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**„Clinimetric Properties of the German Version of the Euthymia Scale (ES): Validity and Sensitivity Analysis “**

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Abstract

Background

Deutsch und Englisch!

Prereg.

Introduction

Over the past two decades the importance of well-being has been increasingly acknowledged (Blanchflower & Oswald, 2011; Giovanni A. Fava & Bech, 2016; Hicks et al., 2013; Naci & Ioannidis, 2015). Well-being is a key component of the World Health Organizations’ definition of mental health and therefore a crucial aspect of health in general (Organization & Others, 2021). While there is much agreement on the general importance of well-being, there are fundamental differences in definition (Dodge et al., 2012) and theoretical basis (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Across disciplines (i.e., public health, clinical needs, politics, health economics) there are different priorities as to what well-being should measure (Diener et al., 2010). In the research of well-being there are two main perspectives: The hedonistic tradition defines well-being as feeling happy or showing high positive affect and low negative affect. It focusses on maximizing pleasure and minimizing pain. The term subjective well-being (SWB) (Diener, 1984), a widely used operationalization of well-being, originates from the hedonic tradition. Eudaimonia on the other hand has da deeper and more complex understanding of well-being. Dating back to Aristotle’s “Nicomachean Ethics” (Irwin, 2019) the eudaimonic tradition views well-being as fulfilling one’s true potential, fulfilling meaningful goals and self-actualization (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Psychological well-being (PWB) with measurement scales like the psychological well-being scale (PWBS) (C. D. Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Carol D. Ryff, 1989) is rooted in this tradition.

While traditional well-being measures focus on hedonic or eudaimonic perspectives, they often fail to meet clinical needs which differ from those in positive, general, social or developmental psychology. They often present a fragmented and reductionist view of well-being that doesn’t reflect the complex nature of well-being. These frameworks are often disconnected from clinical realities, lacking relevance for individuals with mental health challenges (A. M. Wood & Tarrier, 2010). The clinical consideration of psychological well-being thus required a novel framework (Guidi & Fava, 2022).

Euthymia

Taking on these challenges Fava and Bech (2016) provided a novel definition of euthymia which was discussed in detail in subsequent publications (Giovanni A. Fava & Guidi, 2020a; Guidi & Fava, 2022). With their definition of euthymia they presented a more integrated and comprehensive multidimensional construct of well-being that aligns with the complexities of mental health and better supports clinical interventions.

They characterize euthymia by following features (Guidi & Fava, 2022) (Fig. 1):

1. A lack of mood disturbances (i.e., diagnostic rubrics): One should be in full remission (if prior mood disorder existed) not experiencing symptoms of clinical significance. Negative affect like sadness or anxiety may still be experienced but should be short lived and not negatively impact everyday life.
2. The presence of positive affect (i.e., feeling cheerful, calm, active, interested in things and experiencing restorative sleep). This dimension overlaps with the concept of subjective well-being (Diener, 1984).
3. The third component encompasses balanced levels of well-being dimensions and integration derived from work by Marie Jahoda (1959): Jahoda identified six dimensions of positive mental health – (1) autonomy, (2) environmental mastery, (3) positive interactions with others, (4) personal growth, (5) development or self-actualization, and (6) attitude towards oneself. Ryff (1989) later translated these dimensions into a self-rated questionnaire (The Psychological Well-Being scales; PWB) slightly rewording the dimensions. Further, integration was defined by Jahoda as (1) a balance of psychic forces (flexibility), (2) a unifying outlook on life (consistency) and (3) resistance to stress (resilience).

Existing measures of euthymia include the Euthymia Scale (ES) (Giovanni A. Fava & Bech, 2016) - a 10-item self-report questionnaire, and the Clinical Interview for Euthymia (CIE) (Giovanni A. Fava & Guidi, 2020a) – a 22 item structured interview. These Instruments were developed using clinimetric principles (G. A. Fava et al., 2012; Alvan R. Feinstein, 1987) which will be explained in detail in the next section. Apart from the form of administration (questionnaire vs. structured interview) the two instruments differ in the amount of items: The Euthymia Scale (ES) consists of five questions adopted from the WHO-5 well-being index (Topp et al., 2015) reflecting point b (presence of positive affect) of the displayed euthymia model and five questions addressing the individual’s balance among psychic forces leading to high levels of resilience and frustration tolerance (point c). The Clinical Interview for Euthymia (CIE) expands on these 10 questions, adding 12 questions derived from the Psychological Well Being Scale (PWB) (Carol D. Ryff, 1989) – each well-being dimension being represented by two questions – providing a more nuanced view on point c.

Up to this date, the Euthymia Scale (ES) has not been validated within a German speaking population. Therefore, it is crucial to perform a clinimetric analysis for the German version of the Euthymia Scale (ES-G).

Clinimetrics

The term clinimetrics was first introduced by Feinstein (1987) referring to the development and use of rating scales, indexes, and instruments measuring clinical phenomena that cannot be measured using traditional laboratory methods. As an early example for clinimetric measures he mentioned the Apgar Score (Apgar, 1953) evaluating a newborn infants’ health condition. Feinstein shed light on the lack of standards for rating scales within clinical use and highlighted the conflict between the scientific goal of standardization (reliability and validity) and the clinical goal of sensibility (face validity, content validity and ease of use). Criteria for the development of clinimetric rating scales were described (A. R. Feinstein, 1983; Alvan R. Feinstein, 1987; Jones & Feinstein, 1982) and further refined in a subsequent publication (Wright & Feinstein, 1992).

