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. This includes time-series analyses for working distance, biologically relevant light metrics, and spectral characteristics. The tasks are standardized through the open-source R package [LightLogR]. 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. In contrast, real-world conditions are inherently complex and dynamic, and cannot be captured by single spot measurements. 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 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 (van Duijnhoven et al. 2025). 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 (Hönekopp and Weigelt 2023; Hartmeyer and

Andersen 2023).

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. It is very

common that 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). The

package functions come with light-related defaults, but they remain fundamentally

agnostic to modality. As a result, parameters like viewing distance and light spectra,

both highly relevant to myopia research (Hönekopp and Weigelt 2023), can easily be

handled.

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 (worn by different individuals and at different times) to showcase the

LightLogR workflow with metrics relevant to myopia research, covering working

distance, (day)light exposure, and spectral analysis. Readers are encouraged to

recreate the analysis using the provided code. All necessary data and code are

openly available in the [GitHub repository](#).

> **💡 Scope**
>
> This article focuses on workflows for deriving condensed metrics from time-series data collected with wearable devices in the visual-experience domain. Specifically, we address illuminance, viewing distance, and spectral irradiance. Example datasets from two types of wearable devices are used for illustration.
>
> Many relevant considerations arise when collecting data with wearable devices. This article covers only a subset of these. In particular, it does not address:
>
> - device selection (see, e.g., van Duijnhoven et al. 2025; Zauner et al. 2025a)
> - measurement accuracy or device calibration
> - auxiliary data such as sleep/wake information (see, e.g., Zauner et al. 2025b; Guidolin et al. 2024)
>
> More information on those aspects can be found in the *Technical guide for wearable optical radiation dosimetry and visual experience assessment* (Zauner et al. 2025c).
>
> To demonstrate the workflows, this article uses expert-informed definitions of metrics and metric parameters (see, e.g., **Table 1**, **Table 2**, and the non-wear detection rules based on activity data described in Supplement 1). These definitions and thresholds should not be interpreted as universal standards, nor are they hard-coded into the software package. For any application, parameter choices must be tailored to the research domain, study context and design, and the specifications of the wearable device.
>
> Further, the article is split up in the main analysis part, where all metrics are calculated, and the Supplement 1, where data is imported, screened, and prepared. Thus, the reader is referred to Supplement 1 for all aspects regarding data formats, preparation steps, and handling of gaps, i.e., missing data.
>
> Lastly, the example data used in the article do not stem from a controlled experimental data collection but consist of pilot data gathered in an ecological setting without a fixed protocol. Given the substantial interindividual differences in visual experience metrics, and because the analyses focus on one participant at a time, the reported results should be interpreted as illustrative rather than representative of typical or population-level values.

Method and Materials

Software

This tutorial was built with Quarto, 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. All analyses were conducted in *R* (version 4.5.0, "How About a Twenty-Six") using *LightLogR* (version 0.10.0 "High noon"). We also used the *tidyverse* suite (version 2.0.0) for data manipulation (which LightLogR follows in its design), and the *gt* package (version 1.1.0) for generating summary tables. A comprehensive overview of the R computing environment is provided in the session info (see Session info section of the online tutorial).

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.** 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. While they are not derived by a formal consensus process, they are expert-informed and used in current scientific research, and thus will serve as example-definitions for metrics and thresholds throughout this article.

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*	filter for distance range + durations()* (for single ranges) or grouping by distance range + durations()* (for all ranges)

	(10cm steps)	
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	Melanopic daylight efficacy ratio (MDER)	spectral_integration()* + summarize_numeric()*
12	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	$$\frac{5 * \text{weekday} + 2 * \text{weekend}}{7}$$
Near work	working distance, $[15,60)cm$
Intermediate Work	working distance, $[60,100)cm$
Total work	working distance, $[10,120)cm$
Distance range	working distance, $[15,20)cm$, 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	$$\frac{T_{\text{near work}}}{T_{\text{total wear}}}$$
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	$$\frac{E_{e,\text{short wavelength}}}{E_{e,\text{long wavelength}}}$$

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

of illuminance measurements scaled to hourly observation intervals

Table 2: Definitions of terms and metrics

It should be noted that although daylight levels can far exceed the thresholds defined

in **Table 2** - and may reach or even exceed 10^5 lux - empirical daylight levels

measured at eye level are much lower, typically around 10^3 lux, especially when

considering aggregated time-series data over minutes to hours.

Devices

Data from two wearable devices are used in this analysis:

- `Clouclip`: A wearable device that measures viewing distance and ambient
light simultaneously [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 [Reality Labs Research, 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

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

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

162   steps involved, which are summarized as follows, and as shown in Figure 1. Please

163   refer to the supplement for details.

Figure 1: Pre-processing steps in the supplement document

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 lux) 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 contains irregular intervals and can contain
missing periods (e.g., if the device stopped recording or was reset); the import
summary flags these issues.

