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# Validation of a French-language Version of the Spatial Hearing Questionnaire, Cluster Analysis and Comparison with the Speech, Spatial, and Qualities of Hearing Scale

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#### Supplemental material:

The first supplemental material (the French language version of the SHQ) is available at the end of the present file. The second supplemental material is available page 49 onwards of the present file.

The publisher's version is available at: <u>https://journals.lww.com/ear-</u> <u>hearing/abstract/2016/07000/validation\_of\_a\_french\_language\_version\_of\_the.5.aspx</u>

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1	Validation of a French-language Version of the Spatial Hearing Questionnaire, Cluster
2	Analysis and Comparison with the Speech, Spatial, and Qualities of Hearing Scale
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25	Validation of a French-language Version of the Spatial Hearing Questionnaire, Cluster
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27	
28	Annie Moulin and Celine Richard
29	
30	Short summary
31	
32	The objective of this work was to validate a French-language version of the Spatial
33	Hearing Questionnaire (SHQ), including investigating its internal structure using cluster
34	analysis and exploring its construct validity on a large population of hearing-impaired and
35	normal-hearing subjects, and to compare the SHQ with the Speech, Spatial and Qualities of
36	Hearing Scale (SSQ) in the same population. The SHQ showed good conceptual equivalence
37	across languages, suggesting its potential utility for non-cochlear-implanted hearing-impaired
38	patients and in international settings. SHQ and SSQ scores showed remarkable similarities,
39	suggesting the possibility of extrapolating results from one questionnaire to the other.

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43	Annie Moulin and Celine Richard
44	
45	ABSTRACT
46	
47	Objectives: To validate a French-language version of the Spatial Hearing Questionnaire
48	(SHQ), including investigating its internal structure using cluster analysis and exploring its
49	construct validity on a large population of hearing-impaired and normal-hearing subjects, and
50	to compare the SHQ with the Speech, Spatial and Qualities of Hearing Scale (SSQ) in the same
51	population.
52	
53	Design: The SHQ was translated in accordance with the principles of the Universalist Model
54	of cross-cultural adaptation of patient-reported outcome instruments. The SSQ and SHQ were
55	then presented in a counterbalanced order, in a self-report mode, in a population of 230 hearing-
56	impaired (HI) subjects (mean age = 54 years and pure-tone audiometry (PTA) on the better ear
57	= 28 dB HL) and 100 normal-hearing (NH) subjects (mean age = 21 years). The SHQ feasibility,
58	readability and psychometric properties were systematically investigated using reliability
59	indices, cluster and factor analyses and multiregression analyses. SHQ characteristics were
60	compared both to different literature data obtained with different language versions and to the
61	SSQ scores obtained in the same population.
62	
63	Results: Internal validity was high and very good reproducibility of scores and intersubject

variability were obtained across the 24 items between the English and French SHQ for NH

subjects. Factor and cluster analyses concurred in identifying 5 correlated factors, 65 corresponding to several SHQ subscales: (1) Speech in noise (corresponding to SHQ subscales 66 7 and 8), (2) Localization of voice sounds from behind, (3) Speech in quiet (corresponding to 67 SHQ subscale 1), (4) Localization of everyday sounds and (5) localization of voices and music 68 (corresponding to parts of the SHQ localization subscale). Correlations between SSQ subscales 69 and SHO factors identified the greatest correlations between SHO factors 2, 4 and 5 and SSO 70 71 spatial subscales, whereas SHQ factor 1 had the greatest correlation with SSQ\_speech. SHQ and SSQ scores were similar, whether in NH subjects (8.5 versus 8.4) or in HI subjects (6.6 for 72 both), sharing more than 80% of variance. The SHQ localization subscale gave similar scores 73 74 as the SSQ spatial subscale, sharing more than 75% of variance. Construct validity identified better ear PTA and PTA asymmetry as the two main predictors of SHQ scores, to a degree 75 similar to that seen for the SSQ. The SHQ was shorter, easier to read and less sensitive to the 76 77 number of years of formal education than the SSQ, but this came at a cost of ecological validity, which was rated higher for the SSQ than for the SHQ. 78

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Conclusions: A comparison of factor analysis outcomes among the English, Dutch and French versions of the SHQ confirmed good conceptual equivalence across languages and robustness of the SHQ for use in international settings. In addition, SHQ and SSQ scores showed remarkable similarities, suggesting the possibility of extrapolating the results from one questionnaire to the other. Although the SHQ was originally designed in a population of cochlear implant patients, the present results show that its usefulness could easily be extended to non-cochlear-implanted, hearing-impaired subjects.

#### **INTRODUCTION**

89 To assess a person's hearing impairment, audiologists have a variety of hearing assessment measures ranging from standard pure-tone audiometry to speech-perception tests. 90 However, those tests can fail to quantify the effects of hearing impairment on the patient's daily 91 life (Stephens & Hétu 1991). Because health policies require a precise and exhaustive 92 evaluation of the benefits of rehabilitation strategies, a growing interest in patient-centered 93 94 outcome measurements has led to the development of numerous questionnaires designed to assess the patient's appraisal of his or her own hearing disability in a wide range of contexts 95 (Bentler & Kramer 2000; Cox et al. 2000; Noble 2013). Two recent questionnaires focus 96 97 specifically on spatial hearing and difficult listening situations. The Spatial Hearing Questionnaire (SHQ) was designed by Tyler et al. (2009) and primarily addresses spatial 98 hearing. The Speech Spatial Qualities scale (SSQ) encompasses broader aspects of hearing 99 100 (including speech, spatial and qualities of hearing) and uses an interview mode (Gatehouse & Noble 2004). The availability of two independently designed questionnaires, tested in different 101 populations, triggers two questions: "Which questionnaire should I use for my patients?" and 102 "If I use one questionnaire, will I be able to compare its results to the results obtained with the 103 other questionnaire?" The first question involves obtaining information about the 104 105 characteristics and behavior of a questionnaire in the same population as the one intended for its use and the answer to the second question involves a direct comparison between 106 questionnaires in the same population. But before we could answer either, as a non-English 107 speaking country, we were confronted with a third problem: "Is there a validated version of a 108 French-language SHQ and SSQ?" 109

There are few validated health-related questionnaires available in languages other than
English, as validation procedures involve much more than a simple translation (Arlinger, 2000).
Indeed, the Universalist model of cross-cultural adaptation of health questionnaires (Herdman

et al. 1998) identifies six types of equivalence that should be fulfilled for a valid adaptation. 113 Item equivalence and Semantic equivalence relate to the translation of the questionnaire, 114 whereas Operational equivalence addresses how the questionnaire can be administered and 115 scored. Conceptual equivalence relates to how the different concepts included in the 116 questionnaire are equivalent from one country to another, and can be measured by comparing 117 the internal structure of the questionnaire in different languages and populations. Psychometric 118 119 properties, internal consistency measures and construct validity are reflected in Measurement equivalence. Functional equivalence assesses the validity of the adapted version of the 120 questionnaire and is part of the general psychometric properties that must be reported to validate 121 122 the questionnaire (Hyde 2000). In the first part of this report, we will present a validation of a French-language version of the SHQ (F-SHQ), following the Universalist model guidelines. 123 Our validation includes reliability measures and a comparison to results obtained in the 124 125 literature, including factor analysis of the SHQ.

In a second part, we largely extend our analysis beyond a language translation validation 126 procedure, by analyzing the SHQ characteristics using data obtained from a population of 230 127 hearing-impaired and 100 normal-hearing subjects. The internal structure of the SHQ will be 128 explored using Revelles' clustering method (Revelle, 1978), which is specifically designed to 129 130 enable visualization of questionnaire scales and subscales and their hierarchical interdependency, allowing the definition of homogeneous subscales and the identification of 131 similar items (Cooksey & Soutar 2006). Different sources of variability of the SHQ scores are 132 explored: the expected ones (hearing loss, ear asymmetry, age) and the less desirable ones 133 (gender or number of years of education). 134

In the last part of this work, we compare the SHQ and SSQ questionnaires in the same population, using the same presentation format (visual analogue scale) and mode of administration (self-report). To our knowledge, the only direct comparison of these two

questionnaires in the same population was performed by Tyler et al. (2009) in a population of 138 139 cochlear implant (CI) subjects. Because Tyler et al.'s study was aimed primarily at the 139 design of the SHQ, comparisons between the SSQ and SHQ were performed at the scale level, 140 not at the subscale or item levels. Here, SHQ and SSQ scores are compared at the subscale and 141 item levels and their dependency on hearing thresholds, ear asymmetry, and age are explored. 142 Finally, feasibility, including response missing rate, item readability, time to complete the 143 questionnaire and the potential influence of unwanted factors (such as the number of years of 144 education, gender, etc.) are compared. 145

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### 148 Cross-cultural adaptation of the SHQ

The cross-cultural adaptation and translation of both questionnaires followed the same procedures, which have already been fully described elsewhere (Moulin et al., 2015). In brief, we used a multistep translation procedure recommended by the European Regulatory Issues on Quality of Life Assessment (ERIQA) group (Acquadro et al. 2008) involving a double translation, a translation committee, a focus group and a pilot study in 26 hearing-impaired subjects (see the French version of the SHQ (F-SHQ), Supplemental Digital Content 1).

Because our subsequent aim was to compare the SHQ and SSQ questionnaires, we used 155 156 the same visual analogue scale with a range of 0 to 10 for both<sup>1</sup> (Streiner et al. 2014). The subjects had the possibility to tick an answer box "non applicable" (NA) if they felt the question 157 could not be applied to their personal experience, similarly to Gatehouse and Noble 's (2004) 158 design for the SSQ. Thus, both the SHQ and SSQ questionnaires included the same presentation 159 and instructions, with an easy sample question ("You can hear somebody talking to you, facing 160 you, in a quiet room") with its visual analogue scale as an example. At the end of the 161 questionnaire, two items were added, using the same visual analogue scale format, asking 162 subjects their opinion about the relevance of the questions to the situations they experience 163 every day (termed "ecological validity": "How well do the questions reflect your hearing 164 experiences in daily life? (very badly/very well)") and the difficulty of the questions (termed 165 "difficulty": "Did the questions seem easy to answer? (not at all/yes, no problem)"). 166

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168 **Procedures** 

<sup>•</sup> Audiological assessment

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Because a numerical scale from 0 to 100 is unusual in France, where marks usually range from 0 to 10, the use of the same scale as the SSQ was needed to obtain a strict equivalence between the presentation formats of the SHQ and SSQ for comparison and to achieve Operational equivalence (Herdman et al. 1998).

