



Background Sounds and Hearing Aid Users: a Scoping Review

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3 **Background sounds and hearing aid users:**
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5 **a scoping review**
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41 20 Keywords: hearing impairment, annoyance, aversiveness, interference, complaint,
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43 21 amplification, outcomes, satisfaction, acclimatization, non-auditory influences
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60**ABSTRACT**

Objectives: A scoping review focused on background sounds and adult hearing aid users, including aspects of aversiveness and interference. The aim was to establish the current body of knowledge, identify knowledge gaps, and to suggest possible future directions for research.

Design: Data were gathered using a systematic search strategy, consistent with scoping review methodology.

Study Sample: Searches of public databases between 1988 and 2014 returned 1182 published records. After exclusions for duplicates and out-of- scope works, 75 records remained for further analysis. Content analysis was used to group the records into five separate themes.

Results: Content analysis indicated numerous themes relating to background sounds. Five broad emergent themes addressed the development and validation of outcome instruments, satisfaction surveys, assessments of hearing aid technology and signal processing, acclimatization to the device post-fitting, and non-auditory influences on benefit and satisfaction.

Conclusions: A large proportion of hearing aid users still find particular hearing aid features and attributes when listening in background sounds. Many conclusions are limited by methodological drawbacks in study design and too many different outcome instruments. Future research needs to address these issues, while controlling for hearing aid fitting.

48 INTRODUCTION

49 Hearing loss is a major public health issue affecting over 164 million over the age of
50 65 worldwide - 33% of the world's population above 65 years, according to the most
51 recent World Health Organization estimates (Stevens et al., 2013). The most
52 common form of treatment for hearing loss in adults is the provision of a hearing aid.
53 However, hearing aid adoption has remained stubbornly low, despite improvements
54 in technology and fitting. In the United States, of an estimated 26.7 million persons
55 with hearing loss > 25 dB, only 3.6 million use a hearing aid (Chien & Lin 2012).
56 This amounts to more than 22 million adults with unaided hearing loss in the United
57 States alone.

58 If a person has unsuccessful or negative hearing aid experiences then he/she
59 will be less likely to use the device. Difficulty with background sounds is consistently
60 listed as one of the major problems adult listeners have with hearing aids (e.g.,
61 Brooks 1985; Hickson et al. 2010; Palmer et al. 2006). This article reports a review of
62 what has been written in the public domain about background sounds and adult
63 hearing aid users, especially from the perspective of aversiveness, interference,
64 annoyance, complaint (or satisfaction). Background sounds include any sort of
65 sound that is not the targeted focus of listening. We used a scoping review which is a
66 rigorous technique to summarize relevant literature in a field of interest (Levac et al.,
67 2010). It sought to identify where knowledge has been established, where findings
68 are suggestive but not definitive, where there are gaps in the existing body of
69 knowledge and where new research might be directed (cf. Arksey & O'Malley 2005).

70 In an earlier scoping review about non-usage of hearing aids in adults,
71 McCormack and Fortnum (2013) identified 10 published articles that systematically
72 examined the principle reasons for non-usage. Five of those 10 articles mentioned
73 "*noisy situations/background noise*" (literal wording given by the authors) as a

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3 74 motivating reason, with such responses ranging from 22 to 52% (see Table II in
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5 75 McCormack & Fortnum 2013). Since this topic is somewhat broad, here we briefly
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7 76 summarize the descriptions given by those five reports, in chronological order.
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10 77 Kochkin (2000) reported the results of MarkeTrak V survey series in which
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12 78 2,720 hearing aid consumers were contacted and asked to respond, in narrative
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14 79 form, to their hearing aid experiences. The theme of background sounds included
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16 80 reports that hearing aids did not work in difficult listening situations or amplified loud
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18 81 noises sometimes painfully, or that background noise was annoying, distracting, or
19
20 82 unacceptable. Tomita et al. (2001) used the Consumer Assessment Strategy test
21
22 83 battery with 59 hearing aid users. Of those, 22% listed "*picks up background noise*"
23
24 84 (Table 6, pp. 287) as their reason for non-use, but no further elaboration was given.
25
26 85 Vuorialho et al. (2006) conducted structured interviews of 76 hearing aid recipients
27
28 86 about their experiences. Interviewees were asked about reasons for non-use, and
29
30 87 "*Background noise amplified by hearing aid*" (Table 3, pp. 357) was mentioned by
31
32 88 56% as their primary reason for non-use. However, the methodology for arriving at
33
34 89 this theme from the qualitative data was not specified.
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38 90 Bertoli et al. (2009) conducted a survey of hearing aid users. Respondents
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40 91 who had indicated that they used their aids only occasionally (n=990) or never
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42 92 (n=96) were asked to select the underlying reasons from pre-defined options on a
43
44 93 questionnaire. "*Noisy situations are disturbing*" (Table 5, pp. 187) was the most
45
46 94 frequently selected response (52% of respondents).
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48
49 95 Hartley et al. (2010) administered a questionnaire to 322 elderly hearing aid
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51 96 owners. Among the 78 (24%) who reported never using their hearing aid, 22 people
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53 97 stated their principal reason was that sounds were "*too noisy*" (pp. 646). The
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55 98 participants were not asked to explain their response; but the authors speculated
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57 99 that some misinterpreted the question. For example, a participant may have reported
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3 100 that his or her aid was “*too noisy*” due to the maximum power output being set too
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5 101 high or when used in an environment of high-level background noise.
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7 102 Of **these** five articles identified by McCormack and Fortnum (2013), none of
8
9 103 them provided a detailed explanation about the exact nature of the problems that
10
11 104 adult hearing aid users experience with background sounds. From the literature
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13 105 reviewed thus far, such a problem is not well-defined.
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16 106 The present scoping review **summarized** what is known about background
17
18 107 sounds and adult hearing aid users, including aspects of aversiveness and
19
20 108 interference. The review specifically examined literature controlled by commercial
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22 109 publishers (e.g. peer-reviewed journals) and also grey research literature which
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24 110 refers to more informally published academic material (such as technical reports,
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26 111 conference abstracts, consumer surveys, working papers from research groups or
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28 112 committees and student theses).
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31 113 **METHODS**

