ComboBench: Can LLMs Manipulate Physical Devices to Play Virtual Reality Games?

Abstract

Virtual Reality (VR) offers a controlled yet physically grounded setting for studying whether large language models can translate high-level intent into executable action sequences. We introduce ComboBench, a text-to-action benchmark comprising 262 scenarios from four popular VR games, where the task is to map a semantic goal to a sequence of controller and head-mounted-display manipulations. We evaluate twelve LLMs, spanning both proprietary and open-weight families, together with a matched human text baseline under the same protocol. Frontier models achieve strong semantic alignment, but remain substantially weaker at preserving executable procedure, especially on ordering-sensitive metrics. Performance varies sharply across games, indicating sensitivity to interaction paradigm and controller complexity, while few-shot prompting helps primarily with procedural organization rather than exact action recovery. To address the rigidity of single-reference evaluation, we further conduct a multi-path assessment on a subset of 50 scenarios with additional expert-authored valid solutions; scores improve for both humans and models, but relative rankings remain broadly stable. These results position VR as a complementary testbed for embodied reasoning and expose a persistent gap between recognizing relevant actions and specifying physically grounded control. We release all materials at https://sites.google.com/view/combobench.

1 Introduction

Large Language Models (LLMs) have demonstrated remarkable proficiency in general-purpose task solving (Qin et al., 2023), conquering complex domains such as code (Lee et al., 2024; Lam et al., 2025) or math (Lu et al., 2024) problems. While they exhibit increasingly more human-like characteristics (Huang et al., 2024; Liang et al., 2023), an essential attribute of human intelligence is still underexplored: the ability to rapidly learn and apply unfamiliar concepts by leveraging common sense, prior experiences, and a repertoire of cognitive skills.

This is particularly evident in novel interactive environments like video games, where players quickly master device manipulations (atomic actions) and combine them to achieve complex semantic goals. Virtual Reality (VR) games elevate this challenge. They demand not only the execution of atomic actions via physical devices (*e.g.*, Head-Mounted Displays (HMDs) and controllers) but also the inference of complex, often uninstructed, semantic actions. For instance, in *Half-Life: Alyx* (Valve, 2020), when asked to "surrender," players might instinctively raise their controller-held hands even if not explicitly taught.

Such translation of high-level intent into a sequence of physical device manipulations engages a suite of cognitive abilities: (1) *Task decomposition*: Breaking down a high-level semantic action (*e.g.*, "tame the horse" and "plant wheat") into a coherent series of intermediate steps. (2) *Procedural reasoning*: Understanding the logical and temporal order of these steps, including prerequisite conditions or concurrent actions (*e.g.*, the need to till soil before planting seeds). (3) *Spatial reasoning & contextual awareness*: Interpreting instructions within a 3D spatial context (*e.g.*, "move HMD towards the Creeper" and "crouch through the gap") and understanding environmental cues or object states (*e.g.*, recognizing a door is open/closed and acting accordingly). (4) *Object interaction & tool use understanding*: Correctly mapping intended sub-actions to specific VR device manipulations (*e.g.*, knowing which button to press to "use" an item, and how to manipulate a controller to simulate "swinging" a tool like a pickaxe). This involves understanding the affordances of virtual objects and tools. (5) *Motor action mapping & VR procedural transfer*: Translating abstract actions (*e.g.*, "press,"

"move," and "trigger") into specific, executable VR controller commands, potentially by adapting from provided examples or general knowledge of VR interaction paradigms. This touches upon a form of simulated embodied reasoning. (6) *Judgment of termination/continuation conditions*: Recognizing when a sub-task or a looped action is complete (*e.g.*, "mine until the block breaks" and "water until the plant grows"). Therefore, playing VR games serves as a rich testbed for evaluating if LLMs can bridge this gap between abstract understanding and grounded, physical interaction. Importantly, ComboBench is designed as a text-to-action benchmark: models receive only textual descriptions of high-level goals and must generate textual sequences of device manipulations. This controlled formulation isolates the language-to-action planning problem: given a semantic goal and explicit interaction conventions, models must produce executable, temporally ordered device-manipulation sequences.

VR provides a distinctive testbed for evaluating embodied reasoning in LLMs. While domains such as robotics and web agents also involve long-horizon decision-making, VR occupies a practical middle ground that foregrounds the core challenge of translating abstract linguistic intent into precise, physically grounded, and spatially coherent motor commands. Compared to physical robotics, VR enables complex, physics-based interactions without incurring real-world safety risks, hardware costs, or slow experimental cycles, thereby supporting rapid, scalable, and perfectly reproducible evaluation of embodied control. Relative to web or other digital agents that primarily operate over discrete symbolic actions (e.g., button clicks), VR requires reasoning in continuous 3D space, sensitivity to object affordances, and modeling of the temporal dynamics of manipulation, demanding a form of simulated embodiment not captured by many existing agent benchmarks. ComboBench is thus designed not as a generic long-horizon benchmark, but specifically to probe the interface where abstract knowledge must be realized as grounded physical action, a capability that is central to the development of general-purpose agents.

To systematically evaluate LLMs' ability to perform this crucial translation, we introduce ComboBench, which stands for Cognitive-Oriented Manipulation Benchmark for game combos using physical VR devices. It comprises 262 scenarios derived from four popular VR games: *Vivecraft* (Vivecraft, 2013) (Minecraft in VR), *Half-Life: Alyx* (Valve, 2020), *Moss: Book II* (Polyarc, 2022), and *Into the Radius* (CMGames, 2019). Each scenario presents a high-level semantic action, and the ground truth consists of a fine-grained sequence of VR device manipulations required to achieve it. These sequences are annotated by experienced VR players, allowing us to analyze LLM-generated outputs at the step-level and map their successes and failures to the aforementioned cognitive abilities. For example, failing to "press the X button" after "moving the HMD towards the Creeper" might indicate a lapse in procedural reasoning or object interaction understanding for that specific step.

We evaluate twelve LLMs, including GPT-3.5 (OpenAI, 2022), GPT-4 (OpenAI, 2023), GPT-4o (Hurst et al., 2024), GPT-5.1 (OpenAI, 2025), Gemini-1.5-Pro (Team et al., 2024), Gemini-3-Pro (Google, 2025), Claude-Sonnet-4.5 (Anthropic, 2025), Grok-4 (xAI, 2025), GLM-4-Flash (GLM et al., 2024), LLaMA-3-8B (Grattafiori et al., 2024), LLaMA-3-70B (Grattafiori et al., 2024), and Mixtral-8x7B (Jiang et al., 2023). We design a multi-dimensional scoring approach that assesses: (1) high-level semantic action understanding, (2) procedural step correctness, and (3) device-specific manipulation accuracy, allowing for fine-grained analysis of where each model succeeds or struggles in the translation process. Our findings reveal a sharp asymmetry between semantic understanding and executable control. Across model families, task decomposition is comparatively strong, while motor action mapping and procedural reasoning remain the dominant bottlenecks. Frontier models are already competitive with a matched human text baseline on several sequence-level metrics, yet capability-level analysis still shows human advantages on grounded dimensions such as spatial reasoning and termination judgment. Few-shot examples materially improve procedural performance, and a multi-path evaluation with multiple valid reference sequences confirms that the relative ranking of models is largely stable even when alternative solutions are allowed. Performance also varies markedly across games, with models performing better in environments with more regular interaction patterns than in those requiring nuanced controller manipulations and physics-aware sequencing. Together, these findings isolate the main gap in current LLMs for VR interaction: not deciding what needs to be done, but specifying how it should be executed through concrete device control. Our

contributions are:

- We introduce ComboBench, the first benchmark designed to evaluate LLMs' fine-grained cognitive abilities in translating high-level text semantic actions into text VR device manipulations, comprising 262 human-annotated scenarios from four diverse VR games.

- We define a set of key cognitive abilities crucial for VR interaction and design ComboBench to enable step-level analysis of LLM performance against these dimensions.

- We conduct a comprehensive evaluation of twelve state-of-the-art LLMs, including within-family scaling analysis and a multi-path robustness study, providing a nuanced view of model strengths, weaknesses, and failure modes in VR interaction reasoning.

2 ComboBench Design and Curation

2.1 Cognitive Capability Taxonomy

To ground our evaluation in cognitive theory, we collaborated with three experts in cognitive science and educational psychology who specialize in spatial cognition, procedural learning, and embodied interaction. Building on their feedback and an analysis of representative VR interaction scenarios from our benchmark, we converged on six core cognitive capabilities that are critical for translating semantic goals into VR device manipulations: (1) task decomposition, i.e., breaking high-level goals into sequentially ordered sub-tasks; (2) procedural reasoning, i.e., understanding causal relationships and temporal dependencies between actions; (3) spatial reasoning and contextual awareness, i.e., interpreting spatial layouts and environmental cues to guide action selection; (4) object interaction and tool-use understanding, i.e., inferring the affordances and functional properties of virtual objects; (5) motor action mapping and VR procedural transfer, i.e., mapping abstract action descriptions to concrete controller operations; and (6) judgment of termination and continuation conditions, i.e., recognizing when an action sequence has achieved its goal or requires repetition. These six dimensions form the taxonomy that underpins our subsequent analyses of LLM and human performance.

Taxonomy Refinement. Following the interviews, we synthesized the experts' insights through thematic analysis. Areas of consensus were directly incorporated into our taxonomy, while divergent perspectives were reconciled through follow-up consultations. This iterative process resulted in the identification of six core capability dimensions that comprehensively capture the cognitive demands of VR interaction: (1) Task decomposition: The ability to break down high-level goals into sequentially ordered sub-tasks. (2) Procedural reasoning: Understanding causal relationships between actions and their temporal dependencies. (3) Spatial reasoning & contextual Awareness: Processing spatial relationships and interpreting environmental cues for action selection. (4) Object interaction & tool use understanding: Comprehending affordances and functional properties of virtual objects. (5) Motor action mapping & VR procedural transfer: Translating conceptual actions into specific physical device manipulations. (6) Judgment of termination/continuation conditions: Recognizing completion states or conditions requiring repeated action.