All of the hearing-impaired (HI) subjects were recruited from a pool of patients who had 170 171 come for a routine otology consultation with a specialist ENT surgeon. Subjects underwent otoscopic and audiological evaluation, including air- and bone-conduction hearing thresholds 172 and tympanometry performed using an Interacoustic AA222 tympanometer. Pure-tone 173 audiometry was performed using an Interacoustic AC 33 clinical audiometer in a sound-proof 174 booth, between 250 and 8000 Hz in octave steps in each ear. Medical history and general 175 176 information such as the number of years of education/current professional activity were gathered. Normal-hearing (NH) subjects were recruited mostly from university undergraduates 177 and were selected based on an absence of any medical condition, history of otologic pathology 178 179 and/or traumatic noise exposure. They underwent pure-tone audiometry in half-octave steps from 125 Hz to 8000 Hz using an interacoustic AC40 audiometer in a sound-proof booth. 180 Written informed consent was obtained from each subject, within the framework of French laws 181 related to non-invasive biomedical research on humans (Agreement number A-11-385, "CPP 182 sud-Est IV"). 183

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## • Questionnaire data collection

The SHQ questionnaire was administered with the SSQ (Noble & Gatehouse, 2004) and the order of questionnaire completion was counterbalanced. The subjects were asked to measure the time (in minutes) they needed to complete each questionnaire. The questionnaires were explained and given to the HI subjects in a pre-stamped addressed A4 format envelope at the end of the clinical examination. Most of the NH subjects completed the questionnaires on-site.

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#### **Population characteristics**

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#### • Normal-hearing subjects

The questionnaires were given to 100 normal-hearing subjects. Two of them accidentally missed a page (5 questions) and so the analysis was performed on 98 sets of responses (mean age = 21 years, SD = 2.2, 69 women). The mean audiometric threshold (taken as the mean of the 500 Hz, 1, 2 and 4 kHz frequencies) in their worse ear was 8.7 dB HL (SD = 3.6) and in their better ear was 1.1 dB HL (SD = 4.5). The difference in the mean audiometric threshold between ears was 8 dB (SD = 2.6).

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#### • Hearing-impaired subjects

A total of 230 HI subjects took part in the project, but seven of them failed to complete 205 some of the SSQ or SHQ questionnaire due to technical problems and several subjects did not 206 provide a numerical answer to some questions (either by using "NA" or by not answering the 207 208 question). As a result, we restricted the numerical analysis to the 205 sets of responses that contained responses to more than 80% of the questions. Amongst these subjects (105 women), 209 18 wore hearing aids in at least one ear. Sixteen percent of HI subjects suffered from conductive 210 211 hearing-loss, 46% of HI subjects came for presbyacusis, 11% suffered from noise-induced hearing-loss, and 12% suffered from congenital or early idiopathic sensorineural hearing-loss. 212 The mean age was 54 years (SD = 17) and the number of years of formal education was 13 (SD 213 = 4.2). The PTA on the better ear was 28 dB HL (SD = 15) and 43 dB HL (SD = 27) on the 214 worse ear, with 15 dB (SD = 24) of asymmetry. 215

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#### Data analysis

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#### Readability analysis (Item equivalence)

One of the concerns when developing and translating questionnaires is to ensure that the 222 223 questionnaire remains easily readable by the target population (Calderon et al. 2006; Paz et al. 2009; Atcherson et al. 2011). Several readability indexes have been defined, most of them based 224 on the number of words per sentence and the number of syllables per word (Reck & Reck 2007). 225 Although those indexes cannot reflect all of the processes involved in reading comprehension, 226 227 and most of them have been developed for the English language, they still represent a standard 228 by which to measure readability. We analyzed the readability of both the English language SHQ (E-SHQ) and the F-SHQ using the Gunning-Fog index (Gunning, 1952) and the Flesch Kincaid 229 index (Flesch 1948; Kandel & Moles 1958). Each index was calculated for the entire SHQ, per 230 231 subscale and for each item, as in Calderon et al. (2006) and Paz et al. (2009).

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#### • Scores and subscales

For each subject, the mean score was calculated over the 24 SHQ items, and for each of 234 the eight subscales defined by Tyler et al. (2009) (perception of different voices with Man's 235 voice (#1, #5, #9, #13 and #17), Woman's voice (#2, #6, #10, #14 and #18) and Child's voice 236 (#3, #7, #11, #15 and #19), Music perception (#4, #8, #12, #16 and #20), Source localization 237 (#13 to #24), Understanding speech in quiet (#1, #2, #3 and #4), Understanding speech in noise 238 with target and noise sources from the front (#5 to #8), and Understanding speech in noise with 239 spatially separate target and noise sources (#9 to #12)). In addition, mean scores were calculated 240 241 over the items belonging to the five different factors obtained from a factor analysis of the SHQ (F1 to F5). Finally, SHQ scores were compared to SSQ scores obtained from the same subjects 242 and the average scores over the 49 SSQ items for each subject. 243

A comparison of the F-SHQ scores was then performed with Perreau et al.'s data (Perreau et al. 2014b) obtained from NH subjects, Potvin et al.'s data (Potvin et al. 2011) on HI subjects and data on cochlear implant patients (Tyler et al. 2009; Perreau et al. 2014a) to evaluate the Item equivalence and the Measurement equivalence of the Universal model.

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# Statistical analysis

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#### General procedures

The mean skewness across items was -0.74 for HI subjects and -1.10 for NH subjects, 251 252 showing a skew toward high scores (as would be expected for NH subjects that tend to give scores above 6 and often close to 10). The kurtosis values were -0.26 and 0.97, respectively. 253 254 We applied a logit transform transformation as in Perreau et al. (2014b), but it did not yield 255 normal data and the correction was too high for HI subjects, with the skewness and kurtosis worsening after data transformation (kurtosis increasing to 1.61). Therefore, instead of 256 transforming the data, we checked the reliability of our results with bootstrap procedures and 257 used non-parametric statistics, especially for NH subjects. 258

For the analysis of the time needed to complete the questionnaires, the reported time 259 was log-transformed, which reduced the skewness of the data (from 1.8 to -0.1) and the kurtosis 260 (from 4 to -0.3). Regression analysis was performed between questionnaire scores and better 261 ear PTA in order to define the relationship between scores, and non-parametric bootstrap 262 263 confidence intervals have been calculated for the parameters of the equations, using 10000 bootstrap replicates. Relationships between SSQ and SHQ scores were established using 264 orthogonal distance regression (Petras and Podlubny, 2010), in order to take into account 265 266 measurement errors both in the SSQ and SHQ scores.

The multi-regression analyses of scores (and time to complete the questionnaires) as a
function of different predictors were restricted to the HI subjects, as including NH subjects

would introduce a bias due to the NH subjects having a normal hearing threshold, younger age and greater number of years of formal education than the HI subjects. In addition, investigating predictors in questionnaire scores yields more relevant information when performed in a population similar to the one for which the questionnaire is intended, i.e., HI subjects. Thus, multi-regression analyses were performed to attempt to explain the variation of both SHQ and SSQ scores for the 205 HI subjects using the following explanatory variables: Age, PTA on the better ear, number of years of education, PTA asymmetry and gender.

Internal consistency was assessed by calculating both Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach et al. 1951) and item-total correlations for each subject group and for each factor, as determined by factor and cluster analyses. The reliability estimates were compared with the internal consistency indices reported by Tyler et al. (2009) and Perreau et al. (2014b).

With any exploratory research involving multi-item questionnaires, multicomparison 280 281 procedures involve the risk of labeling a result as statistically significant (i.e., p<0.05) when it is only the result of random variation. However, classical multicomparison p adjustments (such 282 as Bonferroni) involve dividing the significance level so that the frequency of incorrect 283 statements about the absence of a significant association between variables increases (type II 284 285 error inflation) (Rothman, 1990). To avoid this, we chose to follow the guidelines reported by 286 Asendorpf et al. (2013) for psychological studies and by Glickman et al. (2014) for clinical studies, i.e., systematically reporting the exact p-value and using a false discovery rate approach 287 for the problem of multiple comparisons (Benjamini & Hochberg 1995), with p considered as 288 significant for p < 0.01. 289

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#### • Cluster and factor analysis (conceptual and functional equivalence)

To explore the underlying structure of the SHQ and the similarity between the F-SHQ and the E-SHQ (i.e., Conceptual equivalence), we performed common factor analyses

separately in the group of NH subjects (to compare with Perreau et al.'s (2014b) data), the group 294 295 of HI subjects (to compare with Tyler et al. (2009)'s data and with Potvin et al. (2011)'s Dutch-SHQ) and all subjects together (NHHI subjects). The analysis involving all subjects might show 296 a more stable structure, because the ratio of the number of subjects to items is well above 10:1 297 (Costello and Osborne, 2005). This ratio was 8:1 for the HI subjects and only 4:1 for the NH 298 subjects, but the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) index of sampling adequacy (Kaiser, 1970) was 299 300 at least 0.68 (minimum observed for a single item in NH subjects), with an overall KMO of 0.86 for NH subjects, 0.87 for HI subjects and 0.9 for all subjects, suggesting that the samples 301 were sufficient (a KMO index is considered good when above 0.70 and excellent above 0.90 302 303 (Kaiser and Rice, 1974)). For factor extraction, we used the principal axis factoring method, because it is free of distribution assumptions (Fabrigar et al. 1999). For the number of factors 304 to extract, the commonly used subjective Cattell's scree test (Cattell 1966) gave a number of 305 306 factors of 3 for HI subjects, and between 3 and 5 for NH subjects and the whole sample. The objective parallel analysis (Horn 1965), which is based on a comparison between the 307 eigenvalues of the sample data and the eigenvalues taken from a random sample of uncorrelated 308 data, gave 4 factors for NH subjects (as in Perreau's data), 3 factors for HI subjects (as in Tyler 309 et al.'s data), and 5 factors for all. However, Velicer's minimum average partial method (MAP) 310 311 (Velicer 1976) gave 5 factors for both HI subjects and all samples, but 8 factors for NH subjects, which seemed to be clearly overfactoring. Thus, we decided to test systematically the 3-, 4- and 312 5-factor options for each group, following the guidelines of Fabrigar et al. (1999) and 313 314 Hutcheson and Sofroniou (1999). In addition, this method provided a better comparison with Tyler et al. (2009), Perreau et al. (2014b) and Potvin et al. (2011)'s study, which suggested 3-315 316 and 4-factor solutions. Because the different dimensions explored by the SHQ are very likely to be correlated with each other, an oblique factor rotation method (direct oblimin) was chosen 317 (Hutcheson & Sofroniou 1999), similar to Akeroyd et al. (2014) in their factor analysis of the 318

SSQ. The percentages of variance explained by the different factors will be given beforerotation, for easier comparison with literature data, and after rotation.

