

Wilfrid Laurier University

Scholars Commons @ Laurier

Health Sciences Faculty Publications

Health Sciences

2018

A Deterioration in Hearing is Associated With Functional and Cognitive Impairments, Difficulty With Communication and Greater Health Instability

Nicole Williams

Wilfrid Laurier University, nwilliams@wlu.ca

Dawn M. Guthrie

Wilfrid Laurier University, dguthrie@wlu.ca

Jacob G.S. Davidson

Wilfrid Laurier University

Kathryn Fisher

McMaster University

Lauren E. Griffith

McMaster University

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholars.wlu.ca/hesc_faculty



Part of the [Kinesiology Commons](#), and the [Medicine and Health Sciences Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Williams N, Guthrie DM, Davidson JGS, Fisher K, Griffith LE. A deterioration in hearing is associated with functional and cognitive impairments, difficulty with communication, and greater health instability. *Journal of Applied Gerontology* 2018; 1: 1-28. doi: 10.1177/0733464818755312.

This Article is brought to you for free and open access by the Health Sciences at Scholars Commons @ Laurier. It has been accepted for inclusion in Health Sciences Faculty Publications by an authorized administrator of Scholars Commons @ Laurier. For more information, please contact scholarscommons@wlu.ca.

A Deterioration in Hearing is Associated With Functional and Cognitive Impairments, Difficulty With Communication and Greater Health Instability

Nicole Williams¹, Dawn M. Guthrie^{1, 2}, Jacob G.S. Davidson¹, Kathryn Fisher³, and Lauren E. Griffith⁴

¹Department of Kinesiology and Physical Education, Wilfrid Laurier University, Waterloo, Ontario, Canada; ²Department of Health Sciences, Wilfrid Laurier University, Waterloo, Ontario, Canada; ³School of Nursing, McMaster University, Hamilton, Ontario, Canada; ⁴Department of Health Research Methods, Evidence, and Impact, McMaster University, Hamilton, Ontario, Canada

Conflicts of Interest and Source of Funding:

D.M. Guthrie's research is supported by a grant from the Lloyd-Carr Harris Foundation. L.E. Griffith is supported by a Canadian Institutes of Health Research New Investigator's Award and the McLaughlin Foundation Professorship in Population and Public Health. For the remaining authors, none was declared.

IRB Protocol Number: 4184

Address correspondence to Nicole Williams, Department of Kinesiology and Physical Education, Wilfrid Laurier University, 75 University Ave West, Waterloo, ON, N2L3C5, Canada. Email: nwilliams@wlu.ca

Abstract

Objectives: To examine the relationship between hearing deterioration and several health-related outcomes among home care clients in Ontario.

Design: Longitudinal analysis was completed for clients with at least two comprehensive assessments. Hearing status, based on a single item, ranged from zero (no impairment) to three (highly impaired). Hearing deterioration was defined as at least a one-point decline between subsequent assessments.

Results: Seven percent experienced a one-point deterioration in hearing, and roughly 1% had a two/three-point decline. After adjusting for other covariates, increasing age (OR: 1.94; CI: 1.45, 2.61) and a diagnosis of Alzheimer's disease (1.37; CI: 1.04, 1.80) and other dementias (1.32; CI: 1.07, 1.63) increased the risk of a two/three-point deterioration.

Conclusion: These findings can assist home care professionals and policy makers in creating and refining interventions to meet the needs of older adults with hearing difficulties.

Manuscript submitted: July 4, 2017
Manuscript accepted: December 28, 2017

INTRODUCTION

Age-related hearing loss is the third most prevalent chronic condition among older adults, affecting more than 120 million people worldwide (Corna, Streiner, Wade, & Cairney, 2009; Li-Korotky, 2012; Strawbridge, Wallhagen, Shema, & Kaplan, 2000). A large proportion of these individuals will have significant losses that result in a hearing impairment. Approximately 65% of Canadians aged 70 years and older have a hearing impairment, with both incidence and prevalence rates rising with each decade of life (Feder, Michaud, Ramage-Morin, McNamee, & Beaugard, 2015).

Despite the widespread prevalence of hearing impairment among older adults, it is often under-estimated and unrecognized due to the gradual progression of the disease (Allen et al., 2003; Li-Korotky, 2012). Hearing impairment is known to be correlated with difficulty communicating and interacting with others. Problems maintaining and following conversation may lead to frustration, a loss of self-esteem (Huang & Tang, 2010), depressive symptoms (Gopinath et al., 2012), and the desire to withdraw from social settings (Arlinger, 2003). Other negative outcomes associated with this impairment include difficulty completing activities of daily living (ADLs) and instrumental ADLs (IADLs) (Chen et al., 2015; Slaughter, Hopper, Ickert, & Erin, 2014), which can reduce one's ability to live independently. There is also a growing body of research that suggests that age-related hearing impairment may also be linked to an increased risk of cognitive decline (Lin et al., 2013). A number of risk factors are associated with age-related hearing loss, including being male (Helzner et al., 2005; Lin, Thorpe, Gordon-Salant, & Ferrucci, 2011), and exposure to occupational noise (Helzner et al., 2005; Palmer et al., 2002). Males are likely at a greater risk of age-related hearing loss due to time spent in a noisy occupation (Palmer et al., 2002). Additional risk factors include increasing age (Cruickshanks et al., 2010; Linssen, van Boxtel, Joore, & Anteunis, 2014) and multiple chronic conditions

25 (Kramer, Kapteyn, & Kuik, 2002; Stam et al., 2014). Diabetes, arthritis (other than osteoarthritis
26 and rheumatoid arthritis) and dizziness causing falling are all associated with poor hearing ability
27 (Stam et al., 2014).

28 The prevalence and incidence rates of hearing impairment have been well documented in
29 the literature, however there are limited studies that have examined the progression (worsening)
30 of hearing impairment over time. Cruickshanks and colleagues (2003), examined the 5-year
31 prevalence and incidence of hearing loss in a sample of community-dwelling older adults.
32 Approximately 53.3% of those with baseline hearing impairment experienced at least a 5-dB
33 increase in pure-tone average when reexamined at the 5-year follow-up period. Age was the
34 only factor that was found to be related to the progression of hearing impairment over time
35 (Cruickshanks et al., 2003).

36 It is estimated that between 30-60% of older adults living in the community have a
37 hearing impairment (Allen et al., 2003; Corna et al., 2009). Many of these individuals will also
38 have multiple chronic health conditions (e.g., hypertension, diabetes, cardiovascular disease,
39 etc.) and require formal home care services. These chronic conditions have been linked with an
40 increased risk of hearing loss in older adults (Helzner et al., 2005; Yamasoba et al., 2013).
41 Home care is an increasingly important part of the publicly-funded health care continuum yet
42 relatively little is known about this population when it comes to hearing health. Currently, in
43 Ontario, roughly 400,000 adults over 65 receive publicly-funded home care, with an annual
44 budget of \$2.4 billion (Home Care Ontario, 2015; Ontario Ministry of Health and Long-Term
45 Care, 2015), and the need for these services is anticipated to increase with population aging
46 (Kadowaki, Wister, & Chappell, 2015).

71 all fields have been completed. We did examine the rate of missing data across all of the
72 variables under consideration, and the amount of missing never exceeded 10%.

73 **Sample**

74 The sample included all Ontario long-stay home care clients aged 65+ who had at least
75 two assessments completed between 2010 and 2011 (n = 59,188). Assessments chosen for the
76 analysis were completed within 12 months of each other, in keeping with the mandated re-
77 assessment interval of 6-12 months in Ontario, and represented the two most recent assessments
78 for each unique individual. The data were made available to the research team from the Canadian
79 Institute for Health Information (CIHI) who maintains a database for all RAI-HC assessments
80 completed across Ontario. This time period was chosen since it represented the most recent
81 fiscal year of data available from CIHI when the study began. The Research Ethics Board at
82 Wilfrid Laurier University reviewed and approved the design of this study prior to the
83 researchers being granted access to the data (REB #: 4184).