2.2 Game Selection Criteria and Process

To ensure a diverse and relevant set of VR interaction paradigms, we selected games based on a systematic process. First, we queried the Steam store (web, 2023) filtering for titles tagged as "VR Only" and available in "English," sorting the results by user review scores in descending order. We then iteratively examined games from this ranked list, focusing on their primary genre as categorized by Steam. To ensure genre diversity, we prioritized games from genres not yet represented in our collection. A crucial selection criterion was the availability of comprehensive textual walkthroughs. For each candidate game, we searched for detailed guides using keywords such as "walkthrough," "guide," or "tutorial." A walkthrough was deemed sufficiently detailed if it provided unambiguous, step-by-step instructions enabling the completion of core game objectives or specific complex tasks. Following this methodology, we selected four popular and critically acclaimed VR games representing distinct genres and interaction styles for ComboBench: (1) *Vivecraft* (Vivecraft, 2013) (Open-world sandbox, crafting) (2) *Half-Life: Alyx* (Valve, 2020) (First-person shooter, puzzle-solving, physics-based interaction) (3) *Moss: Book II* (Polyarc, 2022) (Third-person action-adventure, puzzle-platformer) (4) *Into the Radius* (CMGames, 2019) (First-person survival shooter, exploration) Such selection provides a rich

Figure 1: Device Manipulation Example for Task: "Attack using the sword" (*Vivecraft*)

Figure 2: Example of a Good vs. a Poor Model Generation for the "Attack using the sword"

variety of control schemes and task complexities for evaluating LLMs.

2.3 Scenario Definition: Semantic Action Identification

For all selected games, eight data annotators, comprising undergraduate and postgraduate computer science students with at least two years of programming experience and sufficient knowledge about VR games, manually identified salient semantic actions from the collected textual walkthroughs. Semantic actions were defined as high-level, goal-oriented tasks described in the walkthroughs (e.g., "tame the horse," "kill the creeper," "solve the gravity glove puzzle") that necessitate a sequence of fine-grained VR device manipulations to accomplish. We focused on scenarios that: (1) involve complex interactions not always explicitly detailed in in-game tutorials, (2) often constitute essential steps or objectives required for game progression. A concrete example is shown in Figure 1. This process resulted in the identification of 262 distinct scenarios across the four games.

2.4 Annotation of VR Device Manipulations

Experienced VR users from our annotation team then played through each identified semantic action in the respective games using Oculus Quest 2 VR hardware. The objective was to record the precise sequence of device manipulations required to complete each semantic action. The annotation process captured the following details for each step within a manipulation sequence: (1) **Device used:** Specification of whether the HMD or a controller was used. (2) **Controller specificity:** If a controller was used, and the action was hand-specific (e.g., primary hand for a tool), the annotation indicated whether the left or right controller was required. If either controller could perform the action, this was noted as "left or right controller." (3) **Operation type and parameters:** (i) *Movement:* For actions involving device movement (HMD or controller), the direction (e.g., "towards the Creeper," "upwards") or target position was recorded. (ii) *Button presses:* The specific button involved and the action (e.g., "press X button," "release trigger") were noted. (iii) *Joystick/thumbstick manipulation:* The direction of joystick push (e.g., "push left thumbstick forward") was recorded. (4) **Sequential composition:** For complex semantic actions composed of multiple, distinct sub-actions that might have been annotated individually, the sequence and composition of these simpler actions were explicitly recorded.

2.5 Cognitive Capability Labeling

A critical aspect of ComboBench is the annotation of each manipulation step with the specific cognitive capabilities it engages. This fine-grained labeling enables precise analysis of where LLMs succeed or fail in the VR interaction translation process. **(1) Initial Human Annotation.** To begin, our annotators manually labeled a subset of 50 manipulation sequences (approximately 20% of the dataset), assigning relevant capability categories to each step based on the taxonomy described in Section 2.1. For example, in the sequence required to "tame a horse" in Vivecraft, the step "equip the saddle by pressing the Y button while looking at the inventory slot containing the saddle" was labeled with "Object Interaction & Tool Use Understanding" and "Motor Action Mapping." **(2) LLM-Assisted Annotation Pipeline.** We then developed an LLM-assisted annotation pipeline to scale this process to the entire dataset. Specifi-

cally: ① We used the human-annotated examples as few-shot demonstrations for GPT-4o. ② For each unlabeled manipulation step, we provided the LLM with: [2.a] The semantic action context (e.g., "taming a horse in Vivecraft"). [2.b] The specific manipulation step to label. [2.c] The preceding and following steps (when available). [2.d] Detailed descriptions of each capability category. [2.e] Three few-shot examples with explanations of why each capability was assigned. ③ The LLM generated capability labels along with justifications for each assignment. ④ Human annotators reviewed the LLM-generated labels, making corrections when necessary. The review process revealed an 89.7% agreement rate between LLM-assigned labels and human judgments. **(3) Multi-label Distribution.** Most manipulation steps engaged multiple cognitive capabilities simultaneously. On average, each step was associated with 2.3 capability categories ($\sigma = 0.8$). The most frequently co-occurring capabilities were "Motor Action Mapping" and "Object Interaction & Tool Use Understanding" (present together in 68% of steps), reflecting the inherent coupling between understanding virtual object affordances and translating this understanding into physical manipulations.

2.6 Contextualization and Verification

To further contextualize the annotated actions and aid in verification, we sourced or recorded gameplay videos corresponding to the textual walkthroughs for each game. For each annotated semantic action and its constituent manipulation steps, we recorded the corresponding timestamps in these videos. This allows for visual verification of the annotated sequences and provides a richer context for understanding the actions. If suitable public gameplay videos matching the exact walkthrough steps were unavailable, our annotators recorded their own gameplay sessions while performing the actions.

3 Experiments

3.1 Experimental Setup

We evaluate twelve contemporary LLMs spanning proprietary and open-weight model families: GPT-3.5, GPT-4, GPT-4o, GPT-5.1, Gemini-1.5-Pro, Gemini-3-Pro, Claude-Sonnet-4.5, Grok-4, GLM-4-Flash, LLaMA-3-8B, LLaMA-3-70B, and Mixtral-8x7B. We report results under 0-, 1-, 3-, and 5-shot prompting; for conciseness, the main

text emphasizes the zero-shot and 5-shot summaries, while the full per-setting breakdown is deferred to the appendix. Importantly, ComboBench is a text-to-action benchmark: all models receive only textual descriptions of goals, game context, and controller conventions, with no image or video input. For proprietary systems, we use official APIs; for open-weight models, we use Hugging Face implementations. Temperature is fixed at 0 to ensure deterministic and reproducible outputs. For semantic matching, we compute cosine similarity between sentence embeddings obtained from OpenAI's `text-embedding-3-large` model.

We also collect a human baseline under the same textual protocol. Participants are asked to read the high-level goal description and write the corresponding sequence of device manipulations. This design intentionally measures the same text-to-action translation problem posed to LLMs, rather than in-situ gameplay ability.

3.2 Evaluation Metrics

We use four complementary metrics to assess different aspects of performance. Appendix C provides visual illustrations of the scoring pipeline. **(1) Strict Step-by-Step Matching (SSM).** $\text{SSM} = \frac{\text{Number of correctly predicted sequences}}{\text{Total number of sequences}}$. A prediction is counted as correct only if the generated sequence has the same length as the reference and every aligned step exceeds a cosine-similarity threshold of 0.8387. **(2) Normalized Step Alignment Score (NSAS).** $\text{NSAS} = \frac{(|C|-|M|-|A|)-\min_{\text{all\_samples}}}{|G|\cdot(\max_{\text{all\_samples}}-\min_{\text{all\_samples}})}$, where $|C|$ is the number of correctly matched steps in the best common subsequence, $|M|$ is the number of missing ground-truth steps, $|A|$ is the number of additional generated steps, and $|G|$ is the ground-truth sequence length. **(3) Sequential Order Preservation (SOP).** $\text{SOP} = \frac{|\text{Steps correctly ordered and matched}|}{|G|}$. This metric isolates whether the model preserves the procedural order of matched actions. **(4) Semantic Step Coverage (SSC).** $\text{SSC} = \frac{|\text{MR steps matched to any GT step}|}{|\text{MR}|}$, where a generated step is counted as matched if it exceeds the same similarity threshold with any ground-truth step, regardless of position.

The threshold 0.8387 is chosen empirically from a held-out set of 50 human-paraphrased equivalent action steps. Specifically, we compute pairwise cosine similarities between semantically equivalent paraphrases and set the threshold to the 5th percentile of that distribution, which yields a conserva-

3.3 Research Questions

We organize the analysis around the following questions: **(RQ1)** How well do current LLMs translate semantic VR goals into device-manipulation sequences across games? **(RQ2)** How much do in-context examples improve performance? **(RQ3)** How sensitive are models to game-specific interaction complexity? **(RQ4)** Which cognitive capabilities are most and least developed in current models? **(RQ5)** How should LLM performance be interpreted relative to a matched human text baseline?

3.4 RQ1–RQ3: Overall Performance, Game Variation, and Few-Shot Effects

Tables 1 and 2 reveal a consistent pattern: current LLMs are already strong at identifying relevant actions, but remain substantially weaker at preserving executable procedure. Across settings, the best NSAS and SSC scores are achieved by Gemini-3-Pro (0.915 and 0.468), whereas Gemini-1.5-Pro attains the strongest average SSM and SOP (5.8% and 0.146). The resulting picture is not one of a single dominant model, but rather a trade-off frontier between semantic alignment, ordering fidelity, and coverage. This is precisely the type of multi-dimensional behavior that ComboBench is designed to expose.

The per-game results in Table 1 further show that interaction paradigm strongly conditions model performance. Vivecraft is consistently the easiest environment in terms of step identification, with most strong models obtaining NSAS around or above 0.90. Into the Radius remains the most challenging setting, especially for smaller models, plausibly because it combines inventory manipulation, realistic physics, and less stereotyped controller routines. Half-Life: Alyx and Moss: Book II sit between these extremes: both require non-trivial sequencing, but they differ in where errors concentrate, with Alyx stressing procedural timing and Moss stressing coordinated object interaction.

Table 3 quantifies this sensitivity. The most capable models are not necessarily the most stable ones. Claude-Sonnet-4.5 and LLaMA-3-70B exhibit the lowest cross-game variation in NSAS and Game Gap, while GPT-4o shows much stronger fluctuation across titles. This indicates that benchmarking only average performance would obscure an important dimension of robustness: some models are stronger on paper, whereas others are materially more consistent across interaction regimes.

Few-shot prompting helps nearly all models, but the gains are highly uneven across metrics. The largest improvements occur for procedural ordering rather than semantic identification: zero-shot SOP scores are near zero for most models, whereas 5-shot prompting raises the best models to roughly 0.21–0.24. By contrast, NSAS is already moderately strong in zero-shot settings for frontier systems and improves more gradually. This suggests that demonstrations help models infer the latent structure of acceptable action sequences, but do not fully resolve the challenge of converting semantic intent into precise operations.

Scaling within model families. The inclusion of LLaMA-3-8B and LLaMA-3-70B enables a direct within-family analysis of scaling effects. Scaling from 8B to 70B increases average NSAS from 0.787 to 0.909, SSM from 1.2% to 3.8%, and SSC from 0.111 to 0.409. The gains are especially large on semantic coverage, suggesting that scale improves the ability to recover plausible action content even when exact ordering remains difficult.

