

# 000 $A^2R^2$ : ADVANCING IMG2LATEX CONVERSION VIA 001 VISUAL REASONING WITH ATTENTION-GUIDED 002 REFINEMENT 003

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007 Paper under double-blind review  
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## 010 ABSTRACT 011

012  
013 Img2LaTeX is a practically important task that involves translating mathematical  
014 expressions and structured visual content from images into LaTeX code. In recent  
015 years, vision-language models (VLMs) have achieved remarkable progress across  
016 a range of visual understanding tasks, largely due to their strong generalization  
017 capabilities. However, despite initial efforts to apply VLMs to the Img2LaTeX task,  
018 their performance remains suboptimal. Empirical evidence shows that VLMs can  
019 be challenged by fine-grained visual elements, such as subscripts and superscripts  
020 in mathematical expressions, which results in inaccurate LaTeX generation. To  
021 address this challenge, we propose  $A^2R^2$ : Advancing Img2LaTeX Conversion via  
022 Visual Reasoning with Attention-Guided Refinement, a framework that effectively  
023 integrates attention localization and iterative refinement within a visual reasoning  
024 framework, enabling VLMs to perform self-correction and progressively improve  
025 LaTeX generation quality. For effective evaluation, we introduce a new dataset,  
026 *Img2LaTeX-Hard-1K*, consisting of 1,100 carefully curated and challenging ex-  
027 amples designed to rigorously evaluate the capabilities of VLMs within this task  
028 domain. Extensive experimental results demonstrate that: (1)  $A^2R^2$  significantly  
029 improves model performance across various evaluation metrics spanning both  
030 textual and visual levels; (2) Increasing the number of inference rounds yields  
031 notable performance gains, underscoring the potential of  $A^2R^2$  in test-time scaling  
032 scenarios; (3) Ablation studies and further evaluations confirm the effectiveness of  
033 our approach and the synergy of its core components during inference.

## 034 1 INTRODUCTION 035

036 In modern applications, users frequently interact with chat agents and consume research content  
037 where mathematical expressions and structured information must be represented in LaTeX format.  
038 This demand highlights the need for models that can accurately convert screenshots or images into  
039 their corresponding LaTeX source code. Existing approaches primarily rely on convolutional neural  
040 networks (CNNs) or Vision Transformer (ViT)-based architectures, which are fine-tuned on large-  
041 scale datasets specifically curated for this task (Jiang et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2019b; Dosovitskiy  
042 et al., 2021; Wang & Liu, 2021; Wang et al., 2019a). However, these models typically rely heavily on  
043 large-scale training data and lack the capacity for human-like reasoning and self-correction when  
044 faced with mismatches or prediction errors.

045 Recently, vision-language models (VLMs) have demonstrated strong potential in multimodal under-  
046 standing, particularly in tasks that require reasoning over image-text interactions (Zhang et al., 2024b;  
047 Du et al., 2022; Ghosh et al., 2024; Caffagni et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2024a; Yin et al., 2024). With  
048 the increasing availability of such models, VLMs are emerging as promising candidates for tackling  
049 the Img2LaTeX task. Nonetheless, prior studies evaluating their performance on this task reveal  
050 notable limitations, indicating that there remains substantial room for improvement (Roberts et al.,  
051 2024). One possible explanation is the reliance on direct evaluation of VLMs, which may overlook  
052 the potential advantages of leveraging their visual reasoning capabilities during inference.

053 To address the aforementioned limitations, we construct a more challenging subset from the  
054 Im2LaTeX-100K dataset (Deng et al., 2017), selecting approximately 1,100 difficult examples using

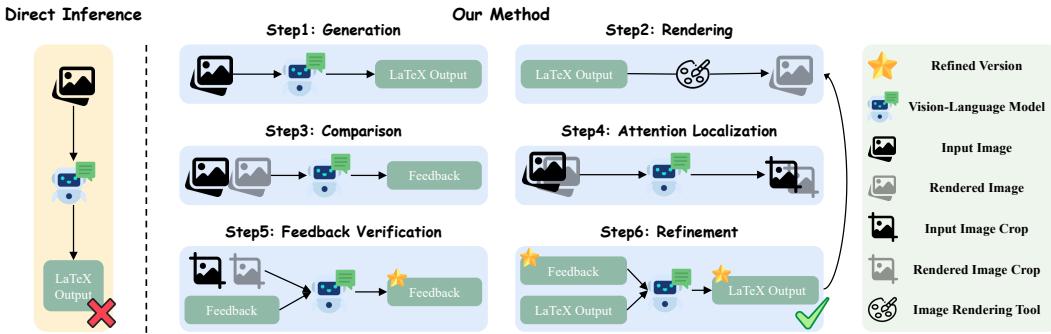


Figure 1: An illustration of the  $A^2R^2$  framework applied to the Img2LaTeX task. Unlike direct inference, which yields an incorrect result,  $A^2R^2$  incorporates multiple reasoning steps into the inference process. By leveraging iterative refinement, the framework progressively enhances the output, ultimately generating the correct LaTeX expression.

a combination of metric-based filtering and evaluations conducted by multi-modal large language models (MLLMs). This new dataset, *Img2LaTeX-Hard-1K*, is specifically designed to stress-test the capabilities of current VLMs under more demanding conditions.

