

1 **Quality, readability and suitability of hearing health related
2 materials: A descriptive review**

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4 **Vinaya Manchaiah,^{1,2} Rebecca J. Kelly-Campbell,³ Monica L. Bellon-Harn,¹ &
5 Eldré W. Beukes^{1,4}**

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- 7 1. Department of Speech and Hearing Sciences, Lamar University, Beaumont,
8 Texas, USA
- 9 2. Department of Speech and Hearing, School of Allied Health Sciences,
10 Manipal University, Manipal, Karnataka, India
- 11 3. School of Psychology, Speech and Hearing, University of Canterbury,
12 Christchurch, New Zealand
- 13 4. Department of Vision and Hearing Sciences, Anglia Ruskin University,
14 Cambridge, United Kingdom

15

16 **Corresponding author:** Dr. Vinaya Manchaiah

17 **Communication address:** Department of Speech and Hearing Sciences,
18 Lamar University, Beaumont, Texas 77710, USA

19 **Email:** vinaya.manchaiah@lamar.edu

20 **Tel:** +1 (409) 880 8927

21 **Fax:** +1 (409) 880 2265

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27

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30

31

32 **Abstract**

33 **Objectives:** The objective of this descriptive review was to determine the quality,
34 readability and suitability of ear and hearing health information and materials for
35 patients and their significant others.

36 **Method:** A literature search was conducted between August 2018 and April 2019 in
37 the databases CINAHL Complete, MEDLINE, and PsychInfo. Inclusion and
38 exclusion criteria were used to shortlist studies. Data regarding quality, suitability and
39 readability were extracted from the included studies. Data were assessed qualitatively.

40 **Results:** There were 34 studies included in this review. Of those, 8 examined quality,
41 33 assessed readability and 4 investigated the suitability of materials. The range of
42 materials assessed included diagnostic reports, Patient Education Materials (PEMs),
43 Patient Reported Outcome Measures (PROMs), and websites. Quality elements were
44 examined in studies focusing on website information. Findings indicated that most
45 websites were of poor quality. Suitability was examined in studies focusing on PEMs
46 such as hearing aid user guides. Findings indicated that most of the existing materials
47 were not suitable for the intended populations. The Reading Grade Level (RGL) of
48 information across all four categories was found to be higher than the recommended
49 5th or 6th RGL for health-related materials. Revisions of some diagnostic reports and
50 PEMs showed that improvements are possible.

51 **Conclusions:** This review suggests that ear and hearing related materials generally
52 have lower quality and suitability with higher readability (more difficult to read).
53 Development of materials which are suitable, of high quality, and at the appropriate
54 readability levels, are required to improve accessibility of ear and hearing related
55 materials.

56

57 **Key Words**

58 Health literacy, Health communication, Readability, Quality, Suitability, Patient
59 education materials, Online information

60

61 **Introduction**

62 Health literacy refers to the ability of individuals to access, understand, and use
63 information in ways that promote and maintain good health (Nutbeam, 2000).
64 Traditionally, health information has been sought from health professionals, friends,
65 family, or the news media (e.g., television, radio, or newspaper media). This
66 information may be in the form of brochures, clinical forms, or questionnaires. More
67 recently people are turning to electronic media such as the Internet websites and
68 social media for information and management advice for health issues. When
69 accessing online health information, eHealth literacy skills are required. These
70 include the ability to seek, find, understand, assess and critically evaluate information
71 from electronic sources (Norman & Skinner, 2006). The wealth of the information
72 available can promote active engagement in self-management of health-related
73 concerns and healthy living.

74

75 Literacy and health literacy are important components of health communication
76 which have bearing towards how people relate to and understand health information.
77 Generally, low overall literacy may negatively impact an individual's health literacy;
78 however, the relationship between them is complex (Easton, Entwistle, & Williams,
79 2010). For instance, an individual may have high overall literacy and still have low
80 health literacy. Nonetheless, adults with low levels of health literacy have a reduced
81 understanding of health material, exhibit poorer health behaviors, and have worse

82 health outcomes compared with those with higher levels of health literacy (Berkman
83 et al., 2011; Jensen et al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2010). When health information is
84 adjusted to account for lower literacy skills patients are able to better understand the
85 information presented. This has been linked to positive health outcomes as patients
86 are able to take a more active role in their rehabilitation, resulting in higher levels of
87 satisfaction about healthcare (Edwards, Davies, & Edwards, 2009). Hence,
88 information that is easily understandable by patients may contribute to higher
89 acceptance of their condition and aid self-management of their symptoms (Edwards,
90 Wood, Davies, & Edwards, 2012; Sawesi et al., 2016).

91

92 Accessibility of health information can be conceptualized as the availability of
93 information to patients and their significant others. However, considering health
94 information accessibility in terms of quality, readability, and suitability may provide
95 more relevant information. This is critical in order to support patients' abilities to
96 understand and use health information. However, a recent literature review suggests
97 that poor readability is noted in online health information about hearing loss
98 (Laplante-Lévesque & Thorén, 2015). It is important that both offline and online
99 health information are of high quality and accessible to those with lower literacy skills
100 (Beaunoyer et al. 2017; Kim & Xie, 2017).

101

102 Quality refers to the degree to which the online material is relevant and reliable. Tools
103 are available to rate websites on various quality indicators and provide quantitative
104 methods to assess Internet-based healthcare information. While there are various
105 criteria for quality assessment (Hasan & Abuelrub, 2011), two frequently used
106 methods for healthcare information include the Health On the Net (HON) certification

107 (Boyer et al., 1998) and results from the DISCERN instrument (Charnock et al.,
108 1999). HON is a non-governmental organization that promotes and guides useful and
109 reliable online health information. HON certification is an indication that the web
110 developers adhere to recommended guidelines for quality information and formatting
111 on a website (Boyer, Selby, Scherrer, & Appel, 1998). DISCERN is an instrument
112 used assess content quality, specifically with regard to unbiased treatment decision-
113 making (Charnock et al., 1999). The DISCERN instrument can be used to rate the
114 websites or other health materials on various quality indicators and provided a
115 quantitative method to assess healthcare information.