3.5 Robustness to Multiple Valid Solutions

Many open-ended VR tasks admit multiple valid trajectories. To better capture this property, we conduct an additional Multi-Path Step Matching (MP-SSM) evaluation on 50 representative scenarios. For each scenario, we collect three extra valid expert-authored action sequences and score a prediction against the best-matching path. Table 4 shows that all systems improve under this relaxed evaluation, and the human baseline rises to 0.931 average NSAS. At the same time, the relative ordering of systems remains broadly stable: GPT-4 and GPT-4o remain strongest on this subset, while the remaining models cluster closely behind. This result indicates that the single-path evaluation is conservative, while also showing that the benchmark is not merely measuring arbitrary similarity to one annotation; the ranking signal persists when multiple valid solutions are explicitly allowed.

3.6 RQ4: Cognitive Capability Analysis

We next interpret benchmark performance through the six capability dimensions defined in Section 2.1. Figure 3 shows a consistent asymmetry. Task decomposition is the strongest capability across the board: nearly all frontier models can recover a plausible set of sub-actions once the high-level goal is

Model	Half-Life: Alyx				Into the Radius				Moss: Book II				Vivecraft			
	NSAS↑	SOP↑	F1$_{SOP}$↑	SSC↑	NSAS↑	SOP↑	F1$_{SOP}$↑	SSC↑	NSAS↑	SOP↑	F1$_{SOP}$↑	SSC↑	NSAS↑	SOP↑	F1$_{SOP}$↑	SSC↑
GPT-3.5	0.858	0.123	0.287	0.143	0.662	0.169	0.226	0.137	0.782	0.169	0.207	0.186	0.922	0.043	0.098	0.067
GPT-4	0.853	0.125	0.258	0.172	0.693	0.189	0.328	0.177	0.824	0.218	0.336	0.220	0.927	0.137	0.437	0.081
GPT-4o	0.804	0.022	0.075	0.167	0.698	0.291	0.414	0.190	0.824	**0.300**	0.342	0.222	0.931	0.190	**0.489**	0.096
GPT-5.1	0.903	0.251	0.320	0.493	0.857	0.062	0.172	0.269	0.888	0.206	0.300	0.383	0.864	0.109	0.221	0.144
Gemini-1.5-Pro	0.863	0.209	0.313	0.152	0.682	0.102	0.186	0.117	0.848	0.265	0.411	0.207	0.938	0.250	0.481	0.095
Gemini-3-Pro	**0.929**	0.309	0.427	0.650	**0.927**	0.280	**0.478**	0.611	**0.928**	0.262	**0.487**	**0.572**	0.895	**0.379**	0.343	0.228
Claude-Sonnet-4.5	0.920	0.195	0.317	0.455	0.923	0.275	0.424	**0.621**	0.918	0.260	0.460	0.532	0.899	0.200	0.322	0.158
Grok-4	0.924	**0.351**	**0.430**	0.655	0.911	**0.320**	0.396	0.564	0.918	0.231	0.428	0.558	0.869	0.270	0.319	0.311
GLM-4-Flash	0.836	0.076	0.183	0.149	0.618	0.096	0.186	0.149	0.749	0.087	0.174	0.165	0.909	0.000	0.045	0.061
Mixtral-8x7B	0.839	0.126	0.246	0.147	0.666	0.123	0.228	0.097	0.756	0.117	0.191	0.121	0.926	0.060	0.239	0.070
LLaMA-3-8B	0.848	0.126	0.279	0.162	0.644	0.242	0.317	0.168	0.823	0.283	0.349	0.200	0.929	0.039	0.122	0.042
LLaMA-3-70B	0.928	0.252	0.408	**0.692**	0.917	0.232	0.391	0.560	0.924	0.270	0.469	0.542	0.897	0.009	0.257	**0.332**
Human	0.845	0.090	0.240	0.110	0.684	0.148	0.257	0.181	0.817	0.112	0.328	0.174	**0.935**	0.122	0.482	0.084

Table 1: Overall performance comparison of LLMs across VR games (5-shot setting). Best model performance per metric is **bolded**, second best is underlined.

Model	Average Across Settings				Zero-Shot				5-Shot			
	SSM (%)	NSAS	SOP	SSC	SSM (%)	NSAS	SOP	SSC	SSM (%)	NSAS	SOP	SSC
GPT-3.5	1.4	0.781	0.063	0.066	0.8	0.771	0.003	0.046	2.1	0.791	0.128	0.095
GPT-4	3.7	0.806	0.107	0.124	1.0	0.788	0.015	0.107	8.8	0.825	0.184	0.140
GPT-4o	5.3	0.797	0.138	0.141	0.6	0.785	0.015	0.108	10.9	0.806	0.228	0.161
GPT-5.1	0.1	0.857	0.069	0.230	0.4	0.830	0.003	0.075	0.4	0.878	0.130	0.322
Gemini-1.5-Pro	**5.8**	0.813	**0.146**	0.142	**2.1**	0.795	0.010	0.124	11.7	0.832	**0.236**	0.162
Gemini-3-Pro	5.6	**0.915**	0.141	**0.468**	0.4	**0.904**	0.022	**0.305**	11.1	0.920	0.214	0.515
Claude-Sonnet-4.5	4.5	0.906	0.115	0.340	0.0	0.890	0.004	0.115	8.4	0.915	0.182	0.442
Grok-4	4.8	0.902	0.129	0.422	0.7	0.895	0.015	0.222	9.8	0.911	0.226	**0.522**
GLM-4-Flash	0.0	0.761	0.038	0.077	0.6	0.762	0.006	0.052		0.765	0.071	0.120
Mixtral-8x7B	1.1	0.784	0.068	0.079	0.0	0.777	0.002	0.040	2.2	0.796	0.105	0.107
LLaMA-3-8B	1.2	0.787	0.088	0.111	0.1	0.783	0.011	0.088	1.8	0.794	0.163	0.132
LLaMA-3-70B	3.8	0.909	0.126	0.409	0.2	0.898	0.003	0.160	8.5	0.916	0.191	**0.531**
Human	1.2	0.833	0.122	0.159	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–

Table 2: Overall performance across VR games and settings. We report the average scores for Strict Step-by-Step Matching (SSM), Normalized Step Alignment Score (NSAS), Sequential Order Preservation (SOP), and Semantic Step Coverage (SSC). Higher is better for all metrics. Bold indicates best model performance, underline indicates second best.

Model	NSAS σ↓	SOP σ↓	F1$_{SOP}$ σ↓	Game Gap↓
GPT-3.5	0.110	0.061	0.084	0.085
GPT-4	0.059	0.051	0.081	0.074
GPT-4o	0.068	0.137	0.184	0.127
GPT-5.1	0.018	0.102	0.097	0.073
Gemini-1.5-Pro	0.099	0.093	0.127	0.095
Gemini-3-Pro	0.014	0.123	0.106	0.081
Claude-Sonnet-4.5	**0.009**	0.110	0.134	0.084
Grok-4	0.013	0.137	0.065	0.072
GLM-4-Flash	0.135	0.049	0.069	0.084
Mixtral-8x7B	0.114	0.031	**0.065**	0.070
LLaMA-3-8B	0.112	0.103	0.120	0.113
LLaMA-3-70B	0.012	0.106	0.077	**0.065**
Human	0.105	**0.029**	0.117	0.084

Table 3: Cross-game performance variation under 5-shot prompting. Lower is better.

Model	Average NSAS	Zero-Shot NSAS	5-Shot NSAS
GPT-3.5	0.927	0.904	0.942
GPT-4	0.949	0.937	0.955
GPT-4o	0.949	0.942	0.955
Gemini-1.5-Pro	0.939	0.923	0.947
GLM-4-Flash	0.926	0.896	0.939
Mixtral-8x7B	0.925	0.894	0.934
LLaMA-3-8B	0.940	0.926	0.940
Human	0.931	–	–

Table 4: Multi-Path Step Matching (MP-SSM) NSAS on 50 representative scenarios with three additional expert-authored valid solution paths per scenario.

Figure 3: Cognitive capability profiles of LLMs and humans in the semantic-to-device translation task. Higher is better.

specified. In contrast, motor action mapping is substantially weaker, indicating that the main failure mode is not deciding *what* needs to happen, but specifying *how* the VR devices must be manipulated to make it happen. Procedural reasoning is the second major bottleneck, which aligns with the low SOP values across models.

The capability profiles also reveal non-trivial differences among strong models. Gemini-3-Pro and Claude-Sonnet-4.5 are comparatively balanced across dimensions, whereas GPT-5.1 exhibits high semantic alignment but a sharper drop on procedural execution. Open-weight models benefit strongly from scale: LLaMA-3-70B narrows much of the gap to frontier proprietary systems, but its residual weaknesses remain concentrated in ordering and

physically grounded controller specification.

3.7 RQ5: Comparison with Humans

The human baseline should be interpreted carefully. Participants did not execute tasks in VR, but solved the same text-to-action translation problem as LLMs. Thus, the comparison is fair for the benchmarked capability, but not a measure of overall VR proficiency: in-situ gameplay also requires exploration, reactive correction, motor coordination, and environmental feedback. Under this matched textual protocol, top LLMs are already competitive with, and often stronger than, humans on NSAS, SOP, and SSC; frontier models exceed the human NSAS baseline in most games, and several substantially outperform humans on SOP. This does not imply that LLMs are better VR players. Rather, it shows that modern models can rival human recall and formalization when converting a known goal into a textual manipulation sequence. Figure 3 adds nuance: humans remain strongest on grounded dimensions such as spatial reasoning and termination judgment. Overall, current LLMs are strong symbolic translators of VR intent, but remain less reliable on reasoning that benefits from embodied interaction.

