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Validating the Persian Intuitive Eating Scale-2 Among Breast Cancer Survivors Who Are Overweight/Obese

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Abstract

Women with breast cancer are at risk of being overweight/obese which may consequently increase mortality. Intuitive eating is an adaptive eating behavior which might be beneficial for weight outcomes. The present study validated the Persian Intuitive Eating Scale-2 (IES-2) among overweight/obese Iranian females with breast cancer. Women who were overweight/obese with breast cancer ($n = 762$; mean \pm SD age = 55.1 ± 5.7 years) completed the following questionnaires: IES-2, General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE-6), Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS), Short Form-12 (SF-12), Weight Bias Internalization Scale (WBIS), Body Appreciation Scale-2 (BAS-2), and Eating Attitudes Test (EAT-26). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and Rasch analysis were applied to examine the psychometric properties of the IES-2. Associations between IES-2 score and other scale scores were assessed. CFA and Rasch analysis suggested that the Persian IES-2 had robust psychometric properties and all IES-2 items were meaningful in their embedded domains. The four-factor structure of the Persian IES-2 was confirmed. Concurrent validity was supported by the positive correlations between the IES-2 score and scores on the GSE-6, SF-12 mental component, and BAS-2. Negative correlations were found between the IES-2 score and the HADS (anxiety and depression subscales), WBIS, and EAT-26. The present study demonstrated that the Persian IES-2 is a well-designed instrument and is applicable for women who are overweight/obese with breast cancer.

Keywords: breast cancer; obesity; overweight; classical test theory; intuitive eating; Rasch model

1 **Introduction**

2 Women with breast cancer may suffer from weight gain due to cancer treatments
3 (Picon-Ruiz, Morta-Tarifa, Valle-Goffin, Friedman, & Slingerland, 2017). Studies have
4 shown that more than half of women with breast cancer increased their weight during
5 treatments over a three-year period (Demark-Wahnefried, Campbell, & Hayes, 2012; Vance,
6 Mourtzakis, McCargar, & Hanning, 2011). The risk factors for weight gain among this
7 population include premenopausal women, those receiving chemotherapy, and those who are
8 overweight at the time of diagnosis (Nichols et al., 2009). Unfortunately, weight gain among
9 women with breast cancer is a risk factor for mortality. An increase of five pounds after
10 breast cancer diagnosis is associated with an increase of breast cancer-specific mortality by
11 13% and all-cause mortality by 12% (Nichols et al., 2009). Weight gain following breast
12 cancer diagnosis is associated with increased fatigue, arthralgia, and hot flushes
13 (Demark-Wahnefried et al., 2012). Overweight is deemed to be a crucial issue for women
14 with breast cancer because of increased breast cancer mortality among patients who are
15 overweight/obese.

16 Intuitive eating, a flexible eating behavior, may be used to assist women with breast
17 cancer in tackling issues surrounding weight gain. The main concepts of intuitive eating focus
18 on trusting one's own hunger and satiety signals and feeling the freedom and enjoyment of
19 eating as proposed by Tribole and Resch (2020). Intuitive eating is beneficial because it is
20 associated with lower levels of body mass index (BMI) and reduced disordered eating
21 compared to other eating patterns, including dieting (Linardon & Mitchell, 2017; Tylka &
22 Wilcox, 2006; Van Dyck, Herbert, Happ, Kleveman, & Vögele, 2016).

23 Previous research has claimed that changes in dietary behaviors significantly correlate
24 with objective changes in body weight (Heber et al., 1992). The prevalence of being
25 overweight and its association with cancer burden has been shown in previous research (Sung