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34 114 The methods for this scoping review were largely based on the following steps
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36 115 outlined in Arksey and O’Malley (2005): a) identifying potentially relevant records; b)
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38 116 selecting relevant records; c) extracting **data items**; and, d) collating, summarizing
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40 117 and reporting the results. This final step included a thematic analysis to group the
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42 118 records according to their main findings relevant to the goal of the present review.
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44 119 We chose not to undertake a consultation of consumers and stakeholders as a final
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46 120 (optional) step (cf. Arksey and O’Malley 2005).
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49 121 **Identifying potentially relevant records**

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52 122 Five search engines were employed: PubMed, Web of Science, PsycINFO, CINAHL
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54 123 and Google Scholar. Google Scholar was used to identify grey literature records, in
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56 124 addition to peer-reviewed articles. For inclusion as a grey literature record, the full
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3 125 text had to be accessible (such as in a conference proceeding, web page or direct
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5 126 from the author).
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7 127 The search was limited to records produced between January 1st 1988 and
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9 128 January 31st 2014. This start date was chosen to reflect the first complete calendar
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11 129 year following the introduction of digital hearing aids and the time period of the
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13 130 review encompasses the evolution of digital signal processing including compression
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15 131 and noise reduction, as well as directional microphone technology.
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18 132 [Insert Figure 1 about here]
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20 133 Overall, we used four independent search strategies applied to each of the
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22 134 search engines in turn. The precise terms defined within these four search strategies
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24 135 are reported in Figure 1. One strategy identified records relating to hearing aids and
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26 136 sound or noise, one identified records relating to hearing aids and annoyance,
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28 137 aversiveness or interference, one centered on complaints from hearing aid users,
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30 138 and one focused on satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) with hearing aids. Interference
31
32 139 could include, but was not restricted to, energetic and informational masking, and the
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34 140 term “masking” was not used as an explicit search term. The sets of search terms
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36 141 were applied to the titles and abstracts only, and the terms ‘tinnitus’, ‘cochlear
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38 142 implant’ and ‘bone conduction’ were used as exclusions, following McCormack and
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40 143 Fortnum (2013). Wherever the search engine made it possible (PubMed and
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42 144 PsycINFO), search results also excluded research conducted with animals and
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44 145 children.
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49 146 These search strategies returned many thousands of records using Google
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51 147 Scholar and only the first 30 records (corresponding to the first three pages) were
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53 148 examined for relevant titles. We acknowledge that the completeness of our search
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55 149 was limited in this respect, but since Google Scholar orders results by relevance, we
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3 150 are confident that **the most cited** records were considered. These search strategies
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5 151 returned a total of 1182 records, which were then pooled together for further scrutiny.

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7 152 A supplementary search stage occurred later in the process, because it was
8
9 153 informed by the title selection of the initial 1182 records. This stage is shown in the
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11 154 lower right hand side of Figure 1.

14 155 **Selecting relevant records**

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16 156 Duplicate records (n=377) were excluded. The next selection step considered titles
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18 157 only and the criterion for exclusion was based solely on whether the title indicated
19
20 158 that the content of the record was within the scope of the research question, with no
21
22 159 bias according to the number and type of records retained. A total of 560 records
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24 160 were excluded mostly because they involved children, animals, cochlear implants,
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26 161 bone-anchored hearing aids, drug trials, or where the emphasis was on another
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28 162 sensory modality, such as vision or haptic perception, and hearing was a secondary
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30 163 focus. Scoping reviews ideally avoid bias by sharing tasks across multiple co-
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32 164 authors (Levac et al. 2010). Hence, the first author conducted the initial selection
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34 165 process, and this was subsequently checked by the second author for agreement
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36 166 with the 'out of scope' decisions. One record was reinstated after discussion. Eight
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38 167 records were excluded because the full-text beyond the title was not available, and
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40 168 two records were not available in English. This stage of the selection process
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42 169 retained 234 records.

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47 170 The process of identifying potentially relevant records was iterative. Three
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49 171 further search strategies identified **12** additional records **bringing the total to 246**.
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51 172 One search on other work that referenced those records from the list of 234
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53 173 identified three new records. Three further records were identified by searching on
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55 174 the names of seven key researchers who appeared frequently in the selected list of
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57 175 records indicating that they were particularly active and influential within the scope of
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176 the topic (Bentler, Cox, Freyaldenhoven, Gatehouse, Humes, Keidser, and Nabelek).
177 A final search consulted known literature reviews on the topic identified within the list
178 of 234 and six additional records were identified by this strategy.

179 Both authors independently conducted the second selection step, which
180 considered the record abstract (or page one of technical reports etc). Again the
181 criterion for exclusion was based solely on whether the content of the record was
182 within the scope of the research question, with no considerations as to the number
183 and type of records retained. Five further records were excluded because they were
184 judged to be out of scope. A large number of records (n=166) were excluded
185 because they were judged not to provide sufficient information to extract meaningful
186 data as described in the data extraction procedure. These records focused on other
187 hearing related issues, such as hearing status, or need for recovery after work.
188 Overall therefore, 75 records were passed onto the stage of data extraction. Full
189 references to all these records are listed in the Supplementary Materials, available in
190 the online version of the journal.

191 **Extracting data items**

192 A template for data extraction was agreed upon by both authors who then
193 independently extracted information on the main findings of the record and the
194 findings that were directly relevant to our scoping review question. Other data items
195 were considered: year, country of origin, participant population, hearing status of
196 participants, sample size, research setting, type of intervention, research design,
197 interval between assessments, and outcome measures. These data items provide
198 key information about the scope and details of each record, enabling the authors to
199 look for common themes and to identify possible gaps in the literature. Data
200 extraction was conducted independently by the two authors. A meeting was
201 convened to resolve discrepancies on data extraction and agree on a final data set.

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3 202 **Collating themes, summarizing and reporting the results**

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5 203 Seventy-five records represent a large amount of information. To provide a structure
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7 204 for the subsequent content analysis and narrative synthesis, the records were first
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9 205 organized thematically. To do this, authors independently noted the main theme for
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11 206 each record and then met to discuss possible thematic structures, using the criteria
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13 207 that themes should be broad and should adequately represent all of the records, but
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15 208 with no single theme containing <5 records. Authors then independently reclassified
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17 209 all 75 records according to these themes and met to agree on a classification. While
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19 210 we note that the content of individual records does not necessarily fall exclusively in
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21 211 one theme or another, our classification focused on the main findings of the record
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23 212 as they relate to the present research question.

