

# A Survey and Assessment of Large Models for Visually Impaired Assisting

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## Abstract

One important motivation in computer vision (CV) is assisting visually impaired persons (VIPs). Recently, the advent of Large Models (LMs) has significantly propelled the domains of Natural Language Processing (NLP) and CV, setting unprecedented benchmarks across a spectrum of tasks. However, despite these developments, a significant research gap in LM-based assistance for VIPs exists. This paper aims to address this gap and, to the best of our knowledge, is the first to explore how LMs can aid the visually impaired. An extensive survey of Large Language Models (LLMs), Vision Language Models (VLMs), and Embodied Agents is presented, assessing their prospective roles in facilitating VI assistance. Furthermore, this paper provides an in-depth evaluation of the current state-of-the-art end-to-end VLMs, such as GPT-4, and offers critical insights into their capabilities and limitations in assisting VIPs. The approach undertaken models this task as a visual question answering problem, with outputs being specifically tailored to be grounded tactile guidance to meet the unique needs of VIPs. In summary, the conducted survey and assessment suggest future directions for enhancing VI assistance through Large Models.

## 1 Introduction

One of the primary motivations for developing computer vision (CV) technologies was to aid visually impaired individuals. Tasks such as Visual Question Answering (VQA) have garnered attention and resulted in advancements that benefit the visually impaired community. VizWiz [Gurari *et al.*, 2018] is the first VQA dataset specially from the visually impaired individuals. Furthering this, Vizwiz-priv [Gurari *et al.*, 2019] is the inaugural privacy-aware VQA dataset originating from this community. [Lasecki *et al.*, 2013] introduced Chorus:View, a system for assisting visually impaired in answering visual questions through the engagement of on-demand crowd-sourced human workers. Similarly, [Ahmetovic *et al.*,

2016] proposed NavCog, a navigation assistant for the visually impaired. While these developments represent significant strides in assistance for visually impaired persons (VIPs), the advent of large-scale models has opened new frontiers. Recent advancements in large-scale models have exhibited capabilities in visual perception, reasoning, planning, decision-making for actions, and interaction with environments. However, at the current time, there is a noticeable research gap in LM-based assistance for visually impaired individuals.

The advancements in LMs are multifaceted. In the area of natural language processing (NLP), models such as GPT-3 [Brown *et al.*, 2020] have established new benchmarks. ChatGPT, a derivative of InstructGPT [Ouyang *et al.*, 2022], has attracted considerable attention due to its proficiency in diverse NLP tasks via dialogic interactions. In addition to the GPT series, other large-scale models such as PaLM [Chowdhery *et al.*, 2022] and LLaMa [Touvron *et al.*, 2023a] have also been developed. Similar to their GPT counterparts, these models demonstrate emergent capabilities [Wei *et al.*, 2022a]. Among the advancements in LLMs, certain methodologies have been particularly noteworthy. Notably, RHFL [Ouyang *et al.*, 2022] has been pivotal in tailoring model functionalities to align with human-centric instructions, and COT [Wei *et al.*, 2022b] sheds light on tapping into the intrinsic reasoning prowess of these models. LLMs demonstrate significant proficiency in reasoning and planning, which could substantially improve decision-making in tasks that involve assisting the visually impaired.

Following advancements in LLMs, VLMs have similarly experienced significant growth, setting new benchmarks in state-of-the-art performance for multimodal tasks that combine visual and linguistic elements, such as Image Captioning and Visual Question Answering. CLIP [Radford *et al.*, 2021] has demonstrated proficiency in zero-shot visual classification, especially for non-predefined categories. Other notable pretrained VLMs include Flamingo [Alayrac *et al.*, 2022], the BLIP series [Li *et al.*, 2022; Li *et al.*, 2023], PaLI-X [Chen *et al.*, 2023b], among others. Especially, GPT-4 [OpenAI, 2023] has showcased human-equivalent performance in complex multi-modal reasoning tasks. VLMs inherit the reasoning and planning capabilities of LLMs, and by integrating a visual module, they acquire enhanced visual perception capacities. This advancement makes them highly suitable as foundational models for developing assistance tools for visu-