The clinimetric approach, also referred to as the science of clinical measurements (G. A. Fava et al., 2012) therefore provides a set of guidelines for the development and validation of existing patient-reported outcome measures (PROMs) aligning with clinical goals and patients’ needs, which the more common psychometric approach often misses to address (Wright & Feinstein, 1992).

There are several differences between the clinimetric and psychometric approaches: Historically the development of psychometrics took place in research fields outside of clinical psychology, mainly in educational or social sciences (Giovanni A. Fava et al., 2004; Wright & Feinstein, 1992) while clinimetrics was developed specifically for measuring clinical phenomena (Alvan R. Feinstein, 1987). Regarding the selection of items the focus of the psychometric framework is often laid on homogeneity- referring to a high degree of inter-item correlations – leading to a set of items that essentially all measure the same thing (Bech, 2004; G. A. Fava et al., 2012; Tomba & Bech, 2012; Wright & Feinstein, 1992). However, the goal of a high score for homogeneity of components may contradict with clinimetric properties, in particular sensitivity to change (Giovanni A. Fava & Belaise, 2005). This may also lead to the inclusion of redundant items, reducing clinical applicability (Carrozzino, 2019). Thus, following the clinimetric approach, homogeneity and unidimensionality are not of primary interest and items should instead be providing non-redundant, clinically distinct information (Wright & Feinstein, 1992). While psychometrics focusses on construct, convergent, divergent, and criterion validity, clinimetrics emphasizes clinical, predictive, incremental, and biological validity (Carrozzino, Patierno, et al., 2021).

Initiatives like PROMIS (Patient-Reported Outcomes Measurement Information System) (D. Cella et al., 2007; David Cella et al., 2010; Rothrock et al., 2011) or COSMIN (Consensus-based Standards for the selection of health Measurement Instruments) (L. B. Mokkink et al., 2018, 2006; Lidwine B. Mokkink et al., 2016, 2010) often build the foundational framework in the development and validation of PROMs and are strongly rooted in the psychometric tradition. It is questionable if these frameworks are suited for complex clinical realities.

Carrozzino et al. (2021) present a comprehensive overview of the methodological differences between psychometrics and clinimetrics in the context of reliability and validity testing of PROMs and provide recommendations for the analysis of clinimetric patient-reported outcome measures (CLIPROM criteria). Important CLIPROM criteria are:

Sensitivity

The concept of sensitivity refers to the ability of a rating scale (or single items of a rating scale) or self-report questionnaire to differentiate between different groups of subjects (e.g., patients and healthy controls, depressed inpatients or outpatients) and to reflect outcome changes in clinical trials (Kellner, 1972). In this context, a clinimetric rating scale should also be able to differentiate between groups receiving therapeutic intervention and placebo or attention control groups (Giovanni A. Fava et al., 2018). If clinical trials fail to differentiate between these groups the reason may be poor performance of the treatment, but in some cases it might be due to a lack of sensitivity of the used outcome measures (Giovanni A. Fava et al., 2004). The sensitivity of a rating scale is a crucial criterion for their use in clinical routines.

Validity

Clinical validity. Refers to the ability of a measure to accurately identify or discriminate subjects with or without a specific condition (i.e., depression vs. no depression) (Carrozzino, 2019; Carrozzino, Christensen, et al., 2021; Giovanni A. Fava et al., 2004; A. Feinstein, 1987). In comparison to the criteria of sensitivity, which is about detecting meaningful differences in treatment effects, clinical validity is specifically about accurate diagnostic discrimination (i.e., correctly identifying presence or absence of a condition).

Construct validity. The concept of construct validity was first introduced by Cronbach and Meehl (1955), and refers to how well a rating scale measures the underlying theoretical concept it is intended to measure (Strauss & Smith, 2009). Following psychometric guidelines, it is often assessed via factor or principal component analysis. But the utility of these methods for the clinical use has been questioned (Bech, 2012; Giovanni A. Fava et al., 2018; Alvan R. Feinstein, 1987): Psychometric models reveal structure, but do not guarantee that the total score reflects the severity of a clinical condition (Bech, 2012). In the clinimetric approach, unidimensionality of an instrument is not of primary interest (Wright & Feinstein, 1992). In clinimetric analyses, construct validity can be assed though methods like Rasch and Mokken analyses (Bech, 2012; Carrozzino, Christensen, et al., 2021; Mokken, 1970; Rasch, 1993), evaluating the extent to which items provide distinctive clinical information and symptoms represented by a clinimetric scale belong to an underlying clinical syndrome (Bech, 2012; Carrozzino, Christensen, et al., 2021).

Predictive validity. Refers to the ability of a rating scale to predict future outcomes like treatment response (i.e., responder vs. non-responder) or psychological distress scores after a certain period of time (Carrozzino, Patierno, et al., 2021).

Incremental validity. Indicating that a rating scale - or each item of a scale - should add meaningful information beyond what is already available through other accessible information (Sechrest, 1963). Incremental validity can be assessed through hierarchical regression analyses.

Concurrent validity. Concurrent validity refers to the degree to which a measurement tool correlates with existing, previously validated instruments (Bagby et al., 1994). But a high correlation between two instruments alone does not indicate good validity of the instrument: The scales may measure a common aspect but still differ in clinical validity or sensitivity. Thus, concurrent validity in clinimetric analyses is not considered as important as other criteria (Giovanni A. Fava et al., 2004).

