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Blue-light filtering spectacle lenses for visual performance, sleep, and macular health in adults (Review)

Singh S, Keller PR, Busija L, McMillan P, Makrai E, Lawrenson JG, Hull CC, Downie LE

Singh S, Keller PR, Busija L, McMillan P, Makrai E, Lawrenson JG, Hull CC, Downie LE. Blue-light filtering spectacle lenses for visual performance, sleep, and macular health in adults. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2023, Issue 8. Art. No.: CD013244. DOI: [10.1002/14651858.CD013244.pub2.](https://doi.org/10.1002%2F14651858.CD013244.pub2)

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[Intervention Review]

Blue-light filtering spectacle lenses for visual performance, sleep, and macular health in adults

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A B S T R A C T

Background

'Blue-light filtering', or 'blue-light blocking', spectacle lenses filter ultraviolet radiation and varying portions of short-wavelength visible light from reaching the eye. Various blue-light filtering lenses are commercially available. Some claims exist that they can improve visual performance with digital device use, provide retinal protection, and promote sleep quality. We investigated clinical trial evidence for these suggested effects, and considered any potential adverse effects.

Objectives

To assess the effects of blue-light filtering lenses compared with non-blue-light filtering lenses, for improving visual performance, providing macular protection, and improving sleep quality in adults.

Search methods

We searched the Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (CENTRAL; containing the Cochrane Eyes and Vision Trials Register; 2022, Issue 3);Ovid MEDLINE;Ovid Embase; LILACS;the ISRCTN registry; ClinicalTrials.gov and WHOICTRP, with no date orlanguage restrictions. We last searched the electronic databases on 22 March 2022.

Selection criteria

We included randomised controlled trials (RCTs), involving adult participants, where blue-light filtering spectacle lenses were compared with non-blue-light filtering spectacle lenses.

Data collection and analysis

Primary outcomes were the change in visual fatigue score and critical flicker-fusion frequency (CFF), as continuous outcomes, between baseline and one month of follow-up. Secondary outcomes included best-corrected visual acuity (BCVA), contrast sensitivity, discomfort glare, proportion of eyes with a pathological macular finding, colour discrimination, proportion of participants with reduced daytime alertness, serum melatonin levels, subjective sleep quality, and patient satisfaction with their visual performance. We evaluated findings related to ocular and systemic adverse effects.

We followed standard Cochrane methods for data extraction and assessed risk of bias using the Cochrane Risk of Bias 1 (RoB 1) tool. We used GRADE to assess the certainty of the evidence for each outcome.

Blue-light filtering spectacle lenses for visual performance, sleep, and macular health in adults (Review) Copyright © 2023 The Cochrane Collaboration. Published by John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Main results

We included 17 RCTs, with sample sizes ranging from five to 156 participants, and intervention follow-up periods from less than one day to five weeks. About half of included trials used a parallel-arm design; the rest adopted a cross-over design. A variety of participant characteristics was represented across the studies, ranging from healthy adults to individuals with mental health and sleep disorders.

None of the studies had a low risk of bias in all seven Cochrane RoB 1 domains. We judged 65% of studies to have a high risk of bias due to outcome assessors not being masked (detection bias) and 59% to be at high risk of bias of performance bias as participants and personnel were not masked. Thirty-five per cent of studies were pre-registered on a trial registry. We did not perform meta-analyses for any of the outcome measures, due to lack of available quantitative data, heterogenous study populations, and differences in intervention follow-up periods.

There may be no difference in subjective visual fatigue scores with blue-light filtering lenses compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses, at less than one week of follow-up (low-certainty evidence). One RCT reported no difference between intervention arms (mean difference (MD) 9.76 units (indicatingworse symptoms), 95% confidence interval(CI)-33.95 to 53.47; 120 participants). Further,two studies (46 participants, combined) that measured visual fatigue scores reported no significant difference between intervention arms.

There may be little to no difference in CFF with blue-light filtering lenses compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses, measured at less than one day of follow-up (low-certainty evidence). One study reported no significant difference between intervention arms (MD - 1.13 Hz lower (indicating poorer performance), 95% CI - 3.00 to 0.74; 120 participants). Another study reported a less negative change in CFF (indicating less visual fatigue) with high- compared to low-blue-light filtering and no blue-light filtering lenses.

Compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses, there is probably little or no effect with blue-light filtering lenses on visual performance (BCVA) (MD 0.00 logMAR units, 95% CI -0.02 to 0.02; 1 study, 156 participants; moderate-certainty evidence), and unknown effects on daytime alertness (2 RCTs, 42 participants; very low-certainty evidence); uncertainty in these effects was due to lack of available data and the small number of studies reporting these outcomes. We do not know if blue-light filtering spectacle lenses are equivalent or superior to non-bluelight filtering spectacle lenses with respect to sleep quality (very low-certainty evidence). Inconsistent findings were evident across six RCTs (148 participants); three studies reported a significant improvement in sleep scores with blue-light filtering lenses compared to nonblue-light filtering lenses, and the other three studies reported no significant difference between intervention arms. We noted differences in the populations across studies and a lack of quantitative data.

Device-related adverse effects were not consistently reported (9 RCTs, 333 participants; low-certainty evidence). Nine studies reported on adverse events related to study interventions; three studies described the occurrence of such events. Reported adverse events related to blue-light filtering lenses were infrequent, but included increased depressive symptoms, headache, discomfort wearing the glasses, and lower mood. Adverse events associated with non-blue-light filtering lenses were occasional hyperthymia, and discomfort wearing the spectacles.

We were unable to determine whether blue-light filtering lenses affect contrast sensitivity, colour discrimination, discomfort glare, macular health, serum melatonin levels or overall patient visual satisfaction, compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses, as none of the studies evaluated these outcomes.

Authors' conclusions

This systematic review found that blue-light filtering spectacle lenses may not attenuate symptoms of eye strain with computer use, over a short-term follow-up period, compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses. Further, this review found no clinically meaningful difference in changes to CFF with blue-light filtering lenses compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses. Based on the current best available evidence, there is probably little or no effect of blue-light filtering lenses on BCVA compared with non-blue-light filtering lenses. Potential effects on sleep quality were also indeterminate, with included trials reporting mixed outcomes among heterogeneous study populations. There was no evidence from RCT publications relating to the outcomes of contrast sensitivity, colour discrimination, discomfort glare, macular health, serum melatonin levels, or overall patient visual satisfaction. Future high-quality randomised trials are required to define more clearly the effects of blue-light filtering lenses on visual performance, macular health and sleep, in adult populations.

P L A I N L A N G U A G E S U M M A R Y

Blue-light filtering spectacle lenses for visual performance, macular (back part of the eye) protection, and improving sleep quality

What is the aim of this review?

This Cochrane Review aimed to investigate the possible benefits and safety of blue-light filtering spectacle lenses, also known as blue-light blocking spectacle lenses, on visual performance, macular protection, and sleep quality. Cochrane Review authors collected and analysed all relevant studies to summarise the best available research evidence.

Key message

Blue-light filtering spectacle lenses for visual performance, sleep, and macular health in adults (Review) Copyright © 2023 The Cochrane Collaboration. Published by John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Blue-light filtering lenses may not reduce short-term eyestrain associated with computer work, compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses. Potential harmful effects were temporary and generally mild, and mostly thought to be related to the glasses more generally rather than specifically the lenses themselves.

There is a need for future research to provide evidence for the effects of blue-light filtering lenses on multiple aspects of visual performance and sleep, including vision level (best corrected visual acuity), ability to detect differences in shading and patterns (contrast sensitivity), colour discrimination, reducing glare due to bright light (discomfort glare), the health of the retina at the back of the eye (macular health), sleep measures (including blood melatonin levels and sleep quality), and patient satisfaction.

What was studied in the review?

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The primary measures were the change in perceived and quantifiable assessments of eye strain, measured after at least one month of using the lenses. The other assessments considered a range of clinical measures and side effects.

What are the main results of the review?

We included 17 studies that recruited 619 people and took place in six countries. This review showed the following.

(i) There may be no short-term advantages with using blue-light filtering lenses to reduce visual fatigue with computer use, compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses.

(ii) There is limited information about the potential effect(s) of blue-light filtering lenses on visual acuity and the effects on sleep-related measures are unclear. The existing evidence regarding these measures is inconclusive.

(iii) None of the included studies investigated contrast sensitivity, colour discrimination, discomfort glare, macular health, serum melatonin levels or overall patient visual satisfaction; no conclusions could be drawn in relation to these measures.

(iv) There is some evidence that harmful effects that may be related to using blue-light filtering lenses include headache (1 study, 8%), increased depressive symptoms (1 study, 17%), lowered mood (1 study, 5%), and discomfort wearing the glasses (2 studies (combined), 22%), although similar adverse effects were also reported with non-blue-light filtering lenses and there were not enough data to accurately measure or determine possible harmful effects with certainty.

How up-to-date is this review?

The Cochrane Review authors searched for studies that had been published up to 22 March 2022.

S U M M A R Y O F F I N D I N G S

Summary of findings 1. Summary of findings 1: blue-light filtering lenses compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses

Blue-light filtering lenses compared with non-blue-light filtering lenses

Patient or population: adults

Setting: any setting

Blue-light

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(Review)

Intervention: blue-light filtering lenses

Comparison: non-blue-light filtering lenses

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1 study reported adverse events in only the active intervention (blue-light filtering lens) group (n = 3/13 participants) [\(Henriksen 2016](#page-28-12)).

1 study reported an identical number of adverse events across both the active intervention and control arms ($n = 4/10$ versus $n = 4/10$) ([Esaki](#page-28-6) [2017](#page-28-6)).

2 studies reported more adverse events in the control arm than with the active intervention ($n = 0/19$ versus $n = 2/16$, and $n = 4/44$ versus $n = 7/44$ participants) ([Danilenko](#page-28-13) 2019; [Esaki 2020](#page-28-7)).

*The risk in the intervention group (and its 95% confidence interval) is based on the assumed risk in the comparison group and the relative effect of the intervention (and its 95% CI).

BCVA: best-corrected visual acuity; CI: confidence interval; MD: mean difference; CFF: critical flicker-fusion frequency; Hz; hertz; VAS; visual analogue scale; FM: Farnsworth Munsell.; RCT: randomised controlled trial.

GRADE Working Group grades of evidence.

High quality: further research is very unlikely to change our confidence in the estimate of effect.

Moderate quality: further research is likely to have an important impact on our confidence in the estimate of effect and may change the estimate.

Low **quality**: further research is very likely to have an important impact on our confidence in the estimate of effect and is likely to change the estimate.

Very low quality: we are very uncertain about the estimate.

*a*Downgraded two levels for risk of bias and imprecision, because outcome assessors were not masked in one study [\(Dabrowiecki](#page-28-3) 2020), one study did not mask participants and study personnel [\(Lin 2017](#page-28-2)), and one study had wide confidence intervals [\(Singh 2021](#page-28-1)).

bDowngraded one level each for risk of bias and inconsistency, because one study did not mask participants and study personnel [\(Lin 2017](#page-28-2)), and one study showed no intergroup differences [\(Singh 2021](#page-28-1)) while the other reported a positive effect with the blue-light filtering intervention ([Lin 2017\)](#page-28-2).

cDowngraded one level for risk of bias, because data derived from one study, in which the outcome assessor was not masked ([Hammond 2015\)](#page-28-4).

dDowngraded three levels for risk of bias, imprecision and inconsistency. In four studies, participants or study personnel, or both, were not masked ([Burkhart 2009](#page-28-5); [Janku](#page-28-8) 2020; [Knufinke](#page-28-9) 2019; [Shechter](#page-28-10) 2018), and in three studies outcome assessors were not masked [\(Burkhart 2009;](#page-28-5) [Knufinke](#page-28-9) 2019; [Shechter](#page-28-10) 2018). Two studies were at high risk of other bias due to significant baseline imbalance [\(Burkhart 2009](#page-28-5); [Esaki 2017\)](#page-28-6). Further, the included studies had small sample sizes and reported variable findings.

eDowngraded two levels for risk of bias and inconsistency. In four studies, participants and study personnel were not masked ([Burkhart 2009](#page-28-5); [Janku](#page-28-8) 2020; Perez [Algorta](#page-28-11) 2018; [Shechter](#page-28-10) 2018), and in four studies outcome assessors were not masked ([Burkhart 2009](#page-28-5); [Henriksen 2016;](#page-28-12) Perez [Algorta](#page-28-11) 2018; [Shechter](#page-28-10) 2018). Two studies were at high risk of other bias due to significant baseline imbalance [\(Burkhart 2009](#page-28-5); [Esaki 2017\)](#page-28-6). Further, the reported adverse events were observed to vary across the studies.

B A C K G R O U N D

Description of the condition

The ubiquitous use of technology and increasing exposure to modern lighting sources that emit relatively higher amounts of blue light than traditional light sources (e.g. light emitting diodes (LEDs) and compact fluorescent lamps [\(O'Hagan](#page-34-0) 2016)), both in working and domestic environments, has raised questions concerning the potential adverse effects of excessive exposure to short-wavelength visible light. In terms of digital devices, use of LED-backlit liquid crystal displays has been associated with both symptoms of visual fatigue and changes to visual function, as quantified by a relative reduction in critical fusion frequency (CFF), the frequency at which an intermittent (flickering) light stimulus appears to be in a complete steady stage to a human observer [\(Isono 2013](#page-33-0)). In modern times, the range of eye- and visionrelated symptoms associated with prolonged computer, tablet, and e-reader use has been collectively defined as a multifactorial condition known as "Computer Vision Syndrome" (CVS) ([American](#page-31-0) Optometric [Association](#page-31-0) 1995; American Optometry [Association](#page-31-1) [2018](#page-31-1); [Sheppard](#page-35-0) 2018).

Asthenopic symptoms, such as sore eyes, eye fatigue, headaches, blurred vision, and dry eye, have been reported to affect up to 90% of computer users ([Rosenfield](#page-34-1) 2011). However, given the multifactorial nature of CVS, and that other ocular conditions (e.g. binocular vision disorders, uncorrected refractive error or presbyopia, and tear film dysfunction) can elicit similar symptomatology, the relative contribution of blue light to CVS is difficult to ascertain. Despite the absence of a clear link between blue light and CVS, claims have been made in relation to the potential adverse effects of blue light emission from digital devices. This potential association forms the rationale for a variety of commercially-available interventions that reduce bluelight transmission to the eye (e.g. spectacle lenses, downloadable software applications, filter attachments to digital device screens, and changing internal settings on electronic devices, such as 'night mode' settings) [\(Singh 2019](#page-35-1)).

With respect to potential effects on sleep, the increasing use of digital devices that emit relatively higher levels of short-wavelength visible light than traditional incandescent light sources (e.g. LEDbacklit computer displays) has also raised concerns about the $effect(s)$ of blue light (particularly evening exposure) on sleep. Such effects on human chronobiology are considered to depend upon the timing, duration, intensity, and spectral composition of the light exposure ([Czeisler](#page-32-0) 2013). Some epidemiological evidence supports an association between evening use of electronic devices and adverse sleep quality, altered circadian timing and reduced daytime alertness ([Chang 2015](#page-31-2); [Gamble 2014\)](#page-32-1). However, experimental investigation has also failed to demonstrate an association between short-duration (one hour or less) screen use immediately prior to bedtime and altered sleep onset ([Heath](#page-33-1) [2014](#page-33-1)). Some evidence suggests disruptions to biological cycles and circadian rhythm can potentially have adverse effects on a diverse range of health parameters [\(Hatori](#page-33-2) 2017), including associations between abnormal sleeping patterns and serious conditions such as sleep disorders ([Flo 2013](#page-32-2)), metabolic dysfunction [\(Karlsson](#page-33-3) [2001](#page-33-3)), and cancer ([Kolstad](#page-33-4) 2008). Understanding the role of bluelight filters in reducing such outcomes thus has significant public health implications.

In terms of potential effects on macular health, the maintenance of macular integrity is essential to normal visual function. In 2010, it was estimated that 2.1 million people worldwide were blind, and 6.0 million people were visually impaired, as a consequence of macular disease ([Jonas 2014](#page-33-5)). A leading cause of macular disease and adult vision impairment is age-related macular degeneration (AMD) [\(Coleman 2008](#page-31-3); [Congdon](#page-31-4) 2004; [Pascolini](#page-34-2) [2012\)](#page-34-2), a slowly progressive retinal degenerative condition that increases in prevalence with age ([Owen](#page-34-3) 2003; [Wong 2014\)](#page-35-2). About one-third of individuals aged 80 years will show some clinical signs of AMD ([Klein 1992\)](#page-33-6), with approximately 6% having late-stage AMD by this age, and 20% at age 90 [\(Rudnicka](#page-34-4) 2012). Risk factors for AMD include genetic factors [\(Klein 2005](#page-33-7); [Warwick](#page-35-3) 2017; [Yang](#page-36-1) [2006\)](#page-36-1), and tobacco smoking [\(Downie](#page-32-3) 2014; [Thornton](#page-35-4) 2005). It is currently unclear how other factors, including short-wavelength light exposure, might contribute to the development of AMD, progression of AMD, or both [\(Beatty](#page-31-5) 1999). Given there is currently no means for preventing AMD onset, nor a cure for the disease, there is significant interest in novel methods for preserving macular integrity through life.