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27 213 **RESULTS**

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29 214 Five broad themes were defined: 1. Outcome instruments. This theme was focused
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31 215 on development and/or validation of specific tools for measuring hearing aid benefit
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33 216 and those tools included items on background sounds. This includes questionnaires
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35 217 and tests of listening performance. 2. General satisfaction. This theme gathered all
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37 218 records that reported ratings of general satisfaction with hearing aids. Sometimes
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39 219 this information has been gathered by questionnaire, but we have considered all
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41 220 those records relating to overall satisfaction as a theme in its own right. 3. Hearing
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43 221 aid technology. This theme included all records which primarily reported the effects
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45 222 of new technological features on listening performance in background sounds. 4.
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47 223 Acclimatization. This theme encompassed records that focused on how hearing aids
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49 224 users adapt to their devices with respect to background sounds. 5. Non-auditory
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51 225 influences. The final theme included all records whose primary aim was to
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53 226 investigate how aided listening was affected by various non-auditory factors.
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3 227 The remaining Results section is organized in two parts. The first part
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5 228 provides an overview of the thematic analysis, in particular describing the scope and
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7 229 the main findings of the records grouped according to the five themes. Where
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10 230 appropriate, this part also reports some of the extracted details of the research
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12 231 design, type of intervention and interval between assessments. The second part
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14 232 provides an overview of the remaining data extraction across the five themes. By
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16 233 pooling together details of the data items across themes, we describe some of the
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18 234 general trends to emerge from the literature. These are reported under the following
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20 235 subheadings: Evolution over time (i.e. year and country of origin), Internal validity
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22 236 (i.e. the participant population, sample size and hearing status of participants), Core
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24 237 measures (outcome measures), and Ecological validity (i.e. research setting).

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27 238 **Thematic analysis**

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29 239 **Outcome instrument** (n=14). These records report development or validation of an
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31 240 outcome instrument, either self-report questionnaires or tests of listening
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33 241 performance that involve background sounds. Questionnaires are the Profile of
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35 242 Hearing Aid Performance (PHAP, Cox & Gilmore 1990), Abbreviated Profile of
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37 243 Hearing Aid Benefit (APHAB, Cox & Alexander 1995), Satisfaction with Amplification
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39 244 in Daily Life (SADL, Cox & Alexander, 1999), Performance Inventory for Profound
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41 245 and Severe Loss (PIPSL, Owens & Raggio 1988), and Profile of Aided Loudness
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43 246 (PAL, Palmer et al. 1999). Many of these instruments have been motivated by their
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45 247 clinical application; such as predicting likely success with amplification or
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47 248 troubleshooting an unsuccessful fitting (APHAB, Cox & Alexander 1995) or using the
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49 249 response profiles as a basis for individual or group exercise and discussion (Owens
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51 250 & Raggio 1988). These questionnaires contain items asking about personal
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53 251 experience with background sounds. For example, the PHAP purposefully includes
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55 252 questions on communication in adverse listening conditions and annoyance of
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3 253 environmental sounds. The SADL includes a question about sense of frustration
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5 254 when the hearing aid picks up sounds that negatively affect hearing. We note that
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7 255 these questionnaire items map onto two of our literature search strategies:.
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10 256 interference and aversiveness. One short questionnaire rated loudness with four
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12 257 different environmental sounds (Munro & Patel 1998). Questionnaire data may be
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14 258 limited in value if the respondent's retrospective recall is inaccurate, and so
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16 259 ecological momentary assessment may be a useful alternative. One record reported
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18 260 such a method using a personal digital assistant with daily alerts which prompted
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20 261 participants to answer a short series of outcome describing their experiences with
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22 262 challenging listening situations (Galvez et al. 2012). Comparison with a conventional
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24 263 pre- and post-outcome questionnaire confirmed that this new method did not
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26 264 exacerbate participants' self-perceived hearing handicap and so it is a feasible
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28 265 method worthy of further consideration.

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31 266 A prediction made by Nabelek and colleagues (1991) was that a person's
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33 267 willingness to listen to speech in background noise is more indicative of hearing aid
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35 268 use than a performance score for speech perception in noise. This led to the
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37 269 development of the Acceptable Noise Level (ANL) test. Several records reported
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39 270 convergent validity (high correlations with similar questionnaires) and/or discriminant
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41 271 validity (low correlations with different questionnaires) for the ANL (Freyaldenhoven
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43 272 et al. 2006; 2008), and similarly for PHAP (Purdy & Jerram 1998), PAL (Mackersie
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45 273 2007) and uncomfortable loudness levels (Munro & Patel, 1998). For example, the
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47 274 ANL and APHAB have a low correlation (i.e. high discriminant validity) indicating that
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49 275 they possibly capture different aspects of aided listening (Freyaldenhoven et al.
50
51 276 2008). One record identified from the grey literature was a conference presentation
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53 277 describing a novel test in which participants rate sound exemplars presented at
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55 278 different levels; the Sound Acceptability Test (SAT, Johnson et al. 2012)¹.

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3 279 **General satisfaction** (n=7) Seven records report overall satisfaction ratings with
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5 280 hearing aids. Most evidence comes from consumer surveys. For example,
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7 281 MarkeTrak surveys in the US reveal that approximately one third of respondents are
8
9 282 dissatisfied with the performance of hearing aids in noisy situations (Kochkin 2000:
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11 283 2002; 2005). Hearing aid attributes and listening situations both contribute to general
12
13 284 satisfaction. In Australia, the EARtrak survey of hearing aid users (Hickson et al.
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15 285 2010) reported that some of the strongest predictors of hearing aid outcome were
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17 286 comfort with loud sounds, and conversations in outdoors or in large groups. Again,
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19 287 we note that these variables are associated with interference from and aversiveness
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21 288 of background sounds.
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25 289 A number of smaller scale hearing aid user surveys have also been
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27 290 conducted. In a survey of 175 experienced users, speech in noise was again rated
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29 291 as one of the most important attributes of hearing aids (27%), but also the most
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31 292 frequent source of dissatisfaction (30%) (Meister et al. 2002). A structured telephone
32
33 293 interview with 177 users found 92% satisfaction (Kaplan-Neeman et al. 2012).
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35 294 Satisfaction and hours of hearing aid use per day were closely associated, a
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37 295 relationship that the authors attribute to the acclimatization process. One of the main
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39 296 reasons for dissatisfaction was excessive amplification in background noise.
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43 297 **Hearing aid technology** (n=35). There was one literature review in this theme, but it
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45 298 was published almost 20 years ago (Keidser et al. 1996). The remaining records
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47 299 reported experimental studies assessing hearing aid participants, typically exploring
48
49 300 the effects of prototype or available technological innovations on listening in
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51 301 background noise. Ten records assessed the benefit of hearing aid noise reduction
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53 302 technology for speech communication, consistent with our search strategy of
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55 303 background sounds and interference (Kuk & Tyler 1989; Mueller et al. 2006; Palmer
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57 304 et al. 2006; Chalupper & Powers 2007; Keidser et al. 2007; Bentler et al. 2008;
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3 305 Wang et al. 2009; Zakis et al. 2009; Lowery & Plyler 2010; Liu et al. 2012). Typically
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5 306 repeated measure assessments were conducted in small samples of hearing aid
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7 307 users (n=10-31), within a single test session. Outcomes were tests of speech in
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9 308 noise performance, but the choice of test varied widely across studies. This
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11 309 observation underpins our general conclusion that there is little consensus on the
12
13 310 best way to assess technological features of hearing aids.