The fit of the different models to the data was checked by RMSR (root mean square residuals), where a value below 0.05 is considered a good fit, and values between 0.05 and 0.08 are considered a fair fit (Field et al. 2012; Fabrigar et al. 1999).

Next, we used a hierarchical clustering method (Revelle's ICLUST algorithm, Revelle 1978, 324 325 1979), which has the advantages, over more classical factor analysis, of exploring similarities and hierarchical interdependencies between items and clusters of items of a questionnaire. The 326 ICLUST approach is less method dependent, thus allowing us to explore the Universalist 327 328 model's Functional equivalence and to further describe the SHQ characteristics and internal structure. The ICLUST method is based on two indices: the coefficient alpha measure of 329 internal consistency and Revelle's beta coefficient (Revelle, 1978) that reflects factorial 330 331 homogeneity (specifically, beta is the worst split-half reliability of a scale and thus is lower than alpha). In short, the scale structure is built starting from the two item clusters with the 332 greatest similarity. An item is then added to the initial two item clusters only if this addition 333 improves the cluster's internal consistency (measured by alpha) and/or the factorial 334 homogeneity (measured by beta). This technique is considered complementary to the more 335 336 classical approach of factor analysis and is less dependent on the subjects-to-variables ratio and the method (Cooksey & Soutar 2006). In this case, this method has a definite advantage over 337 exploratory factor analyses for the number of factors extraction, because the number of factors 338 339 to be extracted varies between 3 and 5. Thus, the ICLUST algorithm (Revelle, 1978) was applied to the NH subjects and HI subjects separately and to the entire sample, without any 340 assumption about the latent structure of the SHO. 341

To analyze functional equivalence, the SHQ factor structures obtained with factor analysis and cluster analyses were compared, in addition to a comparison with literature data (E-SHQ data from Tyler et al. (2009) and Perreau et al. (2014b) and the D-SHQ data from
Potvin et al. (2011)). Factor congruence coefficients were computed between the cluster and
the factor analyses and between the present F-SHQ and the E-SHQ results of Tyler et al. (2009)
and Perreau et al. (2014).

Finally, the SHQ item scores were averaged according to the 5-factor structure obtained by factor and cluster analyses using an item weight of 1, instead of the specific loading of each item on the factor, i.e., using an equally weighted mean of item scores. Provided the item loadings on each factor are high, this procedure does not result in a loss of accuracy (Akeroyd et al. 2014).

All of the statistics were calculated using the "Psych" package (Revelle, 2014) within the R statistical package version 3.1.0 (2014-04-10).

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### 357 <u>F-SHQ CROSS-CULTURAL VALIDATION AND CHARACTERISTICS</u>

Feasibility and difficulty (Item equivalence, Semantic equivalence)

RESULTS

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# • Percentage of valid responses (Item equivalence)

No items were missing in the NH subjects'data, and only a few "NA" responses were 360 given. However, the HI subjects showed between 0.9% and 4% (#20) missing answers, and 361 when the "NA" answers are taken into account, between 1.3% and 9% (#11) of item responses 362 were missing (mean 4.4% (SD = 2.2)). The number of missing + "NA" responses was higher 363 for items 9, 10, 11 and 12 (all items pertaining to perception with a "loud fan off to one side," 364 which were the items queried the most by the patients during the pilot study). This could reflect 365 366 a problem of item equivalence, which is specific to the F-SHQ: perhaps the experience of fan noise is less common in France than in the US. 367

There were no significant correlations between the percentage of missing responses and age, years of education, or PTA on the better ear, but there was a significant small increase with PTA on the worse ear (r = 0.19, p < 0.005), explaining only 3.8% of the variance.

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#### • Readability analysis

The number of words per item varied from 7 to 21, with a mean of 13.1 words. The total length of the questionnaire was 512 words. The readability analysis showed a Gunning-Fog index of 5.6 and a Flesch-Kincaid index of 7.3, i.e., very easy to easy. Per-item analysis revealed large inter-item variability, with readability ranging from 3.1 and 5.3 (very easy) to 10.6 and 13.2 (difficult) using the Gunning-Fox and Flesh-Kincaid indexes, respectively. There were excellent correlations between readability indices obtained for the F-SHQ and the E-SHQ (r > 0.84 for Gunning fox, r = 0.78 for Flesh-Kincaid, p < 0.0001). No significant relationship was found between the rate of missing responses per item and readability indices, nor betweenscores and readability indices.

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### • Time needed to complete the SHQ

For HI subjects, the median time needed to complete the questionnaire was 10 minutes, and 75% of HI subjects took less than 15 minutes to complete<sup>2</sup> (Figure 1). This duration increased significantly as HI subjects showed a greater PTA on the better ear (beta = 0.25, p < 0.003), a lower number of years of formal education (beta = -0.20, p < 0.005) and a greater age (beta = 0.16, p < 0.05), with 24% of the variance explained by those 3 predictors (F(3, 189) = 19.7, p < 0.0001).

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# SHQ difficulty and ecological validity

The significant correlations obtained between the SHQ difficulty item and (1) the PTA on the better ear (Spearman's r = -0.20 p < 0.006) and (2) the overall SHQ scores (r = 0.23 p < 0.001) suggest that the HI subjects' answers were at least partly based on their own hearing difficulties. There was no relationship between SHQ difficulty score and number of years of formal education (Spearman 's r = -0.02, p = ns).

No systematic relationship was observed between the SHQ Ecological Validity and subject characteristics (HI subjects versus NH subjects, with or without hearing aid, Better Ear PTA (Spearman 's r = -0.11, p = ns) or number of educational years (Spearman 's r = -0.12, p = ns)).

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Although the time needed to complete the questionnaire seems trivial, it gives an insight about its feasibility and is often the first question asked before using questionnaires in a clinical setting.

#### **Overall SHQ reliability (Measurement equivalence)**

The value of Cronbach's alpha was 0.96 for NH subjects and 0.98 for HI subjects, indicating very good internal consistency. Cronbach's alpha was then calculated for each of the five factors and each of the eight subscales for NH subjects and HI subjects (alpha in italics and brackets), and ranged from 0.90 (0.94) for F4 to 0.98 (0.98) for F2, and from 0.77 (0.90) for subscales 1 and 2 to 0.97 (0.98) (subscale 8).

The item-total correlation (see table in Supplemental Digital Content 2) was lower for the first 4 items in NH subjects (from 0.22 to 0.32) and in HI subjects (from 0.63 to 0.67) than for the other items. Except for those first 4 items, the item-total correlations were at least 0.67 for NH subjects and at least 0.74 for HI subjects. The mean inter-item correlation was 0.5 for NH subjects and 0.7 for HI subjects.

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#### Scores in NH subjects (Measurement equivalence)

The mean score for the NH subjects was 8.4 (SD = 1.2), ranging from 6.2 (SD = 2.6) for #21 to 9.9 (SD = 0.4) for #1 (Figure 2). The highest scores were obtained for the "*Speech in quiet*" subscale with 9.9 (SD = 0.4), whereas the lowest scores were obtained for the "*localization*" subscale (7.9, SD = 1.6) (Figure 3).

419 F-SHQ scores tended to be lower than Perreau et al. (2014b)'s E-SHQ data (Figure 2), with significant differences at the 0.05 level for 5 items (out of 24), and two of the eight 420 subscales (localization and noise separate). However, those degrees of significance did not 421 422 survive p-correction for multicomparison procedures, except for item #21, which showed a significantly lower score on the F-SHQ. There was very good agreement with scores across the 423 different items between the F-SHQ and the E-SHQ (Figure 2): the scores obtained in NH 424 subjects across the 24 items correlated highly significantly with the scores reported in the NH 425 subjects by Perreau et al. (2014b): Spearman r = 0.78 (p < 0.0001) for the mean scores and r =426

427 0.91 for the standard deviations (p < 0.0001). The table in Supplemental Digital Content 2</li>
428 provides mean scores and the cutoff points at two standard deviations lower than the mean
429 scores, in accordance with international guidelines for the identification of diseases (WHO
430 1980).

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### Cluster and Factor analysis (Conceptual equivalence)

#### • Factor analysis

For each of the NH, HI and NHHI subject groups, the extraction of 3, 4 and 5 factors 434 435 gave a similar but not identical distribution of items on which factors were loading (Figure 4). Whether 3, 4 or 5 factors were extracted, the communalities per item were all at least 0.53 for 436 NH subjects and at least 0.67 for HI subjects. The Spearman correlation between communalities 437 438 obtained across the 24 items in NH subjects and in HI subjects was 0.84 (p < 0.0001), and the correlation between Tyler's data and our HI subjects data was above 0.71 (p < 0.0001). No 439 significant correlations were obtained between our data and Potvin et al.'s (2011) data (r = -440 0.09, p = ns), nor between Tyler et al.'s (2009) data and Potvin et al. 's (2011) data (r = -0.12, 441 p = ns). The details regarding the different number of factor extractions in the different groups 442 are available in the Supplemental Digital Content 2 and Figure 4 provides a summary of the 443 outcomes of the different factor analysis reported here and in the literature. 444

For the total sample, both parallel analysis and Velicer's MAP index (Velicer 1976) gave a 5-factor extraction that explained 89% of the total variance (70%, 8%, 6%, 2% and 2% for the 5 factors, and 34%, 18%, 16%, 17% and 15% after oblique rotation). The RMSR was below 0.02. The 5-factor structure matched the one presented in Figure 4 and the communalities and the pattern matrix, which show the load of each factor on each item, are provided in a figure in the Supplemental Digital Content 2.

