Daily Variation in Adolescents’ Sleep, Activities, and Psychological Well-Being

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The daily diary method was used to examine the daily dynamics of adolescent sleep time, activities, and psychological well-being among an ethnically diverse sample of over 750 adolescents approximately 14–15 years of age. Studying and stressful demands during the day were modestly but consistently associated with less sleep that evening. Receiving less sleep at night, in turn, was modestly but consistently related to higher levels of anxiety, depressive feelings, and fatigue during the following day. In addition, the daily variability in adolescents’ sleep time was notable and just as important for the youths’ average levels of daily psychological well-being as was the average amount of time spent sleeping each night. A small number of ethnic and gender differences emerged in the dynamics of adolescent sleep, activities, and well-being. Discussion focuses on the importance of examining variability in adolescents’ sleep behaviors in order to better understand the implications of sleep for adolescent well-being and development.

Given the decreased need for sleep across the entire life span, it initially was assumed that adolescents needed less sleep than younger children. Studies have indicated, however, that adolescents do not have less of a need for sleep (Carskadon, 1990; Carskadon, Harvey, Duke, Anders, & Dement, 1980). Indeed, adequate sleep appears to be a prerequisite for optimum adolescent functioning and well-being. Studies have suggested links between less sleep and higher levels of depressed mood, fatigue, and sleepiness (Fredriksen, Rhodes, Reddy, & Way, 2004; Roberts, Roberts, & Chen, 2001; Wolfson & Carskadon, 1998). Inadequate and poor-quality

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sleep is also associated with diminished cognitive functioning and poor academic performance at school (Dahl, Holttum, & Trubnick, 1994; Wolfson & Carskadon, 1998). The magnitude of these associations tends to be in the small to moderate range, indicating that sleep behaviors have modest but consistent links with the well-being and functioning of teenagers.

Although the implications of sleep for development remain significant during the teenage years, the adolescent period in American society presents challenges to children’s ability to obtain adequate rest at night. The transitions to middle and high school force adolescents to start school at earlier times that conflict with a partially biologically driven circadian phase delay that leads adolescents to prefer later bedtimes (Carskadon, Vieira, & Acebo, 1993; Dahl & Lewin, 2002). Academic demands increase and grading becomes more competitive, resulting in an increased need to study and do homework. The time available for homework after school gets shifted to the evening because of increased socializing with peers and activity involvement in the after-school hours (Larson & Richards, 1991). Adolescents’ perceptions of demands in the central domains in their lives—family, peers, and school—increase and potentially compete with one another for the time and attention of teenagers, and stress is known to interfere with individuals’ ability to obtain adequate rest (Sadeh & Gruber, 2002). Finally, the increased availability of televisions and computers in the homes and bedrooms of many American adolescents present attractive evening diversions that can cut into time that would otherwise be spent sleeping (Dahl, 2002).

Several laboratory and field studies have explored the dynamics of adolescent sleep in recent years. Only a small number of studies of the natural patterns of sleep among normative populations of adolescents have been conducted, however, and these studies have predominantly used survey methods (e.g., Giannotti & Cortesi, 2002; Roberts et al., 2001; Strauch & Meier, 1988; Wolfson & Carskadon, 1998). As described above, these studies have made significant contributions by estimating the general patterns and correlates of adolescent sleep behavior. Yet, they also possess limitations that can be remedied through the use of alternative methods. Survey studies often ask adolescents to recollect their sleep behaviors from the prior week or two, potentially introducing errors of estimation due to the difficulty inherent in retrospective recall. Correlations between sleep reports and outcomes such as depressed mood may be biased due to the adolescent reporting on both factors within the same survey, and to the possibility that other, unmeasured attributes of the individual adolescent could account for the associations. Finally, it is difficult within a single survey to obtain estimates of the daily variability in
adolescents’ sleep that go beyond just differences between weekdays and weekends. This final limitation is particularly significant because there has been some suggestion that the variability in children’s and adolescents’ sleep may be just as important a predictor of adjustment as the average amount of overall sleep (Acebo & Carskadon, 2002; Bates, Viken, Alexander, Beyers, & Stockton, 2002), and methods designed to assess such variability are needed. In response, recent studies have used methods that allow for the direct measurement of naturalistic daily variation in sleep, such as sleep diaries, daily cell phone calls, and wrist actigraphs, the latter of which measure sleep by analyzing body movements (Axelson et al., 2003; Carskadon, Wolfson, Acebo, Tzischinsky, & Seifer, 1998; Wolfson et al., 2003).

The present study used the daily diary method to examine the daily dynamics of adolescents’ sleep time, activity involvement, and psychological well-being among an ethnically diverse sample of approximately 750 ninth-grade students. In the daily diary approach, study participants are asked to complete diary checklists each day for a short period of time, often ranging from 1 to 2 weeks. Asking participants to report experiences every day minimizes the amount of error that occurs in the retrospective reporting of events. This method also allows researchers to estimate whether specific events, behaviors, and feelings co-occur with one another on a daily basis (e.g., do adolescents sleep less on days in which they have a lot of homework or experience stress?). In addition, researchers can estimate the extent to which the co-occurrence of daily-level phenomena varies across individuals and groups (e.g., is the link between study time and sleep time greater for adolescent girls than boys?).

