

Proactive Physical AI through Continuous Observation and Timely Intervention

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Abstract

Physical AI is commonly formulated around an explicitly specified task: given a goal or instruction, a system perceives, reasons, and acts. In many real-world settings, however, important tasks emerge from continuously changing world states before a person explicitly formulates them. We study this complementary problem as Proactive Physical AI, where an AI system continuously observes the physical world, identifies situations that warrant intervention, and initiates appropriate actions at the right time. We develop ProAgent, an end-to-end system built around two components: a Jev-style proactive timing model (dubbed StreamingJev) that determines whether and when intervention is needed, and a Response Model that generates responses for people or invokes available device capabilities for physical execution. To support learning at scale, we develop an automated data pipeline that converts videos into supervision for proactive timing. Experiments demonstrate strong proactive performance under both explicit objectives and standing roles, combining more accurate intervention timing with fewer false triggers than the source-backbone baseline. Real-robot evaluations further demonstrate ProAgent’s ability to identify emerging needs and translate them into appropriate physical actions.

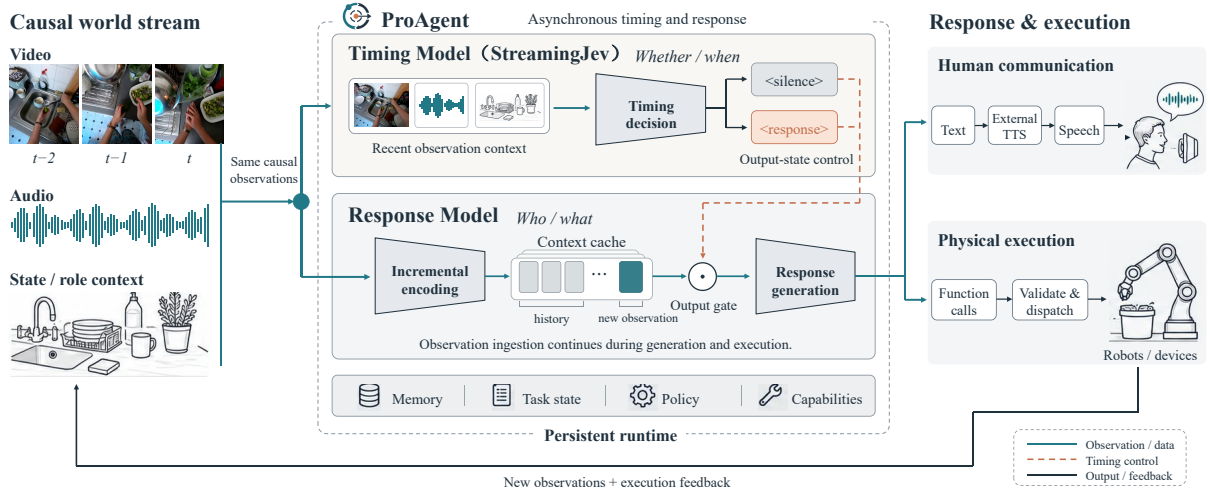


Figure 1. ProAgent architecture. Both models consume the causal world stream asynchronously; the Response Model can accumulate context while the Timing Model (StreamingJev) remains silent. A response decision enables output generation, not the ingestion of observations. Human-facing text is passed to external TTS. Physical outputs use typed function calls, while runtime validation and dispatch connect them to device providers. Feedback returns to the continuing observation loop.

1 Introduction

Artificial intelligence systems are increasingly capable of acting in the physical world, yet they are still commonly formulated around an explicitly specified task (Ahn et al., 2022; Zitkovich et al., 2023; Physical Intelligence et al., 2025). A robot may be asked to pick up an object, a household assistant to operate an appliance, or a multimodal model to answer a question about its surroundings. In practice, however, many useful tasks arise before anyone explicitly asks for them. Consider a kitchen assistant observing a pot on a stove: as the liquid begins to boil over, the important problem is not how to execute an already specified instruction, but whether the system can recognize that intervention is becoming necessary, determine when to act, and take an appropriate response before the opportunity is lost. Similar situations arise when a person is about to leave an important object behind, when a worker approaches a hazardous area, or when an appliance enters an abnormal state. In such cases, intelligence begins not from a human-issued task, but from continuously changing world states. Proactivity therefore changes not only how quickly a physical AI system responds, but also *where tasks originate*. Prior work on proactive human–robot interaction and context-aware assistants motivates studying initiative beyond explicit task requests (van Den Broek & Moeslund, 2024; Wang et al., 2026a; Yang et al., 2025a).

We study this setting as **Proactive Physical AI**. Rather than assuming that a task has already been recognized and specified, a ProPAI system continuously observes the physical world and determines whether the evolving situation calls for intervention. When intervention is warranted, the system must infer what needs to be done, decide when to act, and select an appropriate response for the available executor, which may be a person, robot, or other physical device. This formulation introduces three tightly coupled challenges. First, the system must continuously interpret multimodal observations and identify changes that are relevant to its responsibilities. Second, it must reason about intervention timing: acting too early may be unnecessary or disruptive, whereas acting too late may miss the useful window altogether. Third, the inferred need must be grounded in the capabilities and constraints of available executors so that an intended response can be translated into an actionable physical operation. Together, these challenges extend physical AI from executing a given task to identifying and addressing tasks as they emerge from the world.

To investigate this problem, we develop **ProAgent**, an end-to-end system for continuous observation, proactive decision making, and physical execution. ProAgent separates proactive decision making into two complementary components. A Jev-style proactive timing model, dubbed **StreamingJev**, continuously processes streaming observations and determines whether the current situation warrants intervention, while a Response Model reasons over the observed context to determine whom to address and what action or communication should follow. To train proactive timing behavior at scale, we introduce an automated data pipeline that converts Internet videos into supervision for both intervention and non-intervention moments, producing 224,268 causal decision sequences from 20,258 source videos without requiring task instructions to be manually specified for every scene. The two models operate asynchronously, allowing environmental observation to continue while responses are being generated or executed. When the response targets a person, the system generates a communicative response; when it targets a device or robot, the system invokes the capabilities exposed by the corresponding executor. This design provides a practical mechanism for connecting continuous world observation to timely and capability-grounded action.

Experiments demonstrate that ProAgent outperforms the evaluated standalone multimodal models and streaming assistants in intervention timing and time-aware response quality. Under explicit assistance objectives, ProAgent achieves an event-level F1 of 42.43%, exceeding the strongest evaluated baseline by 6.27 percentage points, while attaining the highest PAUC under both explicit objectives and standing roles. We further evaluate ProAgent in real robotic scenarios with Reachy Mini, demonstrating its ability to identify emerging needs, intervene at appropriate moments, and execute corresponding physical actions.

2 Problem Formulation

We consider a physical AI system operating in a continuously evolving environment. Conventional task-conditioned physical AI assumes that an explicit task is provided before execution, and the system uses observations of the world to determine how to accomplish that task. **Proactive Physical AI (ProPAI)** removes this assumption: no concrete task is specified in advance. Instead, given continuous observations of the physical world and a standing context that defines its responsibilities and constraints, the system must determine *whether* the current situation warrants intervention, *when* to intervene, and *what* response can be appropriately executed. Task initiation is therefore part of the inference problem rather than a prerequisite for it.

Input. At each time step t , the system receives

$$\mathcal{I}_t = (\mathbf{o}_t, \mathcal{H}_t, \mathcal{D}_t, \mathbf{f}_t), \quad (1)$$

where $\mathbf{o}_t$ denotes the current multimodal observations, such as vision and audio; $\mathcal{H}_t$ denotes the people currently involved; $\mathcal{D}_t$ denotes the available physical devices; and $\mathbf{f}_t$ denotes feedback from previous interactions or executions. Each device $d \in \mathcal{D}_t$ exposes a set of currently available capabilities $\mathcal{A}_t(d)$.

In addition, the system is provided with a standing context $\mathcal{C}$ specifying its role, permissions, and operating constraints. Importantly, $\mathcal{C}$ defines the *scope* within which the system may assist, but does not specify which event will require intervention, what concrete task should be performed, or when that task should begin. At time t , the system makes decisions only from the observed history

$$\mathcal{I}_{\leq t} = (\mathcal{I}_1, \dots, \mathcal{I}_t) \quad (2)$$

and $\mathcal{C}$, without access to future observations.

Output. At every time step, the system must first decide whether intervention is warranted. We formulate the policy as

$$(z_t, \mathcal{U}_t) = \pi(\mathcal{I}_{\leq t}, \mathcal{C}), \quad (3)$$

where $z_t \in \{0, 1\}$ is the intervention decision. When $z_t = 0$, the system remains silent and continues observing. When $z_t = 1$, $\mathcal{U}_t$ contains one or more responses selected from the currently feasible response space

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{R}_t = & \{\text{COMMUNICATE}(h, m) \mid h \in \mathcal{H}_t\} \\ & \cup \{\text{ACT}(d, a) \mid d \in \mathcal{D}_t, a \in \mathcal{A}_t(d)\}. \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Here, $\text{COMMUNICATE}(h, m)$ delivers a message m to a person h , while $\text{ACT}(d, a)$ invokes capability a on device d . An intervention may contain multiple responses, allowing communication and physical actions to be coordinated when necessary. Equivalently, the observable system output is

$$\mathcal{Y}_t = \begin{cases} \text{SILENT}, & z_t = 0, \\ \mathcal{U}_t \subseteq \mathcal{R}_t, & z_t = 1. \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

Because this decision is repeatedly evaluated over the observation stream, *when* the policy first changes from continued observation to intervention is itself part of the prediction problem. Remaining silent is therefore a first-class decision rather than the absence of a prediction.

From Passive to Proactive Physical AI. The distinction between passive and proactive systems is not whether a system can perceive its environment, autonomously plan, or use execution feedback. The distinction is instead **where the task comes from**.

In the passive setting, a concrete task q is supplied externally before execution:

$$\mathcal{Y}_t^{\text{passive}} = \pi_{\text{passive}}(\mathcal{I}_{\leq t}, \mathcal{C}, q). \quad (6)$$

World observations are used to determine how to accomplish q . In ProPAI, however, no such task variable is provided:

$$\mathcal{Y}_t^{\text{proactive}} = \pi_{\text{proactive}}(\mathcal{I}_{\leq t}, \mathcal{C}). \quad (7)$$

The system must instead infer from the evolving world state whether any task should be initiated, determine an appropriate intervention time, and select a feasible response. Conceptually, the two paradigms can be summarized as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Task-conditioned Physical AI: } & \text{Task} + \text{World} \rightarrow \text{Action}, \\ \text{Proactive Physical AI: } & \text{World Stream} \rightarrow \text{Intervention Decision} \rightarrow \text{Action}. \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

ProPAI introduces an additional decision layer before execution: determining whether a task exists, when it should be initiated, and what intervention is appropriate from continuous observations.

3 A Proactive Physical AI System

Proactive assistance requires frequent decisions about whether to intervene, while generating a response or carrying out an action can take much longer. ProAgent therefore separates timing prediction from response generation, allowing observation to continue while an intervention is underway. As shown in Figure 1, the Timing Model (StreamingJev) determines *when to intervene*, and the Response Model determines *whom to address and what to do*. A persistent runtime connects these decisions to the evolving world state and the feedback from earlier actions.

Both models receive causal observations together with standing roles, available device capabilities, and interaction history. While the Timing Model evaluates whether a response is warranted, the Response Model incrementally encodes the incoming context. A trigger enables generation from this prepared context, so the system need not wait until intervention is required to begin processing the observations. Observation ingestion continues during generation and execution. The runtime tracks responses and operations already in progress, allowing subsequent timing decisions to account for an ongoing intervention instead of starting a new request at every update. The models maintain separate caches for their respective weights and inputs; shared observations do not require shared KV states.

The Response Model is a multimodal foundation model conditioned on this context and the available capabilities. It produces text for external TTS when addressing a person, or function calls when directing a device. The runtime validates and dispatches these calls, then returns execution results to the interaction state. Together with subsequent observations, this feedback allows the system to determine whether the need has been addressed or further assistance is required. The result is a continuing observation–intervention loop rather than a sequence of independent responses. Detailed state management, cache validity, and executor-supported cancellation and recovery are described in Appendix G.

3.1 Timing Model and Data Pipeline

The Timing Model (StreamingJev) turns the continuous observation stream into a decision about whether the system should respond. Given causal observations $\mathcal{I}_{\leq t}$, standing constraints or role context c_t , and output state s_t , the Timing Model predicts

$$y_t = f_\theta(\mathcal{I}_{\leq t}, c_t, s_t), \quad y_t \in \{\langle \text{silence} \rangle, \langle \text{response} \rangle\}. \quad (9)$$

This decision controls the response channel while leaving content and action planning to the Response Model. When output is inactive, $\langle \text{response} \rangle$ initiates a response and $\langle \text{silence} \rangle$ maintains observation; when active, they indicate continuation and release, respectively. Constraints may specify a condition to monitor or broader responsibilities without naming each emerging task.