84 **Measures**

85 Individual items on the RAI-HC have been found to be valid and reliable, with
86 documented evidence of criterion validity (Poss et al., 2008), and good inter-rater (average
87 kappa: 0.74) (Morris et al., 1997) and test-retest reliability (J.P. Hirdes et al., 2008; Poss et al.,
88 2008). A number of studies have examined the validity of the instrument by evaluating the
89 health index scales which are embedded within the assessment (Landi et al., 2000; Morris, Fries,
90 & Morris, 1999).

91 The main outcome variable of this study was the development of incremental hearing
92 deterioration between a client's two most recent assessments. Hearing impairment was classified
93 by a single item on the RAI-HC, which scores hearing ability on a four-point scale with response
94 options of zero (hears adequately), one (minimal difficulty), two (hears in special situations

95 only), and three (highly impaired). This item has been found to have good inter-rater reliability
96 (kappa: 0.83) (Guthrie et al., 2011). The care coordinator determines a client's hearing status
97 based on the combination of self-assessment by the client, information provided by the informal
98 caregiver, consultations with other health care providers (e.g., primary care physician) and
99 review of relevant medical records (e.g., auditory tests, professional assessments). The hearing
100 item on the assessment is capturing not only the perception of how the client feels their hearing
101 is, but the combined response between the client, informal caregiver, and as necessary, the
102 perspective of other health care providers. If there is a disagreement between how the client and
103 other members of the client's circle view their hearing status, then a decision will be made by the
104 care coordinator as to the final rating of the client's hearing status. A difference score was
105 calculated between the two assessments to determine if a deterioration in hearing occurred. A
106 client was classified into one of four categories which included no deterioration, a one-point
107 deterioration (e.g., a one-point increase on the hearing item), a two-point deterioration, or a
108 three-point deterioration. If a client's score remained the same between the two assessments,
109 regardless of the actual degree of impairment, or if their hearing improved, they were classified
110 as having no deterioration. We conducted preliminary analysis comparing clients that remained
111 the same and clients that improved and found that these two groups were very similar (less than a
112 10% difference) across several characteristics such as age and sex (data not shown) and therefore
113 we chose to keep them in one group. Within the RAI-HC, there is no information on whether a
114 client owned or regularly used an assistive device such as a hearing aid. However, according to
115 the RAI-HC manual, assessors are instructed to assess hearing with hearing appliances in place,
116 so it is assumed that if the client had a hearing aid, the assessor would complete the assessment
117 once the hearing aid was in place (Morris et al., 2009).

118 Three variables within the RAI-HC measure communication abilities in relation to
119 hearing status. Expressive communication was measured by a single item on the RAI-HC, which
120 is scored from zero (understood by others) to four (rarely/never understood by others).
121 Similarly, a single item on the assessment was also used to score receptive communication, again
122 ranging from zero (understands others) to four (rarely/never understands others) (kappa: 0.75)
123 (J.P. Hirdes et al., 2008). Finally, an overall decline in communication (making self-understood
124 or understanding others) in the previous 90 days was measured using a single dichotomous item.

125 Within the RAI-HC, there are six health index scales embedded within the assessment.
126 Functional performance is measured using two scales. The first, the Activities of Daily Living
127 Self-Performance Hierarchy Scale (ADL-SHS), examines a client's physical functioning in
128 personal care activities such as eating, locomotion, bathing, and dressing. Functioning on these
129 items is rated on a scale from zero (independent) to six (total dependence) (Cronbach's alpha =
130 0.94) (Kim et al., 2015) (kappa: 0.89) (Guthrie et al., 2011). The second scale, the IADL
131 Capacity Scale, rates three IADLs (meal preparation, phone use, and ordinary housework) on a
132 scale of zero (independent) to six (great difficulty in all three IADLs) (Cronbach's alpha = 0.94)
133 (Kim et al., 2015) (kappa: 0.83) (Guthrie et al., 2011). A cut-point of two or higher on both of
134 these scales was used for this study and identifies clients with at least mild impairment (Morris et
135 al., 1999).

136 The Cognitive Performance Scale (CPS) includes items pertaining to short-term memory,
137 decision-making, expressive communication, and independence in eating. The CPS ranges from
138 zero (intact) to six (severe impairment) and has been validated against the Mini Mental State
139 Exam (MMSE) (Morris et al., 1994). A cut-point of three or higher was used to identify clients
140 with moderate to severe cognitive impairment. The frequency and intensity of pain was assessed

141 using the four-point Pain Scale, which ranges from zero (no pain) to three (severe daily pain),
142 where a cut-point of two indicates those with severe and/or daily pain (Cronbach's alpha =0.93
143 (Kim et al., 2015). Symptoms of depression was rated on the 14-point Depression Rating Scale
144 (DRS), which combines seven items relating to mood and seven items relating to behavior. A
145 score of three or greater is indicative of at least mild/moderate depressive symptoms (Martin et
146 al., 2008) (Cronbach's alpha = 0.76) (Kim et al., 2015). Finally, the Changes in Health, End-
147 Stage Disease and Signs and Symptoms (CHESS) Scale is used to identify those experiencing
148 health instability or at risk of mortality. Scores range from zero (no health instability) to five
149 (severe health instability) with a cut point of two or higher indicating moderate to severe
150 instability (J. P. Hirdes et al., 2014).

151 **Analysis**

152 Multinomial logistic regression was used to calculate unadjusted odds ratios (ORs) and
153 95% confidence intervals (95% CI) which were used to determine statistically significant
154 variables associated with hearing deterioration. We chose to perform multinomial logistic
155 regression instead of ordinal logistic regression due to the four levels of the outcome variable.

156 We recognize that there are multiple ways that a client could be categorized into the one-
157 point deterioration group (e.g., client's hearing score goes from a zero to a one or increases from
158 a two to a three, etc.). We explored these differences by splitting each hearing deterioration
159 group into sub-groups based on their baseline hearing level. However, due to small sample sizes
160 in one sub-group (n=153), we were unable to compute meaningful odds ratios, therefore we
161 decided to collapse all one-point deteriorations together.

162 Home care clients with no deterioration were compared descriptively to clients with each
163 of the different degrees of hearing deterioration with respect to demographic characteristics (e.g.,

164 age and sex), social, psychological, and physical items, and across the health index scales. All
165 potential explanatory variables were based on the first assessment. A stratified analysis was
166 completed to better understand the relationship between hearing deterioration and
167 communication decline in the presence of a cognitive impairment. Variables capturing a clinical
168 diagnosis of either Alzheimer's disease or other dementias was used to identify the presence of a
169 cognitive impairment. Multinomial logistic regression analyses were then performed to examine
170 important risk factors associated with experiencing a hearing deterioration. Results from the
171 univariate analysis and relevant literature were used to identify important covariates. These
172 covariates included age, sex, education, the presence of Alzheimer's disease or another dementia,
173 the DRS scale, the ADL-SHS scale, the pain scale, the IADL scale, a decline in communication
174 in the last 90 days, and history of a stroke. We decided to include a diagnosis of Alzheimer's
175 disease or other dementias instead of the CPS score as a measure of cognitive impairment
176 because the CPS score includes a measure of communication. Including the CPS score and the
177 communication decline variable would likely result in multi-collinearity, therefore we chose to
178 keep communication decline in the model as the RAI-HC includes other measures of cognitive
179 impairment. The preliminary model showed no issues of multi-collinearity or confounding.
180 Model fit was based on the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) where a lower AIC value
181 indicates better model fit. All analyses were conducted using SAS software (version 9.2, SAS
182 Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA). The study followed the STrengthening the Reporting of
183 OBServational studies in Epidemiology (STROBE) guidelines (von Elm et al., 2007).

184 **RESULTS**

185 At the time of their first assessment, 51.3% (n = 30,194) of clients experienced no
186 difficulty in their hearing, 31% (n = 18,540) of clients had minimal difficulty with their hearing,

187 16.7% (n = 9,894) had mild/moderate difficulty and 1% (n = 560) had a severe impairment in
188 their hearing. Clients that had a higher degree of impairment were more likely to be older,
189 female and unmarried (data not shown).