Cluster analysis gave a 19-cluster hierarchical tree (labelled C1 to C19), with a 5-cluster 453 solution at the top-most level, with identical items within each cluster for all samples considered 454 (NH, HI or NHHI subjects), as shown for NHHI subjects in Figure 5 (clusters labelled C12, 455 C13, C15, C18, C19). The goodness of fit of the three structures was 0.98 for NH subjects and 456 1 for HI and NHHI subjects, with the RMSR below 0.03 for NH subjects and below 0.02 for 457 HI and NHHI subjects, showing near perfect fits. The eigenvalues of the 5 clusters were 6.9, 4, 458 3.6, 3.5 and 3.5 (NHHI subjects). Thus, for the three samples, the SHQ is not unidimensional, 459 460 but rather comprises five distinct scales, which are reliable and homogeneous, as shown by alpha coefficients consistently above 0.89 and beta coefficients above 0.78. Those five scales 461 are strongly intercorrelated (the lowest correlation was 0.52 between C19 and C15, whereas the 462 463 correlation between C12 and C13 was 0.87), and correspond to the five factors obtained by factor analysis. There was one 8-item cluster and there were four 4-item clusters. Each cluster 464 corresponds to a successive part of the SHQ, grouped by type of question (Figure 5). In addition, 465 466 by looking at the tree for cluster C18 (Figure 5), 3 subscales can be identified: a subscale (C11) pertaining to speech in noise when the noise is at the front, a subscale (C9) pertaining to speech 467 in noise when the noise is at the side, and a subscale (C7) pertaining to music perception. The 468 addition of C7 to C9 yielded a decrease in homogeneity (the beta coefficient decreased from 469 470 0.97 to 0.95), suggesting that #8 and #12 reflect a slightly different aspect than the other C9 471 items. Revelle's (1978) cluster analysis shows items associated together by degree of similarity from the left to the right side of the tree, which enables the identification of a systematic 472 grouping of male voice items with female voice items (clusters C1 to C4, C6). Then, items 473 474 pertaining to a child voice are added, with the music items always added last to the structure, thus showing their greater degree of dissimilarity from the other items. 475

In summary, a similar 5 factor structure was obtained with factor analysis and cluster analysis, with the different factors (or clusters) defined as follows:(1) Speech in quiet (F3) corresponding to the Speech in quiet subscale; (2) Speech in noise (F1) corresponding to subscales 7 and 8; (3) Localization of voice sounds from behind (F2); (4) Localization of everyday sounds (F4); and (5) Localization of voices and music (F5).

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### COMPARISON BETWEEN SHQ AND SSQ

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#### Feasibility and difficulty

There was no significant difference between the SHQ missing rate of 4.4% (SD = 2.2) and the SSQ missing rate of 3.8% (SD = 2.8). The number of missing responses per subject correlated between the SHQ and SSQ at r = 0.37 (p < 0.00001).

Although there was a significant correlation between the time to complete the SSQ and the time to complete the SHQ (r = 0.68, p < 0.00001), the same analysis as the one performed for the SHQ yielded different predictors for the SSQ (24% variance explained, F(4, 192) = 15, p < 0.00001): The main predictor was the number of years of formal education (beta = -0.22, p <0.003), followed by increasing age (beta = 0.18, p < 0.03), hearing loss (beta = 0.17, p < 0.04) and having not filled out a similar questionnaire before (beta = 0.17, p < 0.01).

The "difficulty" and "ecological validity" scores showed that the SHQ was perceived as significantly easier than the SSQ for both NH and HI subjects (SSQ = 7.1, SD = 2.6 versus SHQ = 7.5, SD = 2.5; t = 3, p < 0.004 for HI subjects) but less ecologically valid than the SSQ for HI subjects (SSQ = 8.15, SD = 2.1 versus SHQ = 7.7, SD = 2.6).

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#### 498 Comparison of SHQ and SSQ scores

There was no significant difference between SHQ and SSQ scores in the NH subjects : 8.5 versus 8.4 (Wilcoxon z = 1.5, p = ns) or in HI subjects: 6.6 versus 6.6 (Wilcoxon z = 0.75, p = ns). Similarly, the SHQ *Localization* subscale and the SSQ *Spatial* subscales scores were not different for NH or HI subjects (Figures 3 and 6). There was a highly significant correlation between SSQ and SHQ scores (r = 0.90 p < 0.0001), with a linear relationship<sup>3</sup> shown in equations (1) and (2) (Figure 6).

- 508 SHQ = 1.083 \* SSQ 0.624 (1)
- 509 SSQ = 0.923 \* SHQ + 0.576 (2)
- 510 SHQ Localization = 1.107 \* SSQ Spatial 0.680 (3)
- 511 SSQ Spatial = 0.904 \* SHQ Localization + 0.615 (4)
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All of the correlations between SHQ subscales and the main SSQ subscales were highly significant (p < 0.00001) (table 1), with some expected patterns: the SHQ localization and factors 2, 4 and 5 showed a significantly greater correlation with SSQ Spatial (equations 3 and 4, Figure 6) than with the other SSQ subscales (Z > 2.6, p < 0.01), whereas SHQ factor 1, Speech in Noise and Speech in noise (Separate) showed a significantly greater correlation with SSQ Speech than with the other 2 SSQ subscales (Z > 3.8, p < 0.0001). Linear regression between SHQ score and Better Ear PTA (r=0.56, p<0.00001) in NH

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Ellical regression between STQ score and Better Ear TTA (1=0.50, p<0.00001) in MT

and HI subjects showed a 0.66 point decrease in SHQ score per 10 dB HL increase, according

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Similarly to the relationship between the SSQ and one of its short form (the SSQ12), reported to follow a power function (Noble et al., 2013), we fitted a power function to the SHQ/SSQ relationship, with: SHQ=10\*(SSQ/10)^1.010 [0.966, 1.055]. The 95% confidence interval for the exponent (in brackets) overlaps 1, suggesting that the SHQ:SSQ relationship is linear.

to equation 5, with HL for Better ear PTA in dB HL and non-parametric bootstrap 95%
confidence intervals specified in brackets. This finding is not significantly different from the
result obtained with the SSQ in the same population (equation 6).

524 SHQ score = -0.066 [-0.078, -0.054] \* HL + 8.45 [8.28, 8.78] (5)

525 SSQ score = -0.069 [-0.079, -0.058] \* HL + 8.55 [8.39, 8.82] (6)

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527 Multiregression analysis on HI subjects, showed that SHQ score variances were explained for 31% by the Better Ear PTA (beta = -0.53) and PTA asymmetry (beta = -0.20). 528 The other predictors (age, gender, number of years of formal education) were not statistically 529 530 significant. A subscale analysis explained between 20% and 34% of the subscales variances with two predictors, Better Ear PTA and PTA asymmetry. Figure 7a shows the Beta coefficients 531 obtained for each predictor, in the same population of HI subjects, for each SHQ and SSQ 532 533 subscale. Better Ear PTA was the most significant predictor of scores, and PTA asymmetry was present in F2, F4 and F5 and the first five subscales of the SHQ, with a large beta coefficient (-534 (0.26) for the localization subscale that was very similar to the SSQ spatial subscale (beta = -535 0.27). The three factors with PTA asymmetry as predictors represent the three parts of the 536 537 localization SHQ subscale. Surprisingly, the eighth SHQ subscale (Speech in noise with 538 spatially separate noise and speech sources) did not have PTA asymmetry as a significant predictor. 539

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# Individual item analysis

541 One of the concerns that can arise when designing a questionnaire is that items may 542 have other significant predictors (i.e. explanatory variables) besides those that are expected. For 543 instance, PTA on the better Ear and PTA asymmetry are expected predictors, whereas other 544 variables, such as gender or number of years of education, are less welcome and may represent 545 confounds. To identify such predictors, multi-regression analyses were performed for each item, with gender, number of years of education, Better Ear PTA and PTA asymmetry as
predictors (age was never a significant predictor, so it was removed from the model) on the
group of 169 HI subjects who had no missing responses.

The percentage of variance explained across the 24 items ranged from 16% (#21) to 549 32% (#3), with both the mean and median at 24%. The beta coefficients allowed us to compare 550 the relative influence of each statistically significant predictor on the scores (Figure 7b). Better 551 552 Ear PTA was a significant predictor for all items, with the highest beta coefficient. PTA asymmetry was a significant predictor from items #13 to #24, but beta coefficients were 553 substantially lower than Better Ear PTA. For items #17, #18 and #20 (and for SHQ factor 2 that 554 555 regroups items #17 to #20), the number of years of education tended to be a significant predictor 556 (0.01 , with lower scores for HI subjects with a higher number of years of education(p = 0.05, beta = -0.14).557

For item #23, related to the capacity of knowing from which direction a car is coming when standing beside a road with eyes closed, gender showed a significant relationship, with lower scores for women versus men. However, the influence of both number of years of education and gender remained weak, and did not survive p-correction for multiple comparisons (0.01 .

#### DISCUSSION

#### 565 **Cross-language comparison of the SHQ**

One of the most widely reported elements, to validate a translation of a questionnaire, 566 is a measure of internal consistency, such as Cronbach's alpha. The internal consistency of the 567 F-SHQ was very high for both NH and HI subjects, similarly to the Dutch (Potvin et al. 2011) 568 and the English versions (Tyler et al. 2009, Perreau et al. 2014a, b) of the SHQ. The excellent 569 570 correlation across items between Perreau's data and the F-SHQ for NH subjects, both in scores and standard deviations, is another strong argument in favor of the validation of the F-SHQ and 571 the validity of the SHQ across different languages. It suggests a good Universalist Model 572 573 Functional equivalence of the F-SHQ.

