

ProactiveBench: Benchmarking Proactiveness in Multimodal Large Language Models

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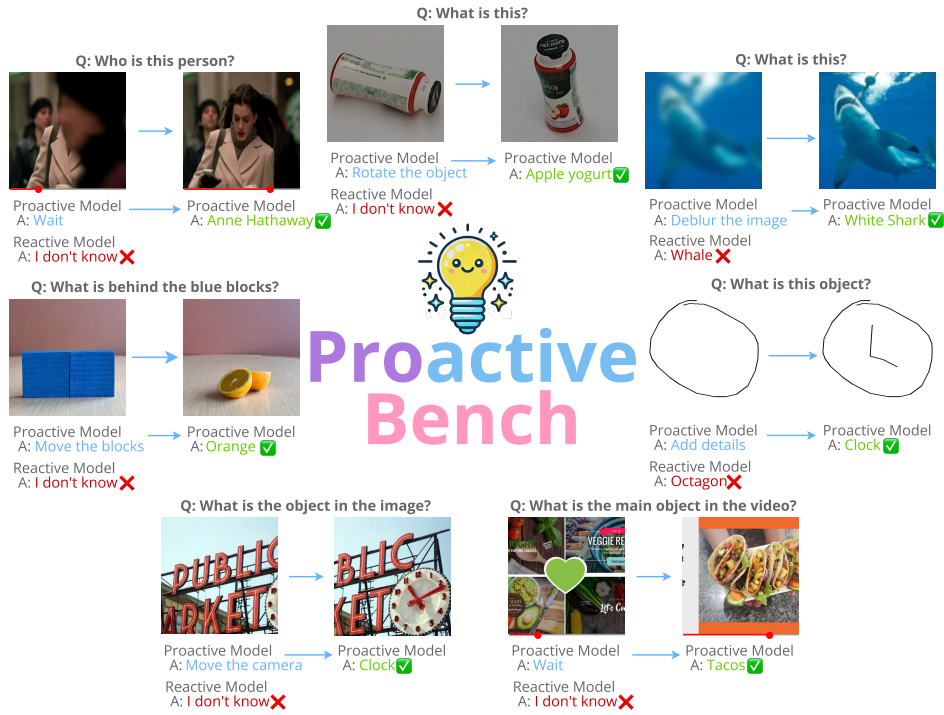


Figure 1: We propose **ProactiveBench**, a multimodal benchmark to evaluate *proactiveness* in multimodal large language models, i.e., the ability to ask for additional visual cues from the user to answer a query under ambiguity. ProactiveBench tests proactiveness in seven scenarios involving partially observable objects and individuals, blurred input and temporally evolving scenes.

Abstract

1 How do multimodal large language models (MLLMs) respond when the object
2 of interest in an image is partially or fully occluded? While a human would
3 naturally ask follow-up questions or seek additional visual cues before arriv-
4 ing at the correct answer, do MLLMs exhibit similar “proactive” behavior by
5 prompting the user for more information? Despite their growing use in human-
6 machine collaborative settings, no existing benchmark systematically evaluates
7 the proactiveness of MLLMs. To address this gap, we introduce ProactiveBench,
8 a benchmark constructed from seven repurposed datasets tailored to evaluate
9 the task at hand. Given that proactiveness can manifest itself in several forms,

our benchmark involves recognizing occluded objects and individuals, enhancing image quality, and interpreting coarsely drawn sketches, to name a few. We evaluated 14 open-weight MLLMs on ProactiveBench and found that MLLMs generally lack proactiveness. Critical analyses reveal no clear correlation between model capacity and proactiveness. Adding “hints” in the query to encourage proactive suggestions only results in marginal performance improvement. Surprisingly, including conversation histories introduces negative biases in proposing actions. Overall, the experimental results show that instilling proactiveness in MLLMs is indeed challenging, and we hope that ProactiveBench will positively contribute to building more proactive models. Code and benchmark are available at: <https://anonymous.4open.science/r/ProactiveBench>.

1 Introduction

Making decisions under uncertainty is the hallmark of human intelligence. Studies in neuroscience suggest that meaningful perception of the world arises from dynamic interaction with our environment [18, 22, 24, 56]. Faced with incomplete or ambiguous information, we instinctively generate hypotheses, proactively search for additional clues, and revise our interpretations. This ongoing cycle of inquiry and refinement – central to how humans build coherent understanding of complex situations – has inspired machine vision, particularly in active vision [3, 15, 48].

Ambiguities may arise when a user’s query is unanswerable due to false user premises [68] or bad image quality [9], like Fig. 1’s example “What is behind the blue blocks?” For such an input, a model can either hallucinate an incorrect answer [37], or it can abstain from answering [21, 66]. We call such models *reactive*. Conversely, a more desirable response from the model is to ask the user to provide additional visual cues by moving the blocks to reveal the hidden object. We refer to such models as *proactive*, since they refine their predictions by asking the user to intervene, which provides additional information. With the growing adoption of multimodal large language models (MLLMs) [5, 32, 76] for complex computer vision tasks in ambiguous settings – such as embodied navigation [36, 57] and autonomous driving [55, 70] – it becomes increasingly important to assess whether MLLMs¹ actively seek additional visual cues like humans.