190 The mean time between a client's two most recent assessments was 5.8 months (standard
191 deviation = 2.8). When examining the change in hearing impairment between the two
192 assessments, 92% (n = 54,364) of clients did not experience a deterioration in hearing, 7% (n =
193 4,243) had a one-point deterioration, and 1% had a combination of either a two-point (n = 540)
194 or a three-point (n = 41) deterioration in hearing (Table 1). At the time of the most recent
195 assessment, the mean age of the sample was 83.5 years (SD = 7.5), two-thirds were female
196 (66.5%), almost half of the clients were widowed (49.3%) and the majority did not complete
197 high school (61.4%). The degree of impairment across most variables was progressively worse
198 with each level of hearing deterioration. This was true for items including age, communication
199 decline, receptive and expressive communication and across the majority of the health index
200 scales (Table 1).

201 In order to compute meaningful odds ratios, clients in the two-point and three-point
202 deterioration groups were combined to create one group due to the low sample size in the three-
203 point deterioration group (n=41). The multinomial unadjusted odds ratios, comparing those who
204 experienced a deterioration in their hearing to those who did not, showed that age was an
205 important factor for hearing deterioration (Table 2). Compared to clients between the ages of 65
206 and 74, being aged 75 to 84 increased the odds of a one-point hearing deterioration by 58%
207 (OR= 1.58; 95% CI: 1.41-1.77) and a two/three-point deterioration by 45% (1.45; CI: 1.09,
208 1.94); being 85+ increased the odds of a one-point deterioration (2.16; CI: 1.94-2.41) and a two/
209 three-point deterioration (1.94; CI: 1.46-2.56). Clients who were male (1.09; CI: 1.02-1.16) or

210 widowed (1.10; CI: 1.03-1.18) were significantly more likely to have a one-point deterioration in
211 hearing, but not a two/three-point deterioration.

212 Both a one-point and a two/three-point hearing deterioration showed an important link to
213 items capturing the client's ability to make themselves understood (expression) and their ability
214 to understand others (comprehension). If a client had any difficulty expressing themselves to
215 others, they were less likely to experience a one-point deterioration in hearing. This was true for
216 being usually understood (0.91; CI: 0.84, 0.99), often understood (0.73; CI: 0.64, 0.84),
217 sometimes understood (0.64; CI: 0.53, 0.78) and rarely understood (0.48; CI: 0.33, 0.70).
218 Conversely, clients were 2.44 times (2.44; CI: 1.51, 3.94) as likely to experience a two/three-
219 point deterioration in hearing if they were rarely understood by others. Similar results were
220 found when examining the comprehension variable. Clients that often understands others (0.72;
221 CI: 0.63, 0.82), sometimes understands others (0.68; CI: 0.57, 0.81) and rarely understands
222 others (0.58; CI: 0.40, 0.86) were less likely to experience a one-point deterioration in hearing.
223 Clients who rarely understands others were 2.62 times (2.62; CI: 1.58, 4.34) as likely to be at risk
224 of a two/three-point deterioration in hearing over time. A decline in communication over the last
225 90 days was protective for developing a one-point deterioration (0.89; CI: 0.80, 0.99), but was
226 not associated with a two/three-point deterioration (0.89; CI: 0.67, 1.17).

227 The presence of a distressed caregiver was protective against developing a one-point
228 deterioration (0.89; CI: 0.82, 0.97), while having a distressed caregiver increased the risk of
229 developing a two/three-point deterioration by 24% (1.24; CI: 1.01, 1.53). A history of a previous
230 stroke (0.89; CI: 0.82, 0.96), a diagnosis of Alzheimer's disease (0.80; CI: 0.72, 0.90), head
231 trauma (0.44; CI: 0.27, 0.71), Parkinson's disease (0.85; CI: 0.73, 0.98), and diabetes (0.91; 0.85,
232 0.98) were all protective of developing a one-point deterioration. A diagnosis of Alzheimer's

233 disease (1.30; CI: 1.01, 1.67), or other types of dementia (1.27; CI: 1.04, 1.55) showed the
234 greatest risk of developing a two/three-point deterioration. Finally, clients that had three or more
235 chronic health conditions were less likely to experience a two/three-point deterioration (0.73; CI:
236 0.57, 0.93). The number of chronic conditions did not seem to be an important risk factors for
237 clients that developed a one-point deterioration (Table 2).

238 Across all of the health index scales, moderate/severe impairment on the ADL-SHS
239 (0.90; CI: 0.84, 0.97) reduced the risk of experiencing a one-point deterioration. The only scale
240 that increased the risk of developing a two/three-point deterioration in hearing was the CPS
241 score. Clients were 36% more likely (1.36; CI: 1.08, 1.64) to develop a greater degree of
242 impairment in their hearing if they had moderate/severe impairment in cognition. Clients were
243 32% less likely (0.68; CI: 0.62, 0.76) to develop a one-point deterioration if they had an impaired
244 CPS score.

245 When looking at the stratified analysis, the odds ratio changed very little in the presence
246 of a cognitive impairment. The odds ratio between hearing deterioration and communication
247 decline never changed by more than 0.04 when a diagnosis of Alzheimer's disease was present.
248 The same was also true when a diagnosis of dementia other than Alzheimer's disease was
249 present (data not shown). Therefore, it appears that cognitive impairment is not confounding the
250 relationship between hearing deterioration and communication decline.

251 In the multinomial logistic regression model, increasing age was significantly associated
252 with the risk of developing both a one and a two/three-point deterioration even after adjusting for
253 the other covariates in the model. Compared to those aged 65-74, clients aged 75-84 had a 60%
254 greater risk (1.60; CI: 1.42, 1.80) of developing a one-point deterioration and a 39% risk (1.39;
255 CI: 1.02, 1.88) for a two/three-point deterioration. Similarly, being older than 85 further

256 increased the risk of a one-point deterioration (2.21; CI: 1.97, 2.48) and a two/three-point
257 deterioration (1.94: 1.45, 2.61). After adjusting for all other covariates, clients with a diagnosis
258 of Alzheimer's disease (1.37; CI: 1.04, 1.80) or another dementia (1.32; CI: 1.07, 1.63) were at a
259 greater risk of developing a two/three-point deterioration. Conversely, a diagnosis of
260 Alzheimer's disease (0.79; CI: 0.70, 0.90) or another dementia (0.91; CI: 0.83, 0.99) were both
261 protective against a one-point deterioration. Finally, being male increased the risk of a one-point
262 deterioration by 13% (1.13; CI: 1.06, 1.21) (Table 3). Communication decline did not seem to
263 have a significant influence on the development of a one-point or a two/three-point deterioration,
264 however when it was not included in the model, the effect of Alzheimer's disease and other
265 dementias was not as pronounced (data not shown).

266 **DISCUSSION**

267 To our knowledge, this is one of few studies to look at the prevalence of hearing impairment
268 in a sample of older adults receiving home care services. We found that 50% of clients had some
269 difficulty in their hearing at the start of the study, and 8% experienced some degree of
270 deterioration over one year. Overall, clients that experienced any degree of deterioration in
271 hearing were more likely to be at least 75 years of age. Clients with a two/three-point
272 deterioration experienced greater difficulties on items involving communication compared to
273 clients that only had a one-point deterioration. Additionally, clients were at a greater risk of
274 developing a two/three-point deterioration if they had a distressed caregiver or a diagnosis of
275 Alzheimer's disease or another type of dementia.

276 Strawbridge and colleagues examined the influence of varying levels of hearing impairment
277 at baseline on health and psychosocial functioning one-year later and found a dose-response
278 relationship where older adults with increasing degrees of hearing impairment had reduced levels

279 of physical and social functioning compared to those with no hearing impairment (Strawbridge et
280 al., 2000). In the current study, we found that clients with a one-point hearing deterioration were
281 less likely to have difficulties with physical functioning and communication abilities, while those
282 with a two/three-point deterioration were much more likely to have reduced physical functioning
283 and communication abilities.