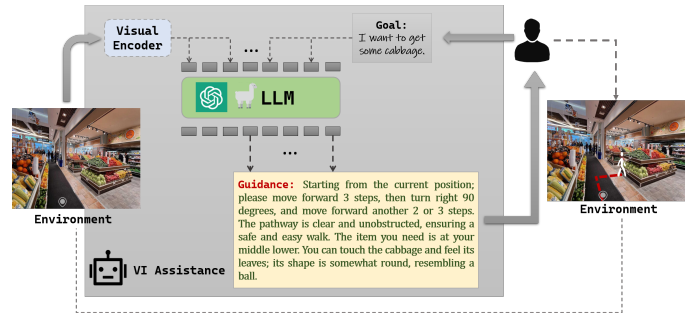
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ally impaired individuals.

In advancing beyond multi-modal models with an aim to progress toward Artificial General Intelligence (AGI), researchers have developed Embodied Agents. These agents possess cognitive abilities such as reasoning and planning, and are capable of taking actions and interacting with environments in both simulated contexts and the real physical world. ReAct [Yao *et al.*, 2022] employs LLMs to interleave the generation of reasoning trajectories and actions for task achievement. This approach demonstrates superior decision-making capabilities compared to methods based on imitation and reinforcement learning. In simulated environments, Ghost in the Minecraft [Zhu *et al.*, 2023b] leverage LLMs to process text-based memory and knowledge. This approach enables it to effectively solve long-horizon tasks and manage uncertainties in the open-world game Minecraft. Voyager [Wang *et al.*, 2023a] represents the first LLM-based embodied agent capable of lifelong learning. It autonomously explores environments, also notably in the Minecraft setting, and develops skills through environmental feedback. In the real physical world, PaLM-E [Driess *et al.*, 2023], built on the 562B parameter LLM PaLM, integrates sensor modalities into language models for physical-world applications. Additionally, RT-2 [Zitkovich *et al.*, 2023], which stands for "Robot Transformer," is trained using both robotic data and large-scale internet visual-language datasets. This approach introduces the concept of the Visual-Language-Robot model.

Since the development of VI assistance demands models that can interact with the physical world, the similar paradigm used for developing embodied agents can be referenced. Nevertheless, it's essential to differentiate between the requirements for developing these embodied robots and assistance tools specifically designed for the visually impaired. We have identified and outlined three primary distinctions:

- The first notable distinction lies in the nature of the guidance. While embodied agents use LMs to generate strictly executable commands, guidance for assisting the visually impaired requires a different approach. Instead of precise instructions, it should be understandable and accessible to those who are blind. Specifically, neuroscience studies have shown that tactile sensation plays an important role for the visually impaired. [Goldreich and Kanics, 2003] demonstrated that VI individuals possess enhanced tactile acuity, and [Ottink *et al.*, 2022] revealed that tactile input aids VI individuals in forming cognitive maps as accurately as their non-VI counterparts. Therefore, we suggest that guidance for VI assistance should incorporate tactile information.
- The second critical distinction lies in the complexity of adapting to environmental feedback. While embodied agents may fail in action execution and subsequently adjust their behavior, the situation is significantly more intricate for the visually impaired. Given the inherent nature of humans not adhering as strictly to instructions as robots, and the risk of inadvertently entering hazardous areas, there is an imperative need for a system capable of both accommodating and promptly correcting deviations. Such a system is crucial for effectively addressing



**Figure 1: VIP Assistance Illustration.** This general framework illustrates that the input consists of a visual signal, while the VI user verbally communicates their specific goal to the assistance system. The LLM then undertakes reasoning and planning to achieve this goal, grounded in the physical environment. It is crucial that the guidance provided is understandable to the VI user. Given the significant role of tactile sensation in the lives of visually impaired individuals, we emphasize the necessity of tactile guidance as the desired output. Ultimately, this guidance should enable the VI user to accomplish the intended goal.

unforeseen errors or incidents, thus ensuring both safety and efficacy.