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16 311 Six records assessed the effect of compression using a range of methods
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18 312 from questionnaire surveys (Johnson et al. 2010) to repeated-measures design
19
20 313 using speech in noise performance (Dolan & Wonderlick 2000; Gatehouse et al.
21
22 314 2006a) and satisfaction or quality ratings (Noffsinger et al. 2002; Shi et al. 2007) and
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24 315 loudness and satisfaction ratings from the PAL (Blamey & Martin 2009). Five records
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26 316 considered microphone settings comparing omnidirectional with directional (Blamey
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28 317 et al. 2006; Gnewikow et al. 2009; Ricketts et al. 2003; Surr et al. 2002; Walden et al.
29
30 318 2000). All five used a repeated-measures design and mixed outcome instruments
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32 319 (e.g., four used the Connected Speech Test, CST and the Profile of Hearing Aid
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34 320 Benefit, PHAB). Only two experimental studies directly compared analogue and
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36 321 digital hearing aids both using a repeated-measures design (Bille et al. 1998; Wood
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38 322 & Lutman, 2004). Three studies directly compared unilateral and bilateral hearing aid
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40 323 fitting (Cox et al. 2011; Köbler et al. 2001; Marrone et al. 2008). It is interesting to
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42 324 contrast the different conclusions drawn. While questionnaire data demonstrate
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44 325 superior speech in noise listening with two hearing aids (Köbler et al. 2001), 46% of
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46 326 patients actually prefer wearing just one (Cox et al. 2011).

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49 327 Just under one third of the experimental studies reported (13/33) used a
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51 328 combination of performance and self-report measures. The primary performance
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53 329 based outcome was a speech-in-noise threshold (n=10 studies), while the PHAB or
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55 330 its abbreviated form was also commonly administered (n=12 studies). Eight of the
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3 331 latter studies specifically focused on the impact of hearing aids on the aversiveness
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5 332 of background sounds; while two others measured a related concept, annoyance,
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7 333 using a self-rating scale. Again these findings are consistent with our search strategy
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9 334 of background sounds and aversiveness.

10
11 335 In summary, the main finding is that new technological innovations usually
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13 336 improve listening performance in noise, particularly on tests conducted in a
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15 337 controlled environment. Exceptions are evident. For example, Palmer et al. (2006)
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17 338 reported that amplification with digital noise reduction increased problems on the
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19 339 aversiveness subscale of the APHAB at three-week's hearing aid post-fitting. The
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21 340 impact on real-world listening performance is likely to be complex as Gatehouse et
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23 341 al. (2006b) noted that real-world benefits of technological features may differ
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25 342 between individuals according to their social lifestyle (i.e. everyday listening
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27 343 situations). Eighteen studies had 30 or fewer participants and so it is unclear how
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29 344 reliable and generalizable are the results reported.

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34 345 A general observation is that a benefit on one measure does not necessarily
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36 346 predict a benefit on the other (e.g., Abrams et al. 2012; Arlinger et al. 2007; Keidser
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38 347 1995; Walden et al. 2000; Zakis et al. 2009). For example, Walden et al. (2000)
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40 348 concluded that while directional microphones improved scores on the CST compared
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42 349 with omnidirectional microphones, they did little to alleviate self-reported
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44 350 aversiveness of background sounds (using the Profile of Hearing Aid Benefit,
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46 351 PHAB). Moreover, the participants did not notice a difference in everyday listening.
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48 352 Keidser (1995) found that reducing annoyance and maximizing speech compression
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50 353 required different hearing aid settings, a more sloping linear response (authors' term)
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52 354 benefitted understanding speech in low-frequency noise, whereas low frequency
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54 355 compression minimized the annoyance of low-frequency noise. Arlinger et al. (2007)
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56 356 concluded that digital hearing aids reduced interference from background sound for
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3 357 speech perception, but did not affect self-reported aversiveness. These findings
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5 358 suggest that interference on speech by background noise and the experience of the
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7 359 background noise itself seem to be two somewhat independent factors affecting
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9 360 hearing aid success.

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12 361 **Acclimatization** (n=8). In the context of the scoping review, acclimatization refers to
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14 362 the process of getting used to hearing aids with respect to background sounds. All
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16 363 eight records reported experimental studies, assessing new and experienced
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18 364 hearing aid users in either repeated measures or parallel-group designs. One of the
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20 365 largest studies was a follow-up of 164 participants who were tested six years after
21
22 366 their initial assessment and hearing-aid fitting (Takahashi et al. 2007). Only the
23
24 367 PHAB questionnaire was administered at both time points. Most subscales of the
25
26 368 PHAB, including ease of communication and background noise, revealed a long-
27
28 369 term benefit of about 25-35 points (benefit is calculated as the unaided minus the
29
30 370 aided score). However, scores on the aversiveness subscale of PHAB (which asks
31
32 371 about listening to potentially aversive background sounds) remained around a
33
34 372 negative 10 points across the six year period indicating ongoing problems. The same
35
36 373 pattern of results has been reported by Haskell et al. (2002) for 360 participants over
37
38 374 a three-month period. Ongoing problems in adapting to background noise and group
39
40 375 conversations are common complaints (Stephens & Meredith, 1991), with difficulties
41
42 376 remaining even 12 months after hearing aid fitting (Bentler et al. 1993).

