

# 000 001 002 003 004 005 006 007 008 009 010 011 012 013 014 015 016 017 018 019 020 021 022 023 024 025 026 027 028 029 030 031 032 033 034 035 036 037 038 039 040 041 042 043 044 045 046 047 048 049 050 051 052 053 THE SPATIAL BLINDSPOT OF VISION-LANGUAGE MODELS

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## ABSTRACT

Vision-language models (VLMs) have advanced rapidly, but their ability to capture spatial relationships remains a critical blindspot. Current VLMs are typically built with contrastive language-image pretraining (CLIP) style image encoders. The training recipe often flattens images into 1D patch sequences, fundamentally discarding the 2D structure necessary for spatial reasoning. We argue that this lack of spatial awareness is a missing dimension in VLM design and a key bottleneck for applications requiring strong multimodal grounding, such as robotics and embodied AI. To address this, we investigate two overlooked components: (i) image encoders trained with alternative objectives and (ii) 2D positional encodings. Our work shows that these architectural choices lead to models with superior spatial reasoning, highlighting a key but underexplored design space for grounded AI. Code for this work will be released soon.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Visual understanding in VLMs usually relies on pre-trained image encoders (Dosovitskiy et al., 2021; Radford et al., 2021b; Sun et al., 2023; Oquab et al., 2024) for image representation. These encoders can be frozen (Zhang et al., 2024; Tang et al., 2024; Alayrac et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2023c; Li et al., 2023) or partially unfrozen (Jeong et al., 2024). The reliance on pre-trained encoders can lead to poor performance in downstream tasks. Tong et al. (Tong et al., 2024b) observe that CLIP (Radford et al., 2021a) focuses on the overall semantic understanding, overlooking the details of the visual system. Anis et al. (Anis et al., 2025) find that state-of-the-art VLMs like CLIP (Radford et al., 2021a) and SigLIP (Zhai et al., 2023) can exhibit poor performance with simple image transformations such as rotation or flipping. This suggests that their understanding of spatial relationships might not be invariant to changes in viewpoint or orientation, which is a crucial aspect of spatial understanding. This limitation impedes their effectiveness in complex tasks that require intricate manipulation, precise navigation, and a deeper understanding of how objects relate to each other in both space and time. Tong et al. (Tong et al., 2024b) build a stronger image encoder by combining DINOv2 (Oquab et al., 2024) and CLIP that excels at both general semantic and dense image understanding. TIPS (Maninis et al., 2025) shows that combining the contrastive image-text style of training (Radford et al., 2021a) along with the self-supervised masked image modeling in DINOv2 style can help models better understand the spatial relationship in the visual world without any spatially aware image annotation in the training dataset. Recent advances in image encoders (Tschannen et al., 2025; Fini et al., 2024) explore alternative design and training strategies than CLIP, but their usage in the construction of VLMs is minimal.

That brings us to the next topic of how the image embeddings of these encoders are aligned with the LLM backbone for training VLMs. The prevalent approach flattens image tokens into a 1D sequence before applying RoPE-1D (Su et al., 2023). Recent work (Zhang et al., 2025a;b) sheds light on how RoPE-1D can lead to lack of spatial awareness in current VLMs. A notable exception here is Qwen2-VL (Wang et al., 2024) which introduces multimodal rotary positional embedding (M-RoPE). M-RoPE decomposes positional encoding into temporal, height, and width components; preserving the physical and temporal aspects of the visual information.

We also observe that foundational VLMs (Alayrac et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2023c; Li et al., 2023; Xiao et al., 2024) typically do not report their performance on spatial reasoning benchmarks, despite the fact that spatial understanding is a fundamental aspect of visual perception. Current evaluations

often emphasize general vision-language tasks such as VQA, captioning, or retrieval, but these fail to capture whether models can reason about relative positions, geometric relations, or fine-grained spatial layouts. Without standardized reporting on such capabilities, progress in spatial reasoning will remain limited.

We address the above challenges and make the following contributions:

1. We systematically evaluate several state-of-the-art VLMs on a set of spatial reasoning benchmarks, revealing significant performance gaps in their ability to model geometric relations and spatial layouts.
2. We investigate the impact of alternative image encoders, including SigLIP (Zhai et al., 2023), SigLIP2 (Tschanne et al., 2025), and AIMv2 (Fini et al., 2024) on the spatial reasoning capabilities of VLMs within the LLaVA framework. Our findings highlight the role of encoder choice in spatial understanding.
3. we apply 2D-RoPE in image encoder–LLM alignment process to encode both x and y co-ordinates of an image pixel. We demonstrate that this approach improves the preservation of 2D spatial information and enhances the spatial reasoning performance of VLMs.

