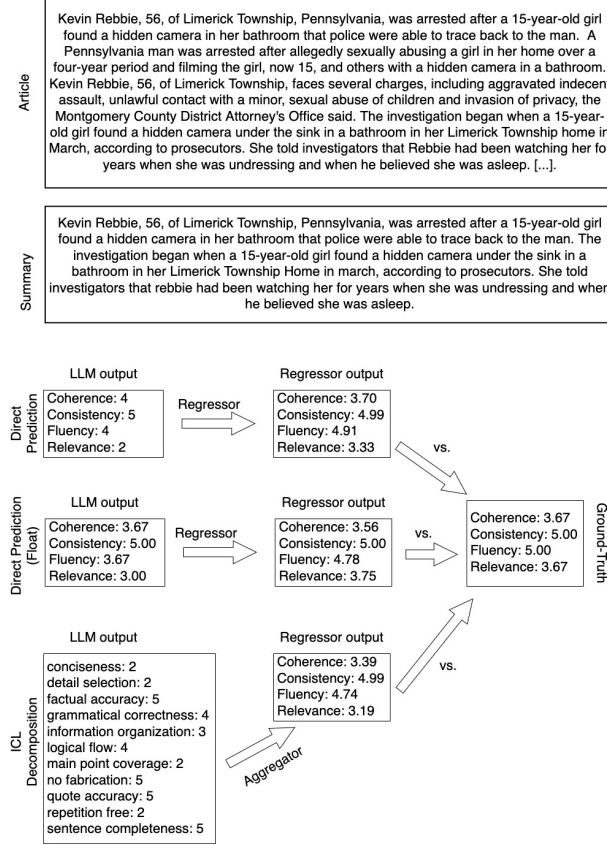


Figure 2: Further example from the SummEval dataset, showcasing the outputs from a direct integer prediction (top), direct floating point prediction (middle) and the ICL-decomposition (bottom). After regression / aggregation step, the outputs are better aligned both with each other, and with the ground-truth.

we propose to aggregate *vertically*. That is, only the children of an L_1 criterion are used to train the regressor. Additionally, this can have influence on the practical application. In a horizontal aggregation, the user will need to evaluate *all* sub-criteria, even if he intends to only evaluate one of the L_1 criteria.

In Table 4 we showcase the difference between using vertical and horizontal aggregation. Overall, horizontal aggregation outperforms vertical aggregation. This can again be explained by the performance gains coming from the aggregator. When using all sub-criteria as inputs, the regressor has more information, i.e., the classifier has more features, to make a prediction. However, since a vertical

aggregation is more in line with the idea of decomposition, all of our results in Table 1 are from vertical aggregation. The HD-Eval result taken from the publication are horizontally aggregated.

D.3 Floats, Ties, and Rounding

When calculating alignment between LLM and humans, the de-facto standard is to use the average of three annotators as ground-truth, which produces floating-point values whenever annotators disagree. Individual annotators and standard direct predictions only output integers, but any method using a regressor or aggregator (e.g., HD-Eval) will produce floating-point outputs.

This has two non-obvious consequences. First, a

Method	ICL	SummEval			TopicalChat		
		ρ	AP	WR	ρ	AP	WR
ICL Decomposition	no	0.594	0.853	1.0	0.604	0.852	1.0
AOI Decomposition	no	0.608	0.850	1.0	0.622	0.862	0.75
L_1 -agnostic Decomposition	no	0.579	0.857	1.0	0.621	0.856	1.0
Direct Prediction	yes	0.566	0.842	1.0	0.704	0.90	1.0

Table 3: Comparison of L_1 -agnostic Decomposition to ICL and AOI decomposition, and direct prediction. All aggregations performed horizontally. All methods use human labels.

