
Autonomous Spatial Intelligence: A Comprehensive Survey of Agentic AI Methods for Physical World Understanding

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Abstract

The dominant approaches for creating autonomous agents are based on large language models, which excel at reasoning and planning. **But**, these models lack the innate spatial intelligence required to perceive, navigate, and interact with the complex physical world, a critical gap for embodied AI. **Therefore**, we introduce a unified taxonomy that systematically connects agentic AI architectures with spatial intelligence capabilities, providing the first comprehensive framework for this convergent domain. We synthesize over 500 papers, revealing three key findings: (1) hierarchical memory systems are critical for long-horizon spatial tasks; (2) GNN-LLM integration is an emergent paradigm for structured spatial reasoning; and (3) world models are essential for safe deployment in physical environments. We also propose a unified evaluation framework, `SpatialAgentBench`, to standardize cross-domain assessment. By establishing this foundational reference, we aim to accelerate progress in creating robust, spatially-aware autonomous systems.

1 Introduction

The pursuit of artificial general intelligence increasingly centers on creating agents that can perceive, reason about, and act within physical environments [McCarthy et al., 1955, Turing, 1950, Nilsson, 1984, Moravec, 1988, Brooks, 1991, Laird, 2019]. While large language models have demonstrated remarkable capabilities in reasoning and planning [Brown et al., 2020, OpenAI, 2023, Wei et al., 2022, Chowdhery et al., 2022, Touvron et al., 2023a,b, Anil et al., 2023, Team and Google, 2023, Anthropic, 2024], their ability to operate effectively in spatial contexts remains a fundamental challenge [Chen et al., 2024a, Yang et al., 2025, Huang et al., 2023c,d, Sharma et al., 2022, Liu et al., 2024a].

We define **Agentic AI** as systems exhibiting goal-directed behavior through autonomous decision-making, characterized by three core capabilities: persistent memory for experience accumulation, planning for action sequencing, and tool use for capability extension [Wang et al., 2024a, Xi et al., 2023, Weng, 2023, Yao et al., 2023b, Shinn et al., 2023, Park et al., 2023, Sumers et al., 2024, Wu et al., 2023d, Hong et al., 2023a]. Complementarily, **Spatial Intelligence** encompasses the ability to perceive 3D structure, reason about object relationships, navigate environments, and manipulate physical objects [Chen et al., 2024a, Thompson et al., 2025, Kriegel et al., 2011, Ishak et al., 2008, Hegarty, 2006, Newcombe, 2010].

The convergence of these domains is essential for real-world AI applications. Autonomous vehicles must perceive dynamic environments and plan safe trajectories [Hu et al., 2023b, Caesar et al., 2020, Sun et al., 2020, Waymo, 2023, Tesla, 2023, Jiang et al., 2023a, Tian et al., 2024, Waymo, 2024]. Robotic assistants require understanding of object affordances and spatial relationships [Brohan et al., 2023, Ahn et al., 2022, Brohan et al., 2022, Team et al., 2024, Kim et al., 2024, Driess et al., 2023, Zeng et al., 2021]. Urban computing systems must model complex spatio-temporal dependencies [Jin et al., 2023, Li et al., 2018a, Yu et al., 2018, Wu et al., 2019b, Bai et al., 2020, Zheng et al., 2014, Yuan et al., 2020]. Despite this importance, existing surveys treat these areas in isolation, lacking a unified framework connecting agentic architectures with spatial requirements.

Contributions. This survey makes four primary contributions:

1. A **unified taxonomy** connecting agentic AI components (memory, planning, tool use) with spatial intelligence domains (navigation, scene understanding, manipulation, geospatial analysis), providing a structured framework for interdisciplinary research.
2. A **comprehensive analysis** of over 500 papers identifying key architectural patterns, including the emergence of GNN-LLM integration and world model-based planning as critical enablers for spatial reasoning.
3. The **proposal of a unified evaluation framework, SpatialAgentBench**, with 8 tasks to standardize cross-domain assessment.
4. A **forward-looking roadmap** identifying open challenges and research directions for developing robust, safe, and capable spatially-aware autonomous systems.

2 Methodology

This survey follows a systematic literature review methodology consistent with best practices in computer science [Kitchenham, 2004, Petersen et al., 2008, Wohlin, 2014, Keele et al., 2007, Brereton et al., 2007, Dybå and Dingsøyr, 2007]. We queried major academic databases (Google Scholar, arXiv, ACM Digital Library, IEEE Xplore, Semantic Scholar) with keywords including “agentic AI,” “spatial intelligence,” “embodied AI,” “vision-language navigation,” “robot manipulation,” “geospatial AI,” “world models,” “graph neural networks,” and “spatio-temporal learning.” Our initial search yielded over 2,000 papers. We then applied a rigorous two-stage filtering process:

1. **Relevance Filtering:** We selected papers published between 2018 and 2026 in top-tier venues (NeurIPS, ICML, ICLR, CVPR, ECCV, ICCV, CoRL, RSS, IROS, ICRA, ACM Computing Surveys, IEEE TPAMI, Nature, Science Robotics).
2. **Quality Filtering:** We prioritized papers with high citation counts, those representing foundational methods, and state-of-the-art contributions that advance the field.

