



OS Agents: A Survey on MLLM-based Agents for Computer, Phone and Browser Use

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 <https://os-agent-survey.github.io/>

Abstract

The dream to create AI assistants as capable and versatile as the fictional *J.A.R.V.I.S* from *Iron Man* has long captivated imaginations. With the evolution of (multimodal) large language models ((M)LLMs), this dream is closer to reality, as (M)LLM-based Agents using computers, mobile phones and web browsers by operating within the environments and interfaces (e.g., Graphical User Interface (GUI) and Command Line Interface (CLI)) provided by operating systems (OS) to automate tasks have significantly advanced. This paper presents a comprehensive survey on these advanced agents, designated as **OS Agents**. We begin by elucidating the fundamentals of OS Agents, exploring their key components and capabilities. We then examine methodologies for constructing OS Agents, focusing on domain-specific foundation models and agent frameworks. A detailed review of evaluation metrics and benchmarks highlights how OS Agents are assessed across diverse platforms and tasks. Finally, we discuss current challenges and identify promising directions for future research. An open-source GitHub repository is maintained as a dynamic resource to foster further innovation in this field.

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Figure 1: An example of OS Agents automatically joining a Zoom meeting on the user’s phone as requested.

1 Introduction

Building a superintelligent AI assistant akin to *J.A.R.V.I.S.*¹ from the Marvel movie *Iron Man*, which assists *Tony Stark* in controlling various systems and automating tasks, has long been a human aspiration. These entities are recognized as **Operating System Agents (OS Agents)**, as they use computers, phones and browsers by operating within the environments and interfaces (e.g., Graphical User Interface (GUI) and Command Line Interface (CLI)) provided by operating systems (OS). OS Agents can complete tasks autonomously and

¹J.A.R.V.I.S. stands for “Just A Rather Very Intelligent System”, a fictional AI assistant character from the Marvel Cinematic Universe. It appears in *Iron Man* (2008), *The Avengers* (2012), and other films, serving as *Tony Stark*’s (*Iron Man*’s) personal assistant and interface for his technology

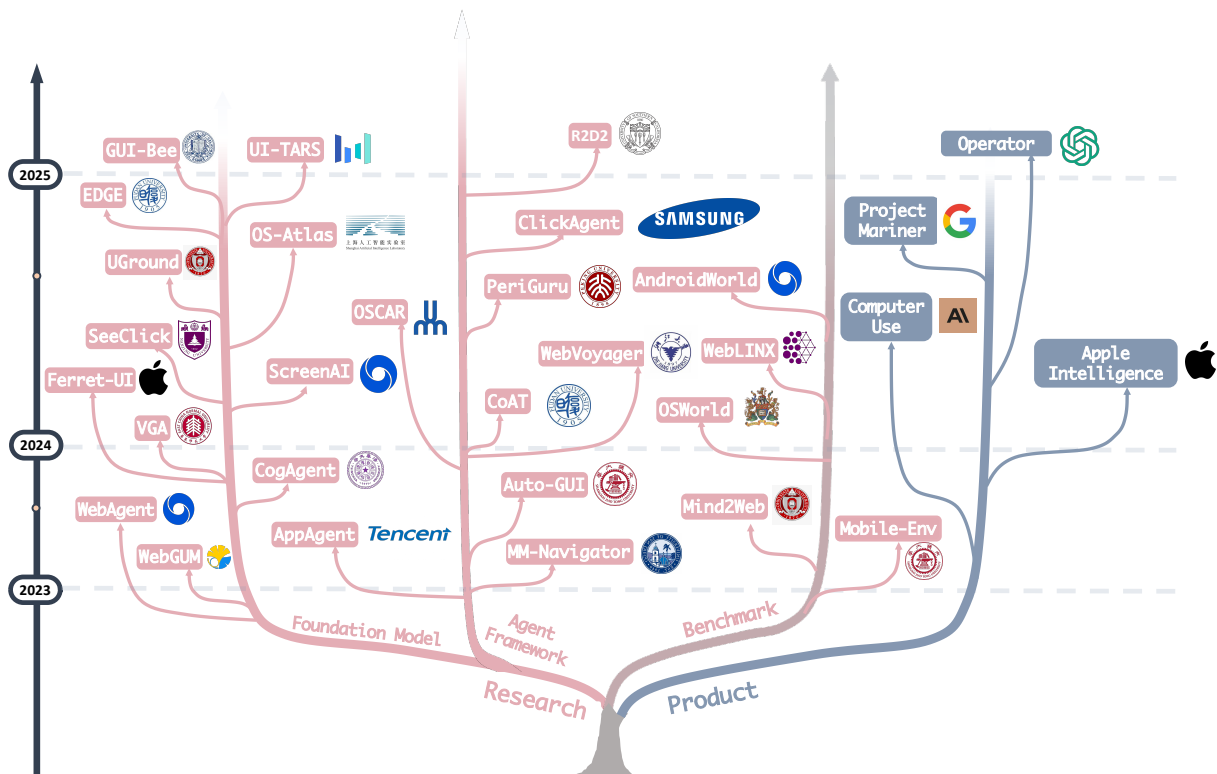


Figure 2: Part of academic research and commercial products of OS Agents in recent years. The figure is adapted from [this repo](#).

have the potential to significantly enhance the lives of billions of users worldwide. Imagine a world where tasks such as online shopping, travel arrangements booking, and other daily activities could be seamlessly performed by these agents, thereby substantially increasing efficiency and productivity. In the past, virtual assistants such as Siri (Inc., 2024), Cortana (Research, 2024), Amazon Alexa (Google, 2024) and Google Assistant (Amazon, 2024) have already offered glimpses into this potential, but limitations in model capabilities such as contextual understanding (Tulshan and Dhage, 2019), have prevented these products from achieving widespread adoption and full functionality.

Fortunately, recent advancements in (multi-modal) large language models ((M)LLMs), such as GPT (OpenAI) series models have ushered in a new era of possibilities for OS Agents. These models boast remarkable abilities, enabling OS Agents to better understand complex tasks and use computers, phones and browsers to execute. As illustrated in Figure 2, there has been a surge of OS Agents in both academic research and commercial products. A variety of works have been proposed to construct (M)LLM-based OS Agents by training

domain-specific foundation models for OS Agents (Gur et al., 2023; You et al., 2025; Gou et al., 2024; Meng et al., 2024) and designing OS Agent frameworks (Zhang et al., 2023a; Yan et al., 2023; Ma et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2024e). Meanwhile, a large number of works evaluating OS Agents (Xie et al., 2024b; Rawles et al., 2024a; Xing et al., 2024; Zhou et al., 2023a) have also been introduced. In the industry, notable products include the recently released Operator² by OpenAI, Computer Use³ by Anthropic, Apple Intelligence⁴ by Apple, and Project Mariner⁵ by Google Deepmind. For instance, Computer Use leverages Claude (Anthropic, 2024b) to interact directly with users' computers, aiming for seamless task automation. Given these advancements and the growing body of work, it has become increasingly important to provide a comprehensive survey that consolidates the current state of research in this area.

We begin by discussing the fundamentals of OS

²<https://operator.chatgpt.com/>

³<https://www.anthropic.com/news/3-5-models-and-computer-use>

⁴<https://www.apple.com/apple-intelligence/>

⁵<https://deepmind.google/technologies/project-mariner/>

Agents (§2). Next, we explore two critical aspects of constructing OS Agents (§3): (1) the development of domain-specific foundation models (§3.1); and (2) the building of effective agent frameworks around these models (§3.2). We also review the evaluation metrics (§4.1) and benchmarks (§4.2) commonly used to assess the performance of OS Agents. Additionally, we analyze existing commercial products of OS Agents (§5). Finally, we discuss the challenges and future directions for OS Agents (§6).

2 Fundamental of OS Agents

OS Agents are specialized AI agents that leverage the environment, input and output interfaces provided by operating systems to generally use computers, mobile phones and web browsers in response to user-defined goals. These agents are designed to automate tasks executed within the OS, leveraging the exceptional understanding and generative capabilities of (M)LLMs to enhance user experience and operational efficiency. To achieve this, OS Agents are based on several key components and necessitate some core capabilities discussed in the following.

2.1 Key Component

Environment. The environment for OS Agents refers to the platforms in which they operate, including computers, phones and browsers. OS Agents interact with these diverse environments to perform tasks, gather feedback, and adapt to their unique characteristics. We refer readers to §4.2 for detailed discussion.

Observation Space. The observation space encompasses the information OS Agents can access about the system’s state and user activities. Observation includes capturing information from the OS, such as screen images, or textual data, such as the description of the screen and the HTML code in web-based contexts. Further details are elaborated in §3.2.1.

Action Space. The action space defines the set of interactions through which OS Agents manipulate the environment using the input interfaces provided by the OS. These actions can be broadly categorized into input operations, navigation operations and extended operations. A comprehensive discussion can be found in §3.2.4.

2.2 Capability

Understanding. A fundamental capability of OS Agents is comprehending complex OS environments. These environments encompass a diverse array of data formats, including HTML code (Gur et al., 2023; Lai et al., 2024) and GUIs captured in screenshots (Nong et al., 2024; Wu et al., 2024f). The complexity escalates with length code with sparse information, high-resolution interfaces cluttered with minuscule icons, small text, and densely packed elements (He et al., 2024a; Hong et al., 2024; You et al., 2025). Such environments challenge the agents’ perceptual abilities and demand advanced contextual comprehension.

Planning. Planning (Huang and Chang, 2023; Zhang et al., 2024i; Huang et al., 2024b) is a crucial capability of OS Agents, enabling them to decompose complex tasks into manageable sub-tasks and devise sequences of actions to achieve specific goals (Wu et al., 2024e; Gao et al., 2023). Planning within operating systems often requires agents to dynamically adjust plans based on environmental feedback and historical actions (Zhang and Zhang, 2023; Wang and Liu, 2024; Kim et al., 2024a).

Grounding. Action grounding is another essential capability of OS Agents, referring to the ability to translate textual instructions or plans into executable actions within the operating environment (Zheng et al., 2024a; Wu et al., 2024f). The agent must identify elements on the screen and provide the necessary parameters (e.g., coordinates, input values) to ensure successful execution. While OS environments often contain numerous selectable elements and possible actions, the resulting complexity makes action grounding particularly challenging.

3 Construction of OS Agents

In this section, we discuss effective strategies for constructing OS Agents, including training domain-specific foundation models and designing agent frameworks for OS Agents.

