LEARNING AND REASONING WITH GEOMETRY: HOW GENERATION HELPS SPATIAL UNDERSTANDING

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ABSTRACT

Image and video generators can produce spatially consistent visual content, but how to use this capability to improve spatial understanding remains underexplored. We study this problem from two perspectives: geometric supervision during training and explicit geometric evidence during inference. To this end, we introduce a unified geometric understanding and generation model (GeoUG) that integrates depth and multi-view generation with spatial understanding. First, we design a multi-scale depth codec that enables metric-depth generation using a pretrained visual autoencoder, and show that joint training yields task-dependent gains in spatial understanding. Second, we introduce 3DCueBench to control geometric difficulty while balancing selected 2D cues, and find that generated depth provides larger reasoning gains on questions requiring fine-grained geometric discrimination. Building on this finding, we develop adaptive interleaved reasoning, in which GeoUG first drafts an answer and then decides whether to generate geometric evidence to confirm or revise it. We train this decision through reinforcement learning, balancing accuracy gains over retaining the draft against generation cost. GeoUG achieves circular accuracies of 97.9%, 90.8%, and 94.2% on CV-Bench-3D, 3DCueBench, and DA-2K with fewer generation calls than always generating.

1 INTRODUCTION

Foundation models increasingly learn from multimodal observations of the world, extending beyond the knowledge conveyed through language (Assran et al., 2023; 2025; Tong et al., 2026). While language efficiently expresses concepts and relations, it often leaves the fine-grained geometry of physical scenes and their continuous changes underspecified (Talmy, 1983). Learning to predict visual observations offers a complementary source of supervision, requiring models to capture spatial structure and how it changes across views and over time. Recent advances in visual generation and editing (Team Seedance et al., 2026; MiniMax, 2026; Google DeepMind, 2025) suggest growing capabilities to maintain coherent scene structure through such changes. Recent studies of multimodal pretraining further highlight the potential for generation and understanding to benefit from shared learning, while revealing that knowledge transfer is asymmetric and task-dependent (Tong et al., 2026; Han et al., 2026). This raises a concrete question for geometry, which underlies both coherent visual generation and accurate spatial judgments: *how can geometric generation help models learn spatial relations and reason about them?*

To address this question, we examine geometric generation during both learning and reasoning. During learning, visual question answering (VQA) typically supervises the specific relations queried in a scene, whereas generating depth or images from other viewpoints provides supervision over richer scene structure and its visual consequences. This motivates examining how different geometric generation objectives contribute to spatial understanding. During reasoning, generated geometry can provide explicit intermediate representations from which depth and distance measurements can be obtained to support spatial judgments. We therefore ask when using this additional evidence improves an answer and whether models can learn to acquire it selectively. These two perspectives connect learning spatial relations from geometric supervision with reasoning over generated geometry.

To study these two roles, we develop GeoUG (Figure 1), which incorporates metric-depth generation and camera-conditioned multi-view generation into a unified understanding and generation model. These tasks model scene geometry and its visual appearance across viewpoints, respectively. We

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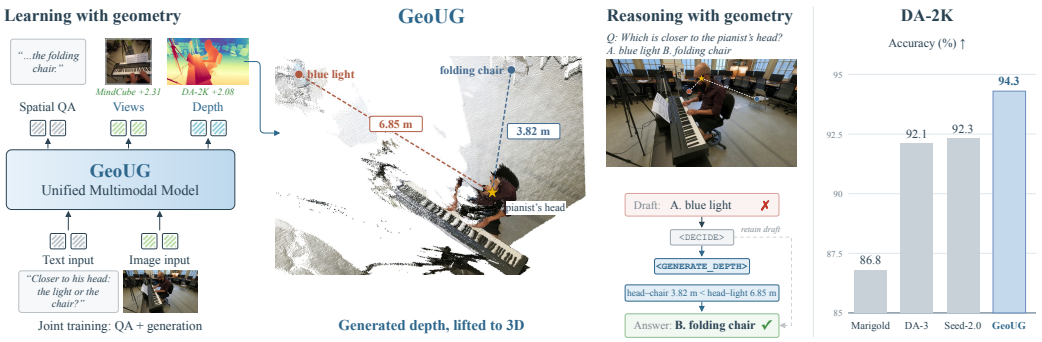

Figure 1: **Learning and reasoning with geometry.** *Learning with geometry* (left): GeoUG co-trains spatial understanding with geometric generation of new views and metric depth, improving MindCube and DA-2K (Section 5.1). *Reasoning with geometry* (middle and right): GeoUG first drafts an answer, then decides whether to generate depth. Here it generates depth, queries 3D distances from the generated depth lifted to 3D, and revises the incorrect draft. Far right: accuracy on DA-2K.

encode metric depth using a Multi-scale Metric Depth Codec (MMDC) compatible with a pretrained visual autoencoder and derive view-generation instructions from camera poses. During training, we jointly optimize geometric generation and spatial understanding, training the model to answer spatial questions and predict dense geometric representations. During inference, GeoUG performs adaptive interleaved reasoning with a draft-conditioned policy: it first produces a draft answer, then decides whether to generate geometric evidence to confirm or revise that answer. We train this policy with reinforcement learning with verifiable rewards (RLVR) (DeepSeek-AI et al., 2025), introducing a decision-specific advantage that measures the accuracy gain from generation relative to retaining the draft answer and explicitly accounts for generation cost. This enables the policy to weigh the added benefit of geometric evidence against its cost.

Understanding the role of geometric generation also requires identifying the conditions under which it helps. We first compare the training benefits of different geometric generation objectives and find that they are task-dependent: depth generation can improve depth-related spatial abilities, while multi-view generation benefits spatial understanding across viewpoints. At inference time, overall accuracy alone is insufficient to characterize the value of generation, because some spatial questions can be answered using 2D image cues. We therefore introduce 3DCueBench, which balances cases where selected 2D cues agree or conflict with the true 3D relations across geometric difficulty levels, enabling evaluation beyond these cues. Our experiments show that explicitly generating geometry provides larger gains when the depths or distances being compared are closer. By acquiring geometric evidence on demand, GeoUG retains most of the reasoning gains while reducing generation calls. GeoUG achieves circular accuracies of 97.9%, 90.8%, and 94.2% on CV-Bench-3D (Tong et al., 2024a), 3DCueBench, and DA-2K (Yang et al., 2024), respectively. Together, these findings highlight the task-dependent benefits of geometric supervision during learning and the value of selectively using generated geometry during reasoning.

Our main contributions are as follows:

- We study geometric generation as both training supervision and reasoning evidence, analyzing the task-dependent benefits of different generation objectives and how inference gains vary with geometric difficulty.
- We introduce GeoUG, which integrates metric-depth and camera-conditioned multi-view generation into a unified understanding and generation model. Using the draft answer as a reference, reinforcement learning balances accuracy gains against generation costs to support on-demand generation and use of geometric evidence.
- We introduce 3DCueBench, which controls geometric difficulty while balancing the validity of selected 2D cues, enabling a more targeted evaluation of spatial reasoning. Across three spatial understanding benchmarks, GeoUG achieves the highest circular accuracy among the evaluated vision-language models, while using fewer generation calls and maintaining accuracy close to or above the always-generate configuration.

2 Related Work

Unified Understanding and Generation. Unified multimodal models combine language prediction with visual generation (Xie et al., 2024; Zhou et al., 2024). BAGEL uses a Mixture-of-Transformer-Experts (MoT) architecture with specialized understanding and generation experts (Deng et al., 2025). MetaMorph reports mutual benefits with asymmetric contributions from understanding and generation data (Tong et al., 2024b). Recent pretraining studies investigate cross-modal complementarity, knowledge transfer, and conditions for synergy (Tong et al., 2026; Han et al., 2026). We examine these interactions specifically through geometric generation and spatial understanding.

Generation for Understanding and Reasoning. Generative supervision improves visual understanding through reconstruction (Wang et al., 2024) and semantic proxy tasks (Yu et al., 2026). At inference time, MVoT generates visual reasoning traces (Li et al., 2025), while visual world-modeling studies identify task-dependent benefits of generated intermediates (Wu et al., 2026). COOPER learns relative-depth and segmentation generation alongside adaptive interleaved spatial reasoning (Zhang et al., 2025). For cross-view reasoning, recent work examines synthesized viewpoints and whether models effectively use generated visual evidence (Zhang et al., 2026; Yang et al., 2026). Our work develops multi-scale metric-depth encoding and studies depth and view generation as training supervision and generated depth as evidence during inference, emphasizing how geometric difficulty and generation errors affect downstream benefits. This analysis distinguishes the benefits of learning geometric representations from those of explicitly generating and interpreting them at test time.

Spatial Understanding and Reasoning. Existing approaches strengthen spatial capabilities through geometric representations and spatial supervision. VLM-3R incorporates a geometry encoder to extract implicit 3D tokens from monocular video (Fan et al., 2026). From a data perspective, SpatialVLM, Visual Spatial Tuning, and OpenSpatial construct spatial instruction data to improve perception and reasoning (Chen et al., 2024; Yang et al., 2025a; Liu et al., 2026). Their instruction targets provide spatially sparse supervision through selected attributes, objects, and relations, rather than dense per-pixel geometric targets. We complement such supervision with metric-depth and multi-view generation objectives, providing dense visual supervision for learning geometry and enabling generated representations to support spatial reasoning.

3 Method

We investigate how geometric generation helps spatial understanding through learning and reasoning with geometry. We build GeoUG on BAGEL (Deng et al., 2025), a unified understanding and generation model. For learning with geometry, we study co-training configurations that jointly optimize spatial understanding and a geometric generation task, using cross-entropy loss on text tokens and flow-matching loss for visual generation. For reasoning with geometry, the model first drafts an answer and then decides whether to generate depth and query geometric measurements to confirm or revise it. We train this decision to balance answer correctness against generation cost.

3.1 Geometric Generation Tasks

We unify geometric generation tasks through a common visual output representation and velocity-prediction objective based on flow matching (Lipman et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2023). Each target is represented as a three-channel image: an encoded metric-depth map or an RGB target view. Following BAGEL, a frozen VAE encodes this target into latents, and the model predicts the flow velocity from noise-corrupted latents conditioned on the input image, task instruction, and timestep. At inference, the predicted velocity field transforms noise into target latents, which the VAE decodes into the visual output. The tasks thus share one generation mechanism and differ only in conditioning and target.

We study two forms of geometric supervision within this framework. **Metric-depth generation** captures the depths of visible surfaces, providing explicit geometry for spatial measurement. **View generation** captures changes in spatial layout, visibility, and occlusion induced by a change of viewpoint. In camera-conditioned multi-view generation (*multi-view* for short), the target viewpoint is given by a camera-motion instruction, which we derive from relative camera poses to account for both rotation and translation (Appendix D.2). In exo-to-ego generation, the target viewpoint is that

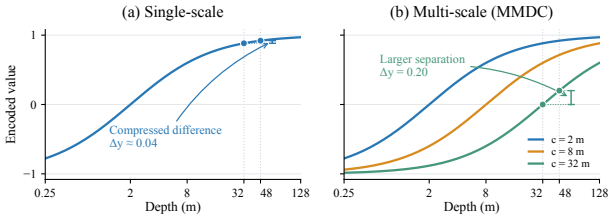

Figure 2: **Multi-scale depth encoding.** (a) A single pivot compresses depth differences far from its scale. (b) A second channel with a larger pivot separates depths saturated in the first.

of a person in a third-person image; generating that person's first-person view requires perspective taking, imagining the scene from another observer's viewpoint (Appendix D.3).

Multi-scale Metric Depth Codec. To represent metric depth within this common image interface, we introduce the Multi-scale Metric Depth Codec (MMDC). It maps depth into a bounded three-channel representation compatible with the pretrained VAE and converts the generated output back into metric depth, preserving a consistent physical scale across images.

Generative depth estimators such as Marigold (Ke et al., 2024) use per-image affine normalization to fit depth maps into the bounded input range of an RGB VAE. Consequently, they recover only relative depth at inference. We instead design a fixed, invertible depth encoding. For depth $d > 0$ and a fixed pivot $c > 0$, both in metres, we define

$$y = \frac{d - c}{d + c} \in (-1, 1), \qquad d = c\frac{1 + y}{1 - y}. \tag{1}$$

Every encoded value now has a consistent metric meaning across images, allowing the generated representation to be decoded into a metric depth map at inference.

However, a single pivot c compresses relative depth differences away from its characteristic scale, amplifying reconstruction errors during decoding, as shown in Figure 2(a).

MMDC addresses this by exploiting the three input channels of the RGB VAE. Rather than repeat a single-scale encoding three times, we assign each channel a different depth scale:

$$Y_i = \frac{d - c_i}{d + c_i}, \qquad (c_1, c_2, c_3) = (2, 8, 32)\,\mathrm{m}. \tag{2}$$

The channels provide complementary precision across depth ranges: where one channel approaches saturation, another can better distinguish depth differences (Figure 2). The pivots are fixed across datasets, and the resulting representation fits the pretrained VAE without architecture changes.

For decoding, we invert each generated channel and fuse the per-channel estimates:

$$\hat{d}_i = c_i\frac{1 + \hat{Y}_i}{1 - \hat{Y}_i}, \qquad w_i = (1 - \hat{Y}_i^2)^2, \qquad \hat{d} = \frac{\sum_i w_i \hat{d}_i}{\sum_i w_i}. \tag{3}$$

The weight is largest near a channel's pivot and decreases towards saturation, allowing different channels to contribute at different depth scales. More details are provided in Appendix B.

MMDC introduces no learned parameters. During training, encoded depth maps serve as targets through the frozen VAE encoder. At inference, MMDC converts the VAE-decoded outputs into metric depth maps for geometric measurement and interleaved reasoning.

3.2 Interleaved Geometric Reasoning

We next turn from geometric supervision during training to using generated depth as evidence for spatial reasoning at inference time. Before designing the reasoning procedure, we address two questions through two pilot studies:

Pilot I: When Does Generation Help? We compare direct answering (*Direct*) with reasoning that always generates depth before answering (*Always-generate*) on CV-Bench-3D (Tong et al., 2024a) and 3DCueBench (Section 4.1). We measure difficulty by the relative gap

$$g = \frac{|d_a - d_b|}{\max(d_a, d_b)}, \tag{4}$$

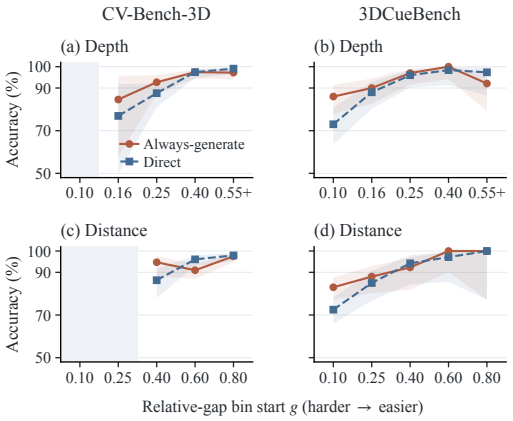

Figure 3: **When does generation help?** Accuracy versus relative gap g; smaller is harder. Non-circular accuracy from separately trained models. Generation gives larger gains on difficult 3DCueBench questions. Gains on easier questions are limited.