26 et al., 2019). Consequently, healthy women are encouraged to adjust dietary behaviors to
27 prevent breast cancer. Studies have shown that low-fat dietary pattern leads to a lower
28 incidence of deaths after the diagnosis of breast cancer (Chlebowski et al., 2017, 2018).
29 Women with breast cancer may not eat certain types of food during chemotherapy because of
30 the side effects of treatment, such as nausea and vomiting (Custódio, Marinho, Gontijo,
31 Pereira, Paiva, & Maia, 2016; Kottschade, Novotny, Lyss, Mazurczak, Loprinzi, & Barton,
32 2016). In addition, healthy eating behaviors are encouraged among women with breast cancer
33 such as a high consumption of unprocessed products rather than refined and processed food
34 (Kwan, Weltzien, Kushi, Castillo, Slattery, & Caan, 2009; Kroenke, Fung, Hu, & Holmes,
35 2005). A study on 73 patients who received adjuvant chemotherapy treatment, hormone
36 therapy, or radiation for nonmetastatic breast cancer showed that maladaptive eating behavior
37 (e.g., dietary restraint) was highly associated with weight gain at 6 and 19 months after
38 diagnosis (DeGeorge, Gray, Fetting, Rolls, 1990). This suggests that weight gain for women
39 with breast cancer should be managed by utilizing beneficial dietary behaviors, such as
40 intuitive eating. In a large-scale study conducted in Switzerland comprising 5238 adults from
41 the German and French-speaking population, researchers found that the concepts of intuitive
42 eating had positive associations of eating quality scores among women. Additionally, the
43 tendency to choose foods that promote health and body functioning, was largely unrelated to
44 food intake (Horwath et al., 2019). Another study comprising 9581 men and 31,955 women
45 examining the relationship between intuitive eating and food intake indicated that intuitive
46 eating was inversely associated with both the frequency of snacking and the tendency to
47 snack in the absence of hunger (Camilleri et al., 2017).

48 The effect of intuitive eating has been found last longer than regular diet (Bacon, Stern,
49 Van Loan, & Keim, 2005). Furthermore, engaging in intuitive eating appears to be related to
50 low psychological distress because the benefits of intuitive eating are associated with

51 increased psychological and physical wellbeing, enhanced enjoyment, decreased anxiety,
52 improved body shape satisfaction, and elevated self-efficacy (Augustus-Horvath & Tylka,
53 2011; da Silva, Neves, Ferreira, Capos, & Swami, 2020; Ruzanska & Warschburger, 2017;
54 Saunders, Nichols-Lopez, & Frazier, 2018; Smith & Hawks, 2006). Therefore, a practical and
55 valid instrument that assesses intuitive eating would assist healthcare providers to better
56 understand intuitive eating among women who are overweight/obese with breast cancer.

57 The Intuitive Eating Scale-2 (IES-2) (Tylka & Kroon Van Diest, 2013) contains different
58 aspects of intuitive eating, including unconditional permission to eat (UPE), eating for
59 physical rather than emotional reasons (EPR), reliance on hunger and satiety cues (RHSC),
60 and body-food choice congruence (B-FCC). In brief, the UPE assesses how individuals are
61 ready to eat when they are physically hungry and at the moment what food is desired without
62 categorization into allowed and forbidden foods. EPR reflects the extent to which individuals
63 eat to satisfy physical hunger instead of coping with emotional distress. RHSC examines
64 individuals' awareness of internal signals in hunger and satiety, and subsequent belief in the
65 signs to regulate eating behavior. Finally, B-FCC is aligned with the concept of gentle
66 nutrition, which represents the combination of healthy and tasty nutrition aligned with bodily
67 needs. Therefore, the IES-2 might be a useful tool to assess intuitive eating among women
68 with breast cancer who are overweight/obese.

69 Research has demonstrated that the IES-2 is a reliable and valid instrument in assessing
70 intuitive eating across different ethnic populations (Bas et al., 2017; Camilleri et al., 2015;
71 Carbonneau et al., 2016; Tylka & Kroon Van Diest, 2013). However, a literature gap exists in
72 the following aspects.

73 First, the IES-2 has mainly been used (and validated) in Western countries (e.g.,
74 Camilleri et al., 2015; Carbonneau et al., 2016; Tylka & Kroon Van Diest, 2013; Ruzanska &
75 Warschburger, 2017), and no Persian version has been translated or validated. Culture is a key

76 element that influences eating behaviors in different countries (Airhihenbuwa, 2010;
77 Kianpour, 2020; Li & Xiao, 2019). Cross-cultural research has focused on the individualism
78 and collectivism dimensions (Orji & Mandryk, 2014). In many collectivist (e.g., Eastern)
79 countries, eating is an important element of social gatherings and it is considered impolite to
80 refuse food especially when it is presented by the hostess, which inevitably cause excess
81 eating (Orji & Mandryk, 2014). Also, Li and Xiao (2019) pointed out that China's business
82 dinners result in extravagant waste given the leftover. Additionally, dinner hosts (where?
83 China?) often persuade others to drink irrespective of whether others want to or not.
84 Therefore, considering the aforementioned cases, the interpretations toward the IES-2 are
85 likely to be different between an Iranian (Eastern) population and Westerners. Moreover,
86 although Iranians have begun to accept Westernized diets, Eastern people still pay more
87 attention to food color, aroma, and taste (Kianpour, 2020; Li & Xiao, 2019).

