Analysis of human visual experience data

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Abstract

Exposure to the optical environment — often referred to as *visual experience* — profoundly influences human physiology and behavior across multiple time scales. In controlled laboratory settings, stimuli can be held constant or manipulated parametrically. However, such exposures rarely replicate real-world conditions, which are inherently complex and dynamic, generating high-dimensional datasets that demand rigorous and flexible analysis strategies. This tutorial presents an analysis pipeline for visual experience datasets, with a focus on reproducible workflows for human chronobiology and myopia research. Light exposure and its retinal encoding affect human physiology and behavior across multiple time scales. Here we provide step-by-step instructions for importing, visualizing, and processing viewing distance and light exposure data using the open-source R package LightLogR. This includes time-series analyses for working distance, biologically relevant light metrics, and spectral characteristics. By leveraging a modular approach, the tutorial supports researchers in building flexible and robust pipelines that accommodate diverse experimental paradigms and measurement systems.

Keywords: wearable, light logging, viewing-distance, near-work, visual experience, metrics, circadian, myopia, risk factors, time series, spectral analysis, spatial analysis, open-source, reproducibility

Introduction

Exposure to the optical environment — often referred to as *visual experience* — profoundly influences human physiology and behavior across multiple time scales. Two notable examples, from distinct research domains, can be understood through a common retinally-referenced framework.

The first example relates to the non-visual effects of light on human circadian and neuroendocrine physiology. The light–dark cycle entrains the circadian clock, and light exposure at night suppresses melatonin production (Brown et al. 2022; Blume, Garbazza, and Spitschan 2019). The second example concerns the influence of visual experience on ocular development, particularly myopia. Time spent outdoors — which features distinct optical environments — has been consistently associated with protective effects on ocular growth and health outcomes (Dahlmann-Noor et al. 2025).

In controlled laboratory settings, light exposure can be held constant or manipulated parametrically. However, such exposures rarely replicate real-world conditions, which are inherently complex and dynamic. As people move in and between spaces (indoors and outdoors) and move their body, head, and eyes, exposure to the optical environment varies significantly (Webler et al. 2019) and is modulated by behavior (Biller, Balakrishnan, and Spitschan 2024). Wearable devices for measuring light exposure have thus emerged as vital tools to capture the richness of ecological visual experience. These tools generate high-dimensional datasets that demand rigorous and flexible analysis strategies.

Starting in the 1980s (Okudaira, Kripke, and Webster 1983), technology to measure optical exposure has matured, with miniaturized illuminance sensors now (in 2025) very common in consumer wearables. In research, several devices are available that differ in functionality, ranging from small pins measuring ambient illuminance (Mohamed et al. 2021) to head-mounted multi-modal devices capturing nearly all relevant aspects of visual experience (Gibaldi et al. 2024). Increased capabilities in wearables bring complex, dense datasets. These go hand-in-hand with a proliferation of metrics, as highlighted by recent review papers in both circadian and myopia research.

At present, the analysis processes to derive metrics are often implemented on a per-
laboratory or even per-researcher basis. This fragmentation is a potential source of
errors and inconsistencies between studies, consumes considerable researcher time
(Hartmeyer, Webler, and Andersen 2022), and these bespoke processes and
formats hinder harmonization or meta-analysis across multiple studies. Too often,
more time is spent preparing data than gaining insights through rigorous statistical
analysis. These preparation tasks are best handled, or at least facilitated, by
standardized, transparent, community-based analysis pipelines (Zauner, Udovicic,
and Spitschan 2024).

In circadian research, the R package LightLogR was developed to address this need
(Zauner, Hartmeyer, and Spitschan 2025). LightLogR is an open-source, MIT-
licensed, community-driven package specifically designed for data from wearable
light loggers and optical radiation dosimeters. It contains functions to calculate over
sixty different metrics used in the field (Hartmeyer and Andersen 2023). In the
current version (v0.9.2 Sunrise), the package also handles modalities beyond
illuminance, such as viewing distance and light spectra—capabilities highly relevant
for myopia research (Hönekopp and Weigelt 2023).

In this article, we demonstrate that LightLogR's analysis pipelines and metric
functions apply broadly across the field of visual experience research, not just to
circadian rhythms and chronobiology. Our approach is modular and extensible,
allowing researchers to adapt it to a variety of devices and research questions.
Emphasis is placed on clarity, transparency, and reproducibility, aligning with best
practices in scientific computing and open science. We use example data from two
devices to showcase the LightLogR workflow with metrics relevant to myopia
research, covering working distance, (day)light exposure, and spectral analysis.
Furthermore, the **Supplementary material S1** contains vital steps for importing,
cleaning, and preprocessing the data. The supplement further dives into the
significance of these steps on the outcomes, such as how irregularly spaced data is
handled or "valid days" are determined. Readers are encouraged to recreate the
analysis using the provided code. All necessary data and code are openly available
in the [GitHub repository](#).

Method and Materials

Software

This tutorial was built with Quarto (www.quarto.org), an open-source scientific and technical publishing system that integrates text, code, and code output into a single document. The source code to reproduce all results is included and accessible via the Quarto document's code tool menu on the accompanying website (https://tscnlab.github.io/ZaunerEtAl_JVis_2025/). All analyses were conducted in R (version 4.4.3, "Trophy Case") using LightLogR (version 0.9.2 "Sunrise"). We also used the tidyverse suite (version 2.0.0) for data manipulation (which LightLogR follows in its design), and the gt package (version 1.0.0) for generating summary tables. A comprehensive overview of the R computing environment is provided in the session info on the webpage.

Code in this tutorial is shown in grey boxes, and is taken verbatim from R scripts. Code is highlighted for easier distinction of functions (ending with brackets ()), argument names (ending with equal sign =), strings (in quotes ""), and comments (preceding hashtag #). Portions of code that are not central to a given section are greyed out.

Metric selection and definitions

In March 2025, two workshops with myopia researchers — initiated by the Research Data Alliance (RDA) Working Group on Optical Radiation Exposure and Visual Experience Data — focused on current needs and future opportunities in data analysis, including the development and standardization of metrics. Based on expert input from these workshops, the authors of this tutorial compiled a list of visual experience metrics, shown in **Table 1**, with definitions of terms in **Table 2**. These include many currently used metrics and definitions (Wen et al. 2020, 2019; Bhandari and Ostrin 2020; Williams et al. 2019), as well as new metrics enabled by spectrally-resolved measurements.