Method	Aggregation type	Human labels	ICL	Outputs floats	SummEval			TopicalChat		
					ρ	AP	WR	ρ	AP	WR
ICL Decomposition	vertical	yes	no	yes	0.567	0.842	1.0	0.575	0.840	1.0
	horizontal	yes	no	yes	0.594	0.853	1.0	0.604	0.852	0.75
AOI Decomposition	vertical	yes	no	yes	0.586	0.831	1.0	0.574	0.839	0.33
	horizontal	yes	no	yes	0.608	0.850	1.0	0.622	0.862	0.75
Direct Float Prediction	vertical	yes	yes	yes	0.545	0.846	1.0	0.687	0.888	1.0
	horizontal	yes	no	yes	0.566	0.842	1.0	0.704	0.896	1.0

Table 4: Vertical vs. horizontal aggregation.

floating-point model can theoretically achieve perfect RMSE against a floating-point ground-truth, while integer-outputting humans cannot. A similar minor benefit arises for Pearson’s r . Second, floating-point outputs virtually eliminate ties, which affects both the alt-test (where ties count as wins) and Spearman’s ρ (which assigns average ranks to tied values). Given the small rating scales (1–5 and 1–3), integer predictions inevitably produce many ties; floating-point predictions do not.

To control for this, we report results with and without rounding (Table 5). Rounding generally improves alt-test AP and WR (by restoring expected tie behavior) but slightly worsens correlations (by removing the numerical advantage of float-to-float comparison). We apply rounding throughout this work to ensure methods are compared fairly: without it, small numerical artifacts (e.g., a score of 4.0002 not tying with ground-truth 4.0) can lead to inflated conclusions. This reveals another reason why the aggregation step in HD-Eval contributes to its reported improvements: it enables floating-point outputs, which benefit from these numerical effects rather than from genuinely better judgment.

D.4 Regressor Implementation Details

We implemented the aggregators with scikit-learn using the default parameters:

- `LinearRegression(*, fit_intercept=True)`

- `DecisionTreeRegressor(*, criterion='squared_error', splitter='best', max_depth=None, min_samples_split=2, min_samples_leaf=1)`
- `RandomForestRegressor (n_estimators=100, *, criterion='squared_error', max_depth=None, min_samples_split=2, min_samples_leaf=1)`
- `MLPRegressor(loss='squared_error', hidden_layer_sizes=(100,), activation='relu', *, solver='adam', alpha=0.0001)`

E Results with other Models

Table 6 shows results using Qwen3-32B (Yang et al., 2025) and GPT-OSS-120B (Agarwal et al., 2025). Compared to the results from Claude-4 we see that the observation of decomposition not leading to significant performance improvements still hold. This is clear on the TopicalChat dataset. On SummEval, the ICL and AOI decomposition that were proposed as part of this work achieve the best scores. On the AP metric, the benefit from them is smaller than on the correlation metrics. In general, these two models perform comparatively to Claude-4. There is no clear trend that larger models automatically lead to better performance.

Method	Human labels	ICL	With rounding	Outputs floats	SummEval			TopicalChat		
					ρ	AP	WR	ρ	AP	WR
ICL Decomp	yes	no	yes	no	0.567	0.842	1.0	0.575	<u>0.840</u>	1.0
	yes	no	no	yes	0.569	0.357	0.5	0.594	<u>0.443</u>	<u>0.75</u>
AOI Decomp	yes	no	yes	no	0.586	0.831	1.0	0.574	0.839	<u>0.33</u>
	yes	no	no	yes	<u>0.575</u>	0.349	0.5	0.612	0.426	0
Direct Prediction w/o float	yes	yes	yes	no	<u>0.553</u>	0.825	1.0	<u>0.738</u>	0.870	0.5
	yes	yes	no	yes	0.552	0.341	0.5	<u>0.738</u>	0.440	0.25
Direct Prediction w/ float	yes	yes	yes	no	0.545	0.845	<u>0.75</u>	<u>0.716</u>	0.870	0.58
	yes	yes	no	yes	0.565	0.331	0.5	0.754	0.444	0.5

Table 5: Comparison of performance with and without rounding the outputs.