Description of the intervention

Sunlight comprises electromagnetic radiation ranging from ultraviolet (UV) to infrared (IR). UV radiation encompasses wavelengths from approximately 200 nanometres (nm) to 400 nm [\(Youssef](#page-36-2) 2011). The visible light spectrum falls approximately between 400 nm to 760 nm, with 'short-wavelength' visible (blue) light ranging from 400 nm to 500 nm ([Mainster](#page-34-5) 2005).

Blue-light filtering, also termed 'blue-blocking', spectacle lenses are ophthalmic lenses (generally prescribed in prescription glasses) that are designed to selectively attenuate the transmission of UV radiation and short-wavelength visible light [\(Leung](#page-33-8) 2013; [Mainster](#page-34-6) [2006;](#page-34-6) [Singh 2019](#page-35-1)). This is in contrast to standard spectacle lenses, which do not filter blue light and provide varying degrees of inherentUV protection depending on the lens material used (e.g. an uncoated polycarbonate material will inherently provide relatively greater UV attenuation than an uncoated CR-39 material lens).

Blue-light filtering spectacle lenses often contain a chromophore that reduces or eliminates the amount of blue light that reaches the eye. Another approach involves coating the posterior and anterior lens surfaces with an anti-reflection interference coating that selectively decreases transmission of a portion of the bluelight spectrum; the target range of wavelengths is typically 415 nm to 455 nm, corresponding to the region of the spectrum considered to impart the highest risk of ocular damage [\(Boulton](#page-31-6) 2001).

A range of blue-light filtering spectacle lenses is currently commercially available; examples include blueEast (Bonastar), Blue control (Hoya), Crizal prevencia (Essilor), Dura vision/blue protect (Zeiss), Gunnar (GUNNAR Optics), Kodak Total Blue (Signet Armolite Inc), and StressFree (Swisscoat).

How the intervention might work

By reducing the intraocular transmission of short-wavelength visible light, blue-light filtering spectacle lenses are hypothesised to potentially impart a range of benefits, including improving visual performance with digital device use, providing retinal protection from light-induced damage, and minimising sleep and circadian

rhythm disruption associated with evening use of blue-light emitting devices.

Despite the existence of studies that have investigated the application of blue-light filtering spectacle lenses for reducing the signs or symptoms of CVS, or both [\(Leung](#page-33-8) 2013; [Lin 2017](#page-28-14); [Singh 2021](#page-28-15)), the specific mechanism(s) underlying how these devices might impart such benefit(s) are not known. The rationale for claims that blue-light filtering lenses attenuate CVS is based upon the premise that modern digital devices (that emit relatively higher amounts of blue light than traditional lighting sources) are frequently being used for several hours per day and many device users experience ocular discomfort ([Sheppard](#page-35-0) 2018). Given that there is a correlation between discomfort glare sensitivity and brightness sensitivity with blue LEDs [\(Kimura-Minoda](#page-33-9) 2011), a potential mechanism may involve a reduction in discomfort glare; however, there is no direct evidence to support this hypothesis.

With respect to the potential for intraocular light transmission to pose an ocular hazard, retinal exposure to certain wavelengths of radiation is fortunately limited by the physiological absorbance characteristics of the anterior eye. Ultraviolet wavelengths below 300 nm are absorbed by the cornea [\(Boettner](#page-31-7) 1962), and wavelengths between 300 nm and 400 nm are predominantly attenuated by the crystalline lens ([Boettner](#page-31-7) 1962; [Norren](#page-34-7) 1974). With age, the crystalline lens becomes relatively less transparent and more yellow in colour, resulting in a reduction in the degree of retinal transmission of short-wavelength visible light (400 nm to 500 nm), effectively acting as a natural blue-light filter [\(van](#page-35-5) [Norren](#page-35-5) 2007). The change in lenticular absorbance of blue light occurs exponentially ([Weale](#page-35-6) 1988), such that by 50 years of age, only 20% of short-wavelength visible light reaches the retina [\(Dillon](#page-32-4) [2004](#page-32-4)). In this respect, it is unclear how blue-light filtering spectacle lenses might provide any benefit(s) in adults with a physiologicallyyellowed lens due to age.

A population that theoretically may be relatively advantaged by blue-light filtering spectacle lenses is people who have undergone cataract surgery, with implantation of an intraocular lens (IOL) that enables relatively more blue-light transmittance than the aged crystalline lens (i.e. a UV-only filtering IOL) [\(Dillon 2004\)](#page-32-4). There is experimental evidence from animal studies [\(Ham 1982](#page-32-5); [Noell 1966\)](#page-34-8), and cell culture experiments ([Sparrow](#page-35-7) 2004), which demonstrates that short-wavelength visible light exposure can induce retinal phototoxicity. The mechanism involves retinal photochemical damage [\(Youssef](#page-36-2) 2011), as a result of reactive oxygen species (ROS) generation, which induces protein oxidation and lipid peroxidation [\(Boulton](#page-31-6) 2001). Whilst the retina has several mechanisms of defence to mitigate ROS-dependent damage, these processes become less efficient with age [\(Margrain](#page-34-9) 2004), thus potentially rendering the ageing retina more vulnerable to phototoxicity. As a result of their relatively high oxygen requirements, the retinal pigment epithelium and photoreceptors are considered most susceptible to blue light-induced photochemical damage ([Ham](#page-32-6) [1978](#page-32-6); [Ham 1984](#page-33-10)). This experimental evidence provides the basis for a hypothesis that blue light may also induce retinal damage in humans and contribute to macular changes in AMD. In this respect, spectacle lenses that attenuate retinal blue-light exposure have been proposed to potentially be valuable for providing macular protection, and reducing the risk of AMD development and/or progression ([Beatty](#page-31-5) 1999; [Bernstein](#page-31-8) 2010); a similar rationale applies to the implantation of blue-light filtering IOLs, following

cataract surgery, however evidence for such a benefit is currently lacking [\(Downie](#page-32-7) 2018).

Blue light also has potential effects on sleep quality and circadian rhythm [\(Mainster](#page-34-6) 2006). The circadian clock is regulated by the suprachiasmatic nucleus in the hypothalamus, which controls melatonin secretion from the pineal gland ([Goel 2013](#page-32-8)). Daytime blue-light exposure can promote subjective alertness by inhibiting the secretion of melatonin [\(Viola 2008](#page-35-8)). It follows that evening light exposure, particularly to short-wavelength light (between 465 nm and 495 nm), may disrupt the physiological circadian clock through a similar mechanism ([Khalsa 2003](#page-33-11); [McIntyre](#page-34-10) 1989; [Rahman](#page-34-11) 2014; [Zeitzer](#page-36-3) 2000). This effect has received particular attention owing to the extensive use of digital devices in the evening, close to bedtime, and the potential impacts of this exposure on disrupting sleep quantity and quality ([Chinoy](#page-31-9) 2018). Based upon this rationale, it has been proposed that limiting intraocular exposure to blue light in the evening, through measures such as blue-light filtering spectacle filters and using 'night mode' settings on devices that reduce blue light emissions, may be of value for mitigating these potentially negative effects on sleep. Similar rationale has been proposed for the use of these interventions in promoting sleep in people with major depression and bipolar disorders [\(Esaki 2017;](#page-28-16) [Henriksen 2020\)](#page-28-17).

Why it is important to do this review

There remains significant debate surrounding whether bluelight filtering spectacle lenses have merit in ophthalmic practice [\(Downie](#page-32-9) 2017). These lenses are frequently prescribed (sometimes in preference to standard spectacles lenses) in eye care practice [\(Singh 2019\)](#page-35-1), and a range of marketing claims exist surrounding their potential benefits. In particular, it has been proposed that blue-light filtering spectacles may alleviate eye strain associated with digital device use ([Ide 2015;](#page-29-0) [Lin 2017](#page-28-14)), improve sleep quality [\(Ayaki](#page-31-10) 2016), and protect the retina, specifically the macula, from phototoxicity (Blue Light [Exposed](#page-31-11) 2015; [Symes 2012](#page-35-9)). However, in 2015, the UK Advertising Standards Authority (ASA) found that an advertisement by an optical retailer promoting the use of bluelight filtering spectacle lenses to "filter out harmful blue light" represented misleading advertising "in the absence of adequate substantiation" linking blue-light exposure to retinal damage in clinical populations ([McCormick 2016](#page-34-12); UK [Advertising](#page-35-10) Standards [Authority](#page-35-10) 2015).

There is currently a relative paucity of clinical evidence to support many claims surrounding the deleterious effects of blue-light exposure. Although ocular discomfort symptoms have been longassociated with computer and video display terminal use [\(Smith](#page-35-11) [1981;](#page-35-11) [Ustinaviciene](#page-35-12) 2006), the relative contribution of blue light per se (rather than other potential causative factors, such binocular vision anomalies, postural factors and/or tear film dysfunction) remains unclear.

In terms of potential effects on sleep, a recent systematic review and meta-analysis (which allowed the inclusion of randomised controlled trials (RCTs), cohort, and cross-sectional studies) reported a significant association between portable screenbased media device (e.g. cell phone and table devices) access or use in the sleep environment and poorer sleep outcomes (including inadequate quantity, poor quality and excessive daytime sleepiness) in children ([Carter](#page-31-12) 2016). However, as acknowledged by the authors of the review, the certainty of the evidence (assessed

using the GRADE approach) was judged as low due to a necessary reliance on non-randomised studies [\(Carter](#page-31-12) 2016). Thus, there is the potential for the true effect to be substantially different from the reported effect estimate.

Concerning the potential effect(s) of blue-light filtering spectacles in imparting macular protection, 10 out of the 12 major populationbased studies that sought to determine whether there was a relationship between light exposure and AMD did not report a positive association ([Mainster](#page-34-6) 2006). Similarly, it is unclear whether age-related cataract surgery, in which removal of the aged crystalline lens (which acts as a physiological blue filter) and its replacement with a non-blue-light filtering IOL, is a risk factor for AMD development, AMD progression, or both. Although some studies have reported a positive association between cataract surgery and AMD [\(Klein 1998](#page-33-12); [Liu 1989](#page-34-13)), others have found an absence of relationship with respect to the risk of developing latestage AMD in individuals with earlier stages of the condition [\(Baatz](#page-31-13) [2008](#page-31-13); [Chew](#page-31-14) 2009). Notably, observational studies have important methodological limitations, including the potential influences of bias and confounding, which limit the interpretation of these findings.

Given the relative attenuation of short-wavelength visible light with a blue-light filter, any potentially undesirable effects on visual function, in particular alterations to colour discrimination, also need to be considered. In the context of blue-light filtering IOLs, a recent systematic review by [Downie](#page-32-7) 2018 concluded that, due to a paucity of studies, it is currently unclear whether these devices affect colour vision relative to non-blue-light filtering IOLs. The status of the evidence relating to blue-light filtering spectacle lenses also requires clarification.

A recent systematic review investigating the potential benefits and adverse events of different interventions for treating CVS concluded that blue-light filtering spectacles are ineffective in reducing visual fatigue associated with computer use, compared to non-blue-light filtering spectacles, based on findings reported from three RCTs [\(Singh 2022\)](#page-35-13). There is a need to clarify whether blue-light filtering spectacles affect other parameters, such as visual performance, sleep, and macular health [\(Lawrenson](#page-33-13) 2017). A rigorous systematic review, considering the best-available RCT evidence, is essential to objectively evaluate the relative appropriateness of prescribing blue-light filtering ophthalmic lenses for these purposes. The relative benefits and potential harms of these devices also need to be considered. This knowledge has the capacity to inform clinical practice guidelines relating to the prescription of blue-light filtering spectacle lenses, and thus is of strong relevance to clinicians, patients, researchers, and the broader ophthalmic community. We expect that this systematic review may also identify important areas for future research in the field, to fill any evidence gaps.

O B J E C T I V E S

To assess the effects of blue-light filtering lenses compared with non-blue-light filtering lenses, for improving visual performance, providing macular protection, and improving sleep quality in adults.

M E T H O D S

Criteria for considering studies for this review

Types of studies

We only included randomised controlled trials (RCTs).

Types of participants

We included trials in which participants were adults (i.e. at least 18 years of age).

Types of interventions

We included RCTs that compared blue-light filtering spectacle lenses with non-blue-light filtering spectacle lenses. We excluded studies that investigated blue-light filtering spectacle lenses in combination with any other intervention, unless the same intervention was also used in the comparator group.

Types of outcome measures

Primary outcomes

The prespecified primary outcomes, measured at one-month of follow-up, were:

- the change in visual fatigue or discomfort, measured using a questionnaire or visual analogue scale; and
- the change in CFF, measured in Hertz (Hz).

CFF is defined as the frequency at which a flickering light stimulus appears to be continuous to a human observer ([Iwasaki](#page-33-14) 1991). It is regarded as an indicator of arousal levels [\(Davranche](#page-32-10) 2005), and is also often used as an outcome measure to quantify visual fatigue in studies investigating interventions for CVS ([Lin 2017;](#page-28-14) [Morita](#page-34-14) 2018; [Nagaki](#page-34-15) 2002; [Okamoto](#page-34-16) 2018; [Ozawa](#page-34-17) 2015; [Singh 2021;](#page-28-15) [Stringham](#page-35-14) [2017;](#page-35-14) [Yamashita](#page-35-15) 2019; [Zhang 2004](#page-36-4)). Acknowledging that there remains some debate about the validity of CFF as a measure of visual fatigue (Yan [2022\)](#page-35-16), in the absence of a gold-standard measure for quantifying visual fatigue, we selected CFF as a co-primary outcome measure, in addition to symptoms, for this review.

For both of these outcomes, the acceptable follow-up range was defined as between two weeks and three months.

Secondary outcomes

We considered the following secondary outcomes:

- change in best-corrected visual acuity (BCVA), with or without (disability) glare, measured in logMAR;
- change in contrast sensitivity, measured in log contrast sensitivity, with and without (disability) glare;
- change in discomfort glare, measured using a questionnaire (e.g. de Boer scale) or objectively (e.g. electromyogram);
- proportion of eyes, or individuals (as determined by the unit of analysis), with a finding of a pathological structural change at the macula, detected by clinical observation, optical coherence tomography (OCT) or retinal fundus photography;
- change in colour discrimination, considered as the standard mean difference for panel tests (e.g. Farnsworth D15 and 100hue) or the number of errors on plate tests (e.g. Ishihara), measured under photopic, mesopic, or scotopic conditions;

- daytime alertness, considered as the proportion of participants who had reduced daytime alertness, measured using a subjective scale;
- change in serum melatonin levels, measured in pg/mL;
- sleep quality, measured using questionnaires or rating scales;
- overall patient satisfaction with their visual performance, measured using questionnaires or rating scales.

The secondary outcomes were measured at one month (with an acceptable range of two weeks to three months), except for the 'proportion of eyes, or individuals, with a finding of a pathological structural change atthe macula',whichwas measured at 12 months (with an acceptable range of six to 24 months).

Adverse effects

We extracted data relating to both ocular and systematic adverse events from the included studies.

Search methods for identification of studies

Electronic searches

The Cochrane Eyes and Vision Information Specialist searched the following databases for randomised controlled trials and controlled clinical trials. There were no restrictions to language or year of publication. The date of the search was 22 March 2022.

- Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (CENTRAL) (which contains the Cochrane Eyes and Vision Trials Register) in the Cochrane Library (searched 22 March 2022) [\(Appendix 1](#page-97-1)).
- MEDLINE Ovid (1946 to 22 March 2022) ([Appendix 2\)](#page-98-0).
- Embase Ovid (1980 to 22 March 2022) [\(Appendix 3](#page-98-1)).
- LILACS (1982 to 22 March 2022) [\(Appendix 4\)](#page-99-0).
- ISRCTN registry [\(www.isrctn.com/editAdvancedSearch](http://www.isrctn.com/editAdvancedSearch); searched 22 March 2022) ([Appendix 5](#page-99-1)).
- US National Institutes of Health Ongoing Trials Register ClinicalTrials.gov [\(www.clinicaltrials.gov;](http://www.clinicaltrials.gov) searched 22 March 2022) [\(Appendix 6\)](#page-99-2).
- World Health Organization (WHO) International Clinical Trials Registry Platform (ICTRP) [\(www.who.int/ictrp](http://www.who.int/ictrp); searched 22 March 2022) ([Appendix 7\)](#page-99-3).

Searching other resources

We searched the bibliographies of included RCTs to identify any other potentially relevant studies.

Data collection and analysis

Selection of studies

We adopted a two-stage process to identify relevant RCTs.

First, two review authors (two of LED, SS, and PM) independently evaluated the title and abstract results from the search strategies, to identify studies potentially suitable for inclusion. We then obtained full-text articles of records that at least one review author judged as relevant, or possibly relevant. Two review authors (two of LED, SS, and PM) then independently assessed each full-text article and assessed its suitability for inclusion, according to the [Criteria](#page-12-2) for [considering](#page-12-2) studies for this review.

Any disagreements in classification were resolved by discussion and consensus between the two review authors; if required, we consulted a third review author for a final judgement with respect to eligibility.

For records where more information was considered necessary to determine eligibility, we contacted the trial authors by email to request this information. If we did not receive a response within four weeks, we used the information provided within the fulltext article to assess eligibility. We provided details relating to the reason for excluding studies that progress to the full-text review stage, in the [Characteristics](#page-80-0) of excluded studies table.