Inspired by how visual reasoning emulates human-like thinking through self-correction and iterative refinement (Tan et al., 2025; Bi et al., 2025; Chen et al., 2024a; Zhang et al., 2025; OpenAI, 2025; Google, 2024; Xu et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2025), we propose a novel training-free plug-in framework,  $A^2R^2$ : Advancing Img2LaTeX Conversion via Visual Reasoning with Attention-Guided Refinement. Our proposed framework enhances VLM performance on the Img2LaTeX task by integrating attention-based localization with iterative refinement guided by visual feedback. As illustrated in Figure 1,  $A^2R^2$  consists of four core stages: (1) Generation: the VLM generates an initial LaTeX hypothesis from the input image; (2) Rendering and Comparison: the predicted LaTeX is rendered into an image and visually compared against the input to identify discrepancies, which are then used to elicit feedback; (3) Attention Localization and Feedback Verification: attention mechanisms guide the model to focus on the mismatched regions, while the system assesses the reliability of the feedback; (4) Refinement: the LaTeX output is updated based on the verified feedback, and the process iterates from stage (2), allowing the model to perform self-correction through visual reasoning.

In summary, our key contributions are as follows:

- (1) We propose  $A^2R^2$ , a novel visual reasoning framework that integrates attention-based localization and iterative self-refinement to enhance VLM performance on the Img2LaTeX task, all within a training-free paradigm.
- (2) Extensive experiments demonstrate that  $A^2R^2$  consistently outperforms other baselines. Moreover, increasing the number of inference steps yields notable improvements, supporting the effectiveness of test-time scaling.
- (3) Ablation studies and human evaluations provide further evidence of the practical benefits of the proposed framework, revealing strong synergy among its core components during inference.
- (4) We introduce *Img2LaTeX-Hard-1K*, a dataset of 1,100 challenging samples curated to rigorously benchmark modern VLMs, which exhibit substantially greater capabilities than prior generations.

## 2 RELATED WORKS

### 2.1 IMG2LATEX

Img2LaTeX is a well-established task involving the conversion of an image containing LaTeX-rendered content into its corresponding textual LaTeX source. This task is crucial in academic and educational contexts, where accurate transcription of mathematical and scientific notation is essential (Peng et al., 2021; Kayal et al., 2023; Wang & Shan, 2020). Prior work primarily adopts computer vision-based architectures for LaTeX recognition (Jiang et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2019a;

108 Wang & Liu, 2021). While these models are effective, they typically rely on large-scale annotated  
 109 datasets and often struggle with visually complex inputs. More recently, vision-language models  
 110 have been applied to this task, but findings indicate that their performance remains limited in this  
 111 domain-specific setting (Roberts et al., 2024). Motivated by these challenges, we propose a novel  
 112 approach that incorporates visual reasoning to enhance VLM performance on the Img2LaTeX task.  
 113

## 114 2.2 VISUAL REASONING

115  
 116 With the emergence of the test-time scaling paradigm, researchers increasingly adopt training strate-  
 117 gies such as supervised fine-tuning (SFT) and group relative policy optimization (GRPO) to enhance  
 118 the reasoning capabilities of large language models (LLMs) (Shao et al., 2024b; Yeo et al., 2025;  
 119 Muennighoff et al., 2025). These methods support extended chain-of-thought reasoning and self-  
 120 correction during inference, showing promise in domains like mathematical problem solving and code  
 121 generation (DeepSeek-AI et al., 2025; Mei et al., 2025; OpenAI et al., 2024a; OpenAI, 2025; Google,  
 122 2024). Similar efforts in vision-language models (VLMs) aim to enable long-form multimodal  
 123 reasoning. Recent work leverages image-text training to support extended reasoning chains (Shen  
 124 et al., 2025; Dong et al., 2025; Xu et al., 2025; Thawakar et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2025), while others  
 125 incorporate object localization to ground attention in evidence-rich image regions (Gao et al., 2025;  
 126 Shao et al., 2024a). Additional approaches explore multi-agent self-correction (Li et al., 2025a).  
 127 These advancements motivate our integration of visual reasoning to improve VLM performance on  
 128 the Img2LaTeX task.

## 129 3 IMG2LATEX-HARD-1K

130  
 131 The Im2LaTeX-100k dataset introduced by Deng et al. (2017) remains a foundational benchmark for  
 132 LaTeX recognition. However, our preliminary analysis shows that state-of-the-art vision-language  
 133 models (VLMs) exceed 90% accuracy on roughly 75% of instances, suggesting that much of the  
 134 dataset lacks sufficient difficulty for meaningful evaluation. This saturation limits the ability to assess  
 135 model capabilities and differentiate performance in more challenging scenarios.  
 136

137 To address this limitation and enable more discriminative evaluation of current VLMs, we introduce  
 138 *Img2LaTeX-Hard-1K*, a curated subset designed to stress-test contemporary models. The curation  
 139 combines quantitative performance-based filtering with qualitative assessments of visual complexity,  
 140 targeting instances that reveal weaknesses in mathematical reasoning and fine-grained visual under-  
 141 standing. *Img2LaTeX-Hard-1K* serves two main goals: offering a more rigorous benchmark for model  
 142 comparison and facilitating the analysis of failure modes to guide future research.

143 We construct the *Img2LaTeX-Hard-1K* benchmark by evaluating diverse open-weight VLMs across  
 144 multiple scales and architectures, combining textual similarity metrics (m-ROUGE, BLEU-4, Edit  
 145 Distance) with visual fidelity scores from GPT-4O-MINI, and aggregating them into weighted  
 146 instance-level difficulty scores to guide final data selection. The detailed construction pipeline is fully  
 147 presented in Appendix C.