284 Generally, within the literature, increasing age has been associated with a greater risk of
285 hearing impairment (Arlinger, 2003; Boi et al., 2011). In the current study, the highest
286 proportion of clients with any level of deterioration were 75+, with the greatest risk of
287 deterioration occurring in the oldest age group. Similarly, Cruickshanks and colleagues (2003)
288 also found that the only factor associated with the progression of hearing deterioration over time
289 was increasing age. Additionally, Hietanen and colleagues (2009) found that significant hearing
290 deterioration occurred after age 80 in a group of community-dwelling older adults after a 10-year
291 follow-up period (Hietanen, Era, Sorri, & Heikkinen, 2009).

292 In terms of gender differences, we found only a small increase in the odds of hearing
293 deterioration for males. It is well cited throughout the literature that males tend to have a higher
294 prevalence of hearing impairment compared to females (Feder et al., 2015; Linssen et al., 2014;
295 Strawbridge et al., 2000). However, some studies have shown a higher prevalence of hearing
296 impairment in females, especially with increasing age. For example, Wiley and colleagues
297 (2008) looked at the 10-year progression of hearing threshold and found that men were less
298 likely to experience a decline in their hearing compared to women. They suggested that men
299 may experience worse hearing at baseline with a more gradual decline, while women may
300 experience a delayed onset and then continue to decline more rapidly with age (Wiley, Chappell,
301 Carmichael, Nondahl, & Cruickshanks, 2008). At the time of the first assessment, there were a

302 higher proportion of females across all levels of hearing deterioration. This likely reflects the
303 fact that females are much more likely to be enrolled in home care services compared to males
304 (Lo, Gruneir, Bronskill, & Bierman, 2015; Sinha & Bleakney, 2014).

305 Overall, variables measuring communication appeared to be some of the most important
306 factors related to hearing deterioration. Communication difficulties have been shown to be one
307 of the main problems experienced by older adults with a hearing impairment (Huang & Tang,
308 2010; Strawbridge et al., 2000). Older adults that experienced a one-point deterioration in
309 hearing were less likely to have experienced difficulties with both expressive and receptive
310 communication, whereas clients that had difficulties in these areas were more likely to
311 experience a two/three-point deterioration.

312 The use of assistive devices (i.e., hearing aids) can improve communication ability and in
313 turn, has the potential to improve other areas of difficulties such as overall quality of life, ADL
314 and IADL impairments and symptoms of depression (Brink & Stones, 2007; Burge, von Gunten,
315 & Berchtold, 2013; Dalton et al., 2003; Mulrow et al., 1990). It has been suggested that hearing
316 aids improve communication ability and because of the link between communication and tasks
317 related to IADLs (e.g., shopping and telephone use), the use of hearing aids will not only
318 improve quality of life and mood, but can also be a conduit to improving a client's functional
319 status (Dalton et al., 2003; Gopinath, Schneider, McMahon, Teber, & Leeder, 2011). Despite the
320 wealth of literature around the benefits of using hearing aids/assistive devices, their uptake
321 among older adults is still quite low. This has been attributed to factors such as demographic
322 characteristics, associated costs and sources of motivation (Knudsen, Oberg, Nielsen, Naylor, &
323 Kramer, 2010). What appears to be missing is a clear population-level strategy to address these
324 factors in an effort to increase their use and minimize the negative consequences of untreated

325 hearing loss. Under-detection and under-treatment of hearing loss can lead to multiple negative
326 outcomes including social isolation, loneliness and loss of independence.

327 Screening for hearing difficulties and deterioration over time is vital as there are potential
328 benefits that can result from having the proper devices and supports in place, a key step in
329 improving health status and independence. The information collected from an assessment, like
330 the RAI-HC, allows home care professionals to identify hearing impairments and connect the
331 individual with the appropriate interventions, programs and supports. Older adults that receive
332 these types of interventions have been found to have improvements in their hearing as well as
333 other health-related outcomes such as increased quality of life (Boi et al., 2011), reduced social
334 isolation (Weinstein, Sirow, & Moser, 2016) and improved communication abilities (Hickson,
335 Worrall, & Scarinci, 2007; Mamo, Reed, Nieman, Oh, & Lin, 2016). Screening older home care
336 clients for hearing impairments and implementing the necessary aural rehabilitation interventions
337 can help to ensure that their level of independence and their quality of life is optimized as clients
338 continue to age.

339 In the multinomial logistic regression model, increasing age was found to be an important
340 risk factor for experiencing any degree of hearing deterioration, even after adjusting for all other
341 covariates in the model. Although increasing age was an important risk factor for both
342 deterioration groups, it was even more pronounced for clients that experienced a one-point
343 decline. Additionally, clients that had a previous diagnosis of Alzheimer's disease or other
344 dementia were at a greater risk of experiencing a two/three-point deterioration, but not a one-
345 point decline. Clients with a one-point deterioration do seem to have a slightly different pattern
346 of results compared to those with a two/three-point deterioration. This may be because the
347 clients in the one-point deterioration group were not homogenous. The clients within this group

348 had varying baseline hearing levels and while their overall degree of deterioration was the same,
349 their hearing level overall may be quite different. The presence of any form of dementia was
350 actually *protective* of experiencing a one-point decline. The relationship between hearing
351 impairment and cognitive difficulties is complicated as a hearing impairment can further
352 exacerbate a cognitive impairment and vice versa. There are similarities between hearing and
353 cognitive impairments including difficulty understanding speech, word-finding problems and
354 social isolation (Slaughter et al., 2014). It is therefore possible that the presentation of a new and
355 minimal change in hearing (e.g., a one-point decline) may actually be masked by the presence of
356 cognitive difficulties. When someone cannot hear properly, it may be mistaken for not actually
357 understanding what is being said and could be interpreted as a cognitive issue, rather than as an
358 issue with hearing. This could potentially explain the finding that individuals with Alzheimer's
359 disease, or another form of dementia, had a reduced risk of a one-point deterioration in the
360 current analysis.

361 In the current model, communication decline did not seem to be an important risk factor for
362 hearing deterioration, however when communication decline was not in the model, the presence
363 of Alzheimer's disease and other dementias were not as big of a risk factor for hearing
364 deterioration. It seems that a decline in communication is not predictive of hearing deterioration
365 over time, however there does seem to be an important link between cognitive impairments,
366 communication and hearing deterioration. The stratified analysis showed similar results as the
367 relationship between hearing decline and communication decline did not change by more than
368 0.04 when a diagnosis of Alzheimer's disease or other dementia was present. There is emerging
369 evidence within the literature looking at the relationship between hearing impairment and
370 cognitive decline. Individuals that experience cognitive decline also have difficulties with

371 communication. Communication difficulties may become further exacerbated when cognitive
372 and hearing impairments coexist, therefore it is important to diagnose and treat hearing
373 impairments early in an attempt to reduce the associated negative outcomes. In order to better
374 tease out the influence of communication decline, a more sophisticated study design would be
375 needed, which was beyond the scope of this project. Future studies could follow various cohorts
376 (e.g., those with cognitive impairment, varying levels of hearing loss, etc.) over time to examine
377 how their communication changes in relation to each cohort.

378 The current study has several strengths including our outcome of interest which looked at
379 hearing deterioration over time, and a large sample size. To our knowledge, this is one of the
380 only studies completed in Canada that has looked at hearing impairment, how it progresses over
381 time, and the relationship hearing deterioration may have on items such as physical functioning
382 and communication. Additionally, we analyzed data collected from RAI-HC assessments which
383 is a standardized assessment used in multiple regions of Canada, the US and in many other
384 countries. Utilizing data from a standardized assessment allows for direct comparisons to be
385 made not only within each country, but between countries. Within Ontario, the RAI-HC is a
386 mandated assessment that each long stay client receives on enrollment, which means that clients
387 are being screened for hearing and communication issues. If a hearing impairment is identified,
388 this provides home care professionals with real-time information that can assist them in
389 developing care plans and making appropriate referrals to other specialized clinicians (e.g.,
390 audiologists).