The present study

The aim of this study was to propose a German translation of the Euthymia Scale (ES) and to validate the ES-G through a comprehensive clinimetric analysis. The analysis plan was designed in adherence to the recommendations for clinimetric patient-reported outcome measures (CLIPROM) as outlined by Carrozzino et al. (2021). Additionally, the performance of a self-created 6-point Likert version of the ES-G was tested against the original dichotomous version.

Research Objectives

The following research objectives were addressed. After each objective it is stated in brackets, to which of the above mentioned CLIPROM criteria it corresponds to.

1. Rationale for the German translation of the ES
2. Correlation Analysis (*concurrent validity*)
3. Rasch analysis (*construct validity*)
4. Ability of the ES-G to predict whether a patient will be a responder or non-responder to psychotherapy (*predictive validity*)
5. Ability of the ES-G to predict whether a subject is clinical or non-clinical (*sensitivity*)
6. Ability of the ES-G to reflect symptom changes in psychotherapy (*sensitivity*)
7. Ability of the ES-G to discriminate between healthy subjects and subjects with a past or current depression (*clinical validity*)
8. Ability of the ES-G to discriminate between symptom severity groups (*clinical validity*)
9. Determining a cutoff score for differentiating subjects with or without depression
10. Incremental validity of the ES-G (*incremental validity*)
11. Comparison of the self-adapted 6-point Likert version of the ES-G with the original version

Hypotheses for concurrent validity

The following a priori hypothesis for concurrent validity were postulated: The correlation between the ES-G and …

H1: psychological distress was expected to be negative

H2: quality of life was expected to be positive

H3: trait resilience was expected to be positive

H4: psychological well-being was expected to be positive

H5: depressive symptoms was expected to be negative

Methods

Study Design

This study utilized data from two sources: (1) a clinical feasibility trial, evaluating the transdiagnostic Well-Being Therapy (WBT) (G. A. Fava, 2016) in a group therapy format at the day clinic of the LMU Hospital in Munich, and (2) a cross-sectional online survey targeting non-clinical participants. This design allowed for cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses as part of a comprehensive clinimetric validation of the German version of the Euthymia Scale (ES-G).

This study was preregistered on the Open Science Framework (OSF; <https://osf.io/yr8e5/?view_only=c9ddd629046148068bfbfdaab219e27a>) and received approval from the Ethics Committee of the LMU (Faculty of Medicine, LMU Munich, Munich, Germany, project-no.: 24-0359).

Procedure and Participants

This study included one non-clinical and one clinical sample, recruited through separate procedures and assessed using different formats. Inclusion criteria, recruitment methods, and data collection procedures are outlined below.

Non-clinical participants were eligible for inclusion if they (1) were between 18 and 75 years old, (2) spoke German fluently, and (3) provided informed consent. Exclusion criteria were: (1) the presence of inadequately treated concomitant somatic disease (e.g., current hypothyroidism and hypertension) including acute and chronic infections or autoimmune diseases, and (2) pregnancy or breastfeeding. Non-clinical participants were recruited between October 2024 and May 2025 through study flyers and presentations in university lectures. They were invited to participate in a cross-sectional online survey through the platform Unipark (Tivian XI GmbH). After clearing for exclusion criteria (n = 16 somatic disease, n = 2 pregnant, and n = 2 age over 75) a total of *N* = 181 non-clinical participants (146 females [81%]; *M* = 25.36 years, *SD* = 8.88) were included in the study.

Day clinic patients were eligible if the met the same general criteria (age, language, consent, pregnancy, untreated somatic disease), and additionally: (1) were not acutely suicidal, and (2) did not have a primary diagnosis of organic mental disorder (F00-F09), mental and behavioral disorder due to psychoactive substance use (F10-F19; F63), or eating disorder (F50). Eligible patients were diagnosed with at least one of the following psychiatric conditions: affective disorder (F30 – F39), schizophrenia, schizotypal, delusional, and other psychotic disorder (F20 – F29), anxiety disorder (F40 – F41), obsessive-compulsive disorder (F42), dissociative, stress-related, somatoform and other nonpsychotic mental disorder (F43 – F48), or personality disorder (F60 – F62).

Recruitment took place at the LMU Hospital between August 2024 and May 2025 as part of an ongoing feasibility trial. Day clinic patients underwent an eight-week multimodal therapy program that included WBT in both group and individual formats. Data used in this study was collected at two time points: t0 (upon admission) and t1 (at discharge after eight weeks). In the clinical sample, questionnaires were administered in a paper-and-pencil format.

As of the current data cutoff, 32 patients had completed pre-assessment (t0) and a total of 25 patients had completed pre (t0)- and post (t1)-assessment; recruitment is ongoing.

Between-group comparisons were performed using Mann-Whitney U tests, Fisher’s exact tests and *t*-tests, depending on data type and distribution. Assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variances were assessed using Shaprio-Wilk and Levene’s tests prior to group comparisons.

This study was carried out in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and its subsequent amendments or comparable ethical standards. Informed consent was obtained from all participants prior to their inclusion in the study.

Based on literature recommendations (Charter, 1999; Frost et al., 2007; Schönbrodt & Perugini, 2013) a minimum sample size of *N* = 238 (119 patients and 119 non-clinical) was preregistered to ensure stable estimates of reliability and validity. A detailed description of the final sample characteristics is provided in the results section.