## 148 4 METHODOLOGY

149  
 150 Traditional vision-language models (VLMs) often struggle to capture fine-grained visual details  
 151 in LaTeX expressions, resulting in subtle yet critical errors during LaTeX generation. To address  
 152 this limitation, we propose the  $A^2R^2$  framework, which introduces an iterative visual reasoning  
 153 process. By rendering predictions and comparing them against input images, the model autonomously  
 154 detects and corrects errors through attention-guided localization and targeted refinement. The  $A^2R^2$   
 155 framework operates in five stages: (1) Generation, (2) Rendering, (3) Comparison, (4) Attention  
 156 Localization and Feedback Verification, and (5) Refinement. Each stage is described in detail below.  
 157

### 158 4.1 GENERATION

159  
 160 In the initial stage, a vision-language model (VLM) is employed to produce an initial LaTeX  
 161 prediction. Given an input image  $I$  and a generation prompt  $P_{\text{generation}}$ , the model analyzes the visual

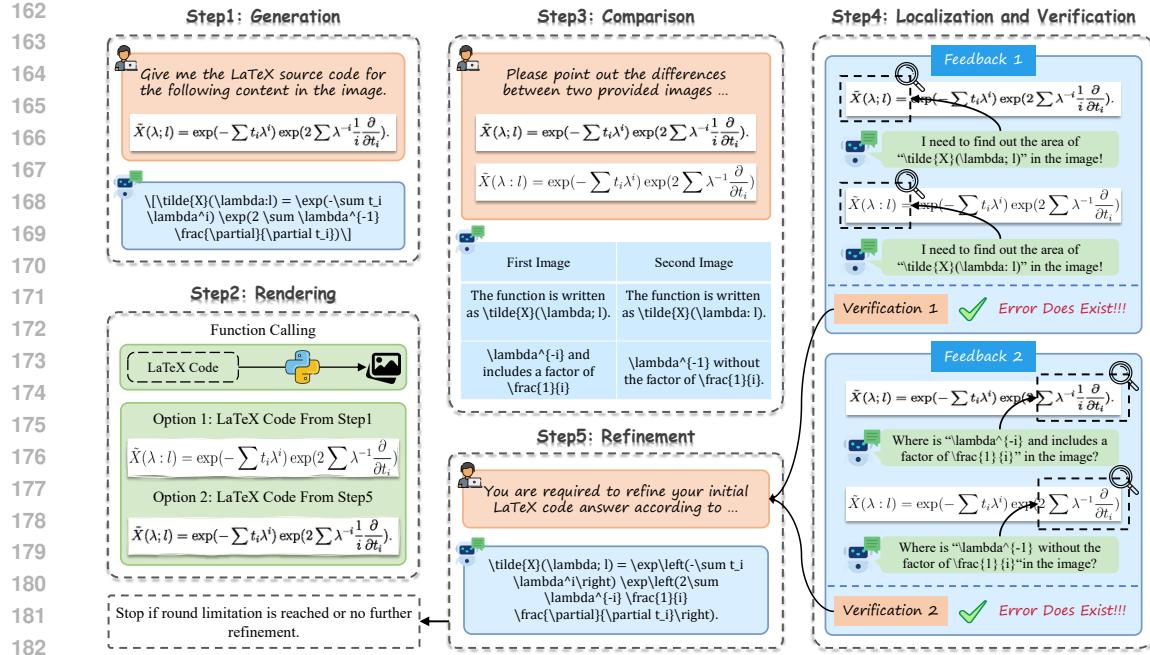


Figure 2: A detailed illustration of how the  $A^2R^2$  framework solves the Img2LaTeX task. The process consists of multiple stages: generation, rendering, comparison, attention localization, feedback verification, and refinement. These stages form a recurrent structure that enables iterative improvement. This extended reasoning mechanism supports test-time scaling and effectively corrects initial errors, ultimately producing the correct output.

content and generates the corresponding LaTeX sequence. This process is formalized as:

$$L = \text{VLM}(I, P_{\text{generation}}),$$

where  $L$  denotes the LaTeX output generated by the model.

#### 4.2 RENDERING

Once the initial LaTeX output is generated, it is rendered into an image  $I'$  using external tools such as *pdflatex* in conjunction with *ImageMagick*. For the first round of inference, the input LaTeX code corresponds to the output from the *Generation* stage. In subsequent rounds, the input is taken from the output of the *Refinement* stage.

#### 4.3 COMPARISON

In the *Comparison* stage, the rendered image  $I'$  is paired with the original input image  $I$ , and both are fed back into the model. The vision-language model now acts as a visual difference evaluator, identifying discrepancies between the original and generated images. This process is formalized as:

$$D = \text{VLM}(I, I', P_{\text{comparison}}),$$

where  $P_{\text{comparison}}$  denotes a prompt specifically designed to guide the model in identifying and describing differences between  $I$  and  $I'$  in a structured format. The resulting output  $D$  represents the model-generated feedback, which is subsequently used for verification and refinement.

#### 4.4 ATTENTION LOCALIZATION AND FEEDBACK VERIFICATION

Although vision-language models possess the ability to identify differences between two images, they remain prone to hallucinations, particularly when their performance on Img2LaTeX conversion is limited. Therefore, after detecting discrepancies between the original image  $I$  and its rendered counterpart  $I'$ , we employ an attention-based localization mechanism to highlight regions with high

attention. These regions are assumed to capture potential semantic or structural mismatches. We then extract two focused subregions from both  $I$  and  $I'$  to enable more fine-grained verification.

Let the textual prompt fed to the model be a sequence  $\tau = (\tau_1, \tau_2, \dots, \tau_n)$  of  $n$  tokens that describe the mathematical content to be verified. For each token  $\tau_i$ , we extract attention weights from a specified range of cross-attention layers, spanning from  $l_{\text{start}}$  to  $l_{\text{end}}$ , inclusive. Each layer comprises  $H_{\text{head}}$  attention heads. The attention map corresponding to token  $\tau_i$  at layer  $l$  and head  $h$  is represented as  $W_i^{(l,h)} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W}$ .