Data extraction and management

Two review authors (two of LED, SS, AL, EM, PM, JL, and CH) independently extracted key study data (detailed in [Appendix 8\)](#page-99-4) using [Covidence.](#page-31-15) The relevant information captured included details of the study design, country, setting, participant characteristics, number of participants, outcomes, results, and any other relevant information (e.g. funding sources, declarations of interest). Wherever possible, we extracted quantitative data for our prespecified outcomes.

The two review authors resolved any discrepancies in data extraction by discussion to reach consensus; if necessary, they consulted a third review author. After reaching consensus in Covidence, one review author (SS) exported the collated data into Cochrane's Review Manager Web [\(RevMan](#page-34-18) Web) software (RevMan [Web 2022](#page-34-18)), and a second review author independently verified the data.

Assessment of risk of bias in included studies

Two review authors (two of LED, SS, AL, EM, PM, JL, and CH) independently assessed the risk of bias in each of the included RCTs using the guidelines in Chapter 8 of the *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Review of Interventions* ([Higgins 2017\)](#page-33-15). Risk of bias was evaluated in the following domains.

- Selection bias (random sequence generation and allocation concealment)
- Performance bias (masking of participants and personnel)
- Detection bias (masking of outcome assessment)
- Attrition bias (incomplete outcome data)
- Reporting bias (selective reporting of outcomes)
- Other bias (funding source, other conflicts of interest)

We performed risk of bias assessments for cross-over studies in a similar way to parallel-arm design studies. Carry-over and/ or washout-period effects generally relevant to cross-over study designs were considered unlikely to occur in studies relevant to this review, as any potential benefits or harms derived from the optical intervention would likely only occur during the acute phase of exposure, with minimal longevity to any such potential effect(s) upon cessation.

Two review authors (two of LED, SS, AL, EM, PM, JL, and CH) judged the risk of each bias in each of the included studies as: (i) low risk, (ii) unclear risk (due to either lack of information or uncertainty over the potential for bias) or (iii) high risk. We resolved any disagreements in risk of bias assessment by consensus.

Measures of treatment effect

We undertook the data analyses according to the approach described in Chapter 9 of the *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions* [\(Deeks 2017\)](#page-32-11).

For continuous outcomes, we extracted information on the change from baseline of the outcome measures for the intervention and comparator groups at the specified follow-up period(s). We extracted data as means and standard deviations (SDs) of the changes. Where measures of change were not reported, we extracted the mean and SD values of the outcome for the intervention and comparator groups at the specified follow-up period(s).

We expressed treatment effects as the mean difference (MD), with 95% confidence intervals (CIs), between the intervention and comparator groups. For studies that had more than one intervention or control group, we had planned to combined data from the relevant study groups, as appropriate. However, there were no instances where this was required.

For dichotomous outcomes, we had planned to extract the proportion of participants who experienced the outcome of interest in the intervention and comparator groups and to present these data as risk ratios (RRs) with 95% CIs.However, no combinable data were available for these outcomes.

Unit of analysis issues

The unit of analysis was the study participant.

When a study reported data on more than one eye per participant, we had planned to follow the guidelines for clustering or pairedeye designs as described in Chapter 16 of the *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions* ([Higgins 2011\)](#page-33-16). When only one eye per person was included in the trial, we had planned to document how the eye was selected (if specified in the study report). If individual participants were randomly allocated to the intervention, but data from both eyes were included and reported, we had proposed to analyse this as clustered data, with an adjustment for within-person correlation.

However, as no quantitative analyses were feasible, these factors were not relevant to the current narrative synthesis. Further, crossover studies were treated similar to parallel-arm design studies; no unit of analysis issues were identified.

Dealing with missing data

For all reporting, we used the information available in the full-text publications.

We had planned to use imputed data if the trial authors reported these data, and had derived the data using a robust method. We had not planned to directly impute data ourselves. However, no imputed data were described in the included studies.

Assessment of heterogeneity

If meta-analyses had been performed, we had planned to assess heterogeneity using the recommendations outlined in Chapter 9 of the *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions* [\(Deeks 2017](#page-32-11)). However, this step was not required because quantitative data syntheses were not feasible.

Assessment of reporting biases

For each eligible study, we assessed selective outcome reporting as part of the risk of bias assessment.

We had intended to assess for potential publication bias using a funnel plot, if there were 10 or more studies to include in a metaanalysis, by interpreting any asymmetries in the funnel plot in association with the trial characteristics, and by considering factors such as sample size. However, as we were unable to perform any meta-analyses due to lack of combinable data, we could not assess for potential publication bias.

Data synthesis

We had intended to perform meta-analyses for the primary and secondary outcomes, and to use a fixed-effect model if there were fewer than three trials or a random-effects model if there were three or more trials with relevant data. We had planned to assess for inconsistency in the trial findings (e.g. effects in different directions, or 1^2 statistic > 60%, or a Chi² test P value < 0.10). If we did not consider the pooled result to provide an appropriate summary of the findings, we had planned to describe the pattern of individual trial results. Further, if statistical heterogeneity was noted but all the effect estimates were in a consistent direction such that a pooled estimate would seem to provide an appropriate summary of the individual RCT results, we had planned to pool these data in a meta-analysis.

However, we did not perform meta-analyses in this review as the study populations, outcome measures, frequency and time of spectacle wear, and intervention follow-up periods varied substantially across the included studies. It was our view that pooled estimates would not be meaningful. Hence, we have provided descriptive summaries of individual trial findings for each outcome measure.

Subgroup analysis and investigation of heterogeneity

In our protocol, we had specified that if sufficient quantitative data were available, we would perform subgroup analyses to consider the potential effects of participant age (less than 40 years versus 40 years or older), degree of blue-light attenuation imparted by the blue-light filtering lens product ('high' block versus 'low' block), and extent of digital device use (less than two hours per day versus two or more hours per day). However, as meta-analyses were not performed, we also could not undertake any subgroup analyses.

Sensitivity analysis

We had planned to perform a sensitivity analysis on the primary outcome measures, to assess for the effects of excluding trials that: (i) we judged to have a high risk of bias due in the domains of allocation concealment or lack of masking (participants and personnel, or outcome assessors), (ii) were unpublished, and (iii) were funded by industry. However, there was an insufficient number of studies to perform this analysis.

Summary of findings and assessment of the certainty of the evidence

We created a summary of findings table summarising the results of the analyses, using the approach described in Chapter 11 of the *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions* [\(Schünemann 2017](#page-34-19)).

We adopted the GRADE Working Group approach to grade the certainty of evidence [\(GRADEpro](#page-32-12) GDT).

Outcomes, measured between the intervention and control groups, included:

- change in subjective visual fatigue or discomfort;
- change in CFF;
- change in BCVA, with or without (disability) glare;
- proportion of eyes, or individuals, with a finding of pathological structural change at the macula;
- change in colour discrimination;
- sleep quality;
- proportion of participants with adverse events with a probable causal link with the study intervention.

For continuous outcomes, we extracted information on the change from baseline to one month of follow-up (with an acceptable range of two weeks to three months). For dichotomous outcomes, we extracted the proportion of participants in the intervention and comparator groups who experienced the outcome of interest at the follow-up period(s) reported by the trial authors.

R E S U L T S

Description of studies

Results of the search

The electronic database searches performed on 22 March 2022 identified a total of 259 records [\(Figure](#page-16-0) 1). The Cochrane Information Specialist removed 74 duplicate records, and two review authors independently screened titles/abstracts of a total of 185 records. Of these, 60 records were judged to be relevant, or potentially relevant, and proceeded to the full-text review stage.

Figure 1. Study flow diagram

Two review authors independently screened the full-text articles. We included 20 reports of 17 studies and excluded 32 studies (see [Characteristics](#page-80-0) of excluded studies). Three trials were published as conference abstracts, and we could not identify full-text publications. Hence, these three conference abstracts are awaiting classification [\(Smolders](#page-30-0) 2016; Wolffsohn 2007; [Youngstrom](#page-30-2) 2014) (see [Characteristics](#page-81-0) of studies awaiting classification). We classified five listings in clinical trial registries as 'potentially relevant' ongoing studies (see [Characteristics](#page-85-0) of ongoing studies); two of these trials were marked as not yet recruiting ([NCT04904328](#page-30-3); [NCT05206747\)](#page-30-4), one study was marked as active but not recruiting ([NCT03114072](#page-30-5)), one trial was marked as recruiting [\(NCT04578249\)](#page-30-6), and one study was marked as having completed study participant recruitment but had not published their study results [\(ChiCTR1800020191](#page-30-7)).

Included studies

We included 17 unique trials that had published full texts. [Table](#page-94-1) [1](#page-94-1) presents the key characteristics of these studies, including their designs, participant population(s), comparator(s), recruited sample size, and intervention duration. Further study-specific details are provided in the [Characteristics](#page-36-5) of included studies table.

Types of studies

The 17 trials were published between 2009 and 2021. Of these, nine had a parallel-arm trial design ([Burkhart 2009](#page-28-18); [Danilenko](#page-28-19) 2019; [Esaki 2017;](#page-28-16) [Esaki 2020;](#page-28-20) [Henriksen 2016](#page-28-21); [Henriksen 2020;](#page-28-17) [Janku](#page-33-17) [2020](#page-33-17); [Lin 2017](#page-28-14); [Singh 2021\)](#page-28-15), and the remaining eight trials were cross-over studies.

The unit ofrandomisation was the participantin all studies, and the unit of analysis was also the participant in most studies ([Alzahrani](#page-28-22) [2021](#page-28-22); [Alzahrani](#page-28-23) 2020; [Bigalke](#page-28-24) 2021; [Burkhart 2009;](#page-28-18) [Dabrowiecki](#page-28-25) [2020](#page-28-25); [Danilenko](#page-28-19) 2019; [Esaki 2017](#page-28-16); [Esaki 2020](#page-28-20); [Henriksen 2016](#page-28-21); [Henriksen 2020](#page-28-17); [Janku](#page-33-17) 2020; [Knufinke](#page-28-26) 2019; [Lin 2017;](#page-28-14) Perez [Algorta](#page-28-27) [2018](#page-28-27); [Shechter](#page-28-28) 2018; [Singh 2021](#page-28-15)). In one study, the unit of analysis was a randomly selected eye [\(Hammond 2015\)](#page-28-29).

Types of participants

In total the 17 included studies recruited 619 participants, with individual sample sizes ranging from five to 156 participants. The intervention duration ranged from less than one day to five weeks, but was not reported in three studies [\(Alzahrani](#page-28-22) 2021; [Alzahrani](#page-28-23) [2020](#page-28-23); [Hammond 2015](#page-28-29)).

The studies were conducted across six countries: five in the USA [\(Bigalke](#page-28-24) 2021; [Burkhart 2009](#page-28-18); [Hammond 2015](#page-28-29); [Lin 2017](#page-28-14); [Shechter](#page-28-28) [2018](#page-28-28)), two in Norway [\(Henriksen 2016;](#page-28-21) [Henriksen 2020](#page-28-17)), two in Japan [\(Esaki 2017;](#page-28-16) [Esaki 2020\)](#page-28-20), one in the UK (Perez [Algorta](#page-28-27) 2018), one in Australia [\(Singh 2021](#page-28-15)), and one in the Czech Republic ([Janku](#page-33-17) [2020](#page-33-17)). Five studies did not report the country in which the trial was conducted ([Alzahrani](#page-28-22) 2021; [Alzahrani](#page-28-23) 2020; [Dabrowiecki](#page-28-25) 2020; [Danilenko](#page-28-19) 2019; [Knufinke](#page-28-26) 2019).

The participant inclusion criteria varied across the included studies, as follows.

- Healthy volunteers with uncorrected vision or contact lens– corrected vision of 20/30 or better with both eyes [\(Lin 2017](#page-28-14))
- Symptomatic computer users [\(Singh 2021](#page-28-15))
- Participants with no history of ocular disease or abnormal vision ([Alzahrani](#page-28-23) 2020)
- Recreational athletes [\(Knufinke](#page-28-26) 2019)
- Radiology residents ([Dabrowiecki](#page-28-25) 2020)
- Participants with bilateral pseudophakia and ≥3 months postimplantation with clear IOLs [\(Hammond 2015](#page-28-29))
- Undergraduate students with sleep complaints/disorders [\(Perez](#page-28-27) [Algorta](#page-28-27) 2018)
- Participants with chronic insomnia symptoms ([Shechter](#page-28-28) 2018)
- Participants with sleep difficulty (sleep onset insomnia, midsleep insomnia, and terminal insomnia) ([Burkhart 2009](#page-28-18))
- Participants with bipolar disorder diagnosis ([Esaki 2020;](#page-28-20) [Henriksen 2016;](#page-28-21) [Henriksen 2020\)](#page-28-17)
- Participants with an insomnia diagnosis ([Janku](#page-33-17) 2020)
- Participants with major depressive disorder with sleep onset insomnia ([Esaki 2017\)](#page-28-16)
- Participants with major depressive disorder or persistent depressive disorder (dysthymia) ([Danilenko](#page-28-19) 2019)
- Healthy participants with no information relating to the inclusion criteria [\(Alzahrani](#page-28-22) 2021; [Bigalke](#page-28-24) 2021)

Types of interventions

All trials compared blue-light filtering spectacle lenses with nonblue-light filtering spectacle lenses.

[Table](#page-94-1) 1 provides details of the type of blue-light filtering spectacle lenses used in the included trials. Although most studies investigated and compared one type of blue-light filtering spectacle lens with a non-blue-light filtering spectacle lens, two studies compared different brands of blue-light filtering spectacle lenses with non-blue-light filtering lenses [\(Alzahrani](#page-28-22) 2021; [Alzahrani](#page-28-23) 2020), and one study compared blue-light filtering spectacle lenses that attenuated a relatively high or low percentage of blue light, with non-blue-light filtering spectacle lenses [\(Lin 2017](#page-28-14)).

Outcomes

Most of the studies included in this review reported the outcome(s) at a shorter follow-up period of two weeks or less. The time point of interest defined in our protocol involved outcomes measured at one month of follow-up, with an acceptable follow-up range of between two weeks and three months ([Downie](#page-36-6) 2019b). The exception to this was the measure of the proportion of eyes, or individuals, with a finding of a pathological structural change at the macula, measured at 12 months (with an acceptable follow-up range of six to 24 months).

To ensure maximum representation of the available evidence, we have descriptively reported the outcomes from studies with reported follow-up times that are different to those defined a priori in our protocol.

Primary outcomes - visual fatigue

Three trials reported change in subjective visual fatigue or discomfort scores ([Dabrowiecki](#page-28-25) 2020; [Lin 2017](#page-28-14); [Singh 2021\)](#page-28-15). One study measured this outcome using a visual analogue scale [\(Singh](#page-28-15) [2021\)](#page-28-15), and the other two studies used Likert scales ([Dabrowiecki](#page-28-25) [2020;](#page-28-25) [Lin 2017](#page-28-14)). One trial reported change from baseline data [\(Singh 2021\)](#page-28-15), one trial presented change from baseline scores and reported data in the form of figures ([Lin 2017](#page-28-14)), and one study

reported average daily change in visual fatigue scores over a five-day period, compared to change from baseline or endpoint outcomes [\(Dabrowiecki](#page-28-25) 2020).

Two studies reported CFF data ([Lin 2017](#page-28-14); [Singh 2021](#page-28-15)), with one study reporting change from baseline ([Singh 2021](#page-28-15)), and the other study presenting data in the form of figures without reporting quantitative data ([Lin 2017\)](#page-28-14).

Secondary outcomes

Best-corrected visual acuity

One cross-over trial measured logMAR visual acuity [\(Hammond](#page-28-29) [2015](#page-28-29)). The unit of analysis in this study was a randomly selected eye (right or left). BCVA was quantified by having participants wear each of the study lenses in a randomised order.

Daytime alertness

Although none of the included studies explicitly reported the proportion of participants who had reduced daytime alertness, two trials quantified parameters relevant to this outcome ([Janku](#page-33-17) [2020](#page-33-17); [Knufinke](#page-28-26) 2019). One trial measured daytime alertness using the Hyperarousal Scale (HAS), with scores ranging from 0 to 73, and reported change from baseline [\(Janku](#page-33-17) 2020). Another trial measured morning and evening alertness using the Karolinska Sleepiness Scale (KSS), with scores ranging from 0 to 9, and reported the daily average change in outcome, rather than change from baseline or endpoint data [\(Knufinke](#page-28-26) 2019).

Sleep quality

Six trials assessed outcomes related to subjective sleep quality [\(Burkhart 2009](#page-28-18); [Esaki 2017](#page-28-16); [Esaki 2020;](#page-28-20) [Janku](#page-33-17) 2020; [Knufinke](#page-28-26) 2019; [Shechter](#page-28-28) 2018). Of these, four trials used Likert scales [\(Burkhart](#page-28-18) [2009](#page-28-18); [Janku](#page-28-30) 2020; [Knufinke](#page-28-26) 2019; [Shechter](#page-28-28) 2018), and two trials used a visual analogue scale [\(Esaki 2017](#page-28-16); [Esaki 2020\)](#page-28-20). One study did not provide quantitative data [\(Burkhart 2009\)](#page-28-18), three trials reported change from baseline data ([Esaki 2017](#page-28-16); [Esaki 2020;](#page-28-20) [Janku](#page-28-30) 2020), and two studies reported the daily average change in the outcome rather than the change from baseline or endpoint data ([Knufinke](#page-28-26) [2019](#page-28-26); [Shechter](#page-28-28) 2018).