Ordinary video descriptions identify events but rarely specify when intervention becomes useful. Recent work therefore studies streaming speech and proactive dialogue as supervision for online assistants (Chen et al., 2025; Zhang et al., 2025a). Our event-driven data engine combines Internet videos with existing video annotations to construct this supervision. As illustrated in Figure 2, it organizes actors, objects, and state changes into event-centered records, associates them with relevant constraints, and identifies response windows from supporting evidence. Full-video outcomes help offline annotators locate precursor cues, but each training input contains only observations available up to its decision time, together with prior interaction state. A response window may precede the visible outcome; an event boundary alone does not establish a need to intervene.

Constructing these sequences requires both grounding an event in the video and deciding when it becomes relevant to the system’s responsibilities. We use two forms of timing supervision. *Explicit-condition timing* identifies when evidence supports responding under a specified condition. *Open timing* uses role constraints or anomalous events to supervise responses without naming the target event in advance. Event descriptions and source annotations ground the construction of these labels. The resulting sequences cover response-window entry, continuation, and exit. Confirmed non-intervention periods provide silence labels, including all-silence examples; unknown intervals are excluded from supervision. Each training input combines causal visual observations with task or role context and the current output state.

We post-train the Timing Model with a weighted autoregressive loss over the supervised tokens in all decision turns:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{timing}} = - \frac{\sum_{\tau \in \mathcal{B}} \sum_j m_{\tau,j} w_{\tau,j} \log p_\theta(x_{\tau,j} | h_{\tau,j})}{\sum_{\tau \in \mathcal{B}} \sum_j m_{\tau,j}}, \quad (10)$$

where $\mathcal{B}$ is the global batch, $x_{\tau,j}$ is a target token, $h_{\tau,j}$ contains the causal input and preceding tokens, and $m_{\tau,j}$ marks valid supervision. The weights $w_{\tau,j}$ depend on the decision state; the denominator counts valid tokens. We construct

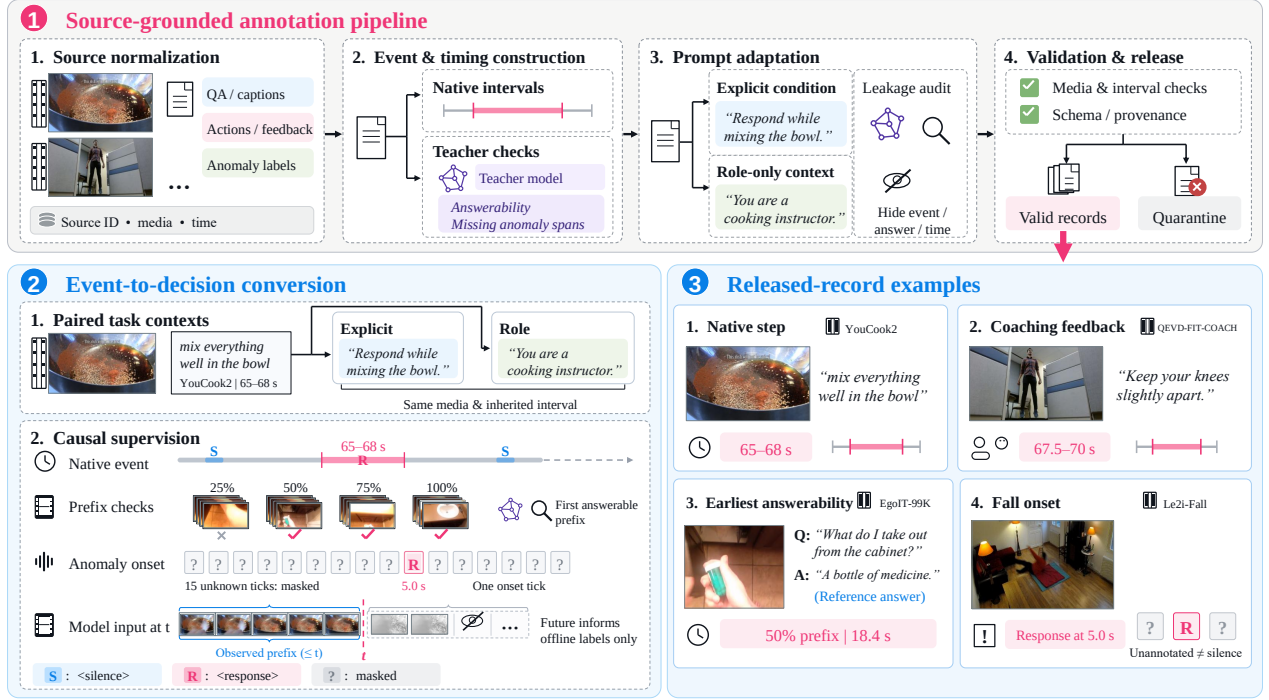


Figure 2. Event-driven supervision with causal model inputs. Offline annotators use full videos to identify event context and intervention windows, while model inputs at time t contain only observations up to t . Event descriptions ground the construction of explicit-condition and role- or anomaly-conditioned timing supervision; the Timing Model learns causal decision sequences, with unknown intervals excluded from supervision.

224,268 training sequences from 20,258 source videos, containing 2,058,267 supervised decision turns. StreamingJev is post-trained from Qwen3.5-4B for three epochs, updating its language model and output head while freezing the visual encoder and merger.

During training, each sequence starts from an idle output state, and preceding ground-truth decisions update the state for subsequent observations. Thus, supervision connects response initiation, continuation, and termination across turns. Appendix G.2 details sequence construction and optimization.

3.2 Efficient Streaming Inference

The Timing Model is evaluated repeatedly as observations arrive, making the cost of each update central to continuous operation. We address this cost at three stages of inference: processing the accumulated history, representing newly observed visual changes, and generating a timing decision (Figure 3).

With *Incremental Caching*, we cache historical post-vision-encoder features and language-model key-value (KV) states. At each update, only newly appended frames undergo visual preprocessing and encoding, while the language model prefills only the uncached suffix. Cached states are isolated by session and reused only when the input prefix and inference configuration remain compatible.

Historical reuse does not eliminate redundancy within newly arriving observations. Consecutive video frames often contain similar visual features, even though only a small part of the scene has changed. TimeChat-Online similarly exploits cross-frame redundancy through differential token dropping (Yao et al., 2025). *Dynamic Token Dropping (DTD)* compares the current frame with the preceding frame when their visual grids match. Specifically, it compares features at the same token-grid locations. A current-frame token is pruned as redundant when its cosine similarity exceeds the threshold τ , before it enters the language backbone. This reduces the sequence length processed by the language model and the growth of its KV cache. Because intervention can depend on subtle visual changes, the resulting computational savings must be considered together with decision agreement and timing quality.

Efficient streaming timing inference

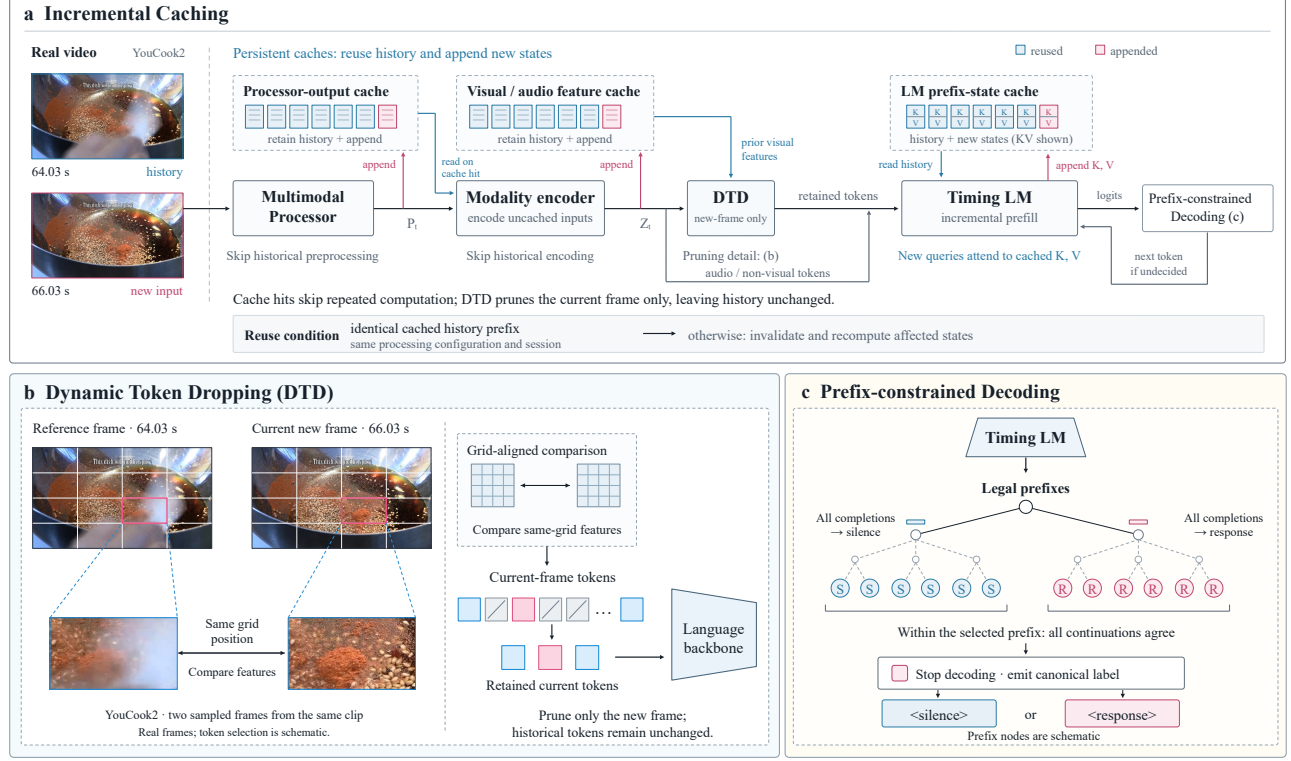


Figure 3. Three complementary efficiency mechanisms. Incremental Caching reuses historical post-vision-encoder features and KV states subject to prefix and session validity. Dynamic Token Dropping (DTD) prunes redundant current-frame visual tokens using same-grid cross-frame similarity. Prefix-constrained Decoding terminates once all legal continuations imply the same binary decision and emits its canonical label. Token counts and the prefix tree are schematic; token counts do not imply a fixed retention ratio.

The restricted output space offers a further opportunity to reduce inference overhead. Since the Timing Model returns one of two predefined decisions, *Prefix-constrained Decoding* restricts generation to valid decision prefixes and terminates as soon as all legal continuations imply the same decision. The runtime then emits the corresponding canonical label. Together, Incremental Caching, Dynamic Token Dropping, and Prefix-constrained Decoding reduce work on historical context, incoming visual representations, and output generation without changing the binary decision interface.

4 Experiments

We evaluate intervention timing, delivered assistance, physical task completion, and streaming efficiency. Detailed datasets, system configurations, and scoring protocols are provided in Appendices B–F.

4.1 Proactive Timing Evaluation

We compare timing on Omni-MMI PA/PT (Wang et al., 2025b) and paired ProactiveVideoQA-derived episodes from EGO and WEB videos (Wang et al., 2025a). *Explicit* specifies the assistance objective; *Role* supplies standing responsibilities without revealing the target event. Both use the same videos and references, with reference annotations hidden during inference. ProAgent receives observations every 200 ms. The Base/Ours pair shares a Qwen3.8-27B Worker and input and scheduling budgets; other systems retain their respective interfaces and schedules. Responses are matched one-to-one to reference windows using first visible-text times; unmatched responses are counted against the reference annotations.

Table 1 shows that ProAgent achieves the highest PA, PT, and F1 scores. Explicit F1 reaches 42.43%, exceeding the strongest baseline by 6.27 percentage points, with only 0.04 unmatched responses per minute. Under Role constraints, ProAgent leads LiveStar by 1.47 points while reducing FP/min from 7.65 to 0.18. Dispider produces fewer unmatched responses in this condition but attains only 1.09% F1, illustrating why restraint must be considered together with intervention coverage.

Table 1. Proactive timing performance. PA/PT are evaluated on Omni-MMI; Explicit and Role use paired ProactiveVideoQA-derived episodes. PA, PT, and episode-averaged F1 are percentages. FP/min counts responses unmatched to reference windows per minute. A dash indicates an incompatible decision interface.

System	Omni-MMI		Explicit		Role	
	PA $\uparrow$	PT $\uparrow$	F1 $\uparrow$	FP/min $\downarrow$	F1 $\uparrow$	FP/min $\downarrow$
<i>General-purpose: open weights</i>						
Qwen3.5-4B	37.00	35.50	36.05	8.48	24.79	3.76
Qwen3-VL-8B-Instruct	53.00	77.00	33.37	11.81	23.94	2.67
MiniCPM-V-4.6	23.50	81.00	28.25	20.06	28.74	19.48
<i>General-purpose: closed source</i>						
GPT-6	29.00	44.00	32.44	2.49	25.66	1.32
Gemini	27.00	54.00	31.56	2.29	22.59	0.82
Claude	43.00	17.50	36.16	2.05	27.91	1.53
<i>Streaming/proactive methods</i>						
LiveStar-8B	—	—	34.16	9.71	31.98	7.65
Dispider	18.00	74.00	10.16	0.90	1.09	0.05
<i>Matched Timing Models + shared Worker</i>						
Qwen3.5-4B Base + Worker	35.50	53.00	30.49	0.70	28.72	0.62
StreamingJev + Worker (Ours)	57.00	87.00	42.43	0.04	33.45	0.18

With the Worker fixed, training the Timing Model improves Explicit and Role F1 by 11.94 and 4.73 points, respectively. Role F1 remains below Explicit F1, indicating that identifying an intervention from broad responsibilities is more challenging than responding to a specified objective.