4 Related Work

Recent work has explored LLMs as generalist agents for embodied reasoning. In robotics, *Say-Can* (Ahn et al., 2022) and *PaLM-E* (Driess et al., 2023) combine LLMs with affordance-based skill models or multimodal inputs to plan and execute actions, demonstrating that LLMs can decompose high-level goals into actionable steps when grounded in sensory input. Similar capabilities appear in virtual domains through agents like *Voyager* (Wang et al., 2023) and platforms like *MineDojo* (Fan et al., 2022), which demonstrate autonomous skill acquisition via code generation. However, these systems focus on code-level or symbolic outputs rather than physical device manipulation or spatially grounded motor control required in VR. Task decomposition has been studied via prompting strategies such as Chain-of-Thought (Wei et al., 2022) and ReAct (Yao et al., 2022), which improve multi-step planning coherence. LLMs generate structured action sequences in domains like household tasks (Shridhar et al., 2020) and scientific procedures (Wang et al., 2022), while code-as-policy paradigms (Liang et al., 2022)

enable conditional and iterative actions through executable policy code. These approaches, however, often abstract away physical or spatial execution complexity. Several benchmarks assess grounded reasoning in interactive settings. Animal-AI (Mecattaf et al., 2024) evaluates embodied cognition through physics-based tasks, while ALF-World (Shridhar et al., 2021), ScienceWorld (Wang et al., 2022), and MacGyver-style tasks (Tian et al., 2024) test instruction-following and object-use innovation, revealing LLMs' limitations in spatial reasoning and tool-use generalization. Concurrently, capability-oriented embodied evaluations have emerged: EmbodiedBench (Yang et al., 2025) unifies tasks with fine-grained error taxonomies; VLABench (Zhang et al., 2024a) targets long-horizon manipulation; EAI (Li et al., 2025) standardizes step-level diagnostics. GUI/OS/mobile benchmarks including OSWorld (Xie et al., 2024), SPA-Bench (Zhang et al., 2024b), WebArena (Zhou et al., 2023), Mind2Web (Deng et al., 2023), AndroidEnv (Toyama et al., 2021), and AppAgent/AppAgent v2 (Zhang et al., 2023; Li et al., 2024b) evaluate precise device interactions. On the robotics side, VLA policies such as RT-1/RT-2 (Brohan et al., 2022, 2023) and OpenVLA (Kim et al., 2024) map observations to actions, while large-scale 3D suites like Habitat 2.0/HAB (Savva et al., 2021), BEHAVIOR-1K/OmniGibson (Li et al., 2024a), and CALVIN (Mees et al., 2021) stress long-horizon rearrangement.

In contrast, ComboBench targets the translation of semantic goals into fine-grained, physically grounded VR device manipulations, enabling precise step-level analysis of embodied cognitive abilities critical for real-world interaction.

5 Conclusion

We introduced ComboBench, a benchmark for evaluating whether LLMs can translate semantic VR goals into executable device-manipulation sequences. Across twelve models, the main bottleneck is procedurally grounded control rather than semantic task decomposition: strong models often identify the right actions but still struggle to specify them in the correct order and with the right controller-level detail. We hope ComboBench helps establish VR as a useful intermediate testbed between symbolic agent benchmarks and fully embodied control.

Limitations

ComboBench focuses on a controlled language-to-action setting in which models translate semantic VR goals into temporally ordered device-manipulation sequences. While this design enables fine-grained analysis of procedural reasoning and controller-level action specification, it should not be interpreted as measuring full in-situ VR gameplay ability, which also involves online execution, environmental feedback, error recovery, and adaptation to changing task states. The benchmark is further limited to 262 scenarios from four VR games and a specific family of VR controller conventions, so the findings may not fully generalize to other games, hardware layouts, locomotion schemes, or application domains. Finally, although we include a multi-path evaluation on a subset of scenarios, most instances are evaluated against a limited set of reference action sequences; future work should expand alternative solution paths and develop evaluation methods that better capture functionally equivalent action strategies.

Ethical Considerations

ComboBench is intended as an offline research benchmark for diagnostic evaluation, rather than as a deployed autonomous control system. The direct risks of the present work are therefore limited. If similar language-to-action capabilities are later integrated into interactive or embodied systems, deployment should include appropriate human oversight, safeguards against unintended actions, and privacy protections for any collected interaction data.

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6 Appendix

A Preliminaries on Virtual Reality

Virtual Reality (VR) represents a fundamentally distinct paradigm of human-computer interaction that transcends traditional interface boundaries. Unlike conventional computing systems that rely on indirect manipulation through keyboards, mice, and two-dimensional displays, VR creates immersive digital environments where users experience presence and embodiment. This paradigm shift necessitates a comprehensive understanding of both the technological infrastructure and the cognitive demands placed on users who must translate abstract intentions into concrete physical manipulations within virtual spaces.

The evolution of VR technology has progressed through several generations, from early tethered systems requiring substantial computational infrastructure to modern standalone devices that integrate processing, display, and tracking capabilities within compact form factors. Contemporary VR systems can be broadly categorized into three architectural approaches. PC-tethered headsets leverage external computational resources to deliver high-fidelity experiences with complex graphics and physics simulations. Standalone headsets, exemplified by devices like the Meta Quest series, incorporate integrated processors that balance performance with portability. Mobile-phone-based solutions represent an accessible entry point, utilizing smartphones as both display and processor, though with inherent limitations in tracking precision and computational capability.

The core hardware components enabling VR interaction form an integrated ecosystem of sensory input and output devices. Head-Mounted Displays (HMDs) serve as the primary visual interface, providing stereoscopic rendering that creates depth perception while simultaneously tracking head orientation and position through integrated sensors. This tracking enables natural viewing behaviors where users can examine virtual objects by physically moving their heads, mirroring real-world visual exploration patterns. Motion controllers, typically deployed in pairs to represent both hands, enable direct manipulation of virtual objects through a combination of positional tracking, button inputs, trigger mechanisms, and thumbstick controls. These devices must balance ergonomic considerations with functional complexity, providing sufficient input channels while maintaining intuitive operation. Spatial tracking systems, whether implemented through external sensors (outside-in tracking) or integrated cameras (inside-out tracking), monitor user movements with six degrees of freedom, capturing both translational and rotational motion to enable natural locomotion and interaction within virtual environments.

The ongoing evolution of VR hardware continues to introduce novel interaction modalities. Haptic gloves promise to deliver tactile feedback through actuators that simulate texture, resistance, and temperature. Full-body tracking systems capture skeletal motion to enable more nuanced avatar control and gesture recognition. Specialized peripherals, from steering wheels for racing simulations to weapon replicas for combat games, demonstrate the trend toward application-specific controllers that enhance immersion through physical affordances that match virtual interactions.

A.1 Interaction Paradigms and Design Principles

The design of VR interaction paradigms represents a delicate balance between leveraging users' existing motor skills and introducing novel control schemes that exploit the unique capabilities of virtual environments. Direct manipulation forms the foundation of most VR interactions, where users employ hand controllers to simulate natural actions like grasping, throwing, and pushing. This approach capitalizes on users' lifetime of experience with physical object manipulation but requires careful calibration of virtual physics to match expectations. The mapping between controller inputs and virtual hand movements must account for the absence of tactile feedback, often employing visual or auditory cues to confirm successful interactions.

Ray-casting emerged as an elegant solution to the fundamental challenge of interacting with objects beyond physical reach. By projecting virtual rays from controllers, users can select, manipulate, and activate distant objects without locomotion. This technique exemplifies how VR interaction design often augments natural human capabilities rather than strictly simulating physical constraints. Advanced ray-casting implementations incorporate features like ray curvature for improved ergonomics, variable ray length based on context, and visual feedback mechanisms that indicate interaction possibilities.

Gesture recognition systems interpret temporal patterns of controller or hand movement as dis-

crete commands, enabling a rich vocabulary of interactions without relying on button combinations. These systems must balance recognition accuracy with user comfort, avoiding gestures that cause fatigue or require precise movements difficult to perform consistently. Machine learning approaches have enhanced gesture recognition capabilities, allowing for more natural and varied input patterns while maintaining reliable detection rates.

Symbolic input mechanisms address scenarios where direct physical analogues are impractical or inefficient. Virtual keyboards present unique challenges in VR, as users lack tactile feedback and must rely on visual confirmation of key presses. Solutions range from laser-pointer selection of virtual keys to gesture-based text entry systems that map hand movements to characters. Voice commands offer an alternative input modality that bypasses manual interaction entirely, though they introduce considerations around recognition accuracy, latency, and social acceptability in shared spaces.

A.2 Development Platforms and Technical Considerations

The creation of VR applications relies on sophisticated development ecosystems that abstract hardware complexity while providing fine-grained control over interaction mechanics. Unity and Unreal Engine have emerged as dominant platforms, offering comprehensive toolsets that handle rendering pipelines, physics simulation, spatial audio, and cross-platform deployment. These engines provide specialized VR interaction frameworks that standardize common patterns like object grabbing, teleportation, and menu systems, significantly reducing development complexity.

Hardware software development kits (SDKs) serve as the bridge between high-level application logic and device-specific capabilities. Meta's OpenXR initiative represents an industry effort to standardize VR/AR interfaces, enabling applications to target multiple hardware platforms without extensive modifications. Platform-specific SDKs like SteamVR and Oculus SDK continue to play important roles, offering access to proprietary features and optimizations that enhance performance on particular hardware.

Technical constraints fundamentally shape VR interaction design decisions. Maintaining consistent frame rates above 72Hz (and preferably 90Hz or higher) prevents motion sickness and ensures responsive interactions. This performance requirement influences every aspect of application design, from polygon counts and texture resolution to the complexity of physics simulations. Tracking precision varies across hardware platforms and environmental conditions, necessitating interaction designs that accommodate occasional tracking losses or reduced accuracy. Developers must also consider the diverse computational capabilities across the VR ecosystem, implementing scalable solutions that provide acceptable experiences on entry-level hardware while leveraging the capabilities of high-end systems.

A.3 Challenges in VR Interaction

Despite remarkable technological progress, VR interaction continues to face fundamental challenges that impact user experience and limit application domains. The locomotion problem exemplifies the tension between physical and virtual spaces. While users may explore vast virtual environments, they remain constrained by finite physical play areas. Teleportation offers a practical solution but breaks immersion and can cause spatial disorientation. Artificial locomotion through thumbstick control risks motion sickness in susceptible users. More exotic solutions like omnidirectional treadmills or redirected walking techniques remain impractical for consumer applications.

The absence of comprehensive haptic feedback represents perhaps the most significant limitation in current VR systems. While controllers provide basic vibration feedback, they cannot simulate the rich tactile experiences of real-world interaction: the weight of objects, surface textures, temperature variations, or resistance to movement. This sensory gap creates a fundamental disconnect between visual expectations and physical sensations, requiring users to adapt their interaction strategies and often leading to reduced precision in manipulation tasks.

Interaction discoverability poses ongoing challenges as VR applications lack standardized interface conventions comparable to desktop or mobile platforms. Users encountering new VR experiences must often learn application-specific control schemes, gesture sets, and interaction patterns. The absence of persistent visual UI elements (to maintain immersion) exacerbates this challenge, as users cannot easily reference control schemes during gameplay. This lack of standardization increases cognitive load and creates barriers to entry

for new users.

Precision manipulation tasks highlight the limitations of current tracking systems and input devices. Tasks requiring fine motor control, such as threading a virtual needle or manipulating small components, prove challenging due to tracking jitter, lack of physical surfaces for hand stabilization, and absence of tactile confirmation. These limitations restrict the types of applications suitable for VR and influence interaction design toward larger, more forgiving target sizes and simplified manipulation schemes.

Figure 4: Overview of Strict Sequential Order Preservation (SOP) and Normalized Step Alignment Score (NSAS) Calculation

Figure 5: Overview of Strict Step-by-Step Matching (SSM) Calculation

Figure 6: Overview of Common Subsequence Evaluation

B Expert Interview.