Other outcomes

None of the included trials assessed the following outcomes:

- change in contrast sensitivity, measured in log contrast sensitivity, with and without (disability) glare;
- change in discomfort glare, measured using a questionnaire (e.g. de Boer scale) or objectively (e.g. electromyogram);
- proportion of eyes, or individuals (as determined by the unit of analysis), with a finding of a pathological structural change at the macula, detected by clinical observation, optical coherence tomography (OCT) or retinal fundus photography;
- change in colour discrimination, considered as the standard mean difference for panel tests (e.g. Farnsworth D15 and 100hue) or the number of errors on plate tests (e.g. Ishihara), measured under photopic, mesopic or scotopic conditions;
- change in serum melatonin levels, measured in pg/mL;
- overall patient satisfaction with their visual performance, measured using questionnaires or rating scales.

Adverse events

Among the 17 included trials, nine assessed adverse events [\(Danilenko](#page-28-19) 2019; [Burkhart 2009;](#page-28-18) [Esaki 2017;](#page-28-16) [Esaki 2020](#page-28-20); [Henriksen](#page-28-21) [2016;](#page-28-21) [Janku](#page-33-17) 2020; Perez [Algorta](#page-28-27) 2018; [Shechter](#page-28-28) 2018; [Singh 2021\)](#page-28-15). Together, these studies included 333 participants. Of these, four studies (n = 130) reported an adverse event ([Danilenko](#page-28-19) 2019; [Esaki](#page-28-16) [2017;](#page-28-16) [Esaki 2020;](#page-28-20) [Henriksen 2016](#page-28-21)); details relating to these adverse events are summarised in [Table](#page-96-0) 2.

Excluded studies

Following the full-text screening stage, we excluded 32 studies. The primary reason(s) for excluding each study is provided in the [Characteristics](#page-80-0) of excluded studies table.

The most common reasons for excluding studies were due to the study having an ineligible design (non-RCT) [\(Al-Azawi](#page-31-16) 2019; [Cozza](#page-29-1) [2020;](#page-29-1) [Ide 2015](#page-29-0); [Ishizawa](#page-29-2) 2021; [Kaido 2016;](#page-29-3) [Leung](#page-29-4) 2017; [Luria](#page-29-5) [1972;](#page-29-5) [Monteiro](#page-29-6) 2017; [NCT04076410;](#page-29-7) [Otsuka](#page-30-8) 2020; [Phelps 2016](#page-30-9); [Rosenfield](#page-30-10) 2020; [Sasseville](#page-30-11) 2006; [Shirahama](#page-30-12) 2018; [Smotek](#page-30-13) 2019; [Teran](#page-30-14) 2020), not investigating blue-light filtering spectacle lenses [\(Bennett](#page-29-8) 2009; [Danilenko](#page-29-9) 2016; [Figueiro](#page-32-13) 2011; [Figueiro](#page-29-10) 2013; [Figueiro](#page-29-11) 2020; [NCT02982239;](#page-29-12) [NCT03831919;](#page-29-13) [NL9458](#page-29-14); [Redondo](#page-30-15) [2020;](#page-30-15) [Sasseville](#page-30-11) 2006; [Wood 2013\)](#page-30-16), the comparator not being a non-blue-light filtering lens ([NCT04463498](#page-29-15); [NCT04804501;](#page-29-16) [RBR-3snw7t,](#page-30-17) [NCT05177055](#page-29-17)), or the spectacle lenses not being similar across the intervention and comparator groups [\(NCT04827446\)](#page-29-18).

Five trials were listed as 'ongoing'; study details are provided in the [Characteristics](#page-85-0) of ongoing studies table.

Risk of bias in included studies

[Figure](#page-19-0) 2 and [Figure](#page-20-0) 3 summarise the risk of bias assessments for the included studies. Details related to risk of bias judgements for individual studies are summarised in the [Characteristics](#page-36-5) of [included](#page-36-5) studies table.

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Figure 2. (Continued)

Figure 3. Risk of bias graph: review authors' judgements about each risk of bias item presented as percentages **across all included studies**

Ofthe 17 included trials, none were judged to have a low risk of bias across all seven domains. We judged three studies to have low risks of bias in six out of seven domains ([Esaki 2017;](#page-28-16) [Esaki 2020;](#page-28-20) [Singh](#page-28-15) [2021](#page-28-15)).

Across all eligible trials, the most well-reported domain was incomplete outcome data (attrition bias), with 76% of included trials considered to have low risk of bias in this methodological criterion. We judged more than half of the studies to have a high risk of performance bias and detection bias, due to the studies not masking participants, personnel, or outcome assessors, or at least one of these parties.

Allocation

Sequence generation

Eight trials (40%) reported how the randomisation sequence was generated, and we judged these to have a low risk of bias in this domain. Six trials used computer software [\(Alzahrani](#page-28-23) 2020; [Esaki 2017;](#page-28-16) [Esaki 2020](#page-28-20); Perez [Algorta](#page-28-27) 2018; [Shechter](#page-28-28) 2018; [Singh](#page-28-15) [2021](#page-28-15)), and two trials from the same research group used a manual drawing method [\(Henriksen 2016;](#page-28-21) [Henriksen 2020\)](#page-28-17). Nine trials were described as 'randomised' but did not report how the random sequence was generated; we judged these trials to have an unclear risk of bias for this domain ([Alzahrani](#page-28-22) 2021; [Bigalke](#page-28-24) 2021; [Burkhart](#page-28-18) [2009](#page-28-18); [Dabrowiecki](#page-28-25) 2020; [Danilenko](#page-28-19) 2019; [Hammond 2015;](#page-28-29) [Janku](#page-33-17) [2020](#page-33-17); [Knufinke](#page-28-26) 2019; [Lin 2017](#page-28-14)). None of the trials had a high risk of bias for this domain.

Allocation concealment

We judged three trials (18%) to have a low risk of bias for allocation concealment. One study used computer-generated files that concealed the allocation ([Singh 2021](#page-28-15)), one study used sealed envelopes ([Esaki 2017](#page-28-16)), and in another study allocation was performed by personnel not otherwise involved in the study ([Esaki](#page-28-20) [2020](#page-28-20)).

Thirteen trials (76%) did not report the method of allocation concealment, and we judged these to have an unclear risk of bias in this domain ([Alzahrani](#page-28-22) 2021; [Alzahrani](#page-28-23) 2020; [Bigalke](#page-28-24) 2021; [Burkhart 2009](#page-28-18); [Dabrowiecki](#page-28-25) 2020; [Danilenko](#page-28-19) 2019; [Hammond 2015;](#page-28-29) [Henriksen 2016;](#page-28-21) [Henriksen 2020;](#page-28-17) [Janku](#page-33-17) 2020; [Knufinke](#page-28-26) 2019; [Lin](#page-28-14) [2017;](#page-28-14) [Shechter](#page-28-28) 2018). We considered one study to have a high risk of bias as the principal investigator delivered the study intervention and no information was provided about allocation concealment (Perez [Algorta](#page-28-27) 2018).

Blinding

For performance bias, three studies clearly specified the masking of study participants and study personnel, and we judged these to have a low risk of bias ([Esaki 2017;](#page-28-16) [Esaki 2020](#page-28-20); [Singh 2021\)](#page-28-15). Four trials only masked study participants, and no information was provided about possible masking of the study personnel involved with delivering the intervention. Hence, we judged the potential risk of performance bias for these studies to be unclear [\(Dabrowiecki](#page-28-25) 2020; [Danilenko](#page-28-19) 2019; [Hammond 2015;](#page-28-29) [Henriksen](#page-28-17) [2020\)](#page-28-17). Nine trials did not report whether participants and study personnel were masked ([Alzahrani](#page-28-22) 2021; [Alzahrani](#page-28-23) 2020; [Bigalke](#page-28-24) [2021;](#page-28-24) [Burkhart 2009;](#page-28-18) [Janku](#page-33-17) 2020; [Knufinke](#page-28-26) 2019; [Lin 2017](#page-28-14); [Perez](#page-28-27) [Algorta](#page-28-27) 2018; [Shechter](#page-28-28) 2018), and in one study participants were masked, but the study personnel involved with delivering the study intervention were not masked [\(Henriksen 2016\)](#page-28-21). We judged these 10 trials to have a high risk of performance bias.

For masking of outcome assessors (detection bias), we judged four trials to have a low risk of bias [\(Danilenko](#page-28-19) 2019; [Esaki 2017](#page-28-16); [Janku](#page-33-17) [2020;](#page-33-17) [Lin 2017\)](#page-28-14). One trial was described as 'double-blind', but did not provide details with regard to how this was achieved [\(Esaki](#page-28-20) [2020\)](#page-28-20). One trial reported how the masking of outcome assessors was achieved, but on analysing the outcome assessors' guessing of participant assignment to the study groups, this level of masking was reported to be unsuccessful ([Singh 2021](#page-28-15)). We considered both of these studies to have an unclear risk of detection bias. Eleven trials had a high risk of bias for this domain, due to the studies providing no information relating to the masking of outcome

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assessors ([Alzahrani](#page-28-22) 2021; [Alzahrani](#page-28-23) 2020; [Bigalke](#page-28-24) 2021; [Burkhart](#page-28-18) [2009](#page-28-18); [Dabrowiecki](#page-28-25) 2020; [Hammond 2015;](#page-28-29) [Henriksen 2020;](#page-28-17) [Knufinke](#page-28-26) [2019](#page-28-26); Perez [Algorta](#page-28-27) 2018; [Shechter](#page-28-28) 2018), or the study explicitly reporting that the outcome assessor was not masked [\(Henriksen](#page-28-21) [2016](#page-28-21)).

Incomplete outcome data

Thirteen trials (76%) had a low risk of attrition bias ([Alzahrani](#page-28-23) 2020; [Bigalke](#page-28-24) 2021; [Burkhart 2009;](#page-28-18) [Dabrowiecki](#page-28-25) 2020; [Danilenko](#page-28-19) 2019; [Esaki 2017](#page-28-16); [Esaki 2020;](#page-28-20) [Hammond 2015;](#page-28-29) [Janku](#page-33-17) 2020; [Lin 2017](#page-28-14); [Perez](#page-28-27) [Algorta](#page-28-27) 2018; [Shechter](#page-28-28) 2018; [Singh 2021\)](#page-28-15), either because therewere no losses to follow-up, or missing data were less than 20% and there was equal follow-up between the study arms with no obvious reasons for the loss of follow-up to be linked to the outcome. We judged the risk of attrition bias to be unclear in four studies, as the follow-up was not clearly stated ([Alzahrani](#page-28-22) 2021; [Knufinke](#page-28-26) [2019](#page-28-26)), or the trials had missing data of more than 20% with equal follow-up across the study arms ([Henriksen 2016;](#page-28-21) [Henriksen 2020\)](#page-28-17). Two studies specifically reported undertaking intention-to treat analyses ([Esaki 2020](#page-28-20); [Henriksen 2016](#page-28-21)). We did not judge any of the trials to have a high risk of attrition bias.

Selective reporting

Eleven trials (65%) did not report information about registration in a clinical trial registry, and lack of this information led to a judgement of an unclear risk of reporting bias ([Alzahrani](#page-28-22) 2021; [Alzahrani](#page-28-23) 2020; [Bigalke](#page-28-24) 2021; [Burkhart 2009](#page-28-18); [Dabrowiecki](#page-28-25) 2020; [Danilenko](#page-28-19) 2019; [Henriksen 2016](#page-28-21); [Janku](#page-33-17) 2020; [Knufinke](#page-28-26) 2019; [Lin](#page-28-14) [2017](#page-28-14); Perez [Algorta](#page-28-27) 2018). We considered one other study to have an unclear risk of bias, as the study commenced recruitment in February 2012 but only registered the study protocol in March 2013 ([Henriksen 2020](#page-28-17)). We judged four trials to have a low risk of reporting bias as they reported all the prespecified study protocol outcomes in the final published paper ([Esaki 2017](#page-28-16); [Esaki 2020](#page-28-20); [Shechter](#page-28-28) 2018; [Singh 2021\)](#page-28-15). We judged one trial to be at high risk of reporting bias, as a "glare disability threshold" outcome was reported in the final published paper but not mentioned in the prior registered study protocol ([Hammond 2015](#page-28-29)).

Other potential sources of bias

No other potential sources of bias were identified in 13 trials [\(Alzahrani](#page-28-22) 2021; [Alzahrani](#page-28-23) 2020; [Bigalke](#page-28-24) 2021; [Dabrowiecki](#page-28-25) 2020; [Danilenko](#page-28-19) 2019; [Esaki 2020;](#page-28-20) [Hammond 2015;](#page-28-29) [Henriksen 2020](#page-28-17); [Janku](#page-28-30) 2020; [Lin 2017](#page-28-14); Perez [Algorta](#page-28-27) 2018; [Shechter](#page-28-28) 2018; [Singh](#page-28-15) [2021](#page-28-15)). Two trials had an unclear risk of 'other' sources of bias [\(Henriksen 2016;](#page-28-21) [Knufinke](#page-28-26) 2019). [Henriksen 2016](#page-28-21) stopped early due to growing public awareness on blue-light filtering lenses. In [Knufinke](#page-28-26) 2019, the effects of allowing only a one-day washout period for one of the study intervention groups (light-emitting goggles) was unclear, resulting in lack of complete information to judge this domain. We considered two trials to be at high risk of 'other' potential sources of bias due to reported significant baseline differences between the participant groups that might have impacted the overall study findings ([Burkhart 2009;](#page-28-18) [Esaki](#page-28-16) [2017](#page-28-16)).

Effects of interventions

See: **[Summary](#page-7-1) of findings 1** Summary of findings 1: blue-light filtering lenses compared to [non-blue-light](#page-7-1) filtering lenses

See: [Summary](#page-7-1) of findings 1 for the main comparison of bluelight filtering lenses compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses for prespecified outcomes.

Primary outcome: change in visual fatigue or discomfort scores

Three trials reported data relating to visual fatigue or discomfort scores, with follow-up periods ranging from less than one day [\(Lin 2017](#page-28-14); [Singh 2021](#page-28-15)) to five days [\(Dabrowiecki](#page-28-25) 2020). These three trials included both parallel-arm ([Lin 2017](#page-28-14); [Singh 2021](#page-28-15)) and cross-over designs ([Dabrowiecki](#page-28-25) 2020). Two trials reported change form baseline data ([Lin 2017;](#page-28-14) [Singh 2021](#page-28-15)), and one study reported the average daily change in visual fatigue scores over the quantified five-day period ([Dabrowiecki](#page-28-25) 2020). Measurement tools included both Likert scales [\(Dabrowiecki](#page-28-25) 2020; [Lin 2017\)](#page-28-14) and a visual analogue scale [\(Singh 2021](#page-28-15)). The participant eligibility criteria differed between the studies, involving the recruitment of healthy volunteers [\(Lin 2017](#page-28-14)), symptomatic computer users [\(Singh](#page-28-15) [2021\)](#page-28-15), and radiology residents ([Dabrowiecki](#page-28-25) 2020). The unit of analysis was per participant for all three trials.

We did not conduct a meta-analysis as only one study reported quantitative data that could be used to calculate the effect size of interest ([Singh 2021](#page-28-15)). [Singh 2021](#page-28-15) reported no significant difference for the change in subjective visual fatigue scores among symptomatic computer users, measured as the change pre- and post-computer task (two hours) with blue-light filtering lenses compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses (mean difference (MD) 9.76 units, 95% confidence interval (CI) -33.95 to 53.47 units; P = 0.66; 120 participants). One trial that included 36 participants reported no significant difference between intervention arms for the change in visual fatigue score, but did not provide quantitative data ([Lin 2017](#page-28-14)). The third trial included 10 participants and reported no change for the average daily change in visual fatigue score with blue-light filtering lenses compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses ([Dabrowiecki](#page-28-25) 2020).

We used the GRADE approach to judge the certainty of the body of evidence for this outcome and downgraded the certainty by two levels to low, as in two studies participant/personnel or outcome assessors were not masked, and one study had wide confidence intervals ([Singh 2021\)](#page-28-15).

Primary outcome: change in CFF

Two trials reported data related to the change in CFF, with a followup of less than one day [\(Lin 2017;](#page-28-14) [Singh 2021](#page-28-15)). Both trials used a parallel-arm design. One trial recruited healthy participants [\(Lin](#page-28-14) [2017\)](#page-28-14) and the other recruited symptomatic computer users [\(Singh](#page-28-15) [2021\)](#page-28-15). The unit of analysis was per participant for both trials. [Singh](#page-28-15) [2021](#page-28-15) reported no change in CFF with blue-light filtering lenses compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses (MD -1.13 Hz, 95% CI, -3.00 to 0.74 Hz; $P = 0.24$). [Lin 2017](#page-28-14), involving 36 participants, described a significant difference between 'high' blue-light filtering lenses compared to both 'low' blue-light filtering ($P = 0.008$) and non-blue-light filtering lenses (P = 0.027). However, this trial did not report quantitative data [\(Lin 2017](#page-28-14)).

We judged the certainty of evidence as low for this outcome, downgrading by one level each for inconsistency of results (as one study reported no significant intergroup differences and one study reported a positive effect with 'high' block blue-light filtering

lenses), and risk of bias (as one study was at high risk of bias in the domain relating to masking of study participant and personnel).