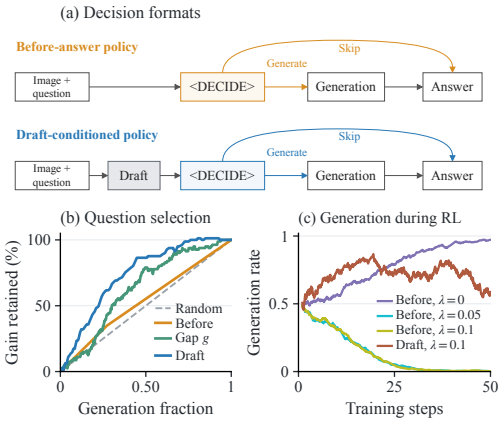

Figure 4: **When to generate.** (a) Policies decide whether to generate before answering or after a draft. (b) Gain retained at different generation budgets on 3DCueBench (protocol in Appendix C). (c) Generation rates during RL with generation cost λ.

where d_a and d_b are the camera depths or distances to the anchor being compared. We group questions in both datasets into bins according to their relative gap. Figure 3 shows larger gains from generation-assisted reasoning over direct answering on difficult questions with smaller gaps. On easier questions, direct answering already achieves high accuracy, while generation-assisted reasoning provides limited gains and sometimes reduces accuracy. This degradation may result from errors in generated depth or geometric measurements. These findings motivate adaptive interleaved reasoning, in which the model decides when to generate geometric evidence.

Pilot II: Can the Model Tell When It Needs Geometry? The ground-truth gap is unavailable at test time, so the model must decide whether to generate from its own reasoning context. A straightforward approach is a *before-answer policy*, which chooses between direct answering and generation-assisted reasoning before producing an answer (Figure 4a, top). To evaluate its ability to select questions, we rank 3DCueBench questions by its generation probability, use generation-assisted reasoning for the top fraction, and direct answering for the remainder. At a 50% generation budget, this policy retains only 55% of the gain from always generating, close to the 50% expected from random selection (Figure 4b). Reinforcement learning also fails to produce selective generation in our runs: the policy tends to generate for either almost no questions or almost all questions (Figure 4c). These results suggest that the before-answer policy does not learn to identify questions that benefit from generation.

This motivates us to investigate whether the model's initial answer can provide a useful signal for deciding when to generate. To this end, we introduce a *draft-conditioned policy*, which first produces an initial draft without depth generation, then decides whether to answer directly or invoke generation-assisted reasoning (Figure 4a, bottom). Under the same ranking protocol and a 50% generation budget, this policy retains 86% of the gain from always generating, compared with 55% for the before-answer policy (Figure 4b).

Draft-conditioned Reasoning. The draft-conditioned policy first produces an initial draft from the input image and question, then decides whether to answer directly or invoke generation-assisted reasoning (Figure 4a). The direct branch returns the draft as the final answer, while the generation branch acquires geometric evidence to confirm or revise it. We instantiate this policy with depth generation. For example, to decide which of two objects is closer, the model generates a depth map, decodes it into metric depth using MMDC, and queries the objects' depths before answering.

Learning When to Generate. We initialize the policy through supervised fine-tuning on draft-conditioned reasoning sequences, excluding draft tokens from the loss (Appendix C). We then use GSPO-based reinforcement learning (Zheng et al., 2025) to optimize the accuracy–cost trade-off, with reward $r_i = c_i - \lambda a_i$, where $c_i \in \{0, 1\}$ indicates final-answer correctness, $a_i \in \{0, 1\}$ indicates generation, and λ is the generation cost.

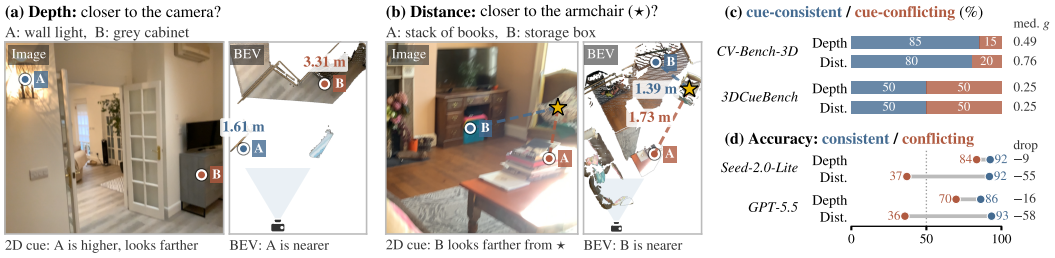

Figure 5: **2D shortcuts versus 3D geometry.** (a) "Lower is closer" picks the cabinet, but the bird's-eye view (BEV) shows the higher wall light is nearer. (b) The books are closer to the armchair in the image plane, but the storage box is closer in 3D. (c) Share of cue-consistent (2D rule correct) and cue-conflicting (2D rule wrong) questions, with median relative gap g. (d) Ordinary accuracy of two VLMs on cue-consistent vs. cue-conflicting 3DCueBench questions (Appendix Table 10).

For G rollouts of a question, GSPO assigns each a shared trajectory-level advantage:

$$\bar{r} = \frac{1}{G}\sum_{j=1}^{G} r_j, \qquad A_i^{\text{group}} = \frac{r_i - \bar{r}}{s_r + \epsilon}, \tag{5}$$

where s_r is the standard deviation of rewards within the group and $\epsilon > 0$ ensures numerical stability. However, when every rollout generates, the generation cost cancels:

$$r_i - \bar{r} = (c_i - \lambda) - (\bar{c} - \lambda) = c_i - \bar{c}, \qquad \bar{c} = \frac{1}{G}\sum_{j=1}^{G} c_j. \tag{6}$$

Since subtracting a shared cost also leaves the standard deviation unchanged, the advantage no longer depends on λ. In such groups, the decision receives no cost-dependent signal for learning whether generation is worthwhile. In practice we replace s_r with a constant scale, since normalizing by s_r also removes the magnitude of λ (Appendix C); the cancellation above holds for either choice.

We therefore assign the generation decision an advantage that explicitly compares generation with retaining the draft. Because answering directly returns the draft unchanged, its correctness $c_{d,i}$ is known from the answer label, even for rollouts that generate. For a sampled decision, we use

$$A_i^{\text{gate}} = \begin{cases} (1 - p_i)\,(c_i - \lambda - c_{d,i}) & a_i = 1, \\ -p_i\,(\widehat{Q}_{\text{gen},i} - \lambda - c_{d,i}) & a_i = 0, \end{cases} \tag{7}$$

where p_i is the generation probability conditioned on the draft, and $\widehat{Q}_{\text{gen},i}$ estimates correctness after generation using forced-generation rollouts for the same question. This preserves a signal about the benefit and cost of generation even when all sampled rollouts choose the same branch.

4 Evaluation

4.1 3DCueBench: Controlled Evaluation of Geometric Reasoning

VLMs may rely on 2D image-plane relationships to answer 3D spatial questions without understanding the underlying 3D structure. Figure 5(a,b) shows two such shortcuts, "lower in the image is closer" and "closer in the image plane is closer in 3D", each contradicted by the scene's 3D geometry. In our analysis of CV-Bench-3D, choosing the object with the lower bounding-box bottom correctly answers 85.3% of Depth questions (Figure 5(c)), and no question has a relative gap below 0.16. Current VLMs follow such cues: on 3DCueBench Distance questions where the rule gives the wrong answer, Seed-2.0-Lite (ByteDance Seed, 2026) and GPT-5.5 (OpenAI, 2026) reach only 37.0% and 35.7% (Figure 5(d)). This makes it difficult to determine whether high accuracy reflects geometric reasoning or reliance on image-plane cues.

We therefore introduce **3DCueBench**, a benchmark of 800 carefully selected questions in two tasks: Depth compares the camera depths of two targets, and Distance compares their 3D distances to

an anchor. In half of the questions (*cue-consistent*), the 2D rules used to construct the benchmark favor the correct answer; in the other half (*cue-conflicting*), they favor the wrong answer. Each rule therefore achieves 50% accuracy, so models must go beyond these rules to perform well. To control difficulty, we sample questions across intervals of the relative gap (Equation 4), keeping cue-consistent and cue-conflicting questions balanced within each interval (Appendix E.2).

4.2 Evaluation Protocol

Benchmarks and Metrics. We evaluate single-image depth and distance reasoning on CV-Bench-3D (Tong et al., 2024a), DA-2K (Yang et al., 2024), and our 3DCueBench. Unless suffixed *-Visual*, CV-Bench-3D and DA-2K denote their textual versions, which give object points or boxes as coordinates in the question text. We further assess multi-view spatial reasoning on MindCube (Wang et al., 2025a) and the camera-motion subset of MMSI-Bench (Yang et al., 2025b), with accuracy or circular accuracy as noted in each figure or table. For dense depth estimation, we evaluate on NYU-v2 (Silberman et al., 2012), KITTI (Geiger et al., 2012), ETH3D (Schöps et al., 2017), Sintel (Butler et al., 2012), and DIODE (Vasiljevic et al., 2019), reporting AbsRel and δ_1 (threshold 1.25).

5 Experiment

5.1 Generative Co-training

Generative co-training yields task-dependent gains in spatial understanding. We compare understanding-only training with three co-training configurations, each combining spatial understanding with one geometric generation task introduced in Section 3.1: metric-depth generation, camera-conditioned multi-view generation (multi-view), or exo-to-ego generation (exo-to-ego). Figure 6 plots benchmark accuracy against the number of understanding CE tokens consumed during training. All three tasks improve final accuracy on CV-Bench-3D-Visual by 1.50–1.67 points. Depth generation gives the largest gain on DA-2K-Visual (+2.08 points), while multi-view and exo-to-ego generation improve MindCube by 2.21 and 2.31 points. On MMSI camera motion, multi-view generation improves accuracy, whereas depth generation lowers it. These results suggest that the benefits depend on how closely the generation task matches the spatial ability being evaluated. Appendix E.1 reports the generation quality of the co-trained models, and Appendix F.1 shows that generation pretraining followed by understanding-only SFT does not reliably yield such gains.

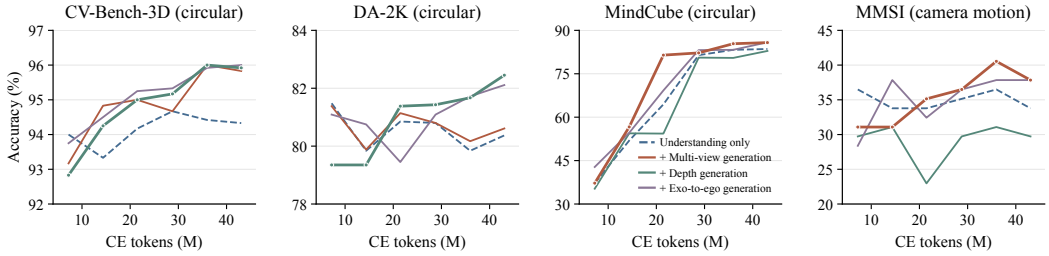

Figure 6: **Generative co-training.** Circular accuracy on CV-Bench-3D-Visual, DA-2K-Visual, and MindCube; accuracy on MMSI camera motion. x-axis: understanding CE tokens.

5.2 Interleaved Geometric Reasoning

Table 1 compares GeoUG ($\lambda = 0.1$; Section 3.2) with open-source VLMs and DA3 on depth and distance questions, using circular accuracy.

GeoUG outperforms the evaluated VLMs across all three benchmarks. Table 1 compares GeoUG with open-source VLMs and the depth estimator DA3. Using the same measurement procedure, GeoUG exceeds DA3 by 2.7 points on CV-Bench-3D and 2.1 points on DA-2K and achieves similar accuracy on 3DCueBench (90.8% versus 90.9%), while answering 32.6% of 3DCueBench questions without generating depth. Supplying existing VLMs with DA3 measurements improves accuracy on CV-Bench-3D and 3DCueBench, but their performance remains below GeoUG (Ap-

Table 1: **Depth and distance understanding.** Circular accuracy (%); both option orders must be correct. Bold marks the best result per column. GeoUG uses adaptive interleaved reasoning and is initialized from the draft-conditioned SFT model (Section 3.2). DA3 answers from its predicted metric depth with the same measurement procedure as GeoUG, without a VLM. Avg.: mean of the three Overall columns.

Model / configuration	CV-Bench-3D			3DCueBench			DA-2K	Avg.
	Depth	Distance	Overall	Depth	Distance	Overall	Overall	
BAGEL-7B-MoT (Deng et al., 2025)	81.5	59.3	70.4	73.8	49.5	61.6	55.1	62.4
Qwen2.5-VL-7B (Bai et al., 2025b)	80.2	61.5	70.8	61.8	35.5	48.6	45.3	54.9
Qwen3-VL-8B (Bai et al., 2025a)	93.8	80.3	87.1	80.0	53.5	66.8	44.6	66.2
InternVL3.5-8B (Wang et al., 2025c)	83.2	74.7	78.9	62.8	52.5	57.6	31.6	56.0
SenseNova-SI-1.4-8B (Cai et al., 2026)	93.5	85.2	89.3	81.3	63.0	72.1	63.9	75.1
SenseNova-SI-1.5-8B (Cai et al., 2026)	90.8	84.0	87.4	79.0	64.0	71.5	61.1	73.3
VST-7B-SFT (Yang et al., 2025a)	95.5	90.8	93.2	83.8	72.0	77.9	63.5	78.2
DA3 (Lin et al., 2025) (depth readout)	96.0	94.5	95.3	**95.3**	**86.5**	**90.9**	92.1	92.8
GeoUG (Ours)	**98.5**	**97.3**	**97.9**	95.0	**86.5**	90.8	**94.2**	**94.3**

Table 2: **Adaptive interleaved reasoning.** Circular accuracy (%) and generation rate (Gen., %). Pos.: % of questions answered with the same letter under both option orders (mean over benchmarks). The random gate generates at the $\lambda = 0.1$ rate for random questions.

Configuration	CV-Bench-3D		3DCueBench		DA-2K		Pos.
	Acc.	Gen.	Acc.	Gen.	Acc.	Gen.	
Direct	91.4	0	75.4	0	71.7	0	9.7
Always-generate	97.4	100	91.3	100	94.9	100	0.1
Initial policy (SFT)	97.2	16.0	85.4	25.2	85.1	28.3	3.5
Random gate	94.4	50.3	86.1	67.4	88.5	72.4	3.2
RL, $\lambda = 0.05$	97.5	58.3	90.6	74.6	94.7	78.7	1.0
Ours (λ=0.1)	97.9	50.3	90.8	67.4	94.2	72.4	0.7

Table 3: **Ablation of the decision advantage** ($\lambda = 0.1$, 20 updates from the same initial policy and training questions). Circular accuracy (%) and generation rate (Gen., %); Avg.: mean accuracy over the three benchmarks. Ours: two-branch estimate with forced generation.