No.	Name	Implementation[1]
Distance		
1	Total wear time daily	durations()*

2	Duration of Near work, Intermediate Work, Near + Intermediate Work, or per each *Distance range* (10cm steps)	filter for distance range + durations()* (for single ranges) or grouping by distance range + durations()* (for all ranges)
3	Frequency of Continuous near work	extract_clusters()* + summarize_numeric()*
4	Frequency, duration, and distances of *Near Work episodes*	extract_clusters()* + extract_metric()* + summarize_numeric()*
5	Frequency and duration of *Visual breaks*	extract_clusters()* + filter
Light		
6	Light exposure (in lux)	summarize_numeric()*
7	Duration per *Outdoor range*	grouping by Outdoor range + durations()*
8	The number of times light level changes from indoor (<1000 lx) to outdoor (>1000 lx)	extract_states()* + summarize_numeric()*
9	Longest period above 1000 lx	period_above_threshold()*
Spectrum		
10	Ratio of short vs. long wavelength light	spectral_integration()* + summarize_numeric()*
11	Short-wavelength light at certain times of day	spectral_integration()* + filter_Time()* (for defined times) or cut_Datetime()* (for regular time intervals) or add_photoperiod()* (for solar times) + grouping by time state + summarize_numeric()*

[1] Functions from `LightLogR` are presented with an *. Non-asterisk functions refer to

tidyverse functions.

Table 1: Overview of metrics. In all cases, the averages for weekday, weekend, and

*the mean daily value are calculated. Definitions are shown in **Table 2**.*

Table 2 provides definitions for the terms used in **Table 1**. Note that specific
definitions may vary depending on the research question or device capabilities.

Term / metric	Description / pseudo formula
Total wear time	$\sum(t) * dt$, where t: valid observations
Mean daily	$\dfrac{5 * \text{weekday} + 2 * \text{weekend}}{7}$
Near work	working distance, $[10,60)cm$
Intermediate Work	working distance, $[60,100)cm$
Total work	working distance, $[10,120)cm$
Distance range	working distance, $[10,20)cm$, Extremely near $[20,30)cm$, Very near $[30,40)cm$, Fairly near $[40,50)cm$, Near $[50,60)cm$, Moderately near $[60,70)cm$, Near intermediate $[70,80)cm$, Intermediate $[80,90)cm$, Moderately intermediate $[90,100)cm$, Far intermediate
Continuous near work	$T_t = \sum(t) * dt$, where working distance, $[20,60)cm$, $T_t \geq 30 minutes$, $T_{interruptions} \leq 1 minute$
Near work episodes	$T_t = \sum(t) * dt$, where working distance, $[20,60)cm$, $T_{interruptions} \leq 20 seconds$
Ratio of daily near work	$\dfrac{T_{\text{near work}}}{T_{\text{total wear}}}$
Visual break	$T_t = \sum(t) * dt$, where working distance $\geq 100cm$, $T_t \geq 20$ seconds, $T_{t-1 \text{ (working distance} < 100\,cm)} \leq 20$ minutes
Outdoor range	illuminance, $[1000,2000)lx$, Outdoor bright $[2000,3000)lx$, Outdoor very bright $[3000, \infty)lx$, Outdoor extremely bright
Light exposure[1]	$Illuminance$
Spectral bands	spectral irradiance, $[400,500]nm$, short wavelength light $[600,700]nm$, long wavelength light

Ratio of short vs. long wavelength light	$\dfrac{E_{e,\text{short wavelength}}}{E_{e,\text{long wavelength}}}$

137 [1] This deviates from the common definition of luminous exposure, which is the sum

138 of illuminance measurements scaled to hourly observation intervals

139 *Table 2: Definitions of terms and metrics*

Devices

Data from two wearable devices are used in this analysis:

• `Clouclip`: A wearable device that measures viewing distance and ambient

light [Glasson Technology Co., Ltd, Hangzhou, China; Wen et al. (2021); Wen

et al. (2020)]. The Clouclip provides a simple data output with only Distance

(working distance, in centimeters) and Illuminance (ambient light, in lux). Data

in our example were recorded at 5-second intervals. Approximately one week

of data (~120,960 observations) is about 1.6 MB in size.

• `Visual Environment Evaluation Tool` (VEET): A head-mounted multi-modal

device that logs multiple data streams [Meta Platforms, Inc., Menlo Park, CA,

USA; Sah, Narra, and Ostrin (2025); Sullivan et al. (2024)]. The VEET dataset

used here contains simultaneous measurements of distance (via a time-of-

flight sensor), ambient light (illuminance), activity (accelerometer &

gyroscope), and spectral irradiance (multi-channel light sensor). Data were

recorded at 2-second intervals, yielding a very dense dataset (~270 MB per

week).

Data processing summary

The Results section uses imported and pre-processed data from the two devices to

calculate metrics. Supplement 1 contains the annotated code and description for the

steps involved. The following summarizes the steps involved:

Data import: We imported raw data from the `Clouclip` and `VEET` devices using

LightLogR's built-in import functions, which automatically handle device-specific

formats and idiosyncrasies. The `Clouclip` export file (provided as a tab-delimited text

file) contains timestamped records of distance (cm) and illuminance (lux).

LightLogR's `import$Clouclip` function reads this file, after specifying the device's

recording timezone, and converts device-specific sentinel codes into proper missing

values. For instance, the Clouclip uses special numeric codes to indicate when it is
in "sleep mode" or when a reading is out of the sensor's range, rather than recording
a normal value. LightLogR identifies `-1` (for both distance and illuminance) as
indicating the device's sleep mode and `204` (for distance) as indicating the object
was beyond the measurable range, replacing these with `NA` and logging their status
in separate columns. The import routine also provides an initial summary of the
dataset, including start and end times and any irregular sampling intervals or gaps.

For the `VEET` device, data were provided as CSV logs (zipped on Github, due to
size). We focused on the ambient light sensor modality first. Using `import$VEET(...,`
`modality = "ALS")`, we extracted the illuminance (`Lux`) data stream and its
timestamps. The raw VEET data similarly can contain irregular intervals or missing
periods (e.g., if the device stopped recording or was reset); the import summary flags
these issues.

Irregular intervals and gaps: Both datasets showed irregular timing and missing
data, i.e., gaps. Irregular data means that some observations did not align with the
nominal sampling interval (e.g., slight timing drift or pauses in recording). For the
`Clouclip`'s 5-second data, we detected irregular timestamps spanning all but the first
and last day of the recording. Handling such irregularities is important because many
downstream analyses assume a regular time series. We evaluated strategies to
address this, including:

• Removing an initial portion of data if irregularities occur mainly during device
start-up.
• Rounding all timestamps to the nearest regular interval (5 s in this case).
• Aggregating to a coarser time interval (with some loss of temporal resolution).