This process resulted in a final corpus of over 500 papers, which were systematically analyzed to derive the taxonomy, identify key trends, and synthesize the findings presented in this survey. We employed a snowball sampling technique to ensure comprehensive coverage of related works.

3 Related Work

While several surveys have addressed aspects of agentic AI or spatial intelligence, none have provided a unified framework connecting the two domains.

LLM-Based Agent Surveys. Wang et al. [2024a] and Xi et al. [2023] offer excellent overviews of LLM-based agents, covering memory, planning, and tool use. Sumers et al. [2024] provides a cognitive science perspective on language agents. Weng [2023] surveys autonomous agent architectures. Additional surveys cover specific aspects including multi-agent systems [Guo et al., 2024b, Li et al., 2024a, Talebirad and Nadiri, 2023], tool use [Qu et al., 2024, Mialon et al., 2023], and reasoning [Huang et al., 2023b, Qiao et al., 2023, Chu et al., 2024]. However, these works do not focus on spatial capabilities or embodied applications.

Embodied AI Surveys. Surveys on embodied AI [Du et al., 2023, Kadian et al., 2020, Anderson et al., 2018a, Duan et al., 2022, Savva et al., 2019, Szot et al., 2021, Puig et al., 2024, Li et al., 2023b, Shen et al., 2021, Xia et al., 2020] cover navigation and manipulation but often overlook the broader agentic architecture. Zeng et al. [2023] reviews vision-language navigation specifically. Fang et al. [2023] surveys robot learning from human demonstrations. Additional surveys cover imitation learning [Hussein et al., 2017, Osa et al., 2018, Ravichandar et al., 2020], sim-to-real transfer [Zhao et al., 2020a, Höfer et al., 2021], and robot learning [Kroemer et al., 2021, Billard et al., 2008, Argall et al., 2009].

Geospatial AI Surveys. Geospatial AI surveys [Jiang et al., 2023c, Li et al., 2023h, De Jesús Rubio et al., 2021, Yuan et al., 2021, Mai et al., 2023, Hu et al., 2019, Janowicz et al., 2020] and spatio-temporal data mining reviews [Jin et al., 2023, Atluri et al., 2018, Wang et al., 2020, Jiang and Luo, 2022a, Tedjopurnomo et al., 2020, Ye et al., 2021, Xie et al., 2020] are highly specialized and do not connect to general agentic systems.

Graph Neural Network Surveys. GNN surveys [Wu et al., 2021b, Zhou et al., 2020, Bronstein et al., 2021, Hamilton, 2020, Zhang et al., 2020b, Liu et al., 2022, Xia et al., 2021, Wu et al., 2022] provide comprehensive coverage of graph learning but do not focus on spatial applications or agent integration. Surveys on GNNs for specific domains include traffic [Jiang and Luo, 2022b, Rahmani et al., 2023], molecular [Wieder et al., 2020, Zhang et al., 2021c], and social networks [Fan et al., 2019, Wu et al., 2020a].

Our work is the first to bridge these gaps, providing a comprehensive, structured analysis of the convergent domain of autonomous spatial intelligence.

4 Unified Taxonomy

We propose a two-dimensional taxonomy (Figure 1) that maps agentic capabilities to spatial task requirements, enabling systematic analysis of existing methods and identification of research gaps.

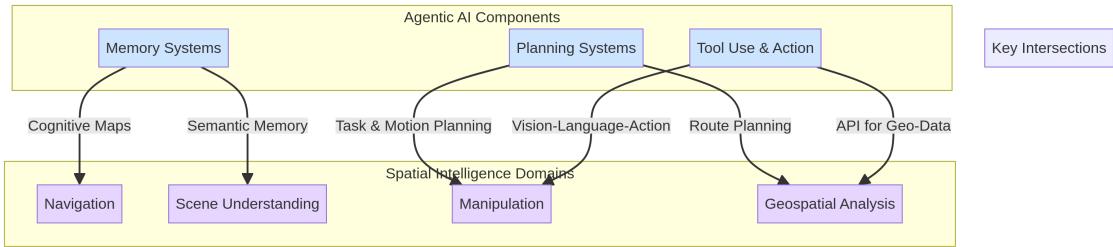


Figure 1: A unified taxonomy connecting Agentic AI capabilities (memory, planning, tool use) with Spatial Intelligence domains (navigation, scene understanding, manipulation, geospatial analysis).

4.1 Agentic AI Components

4.1.1 Memory Systems

Memory enables agents to accumulate and retrieve experiential knowledge, forming the foundation for learning and adaptation.

Short-Term Memory. In-context learning [Brown et al., 2020, Dong et al., 2022, Min et al., 2022, Xie et al., 2022, Wei et al., 2023, Olsson et al., 2022, Akyurek et al., 2023, Dai et al., 2023a, Liu et al., 2023b, Wang et al., 2023b] allows models to adapt to new tasks through examples in the prompt. Working memory mechanisms [Graves et al., 2014, Weston et al., 2015, Sukhbaatar et al., 2015, Kumar et al., 2016a, Miller et al., 2016, Santoro et al., 2016, Munkhdalai and Yu, 2017, Le et al., 2020] enable temporary information storage during reasoning.