88 Second, the IES-2 has mainly been applied to general populations and no studies have
89 evaluated whether the IES-2 is applicable for people with cancer. Given that evidence of
90 psychometric properties is highly dependent upon specific tested populations, testing
91 psychometric properties on a general population may not be generalizable to a specific
92 disease population (Lin et al., 2019a). Therefore, it is important for the psychometric
93 properties of the IES-2 to be tested among patients with specific diagnoses (e.g., women with
94 breast cancer).

95 Third, most psychometric testing on the IES-2 has been conducted utilizing classical test
96 theory (CTT). Given that Rasch analysis, a form of Item Response Theory (IRT), is useful
97 and applicable to instruments' validation for individual's reported outcomes (Lin et al.,
98 2019b), the use of Rasch analysis on the IES-2 will provide additional information to
99 classical test theory regarding its psychometric properties. When developing new assessments
100 from a conceptual-practice model (i.e., a conceptual model that is used for practice), an

101 assessment validation process must be chosen to address the issue concerning psychometric
102 properties.

103 The present study's goals were to examine the psychometric properties of the Persian
104 IES-2 among women who were overweight/obese with breast cancer utilizing (i) two types of
105 test theories (CTT and Rasch analysis); and (ii) concurrent validity of the Persian IES-2 with
106 different psychological health aspects, including self-efficacy, quality of life, weight-related
107 self-stigma, psychological distress, body appreciation, and eating attitudes.

108 **Methods**

109 *Participants and procedures*

110 The study participants were recruited from five Iranian oncology centers in Tehran,
111 Tabriz, and Qazvin cities (N=762) from June 2018 to March 2019. To be eligible for the study,
112 participants had to: (i) be aged 18 years or older, (ii) have a body mass index (BMI) > 25
113 kg/m², (iii) sign a written informed consent, (iv) be able to read and write in Persian, and (v)
114 have a history of histologically or cytologically confirmed breast cancer. Participants were
115 excluded from the study if they met the following exclusion criteria: (i) current severe,
116 uncontrolled systemic disease (e.g., unstable or uncompensated hypertension, diabetes,
117 ischemic heart disease, acid peptic, hepatic, or renal disease) and (ii) severe mental disorder
118 (e.g., personality disorder, schizophrenia, paraphilic disorder, and intellectual disability)
119 diagnosed by psychiatrists using the Structured Clinical Interview for DSM Disorders. The
120 oncology centers first provided a list of their patients to the present authors. Research
121 assistants then used the list to contact 1100 patients who received routine care from the
122 clinics. Among the 1100 patients, 108 were not eligible for further assessment and 230
123 declined the opportunity to participate (response rate: 76.8%). For those participants who
124 agreed to participate, written informed consent was provided before completing the survey
125 instruments. Additionally, all participants were invited to complete the IES-2 again after a

126 two-week interval resulting in 610 participants completing the IES-2 twice. All the
127 instruments were completed offline using a ‘pen-and-paper’ method. The study’s protocol
128 was reviewed and approved by the Ethics Committee of the Tabriz University of Medical
129 Sciences.

130 ***Translation and cultural adaptation***

131 The translation of the IES-2 was performed according to the international guidelines,
132 (Beaton, Bombardier, Guillemin, & Ferraz, 2000; Pakpour, Zeidi, Yekaninejad, & Burri,
133 2014). Detailed translation process is described in Appendix A. In brief, the following aspects
134 of cross-cultural equivalency were checked: semantic equivalence, idiomatic equivalence,
135 experiential equivalence, and conceptual equivalence.

136 ***Instruments***

137 All the instruments, except for the IES-2, have previously been translated into Persian
138 for Iranians use with acceptable psychometric properties.

