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How do we know that our patients have benefitted from our ENT/Audiological interventions? Presented at the Annual Meeting of ADANO 2016 in Berlin --Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	This short review article gives an introduction to some of the fundamental concepts and challenges facing measurement in hearing healthcare practice and research. The impact of hearing loss almost always extends beyond the sensory impairment itself, even when the measured degree of audiometric loss is mild. Yet, going beyond audibility, into the realm of measuring impact, takes us into a much more complex and less well-defined space. How does one therefore best measure the therapeutic benefit for evaluating efficacy or for clinical practice audit? Three case studies illustrate approaches to overcome such challenges. Each example highlights the importance of thinking critically about what it is one is seeking trying to measure, rather than selecting a questionnaire instrument based simply on its popularity or accessibility. We conclude by highlighting the important role that clinicians can play in collecting clinical data about their preferred instruments so that we have some evidence to inform decisions about good practice (content validity etc). We would also strongly support open data sharing as we believe that this is one of the best ways to make the most rapid progress the field.
Additional Information:	
Question	Response
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Please provide the number of tables in your submission.	1

Response to Reviewers' Comments

Reviewer #1:

1. The short paper would benefit from footnoting the citations from the literature in the journal style.

We have amended the citations in the manuscript so that they adhere to the journal style.

Reviewer #2:

1. In this paper the authors outline their approach to development of the SPaRQ, which seems good. The SPaRQ has not been applied widely though so there are no data across different centres that support the tool. I guess the idea is to present it and hope that it will be studied further in the future.

To address this comment, we have clarified in the manuscript our reasons for choosing to outline the development of the SPaRQ, despite the fact that it is a new tool and thus has not yet been widely used (Page 3, Lines 131-136). Specifically, the purpose of presenting the SPaRQ was to provide a case study of the utilisation of best practice questionnaire development techniques. The use of such techniques, particularly qualitative research with patients and Rasch analysis, to develop questionnaires remains rare in the field of hearing research. Therefore, the SPaRQ is a unique example of the multi-stage, multi-method process necessary for designing a high quality questionnaire.

2. One must wonder whether another questionnaire tool is really needed. Rather than increasing knowledge, it is quite possible that adding more tools just dilutes the applicability of the whole field, but that remains to be seen.

We have amended the manuscript by acknowledging that a limitation of this research is that it adds another questionnaire to the range of existing questionnaires that are currently being used in hearing research. In addition, we have stated that it is sometimes necessary to develop new measures, like the SPaRQ, in order to address the lack of gold standard measures in this field. Finally, we have proposed that what is needed is guidance for researchers and clinicians to help them choose a suitable measure from the range available to them (Page 4, Lines 179-185).

EDITORIAL COMMENTS:

1. Minimal revisions are required for this paper, but the references cited within the text do need to be updated to the journal's reference style. Within the text, each reference should be cited using its corresponding number from the main reference list.

We have amended the references cited in the manuscript so that they adhere to the journal style.

Title page

Full title: How do we know that our patients have benefitted from our ENT/Audiological interventions? Presented at the Annual Meeting of ADANO 2016 in Berlin

Short running head: Measuring patient benefit and harms

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1 REVIEW ARTICLE

2
3 How do we know that our patients have benefitted from our ENT/Audiological
4 interventions?

5 6 ABSTRACT

7
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9 challenges facing measurement in hearing healthcare practice and research. The impact
10 of hearing loss almost always extends beyond the sensory impairment itself, even when
11 the measured degree of audiometric loss is mild. Yet, going beyond audibility, into the
12 realm of measuring impact, takes us into a much more complex and less well-defined
13 space. How does one therefore best measure the therapeutic benefit for evaluating
14 efficacy or for clinical practice audit? Three case studies illustrate approaches to
15 overcome such challenges. Each example highlights the importance of thinking critically
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17 instrument based simply on its popularity or accessibility. We conclude by highlighting
18 the important role that clinicians can play in collecting clinical data about their preferred
19 instruments so that we have some evidence to inform decisions about good practice
20 (content validity etc). We would also strongly support open data sharing as we believe
21 that this is one of the best ways to make the most rapid progress the field.
22
23

24 INTRODUCTION

25
26 The purpose of this short article is to introduce the reader to some of the fundamental
27 concepts and challenges facing measurement in healthcare practice and research. The
28 concept of measurement will perhaps be most familiar to the reader in the context of the
29 audiogram. The audiogram plots air conduction threshold for tones presented to either
30 ear and is useful for determining hearing sensitivity. Pure-tone averages can be
31 interpreted with respect to standard category boundaries, such as mild hearing loss (26-
32 40 dB A) (1). The impact of hearing loss almost always extends beyond the sensory
33 impairment itself, even when the measured degree of audiometric loss is mild. It is well
34 known that residual hearing is not related in any straightforward way to the burden of
35 disability experienced by a person with hearing loss (2). Going beyond audibility, into the
36 realm of measuring impact, takes us into a much more complex and less well-defined
37 space. For example, mild-to-moderate hearing loss has been reported by patients to
38 interfere with hearing environmental sounds, listening, communicating, speaking, and it
39 can negatively affect family life, social relationships, and ability to work. On a personal
40 level, the negative stigma can affect personal identity, promote a sense of isolation,
41 negative emotions such as frustration, distress and depression. Hearing loss can also
42 increase the effort required for listening and communicating causing fatigue (3). The
43 impact of hearing-related problems, such as tinnitus, similarly spans a wide array of
44 psychological and social dimensions (4).
45

46 **No gold standard measure** Instead of clinician-administered tests, the impacts of
47 hearing loss and tinnitus are often assessed using a patient-reported instrument such as
48 a questionnaire. However, there are no gold standards. This is reflected in the lack of
49 consensus in the selection of questionnaires for hearing studies (4, 5).
50

51 **Diversity of patient complaints** Given the diversity of reported complaints, every
52 patient presents with a complex array of symptoms and functional impacts. Moreover,
53 any clinician or researcher who has worked with people with a hearing-related problem
54 will appreciate that every individual's experience is a very personal one. In practical
55 terms, while one person's primary motivation for seeking medical help might be because
56 their hearing-related problem means that they no longer enjoy socialising with friends

57 down the pub, for another it may be because their ability to play in an orchestra is
58 hindered, while for another hearing loss might make it difficult watching television
59 comfortably with their spouse. The impact of hearing loss is therefore a construct that is
60 very individualised and personal.

61
62 **Practical challenges** This situation presents the ENT/Audiology professional with two
63 major practical challenges; the first concerns how to comprehensively assess a patient
64 for a precise clinical diagnosis, and the second concerns how to measure the therapeutic
65 benefit for evaluating efficacy or for clinical practice audit. With some degree of success,
66 the challenge for clinical diagnosis has been resolved by creating multi-attribute
67 questionnaire instruments whose scores can be used to discriminate between individuals.
68 For example, the Hearing Handicap Inventory for the Elderly (HHIE) asks 25 questions
69 about the emotional consequences of hearing impairment, social and situational effects
70 (6), with pre-defined cut-offs for determining "no handicap", "mild to moderate
71 handicap" and "significant handicap".