3.1 Foundation Model

The construction of foundation models for OS Agents involves two key components: model architecture and training strategies, including pre-training, supervised finetuning and reinforcement learning. Table 1 in the Appendix summarizes the architecture and training strategies used in the

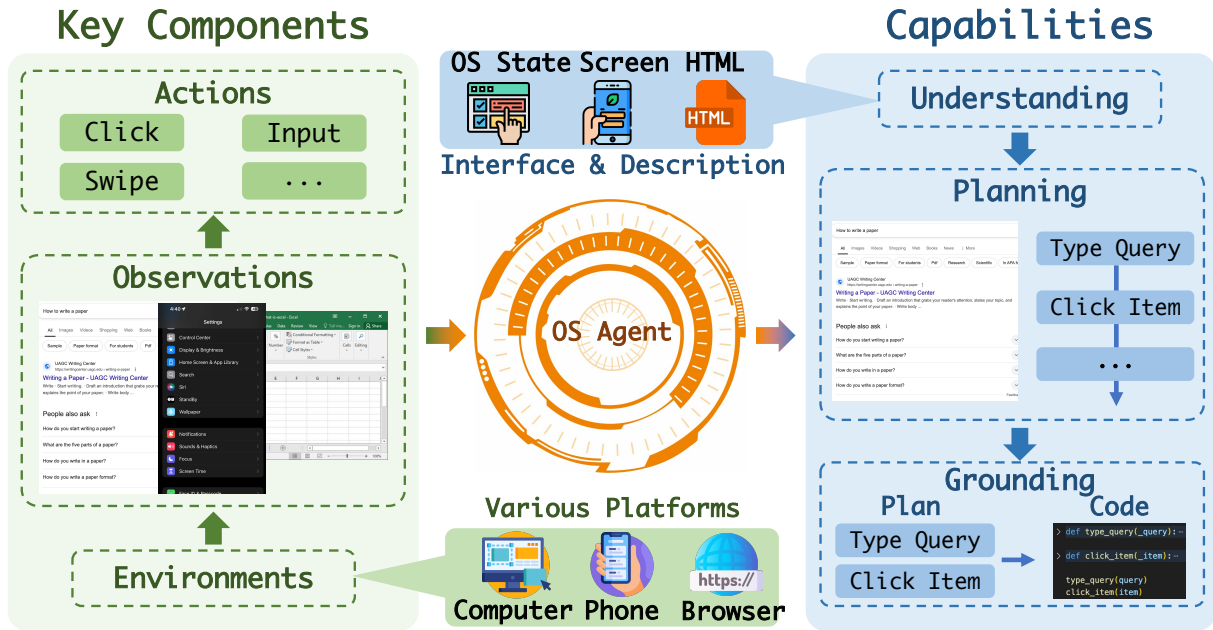


Figure 3: Fundamentals of OS Agents. Key components that OS Agents based: Environment, Observation Space and Action Space. Capabilities of OS Agents: Understanding, Planning and Grounding.

recent foundation models for OS Agents (as of January 2025).

3.1.1 Architecture

A variety of architectures are employed in foundation models for OS Agents. We discuss four common choices on model architectures when building OS Agents as follows.

Existing LLMs. The architecture of existing LLMs can already process user instructions and read HTML code to perceive information contained in user interfaces. Therefore, several works (Liu et al., 2024c; Lai et al., 2024; Patel et al., 2024; Liu et al., 2024a) directly leverage existing open-source LLMs as backbone models without further optimizing architecture and train based on it to develop foundation models for OS Agents.

Existing MLLMs. Although LLMs are capable of handling OS tasks, an inescapable shortcoming is that LLMs can only process textual input, while GUIs are designed for human users that directly perceive vision information (Xu et al., 2024e; Meng et al., 2024). Therefore, existing open-source MLLMs which additionally have the ability to process vision information while preserving the ability for complex natural language processing are introduced (Baechler et al., 2024; Chen et al., 2024d; Pawlowski et al., 2024).

Concatenated MLLMs. Typical architecture of MLLMs consists of an LLM and a vision en-

coder connected by an adapter network or a cross-attention module. Several works (Kil et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2023d) have shown that choosing LLMs and vision encoders that are suitable to process OS tasks and concatenating them could be a more suitable approach for constructing foundation models for OS Agents.

Modified MLLMs. Further adjustments have been adopted to architectures of MLLMs to enhance understanding abilities of OS Agents. For instance, most existing MLLMs can only process images of relatively low resolutions, typically 224×224 , while common resolution of GUI screenshots is much larger. Some works have been proposed to modify MLLMs with specific modules to perceive these features. For example, CogAgent (Hong et al., 2024) introduced additional EVA-CLIP-L high-resolution vision encoder that accepts images of size 1120×1120 , and added a cross-attention module to connect with the original MLLM.

3.1.2 Pre-training

Continual pre-training are used to enhance the foundation models for OS Agents by expanding their understanding of GUI and facilitating the acquisition of the inherent correlations between visual and textual information. We discuss two important factors: data source and task in pre-training.

Data source. (1) *Publicly available data.* Some

studies leverage publicly available datasets to quickly obtain large-scale data for pre-training (Gur et al., 2023; Nong et al., 2024). However, relying solely on publicly available data for pre-training is insufficient to address the complex and diverse tasks required by OS Agents (Gou et al., 2024). Consequently, (2) *Synthetic data*. Researchers incorporate synthetic data into the pre-training process (Cheng et al., 2024a; Chen et al., 2024c).

Task. (1) *Screen grounding*. Many studies have the task of extracting 2D coordinates or bounding boxes of target elements from images based on textual descriptions in pre-training (Wu et al., 2024f; Baechler et al., 2024; Pawlowski et al., 2024). (2) *Screen understanding*. Several studies posit that the foundation models for OS Agents should be capable of extracting semantic information from images, as well as analyzing and interpreting the entire content of the image. (3) *Optical Character Recognition (OCR)*. OCR plays a crucial role in handling GUI elements that contain textual content. For instance, Hong et al. (2024) constructed training data during the pre-training stage by using Paddle-OCR to extract text and bounding boxes from GUI screenshots.

3.1.3 Supervised Finetuning

Supervised Fine-Tuning (SFT) has been widely adopted for further enhancing the GUI referring and grounding abilities of the model and making the model fit for navigation tasks.

In order to collect high-quality SFT data, several aspects of work have been proposed. (1) *Rule-Based Data Synthesis*. Several works use tools and specific rules to explore existing web data and extend trajectory data collections. For example, Wu et al. (2024d) adopted breadth-first search (BFS) to cover the app functions and generate action sequences based on the exploration. (2) *Model-Based Data Synthesis*. Several works use (M)LLMs to generate data samples based on webpages or mobile screens from existing datasets. For instance, Zhang et al. (2024f) prompted GPT-4V to generate data samples for GUI referring & grounding and screen summarization tasks. (3) *Model-Based Data Augmentation*. Zhang et al. (2024e) demonstrated that models trained with Chain-of-Action-Thought (CoAT) data, which includes screen description, thinking process about next action, the next action and possible action outcomes, would have better performance on GUI navigation tasks. Therefore, (M)LLMs are employed in several works to con-

struct CoAT data based on existing trajectory data (Xu et al., 2024e; Lai et al., 2024).

3.1.4 Reinforcement Learning

More recently, research has progressed to the “LLMs as agents” paradigm, where LLMs serve as policy models and reinforcement learning is applied to align (M)LLMs with the final objectives. Thil et al. (2024) improved web navigation in LLMs using the Miniwob++ benchmark by fine-tuning T5-based models with hierarchical planning and then integrating these with a multimodal neural network, utilizing both supervised and reinforcement learning. Fereidouni et al. (2024) employs the Flan-T5 architecture and introduce training via Reinforcement Learning. They leveraged human demonstrations through behavior cloning and then further trained the agent with PPO. Reinforcement learning is also introduced to the agents based on vision-only models (Shaw et al., 2023) and MLLMs (Bai et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2024g; Fan et al., 2025a). For instance, Fan et al. (2025a) introduced Q-ICRL, a novel Q-value-incentive in-context reinforcement learning method to optimize exploration efficiency and data quality to improve GUI action grounding.

3.2 Agent Framework

OS Agent frameworks typically consist of four core components: Perception, Planning, Memory, and Action. Table 2 in the Appendix summarizes the technical characteristics of recent OS Agent frameworks.

3.2.1 Perception

Perception is the process through which OS Agents collect and analyze information from the environment. In OS Agents, the perception component needs to observe the current environment and extract relevant information to assist with the agents’ planning, action, and memory optimization. Perception can be broadly categorized into two types based on the input modality as follows:

Textual Description of OS. Early works (Ma et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2023a; Lee et al., 2023; Gao et al., 2023) are limited by the fact that LLMs could only process textual input. Therefore, they mainly rely on using tools to convert OS environments into text descriptions, often represented in a structured format, such as HTML, DOM, or accessibility tree.

GUI Screenshot. The emergence of MLLMs

enables OS Agents to process visual inputs. Research (Tan et al.; Ma et al., 2024c; Hu et al., 2024b) is increasingly treating GUI screenshots as the perception input for OS Agents, which better aligns with human behavior. To enhance OS Agents’ understanding and grounding ability without fine-tuning visual encoders, existing research focuses on using prompting techniques to describe GUI screenshots. These descriptions can generally be categorized into three types: (1) *Visual description*. Most research (Yan et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2024a; Rawles et al., 2024a) uses SoM prompting (Yang et al., 2023) to enhance OS Agents’ visual grounding ability. (2) *Semantic description*. Some studies (Pan et al.; Zheng et al., 2024a,b) improve OS Agents’ understanding and grounding ability by adding descriptions of these interactive elements. (3) *Dual description*. Dual description combines both visual and semantic information to improve OS Agents’ understanding and grounding of the visual environment (Zhang et al., 2023a; Wang and Liu, 2024).

3.2.2 Planning

Planning is the process of developing a sequence of actions to achieve a specific goal based on the current environment (Huang and Chang, 2023; Zhang et al., 2024i; Huang et al., 2024b). It enables OS Agents to break down complex tasks into smaller, manageable sub-tasks and solve them step by step. We categorize existing studies into two key approaches based on whether the planning is fixed or iterates in response to environmental changes: global planning and iterative planning.