Secondary outcome: change in BCVA

One cross-over trial reported findings relevant to the measure of BCVA, measured in logMAR units without glare conditions [\(Hammond 2015](#page-28-29)). This trial included 156 bilateral pseudophakic participants, and the unit of analysiswas a single eye. The follow-up period of this study was unclear. The trial reported no difference in logMAR BCVA between blue-light filtering lenses and non-blue-light filtering lenses (MD 0.00, 95% CI -0.02 to 0.02 log units; $P = 0.86$). These results should be interpreted with caution as the study did not report the total number of participants included/excluded for this outcome measure; we made the assumption that all recruited participants completed the study.

We judged the certainty of evidence for this outcome as moderate using GRADE, and downgraded by one level for risk of bias as the study outcome assessor was not masked in the study that assessed this outcome.

Secondary outcome: change in contrast sensitivity

None of the 17 included trials provided data related to contrast sensitivity.

Secondary outcome: change in discomfort glare

None of the 17 included trials provided data related to discomfort glare.

Secondary outcome: proportion of eyes, or individuals, with a finding of pathological structural change at the macula

None of the 17 included trials reported on macular structural changes.

Secondary outcome: change in colour discrimination

None of the 17 included trials provided data related to colour discrimination.

Secondary outcome: daytime alertness, considered as the proportion of participants who had reduced daytime alertness

None ofthe included trials described the proportion of participants who had reduced daytime alertness. However, two studies measured alertness using Likert scale-based questionnaires ([Janku](#page-33-17) [2020](#page-33-17); [Knufinke](#page-28-26) 2019); one used a cross-over design ([Knufinke](#page-28-26) 2019) and the other used a parallel-group design ([Janku](#page-33-17) 2020).

[Janku](#page-33-17) 2020, involving 27 people diagnosed with insomnia, measured the change in daytime alertness using the Hyperarousal Scale (HAS), with scores ranging between 0 and 73 (scores above 40 indicate increased arousal levels). This trial reported no difference in HAS scores between participants using blue-light filtering and non-blue-light filtering lenses over five weeks (MD 1.24 units 95% CI -4.93 to 7.41 units; P = 0.69).

The cross-over trial by [Knufinke](#page-28-26) 2019 involved 15 recreational athletes and reported endpoint data for morning and evening alertness, measured using the Karolinska Sleepiness Scale (KSS), with scores ranging from 0 to 9 (higher scores indicating higher sleepiness). This trial reported no significant difference in the average daily change for both morning and evening alertness scores, measured between blue-light filtering and non-blue-light filtering lenses. However, this trial did not report change from baseline or endpoint outcome data.

We judged the GRADE certainty of evidence as very low and downgraded by three levels for risk of bias and imprecision, as in one study the participants and personnel were not masked, and in another study the study participants, personnel, and outcome assessor(s) were not masked. Both studies had small sample sizes.

Secondary outcome: change in serum melatonin levels

None of the 17 included trials provided information related to serum melatonin levels.

Secondary outcome: sleep quality

Six trials reported findings related to subjective sleep quality [\(Burkhart 2009](#page-28-18); [Esaki 2017;](#page-28-16) [Esaki 2020;](#page-28-20) [Janku](#page-33-17) 2020; [Knufinke](#page-28-26) 2019; [Shechter](#page-28-28) 2018). Together, these studies involved 148 participants with heterogeneous characteristics, and measured subjective sleep quality using a visual analogue scale or Likert scalebased questionnaire. The recruited study populations included recreational athletes ([Knufinke](#page-28-26) 2019), participants with sleep difficulty ([Burkhart 2009](#page-28-18)), participants with chronic insomnia symptoms [\(Shechter](#page-28-28) 2018), participants with a bipolar disorder diagnosis ([Esaki 2020](#page-28-20)), participants with an insomnia diagnosis [\(Janku](#page-33-17) 2020), and participants with major depressive disorder and sleep onset insomnia ([Esaki 2017\)](#page-28-16). Trial follow-up periods ranged from one week ([Shechter](#page-28-28) 2018) to five weeks ([Janku](#page-33-17) 2020).

Three studies provided quantitative data related to sleep quality [\(Esaki 2017](#page-28-16); [Esaki 2020](#page-28-20); [Janku](#page-33-17) 2020). We did not perform a metaanalysis as the study population and follow-up periods varied between these studies. The key outcomes of the studies that reported subjective sleep quality are as follows.

- [Esaki 2017,](#page-28-16) involving 20 participants with major depressive disorder and sleep onset insomnia, reported no significant difference for the change in subjective sleep quality measured using a visual analogue scale ($0 =$ good sleep to $100 =$ poor sleep) at two weeks of follow-up, with blue-light filtering lenses compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses (MD 19.90 units, 95% CI -1.86 to 41.66 units; $P = 0.07$).
- [Esaki 2020](#page-28-20), involving 43 participants with bipolar disorder, measured the change in subjective sleep quality using a visual analogue scale (0 = good sleep to 100 = poor sleep), at two weeks of follow-up, and reported no significant difference between blue-light filtering lenses and non-blue-light filtering lenses (MD 8.90 units, 95% CI -6.13 to 23.93 units; P = 0.25).
- [Janku](#page-28-30) 2020, involving 27 participants with insomnia, measured the change in subjective sleep quality after six weeks of followup, using the Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (PSQI). The PSQI ranges from 0 to 21, and a score of six was defined as the cut-off for significant insomnia symptoms. The study reported no significant difference between blue-light filtering lenses compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses (MD 0.03 units, 95% CI -2.53 to 2.59 units; $P = 0.98$).
- [Burkhart 2009,](#page-28-18) involving 20 participants with sleep difficulty, measured the change in subjective sleep quality using a Likert scale (0 = very poor sleep and 10 = good sleep) and reported a significant improvement in sleep quality with blue-light filtering lenses compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses. This study

Blue-light filtering spectacle lenses for visual performance, sleep, and macular health in adults (Review) Copyright © 2023 The Cochrane Collaboration. Published by John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

presented the results in a figure and did not report the numeric data in the main text of the publication.

- [Knufinke](#page-28-26) 2019, involving 15 participants who were "recreational athletes", reported an improvement in the daily average change in subjective sleep scores measured over nine days with bluelight filtering lenses compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses. This study did not report either the change from baseline or endpoint outcome data.
- [Shechter](#page-28-28) 2018, involving 15 participants with chronic insomnia symptoms, measured the daily average change in subjective sleep scores over one week, and reported an improvement in subjective sleep with blue-light filtering lenses compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses. This study did not report change from baseline or endpoint data.

We judged the GRADE certainty of evidence as very low for this outcome and downgraded by three levels for risk of bias, as in four studies participants and study personnel were not masked, and in three studies outcome assessors were not masked. Two studies had other risks of bias due to significant baseline imbalances between participant groups. Further, the included studies had small sample sizes and reported variable findings.

Secondary outcome: overall patient satisfaction with their visual performance

None of the included trials provided information related to patient satisfaction with their visual performance.

Adverse outcomes

[Table](#page-96-0) 2 summarises adverse events as reported in the included studies. Five of the nine studies that assessed adverse events did not report any such events [\(Burkhart 2009;](#page-28-18) [Janku](#page-33-17) 2020; [Perez](#page-28-27) [Algorta](#page-28-27) 2018; [Shechter](#page-28-28) 2018; [Singh 2021](#page-28-15)). The reported adverse events in the other included studies were as follows.

- [Henriksen 2016](#page-28-21) (n = 32) reported increased depressive symptoms ($n = 2$) and headache ($n = 1$) in participants assigned to the blue-light filtering lens group. However, the authors did not explicitly state the proportion of adverse events in the nonblue-light filtering lens group.
- [Esaki 2017](#page-28-16) ($n = 20$) reported pain or discomfort from wearing the spectacles across both the blue-light filtering ($n = 4$) and non-blue-light filtering ($n = 4$) lens groups. However, the authors mentioned that the provided spectacles were of a single size, and concluded that the discomfort reported could be due to the spectacle frames, rather than the type of lenses, indicating the adverse events may not have been related to the study intervention itself.
- [Danilenko](#page-28-19) 2019 (n = 35) reported no adverse events in the bluelight filtering lens group and that two participants in the nonblue-light filtering group were occasionally hyperthymic.
- **[Esaki 2020](#page-28-20) (n = 43) reported discomfort from wearing the glasses** $(n = 2)$, pain from the face contacting part of the glasses $(n = 1)$, and lowered mood $(n = 1)$ in the blue-light filtering lens group. In the control group, participants reported discomfort from wearing the glasses ($n = 3$) and pain from the face contacting part of the glasses $(n = 4)$.

We judged the GRADE certainty of evidence for this outcome as low. It was downgraded by one level each for risk of bias and inconsistency, as in four studies participants, study personnel and

outcome assessors were not masked, and two studies had an 'other' risk of bias due to baseline imbalance. Further, we noted variability in the reported adverse events across the studies.

D I S C U S S I O N

Blue-light filtering spectacle lenses have been widely advertised by some members of the optical industry, with claims that they can reduce visual fatigue from digital device use, protect the macula, and improve sleep quality. The mechanism(s) by which these lenses might impart at least some of these effects remains unclear. Despite this, the prescribing rate of blue-light filtering lenses among eye care practitioners has increased over the last decade ([Singh 2019\)](#page-35-1). The primary objective of this systematic review was to assess the effects of blue-light filtering spectacle lenses on eye strain, visual performance, macular health and sleep quality, in adult populations.

Summary of main results

This review identified 17 eligible RCTs in which blue-light filtering lenses were compared with non-blue-light filtering lenses. Individual study sample sizes ranged from five to 156 participants, with follow-up periods ranging from less than one day to five weeks. The studies were conducted in six countries, and included diverse study populations, ranging from healthy adults through to those with significant health conditions (e.g. bipolar disorder, insomnia). Overall, there was no high-certainty evidence for any of the prespecified outcome measures (see [Summary](#page-7-1) of findings [1](#page-7-1) for details). For risk of bias assessment, none of the included studies were judged to have 'low' risk of bias across all seven assessment domains. The two domains judged to have the lowest overall risk of bias across the included trials were 'incomplete outcome data' (attrition bias) and 'other potential sources of bias'.

We did not perform meta-analyses for any of the outcome measures due to a lack of available quantitative data in the study reports, heterogenous study populations, and the relatively short followup period in most studies (i.e. less than two weeks) compared to the follow-up period of interest defined in our protocol (being one month, with an acceptable range of between two weeks and three months). This highlights a research gap with respect to studies evaluating the longer-term effects of blue-light filtering spectacles, and led to the presentation of only descriptive syntheses in the present review.

Information relating to the efficacy outcome measures were available for: change in visual fatigue scores (three trials), change in CFF (two trials), change in BCVA (one trial), proportion of participants with reduced daytime alertness (two trials), and change in subjective sleep quality (six trials).

For the primary outcome measures, all three trials that investigated subjective visual fatigue reported no significant difference in symptoms with blue-light filtering lenses compared to non-bluelight filtering lenses ([Dabrowiecki](#page-28-25) 2020; [Lin 2017](#page-28-14); [Singh 2021\)](#page-28-15). Of the two trials that investigated CFF, one double-masked RCT involving 120 participants with computer vision syndrome, reported no significant difference between blue- and non-bluelight filtering spectacle interventions ([Singh 2021\)](#page-28-15). Another study did not provide quantitative data but reported a difference between intervention arms, favouring a 'high' blue-light filtering spectacle lens type ([Lin 2017\)](#page-28-14). However, this study received industry funding,

did not register the clinical trial, and did not mask outcome assessors ([Lin 2017](#page-28-14)).

For the secondary outcome measures, the trial that assessed BCVA reported no significant difference between intervention arms [\(Hammond 2015](#page-28-29)). The two trials that evaluated daytime alertness using subjective symptom scores reported no significant difference between blue-light filtering and non-blue-light filtering lenses [\(Janku](#page-33-17) 2020; [Knufinke](#page-28-26) 2019). For the subjective sleep outcome, different findings were reported across the studies, which likely relates to the highly divergent participant populations in the six trials. Three trials that provided quantitative data reported no significant difference in subjective sleep quality with blue-light filtering lenses compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses ([Esaki](#page-28-16) [2017](#page-28-16); [Esaki 2020;](#page-28-20) [Janku](#page-33-17) 2020). One trial with a small sample size (n = 20) that did not provide quantitative data reported an improvement in subjective sleep quality with blue-light filtering lenses compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses ([Burkhart 2009](#page-28-18)). This trial had important baseline differences between the participant groups that might have had affected the reported results [\(Burkhart 2009\)](#page-28-18). Two trials that did not mask participants, personnel or outcome assessors reported an average daily improvement in subjective sleep quality with blue-light filtering lenses compared to non-bluelight filtering lenses ([Knufinke](#page-28-26) 2019; [Shechter](#page-28-28) 2018).

For the safety outcomes, nine studies reported outcomes for adverse events. Of these, participants in four studies experienced adverse events [\(Danilenko](#page-28-19) 2019; [Esaki 2017;](#page-28-16) [Esaki 2020](#page-28-20); [Henriksen](#page-28-21) [2016](#page-28-21)), with three describing events that were considered related to the study intervention [\(Danilenko](#page-28-19) 2019; [Esaki 2020](#page-28-20); [Henriksen](#page-28-21) [2016](#page-28-21)). Such events were generally mild, and mainly related to discomfort from wearing the spectacles. We did not perform metaanalyses as one study had a different participant population [\(Danilenko](#page-28-19) 2019), and another study did not report the proportion of adverse events in the non-blue-light filtering lens group [\(Henriksen 2016](#page-28-21)).

We did not identify any RCTs evaluating affects of blue-light filtering spectacle lenses on contrast sensitivity, discomfort glare, colour discrimination, macular health, or serum melatonin levels. In addition, none of the included studies evaluated overall patient satisfaction with their visual performance.

Overall completeness and applicability of evidence

The majority (94%) of the 17 included RCTs were published after 2010, indicating a growing interest in the area of blue-light filtering spectacle lenses over the last decade. The inclusion of a diverse group of participants across the included studies (refer to table of [Included](#page-17-0) studies) limited our ability to perform meta-analyses, as did the lack of reported quantitative data in the study reports.

A notable finding was that 65% of included trials had a followup period of less than two weeks. As such, the longer-term potential benefits and adverse effects of blue-light filtering lenses on the prespecified outcomes investigated in this review are not known. On assessing the age group of the participant population across the included trials, 47% of the included trials investigated populations over 40 years of age. However, 88% of these studies specifically targeted populations with mania, depression and insomnia symptoms, with the intent of investigating the utility of blue-light filtering spectacle lenses for specific purposes (e.g. improving sleep quality). Hence, there was limited information

relating to the effects of blue-light filtering lenses in healthy older adults. Based on the limited availability of data, it is unclearif there might be a difference in the measured outcomes among individuals less than 40 years old versus those over 40 years of age. This consideration is relevant, given that there is a natural reduction in blue light transmission within the eye associated with yellowing of the human crystalline lens; such effects may alter the relative efficacy of a blue-light filtering spectacle lenses as a function of participant age.

The three studies that evaluated subjective visual fatigue reported no significant difference between blue-light filtering lenses compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses [\(Dabrowiecki](#page-28-25) 2020; [Lin](#page-28-14) [2017;](#page-28-14) [Singh 2021\)](#page-28-15). However, we judged only one trial to have robust methodology based on the risk of bias assessments, as defined by prospective clinical trial registration, allocation concealment, double-masking, and the development of an a priori data analysis plan before performing the formal data analyses [\(Singh](#page-28-15) [2021\)](#page-28-15). Further, only the [Singh 2021](#page-28-15) trial recruited symptomatic computer users, who are the primary population that blue-light filtering lenses are marketed to. The other two trials enrolled computer users without specifying whether they were necessarily symptomatic of eye strain [\(Lin 2017](#page-28-14)), and radiology residents [\(Dabrowiecki](#page-28-25) 2020). Overall, the relatively consistent findings reported across the three trials that evaluated this outcome suggest blue-light filtering lenses may not reduce symptoms of visual fatigue with computer use compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses.

The two trials that evaluated CFF reported opposite findings [\(Lin 2017;](#page-28-14) [Singh 2021\)](#page-28-15). The industry-sponsored trial by [Lin 2017](#page-28-14) reported a significant benefit with a 'high' blue-light filtering lens product compared to both 'low' blue-light filtering and non-blue-light filtering lenses. However, the double-masked RCT by [Singh 2021](#page-28-15) reported no significant difference between bluelight filtering and non-blue-light filtering lenses for this outcome. Visually inspecting the plots in the trial report of [Lin 2017,](#page-28-14) which did not provide numeric quantitative data, suggests an approximate change of 2 Hz with the 'high' blue-light filtering lenses; although described as "statistically significant", the clinical significance of this small change remains unclear. Two recent studies that evaluated the association between CFF and visual fatigue, determined via a symptom questionnaire, reported no association between these outcome measures ([Anderson](#page-31-17) 2022; Yan [2022\)](#page-35-16). These findings suggest that using CFF as a surrogate objective marker of visual fatigue symptoms, as has been adopted in previous studies, may not be appropriate.

Regarding the six studies that investigated subjective sleep quality, aside from one study that recruited recreational athletes [\(Knufinke](#page-28-26) [2019\)](#page-28-26), none included healthy individuals, and instead focused on evaluating whether blue-light filtering lenses might have benefit in individuals with significant health disorders, including insomnia, manic depression and bipolar disorder. This finding was unexpected given that computer users are a key consumer population targeted by the optical industry with claims that bluelight filtering lenses can benefit sleep cycles. The overall body of evidence relating to the potential role of blue-light filtering lenses for promoting subjective sleep quality is inconclusive, given the high degree of variability reported across the included studies.