Decision advantage	CV-Bench-3D		3DCueBench		DA-2K		Avg.
	Acc.	Gen.	Acc.	Gen.	Acc.	Gen.	
Always-generate	97.4	100	91.3	100	94.9	100	94.5
Initial policy (SFT)	97.2	16.0	85.4	25.2	85.1	28.3	89.2
Trajectory-level	96.6	44.1	90.8	66.2	**94.1**	71.1	93.8
Sampled action	**97.6**	41.6	89.6	62.8	92.8	65.6	93.4
Two-branch, unforced	97.3	29.2	89.5	49.3	92.5	53.0	93.1
Ours	**97.6**	50.7	**91.0**	69.3	93.9	73.4	**94.2**

pendix F.3). Referring format affects models differently, with no consistent advantage for either format (Appendix F.2).

Depth generation provides larger gains on harder geometric questions. Within the same model, always generating depth improves circular accuracy over direct answering by 6.0, 15.9, and 23.2 points on the three benchmarks (Table 2). On 3DCueBench, the gain reaches 23.0 points in the two hardest gap intervals and decreases to 12.5 and 5.0 points in the easier intervals (Table 12). Generation also reduces option-position bias: the fraction of questions answered with the same letter under both option orders drops from 9.7% to 0.1% on average.

5.3 Adaptive Interleaved Reasoning

Adaptive interleaved reasoning maintains accuracy with fewer depth generations. With $\lambda = 0.1$, the trained GeoUG generates depth for 50.3–72.4% of questions while staying within 0.7 percentage points of always generating across all three benchmarks (Table 2). The initial SFT policy generates less often but achieves lower accuracy, particularly on DA-2K. Reducing λ to 0.05 increases generation rates to 58.3–78.7%, with accuracy changing by at most 0.5 points. On 3DCueBench, this policy stays within 1.0 point of always generating across difficulty intervals (Table 12).

The draft-conditioned policy selects questions that benefit from generation. At the same generation rates, GeoUG outperforms random selection by 3.5, 4.7, and 5.7 points on CV-Bench-3D, 3DCueBench, and DA-2K, respectively (Table 2). This advantage holds across all difficulty intervals on 3DCueBench. After RL, fewer incorrect drafts are returned without checking, indicating that the policy learns to use depth where direct answering fails.

Comparing generation with retaining the draft and using forced rollouts improves accuracy. We ablate how the draft-conditioned policy learns when to generate (Section 3.2). Our decision advantage

in Equation 7 compares generation with retaining the draft and uses forced-generation rollouts to estimate correctness after generation. Starting from the same initial policy, we evaluate after 20 RL steps at $\lambda = 0.1$ (Table 3). Our method achieves 94.2% mean accuracy across the three benchmarks. Replacing A_i^{gate} with the trajectory-level advantage in Equation 5 lowers accuracy by 0.34 points; applying the draft-correctness baseline only to the sampled action lowers it by 0.81 points. Estimating $\widehat{Q}_{\text{gen}}$ only from rollouts that chose to generate, without forced generation, lowers accuracy by 1.09 points. In this last variant, all 16 rollouts answer directly on 4% of the training questions, leaving no estimate of $\widehat{Q}_{\text{gen}}$ and no learning signal for those decisions. Our method generates more often at the same λ, bringing accuracy closer to always generating.

5.4 Depth Estimation

GeoUG-Depth outperforms the evaluated generative depth estimators. We evaluate depth generation on five benchmarks using affine alignment (Section 4.2, Table 4). GeoUG-Depth achieves lower AbsRel and higher δ_1 than Marigold-v1.1 and Lotus on every dataset with reported results. It also outperforms Depth Anything V2 (DA2) on both metrics across all five benchmarks, while MoGe-V2 retains lower AbsRel. Qualitative examples show the generated depth maps and corresponding 3D reconstructions (Appendix A).

Table 4: **Affine-invariant depth estimation.** AbsRel $\times 100$ ($\downarrow$) and δ_1 in % ($\uparrow$) after affine alignment.

Type	Method	NYU-v2		KITTI		ETH3D		Sintel		DIODE	
		AbsRel	δ_1	AbsRel	δ_1	AbsRel	δ_1	AbsRel	δ_1	AbsRel	δ_1
Dis	ZoeDepth (Bhat et al., 2023)	4.76	97.30	5.59	95.10	7.27	94.20	21.80	69.20	7.80	90.90
	DA V2 (Yang et al., 2024)	4.16	97.90	6.77	94.30	4.63	97.20	17.10	76.60	5.41	94.60
	Metric3D V2 (Hu et al., 2024)	3.94	97.60	3.50	98.40	3.24	99.00	26.60	71.70	2.75	98.70
	UniDepth V2 (Piccinelli et al., 2025)	2.96	98.60	3.85	98.10	2.95	98.50	13.30	83.20	4.05	96.50
	Depth Pro (Bochkovskii et al., 2025)	3.67	98.20	5.12	96.80	4.97	96.40	15.80	80.10	4.66	95.60
	MoGe-V2 (Wang et al., 2025b)	2.89	98.60	3.75	98.10	2.80	99.10	13.30	82.50	3.14	97.40
Gen	Marigold-v1.1 (Ke et al., 2024)	5.50	96.40	10.50	90.20	6.90	95.70	29.80	78.20	-	-
	Lotus (He et al., 2025)	5.40	96.80	8.50	92.20	5.90	97.00	-	-	9.80	92.40
	GeoUG-Depth (ours)	3.32	98.46	4.84	97.27	3.75	97.85	14.72	79.65	4.50	96.22

Table 5: **Depth encoding and data scaling.** Protocol and units follow Table 4; AVG is the unweighted mean across five datasets. The last row is GeoUG-Depth in Table 4.

Method	AVG		NYU-v2		KITTI		ETH3D		Sintel		DIODE	
	AbsRel	δ_1	AbsRel	δ_1	AbsRel	δ_1	AbsRel	δ_1	AbsRel	δ_1	AbsRel	δ_1
single-disparity	7.47	92.20	3.35	98.40	6.61	95.22	4.76	96.66	16.68	76.77	5.96	93.96
multi-disparity (MMDC)	7.24	92.57	3.35	98.38	6.51	95.34	4.62	96.99	16.31	77.23	5.40	94.88
MMDC + data scaling	6.23	93.89	3.32	98.46	4.84	97.27	3.75	97.85	14.72	79.65	4.50	96.22

Multi-scale depth encoding improves accuracy, with further gains from more training data. Table 5 compares MMDC with a single-scale encoding that repeats one channel ($c = 5\,\text{m}$) across the three VAE channels. MMDC reduces mean AbsRel from 7.47 to 7.24, improving four datasets and matching the baseline on NYU-v2. Expanding the training data further reduces mean AbsRel to 6.23 and increases mean δ_1 from 92.6% to 93.9%.

6 Conclusion

We studied how geometric generation supports spatial understanding through both learning and reasoning, using GeoUG as a unified framework. During training, joint learning with depth and multi-view generation yields task-dependent gains. During inference, our evaluation on 3DCueBench shows larger benefits from generated depth on questions requiring fine-grained geometric discrimination. Building on these findings, we developed adaptive interleaved reasoning, where a draft-conditioned policy learns through reinforcement learning to balance accuracy gains against generation cost. Across three benchmarks, this policy maintains accuracy close to or above always generating with fewer generation calls. These results highlight two complementary roles for geometric generation: supervision for learning spatial relations and evidence acquired selectively during reasoning.

AI USE STATEMENT

We used large language models only to polish the writing of this paper, including grammar, wording, and readability. They were not used for research ideation, experimental design, implementation, data analysis, or producing results. All authors reviewed the edited text and take full responsibility for the content of this paper.

ETHICS STATEMENT

This work does not raise ethical concerns under the ICLR Code of Ethics. It involves no human subjects, and all datasets used for training and evaluation are publicly available and used in accordance with their licenses.

REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT

We will publicly release our code, model weights, data preparation scripts, and 3DCueBench to support reproducibility and further research by the community. The paper and supplementary material describe the data processing, training procedures, and evaluation protocols needed to reproduce our experiments.

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To support a thorough understanding of our work, a detailed Appendix has been compiled. The table of contents below serves as a guide to the specific sections of interest.

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A Qualitative Results

Figure 7 shows predicted depth maps and their corresponding colored 3D reconstructions. The examples preserve recognizable scene layout, including the tiered seating in the lecture hall, tables in front of the courtyard facade, and the recessed doorway in the office. Depth boundaries follow many visible object contours, while the reconstructions also expose gaps and distortions near some boundaries. These examples illustrate recovered spatial structure without serving as a quantitative test of metric calibration.

Figures 8 and 9 compare the original BAGEL (Deng et al., 2025) with our models on multi-view and exo-to-ego generation; quantitative results are in Tables 7 and 8. The examples are chosen from random subsets of the evaluation sets (Appendix E.1): 90 multi-view pairs (30 each from RealEstate-10K (Zhou et al., 2018), DL3DV (Ling et al., 2024), and ScanNet++ (Yeshwanth et al., 2023)) and 64 of the 469 exo-to-ego pairs from Ego-Exo4D (Grauman et al., 2024). For multi-view generation, BAGEL often returns a view close to the input, even for instructions that move the camera by more than a metre or rotate it by more than 30°. Our model, trained on the pose-aligned instructions of Appendix D.2, moves the camera in the instructed direction and brings the expected content into view, such as the bedroom after moving forward and turning left. For exo-to-ego generation, BAGEL mostly depicts the described person, or the object the person is working on, instead of rendering the scene from that person's viewpoint. Our model instead produces a first-person view, with hands, tools, and the surrounding layout roughly matching the ground truth. The generated views are not



Figure 7: **Qualitative depth generation.** Rows show input images, predicted depth maps, and colored 3D reconstructions.

exact reconstructions: fine details, such as the arrangement of objects on the table, and the precise viewing direction often differ from the ground truth.

Figures 10–15 show adaptive interleaved reasoning by GeoUG on 3DCueBench, CV-Bench-3D (Tong et al., 2024a), and DA-2K (Yang et al., 2024). Each trace is the policy's output for the first option order, abridged: tool-call arguments are omitted and tool results are reduced to the readings the policy uses. p_{gen} is the probability of <GENERATE_DEPTH> at <DECIDE>, reported for both option orders. The depth maps are those the policy generated. The point clouds back-project them with the same pinhole camera that the tool uses when no intrinsics are given (focal length equal to the longer image side, centered principal point), and are shown from above with the camera at the bottom; points more than 0.3 m above the highest queried object are removed so that the ceiling does not hide the scene. Colored markers are the object centroids returned by the tool; for distance questions, the lines connect the anchor to each candidate.

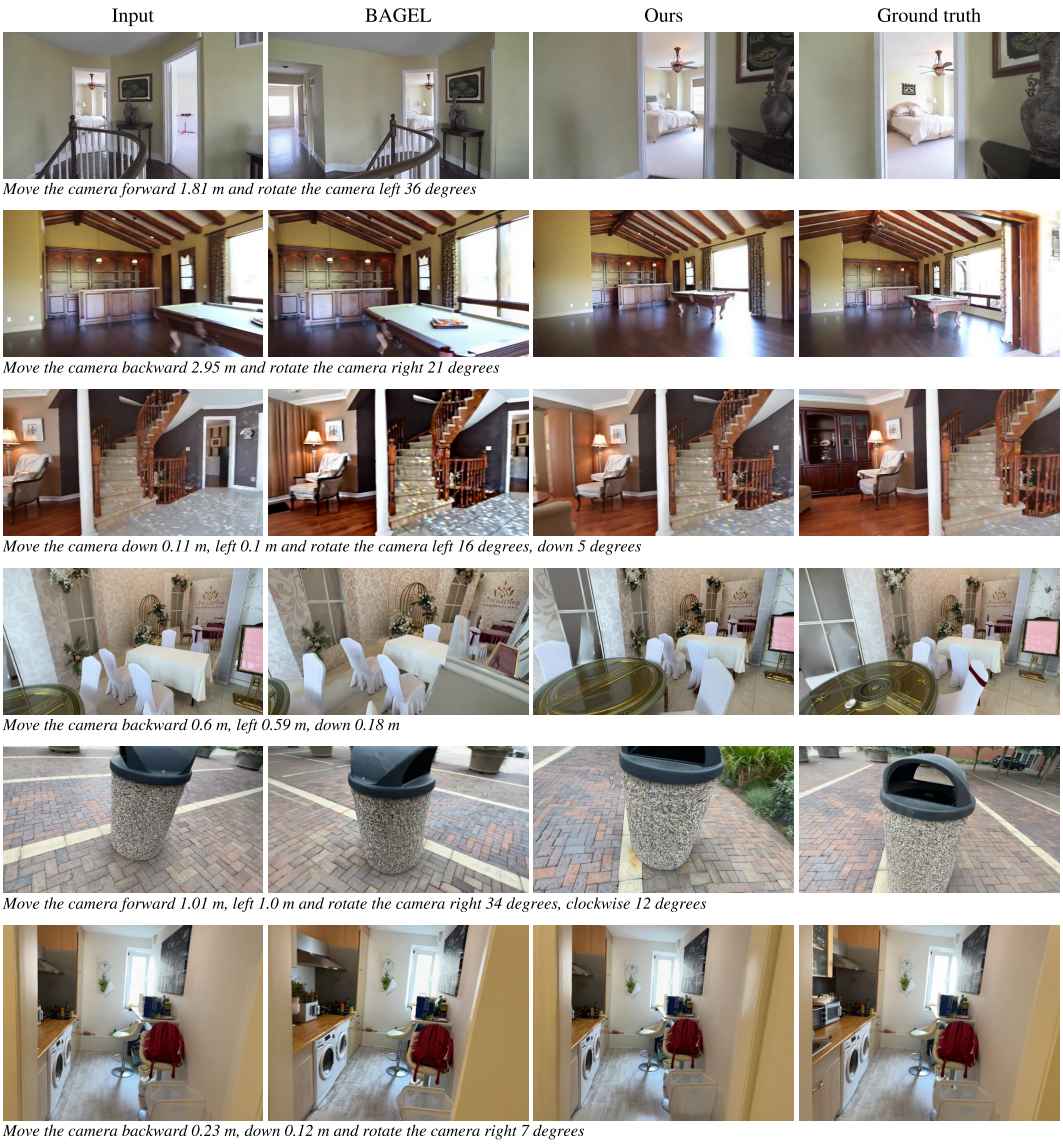


Figure 8: **Qualitative multi-view generation.** Rows 1–3 are from RealEstate-10K (Zhou et al., 2018), rows 4–5 from DL3DV (Ling et al., 2024), and row 6 from ScanNet++ (Yeshwanth et al., 2023). BAGEL (Deng et al., 2025) is the original model. The camera-motion instruction is given below each row. Ours is the multi-view co-training model (Figure 6) at its final checkpoint.

