

**Part I**

**Sleep Timing**



## Chapter 2

# Comparison of the Munich Chronotype Questionnaire with the Horne-Östberg's Morningness-Eveningness Score

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## Abstract

We report on results from an Internet survey of sleeping habits in a Dutch population using the Munich Chronotype Questionnaire (MCTQ), supplemented with the Horne–Östberg Morningness-Eveningness Questionnaire (MEQ). The MCTQ was filled out by 5055 respondents, of which 2481 also completed the MEQ. MEQ score correlated well with the MCTQ assessment of time of mid-sleep on free days (MSF;  $r = -0.73$ ) and on workdays (MSW;  $r = -0.61$ ). MEQ was more strongly correlated with MSF (50 % of sleep time) than with sleep onset (0 %), rise time (100 %) or with any other percentile (10–40, 60–90 %) of sleep on free days. The study shows that chronotype (based on MSF as measured by the MCTQ) strongly correlates with morningness-eveningness (as measured by the MEQ). However, the MCTQ collects additional detailed information on sleep-wake behaviour under natural conditions.

## 2.1 Introduction

The sleep-wake cycle is the most prominent daily pattern in human behaviour. Activity is generally confined to the natural day and early evening while sleep occupies the remaining night hours. There is considerable inter-individual variation in preferred timing of the sleep-wake rhythm, with extreme morning and evening types often called ‘larks’ and ‘owls’. The timing of sleep is largely under control of the central circadian pacemaker, located in the suprachiasmatic nuclei (SCN) of the hypothalamus (Daan et al., 1984). The other major regulatory component to the steady sleep-wake maintenance is the homeostatic component (Daan et al., 1984; Dijk and Czeisler, 1995). Both a stable relationship between endogenous (or internal) time and external time as well as a good and well-timed sleep are believed to be essential for human health (Roenneberg et al., 2004b; Dijk and Lockley, 2002; Rajaratnam and Arendt, 2001). Systematic investigations of individual circadian phase preferences have been stimulated by the publication of the Morningness-Eveningness Questionnaire (MEQ) by Horne and Östberg (1976). The MEQ score was correlated with core parameters of human circadian organisation, such as sleep timing (Carrier et al., 1997; Andrade et al., 1992; Laberge et al., 2000) and endogenous period (Duffy et al., 2001). The use of the MEQ in inter-individual experiments has enabled consistent segregation of putative ‘larks’ from ‘owls’ (Andrade et al., 1992; Duffy et al., 1999; Baehr et al., 2000; Bailey and Heitkemper, 2001). The administration of MEQ in large-scale epidemiological surveys allowed investigators to probe circadian preference profiles of a variety of subclasses in a population (such as age groups: Carrier et al. (1997); Laberge et al. (2000); Giannotti et al. (2002); Ishihara et al. (1992); gender: Adan and Natale (2002); social/professional groups: Park et al. (1998a,b)). The MEQ contains 19 questions, aimed to determine where on a daily temporal scale the respondent’s maximum propensity to be active lies. Most questions are preferential, in the sense that the respondent is asked to indicate when, for example, he/she would prefer to wake up or start sleep, rather than when he/she actually does. Questions are multiple-choice, each answer is assigned a value. Their sum gives a score, ranging from 16 to 86, with lower values corresponding to evening types.

A new questionnaire has recently been designed to collect information about the actual timing of daily sleep (and activity): the Munich

ChronoType Questionnaire (MCTQ) (Roenneberg et al., 2003). It essentially is a tool to collect primary sleep times, such as bed- and rise-times, clock times of becoming fully awake, sleep latency and inertia, in addition to other time points (*e.g.*, siesta). The MCTQ also asks the respondents to rate themselves as one of the seven chronotypes (Extreme Early, Moderate Early, Slightly Early, Normal, Slightly Late, Moderate Late, Extreme Late). This particular question thus contains a relative judgment, *i.e.*, a judgment on the subject's own behaviour in comparison to others. Subjects are also asked to judge their chronotype at different life stages, such as childhood, adolescence, *etc.*, which allows an intra-individual assessments of how chronotype changes with age.