We first average across all heads and all selected layers to compute a unified attention map for each token  $\tau_i$ :

$$\tilde{W}_i = \frac{1}{(l_{\text{end}} - l_{\text{start}} + 1) \cdot H_{\text{head}}} \sum_{l=l_{\text{start}}}^{l_{\text{end}}} \sum_{h=1}^{H_{\text{head}}} W_i^{(l,h)}. \quad (1)$$

Subsequently, we average over all  $n$  tokens to obtain the final attention matrix:

$$A = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \tilde{W}_i, \quad A_{u,v} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \tilde{w}_{i,(u,v)}, \quad u = 1, \dots, H, \quad v = 1, \dots, W. \quad (2)$$

This yields  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W}$ , where  $H$  and  $W$  denote the spatial dimensions (in patch units) of the image feature map. Each entry in  $A$  represents the average attention across the selected layers, heads, and tokens, thereby highlighting how the model aligns the textual prompt with different image regions.

Since the values in the attention matrix typically do not reach 1, we normalize them into an 8-bit grayscale image to prepare the matrix for contour detection:

$$A_{\text{norm}} = 255 \cdot \frac{A - \min(A)}{\max(A) - \min(A)}. \quad (3)$$

We threshold the normalized attention matrix at the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile to isolate top-attention regions:

$$B(i,j) = \begin{cases} 255 & \text{if } A_{\text{norm}}(i,j) \geq \tau, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \text{where } \tau = \text{Percentile}(A_{\text{norm}}, 75), \quad \forall(i,j). \quad (4)$$

This produces a binary map  $B \in \{0, 255\}^{H \times W}$ , where pixels with high attention are white and others are black. We then extract the contours  $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathcal{C}_1, \dots, \mathcal{C}_k\}$  from  $B$  using standard external contour detection and select the largest contour based on area:

$$\mathcal{C} = \text{Contours}(B), \quad \mathcal{C}^* = \arg \max_{\mathcal{C}_i \in \mathcal{C}} \text{Area}(\mathcal{C}_i). \quad (5)$$

To obtain the final region, we first dilate the largest contour  $\mathcal{C}^*$  with a rectangular structuring element  $K$  of size  $3 \times 3$ :

$$\mathcal{C}_{\text{dil}} = \mathcal{C}^* \oplus K. \quad (6)$$

We then compute the bounding box of  $\mathcal{C}_{\text{dil}}$  to extract the corresponding subregion  $R$ :

$$(x, y, w, h) = \text{Bounding}(\mathcal{C}_{\text{dil}}), \quad R = \{(i, j) \in I \mid x \leq j < x + w, \quad y \leq i < y + h\}. \quad (7)$$

Through this process, we obtain two regions cropped from the original input image and the rendered image, denoted as  $R$  and  $R'$ . These regions are then fed into the model for self-verification:

$$D' = \text{VLM}(D, R, R', P_{\text{verification}}).$$

This attention-guided localization and verification step enables the model to focus on high-attention regions, enhancing its robustness in filtering out hallucinated or incorrect feedback.

#### 4.5 REFINEMENT

In the final step, we utilize the cropped regions from the original image  $R$  and the rendered image  $R'$ , together with the previously identified correct difference description  $D'$ , to guide the model in revising the current LaTeX generation  $L$ .

A refinement prompt  $P_{\text{refinement}}$  is designed to ensure that the model modifies only the erroneous part of  $L$  while preserving its correct components:

$$L^{\text{updated}} = \text{VLM}(L, R, R', D', P_{\text{refinement}}).$$

270 271 272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279 280 281 282 283 284 285 286 287 288 289	270 271 272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279 280 281 282 283 284 285 286 287 288 289	270 271 272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279 280 281 282 283 284 285 286 287 288 289	270 271 272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279 280 281 282 283 284 285 286 287 288 289	270 271 272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279 280 281 282 283 284 285 286 287 288 289		270 271 272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279 280 281 282 283 284 285 286 287 288 289		270 271 272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279 280 281 282 283 284 285 286 287 288 289			
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				ROUGE-1↑	ROUGE-2↑	ROUGE-L↑	BLEU-4↑	Edit Distance↓	Match↑	CW-SSIM↑	
270 271 272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279 280 281 282 283 284 285 286 287 288 289	270 271 272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279 280 281 282 283 284 285 286 287 288 289	270 271 272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279 280 281 282 283 284 285 286 287 288 289	270 271 272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279 280 281 282 283 284 285 286 287 288 289	Direct Prompting	84.14	68.59	83.69	64.83	27.45	89.66	87.00
				Chain-of-Thought Prompting	78.11	61.30	77.30	50.75	41.28	89.52	86.97
				Best-of-N (N = 2)	84.51	68.74	83.92	64.98	27.10	89.92	87.18
				Best-of-N (N = 4)	84.76	68.87	84.04	65.13	26.84	90.17	87.26
				Best-of-N (N = 8)	84.98	69.01	84.11	65.23	26.63	90.24	87.38
				$A^2R^2$ (Ours)	<b>90.87</b>	<b>73.13</b>	<b>89.21</b>	<b>70.41</b>	<b>20.12</b>	<b>93.75</b>	<b>93.46</b>
270 271 272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279 280 281 282 283 284 285 286 287 288 289	270 271 272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279 280 281 282 283 284 285 286 287 288 289	270 271 272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279 280 281 282 283 284 285 286 287 288 289	270 271 272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279 280 281 282 283 284 285 286 287 288 289	Direct Prompting	79.47	60.59	77.94	55.21	31.35	90.86	89.00
				Chain-of-Thought Prompting	75.62	57.59	74.45	51.32	46.08	89.80	87.61
				Best-of-N (N = 2)	79.72	60.81	78.12	55.36	30.95	91.07	89.23
				Best-of-N (N = 4)	79.92	61.05	78.28	55.50	30.37	91.24	89.39
				Best-of-N (N = 8)	80.04	61.19	78.39	55.61	30.02	91.33	89.52
				$A^2R^2$ (Ours)	<b>86.92</b>	<b>66.17</b>	<b>83.45</b>	<b>62.32</b>	<b>22.87</b>	<b>94.16</b>	<b>94.58</b>

Table 1: Performance of two vision-language models on the filtered *Img2LaTeX-Hard-1K* dataset, evaluated across seven metrics spanning both textual and visual dimensions. The best score for each model under each metric is highlighted in bold red.