The daily diary approach is particularly useful for understanding the role of sleep in adolescents’ lives because it not only enables a close examination at the level of day-to-day experiences, but it also allows researchers to take steps to account for potential confounds inherent in having the same individuals report both their life events and adjustment. If diary reports are obtained on consecutive days, researchers can control for individuals’ level of well-being on the prior day in order to estimate the association between sleep time and change in well-being from the previous day. Finally, the availability of daily reports of sleep time allows for a direct estimation of the daily variability in adolescents’ sleep time, as was done by Bates et al. (2002) in a study of preschool children. Specifically, the extent to which each individuals’ daily sleep time deviates from their own average amount of sleep time across the study period can be computed, and the predictive importance of this indicator of variability relative to the average amount of time adolescents sleep can be examined.
In the present study, adolescents completed a short diary checklist every night before going to bed for a period of 2 weeks. Among other events and experiences, the checklists included items regarding the amount of time spent sleeping the prior evening, involvement that day in various activities such as studying and socializing with friends, and feelings that day of psychological well-being and fatigue. In the analyses described in this paper, we examined the relevance of six different types of activities and experiences for adolescents’ sleep patterns. Studying, socializing with friends, and stressful demands have been suggested in prior survey research to be associated with adolescents’ sleep time (Carskadon, 2002; Sadeh & Gruber, 2002). These are common activities and experiences during the adolescent years and can either compete with the time available for sleeping or arouse teenagers to a level that makes it difficult to relax at bedtime. Watching television and playing on the computer have been studied less frequently as correlates of sleep time, but these activities have been suggested to be late-night diversions that can prevent teenagers from getting to sleep at a reasonable hour (Dahl, 2002). Finally, helping the family with chores and other tasks is an activity that has shown variability across different ethnic groups and, at higher levels, could conceivably present an additional demand on adolescents’ lives that would cut into the time they have available for sleeping (Fuligni, Yip, & Tseng, 2002).

We also analyzed the implications of sleep time and variability for four different aspects of adolescents’ daily mood and psychological well-being because limited and irregular sleep is thought to diminish individual’s ability to regulate mood and negative emotions (Dahl, 2002). Adolescents’ daily reports of anxious and depressive feelings were included because of their associations with sleep time in prior survey research, the links of disrupted sleep with anxiety and depression, and the importance of the adolescent period for the emergence of internalizing disorders (McCracken, 2002). Fatigue was examined in order to assess the obvious links between nightly rest and energy levels during the day, and adolescents’ feelings of happiness were analyzed in order to provide an index of positive well-being in order to complement the indices of negative well-being.

The daily diary method allowed us to examine the associations between sleep, activities, and well-being at both the individual and the daily level. At the individual level, daily reports were averaged across the 14 days in order to examine whether adolescents who differ in their mean levels of sleep also differ in their mean levels of activities and well-being. Associations observed at the individual level can be interpreted as evidence for the implications of chronic patterns of sleep. For example, do adolescents who typically spend more time studying also typically spend less time...
sleeping? At the daily level, in contrast, analyses examined whether the experience of sleeping less or more as compared with other days was associated with the daily occurrence of activities or the daily experience of well-being within individual adolescents. Associations observed at the daily level, therefore, can be interpreted as evidence for the implications of episodic patterns of sleep. For example, do adolescents feel more depressed on days after they received less sleep? The daily-level analyses also allowed us to examine whether there were individual differences in the daily associations between sleep, activities, and well-being. For example, are girls more tired on days after they received less sleep than boys? Finally, the daily analyses allowed us to confirm whether the associations found at the individual level were also found at the daily level. Associations observed at both levels would provide more evidence that sleeping behavior itself was associated with activities and well-being. Associations observed at just the individual level, however, could potentially be due to other, unmeasured characteristics of the individual adolescents and not due to sleeping behaviors themselves.

**METHOD**

**Sample**

Ninth-grade students were recruited from three public high schools in the Los Angeles metropolitan area whose enrollments reflect the communities from which their students are drawn and vary in terms of ethnic composition, socioeconomic status, and overall level of achievement. The first school is populated predominantly by Latino and Asian American students who come from families with lower-middle to middle-class educational, occupational, and financial backgrounds. This school tends to be in the lower middle to middle range of the achievement distribution of schools within the state of California. The second school includes students from mainly Latino and European American families who tend to be lower middle to middle class in terms of parental education, occupation, and income. Finally, the third school enrolls mostly Asian American and European American students whose families tend to be middle to upper middle class. The achievement levels of the latter two schools tend to be average and somewhat above average, respectively. None of the schools were dominated by a single ethnic group; rather, the two most common ethnic groups each comprised approximately 30–50% of the total population of students in each school.

In two of the three high schools, the entire population of ninth-grade students was invited to participate. In the third high school, approxi-
mately half of the ninth graders were invited to participate because the large size of the school did not make it feasible to recruit all of the students. Across all three schools, 65% of those invited to participate actually took part in the study, resulting in a total sample of 783 ninth-grade students who came from families with a wide range of ethnic, socioeconomic, and immigrant backgrounds. A total of 761 students provided sufficient information regarding their sleep time and the analyses presented in this paper focus on these students.

The three high schools had similar start times for the first period of classes of either 8:00 am or 8:15 am. The schools also offered a few “zero period” classes that began at 7:05 am or 7:12 am, but like the typical ninth-grade students in these schools, virtually none of the students in our sample attended zero period classes during our study.

Students were from diverse ethnic backgrounds, with the three largest groups being those from Mexican \( n = 228 \), Chinese \( n = 174 \), and European backgrounds \( n = 136 \). The remainder of the students were from other Asian backgrounds \( n = 82 \), other Latino backgrounds \( n = 34 \), and other backgrounds such as Middle Eastern and African American \( n = 97 \). Ethnic background could not be determined for 10 students. Most of the participants from Latino and Asian backgrounds were from immigrant families, being predominantly of the first (youth were born outside of the United States) and second (youth were born in the United States, but at least one parent was foreign-born) generations. In contrast, those from European and African American backgrounds were predominantly of the third generation or greater (youth and both of their parents were born in the United States). The sample was relatively evenly split between males (49%) and females (51%).