116

117 Readability refers to a measure of the difficulty experienced by people reading a text
118 and a measure of the linguistic characteristics of a given text (McLaughlin, 1996). As
119 such, reading levels at or below 6th grade are recommended to ensure the information
120 is understood by the general population (Weiss, 2003). Although many readability
121 measures exist, there is no standard for choosing readability formulas (Breese &
122 Burman, 2005). These formulas analyze characteristics of the words or sentences in a
123 passage and quantify the reading difficulty of the materials (Gemoets, Rosemblat,
124 Tse, & Logan, 2004). For most formulas, the estimate of readability is represented as
125 a Reading Grade Level (RGL) which can be interpreted as the number of years of
126 U.S. education required to understand what is written (Ley & Florio, 1996).
127 Beaunoyer et al. (2017) suggests a battery of four readability tools that are highly
128 reliable in a biomedical context and have been validated to analyze readability of
129 online material. These include Flesch Reading Ease (FRE, Flesch, 1948), Flesch-
130 Kincaid Grade Level (F-K GL), Simple Measure of Gobbledygook (SMOG;
131 McLaughlin, 1996), Gunning Fog Index (GFI), and FORCAST. FRE, F-K RGL and

132 SMOG are suitable for examining readability of narrative text. The FORCAST
133 formula is the most appropriate readability formula for use with a non-narrative text
134 format, such as PROMs (Atcherson, Zraick, & Brasseux, 2011).

135

136 Suitability considers reading comprehension beyond reading levels that are obtained
137 by readability formulas (Finnie, Felder, Linder, & Mullen, 2010). Tools to measure
138 suitability consider the relative difficulty of understanding the meaning of the
139 information (Doak, Doak, & Root, 1996). For example the Suitability Assessment of
140 Materials (SAM; Doak et al., 1996) evaluates the (1) content, (2) literacy demand, (3)
141 graphics, (4) layout and typography, (5) learning stimulation/motivation, and (6)
142 cultural appropriateness of the material.

143

144 Within audiology contexts, hearing related information available to patients has been
145 reported in the literature to be of poor quality and suitability and is written at higher
146 than recommended reading levels. For example, hearing aid instruction guides are
147 reported to have high readability levels and low suitability (Caposecco et al., 2014;
148 Nair, & Cienkowski, 2010). The RGL required in hearing aid instruction guides may
149 be high because the developers may not have written the text in simple language.

150 Moreover, low suitability may be related to developers not considering aspects such
151 as use of common vocabulary, use of subheadings, and presentation of problems and
152 questions for reader engagement. Additionally, electronic hearing health information
153 has also been found to have low quality and have high readability levels (Laplante-
154 Lévesque, Brännström, Andersson, & Lunner, 2012; Manchaiah et al., 2019a).

155 Brooke, Isherwood, Herbert, Raynor, and Knapp (2012) examined the usability of
156 hearing aid booklets to determine how easy it is for its users to find and understand

157 the key facts. This study reported that hearing aid booklets contained information that
158 may be difficult for many users to understand and follow, which may negatively
159 impact hearing aid satisfaction and use. The authors of this study suggested that
160 ensuring accessible written information in hearing aid booklet is essential in
161 improving client satisfaction with hearing healthcare services. Moreover, it has been
162 suggested that if the literacy burden is too substantial, patients may not complete or
163 incorrectly respond to self-administered hearing questionnaires (Atcherson, Richburg,
164 Zraick, & George, 2013a), although this needs to be confirmed through further
165 research. Nevertheless, these studies highlight the need for evaluating hearing related
166 information in terms of quality, readability, and suitability prior to dissemination.

167

168 A recent literature review that examined the quality and readability of hearing health
169 Internet information reported that high readability levels (i.e., mean RGLs ranged
170 from 9 to over 14) were required to understand hearing health information (Laplante-
171 Lévesque & Thorén, 2015). The scope of the review by Laplante-Lévesque and
172 Thorén (2015) was limited to examining readability of Internet-based health
173 information. As noted, other elements such as quality and suitability are also
174 important in evaluating accessibility of health information which were not included in
175 this review. Additionally, only online health information was examined in Laplante-
176 Lévesque & Thorén (2015), resulting in a review of 8 studies. However, patients and
177 their significant others obtain information from both online and offline sources.
178 Hence, examination of quality, readability, and suitability of offline and online
179 hearing health information is needed. An updated literature review is needed to
180 reassess the accessibility hearing health information with a broader scope by (a)
181 including all types of information and/or materials; and (b) examining the quality,

182 readability, and suitability of information. The objective of this descriptive review
183 was to determine the accessibility of ear and hearing health information and materials
184 for patients and their significant others in terms of quality, readability and suitability.

185

186 **Method**

187 A literature search was conducted between August 2018 to April 2019 using
188 CINAHL Complete, MEDLINE, and PsychInfo. The literature review adhered to the
189 principles of the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-
190 Analyses Protocols (PRISMA) 2015 statement (Moher et al., 2015). PRISMA
191 prescribes a flow diagram describing the process in four phases, including: searching,
192 identification, screening, and inclusion (see Figure 1).

193

194 **<Figure 1 near here>**

195

196 **Search Strategy**

197 The search string “(hearing OR audiology OR tinnitus OR vestibular OR ear OR
198 otolaryng* OR otitis*) AND (Internet OR online OR website OR questionnaires OR
199 education materials) AND (quality OR readab* OR suitab* OR literacy)” were used.
200 In addition, manual searches were implemented to increase the coverage of the
201 available literature. This included: (1) hand-searching key journals and the reference
202 lists from the included studies, (2) searching Google Scholar, and (3) contacting
203 researchers and experts in the field to inquire if any records were missing or if they
204 had any manuscripts that had been accepted for publication.

205

206 **Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria and Screening of Records**

207 A broad definition of health related materials was used to include a wide range of
208 materials for patients and their significant others. These were broadly classified as: (a)
209 diagnostic reports; (b) Patient Education Materials (PEMs) such as brochures, user
210 guides or documents from websites; (c) Patient Reported Outcome Measures
211 (PROMs) such as standardized and validated questionnaires completed
212 by patients to measure their perception of their functional well-being and health status
213 (e.g., Hearing Handicap Inventory for Adults; HHIA; Newman, Weinstein, Jacobson,
214 & Hug, 1990); and (d) websites.