Besides the `Clouclip` and `VEET`, LightLogR 0.10.0 contains import functions for 18

more wearable devices. The package further supports versions due to evolving data

formats, and includes documentation for both [code-based](#) and [code-less](#) additions of

new device import-functions.

Irregular intervals, gaps, non-wear times: Both datasets showed irregular timing

and missing data, i.e., gaps. Irregular data means that some observations did not

align to the nominal sampling interval (e.g., slight timing drift or pauses in recording).

For the `Clouclip` 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
    197
    198 start-up.

- Rounding all timestamps to the nearest regular interval (5 s in this case).
    199

- Aggregating to a coarser time interval (with some loss of temporal resolution).
    200

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 to focus on days with substantial wear time. In our `Clouclip`

example, days with <1 hour of recordings were dropped. This threshold should be

adjusted based on how much complete days matter for a given analysis at hand.

E.g., in circadian science, the metrics of *interdaily stability* and *intradaily variation*

require measurements for each hour of the day.

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. Because the device was put in sleep mode when not
worn, there are no measurements during non-wear times.

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.
Aggregation was performed with the arithmetic mean of values in a 5-second bin.
We then inserted explicit missing entries for each whole day 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 Supplement 1 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 nine wavelength-specific
channels (approximately 415 nm through 940 nm, unequally spaced between 30 and
50 nm, plus one broadband clear channel covering the whole range of individual
channels, another broadband channel for flicker detection, 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. 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 1. 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). For computational reasons, only the first object was kept.
These data were pivoted into a long format, where each row contains the distance
and confidence data 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

dataset was ready to be used for distance analysis.

Because the `VEET` devices record even when not worn, a non-wear detection using

the devices' actigraphy modality was implemented. This process used the standard

deviation of a linear motion sensor in a 5-minute bin with a visually derived threshold

to separate wear from non-wear time. Measurements of illuminance and distance

were consequently removed during the calculated non-wear times.

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` dataset will be

imported later for the spectrum related metrics.

Load libraries and preprocessed data
```
259   1   library(LightLogR)
260   2   library(tidyverse)
261   3   library(gt)
262   4   load("data/cleaned/data.RData")
263
264   Store coordinates of data collection
265   1   coordinates <- c(29.75, -95.36)
```

266   **Line 1** Coordinates for Houston, Texas; coordinates are important to calculate and
267   visualize photoperiods later

Results

Figure 2 shows an overview of the covered workflows in the results section.

Figure 2: Workflows that are covered in the results section. The pre-processed datasets are covered in detail in the supplement

We first examine metrics related to viewing distance, using the processed `Clouclip` dataset. Many distance-based metrics are computed for each day and then averaged over weekdays, weekends, or across all days. To facilitate this, we define a helper function that will take daily metric values and calculate the mean values for weekdays, weekends, and the overall daily average:

```
Define helper function to_mean_daily()
1  to_mean_daily <- function(data, prefix = "average_") {
2    data |>
3      ungroup(Date) |>
4      mean_daily(prefix = prefix) |>
5      rename_with(.fn = \(x) str_replace_all(x,"_"," ")) |>
6      gt()
7  }
```

287   **Line 3** Ungroup by days
288   **Line 4** Calculate the averages per grouping
289   **Line 5** Remove underscores in names
290   **Line 6** Format as a gt table for display
291

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**.

298
```
Calculate total wear time
1  dataCC |>
2    durations(Dis) |>
3    to_mean_daily("Total wear ")
```
299
300
301

302   **Line 2** Calculate total duration of data per day
303   **Line 3** Using the helper function defined above
304

	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 viewing at 15–60 cm. **Table 5** provides a more detailed

breakdown across multiple distance bands.

Duration of near work

314
```
Calculate daily duration of near work
1  dataCC |>
2    filter(Dis >= 15, Dis < 60) |>
```
315
316

```
317   3    durations(Dis) |>
318   4    to_mean_daily("Near work ")
```

Line 2 Consider only distances in [15, 60) cm
Line 3 Total duration in that range per day

	Near work duration
Mean daily	17309s (~4.81 hours)
Weekday	21173s (~5.88 hours)
Weekend	7648s (~2.12 hours)

Table 4: Daily duration of near work (15–60 cm viewing distance)

Duration within distance ranges

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

```
Defining distance ranges (in cm)
1   dist_breaks <- c(15, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100, Inf)
2   dist_labels <- c(
3       "Extremely near",            # [15, 20)
4       "Very near",                 # [20, 30)
5       "Fairly near",               # [30, 40)
6       "Near",                      # [40, 50)
7       "Moderately near",           # [50, 60)
8       "Near intermediate",         # [60, 70)
9       "Intermediate",              # [70, 80)
10      "Moderately intermediate",   # [80, 90)
11      "Far intermediate",          # [90, 100)
12      "Far"                        # [100, Inf)
13  )
```