391 One limitation to this study is the small number of clients who experienced a three-point
392 deterioration (n=41). The 12-month time frame that was chosen may not have the ability to pick
393 up on large deteriorations in hearing, however, we chose this time frame since it is in line with

394 the typical reassessment protocol for home care clients in Ontario (Ministry of Health and Long-
395 Term Care, 2006). Due to the limited number of clients in each deterioration group, we were not
396 able to separate out each possible combination of hearing deterioration. Despite this limitation, it
397 appears that clients with a three-point deterioration are different than clients with a two-point
398 deterioration. Clients with a three-point deterioration consistently experienced greater
399 difficulties in items relating to communication and were also more impaired on a number of the
400 health index scales. Additionally, we also had to lump each one-point deterioration group
401 together due to small sample sizes. Preliminary analysis showed that these sub-groups were not
402 homogenous, however we could not compute meaningful statistics when they were separate due
403 to small sample sizes. Hearing was measured using a single item on the RAI-HC which is based
404 on a combination of discussions between the care coordinator, the client, their informal
405 caregivers and other health care professionals (e.g., primary care physician) in order to make an
406 appropriate decision regarding hearing status. The true severity of the hearing impairment in the
407 current study may actually be underestimated, however we suspect that the degree of bias is
408 relatively small. A study by Dalby and colleagues (2009) found a high correlation between the
409 functional hearing item and alerting to sounds within the environment ($\rho = 0.77$) (Dalby et al.,
410 2009). Additionally, a geriatric assessment is part of the gold standard for understanding the
411 health and functioning of older adults. Therefore, by utilizing the RAI-HC assessment, the
412 current study was able to capture the relationship between a decline in hearing and the effect this
413 may have on physical and psychosocial functioning (Phillips, Hawes, Mor, Fries, & Morris,
414 1998; Schroll, 1997). Finally, the RAI-HC does not include information as to whether the client
415 wore/actively used hearing aids, however, care coordinators are instructed to complete the
416 assessment only once the hearing aid is in place.

417 Sensory loss rarely occurs in isolation. It is often accompanied by a number of other age
418 and health-related changes. It is not uncommon for a decline in hearing to translate into
419 limitations in participation within the community. The World Health Organization (WHO)
420 developed the International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF) which
421 provides a framework to describe a wide range of information regarding a number of health
422 domains (World Health Organization, 2001). The ICF makes distinctions between diagnosis,
423 functioning, activity limitation, and restrictions to participation which are important to
424 differentiate between in order to better understand the complex nature of older adults
425 experiencing a hearing impairment. Crews and colleagues (2004) used this conceptual
426 framework when examining older adults with hearing, vision and combined hearing and vision
427 impairments. They found that older adults experiencing any kind of sensory impairment were
428 more likely to also experience activity and social participation limitations compared to those
429 without sensory impairments (Crews & Campbell, 2004).

430 Hearing impairment is one of the most prevalent chronic conditions in older adults, yet it
431 often goes unrecognized and untreated. Several beneficial rehabilitative interventions exist,
432 including hearing aids (Boi et al., 2011; Davis et al., 2016), communication programs (Hickson
433 et al., 2007) and perceptual training (Woods et al., 2015). It is therefore essential for older home
434 care clients to have a standardized assessment as it provides valuable information about
435 impairments/deteriorations in hearing. It is important to promote increased awareness of how a
436 hearing impairment can affect overall quality of life and can have a negative impact on both
437 social and physical functioning. The cornerstone of good patient-centered care is continued two-
438 way communication between the client and health care provider. Communication can be
439 complicated by the presence of a cognitive impairment, therefore, it is essential for home care

440 providers to continue to assess both hearing and cognitive impairments by using a standardized
441 assessment, like the RAI-HC, as it can help assist them in establishing good two-way
442 communication to ensure the client's goals are met and their quality of care and quality of life is
443 optimized. A decline in communication may not only limit a client's access to health care
444 services, but may also lead to the potential of miscommunication in regards to important health
445 information. Screening older home care clients for hearing impairments and implementing the
446 necessary aural rehabilitation interventions can help to ensure that their level of independence
447 and their quality of life is optimized as clients continue to age.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors would like to acknowledge the Canadian Institute for Health Information (CIHI) for providing the data.

N.W. provided statistical analysis and drafted the manuscript; D.M.G. contributed to the conception, interpretation of results and critical revisions of the work. K.F. and L.E.G. contributed to the conception of the work and also provided critical revisions. J.G.D. helped write the methods and results section of the manuscript and provided critical revisions. All authors discussed the results and implications and commented on the manuscript at all stages.

Funding

Dr. Guthrie is supported by a grant from the Lloyd Carr-Harris Foundation.

L.E. Griffith is supported by a Canadian Institutes of Health Research New Investigator's Award and the McLaughlin Foundation Professorship in Population and Public Health

Conflict of Interests

The Authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

Correspondence Information

Nicole Williams, Wilfrid Laurier University, Department of Kinesiology and Physical Education, 75 University Avenue W, Waterloo, ON, N2L3C5, Canada. E-mail: nwilliams@wlu.ca

REFERENCES

- Allen, N.H., Burns, A., Newton, V., Hickson, F., Ramsden, R., Rogers, J., . . . Morris, J. (2003). The effects of improving hearing in dementia. *Age and Ageing*, 32(2), 189-193.
- Arlinger, S. (2003). Negative consequences of uncorrected hearing loss - a review. *International Journal of Audiology*, 42(2), 17-20.
- Boi, R., Racca, L., Cavallero, A., Carpaneto, V., Racca, M., Acqua, F.D., . . . Odetti, P. (2011). Hearing loss and depressive symptoms in elderly patients. *Geriatrics Gerontology International*, 12(3), 440-445.
- Brink, P., & Stones, M. (2007). Examination of the relationship among hearing impairment, linguistic communication, mood, and social engagement of residents in complex continuing-care facilities. *The Gerontologist*, 47(5), 633-641.
- Burge, E., von Gunten, A., & Berchtold, A. (2013). Factors favoring a degradation or an improvement in activities of daily living (ADL) performance among nursing home (NH) residents: A survival analysis. *Archives of Gerontology and Geriatrics*, 56(1), 250-257.
- Chen, D.S., Betz, J., Yaffe, K., Ayonayon, H.N., Kritchevsky, S., Martin, K.R., . . . Lin, F.R. (2015). Association of hearing impairment with declines in physical functioning and the risk of disability in older adults. *Journal of Gerontology: MEDICAL SCIENCES*, 70(5), 654-661.
- Corna, L.M., Streiner, D.L., Wade, T.J., & Cairney, J. . (2009). Corrected and Uncorrected Hearing Impairment in Older Canadians. *Gerontology*(55), 468-476.
- Crews, J.E., & Campbell, V.A. (2004). Vision impairment and hearing loss among community-dwelling older Americans: implications for health and functioning. *American Journal of Public Health*, 94(5), 823-829.

Cruickshanks, K. J., Nondahl, D.M., Tweed, T.S., Wiley, T.L., Klein, B.E.K., Klein, R., . . .

Nash, S.D. (2010). Education, occupation, noise exposure history and the 10-yr cumulative incidence of hearing impairment in older adults. *Hearing Research*, 264(1-2), 3-9.

Cruickshanks, K. J., Tweed, T.S., Wiley, T.L., Klein, B.E.K., Klein, R., Chappell, R., . . . Dalton, D.S. (2003). The 5-year incidence and progression of hearing loss. *Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg*, 129(10), 1041-1046.

Dalby, D., Hirdes, J.P., Stolee, P., Strong, J.G., Poss, J., Tjam, E.Y., . . . Ashworth, M. (2009). Development and psychometric properties of a standardized assessment for adults who are deaf-blind. *Journal of Visual Impairment and Blindness*, 103(1), 1-18.

Dalton, D.S., Cruickshanks, K.J., Klein, B.E.K., Klein, R., Wiley, T.L., & Nondahl, D.M. (2003). The impact of hearing loss on quality of life in older adults. *The Gerontologist*, 43(5), 661-668.

Davis, A., McMahon, C. M., Pichora-Fuller, K. M., Russ, S., Lin, F., Olusanya, B. O., . . . Tremblay, K. L. (2016). Aging and hearing health: The life-course approach. *Gerontologist*, 56 Suppl 2, S256-267. doi:10.1093/geront/gnw033

Feder, K., Michaud, D., Ramage-Morin, P., McNamee, J., & Beaugard, Y. (2015). Prevalence of hearing loss among Canadians aged 20 to 79: Audiometric results from the 2012/2013 Canadian Health Measures Survey. *Health Reports*, 26(7), 18-25.