Despite its relevance, MLLM’s proactiveness has received little to no attention in the literature. The only prior work, Liu et al. [42], examined the use of MLLMs for directional guidance, i.e., requesting camera movements in poorly framed images to assist visually impaired people in recognizing objects. Yet, we argue that proactiveness is not limited to directional guidance but can manifest in many other ways. As Fig. 1 shows, MLLMs can also, e.g., ask users to rotate an object, draw additional details to a sketch, or deblur an image. These examples highlight the need to broaden the scope of studying proactiveness in MLLMs across a wide range of tasks and modalities.

To fill this gap we introduce ProactiveBench, a novel benchmark that evaluates MLLMs’ proactiveness in multiple scenarios by repurposing seven existing datasets (ROD [31], VSOD [38], MVP-N [64], ImageNet-C [23], QuickDraw [19], ChangelIt [60], and MS-COCO [39]) with different target tasks (e.g., object/sketch recognition, product identification) that require user intervention to predict the correct answer. As Fig. 1 shows, ProactiveBench datasets capture different aspects of proactiveness: (temporal) occlusion removal, camera movement, object movement, image quality enhancement, and asking for details. In total, ProactiveBench contains more than 108k images, leading to a much larger benchmark than [42]. These are grouped into 14k samples featuring 25 proactive suggestions, where each sample (see Fig. 2) contains the starting ambiguous frame, the reference frame with complete information, and all the frames in between. The user intervention results in a new frame with more visual cues based on the model’s guidance (termed *proactive suggestion*).

We tested 14 state-of-the-art MLLMs (e.g., LLaVA-OV 7B [32], Qwen2.5-VL 7B [5], and InternVL3 8B [76]) on ProactiveBench, reporting accuracy and number of proposed proactive suggestions before predicting the category. Our experiments suggest that evaluated models lack proactiveness, i.e., are reactive. Thus, they either tend to abstain from answering (saying, e.g., “I don’t know”) or predict random categories when the visual cues are insufficient, as Fig. 1 shows. Providing hints about proactive suggestions increases their sampling probability, which marginally raises accuracy.

¹Following prior work [16, 61, 63], we define MLLMs as LLMs fine-tuned to process visual inputs.

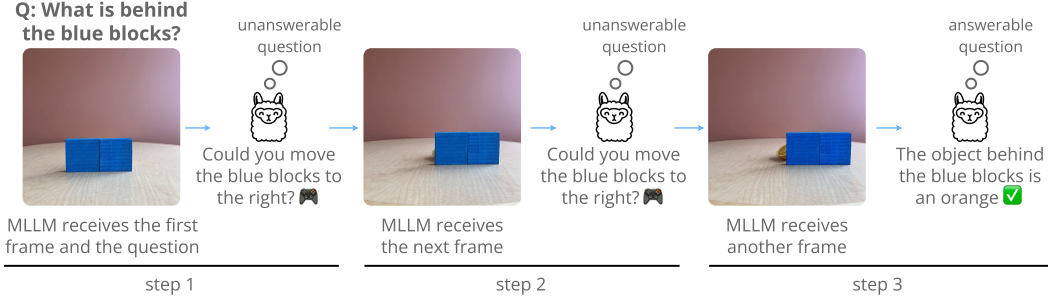


Figure 2: **ProactiveBench evaluation.** At step 1, the MLLM should propose to move the occluding object (proactive suggestion), as the question is unanswerable. ProactiveBench, then, returns a new frame following MLLM’s suggestion. Since the model is still unsure, it asks to move the blocks again. Finally, step 3 holds sufficient information, allowing the MLLM to predict the answer.

Interestingly, underperforming MLLMs (e.g., LLaVA-NeXT Vicuna, InternVL3 1B) appear on the surface as more proactive than SOTA MLLMs (e.g., LLaVA-OV 7B, Qwen2.5-VL 7B, InternVL3 8B). A controlled experiment, however, indicates that the higher proactiveness results from a lower rate of abstention on unanswerable questions, not a deep understanding of the problem. Instead, conditioning on the conversation history or few-shot samples increases proactiveness, but at the cost of reduced accuracy. Finally, our results highlight that proactiveness is not an emerging property in MLLMs and must be explicitly elicited, showcasing the challenging nature of ProactiveBench.

Contributions: (i) We formalize and explore MLLMs proactiveness in a wide spectrum, promoting the development of models that can ask user assistance under ambiguity; (ii) We introduce ProactiveBench, a novel open-source benchmark that assesses MLLM’s proactiveness in diverse contexts; (iii) Our evaluation of 14 MLLMs on ProactiveBench revealed limited proactiveness and a trade-off between proactiveness and prediction accuracy.

2 The ProactiveBench

This section presents ProactiveBench, formalizing how MLLM proactiveness is evaluated (Sec. 2.1), describing the datasets included in the benchmark and how they were repurposed to assess proactiveness across diverse scenarios (Sec. 2.2).