The MCTQ asks that all information should be specified as precisely as possible as they are in the respondent's present circumstances, *i.e.*, regardless of what the respondents may consider preferential for themselves. This enables the investigators to draw up a survey of the sleeping habits in a given community, to follow the dynamics of sleep parameters over the seasons or different ages (Roenneberg et al., 2004b), and to conclude eventually on possible risk factors contingent on insufficient sleep, fatigue resultant thereof, ways to improve public services, *etc.* The MCTQ is currently being used in Groningen, Munich, and Basel. A particularly valuable feature of the MCTQ is the separate treatment of workdays and free days. This division is left at the respondent's discretion, in the sense that they may consider Saturday as a workday as long as they work on weekends. The timing of daily activities is obviously different between workdays and free days, and this difference is greater in later chronotypes (Roenneberg et al., 2003).

It is obvious that individuals will commonly tend to follow their individual preferences as long as this does not conflict with external demands. It is of interest to what extent the MCTQ parameters, reflecting actual behaviour, co-vary with the MEQ score, reflecting preferred behaviour. Since both the MCTQ and the MEQ aim to quantify 'chronotype' (Roenneberg et al., 2003) and since the latter has been the standard instrument, it is useful to establish how well indices produced by these two questionnaires correlate. This analysis is based on 2481 respondents who filled out both questionnaires during one online session. While going into separate analyses of parameters contained in the MCTQ, we did not attempt to 'disassemble' the MEQ, and restricted our investigation to its calculated overall score (for a

principal component analysis of MEQ parameters, see Taillard et al. (2004)). We also assess the extent to which the MCTQ self-ratings are indicative of the tendency of the respondents to be ‘evening’ or ‘morning’ types, *i.e.*, how well their perceived notions of ‘larks’ and ‘owls’ agree with the sleep timings they report.

## 2.2 Materials and Methods

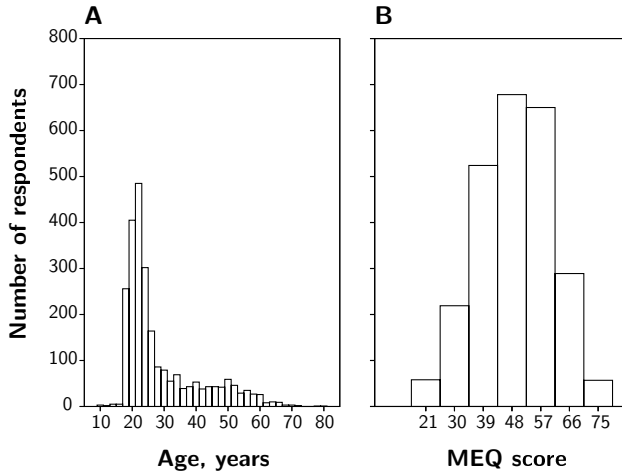
We created a website ([chrono.biol.rug.nl](http://chrono.biol.rug.nl)) on which both MCTQ and MEQ were available for electronic submission. The English text of the MCTQ was translated into Dutch. The translation was validated by back-translating the Dutch version into English by an uninvolved person. After the authors had verified the back-translation, the Dutch version was posted on the site, along with the original English text. The text of the MEQ was also available in both languages (the Dutch version by Prof. Dr. G. A. Kerkhof, Amsterdam).

All students (*ca.* 20,000) of the University of Groningen (*RuG*) were sent an email (containing a link to the MCTQ web page) on May 10, 2003 inviting them to participate in the study. This campaign was also widely advertised via many different channels.

Upon submission of their MCTQ questionnaire, respondents automatically received a report (to the supplied email address) containing information on how the subject compares to the rest of the database. The browser window subsequently displayed a page with a further link to the MEQ page for those interested in filling this out as well. Thus, all respondents to the MEQ also responded to the MCTQ, but not *vice versa*.