Students reported how far their parents went in school by responding to a scale that ranged from “Elementary/Junior High School,” “Some high school,” “Graduated from high school,” “Some college,” “Graduated from college,” to “Law, medical, or graduate school.” Comparisons of the students from the three largest ethnic backgrounds indicated that parents of students with European backgrounds were more likely to have received college degrees than parents of students with Chinese backgrounds, who, in turn, were more likely to have at least attended college than the parents of students with Mexican backgrounds. Students’ reports of their parents’ jobs were coded into five different categories including “Unskilled,” “Semi-skilled,” “Skilled,” “Semi-professional,” and “Professional.” Ethnic differences in occupational status followed a pattern similar to ethnic differences in education, with parents of students with European backgrounds being employed in higher level occupations than the Chinese parents, who, in turn, worked in higher status occupations than the Mexican parents.
Procedure

Participants were recruited from spring semester classes that all of the ninth-grade students were required to take, regardless of their academic ability (e.g., social studies, physical education). Students who returned parent consent forms and provided their own assent to participate completed an initial questionnaire during class time. Consent forms and study materials were available to students and their parents in English, Chinese, and Spanish and eight participants chose to complete the questionnaires in a language other than English (four in Chinese and four in Spanish).

After completing the initial questionnaire, the students were given a brief demographic questionnaire to complete at home and a 14-day supply of diary checklists for the students to complete at home every night before going to bed over the subsequent 2-week period. The diary checklists were only three pages long and took about 5–10 minutes to complete. Participants were instructed to complete a diary sheet every night rather than a few at a time in order to maintain the integrity of the data. Participants were called once per week during the 2-week period in order to remind them to complete the diary checklists and to answer any of their questions. In order to monitor completion of the diary checklists, participants were also provided with 14 manila envelopes and an electronic time stamper. The time stamper is a small, hand-held device that imprints the current date and time and is programmed with a security code so that the correct date and time cannot be altered. Participants were instructed to place their completed diary checklist into a sealed envelope each night, and to stamp the seal of the envelope with the time stamper. At the end of the two period, the students returned the completed materials to the school and received $30 for participating in the study. In addition, the students were told that they would receive two movie passes if inspection of the data indicated that they had completed the diaries correctly and on time.

The time stamper method of monitoring the completion of the diaries and the cash and movie pass incentives resulted in a high rate of compliance: 97% of the diaries were completed and 86% could be identified as being completed on time, on either the same night or before 12:00 noon the following day. The modal time of completing the diary was 10:00 pm and 89% of the diary checklists were completed between 6:00 pm and 2:00 am. Results from analyses using only those diaries that were definitively completed on time (i.e., either the same night or before 12:00 noon the following day) did not differ from analyses using all completed diaries, regardless of when they were completed. The
findings reported in this paper, therefore, are based upon analyses using all completed diaries.

Measures

Sleep time. Each evening for 14 days, adolescents reported how many hours and minutes they slept the prior night. These daily reports were used as is for the within-person, daily-level analyses. For the between-person, individual-level analyses, the following estimates were created from these reports: sleep time, school night sleep time, and nonschool night sleep time. These three estimates represent the average number of hours spent sleeping each night (across school nights and nonschool nights), each school night (including Sunday but excluding Friday), and each nonschool night (including Friday but excluding Sunday), respectively. Two additional indicators were created to represent the degree of variability in the adolescents’ sleep time. The first, daily sleep deviation, represents how much adolescents varied across days in their nightly sleep time and was created by taking the mean of the absolute differences between adolescents’ average nightly sleep time and each individual night’s sleep time. The second, nonschool night/school night difference, represents the difference between the average amount of sleep on school nights and nonschool nights. Higher scores on this measure represent more time spent sleeping on nonschool nights as compared with school nights.

Daily activities and stressful demands. Each evening for the 2-week period, adolescents reported the number of hours and minutes that they spent engaging in five different activities. They were asked how long they “studied or did homework while not in school” (studying outside of school), “spent time with your friends outside of school” (socializing with friends), “watched television” (watching television), and “spent time for fun on a computer after school” (using a computer). Adolescents also reported how long they spent engaging in seven activities to help their family, such as “helping to clean your apartment or house,” “taking care of your brothers or sisters,” and “ran an errand for your parents or family” (helping the family). These reports were used as is for the within-person daily-level analyses, and daily averages were computed for the between-person, individual-level analyses.

Adolescents also reported “yes/no” as to whether they experienced the following four stressful demands each day: “had a lot of work at home,” “had a lot of work at school,” “had a lot of demands made by family,” and “had a lot of demands made by friends.” These demands were adapted
from similar lists of demands that have been used in other daily diary research of stress and well-being among adults (e.g., Bolger & Zuckerman, 1995), and represent typical stressful demands experienced by adolescents in the three most important areas of their lives (i.e., family, school, and friends). An index of daily demands was created by summing the number of demands experienced each day (range: 0–4). Because the ninth-grade students were generally too young to work, very few of them had part-time jobs (7.5%) and daily reports of “had a lot of work at job” were virtually nonexistent and were not used in the index of stressful demands. The index was used as is for the within-person daily-level analyses, and a daily average was computed for the between-person, individual-level analyses.

**Daily mood.** Aspects of adolescents’ daily mood were assessed each day for the 2-week period using subscales of the Profile of Mood States (Lorr & McNair, 1971), a measure that has been used in numerous previous daily diary studies of stress and psychological well-being among both adolescents and young adults (Bolger & Zuckerman, 1995; Fuligni et al., 2002). Adolescents first read the following statement: “The following is a list of feelings or experiences. Please rate the extent to which these occurred to you today by filling in the circle.” The adolescents then used a scale that ranged from 1 (“Not at all”) to 5 (“Extremely”) to indicate the extent to which they felt anxious feelings (items: “on edge,” “unable to concentrate,” “uneasy,” “nervous”), depressive feelings (items: “sad,” “hopeless,” “discouraged”), and fatigue (items: “exhausted,” “worn-out,” “fatigued”). In addition, adolescents used the same scale to respond to a set of newly created items intended to tap happiness (items: “joyful,” “happy,” “calm”). Daily-level α coefficients indicated that each multiple-item measure possessed good internal consistency (anxious feelings: .63; depressive feelings: .67; fatigue: .76; happiness: .75). These measures were used as is for the within-person daily-level analyses, and daily averages were computed for the between-person individual-level analyses.