72
73 However, the solution to the first challenge tends to be incompatible with evaluating
74 therapeutic benefit. This is because questionnaire items that discriminate well between
75 different patients at the diagnostic appointment are not necessarily sensitive to
76 evaluating changes over time within the same patient (7). And it is difficult to design a
77 questionnaire instrument that is both discriminative *and* evaluative. To illustrate this with
78 an example, tinnitus-related emotional distress and auditory difficulties might both
79 discriminate one patient from another, but only one of these might be responsive to
80 treatment (e.g. hearing aids should reduce auditory difficulties, but might not reduce
81 distress). Averaging the benefit scores for these components could therefore compromise
82 the sensitivity of an aggregated score to measuring treatment-related change. As a
83 general rule, questionnaire instruments that successfully measure therapeutic benefit in
84 different situations tend to be those with good statistical properties that enable the
85 clinician or investigator to interpret specific complaints rather than a global non-specific
86 construct like "severity" or "handicap" (8).

87
88 In this short review, we present three case studies which illustrate approaches to
89 overcome the challenges of evaluating therapeutic benefit. These examples highlight the
90 need to think critically about what it is one is seeking trying to measure, rather than
91 selecting a questionnaire instrument based simply on its popularity or accessibility.

92 93 **Measuring psychosocial functioning of adults with mild-to-moderate hearing** 94 **loss**

95
96 The International Classification of Functioning, Disability, and Health (ICF) is a
97 biopsychosocial framework designed to standardise the description, measurement,
98 clinical assessment, and teaching of functioning, disability, and health for researchers,
99 clinicians, clinical educators, and policy-makers around the world (9). The ICF consists of
100 three primary domains of patient burden: (1) physical impairments, or deficits in body
101 functions or body structures, (2) activity limitations, or problems executing tasks and
102 actions, and (3) participation restrictions, or problems with involvement in life situations.
103 These domains are influenced by both environmental factors and personal factors (9,
104 10). The ICF also includes a comprehensive taxonomy of categories of functioning (e.g.
105 listening, education, self-care). The categories of functioning most relevant to hearing
106 loss have been identified by a large, cross-cultural, mixed-methods study (10).
107 Therefore, the ICF could be used in the future to standardise the measurement of
108 individuals with hearing loss in clinical practice or in research.

109
110 The domain of participation restrictions is thought to be the most difficult of the ICF
111 domains to measure (11). One obstacle is that the conceptualisation of participation
112 restrictions is imprecise and inconsistent (12). The WHO (2001) definition above is rather

113 broad, which means that it is difficult to distinguish participation restrictions from related
114 constructs, such as activity limitations and quality of life (13). Also, there is no consensus
115 regarding the categories of functioning that should be included in a participation
116 restrictions measurement instrument (14). Another obstacle is that different people
117 participate in different ways, depending on their personal preferences and circumstances.
118 It is difficult to capture such a highly individual construct in one standardised tool (13).
119 One solution is to develop different questionnaire instruments for different subgroups
120 (15). However, this can impede comparisons across groups and across studies. Another
121 solution is to create patient-generated measurement tools that permit respondents to
122 personalise their content. However, personalised instruments may not be well suited to
123 the grouping of scores or comparisons across time periods and across individuals. Also,
124 they can be difficult for some respondents to understand and complete (16). Another
125 approach is to obtain counts of social interaction frequency or social network size (17).
126 However, such measures fail to acknowledge that the quality of social contacts can be
127 more important for wellbeing than quantity of social contacts (18).

128
129 **** insert Table 1 about here ****

130
131 Here, we provide a case study of the utilisation of best practice techniques to develop a
132 hearing-specific measure of participation. Best practice techniques, which include
133 qualitative methodologies (e.g. cognitive interviews) and modern psychometric analysis
134 (e.g. Rasch analysis), are necessary for the creation of gold standard measures.
135 However, to date, these techniques have seldom been employed in the development of
136 hearing-specific measures.

137
138 The questionnaire we developed, entitled the Social Participation Restrictions
139 Questionnaire (SPaRQ), was designed to serve as an outcome measure in either research
140 or clinical practice. The SPaRQ consists of a 9-item subscale measuring social behaviours
141 (e.g. difficulties with social interactions) and a 10-item subscale measuring social
142 perceptions (e.g. feelings of isolation). It uses an 11-point response scale (0=completely
143 disagree, 10=completely agree) because a broad range of response options are
144 considered to enhance responsiveness (19). The SPaRQ was designed by conducting a
145 series of qualitative and quantitative studies (see Table 1) in accordance with
146 internationally-recognised guidelines from the questionnaire development literature (20,
147 21). Our aim was to ensure that the measurement properties of the SPaRQ met the
148 standards required of outcome measures used in clinical practice and in clinical trials
149 (21).

150
151 The first step was to create a precise conceptual model of hearing-related participation
152 restrictions and to determine the categories of functioning that should be included in the
153 measure by (1) reviewing the literature, including existing questionnaire instruments and
154 the ICF, and (2) interviewing adults with hearing loss and hearing healthcare
155 professionals (22). The second step was to evaluate the content validity of the SPaRQ,
156 including its relevance, clarity, acceptability, and potential responsiveness, by (1)
157 conducting cognitive interviews with adults with hearing loss and (2) surveying hearing
158 healthcare professionals. Qualitative research with key stakeholders is an often
159 overlooked but essential component of questionnaire development, as it ensures that the
160 instrument adequately captures the respondents' experiences, uses everyday language,
161 and is easy to administer and complete (23). The third step was to assess the
162 psychometric properties of the SPaRQ by applying (1) Rasch analysis and (2) traditional
163 (i.e. Classical Test Theory) psychometric analysis to data collected from adults with
164 hearing loss. Whilst most hearing-specific questionnaires have been developed using
165 traditional psychometric analysis alone, a modern approach (i.e. Rasch analysis or Item
166 Response Theory) should also be applied because it enables all the relevant psychometric
167 properties (e.g. unidimensionality, differential item functioning) to be adequately
168 assessed (24). The outcome of this rigorous development process was the production of

169 a questionnaire that possesses an array of good measurement properties. For instance,
170 each subscale was found to be unidimensional, which means that all of the items within a
171 subscale measure the same construct, and well-targeted, which means that the
172 subscales have high measurement precision and capture a wide range of participation
173 restrictions. There was also evidence to support the convergent validity of the subscales
174 with each one displaying strong, positive correlations with a hearing-specific disability
175 measure and moderate, positive correlations with a generic disability measure and a
176 mental health screening tool. Responsiveness of the SPaRQ is yet to be examined, but
177 this is planned for future research.