## 2 RELATED WORK

### 2.1 IMAGE ENCODERS

In recent years, we have seen progress on image encoders aligned with their own text captioning. CLIP (Radford et al., 2021b) aligns image and text representations through a large-scale contrastive loss on paired dataset, and demonstrates strong zero-shot generalization across classification and retrieval tasks. In contrast, DINOv2 (Oquab et al., 2024) is a visual model trained with a self-supervised masked image modeling objective. This allows DINOv2 to learn rich, pixel-level features by predicting masked-out image patches, without relying on paired text supervision. BLIP (Li et al., 2022) proposed a unified framework that integrates both contrastive pre-training for vision and generative objectives such as image–text matching and captioning. BLIP demonstrated that combining discriminative and generative signals leads to richer cross-modal representations and improved downstream transfer. BLIP-2 (Li et al., 2023) further advanced this line by introducing a lightweight querying transformer that bridges frozen image encoders with large language models, enabling efficient vision–language alignment without end-to-end pretraining of massive multimodal models. SigLIP (Zhai et al., 2023) improves CLIP by replacing the softmax contrastive loss with a pairwise sigmoid loss, removing batch-size dependencies and resulting in more stable training dynamics and efficient scaling. SigLIP2 (Tschanne et al., 2025) extends this line of work by augmenting the SigLIP training recipe with self-distillation and masked prediction objectives, resulting in higher-quality dense features, and improved localization across vision–language benchmarks. SigLIP2 also introduces the NaFlex variant, which preserves native aspect ratios and supports variable sequence lengths. The NaFlex variant provides empirical gains on aspect-sensitive tasks such as OCR and document understanding. In contrast to these contrastive and bridging approaches, AIMv2 (Fini et al., 2024) introduces an autoregressive multimodal pretraining framework that unifies vision and language by pairing a vision encoder with a decoder trained to jointly generate image patches and text tokens. Cocchi et al. (Cocchi et al., 2025) conduct a study that systematically pairs various LLMs with different visual backbones such as CLIP, DINOv2, SigLIP, and SigLIP2 to understand the strengths and limitations of various VLM integration strategies. Our work differs from theirs as we focus on spatial awareness along with the integration of M-RoPE in image encoders; specifically 2D-RoPE for images.

### 2.2 SPATIAL REASONING

Zhang et al. (Zhang et al., 2025a) classified spatial reasoning into two categories, static vs. dynamic. Static spatial reasoning refers to understanding spatial relationships in fixed configurations, where objects do not change positions over time. These tasks test whether a model can identify, compare, or infer spatial arrangements from still images or single states of a scene. For example, determining whether ‘the book is to the left of the laptop’ or ‘the chair is behind the table’ requires recognizing and reasoning about stable relative positions. Static reasoning often emphasizes relational concepts

108 such as distance, orientation, containment, or perspective, without involving temporal changes. Dy-  
 109 namic spatial reasoning, on the other hand, involves scenarios in which the spatial configuration  
 110 evolves. Here, models must account for motion, transformation, or sequential changes in a scene.  
 111 Typical examples include predicting the outcome of an object’s movement, tracking shifting per-  
 112 spectives, or reasoning about cause-and-effect actions in space. Unlike static reasoning, dynamic  
 113 tasks demand temporal and often causal understanding, requiring models to build an implicit repre-  
 114 sentation of change and transformation. Another way to categorize spatial reasoning is 2D vs. 3D  
 115 images. 2D reasoning focuses on relationships within 2D images, such as relative position, align-  
 116 ment, or counting, whereas 3D reasoning requires understanding depth, perspective, and volumetric  
 117 relations. In this paper, we focus on static spatial awareness in 2D images.

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### 120 2.3 VLMs AND SPATIAL AWARENESS

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122 Recent advances in LLMs and general purpose image encoders, such as CLIP (Radford et al., 2021b)  
 123 and SigLIP (Zhai et al., 2023) have significantly improved VLM capabilities. Architectures such as  
 124 Flamingo (Alayrac et al., 2022), LLaVA (Liu et al., 2023c;b), KOSMOS (Pan et al., 2023; Peng  
 125 et al., 2023), Florence-2 (Xiao et al., 2024), and Molmo (Deitke et al., 2024) demonstrate strong  
 126 performance in tasks such as image captioning, visual question answering (VQA) and complex rea-  
 127 soning. Qwen2-VL (Wang et al., 2024) introduced multimodal rotary position encoding (M-RoPE)  
 128 and dynamic resolution techniques, while PaLI’s joint modality scaling and cross-lingual learning  
 129 (Chen et al., 2022; 2023) have improved vision-language understanding. These VLMs tend to rely  
 130 on implicit visual features learned during training rather than explicitly structured representations  
 131 of spatial information needed for world understanding. RoboSpatial (Song et al., 2025) is an anno-  
 132 tated dataset specifically designed for spatial understanding in VLMs that includes 1 million images,  
 133 5,000 3D scans, and 3 million annotated spatial relationships. The pairing of 2D egocentric images  
 134 with 3D scans in RoboSpatial makes it suitable for both 2D and 3D spatial understanding tasks.  
 135 SpatialVLM (Chen et al., 2024) focuses on training VLMs with spatial reasoning dataset on the  
 136 internet to improve their 3D spatial understanding. This framework enhances the ability of VLMs to  
 137 recognize quantitative relationships between physical objects, such as distances and size differences,  
 138 which are crucial for many real-world tasks. SpatialVLM has also shown potential in robotics as a  
 139 tool for providing fine-grained reward annotations. MM-Spatial (Daxberger et al., 2025) introduces  
 140 CA-VQA, a new supervised fine-tuning dataset and benchmark focused on indoor scenes. It targets  
 141 tasks such as spatial relationship reasoning, metric estimation, and 3D grounding. By training MM-  
 142 Spatial on CA-VQA, the model achieves state-of-the-art performance in 3D spatial understanding,  
 143 highlighting the value of incorporating depth and multiview cues. SpatialRGPT (Cheng et al., 2024)  
 144 introduces a data curation pipeline that enables effective learning of regional representations from  
 145 3D scene graphs. It also features a flexible plugin module for integrating depth information into  
 146 the visual encoder of existing VLMs. This allows SpatialRGPT to accurately perceive the relative  
 147 directions and distances of user-specified regions within a visual scene.