4.2 Proactive Interaction Evaluation

A well-timed response is useful only if it conveys the information needed in that situation. Each system responds at its own trigger times, without reference triggers or a second answer-generation pass. We assess these same trajectories using *Outcome*, which measures complete reference-answer coverage by responses initiated within assistance windows, and ProactiveVideoQA’s *PAUC* (Wang et al., 2025a), which jointly rewards correctness and timeliness ($\omega = 0.5$). Coverage is scored per reference target and averaged within and then across episodes.

ProAgent achieves the highest PAUC under both conditions: 0.6131 for Explicit and 0.5121 for Role (Table 2). Under Role, it also leads in Outcome. Under Explicit, GPT-6 provides higher complete-answer coverage (0.1523 versus 0.1432), while ProAgent leads in PAUC. The two measures capture complementary properties: PAUC credits timely partial information, whereas Outcome requires complete coverage. Thus, strong answer generation alone does not ensure the best time-aware assistance.

The three closed-source systems incur mean first-text latencies of 14.55–19.81 s, compared with 1.07–1.14 s for ProAgent. Their remote response path includes network transfer and service processing; extended chain-of-thought reasoning, when enabled, can further delay visible output. Such delays can move responses beyond useful assistance windows, limiting time-sensitive performance. ProAgent separates frequent timing decisions from asynchronous response generation (Figure 1), combining short response latency with the highest PAUC in the evaluated configurations.

4.3 Embodied Evaluation

We evaluate 60 Reachy Mini cases, with 20 each for Guidance, Warning, and Interaction. These categories cover assistance during ongoing activities, responses to emerging errors or risks, and proactive engagement with human needs, respectively. Systems receive standing responsibilities and available capabilities, without reference triggers or required responses. *Time* measures mean absolute intervention-time error; *Outcome* measures completion of required events with correct content and entities, assigning zero when prescribed ordering constraints are violated.

ProAgent attains the highest Outcome in all three categories (Table 3), exceeding the strongest baseline in each by 0.089, 0.066, and 0.173, respectively. The largest completion-score gain occurs in Interaction, where needs must be recognized through proactive engagement. These results extend the evidence beyond verbal assistance: the system connects inferred needs to completed events involving people and available device capabilities.

Table 2. Helpfulness and runtime performance of self-triggered responses. Outcome and PAUC are reported on a 0–1 scale. Latency is the mean time to first visible response text (s). Runtime protocols are specified in Appendix D.4.

System	Explicit			Role		
	Latency (s) ↓	Outcome ↑	PAUC ↑	Latency (s) ↓	Outcome ↑	PAUC ↑
<i>General-purpose: open weights</i>						
Qwen3.5-4B	2.09	0.1263	0.4086	2.05	0.0723	0.3173
Qwen3-VL-8B-Instruct	1.55	0.1369	0.4633	1.42	0.0462	0.3063
MiniCPM-V-4.6	1.22	0.0965	0.5396	1.21	0.0580	0.3747
<i>General-purpose: closed source</i>						
GPT-6	16.59	0.1523	0.4123	19.81	0.0336	0.2603
Gemini	14.58	0.0239	0.3379	14.96	0.0201	0.2546
Claude	14.55	0.0885	0.3645	14.55	0.0431	0.2964
<i>Streaming/proactive methods</i>						
LiveStar-8B	2.53	0.0372	0.3185	2.31	0.0481	0.2859
Dispider	1.62	0.0057	0.2645	2.85	0.0000	0.2382
<i>Matched Timing Models + shared Worker</i>						
Qwen3.5-4B Base + Worker	1.09	0.0826	0.3355	1.16	0.0491	0.2828
StreamingJev + Worker (Ours)	1.07	0.1432	0.6131	1.14	0.1231	0.5121

Embodied examples of proactive assistance

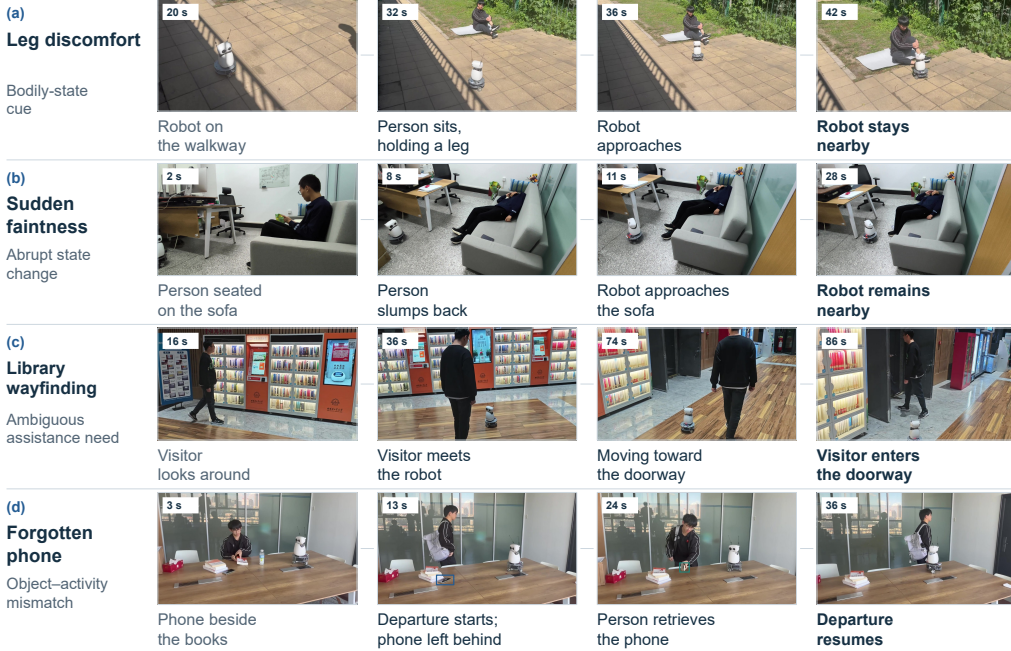


Figure 4. Recorded embodied interaction trajectories. Four frames per row show changes in the scene, robot interaction, and subsequent observations. (a) A person sits down holding their lower leg; the robot approaches and stays nearby. (b) A person slumps back onto a sofa; the robot approaches and remains nearby. (c) A visitor encounters the robot, moves with it toward a doorway, and enters. (d) A person preparing to leave returns to retrieve a phone before resuming departure. External-camera recordings document visible behavior; frame labels describe the observed actions and states. Timestamps are video positions, not model-trigger times. Quantitative performance is measured in the separate 60-case evaluation (Table 3).

The recorded trajectories in Figure 4 show four interactions, linking emerging assistance needs to the observed behavior that follows. These cases also highlight people as possible executors of physical tasks: in the phone-retrieval scenario, the person retrieves the object rather than the robot manipulating it. Appendix E.4 relates these trajectories to intervention decisions and execution feedback.

Table 3. Embodied evaluation. Each category contains 20 cases. Time: mean absolute timing error (s); Outcome: completion score on a 0–1 scale.

Method	Guidance		Warning		Interaction	
	Time ↓	Outcome ↑	Time ↓	Outcome ↑	Time ↓	Outcome ↑
GPT-6-Astra	12.56	0.759	4.08	0.712	11.06	0.676
Gemini 3	5.50	0.821	1.62	0.827	9.15	0.640
Claude Fable 5	9.29	0.480	21.39	0.326	10.09	0.189
Qwen3.5VL 27B	11.21	0.748	2.35	0.719	9.03	0.618
ProAgent	1.28	0.910	1.26	0.893	1.98	0.849

4.4 Analysis and Efficiency

We evaluate cumulative inference optimizations on 398 causal video sequences comprising 3,768 timing decisions, using identical inputs and frozen interaction histories across configurations. Frames are sampled at 1 Hz, and all configurations run sequentially on a single NVIDIA A800 80 GB GPU with BF16 precision. Table 4 measures the cumulative effects of incremental caching, dynamic token dropping, and prefix-constrained decoding on the trained Timing Model.

The combined configuration reduces median latency from 346.84 ms to 147.05 ms and P95 latency from 512.63 ms to 251.77 ms, with 98.65% decision agreement relative to full recomputation. Latency measures synchronized inference time from preprocessed input to decision completion, excluding image decoding and preprocessing. Decision agreement measures the effect on model outputs, not task accuracy. The measurement protocol and component analysis are detailed in Appendix F.

Table 4. Cumulative inference optimizations. Latency excludes image decoding and preprocessing (ms); Mem. is peak allocated GPU memory (GB); Agree. is decision agreement (%) with full recomputation. DTD uses $\tau = 0.9$.

Configuration	P50 ↓	P95 ↓	Mem. ↓	Agree. ↑
Recompute	346.84	512.63	9.85	100.00
+ Cache	240.26	270.06	9.63	100.00
+ DTD	214.16	269.73	9.50	98.65
+ Constrained	147.05	251.77	9.50	98.65

5 Discussion

The matched-Worker comparison highlights the importance of intervention quality: first-text latency changes little, yet PAUC rises from 0.3355 to 0.6131 under Explicit and from 0.2828 to 0.5121 under Role. These gains support learned intervention decisions beyond faster response generation alone.

ProPAI shifts the source of an action from an explicit task to a need identified under persistent responsibilities. ProAgent provides a modular realization of this shift, while leaving important distinctions for evaluation: recognizing a supplied condition is not unrestricted task discovery, and a timely response in recorded video does not establish physical benefit. Broader evaluation must test whether interventions resolve needs across changing roles and capabilities, including when silence or clarification is preferable. Permission to act remains distinct from an inferred need.

These questions connect future improvements in memory, learning, and architecture. Memory should retain unresolved commitments while revising stale beliefs; learning should distinguish intervention value from event timing, executor failure, and recovery caused by others. Native models could jointly represent timing and response, with adaptive computation that preserves observation continuity and response deadlines. Callable skills, including specialized action policies, could broaden feasible interventions while retaining explicit authorization and human control. Appendices G and H develop these directions and their evaluation requirements.

6 Conclusion

We introduce **Proactive Physical AI** and **ProAgent**, a system that connects continuous observation to timely communication and physical action under standing responsibilities. Causal video supervision makes intervention timing learnable, while the asynchronous separation of timing and response supports ongoing monitoring during generation and execution. Experiments show stronger intervention timing and time-aware assistance than the evaluated alternatives, together with improved event completion across three embodied task categories. Streaming optimizations reduce the cost of repeated decisions while maintaining high decision agreement. Together, these findings support a practical approach to physical AI that identifies emerging needs and coordinates responses through available human and device capabilities.

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A Connections to existing studies

ProPAI draws on established research in streaming multimodal interaction, proactive robotics, embodied execution, and learning from observation. We organize these foundations around how an agent continuously observes the world, recognizes a need for assistance, and turns that need into an effective intervention.

Streaming Multimodal Models and Proactive Assistants. Streaming models make continuously arriving observations available for online reasoning. VideoLLM-online develops causal streaming dialogue training and efficient inference, while Dispider separates continuous perception, response decisions, and asynchronous generation (Chen et al., 2024; Qian et al., 2025). Proactive interaction is also an explicit learning objective: MMDuet2 trains models to choose between responding and remaining silent across multiple turns, and ProactiveVideoQA evaluates response timing together with answer quality (Wang et al., 2026b; 2025a). StreamChat updates visual context during generation, while LiveStar integrates streaming perception, silence decisions, and memory management (Liu et al., 2024a; Yang et al., 2025b). Related approaches reduce streaming computation through event-gated processing and visual token pruning (Ding et al., 2025; Yao et al., 2025; Zhang et al., 2026a). ViSpeak studies responses to visual instructions, and Eyes Wide Open studies proactive responses in egocentric streams (Fu et al., 2025; Zhang et al., 2025b). These advances provide both a computational foundation and evaluation tools for persistent assistants. Answering a specified question at the right moment is one important setting; identifying which need deserves a response under broader responsibilities introduces an additional decision about the task itself.

Proactive Human–Robot Interaction and Assistance. Robot initiative has a substantial research history. Existing reviews define proactive human–robot interaction and organize its varied behaviors and technical approaches (van Den Broek & Moeslund, 2024). Recent systems connect these ideas to foundation models: RoboOmni combines multimodal intent recognition, interaction confirmation, and manipulation (Wang et al., 2026a); ProAct couples long-horizon social reasoning with low-latency multimodal behavior on a humanoid robot (Zhang et al., 2026b); and event-driven assistive manipulation infers goals and intervention decisions from human-induced workspace state changes (Liu et al., 2026). These are direct foundations for ProPAI, including precedents for assistance without an explicit task instruction. They also reveal distinct sources of initiative: inferred human intent, social context, and changes in the environment. Code-as-Monitor uses visual programs to monitor constraints and anticipate robotic failures (Zhou et al., 2025). Beyond robotics, sensory-context assistants and mobile agents study how contextual observations reveal needs and support proactive assistance (Yang et al., 2025a; Kong et al., 2026). ProPAI brings these sources into a shared formulation in which persistent roles and constraints guide need discovery, while available people and devices determine feasible responses.