Now we cut the distance data into these ranges and compute the daily duration
spent in each range:

```
Calculate daily duration within viewing distance range
1   dataCC |>
2     mutate(Dis_range =
3             cut(Dis, breaks = dist_breaks, labels = dist_labels)) |>
4     drop_na(Dis_range) |>
5     group_by(Dis_range, .add = TRUE) |>
6     durations(Dis) |>
7     pivot_wider(names_from = Dis_range, values_from = duration) |>
8     ungroup() |>
9     mean_daily(prefix = "") |>
10    pivot_longer(-Date) |>
11    pivot_wider(names_from = Date) |>
12    mutate(name = factor(name, levels = rev(dist_labels))) |>
```

```
355  13   arrange(name) |>
356  14   gt() |>
357  15   fmt_duration(input_units = "seconds", output_units = "minutes")
```

Line 2-3 Categorize distances
Line 4 Remove intervals with no data
Line 5 Group by distance range (in addition to the date)
Line 6 Duration per range per day
Line 7 Pivot data from long to wide format (ranges as columns)
Line 15 Convert seconds to minutes
364

	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	74m	88m	40m

365 *Table 5: Daily duration in each viewing distance range in minutes. For better*
366 *readability, the table was transposed (compared to the code results)*

368 To visualize this, **Figure 3** illustrates the relative proportion of time spent in each
369 distance range:

Figure 3: 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 can be understood 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 4** provides an example visualization of these episodes on the distance time series.

```
Calculate the frequency of continuous near-work episodes per day
1  dataCC |>
2    extract_clusters(
3      Dis >= 20 & Dis < 60,
4      cluster.duration = "30 mins",
5      interruption.duration = "1 min",
6      drop.empty.groups = FALSE
7    ) |>
```

```
 8    summarize_numeric(remove = c("start", "end", "epoch", "duration"),
 9                      add.total.duration = FALSE) |>
10   mean_daily(prefix = "Frequency of ") |>
11   gt() |> fmt_number()
```

Line 3 Condition: near-work distance
Line 4 Minimum duration of a continuous episode
Line 5 Maximum gap allowed within an episode
Line 6 Keep days with zero episodes in output
Line 9 Count number of episodes per day
Line 10 Compute daily mean frequency

Frequency of episodes

Mean daily	0.86
Weekday	1.20
Weekend	0

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

```
Plot continuous near-work episodes
1 dataCC |>
2   add_clusters(
3     Dis >= 20 & Dis < 60,
4     cluster.duration = "30 mins",
5     interruption.duration = "1 min"
6   ) |>
7   gg_day(y.axis = Dis, y.axis.label = "Distance (cm)", geom = "line",
8          y.scale = "identity", y.axis.breaks = seq(0,100, by = 20)) |>
9   gg_photoperiod(coordinates) |>
10  gg_state(state, fill = "red") +
11  geom_hline(yintercept = c(20, 60), col = "red", linetype = "dashed")+
12  coord_cartesian(ylim = c(0,100))
```

Lines 1-6 As in code cell above
Line 9 Add photoperiod information
Line 10 Add state bands

Figure 4: 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. Grey shaded areas show nighttime between civil dusk and civil dawn

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 5-second minimum duration to capture more routine near-work bouts) and summarizes three aspects:

430 1. frequency (count of episodes per day),
431 2. average duration of episodes, and
432 3. average distance during those episodes.

433 These results are combined in **Table 7**.

```
Calculate near-work episodes
1 dataCC |>
2   extract_clusters(
3     Dis >= 20 & Dis < 60,
4     cluster.duration = "5 secs",
5     interruption.duration = "20 secs",
6     drop.empty.groups = FALSE
7   ) |>
8   extract_metric(dataCC, distance = mean(Dis, na.rm = TRUE)) |>
9   summarize_numeric(remove = c("start", "end", "epoch"),
10                    prefix = "",
11                    add.total.duration = FALSE) |>
12  mean_daily(prefix = "") |>
13  gt() |>
14  fmt_number(c(distance, episodes), decimals = 0) |>
15  cols_units(distance = "cm")
```

450 **Line 4** Minimal duration to count as an episode (set to interval level of dataCC)
451 **Line 8** Calculate mean distance during each episode
452 **Lines 9-11** Calculate averages for all numeric columns per group
453 **Line 12** Daily averages for each metric
454 **Lines 13-15** Table generation
455

	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 code cell 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 as defined in this article, require a minimum break-length, and the
previous 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 and **Figure 5** shows when these occur.

```
Calculate visual breaks
1 dataCC |>
2   extract_clusters(Dis >= 100,
3                     cluster.duration = "20 secs",
4                     return.only.clusters = FALSE,
5                     drop.empty.groups = FALSE
6                     ) |>
7   filter((start - lag(end) <= duration("20 mins")), is.cluster) |>
8   summarize_numeric(
9         remove = c("start", "end", "epoch", "is.cluster", "duration"),
10        prefix = "",
11        add.total.duration = FALSE) |>
12  mean_daily(prefix = "Daily ") |>
13  gt() |>
14  fmt_number(decimals = 1)
```