2.1 Evaluating Proactiveness in MLLMs

We study MLLMs’ *proactiveness*, where a model should either answer correctly or suggest how to make a question answerable. Since suggestions may leave questions unresolved (e.g., Fig. 2’s central frame), we evaluate proactiveness in a multi-turn setting, allowing the MLLM to interact with the environment over multiple steps. We use the multiple-choice question-answering framework where models select from multiple options, enabling structured evaluation over various turns.

We follow previous works [14, 43], framing the evaluation as a Markov decision process $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, \pi_\theta, \mathcal{R})$, over a finite states space $\mathcal{S}$, a discrete set of actions $\mathcal{A}$, a policy π_θ (the MLLM), and reward $\mathcal{R}$. At step t , the model observes state $s_t \in \mathcal{S}$, which comprises the image $\mathcal{I}_t$ and the valid actions $\mathcal{A}_t \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ (e.g., “wait for the occlusion to disappear”, “I do not know”, “the answer is dog”). Then, it selects an action a_t conditioned by the question q (e.g., “what is this object?”) and the state $s_t = \{\mathcal{I}_t, \mathcal{A}_t\}$. Thus, the transition function $\mathcal{T} : \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}$ is defined by the conditioned policy $\pi_\theta(a_t|q, s_t)$. By selecting a proactive suggestion (e.g., “move the occluding object to the side”), state s_t transitions to s_{t+1} , leading to a new image and a new set of valid actions. Instead, by either abstaining (e.g., “I do not know”) or selecting a wrong category (e.g., dog vs cat), the evaluation stops with a wrong prediction. As the environments are discrete, the policy can select proactive suggestions a finite number of times, depending on the datasets, after which the evaluation also terminates with a wrong prediction. Finally, the evaluation also terminates if the model predicts the correct answer. For each MLLM, we report the average accuracy and the average number of proactive suggestions for each dataset. Further details about the environment implementation are in the Appendix.

2.2 Benchmark construction

We introduce seven scenarios to evaluate MLLMs’ proactiveness by drawing samples from diverse datasets, which multi-choice options comprise proactive suggestions, the abstain option, and four categories, out of which only one is correct. The Appendix provides further details on each dataset.

Moving occluding objects. We repurposed the ROD [31] dataset by creating samples of 14 frames each, where the two possible suggestions are: moving the occluding object to the left or the right. The environment presents the model with the fully occluded image and the prompt, as Fig. 3 shows. The proactive suggestion asks the user to move occluding objects (e.g., the blue blocks) that obscure the object of interest (e.g., an orange), which the model aims to recognize. The model should ask to move the blocks, and, depending on the visibility of the occluded object, either predict its category or repeat.

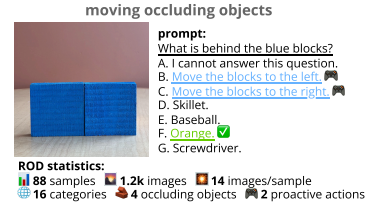


Figure 3: ROD overview.

Handling temporal occlusions. We repurposed VSOD [38], a dataset of public event videos with bounding-box annotations for occlusions, to evaluate proactiveness under temporal occlusions. We manually annotated public figures, number of people, and event type for each frame, which we prompt the model to answer as the target category. Each sample contains on average ~230 image frames. As Fig. 4 shows, the environment returns the model the most occluded frame of the sample. The proactive suggestion involves the model asking the user to rewind the video or wait for the occlusion to disappear before answering, which in this case is a public figure (e.g., Anne Hathaway).

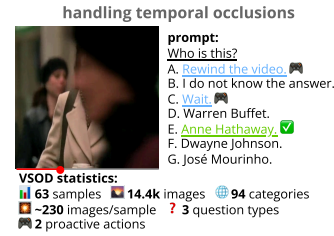


Figure 4: VSOD overview.

Handling uninformative views. We repurposed MVP-N [64] – a dataset of fine-grained object categories viewed from multiple angles – to evaluate proactiveness in handling uninformative views by constructing samples with one or more uninformative views followed by an informative one. As Fig. 5 shows, the environment returns the first image from a sample, which is not informative to predict the correct target category. The proactive suggestion of the model is to ask the user to rotate the object (or the camera) until it returns an informative view where the target category can be reliably predicted (e.g., Activia Yogurt Apple).

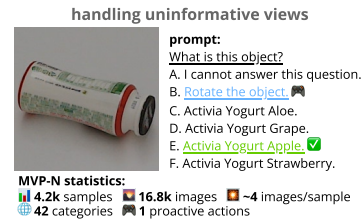


Figure 5: MVP-N overview.

Improving image quality. We repurposed ImageNet-C (IN-C) [23] to test proactiveness under corruptions, by creating samples where the first and the last images are the most and the least corrupted, respectively. As Fig. 6 shows, the environment returns a corrupted image (e.g., defocus blur), which is not suitable to predict the correct category (e.g., White shark). The proactive suggestion of the model in this case is to conduct image quality enhancements (e.g., deblurring, reducing brightness, removing artifacts, increasing contrast) from a total of eight possible enhancements. In this example, the model should propose to deblur the image to predict the correct category.

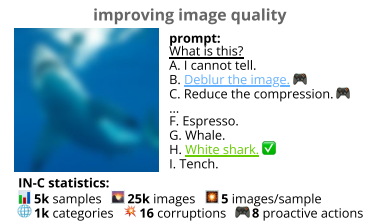


Figure 6: IN-C overview.