Global. OS Agents only generate a global plan once and execute it without making adjustments based on environmental changes. Chain-of-Thought (CoT) (Wei et al., 2023) prompts (M)LLMs to break down complex tasks into reasoning steps, which forms the foundation of global planning in most OS Agents (Fu et al., 2024; Vu et al., 2024). Due to the one-time nature of global planning, research on global planning focuses on fitting the OS Agents’ environment and tasks, proposing sufficiently feasible plans from the outset (Wu et al., 2024e; Gao et al., 2023; Agashe et al., 2024).

Iterative. In contrast to global planning, iterative planning allows OS Agents to continuously iterate their plans based on historical actions or changes in the environment, enabling them to adapt to ongoing environmental changes. This method-

ology is crucial for OS Agents to handle dynamic and unpredictable environments effectively. In specific, ReAct (Yao et al., 2023) builds on the concept of CoT by integrating reasoning with the outcome of actions, making planning more adaptable to changes in the environment. This approach has been widely applied in OS Agents (Zhang et al., 2023a; Ma et al., 2023; He et al., 2024a) for iterative planning. In addition, some studies have proposed iterative planning approaches specifically tailored for OS Agents. For instance, Auto-GUI (Zhang and Zhang, 2023) employs a CoT technique, where a history of past actions is used to generate future plans iteratively after each step.

3.2.3 Memory

Memory module saving useful information serves as one of the core components for OS Agents to perform tasks, adapt to dynamic environments, and continuously optimize their performance during task execution in various complex scenarios.

Memory Sources. Memory can be categorized into Internal Memory and External Memory, serving distinct functions in task execution: immediate information storage and external knowledge support. (1) *Internal Memory*. Internal memory contains information during task completion, such as action history (Zhang and Zhang, 2023), previous screenshots (Zhang et al., 2024e; Rawles et al., 2024b; Wang and Liu, 2024) and state data (Abuelsaad et al., 2024; Tao et al., 2023). (2) *External Memory*. External memory provides long-term knowledge support, primarily enriching an agent’s memory capabilities through knowledge bases, external documents, and online information. For instance, some agents dynamically acquire external knowledge by invoking tools (Song et al., 2024a; Reddy et al., 2024), integrating this knowledge into their memory to assist with task execution and decision optimization.

Memory Optimization. Memory optimization can enhance an agent’s efficiency in operations and decision-making during complex tasks by effectively managing and utilizing memory resources. In the following, we introduce several key strategies. (1) *Management*. For humans, memory information is constantly processed and abstracted in the brain. Similarly, the memory of OS Agents can be effectively managed to generate higher-level information, consolidate redundant content, and remove irrelevant or outdated information (Tang and Shin, 2024; Wen et al., 2024a). (2) *Growth Experience*.

By revisiting each step of a task, the agent can analyze successes and failures, identify opportunities for improvement, and avoid repeating mistakes in similar scenarios (Kim et al., 2024a; Niu et al., 2024). OS Agents can return to a previous state and choose an alternative path when the current task path proves infeasible or the results do not meet expectations, which is akin to classic search algorithms, enabling the agent to explore multiple potential solutions and find the optimal path (Ma et al., 2023; Li et al., 2024b; Zhu et al., 2024; Li et al., 2024e). (3) *Experience Retrieval*. OS Agents can efficiently plan and execute by retrieving experiences similar to the current task from long-term memory, which helps to reduce redundant operations (Zheng et al., 2023; Deng et al., 2024b; Cho et al., 2024).

3.2.4 Action

The action space defines the interfaces through which (M)LLM-based Agents engage with operating systems, spanning across platforms such as computers, mobile phones, and web browsers. We systematically categorized the action space of OS Agents into input operations, navigation operations, and extended operations.

Input Operations. Input operations encompass interactions via mouse/touch and keyboard (Sun et al., 2022; Fu et al., 2024; Deng et al., 2024a), forming the foundation for OS Agents to interact with digital interfaces.

Navigation Operations. Navigation operations enable OS Agents to traverse targeted platforms and acquire sufficient information for subsequent actions. Navigation operations encompass both basic navigation (Lee et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2024a) and web-specific navigation features (He et al., 2024a).

Extended Operations. Extended Operations provide additional capabilities beyond standard interface interactions, enabling more flexible and powerful agent behaviors. These operations primarily include (1) *code execution* capabilities that allow agents to dynamically extend their action space beyond predefined operations, enabling flexible and customizable control through direct script execution and command interpretation (Wu et al., 2024e; Mei et al., 2024; Tan et al.), and (2) *API integration* features that expand agents' capabilities by accessing external tools and information resources, facilitating interactions with third-party services and specialized functionalities (Wu et al., 2024e;

Mei et al., 2024; Tan et al.; Li et al., 2024b).

4 Evaluation of OS Agents

We provide a comprehensive overview of a generic evaluation framework for OS Agents, structured around evaluation metrics and benchmarks. We have listed the recent benchmarks for OS Agents in Table 3 in the Appendix.

4.1 Evaluation Metric

During evaluation, OS Agents provided with task instructions and the current environment input, is expected to execute a sequence of continuous actions until the task is accomplished. By collecting the agent's observations, action outputs, and other environmental information during the process, specific metrics can be calculated. Specifically, the evaluation scope includes both granular step-level evaluations and a more holistic task-level assessment.

Step-level Evaluation. Step-level evaluation centers on a detailed, step-by-step analysis of the planning trajectory, offering a fine-grained evaluation of the actions taken by the agent at each step. In step-level evaluation, the agent's output in response to instruction of each step is directly assessed, with a focus on the accuracy of action grounding and the matching of potential object elements (which refers to the target of the action) (Xu et al., 2024c; Jin et al., 2024; Pasupat et al., 2018).

Task-level Evaluation. Task-level evaluation centers on the final output and evaluates whether the agent reaches the desired final state. The two main criteria are task completion and resource utilization. (1) *Task Completion Metrics*. Task Completion Metrics measure the effectiveness of OS Agents in successfully accomplishing assigned tasks. For instance, *Overall Success Rate (SR)* (Koh et al., 2024a; Zhang and Zhang, 2023; Drouin et al., 2024) provides a straightforward measure of the proportion of tasks that are fully completed. (2) *Efficiency Metrics*. Efficiency Metrics evaluate how efficiently the agent completes assigned tasks, considering factors such as step cost, hardware expenses, and time expenditure. For instance, *Step Ratio* (Chen et al., 2024a; Lee et al., 2024b; Wang et al., 2024c) compares the number of steps taken by the agent to the optimal one (often defined by human performance). A lower step ratio indicates a more efficient and optimized task execution.

4.2 Evaluation Benchmark

To comprehensively evaluate the performance and capabilities of OS Agents, researchers have developed a variety of benchmarks. These benchmarks construct various environments, based on different platforms and settings, and cover a wide range of tasks.

4.2.1 Evaluation Platform

The platform acts as an integrated evaluation environment, specifically encompassing the virtual settings in which benchmarks are performed. Some benchmarks also incorporate multiple platforms at the same time, which places greater demands on the agent’s cross-platform transferability. Existing real-world platforms can primarily be categorized into three types: Computer, Phone, and Browser.

Computer. Computer platform is complex due to the diversity of operating systems and applications. Efficient computer benchmarks (Xie et al., 2024b; Wang et al., 2024j; Bonatti et al., 2024) need to handle the wide variety and complexity of real-world computing environments, which span different operating systems, interfaces, and applications.

Phone. Phone platforms such as Android (Li et al., 2024c; Lee et al., 2024b; Bishop et al., 2024) or iOS (Yan et al., 2023) present unique challenges for OS Agents. While phone GUI elements are simpler due to smaller screens, they require more complex actions, such as precise gestures for navigating widgets or zooming, which imposes higher demands on the agents’ planning and action grounding capabilities.

Browser. Browser platforms are essential interfaces to access online resources. Webpages (Koh et al., 2024a; Lù et al., 2024; Drouin et al., 2024; Yao et al., 2022; Shi et al., 2017) are open and built with HTML, CSS, and JavaScript, making them easy to inspect and modify in real-time.

4.2.2 Task

To comprehensively assess the capabilities of OS Agents, a spectrum of specialized tasks has been integrated into the established benchmarks and introduced as follows. Figure 4 illustrates some cases of different task types.

GUI Grounding. GUI grounding tasks (Li et al., 2020; Fan et al., 2025b) aim to evaluate agent’s abilities to transform instructions to various actionable elements. Grounding is fundamental for interacting with operation systems that OS Agents must

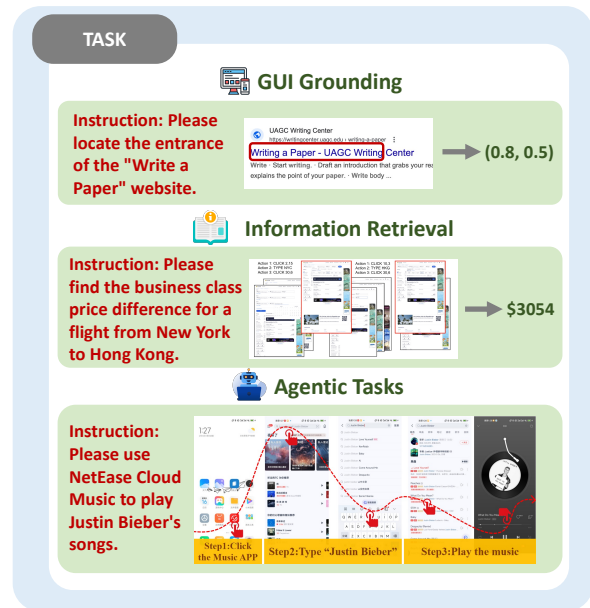


Figure 4: Three types of tasks: Information Retrieval, and Agentic Tasks in OS Agent benchmarks, with some images sourced from (Wang et al., 2024d).

possess.

Information Retrieval. Information Retrieval tasks (Pan et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2024l; Drouin et al., 2024) examine agent’s ability to process complex and dynamic information by understanding instructions and GUI interfaces, extracting the desired information or data.

Agentic Tasks. Agentic tasks (Lù et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2024l) are a key focus in current research. In these tasks, OS Agents are provided with an instruction or goal and tasked with identifying the required steps, planning actions, and executing them until the target state is reached, without relying on any explicit navigation guidance.