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### 149 2.4 MEASURING SPATIAL AWARENESS

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151 There are a number of benchmarks evaluating VLMs on spatial awareness; spanning across tasks  
 152 such as 2D layout understanding, 3D geometric reasoning, counting, and relational question an-  
 153 swering. Multimodal Visual Pattern (MMVP) benchmark (Tong et al., 2024b) is a set of 300 images  
 154 in 9 categories, designed by observing CLIP-blind pairs. CV-Bench (Tong et al., 2024a) includes  
 155 both the 2D and 3D tasks around spatial relationships, object counting, depth ordering, and rela-  
 156 tive distance estimation. GQA (Hudson & Manning, 2019) leverages scene graph annotations and  
 157 functional programs to generate compositional questions, and includes subsets like compare, verify,  
 158 and logical that specifically test spatial relations such as left, right, on, and under. Visual Spatial  
 159 Reasoning (VSR) (Liu et al., 2023a) assesses fine-grained relational understanding through 66 an-  
 160 notated spatial relations in natural images, while TopViewRS (Li et al., 2024b) measures reasoning  
 161 over semantic top-view maps. TallyQA (Acharya et al., 2019) and CountBenchQA (Beyer et al.,  
 162 2024) address object numerosity under occlusion and clutter.

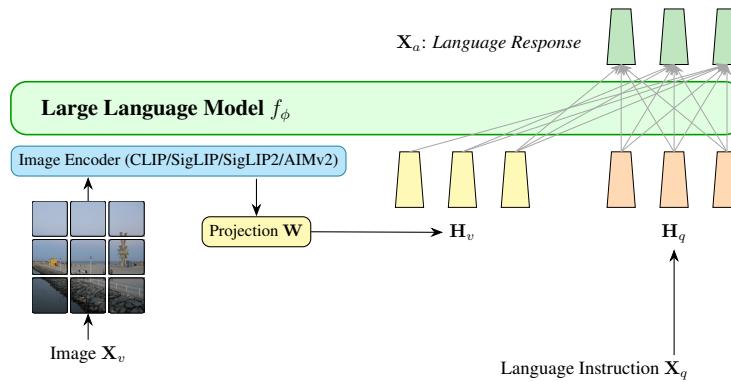
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### 3 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

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#### 3.1 METHODS

166 Our experiment is based on the LLaVA (Liu et al., 2023c) framework as shown in Figure 1. To ex-  
 167 plore spatial awareness in VLMs, we extend the LLaVA architecture by integrating alternative image  
 168 encoders beyond CLIP along with 2D-RoPE to preserve the inherent 2D spatial structure as shown  
 169 in Figure 2. Specifically, we experiment with CLIP, SigLIP, SigLIP2, AIMv2 along with a mod-  
 170 ified design to include 2D-RoPE. Our hypothesis is that these encoder designs will better capture  
 171 hierarchical spatial cues and contextual relationships across image regions. Unlike standard RoPE,  
 172 2D-RoPE encodes both horizontal and vertical patch indices through concatenated sinusoidal em-  
 173 beddings, providing explicit spatial priors for attention. In our implementation, 2D-RoPE is applied  
 174 after patch embeddings are projected into query and key vectors, ensuring that spatial relations are  
 175 injected directly into the attention mechanism rather than at the raw patch level. We hypothesize  
 176 that these design choices will build a VLM with better relative position understanding in 2D images.  
 177



189 Figure 1: Our experimental approach with LLaVA Framework Liu et al. (2023c) that compares the  
 190 performance of different image encoders and 2D-RoPE variants.  
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#### 3.2 TRAINING STRATEGIES

195 We train our models in two stages: pretraining and instruction fine-tuning. The training process uses  
 196 the same dataset used in LLaVA pretraining and instruction tuning respectively. For each image  $X_v$ ,  
 197 we used the single-turn conversation data

$$(X_q^1, X_a^1, \dots, X_q^T, X_a^T)$$

200 where  $T$  is the total number of turns from LLaVA.

201 We conduct our experiments using a cluster of 8 NVIDIA H100 GPUs, each with 80 GB of VRAM.  
 202 For both pretraining and fine-tuning, we resize input images to a resolution of 256x256 pixels.  
 203

204 For pretraining, we employ a per-device batch size of 32, which results in a global batch size of  
 205 256. We optimize the model using the AdamW optimizer with a learning rate of 1e-3, and a cosine  
 206 learning rate scheduler is applied. The pretraining process, which focuses solely on training the  
 207 projection matrix, takes approximately 3 hours.

208 For fine-tuning, we perform a full model update. The fine-tuning configuration uses a learning rate  
 209 of 2e-5, per-device batch size of 16, resulting in a global batch size of 128. This process takes  
 210 approximately 24 hours for each experiment.