Method	Model	Human Labels	ICL	Outputs floats	SummEval				TopicalChat			
					ρ	τ	AP	WR	ρ	τ	AP	WR
HD-Eval	Qwen	yes	no	yes	0.543	0.488	0.832	1.0	0.570	0.500	<u>0.831</u>	0.5
	GPT-OSS	yes	no	yes	0.560	0.505	0.847	1.0	0.530	0.465	<u>0.804</u>	0.25
CheckEval	Qwen	no	no	yes	0.437	0.368	-	-	0.382	0.317	-	-
	GPT-OSS	no	no	yes	0.411	0.352	-	-	0.373	0.314	-	-
ICL Decomposition	Qwen	yes	no	yes	0.563	0.510	0.856	1.0	0.575	0.499	0.798	0.83
	GPT-OSS	yes	no	yes	<u>0.567</u>	<u>0.512</u>	0.835	1.0	0.495	0.443	0.810	1
AOI Decomposition	Qwen	yes	no	yes	0.580	0.522	<u>0.850</u>	1.0	0.488	0.431	0.801	0
	GPT-OSS	yes	no	yes	0.565	0.510	<u>0.850</u>	1.0	0.507	0.445	0.801	0.16
Direct Prediction	Qwen	no	yes	yes	0.525	0.461	0.629	0.5	0.558	0.492	0.813	0.33
	Qwen	yes	yes	yes	0.541	0.488	0.844	1.0	0.577	0.510	<u>0.831</u>	0.58
	GPT-OSS	no	yes	yes	0.523	0.450	0.583	0.5	0.694	0.614	<u>0.790</u>	0.33
	GPT-OSS	yes	yes	yes	0.496	0.448	0.828	1.0	<u>0.655</u>	<u>0.587</u>	0.867	1

Table 6: Results with Qwen3-32B and GPT-OSS-120B. We show the results averaged across all criteria. We report sample-wise Spearman’s ρ , Kendall’s τ , Advantage Probability (AP), and Win-Rate (WR). Column "ICL" refers to ICL in the evaluation-phase, not the decomposition-phase.

F Per-criterion results

We show the per-criterion results in Tables 7 and 8.

G Prompts

We show the full prompts in Figures 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7.

H AI Assistant Usage

We used AI assistants as coding assistance and for basic proof-reading of our manuscript. We are solely responsible for all content.

Your task is to rate the {aspect} of a summary on a scale of 1 (worst) to 5 (best). Your rating should match that of humans as close as possible.

Your score should only focus on what is defined here:
Definition for {aspect}: {aspect_desc}

{example_str}

Here are the article and proposed summary.
Article: {article}
Proposed Summary: {summary}

It is important that you first carefully think about why you want to give which score. Make sure that you follow the most important rule: You are only allowed to take into consideration what is given in the definition of {aspect}. No other features of the summary may be taken into account, or you will fail the task.

Even if you do not have all information that you think you need, you must provide a score.

Please take a deep breathe, carefully read the article, proposed summary, guidelines, and evaluate the response on its {aspect}. Respond with your final score in this format:
[FINAL SCORE]: number

Figure 3: Example Prompt for direct prediction.