Gopinath, B., Hickson, L., Schneider, J., McMahon, C.M., Burlutsky, G., Leeder, S., & Mitchell, P. (2012). Hearing impaired adults are at increased risk of experiencing emotional distress and social engagement restrictions five years later. *Age and Ageing*, 41(5), 618-623.

- Gopinath, B., Schneider, J., McMahon, C.M., Teber, E., & Leeder, S.R. (2011). Severity of age-related hearing loss is associated with impaired activities of daily living. *Age and Ageing*, 41(2), 195-200.
- Guthrie, D.M., Pitman, R., Stolee, P., Strong, G., Poss, J., Tjam, E.Y., . . . Hirdes, J. (2011). Reliability of standardized assessment for adults who are deafblind. *Journal of Rehabilitation Research & Development*, 48(5), 545-554.
- Helzner, E., Cauley, J., Pratt, S.R., Wisniewski, S.R., Zmuda, J.M., Talbott, E.O., . . . Newman, A.B. (2005). Race and sex differences in age-related hearing loss: the health, aging and body composition study. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society*, 53(12), 2119-2127.
- Hickson, L., Worrall, L., & Scarinci, N. (2007). A randomized controlled trial evaluating the active communication education program for older people with hearing impairment. *Ear & Hearing*, 28(2), 212-230.
- Hietanen, A., Era, P., Sorri, M., & Heikkinen, E. (2009). Changes in hearing in 80-year old people: a 10-year follow-up study. *International Journal of Audiology*, 43(3), 126-135.
- Hirdes, J. P., Poss, J. W., Mitchell, L., Korngut, L., & Heckman, G. (2014). Use of the interRAI CHES scale to predict mortality among persons with neurological conditions in three care settings. *PLoS One*, 9(6), e99066. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0099066
- Hirdes, J.P., Freeman, S., Smith, T.F., & Stolee, P. (2012). Predictors of caregiver distress among palliative home care clients in Ontario: Evidence based on the interRAI Palliative Care. *Palliative and Supportive Care*, 1-9.
- Hirdes, J.P., Ljunggren, G., Morris, J.N., Frijters, D.H., Finne-Soveri, H., Gray, L., . . . Gilgen, R. (2008). Reliability of the interRAI suite of assessment instruments: a 12-country study

- of an integrated health information system. *Biomed Central Health Services Research*, 8(277), 1-11. doi:1472-6963-8-277 [pii];10.1186/1472-6963-8-277 [doi]
- Home Care Ontario. (2015). Facts & figures: Publicly funded home care.
- Huang, Q., & Tang, J. (2010). Age-related hearing loss or presbycusis. *European Archives of Oto-Rhino-Laryngology*, 267(8), 1179-1191.
- Kadowaki, L., Wister, A.V., & Chappell, N.L. (2015). Influence of home care on life satisfaction, loneliness, and perceived life stress. *Canadian Journal on Aging*, 34(01), 75-89.
- Kim, H., Jung, Y. I., Sung, M., Lee, J. Y., Yoon, J. Y., & Yoon, J. L. (2015). Reliability of the interRAI Long Term Care Facilities (LTCF) and interRAI Home Care (HC). *Geriatrics Gerontology International*, 15(2), 220-228. doi:10.1111/ggi.12330
- Knudsen, L. V., Oberg, M., Nielsen, C., Naylor, G., & Kramer, S. E. (2010). Factors influencing help seeking, hearing aid uptake, hearing aid use and satisfaction with hearing aids: a review of the literature. *Trends Amplif*, 14(3), 127-154. doi:10.1177/1084713810385712
- Kramer, S.E., Kapteyn, T.S., & Kuik, D.J.H. (2002). The association of hearing impairment and chronic diseases with psychosocial health status in older age. *Journal of Aging and Health*, 14(1), 122-137.
- Landi, F., Tua, E., Onder, G., Carrara, B., Sgadari, A., Rinaldi, C., . . . Bernabei, R. (2000). Minimum Data Set for Home Care: A valid instrument to assess frail older people living in the community. *Medical Care*, 38(12), 1184-1190.
- Li-Korotky, H-S. (2012). Age-related hearing loss: quality of care for quality of life. *The Gerontologist*, 52(2), 265-271.

- Lin, F.R., Thorpe, R., Gordon-Salant, S., & Ferrucci, L. (2011). Hearing loss prevalence and risk factors among older adults in the United States. *The Journals of Gerontology Series A: Biological Sciences and Medical Sciences*, 66A(5), 582-590.
- Lin, F.R., Yaffe, K., Xia, J., Xue, Q., Harris, T.B., Purchase-Helzner, E., . . . Simonsick, E.M. (2013). Hearing loss and cognitive decline among older adults. *Journal of American Medical Association*, 173(4), 1-14.
- Linssen, A.M. , van Boxtel, M.P.J., Joore, M.A., & Anteunis, L.J.C. (2014). Precitors of hearing acuity: cross-sectional and longitudinal analysis. *Journals of Gerontology: Medical Sciences*, 69(6), 759-765.
- Lo, A.T., Gruneir, A., Bronskill, S.E., & Bierman, A.S. (2015). Sex differences in home care performance: a population based study. *Women's Health Issues*, 25(3), 232-238.
- Mamo, S.K., Reed, N.S., Nieman, C.L., Oh, E.S., & Lin, F.R. (2016). Personal sound amplifiers for adults with hearing loss. *The American Journal of Medicine*, 129, 245-250.
- Martin, L., Poss, J.W., Hirdes, J.P., Jones, R.N., Stones, M.J., & Fries, B.E. (2008). Predictors of a new depression diagnosis among older adults admitted to complex continuing care: implications for the Depression Rating Scale (DRS). *Age Ageing*, 37(1), 51-56.
- Ministry of Health and Long-Term Care. (2006). *Community Care Access Centres: Client Services Policy Manual*. Toronto, ON. Retrieved from http://www.health.gov.on.ca/english/providers/pub/manuals/ccac/ccac_mn.html.
- Morris, J.N., Fries, B.E., Bernabei, R., Steel, K., Ikegami, N., Carpenter, I., . . . Belleville-Taylor, P. (2009). *interRAI Home Care (HC) Assessment Form and User's Manual* (9.1 ed.). Rockport, MA: Open Book Systems, Inc.

- Morris, J.N., Fries, B.E., Mehr, D.R., Hawes, C., Mor, V., & Lipsitz, L. (1994). MDS Cognitive Performance Scale. *Journals of Gerontology.Series A, Biological Sciences and Medical Sciences*, 49(4), M174-M182.
- Morris, J.N., Fries, B.E., & Morris, S.A. (1999). Scaling ADLs within the MDS. *Journals of Gerontology.Series A, Biological Sciences and Medical Sciences*, 54A(11), M546-M553.
- Morris, J.N., Fries, B.E., Steel, K., Ikegami, N., Bernabei, R., Carpenter, I., . . . E, Topinkova. (1997). Comprehensive clinical assessment in community setting: applicability of the MDS-HC. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society*, 45(8), 1017-1024.
- Mulrow, C.D., Aguilar, C., Endicott, J.E., Tuley, M.R., Velez, R., Charlip, W.S., . . . DeNino, L.A. (1990). Quality-of-life changes and hearing impairment: A randomized trial. *Annals of Internal Medicine*, 113, 188-194.
- Ontario Ministry of Health and Long-Term Care. (2015). *Bringing Care Home*. Toronto, ON: Ontario Ministry of Health and Long Term Care Retrieved from http://health.gov.on.ca/en/public/programs/ccac/docs/hcc_report.pdf.
- Palmer, K.T., Griffin, M.J., Syddall, H.E., Davis, A., Pannett, B., & Coggon, D. (2002). Occupational exposure to noise and the attributable burden of hearing difficulties in Great Britain. *Occupational and environmental medicine*, 59(9), 634-639.
- Phillips, C.D., Hawes, C., Mor, V., Fries, B.E., & Morris, J. (1998). Geriatric assessment in nursing homes in the United States: impact of a national program. *Generations*, 21(4), 15-20.
- Poss, J.W., Jutan, N.M., Hirdes, J.P., Fries, B.E., Morris, J.N., Teare, G.F., & Reidel, K. (2008). A review of evidence on the reliability and validity of Minimum Data Set data. *Healthcare Management Forum*, 21(1), 33-39.