Before being stored into the database, responses were checked for consistency. These checks prevented, for example, wake-up times earlier than sleep onset times, they ensured that ‘time-of-day’ fields were within 0 and 24, *etc.* The criteria were selected just to filter out illogical responses while avoiding any constraint on the respondent’s possible daily pattern. In the case any of these checks failed, the respondent was given a message stating the error and asked to correct it and resubmit the form. Eventually less than 0.1% of completed questionnaires were rejected.

From mid-May, 2003 till end of May, 2004, a total of 5055 subjects responded, 49% of which (2481) completed both questionnaires (Fig 2.1). All MEQ score-derived correlations in the following sections



*Figure 2.1* Distribution of ages (A) and MEQ scores (B).  $n = 2481$ .

are based on this sub-sample. The predominant part of the respondents were university students, and they were Dutch residents nearly without exception.

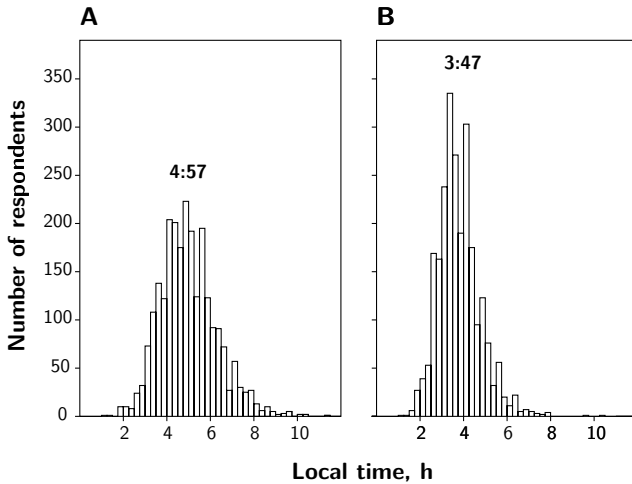
Statistical analyses included the Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient ( $r$ ). To compare these, Fisher  $z$  transformation was applied.

### 2.3 Results

The range of MEQ scores observed among 2481 respondents was 17–78 (of a potential 16–86). Based on multiple questions, the MEQ total score results in a continuous measure leading to an almost Gaussian distribution.

In view of the well-known age dependence of sleep timing (Park et al., 1998a,b; Dijk et al., 2000), further analyses were carried out for four age groups (I, <25 years; II, 25–30; III, 30–40; IV, >40) separately. Table 2.1 provides statistics on the MEQ scores and several





**Figure 2.2** Distribution of mid-sleep times, on free days (**A**, msf) and on workdays (**B**, msw).  $n = 2481$ . Clock times near peaks are means of respective midsleep times.

variables derived from the MCTQ for both work days and free days. The results show a progressive advance of sleep-times with increasing age which is consistent with the results of another MCTQ-based study involving a larger population sample ( $n \approx 25,000$ ) with a broader age distribution (Roenneberg et al., 2004b). We calculated the correlations with the individual MEQ score for the following MCTQ variables: sleep duration, sleep onset time ( $SO$ , *i.e.*, bedtime plus sleep latency), rise time ( $RT$ ), and midpoint of sleep ( $MS$ ). This was done separately for work days and free days (indicated by  $W$  and  $F$ , respectively), since sleep timing is conspicuously different between work and free days (Fig. 2.2). The results are summarized in Table 2.2.

The strongest correlation ( $|r| > 0.7$ ) was found between MEQ and the midpoint of sleep on free days (MSF; see also Roenneberg et al. (2003)). Sleep onset correlated with the MEQ score usually slightly better than sleep-end times, especially on work days; we discuss this in more detail below. Sleep duration was not significantly correlated with MEQ in our sample as was reported before (Roenneberg et al. (2003)

*Table 2.1* Average values of the MCTQ parameters included in the analysis (MEQ subsample), per age group. In parentheses are standard deviations (h).

