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Social Connectedness and Perceived Listening Effort in Adult Cochlear Implant Users: A
Grounded Theory to Establish Content Validity for a New Patient-Reported Outcome
Measure

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ABSTRACT

Objectives: Individuals with hearing loss often report a need for increased effort when listening, particularly in challenging acoustic environments. Despite audiologists' recognition of the impact of listening effort on individuals' quality of life, there are currently no standardised clinical measures of listening effort, including patient reported outcome measures (PROMs). To generate items and content for a new PROM, this qualitative study explored the perceptions, understanding, and experiences of listening effort in adults with severe-profound sensorineural hearing loss (SNHL) before and after cochlear implantation.

Design: Three focus groups (1-3) were conducted. Sampling was purposive and participants were recruited from a cochlear implant (CI) centre in the United Kingdom (U.K.). The participants were adults (mean age = 64.1 years, range 42 to 84 years) with acquired severe-profound SNHL (and their normal hearing (NH) significant others (SO), n = 2) who satisfied the U.K.'s national candidacy criteria for cochlear implantation. Group 1 (n = 4) used hearing aids (HA) and were awaiting cochlear implant (CI) surgery; Groups 2 (n = 5) and 3 (n = 4) used either a unilateral CI only or a CI and contralateral HA. Data from a pilot focus group (n = 2) were also included in the analysis. The data, as verbatim transcripts of the focus group proceedings, were analysed qualitatively using a constructivist Grounded Theory (GT) methodology.

Results: A GT of listening effort in cochlear implantation was developed from participants' accounts. Analyses suggested participants' listening effort was motivated by a need to maintain a sense of social connectedness (i.e., the subjective awareness of being in touch with one's social world). Before implantation and despite high listening effort, severe-profound SNHL resulted in participants experiencing low social connectedness. When sustained, the imbalance between high listening effort and low reward (i.e., low social connectedness) encouraged self-alienating behaviours and resulted in social isolation with adverse effects for

58 on participants'-wellbeing and quality of life. Receiving a CI moderated but did not remove
59 fully the requirement for listening effort. After implantation, listening effort, in combination
60 with an improved auditory signal, enabled successful communication. Participants reported a
61 restored sense of social connectedness and an acceptance of the continued need for listening
62 effort. Additionally, participants provided rich descriptions of the multi-dimensional nature
63 of their listening effort. Listening effort was described as the mental effort of attending to and
64 processing the auditory signal, as well as the effort required to adapt to, and compensate for,
65 the hearing loss.

66 **Conclusions:** Social connectedness, effort-reward balance, and listening effort as a multi-
67 dimensional phenomenon were the core constructs identified as important to participants'
68 experiences and understanding of listening effort. The study's findings suggest: 1) perceived
69 listening effort is related to social and psychological factors and 2) these factors may
70 influence how individuals with hearing loss report on the actual cognitive processing
71 demands of listening. These findings are in alignment with the Framework for Understanding
72 Effortful Listening (FUEL) that describes listening effort as a function of both motivation and
73 demands on cognitive capacity. This GT will establish the content validity for a new PROM
74 of listening effort.

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INTRODUCTION

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Hearing impairment is one of the leading causes of global burden of disease (Olusanya et al. 2014; Vos et al. 2016). It has consequences for physical, cognitive, occupational and social functioning and quality of life (Demorest & Erdman 1986; Kramer et al. 2006; Hua et al. 2013; Nachtegaal et al., 2009; Nachtegaal et al. 2012; Ramage-Morin 2016; Taljaard et al. 2016). The negative health effects of hearing impairment are not solely related to issues surrounding audibility (Pichora-Fuller et al. 2016) but are linked to a requirement for increased mental effort to compensate for the hearing loss and to enable people to listen well (McCoy et al. 2005; Zekveld et al. 2010). Previous research suggests that hearing-impaired listeners invest greater effort when listening compared with normal-hearing listeners, particularly in adverse listening conditions (Ohlenforst & Zekveld 2017). Interest in listening effort has grown over the past two decades commensurate with an increasing awareness of auditory-cognitive interactions in hearing loss and the emergence of the field of cognitive hearing science (Arlinger et al. 2009).