215

216 Table 1 lists the study eligibility criteria with reference to participants, intervention,
217 control, outcomes and study design (PICOS; Schardt et al., 2017) as well as criteria
218 for the publication language and publication type. Figure 1 shows the search process.
219 Two researchers independently conducted the search. Notes were compared and
220 inclusion and exclusion criteria were applied.

221

222 **<Table 1 near here>**

223

224 **Data Extraction and Synthesis**

225 The data from included studies were extracted and synthesized. Standardized and
226 commonly used quality, readability and suitability elements were examined. Table 2
227 provides details of these measures including the studies' scope, scoring and
228 interpretation. Understanding these measures is necessary to be able to interpret the
229 findings of the studies. HON certification (Boyer et al., 1998) and DISCERN
230 instrument (Charnock et al., 1999) were the main measures used in evaluating the
231 quality of information. The Suitability Assessment of Materials (SAM; Doak et al.,

232 1996) was the main scale used to assess the suitability of information. Various
233 readability formulas were used to determine readability levels (see Table 3).

234

235 The study quality analysis was not conducted as almost all of the studies were
236 descriptive in nature. All the studies included in the review used appropriate methods,
237 although some limitations were noted in reporting the results.

238

239 **<Table 2 near here>**

240 **<Table 3 near here>**

241

242 **Results**

243 **Scope of the Included Studies**

244 In total, 34 studies met the pre-agreed inclusion/exclusion criteria (see Table 4). Of
245 these, 33 examined the readability levels, 8 examined the quality and only 4 examined
246 the suitability of materials. These studies focused on a range of issues including
247 hearing impairment, tinnitus, auditory processing disorders, hearing aids, and ear
248 disorders (e.g., glue ear, acoustic neuroma). Moreover, the studies included four types
249 of materials: a diagnostic report (1 study), PEMs (15 studies), PROMs (6 studies), and
250 websites (12 studies). English language materials were examined in 30 studies, two
251 studies examined Spanish language materials and one study examined Hindi language
252 materials.

253

254 Some studies had wider scope and examined other elements of accessibility including
255 the content, design instructions, comprehension (using Cloze test), self-efficacy,
256 opinions, understandability and actionability (using the Patient Education Materials

257 Assessment Tool; PEMAT), shared-decision making, and clinical practice guidelines
258 compatibility. The studies focusing on websites and PROMs mainly reported the
259 quality, readability and suitability of existing materials. However, some studies
260 focusing on diagnostic reports (Donald & Kelly-Campbell, 2016) and PEMs
261 (McMullan et al., 2017) made an effort to revise the existing materials to improve the
262 readability. Also, some studies focusing on PEMs (mainly hearing aid user guides)
263 developed new more accessible materials and evaluated the readability levels of these
264 materials rather than examining the existing materials (Caposecco et al., 2011, 2016).

265

266 There was great variability noted in terms of reporting of quality, readability and
267 suitability scores. For instance, some authors reported mean, standard deviation and
268 range, whereas other reported just the mean or median. Some earlier studies reported
269 only the percentage of materials exceeding certain grade level or grade level relating
270 to certain age group (e.g., Kelly, 1996; Pothier, 2005). Moreover, limited effort was
271 noted in examining the accuracy or evidence-base associated with the information.
272 Harris et al. (2017) examined the compatibility of information with clinical practice
273 guidelines in websites related to tympanoplasty tubes. Also, McKearney and
274 McKearney (2013) assessed the variability and accuracy in websites which were also
275 related to tympanoplasty tubes.

276

277 <Table 4 near here>

278

279 **Quality**

280 The eight studies that examined quality focused on websites (see Table 5). Three of
281 those studies reported HON certification, whereas all eight studies reported

282 DISCERN scores. Of the websites including ear and hearing information, between
283 13% to 45% had HON certification. More specifically, only 13% of the hearing loss
284 and tinnitus websites had HON certification (Laplante-Lévesque et al., 2012;
285 Manchaiah et al., 2019a), whereas 45% of the otitis media websites had HON
286 certification (Joury et al., 2012). These results indicate that the websites providing
287 hearing health information generally lack HON certification raising concerns towards
288 their quality.

289

290 The DISCERN instrument scores can range from 16 to 80 with higher scores
291 indicating better quality. The mean DISCERN instrument scores of websites offering
292 ear and hearing information ranged from 35 to 57 (see Table 5). However, two of the
293 studies only reported the mean of item 16 which provided overall quality of websites.
294 The mean scores ranged from 2.05 to 2.39 out of 5. These results indicated low to
295 medium quality websites related to ear and hearing health. Nonetheless, most of the
296 websites were found to have lower quality. As such, it is worth examining if the
297 website origin has any bearing towards its quality. For instance, websites developed
298 and managed by non-profit or government organizations may be of better quality
299 when compared to commercial organization and vice versa. Mixed results were found
300 in studies examining the association between quality and website origin (e.g.,
301 commercial, non-profit, or government). Laplante-Lévesque et al. (2012) reported a
302 positive association between origin of hearing-related websites and quality. Websites
303 from a government origin were significantly more likely to have HON certification
304 when compared to websites from a commercial and from a non-profit origin.
305 Websites from a non-profit origin had higher DISCERN scores than those from a

306 commercial or government origin. However, Manchaiah et al. (2019a) reported no
307 association between website origin and quality in tinnitus websites.

308

309 <Table 5 near here>

310

311 **Readability**

312 Almost all the studies (33 out of 34) reported on readability levels, although
313 variability was seen in the choice of readability formula, in particular in formulas
314 used for reporting of RGL. In total, 11 different readability formulas were used across
315 English language studies, 4 formulas across Spanish language studies and 2
316 readability formulas in the Hindi language study. However, the four most commonly
317 used formulas were FRE, F-K RGL, SMOG and FORCST. Table 6 provides
318 readability data across the studies. For simplicity, F-K RGL was used to summarize
319 results of studies focusing on diagnostic reports, PEMs and websites. FORCST is
320 most appropriate for non-narrative text; hence, it was used in summarizing results of
321 studies focusing on PROMs.