Age groups (years)	$n$	MEQ Score	MCTQ Parameters			
			workdays			
			sleep onset	mid	end	duration
I (<25)	1342	47.0 (10.5)	00:00 (1.10)	04:02 (0.95)	08:04 (1.10)	8.07 (1.06)
II (25–29)	372	47.8 (11.9)	23:48 (1.08)	03:43 (0.95)	07:38 (1.07)	7.85 (0.99)
III (30–39)	285	50.2 (12.2)	23:34 (1.03)	03:20 (0.83)	07:06 (0.90)	7.53 (0.99)
IV (>39)	482	54.5 (11.9)	23:42 (1.22)	03:23 (0.92)	07:04 (1.00)	7.36 (1.23)
all groups	2481	48.9 (11.5)	23:52 (1.12)	03:47 (0.98)	07:43 (1.15)	7.84 (1.11)
			free days			
			sleep onset	mid	end	duration
I			01:01 (1.20)	05:23 (1.23)	09:45 (1.43)	8.73 (1.34)
II			00:48 (1.35)	05:00 (1.23)	09:13 (1.45)	8.43 (1.30)
III			00:20 (1.15)	04:25 (1.15)	08:29 (1.45)	8.15 (1.25)
IV			00:19 (1.12)	04:04 (1.08)	07:48 (1.42)	7.50 (1.32)
all groups			00:46 (1.33)	04:57 (1.32)	09:09 (1.63)	8.39 (1.40)

*Table 2.2* Correlation coefficients (Pearson's  $r$ ) of some of the MCTQ parameters with the MEQ score (MEQ scores increases from 'eveningness' to 'morningness'). All correlations significant at the 0.01 level, two-tailed. For the total sample, the correlations were tested by applying Fisher transformation and comparing those pairwise ( $z_{\text{sleeponset}}$  vs  $z_{\text{midsleep}}$ ,  $z_{\text{midsleep}}$  vs  $z_{\text{risetime}}$ , and  $z_{\text{sleeponset}}$  vs  $z_{\text{risetime}}$ ). All compared correlations were significantly different ( $p < 0.01$ ) except for free-day  $z_{\text{sleeponset}}$  vs  $z_{\text{risetime}}$ .

Age groups (years)	workdays				free days			
	sleep onset	mid	end	duration	sleep onset	mid	end	duration
I (<25)	-0.61	-0.60	-0.43	0.18	-0.60	-0.72	-0.66	-0.09
II (25-29)	-0.61	-0.61	-0.46	0.18	-0.66	-0.74	-0.66	-0.05
III (30-39)	-0.56	-0.59	-0.45	0.18	-0.64	-0.71	-0.63	-0.15
IV (>39)	-0.53	-0.58	-0.44	0.17	-0.67	-0.71	-0.56	-0.04
total	-0.59	-0.61	-0.48	0.11	-0.64	-0.73	-0.66	-0.16

and, in more detail, Roenneberg et al. (2004b)). Other variables, such as sleep latency, time spent outdoors, time of peak alertness, least-awake time and time spent reading before falling asleep, did not reach significant correlation ( $|r| < 0.1$  throughout) with MEQ score (and are therefore not reported).

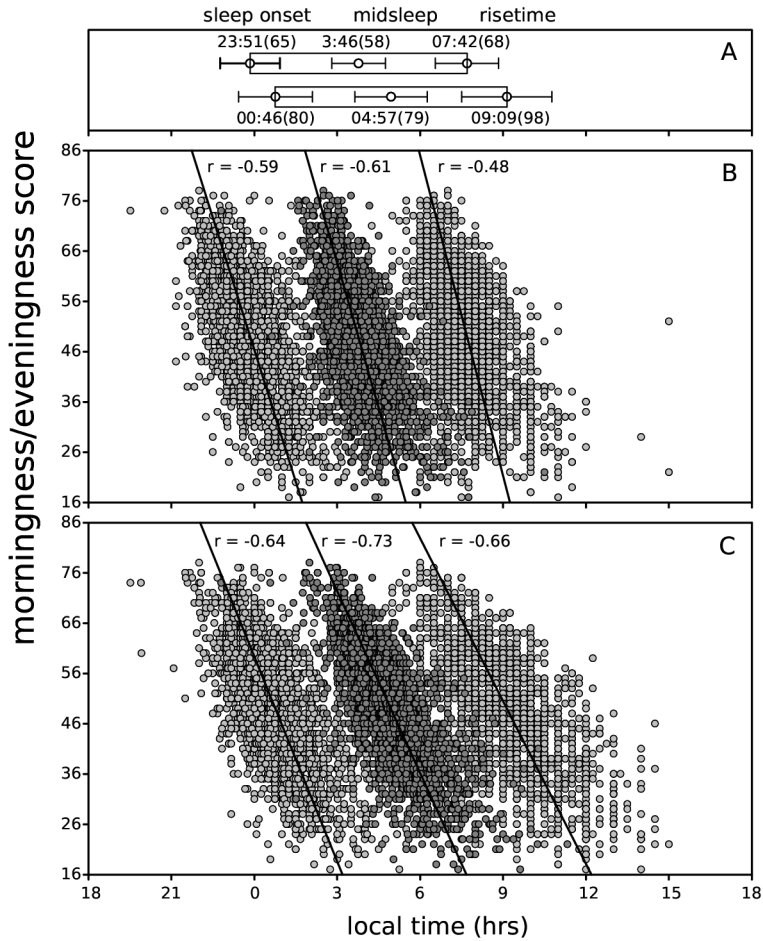
### 2.3.1 Association of sleep timing with MEQ score