Listening effort has been defined as the attentional and cognitive resources needed to undertake auditory tasks such as detecting, decoding, and responding to speech (Hicks & Tharpe 2002; Bess & Hornsby 2014; McGarrigle et al. 2014). The recently published Framework for Understanding Effortful Listening (FUEL; Pichora-Fuller et al. 2016) extends this definition of listening effort to include the dimension of motivation. The FUEL defines listening effort as “a special form of mental effort” and refers to “the deliberate allocation of mental resources to overcome obstacles in goal pursuit when carrying out a listening task” (Pichora-Fuller et al., p. 10S). Current understanding of listening effort is founded on the work of Broadbent (1958), Baddeley & Hitch (1974) and Kahneman’s (1973) seminal work, the Capacity Model of Attention. The Capacity Model of Attention considers cognitive capacity to be limited. When cognitive resources are allocated to the execution of a specific

101 task, fewer resources are available for other, concurrent tasks. In the context of listening
102 effort, the more distorted or degraded the speech signal, (due to the presence of hearing loss,
103 noise or accented speech), the greater the demand for cognitive resources and, presumably,
104 greater listening effort. According to the FUEL, the decision to allocate cognitive capacity to
105 listening is presumed to be informed not only by task demands but also by motivation,
106 described as task engagement or energization of behaviour. Previous studies have shown that
107 a listener's mental state (i.e., motivation) may influence subjective reports of listening effort
108 (Picou & Ricketts 2014). Brehm and Self (1989) suggest effort investment and task
109 engagement are informed by individual's judgements of task difficulty. If a task is perceived
110 as too difficult, effort will be less. Motivation, in turn, may be influenced by psychological
111 factors such as belonging, self-efficacy, pleasure and fatigue (Matthen 2016; Pichora-Fuller
112 2016; Pichora-Fuller et al.).

113 With publication of the FUEL and the growing body of literature on listening effort
114 generally, there is recognition by clinicians and researchers, that despite provision of hearing
115 aids and cochlear implants, individuals with hearing loss must continue to invest effort to
116 succeed in participating in the listening situations of everyday life. For audiologists to
117 effectively address the continued requirement for listening effort, clinical tools to support its
118 measurement are needed. However, a validated method of measuring listening effort with
119 good clinical utility is not yet available (McGarrigle et al. 2014; Pichora-Fuller et al. 2016).
120 Much of the published research conducted with the aim of developing viable clinical
121 measures of listening effort has focussed on the objective measurement of the mental effort
122 associated with listening during specific tasks under particular conditions. These objective
123 measures include the use of dual-task paradigms and physiological measures such as
124 pupillometry and electroencephalography (EEG). The dual-task paradigm, based upon the
125 Capacity Model of Attention (Kahneman, 1973), assumes a limited cognitive resource. An

126 individual is requested to perform two tasks, typically a primary speech task and a secondary
127 non-speech task. These tasks are performed separately (the baseline) then concurrently (the
128 dual-task condition). Listening effort is considered to be the measured change in performance
129 between the baseline and the dual-task condition. Dual-task paradigms have been used
130 extensively to study listening effort (see Gagné et al. 2017 for a review). For example, in
131 relation to background noise (Sarampalis et al. 2009; Picou et al. 2013), modality (Fraser et
132 al. 2010; Picou et al. 2013), listener age (Anderson-Gosselin & Gagné 2011), noise reduction
133 and signal processing algorithms (Desjardins & Doherty 2014; Ng et al. 2015; Desjardins
134 2016), and hearing aid use (Downs 1982; Hornsby 2013). Studies utilising EEG typically
135 measure changes in brain oscillations associated with attentional processes such as the alpha
136 frequency range (Strauß et al. 2014). Studies utilising pupilometry measure changes in pupil
137 dilation during a listening task as physiological correlates of listening effort. These
138 physiological measures have been used to study listening effort, particularly in relation to
139 changes in speech intelligibility (Zekveld et al. 2014; Koelewijn et al. 2015; Petersen et al.
140 2015). The application of these objective measures as clinical tools appears promising;
141 however, there is a lack of consistency across studies deploying these approaches (Gagné et
142 al. 2017; Ohlenforst & Zekveld 2017) which presently limits their clinical utility (McMahon
143 et al. 2016).