139 *Intuitive Eating Scale-2 (IES-2)* (Tylka & Kroon Van Diest, 2013): This scale comprises 23
140 items and assesses individuals’ intuitive eating performance. More specifically, the scale
141 assesses four domains (UPE with six items; EPR with eight items; RHSC with six items; and
142 B-FCC with three items). A sample item is “When I am lonely, I do not turn to food for
143 comfort”. All items are rated using a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 =
144 strongly agree), with a higher score indicating a higher level of intuitive eating. The
145 Cronbach’s alpha was satisfactory for IES-2 total score ($\alpha = 0.85$ to 0.90) and acceptable to
146 excellent for domain scores ($\alpha = 0.67$ to 0.82 for UPE; 0.91 to 0.93 for EPR; 0.85 to 0.94 for
147 RHSC; and 0.83 to 0.89 for B-FCC) (Ruzanska & Warschburger, 2017; Tylka, Calogero, &
148 Danielsdottir, 2015; Webb & Hardin, 2016). The Cronbach’s alpha in the present study was
149 very good to excellent (Cronbach’s alpha of 0.93 for entire IES-2; 0.80 to 0.93 for the IES-2
150 subscales).

151 *General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE-6)* (Rajabi, 2006): This scale comprises six items
152 embedded in a single domain and assesses self-efficacy. A sample item is “If I am in trouble, I
153 can usually think of a solution”. All items are rated using a four-point Likert-type scale (1 =
154 not true; 4 = exactly true), with a higher score indicating a higher level of self-efficacy. The
155 Cronbach’s alpha of the Persian GSE-6 was good ($\alpha = 0.80$) The concurrent validity of the
156 Persian GSE-6 was supported by the significant correlation with self-esteem ($r = 0.3$) (Rajabi,
157 2006). Moreover, the Cronbach’s alpha of the GSE-6 in the present study was 0.89.

158 *Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS)* (Lin & Pakpour, 2017): This scale comprises
159 14 items and assesses individuals’ degree of anxiety (seven items) and depression (seven
160 items). A sample item is “I feel as if I am slowed down”. All items are rated using a
161 four-point Likert-type scale (0 = not at all; 3 = most of the time) with a higher score
162 indicating a higher level of anxiety or depression. The Cronbach’s alpha was acceptable for
163 the Persian HADS depression subscale score ($\alpha = 0.79$) and anxiety subscale score ($\alpha = 0.82$).
164 The construct validity of the Persian HADS was supported by the confirmatory factory
165 analysis (comparative fit index [CFI] = 0.985; Tucker-Lewis index [TLI] = 0.982) (Lin &
166 Pakpour, 2017). Moreover, the Cronbach’s alpha of the HADS in the present study was 0.84
167 (anxiety) and 0.81 (depression).

168 *Short Form-12 (SF-12)* (Montazeri, Vahdaninia, Mousavi, & Omidvari, 2009): This scale
169 comprises 12 items and assesses individuals’ health-related quality of life. It is calculated
170 across two summary scores: physical component summary (PCS) and mental component
171 summary (MCS). A sample item is “Have you felt calm and peaceful”. Two-point to six-point
172 Likert-type scales are applied to the 12 items and the raw scores range between 1 and 6. The
173 response anchors for SF-12 include ‘yes — no’; ‘not at all — extremely’; ‘none of the
174 time — all of the time’; ‘yes, limited a lot — no, not limited at all’; and ‘poor — excellent’. A
175 scoring algorithm is then applied to the SF-12 raw scores to convert the scores into a 0-100

176 scale for both PCS and MCS (Pakpour et al., 2011). The Cronbach's alpha of the Persian
177 SF-12 was acceptable ($\alpha = 0.73$ for PCS and $= 0.72$ for MCS). The construct validity of the
178 Persian SF-12 was supported by the confirmatory factory analysis (CFI = 0.93) (Montazeri et
179 al., 2009). Moreover, the Cronbach's alpha of the SF-12 in the present study was 0.81 (PCS)
180 and 0.80 (MCS).