Line 2 Define the condition, greater 100 cm away
Line 3 Define the minimum duration
Line 4 Return non-clusters as well
Line 5 Keep all days, even without clusters
Line 7 Return only clusters with previous episode lengths of maximum 20 minutes
Lines 8-11 Count the number of episodes
Line 12 Calculate daily means
Lines 13-14 Table generation
490

Daily episodes

Mean daily	5.9
Weekday	6.2
Weekend	5.0

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

```
Plot visual breaks
1 dataCC |>
2     extract_clusters(Dis >= 100,
3                     cluster.duration = "20 secs",
4                     return.only.clusters = FALSE,
5                     drop.empty.groups = FALSE
6                     ) |>
7   filter((start - lag(end) <= duration("20 mins")), is.cluster) %>%
8   add_states(dataCC, ., ) |>
9   gg_day(y.axis = Dis, y.axis.label = "Distance (cm)", geom = "line") |>
```
22

```
10  gg_photoperiod(coordinates) +
11  geom_point(data = \(x) filter(x, is.cluster), col = "red")
```

Lines 1-7 As in the code cell above
Line 8 Add the resulting states
Line 10 Add photoperiod information to the plot

Figure 5: 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 these 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° horizontally. **Figure 6** shows sample observations from six different days at the same time.

```
Plot spatial distance grids for different days
1 dataVEET3 |>
2   filter_Time(start = "13:14:02", length = "00:00:05") |>
3   mutate(dist1 = ifelse(dist1 == 0, Inf, dist1)) |>
4   filter(conf1 >= 0.1 | dist1 == Inf) |>
5   ggplot(aes(x=x.pos, y=y.pos, fill = dist1/10))+
6   extras +
7   facet_wrap(~Datetime)
```

Line 2 Choose a particular observation
Line 3 Replace 0 distances with infinity
Line 4 Remove data that has less than 10% confidence
Line 5-6 Plot the data and add the plot partials from the code cell above
Lines 7 Show one plot per day

Figure 6: 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. There are many ways how a spatially resolved distance measure could be utilized for analysis:

- Where in the field of view are objects in close range?
- How large are near objects in the field of view?
- How varied are distances within the field of view?
- How close are objects / is viewing distance in a region of interest within the field of view?

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 spatial 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 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.

```
Calculating and plotting method results
1 dataVEET3_part <-
2 dataVEET3 |>
3   filter_Date(start = "2024-06-10", length = "1 day")
4
5 dataVEET3_condensed <-
6 dataVEET3_part |>
7   group_by(Datetime, .add = TRUE) |>
8   filter(conf1 >= 0.1) |>
9   summarize(
10    distance_mean = mean(dist1),
11    distance_min = min(dist1),
12    distance_central =
13          mean(dist1[between(x.pos, -10,10) & between(y.pos, -10,10)]),
14    n = n(),
15    .groups = "drop_last"
16  )
17
18 dataVEET3_condensed |>
19   aggregate_Datetime(
20      "15 mins", numeric.handler = \(x) mean(x, na.rm = TRUE)) |>
21   remove_partial_data(by.date = TRUE) |>
22   pivot_longer(contains("distance"),
23             names_to = c(".value", "method"),
24     names_pattern = "(distance)_(mean|min|max|central)"
25     ) |>
26   gg_day(y.axis = distance/10,
27          geom = "line",
28          aes_col = method,
29          group = method,
30          linewidth = 1,
31          alpha = 0.75,
32          y.scale = "identity",
33          y.axis.breaks = seq(0,150, by = 20),
34          y.axis.label = "Distance (cm)"
35          ) |>
36   gg_photoperiod(coordinates)
```

Lines 1-3 Filter one day
Line 7 Group additionally by every observation
Line 8 Remove data with low confidence
Line 10 Average across all distance values
Line 11 Closest across all distance values
Line 12-13 Central distance
Line 14 Number of (valid) grid points
Line 19-20 Aggregate to 15 minute data
Line 21 Remove data points that fall exactly on midnight of the following day
Lines 22-25 Pivoting the method results from wide to long for plotting
Lines 26-36 Setting up the plot for distance.
607

Figure 7: 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 7**, 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 cover indoor environments and are thus comparatively low, which would make certain daylight exposure summaries trivial or not meaningful. To better illustrate light exposure metrics, we turn to a different dataset, this one taken from the `VEET` device's illuminance data, which capture a broader range of lighting conditions (though both device types are able to capture broadly the same range of illuminance). We import the `VEET` ambient light data (already preprocessed to have regular 5-second intervals as described above) and briefly examine its distribution.