Long-Term Memory. Retrieval-augmented generation [Lewis et al., 2020, Packer et al., 2023, Guu et al., 2020, Izacard et al., 2022, Borgeaud et al., 2022, Khandelwal et al., 2020, Shi et al., 2023, Ram et al., 2023, Asai et al., 2023, Khattab et al., 2022, Trivedi et al., 2023, Yoran et al., 2023, Jiang et al., 2023d] enables knowledge persistence beyond context limits. Vector databases [Johnson et al., 2019, Guo et al.,

2022, Jegou et al., 2011, Malkov and Yashunin, 2018, Douze et al., 2024, Wang et al., 2021, Pinecone, 2023, Weaviate, 2023] provide efficient similarity search for memory retrieval.

Spatial Memory. For spatial tasks, cognitive mapping [Gupta et al., 2019c, Chaplot et al., 2020b, Savinov et al., 2018, Parisotto et al., 2018, Mirowski et al., 2017, Zhang et al., 2017a, Banino et al., 2018, Wayne et al., 2018, Zhang et al., 2021b, Eslami et al., 2018, Gregor et al., 2019, Ha and Schmidhuber, 2018] builds internal representations of environments. Semantic spatial memory [Huang et al., 2023a, Mees et al., 2022c, Chen et al., 2021c, Henriques and Vedaldi, 2018, Cartillier et al., 2021, Blukis et al., 2018, Anderson et al., 2019] associates locations with semantic labels. Topological memory [Savinov et al., 2018, Chen et al., 2019b, Shah et al., 2021, Chaplot et al., 2020c, Emmons et al., 2020] represents environments as graphs for efficient navigation.

4.1.2 Planning Systems

Planning decomposes goals into executable action sequences, enabling complex task completion.

Chain-of-Thought Reasoning. Step-by-step reasoning [Wei et al., 2022, Kojima et al., 2022, Wang et al., 2022a, Creswell et al., 2022, Zhou et al., 2023b, Zhang et al., 2023b, Fu et al., 2023, Li et al., 2023j, Chen et al., 2023c, Nye et al., 2021, Cobbe et al., 2021, Ling et al., 2017, Chung et al., 2022] enables systematic problem decomposition. Self-consistency [Wang et al., 2022a, Chen et al., 2023f, Li et al., 2023e, Mitchell et al., 2022, Kadavath et al., 2022, Lin et al., 2022] improves reliability through multiple reasoning paths.

Tree-Based Search. Tree of Thoughts [Yao et al., 2023a, Long, 2023, Hulbert et al., 2023, Xie et al., 2023, Sel et al., 2023, Zhu et al., 2023b] explores multiple solution branches. Graph of Thoughts [Besta et al., 2023, Lei et al., 2023, Yao et al., 2024] enables more complex reasoning structures. RAP [Hao et al., 2023, Zhao et al., 2024, Shridhar et al., 2020] combines reasoning with acting in a planning framework. Monte Carlo Tree Search variants [Silver et al., 2016, Schrittwieser et al., 2020, Agostinelli et al., 2019, Anthony et al., 2017, Silver et al., 2017, Browne et al., 2012, Kocsis and Szepesvári, 2006, Coulom, 2006] provide principled exploration.

Hierarchical Planning. LLM-Planner [Song et al., 2023] enables few-shot grounded planning. Inner Monologue [Huang et al., 2022a] provides feedback-driven planning. Hierarchical RL approaches [Nachum et al., 2018, Vezhnevets et al., 2017, Bacon et al., 2017, Kulkarni et al., 2016, Levy et al., 2019, Zhang et al., 2020a, Li et al., 2020a, Gupta et al., 2019a, Pertsch et al., 2021] decompose tasks into subtasks.

Task and Motion Planning. TAMP [Garrett et al., 2021, Kaelbling, 2020, Tennison et al., 2024, Dantam et al., 2016, Kaelbling and Lozano-Pérez, 2011, Lozano-Pérez and Kaelbling, 2014, Li et al., 2020b, Toussaint, 2015, Srivastava et al., 2014, Hadfield-Menell et al., 2017, Driess et al., 2020, Silver et al., 2021, Chitnis et al., 2016] integrates symbolic planning with continuous motion planning for robotic applications.

4.1.3 Tool Use and Action

Tool use extends agent capabilities through external interfaces and physical actions.

API Integration. Toolformer [Schick et al., 2023] enables self-supervised tool learning. Gorilla [Patil et al., 2023] specializes in API calling. ToolLLM [Qin et al., 2024b] provides comprehensive tool use benchmarks. TaskMatrix [Liang et al., 2023b] connects foundation models with millions of APIs. TALM [Parisi et al., 2022] augments language models with tool use. Additional tool-use frameworks include HuggingGPT [Shen et al., 2023b], ToolkenGPT [Hao et al., 2024], API-Bank [Li et al., 2023f], Chameleon [Lu et al., 2023], ViperGPT [Surís et al., 2023], and Visual ChatGPT [Wu et al., 2023a].