178
179 One limitation of this research is that it adds another questionnaire to the range of
180 existing questionnaires that are currently being used in hearing research (5). However, it
181 is sometimes necessary to develop new measures in accordance with the latest best
182 practice recommendations in order to address the lack of gold standard measures in the
183 field. In the future, researchers and clinicians would benefit from the introduction of
184 guidelines to help them to identify high quality measures that are appropriate for their
185 purposes.

186 187 188 **Relevance of existing questionnaires for assessing burden of single-sided** 189 **deafness (SSD)**

190
191 At face value, single-sided deafness (SSD) would appear to be a form of hearing loss
192 where the task of determining whether or not a patient has benefitted from an
193 intervention should be relatively straightforward. Lack of hearing on one side of the head
194 would be expected to hinder access to acoustic information in that hemifield and disrupt
195 the ability to segregate information from different sources (25). One might also be
196 tempted to assume that relevant interventions for this patient group are those that
197 address these impaired listening skills, and benefit should be measured in terms of the
198 extent to which they have restored or improved such skills. However, some of the
199 earliest published observations about these patients remarked on the unexpected degree
200 of burden that impairments to these listening skills impose on the patient. Harford and
201 Barry noted "the persistence and earnestness of reports from unilaterally hearing-
202 impaired individuals stating serious difficulty encountered in many common listening
203 situations" (26). Early work also suggested a breadth and depth of burden that one might
204 not predict from these functional difficulties. Giolas and Wark noted that a majority of
205 patients reported strong negative emotions that included embarrassment and
206 helplessness (27). The extent of these feelings was such that they recommended they
207 should be addressed actively as part of their clinical management, an approach that is
208 still recommended almost 50 years later (28).

209 The incongruence between the fact that SSD patients still have access to one 'good'
210 hearing ear and the chronic and complex burden that they report is perhaps why there is
211 an increasing focus on the surgical restoration of hearing in their deaf ear (29) rather
212 than traditional interventions that re-route sound between the ears (30). Early-phase
213 trials have suggested that cochlear implantation is capable of restoring bilateral input and
214 addressing, at least in part, the functional impairments of SSD (31, 32). However, as the
215 field moves beyond demonstrations of clinical efficacy in the form that can be measured
216 using controlled listening tests in the clinic or laboratory, increasing emphasis will
217 inevitably be placed on conducting trials to measure broader impacts on quality of life to
218 demonstrate the additional benefits to health it provides over currently available
219 treatments.

220 In designing these trials, one must first ask whether the intervention addresses one or
221 more aspects of burden that are relevant to SSD patients, and what specific aspects of
222 burden are being targeted. Such knowledge would ideally be supported by evidence from

223 early-phase trials so that the mechanism through which the intervention works is well
224 understood. The choice of outcomes that are being measured would also need to be
225 examined to ask whether they are considered by patients to be important for their health
226 and wellbeing. Finally, outcome measures should be selected based evidence for their
227 validity to measure those outcomes in these patients. Here we describe a research
228 process that has been designed to address these questions in the field of SSD and to lay
229 the groundwork for the development of a Core Outcome Set (Figure 1).

230
231 **** insert Figure 1 about here ****
232

233 Fundamental to addressing many of these issues is a comprehensive understanding of
234 the health condition itself. Little if any qualitative work around the burden imposed by
235 SSD has been conducted since Giolas and Wark applied the Critical Incident Technique to
236 study the functional consequences of SSD (27). This technique structures the interview
237 around events that the patient recognises were affected by their hearing loss. Patient
238 interviews were therefore conducted using a similar methodology to construct a
239 hierarchical model of burden (33) based on patient-reported incidents and emerging
240 themes from the transcripts. This qualitative approach provided a comprehensive
241 characterisation of the impact of the health condition (34) and was initially used to
242 assess whether interventions targeted aspects of health that are impaired by SSD. A
243 systematic review identified those interventions and concluded that studies have
244 focussed almost exclusively on intervening to improve functional impairments to speech
245 perception and spatial hearing (35). However, the wide range and inconsistent use of
246 patient-reported questionnaire instruments as outcome measures in existing trials meant
247 that there is considerable uncertainty over what outcomes if any beyond the direct
248 functional impairments to hearing were being targeted by these interventions (36). To
249 address this uncertainty, a second systematic review is underway to identify what studies
250 say they are trying to measure and to map those outcomes onto their use of specific
251 measurement instruments (37). The content of the questionnaire instruments will be
252 compared with the model of patient burden to assess whether they are targeting
253 domains of health which are considered relevant by this patient group (23). The analysis
254 will examine how successful these instruments are at targeting specific domains of health
255 and therefore their suitability for use as outcome measures in the context of clinical trials
256 (38).

257 258 **Relevance of existing questionnaires for assessing benefits of tinnitus** 259 **treatments**

260
261 There is a substantial literature concerning self-assessment questionnaires for scaling the
262 negative impacts of tinnitus. This literature shows that many different tinnitus-specific
263 questionnaires have been used to assess treatment-related changes in tinnitus. For
264 example, our review of clinical trials from 2006 to 2015 identified at least 78 different
265 outcome instruments used in 228 trials; with 24 of those being different tinnitus-specific
266 questionnaires. These were predominantly the Tinnitus Handicap Inventory (THI) (39)
267 and the Tinnitus Questionnaire (TQ) (4, 40, 41). But even these two most popular
268 instruments were used in only a minority of clinical research since we noted that usage
269 was 15% and 7% out of 228 studies, for the THI and TQ respectively. We also note that
270 these questionnaire instruments have predominantly been designed for screening and
271 diagnostic purposes, not for measuring benefit from ENT/Audiological interventions. In
272 particular, they measure multiple domains of patient burden.

273
274 The tinnitus community widely acknowledges that a standard is needed to ensure that
275 therapeutic benefit is measured much more consistently across studies, and that benefit
276 is quantified using a measurement instrument that is fit for the purpose of outcome
277 measurement (e.g. 42). A first attempt by Langguth and 28 other colleagues in 2006
278 sought to develop a set of international recommendations on choice of instruments for

279 assessing the outcome from an intervention for tinnitus (43). The recommendations by
280 this working group suggested four questionnaires; namely the Tinnitus Handicap
281 Inventory (THI) (39), the Tinnitus Handicap Questionnaire (THQ) (44), the Tinnitus
282 Questionnaire (TQ) (41) and the Tinnitus Reaction Questionnaire (TRQ) (45). These
283 instruments were developed in diverse patient populations across the USA, UK, and
284 Australia, but were not all developed for the same applications. In particular, while the
285 THI, TQ and TRQ focus on aspects of psychological distress, the THQ was created to
286 comprehensively measure the perceived degree of broad handicaps attributed to tinnitus
287 (see Fackrell et al. (46) for a review). Nevertheless, they were chosen as they were the
288 most widely used at the time, and had been translated for use in different languages and
289 cultures. Their questions also broadly span the emotional impact of tinnitus, disability
290 and handicap.