Physical Reasoning and Capability-Grounded Execution. Vision-language-action models such as RT-2 and $\pi_{0.5}$ connect semantic knowledge to robot control and improve generalization across objects, instructions, and environments (Zitkovich et al., 2023; Physical Intelligence et al., 2025). Complementary approaches expose reusable skills to higher-level reasoning: SayCan grounds language-based planning in skill affordances, Code as Policies composes perception and control APIs, and Inner Monologue incorporates environmental feedback into planning (Ahn et al., 2022; Liang et al., 2022; Huang et al., 2022). VoxPoser grounds language in three-dimensional value maps for manipulation, while OK-Robot integrates visual-language perception, navigation, and grasping (Huang et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2024b). These methods provide execution and feedback mechanisms that proactive systems can build upon. Our function-call interface follows this programmable-capability perspective, exposing registered functions without prescribing their underlying controllers. The additional proactive question is how available capabilities affect whether, when, and through whom an emerging need should be addressed.

Learning from Human Video and Interaction. Human activity and assistance provide supervision beyond robot trajectories. HoloAssist captures collaborative task performance and supports mistake detection and intervention prediction, while RoboVQA combines human and robot experience for grounded long-horizon reasoning (Wang et al., 2023; Sermanet et al., 2023). Predictive video learning offers another foundation: V-JEPA 2 combines large-scale video pretraining with robot interaction data to support action-conditioned prediction and planning (Assran et al., 2025). LiveCC and ProAssist further connect video observations to streaming language and proactive assistant dialogue (Chen et al., 2025; Zhang et al., 2025a). These results motivate learning broadly transferable knowledge from observation while retaining embodiment-specific execution. For proactive learning, observing what happens next must additionally be connected to

whose responsibility it is to intervene and when intervention is justified; this motivates our timing-supervision pipeline and the need for deployment feedback.

Taken together, these foundations motivate a coupled research problem rather than independent perception, timing, and control tasks. The same world event may call for silence under one role and assistance under another; choosing between a nearby speaker and a mobile robot changes the required start time; and successful intervention changes what should happen next. ProPAI organizes these dependencies into a continuous observation–intervention–feedback loop, providing a common setting for studying task discovery, timely restraint, and capability-grounded action.

B Timing Evaluation Protocols and Supplementary Results

This appendix evaluates intervention timing under benchmark-provided constraints. It complements the real-time, role-conditioned evaluation in Appendix D: here the relevant question or condition is given, and the score measures readiness or first-trigger timing rather than unrestricted need discovery. No real-time processing deadline is imposed.

B.1 Benchmark Tasks and Coverage

Table B.1 summarizes the selected tasks. OVO-Bench supplies independent observation checkpoints, whereas StreamingBench requires a first response during sequential observations. StreamingBench is distinct from the streaming question-answering benchmark StreamBench v0.3.

Table B.1. Tasks used for timing evaluation. Counts are scoring units in the complete benchmark releases.

Benchmark / task	Input and constraint	Required decision	Metric	Full N
OVO / SSR	Video clip and specified procedural step	Whether that step is currently being performed	Accuracy	629
OVO / CRR	Video clip and question	Whether the available evidence is sufficient to answer	Accuracy	240
StreamingBench PO	Sequential video observations and response condition	When to trigger the first response	First-trigger accuracy	250

The full OVO selection contains 869 timing probes; its content-answering tasks are not additional timing examples. The 250 PO questions span 50 videos. All evaluated systems use these complete task releases. The source-reported Dispider PO result is identified separately.

B.2 Public-Benchmark Timing Comparisons

The source-backbone comparison fixes Qwen3.5-4B and compares its unmodified checkpoint with **StreamingJev**, post-trained for three epochs. The trained model improves SSR from 52.15% to 75.52%, CRR from 43.75% to 83.33%, and PO from 11.60% to 57.20%, corresponding to gains of 23.37, 39.58, and 45.60 percentage points, respectively. These gains cover readiness at supplied checkpoints and sequential first-response timing. The table also includes general-purpose models and task-conditioned evaluations of streaming methods. Evaluation counts and visual preprocessing are specified in the protocol below. The Dispider PO score is cited from its original paper; the other scores are measured in our evaluation.

B.3 Inputs, Decision Interfaces, and Scoring

Decision interfaces. StreamingJev predicts `<response>` or `<silence>`. Its source-backbone comparison uses the same binary decision task, without a Worker or answer-quality judge; the output channel remains idle between decisions, so this comparison does not test interruption of an ongoing reply. General-purpose response models use the corresponding benchmark question-answering interface rather than being required to emit the Timing Model’s labels.

For the Base row marked †, a fixed, label-independent decoder accepts the canonical labels, maps START/CONTINUE to response and WAIT/STOP/YIELD to silence, and accepts the bare strings response/silence. A complete wrapper such as `<response>WAIT</response>` is interpreted by its enclosed action. Matching is case-sensitive after trimming outer whitespace; ambiguous prose, incomplete wrappers, and conflicting actions remain invalid. The mapping is applied to

Table B.2. Intervention timing under benchmark-provided constraints. OVO-Bench measures response readiness at given checkpoints; StreamingBench measures first-response timing over sequential observations. Scores are percentages; higher is better. † denotes semantic output mapping. * marks a result reported in the original Dispider paper (Qian et al., 2025).

Timing Model	OVO-Bench		StreamingBench
	SSR	CRR	PO
<i>Closed-source general-purpose models</i>			
GPT-6	73.93	66.25	73.20
Gemini 3.7 Flash	78.22	84.17	80.00
Claude Fable 5	82.67	74.58	71.60
<i>Open-weight general-purpose models</i>			
Qwen3-VL-8B-Instruct	64.39	43.33	49.20
MiniCPM-V-4.6	31.96	50.00	19.60
LLaVA-OneVision-7B	65.50	57.92	28.80
<i>Streaming and proactive methods</i>			
LiveStar-8B	6.04	3.75	13.60
Dispider	37.52	48.75	25.34*
<i>Source backbone and trained Timing Model</i>			
Qwen3.5-4B (Base)†	52.15	43.75	11.60
StreamingJev (Ours)	75.52	83.33	57.20
Δ vs. Base (pp)	+23.37	+39.58	+45.60

saved outputs without changing generation histories and uses neither reference answers nor an LLM judge. Canonical outputs from StreamingJev are unchanged.

OVO-Bench. Each SSR or CRR probe is evaluated independently using its released clip and question. SSR concerns the specified step, not completion of the entire procedure; CRR concerns whether the question is answerable from the available evidence. For the binary Timing Models, Yes and No labels correspond to response and silence. Benchmark-interface VLM answers are scored with the released answer parser. All probes, including invalid predictions, remain in the denominator:

$$\text{Acc}_k = \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{i=1}^{N_k} \mathbf{1}\{\hat{y}_i = y_i\}, \quad k \in \{\text{SSR}, \text{CRR}\}. \quad (\text{B.1})$$

Probe histories are not accumulated across clips. Closed-source models use at most 64 uniformly sampled frames per released clip, encoded as JPEG images with a maximum side length of 512 pixels. MiniCPM-V-4.6 uses its video processor at 1 fps, capped at 128 frames with uniform subsampling for longer clips. These are model-specific input budgets, not a controlled equal-frame comparison.

StreamingBench. For the Base and StreamingJev comparison, let s_i be the annotated query-start time and g_i the reference response time. The adapter evaluates at $s_i + 1, s_i + 2, \dots, g_i + 4$, stopping at the first response under the selected decoder. Each input contains the current available frame, the response condition and prescribed output string, the stream time, and up to 30 seconds of observation/decision history. A frame is eligible only if its presentation timestamp does not exceed the decision time. Inputs are visual-only, with temperature zero and at most eight generated tokens per decision. The reference time and evaluation horizon are not supplied in the prompt.

Closed-source models follow the benchmark’s once-per-second Yes/No readiness query and generate an answer after the first Yes, using causal 1 fps frame histories over the evaluation horizon. Response timing is measured in source-video timestamps.

Let τ_i be the first response time, or $\emptyset$ if there is no response within the evaluation horizon. Timing accuracy is

$$A_{\text{PO}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{1}\{\tau_i \neq \emptyset \wedge |\tau_i - g_i| \leq 2\}. \quad (\text{B.2})$$

The boundary is inclusive. A response before $g_i - 2$ is early, one after $g_i + 2$ is late, and no response is a miss; a later correct trigger cannot repair an earlier first response. Neither the timing-only score nor a supplied response condition tests open-ended answer generation by StreamingJev.

B.4 Timing Improvements and Error Analysis

Table B.3 reports the correct counts underlying the source-backbone comparison. StreamingJev correctly classifies 475 of 629 SSR probes and 200 of 240 CRR probes, compared with 328 and 105 for Base, respectively. On PO, it triggers within the reference window on 143 of 250 questions, compared with 29 for Base. These counts yield gains of 23.37, 39.58, and 45.60 percentage points.

Table B.3. Correct counts for StreamingJev versus Base. Both models are evaluated on the same probes or questions for each task. Differences are computed from the counts before rounding.

Task	Total	Base correct	Ours correct	Δ (pp)
OVO SSR	629	328	475	+23.37
OVO CRR	240	105	200	+39.58
StreamingBench PO	250	29	143	+45.60

First-response errors. Of the 250 PO questions, StreamingJev produces 143 on-time responses (57.20%), 71 early responses (28.40%), 10 late responses (4.00%), and 26 misses (10.40%). These mutually exclusive categories account for all questions. Early responses constitute 71 of the 107 errors (66.36%), making premature intervention the largest error category. The remaining errors comprise late responses and missed interventions; thus, first-trigger accuracy distinguishes timely intervention from merely producing an eventual response.

C Response Capability Evaluation

We evaluate answer generation on OVO-Bench, Omni-MMI, and StreamBench v0.3 to characterize the perception, temporal reasoning, and conversational capabilities available to the Response Model. Each benchmark supplies the question and answering opportunity; the model generates an answer rather than deciding when to initiate an intervention. These measurements complement the timing evaluation in Appendix B, without combining the two into a single score.

C.1 Tasks and Evaluation Coverage

Table C.1. Response-evaluation tasks and full-release coverage.

Benchmark	Evaluated units	Capability and metric
OVO-Bench	1,468 multiple-choice probes; 698 counting probes	Visual perception, backward tracing, and repetition counting; task accuracy and within-category macro accuracy.
Omni-MMI	800 records; 1,690 answers	Action prediction (AP), state grounding (SG), and multi-turn dependency (MD); record accuracy, requiring all answers correct for SG/MD.
StreamBench v0.3	307 records; 1,838 questions	Search, memory, and conversational answering; semantic accuracy per task and a four-task macro.

Table C.2 summarizes the response-side measurements. Models answer through their language-generation interfaces; StreamingJev is not used as an answer generator. LiveStar and Dispider are evaluated through their question-conditioned response paths, not their autonomous triggering policies. OVO and Omni-MMI use visual inputs without audio or ASR; StreamBench uses causal visual histories and ASR text. Input budgets are model-specific.

C.2 OVO-Bench: Perception and Temporal Evidence

The six perception tasks are optical character recognition (OCR), action recognition (ACR), attribute recognition (ATR), spatial understanding (STU), future prediction (FPD), and object recognition (OJR). Backward tracing comprises episodic memory (EPM), action sequence identification (ASI), and hallucination detection (HLD). Repetition event count (REC) is reported separately. The perception and backward summaries give their constituent tasks equal weight, rather than pooling probes. SSR and CRR belong to the timing evaluation and are not included in these averages.

Table C.2. Response capability at benchmark-supplied answering opportunities (%). OVO columns are task macros; Omni SG/MD require all-step correctness; StreamBench reports the selected core-task macro. *S* marks the selected-clip configuration described below; dashes indicate unavailable scores.

Response Model	OVO-Bench		Omni-MMI			StreamBench v0.3
	Perception	Backward	AP	SG	MD	Core-task macro
<i>Open-weight general-purpose models</i>						
Qwen3-VL-8B-Instruct	61.13	41.95	35.50	11.33	13.67	49.91
MiniCPM-V-4.6	62.30	45.27	38.00	9.00	9.33	60.38
LLaVA-OneVision-7B	64.33	44.11	23.50	5.00	5.67	52.27
Qwen3.5-4B (source backbone) ^S	66.98	53.81	35.00	13.00	11.67	50.54
<i>Streaming/proactive methods: response-path evaluation</i>						
LiveStar-8B	58.32	43.70	30.00	14.33	4.00	45.00
Dispider	54.34	36.06	0.00	5.33	6.67	—
<i>ProAgent response backbone</i>						
Qwen3.8-27B ^S	74.64	65.35	43.00	19.00	16.33	55.03

Models receive the released task prompt and corresponding video input, without reference answers. The released scorer checks multiple-choice answer letters and extracts digit groups for REC; it does not semantically rewrite model outputs. All probes remain in the denominator. Qwen3-VL-8B uses the native video interface with 64 frames and a 4,096-token output limit. LiveStar uses its 32-segment, 448-pixel visual preprocessing and a 1,024-token output limit. MiniCPM-V-4.6 samples at 1 fps, with uniform subsampling to at most 128 frames for longer clips. LLaVA-OneVision uses the exact Hugging Face checkpoint’s video processor; Dispider retains its method-specific video encoder.