322

323 Only one study examined a diagnostic report, which reported a F-K RGL of 14.1
324 (Donald & Kelly-Campbell, 2016). However, researchers re-wrote the diagnostic
325 report to reduce the RGL to be within the recommended RGL (i.e., F-K RGL of 5.8).

326

327 Fifteen studies examined readability levels of PEMs. The PEMs included: user guides
328 (7 studies), decision aid (1 study), brochures (1 study), and articles or documents from
329 websites (6 studies). The Mean F-K RGL for PEMs reported across studies varied
330 from 5.05 to 11.4, with most studies reporting RGL exceeding recommended levels.

331 However, studies reporting revised PEMs (i.e., hearing aid user guides) reported F-K
332 RGL of 2.6 to 5 (Caposecco et al., 2011; McMullan et al., 2017) suggesting that
333 PEMs can be revised successfully to stay within the recommended RGL.

334

335 Eleven studies examined the readability levels of websites related to ear and hearing
336 health. The mean F-K RGL reported in these studies ranged from 10.1 to 11.8,
337 suggesting a much higher RGL than recommended. No studies reported revision of
338 text in websites.

339

340 Six studies examined the readability levels of PROMs. The mean readability as
341 measured by FORCST formula were around the 9th to 10th RGL, suggesting that it
342 may be difficult for many people in the general population to understand the questions
343 in these PROMs. No studies reported revision of text in PROMs.

344

345 Schyve (2007) described a “triple threat” in which limited English proficiency,
346 cultural differences and low health literacy converge to create a barrier to effective
347 communication for health seekers. As a result, there has been increased interest in
348 providing health information in people’s preferred language. However, this review
349 suggest that there is limited research to assess the non-English hearing-related
350 materials. Only three studies in this review assessed non-English material. Similar to
351 the findings of the English-language material, the studies found that the readability
352 levels of the material exceeded the recommended reading level. One barrier to
353 performing this research is the limited availability validated non-English readability
354 formulas, as noted by Diwan and Kelly-Campbell (2018). None of the studies
355 assessed quality or suitability of the material.

356

357 Some studies also examined the association between different readability measures, or
358 readability and other elements such as the origin of information or materials or the
359 quality. Such associations have mainly been reported in studies focusing on websites.
360 Strong correlations have been found between different readability measures such as
361 FRE, F-KGL, SMOG and FORCAST (Laplante-Lévesque et al., 2012; Manchaiah et
362 al., 2019a). There was no consensuses about the association between website origin
363 and readability levels with some studies reporting an association (e.g., Cherla et al.,
364 2013), whereas other studies reported no association (e.g., Laplante-Lévesque et al.,
365 2012; Manchaiah et al., 2019a). Relation between readability and quality also had
366 mixed results with some studies reported small but statistically significant
367 associations (e.g., Manchaiah et al., 2019a), whereas other studies reported no
368 associations (e.g., Laplante-Lévesque et al., 2012; Spiers et al., 2017).

369

<Table 6 near here>

370

371 **Suitability**

372 The four studies that examined the suitability of hearing related materials focused on
373 PEMs, specifically hearing aid user guides all of which used the SAM instrument (see
374 Table 7). Higher scores on the SAM indicate higher suitability with overall scores of
375 70% to 100% considered as superior, 40% to 69% considered as adequate, and 0% to
376 39% considered as not suitable. Caposecco et al. (2014) reported suitability of 36
377 existing hearing aid user guides. Studies by Caposecco et al. (2016) and McMullan et
378 al. (2017) examined the suitability of an existing hearing aid user guides and of
379 revised user guides. Another study by Caposecco et al. (2011) focused on developing
380 a new hearing aid user guide and evaluated its suitability. The average SAM score for

381 existing hearing aid user guides ranged between 29 to 52 suggesting “not suitable” to
382 “adequate suitability.” It is noteworthy that two of these studies (Caposecco et al.,
383 2011; McMullan et al., 2017) examined only 1 hearing aid user guide, whereas the
384 Caposecco et al. (2014) examined 36 user guides. According to Caposecco et al.
385 (2014), only around 30% of user guides were rated ‘adequate’ regarding their
386 suitability. Poor scores were noted on various elements including: scope, vocabulary,
387 aspects of layout and typography, and learning stimulation and motivation. However,
388 the three studies reporting SAM scores for revised or newly developed hearing aid
389 user guides were over 80 suggesting ‘superior’ for their suitability (Caposecco et al.,
390 2011, 2016; McMullan et al., 2017).

391

392 **<Table 7 near here>**

393

394 **Discussion**

395 This manuscript reviewed the studies that examined the quality, readability and
396 suitability of ear and hearing health information and materials for patients and their
397 significant others. Readability was the primary evaluation included in the studies. As
398 noted, readability is a measure of the linguistic characteristics of a given text and
399 provides a metric to determine the level of difficulty a user may experience. While
400 there are many tools to evaluate readability constructs, the studies reviewed in this
401 study used formulas for RGLs. Regardless of the type of material or language in
402 which the material was presented, readability levels were found to be higher than
403 recommended 5th or 6th RGL for health-related materials. Only studies examining
404 PEMs indicated that the text was subsequently revised after readability was
405 determined to be too high. This review is consistent with Laplante-Lévesque and

406 Thorén (2015), who reported that a large portion of Internet-based ear and hearing
407 health information is at reading levels that are too high for the majority of the
408 population.

409

410 While readability measures are an excellent starting point in providing appropriate
411 accessible health information, it is important to note that they do not provide direct
412 information about comprehension. Readability formulas are based on inferences and
413 correlations with measures of comprehension and do not take individual reader factors
414 into account or measure typographic features (Redish, 1981). It is important that
415 researchers and developers of health information keep this in mind and extend
416 assessment of material beyond readability measures alone. However, only 4 studies
417 evaluated suitability of hearing related materials and only 8 studies examined quality.

418

419 With regard to quality, results indicated that the tool used for all studies was the
420 DISCERN instrument. The DISCERN instrument rated websites on various quality
421 indicators. Also, DISCERN was used to evaluate the quality of written information
422 about treatment choices publication reliability and quality of treatment information.
423 Overall, quality of hearing health information was rated at low or moderate levels.
424 Only three of the studies reported HON certification. It may be that those who
425 manage the hearing healthcare websites (e.g., audiology business owners) are
426 unaware of this type of website certification to ensure a standard level of quality.
427 Alternatively, it may not be used on websites due to cost to maintain the certificate
428 (Bizzi, Ghezzi, & Paudyal, 2017). It is notable that only quality of websites was
429 evaluated. Quality of other forms of written ear and hearing information was not

430 examined. Clearly a gap exists across various types of written materials in the rigor
431 with which high quality materials are developed and disseminated.