**Results**

Two types of analyses were conducted. First, traditional mean difference and correlation analyses were used in order to examine overall trends in adolescents’ sleep time and the individual- and group-level associations between adolescents’ activities and stressful demands, sleep time, and psychological well-being. Second, multilevel modeling techniques were used to examine daily-level associations between adolescents’ activities,
stressful demands, sleep time, and mood in order to determine whether they were linked to one another within individual adolescents.

Individual- and group-level analyses

Sleep time. On average, adolescents reported spending 7.84 hours (SD = .98) per night sleeping, and their nightly sleep time varied across days by an average of almost 1 hour (M = .91; SD = .53) over the 2-week period. Adolescents slept three-quarters of an hour more on nonschool nights (M = 8.41, SD = .98) than school nights (M = 7.66, SD = .96; t(706) = 14.61, p < .001). There was a fair degree of stability in the individual differences in sleep time on different days of the week, with those who slept more on school nights also being likely to sleep more on nonschool nights (r = .43, p < .001).

Average sleep time and sleep deviation were related such that adolescents who showed more variability across days tended to sleep less across all days (r = −.20, p < .001) and on school nights specifically (r = −.31, p < .001), but tended to sleep more on nonschool nights (r = .18, p < .001).

Boys and girls reported similar amounts of sleep on both school nights and nonschool nights, although the daily deviation and the difference between nonschool nights and school nights were slightly greater for girls (deviation: M = .95, SD = .47; nonschool night/school night difference: M = .87, SD = 1.44) than for boys (deviation: M = .87, SD = .57; nonschool night/school night difference: M = .63, SD = 1.29), t’s (715, 696) = 1.99, 2.32, p’s < .05. Ethnic differences were examined only among the three groups for which sufficient samples existed (Chinese, Mexican, and European). Mexican students reported significantly more nightly sleep (M = 8.10, SD = 1.06) than those from Chinese (M = 7.80, SD = .86) and European (M = 7.75, SD = .96) backgrounds, F(2, 571) = 7.70, p < .001. These ethnic differences in overall sleep were attributable to significant differences in school night sleep (Mexican: M = 7.92, SD = 1.05; Chinese: M = 7.54, SD = .87; European: M = 7.58, SD = .88), F(2, 570) = 9.90, p < .001. There were no ethnic differences in the amount of time adolescents slept on nonschool nights or in the daily deviation and nonschool night/school night difference in their sleep time.

Sleep and daily activities and daily demands. Adolescents spent approximately 1 hour each day studying (M = 1.02, SD = .81), socializing with friends (M = .94, SD = 1.05), and helping the family (M = .99, SD = .98), whereas they spent somewhat less time using a computer (M = .80, SD = 1.07). They spent an average of 1.40 hours (SD = 1.10) watching television each day.

Adolescents who spent more time studying, socializing with friends, and playing on the computer spent less time sleeping on a typical night,
although the associations were modest (see Table 1). The associations between these activities and sleep time were evident for school night sleep but not for nonschool night sleep. The time that adolescents spent helping families and watching television was unassociated with overall sleep time, school night sleep time, and nonschool night sleep time.

In order to determine the independent associations of the indicators of sleep time with adolescents’ daily activities, partial correlations of daily sleep time, sleep deviation, and nonschool night/school night difference with each daily activity were estimated. (School night and nonschool night sleep times were not included because of their high correlations with each other and average daily sleep time.) As shown in Table 2, the time that adolescents spent studying, with friends, and playing on the computer was associated with both the average amount of time they slept and the variability in the amount of time they slept, either across days or between nonschool nights and school nights. Specifically, friend and computer time was associated with deviation in sleep time across days, and computer and study time was associated with a greater amount of time spent sleeping on nonschool nights as compared with school nights.

Adolescents who reported more stressful demands on a daily basis tended to sleep less on a typical day ($r = - .13$, $p < .001$), and this was true for both school night sleep ($r = - .11$, $p < .01$) and nonschool night sleep ($r = - .11$, $p < .01$). Those who reported more stressful demands did not differ from their peers, however, in the variability of their sleep across days or between nonschool nights and school nights ($r’s = .02, - .03$, NS). Given

| TABLE 1 |
| Correlations of Sleep Indicators with Adolescents’ Daily Activities |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Studying | Friends | Television | Computer | Family |
| Daily sleep | $-.11^{**}$ | $-.12^{***}$ | .07 | $-.14^{***}$ | .06 |
| School night sleep | $-.19^{***}$ | $-.13^{***}$ | .05 | $-.17^{***}$ | .07 |
| Nonschool night sleep | .04 | -.06 | .06 | -.02 | -.02 |
| Sleep deviation | .05 | $-.10^{**}$ | -.04 | $-.10^{**}$ | -.06 |
| Nonschool night/school night difference | $-.19^{***}$ | .02 | .04 | $-.10^{**}$ | -.04 |

*Note. All variables represent the average daily amount of time in each activity. Sleep deviation represents the mean absolute amount of daily deviation in adolescents’ sleep time from their own mean, and nonschool night/school night difference represents the difference between adolescents’ sleep time on nonschool nights and school nights, with higher scores representing more sleep on nonschool nights. N’s = 707–761.*

**$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$.**
the lack of association of sleep variability with stressful demands, partial correlations were not conducted in order to examine the independent associations of the different indicators of sleep with stressful demands.

Ethnic differences in adolescents’ daily activities and demands were examined in order to determine whether they might account for trend for adolescents from Mexican backgrounds to sleep more than other adolescents. The only ethnic differences in activities and demands in the same direction as the sleep differences were in the tendency for Mexican students to spend less time studying ($M = .72, SD = .59$) and playing on the computer ($M = .40, SD = .66$) than adolescents with Chinese (studying: $M = 1.34, SD = .92$; computer: $M = 1.26, SD = 1.34$) and European (studying: $M = 1.00, SD = .70$; computer: $M = .77, SD = .98$) backgrounds, $F$'s(2, 573) = 35.43, 36.43, $p$'s < .001.