To derive the taxonomy in Section 1.1, we conducted semi-structured interviews with three domain experts who specialize in cognitive science and educational psychology, with research backgrounds in spatial cognition, procedural learning, and embodied interaction. Each expert participated in a 90-minute online interview focused on identifying the cognitive abilities required to translate semantic goals into physical actions in virtual environments.

The interview protocol followed three phases: (1) an open-ended discussion of cognitive processes involved in VR interaction, (2) a structured review of preliminary capability categories synthesized from prior work, and (3) targeted refinement, where experts proposed additions, merges, and clarifications to these categories. We performed a thematic analysis over the interview transcripts to extract points of agreement and disagreement. Areas of consensus were directly incorporated into the taxonomy, while divergent views were reconciled through follow-up email consultations. This process yielded the six core capability dimensions reported in the main text.

C Explanation of Evaluation Metrics

C.1 Strict Step-by-Step Matching (SSM)

Figure 5 illustrates the Strict Step-by-Step Matching (SSM) calculation process. SSM represents our most stringent evaluation metric, requiring exact correspondence between model-generated sequences and ground truth annotations. The calculation process operates as follows:

In the left panel, we observe a scenario where the ground truth contains 4 steps while the model result contains 5 steps. For SSM to register a match, two conditions must be satisfied: (1) the number of steps must be identical between ground truth and model output, and (2) each step must have a cosine similarity score above our threshold of 0.8387 with its corresponding ground truth step. In this example, the length mismatch alone disqualifies the sequence from being counted as correct, resulting in an SSM score of 0. The orange X symbol on the fifth model step visually indicates this length mismatch failure.

The right panel demonstrates a successful SSM match where both sequences contain 4 steps. Each model step is compared with its corresponding ground truth step using cosine similarity of their

text embeddings. The green checkmarks indicate that all four step pairs exceed the similarity threshold, resulting in a successful match and contributing 1 to the SSM score. This metric's strictness explains why even high-performing models achieve relatively low SSM scores—any deviation in sequence length or individual step similarity results in complete failure for that sequence.

C.2 Common Subsequence Evaluation

Figure 6 details our Common Subsequence Evaluation approach, which underlies the Normalized Step Alignment Score (NSAS) and Sequential Order Preservation (SOP) metrics. This evaluation method provides more nuanced assessment than SSM by identifying partial matches and preserved ordering within sequences.

The process begins with comparing each step in the ground truth and model result sequences using cosine similarity, as shown by the crossing blue lines in the leftmost panel. Unlike SSM's strict position-based matching, this approach allows steps to match regardless of their positions in the sequences. The algorithm then identifies the top 3 longest common subsequences where matched steps maintain their relative ordering.

In the example shown, multiple candidate subsequences are generated, each representing different ways steps from both sequences can be aligned while preserving order. The model (shown as GPT-4o) then selects the most matching subsequence based on the highest cumulative similarity scores. The final selected subsequence shows GT Steps 2, 3, and 4 matching with MR Steps 1, 4, and 5 respectively. This flexible matching approach allows the metrics to capture semantic correctness even when models include additional steps or present steps in slightly different positions.

The NSAS metric is calculated by considering the correctly matched steps ($|C|$), missing steps from ground truth ($|M|$), and additional steps in the model output ($|A|$), normalized by the total ground truth steps and scaled across the dataset. The SOP metric specifically evaluates whether matched steps maintain their sequential order, providing insight into the model's procedural reasoning capabilities.

C.3 Cognitive Capability Score Derivation

The radar chart in Figure 3 presents normalized capability scores (0–10 scale) derived by aggregating model performance on scenario subsets that heavily engage each cognitive dimension. Each scenario in ComboBench was labeled with primary cognitive requirements during the annotation process described in Section 1.5. For example, scenarios labeled with high "Spatial Reasoning" complexity (e.g., "crouch through the gap," "navigate around the obstacle") form the subset used to compute spatial reasoning scores.

For each capability dimension c, the score for model m is computed as:

$$\text{Score}_c^m = 10 \times \frac{\text{NSAS}_c^m - \min_{\text{models}}(\text{NSAS}_c)}{\max_{\text{models}}(\text{NSAS}_c) - \min_{\text{models}}(\text{NSAS}_c)}. \tag{1}$$

Here, NSAS_c^m is the average NSAS score of model m on scenarios primarily requiring capability c. This normalization ensures comparability across dimensions with different baseline difficulties.

D Detailed Prompt

Prompt for Vivecraft Action Decomposition
You are an expert VR game player deeply immersed in a VR game called Vivecraft. You are holding your VR controllers in both hands and view the game scene through your HMD. Your task is to thoroughly describe how you perform semantic actions in Vivecraft by breaking them down into step-by-step sequences of device manipulations in the given JSON format. Use precise and clear instructions, and include all necessary steps to ensure accurate execution of the action.
The output should include atomic game actions and corresponding VR device manipulations.
Your output must strictly follow this JSON format:

```
{
    "action ID": "<action ID>",
    "semantic action": "<action>",
    "atomic game action": [
        "1. <step_1>",
        ......
        "n. <step_n>"
    ],
    "device manipulations": [
        "1. <step_1>",
        ......
        "n. <step_n>"
    ]
}
```

Here is the introduction to the VR game Vivecraft to help you better decompose the atomic action and device manipulation:
<game_intro/>
Vivecraft is the mod that transforms Minecraft into an exceptional VR experience in room-scale or seated play. It is a sandbox game that allows players to explore, create, and survive in a blocky, procedurally generated world. The key mechanism of the game is listed below: – Mining and Crafting: Gather materials from the environment and craft tools, weapons, and other items using a crafting table. – Building: Use blocks to construct buildings, machines, and other structures. – Exploration: Discover

various biomes with unique landscapes, resources, and mobs. – Combat: Defend against hostile mobs like zombies, skeletons, and creepers. – Farming and Animal Husbandry: Grow crops and breed animals for long-term survival.
`</game_intro>` Here is the general VR controller user guide that helps you to decompose the semantic action into device manipulation:
`<vr_device_guide/>`

- **HMD:** Provides immersive visual and auditory VR experience; displays 360-degree environments and delivers spatial audio.

- **Triggers (controllers):** Used for precise actions, including pressing virtual buttons and selecting or interacting with objects.

- **Grips (controllers):** Used for grabbing and manipulating objects, including grabbing, moving, rotating, and resizing; pressing the grip forms a virtual fist.

- **Thumb Buttons (controllers):**

  - **X (left):** Open quick access toolkit or inventory.
  - **Y (left):** Open game settings menu.
  - **A (right):** Use item in the VR environment; change placement mode.
  - **B (right):** Toggle quick menu.

- **Joysticks (controllers):**

  - **Left joystick:** Move within the VR environment; navigation.
  - **Right joystick:** Rotate in different directions.

`</vr_device_guide>`
Criteria:
`<criteria/>` 1. You can assume that the tools and materials you need are already in your inventory. 2. If you use a trigger, grip, or controller, you must explicitly specify whether it is left, right, or both. 3. If you use a thumb button, you must explicitly state which one (A, B, X, or Y).
`</criteria>`

E Detailed Experiment Results

This section provides comprehensive analysis of our experimental results, including detailed performance breakdowns across models, games, and experimental conditions. We present both aggregated metrics and fine-grained analyses that illuminate specific strengths and weaknesses in current LLMs' ability to reason about VR device manipulations.

E.1 Overall Performance Analysis

The table 17 below presents a holistic view of model performance across all experimental conditions. The results reveal a clear performance hierarchy, with Gemini-1.5-Pro achieving the highest average Normalized Step Alignment Score (NSAS) of 0.845, followed closely by GPT-4o (0.832) and GPT-4 (0.824). Notably, even the best-performing models achieve relatively modest Strict Step-by-Step Matching (SSM) scores, with Gemini-1.5-Pro reaching only 8.7% exact sequence matches. This discrepancy between NSAS and SSM scores indicates that while models can identify appropriate

actions, they struggle with precise sequencing and complete reproduction of manipulation sequences.

The Sequential Order Preservation (SOP) scores reveal perhaps the most significant challenge facing current LLMs. Even top-performing models achieve SOP scores below 0.3, indicating difficulty in maintaining correct procedural ordering of steps. This limitation is particularly pronounced in zero-shot settings, where SOP scores approach zero for most models, suggesting that procedural reasoning for VR interactions requires exposure to examples rather than emerging from general language understanding.

Human performance provides an important baseline for contextualizing model achievements. While humans achieve comparable NSAS scores (0.817) to top LLMs, they show notably lower SOP scores (0.124) than leading models. This counterintuitive result reflects the challenging nature of the tasks even for experienced VR users and suggests that perfect procedural recall may be less important than adaptive problem-solving in real-world VR interaction.

E.2 Game-Specific Performance Patterns

The table 18 below reveals substantial variations in model performance across different VR games, highlighting how game design and interaction complexity influence LLM reasoning capabilities. Vivecraft consistently yields the highest performance across all models, with NSAS scores ranging from 0.909 to 0.938. This strong performance likely reflects the game's discrete, block-based interaction paradigm inherited from Minecraft, which provides clear action-object mappings that align well with linguistic descriptions.

In contrast, Into the Radius proves most challenging, with NSAS scores dropping to 0.618-0.698 across models. This game's emphasis on realistic physics simulation, complex inventory management, and weapon manipulation requires understanding of nuanced spatial relationships and multi-step procedures that current LLMs struggle to capture. The high standard deviation in performance (0.135 for GLM-4-flash) indicates inconsistent model behavior when confronting complex interaction scenarios.

Half-Life: Alyx and Moss: Book II occupy intermediate positions in the difficulty spectrum. Half-Life: Alyx's physics-based puzzles and combat scenarios require precise timing and spatial reasoning, reflected in extremely low SOP scores (0.022 for GPT-4o). Moss: Book II's third-person perspective and puzzle-platforming elements introduce unique challenges in translating camera-relative directions into controller movements, though models show more consistent performance than in Half-Life: Alyx.

E.3 Impact of Few-Shot Learning

The table 19 below demonstrates the transformative effect of few-shot examples on model performance. The most dramatic improvements occur in SOP scores, which increase by factors of 10-20x from zero-shot to 5-shot settings. GPT-3.5-turbo exemplifies this pattern, improving from 0.036 to 0.226 in SOP F1 score, representing a 527.8% relative gain. This massive improvement suggests that examples primarily help models understand the expected format and level of detail for procedural instructions rather than teaching fundamental VR interaction principles.

The diminishing returns pattern is consistent across models, with the largest gains occurring between zero-shot and 1-shot conditions. The jump from 3-shot to 5-shot provides minimal additional benefit, indicating that models quickly extract relevant patterns from limited examples. Gemini-1.5-Pro shows the most efficient few-shot learning, achieving top performance with fewer examples than competing models, suggesting superior in-context learning capabilities for procedural tasks.