Although the link between blue-light exposure and age-related macular degeneration in humans remains unclear, there have been

claims by certain members of the optical industry and mainstream media that blue light can cause retinal phototoxicity, and that blue-light filtering lenses offer protection against such damage [\(Singh](#page-35-1) [2019](#page-35-1)). None of the 17 studies included in this review evaluated the role of blue-light filtering lenses for protecting the macula. As such, we were unable to identify any RCT evidence to support the application of blue-light filtering lenses, in preference to nonblue-light filtering lenses, for providing macular protection. Such studies have a range of practical challenges with their execution, including the need to evaluate large groups of individuals over protracted periods of time in order to detect potential intergroup differences in the outcome of interest. Nevertheless, it is important that consumers and practitioners are aware of the lack of current clinical studies evaluating whether blue-light filtering lenses have any utility in this potential application.

Despite the establishment of the International Medical Device Regulators Forum (IMDRF) in 2011, adverse events were not consistently assessed or reported in the included trials. Three of the nine studies that assessed adverse events reported side effects that were deemed to be associated with the study intervention [\(Danilenko](#page-28-19) 2019; [Esaki 2020](#page-28-20); [Henriksen 2016](#page-28-21)). All the adverse events were relatively mild, with studies reporting increased depressive symptoms, headache, and discomfort from wearing the glasses. Similar symptoms of discomfort from wearing glasses were reported, along with occasional hyperthymia, in participants assigned to non-blue-light filtering lenses. It should be noted that these three studies involved participants with bipolar or depressive disorders. The rate of adverse events with blue-light filtering lenses compared to non-blue-light filtering in healthy individuals thus remains uncertain. As this is the population that typically presents for routine eye care and is prescribed these lenses, there is a need to ensure that future trials fully report adverse events, in order to obtain a more comprehensive (and generalisable) understanding of any potential side effects.

Another important consideration with interpreting the presented findings is that the included studies used a wide range of blue-light filtering spectacle lens products that filter blue light by different amounts (see [Table](#page-94-1) 1 for details). Given a lack of suitable available data, subgroup analyses could not be performed to assess whether there was any difference between blue-light filtering lenses that attenuate different amounts of blue light for the prespecified study outcome measures. This is another relevant question that might be addressed with the availability of data from future studies.

Overall, as only one study evaluated the potential change in BCVA with the use of blue-light filtering lenses compared to nonblue-light filtering lenses, current evidence for effect(s) on this outcome suggests little or no effect. There is also currently no RCT evidence to draw conclusions on whether blue-light filtering lenses modify aspects of visual performance (i.e. discomfort glare, contrast sensitivity and colour discrimination), serum melatonin levels, or their potential effect(s) on patient visual satisfaction, compared with non-blue-light filtering lenses.

Quality of the evidence

Overall, we graded the certainty of the body of evidence for all prespecified outcomes as moderate, low or very low, using the GRADE approach (see [Summary](#page-7-1) of findings 1 for details).

We judged the certainty of the evidence for both the primary outcomes (subjective visual fatigue score and CFF) to be low. For subjective symptom scores, we downgraded the evidence due to a high risk of bias detected across domains relating to performance bias and detection bias, and due to imprecision (wide confidence intervals). Forthe CFF outcome, we downgraded evidence certainty due to a high risk of performance bias and due to inconsistent findings between studies (with one study reporting positive effects with blue-light filtering lenses and another study reporting no significant difference between the study groups).

For BCVA, we downgraded the certainty of evidence to moderate due to a high risk of detection bias. We downgraded the certainty of evidence for the subjective sleep score outcome to very low, due to studies having small sample sizes and reporting variable findings, and high risks detected across the domains of performance bias, detection bias, and other bias (studies reporting significant baseline imbalance).

We downgraded the certainty of evidence for adverse events to low, due to inconsistency in the reported study findings and our evaluation of high risks of bias for selection bias, performance bias, detection bias, and other risk of bias (studies reporting significant baseline imbalance between the participant groups).

Potential biases in the review process

We followed the standard methodological procedures recommended by Cochrane to minimise any potential bias in the conduct of this systematic review. Two of the review authors (SS and LED) were first- (SS) and senior-authors (LED), respectively, on one of the studies included in this review ([Singh 2021](#page-28-15)). For this study, two independent review authors (JL and CH) performed the risk of bias assessment and consensus. Overall, we consider this process to have mitigated this potential bias.

Agreements and disagreements with other studies or reviews

A previous systematic review investigated the potential benefits and harms of blue-light filtering lenses on visual performance, macular health and the sleep-wake cycle [\(Lawrenson](#page-33-13) 2017). The review included both randomised and pseudo-randomised controlled trials, and three studies met the authors' eligibility criteria. All three studies were reported to have an unclear or high risk of selection bias. Overall, the review found a lack of high-quality evidence to support the use of blue-light blocking lenses by the general population to improve ocular health, sleep patterns or eye strain, compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses. The findings reported in the systematic review by [Lawrenson](#page-33-13) 2017 broadly align with the findings in the current review.

One recently published systematic review evaluated the benefits and harms of interventions available forthe treatment of computer vision syndrome ([Singh 2022](#page-35-13)). This review included only RCTs and considered outcomes related to visual fatigue symptoms, CFF, quality of life, dry eye symptoms, amplitude of accommodation, near point of convergence, blink rate, overall patient satisfaction, and adverse events. This review investigated a diverse range of interventions, including a comparison between blue-light filtering versus non-blue-light filtering spectacle lenses. The review included three RCTs that had evaluated visual fatigue symptoms, and two studies that had quantified CFF; these studies mirror those

included in the current review. [Singh 2022](#page-35-13) reported there may be no overall effect on visual fatigue, and little to no effect on CFF, with blue-light filtering lenses compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses. These findings are similar to the appraisal of the evidence in the current review.

Another recent systematic review investigated the effect of bluelight filtering lenses (both spectacles and IOLs) on the progression of age-related macular degeneration, visual fatigue symptoms, and sleep quality [\(Vagge](#page-35-17) 2021). The review reported individual study findings to be inconsistentin relation to the potential application of blue-light blocking devices for protecting macular health, reducing visual fatigue, or promoting sleep quality. Although these findings are broadly consistent with the current review, it should be noted that this review by [Vagge](#page-35-17) 2021 was not prospectively registered on a public systematic review registry, did not perform risk of bias assessments on the included studies, and did not evaluate the overall evidence certainty using an approach such as GRADE.

Two other systematic reviews have evaluated the effects of bluelight filtering spectacle lenses on sleep-related outcomes [\(Hester](#page-33-18) [2021](#page-33-18); [Shechter](#page-35-18) 2020). [Shechter](#page-35-18) 2020 included 12 studies with study populations comprising both healthy individuals and people with pathological conditions (i.e. medical, psychiatric, sleep, or circadian rhythms disorders). [Shechter](#page-35-18) 2020 concluded there to be some evidence that the use of blue-light filtering lenses can improve sleep in people with certain pathological conditions. The other systematic review included 29 studies with heterogeneous study designs [\(Hester](#page-33-18) 2021). This review focused on clinical populations with sleep and mood disorders, and concluded that blue-light filtering lenses could improve sleep in people reporting insomnia or a delayed sleep phase. However, the review by [Hester](#page-33-18) [2021](#page-33-18) was not prospectively registered and risk of bias assessments were not undertaken. The findings reported in the systematic reviews by [Hester](#page-33-18) 2021 and somewhat contrast with those reported in the current review. A likely reason is that the current review included only RCTs, whereas [Shechter](#page-35-18) 2020 included RCTs, singlearm trials and pre-/post-intervention designs, and [Hester](#page-33-18) 2021 included RCTs, uncontrolled trials, a case series and a case study. The inclusion of study designs with the potential for more bias reduces the certainty of the conclusions in these earlier reviews, and thus their findings should be interpreted with caution.

A prior Cochrane Review and meta-analysis by [Downie](#page-32-7) 2018 examined the potential benefits and adverse effects of bluelight blocking IOLs, compared to non-blue-light blocking IOLs, for protecting macular health, and modulating visual function (i.e. BCVA, colour discrimination and contrast sensitivity). Based on analysing data from 51 eligible RCTs, the authors concluded that there was a lack of clinical evidence to support the use of bluelight blocking IOLs for protecting macular health, or altering the risks associated with the development and progression of AMD [\(Downie](#page-32-14) 2019). The authors found no significant difference in shortterm BCVA between blue-light blocking IOLs and non-blue-light blocking IOLs. Furthermore, there were no relevant combinable data to ascertain the potential effects of blue-light blocking IOLs on contrast sensitivity or colour discrimination. The findings related to visual function, and macular health outcomes were similar to the findings reported in the current review that investigated blue-light filtering spectacle lenses.

A U T H O R S ' C O N C L U S I O N S

Implications for practice

Based on the current best available research evidence, this systematic review finds that there may be no clinically meaningful difference in short-term (less than one day) subjective visual fatigue scores or critical fusion frequency (CFF) with the use of blue-light filtering lenses compared to non-blue-light filtering lenses.

Our ability to draw conclusions about the effect of blue-light filtering spectacle lenses on many of the prespecified secondary outcomes was limited by the available evidence, with most trials not reporting quantitative data, having shorter follow-up periods than the period of interest defined in our systematic review protocol, or heterogeneous study populations that limited our capacity for quantitative syntheses.

There may be no difference between blue-light filtering and nonblue-light filtering spectacle lenses with respect to best-corrected visual acuity (BCVA), based on one study with a follow-up period of less than one day. We are highly uncertain of whether blue-light filtering lenses affect daytime alertness relative to non-blue-light filtering lenses. The study follow-up periods for daytime alertness ranged from seven days to five weeks. For subjective sleep quality, with study follow-up periods ranging between one and five weeks, limited quantitative data were available, and individual studies investigated different study populations; the effect of blue-light filtering spectacles on this outcome thus remains very uncertain. Overall, the main reasons for downgrading the certainty of the evidence were due to risks of bias (i.e. performance bias, detection bias and other bias).

As none of the eligible trials evaluated outcomes related to contrast sensitivity, discomfort glare, colour discrimination, effects on macular health, serum melatonin levels or overall patient visual satisfaction, we are unable to comment on the potential effect(s) of blue-light filtering lenses, relative to non-blue-light filtering lenses, on these outcomes. Further, there is no clear evidence from reports of adverse events that blue-light filtering spectacle lenses are unsafe to wear.

Overall, based on relatively limited clinical trial data, these findings do not support the prescription of blue-light filtering lenses to the general population for the purpose of reducing visual fatigue or enhancing BCVA. Potential effects on sleep are indeterminate due to lack of clarity with respect to how individuals with different medical conditions might, or might not, respond differentially to the intervention.

Implications for research

Beyond the putative link between blue light and (temporary) visual fatigue from computer use, from a public health perspective a particularly concerning notion is the prospect that environmental blue-light exposure might induce permanent retinal damage, and promote the development or progression of age-related macular degeneration (AMD). This association remains controversial [\(Downie](#page-32-14) 2019). The current review did not identify any randomised controlled trial (RCT) evidence from which to draw conclusions regarding whether blue-light filtering spectacle lenses impart macular protection. Although environmental light sources (e.g. lights and electronic devices) might irradiate the eye for an extended period, the amount of blue light emitted from these

sources is significantly less than the amount of blue light from natural daylight (de [Gálvez](#page-32-15) 2022; [O'Hagan](#page-34-0) 2016). For longer-term viewing, the International Commission on Non-ionising Radiation Protection (ICNIRP) has suggested exposure limits of greater than 100 W m−2 sr−1 can cause ocular damage; however, the amount of blue light emitted from electronic devices has been measured to be between 0.034 to 0.380 W m−2 sr−1; at least 100-fold less than the intensity considered to have the potential to cause eye damage. Based on these data, it is unlikely that environmental sources of blue light will cause retinal damage.

While the current epidemiological evidence suggests the risk of blue-light-induced retinal damage from regular environmental exposure is low ([Darzins](#page-32-16) 1997; [Delcourt](#page-32-17) 2001; [McCarty 2001](#page-34-20); [Taylor](#page-35-19) [1992](#page-35-19)), any measure that might prevent or reduce the risk of AMD, or slow its progression, has the potential to have broad public health benefit. Hence, there may be merit in future studies evaluating whether blue-light filtering spectacle lenses confer any degree of macular protection. Such studies are, however, practically challenging, likely requiring very large sample sizes, with clinical evaluation over years (possibly decades, depending on the study population) to ascertain any potential benefit(s).

In relation to trial follow-up periods, most studies included in this review had follow-up periods of less than four weeks. This limited period of evaluation restricted our ability to consider the potential longer-term outcomes from the use of blue-light filtering lenses. Future studies with longer follow-up periods are warranted, as appropriate to the intended research question. As discussed above, identifying macular structural change might require a follow-up period of several years, whereas studies evaluating sleep may optimally address questions relating to efficacy or safety over follow-up periods of weeks to months.

The observed inconsistency in findings related to subjective sleep outcomes likely reflects the variability in the study populations among included studies. Given the rationale that any potential effects on sleep may be population dependent, there is a need for more studies that investigate specific participant populations; this would potentially then allow for data pooling across several studies investigating the same study population, to provide more certain evidence about any effects on sleep in specific segments of the population, including healthy adults.

Sixty-five per cent of included trials were not registered on a clinical trial registry, resulting in an inability to assess the risk of reporting bias in these studies. This finding is surprising, given that prospective registration of clinical trials has gained high importance in the last two decades, with journals making registration of study protocols compulsory to submit the research for publication (De [Angelis](#page-32-18) 2006). Likewise, only 47% of included trials reported a sample size calculation, indicating a lack of clarity with respect to whether these studies were appropriately powered to find a difference between the interventions. These factors should be considered in the design and reporting of future RCTs.

The variability in the methodology and outcome measures used in the eligible RCTs highlights the potential benefit of developing a

core outcome set, with an agreed set of measures to be quantified and reported in future clinical trials. The adoption, and associated reporting, of core outcome measures in RCT publications will, in the longer term, contribute to enhancing capacity to pool data across multiple studies in future meta-analyses, and thus assist with more clearly determining the efficacy and safety of the intervention. We did not identify any RCTs that assessed contrast sensitivity, discomfort glare, colour discrimination, serum melatonin levels, or patient visual satisfaction with blue-light filtering spectacle lenses. Given the clinical relevance of these parameters, we suggest that future studies consider their inclusion as outcome measures, and that they also be considered for potential inclusion in a relevant core outcome set.

For risk of bias assessment, the domains most frequently judged to be at a high risk of bias among eligible trials were related to a failure to mask participants, personnel or outcome assessors, or at least one of these parties. When possible, future studies should aim for a double-masked study design. Where masking is challenging (e.g. due to familiarity of the intervention to the participants due to the difference in colouration of blue-light filtering vs non-bluelight filtering lenses), any attempts to preserve masking should be described in the body of the manuscript and if masking was not achieved this should be clearly acknowledged. An assessment of masking integrity, as was evident in one trial [\(Singh 2021\)](#page-28-15), would also be beneficial. This information will help in making appropriate judgements for these risk of bias domains in future reviews.

Overall, the results of this review indicate that future high-quality research is required to more clearly define the potential effects of blue-light filtering lenses on visual performance, sleep and macular health, including whether efficacy and safety outcomes are distinct in different study populations.

A C K N O W L E D G E M E N T S

Cochrane Eyes and Vision (CEV) created and executed the electronic search strategies. The [Methods](#page-12-1) section of this protocol includes some text from a standard template prepared by CEV.

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Wong WL, Su X, Li X, Cheung CM, Klein R, Cheng CY, et al. Global prevalence of age-related macular degeneration and disease burden projection for 2020 and 2040: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Global Health* 2014;**2**(2):e106-16.

Yamashita 2019

Yamashita SI, Suzuki N, Yamamoto K, Iio SI, Yamada T. Effects of MaquiBright® on improving eye dryness and fatigue in humans: A randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Journal of Traditional and Complementary Medicine* 2019;**9**(3):172-8.

Yan 2022

Yan K, Rosenfield M. Digital eyestrain and the critical fusion frequency. *Optometry and Vision Science* 2022;**99**(3):253-8.

Yang 2006

Yang Z, Camp NJ, Sun H, Tong Z, Gibbs D, Cameron DJ, et al. A variant of the HTRA1 gene increases susceptibility to agerelated macular degeneration. *Science* 2006;**314**(5801):992-3.

Youssef 2011

Youssef PN, Sheibani N, Albert DM. Retinal light toxicity. *Eye* 2011;**25**(1):1-14.

Zeitzer 2000

Zeitzer JM, Dijk DJ, Kronauer R, Brown E, Czeisler C. Sensitivity of the human circadian pacemaker to nocturnal light: melatonin phase resetting and suppression. *Journal of Physiology* 2000;**526**(Pt 3):695-702.

C H A R A C T E R I S T I C S O F S T U D I E S

Characteristics of included studies *[ordered by study ID]*

Zhang 2004

Zhang M, Bi LF, Ai YD, Yang LP, Wang HB, Liu ZY, et al. Effects of taurine supplementation on VDT work induced visual stress. *Amino Acids* 2004;**26**(1):59-63.