5 Product of OS Agents

The rapid advancement and increasing interest in OS Agents research have significantly accelerated the development of commercial products in this domain. The interplay between research and product development is crucial, as cutting-edge academic breakthroughs often serve as the foundation for innovative commercial applications, while real-world product feedback further refines and drives research directions. This symbiotic relationship not only bridges the gap between theoretical exploration and practical implementation but also ensures that OS Agents evolve to meet both technological and user-centric demands.

OS Agent products are evolving towards plat-

form diversification (e.g., computers (Anthropic, 2024a), phones (Apple, 2024), browsers (DeepMind, 2024)) and functional stratification into task execution- and search-oriented types. From 2023 to 2024, they progressed from technological validation and demonstration to deeper OS integration, enhanced capabilities, and actual productivity. Due to space limitations, further details and a list of recent commercial products are in Table 4 in Appendix D.

6 Challenge & Future

6.1 Safety & Privacy

Many studies (Deng et al., 2024c; Gan et al., 2024a; Yao et al., 2024) investigate the security and privacy risks associated with (M)LLMs-based Agents. OS Agents are also confronted with these risks, especially considering its wide applications on personal devices with user data.

Researchers have highlighted significant security vulnerabilities in OS Agents. Attack methodologies include Web Indirect Prompt Injection (WIPI) using embedded web instructions (Wu et al., 2024b), adversarial images misleading agent perception (Wu et al., 2025a), and environmental injection attacks that embed malicious instructions in web pages to induce unintended actions or data theft (Ma et al., 2024b; Liao et al., 2024). Other identified threats encompass backdoor attacks, adversarial pop-ups, and the susceptibility of refusal-trained LLMs to jailbreaking in browser contexts (Yang et al., 2024b; Zhang et al., 2024j; Kumar et al., 2024).

While general security frameworks for LLM agents exist (Ruan et al., 2024; Hua et al., 2024), defenses specifically tailored to OS Agents are still nascent (Pedro et al., 2023). This underscores the need for robust defense mechanisms against threats like injection and backdoors.

To assess OS Agent robustness, several benchmarks have emerged. ST-WebAgentBench (Levy et al., 2024) evaluates web agent safety in enterprise settings. MobileSafetyBench (Lee et al., 2024a) assesses mobile agent security, particularly for safety-critical tasks. AgentDojo (Debenedetti et al., 2024) offers a dynamic environment for testing prompt injection attacks, and AgentHarm (Andriushchenko et al., 2024) measures the potential harm from agents executing malicious tasks.

Due to limited space, we place the detailed discussion in the Appendix E.1.1 analyzes various

attack strategies targeting OS Agents, §E.1.2 explores existing defense mechanisms and limitations, and §E.1.3 reviews existing security benchmarks designed to assess the robustness and reliability of OS Agents.

6.2 Personalization & Self-Evolution

Much like Jarvis as Iron Man’s personal assistant in the movies, developing personalized OS Agents has been a long-standing goal in AI research. A personal assistant is expected to self-evolve, which means to continuously adapt and provide enhanced experiences based on individual user preferences. OpenAI’s memory feature⁶ has made strides in this direction, but many OS Agents today still perform insufficient in providing personalized experience to users and self-evolving over user interactions.

Early LLM-based Agents in games demonstrated the effectiveness of text-based memory for self-evolution (Wang et al., 2023b; Zhu et al., 2023), which is later validated for OS Agents (Zhang et al., 2023a; Wu et al., 2024e). Wang et al. (2024h) introduces a general framework and synthesizes realistic benchmarks for lifelong personalization of LLM-based Agents. Some products, such as Mem0 (Chhikara et al., 2025), offer a memory layer as standalone solutions for LLM-based agents to enhance personalization and self-evolution.

However, significant challenges persist, particularly in expanding memory to multi-modal forms and ensuring its efficient management and retrieval. Overcoming these hurdles is key to developing truly context-aware and continually evolving OS Agents. We place the detailed discussion in the Appendix E.2.

7 Conclusion

In this survey, we outline the fundamentals underlying OS Agents, including their key components and capabilities. We have also reviewed various approaches to their construction and evaluation. Looking ahead, we identify challenges and future of OS Agents. We hope this survey contribute to the ongoing development of OS Agents and support their relevance and utility in both academic and industrial settings.

⁶<https://openai.com/index/memory-and-new-controls-for-chatgpt/>

Limitations

In this survey, we acknowledge that there are areas closely related to OS Agents that, due to space limitations, have not been discussed in depth. One such area is the technology of effective models deployed on edge devices like mobile phones, which is crucial for the practical deployment of OS Agents. Additionally, our focus has been on single agent setting, and several research works on multi-agent frameworks will be updated soon.

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A Related Work

(Multimodal) Large Language Models (Wake et al., 2024; Li et al., 2024a; Zheng et al., 2024c; Bai et al., 2023; Dai et al., 2022; Luo et al., 2024) have emerged as transformative tools in artificial intelligence, driving significant advancements across various domains. Zhao et al. (2023) summarize a foundational overview of LLMs. Yin et al. (2024); Zhang et al. (2024b) comprehensively reviews the progress of Multimodal LLMs. In addition, Long et al. (2024) explores the use of synthetic data for training. Zhang et al. (2023c) presents the current state of research on the field of instruction tuning for LLMs.

With the flourishing development of (M)LLM-based Agents, numerous comprehensive surveys have emerged, offering detailed insights into various aspects of these systems. Wang et al. (2024b); Cheng et al. (2024b); Gan et al. (2024b) provides an overview of general LLM-based Agents. For the agent frameworks, Zhou et al. (2023b); Zhang et al. (2024k); Li et al. (2024d) explore methods to enhance agents’ capabilities of planning, memory

and multi-agents interaction. Qiao et al. (2022) presents comprehensive comparisons for LLM’s reasoning abilities. Hou et al. (2023); Hu et al. (2024a); Li et al. (2024h) summarizes studies in different application fields including software engineering, game and personal assistance. Some concurrent works (Li et al., 2024g; Wu et al., 2024a; Wang et al., 2024f; Gao et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2024a) touch on concepts that share some features with OS Agents, such as personalized agents, GUI Agents and generalist virtual agents. This work aims to provide an integrated view on the construction and evaluation of OS Agents, that leverage environments and interfaces provided by operating systems, while identifying open challenges and future directions in this domain for forthcoming studies.

B Detailed Discussions on the Construction of OS Agents

B.1 Foundation Model

As illustrated in Figure 5, training strategies that are applied in construction of foundation models for OS Agents mainly include pre-training, supervised finetuning and reinforcement learning. Table 1 summarizes the architecture and training strategies used in the recent foundation models for OS Agents.

B.2 Agent Framework

As illustrated in Figure 6, these components work together to enable OS Agents to understand, plan, remember, and interact with operating systems. Table 2 summarizes the technical characteristics of recent OS Agent frameworks, including their specific implementations across these four core components.

C Detailed Discussions on the Evaluation of OS Agents

We have provided the recent benchmarks for OS Agents in Table 3. Apart from the categorization of platforms, the environmental spaces for OS Agents to percept and take actions vary across different evaluation benchmarks. We have organized the existing benchmark environments, primarily dividing them into **static** and **interactive** categories, with the interactive environments further split into **simulated** and **real-world** settings.

Static. Static Environments, which are prevalent in early studies, are often created by caching web-

site copies or static data, thereby establishing an offline context for evaluation. The process of setting up a static environment is quite simple, as it merely involves caching the content from real websites. Evaluations generally rely on the cached static content for tasks such as visual grounding, and only one-step action are supported. MiniWoB (Shi et al., 2017) is built on simple HTML/CSS/JavaScript pages and employs predefined simulation tasks. Mind2Web (Deng et al., 2024a) captures comprehensive snapshots of each website along with complete interaction traces, enabling seamless offline replay. ANDROIDLAB (Xu et al., 2024c) generation method combines self-exploration and manual annotation, and uses preloaded usage records in the AVD image to ensure normal usability without an internet connection. Owing to the lack of dynamic interaction and environmental feedback, such static evaluations tend to be less authentic and versatile, making them inadequate for a comprehensive assessment.

Interactive. Interactive Environments provide a more authentic scenario, characterized by their dynamism and interactivity. In contrast to static environments, OS Agents can execute a sequence of actions, receive feedback from the environment, and make corresponding adjustments. Interactive evaluation settings facilitate the evaluation of an agent’s skills in more sophisticated settings. These interactive environments can be subdivided into simulated and real-world types. (1) For the *simulated environment*, FormWoB (Shi et al., 2017) created a virtual website to avoid the reproducibility issues caused by the dynamic nature of real-world environments, while Rawles et al. (2024b) developed virtual apps to assess the capabilities of OS Agents. However, these simulated environments are often overly simplistic by excluding unexpected conditions, thus failing to capture the complexity of real-world scenarios. (2) For the *real-world environment*, which is truly authentic and encompasses real websites and apps, one must consider the continuously updating nature of the environment, uncontrollable user behaviors, and diverse device setups. This scenario underscores the requirement for agents to exhibit strong generalization across real-world conditions. OSWorld (Xie et al., 2024b), for example, constructed virtual machines running Windows, Linux, and MacOS to systematically evaluate the performance of OS Agents across different operating systems. Similarly, AndroidWorld (Rawles et al., 2024a), con-

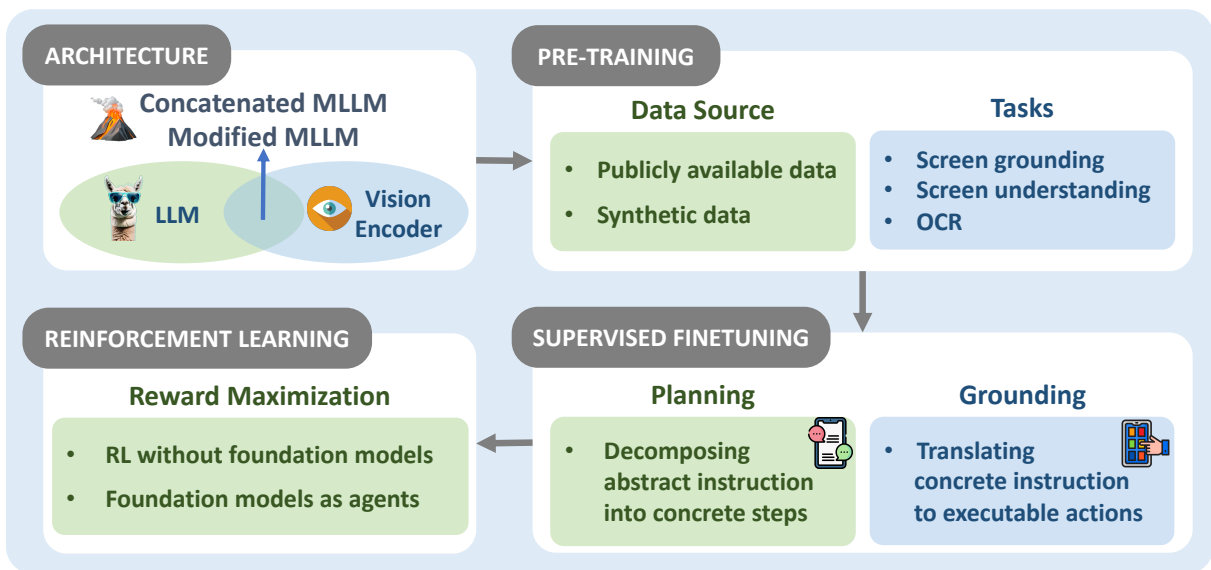


Figure 5: Summary of the content about foundation models for OS Agents in §3.1.