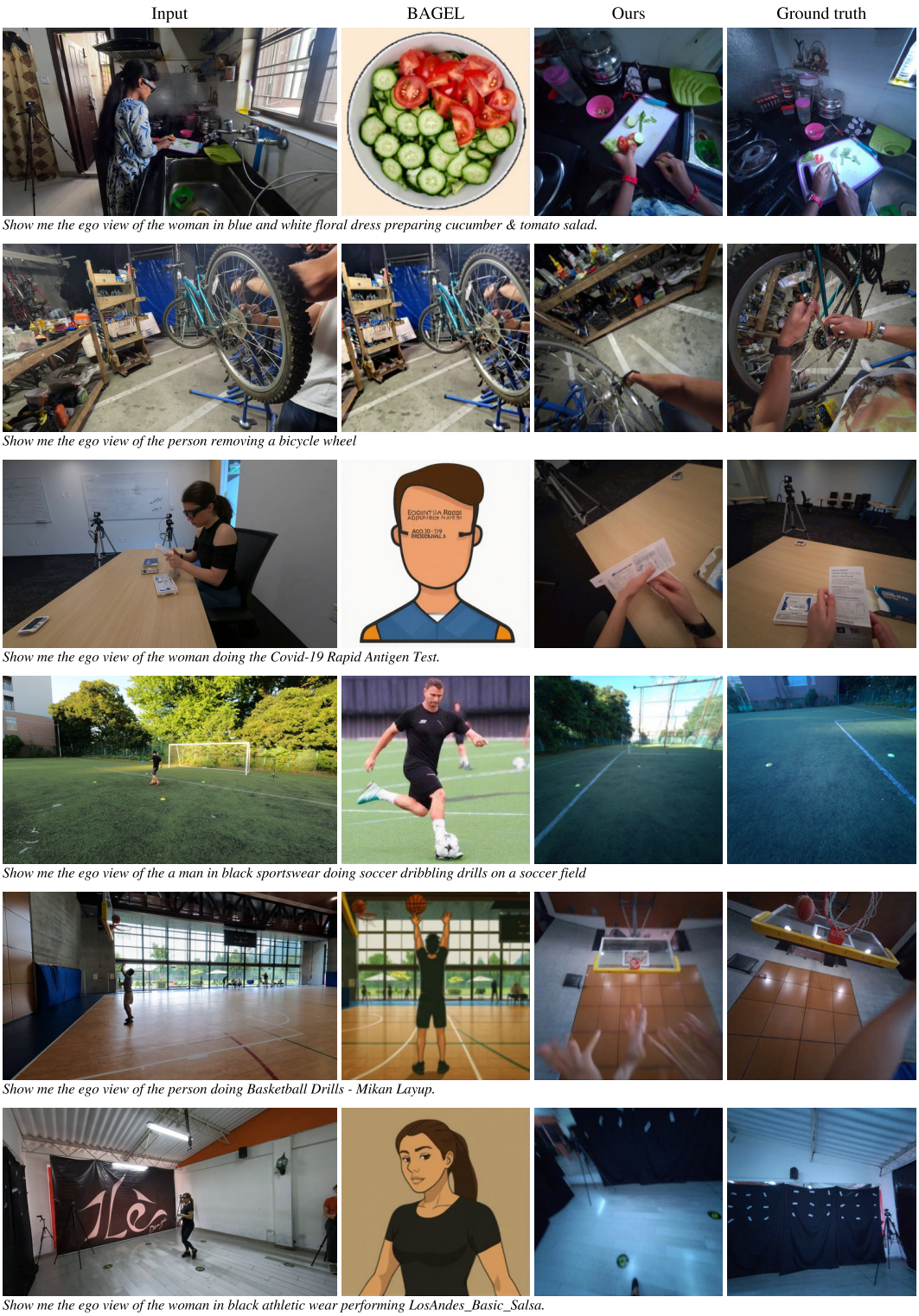
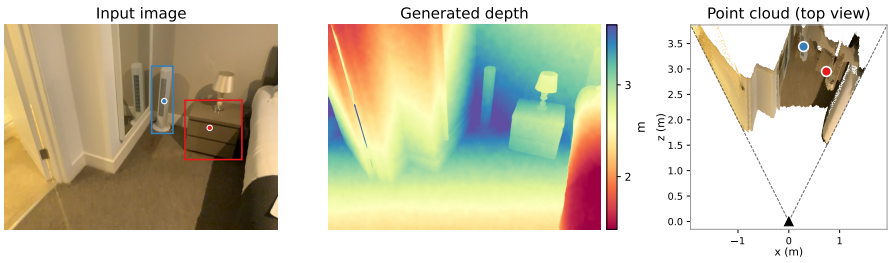


Figure 9: **Qualitative exo-to-ego generation** on Ego-Exo4D (Grauman et al., 2024). Given an exo image and an instruction naming the person, the model generates that person's ego view. BAGEL (Deng et al., 2025) is the original model. Ours is the exo-to-ego co-training model (Figure 6) at its final checkpoint. Instructions are shown verbatim.



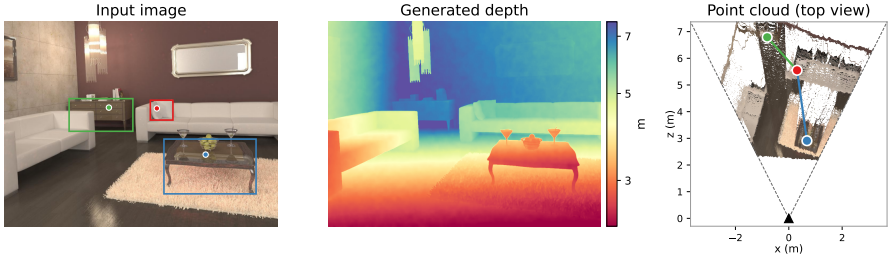
Question. Which object is closer to the camera taking this photo, the **nightstand** or the **tower fan**? A. nightstand B. tower fan

GeoUG. To answer this, I need each object's metric distance from the camera. [boxes and points for both objects] My initial answer without depth: B. tower fan. <DECIDE><GENERATE_DEPTH> $p_{\text{gen}} = 0.93/0.96$

[generated depth map, 1.48–7.28 m] `query_point_depth`: **nightstand** 2.95 m, **tower fan** 3.44 m.

From the tool, … Since $2.95 < 3.44$, the nightstand is closer and the tower fan is further. **Answer: A. nightstand** ✓

Figure 10: **3DCueBench, Depth**, relative gap in $[0.10, 0.16)$. The draft is wrong. The policy generates depth, and the tool readings reverse the draft; both option orders are answered correctly.



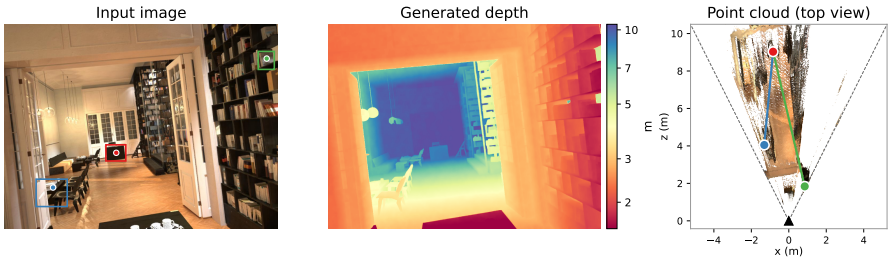
Question. Estimate the real-world distances between objects in this image. Which object is closer to the **white cushion**, the **glass coffee table** or the **wooden sideboard**? A. glass coffee table B. wooden sideboard

GeoUG. To answer this, I need the 3D distance from the anchor to each candidate. [boxes and points for the three objects] My initial answer without depth: A. glass coffee table. <DECIDE><GENERATE_DEPTH> $p_{\text{gen}} = 0.99/0.99$

[generated depth map, 2.18–9.34 m] `query_3d_distance`: **white cushion**–**glass coffee table** 2.74 m, **white cushion**–**wooden sideboard** 1.68 m.

This asks which object is closer to the white cushion — that is the distance between objects, not the distance from the camera … Since $1.68 < 2.74$, the wooden sideboard is closest to the white cushion. **Answer: B. wooden sideboard** ✓

Figure 11: **3DCueBench, Distance**, relative gap in $[0.10, 0.16)$. The draft picks the candidate nearer to the camera. After generating depth, the policy compares 3D distances between objects rather than camera depths; both option orders are answered correctly.



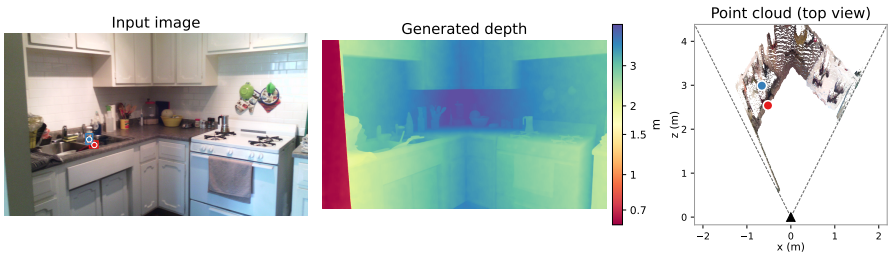
Question. Estimate the real-world distances between objects in this image. Which object is closer to the **desk**, the **table** or the **books**? A table B books

GeoUG. To answer this, I need the 3D distance from the anchor to each candidate. [a point inside each given box] My initial answer without depth: B books. <DECIDE><GENERATE_DEPTH> $p_{\text{gen}} = 0.94/0.95$

[generated depth map, 0.89–12.08 m] `query_3d_distance`: **desk**–**table** 5.01 m, **desk**–**books** 7.50 m.

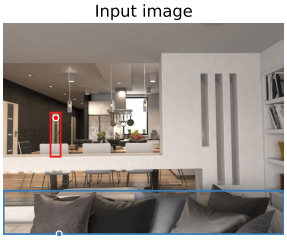
This asks which object is closer to the desk … Since $5.01 < 7.50$, the table is closest to the desk. **Answer: A table** ✓

Figure 12: **CV-Bench-3D (Tong et al., 2024a), Distance.** The objects are given as boxes. The draft is wrong; after generating depth, both option orders are answered correctly.

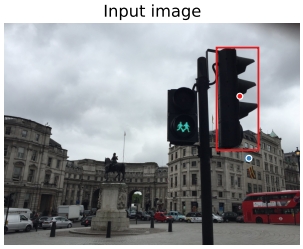


Question. Which object is closer to the camera taking this photo, the **first point** or the **second point**? A. first point B. second point
GeoUG. To answer this, I need each object's metric distance from the camera. [a box around each point] My initial answer without depth: B. second point. <DECIDE><GENERATE_DEPTH> $p_{\text{gen}} = 0.98/0.93$
[generated depth map, 0.57–4.83 m] query_point_depth: **first point** 2.54 m, **second point** 2.99 m.
From the tool, … Since 2.54 < 2.99, the first point is closer and the second point is further. **Answer: A. first point** ✓

Figure 13: **DA-2K (Yang et al., 2024).** The two points lie close together in the image, both on the sink. The draft is wrong; after generating depth, both option orders are answered correctly.

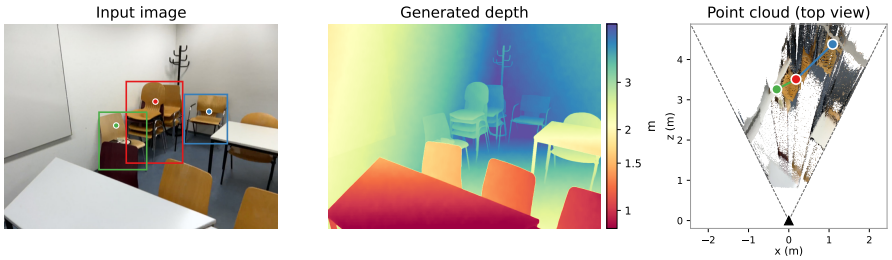


Question. Which object is closer to the camera taking this photo, the **door** or the **pillow**? A door B pillow
GeoUG. [a point inside each given box] My initial answer without depth: B pillow. <DECIDE> $p_{\text{gen}} = 0.02/0.05$
Answer: B pillow ✓



Question. Which object is closer to the camera taking this photo, the **first point** or the **second point**? A. first point B. second point
GeoUG. [a box around each point] My initial answer without depth: A. first point. <DECIDE> $p_{\text{gen}} = 0.02/0.13$
Answer: A. first point ✓

Figure 14: **Answering without generation.** Left: CV-Bench-3D (Tong et al., 2024a). Right: DA-2K (Yang et al., 2024). The draft is correct and the policy answers directly after <DECIDE>; both option orders are answered correctly without generating depth.



Question. Estimate the real-world distances between objects in this image. Which object is closer to the **stacked chairs**, the **wooden armchair** or the **wooden chair**? A. wooden armchair B. wooden chair
GeoUG. To answer this, I need the 3D distance from the anchor to each candidate. [boxes and points for the three objects] My initial answer without depth: A. wooden armchair. <DECIDE><GENERATE_DEPTH> $p_{\text{gen}} = 0.87/0.88$
[generated depth map, 0.81–6.20 m] query_3d_distance: **stacked chairs**–**wooden armchair** 1.25 m, **stacked chairs**–**wooden chair** 0.63 m.
… Since 0.63 < 1.25, the wooden chair is closest to the stacked chairs. **Answer: B. wooden chair** × (ground truth: A)

Figure 15: **Failure case: 3DCueBench, Distance**, relative gap in $[0.25, 0.40)$. The draft is correct, but the policy generates depth and follows the tool, whose measured distances place the wooden chair closer to the anchor. Both option orders are answered incorrectly.

B Details and Analysis of MMDC

B.1 Depth sensitivity

For a channel with pivot c_i, let $u_i = \log(d/c_i)$ measure proportional changes in depth. The encoding's sensitivity and local error amplification are

$$s_i(d) = \frac{\partial Y_i}{\partial u_i} = \frac{2c_i d}{(d + c_i)^2} = \frac{1 - Y_i^2}{2}, \qquad \frac{\Delta d}{d} \approx \frac{\Delta Y_i}{s_i(d)}. \tag{8}$$

A first-order expansion of the inverse gives the second expression: the same encoding error produces a larger relative depth error when sensitivity is low. Sensitivity peaks at $d = c_i$ and decreases towards both smaller and larger depths (Figure 16a).

The encoding can also be written as $Y_i = \tanh(u_i/2)$. Changing the pivot therefore translates the sensitivity profile along the log-depth axis. Our geometrically spaced pivots $(2, 8, 32)$ m place these profiles at equal log-depth intervals, providing overlapping precision ranges. The pivots remain fixed across datasets.