Here,  $L^{\text{updated}}$  denotes the updated LaTeX code after correcting the identified error. Following this refinement, the process returns to step (2) to verify whether additional discrepancies remain. If so, the model repeats steps (2) to (5) iteratively:

$$L^{(t+1)} = \text{REFINE}(L^{(t)}, I, I').$$

This self-refinement loop continues until no new differences are detected or a predefined iteration limit  $T_{\max}$  is reached. The final output is given by:

$$L^* = L^{(T)}, \text{ where } T = T_{\max} \text{ or } \text{diff}(I, I')^{(T)} = \emptyset.$$

## 5 EXPERIMENTS SETUP

### 5.1 DATASET

We use our curated *Img2LaTeX-Hard-1K* dataset, which comprises 1,100 images containing LaTeX content.

### 5.2 VISION-LANGUAGE MODELS

Our proposed method relies on identifying salient regions across image pairs by accessing attention weights during inference. To facilitate this, we adopt open-weight vision-language models that expose internal attention mechanisms. For our main experiments, we select two models with distinct architectural designs and parameter scales:

- QWEN2.5-VL-32B-INSTRUCT (Bai et al., 2025): A 32-billion-parameter model from the QWEN2.5 family, representing a large-scale transformer-based architecture.
- LLAMA-3.2-11B-VISION-INSTRUCT (Meta AI, 2024): An 11-billion-parameter model from the LLAMA3.2 family, chosen to evaluate the effect of reduced model capacity.

### 5.3 METRICS

We evaluate the similarity between the generated LaTeX source code and the ground-truth label from both textual and visual perspectives.

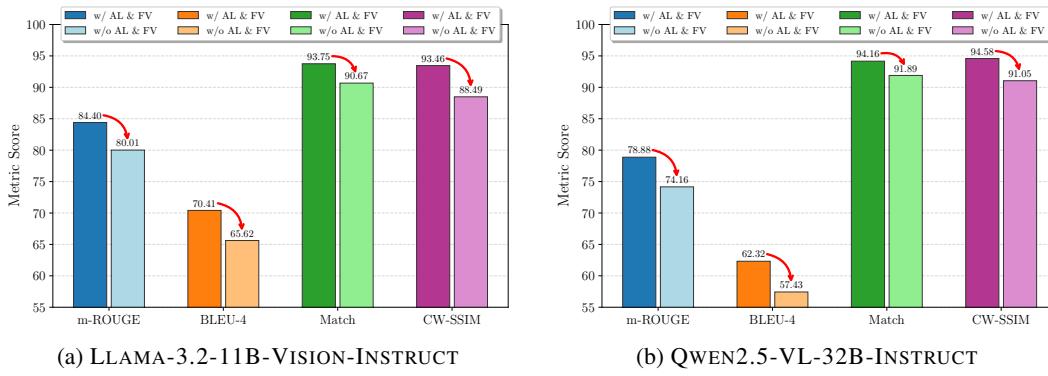


Figure 3: Ablation results for two vision-language models across four metrics demonstrate the impact of Attention Localization and Feedback Verification (AL & FV) on overall performance. Darker bars indicate the full model, while lighter bars represent variants with AL and FV removed. *m-ROUGE* denotes the mean of *ROUGE-1*, *ROUGE-2*, and *ROUGE-L* scores.

**Textual Metrics.** To assess the fidelity of the generated LaTeX sequences at the token and character levels, we employ the following standard text generation metrics:

- *ROUGE* (Lin, 2004): A recall-oriented metric that measures n-gram overlap between the generated sequence and the reference.
- *BLEU-4* (Papineni et al., 2002): A precision-oriented metric that evaluates the overlap of up to 4-grams.
- *Edit Distance* (Ristad & Yianilos, 1998): Computes the minimum number of edits needed to match the ground-truth sequence.

**Visual Metrics.** To evaluate the visual fidelity of the rendered LaTeX outputs, we compare the predicted and ground-truth images using the following image-level metrics:

- *Match*: Measures the proportion of identical pixels between the predicted and ground-truth renderings.
- *CW-SSIM* (Sampat et al., 2009): Evaluates structural similarity in the complex wavelet domain, robust to minor distortions.

## 5.4 IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

We obtain all model weights from the official repositories hosted on HuggingFace. All experiments are conducted on a machine equipped with four NVIDIA A100 80GB GPUs. To ensure consistency and reproducibility, we use the default inference settings provided by each model. Further details and an introduction to the baseline are provided in Appendix D and Appendix E, respectively.

## 6 EXPERIMENT RESULTS

For the main experiments, we evaluate 160 test instances using two models, comparing our method against three baselines. To ensure fairness, we cap our method at two inference rounds, keeping the average token count comparable to Best-of-N ( $N = 8$ ). As shown in Table 1,  $A^2R^2$  consistently outperforms other baselines across both models and all textual and visual metrics.

Under the LLAMA-3.2-11B-VISION-INSTRUCT model, CoT prompting introduces interpretability but consistently degrades performance across all metrics, suggesting that verbose reasoning may hinder generation quality in multimodal settings. Best-of-N sampling yields slight gains as  $N$  increases from 2 to 8, but improvements remain modest, indicating limited textual diversity despite increased computational cost.