43
44 377 A different perspective is afforded by studies reporting listening performance.
45
46 378 For example, Ahlstrom et al. (2009) assessed 21 hearing aid users' willingness to
47
48 379 tolerate background sounds in a spatial version of the Acceptable Noise Level (ANL)
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50 380 procedure. After 3-6 month acclimatization period, they found that people tolerated
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52 381 less favourable SNRs with hearing aids than without. However, the effects were on
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3 382 the order of 2 dB, which may not translate into a noticeable improvement in everyday
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5 383 listening. Munro and Lutman (2004) have also cautioned on the applicability of ANL
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7 384 measures to hearing aid use in the real-world.
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9
10 385 In summary, despite the small number of experimental studies there is some
11
12 386 agreement that hearing aid users do not adapt to potentially aversive background
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14 387 sounds over time.
15

16 388 **Non-auditory influences** (n=9). One record was a literature review that considered
17
18 389 how hearing aid satisfaction is related to intrinsic (experience, expectation,
19
20 390 personality and attitude), and extrinsic (usage, type of hearing aids, sound quality,
21
22 391 listening situations, and problems in hearing aid use) influences (Wong et al., 2003).
23
24 392 The remaining records were experimental studies investigating how aided listening is
25
26 393 affected by various non-auditory factors. One record considered whether hearing aid
27
28 394 fitting and verification influenced ratings of aversiveness (using the APHAB), but
29
30 395 demonstrated this not to be so (Abrams et al. 2012). The remaining records
31
32 396 considered a range of influences, namely cognitive ageing (Helfer & Freyman 2008),
33
34 397 working memory capacity (Ng et al. 2013) and verbal processing speed (Picou et al.
35
36 398 2013), personality factors (Cox et al. 1999; 2007) and social lifestyle (Gatehouse et
37
38 399 al. 2006b; Wu & Bentler 2012). These influencing factors have been assessed in
39
40 400 samples of less than 30 participants, with the exception of one study on listening
41
42 401 effort (n=50, Gatehouse et al. 2006) and the two studies on personality (n=83 and
43
44 402 n=205, Cox et al. 1999; 2007, respectively). There were no outcome measures in
45
46 403 common across records. Hence, it is not possible to make any reliable or
47
48 404 generalizable conclusions from the present literature.
49

50 405 **Other** (n=2). **Two** remaining records did not easily fit into any of the above themes
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52 406 and so are reported here as 'other' (Kochkin, 2000; Davies et al., 2001). **The first**
53
54 407 **was a report from the MarkeTrak survey which gathered reasons for hearing aid non-**
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3 408 use through personal narratives from almost one million respondents. The second
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5 409 described a qualitative social survey determining the extent to which acoustic
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7 410 problems in the built environment affect the elderly.

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10 411 **General trends**

11 412 A number of different variables were charted to spot any general trends: year,
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13 413 country of origin, participant population, hearing status of participants, sample size,
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15 414 research setting, research design, type of intervention, interval between
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17 415 assessments, and outcome measures.

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20 416 **Evolution over time** Figure 2 plots the count of records over time. From the mid-
21
22 417 1990's there was a step change in the number of records indicating growing
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24 418 awareness and interest from the research community in the issues of background
25
26 419 sounds for hearing aids users. The majority of records (n=49) emanate from the
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28 420 USA, followed by Europe (n=17) and Australia (n=9). Within Europe, 47% of records
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30 421 were led by UK authors. This distribution largely reflects the influence of a few major
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32 422 laboratories with a high number of outputs.

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36 423 [Insert Figure 2 about here]

37
38 424 **Internal validity** Internal validity refers to the study design and conduct. Ideally,
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40 425 intervention studies should have a high internal validity, so that any observed
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42 426 changes can be attributed to the intervention, not to other possible causes.
43
44 427 Twenty-eight out of the 34 records evaluating hearing aid technology used a
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46 428 repeated-measures design. Under some circumstances, the effect being measured
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48 429 may change because of the number of times the participant is tested. Repeated
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50 430 measures designs are most likely to be affected as scores are susceptible to
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52 431 regression to the mean, and for performance measures practice effects can be
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54 432 another confounding factor. While this design might be preferred given the
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3 433 heterogeneity of the test population, six records did include a control group which is
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5 434 an effective way to rule out such threats to internal validity.

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9 436 **External validity** External validity refers to the generalizability of the findings.
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11 437 Adequate sample size is a common marker of external validity, and this requires a
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13 438 *priori* justification for the size of the expected effects given the variance of the
14
15 439 measurement scores. Across the 75 records in this scoping review, the sample sizes
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17 440 ranged from 8 to over 3000, with a median of 43 (Figure 3). However, we note that
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19 441 justification of sample size was given in only one record (Cox et al. 2011).

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23 442 [Insert Figure 3 about here]

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25 443

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27 444 **Core measures** Those records that measure outcome using the same instrument
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29 445 (i.e. a 'core' measure) lend themselves to meta-analysis: a powerful way to draw
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31 446 reliable conclusions, especially when individual experimental studies may have
32
33 447 certain methodological limitations such as small sample size. The review highlights a
34
35 448 range of different outcome instruments in use. Of those questionnaire instruments
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37 449 with specific relevance to assessing the effects of background sounds on hearing aid
38
39 450 users, across all 75 records there were the following uses: PHAB (n=8); APHAB
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41 451 (n=12), APHAB aversiveness subscale (n=3), the Glasgow Hearing Aid Benefit
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43 452 Profile (GHABP) (n=8), SADL (n=6), PIPSL (n=1), PAL (n=4) and the Munro and
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45 453 Patel loudness scale (n=2). Use of SADL was most frequent in those records
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47 454 assessing acclimatization or non-auditory factors. Of the performance tests with
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49 455 specific relevance to assessing the effects of background sounds on hearing aid
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51 456 users, across all 75 records there were the following uses: ANL (n=6), SAT (n=1), a
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53 457 speech in noise reception threshold measure (n=12), the Hearing In Noise Test
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3 458 (HINT, n=4), CST (n=4), and the Speech In Noise (SPIN) test (n=2). Use of the CST
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5 459 was limited to those records assessing hearing aid technology.