Sleep duration showed a gradual reduction from younger to older respondents both on workdays and free days (Table 2.1), but its correlation with the MEQ score remained low in all age groups, from  $-0.15$  in age group 30–39y to  $0.18$  in people younger than 39y (Table 2.2). The correlation of sleep duration to MEQ score changes sign between workdays and free days.

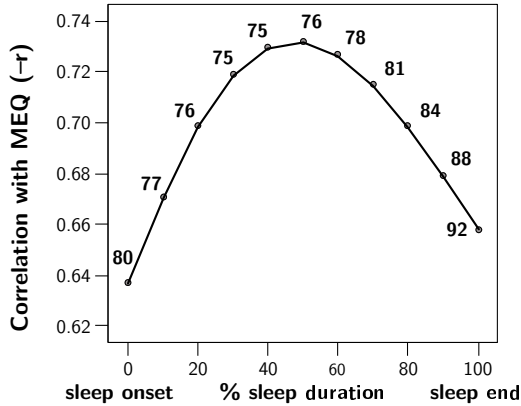
Workday sleep onset became progressively earlier from age group I (<25) to age group IV (>39): the advance was on average 26 min (Table 2.1). The oldest group (IV) has an 8-min delay relative to age group III. As this delay is not counterbalanced by a corresponding change in sleep-end time, resulting mid-sleep time in age group IV is also slightly later than in age group III. The correlation of workday mid-sleep time with the MEQ score (Table 2.2) stays at the same level ( $-0.6$ ) in all age groups, and is fairly similar to the correlation for workday sleep onset and MEQ.

Sleep onset and rise times on free days follow the age-dependent trend towards earlier clock time seen on workdays, except that the age-dependent advance of sleep timing on free days is about twice as large (79 *vs* 39 min based on MS; Table 2.1). Sleep onset advanced by 18 min from age group I to IV on workdays *vs* 42 min on free days. This difference is even more pronounced for sleep-end times (60 min and 117 min, respectively).

Mid-sleep, rather than sleep onset or end, gave the best correlation with the MEQ score. This can also be seen in the narrower scatter for MEQ *vs* MSF compared to sleep onset or rise time on free days (Fig. 2.3). MEQ scores correlated better with MSF ( $-0.73$ ) compared to MSW ( $-0.61$ ). This MSF–MEQ correlation appeared higher than the correlation between MEQ score and SOF ( $p < 0.001$  for all correlation comparisons mentioned). This makes free-day sleep timing dissimilar from work days, in which sleep onset and mid-sleep are associated similarly well with the MEQ score ( $-0.61$  and  $-0.59$ , respectively).



*Figure 2.3* Mean values of primary sleep timings (A, standard deviations in parentheses, min; upper bar, workdays; lower bar, free days). Association of MEQ score with workday (B) and free-day (C) sleep timings. Two-tailed, all significant at 0.01 level. Lines are reduced major axes.