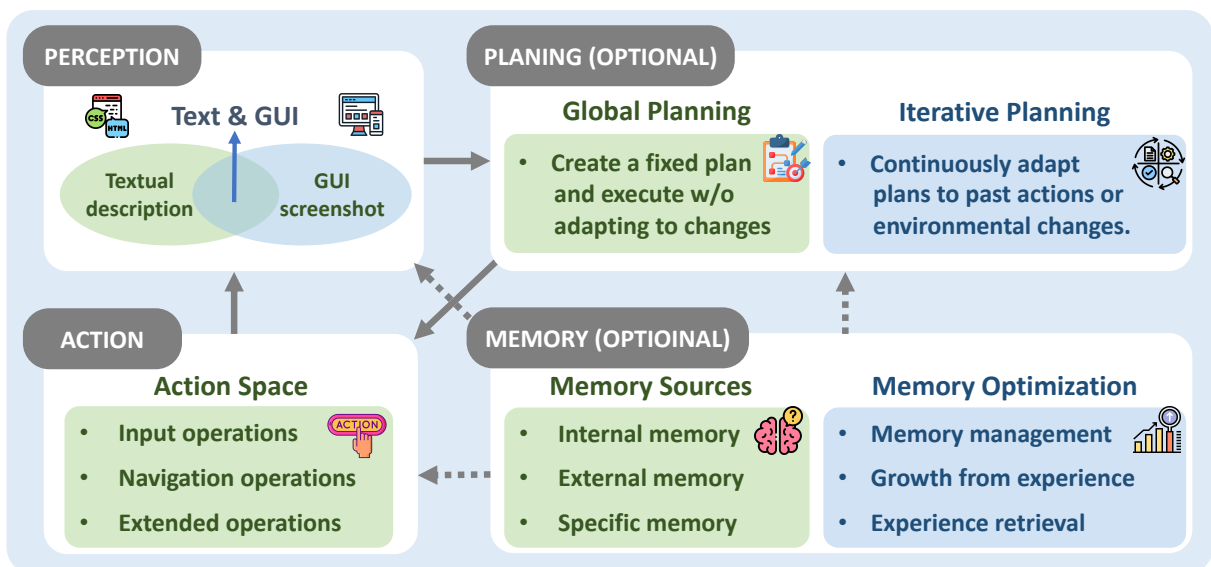


Figure 6: Summary of the content about agent frameworks for OS Agents in §3.2.

Table 1: Recent foundation models for OS Agents. Arch.: Architecture, Exist.: Existing, Mod.: Modified, Concat.: Concatenated, PT: Pre-Train, SFT: Supervised Fine-Tune, RL: Reinforcement Learning.

| Model | Arch. | PT | SFT | RL | Date |
|--|---------------|----|-----|----|---------|
| InfiGUIAgent (Liu et al., 2025b) | Exist. MLLMs | - | ✓ | - | 01/2025 |
| Aria-UI (Yang et al., 2024c) | Mod. MLLMs | - | ✓ | - | 12/2024 |
| Iris (Ge et al., 2024) | Mod. MLLMs | ✓ | ✓ | - | 12/2024 |
| AgentTrek (Xu et al., 2024d) | Exist. MLLMs | - | ✓ | - | 12/2024 |
| Falcon-UI (Shen et al., 2024a) | Concat. MLLMs | - | ✓ | - | 12/2024 |
| AGUVIS (Xu et al., 2024e) | Exist. MLLMs | ✓ | ✓ | - | 12/2024 |
| ScribeAgent (Shen et al., 2024b) | Exist. LLMs | - | ✓ | - | 11/2024 |
| OS-Atlas (Wu et al., 2024f) | Exist. MLLMs | ✓ | ✓ | - | 10/2024 |
| AutoGLM (Liu et al., 2024c) | Exist. LLMs | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | 10/2024 |
| EDGE (Chen et al., 2024d) | Exist. MLLMs | - | ✓ | - | 10/2024 |
| Ferret-UI 2 (Li et al., 2024i) | Exist. MLLMs | - | ✓ | - | 10/2024 |
| ShowUI (Lin et al., 2024) | Exist. MLLMs | - | ✓ | - | 10/2024 |
| UIX (Liu et al., 2024b) | Exist. MLLMs | - | ✓ | - | 10/2024 |
| TinyClick (Pawlowski et al., 2024) | Exist. MLLMs | ✓ | - | - | 10/2024 |
| UGround (Gou et al., 2024) | Exist. MLLMs | - | ✓ | - | 10/2024 |
| NNetNav (Murty et al., 2024) | Exist. LLMs | - | ✓ | - | 10/2024 |
| Synatra (Ou et al., 2024) | Exist. LLMs | - | ✓ | - | 09/2024 |
| MobileVLM (Wu et al., 2024d) | Exist. MLLMs | ✓ | ✓ | - | 09/2024 |
| UI-Hawk (Zhang et al., 2024f) | Mod. MLLMs | ✓ | ✓ | - | 08/2024 |
| GUI Action Narrator (Wu et al., 2024c) | Exist. MLLMs | - | ✓ | - | 07/2024 |
| MobileFlow (Nong et al., 2024) | Mod. MLLMs | ✓ | ✓ | - | 07/2024 |
| VGA (Meng et al., 2024) | Exist. MLLMs | - | ✓ | - | 06/2024 |
| OdysseyAgent (Lu et al., 2024) | Exist. MLLMs | - | ✓ | - | 06/2024 |
| Textual Foresight (Burns et al., 2024) | Concat. MLLMs | ✓ | ✓ | - | 06/2024 |
| WebAI (Thil et al., 2024) | Concat. MLLMs | - | ✓ | ✓ | 05/2024 |
| GLAINTEL (Fereidouni et al., 2024) | Exist. MLLMs | - | - | ✓ | 04/2024 |
| Ferret-UI (You et al., 2025) | Exist. MLLMs | - | ✓ | - | 04/2024 |
| AutoWebGLM (Lai et al., 2024) | Exist. LLMs | - | ✓ | ✓ | 04/2024 |
| Patel et al. (2024) | Exist. LLMs | - | ✓ | - | 03/2024 |
| ScreenAI (Baechler et al., 2024) | Exist. MLLMs | ✓ | ✓ | - | 02/2024 |
| Dual-VCR (Kil et al., 2024) | Concat. MLLMs | - | ✓ | - | 02/2024 |
| SeeClick (Cheng et al., 2024a) | Exist. MLLMs | ✓ | ✓ | - | 01/2024 |
| CogAgent (Hong et al., 2024) | Mod. MLLMs | ✓ | ✓ | - | 12/2023 |
| ILuvUI (Jiang et al., 2023) | Mod. MLLMs | - | ✓ | - | 10/2023 |
| RUIG (Zhang et al., 2023d) | Concat. MLLMs | - | - | ✓ | 10/2023 |
| WebAgent (Iong et al., 2024) | Concat. LLMs | ✓ | ✓ | - | 07/2023 |
| WebGUM (Furuta et al., 2023) | Concat. MLLMs | - | ✓ | - | 05/2023 |

Table 2: Recent agent frameworks for OS Agents. Text: Textual Description, Screen: GUI Screenshots, Vis: Visual Description, Sem: Semantic Description, Dual: Dual Description, Glob: Global, Iter: Iterative, Growth: Growth Experience, Retrieval: Experience Retrieval, Manage: Management, Input: Input Operations, Nav: Navigation Operations, Ext: Extended Operations.