- Schroll, M. (1997). Effects of systematic geriatric assessment. *The Lancet*, 350, 604-605.
- Sinha, M., & Bleakney, A. (2014). *Receiving care at home*. Ottawa, ON: Statistics Canada.
- Slaughter, S.E., Hopper, T., Ickert, C., & Erin, D.F. (2014). Identification of Hearing Loss Among Residents with Dementia: Perceptions of Health Care Aides. *Geriatric Nursing*(35), 434-440.
- Stam, M., Kostense, P.J., Lemke, U., Merkus, P., Smit, J.H., Festen, J.M., & Kramer, S.E. (2014). Comorbidity in adults with hearing difficulties: Which chronic medical conditions are related to hearing impairment? *International Journal of Audiology*, 53(3), 392-401.
- Strawbridge, W.J., Wallhagen, M.I., Shema, S.J., & Kaplan, G.A. (2000). Negative Consequences of Hearing Impairment in Old Age: A Longitudinal Analysis. *The Gerontological Society of America*, 40(3), 320-326.
- von Elm, E. , Egger, M., Altman, D.G., Pocock, S.J., Gotsche, P.C., & Vandembroucke, J.P. . (2007). Strengthening the reporting of observational studies in epidemiology (STROBE) statement: guidelines for reporting observational studies. *British Medical Journal*, 335, 806-808.
- Weinstein, B.E., Sirow, L.W., & Moser, S. (2016). Relating hearing aid use to social and emotional loneliness in older adults. *American Journal of Audiology*, 25, 54-61.
- Wiley, T.L., Chappell, R., Carmichael, L., Nondahl, D.M., & Cruickshanks, K.L. (2008). Changes in hearing threshold over 10 years in older adults. *Journal of American Academy of Audiology*, 19(4), 281-371.

Woods, D.L., Doss, Z., Herron, T.J., Arbogast, T., Younus, M., Ettlinger, M., & Yund, E.W.

(2015). Speech perception in older hearing impaired listeners: benefits of perceptual training. *PLoS One*, 10(3), 1-25.

World Health Organization. (2001). *International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health*. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization.

Yamasoba, T., Lin, F.R., Someya, S., Kashio, A., Sakamoto, T., & Kondo, K. (2013). Current concepts in age-related hearing loss: epidemiology and mechanistic pathways. *Hearing Research*, 303, 30-38.

Table 1: Demographic and Other Characteristics Comparing Clients With No Deterioration and Across Multiple Levels of Hearing Deterioration

Item	Category	All (n = 59,188)	No deterioration (n = 54,364)	1-point deterioration (n = 4,243)	2-point deterioration (n = 540)	3-point deterioration (n = 41)
% (n)						
Age	Mean years (SD)	83.5 (7.5)	83.4 (7.5)	85.4 (6.9)	85.5 (6.7)	82.2 (6.8)
	65-74 years (37.9% = male)	14.4 (8,547)	14.9 (8,132)	8.4 (357)	9.3 (50)	19.5 (8)
	75-84 years (35.3% = male)	39.4 (23,308)	39.7 (21,602)	35.5 (1,506)	33.5 (181)	46.3 (19)
	85+ years (30.5% = male)	46.2 (27,333)	45.3 (24,630)	56.1 (2,380)	57.2 (309)	34.2 (14)
Gender	Female	66.5 (39,381)	66.7 (36,243)	64.8 (2,748)	66.7 (360)	73.2 (30)
	Male	33.5 (19,807)	33.3 (18,121)	35.2 (1,495)	33.3 (180)	26.8 (11)
Marital status	Married	40.3 (23,867)	40.4 (21,985)	38.7 (1,643)	40.2 (217)	53.7 (22)
	Never married/ separated/divorced	10.4 (6,143)	10.5 (5,684)	9.6 (405)	9.6 (52)	4.9 (2)
	Widowed	49.3 (29,178)	49.1 (26,695)	51.7 (2,195)	50.2 (271)	41.5 (17)
Education	Post-secondary	8.5 (4,518)	8.6 (4,186)	8.1 (298)	7.4 (33)	2.8 (1)
	College/trade	12.7 (6,760)	12.7 (6,225)	12.5 (464)	14.6 (65)	16.7 (6)
	High school	17.4 (9,220)	17.4 (8,477)	17.7 (654)	19.1 (85)	11.1 (4)
	Some/no high school	61.4 (32,551)	61.4 (29,979)	61.7 (2,285)	58.9 (262)	69.4 (25)
Expression	Understood	63.4 (37,510)	64.0 (34,786)	58.1 (2,466)	46.1 (249)	21.9 (9)
	Usually understood	20.5 (12,137)	20.2 (10,952)	24.6 (1,044)	25.2 (136)	12.2 (5)
	Often understood	9.0 (5,323)	8.9 (4,820)	10.1 (429)	13.7 (74)	0.0 (0)
	Sometimes understood	5.2 (3,084)	5.2 (2,797)	5.3 (266)	9.6 (52)	21.9 (9)
	Rarely understood	1.9 (1,122)	1.8 (997)	1.8 (78)	5.4 (29)	43.9 (18)
Comprehension	Understands	59.7 (35,299)	60.1 (32,931)	50.3 (2,133)	42.4 (229)	14.6 (6)
	Usually understands	22.2 (13,133)	21.6 (11,756)	29.1 (1,235)	25.2 (136)	14.6 (6)
	Often understands	9.9 (5,881)	9.7 (5,290)	11.9 (504)	15.6 (84)	7.3 (3)

Item	Category	All (n = 59,188)	No deterioration (n = 54,364)	1-point deterioration (n = 4,243)	2-point deterioration (n = 540)	3-point deterioration (n = 41)
% (n)						
	Sometimes understands	6.7 (3,985)	6.6 (3,602)	7.2 (304)	12.2 (66)	31.7 (13)
	Rarely understands	1.5 (879)	1.4 (774)	1.6 (67)	4.6 (25)	31.7 (13)
Experienced decline in communication in last 90 days		13.6 (8,064)	12.7 (6,915)	22.6 (958)	31.8 (172)	46.3 (19)
Primary caregiver expresses feelings of distress		20.2 (11,980)	20.0 (10,871)	22.1 (935)	29.1 (157)	41.5 (17)
Disease Diagnosis (response = yes)						
Stroke		21.7 (12,831)	21.8 (11,829)	20.6 (874)	21.5 (116)	29.3 (12)
Coronary artery disease		29.5 (17,463)	29.4 (15,955)	31.5 (1,338)	30.0 (162)	19.5 (8)
Alzheimer's disease		9.9 (5,857)	10.0 (5,413)	8.5 (361)	13.0 (70)	31.7 (13)
Dementia		20.6 (12,197)	20.4 (11,118)	21.9 (930)	25.0 (135)	34.1 (14)
Head trauma		0.9 (547)	0.9 (514)	0.6 (25)	1.3 (7)	2.4 (1)
Parkinson's disease		5.6 (3,301)	5.6 (3,042)	5.1 (215)	7.4 (40)	9.8 (4)
Diabetes		27.4 (16,236)	27.6 (14,999)	25.7 (1,092)	24.6 (133)	29.3 (12)
Number of morbidities present	1	8.2 (4,889)	8.3 (4,513)	7.8 (332)	7.8 (42)	4.9 (2)
	2	17.0 (10,043)	17.0 (9,245)	16.2 (688)	18.7 (101)	21.9 (9)
	3 or more	74.8 (44,256)	74.7 (40,606)	75.9 (3,223)	73.5 (397)	73.2 (30)
Health Index Scales						
Activities of Daily Living (ADL) Hierarchy Scale						
No/mild impairment (0-1)		59.9 (35,447)	60.3 (32,784)	56.6 (2,402)	46.7 (252)	21.9 (9)
Moderate/severe impairment (2-6)		40.1 (23,741)	39.7 (21,580)	43.4 (1,841)	53.3 (288)	78.1 (32)
Instrumental Activities of Daily Living (IADL) Capacity Scale						
Some difficulty in 1 area (0-1)		5.5 (3,238)	5.6 (3,062)	3.7 (158)	3.3 (18)	0.0 (0)
Great difficulty in 1+ area (2-6)		94.5 (55,950)	94.4 (51,302)	96.3 (4,085)	96.7 (522)	100.0 (41)
Cognitive Performance Scale (CPS)						
Intact/mild impairment (0-2)		79.7 (47,171)	79.9 (43,412)	79.8 (3,384)	67.9 (367)	19.5 (8)
Moderate/severe impairment (3-6)		20.3(12,005)	20.1 (10,940)	20.2 (859)	32.1 (173)	80.5 (33)