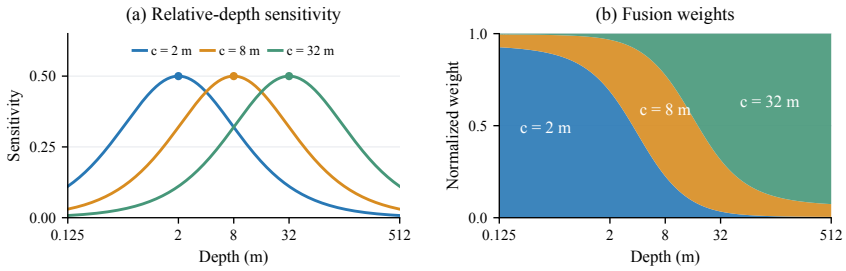


Figure 16: **MMDC sensitivity and fusion.** (a) Channel sensitivity. (b) Normalized fusion weights. Both are evaluated on noiseless encoded depths.

B.2 Fusion weights

We use the sensitivity analysis to derive a local approximation to the fusion weights. At one pixel, assume small, independent, zero-mean encoding errors with equal variance σ^2: $\hat{Y}_i = Y_i + \varepsilon_i$. Away from the clipping boundaries, equation 8 gives

$$v_i \equiv \mathrm{Var}\left(\frac{\hat{d}_i - d}{d}\right) \approx \frac{\sigma^2}{s_i(d)^2} = \frac{4\sigma^2}{(1 - Y_i^2)^2}. \tag{9}$$

For a weighted estimate $\hat{d} = \sum_i a_i \hat{d}_i$, with $\sum_i a_i = 1$, the relative-error variance is approximately $\sum_i a_i^2 v_i$. Minimizing it yields inverse-variance weights:

$$a_i = \frac{v_i^{-1}}{\sum_j v_j^{-1}}, \qquad w_i \propto s_i(d)^2 \propto (1 - Y_i^2)^2. \tag{10}$$

Channels with higher sensitivity receive greater weight (Figure 16b). In practice, we substitute the clipped predictions $\hat{Y}_i$ for the unknown noiseless values Y_i, giving equation 3. This motivates the decoder as a first-order approximation under the stated noise assumptions, rather than an exact optimum for arbitrary generation errors.

B.3 Implementation details

Depths and pivots are expressed in metres. The reference implementation marks positive depths as valid and intersects them with an optional validity mask; invalid entries are filled with zero, with the mask retained separately. Before inversion, predicted channels are clipped to $[-1 + 10^{-4}, 1 - 10^{-4}]$. Fusion weights are floored at 10^{-12}, and the decoded depth has a configurable upper bound of 10^4 m by default. These operations keep the inverse and weighted average numerically well-defined near saturation.

C Details of Adaptive Interleaved Reasoning

Pilot evaluation protocols. Both pilot studies report ordinary (non-circular) accuracy. Figure 3 compares separately trained Direct and Always-generate checkpoints. Within each task, both datasets use five fixed relative-gap bins, drawn at equal spacing. Depth bins start at 0.10, 0.16, 0.25, 0.40, and 0.55; distance bins at 0.10, 0.25, 0.40, 0.60, and 0.80. Intervals are left-closed and right-open, except that the last includes 1.00. Bins with fewer than ten questions are shaded and their estimates omitted; bands are pointwise 95% Wilson intervals.

In Figure 4b, we rank the 800 3DCueBench questions by generation probability (descending), or by the ground-truth relative gap (ascending), and use generated answers for the top fraction and direct answers for the remainder. We report the fraction of the always-generate gain retained,

$$\frac{\mathrm{Acc} - \mathrm{Acc}_{\mathrm{direct}}}{\mathrm{Acc}_{\mathrm{always}} - \mathrm{Acc}_{\mathrm{direct}}}.$$

Direct and generated answers come from the same checkpoint within each curve; the before-answer and draft-conditioned policies use different checkpoints and supervised training. Ties are averaged under uniform random ordering. Random selection follows the diagonal in expectation. Figure 4c plots generation rates during RL with reward $c - \lambda a$. Each update uses 16 questions; the plotted rates use an exponential moving average over questions with smoothing factor 0.97. The proposed policy uses the 1500-step supervised initialization, and its forced-generation rollouts are excluded from the plotted rate. The before-answer and draft-conditioned settings differ in model, training questions, and credit assignment; this comparison does not isolate decision position alone.

Pilot analysis of the before-answer policy. The before-answer policy is trained on a format in which the decision token follows a short, largely templated reasoning preamble and both branches are supervised with equal frequency; the before-answer results in Fig. 4b and c use this policy. Its generation probability took two values across the 800 3DCueBench questions (0.469 and 0.500), and the resulting gate was 0.6 points above a random gate at the same generation rate. Hidden states at the decision token were nearly identical across questions (median pairwise cosine 0.998), and a linear probe predicting whether depth helps reached an AUC of 0.536, compared with 0.513 for shuffled labels. With symmetric supervision, the maximum-likelihood gate is a constant. Under reinforcement learning (Fig. 4c), $\lambda = 0$ drove the final generation rate to 0.96, and $\lambda \in \{0.05, 0.07, 0.1\}$ to at most 0.005; evaluated accuracy followed the random-gate line (residual standard deviation 0.025, below the per-point standard error of 0.05). In these runs, changing the cost mainly changes the overall generation rate, without producing an effective question-selection policy. Ranking by the ground-truth gap in Fig. 4b uses the draft-conditioned policy's outcomes; each curve is normalized by its own policy's direct and always-generate accuracies (before-answer 82.5% and 90.0%, draft-conditioned 81.0% and 91.1%).

Advantage scale. Standard GSPO (Zheng et al., 2025) divides by the within-group standard deviation s_r (Eq. equation 5). With a generation cost, this normalization removes the magnitude of λ in a second way. In a group where every rollout answers correctly but only some generate, $r_i = 1 - \lambda a_i$ and

$$A_i^{\mathrm{group}} = \frac{-\lambda(a_i - \bar{a})}{\lambda s_a + \epsilon} \approx -\frac{a_i - \bar{a}}{s_a},$$

where s_a is the standard deviation of a_i within the group. Any $\lambda > 0$ then yields the same full-magnitude advantage against generating, whereas in groups whose correctness varies the cost only shifts the advantages by λ/s_r. Because all-correct groups are frequent, this term dominates the decision's update. We therefore divide all advantages by a constant $s = 0.5$, the standard deviation of a Bernoulli variable with mean 0.5. Every advantage is then linear in λ, and groups whose rewards differ only by the cost receive proportionally small updates.

Failure of trajectory-level advantages. With one group-normalized advantage per trajectory, $A_i = (r_i - \bar{r})/s$, consider a group in which every rollout generates. Then $r_i = c_i - \lambda$ for all i, so $A_i = (c_i - \bar{c})/s$ does not depend on λ: the cost no longer pushes the decision, whose update reflects only which generating rollouts happened to answer correctly. Once the policy generates on nearly every rollout, nothing pushes it to stop. In addition, a rollout that generates although its

draft was already correct receives a positive advantage whenever $\bar{r} < 1 - \lambda$, and wrong draft tokens share the positive advantage when depth corrects them. In our first runs with this objective (500-step initialization), the generation rate rose from 0.64 to 0.99 within about ten updates for $\lambda = 0.05$, and drafts drifted (18 of 63 drafts without an answer letter after eight updates, versus 7 of 64 at the start).

Segment-wise advantages. Each trajectory is split into four segments: grounding tokens (localization), draft tokens (from "My initial answer without depth:" through <DECIDE>), the decision token, and execution tokens (depth request, geometric queries, final answer). With G rollouts of one question, let $\mathcal{D}$ be the rollouts that generated and $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{D}$ those forced to generate.

- Grounding tokens: $c_i - \bar{c}_{\mathcal{D}}$ for $i \in \mathcal{D}$ and 0 otherwise.
- Draft tokens: 0, so that reinforcement learning does not sharpen the draft confidence the decision reads; in the supervised stage, the draft answer also receives no loss.
- Decision token: equation 7 for $i \notin \mathcal{F}$ and 0 for $i \in \mathcal{F}$. $\widehat{Q}_{\text{gen},i}$ is the mean correctness of forced rollouts with the same draft correctness as rollout i, falling back to all forced rollouts if that cell is empty. For exact conditional branch values, $Q_{\text{dir},i} = c_{d,i}$ and $V_i = p_i(Q_{\text{gen},i} - \lambda) + (1 - p_i)Q_{\text{dir},i}$ yield the two action advantages in equation 7. Their expected unclipped score-function update is $p_i(1-p_i)(Q_{\text{gen},i} - \lambda - c_{d,i})$ with respect to the decision logit. In practice, the pooled forced rollouts approximate the conditional generation value. They are selected uniformly at random to avoid relying only on rollouts whose policy chose generation; grouping by draft correctness does not guarantee an unbiased estimate for every distinct reasoning prefix. p_i is read from the sampled token's log-probability; the two action tokens carry at least 99.6% of the probability mass at the decision token.
- Execution tokens: $c_i - \bar{c}_{\mathcal{D}}$ for $i \in \mathcal{D}$; for direct rollouts the final answer equals the draft and the advantage is 0.

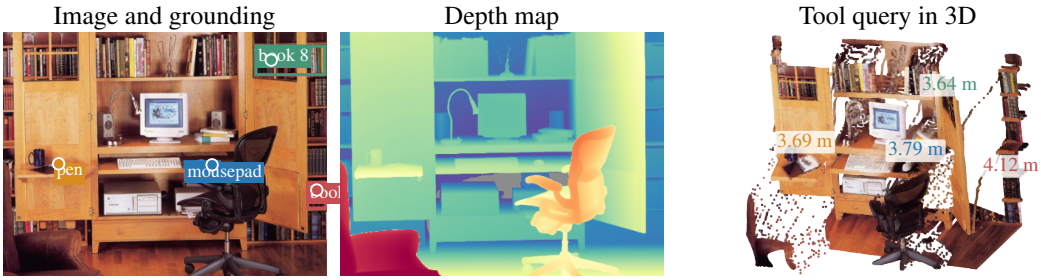
All advantages are divided by a constant scale of 0.5. The policy loss uses clipped sequence-level importance ratios (Zheng et al., 2025), one per segment, with each segment weighted by its token count.

Draft-conditioned supervised data. Supervised sequences are built from comparison questions generated by our data engine on COCO (Lin et al., 2014) and ADE20K (Zhou et al., 2017) images with DA3 (Lin et al., 2025) depth. Drafts come from an intermediate checkpoint of the same before-answer training run, which also initializes the draft-conditioned supervised stage. For each question, we feed the image, the question, and the reasoning prefix of the training sequence followed by "My initial answer without depth:", and take the option letter with the highest next-token probability. Drafts thus reflect the beliefs of the model that supervised training starts from, and greedy selection matches greedy decoding at inference. Drafts are wrong on about 22% of the questions. Each question yields up to three sequences sharing the prefix up to <DECIDE> (Fig. 17): (i) a correct draft answered directly; (ii) a correct draft followed by depth generation, geometric queries, and the answer; and (iii) a wrong draft followed by depth generation and the correct answer. Draft tokens receive no loss. The decision token is supervised only in (i), as stopping, and in (iii), as generating; in (ii) it is masked, so that sequences with identical context do not pull it toward 0.5, while the rest of (ii) teaches how to use depth. A wrong draft is never answered directly, and generation follows both correct and wrong drafts, so that generating does not simply mean changing the answer. Keeping one quarter of the direct sequences balances the supervised decisions. After removing near ties (relative gap below 5%), the set contains 262K questions and 312K sequences.

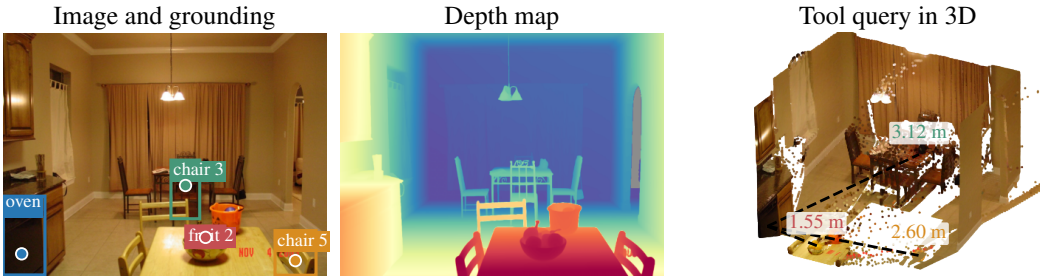
Reinforcement-learning training questions. Reinforcement learning uses questions generated by our data engine on ScanNet++ (Yeshwanth et al., 2023) (indoor) and nuScenes (Caesar et al., 2020) (outdoor) images. Labels come from sensor depth measured on object surfaces rather than box centers. We remove questions that name annotation artifacts or large structural surfaces (walls, floors, ceilings, doors, windows), whose distance is ill-defined. For object-to-object questions, we keep only those where 2D cues, such as image-plane distances between objects, point to a wrong answer; object-to-camera questions are kept regardless. We keep at most two questions per image, preferring those with the most misleading 2D cues within each question type, and sample a pool balanced between indoor and outdoor scenes and across question types, split by image into training



(a) *Which object is closer to the camera, the laptop 2 or the person?*
To answer this, I need each object's metric distance from the camera. [boxes and points] My initial answer without depth: A. laptop 2 <DECIDE></think> A. laptop 2



(b) *Which one is farthest from the camera: the mousepad, the pen, the book 8, or the book 12?*
To answer this, I need each object's metric distance from the camera. [boxes and points] My initial answer without depth: C. book 8 <DECIDE><GENERATE_DEPTH> [depth map] [query the depths of the four objects: 3.79 m, 3.69 m, 3.64 m, 4.12 m] The book 12 is farthest from the camera. </think> D. book 12



(c) *Which of these is closest to the oven: the fruit 2, the chair 3, or the chair 5?*
To answer this, I need the 3D distance from the anchor to each candidate. [boxes and points] My initial answer without depth: C. chair 5 <DECIDE><GENERATE_DEPTH> [depth map] [query distances from the oven: chair 5, 2.60 m; chair 3, 3.12 m; fruit 2, 1.55 m] The fruit 2 is closest to the oven. </think> A. fruit 2

Figure 17: **Training sequences of the draft-then-decide format.** (a) A confident, correct draft answered directly (form (i)). (b, c) Wrong drafts checked with depth (form (iii)) for a camera-depth and an object-to-object question. Panels show the image with the queried boxes and points, the depth map the model learns to generate, and the query in 3D: the depth map is back-projected with the camera intrinsics, and markers show the positions returned by the geometric query, labeled with their depths (b) or distances to the anchor (c). The draft answer after "My initial answer without depth:" receives no loss; geometric queries and their results are summarized in brackets.

and validation. The 800 training questions contain one question per image and are balanced across the two sources, four question types, nearer versus farther targets, and answer letters.