| Agent | Perception | Planning | Memory | Action | Date |
|--|----------------|----------|--------------------------|--------------------|---------|
| CowPilot (Huq et al., 2025) | - | Iter | GrowthE | InputO, NavO | 01/2025 |
| UI-TARS (Qin et al., 2025) | GScreen, VisD | Iter | ERetri | InputO, NavO | 01/2025 |
| R2D2 (Huang et al., 2025) | - | Iter | ERetri | InputO, NavO | 01/2025 |
| AutoDroid-V2 (Wen et al., 2024b) | Text | - | ManageA | ExtO | 12/2024 |
| PAE (Zhou et al., 2024b) | GScreen, VisD | Iter | GrowthE | InputO, NavO | 12/2024 |
| SmartAgent (Zhang et al., 2024c) | GScreen | Iter | - | InputO, NavO | 12/2024 |
| Ponder & Press (Wang et al., 2024i) | GScreen | - | - | InputO, NavO | 12/2024 |
| AdaptAgent (Verma et al., 2024) | - | Iter | ERetri | InputO | 11/2024 |
| Claude Computer Use (Hu et al., 2024b) | GScreen | Iter | - | InputO, NavO, ExtO | 11/2024 |
| WebDreamer (Gu et al., 2024) | - | Iter | ERetri | InputO, NavO | 11/2024 |
| WebOlympus (Zheng et al., 2024b) | GScreen, SemD | - | ERetri | InputO, NavO | 11/2024 |
| OpenWebVoyager (He et al., 2024b) | GScreen, SemD | - | - | InputO, NavO | 10/2024 |
| OSCAR (Wang and Liu, 2024) | GScreen, DualD | Iter | GrowthE | ExtO | 10/2024 |
| Auto-Intent (Kim et al., 2024b) | Text | - | GrowthE | InputO, NavO | 10/2024 |
| VisionTasker (Song et al., 2024b) | Text | Iter | ERetri, GrowthE, ManageA | InputO, NavO | 10/2024 |
| D-PoT (Zhang et al., 2024h) | - | Iter | - | InputO, NavO | 10/2024 |
| Agent-E with Self-Verifier (Azam et al., 2024) | - | - | - | InputO, NavO | 10/2024 |
| PUManager (Cai et al., 2024) | Text | - | - | InputO, NavO, ExtO | 10/2024 |
| AgentOccam (Yang et al., 2024a) | Text | Iter | ManageA | InputO, NavO | 10/2024 |
| Agent S (Agashe et al., 2024) | GScreen, SemD | GlobL | ERetri, GrowthE, ManageA | InputO, NavO | 10/2024 |
| ClickAgent (Hoscilowicz et al., 2024) | GScreen | Iter | GrowthE | InputO, NavO | 10/2024 |
| LSFS (Shi et al., 2024) | GScreen, SemD | - | - | ExtO | 09/2024 |
| NaviQate (Shahbandeh et al., 2024) | GScreen, SemD | - | - | InputO | 09/2024 |
| PeriGuru (Fu et al., 2024) | GScreen, DualD | Iter | ERetri, GrowthE | InputO, NavO | 09/2024 |
| Steward (Tang and Shin, 2024) | Text | - | ERetri, ManageA | InputO, NavO | 09/2024 |
| Navi (Bonatti et al., 2024) | GScreen, VisD | Iter | ERetri, GrowthE | InputO | 09/2024 |
| AWM (Wang et al., 2024k) | Text | - | - | InputO | 09/2024 |
| OpenWebAgent (Iong et al., 2024) | GScreen, DualD | - | - | InputO | 08/2024 |
| UI-Hawk (Zhang et al., 2024f) | - | - | GrowthE | InputO, NavO | 08/2024 |
| AutoWebGlobLM (Lai et al., 2024) | Text | - | - | InputO, NavO | 08/2024 |
| OmniParser (Lu et al., 2024) | GScreen, DualD | - | GrowthE | InputO, NavO | 08/2024 |
| LLMCI (Barham and Fasha, 2024) | GScreen, SemD | - | - | ExtO | 07/2024 |
| Agent-E (Abuelsaad et al., 2024) | Text | Iter | GrowthE, ManageA | InputO, NavO | 07/2024 |
| Search-Agents (Koh et al., 2024b) | - | Iter | - | InputO, NavO | 07/2024 |
| CAAP Agent (Cho et al., 2024) | Text | Iter | - | InputO, NavO | 06/2024 |
| M3A (Rawles et al., 2024a) | GScreen, VisD | Iter | ManageA | InputO | 05/2024 |
| Domain-General Evaluators (Pan et al.) | GScreen, SemD | - | ERetri | InputO, NavO | 04/2024 |
| PromptRPA (Huang et al., 2024a) | - | - | ManageA | InputO, NavO | 04/2024 |
| Cradle (Tan et al.) | GScreen | Iter | ERetri, GrowthE, ManageA | ExtO | 03/2024 |
| CoAT (Zhang et al., 2024e) | GScreen | Iter | - | InputO, NavO | 03/2024 |
| Self-ManagerAP (Deng et al., 2024b) | - | Iter | ERetri | InputO | 02/2024 |
| OS-Copilot (Wu et al., 2024e) | Text | GlobL | ERetri, GrowthE | InputO, ExtO | 02/2024 |
| CoCo-Agent (Ma et al., 2024c) | GScreen, SemD | - | GrowthE | InputO, NavO | 02/2024 |
| ScreenAgent (Niu et al., 2024) | GScreen | Iter | ERetri, GrowthE | InputO, NavO | 02/2024 |
| SeeClick (Cheng et al., 2024a) | GScreen | - | - | InputO | 01/2024 |
| Mobile-Agent (Wang et al., 2024a) | GScreen, SemD | Iter | GrowthE | InputO, NavO | 01/2024 |
| WebVoyager (He et al., 2024a) | GScreen, VisD | Iter | ManageA | InputO, NavO | 01/2024 |
| AIA (Ding, 2024) | GScreen, VisD | GlobL | - | InputO, NavO | 01/2024 |
| SeeAct (Zheng et al., 2024a) | GScreen, VisD | - | GrowthE | InputO | 01/2024 |
| AppAgent (Zhang et al., 2023a) | GScreen, DualD | Iter | GrowthE | InputO, NavO | 12/2023 |
| ACE (Gao et al., 2023) | Text | GlobL | GrowthE | InputO, NavO | 12/2023 |
| MobileGPT (Lee et al., 2023) | Text | GlobL | ManageA | InputO, NavO | 12/2023 |
| LLMPA (Li et al., 2023) | Text | GlobL | GrowthE | InputO, NavO | 12/2023 |
| MM-Navigator (Yan et al., 2023) | GScreen, VisD | - | ManageA | InputO, NavO | 11/2023 |
| WebWise (Tao et al., 2023) | Text | - | ManageA | InputO, NavO | 10/2023 |
| Li et al. (2023) | Text | Iter | GrowthE | InputO, NavO | 10/2023 |
| Laser (Ma et al., 2023) | Text | Iter | GrowthE | InputO, NavO | 09/2023 |
| AutoDroid (Wen et al., 2024a) | Text | - | - | InputO, NavO | 08/2023 |
| MINDACT (Deng et al., 2024a) | Text | - | - | InputO | 06/2023 |
| Synapse (Zheng et al., 2023) | - | - | ManageA | InputO | 06/2023 |
| ASH Prompting (Sridhar et al., 2023) | Text | - | - | InputO, NavO | 05/2023 |
| GUI-TOD (Sun et al., 2022) | GScreen, SemD | - | - | InputO, NavO | 05/2022 |
| SheetCopilot (Li et al., 2024b) | Text | Iter | GrowthE | ExtO | 05/2023 |
| RCI (Kim et al., 2024a) | - | Iter | GrowthE | InputO, NavO | 03/2023 |
| Wang et al. (2023a) | Text | - | - | InputO | 09/2022 |

ducted tests on real apps using Android emulators, highlighting the importance of evaluating agents under diverse and realistic conditions.

D Detailed Discussions on Products of OS Agents

Over the past few years, OS Agent-related products have undergone notable evolution, characterized by a clear trend toward platform diversification and functional stratification. This progression reflects the growing demand for more sophisticated and versatile agent-based solutions across various computing environments. From a platform perspective, the current mainstream forms can be categorized into three types: **browser-based** (e.g., DeepMind’s Project Mariner (DeepMind, 2024), Taxy AI (TaxyAI, 2023)), **computer-based** (e.g., Anthropic’s Computer Use (Anthropic, 2024a), Self-Operating Computer (OthersideAI, 2023)), and **phone-based** (e.g., Apple Intelligence (Apple, 2024), Zhipu’s AutoGLM (Liu et al., 2024c) cross-app control). Browser-based products, such as web browser plugins, with their low invasiveness, have become an early exploration direction (e.g., AgentGPT (Reworkd, 2023) in 2023), while the newly released Apple Intelligence and AutoGLM in 2024 highlight the trend of deep integration in the mobile domain, achieving scenario closure by accessing contacts and enabling multi-app collaboration.

In terms of functional positioning, products are gradually diverging into two paths: **task execution-oriented** and **search-oriented**. The former focuses on cross-application operational capabilities, such as AutoGLM controlling applications like Taobao and WeChat, and Computer Use managing PC workflows. The latter, exemplified by OpenAI DeepResearch (OpenAI, 2025), concentrates on automatic information integration, addressing the blind spots of traditional search engines in handling tabular data. Notably, early projects (pre-2023) mostly focused on single-function prototype validation (e.g., Self-Operating Computer’s GPT-4V command-line experiments), while products in 2024 and 2025 emphasize multimodal interaction (e.g., Project Mariner’s voice control + decision visualization) and system permission upgrades (e.g., Siri’s deep access to iOS notifications/schedules after its redesign in Apple Intelligence).

Timeline-wise, 2023 can be seen as a period of technological validation, with startups exploring basic interaction frameworks through browser

plugins (e.g., AgentGPT) or CLI tools (e.g., Self-Operating Computer). By 2024, leading manufacturers began embedding agent capabilities into the operating system’s underlying layers (e.g., Apple Intelligence), enhancing personalized services through RAG (e.g., Apple’s contact understanding) and optimizing complex task decomposition with tree search (e.g., Project Mariner). This shift from the tool layer to the system layer, and from passive response to active service, marks the transition of OS Agents from technological demonstrations to actual productivity transformations.

E Detailed Discussions on Challenge & Future

E.1 Safety & Privacy

A recent report (Park, 2024) highlighted a notable case where a human player successfully outwitted the Freysa AI agent in a \$47,000 crypto challenge, underscoring vulnerabilities even in advanced AI systems and emphasizing the need to address these security risks. This incident aligns with broader concerns as (M)LLMs are increasingly integrated into diverse domains, such as healthcare, education, and autonomous systems, where security has become a critical issue. This growing adoption has led to numerous studies (Deng et al., 2024c; Gan et al., 2024a; Yao et al., 2024; Shayegani et al., 2023; Cui et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2024e; Neel and Chang, 2024) investigating the security risks associated with LLMs and their applications. In particular, some research has delved into the challenges faced by OS Agents regarding security risks. The following subsections discuss existing research on the security aspects of OS Agents. §E.1.1 analyzes various attack strategies targeting OS Agents, §E.1.2 explores existing defense mechanisms and limitations, and §E.1.3 reviews existing security benchmarks designed to assess the robustness and reliability of OS Agents.