Item	Category	All (n = 59,188)	No deterioration (n = 54,364)	1-point deterioration (n = 4,243)	2-point deterioration (n = 540)	3-point deterioration (n = 41)
% (n)						
Pain Scale						
No pain/less than daily pain (0-1)		45.2 (26,726)	45.3 (24,598)	44.0 (1,867)	44.3 (239)	53.7 (22)
Daily/severe pain (2-3)		54.8 (32,461)	54.7 (29,765)	56.0 (2,376)	55.7 (301)	46.3 (19)
Depression Rating Scale (DRS)						
No signs/symptoms (0-2)		81.8 (48,396)	82.1(44,617)	78.6 (3,334)	76.1 (411)	82.9 (34)
Signs/symptoms (3-14)		18.2 (10,792)	17.9 (9,747)	21.4 (909)	23.9 (129)	17.1 (7)
Health, End-Stage Disease and Signs and Symptoms (CHESS) Scale						
Mild/moderate health instability (0-2)		85.3 (50,496)	85.8 (46,623)	80.7 (3,422)	77.4 (418)	80.5 (33)
Severe health instability (3-5)		14.7 (8,692)	14.2 (7,741)	19.3 (821)	22.6 (122)	19.5 (8)

Table 2: Unadjusted Demographic and Other Characteristics Comparing Clients With No Deterioration (n = 54,364) to Two Different Levels of Hearing Deterioration

Item	Category	1-point deterioration (n = 4,243)	2 or 3-point deterioration (n = 581)
Age	65-74 years	Reference	Reference
	75-84 years	1.58 (1.41, 1.77)	1.45 (1.09, 1.94)
	85+ years	2.16 (1.94, 2.41)	1.94 (1.46, 2.56)
Gender	Female	Reference	Reference
	Male	1.09 (1.02, 1.16)	0.98 (0.82, 1.17)
Marital status	Married	Reference	Reference
	Never married/separated/divorced	0.95 (0.85, 1.07)	0.87 (0.65, 1.18)
	Widowed	1.10 (1.03, 1.18)	0.99 (0.84, 1.18)
Education	Post-secondary	Reference	Reference
	College/trade	1.06 (0.91, 1.23)	1.38 (0.93, 2.04)
	High school	1.07 (0.93, 1.23)	1.33 (0.91, 1.94)
	Some/no high school	1.11 (0.98, 1.25)	1.19 (0.84, 1.67)
Expression	Understood	Reference	Reference
	Usually understood	0.91 (0.84, 0.99)	0.93 (0.75, 1.17)
	Often understood	0.73 (0.64, 0.84)	1.13 (0.83, 1.53)
	Sometimes understood	0.64 (0.53, 0.78)	1.15 (0.76, 1.74)
	Rarely understood	0.48 (0.33, 0.70)	2.44 (1.51, 3.94)
Comprehension	Understands	Reference	Reference
	Usually understands	0.94 (0.87, 1.02)	0.79 (0.63, 0.99)
	Often understands	0.72 (0.63, 0.82)	1.12 (0.84, 1.49)
	Sometimes understands	0.68 (0.57, 0.81)	0.94 (0.63, 1.40)
	Rarely understands	0.58 (0.40, 0.86)	2.62 (1.58, 4.34)
Experienced decline in communication in last 90 days		0.89 (0.80, 0.99)	0.89 (0.67, 1.17)

Item	Category	1-point deterioration (n = 4,243)	2 or 3-point deterioration (n = 581)
Primary caregiver expresses feelings of distress		0.89 (0.82, 0.97)	1.24 (1.01, 1.53)
Disease Diagnosis (response = yes)			
Stroke		0.89 (0.82, 0.96)	0.85 (0.69, 1.06)
Coronary artery disease		1.04 (0.97, 1.11)	0.94 (0.78, 1.13)
Alzheimer's disease		0.80 (0.72, 0.90)	1.30 (1.01, 1.67)
Dementia (other than Alzheimer's disease)		0.95 (0.88, 1.03)	1.27 (1.04, 1.55)
Head trauma		0.44 (0.27, 0.71)	0.75 (0.28, 2.02)
Parkinson's disease		0.85 (0.73, 0.98)	1.31 (0.94, 1.81)
Diabetes		0.91 (0.85, 0.98)	0.88 (0.73, 1.06)
Number of morbidities present	1	Reference	Reference
	2	0.98 (0.87, 1.11)	0.91 (0.68, 1.21)
	3 or more	0.92 (0.83, 1.02)	0.73 (0.57, 0.93)
Health Index Scales			
Activities of Daily Living (ADL) Hierarchy Scale			
No/mild impairment (0-1)		Reference	Reference
Moderate/severe impairment (2-6)		0.90 (0.84, 0.97)	1.15 (0.97, 1.37)
Instrumental Activities of Daily Living (IADL) Difficulty Scale			
Some difficulty in 1 area (0-1)		Reference	Reference
Great difficulty in 1+ area (2-6)		1.08 (0.95, 1.22)	1.40 (0.97, 2.01)
Cognitive Performance Scale (CPS)			
Intact/mild impairment (0-2)		Reference	Reference
Moderate/severe impairment (3-6)		0.68 (0.62, 0.76)	1.36 (1.08, 1.64)
Pain Scale			
No pain/less than daily pain (0-1)		Reference	Reference
Daily/severe pain (2-3)		0.97 (0.91, 1.03)	0.83 (0.71, 0.98)
Depression Rating Scale (DRS)			

Item	Category	1-point deterioration (n = 4,243)	2 or 3-point deterioration (n = 581)
No signs/symptoms (0-2)		Reference	Reference
Signs/symptoms (3-14)		0.91 (0.83, 1.00)	1.01 (0.81, 1.26)
Health, End-Stage Disease and Signs and Symptoms (CHESS) Scale			
Mild/moderate health instability (0-2)		Reference	Reference
Severe health instability (3-5)		1.01 (0.94, 1.07)	1.06 (0.90, 1.25)

Table 3: Multinomial regression model analysis examining important risk factors for the development of a 1-point or a 2 or 3-point deterioration in hearing

Variables in model	Item	1-point deterioration	2 or 3-point deterioration
Age	65-74	Reference	Reference
	75-84	1.60 (1.42, 1.80)	1.39 (1.02, 1.88)
	85+	2.21 (1.97, 2.48)	1.94 (1.45, 2.61)
Gender	Female	Reference	Reference
	Male	1.13 (1.06, 1.21)	1.01 (0.84, 1.21)
Presence of dementia (other than Alzheimer's disease)	No	Reference	Reference
	Yes	0.91 (0.83, 0.99)	1.32 (1.07, 1.63)
Presence of Alzheimer's disease	No	Reference	Reference
	Yes	0.79 (0.70, 0.90)	1.37 (1.04, 1.80)
Communication decline in last 90 days	No	Reference	Reference
	Yes	0.92 (0.82, 1.03)	0.78 (0.57, 1.05)
Level of education completed	Post-secondary	Reference	Reference
	College/trade	1.08 (0.95, 1.22)	1.17 (0.83, 1.65)
	High school	1.06 (0.92, 1.21)	1.32 (0.90, 1.93)
	Some/no high school	1.04 (0.90, 1.21)	1.37 (0.92, 2.03)