432

433 With regard to suitability, only hearing aid user guides were examined using the SAM
434 (Doak et al., 1996). As with evaluations of quality, a gap in measures of suitability
435 exists across various types of written materials. In particular, suitability includes
436 measures of cultural appropriateness. As noted by Schyve (2007) cultural differences
437 and low health literacy converge to create a barrier to effective communication for
438 health seekers. As such, it is critical that cultural and linguistic diversity be evaluated,
439 and tools related to suitability may serve this purpose. Overall, there was variability
440 reported in the four studies in that some of the guides were reported to be superior and
441 others were reported to not have adequate suitability. It is noteworthy that revised
442 guides were reported to be superior suggesting that developers are working to
443 increase the ability of users to understand the material by including common
444 vocabulary, engaging questions, and chunking information with clear headings.
445 Overall, it is difficult to interpret suitability of materials since only four studies
446 included suitability assessment. Of those, two studies examined only 1 hearing aid
447 guide.

448

449 Some assessment tools discussed in this review (e.g., SAM, DISCERN) were
450 primarily developed for printed materials, although they have been used to evaluate
451 the online information and/or materials. However, there are some tools such as the
452 Patient Education Materials Assessment Tool for Audiovisual Materials (PEMAT-
453 A/V; Shoemaker, Wolf, & Brach, 2014) can be used when assessing more interactive
454 material that includes audiovisual information. This is particularly important given

455 that around 80% of American adults use the Internet to search for information about
456 health-related conditions (Fox, 2006). All age groups appear to search the Internet for
457 health-related information including older adults and or their significant others
458 (Washington, Meadows, Elliott, & Koopman, 2011) as well as children and
459 adolescents (Park & Kwon, 2018). In addition, some patients access information
460 online through video or audio, rather than text, meaning that online health information
461 analysis can be incomplete if this interactive element is not assessed (Finnie et al.,
462 2010).

463

464 Only a few studies included in this review examined the accuracy of the material's
465 content (e.g., Harris et al., 2017; McKearney & McKearney, 2013). This can be done
466 by using trained health professionals to examine the content or to map the content to
467 clinical practice guidelines (e.g., Bompastore, Cisu, & Holoch, 2018; Storino et al.,
468 2006). Generally, the research in other fields indicates there is a concerning lack of
469 accuracy of online health information. This trend needs to be investigated for online
470 ear and hearing health material. For example, Fackrell et al. (2012) examined quality
471 and content of tinnitus websites preferred by general practitioners (GPs). It would be
472 useful to examine materials aimed at professionals as they tend to use range of
473 sources in gaining knowledge in areas they are less knowledgeable (Azzam et al.,
474 2017).

475

476 **Clinical Implications**

477 Accessibility of health information has many practice implications. The type and
478 quality of information may influence the knowledge and behavior of patients and their
479 family members. Hence, hearing healthcare professionals should be aware of

480 accessibility issues surrounding health information accessed by patients and their
481 significant others. Various stakeholders including clinicians, researchers and patient
482 organizations who are involved in health materials (e.g., PEMs or PROMs) should
483 consider accessibility as the central component. Health professionals should take
484 proactive measures to improve accessibility of health information especially in open
485 sources such as websites (Azzam et al., 2017; Benigeri & Pluye, 2003). Moreover,
486 although hearing healthcare professionals are aware that limited health literacy can be
487 an obstacle for patients, they have limited understanding of ways in which they can
488 improve health literacy and accessibility of the information provided (Atcherson,
489 Zraick, & Hadden, 2013b). These findings highlight the need for training in this area.
490

491 **Future Directions**

492 The current review provide some good directions for future research in this area. First,
493 future researchers should be more consistent in reporting results. This is in regard to
494 types of tools used (e.g., readability formulas) and also types of data (e.g., mean, SD).
495 Second, researchers should evaluate multiple elements of accessibility including
496 quality, suitability, understandability and actionability, and accuracy of information in
497 addition to evaluating the readability. Third, the current review shows that most
498 studies in this area are focusing are evaluating hearing health information in English
499 language and more efforts are needed to examine and improve accessibility of hearing
500 health materials in other languages.

501

502 **Conclusions**

503 This manuscript reviewed the studies that examined the readability, quality and
504 suitability of ear and hearing related materials aimed at patients and their significant

505 others. Moreover, this review included published studies that examined various
506 sources of materials including websites, reports and PEMs. The findings suggest that
507 ear and hearing related materials are not always suitable for the intended populations.
508 Their quality was low, where assessed and they are generally difficult to read (above
509 the recommended 5th or 6th RGL). Quality assessments were done for some website
510 information, but further quality assessments were lacking. Further work is required to
511 ensure the quality of materials. Suitability was mostly assessed by evaluating PEMs
512 (i.e., hearing aid user guides) and found that existing materials were not suitable for
513 intended populations. Some efforts in revising the diagnostic reports and PEMs
514 showed that improvements are possible. Further efforts are needed to improve
515 accessibility of ear and hearing related materials by developing materials which are of
516 high quality, appropriate readability and superior suitability.