Two-stage hierarchical regression analyses were conducted in order to first estimate the size of the ethnic differences in sleep time and to then examine the extent to which the inclusion of computer and study time reduced the ethnic differences in sleep time. The inclusion of computer time reduced the original difference in sleep time between the Mexican and Chinese students by 44%, and controlling for computer time reduced the ethnic difference to nonsignificance. In contrast, the inclusion of study time reduced the original difference in sleep time between the Mexican and Chinese students by only 29% and the difference between Chinese

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<th>Studying</th>
<th>Friends</th>
<th>Television</th>
<th>Computer</th>
<th>Family</th>
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<td>-.10**</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>-.14***</td>
<td>.02</td>
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<td>Sleep deviation</td>
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<td>.10*</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.08*</td>
<td>-.02</td>
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<td>Nonschool night/school night difference</td>
<td>.22***</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.18*</td>
<td>-.03</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Note. Partial correlations represent the association of each sleep indicator with each activity after controlling for the other two sleep indicators. All variables represent the average daily amount of time in each activity. Sleep deviation represents the mean absolute amount of daily deviation in adolescents’ sleep time from their own mean, and nonschool night/school night difference represents the difference between adolescents’ sleep time on nonschool nights and school nights, with higher scores representing more sleep on nonschool nights. Partial correlations represent the association of each sleep indicator with activities after controlling for the other two sleep indicators. $N$'s = 707–761.

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.
and Mexican students remained significant after controlling for study time. Study and computer time did little to explain the difference in sleep time between adolescents with Mexican and European backgrounds, accounting for only 1% and 19% of the difference, which remained significant even after controlling for these activities.

Sleep and daily mood. As shown in Table 3, adolescents who spent less time sleeping on a typical day tended to report more negative and less positive average daily moods. These associations existed for both school night sleep and nonschool night sleep. Average daily mood also was related to sleep deviation across days, with adolescents who were more variable reporting more negative and less positive moods. The difference between nonschool night and school night sleep, however, was unassociated with average daily mood.

In order to determine the independent associations of the different indicators of sleep time with adolescents’ average daily mood, multiple regressions were conducted in which average daily sleep time, sleep deviation, and nonschool night/school night difference simultaneously predicted adolescents’ average daily mood. As shown in Table 4, the daily variability in adolescents’ sleep time was consistently related to average mood above and beyond the average amount of time adolescents spent sleeping each night. The only exception to this trend was for feelings of happiness. As compared with adolescents with the same amount of sleep, those who are more variable in the amount of sleep they receive tended to report more anxiety, depression, and fatigue. Nonschool night/school

<table>
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<th>Anxiety</th>
<th>Depression</th>
<th>Fatigue</th>
<th>Happiness</th>
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<tr>
<td>Daily sleep</td>
<td>−.21***</td>
<td>−.17***</td>
<td>−.21***</td>
<td>.13***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School night sleep</td>
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<td>−.16***</td>
<td>−.20***</td>
<td>.15**</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nonschool night sleep</td>
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<td>−.13***</td>
<td>−.10**</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sleep deviation</td>
<td>.23***</td>
<td>.16**</td>
<td>.20***</td>
<td>−.09*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonschool night/school night difference</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>−.03</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>−.04</td>
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Note. Sleep deviation represents the average amount of daily deviation in adolescents’ sleep time from their own mean, and nonschool night/school night difference represents the difference between adolescents’ sleep time on nonschool nights and school nights, with higher scores representing more sleep on nonschool nights. N’s = 707–761.

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.
night difference again generally was not associated with adolescents’ average daily mood, except where a tendency to sleep more on nonschool nights than school nights was associated with somewhat lower depressive feelings on average.

**Daily-level analyses.** The daily-level analyses addressed three questions that cannot be answered with the traditional individual-level analyses described above: (1) do adolescents sleep less on nights in which they spend more time in different activities and experience more stressful demands the prior day?; (2) do adolescents feel more anxious, depressed, fatigued, and less happy on days in which they have less sleep the prior night?; and (3) are there individual differences in these daily-level associations between sleep, activities, demands, and mood? These questions refer to the dynamics of episodic variations adolescent sleep within individual adolescents, whereas the individual-level analyses presented above focus on the dynamics of average patterns of adolescent sleep between individual adolescents. The daily-level analyses were conducted using hierarchical linear modeling (HLM; Bryk & Raudenbusch, 1992), which was designed to analyze nested data of the type that were collected for this study (i.e., daily-level data nested within individuals).

**Sleep and daily activities and daily demands.** HLM models were estimated in which the amount of sleep time on a typical evening was predicted by the amount of time spent in different activities and the number of daily demands experienced by the adolescent that day. Separate HLM models were estimated for each predictor and the statistical model that was

| TABLE 4 | Multiple Regressions of Adolescents’ Daily Mood Using Sleep Indicators |
|---------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
|         | Anxiety | Depression | Fatigue | Happiness |
| Daily sleep | -.18*** | -.12** | -.20*** | .12** |
| Sleep deviation | .24*** | .20*** | .19*** | -.08 |
| Nonschool night/school night difference | -.02 | -.09* | .02 | -.03 |
| $R^2$ | .10*** | .06*** | .09*** | .03*** |

*Note. Sleep deviation represents the average amount of daily deviation in adolescents’ sleep time from their own mean, and nonschool night/school night difference represents the difference between adolescents’ sleep time on nonschool nights and school nights, with higher scores representing more sleep on nonschool nights. $N’s = 706–707.$

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.
estimated was as follows:

\[
\text{Sleep time}_{ij} = b_{0j} + b_{1j} (\text{activity or demands}) + b_{2j} (\text{school night}) + b_{3j} (\text{week of study}) + e_{ij}.
\]  

Sleep time on a particular evening \((i)\) for a particular adolescent \((j)\) was modeled as a function of the average sleep time of the individual across nights \(b_{0j}\) and the time that adolescents spent in an activity or the number of demands experienced \(b_{1j}\). In addition, whether the evening fell on a school night (Sunday–Thursday) or nonschool night (Friday and Saturday) \(b_{2j}\) and the week of the study (first or second week) \(b_{3j}\) were included as typical controls in daily diary analyses.