291
292 **** insert Figure 2 about here ****
293

294 In making their interim recommendation, Langguth and colleagues commented that the
295 THI, THQ, TQ and TRQ also share a common feature in that they attempt to quantify a
296 combination of tinnitus-related distress, disability and handicap resulting in a large
297 overlap of their items (43). Conceptual similarity is supported by statistical evidence for a
298 high convergent validity between the global scores. For example, pairwise correlations
299 between the THI, THQ, TQ and TRQ range from 0.74 to 0.89 (see Fackrell et al. (46) for
300 a review). To explore conceptual equivalence in more detail we have conducted a fine-
301 grained evaluation of each individual questionnaire item to specify exactly what health
302 concepts form the ingredients of each instrument. The findings from this evaluation are
303 illustrated in Figure 2. The black cells indicate where the instrument contains at least one
304 item that we judge to be asking about the corresponding tinnitus-related complaint. All
305 questionnaire instruments contain items that ask about a diverse range of tinnitus-
306 related complaints covering all the major high-level categories of impact on everyday life,
307 such as emotional impacts or activities and relationships. However, the patchwork
308 highlights clear differences between instruments in terms of their specific item-level
309 content. Some of these detailed differences could be clinically important for some
310 individuals with critical gaps where an instrument entirely misses out questions on a
311 particular type of complaint. For example, the impact of tinnitus on physical health is
312 explored only in the TQ ('bodily complaints') and the THQ ('ill health'). We have not yet
313 compared the content of the instruments with available information about patient burden
314 to assess whether they are targeting domains of health which are considered relevant by
315 people with tinnitus (23). This analysis is planned. It will tell us how successful these
316 instruments might be at targeting specific domains of health and therefore their
317 suitability for use as outcome measures in the context of clinical trials of tinnitus,
318 especially under certain circumstances (e.g. with a specific patient subtype, or for
319 evaluating the outcome from a specific intervention).

320
321 Langguth et al. (43) appreciated some of these limitations with the THI, THQ, TQ and
322 TRQ and so the working group agreed that in the future, a "better" questionnaire was
323 required. Since that time, a multi-item tinnitus questionnaire has been developed in the
324 USA using a method to select items that optimized the overall responsiveness of the
325 outcome score to treatment-related change (47). The resulting Tinnitus Functional Index
326 (TFI) asks 25 questions about the intrusive of tinnitus, reduced sense of control, reduced
327 quality of life, sleep disturbance, auditory difficulties, cognitive interference, interference
328 with relaxation, and emotional distress, with pre-defined cut-offs for determining "not a
329 problem", "small problem", "moderate problem", "big problem", and "very big problem".
330 When opting to use the TFI in other countries and cultures, it would be advisable to
331 explore the content validity and severity grading in the new target population.

332 333 **DISCUSSION** 334

335 These three examples illustrate different approaches to overcome the challenges of
336 evaluating therapeutic benefit. In common, they all highlight the need to think critically
337 about what it is one is seeking trying to measure. We end our review with some
338 concluding remarks:

- 339
- 340 • We have previously argued that it would be helpful to step away from using terms
341 such as 'handicap' or 'severity' when naming a questionnaire instrument. These
342 terms are not helpful to clinicians and researchers because they do not
343 meaningfully describe exactly what health-related construct is being measured by
344 the instrument (4). The development of the SPaRQ by Heffernan et al. provides a
345 good example where the questionnaire name describes exactly what aspect of
346 health the instrument claims to measure (22).
 - 347
 - 348 • Although often questionnaire developers typically present psychometric validations
349 of a questionnaire instrument, the word 'validation' is quite emotive. Validity is
350 not a fixed property, but varies across populations and cultures. Its good practice
351 therefore to keep an open mind and to evaluate any questionnaire instrument the
352 first time its going to be used for a particular purpose and in a particular patient
353 population.
 - 354
 - 355 • At the end of the questionnaire evaluation, we might end up by failing to find any
356 instruments which meet stringent contemporary standards of performance for
357 outcome measures in clinical trials of SSD and tinnitus. What then? Clearly new
358 research will be needed to modify an existing instrument, or create a new one
359 from scratch. But what should we do in the meantime? Well, just because an
360 instrument is not perfect does not necessarily mean that it should not be used. In
361 this situation, clinicians can play an important role by collecting clinical data about
362 their preferred instruments so that we have some evidence to inform decisions
363 about good practice (content validity etc). We would also strongly support open
364 data sharing as we believe that this is one of the best ways to make the most
365 rapid progress the field.

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- 497

498 **Figure 1.** Process for evaluating the choice of interventions and outcomes in clinical
499 trials of single-sided deafness (SSD) and assessing the content validity of outcome
500 measures.

501 **Figure 2.** Item analysis of five tinnitus-specific questionnaires that have been used in
502 clinical trials as instruments for measuring therapeutic outcomes. Black cells indicate that
503 the questionnaire contains at least one item asking patients about that specific
504 complaint.

1 REVIEW ARTICLE

2
3 How do we know that our patients have benefitted from our ENT/Audiological
4 interventions?

5 6 ABSTRACT

7
8 This short review article gives an introduction to some of the fundamental concepts and
9 challenges facing measurement in hearing healthcare practice and research. The impact
10 of hearing loss almost always extends beyond the sensory impairment itself, even when
11 the measured degree of audiometric loss is mild. Yet, going beyond audibility, into the
12 realm of measuring impact, takes us into a much more complex and less well-defined
13 space. How does one therefore best measure the therapeutic benefit for evaluating
14 efficacy or for clinical practice audit? Three case studies illustrate approaches to
15 overcome such challenges. Each example highlights the importance of thinking critically
16 about what it is one is seeking trying to measure, rather than selecting a questionnaire
17 instrument based simply on its popularity or accessibility. We conclude by highlighting
18 the important role that clinicians can play in collecting clinical data about their preferred
19 instruments so that we have some evidence to inform decisions about good practice
20 (content validity etc). We would also strongly support open data sharing as we believe
21 that this is one of the best ways to make the most rapid progress the field.
22
23