Asking for visual details. Different from the previous cases, we consider a scenario in which the proactiveness of the model is assessed by its ability to propose proactive suggestions when presented with a partial sketch at input. To this end, we repurposed the QuickDraw (QD) [19] dataset, which contains 345 target categories, by creating samples of rendered PNGs where each image includes one additional stroke compared to the previous one. As more strokes are added, the input image becomes more recognizable to the model. As Fig. 7 shows, the environment first presents an image to the model that does not have enough



Figure 7: QD overview.

154 detail to recognize the target category (e.g., clock). In this case, the proactive suggestion by the model
 155 is to improve the drawing, i.e., adding another stroke.

156 **Handling temporal ambiguities.** We consider a more challeng-
 157 ing scenario in which proactiveness is adjudged by the ability
 158 to seek information situated in a different instant of time in a
 159 long video. We repurposed the ChangeIt (CIT) dataset [60],
 160 consisting of videos of people interacting with objects, by cre-
 161 ating samples comprising image frames that depict the objects’
 162 transformation (e.g., preparing tacos) from the start to the end.
 163 As Fig. 8 shows, the environment presents an input frame where
 164 the target category (e.g., tacos) is not visible. Similar to handling
 165 temporal occlusions, the proactive suggestion of the model is to
 166 ask the user to either rewind the video or wait for the informative moment to appear.

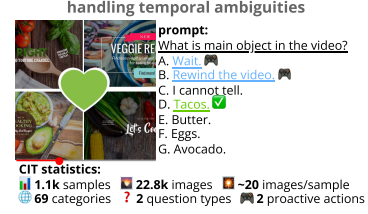


Figure 8: CIT overview.

167 **Proposing camera movements.** Finally, we consider a very
 168 practical scenario that prompts the user to spatially move the
 169 camera in a 2D plane to obtain more informative visual cues.
 170 In detail, we repurposed the MS-COCO [39] images to create
 171 samples that contain different crops of the same image, where
 172 some crops are more informative than others. As Fig. 9 shows,
 173 the environment presents an uninformative crop to the model,
 174 where the target category (e.g., clock) is barely visible. The
 175 proactive suggestion of the model to the user is to move the
 176 camera in one of four cardinal and four ordinal directions, or
 177 perform a zooming operation. In this case, the user will be
 178 prompted by the model to move the camera towards the right.

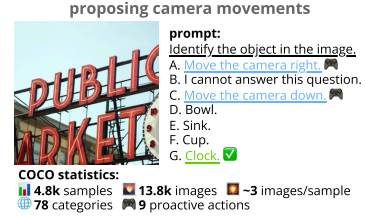


Figure 9: Overview of MS-COCO.

179 3 Experiments

180 Section 3.1 describes our evaluation protocol, tested models, and metrics used. Then, Sec. 3.2
 181 describes ProactiveBench results, evaluating the proactiveness of several SOTA MLLMs. Finally,
 182 Sec. 3.3 reports additional ProactiveBench analysis, evaluating ways to elicit proactive suggestions.

183 3.1 Experimental setup

184 **Evaluation protocol.** For each evaluation step, we feed the MLLM with the user prompt (the
 185 question), the current image, and the valid set of suggestions, as described in Sec. 2.1. Therefore,
 186 the multi-choice question prompt consists of three parts: the question, optionally a hint to elicit
 187 proactiveness, and the options (Sec. 2.2). The conversational history is always discarded from one
 188 step to another unless explicitly mentioned (see Sec. 3.3). Finally, as VSOD and ChangeIt consist of
 189 video frames, we also tell the model that the visual input is taken from a video.

190 **Tested models.** We categorize the chosen MLLMs into high- and low-performing open-weight
 191 models. The high-performing ones rank in the top 50 models with less than 10B parameters in the
 192 OpenVLM Leaderboard [13]: LLaVA-OV 7B [32], Qwen2.5-VL 7B [5], InternVL3 8B [76], and
 193 Phi-4-Multimodal [1]. We choose the low-performing models from well-established MLLMs or that
 194 have low parameter count, namely: LLaVA-1.5 7B [41], LLaVA-NeXT 7B [41] with Mistral [26] and
 195 Vicuna [8] LLMs, InstructBLIP [11], Idefics3 8B [30], LLaVA-OV 0.5B [32], Qwen2.5-VL 3B [5],
 196 SmolVLM2 2.2B [46], and InternVL3 [76] with 1B and 2B parameters.

197 **Metrics.** We evaluate each model with two metrics: the accuracy (*acc*) and the number of proactive
 198 suggestions (*ps*). We also report the averaged results over the seven scenarios of Sec. 2.2.

199 **Computational resources.** All experiments ran using one or two Nvidia A100 GPUs with Py-
 200 Torch [52], depending on the experiment, and each took around 1-2 GPU hours or less to complete.