E.1.1 Attack

Several researchers have investigated attacks targeting OS Agents. Wu et al. (2024b) identified a novel threat called Web Indirect Prompt Injection (WIPI), in which adversaries indirectly control LLM-based Web Agents by embedding natural language instructions into web pages. Recent findings (Wu et al., 2025a) further uncovered security risks for MLLMs, illustrating how adversaries can generate adversarial images that cause the cap-

Table 3: Recent benchmarks for OS Agents. We divided the Benchmarks into three sections based on the Platform (as mentioned in §4.2.1) and sorted them by release date. Grd: GUI Grounding, Info: Information Processing, Code: Code Generation.

| Benchmark | Platform | Benchmark Setting | Environment | Task | Date |
|---|----------|-------------------|-------------|------------------|---------|
| WindowsAgentArena (Bonatti et al., 2024) | Computer | Interactive | Real World | Agent | 09/2024 |
| OfficeBench (Wang et al., 2024j) | Computer | Interactive | Real World | Agent | 07/2024 |
| Spider2-V (Cao et al., 2024) | Computer | Interactive | Real World | Agent, Code | 07/2024 |
| VIBench (Song et al., 2024c) | Computer | Static | - | Agent | 04/2024 |
| OSimulatedorld (Xie et al., 2024b) | Computer | Interactive | Real World | Agent | 04/2024 |
| OmniACT (Kapoor et al., 2024) | Computer | Static | - | Code | 02/2024 |
| ASSISStaticGUI (Gao et al., 2023) | Computer | Interactive | Real World | Agent | 12/2023 |
| WebWalkerQA (Wu et al., 2025b) | Phone | Interactive | Simulated | Grd, Info | 01/2025 |
| Sphinx (Ran et al., 2025) | Phone | Interactive | Real World | Grd,Agent | 01/2025 |
| A3 (Chai et al., 2025) | Phone | Interactive | Real World | Info,Agent | 01/2025 |
| SmartSpot (Zhang et al., 2024c) | Phone | Static | - | Grd,Agent | 12/2024 |
| AndroidLab (Xu et al., 2024c) | Phone | Interactive | Real World | Grd,Info,Agent | 10/2024 |
| SPA-Bench (Chen et al., 2024a) | Phone | Interactive | Real World | Info,Agent | 10/2024 |
| MobBench (Zhu et al., 2024) | Phone | Interactive | Simulated | Agent | 09/2024 |
| AppWorld Benchmark (Trivedi et al., 2024) | Phone | Interactive | Simulated | Grd, Code | 07/2024 |
| Expert Eval (Zhang et al., 2024d) | Phone | Interactive | Real World | Info,Agent | 07/2024 |
| AMEX (Chai et al., 2024) | Phone | Static | - | Agent | 07/2024 |
| GUI Odyssey (Lu et al., 2024) | Phone | Interactive | Real World | Agent | 06/2024 |
| AndroidControl (Li et al.) | Phone | Static | - | Agent | 06/2024 |
| AndroidWorld (Rawles et al., 2024a) | Phone | Interactive | Real World | Agent | 05/2024 |
| Android-50 (Bishop et al., 2024) | Phone | Interactive | Real World | Agent | 05/2024 |
| B-MoCA (Lee et al., 2024b) | Phone | Interactive | Real World | Agent | 04/2024 |
| LlamaTouch (Zhang et al., 2024g) | Phone | Interactive | Real World | Agent | 04/2024 |
| You et al. (2025) | Phone | Static | - | Grd, Info | 04/2024 |
| AndroidArena (Xing et al., 2024) | Phone | Interactive | Real World | Agent | 02/2024 |
| Mobile-Eval (Wang et al., 2024a) | Phone | Interactive | Real World | Agent | 01/2024 |
| iOS Screen Navigation(Yan et al., 2023) | Phone | Static | - | Agent | 11/2023 |
| DroidTask(Wen et al., 2024a) | Phone | Interactive | Real World | Agent | 08/2023 |
| AInteractiveW (Rawles et al., 2024b) | Phone | Static | - | Agent | 07/2023 |
| Wen et al. (2023) | Phone | Interactive | Real World | Agent | 04/2023 |
| UGInfo-DataSet (Venkatesh et al., 2022) | Phone | Static | - | Agent | 11/2022 |
| META-GUI (Sun et al., 2022) | Phone | Static | - | Agent | 05/2022 |
| MoTInfo (Burns et al., 2022) | Phone | Static | - | Agent | 02/2022 |
| PIXELHELP (Li et al., 2020) | Phone | Interactive | Real World | Grd | 05/2020 |
| NovelScreenSpot (Fan et al., 2025b) | Browser | Static | - | Grd | 01/2025 |
| PersonalWAB (Cai et al., 2024) | Browser | Interactive | Simulated | Info, Agent | 10/2024 |
| WebQuest (Wang et al., 2024d) | Browser | Static | - | Info | 09/2024 |
| Mind2Web-Live (Pan et al., 2024) | Browser | Interactive | Real World | Info, Agent | 06/2024 |
| WebSuite (Li and Waldo, 2024) | Browser | Interactive | Simulated | Info, Agent | 06/2024 |
| MMInA (Zhang et al., 2024l) | Browser | Interactive | Real World | Info, Agent | 04/2024 |
| AutoWebBench (Lai et al., 2024) | Browser | Static | - | Info, Agent | 04/2024 |
| GroundUI (Zheng et al., 2024d) | Browser | Static | - | Grd | 03/2024 |
| TurkingBench (Xu et al., 2024b) | Browser | Interactive | Real World | Agent | 03/2024 |
| WorkArena (Drouin et al., 2024) | Browser | Interactive | Real World | Info, Agent | 03/2024 |
| MT-Mind2Web (Deng et al., 2024b) | Browser | Static | - | Agent | 02/2024 |
| WebLINUX (Lü et al., 2024) | Browser | Static | - | Info, Agent | 02/2024 |
| He et al. (2024a) | Browser | Interactive | Real World | Grd, Info, Agent | 01/2024 |
| Visualwebarena (Koh et al., 2024a) | Browser | Interactive | Real World | Info, Agent | 01/2024 |
| Agentboard (Ma et al., 2024a) | Browser | Interactive | Real World | Agent | 01/2024 |
| WebVLN-v1 (Chen et al., 2024b) | Browser | Interactive | Real World | Info, Agent | 12/2023 |
| CompWoB (Furuta et al., 2024) | Browser | Static | - | Agent | 11/2023 |
| WebArena (Zhou et al., 2023a) | Browser | Interactive | Real World | Agent | 07/2023 |
| Mind2Web (Deng et al., 2024a) | Browser | Static | - | Info, Agent | 06/2023 |
| WikiHow (Zhang et al., 2023b) | Browser | Interactive | Simulated | Info | 05/2023 |
| WebShop (Yao et al., 2022) | Browser | Static | - | Agent | 07/2022 |
| PhraseNode (Pasupat et al., 2018) | Browser | Static | - | Grd | 08/2018 |
| MiniWoB (Shi et al., 2017) | Browser | Static | - | Agent | 08/2017 |
| FormWoB (Shi et al., 2017) | Browser | Interactive | Simulated | Agent | 08/2017 |

Table 4: Recent commercial products for OS Agents.

| Name | Affiliation | Platform | Target | Date |
|---|-----------------|-----------------|-----------|---------|
| Operator (OpenAI, 2025) | OpenAI | Browser | Execution | 01/2025 |
| Project Mariner (DeepMind, 2024) | Google Deepmind | Browser | Execution | 12/2024 |
| Apple Intelligence (Apple, 2024) | Apple | Computer, Phone | Execution | 10/2024 |
| AutoGLM (Liu et al., 2024c) | Zhipu.AI | Phone, Browser | Execution | 10/2024 |
| Computer Use (Anthropic, 2024a) | Anthropic | Computer | Execution | 10/2024 |
| VisioPilot (N4NO, 2024) | N4NO | Browser | Execution | 10/2024 |
| Ottogrid (Cognosys, 2024) | Cognosys | Browser | Execution | 06/2024 |
| iMean (iMean.AI, 2024) | iMean.AI | Browser | Search | 01/2024 |
| Self-Operating Computer (OthersideAI, 2023) | OthersideAI | Computer | Execution | 11/2023 |
| Sentius (Sentius.AI, 2023) | Sentius.AI | Browser | Execution | 07/2023 |
| AgentGPT (Reworkd, 2023) | Reworkd | Browser | Search | 04/2023 |
| Taxy AI (TaxyAI, 2023) | Taxy AI | Browser | Execution | 04/2023 |

tioner to produce adversarial captions, ultimately leading the agents to deviate from the user’s intended goals. Similar vulnerabilities have been identified in other studies. Ma et al. (2024b) introduced an attack method called environmental injection, highlighting that advanced MLLMs are vulnerable to environmental distractions, which can cause agents to perform unfaithful behaviors. Expanding on the concept, Liao et al. (2024) executed an environmental injection attack by embedding invisible malicious instructions within web pages, prompting the agents to assist adversaries in stealing users’ personal information. Xu et al. (2024a) further advanced this approach by leveraging malicious instructions generated by an adversarial prompter model, trained on both successful and failed attack data, to mislead MLLM-based Web Agents into executing targeted adversarial actions. Yang et al. (2024b) investigated backdoor threats in LLM-based agents and implemented this threat in web shopping and tool utilization tasks. Their work reveals significant security vulnerabilities in LLM-based agents when facing various covert forms of backdoor attacks.

Other studies have explored security issues in specific environments. Zhang et al. (2024j) explored adversarial pop-up window attacks on MLLM-based Web Agents, demonstrating how this method interferes with the decision-making process of the agents. Kumar et al. (2024) investigated the security of refusal-trained LLMs when deployed as browser agents. Their study found that these

models’ ability to reject harmful instructions in conversational settings does not effectively transfer to browser-based environments. Moreover, existing attack methods can successfully bypass their security measures, enabling jailbreaking. Yang et al. (2024d) proposed a security threat matrix for agents running on mobile devices, systematically examining the security issues of MLLM-based Mobile Agents and identifying four realistic attack paths and eight attack methods.

E.1.2 Defense

Although several security frameworks have been developed for LLM-based Agents (Ruan et al., 2024; Hua et al., 2024; Fang et al., 2024; Xiang et al., 2024; Shamsujjoha et al., 2024), studies on defenses specific to OS Agents (Pedro et al., 2023) remain limited. Bridging this gap requires the development of robust defense mechanisms tailored to the vulnerabilities of OS Agents, such as injection attacks, backdoor exploits, and other potential threats. Future research could prioritize these areas, focusing on developing comprehensive and scalable security solutions for OS Agents.

E.1.3 Benchmark

Several security benchmarks (Levy et al., 2024; Lee et al., 2024a; Debenedetti et al., 2024; Andriushchenko et al., 2024) have been introduced to evaluate the robustness of OS Agents in various scenarios. The online benchmark ST-WebAgentBench (Levy et al., 2024) has been developed to systemat-

ically assess the safety and trustworthiness of web agents within enterprise environments. It focuses on six key dimensions of reliability, offering a comprehensive framework for evaluating agent behavior in high-risk contexts. Similarly, a benchmarking platform named MobileSafetyBench (Lee et al., 2024a) has been developed to assess the security of LLM-based Mobile Agents, focusing on evaluating their performance in handling safety-critical tasks within Android environments, including interactions with messaging and banking applications. (Debenedetti et al., 2024) Introduced AgentDojo, a dynamic environment for evaluating prompt injection attacks and defenses against LLM-based agents. (Andriushchenko et al., 2024) propose the AgentHarm benchmark to measure the harmfulness of LLM agents executing malicious tasks, including 110 distinct tasks across 11 harm categories, such as fraud, cybercrime, and harassment.