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575 **Internal structure of the SHQ** 

576 Investigating the internal structure of a questionnaire is essential to ascertain its robustness across different language versions for cross-cultural validation and potential 577 international use. Such an analysis allows us to assess Conceptual equivalence within the 578 Universalist model of cross-cultural adaptation (Regnault & Herdman 2014). In addition, it 579 580 enables exploration of the robustness of the internal structure of a questionnaire across different 581 populations, using data driven methods, which can reveal a different structure from that intended at the design stage of a questionnaire. Indeed, factor analysis was used to assess the 582 F-SHQ internal structure, and gave slightly different results according to the dataset used (NH 583 584 or HI subjects). Previous analyses of the SHQ have reported 3 factors (Tyler et al., 2009; Potvin et al. 2011) or 4 factors (Perreau et al. 2014b). This can be expected from factor analyses with 585 a relatively low ratio of number of subjects to number of variables (less than 2:1 in Perreau et 586 al. (2014b) and less than 4:1 in Potvin et al. (2011)) and different populations (cochlear implant 587 (CI) subjects in Tyler et al. (2009) versus non-cochlear implantees with a 6:1 ratio). The lack 588

of a significant correlation between the communalities obtained across the 24 items by Potvin 589 590 et al. (2011) and both our dataset and Tyler's dataset could be attributed to the very low ratio used by Potvin (below 2:1). For all of the different number of factor extractions (3, 4 or 5) 591 performed, we obtained very high communalities. Although different structures were obtained 592 between the different literature data and our different data sets, there were great similarities in 593 the item groupings: specifically, all of the structures identified items #5 to #12 (addressing 594 595 speech in noise, regardless of whether noise was at the front (subscale 7) or at the side (subscale 8)) as a single factor (factor 2). The first four items, corresponding to the subscale Speech in 596 quiet, were grouped in the same factor, with a low percentage of variance explained. This 597 598 suggests that those items, which describe relatively easy situations, were categorized together (the exception represented by item #4 in Tyler's data obtained in CI subjects is explained 599 below). The differences in structures, from 3 to 5 factors, lies entirely in how items 13 to 24 600 601 (addressing localization) are grouped: in one single group of 12, down to 3 groups of 4. This suggests a difference in the degree of detail in the structures obtained, rather than true 602 differences in the SHQ structure. If cross-loading is to be kept to a minimum, five factors seem 603 the most appropriate for all datasets and correspond to the 5 clusters obtained using Revelle's 604 605 method (Revelle, 1978 & 2014).

The difference in the percentage of variance explained in the five factor structure between NH and HI subjects suggests that for NH subjects, the most difficult situations were in the localization of sounds, which is in agreement with the fact that their lowest scores were obtained for localization items.

For HI subjects, the presence of background noise was the most difficult situation, with the first factor (8 items pertaining to noise) explaining most of the variance. This difference between NH and HI subjects could be attributed either to hearing threshold differences between the groups, or to the age difference. Indeed, auditory perception in noise has been shown to deteriorate with age independent of hearing loss (Pichora-Fuller, 2003), and a significant age
effect on SSQ items pertaining to hearing speech in noise has been reported in a larger group
of 216 HI subjects, including the 202 HI subjects of the present study (Moulin and Richard,
2015).

Although we did not obtain statistically significant correlations between the 618 communalities obtained here and Potvin's data, the lower communalities on the music items 619 620 (#4, #8, #12, #16, #20), which were particularly obvious in NH subjects and (to a lesser degree) in HI subjects, were also observed by Potvin. This could be attributed to the fact that NH 621 subjects tend both to categorize different voices (male, female, children) together and to put 622 623 music hearing in a different category. Indeed, cluster analysis revealed a systematic association, 624 and hence the highest degree of similarity, between the items pertaining to the male voice and the corresponding items pertaining to the female voice, resulting in four subclusters. To those 625 626 subclusters, the third item to be added was systematically the child voice item, and then the music item was added the last, showing some degree of dissimilarity from the others. In 627 addition, items #8 and #12 are associated in a subcluster (subcluster C7 in Figure 5) that 628 represents a subscale of cluster C18 (corresponding to F2), emphasizing the dissimilarity of 629 630 music items from the other items. Except for item #4, such a pattern is much less obvious in 631 Tyler et al.'s data in CI subjects. Indeed, perception of speech in quiet can be quite good in CI subjects, but their difficulty with music perception is notorious (Kang et al. 2009; Singh et al. 632 2009). This could also explain why #4 has very low communality and is part of the second 633 634 factor in Tyler's data and not part of the third factor as in all other data sets. For all of the other items, whether speech in noise or music in noise, CI subjects would have substantial difficulties, 635 and music items would not stand out as much as in a quiet situation. Perhaps Revelle's (1978) 636 method on CI subjects' data could highlight some items similarities obtained specifically in CI 637 subjects. 638

Regardless of whether factor or cluster analysis is used, the latent internal structure of the SHQ revealed by the data is quite different from the initial 8 subscales (Tyler et al. 2009) intended at the design stage: The first 3 subscales (male, female and child voice) seem to be redundant and do not appear in the internal structure of the SHQ, whereas the localization subscale appears as a composite of 3 smaller subscales.

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#### Comparison between the SHQ and SSQ

The direct comparison between the SHQ and the SSQ in the same population, using the
same administration mode and presentation format, allowed us to assess the similarities and
differences between the two questionnaires and to define a precise relationship between the two
scores.

The availability of data on a homogeneous population of NH subjects seems essential 650 651 to the interpretation of scores obtained in HI subjects. Indeed, the maximum score of 10 is not necessarily obtained for each item, and some items show high intersubject variability so that 652 the cutoff point for hearing disability, defined as the mean minus 2 standard deviations, can be 653 too low, rendering some items inefficient when considered individually. This is the case for 654 SHQ items #21 and #22, with cutoffs of 1.0 and 2.2, respectively. Item 21 (location of an 655 656 airplane) also had a low score and high SD in Perreau et al.'s data. The last four items pertaining to localization had the smallest scores in NH subjects, the lowest prediction by Better Ear PTA 657 but, contrary to what could be expected, a relatively lower prediction by PTA asymmetry 658 659 (compared to the other items in the localization subscale). The same low cutoff point is observed for several items of the SSQ as well, mostly items pertaining to the spatial subscale 660 (Moulin et al. 2015). For both questionnaires, the lowest scores in NH subjects is observed for 661 items pertaining to localization, not only in the present study, but in other language versions of 662

both questionnaires (Demeester et al. 2012 and Bahn et al. 2012 for the SSQ and Perreau et al.
2014b for the SHQ).

The similarity between the main scores (6.6 versus 6.6 in HI subjects and 8.5 versus 8.4 in NH subjects) and their standard deviations, the very good correlation between the two (more than 81% variance explained) in two different populations (NH and HI subjects), and the very good correlation between the SSQ spatial subscale and SHQ localization are extremely encouraging, enabling comparisons between studies using the different questionnaires.

Both questionnaires depended on Better Ear PTA and PTA asymmetry. The SSQ total 670 score depended more on Better Ear PTA than did the SHQ total score, but the SSQ Spatial and 671 672 SHQ Localization subscales depended on PTA asymmetry to a similar degree. The SHQ "speech in quiet" behaved in a very similar manner to the SSQ Speech, depending only on 673 Better Ear PTA. Age was not identified as a statistically significant predictor of either SSQ or 674 675 SHQ scores in the present data. Surprisingly, the SHQ Speech in Noise and Speech in Noise (Separate) did not show PTA asymmetry as a significant predictor. The present results show 676 that SSQ and SHQ scores are very similar and behave in the same way as a function of Better 677 Ear PTA and PTA asymmetry in HI subjects, allowing comparison of SSQ scores and SHQ 678 679 scores in different studies. This similarity enables a follow-up of the scores from the SSQ to the 680 SHQ, for instance, in long-term hearing-impaired patients who will eventually need a cochlear implant and perhaps will be more specifically assessed by the SHQ. The similarities between 681 both questionnaires could also provide the basis for building a composite questionnaire, taking 682 683 advantage of the good points of both the SSQ and the SHQ.

Although numerous studies have pointed out the need for health-related questionnaires to meet patients' reading abilities (Paz et al. 2009; Calderon et al. 2006), such aspects are rarely reported during questionnaire design. Although we used readability indexes on the French version of the questionnaires, the excellent correlations between the E-SHQ and F-SHQ

readability indices indicate that the results are likely extendable to the English-language 688 689 versions. The readability indices are clearly easier for the SHQ than for the SSQ, with much shorter questions (13 words versus 21 for the SSQ in the French version). This relative easiness 690 of the SHQ was confirmed by the lack of a significant influence of the number of years of 691 education on SHQ scores. A tendency for a decrease in scores as the years of education 692 increased was observed for only a few items. In contrast, in the SSO, a significant increase in 693 694 scores for several questions was obtained when years of education increased (Moulin and Richard, 2015). The time needed to complete the SSQ appeared to be more sensitive to the 695 number of years of education than the SHQ. The number of years of education was the most 696 697 important predictor of time to complete the SSQ, but it ranked only third in importance for the SHQ. This probably reflects the higher degree of difficulty of the SSQ compared to the SHQ, 698 due to the former's greater length and more-difficult questions as shown by both the readability 699 700 analysis and the self-report scores of the items pertaining to items difficulty, which were greater 701 for the SSQ. To allow an unbiased comparison between the SHQ and the SSQ, we used a similar 702 visual analog scale for both questionnaires, including adding a "non-applicable" answer option to the SHQ. Both of the questionnaires showed a similar rate of missing answers, but in contrast 703 704 to the SSQ, the SHQ showed no correlation between missing response rate and readability 705 indices when tested on the same population as the SSQ. However, the relative simplicity of SHQ items compared to SSQ comes at a cost of ecological validity: subjects tended to think 706 that SSQ items were more relevant to everyday communication situations. Indeed, some SHQ 707 708 items appeared to be redundant, such as the repeated items for male and female voices, as shown by the cluster analysis. Finally, the SSQ was designed to be administered in interview mode, 709 710 where the observer could better explain and facilitate the reading of the scale (Singh & Pichora-Fuller 2010), whereas the SHQ was designed to be used in self-report mode. Using both of the 711

questionnaires in self-report mode could explain why in this study, the SSQ seemed to be more
sensitive to undesired factors such as the patient's number of years of education.