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7 460 **Ecological validity** Ideally, experimental studies should have a high ecological
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9 461 validity, so that results are relevant to the everyday listening situations that hearing
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11 462 aid users encounter. While the records assessing general satisfaction all involved
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13 463 data collection relating to personal experiences in real-world settings, the records
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15 464 evaluating different effects of hearing aid technology were typically conducted in the
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17 465 laboratory under artificially controlled and constricted listening environments. For
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19 466 example, with a focus on a direct comparison between alternative technological
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21 467 innovations or with respect to a 'standard' hearing aid (e.g., Bille et al. 1999; Dolan &
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23 468 Wonderlick 2000; Marrone et al. 2008), or recruiting patients only if they met certain
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25 469 eligibility criteria based on degree and/or etiology of hearing loss (e.g. Lowery &
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27 470 Plyler 2007; Bentler et al., 2008; Moore & Füllgrabe 2010). Many of the listening
28
29 471 performance tests use different artificial masker noises. The SPIN uses multi-talker
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31 472 babble; the HINT uses speech-spectrum noise, while the CST was originally
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33 473 developed with six-talker babble as noise, but the four records reported here used
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35 474 speech-spectrum noise and the ANL has been implemented using a variety of
36
37 475 different background noises, such as multi-talker babble, cafeteria noise, speech-
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39 476 spectrum noise, or traffic noise. One common aspect in all these tests is that non-
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41 477 speech environmental sounds are greatly underrepresented in these maskers. In
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43 478 fact, Freyaldenhoven et al. (2006) found that listeners' preference for different types
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45 479 of background sound, as measured by the ANL, was not related to their acceptance
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47 480 of background noise.

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55 482 **DISCUSSION**

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3 483 This scoping review explored issues relating to the effects of background noise on
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5 484 hearing aid users in order to identify where knowledge has been established, where
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7 485 findings are suggestive but not definitive, where there are gaps in the existing body
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9 486 of knowledge and where innovative approaches may lie. The discussion gathers
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11 487 these findings together in summary form and makes a number of comments about
12
13 488 topics that warrant further research.

16 489 **Conclusions based on established knowledge**

18 490 A large proportion of hearing aid users (about one third) still find particular features
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20 491 and attributes of their device dissatisfying in the presence of background sounds.
21
22 492 The most common causes for dissatisfaction relate listening in noisy environments
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24 493 and conversations in large groups, as well as the undesirable amplification of
25
26 494 unwanted background sounds that are not the focus of attention. We identified at
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28 495 least two separate recurring concepts underlying the effects of background sounds:
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30 496 i) interference of background sounds on speech communication and, ii) aversiveness
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32 497 of the background sounds. This is evident in the research questions posed by the
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34 498 records shown here, the outcome instruments used, and in some of the findings
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36 499 relating to general satisfaction and hearing aid technology. We do admit that there is
37
38 500 a potential circular bias of the search strategy. However, while we would expect to
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40 501 find issues relating to interference and aversiveness given the choice of search
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42 502 terms, it was not expected that these would be the only themes to recur throughout
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44 503 the process of collating and summarizing the results.

49 504 A wide range of outcome instruments are available for assessing the impact of
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51 505 background noise on aided listening. Development of patient-reported measures
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53 506 tends to have been motivated by clinical application for assessment and
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55 507 rehabilitation, while performance tests focus on laboratory-based measurement of
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57 508 speech perception and comprehension ability in noise under controlled conditions.
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3 509 The PHAB/APHAB are in wide usage across many domains of audiological research
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5 510 (Perez & Edmonds 2012; Granberg et al. 2014), and the topic under review here is
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7 511 no different. In particular, the subscale assessing aversiveness to background
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10 512 sounds has been informative in longitudinal studies as it indicates that hearing aid
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12 513 users do not adapt well to this aspect of aided listening despite years of device
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14 514 usage.

15 515 **Suggestive findings**

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18 516 Substantial research effort has been directed towards the evaluation of hearing aid
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21 517 technologies. Findings indicate that technological innovations usually benefit speech
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23 518 listening performance. However, as previously highlighted by Granberg et al. (2014)
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25 519 most are small scale proof-of-concept studies. This is acceptable for experimental
26
27 520 studies as long as the study design and participant population are carefully
28
29 521 considered. If not, then findings may be unreliable. Our impression from the 75
30
31 522 records reviewed is that study methodology did not always reach such quality
32
33 523 standards (see sections on Internal and External validity). We are certainly not the
34
35 524 first to note this limitation. It is interesting that over 10 years ago, Wong et al. (2003)
36
37 525 similarly concluded, "Inconsistent findings across studies and difficulties in evaluating
38
39 526 the underlying relationships are probably caused by problems with the tools (e.g.
40
41 527 lack of validity) and the methods used to evaluate relationships (e.g. correlation
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43 528 analyses evaluate association and not causal effect)" (pp. 117).

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47 529 While self-ratings of speech communication seem to improve over time as
48
49 530 individuals acclimatize to aided listening, the perceived aversiveness of background
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51 531 noise and listening in challenging noisy situations do not. What exactly determines
52
53 532 the likelihood of successful acclimatization to aided listening is unclear. The greatest
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55 533 evidence concerns personality factors, but a number of other factors apply such as
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57 534 hearing aid fitting and verification, cognitive ability, and social lifestyle. It could be
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3 535 informative to explore this multi-factorial space in order to better understand the time
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5 536 course of acclimatization and to identify which factors might particularly exacerbate
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7 537 or minimize dissatisfaction with background sounds. These could be potential targets
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9 538 for personalized rehabilitation.

539 **Knowledge gaps**

14 540 Very little research has ascertained exactly what sort of background sounds are
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16 541 perceived as annoying or aversive by hearing-aid users in real-life listening
17
18 542 situations. None of the records identified has systematically quantified what
19
20 543 background sounds are deemed annoying by hearing aid users. However, there is at
21
22 544 least one record outside the date range of our search relevant to this issue.
23
24 545 Skagerstrand et al. (2014) recently analysed daily diary recordings made by 60 new
25
26 546 and experienced hearing aid users. Findings indicate two types of sound sources
27
28 547 causing common problems. First, verbal human sounds (55%) are annoying either
29
30 548 where the verbal sounds masked wanted sounds, or simply as acoustical annoyance
31
32 549 (e.g. pitch, level). Second, TV or radio sounds (42%) are annoying when there is a
33
34 550 fluctuating sound level between speech and music or program and commercials.
35
36 551 Age, degree of hearing loss, gender, hearing-aid experience appear to have no
37
38 552 substantial influence, but those with “simple” signal processing devices found verbal
39
40 553 human sounds and vehicles more annoying than those who used “advanced” signal
41
42 554 processing. The authors highlight a need for more thorough investigation about why
43
44 555 some sounds are considered as annoying and what are the determining factors,
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46 556 adding that knowing which background sounds hearing-aid users find annoying and
47
48 557 why could help to target improvements in hearing-aid signal processing. However,
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50 558 this line of research first requires verification of hearing aid fitting, especially in terms
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52 559 of the compression characteristics and loudness limiting so that the alternative
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54 560 explanation of incorrect fitting can be eliminated (cf. Abrams et al. 2012).