In contrast, our framework delivers substantial improvements. *ROUGE* increases by approximately 6 points, *Edit Distance* decreases to 20.12, and visual metrics improve significantly, with *Match*

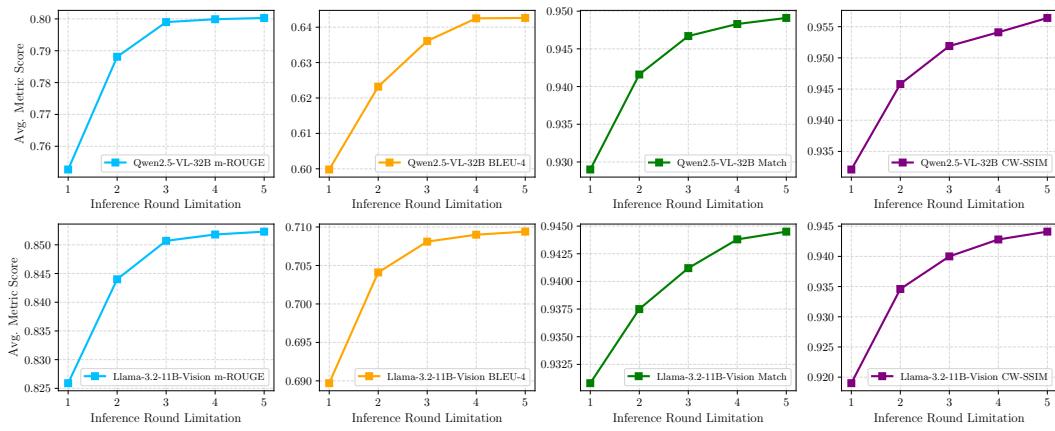


Figure 4: Performance of two vision-language models under four evaluation metrics using the proposed method with an expanded inference limitation round. Results demonstrate that extending test-time execution leads to improved performance across both models.

rising from 89.66 to 93.75 and *CW-SSIM* from 87.00 to 93.46. These results highlight  $A^2R^2$ ’s ability to maintain structural fidelity and cross-modal coherence. Similar patterns are observed with the QWEN2.5-VL-32B-INSTRUCT model. CoT again leads to performance degradation, while our method achieves consistent gains across all metrics. *BLEU-4* improves from 55.21 to 62.32, and visual alignment strengthens further, with *Match* reaching 94.16 and *CW-SSIM* 94.58, the highest across all settings.

Overall, these results validate the effectiveness and robustness of our proposed framework. In contrast to simple prompt engineering or sampling heuristics,  $A^2R^2$  fundamentally enhances the model’s ability to interpret, align, and verbalize visual information. The improvements span both text-level and image-level evaluations across different models, demonstrating the generalizability of our framework.

## 7 ABLATION STUDY

Our framework introduces attention-based visual reasoning, which localizes crucial regions and integrates feedback verification during refinement. This design mitigates hallucinated differences incorrectly identified by the model, thereby improving both accuracy and reliability. This raises the central question: *How much do attention localization and feedback verification help mitigate the negative effects of visual hallucination?* To answer this, we conduct ablation experiments with both models, comparing refinement with and without these components.

As shown in Figure 3, relying only on textual feedback without attention localization and cropped verification leads to a clear performance drop across four metrics. Both models show declines of over 4 points in *m-ROUGE* and *BLEU-4*, while *Match* and *CW-SSIM* fall by 2.5–3.5 points. These results indicate that direct refinement based solely on textual feedback provides limited benefit. The degradation stems from the base models’ limited comparison abilities, where unverified feedback often introduces errors by altering correct content into incorrect predictions.

Table 2 further supports this finding by reporting hallucination rates during the first three refinement rounds, measured using the more reliable GPT-4O model (OpenAI et al., 2024c). The results confirm the ablation analysis and highlight the necessity of structured verification to guard against errors introduced by hallucinated feedback.

## 432 8 TEST-TIME SCALING

434 Our framework employs iterative refinement, where feedback is generated over multiple rounds  
 435 by identifying differences between two input images. This process embodies the idea of test-time  
 436 scaling: allowing more refinement rounds increases inference time but enhances the model’s ability  
 437 to detect discrepancies and improve outputs.

438 We evaluate two vision-language models under different round limits using four metrics, with results  
 439 shown in Figure 4. Performance consistently improves as the number of rounds increases, though  
 440 gains diminish beyond three rounds. For instance, the improvement from three to five rounds is  
 441 notably smaller than that from one to two, suggesting that models gradually reach their reasoning  
 442 capacity and fewer errors remain for correction.

443 Overall, the upward trends validate the test-time scaling property of our method and highlight the  
 444 effectiveness of iterative visual reasoning. These results also suggest that stronger base models could  
 445 provide more accurate feedback, enabling further improvements through refinement.

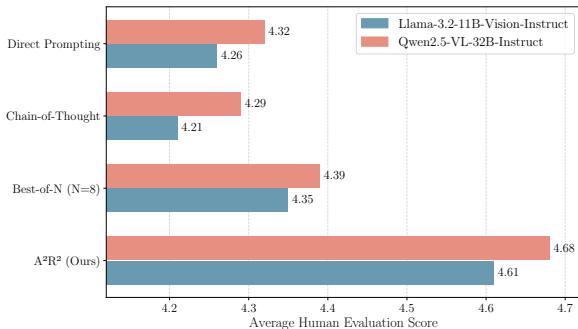
## 448 9 HUMAN EVALUATION

450 Evaluating Img2LaTeX is inherently complex, as both textual and visual fidelity must be considered.  
 451 The metrics in Table 1 ensure fair comparisons by using the same base models, but they are sensitive  
 452 to stylistic variations in LaTeX expressions.

453 For example, syntactic differences such as  
 454 using “*text*” may alter token-based scores  
 455 without affecting the rendered image.

456 To better capture human preferences, we  
 457 conduct a human evaluation with three  
 458 computer science graduate students profi-  
 459 cient in LaTeX. We randomly sample 100  
 460 outputs from two models under different  
 461 inference methods. Each annotator assigns  
 462 a score from 0 to 5 (with 0.5 increments)  
 463 based on visual similarity to the ground  
 464 truth, with 5 indicating indistinguishable  
 465 outputs aside from padding or minor for-  
 466 matting differences. Scores are averaged  
 467 across annotators for each method, and re-  
 468 sults are shown in Figure 5.