Training setup. The draft-conditioned supervised stage trains for 3000 steps. The policy is initialized from its 1500-step checkpoint, which has the most accurate drafts among 500–3000 steps. We train LoRA (Hu et al., 2022) adapters (rank 32) on the language model with learning rate 5×10^{-5}, 16 rollouts per question of which 4 are forced to generate, and 16 questions per update, for one epoch over the 800 questions (50 updates).

D DATA

Table 6 summarizes the sources of instruction data used for different tasks. Below, we outline the data processing details for specific tasks.

Task	Data sources
Relative depth estimation	Hypersim (Roberts et al., 2021), VirtualKitti (Cabon et al., 2020), UrbanSyn (Gómez et al., 2025), UnrealStereo4K (Tosi et al., 2021), Structured3D (Zheng et al., 2020), Spring (Mehl et al., 2023), MidAir (Fonder & Van Droogenbroeck, 2019), MatrixCity (Li et al., 2023), IRS (Wang et al., 2021), GTA-SfM (Doan et al., 2018), EDEN (Le et al., 2021), DynamicReplica (Karaev et al., 2023), Bedlam (Black et al., 2023), MVS-Synth (Huang et al., 2018)
Metric depth estimation	Scannet++ (Yeshwanth et al., 2023), Matterport3D (Chang et al., 2017), Arkitscenes (Baruch et al., 2021), Taskonomy (Zamir et al., 2018), Wildrgbd (Xia et al., 2024), Cityscapes (Cordts et al., 2016), Waymo (Sun et al., 2020), AgiBotWorld (Bu et al., 2025)
Multi-view generation	RealEstate-10K (Zhou et al., 2018), DL3DV-10K (Ling et al., 2024)
Exo-to-ego generation	Ego-Exo4D (Grauman et al., 2024)
Visual instruction following	LLaVA-OneVision (Li et al., 2024), VST (Yang et al., 2025a)

Table 6: Data source statistics.

D.1 Metric Depth Data

Real Data Refinement. Real training data for the metric depth estimation are commonly derived from either LiDAR scans or Structure-from-Motion (SfM) reconstructions: LiDAR suffers from sensor–camera synchronization errors that corrupt depth along object boundaries, while SfM fails on reflective surfaces, thin structures, and sharp discontinuities, leaving holes or oversmoothed regions. A depth estimator trained on synthetic data avoids both issues—color and depth are exactly registered by construction and fine local geometry is preserved—but it predicts relative depth only up to an unknown affine transform. We therefore use such a relative depth estimator (Lin et al., 2025) as a teacher and treat its output as a dense pseudo label that repairs the real measurement, after first removing this affine ambiguity.

Concretely, we fit a single scale a and shift b that take the relative depth $\tilde{D}$ into the metric frame of the real depth D. Let $m_i \in \{0, 1\}$ be a validity mask indicating which pixels carry a usable real measurement. The two scalars are determined by a masked least-squares fit,

$$(\hat{a}, \hat{b}) \;=\; \arg\min_{a,\,b} \sum_{i=1}^{N} m_i \left(a\,\tilde{D}_i + b - D_i\right)^2, \qquad \hat{D} \;\triangleq\; \hat{a}\,\tilde{D} + \hat{b}, \tag{11}$$

which has a unique closed-form solution as long as the valid pixels span more than one depth value. The aligned depth $\hat{D}$ matches the metric scale of D on the supervised pixels while inheriting the dense, sharp geometry of the relative depth estimator, and it is $\hat{D}$ that enters our subsequent training objectives.

D.2 Multi-view Data

Instruction–View Alignment. Camera-motion instructions should describe the transformation between the source and target views. An instruction that specifies only rotation can omit translation present in the paired images. For example, the SpatialEdit pair in Figure 19 is labeled as *Pan Left*, although the camera also undergoes *Truck Right*. The original BAGEL shows the same inconsistency at generation time: Figure 20 shows an output that rotates right and shifts sideways when a left rotation is requested. We hypothesize that such misaligned pairs in existing training data contribute to this failure, since they associate the stated motion with visual changes caused by a different transformation. We therefore construct instructions from camera poses so that they account for both rotation and translation. Figure 21 shows the resulting training pairs.

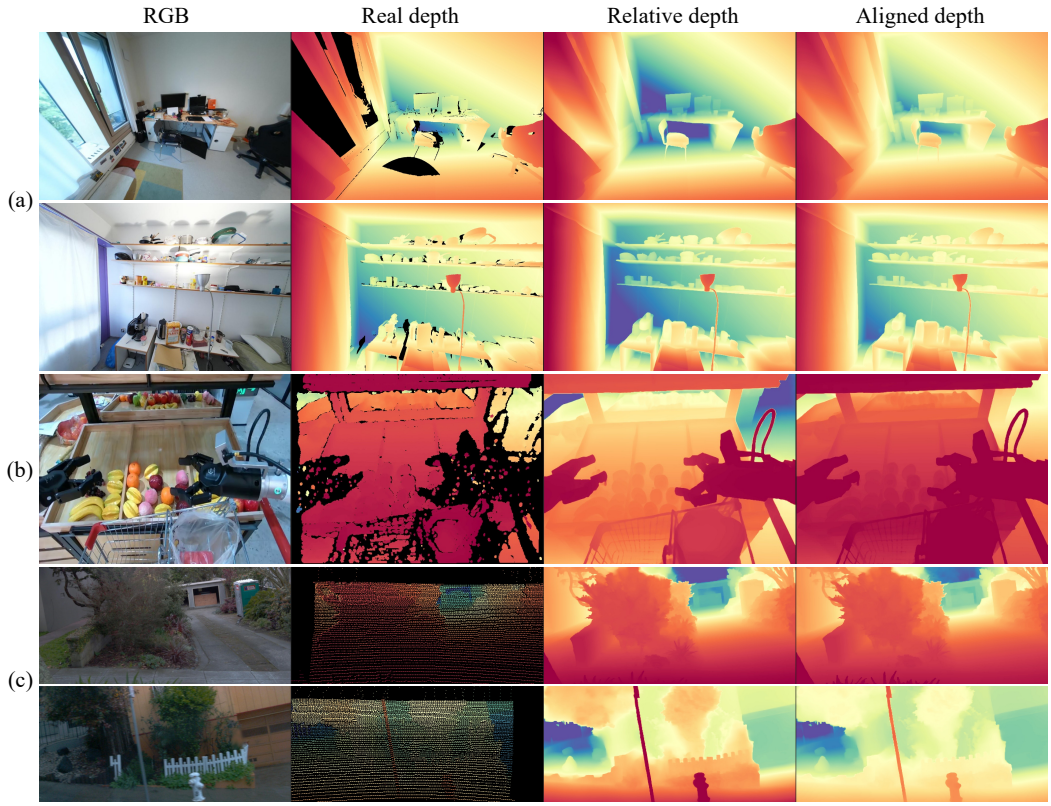


Figure 18: **Relative-to-metric depth alignment.** (a) ScanNet++ (Yeshwanth et al., 2023); (b) AgiBotWorld (Bu et al., 2025); (c) Waymo (Sun et al., 2020).



Figure 19: **SpatialEdit instruction examples** (Xiao et al., 2026). Translation is omitted from the camera instructions.

Scale Unification. Since the camera poses in RealEstate10K (Zhou et al., 2018) and DL3DV (Ling et al., 2024) are extracted using SfM-like methods, they inherently lack a consistent physical metric scale. This scale ambiguity prevents us from directly mapping camera translations to text instructions.



Instruction: "rotate the camera left 30 degrees"

Figure 20: **Instruction misalignment.** Asked to rotate left by 30°, BAGEL instead rotates the camera about 21° right and moves it about 1 m left. BEV: input (black), instructed (blue), and generated (red) cameras.



Figure 21: **Our multi-view samples.** Instructions describe both rotation and translation after scale unification.

For example, "move forward by 1 meter" could equal 1 unit in one scene but 10 units in another scene. To address this inconsistency, we re-estimate all camera poses using DA3 (Lin et al., 2025) to unify the scale information. Thus, for a video, we get the world-to-camera poses: $\{P_i = (R_i, t_i)\}_{i=1}^{N}$.

Instruction Construction. Our pose-based data engine expresses relative motion in the source camera's coordinate frame and uses its rotation and translation to construct the instruction. Each training example consists of a source image, the resulting motion instruction, and the paired target image. Given a video paired with the camera poses, we label every short segment of a clip with a few words from a simple vocabulary *Dolly / Truck / Pedestal / Pan / Tilt / Roll* (each signed), plus *Stay* for near-static cases. The motion between frames a and b, written in camera-a's local frame, is

$$\mathbf{d}_{ab} = R_a(c_b - c_a), \quad \boldsymbol{\omega}_{ab} = \mathrm{Euler}_{yxz}(R_b R_a^{\top}), \quad c_k = -R_k^{\top} t_k; \tag{12}$$

each component is thresholded to decide whether a given atomic motion fires (e.g. a sufficiently positive d_z triggers *Dolly In*).

A single frame gap is brittle: short gaps are dominated by pose noise, long ones blur neighbouring motions. We therefore smooth the trajectory with a quaternion-aware EMA (flipping the sign to stay on the shorter arc) and repeat the atomic extraction over a grid $(\Delta, \alpha) \in \mathcal{G}$ of gaps and smoothing strengths, with thresholds rescaled by $\sqrt{\Delta}$ so that every scale contributes comparable votes. For each unit interval we pool these votes, drop the loser of any opposite pair (e.g. *Pan Left*/*Right*), and keep the top label alone if it leads by $3\times$, otherwise every label within half of the leader, capped at four.

Neighbouring intervals with identical labels are merged into segments $[a, b)$; to obtain multi-scale supervision we further enumerate every sub-interval inside each segment. For each one we recompute the exact magnitudes $\mathbf{m}$ from the *unsmoothed* poses and project them onto the voted labels (e.g. the magnitude of *Dolly In* is simply d_z). Three light filters then clean the result: a *consistency* check removes labels whose recomputed direction contradicts the vote, an *absolute* check drops per-frame magnitudes below the sensor-noise level, and a *relative* check, applied separately to translation and rotation, discards secondary motions weaker than ρ times the dominant one. Segments whose strongest motion still falls below a global cut-off are dropped entirely, leaving the final supervision $\{([a, b), \mathcal{Y}, \mathbf{m})\}$ summarized in Algorithm 1.

We sub-sample with stride $s_0 = 3$ and set $\mathcal{G} = \{1, 3, 5\} \times \{0.03, 0.05, 0.1\}$, $(\tau_t, \tau_r) = (0.01, 1.5^\circ)$, $(\tau_t^{\text{abs}}, \tau_r^{\text{abs}}) = (0.006, 0.35^\circ)$, $\rho = 0.3$, and $(\tau_t^{\min}, \tau_r^{\min}) = (0.01, 1.5^\circ)$; rotation thresholds further carry a scaling constant $\kappa = 1.8$.

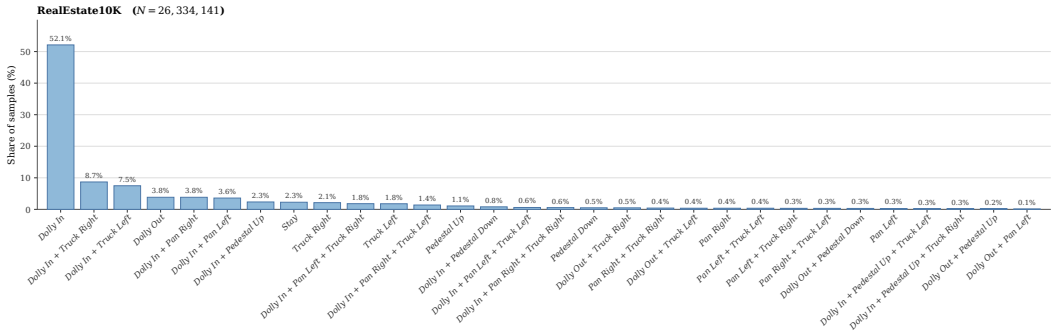
Instruction Distribution. We converted the data from RealEstate-10K (Zhou et al., 2018) and DL3DV (Ling et al., 2024) into camera instructions and observed noticeable biases in their distributions, as shown in Figure 22. For instance, the dominant instruction in RealEstate-10K is *Dolly In*, since this dataset consists of human-recorded YouTube videos. In contrast, DL3DV is dominated by *Pan* and *Truck*. This is because DL3DV is designed for 3D reconstruction, which typically involves moving the camera around a central object.

To address this issue, we sample the data to maintain a balanced distribution across different instructions. Additionally, we noticed that combined camera motions are much more frequent than single camera motions. Therefore, we resampled the single-motion data to train our model using a

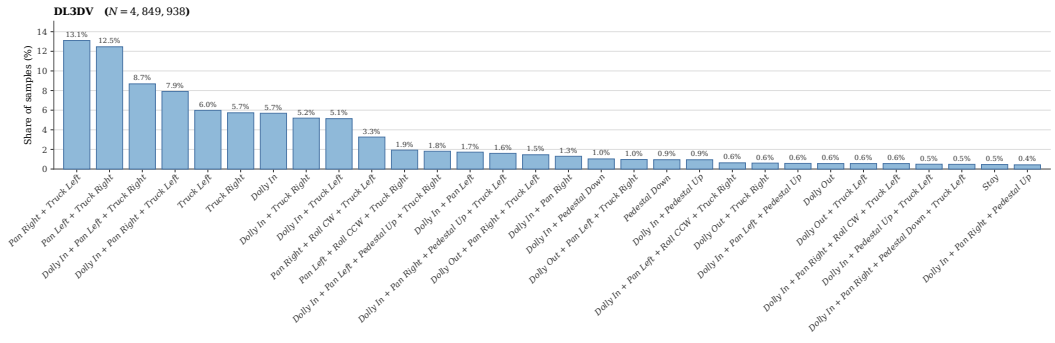
Algorithm 1: Pose → Instruction

Input: Poses $\{P_i\}$; grid $\mathcal{G}$; thresholds $\tau, \tau^{\text{abs}}, \rho, \tau^{\min}$
Output: Labeled segments $\mathcal{S} = \{([a, b), \mathcal{Y}, \mathbf{m})\}$

$P^\star \leftarrow \text{QuatEMA}(P; \alpha_0)$ `// reference trajectory`
foreach $(\Delta, \alpha) \in \mathcal{G}$ **do** $L^{\Delta,\alpha} \leftarrow \text{Thresh}\Big(\Delta\text{Pose}(\text{QuatEMA}(P; \alpha), \Delta);\ \tau\sqrt{\Delta}\Big)$
$\{y_i\} \leftarrow \text{TopK} \circ \text{Mutex} \circ \text{Vote}\Big(\bigcup_{\Delta,\alpha} L^{\Delta,\alpha}\Big)$
$\{[a_k, b_k), \mathcal{Y}_k\} \leftarrow \text{Merge}(\{y_i\})$
foreach *sub-interval* $[a, b) \subseteq [a_k, b_k)$ **do**
  $\mathbf{m} \leftarrow \text{Project}(\Delta\text{Pose}(P^\star_a, P^\star_b),\ \mathcal{Y}_k)$
  $\mathcal{Y} \leftarrow \text{Filter}_{\text{cons}\wedge\text{abs}\wedge\text{rel}}\big(\mathcal{Y}_k, \mathbf{m}; \tau^{\text{abs}}, \rho\big)$
  if $\mathcal{Y} \neq \emptyset \ \wedge\ \max|\mathbf{m}| \geq \tau^{\min}$ **then** $\mathcal{S} \leftarrow \mathcal{S} \cup \{([a, b), \mathcal{Y}, \mathbf{m})\}$
end
return $\mathcal{S}$



(a) Camera instruction distribution of RealEstate-10K (Zhou et al., 2018)



(b) Camera instruction distribution of DL3DV (Ling et al., 2024)

Figure 22: Camera instruction distribution in RealEstate-10K (Zhou et al., 2018) and DL3DV (Ling et al., 2024) dataset.

curriculum learning strategy. Specifically, we first train the model to learn single camera motions before introducing combined motions.