Interestingly, few-shot examples have differential effects across game types. Complex games like Into the Radius show continued improvement with additional examples, while simpler environments like Vivecraft plateau quickly. This pattern indicates that few-shot learning is most beneficial when dealing with diverse interaction patterns and complex procedural sequences.

E.4 Cognitive Capability Analysis

The figure 3 shows model performance across six cognitive dimensions, revealing distinct capability profiles. All models demonstrate strong task decomposition abilities (7.8-8.5), indicating that breaking down high-level goals into subtasks aligns well with LLMs' training on hierarchical text structures. Gemini-1.5-Pro leads in this dimension with a score of 8.5, though even smaller models like Mixtral-8x7B achieve respectable scores of 8.0.

Motor action mapping emerges as the most challenging capability across all models (0.5-4.5), highlighting the difficulty of translating abstract action concepts into specific button presses and controller movements. This limitation likely stems from the absence of embodied experience in text-based training data. GPT-4o performs best in this dimension but still falls far short of human-level capability, suggesting a fundamental gap in current architectures.

Procedural reasoning shows high variance across models (2.3-7.0), with Gemini-1.5-Pro again leading. The correlation between procedural reasoning scores and few-shot learning gains suggests that this capability can be partially addressed through examples, though the ceiling remains well below human performance. Spatial reasoning capabilities (4.8-7.5) reveal another significant gap, particularly evident in games requiring 3D navigation and object manipulation.

E.5 Statistical Significance and Variance Analysis

The tables 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16 below provide detailed statistical analyses of model performance, revealing important patterns in consistency and reliability. And the figures 7, 8, 9 The standard deviation measurements across different games and shot settings illuminate which models maintain stable performance versus those exhibiting high variability. For instance, in Vivecraft, GPT-3.5-turbo shows remarkably consistent NSAS scores in zero-shot settings (std = 0.0248), but this consistency deteriorates with few-shot examples (std = 0.0734 at 3-shot), suggesting that additional examples introduce uncertainty in the model's approach to task completion.

The variance patterns differ significantly between metrics. NSAS scores generally show lower standard deviations (0.02-0.21 range) compared to SOP scores (0.00-0.34 range), indicating that models more consistently identify relevant steps than maintain proper ordering. This pattern is particularly pronounced in complex games like Into the Radius, where SOP standard deviations exceed 0.3 for several models in few-shot settings. Such high variance suggests that models employ different strategies across different runs, sometimes achieving correct ordering by chance rather than through systematic understanding.

Comparison with human variance provides crucial context for interpreting model stability. Human annotators show standard deviations comparable to mid-tier models (0.084 in cross-game performance), suggesting that some degree of variance is inherent to the task rather than a model limitation. However, humans maintain more consistent SOP performance (std = 0.029) compared to all models except Mixtral-8x7B, indicating more reliable procedural reasoning despite overall lower scores.

Model	GPT-3.5-turbo		GPT-4-turbo		GPT-4o		Gemini-1.5-Pro		Mixtral-8x7B		LLaMA-3-8b		LLaMA-3-70B		Grok-4		GPT-5.1		Gemini-3-Pro	
Metrics	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std
Zero-shot	0.9258	0.0248	0.9255	0.0238	0.9191	0.0306	0.9209	0.0334	0.9312	0.0207	0.9244	0.0329	0.9001	0.0248	0.8956	0.0324	0.8665	0.0645	0.8979	0.0307
1-shot	0.921	0.0309	0.9349	0.0506	0.9358	0.0735	0.9362	0.0553	0.9219	0.0636	0.9101	0.0765	0.8948	0.0512	0.8680	0.1266	0.8509	0.1077	0.8921	0.0900
3-shot	0.9284	0.0734	0.914	0.1167	0.9212	0.1115	0.9381	0.0781	0.9005	0.1125	0.9022	0.1051	0.9113	0.0886	0.9217	0.1115	0.8670	0.1358	0.9219	0.1093
5-shot	0.9218	0.0385	0.9274	0.0674	0.9305	0.0689	0.9378	0.0708	0.9256	0.0477	0.9289	0.0364	0.8973	0.0587	0.8901	0.0951	0.8638	0.0895	0.8955	0.0742

Table 5: Average and standard deviation of Normalized Step Alignment Score (NSAS) scores comparison of LLMs on *Vivecraft* under different shot settings.

Table 6: Average and standard deviation of Sequential Order Preservation (SOP) scores comparison of LLMs on *Vivecraft* under different shot settings.

Model	GPT-3.5-turbo		GPT-4-turbo		GPT-4o		Gemini-1.5-Pro		Mixtral-8x7B		LLaMA-3-8b		LLaMA-3-70B		Grok-4		GPT-5.1		Gemini-3-Pro	
Metrics	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std
Zero-Shot	0.0029	0.0312	0.0007	0.0078	0.0012	0.0125	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0059	0.0624	0.0000	0.0000	0.0022	0.0234	0.0037	0.0280	0.0029	0.0312
1-shot	0.015	0.0734	0.1203	0.2157	0.1568	0.2337	0.1794	0.291	0.0812	0.164	0.0351	0.1215	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0037	0.0280	0.0088	0.0569
3-shot	0.1302	0.2352	0.1143	0.2136	0.2826	0.3417	0.2335	0.3417	0.0986	0.2024	0.1124	0.2026	0.2817	0.3333	0.2697	0.3192	0.1090	0.2205	0.3790	0.3432
5-shot	0.0395	0.1226	0.1366	0.2388	0.1837	0.278	0.2495	0.3358	0.0553	0.158	0.0374	0.1371	0.0088	0.0937	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0029	0.0312

Table 7: Average and standard deviation of Semantic Step Coverage (SSC) scores comparison of LLMs on *Vivecraft* under different shot settings.

Model	GPT-3.5-turbo		GPT-4-turbo		GPT-4o		Gemini-1.5-Pro		Mixtral-8x7B		LLaMA-3-8b		LLaMA-3-70B		Grok-4		GPT-5.1		Gemini-3-Pro	
Metrics	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std
Zero-Shot	0.049	0.11	0.1301	0.1443	0.1272	0.1511	0.2221	0.2151	0.024	0.0999	0.1088	0.1549	0.0661	0.1381	0.0631	0.1283	0.0162	0.0391	0.0900	0.1445
1-shot	0.1274	0.1988	0.544	0.3672	0.6598	0.3322	0.5747	0.3359	0.4914	0.3617	0.3165	0.3415	0.3078	0.1823	0.2745	0.1944	0.0453	0.0626	0.3293	0.1840
3-shot	0.4755	0.3526	0.6486	0.3373	0.6817	0.3204	0.6538	0.3373	0.5414	0.37	0.5299	0.3785	0.6174	0.3279	0.5777	0.4096	0.4515	0.2967	0.7147	0.3225
5-shot	0.18	0.2337	0.5035	0.3772	0.6183	0.3416	0.608	0.3546	0.3579	0.3555	0.1606	0.2605	0.3316	0.1931	0.3108	0.2078	0.1437	0.1067	0.2284	0.2213

Table 8: Average and standard deviation of Normalized Step Alignment Score (NSAS) scores comparison of LLMs on *Half-Life: Alyx* under different shot settings.

Model	GPT-3.5-turbo		GPT-4-turbo		GPT-4o		Gemini-1.5-Pro		Mixtral-8x7B		LLaMA-3-8b		LLaMA-3-70B		Grok-4		GPT-5.1		Gemini-3-Pro	
Metrics	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std
Zero-Shot	0.838	0.0413	0.8456	0.0366	0.8376	0.0424	0.8447	0.032	0.8376	0.0331	0.848	0.0317	0.9039	0.0203	0.9095	0.0198	0.8523	0.0550	0.9136	0.0200
1-shot	0.8354	0.0582	0.8427	0.0489	0.8472	0.0629	0.8627	0.0482	0.807	0.1099	0.8131	0.1289	0.9077	0.0238	0.9147	0.0271	0.8724	0.0691	0.9231	0.0306
3-shot	0.8452	0.0551	0.845	0.0467	0.838	0.0757	0.8701	0.0603	0.8255	0.0819	0.8449	0.0707	0.9191	0.0263	0.9203	0.0301	0.8844	0.0673	0.9260	0.0321
5-shot	0.8577	0.0773	0.8523	0.0613	0.8039	0.0694	0.8625	0.0691	0.8394	0.0834	0.848	0.0976	0.9278	0.0308	0.9245	0.0392	0.9030	0.0508	0.9292	0.0384

Table 9: Average and standard deviation of Sequential Order Preservation (SOP) scores comparison of LLMs on *Half-Life: Alyx* under different shot settings.

Model	GPT-3.5-turbo		GPT-4-turbo		GPT-4o		Gemini-1.5-Pro		Mixtral-8x7B		LLaMA-3-8b		LLaMA-3-70B		Grok-4		GPT-5.1		Gemini-3-Pro	
Metrics	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std
Zero-Shot	0.0098	0.0802	0.0252	0.1265	0.0396	0.1745	0.0082	0.0669	0.0019	0.0158	0.0123	0.0704	0.0000	0.0000	0.0226	0.1277	0.0067	0.0316	0.0334	0.1698
1-shot	0.0447	0.0764	0.0402	0.1224	0.024	0.0733	0.0198	0.1263	0.0425	0.0816	0.0447	0.0967	0.0633	0.0896	0.1418	0.2141	0.0562	0.1164	0.1370	0.1764
3-shot	0.0725	0.1159	0.0312	0.0725	0.0701	0.1261	0.1349	0.2187	0.0703	0.1094	0.087	0.1687	0.1523	0.2214	0.1801	0.2663	0.0975	0.1335	0.1478	0.2045
5-shot	0.123	0.1834	0.1248	0.2382	0.0216	0.0809	0.2089	0.2938	0.1257	0.2409	0.1259	0.2385	0.2515	0.3235	0.3509	0.3824	0.2511	0.3231	0.3095	0.3807

Table 10: Average and standard deviation of Semantic Step Coverage (SSC) scores comparison of LLMs on *Half-Life: Alyx* under different shot settings.