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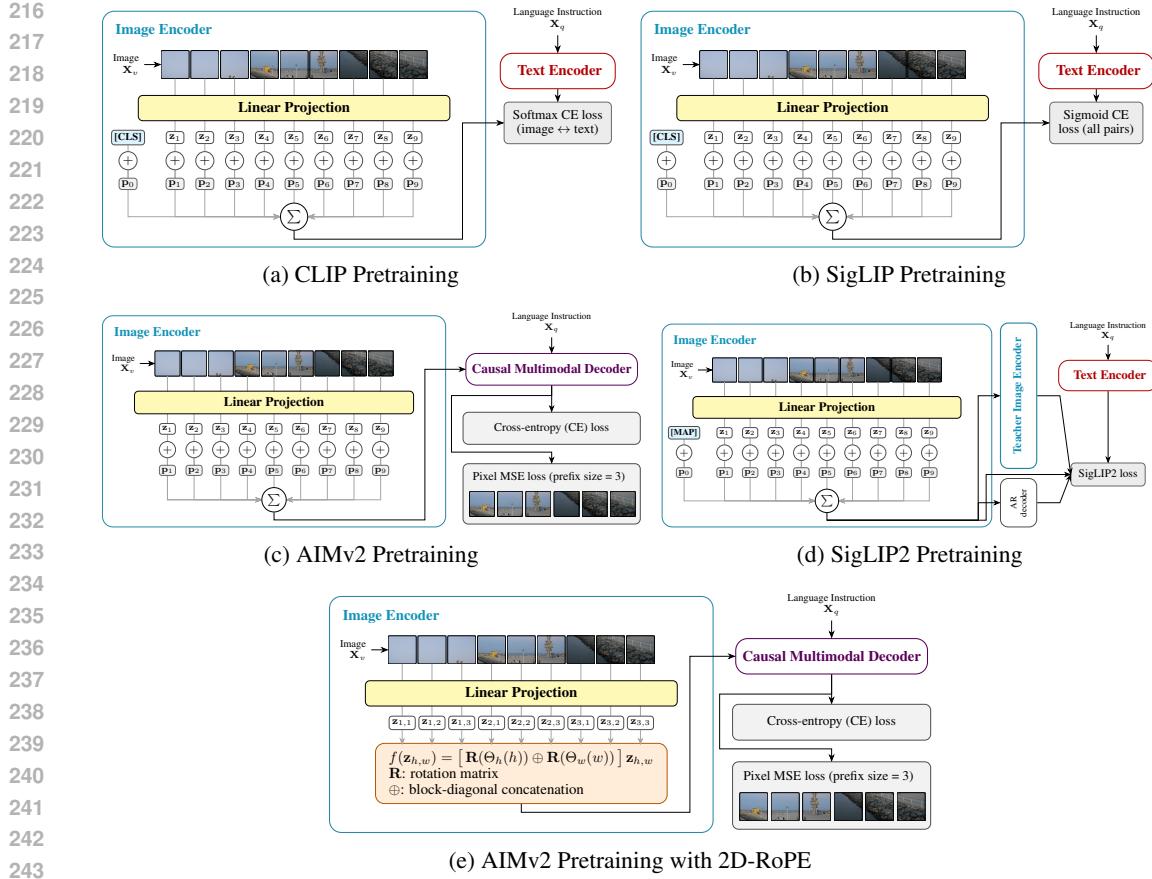


Figure 2: Pretraining strategies with various image backbones and 2D-RoPE

## 4 RESULTS

We compare frontier models and LLaVA variants on various benchmarks. Our work is based on the LLaVA-1.5 7B model. Therefore, all encoders and their 2D-RoPE variants that we trained are 7B models. Frontier models between the 2B to 8B parameter range were compared with the LLaVA variants we trained. For comparison purposes, we used LLaVA-NeXT 7B (Liu et al., 2024), LLaVA-OneVision-qwen2-7B-ov-hf (Li et al., 2024a), Qwen2.5-VL-8B (Bai et al., 2025), SmolVLM2-2.2B-Instruct (Marafioti et al., 2025), Gemma3-4b-it (Team et al., 2025), PaliGemma2-3b-mix-448 (Beyer et al., 2024) and Molmo-7B-D-0924 (Deitke et al., 2024).

### 4.1 EVALUATING ON GENERAL PURPOSE BENCHMARKS

As shown in Table 1, Qwen2.5-VL achieves the strongest overall performance, obtaining the highest scores on MMMU\_Val, MME, CCBench, and SEEDBench-IMG. Among the LLaVA variants, AIMv2 demonstrates the most consistent results, particularly on MME and SEEDBench-IMG, although its 2D-RoPE counterpart provides only marginal gains on certain metrics and about 1.75% drop in MME. The effect of 2D-RoPE is mixed across variants. For example, LLaVA-SigLIP improves about 10% on MMMU\_Val, while other models show little benefit or even reduced performance. LLaVA-SigLIP-2D-RoPE achieves the strongest MMMU\_Val score among LLaVA encoders, but AIMv2 remains more competitive across multiple benchmarks.

### 4.2 EVALUATING ON SPATIAL BENCHMARKS

In Table 2, Qwen2.5-VL stands out as the strongest frontier model overall, achieving the highest performance on CV-Bench 2D, MMVP, VSR, and TopViewRS, and CountBenchQA. LLaVA-NeXT leads

270 Table 1: Comparison of multimodal models across MMMU\_Val, MME, CCBench, and  
 271 SEEDBench-IMG. Values underlined indicate the best-performing model overall, while values in  
 272 **bold** highlight the best-performing LLaVA encoder variant in each benchmark.

274 Models	275 MMMU_Val	276 MME	277 CCBench	278 SEEDBench-IMG
279 Qwen2.5-VL	<u>280 0.580</u>	<u>281 0.826</u>	<u>282 0.592</u>	<u>283 0.770</u>
284 LLaVA-NeXT	0.376	0.632	0.243	0.696
285 LLaVA-OneVision	0.479	0.712	0.549	0.767
286 SmolVLM2	0.416	0.640	0.231	0.713
287 Gemma3-4b-it	0.473	0.620	0.369	0.655
288 PaliGemma	0.307	0.580	0.333	0.715
289 Molmo	0.491	0.662	0.367	0.746
290 LLaVA-1.5	0.322	0.589	0.084	0.601
291 LLaVA-2D-RoPE	0.298	0.582	<b>292 0.086</b>	0.585
293 LLaVA-SigLIP	0.303	0.559	0.071	0.567
294 LLaVA-SigLIP-2D-RoPE	<b>295 0.334</b>	0.525	0.080	0.545
296 LLaVA-SigLIP2	0.309	0.495	<b>297 0.086</b>	0.548
298 LLaVA-SigLIP2-2D-RoPE	0.323	0.542	<b>299 0.086</b>	0.527
300 LLaVA-AIMv2	0.314	<b>301 0.573</b>	<b>302 0.086</b>	<b>303 0.595</b>
304 LLaVA-AIMv2-2D-RoPE	0.311	0.563	0.114	0.586

295 Table 2: Comparison of frontier models and LLaVA variants across spatial understanding benchmarks.  
 296 Values underlined indicate the best-performing frontier model; values in **bold** indicate the  
 297 best-performing LLaVA variant.