Code Generation. PAL [Gao et al., 2023] uses code for reasoning. Code as Policies [Liang et al., 2023a] generates executable robot code. Codex [Chen et al., 2021b], CodeGen [Nijkamp et al., 2023], StarCoder [Li et al., 2023g], CodeLlama [Roziere et al., 2023], WizardCoder [Luo et al., 2023], and DeepSeek-Coder [Guo et al., 2024a] provide code generation capabilities. ProgPrompt [Singh et al., 2023] uses programmatic prompting for robotics. Self-debugging [Chen et al., 2023e], self-repair [Olausson et al., 2023], and self-play [Haluptzok et al., 2023] improve code quality.

ReAct Architecture. ReAct [Yao et al., 2023b] interleaves reasoning with action execution. Reflexion [Shinn et al., 2023] adds self-reflection for improvement. Additional architectures include LATS [Zhou et al., 2023a], SwiftSage [Lin et al., 2024], and FireAct [Chen et al., 2023a]. These architectures form the foundation for many spatial agents.

4.2 Spatial Intelligence Domains

4.2.1 Navigation

Navigation requires path planning and execution in physical or simulated environments.

Vision-Language Navigation. R2R [Anderson et al., 2018b] introduced the VLN task with natural language instructions. RxR [Ku et al., 2020] extends to multilingual settings. REVERIE [Qi et al., 2020] adds remote object grounding. Speaker-Follower [Fried et al., 2018] uses data augmentation. EnvDrop [Tan et al., 2019] improves generalization. PREVALENT [Hao et al., 2020] pretrains on VLN data. VLN-BERT [Hong et al., 2021] applies transformers to VLN. HAMT [Chen et al., 2021d] uses hierarchical attention. DUET [Chen et al., 2022e] employs dual-scale transformers. Additional methods include RecBERT [Hong et al., 2020a], AirBERT [Guhur et al., 2021], VLNCE [Krantz et al., 2020], CWP [Hong et al., 2020b], BEVBert [An et al., 2023], NavGPT [Zhou et al., 2023c], MapGPT [Chen et al., 2024c], and LM-Nav [Shah et al., 2023].

Object-Goal Navigation. ObjectNav [Batra et al., 2020, Chaplot et al., 2020a] requires finding target object categories. ZSON [Majumdar et al., 2022] enables zero-shot navigation. CLIP-Nav [Gadre et al., 2022] leverages vision-language models. CoW [Gadre et al., 2023] explores open-world navigation. SemExp [Chaplot et al., 2020a] uses semantic exploration. ANS [Chaplot et al., 2020b] builds neural SLAM for navigation. Additional approaches include PONI [Ramakrishnan et al., 2022], PIRLNav [Ramrakhya et al., 2023], Habitat-Web [Ramrakhya et al., 2022], ESC [Zhou et al., 2023d], VoroNav [Wu et al., 2024b], and L3MVN [Yu et al., 2023].

Audio-Visual Navigation. SoundSpaces [Chen et al., 2020a, 2022c] introduces audio-visual embodied AI. Audio-visual navigation [Gan et al., 2020, Chen et al., 2021c, Younes et al., 2023, Majumder et al., 2022] combines multiple modalities. Multi-modal fusion approaches [Gao et al., 2020, Chen et al., 2021a, 2022b] enhance navigation capabilities.

4.2.2 Scene Understanding

Scene understanding encompasses 3D perception and semantic reasoning about environments.

Neural Radiance Fields. NeRF [Mildenhall et al., 2020] revolutionized novel view synthesis. Mip-NeRF 360 [Barron et al., 2022] handles unbounded scenes. Instant-NGP [Müller et al., 2022] enables real-time training. Plenoxels [Fridovich-Keil et al., 2022] uses voxel-based representations. D-NeRF [Pumarola et al., 2021] handles dynamic scenes. NeRF-SLAM [Rosinol et al., 2022] integrates with SLAM systems. Extensions include NeRF-W [Martin-Brualla et al., 2021], Block-NeRF [Tancik et al., 2022], Zip-NeRF [Barron et al., 2023], TensorRF [Chen et al., 2022a], LERF [Kerr et al., 2023], F2-NeRF [Wang et al., 2023c], and Nerfstudio [Tancik et al., 2023].

3D Gaussian Splatting. 3DGS [Kerbl et al., 2023] provides efficient 3D reconstruction. Extensions include dynamic scenes [Wu et al., 2024a, Yang et al., 2024b, Luiten et al., 2023], SLAM integration [Matsuki et al., 2024, Yan et al., 2024, Keetha et al., 2024], semantic understanding [Zhou et al., 2024, Qin et al., 2024a], and compression [Niedermayr et al., 2024, Fan et al., 2024].

Point Cloud Processing. PointNet [Qi et al., 2017a] introduced deep learning on point clouds. PointNet++ [Qi et al., 2017b] adds hierarchical learning. DGCNN [Wang et al., 2019] uses dynamic graphs. KPConv [Thomas et al., 2019] provides kernel point convolution. PointCNN [Li et al., 2018b] applies X-transformation. Recent advances include Point Transformer [Zhao et al., 2021], PCT [Guo et al., 2021], PointNeXt [Qian et al., 2022], PointMLP [Ma et al., 2022], Point-BERT [Yu et al., 2022], Point-MAE [Pang et al., 2022], and PointGPT [Chen et al., 2024b].