469 Our method consistently achieves the high-  
 470 est average scores across both base models, demonstrating superior visual fidelity. These results  
 471 confirm that, beyond improving textual metrics, our approach delivers the strongest real-world  
 472 performance for Img2LaTeX by effectively handling stylistic variations in LaTeX code.



473 Figure 5: Human evaluation scores of different inference  
 474 methods with two tested vision-language models, our  
 475 method achieves the highest scores among all inference  
 476 methods.

## 474 10 CONCLUSION

476 In this work, we introduce  $A^2R^2$ , a framework that integrates visual reasoning with attention  
 477 localization and iterative refinement to enhance the performance of vision-language models (VLMs)  
 478 on the Img2LaTeX task. However, several limitations remain: (1) Due to the closed-source nature  
 479 of models such as GPT-4O and CLAUDE-3.5-SONNET (OpenAI et al., 2024c; Anthropic, 2024),  
 480 we are unable to access their internal attention weights, which limits our ability to fully assess the  
 481 effectiveness of the proposed method on these platforms. (2) Computational constraints prevent us  
 482 from incorporating larger models such as LLAMA-3.2-90B-VISION-INSTRUCT in our experiments.  
 483 We leave the exploration of scaling our approach to such models for future work. (3) Our current  
 484 approach depends on manually crafted prompts to effectively guide model behavior. This suggests  
 485 that future research could focus on developing prompt-free or prompt-agnostic methods to improve  
 486 generalizability and ease of deployment.

486 ETHICS STATEMENT  
487

488 Ethical considerations are of utmost importance in our research. In this paper, we strictly adhere to  
489 ethical principles by exclusively utilizing open-source datasets and employing models that are either  
490 open-source or widely recognized within the scientific community. Our findings highlight the strong  
491 potential for improving vision–language models on the Img2LaTeX task. We remain committed to  
492 upholding ethical standards throughout the research process, prioritizing transparency, and promoting  
493 the responsible use of technology for the betterment of society.

494  
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756 A THE USE OF LARGE LANGUAGE MODELS (LLMs)  
757758 We used LLMs to assist with the phrasing and grammar of the manuscript. The LLMs were used  
759 strictly as a writing aid and did not contribute to the scientific ideation, methodology, or results  
760 presented in this paper.  
761762 B FURTHER RELATED WORK  
763764 Here, we further discuss related work on the potential of vision–language models (VLMs) in the  
765 Img2LaTeX task.  
766767 B.1 VISION LANGUAGE MODELS  
768769 Vision–language models (VLMs) aim to unify visual perception with linguistic understanding.  
770 Their development has been primarily driven by the emergence of Transformer architectures and  
771 contrastive learning techniques, which align visual and textual representations within a shared  
772 semantic space (Vaswani et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2020; Radford et al., 2021). VLMs are explicitly  
773 designed to process and integrate multimodal inputs, enabling strong performance across a broad  
774 range of tasks, including image captioning, visual question answering, and related vision–language  
775 understanding tasks (Liu et al., 2023; OpenAI et al., 2024b; Caffagni et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2024a;  
776 Yin et al., 2024; Li et al., 2023; Bordes et al., 2024; Li et al., 2022; Alayrac et al., 2022). Recent  
777 advances in scaling strategies, including increases in model capacity and data volume, combined  
778 with the availability of large-scale multimodal datasets, substantially improve generalization and  
779 task-specific accuracy (Bai et al., 2025; Team et al., 2024; Li et al., 2024; Schuhmann et al., 2022;  
780 Team et al., 2025; Chen et al., 2024b; 2025; Zhang et al., 2024c). State-of-the-art models now  
781 demonstrate robust performance across diverse benchmarks, highlighting the rapid progress and  
782 increasing potential of VLMs in addressing complex multimodal tasks. However, the potential of  
783 VLMs in the Img2LaTeX task remains underexplored. While prior work has evaluated the capabilities  
784 of recent high-performing models in this domain, experimental results indicate that their performance  
785 falls short of human expectations.  
786787 C IMG2LATEX-HARD-1K: CONSTRUCTION PIPELINE  
788789 We present the full pipeline for constructing the *Img2LaTeX-Hard-1K* dataset, which consists of three  
790 stages described below:  
791792 C.1 MODEL GENERATION  
793794 Our filtering methodology requires comprehensive evaluation across diverse architectural paradigms  
795 and model scales. To this end, we select three representative open-weight VLMs that span the current  
796 performance spectrum:  
797798 

- 799 • QWEN2.5-VL-7B-INSTRUCT and QWEN2.5-VL-32B-INSTRUCT (Bai et al., 2025): Representing  
800 the QWEN2.5 family, these models enable controlled scale comparisons within a  
801 consistent architecture.
- 802 • LLAMA-3.2-11B-VISION-INSTRUCT (Meta AI, 2024): A member of the LLAMA3.2 family,  
803 this model introduces architectural diversity and serves as a cross-family reference point.

804 This selection strategy ensures that our difficulty assessment reflects performance variations due to  
805 both architectural diversity and model scale, mitigating biases toward any single design paradigm.  
806807 We conduct inference with each model on approximately 7,000 instances from our dataset. For every  
808 prediction, we compute three evaluation metrics: m-ROUGE, BLEU-4, and Edit Distance. As a  
809 result, each instance is associated with nine evaluation scores, corresponding to the three metrics  
computed across the three models, which facilitates a comprehensive analysis of model behavior.