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3 561 Our data extraction identified a broad range of outcome instruments for
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5 562 assessing issues related to background noise (benefit of aided listening in
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7 563 background noise and aversiveness). This makes comparisons across records
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9 564 difficult to undertake. This conclusion is in agreement with the more general
10
11 565 systematic review of outcome measures used in research on adults with hearing
12
13 566 loss, conducted by Granberg et al. (2014). While consensus around choice of
14
15 567 outcome instruments is warranted, one of the main challenges may be in overcoming
16
17 568 the potential for researcher bias. The most widely used outcome instruments are
18
19 569 partly explained, not by their wide adoption in the field, but by their use by a small
20
21 570 number of groups with a high number of outputs. Notably, those same groups are
22
23 571 also responsible for the development and validation of each tool. The APHAB/PHAP,
24
25 572 GHABP and ANL are good examples.

29 573 **Future research**

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31 574 The first knowledge gap discussed in the preceding section highlights the need for
32
33 575 further research to address what are the quantitative characteristics of background
34
35 576 sounds which interfere with speech communication and/or are perceived as aversive
36
37 577 (annoying) and to conduct studies while controlling for hearing aid fitting (Abrams et
38
39 578 al., 2012). If there are quantitative characteristics of annoying sounds that can be
40
41 579 differentiated from desirable speech then this new knowledge could help to target
42
43 580 improvements in hearing-aid signal processing, but is likely to be challenging. Some
44
45 581 of that challenge is encapsulated in the disappointing findings of one recent study
46
47 582 exploring the predictive value of various acoustic (e.g. frequency of the spectral peak
48
49 583 and spectral energy 3-16 kHz) and psychoacoustic (e.g. loudness sharpness, and
50
51 584 roughness) dimensions to ratings of the pleasantness of different environmental
52
53 585 soundscapes (Hall et al. 2013). Predictor variables accounted for only 5% of the
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55 586 variance, leaving most of the variance unexplained. Hence further research is
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3 587 needed to define what are the characteristics of individual listeners who are more or
4
5 588 less annoyed by the same sounds (see also Kidd et al. 2007).
6

7 589 The second knowledge gap highlights the need to agree standards for
8
9 590 assessing hearing aid benefit for listening in background noise and the subjective
10
11 591 perception of aversiveness or annoyance. **The wide variety of objective**
12
13 592 **performance-based tests and subjective self-report instruments found in this review**
14
15 593 **highlights the lack of agreement about what instrument to use for assessing hearing**
16
17 594 **aid benefit. Moreover, there are few instruments in use to assess aversiveness and**
18
19 595 **annoyance per se. The International Outcome Inventory for Hearing Aids (IOI-HA) is**
20
21 596 **an attempt to cover a core set of assessment domains (Cox and Alexander 2002)**
22
23 597 **but none of the seven items in the IOI-HA directly measures the effects of**
24
25 598 **background sounds and aided listening.**
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30 599

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54 609

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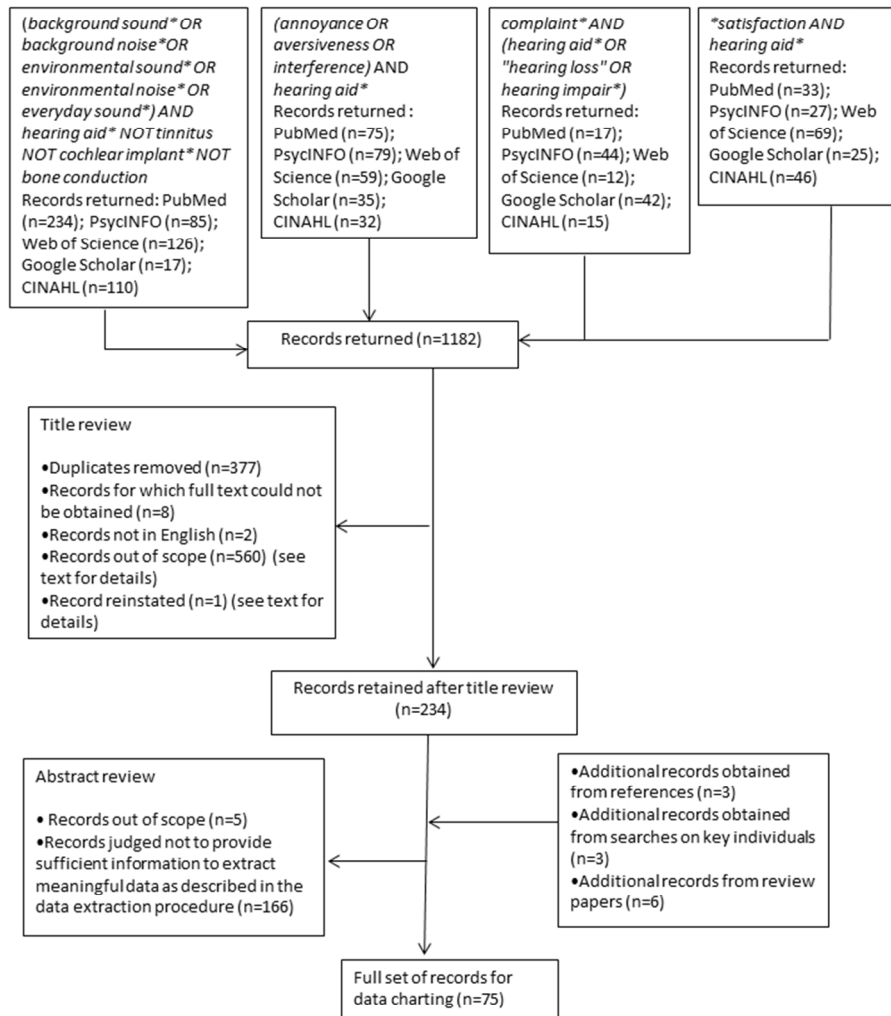
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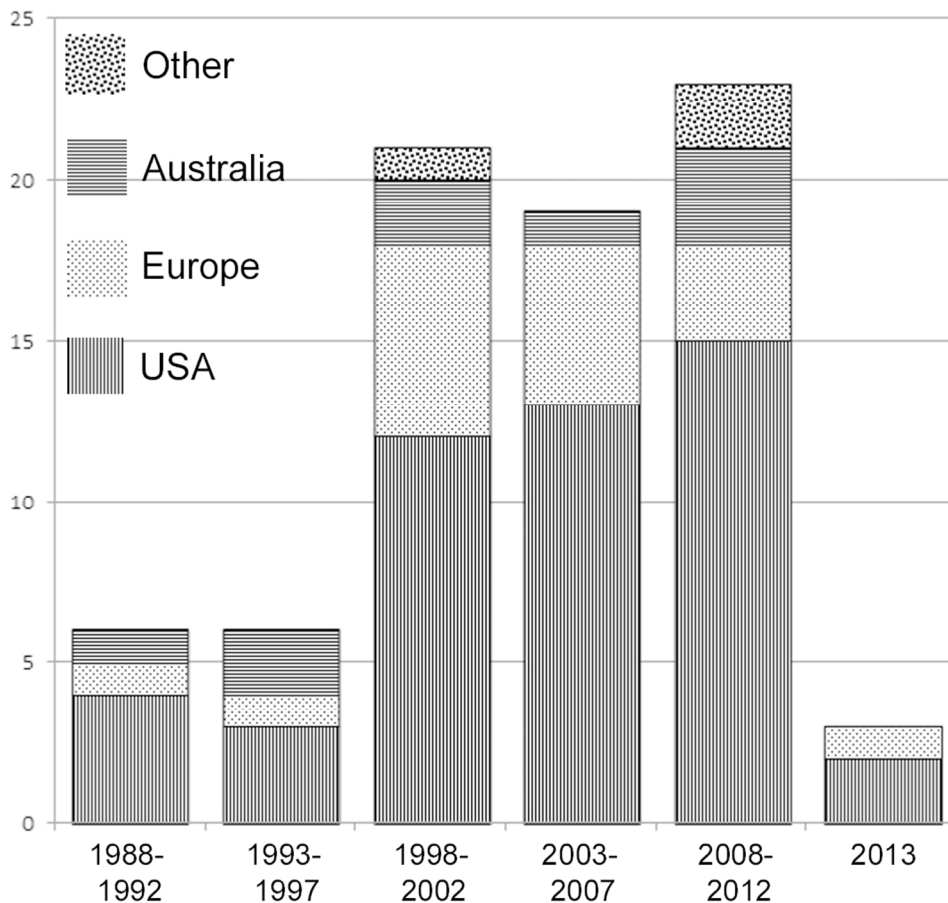
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FIGURE LEGENDS