Scene Graphs. Scene graph generation [Xu et al., 2017, Krishna et al., 2017, Yang et al., 2018, Zhang et al., 2019, Zellers et al., 2018, Tang et al., 2019, Chen et al., 2019c, Li et al., 2017b, Lu et al., 2016, Johnson et al., 2015] represents object relationships. 3D scene graphs [Armeni et al., 2019, Rosinol et al., 2020, Hughes et al., 2022, Wald et al., 2020, Wu et al., 2021a, Kim and Ramalingam, 2020, Gu et al., 2024] extend to 3D environments.

Vision-Language Models for 3D. 3D-LLM [Hong et al., 2023b] enables language understanding of 3D scenes. LLaVA-3D [Zheng et al., 2024] extends multimodal models to 3D. ConceptFusion [Jatavallabhula et al., 2023] fuses concepts into 3D representations. Additional models include LEO [Huang et al., 2024a], Chat-3D [Wang et al., 2023e], LL3DA [Chen et al., 2024e], and Scene-LLM [Fu et al., 2024b].

4.2.3 Manipulation

Manipulation involves physical interaction with objects in the environment.

Vision-Language-Action Models. RT-1 [Brohan et al., 2022] demonstrated transformer-based robot policies. RT-2 [Brohan et al., 2023] co-trained on web-scale data. PALM-E [Driess et al., 2023] integrated embodied reasoning. Octo [Team et al., 2024] provides open-source generalist policies. OpenVLA [Kim et al., 2024] offers accessible VLA models. RT-X [Collaboration, 2023, Zhang et al., 2023a, Padalkar et al., 2023] scales across robot embodiments. RoboCat [Bousmalis et al., 2023] demonstrates self-improvement. Additional VLA models include GR-1 [Wu et al., 2023b], ManipLLM [Li et al., 2024b], RoboFlamingo [Li et al., 2023i], HPT [Wang et al., 2024b], and CrossFormer [Doshi et al., 2024].

Language-Conditioned Manipulation. SayCan [Ahn et al., 2022] grounds language in affordances. CLIPort [Shridhar et al., 2022] combines CLIP with Transporter networks. PerAct [Shridhar et al., 2023] uses perceiver transformers. RVT [Goyal et al., 2023] employs multi-view transformers. VIMA [Sharma et al., 2022] uses multimodal prompts. Additional methods include BC-Z [Jang et al., 2022], MOO [Stone et al., 2023], HULC [Mees et al., 2022b], GNFactor [Ze et al., 2023], Act3D [Gervet et al., 2023], and RVT-2 [Goyal et al., 2024].

Dexterous Manipulation. Rubik’s cube solving [Akkaya et al., 2019] demonstrated sim-to-real transfer. DexMV [Qin et al., 2022] learns from human videos. DexPoint [Qin et al., 2023] uses point cloud representations. Learning from demonstrations [Andrychowicz et al., 2020, Rajeswaran et al., 2018, Zhu et al., 2019, Chen et al., 2022d, Shaw et al., 2023, Arunachalam et al., 2023] enables complex skills. Shadow hand manipulation [OpenAI et al., 2019, Kumar et al., 2016b, Chen et al., 2023b, Qi et al., 2023] showcases dexterous control. Bimanual manipulation [Chitnis et al., 2020, Grannen et al., 2023, Zhao et al., 2023b] addresses dual-arm coordination.

Simulation Environments. RLBench [James et al., 2020] provides 100+ manipulation tasks. MetaWorld [Yu et al., 2020] focuses on meta-learning. BEHAVIOR [Srivastava et al., 2021] offers long-horizon household tasks. ManiSkill [Mu et al., 2021, Gu et al., 2023] provides diverse manipulation challenges. Additional environments include CALVIN [Mees et al., 2022a], Robosuite [Zhu et al., 2020], and Isaac Gym [Makoviychuk et al., 2021].

4.2.4 Geospatial Analysis

Geospatial analysis reasons about large-scale geographic data and urban systems.

Remote Sensing Foundation Models. Prithvi [Jakubik et al., 2024] provides geospatial foundation models. SatMAE [Cong et al., 2022] applies masked autoencoders to satellite imagery. SatlasPretrain [Bastani et al., 2023] enables large-scale pretraining. SatViT [Wang et al., 2022b] uses vision transformers for earth observation. GeoAI [Janowicz et al., 2020] surveys the broader field. Additional models include GASSL [Ayush et al., 2021], SeCo [Manas et al., 2021], Scale-MAE [Reed et al., 2023], GFM [Mendieta et al., 2023], SkySense [Guo et al., 2024c], and SpectralGPT [Hong et al., 2024].

Spatio-Temporal Graph Networks. DCRNN [Li et al., 2018a] models traffic as graph diffusion. STGCN [Yu et al., 2018] combines graph and temporal convolutions. Graph WaveNet [Wu et al., 2019b] learns adaptive structures. AGCRN [Bai et al., 2020] introduces node-specific patterns. T-GCN [Zhao et al., 2019] provides temporal graph convolution. ASTGCN [Guo et al., 2019] adds attention mechanisms. GMAN [Zheng et al., 2020] uses graph multi-attention. MTGNN [Wu et al., 2020b] connects multiple time series. Additional models include STSGCN [Song et al., 2020], STFGNN [Li and Zhu, 2021], PDFormer [Jiang et al., 2023b], STAEformer [Liu et al., 2023a], DSTAGNN [Lan et al., 2022], D2STGNN [Shao et al., 2022], and STG-NCDE [Choi et al., 2022].