Method	Aggre- gator	Human Labels	ICL	Outputs Floats	Coherence			Consistency			Fluency			Relevance			Average					
					τ	ρ	τ	AP	WR	τ	ρ	τ	AP	WR	τ	AP	WR	ρ	τ	AP	WR	
HD-Eval *	MLP	yes	no	yes	0.668	0.657	-	-	-	0.604	0.451	-	-	-	-	0.580	0.435	-	0.617	0.535	-	-
HD-Eval (Claude 4)	MLP	yes	no	yes	0.632	0.629	0.533	0.781	1.0	0.715	0.690	0.657	0.898	1.0	0.429	0.397	0.342	0.830	1.0	0.567	0.513	0.833
CheckEval * (Mistral-Large)	Mean	no	no	yes	-	0.644	0.542	-	-	0.613	0.567	-	-	-	-	0.626	0.550	0.521	0.429	0.397	0.481	0.417
CheckEval* (GPT-4o)	Mean	no	no	yes	-	0.556	0.464	-	-	0.530	0.474	-	-	-	-	0.470	0.413	-	-	0.460	0.400	-
CheckEval (Claude 4)	Mean	no	no	yes	0.277	0.248	0.195	-	-	0.511	0.465	0.400	-	-	-	0.397	0.413	0.346	-	0.524	0.520	0.418
ICL Decomp	MLP	yes	no	yes	0.578	0.575	0.491	0.764	1.0	0.703	0.664	0.631	0.889	1.0	0.460	0.451	0.543	0.880	1.0	0.578	0.567	0.513
AOI Decomp	LR	yes	no	yes	0.616	0.613	0.519	0.777	1.0	0.715	0.667	0.632	0.883	1.0	0.529	0.583	0.541	0.844	1.0	0.590	0.586	0.524
ICL Decomp ‡	LR	yes	no	no	0.642	0.628	0.482	0.57	1.0	0.690	0.581	0.527	0.093	0.0	0.596	0.532	0.430	0.172	0.0	0.618	0.569	0.459
AOI Decomp ‡	LR	yes	no	no	0.662	0.664	0.507	0.557	1.0	0.726	0.606	0.552	0.072	0.0	0.619	0.498	0.403	0.175	0.0	0.640	0.575	0.465
Baseline w/o ICL	no	no	no	no	0.633	0.632	0.514	0.742	1.0	0.670	0.660	0.624	0.858	1.0	0.375	0.423	0.378	0.15	0.0	0.534	0.540	0.473
Baseline w/o ICL	DT	yes	no	yes	0.586	0.576	0.494	0.763	1.0	0.682	0.648	0.621	0.902	1.0	0.472	0.453	0.429	0.735	0.0	0.550	0.527	0.479
Baseline	no	no	yes	no	0.628	0.617	0.494	0.735	1.0	0.699	0.669	0.630	0.866	1.0	0.417	0.431	0.381	0.212	0.0	0.561	0.551	0.477
Baseline	DT	yes	yes	yes	0.609	0.603	0.516	0.772	1.0	0.700	0.666	0.636	0.902	1.0	0.556	0.466	0.441	0.792	1.0	0.594	0.553	0.501
Float Prediction	no	no	yes	yes	0.623	0.611	0.488	0.759	1.0	0.712	0.674	0.635	0.874	1.0	0.475	0.445	0.397	0.233	0.0	0.502	0.479	0.401
Float Prediction	DT	yes	yes	yes	0.609	0.599	0.512	0.775	1.0	0.690	0.683	0.648	0.892	1.0	0.633	0.483	0.458	0.874	1.0	0.599	0.544	0.493
Float Prediction ‡	LR	yes	yes	yes	0.653	0.636	0.491	0.547	1.0	0.718	0.646	0.601	0.052	0.0	0.493	0.466	0.393	0.168	0.0	0.642	1.0	0.846
																			0.537	0.504	0.493	
																			0.565	0.472	0.338	0.5

Table 7: Per-criterion results on SummEval. Highest per column is bolded, second-highest underlined. ‡ : Without rounding before comparison.