Measures

Euthymia Scale (ES)

The Euthymia Scale (ES) (Giovanni A. Fava & Bech, 2016) is a 10 – item self-report clinimetric measure. All Items are scored dichotomously as 1 (true) or 0 (false). Items 6 – 10, measuring psychological well-being, were adopted from the World Health Organization-5 Well-Being Index (WHO-5) (Topp et al., 2015). Items 1 – 5 measure levels of psychological flexibility. While Fava & Bech (2016) recommend calculating a global euthymia score, ranging from 0 – 10, with higher scores indicating higher levels of euthymia, Carrozzino et al. (2019) suggest a two dimensional structure and recommend using separate scores for the two subscales. Clinimetric analyses of the Japanese (Sasaki et al., 2021; Sasaki & Nishi, 2022) and Italian (Carrozzino et al., 2019) versions have shown, that the Euthymia Scale (ES) is a valid and highly sensitive clinimetric index. For the present study an adapted 6-point Likert version (from 0 “at no time” to 5 “all of the time”) was used in addition to the original format. The format was adapted from the WHO-5. Both scales were administered in a German version (ES-G), and total sum scores were calculated.

Beck Depression Inventory II (BDI-II)

The Beck Depression Inventory II (BDI-II) (Beck et al., 1996) is a widely used self-report instrument for assessing the severity of depressive symptoms in clinical and non-clinical populations. It is based on the diagnostic criteria for major depressive disorder as outlined in the DSM-IV (American Psychiatric Association et al., 1994). The BDI-II consists of 21 items, each representing a symptom related to depression. Items are rated on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (no symptom) to 3 (severe symptom), resulting in a total score between 0 and 63. For the German version (Hautzinger et al., 2006), internal consistency (Cronbach’s α) was reported as good (α ≥ .84) (Kühner et al., 2007). The BDI-II differentiates well between different severity levels of depression and is sensitive to change. In this study, cutoff scores were interpreted as recommended by Beck et al. (1996): minimal or no depression (0-13), mild depression (14-19), moderate depression (20-28), and severe depression (29-63).

World Health Organization Quality of Life (WHOQOL-BREF)

The WHOQOL-BREF (Group & Others, 1998) is a self-report questionnaire developed by the World Health Organization (WHO) to assess individuals’ subjective quality of life. It is derived from the original WHOQOL-100 and consists of 26 items. It measures four domains: (1) Physical health, (2) psychological, (3) social relationships, and (4) environment. In addition to the domain scores, two items assess overall quality of life and general health. Items are rated on a 5-point Likert scale, with higher scores indicating better quality of life. Items 3, 4, and 26 are negatively worded and need to be reverse-scored. The internal consistency (Cronbach’s α) of the four domains was reported between .57 and .88 for the German version of the WHOQOL-BREF (Angermeyer et al., 2000). In this study domain scores were converted to a 0-100 scale, as recommended by the authors. A mean total score was then calculated by averaging the four domain scores, providing an overall index of subjective quality of life.

Psychological Well-Being Scale (PWB-18)

The 18-item version of the Psychological Well-Being Scale (PWB) (C. D. Ryff & Keyes, 1995) is a short form of the original 84-item instrument developed by Ryff (1989). The PWB measures six theoretically grounded dimensions of psychological well-being based on Jahoda (1959): (1) autonomy, (2) environmental mastery, (3) personal growth, (4) positive relations with others, (5) purpose in life, and (6) self-acceptance. Each dimension is assessed by three questions, rated on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Eight items need to be reverse-coded. Previous studies have reported low internal consistencies for the 18-item version, with Cronbach’s α ranging from .33 to .56 (C. D. Ryff & Keyes, 1995). In the present study, both dimensional scores (range: 3 – 18) and a total psychological well-being score (range: 18 – 108) were used.

Connor Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC-10)

The Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC) is a widely used self-report measure for assessing trait resilience, defined as the ability to cope well with stress and adversity. The original scale consists of 25 items (Connor & Davidson, 2003), but a 10-item short version (Campbell-Sills & Stein, 2007) has been validated and is commonly used. The CD-RISC-10 includes 10 items rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (not true at all) to 4 (true nearly all the time), with total scores ranging from 0 to 40. The German version has shown good internal consistency (Cronbach’s α = .84) and test-retest reliability (*rtt* = .81) (Sarubin et al., 2015).

Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI-53)

The Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI-53) (Derogatis, 1993; Franke & Derogatis, 2000) is a self-report measure to assess psychological symptom burden across a wide range of psychiatric dimensions: (1) Somatization, (2) obsessive-compulsive, (3) interpersonal sensitivity, (4) depression, (5) anxiety, (6) hostility, (7) phobic anxiety, (8) paranoid ideation, and (9) psychoticism. The BSI-53 contains of 53 Items, each rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (not at all) to 4 (extremely), reflecting symptom distress over the past 7 days. In addition to the domain scores, three global indices can be calculated: The Global Severity Index (GSI), the Positive Symptom Distress Index (PSDI), and the Positive Symptom Total (PST). The BSI-53 has shown good psychometric properties, including high internal consistency with Cronbach’s α for the GSI typically exceeding .90 (Endermann, 2005). In the present study, the Global Severity Index (GSI), calculated as the mean score of all items, was used as a general measure for psychological distress.