Based on the import summary and visual inspection of the time gaps, we chose to
round the observation times to the nearest 5-second mark, as this addressed the
minor offsets without significant data loss. After rounding timestamps, we added an
explicit date column for convenient grouping by day.

We then generated a summary of missing data for each day. Implicit gaps (intervals
where the device should have recorded data but did not) were converted into explicit
missing entries using LightLogR's gap-handling functions. We also removed days

that had very little data (in our `Clouclip` example, days with <1 hour of recordings

were dropped) to focus on days with substantial wear time.

After these preprocessing steps, the `Clouclip` dataset had no irregular timestamps

remaining and contained explicit markers for all periods of missing data (e.g., times

when the device was off or not worn). The distance and illuminance values were now

ready for metric calculations.

The `VEET` illuminance data underwent a similar cleaning procedure. To make the

`VEET`'s 2-second illuminance data more comparable to the `Clouclip`'s and to reduce

computational load, we aggregated the illuminance time series to 5-second intervals.

We then inserted explicit missing entries for any gaps and removed days with more

than one hour of missing illuminance data. After cleaning, six days of VEET

illuminance data with good coverage remained for analysis (see Supplementary

Material for details).

Finally, for spectral analysis, we imported the `VEET`'s spectral sensor modality, and,

for the distance analysis, the time-of-flight modality. This required additional

processing: the raw spectral data consists of counts from 10 wavelength-specific

channels (approximately 415 nm through 940 nm, plus two broadband clear

channels and a dark channel) along with a sensor gain setting. We aggregated the

spectral data to 5-minute intervals to focus on broader trends and reduce data

volume. Each channel's counts were normalized by the appropriate gain at each

moment, and the two clear channels were averaged. Using a calibration matrix

provided by the manufacturer (specific to the spectral sensor model), we

reconstructed full spectral power distributions for each 5-minute interval. The end

result is a list-column in the dataset where each entry is the estimated spectral

irradiance across wavelengths for that time interval. (Detailed spectral preprocessing

steps, including the calibration and normalization, are provided in the Supplement.)

After spectral reconstruction, the dataset was ready for calculating example

spectrum-based metrics.

Similarly, the time-of-flight modality contains 256 values per observation, encoding

an 8x8 grid of distance and confidence measurements for up to two objects (8x8

grid, times two objects, times distance + confidence column for each object and grid

point -> 256 values). These data were pivoted into a long format, where each row

contains the distance and confidence data for both objects for a given position in the
grid and a given datetime. After pivoting and converting grid positions into a
deviation angle from central view, the dataswert was ready to be used for distance
analysis.

This tutorial will start by importing a `Clouclip` dataset and providing an overview of
the data. The `Clouclip` export is considerably simpler compared to the `VEET` export,
only containing `Distance` and `Illuminance` measurements. The `VEET` data will be
used later to discuss pipelines with the richer dataset.

```
237    # load libraries
238    library(LightLogR)
239    library(tidyverse)
240    library(gt)

241    load("data/cleaned/data.RData")
242    coordinates <- c(29.75, -95.36) #coordinates for Houston, Texas
243    #coordinates are important to calculate and visualize photoperiods later
```

Results

Distance

246   We first examine metrics related to viewing distance, using the processed `Clouclip`
247   dataset. Many distance-based metrics are computed for each day and then
248   averaged over weekdays, weekends, or across all days. To facilitate this, we define
249   a helper function that produces a table:

```
250    to_mean_daily <- function(data, prefix = "average_") {
251      data |>
252        ungroup(Date) |>          # ungroup "by days"
253        mean_daily(prefix = prefix) |>   # calculate the averages per grouping
254        # remove underscores in names
255        rename_with(.fn = \(x) str_replace_all(x,"_"," ")) |>
256        gt()                      # format as a gt table for display
257    }
```

Total wear time daily

Total wear time daily refers to the amount of time the device was actively collecting
distance data each day (i.e. the time the device was worn and operational). We
compute this by summing all intervals where a valid distance measurement is
present, ignoring periods where data are missing or the device was off. The results

are shown in Table 3. The preprocessed `Clouclip` dataset is encoded in the variable

`dataCC`.

```
dataCC |>
  durations(Dis) |>  # calculate total duration of data per day
  to_mean_daily("Total wear ")
```

	Total wear duration
Mean daily	31448s (~8.74 hours)
Weekday	34460s (~9.57 hours)
Weekend	23918s (~6.64 hours)

Table 3: Total wear time per day (average across days)

Duration within distance ranges

Many myopia-relevant metrics concern the time spent at certain viewing distances

(e.g., "near work" vs. intermediate or far distances). We calculate the duration of time

spent in specific distance ranges. **Table 4** shows the average daily *duration of near*

work, defined here as time spent viewing at distances between 10–60 cm (a

commonly used definition for near-work distance). **Table 5** provides a more detailed

breakdown across multiple distance bands.

Duration of near work

```
dataCC |>
  filter(Dis >= 10, Dis < 60) |>  # consider only distances [10, 60) cm
  durations(Dis) |>               # total duration in that range per day
  to_mean_daily("Near work ")
```

	Near work duration
Mean daily	22586s (~6.27 hours)
Weekday	26343s (~7.32 hours)
Weekend	13192s (~3.66 hours)

281 *Table 4: Daily duration of near work (10–60 cm viewing distance)*

282 **Duration within distance ranges**

283 First, we define a set of distance breakpoints and descriptive labels for each range:

```
# defining distance ranges (in cm)
dist_breaks <- c(10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100, Inf)
dist_labels <- c(
    "Extremely near",      # [10, 20)
    "Very near",           # [20, 30)
    "Fairly near",         # [30, 40)
```

```
290        "Near",                        # [40, 50)
291        "Moderately near",             # [50, 60)
292        "Near intermediate",           # [60, 70)
293        "Intermediate",                # [70, 80)
294        "Moderately intermediate",     # [80, 90)
295        "Far intermediate",            # [90, 100)
296        "Far"                          # [100, Inf)
297    )
```