In summary, the SHQ is easier, quicker and seems to be more specific for cochlear 714 implant subjects due to its inclusion of music items, but some of the SHQ items seem redundant. 715 In contrast, the SSQ is longer, more difficult and could perform as well without some 716 particularly difficult items, but it reflects the hearing difficulties of hearing impaired subjects 717 718 in a more realistic manner, with a robust internal structure of 3 subscales. However and more importantly, the similarities of scores and behaviors between the SSQ and the SHQ in the same 719 population show that the use of different questionnaires does not preclude the possibility of a 720 direct comparison between scores, allowing comparison between international studies, even 721 when they use a different questionnaire. 722

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#### CONCLUSION

This study validated a French-language version of the SHQ within the framework of the Universalist model of cross-cultural adaptation of health-related questionnaires and showed that the F-SHQ version was similar to other language versions. Thus, the psychometric properties and the internal structure (based on cluster analysis) of the F-SHQ obtained in this study from a large sample of normal-hearing and hearing-impaired subjects are easily extendable to other language versions.

Secondly, both the SHQ and SSQ were administered to the same population of normalhearing and hearing-impaired subjects, allowing a direct comparison between SHQ and SSQ scores and their behavior as a function of the main predictors: Better Ear PTA and PTA asymmetry. The questionnaires showed remarkable similarities, demonstrating the possibility of extrapolation of results from one questionnaire to the other. The SHQ was perceived as both quicker and easier to complete by the patients in a self-report mode but was somewhat less ecologically valid than the SSQ.

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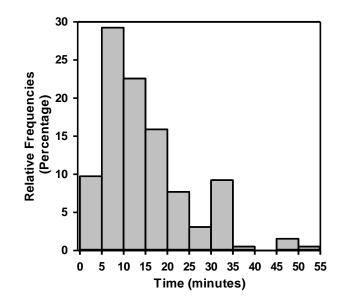
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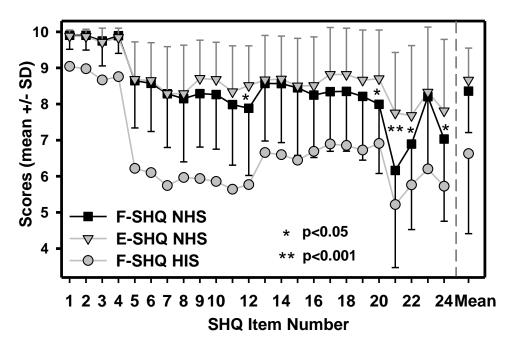
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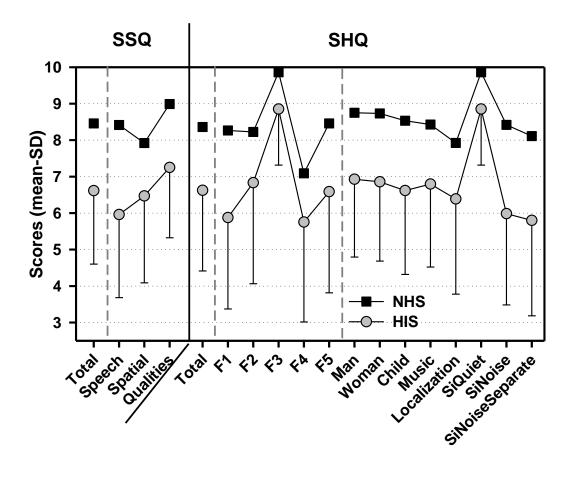
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**Figure 1.** Relative frequencies (percentages) of the time, per 5-minute bins, that 202 hearing-impaired subjects reported taking to complete the Spatial Hearing Questionnaire.



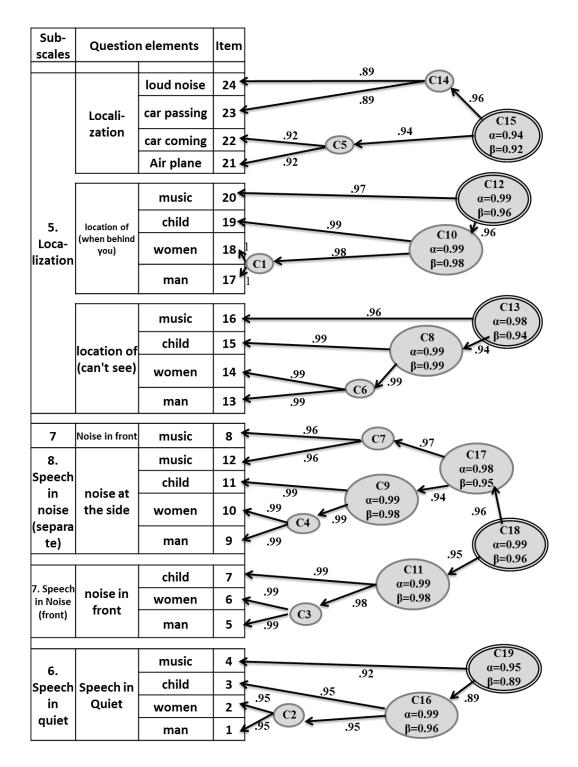
**Figure 2.** Mean scores (+/- standard deviation) per SHQ item for 98 normal-hearing subjects (NHS, black squares) and for 205 hearing-impaired subjects (HIS, gray circles). For comparison, the scores obtained by Perreau et al. (2014) with the E-SHQ in normal-hearing subjects are shown as gray triangles.



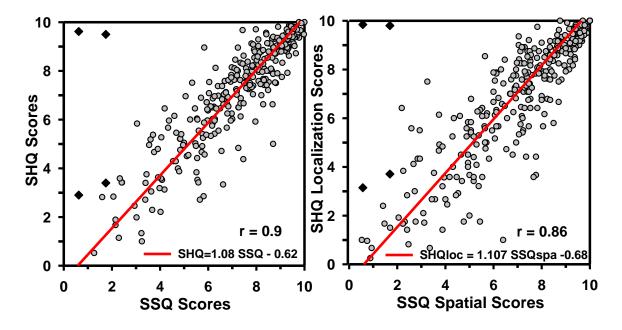
**Figure 3.** Spatial Hearing Questionnaire (SHQ) mean scores obtained in normal-hearing subjects (NHS, black squares, n = 98) and in hearing-impaired subjects (HIS, gray dots, n = 205). The 8 subscales and the 5 factors (F1 to F5) identified by factor analysis are shown. The mean scores of the Speech Spatial Hearing (SSQ) questionnaire and its 3 main subscales (Speech, Spatial and Qualities) obtained in the same subjects are also shown. The standard deviations are displayed as error bars for the hearing-impaired subjects only. Although they are identical, both factor F3 and the subscale "Speech in quiet" are shown.

				3 fac	tors		4 factors		5 fac	Cluster	
				NHHIS	CIS *	NHS **	HIS ***	NHHIS	NHS	NF	IHIS
Subscales	Questic	on elements	Item	303	146 *	51 **	71 ***	303	98	303	303
		man	1		F3						
6. Speech in	Speech in	women	2	F3		F3	F4	F3	F3	F3	C19
quiet	Quiet	child	3	(6%)	(5%)	(12%)	(5%)	(6%)	(11%)	(6%)	(3.6)
		music	4								
		man	5								
7. Speech in noise	Speech in	women	6								C11
(Front)	Noise	child	7		F2						
(		music	8	F2	(13%)	F2	F1	F2	F2	F1	
		man	9	(8%)	(15/0)	(15%)	(68%)	(8%)	(13%)	(70%)	C18 (6.9)
8. Speech in noise	noise at	women	10								CI8 (0.9)
(separate)	the side	child	11								C9
		music	12								
		man	13								
	location of	women	14					F1	F4	F5	C13
	(can't see)	child	15					(70%)	(5%)	(2%)	(3.5)
		music	16			F1	F2				
	location of	man	17			(48%)	(11%)				
5. Locali-	(when	women	18	F1	F1			F4	F1	F2	C12
zation	behind	child	19	(70)	(65)			(2%)	(51)	(8%)	(3.5)
	you)	music	20								
		Air plane	21								
	Locali-	car coming	22			F4	F3	F1	F5	F4	C15 (4)
	zation	car passing by	23			(7%)	(6%)	(70)	(3%)	(2%)	CI5 (4)
		loud noise	24								

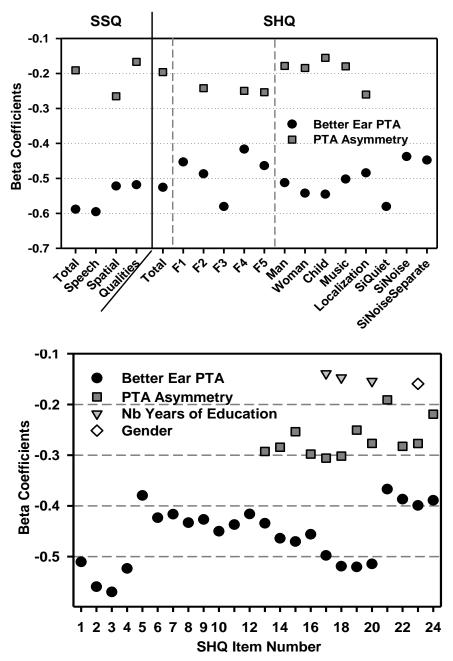
**Figure 4.** Distribution of the different SHQ items on the factors obtained by factor analyses on 98 normal-hearing subjects (NHS), 205 hearing-impaired subjects (HIS) and the total sample (NHHIS). The leftmost columns describe the 24 items of the SHQ, showing the questions wording and the SHQ subscales defined by Tyler et al. (2009). The distribution of factors corresponding to 3-, 4- and 5-factor extractions are shown: the factors are sorted by the % of variance they explain (with gray background intensity decreasing as % of variance decreases). For comparison, factor analyses obtained in the literature for different populations are shown with asterisks, \* for Tyler et al. (2009) for 146 cochlear implant subjects (CIS), \*\* for Perreau et al. (2014) for 51 NHS and \*\*\* for Potvin et al. (2011) for 71 HIS. The right-most column describes the cluster analysis, with the eigenvalues of each cluster shown.