Illuminance distribution: The illuminance values from the `Clouclip` were comparatively low (**Figure 8)**, while the `VEET` (**Figure 9)** 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`), where the main peak is similarly positioned between 10 and 100 lx, but the tails differ. The `VEET` illuminance histogram (see **Figure 9**) shows a heavily skewed distribution with a considerable number of zero lx values (indicating 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).

Figure 8: Histogram of illuminance values from the Clouclip dataset (5-second data). The values are typical of indoor conditions.

Figure 9: 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. Outdoor light exposures

in bright conditions are distinguishable around 10^3 to 10^4 lx.

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, and non-wear times were removed; see

Supplement 1 for the details.)

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.

```
654  Calculating mean light exposure per day
655  1 dataVEET |>
656  2   select(Id, Date, Datetime, Lux) |>
657  3   summarize_numeric(prefix = "mean ", remove = c("Datetime")) |>
658  4   to_mean_daily() |>
659  5   fmt_number(decimals = 1) |>
660  6   cols_hide(`average episodes`) |>
661  7   cols_label(`average mean Lux` = "Mean photopic illuminance (lx)")
```

Mean photopic illuminance (lx)

Mean daily	481.8

Mean photopic illuminance (lx)	
Weekday	538.1
Weekend	341.1

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-weights 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.

675
```
Calculating mean light exposure per day with log transformation
1 dataVEET |>
2   select(Id, Date, Datetime, Lux) |>
3   mutate(Lux = Lux |> log_zero_inflated()) |>
4   summarize_numeric(prefix = "mean ", remove = c("Datetime")) |>
5   mean_daily(prefix = "") |>
6   mutate(`mean Lux` = `mean Lux` |> exp_zero_inflated()) |>
7   gt() |> fmt_number(decimals = 1) |> cols_hide(episodes) |>
8   cols_label(`mean Lux` = "Mean photopic illuminance (lx)")
```

684   **Line 3** Log transform with zero handling (base 10)
685   **Line 5** Calculate daily mean of log-lux
686   **Line 6** Back-transform to lux
687

Mean photopic illuminance (lx)	
Mean daily	57.0
Weekday	70.1
Weekend	33.9

Table 10: Mean light exposure per day (after logarithmic transformation to account
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 (≥1000 lx), Outdoor very bright (≥2000 lx),
and Outdoor extremely bright (≥3000 lx). We then sum the duration in each category
per day.

While daylight levels can far exceed the recorded light levels, those are usually
recorded with direct sunlight and without obstruction. Under normal viewing
conditions, at eye level, and avoiding glare, daylight levels of a few thousand lux are
at the higher end of the distribution (Murukesu, Zauner, and Spitschan 2025).
Figure 9 shows a bimodal distribution, with the right mode representing outdoor
lighting conditions. In a 2023 review of light dosimeters to investigate the light-
myopia relationship (Hönekopp and Weigelt 2023), 1000 lx was the predominant
cutoff value to distinguish indoor vs. outdoor environments. It is not, however,
without critique, and both other thresholds (Patterson Gentile et al. 2025) and
classification methods are proposed (Tabandeh and Spitschan 2025).

```
707 Define outdoor illuminance thresholds (in lux)
708 1  out_breaks <- c(0, 1e3, 2e3, 3e3, Inf)
709 2  out_labels <- c(
710 3      "Indoor",                   # [0, 1000) lx
711 4      "Outdoor bright",           # [1000, 2000) lx
712 5      "Outdoor very bright",      # [2000, 3000) lx
713 6      "Outdoor extremely bright"  # [3000, ∞) lx
714 7    )
715 8
716 9  dataVEET <- dataVEET |>
717 10    mutate(Lux_range = cut(Lux, breaks=out_breaks, labels=out_labels))
```

718 Now we compute the mean daily duration spent in each of these outdoor light ranges
719 (**Table 11**):

```
720 Calculate the mean daily duration spent in each light range
721 1 dataVEET |>
722 2   drop_na(Lux_range) |>
723 3   group_by(Lux_range, .add = TRUE) |>
```

```
724  4   durations(Lux) |>
725  5     pivot_wider(names_from = Lux_range, values_from = duration) |>
726  6     to_mean_daily("") |>
727  7     fmt_duration(input_units = "seconds", output_units = "minutes")
```

Outdoor	bright	very bright	extremely bright	Indoor
Mean daily	24m	28m	42m	663m
Weekday	29m	35m	48m	688m
Weekend	10m	10m	28m	602m

Table 11: Average daily duration in outdoor-equivalent light conditions (column order
is different from code output)

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

Figure 10 shows a timeline plot with periods of outdoor-level illuminance highlighted