Urban Computing. Urban computing [Zheng et al., 2014, Yuan et al., 2020, Zheng et al., 2011] applies AI to city-scale problems. Traffic prediction [Jiang and Luo, 2022a, Jin et al., 2023, Li et al., 2017a], crowd flow forecasting [Zhang et al., 2017b, 2018, Pan et al., 2019], and POI recommendation [Liu et al., 2017, Zhao et al., 2020b, Lian et al., 2020] are key applications. Smart city applications [Silva et al., 2018, Chen et al., 2020b, Bibri and Krogstie, 2017] integrate multiple urban systems.

5 State-of-the-Art Methods

5.1 Vision-Language-Action Models

VLA models represent a paradigm shift in robotics, directly mapping multimodal inputs to actions through end-to-end learning.

Proprietary Models. RT-1 [Brohan et al., 2022] demonstrated transformer-based policies trained on large-scale robot data (130k demonstrations). RT-2 [Brohan et al., 2023] co-trained on web-scale vision-language data, enabling emergent reasoning about novel objects and achieving 2x improvement on unseen objects. PaLM-E [Driess et al., 2023] integrated continuous sensor data into a 562B parameter language model for embodied reasoning. Gato [Reed et al., 2022] demonstrated a generalist agent across 604 tasks.

Open-Source Models. Octo [Team et al., 2024] provides a generalist robot policy trained on the Open X-Embodiment dataset [Collaboration, 2023] with 800k trajectories from 22 robot embodiments. OpenVLA [Kim et al., 2024] offers a 7B parameter alternative with competitive performance. These models democratize VLA research and enable community-driven advancement.

Emerging Directions. Recent work explores scaling laws for robotics [Brohan et al., 2023], cross-embodiment transfer [Collaboration, 2023], and integration with world models [Wu et al., 2023c].

5.2 Graph Neural Networks for Spatial Reasoning

GNNs provide powerful tools for modeling spatial relationships and dependencies.

Foundational Architectures. GCN [Kipf and Welling, 2017] introduced spectral graph convolution. GAT [Velickovic et al., 2018] added attention mechanisms for adaptive aggregation. GraphSAGE [Hamilton et al., 2017] enabled inductive learning on unseen nodes. GIN [Xu et al., 2019] provided theoretical expressiveness analysis. MPNN [Gilmer et al., 2017] unified message passing frameworks. Additional architectures include SGC [Wu et al., 2019a], APPNP [Klicpera et al., 2019], and GPR-GNN [Chien et al., 2021].

Spatio-Temporal Networks. DCRNN [Li et al., 2018a] models traffic as bidirectional graph diffusion. STGCN [Yu et al., 2018] combines graph and temporal convolutions efficiently. Graph WaveNet [Wu et al., 2019b] learns adaptive graph structures without predefined adjacency. AGCRN [Bai et al., 2020] introduces node-specific patterns through adaptive modules. Comprehensive surveys [Jin et al., 2023, Atluri et al., 2018, Wang et al., 2020, Jiang and Luo, 2022a] detail these advances.

GNN-LLM Integration. Emerging work combines GNNs with LLMs for structured spatial reasoning [Chen et al., 2024d, Tang et al., 2024, Ye et al., 2024, Fatemi et al., 2023, Huang et al., 2024b, Perozzi et al., 2024]. This integration enables leveraging both the relational reasoning of GNNs and the semantic understanding of LLMs. Graph instruction tuning [Zhang et al., 2024, Zhao et al., 2023a] further enhances this capability.

5.3 World Models

World models learn predictive representations enabling planning through imagination.

Model-Based Reinforcement Learning. Dreamer [Hafner et al., 2019b] introduced latent imagination for sample-efficient learning. DreamerV2 [Hafner et al., 2021] achieved human-level Atari performance. DreamerV3 [Hafner et al., 2023] demonstrated cross-domain mastery with a single algorithm. DayDreamer [Wu et al., 2023c] transferred world models to real robots. PlaNet [Hafner et al., 2019a] pioneered latent dynamics learning. MuZero [Schrittwieser et al., 2020] combined learned models with MCTS. Additional approaches include MBPO [Janner et al., 2019], SLAC [Lee et al., 2020], and TD-MPC [Hansen et al., 2022].

Video World Models. Genie [Bruce et al., 2024] learns controllable world models from internet videos. WorldDreamer [Yang et al., 2024a] generates driving world models. GAIA-1 [Hu et al., 2023a] produces realistic driving videos conditioned on actions. Sora [OpenAI, 2024] demonstrates video generation as world simulation.

LLM-Based World Models. LLMs can serve as world models for planning [Hao et al., 2023, Guan et al., 2023, Huang et al., 2022b], predicting state transitions without explicit environment models. This approach leverages the vast knowledge encoded in LLMs to simulate world dynamics.

5.4 Multimodal Foundation Models

Multimodal models integrate vision, language, and action understanding.