517

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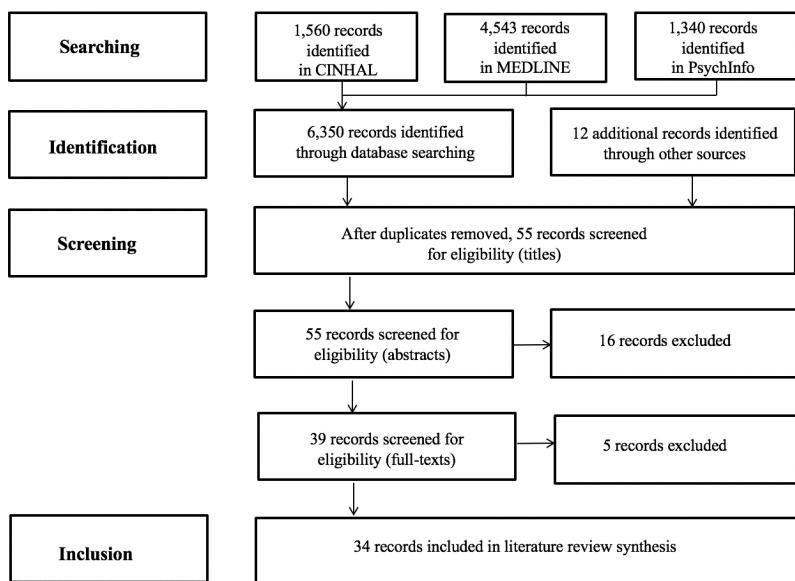
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- 844
- 845 **Figures**
- 846 **Figure 1: Flow diagram showing the searching, identification, screening, and
847 inclusion process**
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852 **Table 1: Inclusion and exclusion criteria**

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Criteria	Inclusion	Exclusion
P (Population)	Individuals with ear and hearing-related health conditions and their communication partners (including parents, teachers, general public).	Studies evaluating health information aimed at healthcare providers or healthcare educators.
I (Intervention)	Hearing-related health information (including disease-specific information) in any medium (internet, print, verbal) in any language. This includes hearing-related information on conditions such as tinnitus, balance, and Auditory Processing Disorders.	Medical information not exclusively relating to hearing.
C (Comparison)	Any comparison	None
O (Outcome)	Validated readability score, validated quality (i.e., Health On the Net, DISCERN) and suitability measurement (i.e., Suitability Assessment of Materials).	Use of unvalidated measurements
S (Study Design)	Any empirical study design	Opinion and theoretical publications with no empirical data.
Additional Criteria		
Language	Published in English language journal	Research published in a language other than

		English.
Publication Type	Published in peer reviewed journal	Unpublished research
Publication Date	Unrestricted	
Setting	Studies in all geographic locations were included	

Table 2: Information about commonly used quality, readability and suitability measures

Dimension	Measure	Scope	Scoring	Interpretation
Quality	Health on the Net (HON; Boyer et al., 1998)	Certification provides examination of 8 principles (authoritative, complementary, privacy, attribution, justifiability, transparency, financial disclosure, and advertising policy) of the HON code of conduct.	HON certification of websites can be checked in the website https://www.hon.ch/HONcode/	Having HON certification suggests better quality website.
	DISCERN (Charnock et al., 1999)	Quality is subjectively rated based on a scale which examines 16 quality criteria.	16-item rating tool scored on a scale (1=No, 2 to 4=Partly, 5=Yes). Overall scores can range from 16 to 80.	Higher score indicated better quality.
Readability	Flesch Reading Ease (FRE; Flesch, 1948)	Analyzes the average words per sentence and the average syllables per word to determine a readability score.	Scores range from 0 (very difficult to read) to 100 (very easy to read).	Higher score indicates easier reading. Scores of 90–100 can be understood by someone with a 5 th grade education. People with an 8 th -9 th grade education can understand documents with a score of 60–70; and college graduates can understand documents with a score of 0–30.
	Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level (F-K GL)	Most applicable for use with manuals and forms. This formula calculation is based upon an assumption of 75% comprehension and uses the total number of words, sentences, and syllables present within the text to derive a Reading Grade Level (RGL).	Results are presented as RGL with the US school grade level as reference.	Lower RGL indicates easier reading.
	Simple Measure of Gobbledygook (SMOG; McLaughlin, 1996)	Based on an assumption of 100% comprehension and, thus, is recommended for use with health information.	Results are presented as RGL with the US school grade level as reference.	Lower RGL indicates easier reading.
	FORCAST	Focuses on functional literacy and does not use a sentence-length measurement. Most appropriate for non-narrative text.	Results are presented as RGL with the US school grade level as reference.	Lower RGL indicates easier reading.
Suitability	Suitability	Suitability is rated based on the following	22-item rating tool scored on 3-point	Higher score indicated more suitability.

	Assessment of Materials (SAM; Doak et al., 1996)	factors: (1) content, (2) literacy demand, (3) graphics, (4) layout and typography, (5) learning stimulation and motivation, and (6) cultural appropriateness.	scale (0=Not suitable, 1=Adequate, 2=Superior, NA=Not Applicable). Scores can range from 0 to 44. However, this can be converted into percentage. The score is calculated by adding the total points and dividing by the total possible score to derive a percentage score [i.e., converted percent=total score/total possible score (44=22 items×2 maximum score per item)×100].	Material with overall scores of 70% to 100% is considered as superior, 40% to 69% is considered as adequate, and 0% to 39% is considered as not suitable in terms of suitability.
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Table 3: Readability formulas (measures) in different languages

Language	Readability Formulas
English	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Automated Readability Index (ARI) ▪ Coleman-Liau Index (CLI) ▪ Fry Graph ▪ Flesch Reading Ease (FRE) ▪ Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level (F-K GL) ▪ FORCAST ▪ Gunning-FOG Index (GFI) ▪ New Dale-Chall (NDC) ▪ New Fog Count (NFC) ▪ Raygor Readability Estimate (RRE) ▪ Simple Measure of Gobbledygook (SMOG)
Hindi	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Readability Hindi 1 (RH1) ▪ Readability Hindi 2 (RH2)
Spanish	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Fernandez-Huerta ▪ Índice Flesch-Szigriszt (INFLESZ) ▪ Spanish Lexile

	▪ Spaulding
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Table 4: Summary of studies (Note: PEMs=Patient Education Materials; PEMAT=Patient Education Materials Assessment Tool; PROMs=Patient Reported Outcome Measures)