As shown in Table 5, adolescents slept less at night after days in which they spent more time studying outside of school and perceived more demands from family, school, and friends. Adolescents’ sleep time was not affected, however, by the amount of time they spent on the computer, socializing with friends, or helping family during the day. The time spent watching television was actually associated with more time spent sleeping at night, likely due to the fact that adolescents studied less on days in which they watched more television, \(b = - .09, p < .001\).

Estimates of the degree of individual variability in the daily-level associations between sleep, activities, and demands are also provided in Table 5. Significant individual variability existed in the impact of daily studying, socializing with friends, and playing on the computer on the amount of sleep adolescents received the following evening. In contrast, the individual variability in the associations of daily demands, television watching, and family assistance with sleep time was nonsignificant.

Additional HLM models were analyzed in order to examine whether the significant variability in the daily-level associations of studying, socializing with friends, and playing on the computer with sleep time was predicted by adolescents’ gender and ethnicity. As before, the analyses focused on the three largest ethnic groups in the sample (Mexican, Chinese, European). The models included the same daily-level equation described in equation (1), this time with the inclusion of the following individual-level equations:

\[
b_{0j} (\text{average daily sleep time}) = c_{00} + c_{01} (\text{gender}) + c_{02} (\text{Chinese}) + c_{03} (\text{Mexican}) + u_{0j},
\]

\[
b_{1j} (\text{daily association of activities with sleep time}) = c_{10} + c_{11} (\text{gender}) + c_{12} (\text{Chinese}) + c_{13} (\text{Mexican}) + u_{1j}.
\]
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<thead>
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<th>Television</th>
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<tr>
<td>School night</td>
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<td>.03 (.01)***</td>
<td>−.01 (.02)</td>
<td>.00 (.01)</td>
<td>−.06 (.02)**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Nightly sleep time was the dependent variable in all analyses. “Activity/demands” represents the effects of the activities or demands listed at the top of the column. School night was coded nonschool night = −1 and school night = 1 and week of study was coded first week = −1, second week = 1. Figures represent the unstandardized estimates of the daily-level associations between the predictor variables and sleep time. “Standard deviation of activity/demand estimate” is an estimate of the degree of individual variability in the estimates of daily associations between activity/demands and sleep time.

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.
Gender was coded as males = 0 and females = 1 and Chinese and Mexican were dummy coded as 0 = not Chinese or not Mexican, and 1 = Chinese or Mexican, respectively. The ethnicity coding resulted in adolescents with European backgrounds being the baseline group.

Results indicated that adolescents’ gender and ethnicity did not significantly predict the variability in the daily-level associations of studying, socializing with friends, and playing on the computer with sleep time \((b’s = -.06\text{ to }-.05, \text{ NS})\).

Finally, additional HLM models were estimated to determine whether the significant associations of study time, television time, and stressful demands with subsequent sleep time described in Table 5 also existed in the other direction. That is, sleep time at night was used to predict studying, television time, and stress demands during the next day. In only the case of television time did a significant association exist, with greater sleep time at night being associated with more television time the next day \((b = .05, SE = .01, p < .001)\). Sleep time at night was unassociated with study time and stressful demands on the following day \((b’s = .01 \text{ to }-.01, \text{ NS})\).

**Sleep and daily mood.** HLM models were estimated in which the adolescents’ daily levels of anxious feelings, depressive feelings, fatigue, and happiness were each predicted by the amount of time that adolescents slept during the prior evening. The statistical model that was estimated for each mood index was as follows:

\[
\text{Daily mood}_{ij} = b_{0j} + b_{1j}(\text{prior evening's sleep time}) + b_{2j}(\text{prior day's mood}) + b_{3j}(\text{school day}) + b_{4j}(\text{week of study}) + e_{ij}.
\]

Mood on a particular day \((i)\) for a particular adolescent \((j)\) was modeled as a function of the average mood of the individual across days \((b_{0j})\), the time adolescents slept the prior evening \((b_{1j})\), and the adolescents' mood on the prior day \((b_{2j})\) as a control. In addition, whether the day was a school day (Monday–Friday) or a nonschool day (Saturday and Sunday) \((b_{3j})\) and the week of the study \((b_{4j})\) were included as typical controls in daily diary analyses.

As shown in Table 6, adolescents felt less anxiety and fatigue on days in which they received more sleep during the night, even after controlling for levels of anxiety and fatigue on the prior day. Adolescents also reported marginally lower levels of depressive feelings after spending more time sleeping. Prior nights’ sleep was not related, however, to adolescents’ subsequent feelings of happiness.
Estimates of the degree of individual variability in the daily-level associations between sleep and mood are provided in Table 6. Significant variability existed only in the impact of sleep time on adolescents’ fatigue the following day. In contrast, the variability in the associations of sleep time with subsequent anxiety, depressive feelings, and happiness was nonsignificant.

An additional HLM model was analyzed in order to examine whether the significant variability in the daily-level associations of sleep time with fatigue was predicted by adolescents’ gender and ethnicity. The models included the same daily-level equation described in equation (4), this time with the inclusion of the following individual-level equations:

$$b_{0j} \text{ (average daily fatigue)} = c_{00} + c_{01} \text{ (gender)} + c_{02} \text{ (Chinese)} + c_{03} \text{ (Mexican)} + u_{0j},$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

$$b_{1j} \text{ (daily association of sleep time with fatigue)} = c_{10} + c_{11} \text{ (gender)} + c_{12} \text{ (Chinese)} + c_{13} \text{ (Mexican)} + u_{1j}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

Estimates of the degree of individual variability in the daily-level associations between sleep and mood are provided in Table 6. Significant variability existed only in the impact of sleep time on adolescents’ fatigue the following day. In contrast, the variability in the associations of sleep time with subsequent anxiety, depressive feelings, and happiness was nonsignificant.