D.3 Exo-to-Ego Generation Data

Exo-to-ego generation is a form of multi-view generation that requires perspective taking: the target viewpoint is specified by another observer in the scene rather than by a camera-motion instruction, and the model must imagine what that observer sees. We build exo-to-ego pairs from Ego-Exo4D (Grauman et al., 2024), which records each take with static third-person (exo) cameras and a head-mounted first-person (ego) camera. Each pair consists of an exo frame and the ego frame captured at the same time step. A VLM describes the camera wearer in the exo frame, including appearance, action, and surroundings, and turns the description into an instruction that asks for that

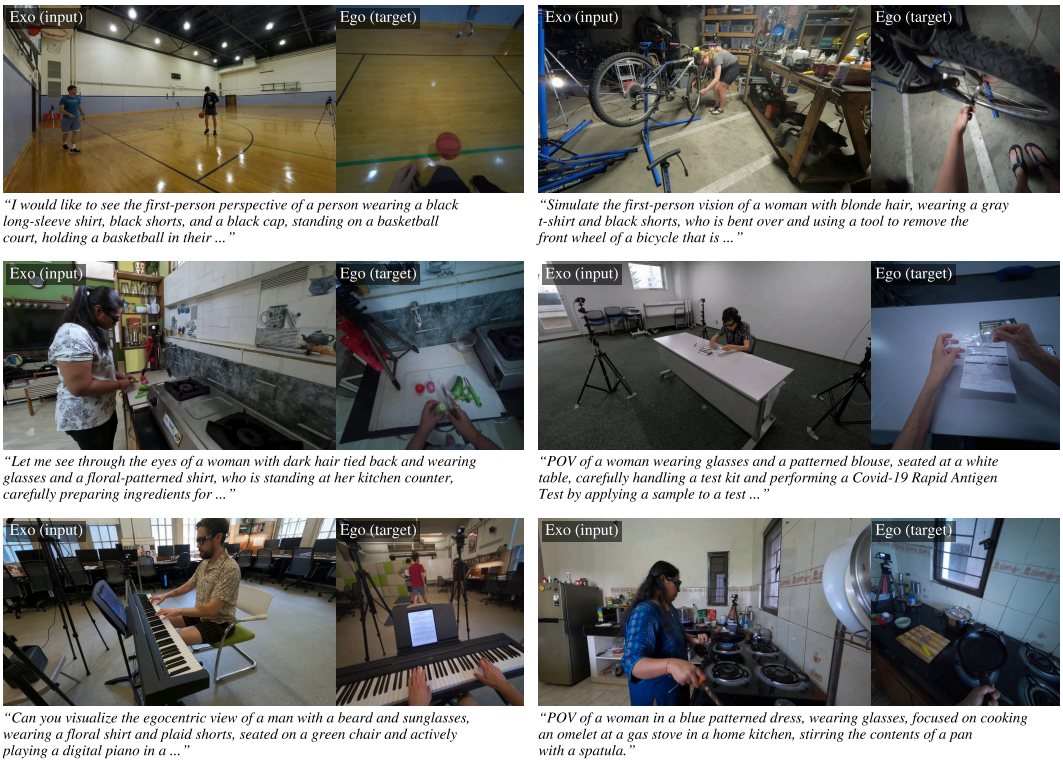


Figure 23: **Exo-to-ego training pairs.** Each pair shows the exo input and the synchronized ego target from Ego-Exo4D (Grauman et al., 2024); the instruction below each pair is truncated.

person's first-person view. We remove pairs whose instruction contains unparsed VLM output, leaked templates, or references to markers that are not drawn on the image. The resulting set contains 171,558 pairs covering sports, bike repair, cooking, health care, music, and dance. The ego target is resized to 512×512. Figure 23 shows examples.

The task requires the model to locate the described person in the exo view, infer where that person is looking, and render the scene from the new viewpoint. The ego target therefore contains the objects in front of the person, often at a large viewpoint change from the exo camera, rather than the person themselves.

E Benchmark

E.1 Multi-view and Exo-to-Ego Generation

Multi-view generation. The benchmark contains 1,500 pairs, 500 each from RealEstate-10K (Zhou et al., 2018), DL3DV (Ling et al., 2024), and ScanNet++ (Yeshwanth et al., 2023). Each pair consists of a source view, a target view, and a camera-motion instruction built from the relative pose of the two views with the procedure of Appendix D.2, for example "Move the camera forward 1.81 m and rotate the camera left 36 degrees". The model generates the target view from the source view and the instruction.

Exo-to-ego generation. The benchmark contains 469 pairs from Ego-Exo4D (Grauman et al., 2024). Each pair consists of an exo frame, the synchronized ego frame, and an instruction of the form "Show me the ego view of ⟨person description⟩". The model generates the 512×512 ego view.

Metrics. We compare each generated image with the ground-truth target using PSNR, SSIM, and LPIPS (Zhang et al., 2018) with an AlexNet backbone. Generated images are resized to the target resolution before scoring. Generation uses 50 denoising steps with the default classifier-free guidance of BAGEL (Deng et al., 2025) (text scale 4.0, image scale 2.0).

Tables 7 and 8 compare the original BAGEL with our models, which are the same models shown in Figures 8 and 9. On multi-view generation, our model improves all three metrics on every source, with the largest gain on RealEstate-10K (+1.25 dB PSNR, -0.071 LPIPS). On exo-to-ego generation, BAGEL scores much lower (7.75 dB PSNR), consistent with its tendency to depict the described person rather than that person's view (Figure 9). Our model raises PSNR to 12.41 dB and lowers LPIPS from 0.839 to 0.670. These pixel and perceptual metrics reward matching the exact target view, and absolute values remain low because a single source image and instruction do not fully determine the target.

Table 7: **Multi-view generation benchmark.** PSNR (dB), SSIM, and LPIPS between generated and ground-truth target views; the number of pairs is given in parentheses.

	RealEstate-10K (500)			DL3DV (500)			ScanNet++ (500)			All (1,500)		
Model	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓
BAGEL	13.68	0.411	0.463	12.05	0.317	0.580	13.75	0.700	0.518	13.16	0.476	0.520
Ours	**14.93**	**0.452**	**0.392**	**12.41**	**0.321**	**0.543**	**14.22**	**0.712**	**0.497**	**13.85**	**0.495**	**0.477**

Table 8: **Exo-to-ego generation benchmark.** PSNR (dB), SSIM, and LPIPS between generated and ground-truth ego views on 469 Ego-Exo4D pairs.

Model	PSNR↑	SSIM↑	LPIPS↓
BAGEL	7.75	0.312	0.839
Ours	**12.41**	**0.398**	**0.670**

E.2 3DCueBench

Section 4.1 introduces the tasks and cue-balancing design. Here we provide construction details, audit procedures, and supplementary results.

E.2.1 Data and question format

The benchmark contains 400 Depth and 400 Distance questions from ten datasets (Table 9). The two tasks are sampled, balanced, and audited independently. Each question has two answer options; objects are identified by a short model-generated description and a point in the question text. Coordinates are normalized so that the image's longer side spans 0–1000. Distance questions identify the anchor in the same format. Images supplied to models contain no added target markers; the markers in the figures are for illustration only. Figure 24 shows the question template and one question per gap interval for each task.

Table 9: **3DCueBench sources.** Domains follow the indoor/outdoor balancing assignment.

Domain	Datasets
Indoor	CA-1M (Lazarow et al., 2025), ScanNet++ (Yeshwanth et al., 2023), Hypersim (Roberts et al., 2021), iBims (Koch et al., 2018), Booster (Ramirez et al., 2022), HAMMER (Jung et al., 2023)
Outdoor	nuScenes (Caesar et al., 2020), WildDet3D (Huang et al., 2026) (in-the-wild, spans both), Waymo (Sun et al., 2020), SYNS (Adams et al., 2016)

E.2.2 Sampling and cue selection

Gap intervals. Using the relative gap g defined in Equation 4, we sample four intervals: $[0.10, 0.16)$, $[0.16, 0.25)$, $[0.25, 0.40)$, and $[0.40, 1]$. Each interval contains 100 Depth and 100 Distance questions, with equal indoor and outdoor representation within each task.

Ground-truth sensitivity. The lower cutoff avoids comparisons at which different depth definitions frequently disagree. We compare the 3D box-center depth with the 10th percentile and median of depth within the instance mask. In the smallest-gap CA-1M group, all three definitions agree on 44.7% of pairs, while the two surface-based definitions agree on 75.7%. These discrepancies indicate sensitivity to the depth convention; they do not by themselves establish which convention gives the correct label.

Consider the relationship in the 3D world. Which is closer to ⟨*target*⟩?
(A) ⟨*object A*⟩ (represented by the point <point>⟨*x*⟩ ⟨*y*⟩</point>)
(B) ⟨*object B*⟩ (represented by the point <point>⟨*x*⟩ ⟨*y*⟩</point>)
Please select the correct answer from the options above.

Depth: ⟨*target*⟩ = the camera.
Distance: ⟨*target*⟩ = ⟨*anchor*⟩ (represented by the point <point>⟨*x*⟩ ⟨*y*⟩</point>).

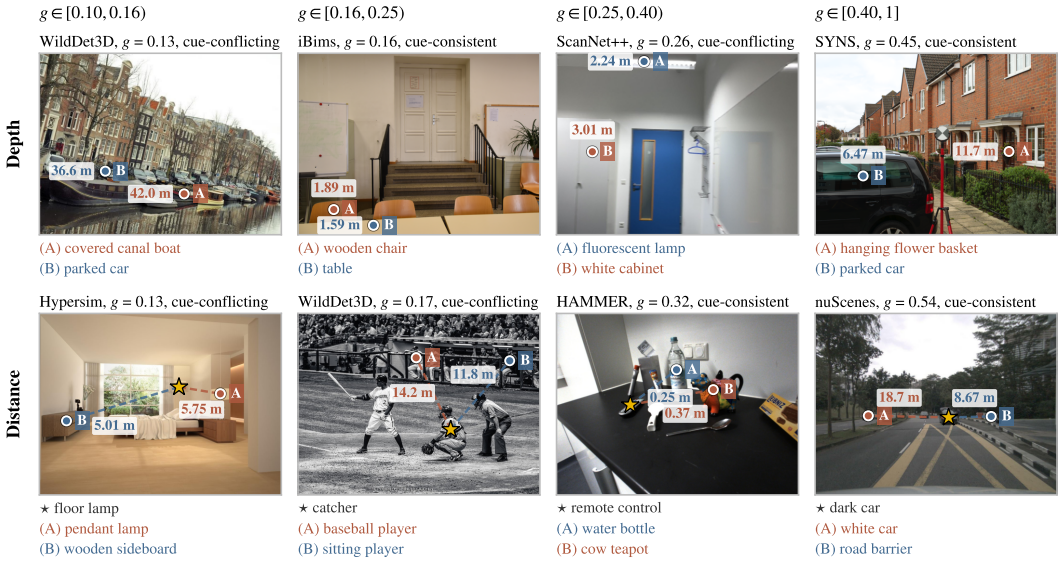


Figure 24: **3DCueBench examples.** Top: the question template shared by all questions; (x, y) are point coordinates normalized so that the longer image side spans 0–1000, and the image is supplied without marks. Bottom: one question per gap interval for each task. Under each image, ⋆ gives ⟨*anchor*⟩ and (A)/(B) give ⟨*object A*⟩/⟨*object B*⟩; the correct option is shown in blue. Numbers in the images are ground-truth camera depths (Depth) or 3D distances to the anchor (Distance).

Cue signatures and pairing. We retain candidates only when the selected task-specific 2D rules agree with one another. Each retained question is therefore *cue-consistent* (all selected rules favor the answer) or *cue-conflicting* (all favor the other option). We pair the two types within the same source and gap interval, preserving the balance within each source and domain. Depth cues use vertical image-plane relationships, including box-bottom height; Distance cues use image-plane proximity to the anchor. The point-coordinate relation used in the qualitative analysis below is reported separately from the box-based cue signature.

E.2.3 CV-Bench-3D audit

The rule accuracies in Figure 5(c) are computed from the bounding boxes and answer labels of 600 Depth and 600 Distance questions of CV-Bench-3D (Tong et al., 2024a). For Depth, the rule selects the object with the larger box-bottom y coordinate; for Distance, it selects the candidate whose box center has the smaller Euclidean image-plane distance to the anchor's box center. These are deterministic rule predictions, not VLM outputs.

For the difficulty audit, we match the question boxes to Omni3D test annotations (Brazil et al., 2023) from Hypersim (Roberts et al., 2021), SUN RGB-D (Song et al., 2015), and nuScenes (Caesar et al., 2020) by minimizing the sum of absolute differences between box coordinates within each source image. Camera-space box centers provide the depths and anchor distances used to compute g. None of the 1,200 questions has $g < 0.16$; median gaps are 0.49 for Depth and 0.76 for Distance, and 75% and 98.8%, respectively, fall in $g \geq 0.40$.