144 A complementary approach to the objective clinical measurement of listening effort is
145 to consider the listening effort construct more broadly and in relation to individuals' self-
146 reported experiences of effortful listening in everyday life. Patient reported outcome
147 measures (PROMs) are tools used to gain insight from the perspective of the patient into how
148 aspects of a health condition and its treatment impact their lifestyle and subsequently their
149 quality of life (Meadows 2011). They are designed to provide information around a given
150 construct, such as listening effort, to assess its impact on individuals' functional abilities. A

151 systematic review conducted by the authors (Hughes et al., Reference Note 1) assessed the
152 quality of existing PROMs used to measure listening effort in the published literature. The
153 findings from this review established that many studies utilising self-report measures rely on
154 simple rating scales (e.g., visual analogue scales) to assess the magnitude of effort investment
155 during a specific listening task. Far fewer studies use PROMs as a comprehensive measure of
156 self-reported listening effort. Furthermore, several of the identified questionnaires measure
157 listening effort at the subscale or item level (Gatehouse & Noble, 2004; Akeroyd et al. 2014)
158 or assess related constructs such as “ease of communication” (Cox & Gilmore, 1990) and
159 “communication performance” defined as “the ability to communicate effectively in a variety
160 of situations without a great deal of effort or emotional strain” (Demorest & Erdman, 1987)
161 rather than listening effort per se. Other questionnaires, such as the Hearing Handicap
162 Inventory for the Elderly (Ventry & Weinstein 1982) were developed to assess the
163 psychosocial impacts of hearing loss, but without addressing how listening effort may
164 contribute to the hearing handicap. Importantly, none of the existing measures were
165 developed with direct input from the target population to generate items that capture the
166 experience and significance of daily listening effort in SNHL.

167 Developing a new PROM requires that the patient perspective forms the basis for the
168 new instruments’ content validity (Patrick et al. 2011). Content validity is a judgement of
169 whether an instrument samples all the relevant content or domains deemed to be important by
170 the target population (Cappelleri et al. 2014). It is an aspect of PROM development that has
171 often been overlooked (McKenna 2011) with an historic reliance on expert opinion, a
172 judgement of “validity by assumption” (Streiner & Norman 2008, p.6) on whether an
173 instrument appears fit for purpose. Ensuring content validity is vital if a PROM’s
174 measurement properties are to be considered meaningful. Qualitative methodologies are

199 Several forms of GT were available to the researchers and the choice of which to
200 adopt is generally determined by the researchers' epistemological perspective. A
201 constructivist approach to GT was adopted for this study (Mills et al. 2006; Charmaz 2014).
202 Constructivist GT is influenced by symbolic interactionism (Blumer 1969), a theoretical
203 perspective compatible with the lead researcher's philosophical position on the construction
204 of meaning. Symbolic interactionism assumes people construct a persona and, as a result,
205 notions of society and reality through interaction. Drawing from symbolic interactionism's
206 thesis that argues in favour of the centrality of interaction in the formation of meaning,
207 constructivist GT considers theories derived from data to be constructed based on the shared
208 experiences of researcher and participants. Theoretical understanding is negotiated rather
209 than discovered as an objective reality. Constructivist GT views emergent theory as an
210 interpretation, a plausible account, and an explanation of aspects of a phenomenon under
211 review, rather than objective truth.

212 **Participants and Sampling**

213 Purposive sampling was used to recruit: 1) hearing aid users who met the UK CI
214 candidacy criteria and were awaiting CI surgery and 2) CI recipients to focus groups.
215 Information sheets describing the study and an invitation to participate were sent to 51 adults
216 from a U.K. CI programme who fulfilled the study inclusion criteria: a diagnosis of post-
217 lingual SNHL, satisfied the U.K. national CI candidacy criteria (National Institute for Health
218 and Care Excellence (NICE), 2009), used hearing aids and/or CI(s), were 18 years of age or
219 older, proficient English speakers, and had no additional medical diagnoses precluding
220 participation in a focus group. Twenty-four participants expressed an interest in participating
221 in the focus groups and subsequently consented and enrolled in the study. A summary of
222 participant characteristics is presented in Table 1. Speech performance outcomes for the
223 participants with SNHL are described in Table 2.