An additional HLM model was analyzed in order to examine whether the significant variability in the daily-level associations of sleep time with fatigue was predicted by adolescents’ gender and ethnicity. The models included the same daily-level equation described in equation (4), this time with the inclusion of the following individual-level equations:

$$b_{0j} \text{ (average daily fatigue)} = c_{00} + c_{01} \text{ (gender)} + c_{02} \text{ (Chinese)} + c_{03} \text{ (Mexican)} + u_{0j},$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

$$b_{1j} \text{ (daily association of sleep time with fatigue)} = c_{10} + c_{11} \text{ (gender)} + c_{12} \text{ (Chinese)} + c_{13} \text{ (Mexican)} + u_{1j}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

Gender was coded as males = 0 and females = 1, and Chinese and Mexican were dummy coded as 0 = not Chinese or not Mexican, and
Chinese or Mexican, respectively. The ethnicity coding resulted in adolescents with European backgrounds being the baseline group.

The results indicated significant effects of both gender ($b = -.03, p < .05$) and Mexican ethnicity ($b = .04, p < .05$) on the daily-level association between sleep time and fatigue. Specifically, the effect of sleep time on fatigue was moderately stronger for girls ($b = -.08$) than for boys ($b = -.05$), and the effect was virtually nonexistent for adolescents from Mexican backgrounds ($b = -.01$) as compared with those from European ($b = -.05$) and Chinese ($b = -.05$) backgrounds. Nevertheless, there was still a significant amount of variability in the daily association between sleep time and fatigue even after controlling for gender and ethnicity ($SD = .08, \chi^2(534) = 728.28, p < .001$).

Finally, additional HLM models were estimated to determine whether the significant associations of sleep time with the next day’s anxiety, depression, and fatigue described in Table 6 also existed in the other direction. That is, anxiety, depression, and fatigue during the day were used to predict sleep time that night. In only the case of fatigue did a significant association exist, with greater fatigue during the day being associated with less sleep that night ($b = -.03, SE = .01, p < .05$). Anxiety and depression during the day were not significantly associated with sleep time that night ($b’s = -.04, -.02, NS$).

**DISCUSSION**

The daily assessments of adolescents’ sleep that were obtained in this study suggest several insights to be added to our growing understanding about the significance of sleep in adolescents’ lives. First, adolescents’ sleep time is highly variable across individual days in addition to the previously known difference in sleep time between weekdays and weekends. Second, the variability in adolescents’ sleep time is just as important as the average amount of sleep in explaining individual differences in daily psychological well-being. Third, studying and stressful demands are among the most important factors that can reduce the amount of sleep that adolescents receive at night. Fourth, daily feelings of anxiety, depression, and fatigue are the most consistent psychological outcomes of obtaining less sleep at night. Finally, a degree of individual variability exists in some of the dynamics of daily sleep, activities, and psychological well-being among adolescents. Variability in both the daily patterns and the implications of sleep should be a key focus in future research on the role of sleeping behaviors in adolescent development.
Although the 14- and 15-year-old adolescents in this study did average approximately 8 hours of sleep per night, which is similar to what has been obtained in other studies (Wolfson & Carskadon, 1998), the amount of daily variability in their sleep time was striking. Adolescents’ nightly sleep time varied by an average of almost 1 hour across 14 days, a degree of variability that was greater than the 45-minute difference between school nights and nonschool nights. These results suggest that school night (i.e., weekday) variability is greater than the previously noted difference between weekdays and weekends, and may be uniquely significant for adolescents’ daily lives and psychological well-being. Indeed, analyses indicated that at the individual level, the variability in adolescents’ sleep time was just as important a predictor of average daily psychological well-being as the average amount of sleep that adolescents received. Daily variability also was more important for well-being than the difference in sleep time between school nights and nonschool nights. Given that the participants in this study began school at similar times in the morning, the daily variability in their sleeping time likely was attributable to variations in their daily lives after school hours and in the evening.

Spending more time studying and perceiving more stressful demands from family, peers, and school each day were consistent, albeit modest predictors of receiving less sleep at night. The fact that these associations were observed at both the individual and daily levels suggests that these two experiences in adolescents’ lives have both chronic and episodic effects on the students’ opportunities to obtain adequate rest at night. In addition, the finding that nightly sleep time did not influence activity involvement and stress the following day suggests that the direction of the causality is that activities and stress influence sleep. The importance of studying and stress in contrast to the other activities examined in this study may lie in their being less controllable and more anxiety provoking than the other daily activities examined in this study. Although all adolescents do not spend the same amount of time working on the same amount of homework, the length and difficulty level of the homework assigned by teachers do influence the amount of study time needed each night. Studying late into the night also likely agitates students enough during the evening to make it difficult for them to fall asleep. Likewise, the perception of stressful demands from the three most important domains in adolescents’ lives—family, peers, and school—can create a degree of arousal that makes it difficult for adolescents to sleep. Similar to the results obtained in other studies of adults and adolescents, therefore, demanding and stressful activities during the day can interfere with teenagers’ ability to obtain adequate rest each night and can result in chronically lower amounts of sleep over time (Sadeh & Gruber, 2002). Nevertheless, it
should be acknowledged that in the case of studying, adolescents who are sleepy may study less that night. Future studies would need to obtain reports from multiple times during the day in order to best untangle the association between studying and sleeping.

In contrast to studying and stressful demands, time spent socializing with friends and playing on the computer were associated with less sleep at the individual level but not the daily level. It may be that friend and computer time lead to chronically less sleep on average as opposed to influencing sleep variability on a daily basis. Yet, it also may be that the individual-level associations are due to other underlying differences between adolescents that were not measured in this study, such as an extroverted or social orientation that leads to more socializing and perhaps more emailing with friends in the evening. Whatever may account for the individual-level correlations, the lack of daily-level associations suggests that the acts of socializing with friends and playing on the computer do not directly result in less sleep at night among adolescents of this age group.