Let each instance in the dataset be denoted as  $x_i$ , where  $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ . We evaluate each instance using three models,  $M_1, M_2, M_3$ , corresponding to the previously described systems. For each model  $M_j$  ( $j = 1, 2, 3$ ), we compute the following evaluation metrics:

- $R_{ij}$ : the m-ROUGE score for instance  $x_i$  under model  $M_j$ .
- $B_{ij}$ : the BLEU-4 score for instance  $x_i$  under model  $M_j$ .
- $D_{ij}$ : the raw Edit Distance for instance  $x_i$  under model  $M_j$ .

To ensure comparability across metrics, we apply min-max normalization to the Edit Distance values:

$$\tilde{D}_{ij} = \frac{D_{ij} - \min(D)}{\max(D) - \min(D)},$$

where  $\min(D)$  and  $\max(D)$  denote the minimum and maximum Edit Distance values computed over all instances and all models.

We define a composite score  $S_{ij}$  for each instance-model pair as a weighted average of the three metrics, where the normalized inverse Edit Distance  $(1 - \tilde{D}_{ij})$  is treated as a positive indicator of similarity:

$$S_{ij} = \alpha \cdot R_{ij} + \beta \cdot B_{ij} + \gamma \cdot (1 - \tilde{D}_{ij})$$

We set the weights to  $\alpha = 0.4$ ,  $\beta = 0.4$ , and  $\gamma = 0.2$ . This formulation yields a unified measure of model performance that balances lexical similarity and character-level accuracy.

## C.2 GPT EVALUATION

While textual metrics capture semantic similarity, they may fail to reflect visual rendering similarities that impact practical usability. For example, two LaTeX expressions may differ semantically yet produce visually similar outputs due to variations in generation patterns. To account for this visual dimension, we employ GPT-4O-MINI (OpenAI, 2024) as an image-level comparator, selected for its strong visual reasoning capabilities and cost-effectiveness in large-scale evaluation.

For each instance  $x_i$ , we generate three LaTeX code predictions  $L_{ij}$  from the models  $M_j$  ( $j = 1, 2, 3$ ). Each LaTeX string is compiled into a rendered image  $I_{ij}^{\text{gen}}$  using tools such as *pdflatex* and *ImageMagick*. These generated images are then compared to the ground-truth rendering  $I_i^{\text{gt}}$  to assess visual fidelity.

To evaluate reproduction accuracy, we employ the GPT-4O-MINI model as an image comparator. For each pair  $(I_i^{\text{gt}}, I_{ij}^{\text{gen}})$ , we prompt GPT-4O-MINI to assign a similarity score  $G_{ij} \in [0, 10]$ , indicating how faithfully the generated LaTeX output reproduces the visual content of the original image.

To align this visual fidelity score with the other evaluation metrics, which lie in the range  $[0, 1]$ , we apply linear normalization:

$$\tilde{G}_{ij} = \frac{G_{ij}}{10},$$

where  $\tilde{G}_{ij} \in [0, 1]$  denotes the normalized visual reproduction score for instance  $x_i$  under model  $M_j$ . This normalization enables fair integration of visual fidelity into the unified evaluation framework.

## C.3 DATA SELECTION

After computing four evaluation scores for each model’s output on each input instance, we assign weights to the models based on their parameter scales and empirical performance. Specifically, we set the model weights as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} w_1 &= 0.30 & (\text{QWEN2.5-VL-7B-INSTRUCT}) \\ w_2 &= 0.40 & (\text{QWEN2.5-VL-32B-INSTRUCT}) \\ w_3 &= 0.30 & (\text{LLAMA-3.2-11B-VISION-INSTRUCT}) \end{aligned}$$

Following the metric and visual fidelity computations described above, we define the final score for instance  $x_i$  under model  $M_j$  as:

$$S_{ij}^{\text{final}} = S_{ij} + 0.5 \cdot \tilde{G}_{ij},$$

864 where  $S_{ij}$  is the composite textual metric score and  $\tilde{G}_{ij}$  is the normalized GPT-4O-MINI visual  
 865 fidelity score. To aggregate model-specific evaluations into a single score per instance, we compute a  
 866 weighted sum:

$$867 \quad S_i^{\text{final}} = \sum_{j=1}^3 w_j \cdot S_{ij}^{\text{final}}$$

$$868$$

$$869$$

870 We then rank all instances by  $S_i^{\text{final}}$  in descending order and select the top 1,100 examples to construct  
 871 the *Img2LaTex-Hard-1K* benchmark. This subset is intended to better reflect the evaluation demands  
 872 of modern, high-capacity models.

## 874 D IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

$$875$$

876 We follow established methodologies for attention-based localization as proposed in prior work (Yao  
 877 et al., 2025; Li et al., 2025b). For LLAMA-3.2-11B-VISION-INSTRUCT, we extract attention maps  
 878 from the 13th cross-attention layer, as cross-attention is applied every five layers between the 3rd and  
 879 38th layers. This layer has been shown to effectively capture cross-modal interactions, particularly in  
 880 OCR-focused tasks. For QWEN2.5-VL-32B-INSTRUCT, we compute the mean attention across the  
 881 central one-eighth of all layers, which serves as a representative proxy for identifying salient regions  
 882 relevant to our localization objective.

## 884 E BASELINE INTRODUCTION

$$885$$

886 In the main experiments, we compare our proposed method against three baseline approaches, which  
 887 are briefly described below:

- 889 • *Direct Prompting*: Generates LaTeX code directly from the input prompt and image without  
 890 any auxiliary reasoning or guidance.
- 891 • *Chain-of-Thought (CoT) Prompting*: Implements zero-shot CoT prompting by appending the  
 892 phrase “*Let’s think step by step*” to the input prompt, encouraging the model to decompose the  
 893 problem into intermediate reasoning steps (Kojima et al., 2023; Wei et al., 2023).
- 894 • *Best-of-N*: Generates  $N$  candidate LaTeX sequences in parallel and selects the one that best  
 895 satisfies a predefined verification metric.

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