WHO-5 Well-Being Index

The WHO-5 Well-Being Index (Health Organization, 1998) is one of the most commonly used self-report rating scales for assessing subjective well-being (SWB) in research and clinical settings. The five questions are rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (at no time) to 5 (all of the time), resulting in a raw score range of 0 to 25. For better comparison with other well-being measure, the raw score is typically multiplied by four, resulting in a percentage score from 0 to 100. The WHO-5 has demonstrated high clinimetric validity, can be used as an outcome measure, and serves as a screening tool for depression. It has shown high internal consistency across various studies with Cronbach’s α typically exceeding .80 (Topp et al., 2015).

Mini-International Neuropsychiatric Interview for Depression (MINI)

The Mini-International Neuropsychiatric Interview (MINI) is a brief, structured diagnostic interview developed to assess the presence of DSM-IV or ICD-10 psychiatric disorders (Sheehan et al., 1998). In the present study, only the Major Depressive Episode (MDE) module was used, adapted as a self-reported format, to assess the presence of current and past depressive episodes. The MDE module consists of nine dichotomous items (yes/no), each representing a symptom based on DSM-IV criteria for diagnosing depression. Participants were classified as having a current MDE, past MDE, or nor lifetime MDE. For past MDE, participants were categorized as YES (endorsed 5-9 symptoms) or NO (0-4 symptoms). For current MDE, three categories were used: MDE (5-9 symptoms), subthreshold depression (1-4 symptoms), or none (0 symptoms). This grouping approach was adopted from Sasaki et al. (2021).

Translation of the Euthymia Scale

To create a German version of the Euthymia Scale (ES-G), items 6 to 10 were adopted from the official German translation of the WHO-5 (Health Organization, 1998). The remaining five items were derived from an existing version used in a published translation of the Clinical Interview for Euthymia (CIE) (Giovanni A. Fava & Guidi, 2020b).

Unlike the Euthymia Scale (ES), the Clinical Interview for Euthymia (CIE) uses negatively worded items. Therefore, item 2 of the ES (“I do not keep thinking about negative experiences”) required a slight rewording compared to its counterpart in the CIE (“Do you keep thinking of negative experiences”). The final version of the Euthymia Scale (ES-G) is presented in Appendix A.

Statistical analyses

All statistical analyses were carried out using R (R Core Team, 2023). The alpha level for statistical significance was set at α = .05. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, frequencies) were calculated to summarize participant characteristics and key study variables. Model assumptions for all parametric tests (e.g., normality of residuals, homoscedasticity) were examined prior to conducting analyses and are provided in Appendix B.

Missing data

In the non-clinical sample, no missing data were present. In the clinical sample, if missing data were below 10% for a given questionnaire, mean imputation was applied.

Concurrent validity

To assess concurrent validity (**Objective 2**) of the ES-G, Pearson correlation analyses were conducted between the ES-G total score and related constructs, including psychological distress (GSI), quality of life (WHOQOL-BREF), resilience (CD-RISC), psychological well-being (PWB), and depressive symptoms (BDI-II). P-values were corrected for multiple comparisons using the False Discovery Rate (FDR) procedure.

Construct validity

To evaluate the construct validity and dimensionality (**Objective 3**) of the ES-G, Rasch analysis was performed using the easyRasch package (Johansson, 2025a). This analysis was guided by recommendations from Johannson et al. (2023) with a focus on the following indicators of dimensionality:

Item Fit. Was assessed using conditional infit statistics, which are robust to sample size and preferred over traditional unweighted mean square (outfit) or z-standardized fit statistics (ZSTD) values (Johansson, 2025b; Müller, 2020). Infit is an information-weighted mean square residual, which reflects the degree to which observed item responses align with expected responses under the Rasch model. Values substantially above or below 1.0 may indicate item misfit. To determine item-specific cutoff values, a parametric bootstrap procedure with 100 iterations was conducted, in line with the recommendations by Johansson (Johansson, 2025b).

Principle Component Analysis of item residuals (PCAR). While earlier rules of thumb suggested a cutoff of 1.5 for the first eigenvalue (Smith, 2002) to support unidimensionality, later research has shown that the expected PCAR eigenvalue also depends on sample size and test length (Chou & Wang, 2010). Therefore, a simulation-based approach was used to estimate a more appropriate cutoff for the largest eigenvalue in this sample. As recommended by Johansson (2025a), the distribution of eigenvalues was simulated with a parametric bootstrap procedure, using 500 iterations to determine a cutoff value for the largest PCAR eigenvalue.

Local independence. According to the Rasch model, items should be locally independent, meaning they should only correlate through the latent trait. Violations of this assumption may indicate redundancy, item clustering, or multidimensionality. Local independence was therefore assessed by examining residual correlations between item pairs (Kim et al., 2011). To get a useful cutoff threshold for residual correlations a bootstrapping procedure with 400 iterations was conducted as recommended by Christensen et al. (2017).

Predictive validity

Predictive validity refers to the ability of a rating scale to predict future (treatment) outcomes. It was tested whether baseline ES-G total scores could predict whether a patient would respond to psychotherapy (**Objective 4**). Response was evaluated using two outcomes: (1) a positive well-being criterion (WHO-5), where patients with an increase of ≥ 10 points from t0 to t1were considered responders (Topp et al., 2015); and (2) a symptom reduction criterion (BDI-II), where a ≥ 50% change was used to define response.