24 INTRODUCTION

25
26 The purpose of this short article is to introduce the reader to some of the fundamental
27 concepts and challenges facing measurement in healthcare practice and research. The
28 concept of measurement will perhaps be most familiar to the reader in the context of the
29 audiogram. The audiogram plots air conduction threshold for tones presented to either
30 ear and is useful for determining hearing sensitivity. Pure-tone averages can be
31 interpreted with respect to standard category boundaries, such as mild hearing loss (26-
32 40 dB A) (1). The impact of hearing loss almost always extends beyond the sensory
33 impairment itself, even when the measured degree of audiometric loss is mild. It is well
34 known that residual hearing is not related in any straightforward way to the burden of
35 disability experienced by a person with hearing loss (2). Going beyond audibility, into the
36 realm of measuring impact, takes us into a much more complex and less well-defined
37 space. For example, mild-to-moderate hearing loss has been reported by patients to
38 interfere with hearing environmental sounds, listening, communicating, speaking, and it
39 can negatively affect family life, social relationships, and ability to work. On a personal
40 level, the negative stigma can affect personal identity, promote a sense of isolation,
41 negative emotions such as frustration, distress and depression. Hearing loss can also
42 increase the effort required for listening and communicating causing fatigue (3). The
43 impact of hearing-related problems, such as tinnitus, similarly spans a wide array of
44 psychological and social dimensions (4).
45

46 **No gold standard measure** Instead of clinician-administered tests, the impacts of
47 hearing loss and tinnitus are often assessed using a patient-reported instrument such as
48 a questionnaire. However, there are no gold standards. This is reflected in the lack of
49 consensus in the selection of questionnaires for hearing studies (4, 5).
50

51 **Diversity of patient complaints** Given the diversity of reported complaints, every
52 patient presents with a complex array of symptoms and functional impacts. Moreover,
53 any clinician or researcher who has worked with people with a hearing-related problem
54 will appreciate that every individual's experience is a very personal one. In practical
55 terms, while one person's primary motivation for seeking medical help might be because
56 their hearing-related problem means that they no longer enjoy socialising with friends

57 down the pub, for another it may be because their ability to play in an orchestra is
58 hindered, while for another hearing loss might make it difficult watching television
59 comfortably with their spouse. The impact of hearing loss is therefore a construct that is
60 very individualised and personal.

61
62 **Practical challenges** This situation presents the ENT/Audiology professional with two
63 major practical challenges; the first concerns how to comprehensively assess a patient
64 for a precise clinical diagnosis, and the second concerns how to measure the therapeutic
65 benefit for evaluating efficacy or for clinical practice audit. With some degree of success,
66 the challenge for clinical diagnosis has been resolved by creating multi-attribute
67 questionnaire instruments whose scores can be used to discriminate between individuals.
68 For example, the Hearing Handicap Inventory for the Elderly (HHIE) asks 25 questions
69 about the emotional consequences of hearing impairment, social and situational effects
70 (6), with pre-defined cut-offs for determining "no handicap", "mild to moderate
71 handicap" and "significant handicap".

72
73 However, the solution to the first challenge tends to be incompatible with evaluating
74 therapeutic benefit. This is because questionnaire items that discriminate well between
75 different patients at the diagnostic appointment are not necessarily sensitive to
76 evaluating changes over time within the same patient (7). And it is difficult to design a
77 questionnaire instrument that is both discriminative *and* evaluative. To illustrate this with
78 an example, tinnitus-related emotional distress and auditory difficulties might both
79 discriminate one patient from another, but only one of these might be responsive to
80 treatment (e.g. hearing aids should reduce auditory difficulties, but might not reduce
81 distress). Averaging the benefit scores for these components could therefore compromise
82 the sensitivity of an aggregated score to measuring treatment-related change. As a
83 general rule, questionnaire instruments that successfully measure therapeutic benefit in
84 different situations tend to be those with good statistical properties that enable the
85 clinician or investigator to interpret specific complaints rather than a global non-specific
86 construct like "severity" or "handicap" (8).

87
88 In this short review, we present three case studies which illustrate approaches to
89 overcome the challenges of evaluating therapeutic benefit. These examples highlight the
90 need to think critically about what it is one is seeking trying to measure, rather than
91 selecting a questionnaire instrument based simply on its popularity or accessibility.

92 93 **Measuring psychosocial functioning of adults with mild-to-moderate hearing** 94 **loss**

95
96 The International Classification of Functioning, Disability, and Health (ICF) is a
97 biopsychosocial framework designed to standardise the description, measurement,
98 clinical assessment, and teaching of functioning, disability, and health for researchers,
99 clinicians, clinical educators, and policy-makers around the world (9). The ICF consists of
100 three primary domains of patient burden: (1) physical impairments, or deficits in body
101 functions or body structures, (2) activity limitations, or problems executing tasks and
102 actions, and (3) participation restrictions, or problems with involvement in life situations.
103 These domains are influenced by both environmental factors and personal factors (9,
104 10). The ICF also includes a comprehensive taxonomy of categories of functioning (e.g.
105 listening, education, self-care). The categories of functioning most relevant to hearing
106 loss have been identified by a large, cross-cultural, mixed-methods study (10).
107 Therefore, the ICF could be used in the future to standardise the measurement of
108 individuals with hearing loss in clinical practice or in research.

109
110 The domain of participation restrictions is thought to be the most difficult of the ICF
111 domains to measure (11). One obstacle is that the conceptualisation of participation
112 restrictions is imprecise and inconsistent (12). The WHO (2001) definition above is rather

113 broad, which means that it is difficult to distinguish participation restrictions from related
114 constructs, such as activity limitations and quality of life (13). Also, there is no consensus
115 regarding the categories of functioning that should be included in a participation
116 restrictions measurement instrument (14). Another obstacle is that different people
117 participate in different ways, depending on their personal preferences and circumstances.
118 It is difficult to capture such a highly individual construct in one standardised tool (13).
119 One solution is to develop different questionnaire instruments for different subgroups
120 (15). However, this can impede comparisons across groups and across studies. Another
121 solution is to create patient-generated measurement tools that permit respondents to
122 personalise their content. However, personalised instruments may not be well suited to
123 the grouping of scores or comparisons across time periods and across individuals. Also,
124 they can be difficult for some respondents to understand and complete (16). Another
125 approach is to obtain counts of social interaction frequency or social network size (17).
126 However, such measures fail to acknowledge that the quality of social contacts can be
127 more important for wellbeing than quantity of social contacts (18).

128
129 **** insert Table 1 about here ****

130
131 Here, we provide a case study of the utilisation of best practice techniques to develop a
132 hearing-specific measure of participation. Best practice techniques, which include
133 qualitative methodologies (e.g. cognitive interviews) and modern psychometric analysis
134 (e.g. Rasch analysis), are necessary for the creation of gold standard measures.
135 However, to date, these techniques have seldom been employed in the development of
136 hearing-specific measures.