181 *Weight Bias Internalization Scale (WBIS)* (Lin, Imani, Cheung, & Pakpour, 2019c): This
182 scale comprises 11 items embedded in a single domain and assesses individuals' perception
183 of weight-related stigma. A sample item is "It's my fault that I am overweight". All items are
184 rated using a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree), with a
185 higher score indicating a higher level of weight-related self-stigma. The Cronbach's alpha of
186 the Persian WBIS was excellent ($\alpha = 0.90$). The construct validity of the Persian WBIS was
187 supported by the confirmatory factory analysis (CFI = 0.93; TLI = 0.91) (Lin, Imani, Cheung,
188 & Pakpour, 2019c). Moreover, the Cronbach's alpha of the WBIS in the present study was
189 0.86.

190 *Body Appreciation Scale-2 (BAS-2)* (Atari, 2016): This scale comprises 10 items embedded
191 in a single domain and assesses individuals' level of body appreciation (Atari, 2017). A
192 sample item is "I respect my body". All items are rated using a five-point Likert-type scale (1
193 = never; 5 = always), with a higher score indicating a higher level of body appreciation (i.e.,
194 better body image to themselves). The Cronbach's alpha of the Persian BAS-2 was very good
195 ($\alpha = 0.89$). The concurrent validity of the Persian BAS-2 was supported by the significant
196 correlation with BMI squared ($r = 0.12$) (Atari, 2016). Moreover, the Cronbach's alpha of the
197 BAS-2 in the present study was 0.80.

198 *Eating Attitudes Test (EAT-26)* (Ahmadi, Moloodi, ZARBaksh, & Ghaderi, 2014): This scale
199 comprises 26 items and assesses individuals' symptoms and concerns about eating disorders.
200 The items are distributed across three domains (dieting, 13 items; bulimia and food

201 preoccupation, six items; oral control, seven items). A sample item is “I enjoy trying new rich
202 foods”. All items are rated using a six-point Likert scale (0 = never; 5 = always). The
203 six-point Likert scale is then converted into a four-point format for calculation (0 = never,
204 rarely and sometimes; 1 = often; 2 = usually; 3 = always) with a higher score indicating a
205 higher level of disturbance in eating attitudes (Garner, Olmsted, Bohr, & Garfinkel, 1982;
206 Kang et al., 2017; Lee, Kwok, Liau, & Leung, 2002). The Persian EAT-26 has adequate
207 Cronbach’s alpha ($\alpha = 0.61$ to 0.92). The concurrent validity of the Persian EAT-26 was
208 supported by the significant correlation with binge eating ($r = 0.42$) (Ahmadi et al., 2014).
209 Moreover, the Cronbach’s alpha of the EAT-26 in the present study was 0.83.

210 ***Statistical analysis***

211 Psychometric properties of the IES-2 were analyzed using both CTT and Rasch analysis.
212 Statistics performed in the CTT included: (i) response rate in each item; (ii) confirmatory
213 factor analysis (CFA); (iii) average variance extracted; (iv) composite reliability; (v)
214 Cronbach’s alpha (i.e., Cronbach’s alpha); (vi) corrected item-total correlation; (vii) standard
215 error of measurement; (viii) ceiling/floor effects; and (ix) test-retest reliability. Statistics
216 performed in Rasch testing included: (i) item difficulty; (ii) information-weighted
217 mean-square (infit MnSq); (iii) outlier sensitive MnSq (outfit MnSq); (iv) differential item
218 functioning (DIF) across mean age (i.e., < 55 years vs. ≥ 55 years) and educational status (i.e.,
219 educational year > 9 years vs. ≤ 9 years); (v) item/person separation reliability; and (vi)
220 item/person separation index. Several further measures (i.e., GSE-6, HADS, SF-12, WBIS,
221 BAS-2, and EAT-26) were used to examine the concurrent validity of the IES-2 (using
222 Pearson’s r). Additionally, the Bonferroni method was used to adjust the significance of
223 Pearson’s r (i.e., using a p -value < 0.0038 to indicate a significant correlation). Given that the
224 missing values in the present study were minimal ($< 1\%$) and were completely at random, no
225 special treatment was applied to the missing data values. CFA and its related statistics were

226 conducted using MPLUS 7.4, Rasch analysis and its related statistics used WINSTEPS
227 Version 4.1.0, and all other analyses used the SPSS 24.0.