298 Now we cut the distance data into these ranges and compute the daily duration

299 spent in each range:

```
300  dataCC |>
301    mutate(# categorize distances:
302      Dis_range = cut(Dis, breaks = dist_breaks, labels = dist_labels)
303    ) |>
304    drop_na(Dis_range) |>                  # remove intervals with no data
305    group_by(Dis_range, .add = TRUE) |>    # group by distance range
306    durations(Dis) |>                      # duration per range per day
307    # wide format (ranges as columns):
308    pivot_wider(names_from = Dis_range, values_from = duration) |>
309    to_mean_daily("") |>
310    fmt_duration(# convert seconds to minutes:
311      input_units = "seconds", output_units = "minutes"
312    )
```

	Mean daily	Weekday	Weekend
Far	16m	20m	5m
Far intermediate	11m	14m	2m
Moderately intermediate	5m	6m	3m
Intermediate	4m	6m	1m
Near intermediate	7m	7m	8m
Moderately near	13m	16m	5m
Near	27m	36m	5m
Fairly near	46m	60m	12m
Very near	102m	128m	38m
Extremely near	169m	180m	141m

313 *Table 5: Daily duration in each viewing distance range. For better readability, the*

314 *table was transposed (compared to the code results)*

315 To visualize these data, **Figure 1** illustrates the relative proportion of time spent in

316 each distance range:

Figure 1: Percentage of total time spent in each viewing distance range for an average day (mean daily), average weekday, or weekend

Frequency of continuous near work

Continuous near-work is typically defined as sustained viewing within a near distance for some minimum duration, allowing only brief interruptions. We use LightLogR's `cluster` function to identify episodes of continuous near work. Here we define a near-work episode as viewing distance between 20 cm and 60 cm that lasts at least 30 minutes, with interruptions of up to 1 minute allowed (meaning short breaks ≤1 min do not end the episode). Using `extract_clusters()` with those parameters, we count how many such episodes occur per day.

Table 6 summarizes the average frequency of continuous near-work episodes per day, and **Figure 2** provides an example visualization of these episodes on the distance time series.

```
dataCC |>
  extract_clusters(# create a new table containing clusters
    Dis >= 20 & Dis < 60,          # condition: near-work distance
    cluster.duration = "30 mins",   # minimum duration
    interruption.duration = "1 min", # maximum gap allowed
    drop.empty.groups = FALSE        # list days with zero episodes
  ) |>
  summarize_numeric(remove = c("start", "end", "epoch", "duration"),
                    add.total.duration = FALSE) |> # count daily episodes
```

```
337    mean_daily(prefix = "Frequency of ") |> # compute daily mean frequency
338    gt() |> fmt_number()
```

Frequency of episodes

Mean daily	0.86
Weekday	1.20
Weekend	0

Table 6: Frequency of continuous near-work episodes per day

```
dataCC |>
  add_clusters( # add a cluster column named "state" to the existing data
    Dis >= 20 & Dis < 60,
    cluster.duration = "30 mins",
    interruption.duration = "1 min"
  ) |>
  # Plotting the clusters:
  gg_day(y.axis = Dis, y.axis.label = "Distance (cm)", geom = "line",
    y.scale = "identity", y.axis.breaks = seq(0, 100, by = 20) |>
  gg_state(state, fill = "red") + # add state bands
  geom_hline(yintercept = c(20, 60), col = "red", linetype = "dashed") +
  coord_catesian(ylim = c(0, 100))
```

Figure 2: Example of continuous near-work episodes. Red shaded areas indicate periods of continuous near work (20–60 cm for ≥30 min, allowing ≤1 min interruptions). Black trace is viewing distance over time of day; red dashed lines mark the 20 cm and 60 cm boundaries.

Near-work episodes

Beyond frequency, we can characterize near-work episodes by their duration and typical viewing distance. This section extracts all near-work episodes (using a shorter minimum duration to capture more routine near-work bouts) and summarizes three aspects: (1) frequency (count of episodes per day), (2) average duration of

362   episodes, and (3) average distance during those episodes. These results are

363   combined in **Table 7**.

```
364  dataCC |>
365    extract_clusters(
366      Dis >= 20 & Dis < 60,
367      cluster.duration = "5 secs", # minimal duration is set to interval
368      interruption.duration = "20 secs", # up to 20 seconds interruption
369      drop.empty.groups = FALSE # list empty groups, too
370    ) |>
371    # calculate mean distance during each episode and add to clusters:
372    extract_metric(dataCC, distance = mean(Dis, na.rm = TRUE)) |>
373    summarize_numeric(remove = c("start", "end", "epoch"), prefix = "",
374                      add.total.duration = FALSE) |>
375    mean_daily(prefix = "") |>    # daily averages for each metric
376    gt() |> fmt_number(c(distance, episodes), decimals = 0) |> #table
377    cols_units(distance = "cm")
```

	duration	distance, cm	episodes
Mean daily	233s (~3.88 minutes)	32	57
Weekday	284s (~4.73 minutes)	32	64
Weekend	104s (~1.73 minutes)	32	40

Table 7: Near-work episodes: frequency, mean duration, and mean viewing distance

In the above, `extract_metric(..., distance = mean(Dis, ...))` computes the
mean viewing distance during each episode, and the subsequent
`summarize_numeric()` and `mean_daily()` steps derive daily averages of episode
count, duration, and distance.

Visual breaks

Visual breaks are a little different, compared to the previous metrics. The difference

is that, in this case, the minimum break and the previous (non-break) episode is

important. This leads to a two-step process, where we first extract instances of

`Distance` above 100 cm for at least 20 seconds, before we filter for a previous

duration of at maximum 20 minutes. **Table 8** provides the daily frequency of visual

breaks.

```
390  dataCC |>
391    extract_clusters(Dis >= 100, #define the condition, greater 100 cm away
392                     cluster.duration = "20 secs", # minimum duration
393                     return.only.clusters = FALSE, #return also non-clusters
394                     drop.empty.groups = FALSE #list even days w/o cluster
```

```
395                    ) |>
396   # filter clusters with previous episode lengths of at maximum 20 minutes:
397     filter((start - lag(end) <= duration("20 mins")), is.cluster) |>
398     summarize_numeric(
399        remove = c("start", "end", "epoch", "is.cluster", "duration"),
400        prefix = "",
401        add.total.duration = FALSE) |> #count the number of episodes
402     mean_daily(prefix = "Daily ") |> #daily means
403     gt() |> fmt_number(decimals = 1) #table
```