137
138 The questionnaire we developed, entitled the Social Participation Restrictions
139 Questionnaire (SPaRQ), was designed to serve as an outcome measure in either research
140 or clinical practice. The SPaRQ consists of a 9-item subscale measuring social behaviours
141 (e.g. difficulties with social interactions) and a 10-item subscale measuring social
142 perceptions (e.g. feelings of isolation). It uses an 11-point response scale (0=completely
143 disagree, 10=completely agree) because a broad range of response options are
144 considered to enhance responsiveness (19). The SPaRQ was designed by conducting a
145 series of qualitative and quantitative studies (see Table 1) in accordance with
146 internationally-recognised guidelines from the questionnaire development literature (20,
147 21). Our aim was to ensure that the measurement properties of the SPaRQ met the
148 standards required of outcome measures used in clinical practice and in clinical trials
149 (21).

150
151 The first step was to create a precise conceptual model of hearing-related participation
152 restrictions and to determine the categories of functioning that should be included in the
153 measure by (1) reviewing the literature, including existing questionnaire instruments and
154 the ICF, and (2) interviewing adults with hearing loss and hearing healthcare
155 professionals (22). The second step was to evaluate the content validity of the SPaRQ,
156 including its relevance, clarity, acceptability, and potential responsiveness, by (1)
157 conducting cognitive interviews with adults with hearing loss and (2) surveying hearing
158 healthcare professionals. Qualitative research with key stakeholders is an often
159 overlooked but essential component of questionnaire development, as it ensures that the
160 instrument adequately captures the respondents' experiences, uses everyday language,
161 and is easy to administer and complete (23). The third step was to assess the
162 psychometric properties of the SPaRQ by applying (1) Rasch analysis and (2) traditional
163 (i.e. Classical Test Theory) psychometric analysis to data collected from adults with
164 hearing loss. Whilst most hearing-specific questionnaires have been developed using
165 traditional psychometric analysis alone, a modern approach (i.e. Rasch analysis or Item
166 Response Theory) should also be applied because it enables all the relevant psychometric
167 properties (e.g. unidimensionality, differential item functioning) to be adequately
168 assessed (24). The outcome of this rigorous development process was the production of

169 a questionnaire that possesses an array of good measurement properties. For instance,
170 each subscale was found to be unidimensional, which means that all of the items within a
171 subscale measure the same construct, and well-targeted, which means that the
172 subscales have high measurement precision and capture a wide range of participation
173 restrictions. There was also evidence to support the convergent validity of the subscales
174 with each one displaying strong, positive correlations with a hearing-specific disability
175 measure and moderate, positive correlations with a generic disability measure and a
176 mental health screening tool. Responsiveness of the SPaRQ is yet to be examined, but
177 this is planned for future research.

178

179 One limitation of this research is that it adds another questionnaire to the range of
180 existing questionnaires that are currently being used in hearing research (5). However, it
181 is sometimes necessary to develop new measures in accordance with the latest best
182 practice recommendations in order to address the lack of gold standard measures in the
183 field. In the future, researchers and clinicians would benefit from the introduction of
184 guidelines to help them to identify high quality measures that are appropriate for their
185 purposes.

186

187

188 **Relevance of existing questionnaires for assessing burden of single-sided** 189 **deafness (SSD)**

190

191 At face value, single-sided deafness (SSD) would appear to be a form of hearing loss
192 where the task of determining whether or not a patient has benefitted from an
193 intervention should be relatively straightforward. Lack of hearing on one side of the head
194 would be expected to hinder access to acoustic information in that hemifield and disrupt
195 the ability to segregate information from different sources (25). One might also be
196 tempted to assume that relevant interventions for this patient group are those that
197 address these impaired listening skills, and benefit should be measured in terms of the
198 extent to which they have restored or improved such skills. However, some of the
199 earliest published observations about these patients remarked on the unexpected degree
200 of burden that impairments to these listening skills impose on the patient. Harford and
201 Barry noted “the persistence and earnestness of reports from unilaterally hearing-
202 impaired individuals stating serious difficulty encountered in many common listening
203 situations” (26). Early work also suggested a breadth and depth of burden that one might
204 not predict from these functional difficulties. Giolas and Wark noted that a majority of
205 patients reported strong negative emotions that included embarrassment and
206 helplessness (27). The extent of these feelings was such that they recommended they
207 should be addressed actively as part of their clinical management, an approach that is
208 still recommended almost 50 years later (28).

209 The incongruence between the fact that SSD patients still have access to one ‘good’
210 hearing ear and the chronic and complex burden that they report is perhaps why there is
211 an increasing focus on the surgical restoration of hearing in their deaf ear (29) rather
212 than traditional interventions that re-route sound between the ears (30). Early-phase
213 trials have suggested that cochlear implantation is capable of restoring bilateral input and
214 addressing, at least in part, the functional impairments of SSD (31, 32). However, as the
215 field moves beyond demonstrations of clinical efficacy in the form that can be measured
216 using controlled listening tests in the clinic or laboratory, increasing emphasis will
217 inevitably be placed on conducting trials to measure broader impacts on quality of life to
218 demonstrate the additional benefits to health it provides over currently available
219 treatments.

220 In designing these trials, one must first ask whether the intervention addresses one or
221 more aspects of burden that are relevant to SSD patients, and what specific aspects of
222 burden are being targeted. Such knowledge would ideally be supported by evidence from

223 early-phase trials so that the mechanism through which the intervention works is well
224 understood. The choice of outcomes that are being measured would also need to be
225 examined to ask whether they are considered by patients to be important for their health
226 and wellbeing. Finally, outcome measures should be selected based evidence for their
227 validity to measure those outcomes in these patients. Here we describe a research
228 process that has been designed to address these questions in the field of SSD and to lay
229 the groundwork for the development of a Core Outcome Set (Figure 1).

230

231

**** insert Figure 1 about here ****

232

233 Fundamental to addressing many of these issues is a comprehensive understanding of
234 the health condition itself. Little if any qualitative work around the burden imposed by
235 SSD has been conducted since Giolas and Wark applied the Critical Incident Technique to
236 study the functional consequences of SSD (27). This technique structures the interview
237 around events that the patient recognises were affected by their hearing loss. Patient
238 interviews were therefore conducted using a similar methodology to construct a
239 hierarchical model of burden (33) based on patient-reported incidents and emerging
240 themes from the transcripts. This qualitative approach provided a comprehensive
241 characterisation of the impact of the health condition (34) and was initially used to
242 assess whether interventions targeted aspects of health that are impaired by SSD. A
243 systematic review identified those interventions and concluded that studies have
244 focussed almost exclusively on intervening to improve functional impairments to speech
245 perception and spatial hearing (35). However, the wide range and inconsistent use of
246 patient-reported questionnaire instruments as outcome measures in existing trials meant
247 that there is considerable uncertainty over what outcomes if any beyond the direct
248 functional impairments to hearing were being targeted by these interventions (36). To
249 address this uncertainty, a second systematic review is underway to identify what studies
250 say they are trying to measure and to map those outcomes onto their use of specific
251 measurement instruments (37). The content of the questionnaire instruments will be
252 compared with the model of patient burden to assess whether they are targeting
253 domains of health which are considered relevant by this patient group (23). The analysis
254 will examine how successful these instruments are at targeting specific domains of health
255 and therefore their suitability for use as outcome measures in the context of clinical trials
256 (38).