Author (Year)	Language	Scope	Source	Quality	Readability	Suitability	Other Elements
Atcherson et al. (2011)	English	Tinnitus	PROMs (n=15)		✓		
Atcherson et al. (2013)	English	Auditory processing disorders	PROMs (n=8)		✓		
Atcherson et al. (2014)	English	Audiology consumer info	PEMs: Articles in ASHA website after 2011 (n=74)		✓		
Caposecco et al. (2011)	English	Hearing aids	PEMs: Newly developed user guide (n=1)		✓	✓	Design instructions for written materials
Caposecco et al. (2014)	English	Hearing aids	PEMs: User guides (n=36)		✓	✓	Content
Caposecco et al. (2016)	English	Hearing aids	PEMs: User guide (n=1), Original and revised		✓	✓	Hearing aid management tasks
Cherla et al. (2013)	English	Acoustic neuroma	Websites (n=67)		✓		
Coco et al. (2017)	Spanish	Audiology and otolaryngology	PROMs (n=5), Original and revised		✓		Functionalist translation
Diwan & Kelly-Campbell (2018)	Hindi	Hearing related information	Websites (n=25)		✓		Comprehension (Cloze test)
Donald & Kelly-Campbell (2016)	English	Pediatric audiology	Diagnostic report (n=1), Original and Revised		✓		Comprehension (Cloze test), Self-efficacy, Opinions
Douglas & Kelly-Campbell (2018)	English	Audiological rehabilitation	PROMs (n=10)		✓		
Eloy et al. (2012)	English	Otolaryngology association	PEMs: Documents from websites (n=262)		✓		
Greywoode et al. (2009)	English	Head and neck surgery	PEMs: Articles in AAO-HNS website (n=104)		✓		
Harris et al. (2017)	English	Tympanoplasty	Websites (n=10)		✓		Understandability and actionability

		(ear) tubes					(PEMAT), Shared-decision making, Clinical practice guidelines compatibility
Joseph et al. (2016)	English	Hearing aids	PEMs: User guides (n=6) and websites (n=20)		✓		
Joury et al. (2012)	English	Otitis media	Website (n=35)	✓	✓		Content, JAMA Benchmark criteria, Minervation validation instrument (LIDA tool)
Kasabwala et al. (2012)	English	Head and neck surgery	PEMs: Articles on AAO-HNS website (n=152)		✓		
Kelly (1996)	English	Hearing aids	PEMs: User guides (n=109)		✓		
Kelly-Campbell et al. (2012)	English	Audiology	PROMs (n=4)		✓		
Laplante-Lévesque et al. (2012)	English	Hearing impairment	Websites (n=66)	✓	✓		
Manchaiah et al. (2019a)	English	Tinnitus	Websites (n=134)	✓	✓		
Manchaiah et al. (2019b)	English	Hearing disability	PROMs (n=14)		✓		Content
McKearney & McKearney (2013)	English	Tympanoplasty (ear) tubes	Websites (n=84)	✓	✓		Accuracy, variability
McKearney et al. (2018)	English	Tinnitus	Websites (n=27)	✓	✓		
McMullan et al. (2017)	English	Hearing aids	PEMs: User guide (n=1), Original and revised		✓	✓	Hearing aid self-efficacy, Utility performance
Nair & Cienkowski (2010)	English	Hearing aids	PEMs: User guides (n=Not reported)		✓		Readability of verbal and written information
Nassif et al. (2017)	Spanish	Otolaryngology	PEMs: Articles from websites (n=497)		✓		
Nicholson et al. (2016)	English	Newborn hearing screening	PEMs: Brochures (n=48)		✓		Content, User-friendliness
Pothier (2005)	English	Glue ear	Websites (n=20)		✓		
Pryce et al. (2018)	English	Tinnitus	PEMs: Newley developed decision aid (n=1)		✓		Frequently asked questions, Usability (focus groups)

Ritchie et al. (2016)	English	Glue ear	Websites (n=27)	✓	✓		
Simpson & Baldwin (2017)	English	Disability insurance	Websites (n=20)	✓			
Spiers et al. (2017)	English	Vestibular schwannoma	Websites (n=58)	✓	✓		
Wong & Levi (2017)	English	Pediatric otolaryngology	PEMs: Articles from hospitals and institutes (n=508)		✓		

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866 **Table 5: Quality of hearing related materials** (Note: Mean, SD and range of DISCERN scores are provided when reported in the publication.

867 *=studies reporting DISCERN scores of item 16 which provides overall quality rather than reporting overall scores)

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Author (Year)	Scope	Source	Quality	
			HON Certification (%)	DISCERN [Mean±SD (Min to Max)]
Joury et al. (2012)	Otitis media	Website (n=35)	45.7	47 (20 to 69)
Laplante-Lévesque et al. (2012*)	Hearing impairment	Websites (n=66)	13.64	2.05±0.64 (1.13 to 3.93)
Manchaiah et al. (2019a*)	Tinnitus	Websites (n=134)	13.4	2.39±1.2 (1 to 5)
McKearney & McKearney (2013*)	Tympanoplasty (ear) tubes	Websites (n=84)		38.5 (18 to 64)
McKearney et al. (2018)	Tinnitus	Websites (n=27)		34.5±11.2 (15 to 57)
Ritchie et al. (2016)	Glue ear	Websites (n=27)		57 (26 to 75)
Simpson & Baldwin (2017)	Disability insurance	Websites (n=20)		(23 to 88)
Spiers et al. (2017)	Vestibular schwannoma	Websites (n=58)		52.96

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Table 6: Readability of hearing related materials (Note: Mean, SD and range of readability scores are provided when reported in the publication. Readability scores of revised materials are provided where reported. Abbreviations: ARI= Automated Readability Index, CLI= Coleman-Liau Index, F-K GL= Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level, FRE= Flesch Reading Ease, GFI=Gunning Fox Index, INFLESZ= Índice Flesch-Szigriszt, NDC= New Dale-Chall, NFC=New FOG Count; RRE= Raygor Readability Estimate, SMOG= Simple Measure of Gobbledygook, RGL=Reading Grade Level)