In terms of daily well-being, receiving less sleep at night was associated with modestly higher levels of anxious feelings, depressive feelings, and fatigue among adolescents at both the individual and daily levels. These associations are perhaps not surprising given the prior evidence regarding the role of sleep in anxious feelings and affective disorders, as well as the obvious link between inadequate rest and a sense of tiredness and fatigue (Roberts et al., 2001; Wolfson & Carskadon, 1998). It is important to note, however, that these links were observed at the daily level even after controlling for adolescents’ feelings on the prior day and that additional analyses indicated that daily anxious and depressive feelings did not influence sleep that night. These conservative tests should provide confidence, therefore, in the association between sleep and these indicators of daily psychological and physical well-being. Sleep time was associated with happy feelings at the individual level. Together with the links between sleep time and anxious feelings, depressive feelings, and fatigue at the individual level, this finding suggests the existence of a general “cloud” of negative daily affect that is associated with chronic patterns of inadequate sleep among adolescents, as has been suggested by Carskadon (2002).

Despite the general similarity in the dynamics of sleep across the diverse sample of adolescents, a small number of ethnic and gender differences did emerge. Students from Mexican backgrounds averaged approximately 20 minutes more sleep than did those from Chinese and European backgrounds. In terms of the activities measured in this study, the greater amount of time the Chinese students spent playing on the computer was the best explanation for their sleeping less than their Mexican counterparts, who came from homes with lower socioeconomic
backgrounds that presumably were less likely to have computers available to the adolescents (Becker, 2000). Neither computer time nor study time could explain the sleeping difference between those with Mexican and European backgrounds, however, suggesting that there may be other activities or aspects the youths’ daily lives that might play a role. Although girls and boys averaged similar amounts of sleep, girls were more variable across the days. It is unclear from the data presented in this paper why this might be the case, and there may be additional activities—such as talking on the phone or emailing with friends—that could explain such a gender difference in the daily variation of sleep time. Finally, these ethnic and gender variations in average sleep time and variability potentially could explain the ethnic and gender differences in the daily implications of sleep for fatigue. The greater amount of overall sleep received by Mexican adolescents could explain why they appeared to be unfatigued by receiving less sleep at night. The tendency for girls to be more fatigued by getting less sleep during the night could be due to the fact that they were more variable in their sleep time than boys, resulting in an already chronically fatigued state that could be exacerbated each evening the girls did not receive enough rest.

Nevertheless, even after controlling for ethnic background and gender, significant individual variability existed in the effect of sleep on fatigue on a daily level. The same was true for the effects of time spent studying, socializing with friends, and playing on the computer on the amount of sleep received each night. This variability in the daily dynamics of sleep, activities, and well-being represents an important area of focus in future research. Why is the daily sleep of some adolescents more or less implicated in their daily lives and well-being? In order to answer this important question, the daily diary method used in this study needs to include additional measures of sleep quality that have been used in other survey studies. For example, by adapting measures used in prior survey research (e.g., Acebo & Carskadon, 2002), students could be asked every day about whether the sleep was satisfying, whether it was disrupted, and the number of times they awoke during the night. Future research should also consider whether there may be temperament or constitutional factors that could produce varying levels of reactivity to nightly sleep among different adolescents.

In addition to better assessing sleep quality and individual temperament, future studies examining the natural daily variation in adolescents’ sleep behavior could use more precise measures of actual sleep time than were obtained in this study. Adapting measures that have been used in some survey studies (e.g., Wolfson & Carskadon, 1998), students could report their actual sleep and wake times instead of simply reporting the amount of time they spent sleeping the prior night. Such a method could
conceivably provide more precise estimates of sleep time, and would help
to determine whether truncated sleep was due to a later bed time or an
earlier wake time. Although the daily changes in sleep time observed in the
present study were likely due more to variability in bed time than wake
time because of the similar school start time across the days in the study,
assessing sleep schedules would provide more definitive information on
what accounts for the daily variation in adolescents’ sleep behavior. An
additional technique to obtain precise estimates of both sleep time and sleep
quality has been used by Wolfson et al. (2003) and Axelson et al. (2003), who
asked adolescents to wear wrist actigraphs that detect body movement
throughout the day in order to determine exactly when sleep begins and
ends, as well as how restless the sleep was during the night. Another
feature to include in future daily diary studies would be adolescents’
reports of sleepiness in addition to their reports of fatigue. Although
sleepiness and fatigue are likely to be related, the effect of sleep distur-
bances on adolescents’ specific feelings of sleepiness during the day has
generated a great deal of concern in terms of the implications for high-risk
behaviors such as auto accidents and substance use (Dahl & Lewin, 2002).

Finally, it is essential to examine how the daily dynamics of sleep,
activities, and well-being change across the high school years. Given that
adolescents’ average sleep time declines by as much as 45 minutes across
the high school years without any change in the apparent need for sleep
(Wolfson & Carskadon, 1998), it would be interesting to examine whether
developmental changes also exist in the daily variability in sleep behav-
iors and in the daily implications of sleep for psychological well-being.
Adolescents’ increased involvement in part-time employment, the greater
academic demands of the later years of high school, and the greater in-
volveent and stress with peer relationships suggest that the crunch upon
adolescents’ ability to obtain adequate rest only increases as they progress
through the high school years (Wolfson & Carskadon, 1998). It would be
important, therefore, to continue examining the daily variability and dy-
namics of sleep as adolescents progress through a period that is typically
associated with the onset of depression and other affective disorders
(Roberts et al., 2001).

In conclusion, sleep time is modestly but consistently associated with
studying, stressful demands, anxiety, depressive feelings, and fatigue
among ethnically diverse 14- and 15-year-old adolescents. Daily variabil-
ity appears to be just as important as average sleep time for adolescents’
psychological well-being, and the daily diary technique used in this study
is one effective way to assess such variability. If supplemented with
additional measures and recent technological advances to examine sleep
behavior and quality, direct examinations of daily variability in sleep
dynamics can continue to further our understanding of the role of sleep in adolescent well-being and development.

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