257

258

Relevance of existing questionnaires for assessing benefits of tinnitus treatments

259

260

261 There is a substantial literature concerning self-assessment questionnaires for scaling the
262 negative impacts of tinnitus. This literature shows that many different tinnitus-specific
263 questionnaires have been used to assess treatment-related changes in tinnitus. For
264 example, our review of clinical trials from 2006 to 2015 identified at least 78 different
265 outcome instruments used in 228 trials; with 24 of those being different tinnitus-specific
266 questionnaires. These were predominantly the Tinnitus Handicap Inventory (THI) (39)
267 and the Tinnitus Questionnaire (TQ) (4, 40, 41). But even these two most popular
268 instruments were used in only a minority of clinical research since we noted that usage
269 was 15% and 7% out of 228 studies, for the THI and TQ respectively. We also note that
270 these questionnaire instruments have predominantly been designed for screening and
271 diagnostic purposes, not for measuring benefit from ENT/Audiological interventions. In
272 particular, they measure multiple domains of patient burden.

273

274 The tinnitus community widely acknowledges that a standard is needed to ensure that
275 therapeutic benefit is measured much more consistently across studies, and that benefit
276 is quantified using a measurement instrument that is fit for the purpose of outcome
277 measurement (e.g. 42). A first attempt by Langguth and 28 other colleagues in 2006
278 sought to develop a set of international recommendations on choice of instruments for

279 assessing the outcome from an intervention for tinnitus (43). The recommendations by
280 this working group suggested four questionnaires; namely the Tinnitus Handicap
281 Inventory (THI) (39), the Tinnitus Handicap Questionnaire (THQ) (44), the Tinnitus
282 Questionnaire (TQ) (41) and the Tinnitus Reaction Questionnaire (TRQ) (45). These
283 instruments were developed in diverse patient populations across the USA, UK, and
284 Australia, but were not all developed for the same applications. In particular, while the
285 THI, TQ and TRQ focus on aspects of psychological distress, the THQ was created to
286 comprehensively measure the perceived degree of broad handicaps attributed to tinnitus
287 (see Fackrell et al. (46) for a review). Nevertheless, they were chosen as they were the
288 most widely used at the time, and had been translated for use in different languages and
289 cultures. Their questions also broadly span the emotional impact of tinnitus, disability
290 and handicap.

291 **** insert Figure 2 about here ****

292
293
294 In making their interim recommendation, Langguth and colleagues commented that the
295 THI, THQ, TQ and TRQ also share a common feature in that they attempt to quantify a
296 combination of tinnitus-related distress, disability and handicap resulting in a large
297 overlap of their items (43). Conceptual similarity is supported by statistical evidence for a
298 high convergent validity between the global scores. For example, pairwise correlations
299 between the THI, THQ, TQ and TRQ range from 0.74 to 0.89 (see Fackrell et al. (46) for
300 a review). To explore conceptual equivalence in more detail we have conducted a fine-
301 grained evaluation of each individual questionnaire item to specify exactly what health
302 concepts form the ingredients of each instrument. The findings from this evaluation are
303 illustrated in Figure 2. The black cells indicate where the instrument contains at least one
304 item that we judge to be asking about the corresponding tinnitus-related complaint. All
305 questionnaire instruments contain items that ask about a diverse range of tinnitus-
306 related complaints covering all the major high-level categories of impact on everyday life,
307 such as emotional impacts or activities and relationships. However, the patchwork
308 highlights clear differences between instruments in terms of their specific item-level
309 content. Some of these detailed differences could be clinically important for some
310 individuals with critical gaps where an instrument entirely misses out questions on a
311 particular type of complaint. For example, the impact of tinnitus on physical health is
312 explored only in the TQ ('bodily complaints') and the THQ ('ill health'). We have not yet
313 compared the content of the instruments with available information about patient burden
314 to assess whether they are targeting domains of health which are considered relevant by
315 people with tinnitus (23). This analysis is planned. It will tell us how successful these
316 instruments might be at targeting specific domains of health and therefore their
317 suitability for use as outcome measures in the context of clinical trials of tinnitus,
318 especially under certain circumstances (e.g. with a specific patient subtype, or for
319 evaluating the outcome from a specific intervention).

320
321 Langguth et al. (43) appreciated some of these limitations with the THI, THQ, TQ and
322 TRQ and so the working group agreed that in the future, a "better" questionnaire was
323 required. Since that time, a multi-item tinnitus questionnaire has been developed in the
324 USA using a method to select items that optimized the overall responsiveness of the
325 outcome score to treatment-related change (47). The resulting Tinnitus Functional Index
326 (TFI) asks 25 questions about the intrusive of tinnitus, reduced sense of control, reduced
327 quality of life, sleep disturbance, auditory difficulties, cognitive interference, interference
328 with relaxation, and emotional distress, with pre-defined cut-offs for determining "not a
329 problem", "small problem", "moderate problem", "big problem", and "very big problem".
330 When opting to use the TFI in other countries and cultures, it would be advisable to
331 explore the content validity and severity grading in the new target population.

332 **DISCUSSION**

333
334

335 These three examples illustrate different approaches to overcome the challenges of
336 evaluating therapeutic benefit. In common, they all highlight the need to think critically
337 about what it is one is seeking trying to measure. We end our review with some
338 concluding remarks:

- 339
340 • We have previously argued that it would be helpful to step away from using terms
341 such as 'handicap' or 'severity' when naming a questionnaire instrument. These
342 terms are not helpful to clinicians and researchers because they do not
343 meaningfully describe exactly what health-related construct is being measured by
344 the instrument (4). The development of the SPaRQ by Heffernan et al. provides a
345 good example where the questionnaire name describes exactly what aspect of
346 health the instrument claims to measure (22).
347
- 348 • Although often questionnaire developers typically present psychometric validations
349 of a questionnaire instrument, the word 'validation' is quite emotive. Validity is
350 not a fixed property, but varies across populations and cultures. Its good practice
351 therefore to keep an open mind and to evaluate any questionnaire instrument the
352 first time its going to be used for a particular purpose and in a particular patient
353 population.
354
- 355 • At the end of the questionnaire evaluation, we might end up by failing to find any
356 instruments which meet stringent contemporary standards of performance for
357 outcome measures in clinical trials of SSD and tinnitus. What then? Clearly new
358 research will be needed to modify an existing instrument, or create a new one
359 from scratch. But what should we do in the meantime? Well, just because an
360 instrument is not perfect does not necessarily mean that it should not be used. In
361 this situation, clinicians can play an important role by collecting clinical data about
362 their preferred instruments so that we have some evidence to inform decisions
363 about good practice (content validity etc). We would also strongly support open
364 data sharing as we believe that this is one of the best ways to make the most
365 rapid progress the field.
366