**Figure 5.** Tree-cluster diagram from the Revelle's cluster analysis of the F-SHQ data obtained in normal-hearing and hearing-impaired subjects (n = 316) and correspondence with each item and subscale of the SHQ. Highly similar items/clusters are combined first (clusters C1 to C7) and other items/clusters are added so that the internal consistency (measured by alpha) and/or the factorial homogeneity (measured by beta) of the cluster does not decrease. This procedure results in a hierarchical tree diagram of 5 distinct main clusters, shown by a double line (C12, C13, C15, C18 and C19) that displays the internal structure of the scale. Correlations coefficients between each cluster and sub-clusters are shown beside the arrows and alpha and beta coefficients are specified in the main clusters and sub-clusters.



**Figure 6:** Scatterplots of the SHQ scores as a function of the SSQ scores, for the total score (left panel) and the SHQ localization subscale as a function of SSQ spatial scores, for 202 hearing-impaired and 98 normal-hearing subjects. Orthogonal distance regression lines are shown in red, along with their equations. Box plots in the top left corner of each panel shows the distribution of the SHQ (white boxes) and SSQ scores (grey boxes) with the 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles shown as black diamonds, the median as a solid line and the mean as a dashed line.



**Figure 7a.** Beta coefficients of multi-regression analysis of the Spatial Hearing Questionnaire (SHQ) scores, for 2 significant predictors: Better Ear PTA (black dots) and PTA Asymmetry (gray squares), obtained in hearing-impaired subjects (n = 205). Beta coefficients are shown for the total score (Total), each of the 5 factors (from F1 to F5) and the 8 SHQ subscales. The same analysis on the same population is shown for the Speech Spatial Hearing (SSQ) questionnaire total score (total) and the 3 main SSQ subscales (speech, Spatial and Qualities) for comparison.

**Figure 7b.** Beta coefficients of multi-regression analysis of the Spatial Hearing Questionnaire (SHQ) scores, for 4 significant predictors: Better Ear PTA (black dots), PTA asymmetry (gray squares), number of years of education (gray triangles) and gender (white diamonds) obtained in hearing-impaired subjects (n = 169). Beta coefficients are shown only for the significant predictors.

## **TABLES**

**Table 1.** Pearson correlation coefficients obtained between SSQ scores and SHQ scores on 98 normal-hearing and 205 hearing-impaired subjects. Correlations between each SHQ subscale and SHQ\_factors with each of the 3 main subscales of the SSQ (Speech, Spatial and Qualities) are compared. Correlation coefficients that were significantly stronger with one SSQ subscale than the other two SSQ subscales are on a gray background (Z scores, p < 0.01).

	SSQ	Speech	Spatial	Qualities
SHQ	0.90	0.83	0.85	0.82
SHQ_Man	0.87	0.82	0.80	0.80
SHQ_Woman	0.88	0.84	0.81	0.81
SHQ_Child	0.87	0.83	0.80	0.79
SHQ_Music	0.86	0.79	0.81	0.81
SHQ_Localization	0.86	0.74	0.86	0.77
SHQ_SiNoise	0.79	0.81	0.68	0.73
SHQ_SiNoiseSeparate	0.79	0.80	0.69	0.72
SHQ_F1	0.80	0.81	0.69	0.73
SHQ_F2	0.78	0.68	0.78	0.72
SHQ_F3 (SiQuiet)	0.73	0.71	0.61	0.73
SHQ_F4	0.81	0.68	0.85	0.72
SHQ_F5	0.82	0.71	0.82	0.74

# **Supplemental Digital Contents**

**Supplemental Digital Contents 1:** French-language version of the Spatial Hearing Questionnaire (SHQ). F\_SHQ2015.pdf.

**Supplemental Digital Contents 2:** Validation of the French language version of the spatial hearing questionnaire: normative data obtained in 98 normal-hearing subjects, item-to-total correlations and details of the different factor analyses. F\_SHQ\_VALIDATION.pdf.

## Supplemental material 2, related to the paper:

Validation of a French-Language Version of the Spatial Hearing Questionnaire, Cluster Analysis and Comparison with the Speech, Spatial, and Qualities of Hearing Scale, by A. Moulin & C. Richard. *Ear and Hearing*, 2016.

## 1. Normative data and item-total correlation

		mative v n=98 NH			- total lation
Item	Mean	SD	- 2 SD	NHS	HIS
1	9.90	0.39	9.13	0.23	0.63
2	9.90	0.41	9.09	0.24	0.64
3	9.75	0.69	8.36	0.32	0.67
4	9.89	0.49	8.91	0.29	0.67
5	8.65	1.31	6.03	0.72	0.82
6	8.57	1.33	5.91	0.74	0.82
7	8.28	1.49	5.31	0.74	0.83
8	8.15	1.55	5.04	0.70	0.85
9	8.29	1.48	5.33	0.75	0.84
10	8.26	1.51	5.24	0.71	0.84
11	7.99	1.68	4.63	0.74	0.85
12	7.88	1.69	4.50	0.68	0.83
13	8.57	1.59	5.38	0.72	0.86
14	8.57	1.63	5.30	0.73	0.87
15	8.45	1.67	5.10	0.74	0.88
16	8.25	1.73	4.79	0.78	0.86
17	8.34	1.65	5.04	0.81	0.87
18	8.35	1.66	5.04	0.81	0.88
19	8.21	1.77	4.68	0.82	0.87
20	7.99	1.91	4.16	0.80	0.85
21	6.16	2.57	1.02	0.73	0.74
22	6.89	2.37	2.16	0.78	0.84
23	8.21	2.10	4.01	0.67	0.80
24	7.03	2.17	2.69	0.73	0.78

#### Table 1.

Mean scores (+/- standard deviation) obtained in normally hearing subjects (NHS) with item-total correlations for the NHS and the hearing-impaired subjects (HIS).

#### 2. Factor analysis results of the Spatial Hearing Questionnaire.

#### Methods are briefly summarized here (detailed in the manuscript)

For factor extraction, we used the principal axis factoring method. For the number of factors to extract, the commonly used subjective Cattel's scree test (Cattell 1966) was used, with the more objective parallel analysis (Horn 1965) and Velicer's minimum average partial method (MAP) (Velicer 1976). An oblique factor rotation method (direct oblimin) was chosen and the percentages of variance explained by the different factors will be given before and after rotation.

#### NH subjects:

For NH subjects, the 3-factors option gave an underfactoring result, with a cumulative variance explained at 74% and RMSR (root mean square residuals) at least 0.06. The 3-factors option gave F1, a 12-item factor (#13 to #24) explaining 50% of variance; F2, an 8 item factor (#5 to #12) explaining 13% of variance and F3, a 4-item factor (#1 to 4) explaining 11% of variance (32%, 27% and 13% after rotation). Just one Item (#2) loaded on two factors: F1 (0.53) and F2 (0.33).

A 4-factor extraction was suggested by the parallel analysis and an eigenvalue above 1.0. The 4 factors explained 51%, 13%, 11% and 5% (cumulative 80% of variance explained) of the variance (35, 29, 20 and 16% after rotation), and the mean communalities were 0.8, with the 3 lowest values for #23 (0.46), #21 and #24 (0.61). The RMSR was 0.04. The second and third factors were identical to the 3-factor solution (Figure 2). The factor congruence coefficients with Perreau et al.'s data for F2 and F3 were 0.97 and 0.96, respectively. Item #23 loaded equally on factors 1 (0.27), 2 (0.27) and 4 (0.30).

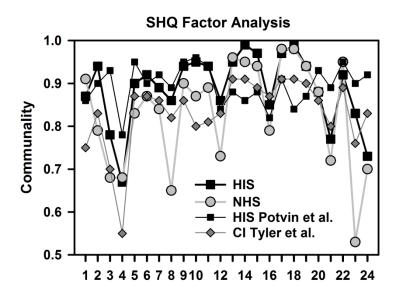
As 5-factor extraction was recommended in the HIS and NHHIS group, we tried it for NHS. The cumulative variance explained was above 83% and the fifth factor explained 3% of the variance (32 %, 21 %, 18 %, 16 % and 13 % after rotation). The RMSR was below 0.03. The two lowest communalities were 0.57 (#23) and 0.68 (#8), with an average of 0.83. #23 loaded mostly on factor 5 (0.46), and on factor 3 to a lesser degree (0.36) (Figure 1)

#### HI subjects:

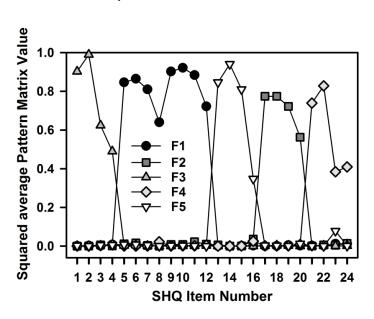
For HI subjects, the parallel analysis gave 3 factors which explained 70%, 8% and 6% of the variance (cumulative variance explained 84%) (48%, 37% and 15% after rotation). The lowest communalities were 0.63 for #21 and 0.66 for #4, with a mean of 0.84. The RMSR was 0.03. The distribution of the 3 main factors was identical to that observed for NH subjects, without any cross-loading. The congruence factors with Tyler et al.'s data were 95 for F3, 87 for F2 and 83 for F1 (for HI subjects).

A 4-factor extraction gave heavy cross-loadings, with items 13 to 16 loading on F1 and F4, and was abandoned.

The extraction of 5 factors, as determined by Velicer's MAP criterion (Velicer 1976), explained 89% of variance (with 70%, 8%, 7%, 2% and 2% for the 5 factors and 34 %, 19 %, 18 %, 15% and 14% after rotation). The lowest communalities were 67% and 73%, with a mean of 89%. The distribution of factor loadings on the 24 items was identical to the distribution mentioned for the total sample, with high loads for all of the items without cross-loadings (Figure 1).



**Figure 1** Communalities are shown, representing the amount of variance in each of the 24 items that is accounted for by the five retained factors, for the normal-hearing subjects (NHS, n = 98, black squares), the hearing-impaired subjects (205 HIS, gray dots). For comparison, literature data obtained in cochlear implant subjects (CIS) (small gray diamonds) by Tyler et al. (2009) and in 71 HIS (small black squares) by Potvin et al. (2011) are provided.



**Figure 2.** The square of the mean factor weights for each of the 24 SHQ items (i.e., the proportion of variance accounted for by each factor) obtained by factor analysis using a 5-factor extraction and oblique rotation on a group of normal-hearing and hearing-impaired patients (n = 303). The symbols mark the five rotated factors, by order of % of variance explained (from F1 to F5).