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22 850 **Figure 1.** Flow diagram illustrating the search strategies and scoping review
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24 851 process. See text for details.
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28 853 **Figure 2.** Distribution of included records over the review period (January 1st 1988 to
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30 854 January 31st 2014). Note that the bin sizes correspond to a 5-year time period,
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32 855 except for the final bar in the chart which represents January 1st 2013 to January 31st
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34 856 2014.
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38 858 **Figure 3.** Histogram of sample sizes across the 75 experimental studies in this
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40 859 scoping review. Note that the bin sizes are not equal.
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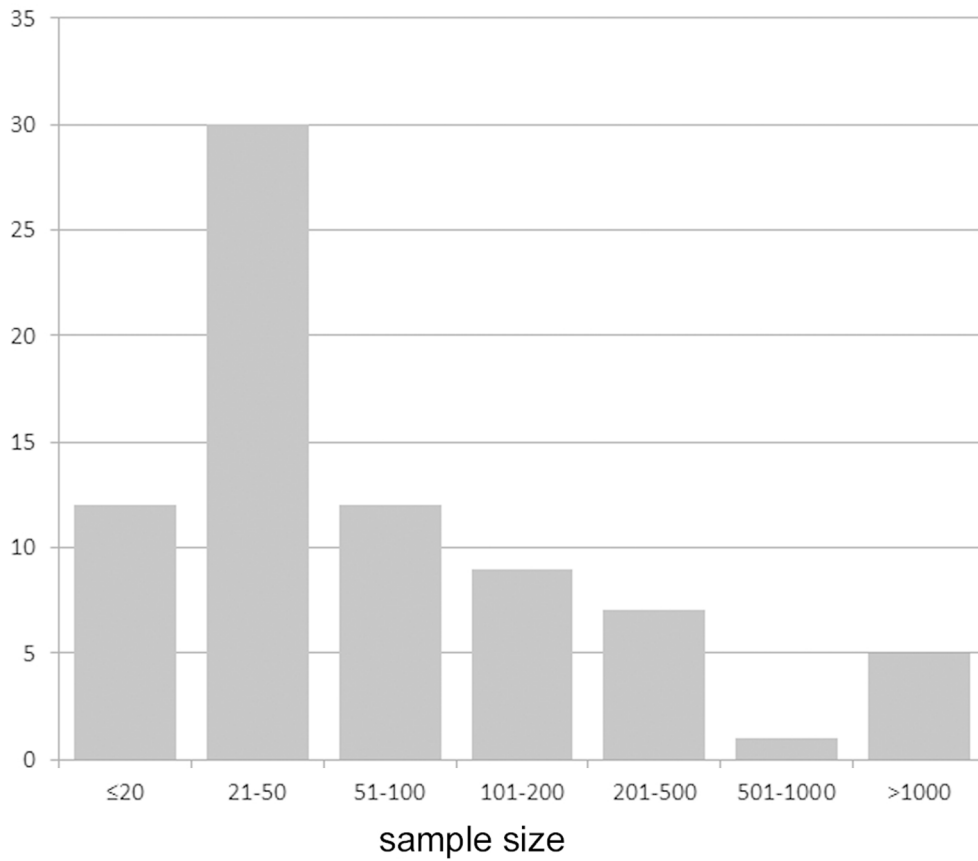
Flow diagram illustrating the search strategies and scoping review process. See text for details.
190x254mm (96 x 96 DPI)



Distribution of included records over the review period (January 1st 1988 to January 31st 2014). Note that the bin sizes correspond to a 5-year time period, except for the final bar in the chart which represents January 1st 2013 to January 31st 2014.
95x86mm (300 x 300 DPI)

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Histogram of sample sizes across the 75 experimental studies in this scoping review. Note that the bin sizes are not equal.
99x86mm (300 x 300 DPI)

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