201 3.2 MLLMs results in ProactiveBench

202 Figure 11 shows models’ accuracy (*acc*) using Sec. 2 protocol, comparing it with the oracle setting,
 203 where we use a reference frame (i.e., with no occlusions or ambiguity). This comparison’s goal is to

Table 1: **MLLMs results on ProactiveBench.** We report the accuracy (*acc*) in percentages (%) and average number of proactive suggestions (*ps*) for all datasets, with global averages in the last column.

model	ROD		VSOD		MVP-N		IN-C		QD		CIT		COCO		avg.		
	acc	ps	acc	ps	acc	ps	acc	ps	acc	ps	acc	ps	acc	ps	acc	ps	
low-perf	LLaVA-1.5-7B [40]	12.5	0.7	41.3	1.3	27.7	0.0	59.4	0.4	43.0	0.5	70.3	0.7	67.6	0.4	46.0	0.6
	LLaVA-NeXT-Mistral-7B [41]	0.0	0.0	9.5	0.2	13.7	0.1	53.9	0.2	12.2	0.1	46.3	1.4	49.1	0.0	26.4	0.3
	LLaVA-NeXT-Vicuna-7B [41]	19.3	0.7	25.4	0.9	26.2	0.1	69.2	0.5	22.0	0.7	68.6	0.4	67.7	0.1	42.6	0.5
	LLaVA-OV-0.5B [32]	44.3	2.3	20.6	1.9	30.7	0.4	53.6	0.7	45.8	1.1	59.0	0.6	61.0	0.1	45.0	1.0
	Qwen2.5-VL-3B [5]	0.0	0.0	31.7	0.0	25.4	0.0	69.5	0.9	29.1	0.1	58.9	0.2	56.6	0.0	38.7	0.2
	SmolVLM2-2.2B [46]	0.0	0.0	23.8	0.3	26.6	0.0	55.8	0.5	27.0	0.5	64.0	0.3	59.9	0.0	36.7	0.2
	Idefics3-8B [30]	31.8	1.6	31.7	2.1	27.7	0.1	70.0	0.4	27.9	0.5	58.0	0.2	62.2	0.1	44.2	0.7
	InternVL3-1B [76]	61.4	2.1	39.7	0.2	29.3	0.3	69.4	0.5	29.2	0.4	61.3	0.1	69.6	0.0	51.4	0.5
	InternVL3-2B [76]	1.1	0.0	49.2	0.2	30.5	0.1	76.9	0.6	37.9	0.4	69.3	0.3	77.1	0.1	48.9	0.2
InstructBLIP [11]	0.0	0.0	12.7	1.5	12.8	0.1	18.9	0.1	26.0	0.1	47.6	0.1	26.7	0.0	20.7	0.3	
high-perf	LLaVA-OV-7B [32]	0.0	0.0	30.2	0.3	24.2	0.0	70.3	0.4	46.7	0.3	56.4	0.1	60.0	0.0	41.1	0.2
	Qwen2.5-VL-7B [5]	0.0	0.0	17.5	0.0	24.7	0.0	78.5	0.5	34.3	0.1	60.6	0.0	59.5	0.0	39.3	0.1
	InternVL3-8B [76]	0.0	0.0	31.7	0.1	23.2	0.0	75.9	0.3	36.0	0.3	58.3	0.1	67.1	0.0	41.7	0.1
	Phi-4-Multimodal [1]	1.1	0.0	27.0	0.7	29.5	0.0	66.4	0.7	42.3	0.3	66.0	0.2	64.6	0.1	42.4	0.3

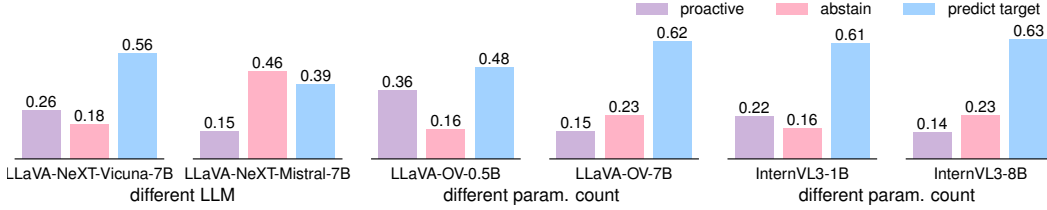


Figure 10: **Action distributions.** While high-performing models (LLaVA-OV 7B and InternVL3 8B) and LLaVA-NeXT Mistral tend to abstain or try to predict the correct answer, the other three models prefer to predict proactive suggestions, which can lead them to the correct action.

disentangle MLLMs recognition ability and their proactiveness. Results correspond to the average performance of all evaluated MLLMs. There is a large discrepancy between the two settings. While in the oracle setting MLLMs score 81.1% on average, they underperform by more than 50% when tasked with navigating to the correct answer through proactive suggestions. The discrepancy is quite stark in the ROD dataset, with models reaching 12.2%, while the oracle counterpart reaches 98.1% on average. The gap closes in IN-C and COCO, but never matches the reference. This demonstrates a severe lack of MLLMs’ proactiveness. The full results table is reported in the Appendix.