228 *Tests using classical test theory*

229 A response rate > 80% is satisfactory (Fincham, 2008). Average variance extracted and
230 composite reliability are similar to Cronbach's α because they all indicate the level of the
231 coherence for items embedded within the same construct. The acceptable value is > 0.5 for
232 average variance extracted and > 0.6 for composite reliability (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).
233 Cronbach's alpha was conducted using Cronbach's α ; a value > 0.7 is acceptable (Taber,
234 2017). A corrected item-total correlation was computed to understand whether each item
235 strongly associates with the latent concept; a value > 0.4 is preferred (Briggs, & Cheek, 1986).
236 Standard error of measurement refers to how much 'noise' involved in the observed score; a
237 small value is preferable. Ceiling and floor effects were computed using the number of
238 participants who had the highest/lowest scores within a specific domain (or total IES-2 score)
239 divided by the number of participants. For example, 62 participants scored 6 (the lowest UPE
240 domain score) on the UPE domain of the IES-2, the floor effect of the UPE domain was
241 $62/762=8.2\%$. A percentage < 20% is preferred for ceiling/floor effects (Garin, 2014). The
242 test-retest reliability was conducted using the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) with a
243 two-way mixed, average measures, and consistency design; a value > 0.4 is desirable
244 (Matheson, 2019).

245 The CFA was conducted using diagonally weighted least squares (DWLS) estimator on a
246 four-factor structure IES-2. Its structure was assessed using a nonsignificant χ^2 , comparative
247 fit index (CFI) > 0.9, Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) > 0.9, root mean square residual of
248 approximation (RMSEA) < 0.08, and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) < 0.08
249 (Hu & Bentler, 2009).

250 *Tests using Rasch analysis*

251 The Rasch analysis, a form of IRT, was conducted using the partial credit model and the
252 four subscales of IES-2 were analyzed separately. The partial credit model assumes that all
253 the items in the same psychometric scale have different thresholds in every two points. For
254 example, the difference between scores 1 and 2 for IES-2 Item 1 is not the same as the
255 difference between scores 1 and 2 for IES-2 Item 2.

256 Infit (excluding outlier responses) and outfit (including outlier responses) MnSq
257 examined whether an item fitted the embedded construct: $MnSq > 1$ indicates that the item
258 may not fit its embedded construct; $MnSq < 1$ indicates the item may be redundant. For
259 example, MnSq of 1.3 indicates the item deviated from its construct by 30%; MnSq of 0.7
260 indicates that the item contained 30% redundant information. Acceptable range for infit and
261 outfit MnSq is between 0.5 and 1.5 (Lin et al., 2018b).

262 The DIF indicates whether an item does not assess the same ability between two or more
263 subgroups (e.g., people with high education vs. people with low education). An item displays
264 DIF when different subgroups that share the same ability give different scores on this item.
265 An item with DIF is inappropriate to be used across subgroups. DIF contrast (i.e., the
266 difference of difficulty between the two subgroups) < 0.5 indicates no substantial DIF (Lin et
267 al., 2018b).

268 Person separation reliability indicates whether the participant ability found in the Rasch
269 model is reliable. Item separation reliability indicates whether the item difficulty found in the
270 Rasch model is reliable. The person separation index refers how well the participants can be
271 classified. The item separation index refers how well the items can be separated. An item and
272 person separation reliability > 0.7 is recommended; an item and person separation index > 2
273 are recommended for an instrument (Chang, Wang, Tang, Cheng, & Lin, 2014; Lin, Griffiths,
274 & Pakpour, 2018a).

275 **Results**

276 Table 1 reports the mean age of the participants, years of education the participants
277 received, years since a diagnosis of having breast cancer, and other additional characteristics.

278 (Insert Table 1 here)

279 The psychometric properties of the IES-2 were satisfactory at the item-level (see Table
280 2). The results of CTT found that response rates of the items were between 82% and 100%,
281 factor loadings derived from CFA were between 0.61 and 0.87, corrected item-total
282 correlations were between 0.53 and 0.80, and test-retest reliability values calculated using
283 ICC were between 0.71 and 0.93 (Table 2).