Daily episodes

Mean daily	5.9
Weekday	6.2
Weekend	5.0

404   *Table 8: Frequency of visual breaks (n per day)*

```
405   dataCC |>
406     extract_clusters(Dis >= 100, #define the condition, greater 100 cm away
407                      cluster.duration = "20 secs", # minimum duration
408                      return.only.clusters = FALSE, #return also non-clusters
409                      drop.empty.groups = FALSE #list even days w/o cluster
410                      ) |>
411     # return only clusters with previous episode lengths of maximum 20
412   minutes:
413     filter((start - lag(end) <= duration("20 mins")), is.cluster) %>%
414     add_states(dataCC, ., ) |> # add these clusters to the dataset
415     gg_day(y.axis = Dis, y.axis.label = "Distance (cm)", geom = "line") |>
416     gg_photoperiod(coordinates) + # add photoperiod information to the plot
417     geom_point(data = \(x) filter(x, is.cluster), col = "red")
```

Figure 3: Plot of visual breaks (red dots). Black traces show distance measurement data. Grey shaded areas show nighttime between civil dusk and civil dawn (photoperiod)

Distance with spatial distribution

The `Clouclip` device outputs a singular measure for distance, while the visual environment in natural conditions contains many distances, depending on the solid angle and direction of the measurement. A device like the `VEET` increases the spatial resolution of measurements, allowing for more in-depth analyses of the size and position of an object within the field of view. In the case of the `VEET`, data are collected from an 8x8 measurement grid, spanning 52° vertically and 41°

429   horizontally. Here are exemplary observations from six different days at the same

430   time:

```
# create helper function to allow choosing an observation:
slicer <- function(x){seq(min((x-1)*64+1), max(x*64), by = 1)}
#set visualization parameters:
extras <- list(
  geom_tile(), #colored tiles
  scale_fill_viridis_c(direction = -1, limits = c(0, 200), #color palette
                       oob = scales::oob_squish_any), #include infinity
  scale_color_manual(values = c("black", "white")), #colors for text
  theme_minimal(), #set minimal plot theme
  guides(colour = "none"), #remove scale for text
  geom_text( # add text labels for values
    aes(label = (dist1/10) |> round(0), colour = dist1>1000), size = 2.5),
  coord_fixed(), #keep x&y dimensions of plots consistent with scale
  labs(x = "X position (°)", y = "Y position (°)", #set labels
       fill = "Distance (cm)", alpha = "Confidence (0-255)")) #set labels

dataVEET3 |>
  slice(slicer(9530)) |>  #choose a particular observation with helper
  mutate(dist1 = ifelse(dist1 == 0, Inf, dist1)) |> #replace 0 -> infinity
  filter(conf1 >= 0.1 | dist1 == Inf) |> #remove data < 10% confidence
  ggplot(aes(x=x.pos, y=y.pos, fill = dist1/10))+ extras + #plot the data
  facet_wrap(~Datetime) #show one plot per day
```

Figure 4: Example observations of the measurement grid at 1:14 p.m. for each

measurement day. Text values show distance in cm. Empty grid points show values

with low confidence. Zero-distance values were replaced with infinite distance and

plotted despite low confidence.

To use these distance data in the framework shown above for the `Clouclip` device, a

sensible method to condense the data has to be applied. This method has to be

chosen based on theoretical assumptions about what a relevant distance within the

field of view is. Possible methods include:

• average across all (high confidence) distance values within the grid
• closest (high confidence) distance within the grid
• (high confidence) values at or around a given grid position, e.g., ±10 degrees
around the central view (0°)

Many more options are available based on the richer dataset, e.g., condensation

rules based on the number of points in the grid with a given condition, or the

variation within the grid.

We will demonstrate these three exemplary methods for a single day (`2024-06-10`),

all leading to a data structure akin to the `Clouclip`, i.e., to be used for further

calculation of visual experience metrics.

```
472  dataVEET3_part <- #filter one day:
473  dataVEET3 |>
474    filter_Date(start = "2024-06-10", length = "1 day")
475
476  dataVEET3_condensed <- #condense the data:
477  dataVEET3_part |>
478    group_by(Datetime, .add = TRUE) |> #group by every observation
479    filter(conf1 >= 0.1) |> #remove data with low confidence
480    summarize(
481      distance_mean = mean(dist1), #average across all distance values,
482      distance_min = min(dist1), #closest across all distance values,
483      distance_central = #central distance:
484        mean(dist1[between(x.pos, -10,10) & between(y.pos, -10,10)]),
485      n = n(), #number of (valid) grid points
486      .groups = "drop_last"
487    )
488
489  dataVEET3_condensed |> #plot the data:
490    aggregate_Datetime(
491      "15 mins", #create 15 minute data
492      numeric.handler = \(x) mean(x, na.rm = TRUE) #ignor NA datapoints
493    ) |>
494    remove_partial_data(by.date = TRUE) |> #remove midnight data point
```

```
495    pivot_longer(contains("distance"), #put all methods into a long table
496              names_to = c(".value", "method"),
497              names_pattern = "(distance)_(mean|min|max|central)"
498    ) |>
499    gg_day(y.axis = distance/10, #plot timeline on a cm scale
500          aes_col = method,
501          geom = "line",
502          group = method,
503          linewidth = 1,
504          alpha = 0.75,
505          y.scale = "identity",
506          y.axis.breaks = seq(0,150, by = 20),
507          y.axis.label = "Distance (cm)"
508          )
```

Figure 5: Comparison of condensation methods for spatial grid of distance
measurements. The lines represent an average across all data points (yellow), the
minimum distance (grey), or the central 10° (blue). Data points with confidence less
than 10% were removed prior to calculation.

As can be seen in **Figure 5**, while the overall pattern is similar regardless of the used
method, there are notable differences between the methods, which will consequently
affect downstream analyses. Most importantly, the process of condensation has to
be well documented and reproducible, as shown above. Any of these data could now
be used to calculate the `frequency of continuous near work`, `visual breaks`, or
`near-work episodes` as described above.

Light

The `Clouclip` illuminance data in our example are extremely low (the device was
mostly used in dim conditions), which would make certain light exposure summaries
22

trivial or not meaningful. To better illustrate light exposure metrics, we turn to the

exemplary `VEET` device's illuminance data, which capture a broader range of lighting

conditions. We briefly examine its distribution.

Illuminance distribution: The illuminance values from the `Clouclip` were almost

always near zero (see **Figure 6**), while the `VEET` data include outdoor exposures up

to several thousand lux. The contrast is evident from comparing histograms of the

two datasets' lux values (`Clouclip` vs. `VEET`). The `VEET` illuminance histogram (see

Figure 7) shows a heavily skewed distribution with a spike at zero (indicating many

intervals of complete darkness or the sensor being covered) and a long tail

extending to very high lux values. Such zero-inflated and skewed data are common

in wearable light measurements (Zauner, Guidolin, and Spitschan, 2025).