References to other published versions of this review

Downie 2019b

Downie LE, Keller PR, Busija L, Lawrenson JG, Hull CC. Blue-light filtering spectacle lenses for visual performance, sleep, and macular health in adults. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2019, Issue 1. Art. No: CD013244. [DOI: [10.1002/14651858.CD013244\]](https://doi.org/10.1002%2F14651858.CD013244)

Alzahrani 2020 Study characteristics	
	Study grouping: cross-over
	Exclusions after randomisation: not reported
	How missing data were handled (e.g. available case analysis, imputation, etc.): not reported
	Losses to follow-up: not reported
	Other comments (e.g. unusual study design/issues): the study had two separate protocols, "experi- ment 1" and "experiment 2", where each person only participated in one protocol. Each protocol had an internal cross-over design, where each participant undertook the experiment using all of the differ- ent blue-blocking lenses and the non-blue-blocking control in a random order.
	Reported power calculation? (Yes/No): no "The present study was not designed to provide popula- tion norms that would be achievable by using a larger sample size, although this may be the focus of a future study. Importantly, the sample size has been shown to be sufficient in power for a true-positive discovery, and in addition, partial n2 values are reported, which were typically large and demonstrated that larger sample size was unnecessary to the reported effects."
	Trial duration: not reported
	Unit of randomisation/unit of analysis: unit of randomisation and unit of analysis was per participant
Participants	Country: not reported
	Total number participants: 12
	Setting: not reported
	Baseline characteristics
	Number of participants: 12 Sex (number of females/number of males): not reported Age (range): mean not reported. Not reported (18 to 39 years) \bullet
	Inclusion criteria: not reported
	Exclusion criteria: Colour deficiencies; history of ocular disease

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[Alzahrani](#page-28-0) 2020 *(Continued)*

Comparison of study groups at baseline: Not applicable (cross-over)

Risk of bias

[Alzahrani](#page-28-0) 2020 *(Continued)*

[Alzahrani](#page-28-1) 2021

[Alzahrani](#page-28-1) 2021 *(Continued)*

[Alzahrani](#page-28-1) 2021 *(Continued)*

Notes

Risk of bias

[Bigalke](#page-28-2) 2021

[Bigalke](#page-28-2) 2021 *(Continued)*

Email: jcarter@montana.edu

Address: Department of Health and Human Development, Sleep Research Laboratory, Montana State University, P.O. Box 172460, Bozeman, MT 59717, USA.

Notes

[Burkhart 2009](#page-28-3)

Notes

Risk of bias

[Dabrowiecki](#page-28-4) 2020

Risk of bias

[Danilenko](#page-28-5) 2019

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[Danilenko](#page-28-5) 2019 *(Continued)*

Baseline characteristics

Blue-light filtering spectacle lens

- Number of participants: 16
- Sex (number of females/number of males): 6/10
- Age (mean (SD)): 49.7 (12.3)

Non-blue-light filtering spectacle lens

- Number of participants: 19
- Sex (number of females/number of males): 9/10
- Age (mean (SD)): 50.9 (10.8)

Overall

- Number of participants: 35
- Sex (number of females/number of males): 15/20
- Age (mean (SD)): 50.3 (11.3)

Inclusion criteria: age ≥ 18 years; major depressive disorder (MDD), recurrent or single episode or persistent DD (dysthymia), with melancholic or atypical features (according to DSM-5 criteria; [APA](#page-31-0) [2013](#page-31-0)); current depressive episode, with the 17-item Hamilton Depression Rating Scale score at least 12 (HDRS-17 interview according to [Williams 1994](#page-35-0)) and Beck Depression Inventory-II score – at least 16 (BDI-II; [Beck 1996\)](#page-31-1); clinical predominance of depression over another psychiatric disorder, if present (e.g. personality disorder); stable dose of antidepressants (if taken) for the last 3 weeks; good general health; on stable medication(s) dosage, if suffering a chronic disease; and written informed consent to participate in the study.

Exclusion criteria: bipolar disorder; MDD with seasonal pattern, anxious distress, mixed or psychotic features; suicidal ideation; pregnancy; an acute illness; long-distance transmeridian travel during the previous week; contraindications to light therapy (retinal diseases, intake of photosensitising agents); and cataracts.

Comparison of study groups at baseline: Table 1 shows no significant difference between study arms.

Interventions **Intervention characteristics**

Blue-light filtering spectacle lens

- Intervention name (e.g. spectacle lens name and manufacturer): orange glasses (Chron-optic, Québec, Canada). Reported to completely eliminate light below 540 nm.
- Frequency with which the intervention (spectacle lenses) were worn overthe trial duration: worn daily for 6 consecutive days. Worn only during light therapy treatment. Light therapy duration alternated between 4 hours (on Days 3, 5, and 7 of the study), and 1 hour (on Days 4, 6, and 8 of the study).
- Other comments: light therapy began at Day 3 at 4.00am to 8.00am after waking the participant. The light therapy room was equipped with 36 Philips LED tubes (MASLED tube VLE 1200 mm 20 W/865 T8C; 6500 Kelvin). They provided "blue-enriched" light, with blue light peaking at 450 nm. The light intensity was increased hourly in the sequence of 600→1300→2200→2800 lx. On the days where light therapy was only one hour duration, the light intensity was 2800 lx.

Non-blue-light filtering spectacle lens

- Intervention name (e.g. spectacle lens name and manufacturer): clear lenses (Chron-optic, Québec, Canada)
- Frequency with which the intervention (spectacle lenses) were worn overthe trial duration: worn daily for 6 consecutive days. Worn only during light therapy treatment. Light therapy duration alternated between 4 hours (on Days 3, 5, and 7 of the study), and 1 hour (on Days 4, 6, and 8 of the study).
- Other comments: light therapy began at Day 3 at 4.00am to 8.00am after waking the participant. The light therapy room was equipped with 36 Philips LED tubes (MASLED tube VLE 1200 mm 20 W/865 T8C; 6500 Kelvin). They provided "blue-enriched" light, with blue light peaking at 450 nm. The light

Notes

Risk of bias

[Esaki 2017](#page-28-6)

[Esaki 2017](#page-28-6) *(Continued)*

- Number of participants: 10
- Sex (number of females/number of males): 8/2
- Age (mean (SD)): 39.8 (5.8)

Overall

- Number of participants: 20
- Sex (number of females/number of males): 14/6
- Age (mean (SD)): not reported

Inclusion criteria: aged 20 to 65 years, had a diagnosis of MDD (Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 5th edition) as assessed by a psychiatrist, a score of > 13 on the 17-item Hamilton Depression Rating Scale (HAM-D) at screening, sleep onset insomnia that had continued almost every day for more than 2 weeks, based on self-assessment, and had been on the same psychotropic medication at the same dosage for at least 2 weeks before screening.

Exclusion criteria: seasonal pattern, bipolar disorder, psychotic disorders, substance abuse or dependence within the past year, or serious suicidal risk as judged by a clinician. Participants with knowledge of BB glasses.

Comparison of study groups at baseline: "There were differences at baseline between the BB and placebo groups (including some of marginal statistical significance) in sleep quality assessed using the VAS ($P = 0.015$), SL ($P = 0.058$), and antipsychotics use ($P = 0.077$); other values did not significantly differ between the groups (Table 2)."

Interventions **Intervention characteristics**

Blue-light filtering spectacle lens

- Intervention name (e.g. spectacle lens name and manufacturer): glasses with orange lenses (Yamamoto Kogaku, No. 360S UV Orange, Osaka, Japan) of a fit-over design. All participants wore study glasses of the same size, regardless of whether they were using regular glasses.
- Frequency with which the intervention (spectacle lenses) were worn over the trial duration: the first week was the baseline assessment period. Participants recorded a sleep diary for 1 week. For the following 2 weeks, they were randomly assigned to wearing either BB glasses or clear glasses (placebo). Participants were instructed to wear the allocated glasses from 20:00 hours until bedtime every evening.
- Other comments: usual medications and psychotherapy were maintained during the study period.

Non-blue-light filtering spectacle lens

- Intervention name (e.g. spectacle lens name and manufacturer): glasses with clear lenses of a fit-over design (manufacturer - not reported)
- Frequency with which the intervention (spectacle lenses) were worn over the trial duration: the first week was the baseline assessment period. Participants recorded a sleep diary for 1 week. For the following 2 weeks, they were randomly assigned to wearing either BB glasses or clear glasses (placebo). Participants were instructed to wear the allocated glasses from 20:00 hours until bedtime every evening.
- Other comments: Usual medications and psychotherapy were maintained during the study period.

Outcomes **Primary outcome(s**): sleep quality assessed using visual analogue scale

Secondary outcome(s): Morningness–Eveningness Questionnaire (MEQ), sleep diary data (sleep onset time, wake-up time, and sleep latency), Hamilton Depression Rating Scale (HAM-D), Beck Depression Inventory (BDI), and Clinical Global Impression Severity of illness scale.

Adverse events reported? (Y/N): Y

Measurement time points: Sleep quality and MEQ were measured at after week 1 (baseline) and after 2 weeks of intervention. Sleep diary was assessed for 7 consecutive days at baseline and the last 7 days

Risk of bias

[Esaki 2020](#page-28-7)

[Esaki 2020](#page-28-7) *(Continued)*

Setting: mental care hospital

Baseline characteristics

Blue-light filtering spectacle lens

- Number of participants: 21
- Sex (number of females/number of males): 9/12
- Age (mean (SD)): 44.1 (11.8)

Non-blue-light filtering spectacle lens

- Number of participants: 22
- Sex (number of females/number of males): 14/8
- Age (mean (SD)): 41.1 (10.4)

Overall

- Number of participants: 43
- Sex (number of females/number of males): 23/20
- Age (mean (SD)): not reported

Inclusion criteria: aged 18 to 75 years; diagnosed with BD according to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (fifth edition) by an experienced psychiatrist; a score of ≥ 8 on the Insomnia Severity Index (ISI) questionnaire at the screening.

Exclusion criteria: night shift workers; people with a serious suicidal risk as judged by a clinician; acute manic, mixed, and depressive episodes (patients with only residual symptoms were enrolled in this study).

Comparison of study groups at baseline: The dosage of antidepressants was significantly higher in the blue-blocking intervention group. The MADRS (Montgomery-Asperg Depression Rating Scale) score was marginally significantly lower in the blue-blocking intervention group.

[Esaki 2020](#page-28-7) *(Continued)*

Adverse events reported? (Y/N): Y

Measurement time points: sleep quality, MEQ, Insomnia Severity Index questionnaire, MADRS, and the YMRS were measured at after week 1 (baseline) and after 2 weeks of intervention. Clinical Global Impression Severity of illness scale was measured at 2 weeks of intervention period. Actigraphy data was measured for 7 consecutive days at baseline and the last 7 days of the second week of the intervention.

Identification **Dates study conducted**: July 2017 to February 2019

Funding sources: not reported

Declaration of interest: "The authors report no conflicts of interest related to this research. Dr Kitajima has received speaker's honoraria from Eisai, Mitsubishi Tanabe, Otsuka, Takeda, Eli Lilly, MSD, Yoshitomi, Fukuda, Dainippon Sumitomo, and Shionogi, and has received a research grant from Eisai, MSD and Takeda. Dr. Furukawa has received speaker's honoraria from Mochida, Otsuka, Meiji, Yoshitomi, Eli Lilly, GlaxoSmithKline, Dainippon Sumitomo, and Pfizer. Dr. Moriwaki has received speaker's honoraria from Otsuka, Meiji, Eli Lilly, Dainippon Sumitomo, Shionogi, Novartis, and Janssen. Dr.Fujita has received speaker's honoraria from Dainippon Sumitomo, Eli Lilly, GlaxoSmithKline, Janssen, Yoshitomi, Otsuka, Meiji, Shionogi, Novartis, and Kracie. Dr. Iwata has received speaker's honoraria from Astellas, Dainippon Sumitomo, Eli Lilly, GlaxoSmithKline, Janssen, Yoshitomi, Otsuka, Meiji, Shionogi, Novartis, and Pfizer, and has research grants from Dainippon Sumitomo, GlaxoSmithKline, Tanabe-Mitsubishi, and Otsuka."

Trial registration number: UMIN000028125

Contacting study investigators: study authors not contacted; no additional information used for review

Authors name: Yuichi Esaki

Institution: Fujita Health University School of Medicine

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Address: Department of Psychiatry, Fujita Health University School of Medicine, Toyoake, Aichi 4701192, Japan

Notes

Risk of bias

[Hammond 2015](#page-28-8)

Study characteristics Methods **Study design**: RCT **Study grouping**: cross-over **Exclusions after randomisation**: "One hundred fifty-four of 156 enrolled patients completed the study (97.5%). One patient was invalidated because they violated inclusion/exclusion criteria (implantation with a BLF IOL). Nine other patients had incomplete data sets due to physical limitations or inability to maintain alignment with the optical system." **How missing data were handled** (e.g. available case analysis, imputation, etc.): not reported **Losses to follow-up**: not reported **Other comments** (e.g. unusual study design/issues): none **Reported power calculation?** (Yes/No): yes: "Assuming a log-transformed photostress recovery time SD of 0.35, a minimum sample size of 153 patients was determined to provide 80% power to detect a 20% difference in photostress recovery time." **Trial duration**: 4 months **Unit of randomisation/unit of analysis**: 1 eye per participant was included in the study, reportedly randomly selected, but with no additional information on randomisation method. The study eye re-

tional information on randomisation method.

[Hammond 2015](#page-28-8) *(Continued)*

Participants **Country**: USA **Total number of participants**: 156 **Setting**: not reported **Baseline characteristics** • Number of participants: 156 • Sex (number of females/number of males): 91/65 • Age (mean (range)): 69.8 (48-88) **Inclusion criteria**: bilaterally pseudophakic and ≥ 3 months post-implantation with clear IOLs; ≥ 21 years of age. Good ocular health (based on a clinical interview). Able to adequately participate in the psychophysical testing. **Exclusion criteria**: ocular pathology, degeneration, or media opacity that could have affected study assessments. Any conditions that could be exacerbated, triggered, or worsened by exposure to high-intensity light. **Comparison of study groups at baseline**: not applicable (cross-over) Interventions **Intervention characteristics** Blue-light filtering spectacle lens • Intervention name (e.g. spectacle lens name and manufacturer): "A clip-on spectacle lens with filtering characteristics matched to a commonly used BLF IOL (the AcrySof Natural IOL; Alcon Laboratories, Inc.)" Manufacturer - not reported. • Frequency with which the intervention (spectacle lenses) were worn over the trial duration: the intervention was worn for the duration of the testing period on a single day. Total time of intervention worn not reported. • Other comments: none Non-blue-light filtering spectacle lens • Intervention name (e.g. spectacle lens name and manufacturer): "Non-BLF (clear) clip-on glasses" (manufacturer - not reported). • Frequency with which the intervention (spectacle lenses) were worn over the trial duration: the intervention was worn for the duration of the testing period on a single day. Total time of intervention worn not reported. • Other comments: none Outcomes **Primary outcome(s)**: photostress recovery time **Secondary outcomes (s)**: glare disability threshold and corrected visual acuity **Adverse events reported?** (Y/N): N **Measurement time points**: not reported Identification **Dates study conducted**: "September 2014 to January 2014" reported in the paper. Presumably typographical error. **Funding sources**: "This study was funded by Alcon Research, Ltd." **Declaration of interest**: "Billy R. Hammond has received speaker fees from Alcon Research, Ltd." **Trial registration number**: NCT01938989

ceived both treatments sequentially, with the order determined reportedly randomly, but with no addi-

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[Hammond 2015](#page-28-8) *(Continued)*

Contacting study investigators: study authors not contacted; no additional information used for review

Authors name: Billy R. Hammond

Institution: Vision Sciences, Brain and Behavioral Sciences, University of Georgia

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Address: Vision Sciences, Brain and Behavioral Sciences, University of Georgia, Athens, GA 30602, USA

Notes

Risk of bias

[Henriksen 2016](#page-28-9)

Allocation concealment

(selection bias)

Trusted evidence. Informed decisions.

Unclear risk Quote: "drawing from a fixed number of folded patches. Secretaries not otherwise involved in the trial made the allocation."

[Henriksen 2020](#page-28-10)

Notes

Risk of bias

[Janku](#page-28-11) 2020

[Janku](#page-28-11) 2020 *(Continued)*

• Age (mean (SD)): 42.4 (14.8)

Non-blue-light filtering spectacle lens

- Number of participants: 15
- Sex (number of females/number of males): 9/6
- Age (mean (SD)): 53.9 (15.8)

Overall

- Number of participants: 30
- Sex (number of females/number of males): 15/15
- Age (mean (SD)): 48.1 (16.1)

Inclusion criteria: minimum age of 18 years; absence of severe comorbid psychiatric, neurological or somatic dis-ease; motivation to complete CBT-I program; stable usage of medication affecting sleep.

Exclusion criteria: interrupted CBT-I program; previous experience with CBT-I; night shifts

Comparison of study groups at baseline: "The basic characteristics of the final sample can be seen in Table 1. As the age difference between groups reached the thresholdof statistical significance (t(28) = −2.052, P = .050), age was used as a confounding variable in further analyses along with gender and assigned therapist. To compare both groups at the beginning of the CBT-I program, independent-samples t-tests were carried out for all variables, including ISI, PSQI, ESS, SDS, HAS, BDI and BAI questionnaires and both subjective and objective measures of sleep parameters (SOL, TST, WASO, SE). Baseline measures in each group are presented in Table 2. The only statistically significant difference between the active and placebo group was found for sleepiness (as measured by ESS) ($t = 2.437$, $P = .021$), with higher score (indicating more sleepiness) found in the active group (8.17 ± 4.22) as compared to the placebo group (4.73 ± 3.45) ."