A machine learning-based predictive modeling approach was employed using logistic regression classifiers implemented with the mlr package (Bischl et al., 2016). Model performance was evaluated using nested cross-validation with 5 folds and 10 repetitions. The models were optimized for balanced accuracy (BAC). Due to imbalanced group sizes, random undersampling was applied within the inner CV loop. This strategy improves robustness of predictive models with imbalanced classification tasks (He & Garcia, 2009).

Sensitivity

To evaluate the sensitivity of the ES-G, two analyses were conducted:

(1) It was tested whether baseline ES-G total scores could predict group membership (non-clinical participants vs. day clinic patients; **Objective 5**). A machine learning-based logistic regression model was trained using the same approach described under predictive validity. Model performance was assessed via nested 5-fold cross-validation (10 repetitions), optimized for balanced accuracy. To address class imbalance, random undersampling was applied within the inner CV loop.

(2) To examine the ES-G’s sensitivity to symptom change (**Objective 6**), it was tested whether changes from baseline (t0) to post-treatment (t1) in the BDI-II were associated with changes on the ES-G within the clinical sample. A sandwich linear regression model, with ΔBDI-II as the criterion and centered ΔES-G as the predictor, controlled for centered BDI-II baseline scores was employed:

ΔBDI-II ~ ΔES-Gcentered + BDI-IIt0,centered

Proof of sensitivity to change was defined as a significant Wald test of the ΔES-G (centered) slope, with an expected negative β coefficient. This hypothesis was tested one-sided, based on directional expectations.

Clinical validity

A one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted to assess the clinical validity of the ES-G. It was tested whether ES-G total scores differed across groups based on (1) depression history (**Objective 7**) and (2) symptom severity (**Objective 8**). A Jonckheere-Terpstra trend test was performed to assess whether a decreasing trend in ES-G total scores was observed across ordered groups with increasing symptom burden. Assumptions of normality (residual distribution) and homogeneity of variances (Levene’s test) were tested, and results are reported in Appendix X. Post-hoc comparisons were corrected using the Tukey method.

(1) Participants from both samples were classified into five groups based on current and past MDE status, assessed by a self-report version of the Mini-International Neuropsychiatric Interview (MINI) (Sheehan et al., 1998). This grouping strategy was adopted from Sasaki et al. (2021) and is presented in Table 1.

**Table 1**

*Grouping strategy for depression history*

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Group | Past MDE | Current MDE | Interpretation |
| 0 | no | no | No history of MDE - healthy |
| 1 | yes | no | Full remission |
| 2 | no | subthreshold | First subthreshold episode |
| 3 | yes | subthreshold | History of MDE + current subthreshold |
| 4 | yes | yes | History of MDE + current MDE |

*Note.* Past MDE: endorsed ≥ 5 symptoms = yes, < 5 symptoms = no, based on the MINI questionnaire for lifetime episode; Current MDE: 5–9 symptoms = yes, 1–4 symptoms = subthreshold, 0 symptoms = no, based on the MINI questionnaire for current 2-week episodes.

(2) Symptom severity groups were created based on established BDI-II cutoff criteria and included participants across both samples.

Cutoff determination

To determine a clinically meaningful cutoff score for the ES-G for screening subjects with or without depression, receiver operating characteristics (ROC) curve analysis (Metz, 1978; Zweig & Campbell, 1993) were conducted. As a reference criterion BDI-II scores were used. In their meta-analyses von Glischinski et al. (2019) recommend using different cut points to screen for depression in primary care and healthy populations vs. psychiatric settings. For the non-clinical sample, a BDI-II score of ≥ 13 was used to define depression while for the clinical sample, a score of ≥ 19 served as the cut point, as suggested by von Glischinski et al. (2019). ROC curve analyses were performed for both the original version of the Euthymia Scale and the adapted 6-point Likert version. Analyses were carried out using the R package pROC (Robin et al., 2011). The following indicators were reported: area under the curve (AUC), sensitivity, specificity. The optimal cutoff scores were determined using Youden’s J statistic, which maximizes the sum of sensitivity and specificity.

Incremental validity

Hierarchical linear regression analyses were used to assess incremental validity of the ES-G. The criterion variable was each subscale of the Psychological Well-Being Sclae (PWB). Predictors were entered in the following order: WHO-5 at step 1, the ES-G at step 2. An increase in the explained variance (ΔR²) from step 1 to step 2 was interpreted as an indicator for incremental validity. All models were controlled for sex, age, and education as these demographic variables have been shown to be associated with well-being outcomes (Buecker et al., 2023; Carrozzino et al., 2019; Oishi & Tay, 2019; W. Wood et al., 1989).

Comparison of the Self-Adapted 6-Point Likert Version of the ES-G with the Original Version

The performance of the self-adapted 6-point Likert version of the ES-G was compared to the original version. This comparison was based on balanced accuracy (BAC) scores from the predictive modeling objectives (Objectives 4 and 5), explained variance (R2) from the sensitivity to change analysis (Objective 6), and effect sizes (η2) from the ANOVA analyses (Objectives 7 and 8).

Maybe: tabelle welche packete in r?

Results

Participants

Descriptive statistics of the final sample (N = 213) are presented separately for sociodemographic characteristics (Table 2) and study variables (Table 3).

The full sample at baseline consisted of 165 female (77.5%), 46 male (21.6%), and 2 participants who identified as divers (0.9%). The mean age of participants was 27.43 years (SD = 10.81). Due to the age clearly not following a normal distribution (Appendix ..) median is also reported.