534

535 *Figure 6: Histogram of illuminance values from the Clouclip dataset (5-second data).*

536 *The values are very low and are typical of indoor conditions.*

537

Figure 7: Histogram of illuminance values from the VEET dataset (aggregated to

5 s). Note the logarithmic x-axis: the distribution is highly skewed with many low

values (including zeros) and a long tail of high lux readings.

After confirming that the `VEET` data cover a broad dynamic range of lighting, we

proceed with calculating light exposure metrics. (The `VEET` data had been cleaned for

gaps and irregularities as described earlier; see Supplement 1 for the summary

table.)

Average light exposure

A basic metric is the average illuminance over the day. **Table 9** shows the mean

illuminance (in lux) for weekdays, weekends, and the overall daily mean, calculated

directly from the raw lux values.

```
549  dataVEET |>
550    select(Id, Date, Datetime, Lux) |>
551    # create averages for all numeric columns:
552    summarize_numeric(prefix = "mean ", remove = c("Datetime")) |>
553    to_mean_daily() |>      # compute mean for weekday, weekend, all days
554    fmt_number(decimals = 1) |>
555    cols_hide(`average episodes`) |>  # hide an irrelevant column
556    cols_label(`average mean Lux` = "Mean photopic illuminance (lx)")
```

Mean photopic illuminance (lx)

Mean daily	304.1
Weekday	357.8
Weekend	169.8

Table 9: Mean light exposure (illuminance) per day

However, because illuminance data tend to be extremely skewed and contain many

zero values (periods of darkness), the arithmetic mean can be misleading. A

common approach is to apply a logarithmic transform to illuminance before

averaging, which down-weighs extreme values and accounts for the multiplicative

nature of light intensity effects. LightLogR provides helper functions

`log_zero_inflated()` and its inverse `exp_zero_inflated()` to handle log-

transformation when zeros are present (by adding a small offset before log, and

back-transforming after averaging). Using this approach, we recompute the daily

mean illuminance. The results in **Table 10** show that the log-transformed mean

(back-transformed to lux) is much lower, reflecting the fact that for much of the time

illuminance was near zero. This transformed mean is often more representative of

typical exposure for skewed data.

```
dataVEET |>
  select(Id, Date, Datetime, Lux) |>
  mutate(Lux = Lux |> log_zero_inflated()) |> # log-transform with zeros
  summarize_numeric(prefix = "mean ", remove = c("Datetime")) |>
  mean_daily(prefix = "") |> # get daily mean of log-lux
  mutate(`mean Lux` = `mean Lux` |> exp_zero_inflated()) |> #back to lux
  gt() |> fmt_number(decimals = 1) |> cols_hide(episodes) |> #table
  cols_label(`mean Lux` = "Mean photopic illuminance (lx)")
```

Mean photopic illuminance (lx)

Mean daily	6.3
Weekday	7.9
Weekend	3.5

578 *Table 10: Mean light exposure per day (after logarithmic transformation to account*

579 *for zero inflation and skewness)*

Duration in high-light (outdoor) conditions

Another important metric is the amount of time spent under bright light, often used as

a proxy for outdoor exposure. We define thresholds corresponding to outdoor light

levels (e.g., 1000 lx and above). Here, we categorize each 5-second interval of

illuminance into bands: Outdoor bright ($\geq$1000 lx), Outdoor very bright ($\geq$2000 lx),

and Outdoor extremely bright ($\geq$3000 lx). We then sum the duration in each category

per day. We first create a categorical variable for illuminance range:

```
# Define outdoor illuminance thresholds (in lux)
out_breaks <- c(1e3, 2e3, 3e3, Inf)
out_labels <- c(
    "Outdoor bright",          # [1000, 2000) lx
    "Outdoor very bright",     # [2000, 3000) lx
    "Outdoor extremely bright" # [3000, ∞) lx
  )
# Divide data by thresholds (in lux)
dataVEET <- dataVEET |>
  mutate(Lux_range = cut(Lux, breaks = out_breaks, labels = out_labels))
```

597 Now we compute the mean daily duration spent in each of these outdoor light ranges

598 (**Table 11**):

```
599  dataVEET |>
600    drop_na(Lux_range) |>
601    group_by(Lux_range, .add = TRUE) |>
602    durations(Lux) |> # total duration per range per day
603    pivot_wider(names_from = Lux_range, values_from = duration) |>
604    to_mean_daily("") |>
605    fmt_duration(input_units = "seconds", output_units = "minutes")
```

Outdoor	bright	very bright	extremely bright
Mean daily	24m	32m	55m
Weekday	29m	41m	65m
Weekend	10m	10m	30m

606   *Table 11: Average daily duration in outdoor-equivalent light conditions*

607   It is also informative to visualize when these bright-light conditions occurred.

608   **Figure 8** shows a timeline plot with periods of outdoor-level illuminance highlighted

609   in color. In this example, violet denotes ≥1000 lx, green ≥2000 lx, and yellow

610   ≥3000 lx. Grey shading indicates nighttime (from civil dusk to dawn) for context.

```
611  dataVEET |>
612    gg_day(y.axis = Lux, y.axis.label = "Photopic illuminance (lx)",
613           geom = "line", jco_color = FALSE) |>
614    gg_state(Lux_range, aes_fill = Lux_range, alpha = 0.75) |>
615    gg_photoperiod(coordinates) +
616    scale_fill_viridis_d() +
617    labs(fill = "Illuminance range") +
618    theme(legend.position = "bottom")
```

Figure 8: Outdoor light exposure over time. Colored bands indicate periods when illuminance exceeded outdoor thresholds: violet for ≥1000 lx, green for ≥2000 lx, and yellow for ≥3000 lx. Grey shaded regions denote night (from civil dusk to dawn).

Frequency of transitions from indoor to outdoor light

We next consider how often the subject moved from an indoor light environment to an outdoor-equivalent environment. We operationally define an "outdoor transition" as a change from <1000 lx to ≥1000 lx. Using the cleaned `VEET` data, we extract all instances where illuminance crosses that threshold from below to above.