Aggregator	Method	Human Labels	ICL		Outputs		Naturalness			Coherence			Engagingness			Groundedness			Average			
			Labels	Floats	r	τ	AP	WR	ρ	τ	AP	WR	ρ	τ	AP	WR	r	ρ	τ	WR		
MLP	HD-Eval *	yes	no	yes	0.648	0.674	-	-	-	0.584	0.607	-	-	0.682	0.701	-	0.549	0.568	-	0.616	0.638	-
	HD-Eval (Clause 4)	yes	no	yes	0.537	0.513	0.447	0.843	1.0	0.587	0.590	0.515	0.852	0.33	0.721	0.712	0.712	0.885	1.0	0.564	0.563	0.498
RF	CheckEval *	no	yes	no	0.666	0.651	-	-	-	0.617	0.627	-	-	0.701	0.722	-	0.577	0.581	-	0.645	0.645	-
	CheckEval* (Mistral-Large)	Mean	no	yes	0.645	0.646	-	-	-	0.580	0.589	-	-	0.735	0.736	-	0.576	0.587	-	0.634	0.634	-
Mean	CheckEval* (GPT-4o)	no	yes	no	0.649	0.645	0.383	-	-	0.624	0.627	0.534	-	0.706	0.734	0.256	0.259	0.264	0.220	0.640	0.642	0.348
	CheckEval (Clause 4)	Mean	no	yes	0.491	0.485	0.482	-	-	0.624	0.627	0.534	-	0.706	0.734	0.256	0.259	0.264	0.220	0.640	0.642	0.348
RF	ICL Decomp	yes	no	yes	0.499	0.486	0.433	0.824	1.0	0.649	0.633	0.547	0.852	1.0	0.577	0.578	0.581	0.543	0.543	0.543	0.575	0.505
LR	AOI Decomp	yes	no	yes	0.433	0.388	0.330	0.776	0	0.679	0.684	0.590	0.861	0.67	0.604	0.625	0.539	0.841	0.67	0.586	0.574	0.505
RF	AOI Decomp	yes	no	yes	0.546	0.500	0.369	0.52	1.0	0.663	0.643	0.512	0.509	1.0	0.623	0.651	0.494	0.511	1.0	0.605	0.594	0.467
LR	ICL Decomp ‡	yes	no	no	0.495	0.495	0.495	0.511	0	0.737	0.739	0.593	0.491	0	0.652	0.662	0.539	0.467	0	0.625	0.612	0.496
Baseline w/o ICL	Baseline w/o ICL	no	no	no	0.664	0.686	0.580	0.769	0	0.688	0.687	0.589	0.856	0.33	0.712	0.723	0.627	0.839	0.33	0.749	0.749	0.700
	Baseline w/o ICL	DT	yes	no	0.547	0.559	0.493	0.839	1.0	0.632	0.642	0.565	0.843	1.0	0.583	0.630	0.528	0.841	1.0	0.628	0.638	0.572
Baseline	Baseline	no	no	yes	0.652	0.663	0.567	0.793	0	0.661	0.669	0.574	0.848	0.33	0.770	0.785	0.688	0.861	0.67	0.736	0.738	0.653
	Baseline	LR	yes	yes	0.599	0.609	0.537	0.863	1.0	0.607	0.628	0.553	0.833	1.0	0.617	0.644	0.568	0.859	1.0	0.671	0.680	0.609
Float Prediction	Float Prediction	no	no	yes	0.634	0.651	0.554	0.794	0	0.729	0.722	0.634	0.887	1.0	0.674	0.684	0.598	0.824	0.33	0.813	0.809	0.756
	Float Prediction	DT	yes	yes	0.605	0.613	0.540	0.852	1.0	0.657	0.665	0.587	0.856	1.0	0.644	0.662	0.581	0.872	1.0	0.712	0.716	0.636
Float Prediction ‡	Float Prediction ‡	yes	yes	yes	0.676	0.671	0.540	0.535	1.0	0.731	0.737	0.614	0.472	0.33	0.766	0.776	0.656	0.533	0.67	0.680	0.687	0.616
	Float Prediction ‡	LR	yes	yes	0.676	0.671	0.540	0.535	1.0	0.731	0.737	0.614	0.472	0.33	0.766	0.776	0.656	0.533	0.67	0.758	0.754	0.640
Average	Average	-	-	-	0.616	0.638	-	-	-	0.549	0.568	-	-	0.682	0.701	-	0.549	0.568	-	0.616	0.638	-
	Average	-	-	-	0.564	0.563	0.498	0.848	0.58	0.645	0.645	-	-	0.721	0.722	-	0.577	0.581	-	0.645	0.645	-

Table 8: Per-criterion results on TopicalChat. Highest per column is **bolded**, second-highest underlined. † : Without rounding before comparison.

Your task is to rate the {aspect} of a summary on a scale of 1 (worst) to 5 (best). Your rating should match that of humans as close as possible. Imagine that your score is the average of three expert annotators. So possible values include also x,33, x,5 and x,67, e.g. 4.33 is a valid score you are allowed to respond.

Your score should only focus on what is defined here:
Definition for {aspect}: {aspect_desc}

{example_str}

Here are the article and proposed summary.
Article: {article}
Proposed Summary: {summary}

It is important that you first carefully think about why you want to give which score. Make sure that you follow the most important rule: You are only allowed to take into consideration what is given in the definition of {aspect}. No other features of the summary may be taken into account, or you will fail the task.

Even if you do not have all information that you think you need, you must provide a score.

Please take a deep breathe, carefully read the article, proposed summary, guidelines, and evaluate the response on its {aspect}. Respond with your final score in this format:
[FINAL SCORE]: number

Figure 4: Example Prompt for direct prediction, predicting floating points.

I want to evaluate the quality of summaries written for a news article.
I want to measure the quality of this summary by the dimension coherence, relevance, fluency, and consistency.

Here are the definitions of all dimensions:

- coherence: The rating measures the quality of all sentences collectively, do they fit together and sound naturally. Consider the quality of the summary as a whole
- relevance: The rating measures how well the summary captures the key points of the article. Consider whether all and only the important aspects are contained in the summary.
- fluency: This rating measures the quality of individual sentences, are they well-written and grammatically correct. Consider the quality of the individual sentences.
- consistency: The rating measures whether the facts in the summary are consistent with the facts in the original article. Consider whether the summary does reproduce all facts accurately and does not make up untrue information.