- The third distinction lies in the interaction dynamics. Unlike embodied agents, assistance for visually impaired individuals necessitates direct human interaction. Therefore, there is a likely need to prioritize encouraging and empathetic responses over impersonal, mechanical instructions. Helping them accomplish tasks not only eases their physical lives but also boosts their self-confidence and fosters a sense of positive well-being.

Accordingly, Figure 1 depicts a general framework for VI assistance, highlighting the necessity of tactile guidance due to the pivotal role of tactile sensation in the lives of VI individuals. Aligned with this perspective, we have developed a foundational benchmark composed of 200 images, encompassing scenarios in both supermarkets and domestic environments. This benchmark serves to evaluate the capabilities of current large models. Comprehensive assessments were conducted on 6 end-to-end VLMs, including GPT-4, CogVLM [Wang *et al.*, 2023b], Qwen-VL [Bai *et al.*, 2023], LLaVA [Liu *et al.*, 2023], MiniGPT-v2 [Chen *et al.*, 2023a], and BLIVE [Hu *et al.*, 2023a].

The contributions of this work are twofold: (1). Firstly, it encompasses a comprehensive survey of large-scale models, including LLMs, VLMs, and Embodied Agents, along with relevant datasets, benchmarks, and an analysis of how those prior studies can contribute to the development of VI assistance. (2). Secondly, it delivers an in-depth assessment of the performance of end-to-end VLMs, including GPT-4, using a manually crafted benchmark. This offers readers a foundational understanding of these models' abilities to meet current needs and identifies potential directions for future research.

The remainder of this article is structured as follows: Section 2 provides a comprehensive survey of large models, Section 3 offers an in-depth assessment of these models, and the article concludes with Section 4, which outlines potential di-

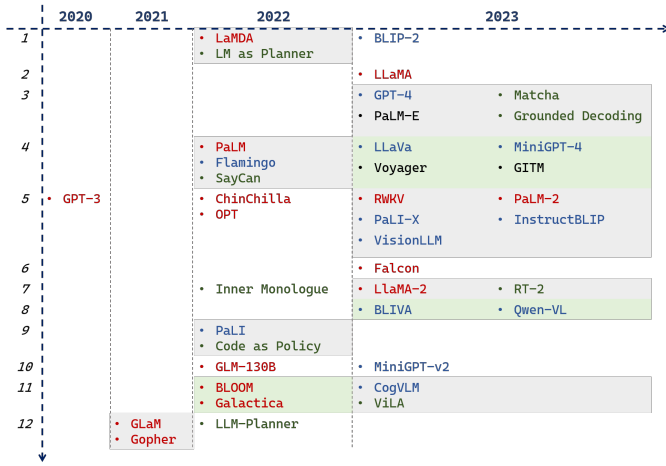


Figure 2: **Timeline of the LMs**

reactions for future research.

## 2 Large Models

### 2.1 LLMs

Table 1

### 2.2 VLMs

Table 2

### 2.3 Embodied Agents

Table 3

## 3 Assessment

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Name	Release Time	Pretraining Task	Model Architecture	# Maximum Parameters	Instruction-tuned Versions
GPT-3 [Brown <i>et al.</i> , 2020]	2020.05	①	①	175B	InstructGPT, GPT-3.5
GLaM [Du <i>et al.</i> , 2022]	2021.12	①	②	1.2T	/
Gopher [Rae <i>et al.</i> , 2021]	2021.12	①	①	280B	/
LaMDA [Thoppilan <i>et al.</i> , 2022]	2022.01	①	①	137B	Bard [Manyika, 2023]
PaLM [Chowdhery <i>et al.</i> , 2022]	2022.04	①	①	540B	Flan-PaLM [Chung <i>et al.</i> , 2022]
Chinchilla [Hoffmann <i>et al.</i> , 2022]	2022.05	①	①	70B	/
OPT [Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2022]	2022.05	①	①	175B	OPT-IML [Iyer <i>et al.</i> , 2022]
GLM-130B [Zeng <i>et al.</i> , 2022]	2022.10	②	③	130B	ChatGLM
BLOOM [Workshop <i>et al.</i> , 2022]	2022.11	①	①	176B	BLOOMZ [Muennighoff <i>et al.</i> , 2022]
Galactica [Taylor <i>et al.</i> , 2022]	2022.11	①	①	120B	Evol-Instruct
LLaMA [Touvron <i>et al.</i> , 2023a]	2023.02	①	①	65B	Alpaca [Taori <i>et al.</i> , 2023], WizardLM, Vicuna [Chiang <i>et al.</i> , 2023]
RWKV [Peng <i>et al.</i> , 2023]	2023.05	①	④	14B	RWKV-4 Raven
PaLM-2 [Anil <i>et al.</i> , 2023]	2023.05	③	⑤	/	/
Falcon [Almazrouei <i>et al.</i> , 2023]	2023.06	①	①	40B	Falcon-instruct
LLaMA-2 [Touvron <i>et al.</i> , 2023b]	2023.07	①	①	70B	LLaMA2-Chat, OpenChat V2