628   **Table 12** shows the average number of such transitions per day. Note that if data

629   are recorded at a fine temporal resolution (5 s here), very brief excursions above

630   1000 lx could count as transitions and inflate this number. Indeed, the initial count is

631   fairly high, reflecting fleeting spikes above 1000 lx that might not represent

632   meaningful outdoor exposures.

```
dataVEET |>
  # label each interval as Outdoor (Lux≥1000) or not:
  extract_states(Outdoor, Lux >= 1000, group.by.state = FALSE) |>
  # filter where the previous state was "indoor" and current is "outdoor":
  filter(!lead(Outdoor) & Outdoor) |>
  summarize_numeric(prefix = "mean ", # average and provide counts
    remove = c("Datetime", "Outdoor", "start", "end", "duration"),
    add.total.duration = FALSE) |>
  mean_daily(prefix = "") |>
  gt() |> fmt_number(episodes, decimals = 0) |>
  fmt_duration(`mean epoch`, input_units = "seconds",
               output_units = "seconds")
```

	mean epoch	episodes
Mean daily	5s	64
Weekday	5s	72
Weekend	5s	46

Table 12: Average daily count of transitions from indoor (<1000 lx) to outdoor

(≥1000 lx) lighting when looking at 5-second epochs

To obtain a more meaningful measure, we can require that the outdoor state persists

for some minimum duration to count as a true transition (filtering out momentary

fluctuations around the 1000 lx mark). For example, we can require that once

≥1000 lx is reached, it continues for at least 5 minutes (allowing short interruptions

up to 20 s). **Table 13** applies this criterion, resulting in a lower, more plausible

transition count.

```
dataVEET |>
  extract_clusters(Lux >= 1000,
                   cluster.duration = "5 min",
                   interruption.duration = "20 secs",
                   return.only.clusters = FALSE,
                   drop.empty.groups = FALSE) |>
  filter(!lead(is.cluster) & is.cluster) |>
  summarize_numeric(prefix = "mean ",
```

```
661      remove = c("Datetime", "start", "end", "duration"),
662      add.total.duration = FALSE) |>
663    mean_daily(prefix = "") |>
664    gt() |> fmt_number(episodes, decimals = 0)
```

	mean epoch	episodes
Mean daily	5s	5
Weekday	5s	6
Weekend	5s	4

665   *Table 13: Daily indoor-to-outdoor transition count (requiring ≥5 min duration of*

666   *≥1000 lx to count)*

Longest sustained bright-light period

The final light exposure metric we illustrate is the longest continuous period above a

certain illuminance threshold (often termed Longest Period Above Threshold,

e.g. PAT1000 for 1000 lx). This gives a sense of the longest outdoor exposure in a

day. Along with it, one might report the total duration above that threshold in the day

(TAT1000). While we could derive these from the earlier analyses, LightLogR

provides dedicated metric functions for such calculations, which can compute

multiple related metrics at once.

Using the function `period_above_threshold()` for PAT and

`duration_above_threshold()` for TAT, we calculate both metrics for the 1000 lx

threshold. **Table 14** shows the mean of these metrics across days (i.e., average

longest bright period and average total bright time per day).

```
679   dataVEET |>
680     summarize(
681       period_above_threshold(Lux, # specify which variable is of interest
682                               Datetime, # which variable carries datetimes
683                               threshold = 1000, # what is threshold
684                               na.rm = TRUE, # whether NA(missing) are ignored
685                               as.df = TRUE # automated naming of output cols
686                               ),
687       # consistent interface across functions:
688       duration_above_threshold(Lux, Datetime, threshold = 1000,
689                               na.rm = TRUE, as.df = TRUE),
690       .groups = "keep"
691     ) |>
692     to_mean_daily("")
```

	period above 1000	duration above 1000
Mean daily	1987s (~33.12 minutes)	6709s (~1.86 hours)
Weekday	2501s (~41.68 minutes)	8164s (~2.27 hours)
Weekend	702s (~11.7 minutes)	3070s (~51.17 minutes)

Table 14: Longest period and total duration above 1000 lx (PAT1000 and TAT1000)

Spectrum

The `VEET` device's spectral sensor provides rich data beyond simple lux values, but it

requires reconstruction of the actual light spectrum from raw sensor counts. We

processed the spectral sensor data in order to compute two example spectrum-

based metrics. Detailed data import, normalization, and spectral reconstruction steps

are given in **Supplement 1**; here we present the resulting metrics. Briefly, the `VEET`'s

spectral sensor recorded counts in ten wavelength bands (roughly 415 nm to

910 nm), plus a `Dark` and a `Clear` channel. After normalizing by sensor gain and

applying the calibration matrix, we obtained an estimated spectral irradiance

distribution for each interval in the recording. With these reconstructed spectra, we

can derive novel metrics that consider spectral content of the light.

Note that spectrum-based metrics in wearable data are relatively new and less

established compared to distance or broadband light metrics. The following

examples illustrate potential uses of spectral data in a theoretical sense, which can

be adapted as needed for specific research questions.

Ratio of short- vs. long-wavelength light

Our first spectral metric is the ratio of short-wavelength light to long-wavelength light,

which is relevant, for example, in assessing the blue-light content of exposure. We

define "short" wavelengths here as 400–500 nm and "long" as 600–700 nm. Using

the list-column of spectra in our dataset, we integrate each spectrum over these

ranges (using `spectral_integration()`), and then compute the ratio short/long for

each time interval. We then summarize these ratios per day.

```
716 dataVEET <- dataVEET2 |>
717   select(Id, Date, Datetime, Spectrum) |> # focus on these variables
```

```
718    mutate(
719      short = Spectrum |>
720              map_dbl(spectral_integration, wavelength.range = c(400, 500)),
721      long  = Spectrum |>
722              map_dbl(spectral_integration, wavelength.range = c(600, 700)),
723      `sl ratio` = ifelse(is.nan(short / long), NA, short / long)
724    )
```

Table 15 shows the average short/long wavelength ratio, averaged over each day (and then as weekday/weekend means if applicable). In this dataset, the values give an indication of the spectral balance of the light the individual was exposed to (higher values mean relatively more short-wavelength content).

```
729  dataVEET |>
730    summarize_numeric(prefix = "", remove = c("Datetime", "Spectrum")) |>
731    # mean_daily(prefix = "") |>
732    gt() |>
733    fmt_number(decimals = 1, scale_by = 1000) |>
734    fmt_number(`sl ratio`, decimals = 3) |>
735    cols_hide(episodes)
```

date	short	long	sl-ratio
2025-06-18	44.1	42.2	0.524
2025-06-20	69.2	49.1	0.336

Table 15: Average (mW/m²) and ratio of short-wavelength (400–500 nm) to long-wavelength (600–700 nm) light

Short-wavelength light at specific times of day

The second spectral example examines short-wavelength light exposure as a function of time of day. Certain studies might be interested in, for instance, blue-light exposure during midday versus morning or night. We demonstrate three approaches: (a) filtering the data to a specific local time window, and (b) aggregating by hour of day to see a daily profile of short-wavelength exposure. Additionally, we (c) look at differences between day and night periods.