298 Models	299 MMVP	300 CV-Bench 2D Overall	301 TallyQA	302 GQA Overall	303 VSR	304 Top- ViewRS	305 Count- BenchQA
306 LLaVA-NeXT	0.667	0.606	0.733	<u>307 63.786</u>	63.994	0.409	0.515
308 LLaVA-OneVision	0.767	0.730	0.797	<u>309 62.140</u>	77.741	0.414	0.823
310 Qwen2.5-VL	<u>311 0.770</u>	<u>312 0.754</u>	0.800	60.391	<u>313 89.116</u>	<u>314 0.456</u>	<u>315 0.891</u>
316 SmolVLM2	0.687	<u>317 0.577</u>	0.729	50.574	71.277	0.416	0.692
318 Gemma3-4b-it	0.708	0.659	0.525	31.277	55.074	0.334	0.713
319 PaliGemma	0.667	0.624	0.794	62.570	65.139	0.322	0.674
320 Molmo	0.753	0.728	<u>321 0.808</u>	55.295	76.432	0.323	0.858
322 LLaVA v1.5	0.577	0.490	0.707	33.225	55.810	0.384	0.468
323 LLaVA-2D-RoPE	0.513	0.443	0.654	34.433	57.201	0.283	0.290
324 LLaVA-SigLIP	0.433	0.412	0.672	25.648	54.910	0.349	0.581
325 LLaVA-SigLIP-2D-RoPE	<u>326 0.507</u>	0.425	0.616	<b>327 38.448</b>	57.692	0.295	0.483
328 LLaVA-SigLIP2	0.427	0.442	0.684	23.970	52.701	<b>329 0.371</b>	0.532
330 LLaVA-SigLIP2-2D-RoPE	0.480	0.415	0.646	34.560	56.465	0.330	0.402
331 LLaVA-AIMv2	0.513	<b>332 0.466</b>	<b>333 0.710</b>	32.541	56.219	0.339	<b>334 0.739</b>
335 LLaVA-AIMv2-2D-RoPE	<b>336 0.560</b>	0.432	0.690	32.342	<b>337 60.311</b>	0.338	0.719

336 frontier models on GQA Overall, while Molmo achieves the best TallyQA score among frontiers, in-  
 337 dicating complementary strengths across different tasks. Among the LLaVA variants, performance  
 338 is more fragmented: LLaVA-AIMv2 shows the most consistent improvements, reaching the high-  
 339 est scores on CV-Bench 2D, TallyQA, and CountBenchQA. LLaVA-AIMv2-2D-RoPE improves  
 340 MMVP and leads on VSR. LLaVA-SigLIP-2D-RoPE dominates GQA Overall, and LLaVA-SigLIP2  
 341 leads in TopViewRS. We observe that although the LLaVA variants surpass Gemma3-4b-it in TallyQA,  
 342 VSR; their overall performance did not surpass other frontier models. We think this is because  
 343 of how Gemma3-4b-it is designed. Gemma3-4b-it uses SigLIP variant as its vision encoder, but the  
 344 fixed resolution of the encoder with Pan & Scan algorithm. Pan & Scan is a preprocessing algorithm  
 345 that allows the model to handle high-resolution and non-square images by breaking them down into  
 346 smaller, fixed-size crops. This is necessary because Gemma 3’s vision encoder can only process  
 347 images at a fixed resolution of 896x896 pixels. This design leads to information loss that hinders

Figure 3: Example image from LLaVA-Bench (In-the-Wild) (Liu et al., 2023c).



Table 3: Model outputs for the prompt *Are the chopsticks to the left or right of the bowl?* on image shown in Figure 3.

Model	Output
LLaVA-v1.5	The chopsticks are to the right of the bowl.
LLaVA-2D-RoPE	The chopsticks are to the right of the bowl.
LLaVA-SigLIP	The chopsticks are to the right of the bowl.
LLaVA-SigLIP-2D-RoPE	The chopsticks are to the right of the bowl.
LLaVA-SigLIP2	The chopsticks are to the right of the bowl.
LLaVA-SigLIP2-2D-RoPE	Right
LLaVA-AIMv2	The chopsticks are to the right of the bowl.
LLaVA-AIMv2-2D-RoPE	The chopsticks are to the right of the bowl.
Qwen2.5-VL	The chopsticks are to the right of the bowl.
<b>Gemma3-4b-it</b>	<b>The chopsticks are to the left of the bowl.</b>

performance in benchmarks that require fine-grained visual reasoning, such as VSR and TallyQA. In Table 3, we observe that Gemma3-4b-it mistakenly thinks that the chopsticks are on the left side of the ramen bowl - reconfirming our hypothesis.

In Table 2, we also observe improved performance using AIMv2 encoder and its 2D-RoPE version over other vision encoders in the LLaVA framework. AIMv2 design focuses on the image-first principle, where the model is trained to process all the image patches before decoding the text tokens in an autoregressive manner. This dense per-token supervision helps with tasks requiring fine-grained perception, such as in MMVP, CV-Bench, TallyQA, CountBenchQA, and VSR. We also believe that the two-stage captioning pipeline to generate AIMv2 training data helps in count-related examples, causing the LLaVA-AIMv2 variant to perform well in TallyQA and CountBenchQA compared to other spatial benchmarks (Lai et al., 2024).



(c) Output for prompt: *Locate the cup that contains green liquid. Provide the bounding boxes.*

(f) Output for prompt: *Locate the pieces of green onions in the ramen bowl. Provide the bounding box coordinates given the size of the image is 550x550.*

Figure 4: Object localization in LLaVA-SigLIP2 vs. LLaVA-AIMv2 for different prompts.