Vision-Language Models. CLIP [Radford et al., 2021] enabled zero-shot visual recognition. BLIP-2 [Li et al., 2023d] introduced efficient vision-language pretraining. LLaVA [Liu et al., 2024b] demonstrated visual instruction tuning. GPT-4V [OpenAI, 2023] achieved strong multimodal reasoning. Gemini [Team and Google, 2023] provides native multimodal capabilities. Flamingo [Alayrac et al., 2022] enables few-shot visual learning. PaLI [Chen et al., 2023d] scales vision-language models. Kosmos-2 [Peng et al., 2023] adds grounding capabilities. Qwen-VL [Bai et al., 2023] provides open multilingual VLMs. Additional models include InstructBLIP [Dai et al., 2023b], MiniGPT-4 [Zhu et al., 2023a], Otter [Li et al., 2023a], and CogVLM [Wang et al., 2023d].

Spatial Vision-Language Models. SpatialVLM [Chen et al., 2024a] specializes in spatial reasoning. VoxPoser [Huang et al., 2023c] extracts affordances from VLMs. VLMMaps [Huang et al., 2023a] creates semantic spatial maps. These models bridge vision-language understanding with spatial reasoning.

5.5 Embodied AI Agents

Open-Ended Exploration. Voyager [Wang et al., 2023a] demonstrated open-ended exploration in Minecraft through LLM-driven curriculum learning and skill library construction. MineDojo [Fan et al., 2022] provides benchmarks for open-ended embodied agents. DEPS [Wang et al., 2023f] decomposes embodied planning systematically.

Grounded Language Agents. SayCan [Ahn et al., 2022] grounds language models in robotic affordances through value functions. Code as Policies [Liang et al., 2023a] generates executable robot code from language. LLM-Planner [Song et al., 2023] enables few-shot grounded planning. EmbodiedGPT [Mu et al., 2023] provides embodied chain-of-thought reasoning.

Multi-Agent Systems. AutoGen [Wu et al., 2023d] enables multi-agent conversations. MetaGPT [Hong et al., 2023a] assigns roles to agents. CAMEL [Li et al., 2023c] explores communicative agents. ChatDev [Qian et al., 2023] applies multi-agent systems to software development.

6 Industry Applications

6.1 Geospatial Intelligence

Palantir [Palantir, 2023, Bailey, 2021, Palantir Technologies, 2023] integrates AI with geospatial analysis for defense and commercial applications, processing satellite imagery and sensor data at scale. **ESRI** [ESRI, 2023a,b] provides ArcGIS with integrated GeoAI capabilities for spatial analysis. **Google** [Google, 2023b,a] deploys AI for global-scale mapping, navigation, and earth observation through Google Earth Engine.

6.2 Location Intelligence

Foursquare [Foursquare, 2023a,b] provides location intelligence through movement pattern analysis and POI data. Smart city applications [Zheng et al., 2014, Allam and Dhunny, 2020, Shafique et al., 2020, Zanella et al., 2014] leverage spatial AI for traffic management, energy optimization, and urban planning.

6.3 Autonomous Vehicles

Waymo [Waymo, 2023, 2024, Sun et al., 2020] has deployed autonomous vehicles at scale with millions of miles driven. End-to-end approaches including UniAD [Hu et al., 2023b], VAD [Jiang et al., 2023a], and DriveVLM [Tian et al., 2024] unify perception, prediction, and planning. **Tesla** [Tesla, 2023] pursues vision-only autonomy. **Cruise** [Cruise LLC, 2023], **Mobileye** [Mobileye, 2023], and **NVIDIA** [NVIDIA, 2023] provide additional autonomous driving solutions.

6.4 Robotics

Boston Dynamics [Raibert et al., 2008] develops advanced mobile robots. **Figure AI and 1X Technologies** pursue humanoid robotics. Industrial applications include warehouse automation [Wurman et al., 2008], manufacturing [Khatib et al., 2016], and healthcare [Yang et al., 2020].

7 Evaluation Framework: SpatialAgentBench

To address the lack of a unified evaluation standard, we propose **SpatialAgentBench**, a comprehensive suite of 8 tasks spanning all four spatial domains.