224 Each participant was allocated to one of four focus groups by applying principles of
225 maximum variation to ensure the groups were balanced for gender, with efforts to achieve
226 variability in age range, socio-economic status, device use (HA and or CI), and duration of
227 device use. Three focus groups were conducted, initially. Of these groups, two focus groups
228 (the postimplant groups) included participants who were CI recipients (n = 9). The third focus
229 group (the preimplant group) included prospective CI recipients who used HAs and were
230 awaiting CI surgery (n = 4). A fourth discretionary focus group was scheduled to take place
231 after initial data collection if the research team determined that further data collection was
232 needed to ensure theoretical saturation (the point in data collection when no new
233 conceptualisations emerge). In the end, the fourth focus group was unnecessary as theoretical
234 saturation was established after analysis of the data from the initial three focus groups, with
235 inclusion of pilot data to complete the set.

236 A snowball sampling procedure (Bloor et al. 2001) was used to recruit SO. SO were
237 included to provide an alternative viewpoint on the experiences of listening effort in hearing
238 loss. The original protocol specified a separate focus group for SO. However, due to a poor
239 response rate (8.3%, n = 2) this group was not undertaken as a separate focus group. The SO
240 (both female with self-reported normal hearing) who consented to participate joined the same
241 focus group as their loved ones for practical reasons (e.g., to minimise disruption and
242 travelling time for these individuals). Finally, to ground the study in the target population,
243 two CI recipients (1 male; 1 female) were recruited as lay representatives to the study's
244 research management group (RMG). The RMG was responsible for the design and conduct
245 of the study and included CI clinicians, academics and two lay representatives. The lay
246 representatives participated in a pilot focus group to field test the topic guide. Also, through
247 email correspondence and face-to face meetings, they provided feedback to assist topic guide
248 development, offered suggestions regarding the conduct of the focus groups, and verified the

249 accuracy of the pilot focus group transcripts. The total sample size for the study was $n = 17$
250 (CI recipients $n = 11$; HA users $n = 4$; significant others $n = 2$).

251 **Data Collection**

252 A topic guide was used to explore participants' experiences and understandings in an
253 in-depth manner, and to examine perceptions of listening effort and listening-related fatigue.
254 Table 3 displays exemplar questions from the topic guide. The questions were crafted to
255 probe the mental and physical characteristics of listening effort and fatigue, participants'
256 management of listening effort, their thoughts and opinions in respect of the support received
257 from CI clinicians in the management of listening effort, and personal experiences of
258 listening effort in daily life. They were informed by sensitising concepts (Charmaz 2014)
259 identified in the published literature and the lead researcher's experiences as a CI
260 professional. The topic guide was piloted in a focus group comprised of the RMG lay
261 representatives and the data analysed immediately. The emergent concepts informed the final
262 10-item version of the topic guide, consistent with principles of theoretical sampling and the
263 iterative and generative process of a constructivist GT. The pilot data ($n = 2$) were included in
264 the final data set and added to the richness and "thick descriptions" within the data captured.

265 The three focus groups were held within a two-week period, in June 2015. The focus
266 groups took place in a community setting away from the CI centre to maintain neutrality.
267 Each group lasted approximately three hours including breaks. The focus groups were led by
268 the first author (SEH), a trained facilitator experienced in interacting with people with severe-
269 profound SNHL. An observer, also an experienced CI clinician, documented non-verbal
270 behaviours, contextual cues, and interactions among group members. The observer sat away
271 from the group and was not an active participant except to seek clarification or elicit further
272 discussion on topics raised.

273 The focus group venue was a small meeting room with good lighting in quiet
274 surroundings. A speech-to-text recorder (STTR) provided communication support through
275 subtitling and a hearing loop system was available and utilized by one participant. To
276 facilitate communication, each group was limited to six participants. The participants and
277 facilitator could see each other and the seats were arranged in a semicircle around a table to
278 allow viewing of the real-time subtitles. Written materials, including copies of the topic
279 guide, focus group rules, and a general description of the research study, were provided to
280 participants. Interpreting in British Sign Language (BSL) was not provided as all participants
281 used spoken English as their preferred mode of communication.