Notes

Risk of bias

[Knufinke](#page-28-12) 2019

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[Lin 2017](#page-28-13)

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[Lin 2017](#page-28-13) *(Continued)*

Baseline characteristics

Low blue-light filtering spectacle lens

- Number of participants: 12
- Sex (number of females/number of males): 7/5
- Age (mean (SD)): 24.58 (1.38)

High blue-light filtering spectacle lens

- Number of participants: 12
- Sex (number of females/number of males): 6/6
- Age (mean (SD)): 25.00 (2.73)

Non-blue-light filtering spectacle lens

- Number of participants: 12
- Sex (number of females/number of males): 3/9
- Age (mean (SD)): 23.25 (0.75)

Overall

- Number of participants: 36
- Sex (number of females/number of males): 16/20
- Age (mean (SD)): not reported

Inclusion criteria: healthy (no known significant health problems) volunteer; male or female of any ethnic group; between 21 and 39 years of age; uncorrected vision or contact lens–corrected vision of 20/30 or better with both eyesopen; not having performed VDT work for at least 1 hour before testing; and not having known visually significant ophthalmic pathology such as cataracts, macular degeneration, glaucoma, eye surgeries, or injuries based on self-reported history.

Exclusion criteria: < 21 or ≥ 40 years of age; had uncorrected vision or contact lens–corrected vision worse than 20/30 with both eyes open; self-reported a concurrent eye injury or disease; had photosensitivity, which would preclude them from comfortably performing 2 hours of VDT work; had been diagnosed with epilepsy; or had previously suffered a seizure.

Comparison of study groups at baseline: there was a statistically significant difference between the ages of the subjects randomly assigned to the no-block and low blockgroups.

Interventions **Intervention characteristics**

Low blue-light filtering spectacle lens

- Intervention name (e.g. spectacle lens name and manufacturer): low blue light blocking lens (JINS CO., LTD)
- Frequency with which the intervention (spectacle lenses) were worn over the trial duration: 2 hours
- Other comments: none

High blue-light filtering spectacle lens

- Intervention name (e.g. spectacle lens name and manufacturer): high blue-light blocking lens (JINS CO., LTD)
- Frequency with which the intervention (spectacle lenses) were worn over the trial duration: 2 hours
- Other comments: none

Non-blue-light filtering spectacle lens

- Intervention name (e.g. spectacle lens name and manufacturer): clear lens (JINS CO., LTD)
- Frequency with which the intervention (spectacle lenses) were worn over the trial duration: 2 hours
- Other comments: none

Notes

Risk of bias

[Lin 2017](#page-28-0) *(Continued)*

Other bias **Low risk** Comment: no other apparent sources of bias.

Comment: computer generated list method of randomisation.

[Shechter](#page-28-2) 2018

[Shechter](#page-28-2) 2018 *(Continued)*

Unit of randomisation/unit of analysis: unit of randomisation and unit of analysis was per participant

Notes

Risk of bias

[Shechter](#page-28-2) 2018 *(Continued)*

Selective reporting (reporting bias) Low risk Comment: all outcomes in the protocol and trials registry entry are reported. Other bias Low risk Comment: no other apparent sources of bias.

[Singh 2021](#page-28-3)

[Singh 2021](#page-28-3) *(Continued)*

Sponsorship source: there is no specific funding for this study

Declaration of interest: "L.E.D. has received grants from CooperVision, Azura Ophthalmics, and Kedalion Therapeutics to conduct dry eye and contact lens research, and consulting income from Seqirus to contribute to a Dry Eye Advisory Board. These grants and consulting income are outside the submitted work. S.S. and A.J.A. have no financial disclosure to report."

Trial registration number: ACTRN12619000057189

Contacting study investigators: study authors not contacted; no additional information used for review

Authors name: A/Prof Andrew J Anderson

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Notes

Risk of bias

BB: blue blocking; BD: bipolar disorder; BDI: Beck Depression Inventory; CBT-I: cognitive behavioral therapy for insomnia; CFF: critical fusion frequency; CVS: computer vision syndrome; ; DSM-5: Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 5th edition; HAM-D: Hamilton Depression Rating Scale; IQR: interquartile range; MDD: major depressive disorder; MEQ: Morningness–Eveningness Questionnaire; OSDI: Ocular Surface Disease Index; RCT: randomised controlled trial; SL: sleep latency; VAS: visual analogue scale; VDT: visual display terminal

Characteristics of excluded studies *[ordered by study ID]*

Characteristics of studies awaiting classification *[ordered by study ID]*

Wolffsohn 2007

Wolffsohn 2007 (Continued)

Exclusion criteria: not reported

Comparison of study groups at baseline: not applicable (cross-over)

[Youngstrom](#page-30-13) 2014 *(Continued)*

Setting: not reported

Baseline characteristics

Blue-light filtering spectacle lens

- Number of participants: not reported
- Sex (number of females/number of males): not reported
- Age (mean (SD)): not reported

Non-blue-light filtering spectacle lens

- Number of participants: not reported
- Sex (number of females/number of males): not reported
- Age (mean (SD)): not reported

Overall

- Number of participants: 24
- Sex (number of females/number of males): 10/14
- Age (range): not reported (35 to 70 years)

Inclusion criteria: not reported

Exclusion criteria: not reported

Comparison of study groups at baseline: not reported

Notes

RCT: randomised controlled trial; SD: standard deviation

Characteristics of ongoing studies *[ordered by study ID]*

ance (not allowed to wear as directed by doctors and regular visitors); serious psychological prob-

[ChiCTR1800020191](#page-30-14) *(Continued)*

lems; neurotic psychological problems (anxiety, depression, etc.); other conditions considered inappropriate by the researcher for participation in this clinical study.

Exclusions after randomisation: not reported

How missing data were handled (e.g. available case analysis, imputation, etc.): not reported

Losses to follow-up: not reported

Other comments (e.g. unusual study design/issues): not reported

Reported power calculation? (Yes/No): No

Trial duration: not reported

[NCT04578249](#page-30-16) *(Continued)*

Unit of randomisation/unit of analysis: not reported

[NCT04578249](#page-30-16) *(Continued)*

Secondary outcome(s): not reported

Adverse events reported? (Y/N): N

Measurement time points: baseline and 5 and 30 days post cardiac surgery.

Inclusion criteria: over 18 years old; diagnosis of migraine before the age of 50, confirmed though screening consultation with the patient; willing and able to provide written informed consent; willing to comply with study assessment schedule and patient diary entry; diagnosis of migraine, with or without aura based on the following primary headache characteristics (based on the Revised International Headache Society criteria for migraine headache - at least 5 attacks fulfilling criteria B-D,headache attacks lasting 4-72 hours (untreated or unsuccessfully treated), headache has at least two of the following characteristics: i. unilateral location ii. pulsating quality iii. moderate or severe pain intensity iv. aggravation by or causing avoidance of routine physical activity (e.g. walking or climbing stairs) d. During headache at least one of the following: i. nausea and/or vomiting ii. photophobia and phonophobia e. not attributed to another disorder); migraine associated with photophobia i.e. either photic hypersensitivity or photic allodynia or inter-ictal photophobia or migraine triggered by light according to patient or a combination of these 4 factors; No expected changes of headache preventative medications after enrolment.

Exclusion criteria: patients with other light sensitive conditions, such as iritis or retinal disease; patients who have less than 4 headache days per month; Patients who have daily headaches; pregnant or nursing; History of cluster headache or hemiplegic migraine; evidence of seizure or major psychiatric disorder; score of 19 or higher on the BDI; active chronic pain syndrome; cardiac or hepatic disease; have taken any investigational medication within 12 weeks before randomisation, or are scheduled to receive an investigational drug; have received Botox injections for any purpose in the head or face region within 3 months of trial onset or scheduled to receive such treatment during the trial; medication overuse as per the revised ICHD-3 IHS criteria; medications that can affect light perception like ethambutol, hydroxychloroquine or amiodarone or any other according to the opinion of the investigator; patients requiring prescription/reading glasses; patients who have not responded to three or more migraine preventive drugs; patients who have a diagnosed neurological disorder that may influence the study according to the investigators.

Comparison of study groups at baseline: not applicable (cross-over)

[NCT04904328](#page-30-17) *(Continued)*

Date clinical trial registry last updated: May 2021

Recruitment status: not yet recruiting

Other notes: study sponsor - Mitsui Chemicals, Inc.

[NCT05206747](#page-30-18) *(Continued)*

AVR: aortic valve replacement; CABG: coronary artery bypass graft; MVR: mitral valve replacement; RCT: randomised controlled trial; SD: standard deviation

A D D I T I O N A L T A B L E S

Table 1. Summary of study design, participants, interventions, and follow-up periods for the included studies

Table 1. Summary of study design, participants, interventions, and follow-up periods for the included

Table 1. Summary of study design, participants, interventions, and follow-up periods for the included

Abbreviations: BLFL, blue light filtering lens; nm, nanometres

Table 2. Table 2. Summary of adverse effects reported in included trials (Continued)

Abbreviations: BB, blue block.

A P P E N D I C E S

Appendix 1. CENTRAL search strategy

#1 MeSH descriptor: [Eyeglasses] this term only #2 (spectacle* or eyeglasses or glasses) #3 #1 or #2 #4 MeSH descriptor: [Filtration] this term only #5 blue near/2 light* #6 blue near/3 filter* #7 blue near/3 block* #8 violet near/3 filter* #9 blue light near/2 (emission* or transmission*) #10 (short next wavelength near/2 light) #11 UV near/2 (protect* or attenuat*) #12 (blueEast or "Blue control" or "Crizal prevencia" or "Dura vision" or Eyezen or Gunnar or "Kodak Total Blue" or StressFree)

#13 #4 or #5 or #6 or #7 or #8 or #9 or #10 or #11 or #12 #14 #3 and #13

Appendix 2. MEDLINE Ovid search strategy

- 1. randomized controlled trial.pt. 2. (randomized or randomised).ab,ti. 3. placebo.ab,ti. 4. dt.fs. 5. randomly.ab,ti. 6. trial.ab,ti. 7. groups.ab,ti. 8. or/1-7 9. exp animals/ 10. exp humans/ 11. 9 not (9 and 10) 12. 8 not 11 13. Eyeglasses/ 14. (spectacle\$ or eyeglasses or glasses).tw. 15. or/13-14 16. Filtration/ 17. (blue adj2 light\$).tw. 18. (blue adj3 filter\$).tw. 19. (blue adj3 block\$).tw. 20. (violet adj3 filter\$).tw. 21. (blue light adj2 (emission\$ or transmission\$)).tw. 22. (short adj1 wavelength adj2 light).tw. 23. (UV adj2 (protect\$ or attenuat\$)).tw. 24. (blueEast or "Blue control" or "Crizal prevencia" or "Dura vision" or Eyezen or Gunnar or "Kodak Total Blue" or StressFree).tw. 25. or/16-24 26. 15 and 25
- 27. 12 and 26

The search filter for trials at the beginning of the MEDLINE strategy is from the published paper by [Glanville 2006](#page-32-1).

Appendix 3. Embase Ovid search strategy

1. exp randomized controlled trial/ 2. exp randomization/ 3. exp double blind procedure/ 4. exp single blind procedure/ 5. random\$.tw. 6. or/1-5 7. (animal or animal experiment).sh. 8. human.sh. 9. 7 and 8 10. 7 not 9 11. 6 not 10 12. exp clinical trial/ 13. (clin\$ adj3 trial\$).tw. 14. ((singl\$ or doubl\$ or trebl\$ or tripl\$) adj3 (blind\$ or mask\$)).tw. 15. exp placebo/ 16. placebo\$.tw. 17. random\$.tw. 18. exp experimental design/ 19. exp crossover procedure/ 20. exp control group/ 21. exp latin square design/ 22. or/12-21 23. 22 not 10 24. 23 not 11 25. exp comparative study/ 26. exp evaluation/

27. exp prospective study/ 28. (control\$ or prospectiv\$ or volunteer\$).tw. 29. or/25-28 30. 29 not 10 31. 30 not (11 or 23) 32. 11 or 24 or 31 33. exp spectacles/ 34. (spectacle\$ or eyeglasses or glasses).tw. 35. or/33-34 36. blue light/ 37. (blue adj2 light\$).tw. 38. (blue adj3 filter\$).tw. 39. (blue adj3 block\$).tw. 40. (violet adj3 filter\$).tw. 41. (blue light adj2 (emission\$ or transmission\$)).tw. 42. (short adj1 wavelength adj2 light).tw. 43. (UV adj2 (protect\$ or attenuat\$)).tw. 44. (blueEast or "Blue control" or "Crizal prevencia" or "Dura vision" or Eyezen or Gunnar or "Kodak Total Blue" or StressFree).tw. 45. or/36-44 46. 35 and 45 47. 32 and 46

Appendix 4. LILACS search strategy

(tw:(spectacles or glasses or eye glasses)) AND (tw:(blue light or blue filter or blue blocking or violet filter or UV protection))

Appendix 5. ISRCTN search strategy

(spectacles OR glasses OR eye glasses) AND (blue light OR blue filter OR blue blocking)

Appendix 6. ClinicalTrials.gov search strategy

(spectacles OR glasses OR eye glasses) AND (blue light OR blue filter OR blue blocking)

Appendix 7. WHO ICTRP search strategy

spectacles AND blue light OR glasses AND blue light OR eyeglasses AND blue light OR spectacles AND blue filter OR glasses AND blue filter OR eyeglasses AND blue filter OR spectacles AND blue blocking OR glasses AND blue blocking OR eyeglasses AND blue blocking

Appendix 8. Data on study characteristics

H I S T O R Y

Protocol first published: Issue 1, 2019

C O N T R I B U T I O N S O F A U T H O R S

Sumeer Singh: collection of data for the review; assessment of the risk of bias in the included studies; analysis of data; assessment of the certainty in the body of evidence; interpretation of data, and writing of the review.

Peter Keller: conception of the review; design of the review; methodological advice; interpretation of data; and writing of the review.

Ljoudmila Busija: conception of the review; design of the review; methodological advice; interpretation of data; and writing of the review.

Patrick McMillan: collection of data for the review; assessment of the risk of bias in the included studies; analysis of data; and writing of the review.

EveMakrai: collection of data forthe review; assessment ofthe risk of bias in the included studies; analysis of data; andwriting ofthe review.

John Lawrenson: conception of the review; design of the review; methodological advice; interpretation of data; and writing of the review.

Christopher Hull: conception of the review; design of the review; methodological advice; interpretation of data; and writing of the review.

Laura Downie: conception of the review; design of the review; co-ordination of the review; search and selection of studies for inclusion in the review; collection of data for the review; analysis of data; assessment of the certainty in the body of evidence; interpretation of data; and writing of the review.

D E C L A R A T I O N S O F I N T E R E S T

Laura Downie was a 2015-2017 National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC) Translating Research Into Practice (TRIP) Fellow and has undertaken this review as part of her fellowship project. She has previously received funding to undertake clinical trials in the field of anterior eye disease, being unrelated to this work, from Alcon Pty Ltd and Coopervision Pty Ltd. She currently practices as an optometrist in private practice (Warringal Optometrists, Victoria, Australia), providing clinical care to patients. She was also an investigator on a clinical trial of blue-light filtering lenses that is included in this systematic review ([Singh 2021](#page-28-3)), but did not perform any of the risk of bias assessment or data extraction for this study.

Sumeer Singh was an investigator on a clinical trial of blue-light filtering lenses that is included in this systematic review [\(Singh 2021](#page-28-3)), but did not perform any of the risk of bias assessment or data extraction for this study.

Peter Keller: none known

Ljoudmila Busija: none known

Patrick McMillan: none known

Eve Makrai: none known

John Lawrenson received payment from the College of Optometrists' (UK) to co-author an article to inform practitioners about best evidence, entitled "Evidence base for the efficacy of blue blocking spectacle lenses for visual comfort and as protection against macular disease".

Christopher Hull received payment from the College of Optometrists' (UK) to co-author an article to inform practitioners about best evidence, entitled "Evidence base for the efficacy of blue blocking spectacle lenses for visual comfort and as protection against macular disease".

S O U R C E S O F S U P P O R T

Internal sources

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External sources

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• Queen's University Belfast, UK

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DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PROTOCOL AND REVIEW

Due to variability in the study populations in eligible studies, a lack of studies across some outcome categories, and the fact that most of the studies had shorter follow-up periods (≤ 2 weeks) than our proposed time-point of interest for the outcome measures (one month of follow-up), several aspects of the protocol could not be performed. To maximise capture of the available evidence, we chose to provide a narrative reporting of study findings for the review outcome measures for shorter periods of participant follow-up.

We were unable to quantitatively report treatment effects due to no eligible trials being identified for several outcomes, including contrast sensitivity, colour discrimination, discomfort glare, the proportion of eyes with macular structural change, serum melatonin levels, and overall patient satisfaction with their visual performance.

Blue-light filtering spectacle lenses for visual performance, sleep, and macular health in adults (Review) Copyright © 2023 The Cochrane Collaboration. Published by John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

We were unable to conduct meta-analyses, or therefore to assess heterogeneity or perform subgroup analyses, for any of the prespecified outcome measures, as there was an insufficient number of studies reporting quantitative data with similar study populations to permit such analyses.