Rows marked *S* use the selected-clip configuration: Qwen3.5-4B receives up to 64 sampled frames, and Qwen3.8-27B uses the selected-clip response configuration. The *S* marker identifies this visual-input configuration in the tables. Table C.3 provides task breakdowns from the same runs as the corresponding summary rows.

Table C.3. OVO content-task breakdown (%). Counts refer to full-release probes. REC is separate from the perception and backward macros.

Model	Perception					Backward tracing				
Probes	OCR	ACR	ATR	STU	FPD	OJR	EPM	ASI	HLD	REC
	149	109	116	178	101	184	297	148	186	698
MiniCPM-V-4.6	77.18	55.05	65.52	46.63	71.29	58.15	56.23	52.70	26.88	28.22
LLaVA-OneVision-7B	69.13	57.80	72.41	53.37	71.29	61.96	54.88	55.41	22.04	25.93
LiveStar-8B	60.40	51.38	63.79	43.82	71.29	59.24	54.55	61.49	15.05	0.00
Dispider	57.05	49.54	62.07	44.38	61.39	51.63	48.48	55.41	4.30	18.19
Qwen3.5-4B ^S	73.83	61.47	71.55	57.30	75.25	62.50	57.58	66.22	37.63	32.52
Qwen3.8-27B ^S	77.18	76.15	80.17	63.48	80.20	70.65	64.98	78.38	52.69	43.12

C.3 Omni-MMI: Prediction and Multi-Turn Consistency

AP evaluates action prediction with 200 single-answer records. SG evaluates changing scene states across 300 records and 704 answer events; MD evaluates multi-turn dependencies across 300 records and 786 answer events. The model receives

visual observations and the task’s question context at the supplied query points and generates text answers. The reported runs use no native audio or ASR.

We use the released OpenAI judging prompt with GPT-4-turbo to assess semantic correctness against the reference answer. The yes/no judgment, rather than a threshold on the accompanying numeric rating, determines correctness. For SG and MD, a record is correct only when every answer is correct:

$$A_{\text{all}} = \frac{100}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \prod_{j=1}^{m_i} c_{ij}, \quad c_{ij} \in \{0, 1\}. \quad (\text{C.1})$$

Here m_i is the number of answers in record i ; AP is the single-answer case. This distinguishes a correct isolated response from consistency throughout an interaction. The accuracies in Table C.2 use all 800 records and 1,690 answer events per evaluated model.

C.4 StreamBench v0.3: Causal Question Answering

StreamBench v0.3 (Xiong et al., 2025) is distinct from StreamingBench’s Proactive Output task. At each supplied question time, the model receives up to 16 visual samples from the observed video prefix, with denser coverage of the most recent 20 seconds, ASR from up to 20 seconds of recent audio, and its own earlier question–answer history. Selected frame timestamps and retained dialogue turns cannot exceed the current query time; reference answers never enter the history. Models generate text with greedy decoding and a 128-token limit. This causal-prefix adaptation uses the full released question set, rather than the full-video input of some released comparison scripts.

The six tasks are object search (OS), long-term memory search (LM), short-term memory search (SM), conversational interaction (CI), knowledge-based question answering (KG), and simple factual questions (SF). The released Meta-Llama-3-8B-Instruct judge determines semantic yes/no correctness. Task accuracy averages these judgments over all questions in that task. We summarize search, memory, and interaction by

$$A_{\text{core}} = \frac{1}{4}(A_{\text{OS}} + A_{\text{LM}} + A_{\text{SM}} + A_{\text{CI}}). \quad (\text{C.2})$$

This selected four-task macro is not an official whole-benchmark score. Table C.4 retains all six task accuracies, including KG and SF.

Table C.4. StreamBench v0.3 semantic accuracy under the causal visual-plus-ASR protocol (%). All models cover the same 307 records and 1,838 questions. Core macro averages OS, LM, SM, and CI before rounding.

Model	OS	LM	SM	CI	KG	SF	Core macro
Questions	299	303	339	297	298	302	
Qwen3-VL-8B	35.79	43.56	54.28	65.99	72.82	73.51	49.91
Qwen3.5-4B	37.12	43.23	53.10	68.69	75.84	71.85	50.54
MiniCPM-V-4.6	53.18	54.13	60.47	73.74	73.15	72.19	60.38
LLaVA-OneVision-7B	35.45	47.85	53.39	72.39	83.56	73.84	52.27
LiveStar-8B	32.11	36.30	48.97	62.63	44.30	67.55	45.00

D Role-Conditioned Streaming Evaluation

This evaluation asks whether a system can provide timely, relevant responses when an explicit question is replaced by standing responsibilities. The paired conditions share source videos and reference annotations, so their comparison isolates the change in task conditioning. Timing and response quality are measured from the same generated trajectories, as reported in Tables 1 and 2.

D.1 Dataset Construction and Paired Conditions

We construct a 200-video subset from the EGO and WEB portions of ProactiveVideoQA, selecting 100 distinct parent videos from each domain. Selection is based on source content and its compatibility with a shared role catalog, without

using the evaluated models’ scores. The subset is purposefully selected rather than a random sample of the complete benchmark.

In the *Explicit* condition, the system receives the original question. In the *Role* condition, that question is replaced by an identity and general responsibilities appropriate to the scene. The original videos, reference answers, and `reply_timespan` intervals are retained in both conditions. No new intervention windows, recipient identities, or ordering constraints are added. Reference answers and timing annotations are used only for scoring and are never included in model input. Each source clip is replayed from beginning to end, rather than cropped around its annotated answers.

Table D.1 shows two actual prompt pairs. The cooking role covers several responsibilities without naming avocado or prescribing its preparation steps; the driving role does not identify the white car or its expected behavior. This changes the information supplied to the system while keeping the scoring targets fixed.

Table D.1. Examples of the Explicit-to-Role adaptation. Questions and role prompts are reproduced from the constructed subset; videos, answers, and reference time intervals are unchanged.

Original question (Explicit)	Standing responsibilities (Role)
What are the different steps involved in preparing avocado in this process?	You are a cooking assistant supporting everyday food preparation. Attend to progress, ingredient and utensil use, and safety. Offer brief guidance, useful updates, or reminders when helpful, without repetitive interruptions.
What is happening with the white car?	You are a driving assistant helping a driver understand surrounding traffic. Attend to road conditions, vehicle movements, and safe passage. Provide concise, timely information without continuously narrating normal driving.

The retained annotations provide a common reference for comparing the two conditions; they are not an exhaustive annotation of every useful role-consistent intervention. Accordingly, an unmatched response is an error relative to this reference, not necessarily evidence that it would be unhelpful in an unconstrained setting.

D.2 Causal Inputs and System Interfaces

For the rolling-window VLM interface, observations are updated every 200 ms. Each request uses only frames available at its start: the most recent five seconds are sampled at 5 Hz and the preceding 25 seconds at 1 Hz, with duplicate boundary frames removed. Frames are resized to a maximum side length of 512 pixels. This retains approximately 50 frames in a 30-second window rather than sending all 150 observations at every update.

Speech is supplied as causal ASR text using Qwen3-ASR-1.7B. The shared ASR schedule records when each finalized utterance becomes available, including endpoint detection and recognition delay. An utterance enters a request only after that availability time and only if its source interval lies within the retained context. The dialogue history contains at most the five latest completed system responses and their timestamps, with a 1,024-token limit; older entries are removed first. Reference replies, future transcripts, and unfinished generated responses are not inserted into this history.

A standalone VLM generates a natural-language response or the exact control marker `NO_UPDATE`. The latter denotes silence; other nonempty visible text is treated as a response rather than retrospectively reinterpreted as silence. Empty output, incomplete control markers, and transport failures are not valid silence. Potential control prefixes are buffered until their interpretation is determined, and visible-response time is measured when text is actually released.

For the matched dual-model comparison, the unmodified Qwen3.5-4B and StreamingJev control the same Qwen3.8-27B Worker. The pair uses the same input and scheduling budgets. The Timing Model emits `response/silence`; the Worker generates response content when triggered. Timing and response generation operate asynchronously. A trigger freezes the currently available Worker context. While the Worker is busy, further Timing decisions are logged but do not create a second queued response; another response requires a new trigger after completion.

LiveStar (Yang et al., 2025b) and Dispider (Qian et al., 2025) retain their native observation schedules, memory, and trigger/response mechanisms rather than being reduced to the rolling-window VLM interface. Their adapters use visual input without adding ASR to the native decision paths. Thus, 200 ms specifies our observation-update setting, not a requirement that every compared method ingest frames or finish decisions at 5 Hz.

D.3 Timing and Response-Quality Measures

Let $I_j = [a_j, b_j]$ denote an original reference reply interval and t_i the first visible-text time of a generated response. Timing evaluation constructs a deterministic maximum-cardinality one-to-one matching between responses and intervals satisfying $t_i \in I_j$. Matched pairs are true positives, unmatched responses are false positives, and unmatched reference intervals are false negatives. We report

$$F_1 = \frac{2TP}{2TP + FP + FN}, \quad \text{FP/min} = \frac{FP}{T/60},$$

where T is the evaluated video duration in seconds. The main comparison averages these measures over episodes. These timing measures do not inspect answer semantics. LiveStar’s Omni-MMI PA/PT scores are omitted because its native response interface is incompatible with the required decision format. Omni-MMI PA/PT is a separate task-conditioned evaluation, not a role-transformed part of this subset.

Outcome. Each original reference answer defines one response target. For target j , we gather generated responses whose first visible text falls within I_j and ask whether they jointly convey all essential reference information, including the specified people or objects. Paraphrases are accepted and repetition earns no additional credit. Complete coverage scores one; partial, incorrect, or absent coverage scores zero. No identity or ordering requirement absent from the reference is introduced. For an episode with m reference targets,

$$S_{\text{Outcome}} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^m c_j, \quad c_j \in \{0, 1\}.$$

Scores are first averaged within each episode and then across episodes. This measures delivered verbal content, not completion of a physical action.

PAUC. We follow the ProactiveVideoQA metric and official scoring procedure (Wang et al., 2025a), including cumulative response deduplication, semantic judgments, time integration, and aggregation across reference reply turns. For a reference turn g with assistance interval $[a_g, b_g]$, let $t_1 < \dots < t_m$ be the response timestamps within that interval. At each t_i , GPT-4.1 evaluates the accumulated response content against the reference answer, assigning $s_i \in \{0, 1, 2\}$ for completely incorrect, partially correct, and mostly correct content, respectively. To balance timeliness and correctness, the metric transforms each timestamp to

$$u_i = a_g + (1 - \omega)(t_i - a_g), \quad \omega = 0.5. \quad (\text{D.1})$$

Starting from a score of 0.5, it integrates the resulting piecewise-constant score curve and normalizes by the maximum possible area $2(b_g - a_g)$:

$$\text{PAUC}_g = \frac{0.5(u_1 - a_g) + \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} s_i(u_{i+1} - u_i) + s_m(b_g - u_m)}{2(b_g - a_g)}. \quad (\text{D.2})$$

If there is no response within the interval, the official initial score gives $\text{PAUC}_g = 0.5/2 = 0.25$. The reported score is the mean over reference reply turns, following the official implementation. Thus, PAUC rewards correct information delivered earlier within the assistance window and is distinct from binary coverage accuracy. Outcome retains its own binary coverage criterion. Both semantic evaluations use GPT-4.1 with model identities hidden from the judge: the official prompt for PAUC and a fixed coverage prompt for Outcome.

All these measures use the same self-triggered trajectories. There is no second generation pass at reference trigger times. A reply beginning within a reference interval may be evaluated for content even if generation finishes later; its completion time is recorded separately.

D.4 Runtime Configuration and Measurement

For the rolling-window interface, inference is single-stream and does not accumulate a queue of obsolete requests. Observations continue to enter the buffer while generation is in progress. When the system becomes available, it processes the latest eligible context instead of replaying missed inference opportunities. Video end stops new requests; in-flight output keeps its actual timestamps and is not backdated.

The main response table reports mean first-text latency over emitted responses. Table D.3 reports decision frequency as total completed decisions divided by total effective playback time. ProAgent’s 200 ms observation interval corresponds to a

Table D.2. Runtime measures accompanying the paired evaluation. Response latency and completed decision frequency describe different parts of the streaming workload.

Measure	Definition
Response latency	Time from the start of the processing cycle that produces a response to its first visible text, including input preparation and scheduling. For the dual-model system, the cycle starts with the triggering Timing request and ends with the Worker’s first visible text.
Decision frequency	Number of completed intervention decisions, including silence decisions, divided by effective playback duration. For the dual-model system, decisions are counted at the Timing Model. Completions after video end are recorded separately.
Completion latency	Time from the same processing-cycle start to the last response text; distinct from first-text latency and reference-time error.

5 Hz input cadence; its measured completed decision frequencies are 4.723 Hz under Explicit and 4.754 Hz under Role. An episode with no visible response does not receive zero response latency. Input frame rate, token-generation rate, and inverse response latency are not substitutes for decision frequency.