Statistical analyses revealed significant differences in distribution of categorial variables and mean scores of continuous variables between the clinical and non-clinical sample. Levene’s test indicated homogeneity of variances for all comparisons (all *p* > .05). Shapiro-Wilk tests revealed significant deviations from normality in all variables within the non-clinical sample. In the clinical sample only the WHO-5 deviated from normality (Appendix B). However, Mann-Whitney U tests yielded the same pattern of results as the parametric *t*-tests; therefore, only the results of the *t*-tests are reported.

In the clinical sample, primary diagnoses were as follows: major depressive disorder (*n* = 21; 65.6%), borderline personality disorder (*n* = 3; 9.4%), anxiety disorder (*n* = 2; 6.3%), obsessive-compulsive disorder (*n* = 2; 6.3%), autism spectrum disorder (*n* = 1; 3.1%), and schizophrenia (*n* = 1; 3.1%).

**Table 2**

*Sociodemographic Characteristics of Participants at Baseline*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Baseline  characteristics | Full sample  (*N* = 213) | Non-clinical  (*N* = 181) | Clinical  (*N* = 32) | Statistical analyses |
| *n* (%) | *n (*%) | *n* (%) | *p-*value |
| Age, mean (*SD*) | 27.43 (10.81) | 25.36 (8.88) | 39.09 (13.25) | < .001\*\*\* |
| Gender |  |  |  | .015\* |
| Female | 165 (77.5) | 146 (80.7) | 19 (59.4) |  |
| Male | 46 (21.6) | 34 (18.8) | 12 (37.5) |  |
| Divers | 2 (0.9) | 1 (0.6) | 1 (3.1) |  |
| Marital status |  |  |  | .027\* |
| Single | 93 (43.7) | 75 (41.4) | 18 (56.2) |  |
| Married/partnered | 119 (55.9) | 106 (58.6) | 13 (40.6) |  |
| Divorced/widowed | 1 (0.5) | 0 (0) | 1 (3.1) |  |
| Highest level of education |  |  |  | < .001\*\*\* |
| Lower secondary school certificate | 1 (0.5) | 0 (0) | 1 (3.1) |  |
| Intermediate secondary school certificate | 4 (1.9) | 2 (1.1) | 2 (6.2) |  |
| University of applied sciences entrance diploma | 20 (9.4) | 20 (11.1) | 0 (0) |  |
| General higher education entrance qualification | 106 (50.0) | 104 (57.8) | 2 (6.2) |  |
| Apprenticeship | 25 (11.8) | 11 (6.1) | 14 (43.8) |  |
| University or postgraduate degree | 56 (26.4) | 43 (23.9) | 13 (40.6) |  |
| Employment status |  |  |  | < .001\*\*\* |
| Unemployed | 13 (6.1) | 0 (0) | 13 (40.6) |  |
| Student | 154 (72.3) | 151 (83.4) | 3 (9.4) |  |
| Employed | 39 (18.3) | 24 (13.3) | 15 (46.9) |  |
| Self-employed | 4 (1.9) | 4 (2.2) | 0 (0) |  |
| Retired | 1 (0.5) | 0 (0) | 1 (3.1) |  |
| Other | 2 (0.9) | 2 (1.1) | 0 (0) |  |

*Note. SD* = standard deviation*.* Age was compared using the Mann-Whitney U test due to non-normal distribution. All categorial variables were compared using Fisher’s exact test due to low expected cell counts. \*\*\* p < .001, \* p < .05

**Table 3**

*Participants’ mean scores of study variables at Baseline*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Baseline  characteristics | Non-clinical  (*N* = 181) | Clinical  (*N* = 32) | Statistical analyses | |
| *Mean (SD)* | *Mean (SD)* | *t-*value (211) | *p-*value |
| ES-G | 7.38 (2.03) | 3.53 (2.36) | -9.61 | < .001\*\*\* |
| ES-G (Likert) | 31.83 (7.02) | 20.64 (8.16) | -8.11 | < .001\*\*\* |
| BDI-II | 10.45 (10.70) | 29.84 (11.04) | 9.41 | < .001\*\*\* |
| WHOQOL-BREF | 72.44 (13.10) | 52.71 (11.76) | -7.97 | < .001\*\*\* |
| PWB | 83.05 (10.17) | n.a. |  |  |
| Autonomy | 12.50 (2.69) | n.a. |  |  |
| Environmental  mastery | 13.57 (2.57) | n.a. |  |  |
| Personal growth | 15.43 (2.30) | n.a. |  |  |
| Positive relations with others | 13.80 (2.94) | n.a. |  |  |
| Purpose in life | 14.01 (2.52) | n.a. |  |  |
| Self-acceptance | 13.75 (2.96) | n.a. |  |  |
| CD-RISC | 25.78 (7.34) | 15.56 (7.34) | -7.27 | < .001\*\*\* |
| GSI | 0.64 (0.61) | 1.39 (0.69) | 6.20 | < .001\*\*\* |
| WHO-5 | 59.91 (19.22) | 33.62 (17.30) | -7.23 | < .001\*\*\* |

*Note. SD* = standard deviation. ES-G = Euthymia Scale; ES-G = 6-point version of the Euthymia Scale; BDI-II = Beck Depression Inventory – II; WHOQOL-BREF = World Health Organization Quality of Life 21-item version; PWB = Psychological Well-Being Scale was only assessed in the non-clinical sample; CD-RISC = Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale 10-item version; GSI = Global Severity Index of the Brief Symptom Inventory 53-item version. WHO-5 = World Health Organization – 5.  
All variables were compared using two sample t-tests for equal variances.   
\*\*\* p < .001

German translation of the Euthymia Scale

ddd

Correlation analyses

Table 4 presents means, standard deviations, and Spearman rank correlations between the study variables. Spearman correlations were used due to significant deviations from normality in several variables, as indicated by Shapiro-Wilk tests (see Appendix B). *p*-values were corrected for multiple comparisons using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure.