Table 1: Summary of popular pretrained LLMs and their instructed versions, arranged chronologically from the earliest to the most recent releases. For the pretraining task category, symbols ①, ②, and ③ denote language modeling [Radford *et al.*, 2019], autoregressive blank infilling, and mixture of denoisers [Tay *et al.*, 2022], respectively. For the model architecture category, ①, ②, ③, and ④ represent transformer decoder [Radford *et al.*, 2018], mixture-of-experts decoder, bidirectional GLM, RWKV architecture, and transformer, respectively. The symbol “/” is used when specific information is not explicitly available. All these models have a maximum parameter count exceeding 10 billion, with some surpassing 100 billion. The majority of these LLMs were released in the past two years. In addition, numerous instruction-tuned models are based on the LLaMA framework.

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Name	Release Time	Visual Encoder	LLM	Connector	Training/Tuning
Flamingo [Alayrac <i>et al.</i> , 2022]	2022.04	NFNet [Brock <i>et al.</i> , 2021]	Chinchilla	Cross-attention dense layers	Pretraining
PaLI [Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2022]	2022.09	ViT-e [Zhai <i>et al.</i> , 2022]	mT5 [Raffel <i>et al.</i> , 2020]	/	Multi-task Pretraining
BLIP-2 [Li <i>et al.</i> , 2023]	2023.01	1. ViT-L/14 [Radford <i>et al.</i> , 2021], 2. ViT-g/14 [Fang <i>et al.</i> , 2023]	1. OPT [Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2022], 2. FlanT5 [Chung <i>et al.</i> , 2022]	Q-former	Multi-task Pretraining
GPT-4 [OpenAI, 2023]	2023.03	/	GPT-4	/	/
LLaVa [Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2023]	2023.04	ViT-L/14	LLaMA	Projection layer	1. Pretraining, 2. Instruction tuning.
MiniGPT-4 [Zhu <i>et al.</i> , 2023a]	2023.04	Blip-2 ViT-g/14 and Q-Former	Vicuna	Linear projection layer	1. Pretraining, 2. Instruction tuning.
PaLI-X [Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2023b]	2023.05	ViT-22B [Dehghani <i>et al.</i> , 2023]	UL2 [Tay <i>et al.</i> , 2022]	Projection layer	1. Multi-task pretraining, 2. Task-specific fine-tuning.
InstructBLIP [Dai <i>et al.</i> , 2023]	2023.05	ViT-g/14	1. FlanT5, 2. Vicuna	Q-former	1. Pretraining, 2. Instruction tuning.
VisionLLM [Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2023c]	2023.05	1. ResNet, 2. InternImage-H	Alpaca	BERT-Base and Deformable DETR [Zhu <i>et al.</i> , 2020]	Multi-task pretraining
BLIVA [Hu <i>et al.</i> , 2023a]	2023.08	ViT-g/14	FlanT5	Q-former and projection layer	1. Pretraining, 2. Instruction-tuning.
Qwen-VL [Bai <i>et al.</i> , 2023]	2023.08	ViT [Dosovitskiy <i>et al.</i> , 2020]	Qwen	Single-layer cross-attention module	1. Pretraining, 2. Multi-task training, 3. Instruction tuning.
MiniGPT-v2 [Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2023a]	2023.10	ViT-g/14	LLaMA2-Chat	Linear projection layer	1. Pretraining, 2. Multi-task training, 3. Instruction tuning.
CogVLM [Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2023b]	2023.11	Eva-clip ViT [Sun <i>et al.</i> , 2023]	Vicuna	MLP adapter	1. Pretraining; 2. Multi-task training