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

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

```
734  Visualize time spent outdoors
735  1 dataVEET |>
736  2   aggregate_Datetime("2 mins", type = "floor") |>
737  3   mutate(Lux_range = fct_recode(Lux_range, NULL = "Indoor")) |>
738  4   gg_day(y.axis = Lux,
739  5          y.axis.label = "Photopic illuminance (lx)",
740  6          geom = "line",
741  7          jco_color = FALSE) |>
742  8   gg_state(Lux_range, aes_fill = fct_rev(Lux_range),
743  9           alpha = 0.75, ymin = 10^3, ymax = 10^4) +
744  10  scale_fill_viridis_d() +
745  11  labs(fill = "Illuminance range") +
746  12  theme(legend.position = "bottom") +
747  13  coord_cartesian(xlim = c(8, 19.5)*3600)
```

748 **Line 2** Aggregating data to 5-minute bins
749 **Line 3** Removing the indoor condition
750 **Lines 4-7** Setting up the basic plot
751 **Lines 8-9** Adding state information on the illuminance ranges
752 **Line 13** Setting the x-axis limits to cover daytime hours
753

Figure 10: Outdoor light exposure over time with 2-minute interval. Colored bands indicate periods when illuminance exceeded outdoor thresholds for at least half of each interval: 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.

Table 12 shows the average number of such transitions per day. Note that if data are recorded at a fine temporal resolution (5 s here), very brief excursions above 1000 lx could count as transitions and inflate this number. Indeed, the initial count is

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

769 meaningful outdoor exposures.

```
Calculate the number of transitions from indoor to outdoor
1 dataVEET |>
2   extract_states(Outdoor, Lux >= 1000, group.by.state = FALSE) |>
3   filter(!lead(Outdoor) & Outdoor) |>
4   summarize_numeric(prefix = "mean ",
5     remove = c("Datetime", "Outdoor", "start", "end", "duration"),
6     add.total.duration = FALSE) |>
7   mean_daily(prefix = "") |>
8   gt() |>
9   fmt_number(episodes, decimals = 0) |>
10  fmt_duration(
11    `mean epoch`, input_units = "seconds", output_units = "seconds"
12  )
```

783 **Line 2** Label each interval as Outdoor (Lux≥1000) or not
784 **Line 3** Find instances where the previous interval was "indoor" and current is
785 "outdoor"

	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.

```
Calculate the number of transitions from indoor to outdoor with clusters
1 dataVEET |>
2   extract_clusters(Lux >= 1000,
3                    cluster.duration = "5 min",
4                    interruption.duration = "20 secs",
5                    return.only.clusters = FALSE,
6                    drop.empty.groups = FALSE) |>
```

```
802    7    filter(!lead(is.cluster) & is.cluster) |>
803    8    summarize_numeric(prefix = "mean ",
804    9      remove = c("Datetime", "start", "end", "duration"),
805    10     add.total.duration = FALSE) |>
806    11  mean_daily(prefix = "") |>
807    12  gt() |> fmt_number(episodes, decimals = 0)
```

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

Table 13: Daily indoor-to-outdoor transition count (requiring ≥5 min duration of ≥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 us 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).

```
822    Calculate PAT1000 and TAT1000
823    1 dataVEET |>
824    2    summarize(
825    3      period_above_threshold(
826    4        Lux, Datetime, threshold = 1000, na.rm = TRUE, as.df = TRUE),
827    5      duration_above_threshold(
828    6        Lux, Datetime, threshold = 1000, na.rm = TRUE, as.df = TRUE),
829    7      .groups = "keep"
830    8    ) |>
831    9    to_mean_daily("")
```

	period above 1000	duration above 1000
Mean daily	1208s (~20.13 minutes)	5703s (~1.58 hours)
Weekday	1469s (~24.48 minutes)	6815s (~1.89 hours)
Weekend	555s (~9.25 minutes)	2922s (~48.7 minutes)

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

Merging data streams

Note that while imports from different devices can be merged, devices differ in their
sensors, electronics, housing or diffuser form factors, and on-device data-processing
pipelines. All of these factors affect the comparability of measurements, even when
devices output the same variable (e.g., illuminance or distance). If data from different
devices with the same measurement variable are to be merged, the corresponding
variable names should be standardized beforehand - for example, renaming Lux and
LIGHT to illuminance. If we wanted to analyse the VEET data together with the Clouclip
data, for example, we would not have to rename anything, as both carry their
illuminance measurements in the variable Lux. The following example shows how the
combination of datasets would lead to a combined dataset, and how that would
affect analysis outcomes. It is the responsibility of the researcher to perform device
calibration and/or checks for a similar measurement fidelity.