Table D.3. Completed decision frequency in the paired evaluation. Decision Hz counts completed intervention decisions per second of effective playback, including silence decisions. For the dual-model systems, decisions are counted at the Timing Model.

System	Explicit (Hz)	Role (Hz)
<i>General-purpose: open weights</i>		
Qwen3.5-4B	0.4687	0.4780
Qwen3-VL-8B-Instruct	0.6215	0.6420
MiniCPM-V-4.6	0.8196	0.8297
<i>General-purpose: closed source</i>		
GPT-6	0.0692	0.0610
Gemini	0.0671	0.0661
Claude	0.0710	0.0774
<i>Streaming/proactive methods</i>		
LiveStar-8B	0.3411	0.3238
Dispider	0.7129	0.7177
<i>Matched Timing Models + shared Worker</i>		
Qwen3.5-4B Base + Worker	4.812	4.792
StreamingJev + Worker (Ours)	4.723	4.754

Open-weight standalone VLMs use native BF16 inference on an A800 80 GB GPU; the matched dual-model deployment uses a separate GPU for each model, excluding shared ASR preparation. Model loading, compilation, and warm-up are recorded separately from replay. Decoding settings, output limits, and enabled inference optimizations are retained with each measured configuration rather than assumed to be identical across backends. Both matched Timing/Worker configurations disable thinking; other models disable it where the serving interface supports this setting. A response reaching its token limit is retained for scoring and marked as truncated.

Remote-service measurements include network and service time and are reported separately from local-GPU systems. These are aggregate response times: the comparison does not separately attribute latency to internal reasoning, network transfer, or service processing. Where the declared fault-pause policy applies, service-recovery intervals are excluded from effective playback time, while raw wall-clock time and excluded duration are retained. Ordinary slow inference remains part of playback and latency.

E Embodied Evaluation Protocol and Case Studies

E.1 Task Categories and Information Access

The evaluation consists of 60 cases, divided equally among Guidance, Warning, and Interaction (Table E.1). Each case specifies an evolving physical situation, the agent’s standing responsibilities, and the communication or device functions available to it. The intervention reference comprises a reference time and required events with associated people or objects and ordering constraints. These references are hidden from the system during inference.

Table E.1. Functional coverage of the embodied evaluation.

Category	Cases	Intervention function
Guidance	20	Timely information, instruction, and assistance during an ongoing activity.
Warning	20	Correction or warning in response to emerging errors and risks.
Interaction	20	Recognition of human needs and sustained proactive engagement.
Total	60	

Standing responsibilities define the scope of assistance without disclosing the case-specific trigger or expected response. Event matching uses observable interaction or execution evidence: describing an intended physical action or receiving a function-call acknowledgment does not establish that the action occurred.

E.2 Metric Definitions

Let t_{start} denote the reference time at which an intervention is warranted and t_{trigger} the observed response initiation time. Time measures their absolute deviation:

$$L = |t_{\text{trigger}} - t_{\text{start}}|. \quad (\text{E.1})$$

Both early and late interventions increase this error.

Let N_{total} be the number of required evaluation events, including unexecuted events, and N_{match} the number matched in content and associated person or object. Outcome is

$$S_{\text{outcome}} = \begin{cases} N_{\text{match}}/N_{\text{total}}, & \text{if the prescribed execution order is respected,} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (\text{E.2})$$

Only prescribed ordering constraints are evaluated; independent events are not assigned an artificial total order. Outcome is reported on a 0–1 scale, with higher scores indicating more complete assistance.

E.3 Aggregation

Results are summarized separately for each functional category. The main table reports mean Time and mean Outcome. Missed interventions are distinguished from zero-error measurements when computing Time.

E.4 Qualitative Embodied Case Studies

We examine four recorded scenarios to make the task-level decisions of ProPAI concrete. Figure 4 presents the visible interaction sequences, while Figure E.1 explains how the situations relate to need discovery, intervention timing, available executors, and feedback. These recordings illustrate the system’s interaction mechanisms; category-level scores are computed from the separate 60-case evaluation.

People as physical-task executors. The phone sequence illustrates why the response space includes both human-facing communication and device-facing actions. The person changes the physical state by retrieving the phone. An assistant could therefore help through a reminder, while the person supplies the manipulation capability. The visible retrieval provides an observable outcome for assessing whether the object has been recovered.

Intervention logic in the four embodied scenarios

	Need discovery Scene and responsibility	Whether / when Intervention and restraint	Who / what People and capabilities	Feedback The next decision
(a) Leg discomfort Physical discomfort	Holding the lower leg suggests a possible need for assistance.	A sustained cue may justify checking in. Ordinary activity may warrant silence.	The robot can approach. The person can clarify what help is wanted.	Proximity is observed. Further help depends on the person's response. Recovery is not verified.
(b) Sudden faintness Possible distress	An abrupt posture change suggests a possible need; its cause remains uncertain.	A check-in may precede knowing the cause. Escalation needs more evidence and authority.	Approach is observed. Further action depends on available people and device capabilities.	Staying nearby is observed. Effective help needs evidence beyond physical proximity.
(c) Library wayfinding Intent clarification	Looking around may suggest a navigation need or ordinary browsing.	Clarify whether help is welcome before offering guidance.	Robot movement and human participation can jointly support a guided route.	Doorway entry is observed. The intended destination still needs confirmation.
(d) Forgotten phone Human as executor	Departure starts while a phone remains behind: an object and activity may be inconsistent.	A reminder may help before departure ends. Ownership and the role determine relevance.	The person can retrieve the phone after a reminder. Robot grasping is unnecessary.	The phone is retrieved. This state change may support closing the reminder episode.

Figure E.1. Interpreting the cases through the ProPAI formulation. The columns relate each scenario to a possible assistance need, whether and when intervention may be appropriate, who or what could execute a response, and how subsequent observations should inform the next decision. The phone case highlights the person as a physical-task executor: a reminder can support object retrieval without requiring robot manipulation. The final column distinguishes an observed state change from evidence needed to establish completion. The intervention logic provides a conceptual interpretation of the observed actions and states in Figure 4.

Feedback determines what remains unresolved. The cases illustrate the role of feedback in assessing task completion. Proximity can be observed when the robot approaches a person; subsequent observations and human feedback are needed to assess whether assistance has resolved the underlying need. Similarly, navigation progress and arrival at the intended destination represent distinct states. These distinctions inform whether an intervention should continue, change, or conclude.

F Efficiency Evaluation and Component Analysis

The efficiency comparison in Table 4 examines how Incremental Caching, Dynamic Token Dropping, and Prefix-constrained Decoding reduce streaming decision latency and peak GPU memory usage. This appendix describes the cumulative configurations, measurement definitions, interpretation of the reported results, implementation details, and effects of the DTD budgets.

F.1 Workload and Cumulative Configurations

We evaluate the trained StreamingJev Timing Model on 398 temporal sequences drawn from EgoLife, Kinetics, CharadesEgo, XD-Violence, TimeLens, EgoExoLearn, and UR-Fall. The collection comprises 332 unique source video files and 3,370 seconds of video, yielding 3,768 timing decisions per configuration. Each update introduces one new frame sampled at 1 Hz, and retains the complete append-only history of its sequence. Sequences contain 1–17 frames. Inputs use dynamic image resolution with a processor pixel range of 65,536–262,144; audio and ASR text are excluded.

All configurations use the same trained model on a single NVIDIA A800-SXM4-80GB GPU with BF16 precision, SDPA attention, and batch size 1. Only one stream and one configuration run at a time. The inference backend is a custom Transformers adapter using Transformers 5.14.1, PyTorch 2.10.0, and FLA operators supplied by vLLM 0.18.1.

We compare four cumulative configurations. *Full recomputation* processes the retained multimodal context at each update. *Incremental Caching* processes only newly appended frames and reuses historical post-vision-encoder features and compatible language-model KV states. *DTD* removes redundant current-frame visual tokens by comparing features at the same token-grid indices in the preceding frame when their visual grids match. *Prefix-constrained Decoding* further restricts generation to legal decision prefixes and stops when the binary decision is uniquely determined. The mechanisms are described in Section 3.2.

Each row measures the additional benefit of its component in this ordering, with DTD fixed at $\tau = 0.5$. All configurations receive identical images, text, and frozen causal histories. Historical assistant outputs are taken from an initial full-recomputation pass, so the comparison holds interaction history fixed rather than allowing each configuration’s outputs to alter its subsequent inputs.

Before measurement, each configuration is warmed up on the first, a middle, and a longest sequence; warm-up measurements are excluded. The results come from one complete paired run with configurations interleaved in groups. Each sequence starts with a fresh session. Because histories contain at most 17 frames, this experiment does not exercise history eviction or sliding-window shifts. Cache validity and reset rules are described in Section G.1.

F.2 Latency, Memory, and Decision Agreement

Let a_i be the synchronized inference start time after image decoding and preprocessing for update i , and b_i the synchronized completion time of its timing decision. Inference latency is

$$\ell_i = b_i - a_i. \quad (\text{F.1})$$

We synchronize the GPU before starting a high-resolution wall-clock timer and again after inference completes. Latency excludes image decoding and preprocessing. P50 and P95 are computed over all 3,768 update latencies for each configuration, rather than averaging per-video quantiles.

Memory is peak PyTorch allocated GPU memory, including model weights, activations, and caches. Peak statistics are reset for each sequence, and the reported value is the maximum across sequences, in GB.

Decision agreement compares the configuration’s output $\hat{y}_i$ with the full-recomputation output y_i^{full} at the same update in the paired run:

$$\text{Agree} = \frac{100}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{1}[\hat{y}_i = y_i^{\text{full}}], \quad N = 3,768. \quad (\text{F.2})$$

The DTD and complete configurations each match 3,717 reference decisions, giving 98.65% agreement. Agreement measures preservation of the baseline decision, not task accuracy. All evaluated updates produced valid decisions.

F.3 Component Effects

As shown in Table 4, Incremental Caching reduces P50 latency from 346.84 to 240.26 ms while retaining 100.00% decision agreement. Adding DTD further reduces P50 to 214.16 ms, with agreement of 98.65%. Prefix-constrained Decoding lowers P50 to 147.05 ms without a further change in the reported agreement. Across the cumulative configurations, P95 decreases from 512.63 to 251.77 ms and peak memory from 9.8544 to 9.50 GB.

The complete configuration reduces median latency by approximately 57.6% and P95 by 50.9% relative to full recomputation. These results describe the cumulative execution path rather than order-independent effects of the individual mechanisms. These measurements isolate inference cost on the fixed 1 Hz workload. The 200 ms observation cadence and completed decision frequencies in the paired interaction evaluation are reported separately in Appendix D.4.

F.4 Implementation Details.

Incremental Caching. We implement the three mechanisms as independently switchable modules around the trained StreamingJev Timing Model, keeping its weights fixed across configurations. Each stream is assigned an isolated session state

Table F.1. Sensitivity to the DTD threshold. Retention denotes the percentage of current-frame visual tokens retained. Agree. is decision agreement with full recomputation. Mem. is peak live GPU allocation in GB.

τ	Retention (%) ↓	P50 (ms) ↓	P95 (ms) ↓	Mem. (GB) ↓	Agree. (%) ↑
1.0	100.00	240.26	270.06	9.63	100.00
0.9	67.76	214.16	269.73	9.50	98.65
0.8	51.67	211.25	252.12	9.44	97.08
0.7	37.82	207.50	249.89	9.38	96.13
0.6	25.34	202.84	253.02	9.33	94.29
0.5	16.37	197.49	247.16	9.29	93.42

containing the ordered image identifiers, full post-vision-encoder features of previously observed frames, and the language model’s KV cache for the stable prompt prefix. At each update, only newly appended frames undergo image decoding, resizing, normalization, and visual encoding. The prompt tokens and multimodal position indices are reconstructed to verify prefix compatibility, after which the language model evaluates only the uncached suffix. The mutable generation suffix is excluded from the persistent prefix state. Image reuse requires an append-only frame history. Removing, replacing, or reordering a historical frame causes the session to be rebased. Likewise, a mismatch in cached token IDs, position IDs, or KV-cache length invalidates the language-model prefix cache. Changes to the model, processor, chat template, or DTD configuration require a new session. Thus, no cached state is shared across unrelated streams.

Dynamic Token Dropping. Let $\mathbf{z}_{t,j}$ and $\mathbf{z}_{t-1,j}$ denote the post-vision-encoder features at token-grid index j in the current and immediately preceding frames. When the two frames have matching visual grids and feature shapes, DTD computes their cosine similarity in FP32:

$$s_{t,j} = \frac{\mathbf{z}_{t,j}^\top \mathbf{z}_{t-1,j}}{\|\mathbf{z}_{t,j}\|_2 \|\mathbf{z}_{t-1,j}\|_2}. \quad (\text{F.3})$$

A current-frame token is retained when $s_{t,j} \leq \tau$ and removed when $s_{t,j} > \tau$, where τ is the DTD threshold. At least $K_{\min} = 1$ token with the lowest similarity is retained. The first frame and frames with incompatible grids are kept in full, and $\tau = 1$ defines the identity configuration. The keep mask is applied consistently to the visual placeholders, embeddings, and position indices before language-model prefill. Retained tokens preserve their original multimodal rotary positions. The full, unpruned current-frame features are cached as the reference for the next frame, preventing pruning errors from accumulating across time. DTD affects only newly appended tokens and never modifies historical tokens already stored in the KV cache.