Table 2: Summary of popular pretrained Vision-Language Models (VLMs), arranged chronologically from the earliest to the latest. Typically, a large-scale VLM comprises a Visual Encoder, a LLM, and a vision-language connector. It indicates that ViT is the most favored visual encoder, while LLMs primarily derive from the LLaMA family, including variants like LLaMA, LLaMA2-Chat, Vicuna, and Alpaca. The most common connectors are either a straightforward linear projection layer or cross-attention layers. The prevalent pre-training methodology for VLMs generally encompasses three phases. Initially, extensive image-text pairs from the internet are employed for foundational training. Subsequently, multi-task, fine-grained tuning is applied. The final stage primarily utilizes instructional or conversational data, optimizing the model for interactive language-based user engagement.

Name	Time	LLM	Task	Environment	LM Output	Code Interface	LM Prompting/Tuning
LM as Planner [Huang <i>et al.</i> , 2022a]	2022.01	GPT3, CodeX	VirtualHome tasks	①	①	①	①
SayCan [Ahn <i>et al.</i> , 2022]	2022.04	PaLM	Real-world robotic tasks	②	②	①	①
Code as Policy [Liang <i>et al.</i> , 2023]	2022.09	Codex	Real-world robotic tasks	②	②	②	①
Inner Monologue [Huang <i>et al.</i> , 2022b]	2022.07	InstructGPT	Ravens tasks and real-world robotic tasks	① + ②	①	①	①
ProgPrompt [Singh <i>et al.</i> , 2023]	2022.09	GPT-3	VirtualHome tasks and real-world robotic tasks	① + ②	②	②	①
LLM-Planner [Song <i>et al.</i> , 2023]	2022.12	GPT-3	Alfred tasks	①	①	①	①
Matcha [Zhao <i>et al.</i> , 2023]	2023.03	GPT-3	CoppeliaSim-simulated NICOL robot tasks	①	①	①	①
PaLM-E [Driess <i>et al.</i> , 2023]	2023.03	PaLM	TAMP tasks and real-world robotic tasks	②	①	①	①
Grounded Decoding [Huang <i>et al.</i> , 2023]	2023.03	InstructGPT, PaLM	Ravens tasks and real-world robotic tasks	① + ②	①	①	①
Voyager [Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2023a]	2023.05	GPT-4	Minecraft Tasks	①	②	②	①
GITM [Zhu <i>et al.</i> , 2023b]	2023.05	GPT-3.5	Minecraft Tasks	①	②	①	①
RT-2 [Zitkovich <i>et al.</i> , 2023]	2023.07	PaLI-X, PaLM-E	Real-world robotic tasks	②	②	①	②
ViLA [Hu <i>et al.</i> , 2023b]	2023.11	GPT-4V	Ravens tasks and real-world robotic tasks	① + ②	①	①	①

Table 3: Summary of popular Embodied agents, arranged chronologically from the earliest to the most recent releases. In the Environment category, symbols ① and ② respectively denote simulated environments and physical real-world environments. In the LM (Language Model) output category, symbol ① represents mid-level plans, while ② signifies low-level executable robotic actions. For the Code Interface category, symbol ① indicates an interface without programming code (relying solely on natural language), and symbol ② represents an interface with programming code. In the LM Prompting/Tuning Column, ① corresponds to LM prompting, and ② corresponds to LM tuning. Most Embodied Agents use LM prompting to generate mid-level plans in natural language, which are then translated into low-level robotic actions for execution. Both simulated and real-world physical environments have been studied, with the most common approach being the use of GPT-3/4 with API-based prompting. In addition, embodied agents are trending toward using the VLM-based strategy for improved visual understanding and alignment instead of solely relying on LLMs.

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