Table 4 shows that Qwen2.5-VL achieves the strongest results among frontier models on all CV-Bench 2D tasks. Among our LLaVA variants, LLaVA-AIMv2 excels in CV-Bench 2D subtasks such as COCO and ADE20K. This is because the model’s pre-training objective aligns with the nature of these tasks. COCO is for object detection and instance segmentation, and ADE20K is a scene parsing benchmark. Performance on these subtasks of CV-Bench 2D depends on the model’s ability to capture fine-grained, pixel-level representations of spatial relationships. On the other hand, CLIP and SigLIP perform less effectively on these tasks. Their core objective is to learn a global vector for image-text matching, not a dense feature map. This limitation prevents them from achieving fine-grained visual understanding. Consequently, adding 2D-RoPE only helps to organize these global-level representations from these encoders and does not enable the model to learn any dense representations. SigLIP2’s caption-based pretraining from LocCa (Wan et al., 2024) along with self-distillation and masked prediction from SILC (Naeem et al., 2023) and TIPS (Maninis et al., 2025)

378 explicitly directs the model to associate language to specific and relevant regions of the image. As a  
 379 result, we see that SigLIP2 performs better than its predecessor in the subtasks of CV-Bench 2D.  
 380

381 An interesting observation in Table 4 is that LLaVA-SigLIP2 lags behind LLaVA-AIMv2 which  
 382 might be unexpected given SigLIP2’s masked image prediction objective. This is because the dense  
 383 supervision is a secondary objective in SigLIP2, since dense supervision losses are added during  
 384 the last 20% of the training regime(Tschannen et al., 2025). On the other hand, the core training  
 385 objective of AIMv2 is based on learning the dense features from the very beginning. A qualitative  
 386 example is shown in Figure 4 to demonstrate how LLaVA-AIMv2 is more precise in locating objects  
 387 than LLaVA-SigLIP2.

388 As shown in Table 5, frontier model LLaVA-NeXT leads the GQA Query and Overall performance.  
 389 PaliGemma leads GQA Choose and Logical. Among our trained LLaVA variants, the SigLIP-based  
 390 models stand out: LLaVA-SigLIP-2D-RoPE achieves the highest scores on Overall, Choose, Com-  
 391 pare, and Query, while LLaVA-SigLIP2-2D-RoPE leads on Logical and Verify. LLaVA-AIMv2-2D-  
 392 RoPE shows moderate improvements over its baseline, particularly on Compare and Logical, but it  
 393 does not surpass the SigLIP-based variants. We observe that Gemma3-4b-it surpasses the LLaVA  
 394 variants, including the 2D-RoPE variants of SigLIP and SigLIP2 for GQA Choose subtask. We  
 395 think this is because how Gemma3 is trained on supervised distillation from a large teacher model  
 396 with a frozen visual encoder - making it an effective classifier. The Choose subtask of GQA is a con-  
 397 strained multi-task classification problem that aligns well with the training benefits of Gemma3. For  
 398 other GQA subtasks, LLaVA 2D-RoPE variants of SigLIP, SigLIP2, and AIMv2 surpass Gemma3.  
 399 We think that the structural advantage of 2D-RoPE performs well with the object and attribute rela-  
 400 tionships like GQA Compare, Logical. For subtasks like GQA Query and Verify, the model needs  
 401 to confirm information related to a specific object or attribute. SigLIP2’s self-supervised losses and  
 402 masked prediction result in rich local representations that are needed for these complex, composi-  
 403 tional reasoning.

403 Table 4: Comparison of frontier models and LLaVA variants on CV-Bench 2D tasks. Values  
 404 underlined indicate the best-performing model overall, while values in **bold** highlight the best-  
 405 performing LLaVA encoder variant in each benchmark.

407 Models	408 CV-Bench 2D COCO	409 CV-Bench 2D ADE20K	410 CV-Bench 2D Overall
411 LLaVA-NeXT	412 0.680	413 0.532	414 0.606
415 LLaVA-OneVision	416 0.775	417 0.684	418 0.730
419 Qwen2.5-VL	420 <u>0.820</u>	421 <u>0.689</u>	422 <u>0.754</u>
423 SmolVLM2	424 0.621	425 0.532	426 0.577
Gemma3-4b-it	0.660	0.618	0.659
PaliGemma	0.675	0.573	0.624
Molmo	0.773	0.684	0.728
LLaVA-1.5	0.525	0.455	0.490
LLaVA-2D-RoPE	0.461	0.425	0.443
LLaVA-SigLIP	0.440	0.384	0.412
LLaVA-SigLIP-2D-RoPE	0.445	0.404	0.425
LLaVA-SigLIP2	0.466	0.419	0.442
LLaVA-SigLIP2-2D-RoPE	0.436	0.393	0.415
LLaVA-AIMv2	<b>0.480</b>	<b>0.453</b>	<b>0.466</b>
LLaVA-AIMv2-2D-RoPE	0.456	0.408	0.432

432 Table 5: Comparison of frontier models and LLaVA variants on GQA subtasks. Values underlined  
 433 indicate the best-performing frontier model; values in **bold** indicate the best-performing LLaVA  
 434 variant.