Author (Year)	Scope	Reading Grade Level [Mean±SD (Min to Max)]				
		FRE	F-K GL	SMOG	FORCAST	Other
Diagnostic Report						
Donald & Kelly-Campbell (2016)	Pediatric audiology	Original=34 Revised=74	Original=14.1 Revised =5.8	Original-15.5 Revised =8.1		
Patient Education Materials (PEMs)						
Atcherson et al. (2014)	Audiology consumer info	54.2±13.1 (3.0-83.0)	9.0± 2.1 (4.5 to15.1)		10.8 ±0.9 (9.2 to 13.4)	GFI: 11.2±2.5 (5.7 to 19.5)
Caposecco et al. (2011)	Hearing aids	91.1	2.6			Fry Graph: 3; NFC: 4.9
Caposecco et al. (2014)	Hearing aids		8.08± 1.01 (5.8 to 10)			Fry Graph: 9.67±1.96 (6 to 15); GFI: 11.23± 1.27 (8.1 to 13.2)
Caposecco et al. (2016)	Hearing aids					Combined Fry Graph, F-K GL, GFI: 10.5 (Revised 4.2)
Eloy et al. (2012)	Otolaryngology association		9.7 to 17.1		10.4 to 12.1	Fry Graph: (10 to 17); NFC: (8.5 to 11.8); RRE: (10.5 to 17); CLI: (10.7 to 15.9); NDC: (8.6 to 16)
Greywoode et al. (2009)	Head and neck surgery	10.8 (6.3 to 16.7)				
Joseph et al. (2016)	Hearing aids	(51.8 to 54.7)		(11.9 to 12.6)		GFI: (11 to 12); NFC: (7.6 to 9); RRE: (10.5 to 11.4)

Kasabwala et al. (2012)	Head and neck surgery	46.5± 0.76 (44 to 49)	11.4± 0.08 (11.2 to 1.6)	13.4± 0.07 (13.2 to 13.6)		Fry Graph: 13.3±0.21 (13 to 14); GFI: 12.5±0.12 (12.2 to 12.9); RRE: 12.5±0.22 (12 to 13); CLI: 12.4±0.18 (11.9 to 12.9)
Kelly (1996)	Hearing aids		58% materials at college RGL, 20% at high school RGL, 16% at junior high school RGL, 6% at grade school RGL			
McMullan et al. (2017)	Hearing aids	Original=42.2 Revised =75.8	Original =11.4 Revised= 5	Original =13 Revised= 6		
Nair & Cienkowski (2010)	Hearing aids		7.96±1.0			
Nassif et al. (2017)	Otolaryngology	18.27 (Spanish)	15.18 (Spanish)	15.54 (Spanish)		Spanish – INFLESZ: 57.75; Spanish Lexile: 1062L
Nicholson et al. (2016)	Newborn hearing screening	72.98±7.75	5.05±1.45	7.78±1.02	10.09±0.66	GFI: 7.52±1.4
Pryce et al. (2018)	Tinnitus		Original=8.7 Revised=7.8			
Wong & Levi (2017)	Pediatric audiology	51				
Patient Reported Outcome Measures (PROMs)						
Atcherson et al. (2011)	Tinnitus	74.3±8.4 (58 to 91)			9.1±0.9 (7.0 to 10.9)	GFI: 9.0±1.5 (6.3 to 11.8)
Atcherson et al. (2013)	Auditory processing disorders	73.4± 10.1 (60 to 89)			10.1±1.1 (8.4 to 11.4)	GFI: 8.1±1.5 (4.8 to 9.6)
Coco et al. (2017)	Audiology and otolaryngology					Spanish - Fry Graph: 4 th to 9 th grade; Fernandez- Huerta: 2.1 to 83.7; Spaulding: 56.6 to

						81.9
Douglas & Kelly-Campbell (2018)	Audiological rehabilitation		Median 6.3 to 9.5			Original: Combined Median F-K RGL, FOG, SMOG & FORCAST: Median 6.3 to 15.4 Revised Scores: 3.2-6.4
Kelly-Campbell et al. (2012)	Audiology	79.0±4.7 (73 to 82)	6.2±1.1 (5.4 to 8.7)	9.5±1.4 (7.8 to 11.2)		
Manchaiah et al. (2019b)	Hearing disability	(51 to 84)	(4.5 to 10.2)	(8.6 to 13.5)	(8.5 to 11.3)	
Websites						
Cherla et al. (2013)	Acoustic neuroma	39.2±9.4 (12.0 to 62.1)	11.8±1.6 (8.6 to 15.8)	14.0± 1.2 (11.9 to 17.2)		GFI: 14.8± 1.9 (11.8 to 19.9)
Diwan & Kelly-Campbell (2018)	Hearing related information					Hindi: Readability Hindi 1: 3.03 to 11.40; Readability Hindi 2: 3.12 to 5.74
Harris et al. (2017)	Tympanoplasty (ear) tubes	50.4±11.6 (28.8 to 70.6)	(6 to 15)			
Joury et al. (2017)	Otitis media	52.2	9.9			ARI: 9
Laplante-Lévesque et al. (2012)	Hearing impairment	48.26±10.42 (21.42 to 66.88)	11.10±2.16 (7.31 to 17.16)	12.36±1.82 (8.48 to 17.75)		
Manchaiah et al. (2019)	Tinnitus	47.82±13.4 (6 to 81)	10.27±2.5 (5.8 to 18.6)	11.85±2.2 (7.7 to 19)		
McKearney & McKearney (2013)	Tympanoplasty (ear) tubes	49.4±12.9 (5.7 to 71.6)	10.1±1.7 (6.6 to 12)			
McKearney et al. (2018)	Tinnitus	52.6±7.7 (35.7 to 64.2)				
Pothier (2005)	Glue ear					FRE and F-K RGL Combined: 11.1 to 16.5 years
Ritchie et al. (2016)	Glue ear	49.7 (25.8 to 65.7)				
Spiers et al. (2017)	Vestibular schwannoma	48.75	10.27			GFI: 13.4

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880 **Table 7: Suitability of ear and hearing related materials** (Note: Mean, SD and range of SAM scores are provided when reported in the
 881 publication. SAM scores of revised materials are provided where reported.)

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Author (Year)	Scope	Source	Suitability (SAM) [Mean±SD (Min to Max)]
Caposecco et al. (2011)	Hearing aids	PEMs: Newly developed user guide (n=1)	88
Caposecco et al. (2014)	Hearing aids	PEMs: User guides (n=36)	52.42±7.69 (40 to 68)
Caposecco et al. (2016)	Hearing aids	PEMs: User guide (n=1), Original and revised	50 (Revised 90)
McMullan et al. (2017)	Hearing aids	PEMs: User guide (n=1), Original and revised	28.95 (Revised 78.95)

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