284 Results of the Rasch analysis showed that infit MnSq values were between 0.74 and 1.33,
285 and outfit MnSq values were between 0.72 and 1.32. Given that all the items had their infit
286 and outfit MnSq between 0.5 and 1.5, this indicates that all the items in the IES-2 assess the
287 underlying construct properly. DIF contrasts across age groups were between -0.41 and 0.44
288 and DIF contrasts across educational status were between -0.30 and 0.41 (Table 2).

289 (Insert Table 2 here)

290 The psychometric properties of the IES-2 were also satisfactory at the scale-level (see
291 Table 3). The results of CTT showed that the ceiling (2.1% for entire IES-2; 2.2% to 10.4%
292 for IES-2 subscales) and floor effects were trivial (2.7% for entire IES-2; 3.1% to 5.8% for
293 IES-2 subscales), Cronbach's alpha was very good (0.93 for entire IES-2; 0.80 to 0.93 for
294 IES-2 subscales), CFA fit indices were acceptable (CFI=0.93, TLI=0.92, RMSEA=0.065, and
295 SRMR=0.063), and test-retest reliability was very good (0.81 for entire IES-2; 0.80 to 0.84
296 for IES-2 subscales) (Table 3). The results of Rasch analysis showed that item separation
297 reliability was promising (1.00 for entire IES-2; 0.96 to 0.99 for IES-2 subscales), item
298 separation index was excellent (15.44 for entire IES-2; 5.01 to 9.77 for IES-2 subscales),
299 person separation reliability was acceptable (0.92 for entire IES-2; 0.75 to 0.88 for IES-2
300 subscales), and person separation index was adequate (3.32 for entire IES-2; 2.07 to 2.77 for

301 IES-2 subscales) (Table 3).

302 (Insert Table 3 here)

303 Regarding the associations between the IES-2 and the further measures, the IES-2
304 demonstrated adequate concurrent validity. The IES-2 total and domain scores were
305 negatively and moderately correlated with HADS-anxiety ($r=-0.39$ to -0.28),
306 HADS-depression ($r=-0.46$ to -0.32), WBIS (assessing weight-related self-stigma) ($r=-0.44$
307 to -0.30), EAT-26 (assessing eating attitudes) ($r=-0.49$ to -0.26), and BMI ($r=-0.36$ to -0.21).
308 It was also positively and moderately correlated with GSE-6 (assessing self-efficacy) ($r=0.21$
309 to 0.41), MCS in the SF-12 (assessing mental components in quality of life) ($r=0.35$ to 0.48),
310 and BAS-2 (assessing body appreciation) scores ($r=0.30$ to 0.50). However, the IES-2 total
311 and domain scores were not significantly correlated to the PCS in the SF-12 (assessing
312 physical component in quality of life) ($r=0.10$ to 0.18) (details in the Supplementary Table).

313 **Discussion**

314 The present findings add to the literature regarding the psychometric properties of the
315 IES-2 in the following aspects: (i) Rasch analysis indicated that all IES-2 items contributed to
316 their embedded domains; (ii) DIF contrasts showed that all IES-2 items were interpreted
317 similarly across age groups and educational status (therefore, meaningful combination or
318 comparison across age groups or educational status can be achieved); (iii) the IES-2 can be
319 used on the breast cancer population, which needs special attention from healthcare providers
320 concerning their recommended BMI.

321 The concurrent validity of the IES-2 is well established based on its associations with
322 several health outcomes (including physical indicators such as BMI, psychological indicators
323 such as psychological wellbeing, body shape satisfaction, and self-efficacy)
324 (Augustus-Horvath & Tylka, 2011; da Silva et al., 2020; Ruzanska & Warschburger, 2017;
325 Saunders et al., 2018; Smith & Hawks, 2006; Van Dyck et al., 2016), and was also confirmed

326 by the results of the present study. The IES-2 and these health outcomes are highly related
327 because intuitive eating can assist an individual to be mindful of emotions and pleasures
328 derived from eating (Carbonneau et al., 2016). Therefore, when individuals eat more
329 intuitively, they would enjoy healthy eating and consequently generate better psychological
330 and physical outcomes. Intuitive eating helps individuals trust in their ability in regulating the
331 food intake (Ruzanska & Warschburger, 2017). Therefore, an individual who is an intuitive
332 eater can gain the joy from food and avoid eating unhealthy food. In the present study,
333 women with breast cancer may receive treatments (e.g., hormone therapy) that could cause
334 weight gain (Makari-Judson et al., 2014; Obradović et al., 2019; Playdon et al., 2015).
335 Therefore, it is especially beneficial for this population to apply intuitive eating principles so
336 that they can use physiological satiety cues to determine when (and what) to eat, and
337 consequently facilitate weight management.