**Table 4**

*Descriptive Statistics and Spearman Correlations among Study Variables*

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Variable | *n* | *M* | *SD* | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1. Euthymia | 213 | 6.80 | 2.49 | — |  |  |  |  |
| 2. Psychological Distress | 213 | 0.75 | 0.68 | -.70\*\*\* | — |  |  |  |
| 3. Quality of Life | 213 | 69.48 | 14.69 | .71\*\*\* | -.80\*\*\* | — |  |  |
| 4. Resilience | 213 | 24.25 | 8.18 | .64\*\*\* | -.62\*\*\* | .64\*\*\* | — |  |
| 5. Psychological Well-beinga | 181 | 83.05 | 10.17 | .51\*\*\* | -.56\*\*\* | .67\*\*\* | .62\*\*\* | — |
| 6. Depressive Symptoms | 213 | 13.36 | 12.78 | -.76\*\*\* | .85\*\*\* | -.82\*\*\* | -.61\*\*\* | -.57\*\*\* |

*Note.* *n* = number of participants, *M* = mean, *SD* = standard deviation

a Psychological Well-Being (PWB) was only assessed in the non-clinical sample.

Euthymia = ES-G, Distress = GSI, Quality of life = WHOQOL-BREF, Resilience = CD-RISC, Depressive Symptoms = BDI-II.

Benjamini Hochberg correction was applied, \*\*\* *p* < .001.

Rasch

Removed 2x divers / Item 6 raus? Dann super

overfit (item 4 ,6 ) but no residual correlations, so ok…  
first whole ample, then clinical only.   
A high item fit value (sometimes referred to as “underfitting” the Rasch model) can indicate several things, often multidimensionality or a question that is difficult to interpret and thus has noisy response data.

A low item fit value (sometimes referred to as an item “overfitting” the Rasch model) indicates that responses are too predictable and provide little information.

A Jonckheere–Terpstra trend test revealed a statistically significant decreasing trend in ES-G total scores across the ordered MINI groups,  
JT = 2869.5, p < .001.

Discussion

Although Pearson correlations were preregistered, we observed significant violations of normality in several variables. Therefore, Spearman rank correlations were computed instead. The results did not differ in terms of direction or significance and are thus interpreted in line with the original hypotheses.

Objective 9 entfern (obmitted)t. Redundant. Changed order of objectives.

Keine balancierten Gruppen. Nicht representative, selecting bias (uni)

Anderer cut off für Depression

Rasch:   
A parametric bootstrap function has been implemented in easyRasch to determine a potentially appropriate cutoff value for the largest PCAR eigenvalue, but it has not been systematically evaluated yet. Below is an example, illustrated with a histogram of the simulated distribution of largest eigenvalues, the 99th percentile and the max value. If the bootstrap turns out to provide an appropriate cutoff value, it still needs to be used together with checking item fit (or item-restscore) and residual correlations (local dependence) to evaluate unidimensionality.

Summary of Main Findings

Implications

Strengths and Limitations

ES does not include PWB, CIE does.

MINI as self report

In order to measure Euthymia as defined you need several rating scales (distress, ES, Kellner Symptom’s Questionnaire)

Future Research

Conclusion

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Appendix

Appendix A – German Translation of the Euthymia Scale

**Table A1**

*English and German items of the ES*

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Item | English Version | German Translation | Answer format |
| 1 | If I become sad, anxious or angry it is for a short time | Wenn ich traurig, ängstlich oder wütend werde, hält es nur für kurze Zeit an | richtig/falsch |
| 2 | I do not keep thinking about negative experiences | Ich denke nicht ständig über negative Erfahrungen nach | richtig/falsch |
| 3 | I am able to adapt to changing situations | Ich kann mich an veränderte Situationen anpassen | richtig/falsch |
| 4 | I try to be consistent in my attitudes and behaviors | Ich bemühe mich um beständige Einstellungen und Verhaltensweisen | richtig/falsch |
| 5 | Most of the time I can handle stress | Meistens bin ich in der Lage, mit Stress gut umzugehen | richtig/falsch |
| 6 | I generally feel cheerful and in good spirits | Ich bin im Allgemeinen froh und guter Laune | richtig/falsch |
| 7 | I generally feel calm and relaxed | Ich bin im Allgemeinen ruhig und entspannt | richtig/falsch |
| 8 | I generally feel active and vigorous | Ich bin im Allgemeinen aktiv und energisch | richtig/falsch |
| 9 | My daily life is filled with things that interest me | Mein Alltagsleben ist voller Dinge, die mich interessieren | richtig/falsch |
| 10 | I wake up feeling fresh and rested | Ich fühle mich beim Aufwachen frisch und ausgeruht | richtig/falsch |

Declaration of Authorship

I hereby declare that the thesis submitted is my own unaided work. All direct or indirect sources used are acknowledged as references. Furthermore, this work has not been submitted in the same or a similar form or in part for any other examination.

Munich, XX.XX.XXX