#### Total sample:

Questionnaire d'audition spatiale (SHQ) version 1.0

# Questionnaire d'écoute spatiale

## Conseils pour répondre aux questions

Les questions suivantes concernent vos capacités et votre expérience en matière d'audition et d'écoute dans le cadre de situations diverses.

Pour chacune des questions, vous devez mettre la réponse sur l'échelle située à droite, à l'aide d'une croix, à l'endroit choisi entre 0 et 10. Une croix sur la valeur 10 signifie que vous êtes parfaitement capable de faire ce qui est décrit dans la question correspondante. Une croix sur la valeur 0 indique que vous ne pouvez pas faire ce qui est décrit.

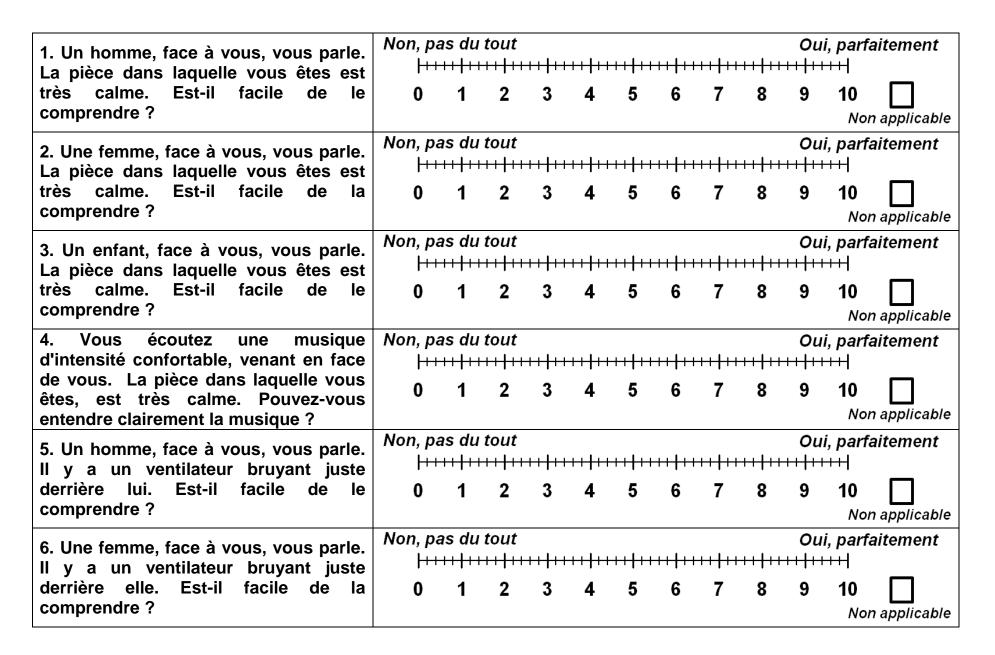
## Exemple :

0.	Vous	pouvez	suivre	une	Non, pa	as du	tout							Ou	i, parf	aitement
			personne e	n face	<b> </b> ++	+++++	++++++	++++++	· · · <b> </b>	++++++	++++++	++++++	++++++	+++++	+++	
de v	/ous, dans	s le calme.			0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
															No	n applicable

La question 0 se rapporte à votre capacité de suivre une conversation. Si vous êtes tout à fait capable de le faire, placez une croix sur l'extrémité droite de l'échelle. Si vous êtes capable de suivre environ la moitié de la conversation dans une telle situation, placez la marque vers le milieu de l'échelle (le 5) et ainsi de suite. Si vous n'arrivez pas du tout à suivre une conversation, placez la croix sur le 0, à gauche de l'échelle.

Nous espérons que toutes les questions sont pertinentes au regard de votre vie quotidienne. Si ce n'est pas le cas pour certaines questions, veuillez cocher la case « non applicable ». Merci de bien vouloir expliquer en quelques mots à côté de la question la raison pour laquelle elle n'est pas pertinente dans votre cas.

Date:\_\_\_\_\_ Heure de début :....



	Non, J											, I	aitement
7. Un enfant, face à vous, vous parle. Il	H	+++	<del>       </del>	++++	++++++		+++ <b>+</b> ++	++++++	+++	++++++	++++++	+++-	
y a un ventilateur bruyant juste derrière lui. Est-il facile de le comprendre ?	0		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
													n applicable
8. Vous écoutez une musique	Non, pas du tout Oui, parfaitement												
d'intensité confortable, venant en face	[ + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +												
de vous. Il y a également un ventilateur bruyant en face de vous.	0		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
Pouvez-vous entendre clairement la musique ?												No	n applicable
	Non,	oas	du t	out							Ou	i, parf	aitement
9. Un homme, face à vous, vous parle.													
I y a un ventilateur bruyant sur le côté. Est-il facile de le comprendre ?	0		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
													n applicable
	Non, pas du tout Oui, parfaitement												
10. Une femme, face à vous, vous	H	+++	<del>       </del>	++++	+++++		+++++++	++++++	++++++	++++++	+++++	┝┼┼┨	
parle. Il y a un ventilateur bruyant sur le côté. Est-il facile de la comprendre ?	0		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
												No	n applicable
	Non, J	oas	du t	out							Ou	i, parf	aitement
11. Un enfant, face à vous, vous parle.	+	+++	<del>       </del>	+   + +	+++++		· · · <b> </b> · ·	++++++	++++++	++++++	+++++	HH	
Il y a un ventilateur bruyant sur le côté. Est-il facile de le comprendre ?	0		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
												No	n applicable
12. Vous écoutez une musique	Non,	bas	du t	out							Ou	i, parf	aitement
d'intensité confortable, venant en face	H	+++	<del>                                     </del>	++++	+++++		· · · <b>  </b> · ·	+++++	++++++	++++++	+++++	HH	
de vous. Il y a également un ventilateur bruyant de côté. Pouvez-	0		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
vous entendre clairement la musique ?												No	n applicable

	Non, p	as du	tout							Ou	i, parf	aitement		
13. Est-il facile de déterminer d'où vient														
la voix d'un homme si vous ne le voyez pas ?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10 No	n applicable		
	Non, pas du tout Oui, parfaitement													
14. Est-il facile de déterminer d'où vient														
la voix d'une femme si vous ne la voyez pas ?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10			
												n applicable		
	Non, p										· •	aitement		
15. Est-il facile de déterminer d'où vient														
voix d'un enfant si vous ne le voyez as ?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10			
											No	n applicable		
	Non, pas du tout         Oui, parfaitement           :													
6. Est-il facile de déterminer d'où vient		++++		+++∔+	• • • • • •	• • • • • • •		+++++	++++++	++++++	$\left  + + \right $			
une musique, si vous ne voyez pas le haut parleur ?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10			
	<u> </u>										No	n applicable		
	Non, p											aitement		
17. Est-il facile de déterminer	F+	<del>। । । <b> </b> ।</del>	· · · <b> </b> · ·	+++	· · · <b> </b> ·	· · · <b>  </b> · ·		++++++	++++++	+++	⊢++-┨			
exactement d'où vient la voix d'un homme s'il est derrière vous ?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	<b>10</b> No	n applicable		
	Non, p	as du	tout							Ou	i, parf	aitement		
18. Est-il facile de déterminer	<i>,</i> ,				· · · <b> </b> ·			· · · <b> </b> · ·	+++++			-		
exactement d'où vient la voix d'une femme si elle est derrière vous ?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10 No.	n applicable		

10 Est il facile de déterminer	Non,					1 .	• .		1			, <b>,</b>	aitement	
19. Est-il facile de déterminer exactement d'où vient la voix d'un														
enfant s'il est derrière vous?	0		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
	••												n applicable	
20 Est il facile de déterminer	Non, pas du tout Oui, parfaitement												aitement	
20. Est-il facile de déterminer exactement d'où vient une musique, si	H			• • • • •	+++++	+++ <b>†</b> +	• • • • • • •	┝┼┼╉┼┤	+++++	++++++	+++++	++4	_	
elle vient de derrière vous.	0		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
												No	n applicable	
24. Est il facile de déterminer eù se	Non,											· •	aitement	
21. Est-il facile de déterminer où se trouve un avion dans le ciel si vous ne														
le voyez pas?	0		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
												No	n applicable	
	<i>Non, pas du tout Oui, parfaitement Oui, parfaitement</i>													
22. Vous entendez une voiture au loin mais vous ne la voyez pas. Est-il facile			+++	<del>।   <b> </b>    </del>	+++++	· · · <b>†</b> ·	++++++		· · · <b>·</b> · ·	++++++	+++++	-++-	_	
de dire précisément d'où elle vient?	0		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
•												No	n applicable	
23. Imaginez-vous au bord d'une route,	Non, pas du tout Oui, parfaitement													
les yeux fermés. Est-il facile de dire		+++	<del> </del>	<del>    <b> </b>    </del>	+++++	<del>      <b> </b>  </del>	• • • • • • •		· · · <b> </b> · ·	+++	<del>      </del>	-++-	_	
dans quel sens passe la voiture que	0		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
vous entendez?												No	n applicable	
24. Vous êtes dans une pièce d'une	Non,											· •	aitement	
maison et vous entendez un grand	H	+++	+++	• • • • •	+++++	<del>      <b> </b>  </del>	· · · <b>· </b> · ·		+++++	++++++	+++++	++-	_	
bruit. Est-il facile de dire à quelle	0		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
distance s'est produit le bruit?												No	n applicable	

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	Non, p	as du	l tout							Ou	i, parf	aitement	
25. Dans l'ensemble, les questions		+++	+++++	HH									
vous ont-elles semblées faciles ?	nsemble, les questions semblées faciles ? $1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \\ 7 \\ 8 \\ 9 \\ 10 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ $												
											No	n applicable	
	Non, p	as du	l tout							Ou	Oui, parfaitement		
26. Les questions reflètent-elles bien		+++++	<del>      <b> </b>    </del>	++++++	<b>+++</b> +++	<b>⊢++¦</b> ++	++++++	++++++	++++++	+++++	HH		
les situations rencontrées tous les jours ?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
-											No	n applicable	

Merci de ne pas oublier de mentionner l'heure de fin de remplissage du questionnaire : .....