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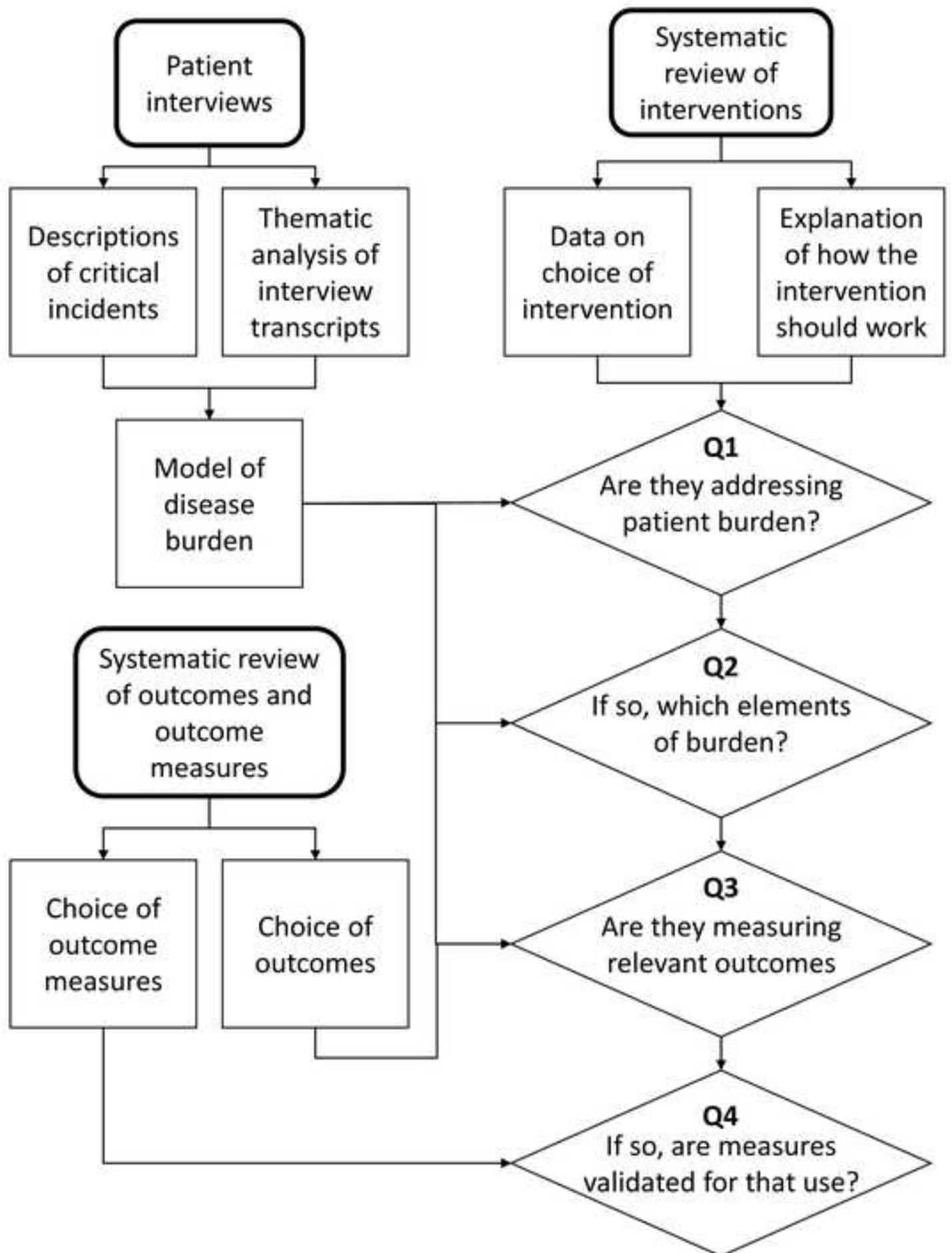
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498 **Figure 1.** Process for evaluating the choice of interventions and outcomes in clinical
499 trials of single-sided deafness (SSD) and assessing the content validity of outcome
500 measures.

501 **Figure 2.** Item analysis of five tinnitus-specific questionnaires that have been used in
502 clinical trials as instruments for measuring therapeutic outcomes. Black cells indicate that
503 the questionnaire contains at least one item asking patients about that specific
504 complaint.



<i>Tinnitus-related complaints</i>	<i>THI</i>	<i>THQ</i>	<i>TQ</i>	<i>TRQ</i>	<i>TFI</i>
Ability to ignore					
Ability to relax					
Awareness					
Change in sense of self					
Confusion					
Difficulties concentrating					
Active task to distract or cope with tinnitus					
General coping					
Positive reassurance					
Pre-occupation					
Purposely protecting or reducing the chance of potential problems					
Wishful thinking					
Anger					
Annoyance					
Anxiety					
Bothered					
Consequences of tinnitus / Stress					
Depression					
Discomfort					
Frustration					
Irritability					
Low mood					
Upset					
Worries/Concerns					
Enjoyment / Quality of life					
Fatigue					
Bodily complaints					
Ill health					
Impact on relationships					
Interfere with social activities					
Interfere with work activities					
Interferes with personal activities					
Understanding / Knowledge					
Negative thoughts					
Nobody understanding my experience					
Support from family and friends					
Loudness of tinnitus					
Helplessness (lack of control)					
Sense of control					
Difficulties getting to sleep					
Quality of sleep (disrupted sleep)					
Sleep					
Impact on hearing					
Impact on locating sounds					
Impact on listening ability					
Interference with one-to-one conversations					
Interference following group conversations					

Table 1. Development of the Social Participation Restrictions Questionnaire (SPaRQ)

Study	Main Aim	Method	Data Analysis
1	Conceptualise participation restrictions in adults with hearing loss Generate content for the first SPaRQ prototype	Semi-structured interviews with 25 adults with hearing loss and 9 hearing healthcare professionals	Deductive thematic analysis
2	Evaluate the content validity of the first SPaRQ prototype	Cognitive interviews 14 adults with hearing loss Online survey of 20 hearing healthcare professionals	Deductive analysis using a taxonomy of respondent problems Descriptive statistics
3	Assess the psychometric properties of the second SPaRQ prototype	Questionnaire completed by 279 adults with hearing loss	Rasch analysis
4	Assess the psychometric properties of the finalised SPaRQ	Questionnaire completed by 102 adults with hearing loss	Traditional psychometric analysis