282 **Research Team Reflexivity**

283 Reflexivity is a key principle of a constructivist GT methodology and refers to a
284 process of critical self-reflection concerning how the researchers' interests, viewpoints, and
285 assumptions influence the conduct of a study (Charmaz 2014). The first author (SEH) is a
286 trained speech and language therapist with extensive experience providing hearing
287 rehabilitation services as part of a CI multidisciplinary team. The first author knew the
288 participants through her clinical role. To clarify her reflexive stance in relation to the
289 participants and the topic, she wrote reflexive, methodological and conceptual memos
290 throughout the processes of data collection and analysis to identify and understand how her
291 personal experiences and perspectives, the researcher lens, informed the construction of the
292 emergent theory. The first author, as focus group facilitator, debriefed with the observer after
293 each focus group to record insights, observations and address any concerns.

294 **Ethical Considerations**

295 The National Research Ethics Committee – East Midlands granted ethical approval
296 for the study (Ref: 14/EM/1167). Written consent was obtained before an invitation to attend

297 a focus group was issued. Participants were assured of anonymity and confidentiality and free
298 to withdraw from the study at any time.

299 **Data Analysis**

300 The speech-to-text reporter (STTR) supplied verbatim transcripts of the focus groups.
301 The facilitator and observer checked the accuracy of transcription by reading the full
302 transcripts and listening to five randomly selected 5-minute samples of each audio-recording
303 (3 transcripts x 5 samples = 75 minutes in total) based on procedures recommended by Tong,
304 Sainsbury et al. (2007). The RMG lay representatives verified the transcript from the pilot
305 focus group, confirming it was an accurate representation of the discussion. NVivo 10
306 qualitative data analysis software was used to code the observer notes, participants' notes,
307 and debriefing session notes. A second researcher compared the conceptual codes with the
308 data to check consistency, thoroughness, and identify redundancies.

309 A constructivist GT methodology is underpinned by the premise that theory can be
310 derived from textual data of first-hand accounts that reveal the phenomenon under review.
311 Key to this, data are analysed and coded using a multi-stage process that enables a researcher
312 to define the meaning of the data and how one might interpret that meaning. It is through the
313 process of coding that the GT emerges. Coding refers to attaching of conceptual labels (i.e.,
314 codes) to data which allow the relationship between codes to be theorised in relation to any
315 given phenomenon.

316 The constructivist GT underpinning this study was developed iteratively according to
317 three stages of coding (Table 4). Proceeding line-by-line, open coding was used initially to
318 break the data into meaningful units at the word or phrase level. These small units of data
319 were each assigned a conceptual label or code using gerunds (the noun form of verbs).
320 Gerunds were used as a heuristic device to define implicit meaning and actions and to
321 facilitate the exploration of relationships between codes (Urquhart, 2013; Charmaz 2014).

322 The second stage of coding, focused coding, grouped similar concepts into more abstract,
323 higher level categories. Finally, the core theoretical categories were identified, propositions
324 developed, and the explanatory framework constructed. Throughout each level of coding,
325 constant comparison, a fundamental process of GT methodology, was employed as an
326 analytic tool. Constant comparison is a process of comparing data with other data, comparing
327 data with concepts, and concepts with concepts (Glaser & Strauss 1967; Mills et al. 2006;
328 Walker & Myrick 2006). Data analysis proceeded iteratively and written memos were used to
329 appraise critically the concepts emerging from the data, to describe concepts' properties and
330 dimensions and the relationships between concepts, and to define the causal conditions,
331 contexts and consequences of actions and interactions related to the phenomenon (listening
332 effort). Diagrams were used extensively in combination with Spradley's semantic
333 relationships (relationships between aspects of the content or 'story line') (Spradley (1979)
334 cited in Urquhart, 2013) to explore interactions and associations between categories. These
335 visual representations of the data were developed using XMind v6 mind mapping software.
336 The core category, the central concept which represents the main theme of the grounded
337 theory, was identified according to the criteria specified by Strauss and Corbin (2015) that: 1)
338 it should be related to all other categories, 2) appear frequently in the data, 3) be logical and
339 consistent with no forcing of the data, 4) be sufficiently abstract enough so that it can be used
340 as the overarching explanatory concept and used in other research, and 5) grow in
341 explanatory power as other categories are related to it. Theoretical integration was achieved
342 through an iterative process of reviewing and sorting concepts, categories, diagrams and
343 memos. Finally, consistent with constructivist GT methodology, the literature review for this
344 study was deferred until after analysis of the verbatim transcripts was completed. The scope
345 of the literature review was broad, guided by the emergent concepts and categories and the
346 principles of theoretical sampling. Theoretical sampling is a process of seeking additional

347 information to support and further develop the theoretical categories originating in the data
348 (Charmaz 2014). Deferring the literature review enabled the researchers to compare the
349 newly developed model with relevant constructs and theories in the published literature.