436 Models	437 GQA Overall	438 GQA Choose	439 GQA Compare	440 GQA Logical	441 GQA Query	442 GQA Verify
438 LLaVA-NeXT	<u>439 63.786</u>	440 85.120	441 64.177	442 78.980	<u>443 49.875</u>	444 82.860
439 LLaVA-OneVision	440 62.140	441 83.880	<u>442 66.893</u>	443 80.588	444 46.069	<u>445 83.792</u>
440 Qwen2.5-VL	441 60.391	442 84.322	<u>443 73.854</u>	444 78.702	445 43.027	446 82.682
441 SmolVLM2	442 50.574	443 67.434	444 47.538	445 64.504	446 37.867	447 70.160
442 Gemma3-4b-it	443 31.277	444 61.913	445 16.978	446 19.301	447 25.952	448 45.337
443 PaliGemma	444 62.570	445 86.802	446 73.345	<u>447 81.864</u>	448 45.893	449 82.549
444 Molmo	445 55.295	446 78.742	447 52.462	448 65.169	449 41.558	450 77.886
445 LLaVA-1.5	446 33.225	447 49.690	448 49.576	449 33.500	450 25.702	451 43.206
446 LLaVA-2D-RoPE	447 34.433	448 41.807	449 54.839	450 48.697	451 22.337	452 50.533
447 LLaVA-SigLIP	448 25.648	449 17.006	450 47.199	451 44.204	452 15.783	453 39.298
448 LLaVA-SigLIP-2D-RoPE	<b>449 38.448</b>	<b>450 55.182</b>	<b>451 59.762</b>	452 55.186	<b>453 23.159</b>	454 57.282
449 LLaVA-SigLIP2	450 23.970	451 16.475	452 40.917	453 41.486	454 14.107	455 39.076
450 LLaVA-SigLIP2-2D-RoPE	451 34.560	452 47.121	453 55.688	<b>454 57.959</b>	455 15.298	<b>456 62.211</b>
451 LLaVA-AIMv2	452 32.541	453 37.998	454 51.783	455 47.421	456 21.440	457 46.403
452 LLaVA-AIMv2-2D-RoPE	453 32.342	454 39.858	455 56.876	456 48.974	457 18.663	458 50.178

## 453 5 CONCLUSION

454 In our experiments, frontier models such as Qwen2.5-VL achieve the strongest overall results. Al-  
 455 though Qwen2.5-VL is trained on a different dataset and token scales than LLaVA, the comparison  
 456 is not strictly apples-to-apples. The more meaningful insights come from comparisons within the  
 457 same VLM family, where architectural choices can be isolated. For example, CountBenchQA im-  
 458 proves by about 58%, rising from 0.468 in LLaVA-1.5 to 0.739 in LLaVA-AIMv2, showing that  
 459 encoder choice has a direct impact on spatial reasoning ability. The effects of injecting 2D-RoPE  
 460 into the image encoder attention are mixed, indicating that where and how 2D positional infor-  
 461 mation is introduced matter. Overall, the findings highlight that encoder design strongly shapes spatial  
 462 awareness within VLM families, even if comparisons to frontier models remain questionable due to  
 463 differences in training data and scale.

## 464 6 FUTURE WORK

465 Our study focused on static, 2D images, benchmarks and encoder variants within the LLaVA frame-  
 466 work. This work can extend to 3D spatial reasoning along with the dynamic environment. Another  
 467 potential extension can be on SigLIP2 with NaFlex. The flexible resolution image preprocessing of  
 468 NaFlex mitigates information loss observed in fixed-resolution encoders. In terms of visual back-  
 469 bones, incorporating DINOv2 in LLaVA is left out for future work. Similarly BLIP-2 and related  
 470 architectures could help assess whether their pretraining objectives and visual-language alignment  
 471 strategies offer advantages over CLIP-derived models. Finally, we note that advanced alignment  
 472 mechanisms such as gated attention in Flamingo Alayrac et al. (2022), Q-Former in BLIP-2, or  
 473 cross-modal pooling in MM1 McKinzie et al. (2024) were intentionally set aside in this work. Ex-  
 474 ploring these approaches as alternatives to simple projection layers may further improve spatial  
 475 reasoning performance and cross-modal integration.

## 476 7 REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT

477 The code and dataset for this paper are open source and will be released upon acceptance. For  
 478 reproduction purposes, please refer to Section 3.

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756 A APPENDIX  
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758 In Table 6, LLaVA-SigLIP-2D-RoPE emerges as the strongest LLaVA variant overall, leading on  
759 3D Overall and Distance, while LLaVA-SigLIP has the best Depth score. Specifically on Depth,  
760 LLaVA-AIMv2-2D-RoPE improves about 2.7% over its baseline. Among frontier models, LLaVA-  
761 OneVision dominates across 3D metrics, with Qwen2.5-VL excelling on 3D Distance.

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763 Table 6: Comparison of frontier models and LLaVA variants on CV-Bench 3D tasks (Overall, Depth,  
764 Distance). Values underlined indicate the best-performing frontier model; values in **bold** indicate  
765 the best-performing LLaVA variant.

767 Models	CV-Bench 768 3D Overall	CV-Bench 3D Depth	CV-Bench 3D Distance
769 LLaVA-NeXT	0.627	0.693	0.560
770 LLaVA-OneVision	<u>0.769</u>	<u>0.820</u>	0.718
771 Qwen2.5-VL	<u>0.736</u>	0.698	<u>0.773</u>
772 SmolVLM2	0.475	0.458	0.492
773 Gemma3-4b-it	0.557	0.463	0.520
774 PaliGemma	0.441	0.442	0.440
775 Molmo	0.729	0.798	0.660
776 LLaVA-1.5	0.642	0.717	0.567
777 LLaVA-2D-RoPE	0.614	0.725	0.503
778 LLaVA-SigLIP	0.376	<b>0.730</b>	0.022
779 LLaVA-SigLIP-2D-RoPE	<b>0.649</b>	0.703	<b>0.595</b>
780 LLaVA-SigLIP2	0.375	0.698	0.052
781 LLaVA-SigLIP2-2D-RoPE	0.503	0.712	0.293
782 LLaVA-AIMv2	0.361	0.703	0.018
783 LLaVA-AIMv2-2D-RoPE	0.387	0.722	0.052

784 As shown in Tables 7, 8, and 9 with respect to Figure 3, we observe that the model outputs frequently  
785 contain hallucinations, highlighted in red. We see two different types of hallucinations here: (i) the  
786 models sometimes hallucinates on objects that do not exist in the image, such as a napkin, vase,  
787 or fork; and (ii) when existing objects are mentioned, their spatial placement is often misidentified,  
788 such as utensils resting in the wrong position on the table. These qualitative results illustrate how  
789 current models struggle with grounding object presence and location, even though the containing a  
790 coherent description.