Table 1 reports models’ individual performance on ProactiveBench. Surprisingly, low-performing MLLMs (top half) tend to outperform more powerful models (bottom half). Specifically, InternVL3 1B, InternVL3 2B, and LLaVA-1.5 7B achieved the best, second-best, and third-best accuracy, respectively. Additionally, LLaVA-OV 0.5B and LLaVA-NeXT Vicuna also achieved higher scores than the four high-performing models evaluated. Interestingly, the LLM has an impact on the results, with LLaVA-NeXT Mistral achieving lower performance than its counterpart using Vicuna (26.4% vs 42.6%).

We investigate these unexpected behaviors by visualizing the action distributions of predicting proactive, abstain, and target categories in Fig. 10. Specifically, we compare six MLLMs having different LLMs (i.e., LLaVA-NeXT Mistral and Vicuna) and different parameter counts (i.e., LLaVA-OV 0.5B and 7B, InternVL3 1B and 8B). While the high-performing models (LLaVA-OV 7B and InternVL3 8B) and LLaVA-NeXT Mistral tend to abstain from sampling proactive suggestions, the other three show the exact opposite behavior, i.e., they are more likely to be proactive (more than twice as likely for LLaVA-OV 0.5B). A similar behavior was reported in [67], with LLaVA-NeXT Mistral abstaining more than LLaVA-NeXT Vicuna.

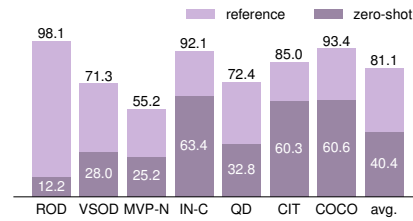


Figure 11: **Results vs. oracle performance (acc).** Models underperform by over 50% with ambiguous inputs.

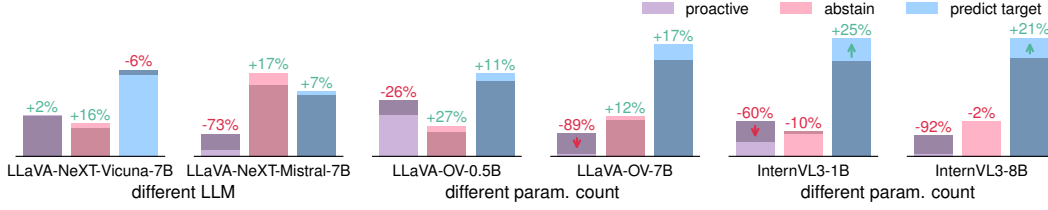


Figure 12: **Action distributions with random proactive options.** Lighter bars describe variations when using random proactive suggestions.

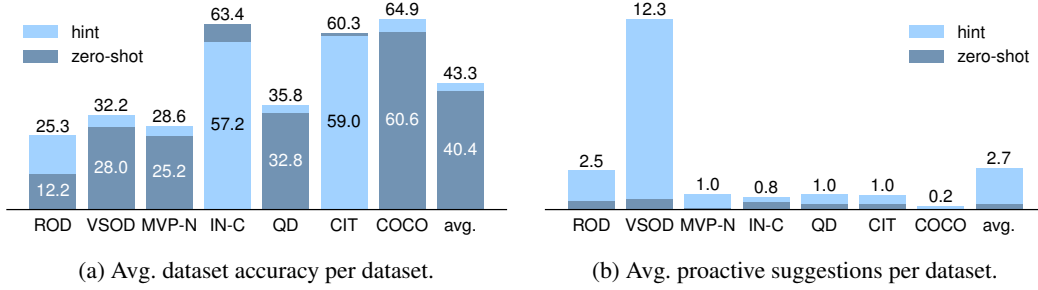


Figure 13: Performance when **conditioning action sampling with hints**. Results are averaged across all MLLMs. Zero-shot refers to models not prompted with hints.

3.3 Analyzing and eliciting MLLMs proactiveness

Are low-performing MLLMs more proactive than high-performing ones? Following Tab. 1 findings, we investigate why low-performing models seem more proactive than high-performing ones. To answer this question, we replaced valid proactive suggestions with invalid ones chosen from other datasets (e.g., “rewind the video” for QuickDraw). Choosing random options over abstaining indicates random selection and not proactiveness. Figure 12 shows the action distribution in this experiment with the same six models as Fig. 10. Replacing valid proactive suggestions with invalid ones substantially reduces proactiveness for LLaVA-NeXT Mistral, LLaVA-OV 7B, and InternVL3 8B (i.e., -73%, -89%, and -92% relative decrease, respectively). Instead, the other models seem less bothered by the random practice options, with LLaVA-NeXT Vicuna even increases the probability of predicting one (from 26% to 27%). These insights suggest that low-performing models are **not** proactive, but rather they are less prone to abstain [58], preferring unknown answers.