**Figure 2.4** Pearson's correlation coefficients ( $r$ ) of MEQ score and free-day sleep timepoints ( $\phi_x$ , see text). The largest value, observed at  $\phi_{50}$  (i.e., msf), was 0.73. Labels to points are standard deviations (min) for the corresponding  $\phi_x$ .

### 2.3.2 MSF correlates better with the MEQ scores than any other sleep-related phase marker

The different degrees of correlation between various sleep-related reference points, (sleep onset, mid-sleep, rise time) led us to perform a more detailed examination, by dividing the sleep episode into 10-percentiles  $\phi_x$  (for  $x = 10, 20, \dots, 90$ ). Figure 2.4 shows that on both sides of MSF Pearson's  $r$  gradually decreases towards the beginning and end of the sleep period, strongly indicating that mid-sleep is (a) the best time point for correlations between the MCTQ and the MEQ and (b) may be the best marker for sleep-based assessments of chronotype. The highest correlation between MSF and MEQ-scores is not merely a consequence of reduced estimation error. Although the standard deviations observed for MSF are smaller than for sleep onset and rise time,  $\phi_{30}$  and  $\phi_{40}$  showed even smaller standard deviations (Fig. 2.4) but worse correlations to MEQ scores.

## 2.4 Discussion

Not surprisingly, sleep is on average earlier on workdays than on free days, and there is less inter-individual variation in its timing. Several authors (Roenneberg et al., 2003; Taillard et al., 1999; Dijk et al., 2000) have observed that later chronotypes suffer more from sleep loss caused by their work schedules. The larger discrepancy between the individual preference for specific sleep times and the obligations of social schedules (*e.g.*, school or work begin) lead to larger differences in sleep durations between workdays and free days. While sleep onset is later in owls than in larks, sleep end on work days is largely dictated by the alarm clock. For these reasons MEQ may be correlated positively with sleep duration on work days, and negatively with sleep duration on free days (Table 2.2). This means that earlier chronotypes get more sleep on work days than later chronotypes whereas the opposite is true for free days (Roenneberg et al., 2003, 2004b).

The clear result that MSF, rather than other phase reference points of sleep shows the best correlation with MEQ-scores may reflect the considerable variation in individual sleep duration. On work days, sleep timing (especially sleep end) is largely dictated by social timing, and for later chronotypes, sleep duration is kept near its minimum (depending on age: 7.36–8.07h). On free days, sleep duration varies within a broader range (averages for different age groups: 7.50–8.73h). While sleep duration on work days is directly influenced by the alarm clock, it may still be influenced on free days by the work schedules as an after-effect because working people, particularly later chronotypes, have to compensate for a sleep debt accumulated during the work week. Since sleep duration shows little systematic variation with the MEQ-score nor with the MCTQ-derived chronotype (Roenneberg et al., 2003, 2004b), each chronotype category contains a similar portion of short and long sleepers. Thus, short sleepers appear to go to bed later and rise earlier around their individual mid-sleep on free days while long sleepers go to bed earlier and rise later around their MSF.

A physiological circadian phase marker, the dim-light melatonin onset (DLMO), also shows higher correlation with mid-sleep time than with either sleep onset or rise time (Martin, Eastman, 2002; Terman et al, 2001). A correlation between dim-light melatonin offset, circadian preference and sleep timing has also been reported (Lagerbe et al, 2000; this study, however, did not specifically report mid-sleep correlations. MSF also shows high correlations with the minimum of

the daily cortisol rhythm assessed in a constant routine (Roenneberg et al., 2004b).

Our analysis demonstrates that an estimate of the actual timing of sleep on free days obtained with the MCTQ is strongly related to the MEQ score, and that the timing of mid-sleep on free days in particular is a good predictor for chronotype (as judged by sleep preferences). Detailed information on the timing of human behaviour under natural circumstances and a refined description of individual chronotype are prerequisites for future research on the mechanisms of circadian rhythm generation and entrainment. For example, possibilities to gain reliable insights into the genetic basis of a given trait are greatly improved by refined phenotyping.

## 2.5 Acknowledgements

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