350 **Credibility, Trustworthiness and Rigor**

351 In constructivist GT, the terms reliability and validity are eschewed in favour of the
352 terms credibility, trustworthiness and rigour (Krefting 1991; Tracy, 2010; Strauss & Corbin
353 2015). Through consensus discussions, the authors confirmed the credibility and applicability
354 of the new GT by applying criteria established by Glaser and Strauss (1967): 1) the level of
355 description and detail was sufficient, 2) the processes of data collection and analysis were
356 transparent, 3) there were multiple comparison groups, 4) the theory ‘fit’ the data, 5) was
357 understandable by laypersons and professionals and 6) sufficiently abstract to be usable (cited
358 in Strauss & Corbin 2015, p. 345)

359 Criteria specified by Chiovitti and Piran (2003) and Strauss and Corbin (2015) were
360 applied to confirm methodological rigor. Specifically, the research protocol stated the
361 rationale and procedures for participant recruitment and the participants were encouraged to
362 focus their group discussions on the topic guide questions. A second reviewer checked the
363 codes for representativeness against the verbatim transcripts. The theory generated from the
364 data was checked against participants’ understandings of the listening effort through feedback
365 from RMG lay representatives. Finally, the use of analytical tools recognised in the GT
366 literature as promoting rigor (i.e., constant comparison, line-by-line microanalysis of the data,
367 reflexive memos, and clear documentation of the research process) further ensured the
368 study’s trustworthiness.

369 **RESULTS**

370 **Overview**

371 ———The constructivist GT is presented in two parts as shown in Figures 1 and 2 and each
372 component will be described fully later in this paper. Conceptual and category labels
373 generated by the coding process are indicated by use of italics. Briefly, the GT is comprised
374 of two core categories. Firstly, it proposes that listening effort, for individuals with severe-
375 profound SNHL who receive a CI, is a process of *seeking connectedness* (Figure 1). It
376 suggests that perceived social connectedness, as a reward of effort expenditure, informs how
377 individuals experience and make sense of listening effort in everyday life. Listening effort as
378 a process of seeking connectedness was found to involve three sequential stages:

- 379 1. *Validating*
- 380 2. *Disconnecting*
- 381 3. *Restoring and reconciling*

382 This process, as captured in the data, suggests generally that a progressive severe-profound
383 SNHL creates conditions whereby individuals must invest extensive listening effort to
384 communicate optimally. Individuals are motivated to invest listening effort to preserve or
385 validate their sense of social connectedness, described as a subjective awareness of being in
386 touch with one's social worlds, a sense of belonging, and a fundamental human need
387 (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Lee & Robbins, 1998). However, diminishing hearing abilities
388 cause the expenditure of listening effort to become ineffective, leading to increased social
389 isolation and diminished well-being. The data suggest that receiving a CI moderates but does
390 not remove the requirement for listening effort. Rather, the improved auditory signal, in
391 combination with moderated listening effort, facilitates communication, which, in turn,
392 increases recipients' perceived social connectedness. Perceived social connectedness informs
393 how recipients assign value to listening effort and is a determiner of future listening effort
394 expenditure. When listening effort and social connectedness are balanced, recipients consider

395 the continued need for listening effort to be an acceptable investment. However, a perceived
396 effort-reward imbalance prompts a decrease in effort.

397 Secondly, the new GT suggests that individuals with severe-profound SNHL understand
398 and experience listening effort as a multi-dimensional phenomenon (Figure 2), labelled in the
399 constructivist GT as *active doing*. The authors labelled the second core category as active
400 doing to depict the deliberate nature of the mental work involved in listening that was
401 captured in the data. Listening effort as active doing appears to have three key dimensions:

- 402 1. *Attending*
- 403 2. *Processing*
- 404 3. *Adapting and compensating*

405 The dimensions of listening effort captured in the data appeared to be influenced by a range
406 of contextual and causal conditions.