Does hinting boost proactiveness? Explicitly hinting at proactive suggestions may help navigate to the correct answer by eliciting MLLMs’ proactiveness. To evaluate this hypothesis, we add environment-specific hints to the prompt (e.g., “Hint: moving the occluding object might reveal what is behind it” for ROD), measuring how it affects the accuracy and number of proactive suggestions. Figure 13b shows that hinting increases the proactive suggestions by 2.3 on average, with a significant boost in VSOD, likely caused by numerous frames. Nonetheless, the accuracy does not improve equally, only increasing by 2.9% on average and even reducing in ImageNet-C and ChangeIt. We also noticed that 14.9% of the time, MLLMs entered “infinite loops” in which they constantly proposed proactive suggestions, failing to predict the correct category. Thus, although hinting increases proactiveness, models may over-exploit proactive suggestions, failing to classify the object even if they stumble across the reference image. Figure 14 further visualizes this by showing how action distributions change using the same six models as Fig. 10. While original distributions (in darker colors) suggest that models infrequently chose proactive options, adding hints completely changes this behavior (especially for LLaVA-NeXT Mistral, LLaVA-NeXT Vicuna, and InternVL3 1B), preferring hinted actions over predicting the correct category. We report the full results in the Appendix.

Does knowledge of the past elicit proactiveness? Section 2.1 formalizes ProactiveBench evaluation, allowing MLLMs to only observe the current state. A key question is whether incorporating previous states and actions into the policy, i.e., $\pi_\theta(a_t|q, s_0, a_0, \dots, s_t)$, elicits proactiveness. Thus, in this experiment, we keep the MLLM conversation history, limiting this evaluation to models supporting

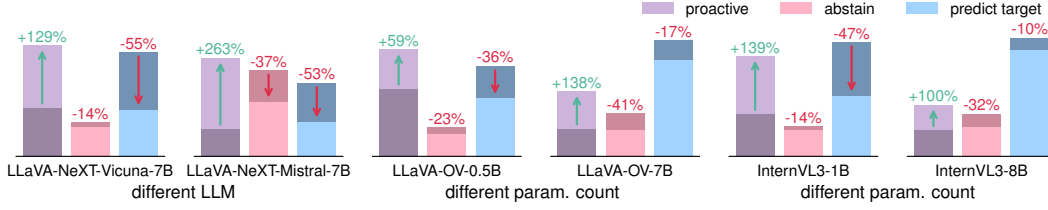


Figure 14: **Action distributions with hints.** Bars describe action distributions with (light) or without (dark) hints in the prompt. Hinting tilts the action distributions in favor of the proactive suggestion.

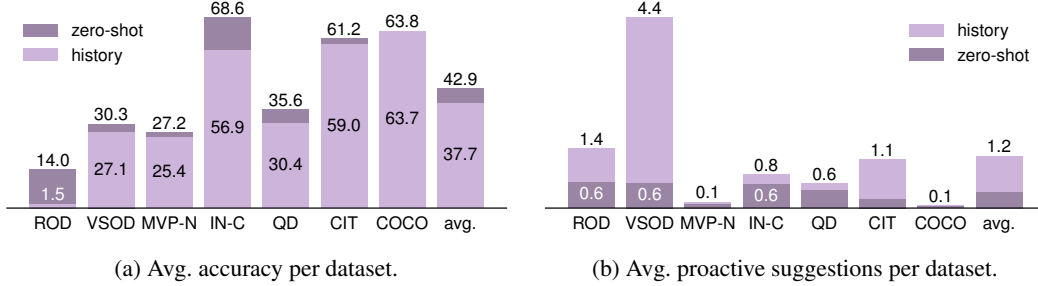


Figure 15: Performance when **conditioning on conversation histories**. Results are averaged across all MLLMs. Zero-shot refers to models not integrating information about previous states.

multi-image inference. Figure 15 show the results of this experiment. The accuracy drops by 5.2% while the number of proactive suggestions increases from 0.4 to 1.2 on average, compared to the zero-shot case. ROD average accuracy, in particular, is lowered by almost ten times (1.5% vs. 14.0%). Although models are not explicitly “told” to be proactive, like in Fig. 13, past proactive suggestions bias the models towards preferring them. In fact, 9.8% of the time models enter “infinite loops”, repeatedly selecting the proactive suggestions until reaching the maximum number of allowed steps. This value is lower compared to 14.9% of hinting, as the first action is always unconditioned; thus, infinite loops occur only if the first action is proactive. Finally, low-performing models prefer proactive suggestions while the other ones are more robust (results are shown in the Appendix).

Do few-shot samples improve proactiveness? We now investigate whether conditioning the policy on a few correct examples elicits proactiveness, improving accuracy. Let $c = (q^c, s_0^c, a_0^c, \dots, s_t^c, a_t^c)$ be a conversation example leading to the correct answer a_t^c . We condition the action sampling on m of such examples, $\pi_\theta(a_t|c_0, \dots, c_m, q, s_t)$ on ROD and MVP-N, the only datasets supporting automatic few-shot sample generation (image informativeness is annotated), conducted with 1 and 3 shots.

Figure 16 shows how proactiveness changes with few-shot in-context learning (ICL). Compared to the previous setting (indicated as zero-shot in the figure), the avg. proactive suggestions increase by 1.4 and 0.2 on ROD and MVP-N, and 1.6 and 0.5 with one and three samples, respectively. Furthermore, the accuracy drops in ROD and MVP-N, resulting in 6.7% and 20.7% with one sample and 12.0% and 18.2% with three. When conditioning ROD experiments with one sample, we notice that models either tend to predict the same category of the ICL example or enter infinite loops. Instead, scaling ICL to three samples helps some high-performing models (i.e., LLaVA-OV 7B and Phi-4-Multimodal) predicting the correct answer. Generally, small MLLMs enter infinite loops, while larger ones tend to abstain. Similarly, in MVP-N, model errors arise either from random guesses, abstentions, or, occasionally, valid proactive sequences ending with incorrect predictions. Full results are shown in the Appendix.