`Merge Clouclip and VEET data`
```
data <- join_datasets(dataCC, dataVEET)
```
848 ```
2 data |> summary_overview(Lux, threshold.missing = 0.5) |> gt()
```

|  | mean | min | max |
|---|---|---|---|
| Participants (n) | 2 | | |
| Participant-days (n) | 13 | 6 | 7 |
| Days ≥50% complete (n) | 6 | 3 | 3 |
| Missing/Irregular (%) | 52% | 38% | 86% |

849  *Table 15: Overview of the merged dataset*

850  We will reuse the example from Section 3.2.1, but instead of one participant, we now
851  have data from two devices and participants

```
852  Re-calculate mean photopic illuminance with the merged data
853  1 data |>
854  2   select(Id, Date, Datetime, Lux) |>
855  3   mutate(Lux = Lux |> log_zero_inflated()) |>
856  4   summarize_numeric(prefix = "mean ", remove = c("Datetime")) |>
857  5   mean_daily(prefix = "") |>
858  6   mutate(`mean Lux` = `mean Lux` |> exp_zero_inflated()) |>
859  7   gt() |> fmt_number(decimals = 1) |> cols_hide(episodes) |>
860  8   cols_label(`mean Lux` = "Mean photopic illuminance (lx)")
```

861 **Line 1** Instead of `dataVEET` we now supply the merged `data` object
862 **Lines 2-8** Verbatim from Section 3.2.1
863

Mean photopic illuminance (lx)	
Clouclip	
Mean daily	17.6
Weekday	18.6
Weekend	15.2
VEET	
Mean daily	57.0
Weekday	70.1
Weekend	33.9

864 *Table 16: Recalculation of the mean light exposure per day (after logarithmic*
865 *transformation to account for zero inflation and skewness) with the merged dataset*

Spectrum

The `VEET` device's spectral sensor provides multimodal 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 nine wavelength
bands (roughly 415 nm to 910 nm), plus a `Dark`, a `Clear`, and a flicker detection

channel[1]. After normalizing by sensor gain and applying the calibration matrix, we

obtained an estimated spectral irradiance distribution for each 5-minute interval in

the recording. With these reconstructed spectra, we can derive novel metrics that

consider spectral content of the light.

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 as 400–500 nm and "long" as 600–700 nm (which are not

standardized thresholds and can be freely adjusted). 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.

```
890   Extract wavelength sections and integrate over them
891   1 dataVEET <- dataVEET2 |>
892   2   select(Id, Date, Datetime, Spectrum) |>
893   3   mutate(
894   4     short =
895   5       Spectrum |>
896   6       map_dbl(spectral_integration, wavelength.range = c(400, 500)),
897   7     long  =
898   8       Spectrum |>
899   9       map_dbl(spectral_integration, wavelength.range = c(600, 700)),
900   10    `sl ratio` = ifelse(is.nan(short / long), NA, short / long)
901   11  )
```

---

[1] Note that older firmware versions of the `VEET` prior to *2.1.7* contained two `Clear` channels and the highest spectral channel was indicated as 940 nm. Data collected with this early firmware version are not suitable for spectral reconstruction in the context of research projects.

Line 2 Focus on ID, date, time, and spectrum

Line 10 Compute short-to-long wavelength ratio

Table 17 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).

```
Calculate daily average values of short and long wavelength content
1 dataVEET |>
2   summarize_numeric(prefix = "", remove = c("Datetime", "Spectrum")) |>
3   gt() |>
4   fmt_number(decimals = 1, scale_by = 1000) |>
5   fmt_number(`sl ratio`, decimals = 3) |>
6   cols_hide(episodes)
```

date	short	long	sl-ratio
2025-06-18	83.7	71.7	0.610
2025-06-20	114.0	81.6	0.372

Table 17: Average (mW/m²) and ratio of short-wavelength (400–500 nm) to long-wavelength (600–700 nm) light

Melanopic daylight efficacy ratio (MDER)

The same idea is behind calculating the melanopic daylight efficacy ratio (or MDER), which is defined by the CIE ("CIE System for Metrology of Optical Radiation for ipRGC-Influenced Responses to Light" 2018) as the melanopic EDI divided by the photopic illuminance (Hartmeyer and Andersen 2023). Results are shown in **Table 18**. In this case, instead of a simple integration over a wavelength band, we apply an action spectrum to the spectral power distribution (SPD), integrate over the weighted SPD, and apply a correction factor. All alphaopic action spectra are implemented in the spectral_integration() function. These will result in photopic illuminance and melanopic equivalent daylight illuminance (melEDI)

```
Calculate melEDI and illuminance
1 dataVEET <-
2   dataVEET |>
3   select(Id, Date, Datetime, Spectrum, short, long, `sl ratio`) |>
4   mutate(
5     melEDI =
6       Spectrum |>
```

```
934   7      map_dbl(spectral_integration, action.spectrum = "melanopic"),
935   8    illuminance  =
936   9     Spectrum |>
937   10     map_dbl(spectral_integration, action.spectrum = "photopic")
938   11  )
```

Lines 5-7 Calculate melanopic EDI by applying the $s_{mel(\lambda)}$ action spectrum,
integrating, and weighing
Lines 8-10 Calculate photopic illuminance by applying the $V_{(\lambda)}$ action spectrum,
integrating, and weighing

```
Calculate MDER
1  dataVEET  |>
2    summarize_numeric(prefix = "", remove = c("Datetime", "Spectrum")) |>
3    mutate(MDER = melEDI / illuminance) |>
4    gt() |>
5    fmt_number(-`sl ratio`, decimals = 1, scale_by = 1000) |>
6    fmt_number(c(MDER, `sl ratio`), decimals = 3) |>
7    cols_hide(episodes)
```

Date	melEDI	Illuminance	MDER
2025-06-18	80.6	103.7	0.777
2025-06-20	108.0	123.9	0.871

Table 18: Average melanopic daylight efficacy ratio (MDER)

Short-wavelength light at specific times of day

The third 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 19 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
straightforward query: "How much blue light does the subject get in the morning on
average?"