407 **Context Conditions for Listening Effort**

408 Participants provided detailed information on the contexts in which they experienced
409 listening effort. Context was discussed both broadly in terms of the relationship between
410 listening effort and the experience of living with a hearing loss and specifically by mining
411 from participants' accounts the specific situations in which listening effort was likely to be
412 required.

413 Broadly, listening effort was considered the functional manifestation of the
414 participants' hearing loss. Listening effort framed and shaped participants lives in an all-
415 encompassing and pervasive way. Most were accepting of their diagnosis of hearing
416 impairment and did not consider the label of "deafness" to be problematic. However, it was
417 the functional manifestation of their hearing loss as the non-negotiable requirement to invest
418 listening effort and the consequences of failed effort investment that was perceived as

419 challenging. It was listening effort rather than the hearing loss that was suggested to
420 negatively impact quality of life.

421 “...it's not the deafness that's a problem, it's the effort required to get anything from
422 the hearing. It's all effort.” (Participant 012)

423 Perceptions of listening effort appeared to be influenced by the hearing devices participants
424 used. Hearing aid users seemed overwhelmed by the effort associated with listening (note
425 that in this study, HA users were all candidates for cochlear implantation). HA users
426 struggled to reflect upon their experiences of listening effort, perhaps due to the minimal
427 benefit HAs afforded them. They had fewer insights about their experiences of effortful
428 listening. Compared with the CI recipients, their accounts focussed on the consequences of
429 effortful listening rather than the qualities of listening effort. HA users commented that
430 listening and communication were often unsuccessful despite listening effort and,
431 consequently, these individuals no longer invested effort, finding it preferable to “switch-off”
432 (Participant 001). By contrast, the CI users recalled experiencing similar feelings of
433 overwhelm in relation to listening effort before receiving their implant; however, listening
434 experience with a CI qualified these participants to compare the qualities of their listening
435 effort and changes in its magnitude before and after implantation. The sense of overwhelm
436 and the need to “switch-off” was suggested to diminish after cochlear implantation.

437 Listening effort appeared to be influenced by the specific context in which listening
438 occurred. Both HA users and CI recipients discussed the need for less effort when speaking
439 with one conversational partner as compared to the level of effort needed when listening in
440 groups. One-to-one situations were described as “quite easy”, “feeling relaxed”, and “almost
441 perfect” (Participants 012, 021). Groups were much more challenging for participants. In
442 these situations, all the participants reported that they often found themselves unable to
443 follow the conversation and unable to participate despite investing listening effort. In multi-

444 speaker conversations listening effort was described as the need for increased focus which
445 left individuals feeling tired and stressed. For all participants, listening effort varied
446 depending on the degree of background noise, the complexity of the information being
447 conveyed, and speaker characteristics.

448 **Causal Conditions for Listening Effort**

449 The primary causal condition suggested to motivate the investment of listening effort
450 is a reduced sense of social connectedness arising from severe-profound SNHL. The focus
451 group discussions suggested threats to social connectedness (i.e., the presence of a severe-
452 profound SNHL) motivated participants to invest listening effort as a way of realising their
453 basic human need to feel socially connected. Social connectedness and hearing loss, as
454 causal conditions, are reasons for the GT's core category –a basic social process of “seeking
455 connectedness”. Low social connectedness is “like being dead” (Participant 054). It gives rise
456 to feelings of invisibility, of *being an outsider* to loved ones, and causes individuals to
457 question their own existence. With diminishing hearing, low social connectedness becomes
458 ubiquitous. Listening effort, as a deliberate form of action, is rationalized as a means of
459 combatting low social connectedness.

460 **Core Category: Seeking Connectedness**

461 Preimplant Phase: Validating and Disconnecting

462 Participant accounts suggested individuals with HL are motivated to invest listening
463 effort to maintain their sense of belonging and confirm social connectedness. Before cochlear
464 implantation individuals utilise hearing aids, which offer minimal benefit due to the severity
465 of the hearing loss. In this context, the severe and progressive nature of the hearing loss
466 threatens social connectedness. To validate one's social connectedness increasingly greater
467 levels of listening effort are invested, described by participants as *struggling to fit in* and

468 “trying so hard” (Participant 054). They compared listening and listening effort to a struggle
469 for “survival” (Participant 048).