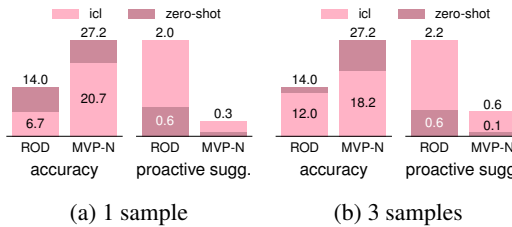


Figure 16: Performance when **conditioning on few shots**. Results are averaged across all MLLMs.

4 Related work

MLLMs. Earlier MLLMs emerged from pioneering efforts to extend frozen LLMs multimodally, such as Frozen [62] and Flamingo [2]. These seminal works convert pre-trained LLMs by injecting visual tokens in the language model’s attention layers and fine-tuning them. Subsequent models, like PaLI [7], BLIP [33, 34], LLaVA [40, 41], and InstructBLIP [11], simplified the architecture by forwarding projected visual tokens as input to the LLM, reduced parameter count, and improved performance. Furthermore, LLaVA [40] proposes fine-tuning LLMs using instruction tuning data, improving data efficiency and reasoning capabilities. We focus on benchmarking the proactive capabilities of such models on a broad spectrum of tasks, a currently unexplored research direction.

Benchmarking for MLLMs. While early efforts evaluate MLLMs on visual question answering [4, 20, 47], a second wave of benchmarks relied on numerous tasks requiring reasoning abilities and world knowledge [27, 37, 44, 45, 72]. As recent MLLMs support multiple images and videos as inputs, more complex, multi-input benchmarks have been introduced to evaluate their reasoning capabilities [12, 16, 25, 28, 29, 35, 49, 61, 63]. A parallel effort has emerged in the embodied AI literature, where numerous studies evaluate agents that integrate LLMs [36, 51, 54, 57, 65]. However, none of these works benchmark MLLMs’ proactiveness to ambiguous or even unanswerable queries. Related to our work, Liu et al. [42] explores whether MLLM’s directional guidance can help visually impaired individuals in capturing images. However, [42] limits the evaluation to a single type of proactive suggestion and to single-turn conversations, not measuring the effectiveness of the MLLM’s proposed suggestion. Instead, we investigate models’ proactiveness in seven distinct scenarios over multiple turns, enabling a more comprehensive analysis of failure cases and false proactive behaviors.

Active vision improves perception [3] by allowing an active observer to control sensing strategies (e.g., viewpoint) dynamically. Active vision has been extensively studied in view planning (i.e., determining optimal sensor viewpoints) [73], object recognition [6], scene and 3D shape reconstruction [59], and robotic manipulation [10]. To overcome passive systems’ drawbacks, Xu et al. [69] introduces an open-world *synthetic* game environment, where agents actively explore their surroundings, performing multi-round abductive reasoning. Although we inherit the underlying spirit of active vision, our work is unique from previous research as: (i) ProactiveBench contains real-world images from diverse and complex scenarios, as opposed to synthetic toy environments, and (ii) unlike self-regulating active vision models, in our case, the observer receives feedback from the MLLM, through proactive suggestions, which results in additional information supplied by the mobile observer. Thus, it fosters a collaboration of the model and the user, which is ideal for human-machine cooperative tasks.

5 Conclusion

This paper presents ProactiveBench, a novel benchmark that evaluates MLLMs’ proactiveness by pairing multi-choice questions with visual inputs that require human intervention (e.g., move the occluding object) to make it answerable. We built ProactiveBench by repurposing seven existing datasets designed for different tasks, creating sequences that allow evaluating proactiveness in seven distinct scenarios in a multi-turn fashion. Our findings suggest that existing MLLMs are not proactive and prefer to abstain or predict random categories. Additionally, our analysis shows that hinting at the proactive action improves proactivity, with marginal accuracy gains. Furthermore, conditioning models on conversation histories and few-shot examples negatively biases the action distribution, with lower accuracy scores. These findings highlight ProactiveBench challenges, which we publicly release for future research.

Limitations. While our work is the first to evaluate the proactiveness of MLLMs, we acknowledge a few limitations. First, ProactiveBench is built upon existing datasets, and each evaluated scenario is limited to a single dataset. However, collecting new data is costly, and identifying additional datasets that capture diverse, realistic scenarios remains challenging, particularly because ProactiveBench requires a large number of images per sample and detailed annotations of proactive suggestions. Additionally, our evaluation relies on multiple-choice questions that include proactive options that might encourage proactiveness [17, 50, 53, 71, 74]. Open-ended generated answers would provide a better estimate of MLLMs’ proactiveness, but this is highly impractical as multi-turn open-ended conversations typically require human judgment, which is particularly costly for numerous long sequences. For the sake of completeness, we assess proactiveness in open-ended generation using the LLM-as-a-judge paradigm [75] and report the results in the Appendix.

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