E.2 Personalization & Self-Evolution

Much like Jarvis as Iron Man’s personal assistant in the movies, developing personalized OS Agents has been a long-standing goal in AI research. A personal assistant is expected to continuously adapt and provide enhanced experiences based on individual user preferences. OpenAI’s memory feature⁷ has made strides in this direction, but many (M)LLMs today still perform insufficient in providing personalized experience to users and self-evolving over user interactions.

Early works (Wang et al., 2023b; Zhu et al., 2023) allowed LLM-based Agents to interact with environments of games, summarizing experiences into text, thus accumulating memory and facilitating self-evolution (Zhou et al., 2024a). For example, Wang et al. (2023b) demonstrated the potential for agents to adapt and evolve through experience. Later, researchers applied these principles to the OS Agent domain (Zhang et al., 2023a; Li et al., 2024e; Wu et al., 2024e). These efforts validated the feasibility of memory mechanisms in OS Agents. Wang et al. (2024h) introduces a general framework for lifelong personalization of LLM-based Agents, also methods to synthesize realistic benchmarks and robust evaluation metrics. Some products, such as LangMem (langchain-ai, 2025) and Mem0 (Chhikara et al., 2025), offer a memory layer as standalone solutions for LLM-based agents, enabling personalization and self-evolution.

⁷<https://openai.com/index/memory-and-new-controls-for-chatgpt/>

However, expanding the modalities of memory from text to other forms, such as images, voice, presents significant challenges. Managing and retrieving this memory effectively also remains an open issue. We believe that in the future, overcoming these challenges will enable OS Agents to provide more personalized, dynamic, and context-aware assistance, with more sophisticated self-evolution mechanisms that continually adapt to the user’s needs and preferences.

F Supplementary Materials

F.1 Ethical Concerns in Developing OS Agents

The development of OS agents necessitates careful consideration of several ethical concerns beyond security and privacy. A primary issue is the potential for bias and unfairness; agents may inherit biases from their training data, leading to discriminatory actions or perpetuating societal inequalities (Sarker, 2024; Li et al., 2024f). Ensuring representative data and continuous improvement are vital to mitigate such biases (Ferrara, 2023). Furthermore, the societal impact of OS agents, including effects on the labor market and the consequences of erroneous agent decisions leading to financial loss or data corruption, must be addressed (Wang et al., 2025; Zhang et al., 2025). The automated decision-making by OS agents also raises questions of accountability and transparency, particularly when errors occur (Zhang et al., 2025). There are concerns about the potential for agents to misinform users or unduly influence their beliefs (Sarker, 2024; Shi et al., 2025). Developing agents that are culturally and socially aware, catering to diverse user needs and contexts, is also a significant ethical challenge (Shi et al., 2025). These multifaceted ethical dimensions highlight the need for robust guidelines, transparency in agent operations, and ongoing research into the responsible development and deployment of OS agents (Sarker, 2024; Zhang et al., 2024a; Shi et al., 2025).

F.2 Distinguishing Our Survey from Contemporary OS Agent Research

The rapidly evolving field of Large Language Model (LLM) based OS Agents has recently seen a surge in survey papers. Our work distinguishes itself from several concurrent surveys, primarily submitted within approximately one month of our own, through two main contributions: 1) a

Table 5: Related Works Published Within the Same Period.

| Title | Date Submitted to arXiv |
|--|-------------------------|
| Large Multimodal Agents: A Survey (Xie et al., 2024a) | 23/02/2024 |
| Foundations and Recent Trends in Multimodal Mobile Agents: A Survey (Wu et al., 2024a) | 04/11/2024 |
| GUI Agents with Foundation Models: A Comprehensive Survey (Wang et al., 2024f) | 07/11/2024 |
| Large Language Model-Brained GUI Agents: A Survey (Zhang et al., 2024a) | 27/11/2024 |
| OS Agents: A Survey on MLLM-based Agents for Computer, Phone and Browser Use (Ours) | 14/12/2024 |
| GUI Agents: A Survey (Zhang et al., 2024a) | 18/12/2024 |
| LLM-Powered GUI Agents in Phone Automation: Surveying Progress and Prospects (Liu et al., 2025a) | 05/01/2025 |
| AI Agents for Computer Use: A Review of Instruction-based Computer Control, GUI Automation, and Operator Assistants (Sager et al., 2025) | 27/01/2025 |

broader conceptualization of OS Agents, which encompasses agents based on (Multimodal) LLMs interacting with various interfaces (GUIs and APIs) across diverse digital platforms (computers, phones, and browsers); and 2) a clear taxonomy and in-depth analysis on learning approaches (tuning and prompt-based methods) and evaluation based on a large number of recent papers in a short length. We provide a detailed comparison with these related surveys in Table 5 in chronological order of their appearance or our awareness.

- **Large Multimodal Agents: A Survey.** This survey focuses broadly on Large Multimodal Agents, with GUI automation as one specific application area (see its Section 6.1). In contrast, our work centers on OS Agents as a specific domain, encompassing specifically their current state and future development. Unlike this survey, we are not limited to Large Multimodal Agents but also include LLM-based agents, offering a wider scope within the OS Agent context.
- **Foundations and Recent Trends in Multimodal Mobile Agents: A Survey.** This survey concentrates exclusively on Mobile Agents, whereas our paper spans multiple digital platforms, including computers, phones, and browsers, bringing a wider survey for readers.
- **GUI Agents with Foundation Models: A Comprehensive Survey.** Our survey provides broader coverage of the literature while delivering enhanced analytical depth. Beyond sheer volume, we provide a clearer taxonomy, more detailed analysis, and more insights. For instance, in our Section 4, we give a deep analysis of Evaluation Benchmarks and metrics.

- **Large Language Model-Brained GUI Agents: A Survey.** In our paper, we conduct the survey from the perspective of “OS Agents”, a unifying concept for agents operating across computers, phones, and browsers with both GUIs and APIs—encompassing many terms including GUI Agents, API Agents, Computer-Using Agents, Mobile Agents, Web Agents, and more. We argue that OS Agents leverage a range of OS-provided interfaces (not just GUIs but also APIs (Wu et al., 2024e; Song et al., 2024a)) to automate tasks across different digital platforms. Our survey is from this broader perspective, different from their focus on GUI Agents. Moreover, Our survey focuses on learning approaches (tuning or prompt-based method) and evaluation of OS Agents, offering a clear taxonomy and insights within a short length format prioritizing depth over exhaustive coverage, making it accessible to newcomers seeking an at-a-glance understanding, compared with their much longer survey.
- **GUI Agents: A Survey.** Our survey offers clear taxonomy and a broader scope based on much more related paper. For instance, we discuss the memory module, which is crucial for building agents taking long-horizon tasks and self-evolution separately.
- **LLM-Powered GUI Agents in Phone Automation: Surveying Progress and Prospects.** Similar to (2), this survey focuses on GUI Agents in phone automation, while ours encompasses multiple digital platforms—computers, phones, and browsers—providing a more broader view of OS Agents.
- **AI Agents for Computer Use: A Review of Instruction-based Computer Control, GUI**

Automation, and Operator Assistants. Their review focuses on Computer Control Agents (CCAs) executing complex actions on personal computers or mobile devices via GUIs. Our survey, however, covers a wider array of digital platforms (computers, phones, and browsers) and incorporates both GUI and API-based interactions, offering a more comprehensive perspective.

isons across different benchmarks or even different agents within the same benchmark can be challenging due to variations in evaluation protocols, task complexities, and the specific versions of models or products tested. Nevertheless, this compilation offers a snapshot of the current landscape.

F.3 Performance of OS Agents on Real-World Benchmarks

Table 6: Performance of OS Agents on Real-World Benchmarks. We present the performance of OS Agents, including both Research Work and Commercial Products, on recently recognized benchmarks. The results are sourced from publicly available Leader Boards.

| Platform/ Benchmark | Model | Metric(SR) | |
|---------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------|--------|
| Computer/ OSWorld | OpenAI Operator | 38.10% | |
| | Commercial Product | Agent S2 | 34.50% |
| | Claude Computer Use | 22.00% | |
| | OSCAR (GPT-4o) | 24.50% | |
| | UI-TARS-72B | 18.80% | |
| | OS-Atlas-7B (GPT-4o as planner) | 14.60% | |
| | Research Work | Cradle (GPT-4o) | 10.50% |
| | AGUVIS-72B | 10.26% | |
| | SeeClick (GPT-4o) | 9.21% | |
| | Qwen2.5-VL-72B-Instruct | 8.83% | |
| Phone/ AndroidWorld | Commercial Product | Agent S2 | 50.00% |
| | Claude Computer Use | 27.90% | |
| | OSCAR (GPT-4o) | 61.60% | |
| | APP Agent (GPT-4o) | 59.90% | |
| | Research Work | UI-TARS-72B-SFT | 46.60% |
| | Mobile Agent (GPT-4o) | 40.80% | |
| | Qwen2.5-VL-72B-Instruct | 35.00% | |
| UGround (GPT-4o) | 32.80% | | |
| Browser/ WebArena | Commercial Product | IBM CUGA | 61.70% |
| | OpenAI Operator | 58.10% | |
| | ScribeAgent | 53.00% | |
| | Research Work | AgentOccam | 45.70% |
| | AgentTrek-1.0-32B | 22.40% | |
| AutoWebGLM | 18.20% | | |

Evaluating the comparative effectiveness of different OS Agents on real-world tasks is essential for understanding their current capabilities and guiding future development. To this end, we have undertaken a detailed examination and comparison of several prominent real-world task benchmarks. While the academic community is still in the process of establishing universally recognized, comprehensive benchmarks specifically for OS Agents that span all functionalities and platforms, the existing benchmarks provide valuable initial insights. These selected benchmarks, though often platform-specific (computer, phone, or browser), are derived from real-world task scenarios and have gained notable traction for evaluating both commercial products and research prototypes.

Table 6 summarizes preliminary success rates of various OS Agents on these established benchmarks. It is important to note that direct compar-