Local morning exposure

Table 16 isolates the time window between 7:00 and 11:00 each day and computes the average short-wavelength irradiance in that interval. This represents a

748 straightforward query: "How much blue light does the subject get in the morning on
749 average?"

```
dataVEET |>
  filter_Time(start = "7:00:00", end = "11:00:00") |>  # filter times
  select(-c(Spectrum, long, `sl ratio`, Time, Datetime)) |>
  summarize_numeric(prefix = "") |>
  # mean_daily()|> # not used, as these data do not cover weekends
  gt() |> fmt_number(short, scale_by = 1000) |>
  cols_label(short = "Short-wavelength irradiance (mW/m²)") |>
  cols_hide(episodes)
```

Date	Short-wavelength irradiance (mW/m²)
2025-06-18	5.44
2025-06-20	0.95

758 *Table 16: Average short-wavelength light (400–500 nm) exposure between 7:00 and*
759 *11:00 each day*

Hourly profile across the day

761 To visualize short-wavelength exposure over the course of a day, we aggregate the
762 data into hourly bins. We cut the timeline into 1-hour segments (using local time),
763 compute the mean short-wavelength irradiance in each hour for each day. **Figure 9**
764 shows the resulting diurnal profile, with short-wavelength exposure expressed as a
765 fraction of the daily maximum for easier comparison.

```
# Prepare hourly binned data
dataVEETtime <- dataVEET |>
  cut_Datetime(unit = "1 hour", type = "floor", group_by = TRUE) |>
  select(-c(Spectrum, long, `sl ratio`, Datetime)) |>
  summarize_numeric(prefix = "") |>
  add_Time_col(Datetime.rounded)  |>   # add a Time column (hour of day)
  mutate(rel_short = short / max(short))

#creating the plot
dataVEETtime |>
  ggplot(aes(x=Time, y = rel_short)) +
  geom_col(aes(fill = factor(Date)), position = "dodge") +
  ggsci::scale_fill_jco() +
  theme_minimal() +
  labs(y = "Normalized short-wavelength irradiance",
       x = "Local time (HH:MM)",
       fill = "Date") +
```

```
783     scale_y_continuous(labels = scales::label_percent()) +
784     scale_x_time(labels = scales::label_time(format = "%H:%M"))
```

Figure 9: Diurnal profile of short-wavelength light exposure. Each bar represents the average short-wavelength irradiance at that hour of the day (0–23 h), normalized to the daily maximum.

Day vs. night (photoperiod)

Finally, we compare short-wavelength exposure during daytime vs. nighttime. Using civil dawn and dusk information (based on geographic coordinates, here set for Houston, TX, USA), we label each measurement as day or night and then compute the total short-wavelength exposure in each period. **Table 17** summarizes the daily short-wavelength dose received during the day vs. during the night.

```
795  dataVEET |>
796    select(-c(Spectrum, long, `sl ratio`)) |>
797    add_photoperiod(coordinates) |>
798    group_by(photoperiod.state, .add = TRUE) |>
799    summarize_numeric(
800      prefix = "", remove = c("dawn", "dusk", "photoperiod", "Datetime")) |>
801    group_by(Id, photoperiod.state) |>
802  #  mean_daily()|> # not used, as these data do not cover weekends
803    select(-episodes) |>
```

```
804    pivot_wider(names_from =photoperiod.state, values_from = short) |>
805    gt() |> fmt_number(scale_by = 1000, decimals = 1)
```

date	day	night
2025-06-18	73.9	2.6
2025-06-20	112.0	1.0

806   *Table 17: Short wavelength light exposure (mW/m²) during the day and at night*

807   In the code section above, `add_photoperiod(coordinates)` is used as a convenient

808   way to add columns to the data frame, indicating for each timestamp whether it was

809   day or night, given the latitude/longitude.

Discussion and conclusion

This tutorial demonstrates a standardized, step-by-step pipeline to calculate a variety of visual experience metrics. We illustrated how a combination of LightLogR functions and tidyverse workflows can yield clear and reproducible analyses for wearable device data. While the full pipeline is detailed, each metric is computed through a dedicated sequence of well-documented steps. By leveraging LightLogR's framework alongside common data analysis approaches, the process remains transparent and relatively easy to follow. The overall goal is to make analysis transparent (with open-source functions), accessible (through thorough documentation, tutorials, and human-readable function naming, all under an MIT license), robust (the package includes over 800 unit tests and continuous integration with bug tracking on GitHub), and community-driven (open feature requests and contributions via GitHub).

Even with standardized pipelines, researchers must still make and document many decisions during data cleaning, time-series handling, and metric calculations — especially for complex metrics that involve grouping data in multiple ways (for example, grouping by distance range as well as by duration for cluster metrics). We have highlighted these decision points in the tutorial (such as how to handle irregular intervals, choosing thresholds for "near" distances or "outdoor" light, and deciding on minimum durations for sustained events). Explicitly considering and reporting these choices is important for reproducibility and for comparing results across studies.

The broad set of features in LightLogR — ranging from data import and cleaning tools (for handling time gaps and irregularities) to visualization functions and metric calculators — make it a powerful toolkit for visual experience research. Our examples spanned myopia-related metrics and also circadian-related ones, demonstrating the versatility of a unified analysis approach. By using community-supported tools and workflows, researchers in vision science, chronobiology, myopia, and related fields can reduce time spent on low-level data wrangling and focus more on interpreting results and advancing scientific understanding.

Statements

Data availability statement

All data in this tutorial and Supplement 1 are available from the GitHub repository: https://github.com/tscnlab/ZaunerEtAl_JVis_2025/, archived on Zenodo: https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.16566014 under a CC-BY license (Code under MIT license).

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Validation: no

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Contributions

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Formal analysis: JZ

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Project administration: MS, JZ

Software: JZ

Resources: JZ, MS

Supervision: MS, LAO, AN

Validation: LAO, AN

Visualisation: JZ

Writing – original draft: JZ

Writing – review & editing: JZ, AN, LAO, MS

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Supplementary Material

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1007 **S1. Import and preprocessing file.** An HTML file that contains all the code and

1008 code results to prepare the data for the analysis in the main manuscript.

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