Table 10: **3DCueBench results** of Seed-2.0-Lite (ByteDance Seed, 2026) and GPT-5.5 (OpenAI, 2026). Ordinary accuracy (%) by gap interval and cue group. All: all questions of the task; agr.: agreement with the selected 2D rule. Twelve unparseable GPT-5.5 answers are excluded.

		accuracy by interval of g					cue group		rule
Model	Task	$[0.10, 0.16)$	$[0.16, 0.25)$	$[0.25, 0.40)$	$[0.40, 1]$	all	Consistent	Conflicting	agr.
Seed-2.0-Lite	Depth	75.0	88.0	94.0	95.0	88.0	92.5	83.5	54.5
Seed-2.0-Lite	Distance	56.0	54.0	69.0	79.0	**64.5**	92.0	**37.0**	**77.5**
GPT-5.5	Depth	62.6	70.4	87.9	90.9	78.0	86.2	69.8	58.2
GPT-5.5	Distance	62.0	59.2	66.3	71.1	**64.6**	93.4	**35.7**	**78.8**

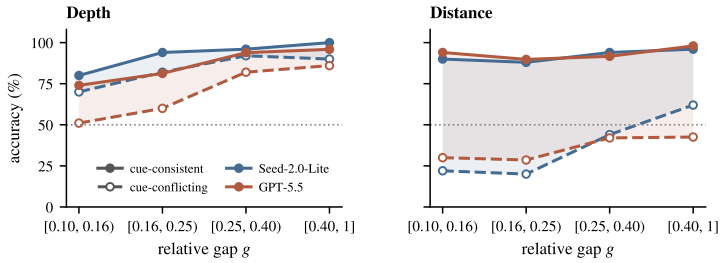


Figure 25: **Sensitivity to 2D cues.** Ordinary (non-circular) accuracy of Seed-2.0-Lite and GPT-5.5 on cue-consistent (solid) and cue-conflicting (dashed) questions in each gap interval. Shading spans the difference for each model; the dotted line marks chance.

E.2.4 Blind-text audit

To test for residual cues in the question text, we evaluate Qwen2.5-VL-7B (Bai et al., 2025b) without image inputs and Qwen2.5-7B-Instruct (Qwen Team, 2024) on both option orders. Their accuracies range from 48.9% to 50.4%. On Distance, their predictions agree with the coordinate-proximity rule on 99.6% and 100.0% of examples, respectively. Gradient-boosted trees over numeric question fields achieve 56.1% on Depth and 53.5% on Distance under scene-level cross-validation. We keep scenes disjoint across the probe's training and evaluation folds: splitting by image instead inflates accuracy by 5.5 percentage points. These probe results measure residual text-only predictability rather than an upper bound on all possible shortcuts.

E.2.5 Results and failure analysis

We report supplementary results for Seed-2.0-Lite (ByteDance Seed, 2026) and GPT-5.5 (OpenAI, 2026) in Table 10. These use ordinary accuracy, rather than the question-level circular accuracy in Table 1. Depth accuracy decreases as the relative gap shrinks, reaching 75.0% and 62.6% in the hardest interval. Distance accuracy is lower overall and varies less consistently with the gap.

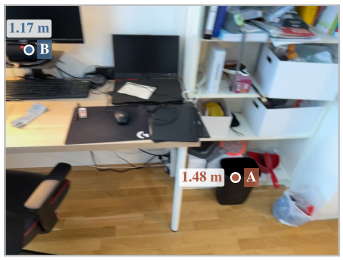
GPT-5.5 uses the `gpt-5.5-2026-04-24` version. Excluding its 12 unparseable answers can change the evaluated interval sizes from the balanced construction.

Performance by cue group. On Distance, both models reach at least 92% on cue-consistent questions but score 37.0% and 35.7% on cue-conflicting questions (Figure 25), falling to 22% and 30% in the hardest interval. Their predictions agree with the selected rule on 77.5% and 78.8% of questions. This asymmetry is consistent with substantial reliance on the 2D cues, which aggregate accuracies of 64.5% and 64.6% obscure. Depth shows lower model-to-rule agreement, at 54.5% and 58.2%.

What the failures look like. Figure 26 shows Depth questions in which the higher target point is nearer to the camera. Grouping questions by point height, rather than the box-based signature in Table 10, gives accuracies of 82.4% versus 93.5% for Seed-2.0-Lite and 69.0% versus 86.9% for GPT-5.5 when the higher point is nearer versus farther. This separate analysis also reveals sensitivity to vertical image-plane cues.



Which is closer to the camera?
(A) tea cup
(B) stacked plastic containers
Answer: A
Seed-2.0-Lite: B ✗ GPT-5.5: B ✗



Which is closer to the camera?
(A) trash bin
(B) speaker
Answer: B
Seed-2.0-Lite: A ✗ GPT-5.5: A ✗



Which is closer to the camera?
(A) person
(B) suitcase
Answer: A
Seed-2.0-Lite: B ✗ GPT-5.5: B ✗

Figure 26: **Counterexamples to vertical-position cues.** In each Depth question the correct option (blue) is the higher point in the image yet nearer to the camera, and both models choose the other, farther option. Under each image, a red cross after a model's answer marks it as incorrect. Numbers in the images are ground-truth camera depths; marks and model answers are shown for the reader only.

E.2.6 Difficulty analysis

Tables 11 and 12 separate the 3DCueBench circular results of Tables 1 and 2, respectively, by the benchmark's ground-truth relative-gap intervals; smaller gaps indicate more difficult comparisons.

Comparison across models. In Table 11, every open-source VLM loses accuracy as the gap shrinks. The strongest, VST-7B-SFT, drops from 88.0% in the easiest interval to 61.0% in the hardest, whereas GeoUG drops from 97.0% to 84.0%. GeoUG's margin over VST-7B-SFT therefore grows from 9.0 points in the easiest interval to 23.0 points in the hardest. DA3 answering from its own depth follows a similar trend to GeoUG: it is 1.5 and 1.0 points higher in the two hardest intervals, 2.5 points lower in the third, and 0.5 points higher in the easiest.

Draft-conditioned policy. In Table 12, the two option-order variants of a question share one generated depth map. Always generating improves over direct answering by 23.0 points in the two hardest intervals and by 12.5 and 5.0 points in the easier ones. The initial policy falls furthest behind always generating in the two hardest intervals (9.5 and 7.0 points). The $\lambda = 0.1$ policy stays within 1.0 point of always generating in every interval, and the random gate at the same per-interval rate is 2.0–4.6 points below the policy.

Table 11: **3DCueBench by difficulty: models in Table 1.** Circular accuracy (%) in each relative-gap interval (smaller is harder), pooled over Depth and Distance (200 questions per interval).

Model / configuration	Relative gap g				Overall
	$[0.10, 0.16)$	$[0.16, 0.25)$	$[0.25, 0.40)$	$[0.40, 1]$	
BAGEL-7B-MoT (Deng et al., 2025)	52.0	57.0	61.5	76.0	61.6
Qwen2.5-VL-7B (Bai et al., 2025b)	42.0	45.0	51.0	56.5	48.6
Qwen3-VL-8B (Bai et al., 2025a)	54.0	61.5	71.5	80.0	66.8
InternVL3.5-8B (Wang et al., 2025c)	48.0	52.5	60.0	70.0	57.6
SenseNova-SI-1.4-8B (Cai et al., 2026)	60.5	67.0	79.0	82.0	72.1
SenseNova-SI-1.5-8B (Cai et al., 2026)	57.5	67.0	78.0	83.5	71.5
VST-7B-SFT (Yang et al., 2025a)	61.0	77.0	85.5	88.0	77.9
DA3 (Lin et al., 2025) (depth readout)	85.5	89.0	91.5	97.5	90.9
GeoUG (Ours)	84.0	88.0	94.0	97.0	90.8

Table 12: **3DCueBench by difficulty: configurations in Table 2.** Circular accuracy (%), pooled as in Table 11. The random gate uses the $\lambda = 0.1$ policy's rate within each interval.

Model / configuration	Relative gap g				Overall
	$[0.10, 0.16)$	$[0.16, 0.25)$	$[0.25, 0.40)$	$[0.40, 1]$	
Direct	61.5	66.0	81.0	93.0	75.4
Always-generate	84.5	89.0	93.5	98.0	91.3
Initial policy (SFT)	75.0	82.0	90.0	94.5	85.4
Random gate	80.8	84.2	89.4	95.0	86.1
RL, $\lambda = 0.05$	83.5	87.0	94.5	97.5	90.6
Ours ($\lambda = 0.1$)	84.0	88.0	94.0	97.0	90.8

F Additional Experimental Results

F.1 Generation Pretraining Followed by Understanding SFT

Generation pretraining alone does not reliably provide a better initialization for downstream understanding SFT. Together with the task-dependent gains from co-training, these results suggest that jointly optimizing generation and understanding may be important for transferring geometric knowledge.

We compare three initializations: the original BAGEL (Deng et al., 2025) model, a model pretrained for 6,000 steps on depth generation, and a model pretrained for 6,000 steps on multi-view generation. All three then undergo the same understanding-only SFT, using the same data and hyperparameters, with no generation objective during this stage. At steps 1,000–6,000, cumulative SFT CE tokens are 6.29M, 12.48M, 18.77M, 25.00M, 31.10M, and 37.34M for each arm. The preceding generation stage is excluded from the plotted token budget; total training compute is therefore not matched.

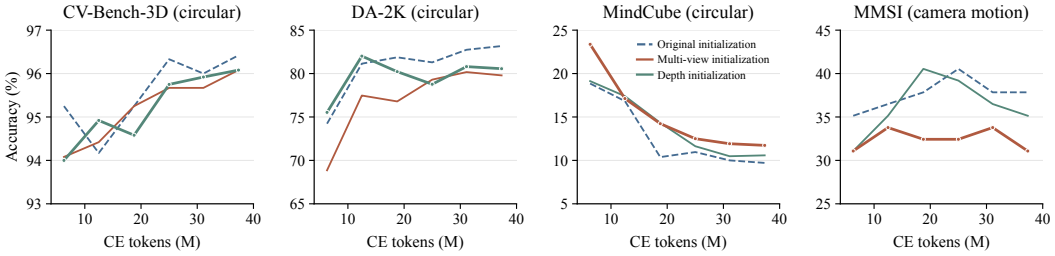


Figure 27: **Generation pretraining followed by understanding SFT.** Six EMA checkpoints per run, plotted against SFT CE tokens. CV-Bench-3D, DA-2K, and MindCube use circular accuracy; MMSI camera motion uses ordinary accuracy ($n = 74$).

At the final SFT checkpoint, both generation-initialized models are 0.34 percentage points below the original initialization on CV-Bench-3D (Tong et al., 2024a). Depth and multi-view initialization are lower by 2.61 and 3.38 points on DA-2K (Yang et al., 2024), and by 2.70 and 6.76 points on MMSI (Yang et al., 2025b) camera motion, respectively. MindCube (Wang et al., 2025a) shows a different pattern: the generation-initialized models retain small advantages of 0.87 and 2.02 points, but accuracy declines after the first evaluated SFT checkpoint for all three arms. These results concern transfer under the chosen SFT procedure, rather than the quality of the learned representations in isolation. Since the sequential and co-training experiments are not fully matched, they do not establish that co-training is necessary.

F.2 Visual and Textual Referring Formats

We report all seven evaluated open-source models under both visual and textual referring formats. CV-Bench-3D (Tong et al., 2024a) uses overlaid boxes in its visual version and textual box coordinates in its textual version; both contain the same 1,200 questions (600 Depth and 600 Distance). DA-2K (Yang et al., 2024) uses colored point markers in the visual version and textual point coordinates in

the textual version, with 2,068 questions. Textual coordinates follow each model's input convention, including conversion to resized-image pixels where required.

Table 13: **Visual versus textual referring.** Circular accuracy (%); both variants must be correct. Δ: Textual minus Visual (percentage points). CV-Bench-3D swaps options; DA-2K swaps colors for Visual and options for Textual.

	CV-Bench-3D			DA-2K		
Model	Visual	Textual	Δ	Visual	Textual	Δ
BAGEL-7B-MoT (Deng et al., 2025)	81.9	70.4	−11.5	58.4	55.1	−3.3
Qwen2.5-VL-7B (Bai et al., 2025b)	79.9	70.8	−9.1	9.8	45.3	+35.5
Qwen3-VL-8B (Bai et al., 2025a)	91.6	87.1	−4.5	67.8	44.6	−23.2
InternVL3.5-8B (Wang et al., 2025c)	84.7	78.9	−5.8	53.7	31.6	−22.1
SenseNova-SI-1.4-8B (Cai et al., 2026)	87.3	89.3	+2.0	61.6	63.9	+2.3
SenseNova-SI-1.5-8B (Cai et al., 2026)	85.8	87.4	+1.6	65.5	61.1	−4.4
VST-7B-SFT (Yang et al., 2025a)	94.9	93.2	−1.8	75.9	63.5	−12.4

Sensitivity varies across models and tasks. Textual referring does not uniformly increase or decrease accuracy. On CV-Bench-3D, five models score lower with textual coordinates, while both SenseNova configurations score higher. Referring format therefore affects measured performance and should be held fixed when comparing systems.

DA-2K also probes marker and answer consistency. Qwen2.5-VL's 9.8% visual circular accuracy is accompanied by a strong preference for the green point (93.5% of responses), while its mean accuracy over visual variants is 53.3%. Its large Textual-minus-Visual difference therefore cannot be interpreted as an equally large gain in geometric understanding. DA-2K changes both the referring format and the circular transformation; this comparison measures sensitivity to that combined evaluation setup rather than a controlled effect of textual coordinates alone.

Result provenance. Textual results use the corrected, model-specific coordinate conventions of the September 2026 baseline evaluation. BAGEL's Visual CV-Bench-3D and DA-2K results are reused from the August 2026 runs. The table reproduces the reported aggregate scores; displayed differences are computed before rounding to one decimal place. Cross-run differences are descriptive comparisons, since equivalence of preprocessing and evaluator versions has not been established.

F.3 External Depth Tools

We also evaluate whether supplying an existing VLM with external depth measurements yields comparable performance. DA3 (Lin et al., 2025) (DA3NESTED-GIANT-LARGE-1.1) predicts depth, a shared measurement procedure extracts object depths and pairwise 3D distances, and the measurements are supplied as text to the answering VLM. Table 14 reports the resulting system performance alongside the corresponding direct-answer baselines. Qwen2.5-VL uses different input resolutions with and without DA3, and BAGEL prompts also differ; these are reference system comparisons rather than controlled estimates of the tool effect.

Table 14: **External depth tools.** Circular accuracy (%); both option orders must be correct. All benchmarks use textual referring formats. The last row answers from the DA3 measurements alone, without a VLM, as in Table 1.

Answering model	Depth tool	CV-Bench-3D	3DCueBench	DA-2K
BAGEL-7B-MoT (Deng et al., 2025)	None	70.4	61.6	55.1
BAGEL-7B-MoT (Deng et al., 2025)	DA3 (Lin et al., 2025)	83.0	67.8	54.5
Qwen2.5-VL-7B (Bai et al., 2025b)	None	70.8	48.6	45.3
Qwen2.5-VL-7B (Bai et al., 2025b)	DA3 (Lin et al., 2025)	79.3	54.4	48.4
None (depth readout)	DA3 (Lin et al., 2025)	95.3	90.9	92.1

The tool-assisted systems score higher on CV-Bench-3D and 3DCueBench than their corresponding direct-answer baselines, but gains do not hold consistently on DA-2K. Their scores remain below

GeoUG and below answering from the DA3 measurements alone (last row) on all three benchmarks. This comparison shows that the evaluated combination of external measurements and an existing VLM is insufficient to match GeoUG; it does not establish that self-generated depth is intrinsically more accurate than DA3 or isolate the effect of tool use from prompting, resolution, and training differences.