338 There are some limitations in the present study. First, only women who were overweight
339 were recruited. Therefore, the findings might not be generalizable to women with breast
340 cancer who are not overweight. Although women with breast cancer are at greater risk of
341 being overweight (Nichols et al., 2009), some survivors may maintain their weight during the
342 cancer treatment period. For those who are not overweight, intuitive eating may also have
343 positive effects on them (e.g., enhanced wellbeing) (Augustus-Horvath & Tylka, 2011; da
344 Silva et al., 2020; Ruzanska & Warschburger, 2017; Saunders et al., 2018; Smith & Hawks,
345 2006). Future studies should also examine whether the IES-2 has robust psychometric
346 properties among women with breast cancer who are not overweight. Second, the
347 responsiveness (i.e., sensitivity to change) of the IES-2 was not examined. Therefore, it is not
348 known whether an effective program on intuitive eating enhancement can be identified by the
349 IES-2. Third, most of the further measures that were used to assess the concurrent validity of
350 the IES-2 were rated by the participants. Therefore, self-report biases cannot be excluded.
351 Additionally, although breast cancer is rare among males, sex differences in the IES-2 total

352 score, UPE, and EPR have been found in previous studies (Ruzanska & Warschburger, 2017;
353 Tylka, & Kroon Van Diest, 2013; Dockendorff, Petrie, Greenleaf, & Martin, 2012).
354 Researchers have concluded that females are more likely than males to use eating to cope
355 with their emotions (Dockendorff, Petrie, Greenleaf, & Martin, 2012). Future studies may
356 consider examining gender differences for the Persian version of IES-2 for breast cancer
357 patients who are overweight. Moreover, the present study's participants may have last
358 received intensive cancer treatment some years prior to the study (average time since
359 diagnosis=9.2 years). Given that intensive cancer treatments usually have strong adverse
360 effects (Fang, Cheng, & Lin, 2018), the psychometric properties examined among the present
361 sample might not necessarily generalize to those who are currently receiving intensive cancer
362 treatments. Finally, the present study did not collect qualitative data on how the participants
363 evaluated the IES-2 (e.g., regarding potential changes in intuitive eating due to cancer
364 treatment). Therefore, it is unclear how intuitive eating specifically changes due to cancer
365 treatment and future studies are needed to provide further clarification on this issue.

366 Weight gain is an important issue that should be addressed among women with breast
367 cancer (Picon-Ruiz et al., 2017). Healthcare providers may consider improving their
368 knowledge and behaviors of intuitive eating (an adaptive eating behavior) which will result in
369 beneficial weight outcomes. Therefore, investigating the psychometric properties of the IES-2
370 to ensure it can be used as a reliable and valid tool among women with breast cancer is the
371 first step. Using the psychometrically robust IES-2 will assist healthcare providers in
372 correctly and effectively understanding intuitive eating behaviors among women with breast
373 cancer who are overweight. Resulting changes can therefore be monitored and evaluated with
374 the implementation of an intuitive eating enhancement program.

375

376 **Conclusion**

377 The present psychometric testing study demonstrated that the Persian version of the

378 IES-2 is a well-designed instrument and can be applicable to Persian women with breast
379 cancer who are overweight. The original four-factor structure was replicated and supported
380 by the CFA findings. The IES-2 items were all valid and reliable as supported by both CTT
381 and Rasch model findings.

382 **Figure legends**

383 Figure 1. Confirmatory factor analysis of the Intuitive Eating Scale-2. UPE = unconditional
384 permission to eat; EPR = eating for physical rather than emotional reasons; RHSC = reliance
385 on hunger and satiety cues; B-FCC = body-food choice congruence. U1-U6 indicates UPE
386 items; E1-E8 indicates EPR items; R1-R6 indicates RHSC items; B1-B3 indicates B-FCC
387 items.

388

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