791 Table 7: Qwen output for the prompt *describe this image* in reference to Figure 3.  
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794 Model	Output
795 Qwen2.5-VL	The image shows a meal consisting of a bowl of ramen, a side dish, and 796 a cup of green tea. The ramen bowl is filled with a light-colored broth, 797 topped with noodles, slices of pork, green onions, and a sprinkle of red 798 chili flakes. The bowl has a decorative black and gold rim. To the side, 799 there is a plate with what appears to be a serving of grilled or cooked 800 meat garnished with green onions. Additionally, there is a small bowl of 801 orange-colored seasoning, likely for the ramen, and a cup of green tea 802 with a lid, which is partially visible. The table setting includes chop- 803 sticks and a napkin, suggesting a traditional dining experience. The 804 background features a bamboo mat, adding to the ambiance of the set- 805 ting.

810 Table 8: LLaVA with image encoders for the prompt *describe this image* in reference to Figure 3.  
811

812 Model	813 Output
814 LLaVA-1.5	815 The image features a dining table with a variety of food items, includ- 816 ing a large bowl of soup, a plate of noodles, and a bowl of vegetables. 817 The soup is placed in the center of the table, while the noodles and veg- 818 etables are positioned <b>around</b> it. In addition to the main dishes, there 819 are several bowls and cups scattered across the table, possibly contain- 820 ing other food items or beverages. A spoon is also visible on the table, 821 likely used for eating the soup. The table setting creates an inviting at- 822 mosphere for a meal shared among friends or family. 823
824 LLaVA-SigLIP	825 The image features a dining table with a large bowl of soup placed in the 826 center. The soup is filled with various ingredients, including noodles, 827 meat, and vegetables. The bowl is accompanied by a spoon, which is 828 <b>resting on the table</b> . In addition to the main bowl, there are several other 829 bowls and cups scattered around the table. Some bowls are placed near 830 the edge of the table, while others are located closer to the center. A cup 831 can be seen on the left side of the table, and another cup is positioned 832 towards the right side. <b>The table is also adorned with a few decorative 833 elements, such as a vase and a potted plant.</b> 834
835 LLaVA-SigLIP2	836 The image features a dining table with a variety of food items and uten- 837 sils. There is a bowl of soup placed in the center of the table, accom- 838 panied by a spoon and <b>a fork</b> . Another bowl is located towards the left 839 side of the table, and a cup can be seen on the right side. In addition 840 to the main bowl of soup, there are two smaller bowls, one on the left 841 side and another on the right side of the table. A cup is also present on 842 the right side of the table. The table is set with a variety of food items, 843 including a sandwich and a carrot. 844
845 LLaVA-AIMv2	846 The image features a dining table with a variety of food items and uten- 847 sils. There is a bowl of noodles with meat and vegetables, including 848 <b>broccoli, placed in the center of the table</b> . A spoon is resting in the 849 bowl, ready to be used for eating. In addition to the main bowl, there 850 are several other bowls and cups scattered around the table, containing 851 different food items. A cup of soup is placed near the top right corner of 852 the table, while another bowl is located towards the left side. A couple 853 of chopsticks are present on the table, and <b>a fork</b> is also visible. The 854 table is set for a meal, with a variety of dishes and utensils. 855

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864 Table 9: LLaVA variants with 2D-RoPE for the prompt *describe this image* in reference to Figure 3.  
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866 Model	867 Output
868 LLaVA-2D-RoPE	869 The image features a dining table with a large bowl of soup placed in 870 the center, surrounded by various bowls and plates of food. The soup 871 appears to be a noodle dish, <b>and there are several pieces of broccoli</b> 872 <b>scattered around the table</b> . In addition to the main bowl, there are three 873 smaller bowls placed on the table. A spoon is also visible near the center 874 of the scene. The table is set with a variety of food items, making it an 875 inviting and appetizing scene.
876 LLaVA-SigLIP-2D-RoPE	877 The image features a delicious meal served in a bowl, which includes 878 noodles, meat, and vegetables. The bowl is placed on a dining table, 879 <b>and there are several pieces of broccoli scattered around the bowl</b> . In 880 addition to the main dish, there are two cups on the table, one near the 881 top left corner and the other towards the top right corner. A spoon is also 882 present, resting <b>on the table near the bowl</b> . The overall setting appears 883 to be a cozy and inviting meal.
884 LLaVA-SigLIP2-2D-RoPE	885 The image features a dining table with a variety of food and drinks. 886 There is a bowl of soup placed in the center of the table, accompanied 887 by a spoon. A cup of tea is also present, <b>along with a cup of coffee</b> . 888 In addition to the main dishes, there are several other bowls and cups 889 scattered around the table, possibly containing different types of food 890 or beverages. <b>A fork can be seen on the table, and a bottle is located</b> 891 <b>near the edge</b> .
892 LLaVA-AIMv2-2D-RoPE	893 The image features a dining table with a large bowl of soup placed in 894 the center, surrounded by various bowls and cups. The soup appears to 895 be a noodle soup, and there are several spoons placed around the table, 896 ready for use. In addition to the soup, there are two bowls of food and 897 <b>a sandwich</b> on the left side. A couple of cups can also be seen. The 898 overall scene suggests a meal being enjoyed by multiple people.

899 **B USAGE OF LARGE LANGUAGE MODELS**900 Large Language Models (LLMs) were only used to polish text, diagrams, and create a L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X table  
901 format.