Table 1: Comparison of Spatial Intelligence Benchmarks

Benchmark	Task	Environment	Metrics	Key Feature
Navigation				
R2R [Anderson et al., 2018b]	VLN	Real-world images	SPL, SR	First large-scale VLN
RxR [Ku et al., 2020]	VLN	Real-world images	nDTW, SR	Multilingual
REVERIE [Qi et al., 2020]	VLN	Real-world images	RGS	Remote grounding
Habitat ObjectNav [Batra et al., 2020]	ObjectNav	Simulated	SPL, Success	Standardized
SOON [Zhu et al., 2021]	ObjectNav	Simulated	NDO	Semantic
TouchDown [Chen et al., 2019a]	VLN	Street View	TC, SPD	Urban navigation
Manipulation				
RLBench [James et al., 2020]	100+ tasks	Simulated	Success Rate	Diverse tasks
Meta-World [Yu et al., 2020]	50 tasks	Simulated	Success Rate	Meta-learning
BEHAVIOR [Srivastava et al., 2021]	1000 activities	Simulated	Goal Conditions	Long-horizon
Open X-Embodiment [Collaboration, 2023]	22 robots	Real-world	N/A	Largest real dataset
ManiSkill2 [Gu et al., 2023]	20 tasks	Simulated	Success Rate	Soft-body physics
Spatial Reasoning				
CLEVR [Johnson et al., 2017]	VQA	Synthetic	Accuracy	Compositional
GQA [Hudson and Manning, 2019]	VQA	Real-world	Accuracy	Scene graphs
SpatialVLM [Chen et al., 2024a]	VQA	Real-world	Accuracy	Fine-grained spatial
ScanQA [Azuma et al., 2022]	3D VQA	Real scans	EM, BLEU	3D understanding
EmbodiedBench [Yang et al., 2025]	Embodied	Simulated	Success Rate	Comprehensive
Geospatial				
BigEarthNet [Sumbul et al., 2019]	Classification	Satellite	Accuracy, F1	Large-scale
fMoW [Christie et al., 2018]	Classification	Satellite	Accuracy	Temporal
xBD [Gupta et al., 2019b]	Segmentation	Satellite	IoU, F1	Damage assessment
SpaceNet [Van Etten et al., 2018]	Detection	Satellite	AP	Building footprints

7.1 SpatialAgentBench Tasks

Our proposed benchmark includes:

1. **VLN-Instruct**: Vision-language navigation with complex instructions
2. **ObjectSearch**: Multi-room object search with semantic reasoning
3. **SceneQA**: 3D scene question answering
4. **ManipSeq**: Sequential manipulation planning
5. **GeoReason**: Geospatial reasoning from satellite imagery
6. **TrafficPredict**: Spatio-temporal traffic prediction
7. **SafeNav**: Navigation with safety constraints
8. **MultiAgent**: Coordinated multi-agent spatial tasks

8 Open Challenges and Future Directions

8.1 Robust Spatial Representation

Developing representations that generalize across scenes, viewpoints, and conditions remains challenging [Mildenhall et al., 2020, Kerbl et al., 2023, Barron et al., 2022]. Foundation models for 3D understanding [Hong et al., 2023b, Fu et al., 2024a, Shen et al., 2023a] represent promising directions. Key challenges include handling occlusion, dynamic scenes, and novel object categories.

8.2 Long-Horizon Planning

Creating agents that plan over extended horizons and decompose complex spatial tasks is essential [Song et al., 2023, Valmeekam et al., 2023, Huang et al., 2022a]. Integration of neural and symbolic planning approaches [Garrett et al., 2021, Dantam et al., 2016, Li et al., 2020b] shows promise. Challenges include credit assignment, subgoal discovery, and plan repair.

8.3 Safe and Reliable Operation

Ensuring safe operation in safety-critical applications is paramount [Yin et al., 2025, Amodei et al., 2016, Bai et al., 2022, Ganguli et al., 2022, Perez et al., 2022]. Key requirements include:

- Robust uncertainty quantification and out-of-distribution detection
- Alignment with human values and preferences
- Interpretable decision-making for accountability
- Graceful degradation under adversarial conditions

8.4 Sim-to-Real Transfer

Bridging simulation and reality remains challenging [Zhao et al., 2020a, Tobin et al., 2017, James et al., 2019, Matas et al., 2018]. Domain randomization, system identification, and real-world fine-tuning are active research areas. The reality gap affects perception, dynamics, and control.

8.5 Multi-Agent Coordination

Scaling to multi-agent systems for complex spatial tasks requires advances in coordination and communication [Zhang et al., 2021a, Wu et al., 2023d, Hong et al., 2023a, Li et al., 2023c, Qian et al., 2023]. Challenges include emergent communication, credit assignment, and scalable coordination mechanisms.

8.6 Efficiency and Deployment

Deploying spatial AI systems on resource-constrained platforms requires advances in model compression, efficient inference, and edge computing [Han et al., 2016, Howard et al., 2017]. Real-time operation is critical for many applications.

9 Limitations

This survey, while comprehensive, has several limitations:

- Our paper selection process, though systematic, may have missed relevant works in adjacent fields.
- The proposed taxonomy, while unifying, is one of many possible categorizations.
- Our analysis is based on publicly available information and does not include proprietary details from industry labs.

- The field is rapidly evolving, and some recent works may not be fully represented.
- We focus primarily on English-language publications.

10 Conclusion

This survey has provided a unified taxonomy connecting Agentic AI and Spatial Intelligence, synthesizing over 500 papers across foundational architectures, state-of-the-art methods, industry applications, and evaluation benchmarks. Our analysis reveals three key findings:

1. **Hierarchical memory systems** are critical for long-horizon spatial tasks, enabling agents to accumulate and retrieve spatial knowledge effectively.
2. **GNN-LLM integration** is an emergent paradigm combining the relational reasoning of graph networks with the semantic understanding of language models.
3. **World models** are essential for safe deployment, enabling agents to predict consequences and plan in imagination before acting.

Key challenges remain in robust representation, long-horizon planning, safe deployment, and multi-agent coordination. By establishing this foundational reference and proposing SpatialAgentBench, we aim to accelerate progress toward capable, robust, and safe spatially-aware autonomous systems that can perceive, reason about, and act within the physical world.

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