All of them are evaluated on a scale of 1 (worst) to 5 (best).

For now, please focus on {criterion}.

Again, her is the definition of the dimension you should now focus on:
{criterion}: {criterion_def}

Please provide me with a number of fine-grained evaluation criteria that collectively measure {criterion}.
Importantly, they should only measure what is important for {criterion}, and not measure aspects that are covered by the other dimensions.
Give me their definitions and rating guidelines or rubrics.

I want to be able to evaluate the fine-grained criteria independently, but they should aggregate to build a score for their parent.

Please make sure that the fine-grained criteria are easier to evaluate than their parents. To achieve this, make sure the name, definition and rating guidelines are not too complicated and contain the relevant information.

To help you define the best possible sub-criteria, consider the following examples.
They will show you how different summaries were rated for the {criterion}. Based on them, infer which fine-grained criteria were used to come up with the rating.
Also, infer from this how each score rubric should be defined.

The scores for these examples might include decimal points. This is only included for you to better focus on small differences.

Here are the examples:
{example_str}

Now, take a deep breath, carefully read the definition for {criterion} and the examples you were provided.
Then reason about which sub-criteria are needed to collectively capture {criterion}, while themselves being easier to judge.
Finally, provide your proposed set of sub-criteria and for each the rating rubrics with clear anchors.

Figure 5: Example Prompt for performing decomposition.

In this task you will evaluate the quality of summaries written for a news article based on its {parent}:
{parent_description}
Specifically, for evaluating {parent}, I want you to consider the summary's {child}. Your score should only focus on what is defined here:
Definition of {child}: {child_description}

Please return your score for {child} in the scale {scale}.
To infer your score, follow these rating guidelines:
{guidelines}

Article: {Article}
Proposed Summary: {Summary}

It is important that you first carefully think about why you want to give which score. Make sure that you follow the most important rule: You are only allowed to take into consideration what is given in the definition of {child}.
No other features of the summary may be taken into account, or you will fail the task.
Even if you do not have all information that you think you need, you must provide a score.
Please take a deep breathe, carefully read the article, proposed summary, guidelines, and evaluate the response on its {child}. Respond with your final score in this format:
[FINAL SCORE]: number

Figure 6: Example Prompt for rating a sub-criteria obtained from decomposition.

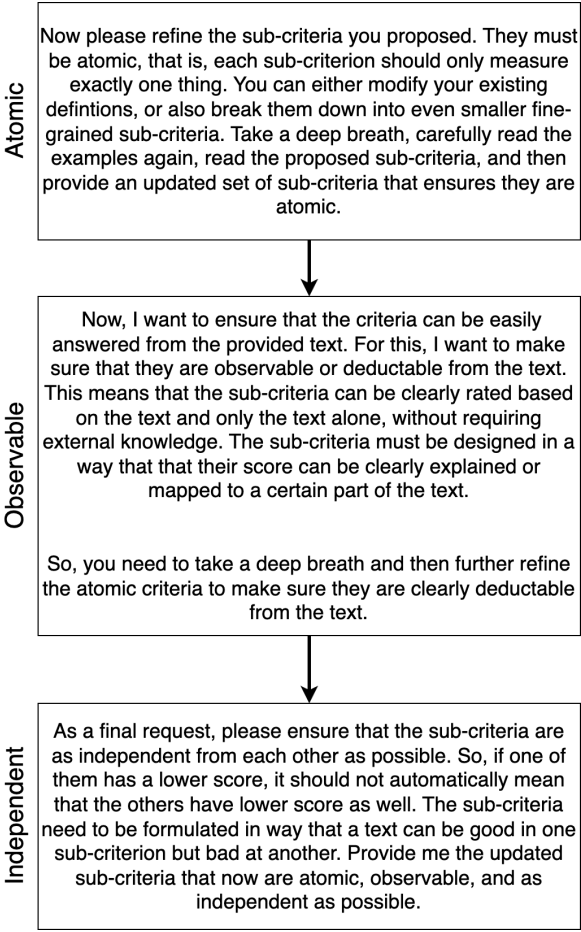


Figure 7: Example Prompt for creating AOI decomposition