Prefix-constrained Decoding. The two legal outputs, `<silence>` and `<response>`, are tokenized and organized as a prefix trie, with a maximum generation length of eight tokens. At each decoding step, the output projection is evaluated only for tokens that extend a legal prefix. Once the remaining prefix is compatible with exactly one decision, the corresponding canonical token sequence is emitted without additional decoder forward passes. This reduces both full-vocabulary projection and autoregressive model execution while preventing invalid outputs.

F.5 Effects of the DTD Threshold.

DTD removes a current-frame visual token when its cosine similarity to the token at the same grid location in the preceding frame exceeds the threshold τ . A lower τ therefore produces more aggressive pruning, whereas $\tau = 1.0$ is an identity configuration that retains all visual tokens. We sweep τ from 0.5 to 1.0 while holding the checkpoint, input histories, and inference backend fixed. Apart from DTD, incremental caching is the only optimization enabled throughout the sweep; prefix-constrained decoding and all other optimization modules are disabled. Lowering τ from 1.0 to 0.5 reduces the retained-token ratio from 100.00% to 16.37%, removing 83.63% of current-frame visual tokens at the most aggressive setting.

DTD provides a clear reduction in median latency, while its effects on tail latency and memory are more modest. Relative to $\tau = 1.0$, $\tau = 0.5$ reduces P50 latency by 17.8%, from 240.26 to 197.49 ms, and P95 latency by 8.5%, from 270.06 to 247.16 ms. Peak allocated memory decreases by 3.5%, from 9.63 to 9.29 GB. This difference is expected because DTD is applied after the vision encoder: it reduces language-model prefill and subsequent KV-cache growth, but does not avoid visual-encoder computation. Moreover, model weights account for most of the measured GPU memory.

More aggressive pruning introduces a corresponding tradeoff in decision consistency. Agreement with full recomputation decreases from 100.00% at $\tau = 1.0$ to 93.42% at $\tau = 0.5$. The more conservative $\tau = 0.9$ setting retains 67.76% of visual tokens, reduces P50 latency by 10.9%, and preserves 98.65% decision agreement. The deployment threshold can therefore be selected according to the required balance between latency and decision consistency. Because each threshold was evaluated in a single full pass, small non-monotonic differences, particularly in P95 latency, should be treated as descriptive rather than statistically significant.

G System Implementation and Training Details

ProAgent connects continuous observation to intervention through three parts of its implementation: the runtime that maintains context and coordinates the two models, the data pipeline that supplies timing supervision, and the capability interface that turns responses into communication or device actions. This appendix follows that path, complementing the architecture in Section 3.

G.1 Runtime, Context, and Memory

Continuous observation and asynchronous response. The Timing and Response Models share an observation source but maintain separate model-dependent states. The runtime makes recent observations, standing responsibilities, available capabilities, interaction history, and ongoing intervention state available to each model. The Timing Model decides whether output should be active; the Response Model determines the response content and executor. Response-context preparation and timing prediction can proceed asynchronously, while generation remains trigger-gated. The evaluated replay and busy-state handling are specified in Appendix D.

Context availability and state reuse. A context item becomes usable when it is available to the system, not merely when the underlying event occurred. In particular, a transcript finalized after a decision cannot be inserted into that earlier decision. Observation timestamps, derived-information availability, and completed response times therefore have distinct roles in constructing causal inputs. The retained context and sampling settings of each experiment are given in its evaluation protocol rather than assumed to be universal.

Each model’s cache corresponds to its own weights, prompt, retained inputs, and position assignments. Sharing observations does not imply sharing KV states across the two models. Reuse requires an unchanged prefix; removing old context, changing its representation, or resetting a session requires updating or invalidating the affected cached states. Appendix F specifies the efficiency comparison and the component-level measurements.

Interaction history and unfinished tasks. Recent perceptual context explains what has just changed, whereas interaction history records what the system has already said or attempted. Ongoing intervention state serves a different purpose: it distinguishes a need that remains unresolved from a response currently being generated or a device operation still in progress. These are runtime distinctions, not additional classes in the Timing Model’s binary output. They prevent each observation update from being treated as an unrelated opportunity to start the same intervention.

Longer-lived task, episodic, and user/environment memory can extend this context beyond the current observation window. Such memory would retain the source and validity of a belief, distinguish uncertain inferences from explicit instructions, and revise stale information when new evidence arrives. Learning when to retrieve, correct, or forget these records is a further design question, developed in Section H.1.

Output ownership and execution feedback. Releasing the conversational output channel does not cancel a physical operation already dispatched. Likewise, an accepted function call establishes that execution was requested, not that the task succeeded. Returned status and subsequent observations inform whether assistance should continue, change, or end; cancellation and recovery use operations supported by the executor. Coordination of concurrent tasks can build on these distinctions by tracking resource commitments and linking retries to the original request, rather than issuing independent duplicate actions.

G.2 Timing Supervision and Training

Training data. The training corpus contains 224,268 multi-turn decision sequences from 20,258 source videos, with 2,058,267 supervised decision turns. Each sequence pairs a task or role context with 1–17 successive visual observations

and their decision labels. Table G.1 reports the source distribution after construction, filtering, and deduplication. Explicit-condition supervision accounts for 98,730 sequences (44.02%); role- and anomaly-conditioned supervision accounts for 125,538 (55.98%), comprising 91,864 role sequences, 31,394 confirmed-silence anomaly sequences, and 2,280 anomaly-onset sequences.

Table G.1. Source distribution of the Timing Model training corpus. Counts refer to multi-turn decision sequences; percentages use the full training corpus as the denominator.

Source	Training sequences	Share (%)
COIN	58,811	26.22
HoloAssist	41,920	18.69
Ego-Exo4D	38,037	16.96
Anomaly videos	33,674	15.02
HACS	22,322	9.95
YouCook2	17,673	7.88
EgoIT-99K	6,253	2.79
QEVD-FIT-COACH	5,578	2.49
Total	224,268	100.00

We preserve the source datasets’ training and validation partitions when constructing sequences. The validation split contains 46,573 sequences from 2,958 videos, with 421,287 supervised decision turns. The two splits are disjoint at the source-video and event levels. The training corpus is disjoint from all evaluation benchmarks used in this paper, including OVO-Bench, Omni-MMI, StreamingBench, and StreamBench.

Causal sequence construction. Offline annotation uses complete recordings to locate event context and response windows; each training input contains only observations available by its decision time. Regular sequences sample one frame per second for up to 17 observations, covering approximately 16 seconds. Subsecond events without a valid integer-second positive observation retain a single observation at their native timestamp. The native Qwen3.5 processor encodes images with a maximum area of 230,400 pixels.

The first turn supplies the task or role prompt, the current image, and the output state; subsequent turns append new observations and states. Teacher forcing retains preceding ground-truth decisions, and each output state is updated causally from the preceding decision, starting from an idle state. Training uses images and task/state text, with supervision on decision labels. Causal ASR used in evaluation is specified separately in Appendix D. Unknown intervals are excluded, and silence sequences do not bridge unknown gaps.

Optimization. We train StreamingJev from Qwen3.5-4B for three epochs, updating all language-model parameters and the native output head while freezing the visual encoder and visual merger. Table G.2 summarizes the configuration. The model retains its native vocabulary: <response> and <silence> are encoded as three and four tokens, respectively. Their meanings depend on the output state: START/WAIT when idle and CONTINUE/STOP when output is active.

Equation 10 supervises all assistant decision turns. Decision-text tokens receive weights of 0.8, 1.2, 1.0, and 1.0 for WAIT, START, CONTINUE, and STOP, respectively; turn-ending tokens and retained newlines receive weight 1.0. Input tokens, padding, and empty thinking prefixes are masked. The loss is normalized by the number of valid supervised tokens in the global batch. The corpus contains 974,144 response decisions (47.33%) and 1,084,123 silence decisions (52.67%).

G.3 Response Generation and Capability Execution

From an intervention decision to a response. The Response Model uses the observed situation, relevant people, available devices, and previous interaction or execution results to decide whom to address and what to do. An existing multimodal foundation model is adapted through contextual prompting, without separately training a response backbone. Human-facing text is passed to external TTS; device-facing responses select callable operations and their arguments. A response may combine communication with device actions.

Table G.2. Training configuration of StreamingJev.

Setting	Value
Backbone	Qwen3.5-4B
Trainable modules	Language model and native output head
Frozen modules	Visual encoder and visual merger
Epochs	3
Optimizer	AdamW
Peak learning rate	2.5×10^{-6}
Schedule / warm-up	Cosine / 5% of updates
Adam parameters	$\beta_1 = 0.9, \beta_2 = 0.95, \epsilon = 10^{-8}$
Weight decay / gradient clipping	0.01 / maximum norm 1.0
Global batch size	16 sequences (16 GPUs, one sequence per GPU)
Gradient accumulation	1
Maximum sequence length	8,192 tokens
Maximum image area	230,400 pixels
Precision / distributed strategy	BF16 / DeepSpeed ZeRO-2
Random seed	20260811

Capability representation and discovery. Let $\mathcal{P}_t$ denote the available providers and $\mathcal{K}_p$ the capabilities declared by provider p . The callable action space is

$$\mathcal{A}_t^{\text{call}} = \bigcup_{p \in \mathcal{P}_t} \{(i_p, n_k, v_k) \mid k \in \mathcal{K}_p\}, \quad (\text{G.1})$$

where i_p identifies a provider and (n_k, v_k) the capability name and version. Provider identity and capability identity remain separate: a provider may offer several operations, and different providers may offer the same semantic capability.

The local registry aggregates available capability descriptions and presents them as function definitions to the Response Model. A description specifies what an operation does and the schemas of its arguments and return value. It does not require the model to know the provider’s private SDK, transport, or low-level controller. Table G.3 groups the representation by its role in the interaction.

Table G.3. Fields connecting capability discovery, invocation, and execution feedback.

Representation	Fields	Role
Provider descriptor	schema_version, provider_id, capabilities	Identify the representation and device provider, and enumerate its operations. Optional metadata describes the device.
Capability descriptor	name, version, description, input_schema, output_schema	Specify a namespaced operation, its meaning, accepted arguments, and returned values.
Invocation	schema_version, request_id, provider_id, capability, arguments	Select a provider and versioned capability; bind the operation’s parameters.
Return	schema_version, request_id, success, result or error	Associate feedback with the request. Errors contain code, message, and optional details.

A complete invocation path. The following example illustrates a cleaning capability. It declares a string argument `area`, an optional mode from `auto`, `spot`, or `deep`, and an output containing `accepted` and, when available, an `operation_id`. Its argument schema requires `area` and disallows undeclared properties; the output schema requires the Boolean `accepted`. The same operation is registered, invoked, and returned as follows:

```
# Register the declared schema and its device implementation.
registry.register(
    provider_id="vacuum_01",
    capability={
        "name": "cleaning.clean_area",
```

```

        "version": "1.0",
        "description": "Start cleaning a specified area.",
        "input_schema": CleanAreaInput,
        "output_schema": CleanAreaOutput
    },
    implementation=clean_area
)

# Invocation envelope produced for the selected operation.
{
    "schema_version": "0.1",
    "request_id": "req_1024",
    "provider_id": "vacuum_01",
    "capability": {"name": "cleaning.clean_area", "version": "1.0"},
    "arguments": {"area": "kitchen", "mode": "spot"}
}

# The registered function wraps the existing device controller.
def clean_area(area, mode="auto"):
    return vacuum_sdk.start_cleaning(
        target_area=area, cleaning_mode=mode
    )

# Return envelope: acceptance is distinct from task completion.
{
    "schema_version": "0.1",
    "request_id": "req_1024",
    "success": true,
    "result": {"accepted": true, "operation_id": "clean_381"}
}

```

Validation, dispatch, and feedback. Before dispatch, the runtime checks provider availability, capability membership, version compatibility, and argument-schema conformance. The registered function executes through its underlying controller and returns a schema-conforming result or a structured error. For example, an unavailable provider returns `success: false` with the code `PROVIDER_UNAVAILABLE`; other errors distinguish invalid arguments, denied permissions, unmet preconditions, execution failure, and timeout. The Response Model receives this feedback in its continuing context and can revise the response or select another available operation.

A syntactically valid call does not itself grant permission or establish physical completion. Execution limits belong to the provider and runtime; task completion is established through feedback and subsequent observations. Retries, replanning, and recovery are agent/runtime decisions, not implied by the function signature. The callable boundary can use a local function, an SDK wrapper, or a transport such as MCP, HTTP, ROS, or WebSocket without changing the operation's declared input and output semantics.

From device operations to reusable skills. The same boundary supports a progression from device primitives to bounded skills and compositions of skills. A specialized VLA could be exposed as a callable skill: the high-level model selects a goal, while the specialized policy maintains its own perception and low-level control. Its capability description must specify the supported observations, workspace, arguments, and termination conditions.