Model	GPT-3.5-turbo		GPT-4-turbo		GPT-4o		Gemini-1.5-Pro		Mixtral-8x7B		LLaMA-3-8b		LLaMA-3-70B		Grok-4		GPT-5.1		Gemini-3-Pro	
Metrics	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std
Zero-Shot	0.0785	0.1843	0.2231	0.2089	0.2424	0.2111	0.1989	0.1982	0.0716	0.1187	0.1662	0.172	0.2676	0.2473	0.3874	0.2736	0.1693	0.1449	0.4934	0.2915
1-shot	0.2562	0.235	0.3485	0.2336	0.4184	0.2413	0.3859	0.2654	0.3256	0.1934	0.3872	0.2058	0.4790	0.2759	0.5427	0.2460	0.3417	0.2254	0.5525	0.3053
3-shot	0.3072	0.2444	0.3648	0.2414	0.5611	0.229	0.5494	0.2887	0.3544	0.2202	0.4599	0.2371	0.6075	0.2956	0.5898	0.2581	0.3919	0.2003	0.5798	0.3317
5-shot	0.425	0.2814	0.6127	0.2856	0.6934	0.2359	0.6299	0.315	0.4642	0.2957	0.5152	0.2708	0.6920	0.2518	0.6555	0.2914	0.4929	0.2721	0.6502	0.3073

Figure 7: LLMs NSAS (avg) by Different Shot Setting Across Four VR Games

Figure 8: LLMs SOP (avg) by Different Shot Setting Across Four VR Games

Figure 9: LLMs SSC (avg) by Different Shot Setting Across Four VR Games

Model	NSAS	SOP	SSC	SSM	Best FS
Gemini-1.5-Pro	0.845	0.251	0.151	0.087	5
GPT-4o	0.832	0.291	0.190	0.135	5
GPT-4	0.824	0.218	0.177	0.095	5
LLaMA-3-8B	0.823	0.283	0.200	0.040	5
Human	0.817	0.124	0.174	0.021	-
Mixtral-8x7B	0.790	0.123	0.142	0.039	5
GPT-3.5	0.778	0.169	0.137	0.037	5
GLM-4-Flash	0.749	0.096	0.165	0.000	5

Table 17: Performance of LLMs across VR Games (Best Few-Shot Setting)

Model	Half-Life: Alyx	Radius	Moss	Vivecraft
GPT-3.5-turbo	0.858 (0.123)	0.662 (0.169)	0.782 (0.169)	0.922 (0.043)
GPT-4-turbo	0.852 (0.125)	0.693 (0.189)	0.824 (0.218)	0.927 (0.137)
GPT-4o	0.804 (0.022)	0.698 (0.291)	0.824 (0.300)	0.931 (0.190)
Gemini-1.5-Pro	0.863 (0.209)	0.682 (0.102)	0.848 (0.265)	0.938 (0.250)
Mixtral-8x7B	0.839 (0.126)	0.666 (0.123)	0.756 (0.117)	0.926 (0.060)
LLaMA-3-8B	0.848 (0.126)	0.644 (0.242)	0.823 (0.283)	0.929 (0.039)
GLM-4-flash	0.836 (0.076)	0.618 (0.096)	0.749 (0.087)	0.909 (0.000)
Human	0.845 (0.090)	0.684 (0.148)	0.817 (0.112)	0.935 (0.122)

Table 18: Performance comparison across different VR games (5-shot setting). We report NSAS scores (primary metric) and SOP scores (in parentheses).

Model	NSAS	SOP	SSC	SSM	Best FS
Gemini-1.5-Pro	0.845	0.251	0.151	0.087	5
GPT-4o	0.832	0.291	0.190	0.135	5
GPT-4	0.824	0.218	0.177	0.095	5
LLaMA-3-8B	0.823	0.283	0.200	0.040	5
Mixtral-8x7B	0.790	0.123	0.142	0.039	5
GPT-3.5	0.778	0.169	0.137	0.037	5
GLM-4-Flash	0.749	0.096	0.165	0.000	5
Gemini-3-Pro	0.923	0.241	0.607	0.084	3
LLaMA-3-70B	0.917	0.229	0.556	0.051	3
Grok-4	0.914	0.214	0.552	0.070	3
GPT-5.1	0.878	0.130	0.322	0.004	5
Human	0.817	0.124	0.174	0.021	-

Table 19: Performance of LLMs across VR Games (Best Few-Shot Setting)

Table 11: Normalized Step Alignment Score (NSAS) scores comparison of LLMs on *Moss: Book II* under different shot settings

Model	GPT-3.5-turbo		GPT-4-turbo		GPT-4o		Gemini-1.5-Pro		Mixtral-8x7B		LLaMA-3-8b		LLaMA-3-70B		Grok-4		GPT-5.1		Gemini-3-Pro	
Metrics	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std
Zero-Shot	0.7819	0.0403	0.8055	0.0717	0.7871	0.0596	0.7994	0.0548	0.7913	0.0595	0.7916	0.0572	0.8916	0.0224	0.8875	0.0269	0.8074	0.0811	0.8965	0.0255
1-shot	0.776	0.0616	0.7993	0.0771	0.803	0.0924	0.8139	0.0778	0.7663	0.0793	0.7938	0.0763	0.9075	0.0267	0.8968	0.0416	0.8393	0.0880	0.9151	0.0290
3-shot	0.7776	0.0889	0.818	0.0925	0.8016	0.1242	0.8302	0.0935	0.7613	0.1341	0.7895	0.1371	0.9199	0.0392	0.9122	0.0438	0.8773	0.0559	0.9237	0.0339
5-shot	0.782	0.0952	0.8243	0.102	0.8237	0.1092	0.8478	0.1017	0.756	0.1469	0.8232	0.105	0.9241	0.0406	0.9178	0.0417	0.8883	0.0664	0.9282	0.0354

Table 12: Average and standard deviation of Sequential Order Preservation (SOP) scores comparison of LLMs on *Moss: Book II* under different shot settings.

Model	GPT-3.5-turbo		GPT-4-turbo		GPT-4o		Gemini-1.5-Pro		Mixtral-8x7B		LLaMA-3-8b		LLaMA-3-70B		Grok-4		GPT-5.1		Gemini-3-Pro	
Metrics	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std
Zero-Shot	0.0091	0.0581	0.0263	0.1533	0.0113	0.0494	0.0197	0.1029	0.0052	0.033	0.0	0.0	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0119	0.0762
1-shot	0.034	0.1568	0.0663	0.2044	0.1084	0.2486	0.1145	0.2495	0.0739	0.1721	0.0578	0.1486	0.0759	0.1942	0.1062	0.2374	0.0456	0.1038	0.0887	0.2098
3-shot	0.1581	0.242	0.1678	0.2522	0.2324	0.3185	0.2272	0.3324	0.1351	0.252	0.2584	0.3089	0.2759	0.3045	0.2060	0.2904	0.1481	0.2026	0.2298	0.3019
5-shot	0.1686	0.244	0.2182	0.2801	0.2998	0.3062	0.2652	0.3596	0.1169	0.247	0.2831	0.3097	0.2703	0.3077	0.2310	0.3010	0.2056	0.2822	0.2616	0.3151

Table 13: Average and standard deviation of Semantic Step Coverage (SSC) scores comparison of LLMs on *Moss: Book II* under different shot settings.

Model	GPT-3.5-turbo		GPT-4-turbo		GPT-4o		Gemini-1.5-Pro		Mixtral-8x7B		LLaMA-3-8b		LLaMA-3-70B		Grok-4		GPT-5.1		Gemini-3-Pro	
Metrics	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std
Zero-Shot	0.0715	0.1792	0.2491	0.2844	0.2313	0.2567	0.1763	0.221	0.0407	0.0991	0.1208	0.1779	0.1401	0.1876	0.1286	0.1794	0.0205	0.0470	0.2099	0.2192
1-shot	0.0748	0.1719	0.259	0.2771	0.3682	0.3018	0.3449	0.3396	0.1749	0.2393	0.2319	0.293	0.3421	0.2902	0.3319	0.2375	0.1857	0.1592	0.3717	0.2929
3-shot	0.3349	0.3069	0.4593	0.3309	0.5001	0.3444	0.5238	0.3738	0.3207	0.3105	0.4689	0.3399	0.4884	0.3352	0.5130	0.2916	0.2986	0.2235	0.5575	0.3392
5-shot	0.3737	0.3213	0.4951	0.3373	0.5562	0.3319	0.6091	0.3476	0.2974	0.3385	0.4567	0.3173	0.5416	0.3313	0.5583	0.3393	0.3834	0.2477	0.5715	0.3281

Table 14: Average and standard deviation of Normalized Step Alignment Score (NSAS) scores comparison of LLMs on *Into the Radius* under different shot settings.

Model	GPT-3.5-turbo		GPT-4-turbo		GPT-4o		Gemini-1.5-Pro		Mixtral-8x7B		LLaMA-3-8b		LLaMA-3-70B		Grok-4		GPT-5.1		Gemini-3-Pro	
Metrics	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std
Zero-Shot	0.6165	0.0755	0.6408	0.0955	0.5939	0.1306	0.6492	0.1018	0.6644	0.0718	0.6447	0.0882	0.8975	0.0226	0.8891	0.0411	0.7947	0.0774	0.9085	0.0337
1-shot	0.641	0.1177	0.6519	0.1421	0.6282	0.1687	0.6875	0.1159	0.6285	0.1684	0.6285	0.1346	0.9070	0.0345	0.8719	0.0276	0.8315	0.0659	0.9133	0.0357
3-shot	0.6305	0.128	0.6802	0.1645	0.6491	0.2057	0.6634	0.1638	0.618	0.1633	0.6479	0.1606	0.9165	0.0327	0.9017	0.0630	0.8483	0.0599	0.9219	0.0375
5-shot	0.6621	0.1291	0.6927	0.1721	0.6984	0.2136	0.6818	0.1191	0.666	0.1495	0.6443	0.211	0.9165	0.0410	0.9112	0.0484	0.8573	0.0687	0.9265	0.0485

Table 15: Average and standard deviation of Sequential Order Preservation (SOP) scores comparison of LLMs on *Into the Radius* under different shot settings.

Model	GPT-3.5-turbo		GPT-4-turbo		GPT-4o		Gemini-1.5-Pro		Mixtral-8x7B		LLaMA-3-8b		LLaMA-3-70B		Grok-4		GPT-5.1		Gemini-3-Pro	
Metrics	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std
Zero-Shot	0.0091	0.0581	0.0263	0.1533	0.0113	0.0494	0.0197	0.1029	0.0052	0.033	0.0	0.0	0.0123	0.0630	0.0370	0.1386	0.0000	0.0000	0.0401	0.1528
1-shot	0.034	0.1568	0.0663	0.2044	0.1084	0.2486	0.1145	0.2495	0.0739	0.1721	0.0578	0.1486	0.1799	0.2850	0.0000	0.0000	0.0404	0.1387	0.1205	0.2522
3-shot	0.1581	0.242	0.1678	0.2522	0.2324	0.3185	0.2272	0.3324	0.1351	0.252	0.2584	0.3089	0.2053	0.2758	0.2003	0.3009	0.0662	0.1330	0.2081	0.2859
5-shot	0.1686	0.244	0.2182	0.2801	0.2998	0.3062	0.2652	0.3596	0.1169	0.247	0.2831	0.3097	0.2321	0.3149	0.3203	0.3509	0.0622	0.1455	0.2804	0.3294

Table 16: Average and standard deviation of Semantic Step Coverage (SSC) scores comparison of LLMs on *Into the Radius* under different shot settings.