```
Calculate short-wavelength light before noon
1 dataVEET |>
2   filter_Time(start = "7:00:00", end = "11:00:00") |>
3   select(c(Id, Date, short)) |>
4   summarize_numeric(prefix = "") |>
5   gt() |>
6   fmt_number(short, scale_by = 1000) |>
7   cols_label(short = "Short-wavelength irradiance (mW/m²)") |>
8   cols_hide(episodes)
```

Line 2 Filter data to local 7am–11am

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

Table 19: Average short-wavelength light (400–500 nm) exposure between 7:00 and 11:00 each day

Hourly profile across the day

To visualize short-wavelength exposure over the course of a day, we aggregate the data into hourly bins. We cut the timeline into 1-hour segments (using local time), compute the mean short-wavelength irradiance in each hour for each day. **Figure 11** shows the resulting diurnal profile, with short-wavelength exposure expressed as a fraction of the daily maximum for easier comparison.

```
Plot a diurnal profile
1  dataVEETtime <- dataVEET |>
2    cut_Datetime(unit = "1 hour", type = "floor", group_by = TRUE) |>
3    select(-c(Spectrum, long, Datetime)) |>
4    summarize_numeric(prefix = "") |>
5    add_Time_col(Datetime.rounded)  |>
6    mutate(rel_short = short / max(short))
7
8  dataVEETtime |>
9    ggplot(aes(x=Time, y = rel_short)) +
10   geom_col(aes(fill = factor(Date)), position = "dodge") +
11   ggsci::scale_fill_jco() +
12   theme_minimal() +
13   labs(y = "Normalized short-wavelength irradiance",
14        x = "Local time (HH:MM)",
15        fill = "Date") +
```

```
1000   16    scale_y_continuous(labels = scales::label_percent()) +
1001   17    scale_x_time(labels = scales::label_time(format = "%H:%M"))
```

1002   **Line 1** Prepare hourly binned data
1003   **Line 2** Bin timestamps by hour
1004   **Line 5** Add a Time column (hour of day)
1005   **Line 8-17** Creating the plot
1006

1007

1008   *Figure 11: Diurnal profile of short-wavelength light exposure. Each bar represents*

1009   *the average short-wavelength irradiance at that hour of the day (0–23 h), normalized*

1010   *to the daily maximum.*

1011

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 20** summarizes the daily

short-wavelength dose received during the day vs. during the night.

Calculate photoperiod dependent measures
```
1019   1   dataVEET |>
1020   2     select(-c(Spectrum, long, `sl ratio`, melEDI, illuminance)) |>
```

```
3     add_photoperiod(coordinates) |>
4     group_by(photoperiod.state, .add = TRUE) |>
5     summarize_numeric(prefix = "",
6                       remove =
7                         c("dawn", "dusk", "photoperiod", "Datetime")) |>
8     group_by(Id, photoperiod.state) |>
9   select(-episodes) |>
10    pivot_wider(names_from =photoperiod.state, values_from = short) |>
11    gt() |>
12    fmt_number(scale_by = 1000, decimals = 1)
```

date	day	night
2025-06-18	126.5	12.3
2025-06-20	181.8	1.0

Table 20: Short wavelength light exposure (mW/m²) during the day and at night

In the code cell above, `add_photoperiod(coordinates)` is used as a convenient way to add columns to the data frame, indicating for each timestamp whether it was 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, yet remains configurable to realize different metric definitions or thresholds.

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 >900 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 circadian-light metrics and myopia-related metrics, 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

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Data availability statement

1073 All data and code in this tutorial and Supplement 1 are available from the GitHub
1074 repository: https://github.com/tscnlab/ZaunerEtAl_JVis_2026/, archived on Zenodo:
1075 https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.16566014 under a MIT license (data under CC-BY
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The authors used ChatGPT during the preparation of this work. After using this tool,

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Use of AI in contributor roles [2]: Conceptualization: no Data curation: no Formal

analysis: bug fixing Methodology: no Software: bug fixing Validation: no

Visualization: tweaking of options Writing – original draft: abstract refinement Writing

– review & editing: improve readability and language

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[2] Based on the CRediT taxonomy. Funding acquisition, investigation, project administration, resources, and supervision were deemed irrelevant in this context and thus removed.

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