This separation also provides a route to harness-level skill evolution. Execution feedback could motivate revised skill descriptions, parameters, wrappers, or reusable compositions, with proposed updates tested before deployment. These are extensions enabled by the architecture, rather than additional capabilities established by the present experiments. Section [H.3](#) develops the corresponding learning and validation questions.

H Open Challenges and Research Directions

The modular Engine is one realization of ProPAI, not a restriction on future architectures. The following questions describe a broader research agenda connecting continuous world understanding, intervention learning, and physical execution. Each box states an open problem; the accompanying text outlines candidate approaches and the evidence needed to assess them.

H.1 Persistent World Understanding and Memory

Open Challenge 1

How can a proactive system connect past commitments, present evidence, and possible futures to recognize when intervention becomes useful?

Remembering unresolved needs. Memory provides the starting point for persistent world understanding: preserving task-relevant continuity without confusing historical evidence with the present world. A task may remain unresolved after its original visual evidence disappears, while a visible hazard may already have been handled by someone else. A future memory system could combine an event-and-entity representation with explicit task commitments and intervention outcomes, retrieving information according to its causal relevance rather than textual similarity alone.

Learning when to write, retrieve, consolidate, revise, and forget may be as important as learning the response policy. User corrections should update the relevant belief without silently changing unrelated memories; uncertain identities and conflicting observations should remain explicit. Evaluation could test resumption of interrupted tasks, redundant interventions, errors caused by stale beliefs, and correction propagation over extended sessions. Comparisons should control context and retrieval budgets and include retention and deletion requirements, rather than equating a larger memory with a better proactive system.

A concrete starting point is a layered memory: a short-lived perceptual buffer for recent evidence, an episodic record of interventions and their outcomes, and a persistent task state for commitments that outlive either window. A task record could link its initiating evidence, responsible person or device, completion condition, and next relevant observation. For example, an illustrative cooking assistant should distinguish a pot that still needs attention from one already removed by the user, even if both situations follow the same earlier reminder. Retrieval would then answer not only “what happened?” but “what remains to be done?”

This organization suggests different memory access paths for the two models. The Timing Model could consult a compact account of unresolved conditions at each update, while the Response Model retrieves supporting episodes only when planning assistance. The key question is which state can be compressed without erasing the evidence needed to change a decision. Paired histories with identical recent frames but different prior commitments or completed actions would help isolate this ability from short-window visual recognition.

Anticipating actionable changes. While memory tracks what remains unresolved, prediction connects subtle precursors to the consequences of waiting or acting. For example, an illustrative system might estimate whether an unstable object is likely to fall and whether a warning or available device action could still help. The relevant prediction is not only what the scene will look like, but how possible interventions change the outcomes and the remaining time in which they are useful.

A future design could use a predictive model to propose response windows or compare candidate interventions, while grounding the final decision in observed evidence, available capabilities, and uncertainty. Forecasts should remain distinguishable from observations in memory and planning. Evaluation should separate predictive accuracy from intervention benefit: an accurate forecast can still produce an unnecessary, infeasible, or late response. Controlled scenarios and appropriately designed comparisons would be needed to assess the benefit of anticipation rather than assume it from visually plausible predictions.

Prediction could also be conditioned on the available executor. A warning that a person can act on immediately and a robot action that requires navigation have different useful starting times. Rather than optimizing forecasting in isolation, a future system could estimate the remaining opportunity for each feasible response and update that estimate as new evidence arrives. Comparisons between observation-only and predictive policies should therefore examine both interventions made possible by earlier preparation and false interventions induced by uncertain forecasts.

H.2 Native Proactive Models and Real-Time Computation

Open Challenge 2

How can a model jointly learn continuous observation, intervention timing, and response generation while allocating computation to meet intervention deadlines?

Joint modeling of timing and response. A native model could internalize some of the coordination currently provided by the Timing Model, Response Model, and Harness. Candidate architectures include a shared streaming backbone with specialized decision and response pathways, or a persistent recurrent state that supports both intervention decisions and language or capability outputs. The scientific question is whether shared representations improve the coupling between timing and response without allowing expensive generation to delay observation updates or degrade restraint.

Such a model would need supervision for silence, response initiation, continuation, and closure alongside response content and execution feedback. Silence is not simply the absence of an answer token: it is a decision made while observations continue to arrive. A fair comparison with the modular system should match data, modalities, context, and compute, and assess both response quality and decision latency. Unification would not remove the need for external device interfaces, permission enforcement, or independently observable execution outcomes.

One architectural route is to maintain a shared causal state with a lightweight decision pathway and a selectively activated response pathway. Observation updates would continue during response generation, allowing new evidence to revise an unfinished plan before it is dispatched. This raises a concrete state-consistency problem: the system must know which observations support a draft response and when later evidence invalidates it. Another route is to distill coordinated behavior from the modular system into a native model, then extend training to continuous interaction sequences rather than isolated question–answer examples. The modular design provides a useful experimental reference because timing, generation, and execution feedback can be varied separately.

Adaptive computation. Incremental Caching, Dynamic Token Dropping, and Prefix-constrained Decoding address local sources of overhead. A broader question is how much computation each moment deserves. Slowly changing scenes may permit inexpensive monitoring, whereas an ambiguous change near a response boundary may justify denser observations, retained visual detail, or escalation to a larger model. Candidate policies could adapt observation cadence, token retention, retrieval depth, and response preparation to uncertainty and estimated urgency. They must also preserve coverage of unexpected events that a cheap monitor might otherwise fail to notice.

This creates a joint timing and resource-allocation problem. Useful comparisons would report the trade-off among intervention quality, tail latency, energy, and memory under the same event stream and external deadlines. Stress tests could include simultaneous tasks, network delays, long histories, and bursts of sensor input. A configuration should not be called more efficient merely because it silently skips difficult observations or reduces the opportunities at which a response is evaluated.

In particular, efficient inference should be studied as a scheduling problem as well as a model-compression problem. Observation encoding, memory retrieval, speculative response preparation, and output decoding compete for a finite compute budget. A scheduler could prioritize a new high-urgency observation over an obsolete draft, or reuse prepared context when the triggering evidence remains valid. Experiments should charge discarded speculative work to the compute budget and count missed opportunities during busy periods. This would distinguish genuine gains from shifting latency into an unreported queue or precomputation phase.

H.3 From Execution Feedback to Capability Growth

Open Challenge 3

How can experience improve intervention decisions, expand the set of executable skills, and refine their composition into reliable assistance?

Learning from preferences and outcomes. Complete events suggest useful comparisons: a timely intervention may be preferable to a late one, restraint to an unnecessary interruption, and a feasible response to an unavailable action. These comparisons are conditional on the task and environment rather than universal reward rules. Future work could investigate temporal preference learning or outcome-based reinforcement learning, using verified execution traces and human corrections to complement broad video supervision.

Outcome attribution is a central difficulty. An observed recovery may be caused by another person, by the environment itself, or by the system’s action; a failure may arise from the timing decision, the plan, or the executor. Moreover, logs produced by one policy do not reveal what would have happened under every alternative. Progress requires preserving provenance and distinguishing these sources of uncertainty. Evaluation should use held-out tasks and independent outcome checks, and retain unnecessary interventions and failures rather than training only from successful trajectories.

A useful progression would begin with matched timing preferences under the same context, then introduce closed-loop episodes in which an intervention changes later observations. Timing and response could first be optimized separately with the other component fixed, before exploring joint learning. This staged comparison would help determine whether a gain comes from recognizing the need earlier, selecting a better action, or executing it more reliably. Feedback should retain these distinctions: a fluent response, an accepted device request, and a completed physical task are different learning signals. Where counterfactual outcomes are unavailable, preference judgments and observed outcomes should remain separate rather than being treated as interchangeable rewards.

Specialized skills and cross-embodiment composition. Exposing specialized VLAs as callable functions would let a high-level model reason about goals while each executor handles its local perception and control. The difficult part is establishing a useful capability contract: supported objects, workspace, required observations, expected failure modes, and conditions under which the policy should decline or stop. Capability selection could depend on such information rather than treating every executor as an interchangeable implementation of an abstract command.

An expanding skill library also changes which interventions are feasible and how early they must begin. A slower but more reliable executor may require a different response window; losing a manipulation skill may make a human warning preferable to direct action. A meaningful transfer study would freeze the proactive models, vary the declared skill inventory or embodiment, and measure capability selection, task completion, timing, and failures under the changed conditions. Zero-shot substitution should be distinguished from recalibration, wrapper engineering, or policy retraining. A callable-function boundary makes this interface study possible.

For example, a manipulation policy could be exposed as a bounded `pick_and_place` skill whose inputs specify a supported object and destination. The VLA would consume its own visual and proprioceptive observations and generate motor commands; the proactive model would decide whether moving the object is useful, choose an eligible executor, and interpret progress or failure. The wrapper would translate task-level arguments into the policy’s native interface and return explicit status, including whether execution can be interrupted. This division connects high-level initiative to specialized control without requiring the proactive model to generate motor actions itself.

Composition adds another question: when does one skill’s result satisfy the next skill’s preconditions? A navigation–inspection–manipulation sequence may require fresh observations between stages rather than an unconditional list of calls. Skill interfaces could expose these dependencies, resource requirements, and completion evidence. Testing the same high-level task with different skill inventories would reveal whether the model adapts its plan, seeks human assistance, or appropriately refrains when the required capability is absent.

Harness-level skill evolution. Once skills are exposed through a common interface, their selection and composition become another locus of learning. Self-evolution need not begin with changing the foundation model’s weights. A Harness could propose improved capability descriptions, retrieval rules, tool-selection prompts, wrappers, or reusable compositions of existing skills. Repeated failures might expose a missing precondition; repeated successful action sequences might motivate a candidate composite skill. The crucial distinction is between proposing a change and deploying it. Generating a new function name does not create a new physical ability, and a successful trace does not establish general correctness.

A candidate development loop would retain the triggering evidence, generate a versioned proposal, test it on recorded cases and independent held-out scenarios, and evaluate it in a sandbox or suitable simulator before any authorized physical trial. Promotion to the live registry would require explicit acceptance criteria, compatibility checks, and a rollback path. Changes that affect physical behavior or permissions would require the corresponding authorization. The evolving component should not be allowed to redefine the evaluation criteria, grant itself new permissions, or disable the safeguards used to assess it.

The unit of improvement can be made explicit. Repeated selection errors may motivate a clearer capability description; a recurring argument failure may motivate a wrapper check; a successful multi-step procedure may motivate a reusable composite skill. Each proposal should identify the failure pattern it addresses and preserve cases where the previous version already worked. An illustrative inspection routine, for example, could evolve to request a second view when the first is occluded, rather than treating every uncertain observation as a negative finding. Such an update changes the evidence-gathering procedure, not necessarily the foundation model or physical controller.

Evaluation should separate gains from additional memory, better routing, new compositions, and genuinely improved executors. A frozen base model with fixed evaluation tasks would provide one way to isolate improvements in the Harness itself. Relevant outcomes include transfer beyond the triggering failure cases, regression frequency, test and deployment cost, and recovery after an accepted change later proves unsuitable.

H.4 Long-Term Human and Multi-Actor Collaboration

Open Challenge 4

How should an always-on system coordinate evolving needs, shared devices, and human preferences while preserving people's control over intervention?

Proactivity creates obligations beyond executing a requested command. An intervention may interrupt one person to help another, occupy a shared device, or reveal information that should remain private. A future coordination layer could represent task urgency, resource commitments, explicit user preferences, and authorization requirements without treating inferred personal attributes as permission. Uncertain preferences may call for clarification, while withdrawal of consent should change the allowed behavior even if a task remains technically feasible.

Coordination also requires an account of task ownership. A person may already be addressing a problem that a robot has just detected, or two devices may offer overlapping capabilities. A future system could track who has acknowledged a task, which resources are committed, and what evidence would justify a handoff or renewed reminder. Communication is then part of coordination rather than merely the final output: a brief clarification can resolve ambiguous responsibility before an unnecessary action is taken. Personalization could adjust reminder frequency or preferred assistance channels while keeping explicit instructions distinct from preferences inferred from sparse behavior.

Evaluation should include overlapping needs, conflicting requests, unavailable devices, changing permissions, human takeover, and situations where no intervention is appropriate. Task completion alone cannot capture unnecessary interruption, privacy violations, or failure to relinquish control. Longer-term studies could examine whether assistance remains useful after personalization and repeated exposure, while keeping data retention and correction under user control. These questions extend embodied evaluation beyond a fixed scenario inventory to sustained collaboration in changing environments.

Longitudinal evaluation would be particularly informative here. The same participants could encounter recurring and novel situations across sessions, with changing responsibilities and deliberate task handoffs. Besides completion and response timing, useful measurements include duplicate interventions, successful handoffs, corrections needed from users, and the persistence of outdated preferences. Comparing a fixed policy with memory-only and adaptive variants would help separate the benefits of remembering past interactions from those of changing the intervention policy itself.

These directions interact rather than forming independent additions. Memory changes which events appear new or unresolved; better prediction changes when evidence becomes actionable; new skills change what can be done; and self-evolution changes the procedures used to select and compose those skills. A native model may internalize some of these relationships, while an explicit Harness keeps their effects inspectable. The unifying research question is how to improve the complete path from an emerging need to a timely, appropriate, and verifiable response without losing causal grounding or human control.