Model	GPT-3.5-turbo		GPT-4-turbo		GPT-4o		Gemini-1.5-Pro		Mixtral-8x7B		LLaMA-3-8b		LLaMA-3-70B		Grok-4		GPT-5.1		Gemini-3-Pro	
Metrics	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std	avg	std
Zero-Shot	0.0354	0.0982	0.1528	0.1774	0.2199	0.1745	0.1783	0.2107	0.0406	0.0899	0.1243	0.1655	0.1671	0.2225	0.3100	0.2305	0.0945	0.0945	0.4250	0.2078
1-shot	0.1511	0.2246	0.304	0.2983	0.4102	0.2585	0.2823	0.3277	0.2593	0.3249	0.3171	0.269	0.4190	0.3079	0.4098	0.2744	0.1565	0.1162	0.5220	0.2739
3-shot	0.2321	0.2713	0.4463	0.3099	0.5623	0.2976	0.3402	0.3379	0.3544	0.2621	0.5319	0.2382	0.5113	0.2765	0.5294	0.2839	0.2220	0.1755	0.5766	0.3039
5-shot	0.3302	0.3115	0.5082	0.3063	0.6194	0.2877	0.2971	0.3187	0.285	0.3384	0.5314	0.2886	0.5601	0.3133	0.5638	0.3041	0.2692	0.1803	0.6109	0.3173

E.6 Cross-Game Generalization Patterns

The cross-game performance analysis reveals important insights about model generalization capabilities. Models that perform well on one game do not necessarily maintain their advantage across others. For example, while GPT-4o achieves the highest SOP score in Into the Radius (0.291), it performs poorly in Half-Life: Alyx (0.022). This game-specific variation suggests that models may overfit to particular interaction patterns rather than developing general VR manipulation capabilities.

The "Game Gap" metric in the table 3 quantifies this generalization challenge. Lower values indicate more consistent cross-game performance. Mixtral-8x7B achieves the lowest Game Gap (0.070), despite not leading in any individual game. This consistency might make it more suitable for applications requiring reliable performance across diverse VR experiences. In contrast, GPT-4o's high Game Gap (0.127) reflects its specialized strengths and weaknesses across different interaction paradigms.

Analysis of confusion patterns reveals that models struggle most when transitioning between games with different control schemes. The shift from Vivecraft's discrete block interactions to Half-Life: Alyx's continuous physics manipulation represents a fundamental change in how actions map to controller inputs. Models trained primarily on text lack the embodied experience to navigate these transitions smoothly, often applying inappropriate interaction patterns learned from one context to another.

E.7 Temporal Dynamics in Sequential Tasks

Detailed examination of step-by-step performance reveals how models handle temporal dependencies in VR interactions. Early steps in sequences generally show higher accuracy (NSAS > 0.9) across all models, with performance degrading for later steps. This degradation is particularly severe for steps that depend on the successful completion of previous actions. For instance, in a sequence like "pick up object, aim at target, throw object," models may correctly identify all three actions but fail to recognize that aiming requires successfully completing the pickup action first.

The SOP metric specifically captures these temporal dependencies, and the low scores across all models highlight a fundamental limitation in current architectures. Even with few-shot examples that demonstrate correct ordering, models struggle to internalize the causal relationships between steps. This suggests that improved performance may require architectural innovations that better capture temporal and causal reasoning, rather than simply scaling existing approaches.

Error analysis reveals common patterns in temporal mistakes. Models frequently suggest parallel actions that must be performed sequentially (e.g., "press trigger while reaching for object" when the trigger can only be meaningfully pressed after grasping). They also struggle with iterative processes, often omitting loop conditions or termination criteria. These patterns indicate that models lack an understanding of the physical constraints that govern VR interactions.

E.8 Detailed Performance Tables and Visualizations

The table 2 provides granular data for researchers seeking to understand specific model behaviors. These tables reveal several noteworthy patterns. First, the relationship between different metrics is non-linear. High NSAS scores do not guarantee good SOP performance, and models with similar average scores may achieve them through different strengths. This multidimensional performance landscape suggests that selecting models for specific applications requires careful consideration of which capabilities are most critical.

The table 2 illustrates the strict matching process, highlighting why SSM scores remain low even for generally capable models. The requirement for exact sequence length and step-by-step correspondence proves extremely demanding. Even minor variations in phrasing or step granularity result in match failures. This visualization helps explain why SSM may be overly strict for practical applications, where functional equivalence matters more than exact replication.

The table 2 demonstrates the more nuanced evaluation approach that underlies our NSAS and SOP metrics. By identifying the longest common subsequences with semantic matching, these metrics better capture functional understanding while still penalizing significant deviations from ground truth. The visualization shows how models might achieve reasonable NSAS scores by identifying most relevant actions while still failing SOP evaluation due to ordering errors.

The heat maps of model performance across game-task combinations reveal clustering of difficulty. Certain task types (e.g., combat sequences in Half-Life: Alyx, inventory management in Into the Radius) consistently challenge all models, while others (e.g., block placement in Vivecraft) show near-ceiling performance. These patterns suggest that targeted improvements for specific interaction types might yield better results than general capability enhancement.

E.9 Implications for Future Research

The detailed experimental results paint a complex picture of current LLM capabilities and limitations in VR interaction reasoning. While models demonstrate competence in identifying relevant actions and decomposing high-level goals, they consistently struggle with the procedural and embodied aspects of VR interaction. The strong effect of few-shot examples suggests that current models possess latent capabilities that can be activated through appropriate prompting, but fundamental architectural limitations prevent them from achieving human-like understanding of physical manipulation sequences.

The high variance in performance across games and tasks indicates that robustness remains a significant challenge. Models that excel in one context may fail dramatically in another, limiting their practical applicability. This brittleness likely stems from the discrete nature of text-based training, which lacks the continuous, embodied experience that humans leverage when learning new physical tasks.

Moving forward, these results suggest several promising research directions. Multimodal models that incorporate visual and proprioceptive information alongside text may better capture the embodied nature of VR interactions. Explicit modeling of temporal and causal relationships could address the procedural reasoning gaps identified in our experiments. Finally, training on synthetic VR interaction data or through simulated embodiment might provide models with the experiential knowledge currently lacking in text-only approaches.

The detailed results also highlight the importance of comprehensive evaluation frameworks that assess multiple dimensions of capability. Single metrics fail to capture the complexity of VR interaction reasoning, and future benchmarks should continue to embrace multidimensional evaluation approaches that can identify specific strengths and weaknesses in model capabilities.

F Responsible Research and Reproducibility Details

F.1 Artifact Availability, Licensing, and Intended Use

We release ComboBench for offline research and diagnostic evaluation of language-to-action reasoning. The released

materials include benchmark annotations, prompts, and evaluation scripts. They do not redistribute proprietary game assets, raw gameplay footage owned by third parties, or proprietary model weights. Our benchmark annotations are released under the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 International License (CC BY 4.0), and our evaluation code is released under the MIT License. Users of the released materials should comply with the licenses and terms of use of the original games, walkthrough sources, gameplay-video sources, model APIs, open-weight models, and software packages.

ComboBench is intended for research and diagnostic evaluation rather than deployment as an autonomous control system. The benchmark consists of game-related task descriptions and device-manipulation sequences. It does not include personal user data, and annotator identities are not released. We manually inspected the released textual benchmark materials for personally identifying information and offensive content. Any author or annotator metadata used internally for coordination was kept separate from the released benchmark files.

F.2 Computational Reproducibility

For proprietary models, we used the official provider APIs; parameter counts are not publicly disclosed for these systems. For open-weight models, we used Hugging Face implementations of LLaMA-3-8B, LLaMA-3-70B, and Mixtral-8x7B. All generations used temperature 0 to improve determinism and reproducibility. Semantic matching used OpenAI's `text-embedding-3-large` model and cosine similarity, with the similarity threshold selected as described in Section 3.2.

No task-specific model training or fine-tuning was performed. The main experimental variables were the evaluated model and the number of in-context examples, namely 0-, 1-, 3-, and 5-shot prompting. The main model-evaluation experiments involved 262 scenarios, 12 models, and 4 prompting settings, corresponding to 12,576 model-generation queries. Including additional calls for cognitive-capability labeling, verification, and pilot checks, we estimate the total usage to be approximately 13,000–14,000 LLM generation queries. Because proprietary APIs and open-weight models use different tokenization schemes, we report approximate token usage: the full set of generation experiments used roughly 40–45 million input tokens and 2.5–3.0 million output tokens.

Open-weight model experiments were run on NVIDIA A100 40GB GPUs. We used Python 3.11, PyTorch 2.12.0, Transformers 5.9.0, NumPy 2.4.6, and scikit-learn 1.8.0. Exact prompts, benchmark annotations, and evaluation scripts are included in the released materials.

F.3 Human Annotation, Consent, Compensation, and Ethics Review

Eight annotators participated in scenario identification and device-manipulation annotation. They were undergraduate and postgraduate computer science students with at least two years of programming experience and familiarity with VR games. Three domain experts with backgrounds in cognitive science, educational psychology, spatial cognition, procedural learning, and embodied interaction participated in semi-structured interviews used to refine the cognitive capability taxonomy. Human-baseline participants completed the same text-to-action task presented to LLMs: given a high-level goal description, game context, and controller conventions, they wrote the corresponding sequence of device manipulations without executing the task in VR.

Participants were informed that their annotations, interview feedback, or responses would be used for research and benchmark construction. No personally identifying information is included in the released benchmark, and participant identities are not released. Annotators were paid according to the university's student-helper hourly-rate policy. Compensation was determined based on estimated task time and the university's standard student-helper payment guidelines. No protected demographic attributes were collected or released.

The data collection protocol was determined exempt by an ethics review board. To preserve anonymity during review, we do not name the institution in this submission. The study involved low-risk annotation, expert consultation, and offline text-to-action evaluation tasks; it did not collect sensitive personal data and does not release participant identities.

F.4 Large Language Models Usage Statement

As described in Section 2.5, we used GPT-4o as part of the LLM-assisted cognitive capability labeling pipeline. The model generated preliminary capability labels and justifications for manipulation steps, which were subsequently reviewed and corrected by human annotators. The final labels, analyses, and claims remain the responsibility of the authors.

This work also incorporated LLMs to aid in editorial refinement and linguistic improvement of the manuscript. The models provided assistance with stylistic enhancements and clarity optimization, including tasks such as rephrasing sentences and correcting grammatical errors.

We explicitly note that LLMs used for editorial assistance played no role in the conceptualization, theoretical development, or experimental design aspects of this research. The authors retain full responsibility for the entirety of the manuscript's content, including sections improved with LLM support. All LLM-assisted text has been carefully reviewed to ensure adherence to academic standards and ethical research practices.