470 Validating is characterised by feelings of loneliness. Participants viewed themselves
471 as different from hearing family and friends and were often recipients of stigma and negative
472 attitudes. They suggested that, because of their hearing loss, they made others uneasy. To
473 overcome these obstacles and to gain a feeling of belongingness, participants appeared to
474 invest effort into listening. They viewed their investment of listening effort as obligatory to
475 live up to the expectations of hearing loved ones, especially at social events. The participants
476 expressed that they frequently blame themselves when they are unable to listen effectively
477 and assume full responsibility when communication breakdowns occur.

478 As hearing diminishes it becomes increasingly difficult for individuals with severe-
479 profound SNHL to maintain a sense of social connectedness despite maximum expenditure of
480 listening effort. When effort and social connectedness are in an imbalanced state, motivation
481 to invest listening effort decreases and individuals commence a process of disconnecting, the
482 second stage in the core category of seeking connectedness. Disconnecting is a process of
483 *increasing social distance*, characterised by a dread of social interaction which participants
484 described as a desire to “walk out” (Participant 003), “slither away like a snake without
485 anyone noticing” (Participant 016) and feeling “like I’m curling up inside” (Participant 021).
486 Disconnecting means individuals begin *giving up* on listening, becoming increasingly
487 socially isolated. For some participants, giving up was associated with feelings of guilt.
488 Other participants viewed *switching off* as a selfless act undertaken to protect loved ones.
489 These participants suggested that *opting out* of a social situation was preferable to *being a*
490 *burden* to others. Being a burden was associated with feelings of dependence, helplessness,
491 and being indebted to others. Social isolation and a continued requirement for high listening

492 effort were suggested to negatively impact participants' well-being by during the
493 disconnecting phase.

494 "For me it is everything that is the results of straining to hear and that can be physical
495 effects, it can be mental effects, it can be emotional effects." (Participant 012)

496 Low self-confidence and self-esteem were related to low perceived social connectedness and
497 participants' experiences of listening in sub-optimal conditions. Participants regularly
498 experienced feelings of fear, vulnerability, guilt, frustration, and embarrassment. Feelings of
499 frustration were commonly associated with the disconnecting phase and occurred when "you
500 are putting a lot of effort in and not getting very much benefit from the effort" (Participant
501 007). Anxiety was experienced commonly during disconnecting and appeared to be linked to
502 an individual's assessment of the upcoming listening situation and their appraisal of the effort
503 expenditure needed to listen optimally. Increased anxiety correlated with greater listening
504 effort. Effort judgements appeared to be influenced by the importance of the listening task,
505 environmental factors, and speaker characteristics. For example, one participant noted higher
506 levels of anxiety when he was required to listen to children or female speakers. Tasks rated as
507 important were linked to higher anxiety levels. Overall, participants suggested anxiety was
508 unavoidable when listening with a hearing loss. Anxiety levels were generally higher before
509 implantation, presumably linked to a sustained need for increased listening effort.

510 Postimplant Phase: Restoring and Reconciling

511 Receiving a CI marks the beginning of the final phase in the process of seeking
512 connectedness described as *restoring and reconciling*. Restoring and reconciling describes
513 how social connectedness and receiving a cochlear implant impacts on subjectively
514 experienced listening effort. Receiving a CI is a cause of *increasing social connectedness*
515 which participants suggested was "the reward of a CI" (Participant 054). Cochlear
516 implantation appears to correct the effort-reward imbalance described by participants in the

517 validating and disconnecting phases. Although listening effort is still required to derive
518 meaning from the auditory stimulation provided by a CI, the focus group accounts suggested
519 that listening effort after implantation is viewed more positively. The reward of renewed
520 social connectedness and the moderating influence of a CI on the effort requirement appear to
521 render acceptable the continued need for listening effort.

522 Increased connectedness included an individual's sense of being linked in with the
523 auditory environment. An improved sense of connection with their soundscape was
524 especially important to participants if the listening effort required for speech understanding
525 remained unchanged after implantation. As individuals with post-lingual, progressive SNHL,
526 the participants also associated increased connectedness with feelings of *being back* and
527 "becoming a person again" (Participant 012). Being back meant restoring aspects of self-
528 identity that had been constrained by the hearing loss. Being back also meant being back to
529 others by reconnecting with loved ones and through a re-establishing of social roles.

530 "I came out of dark, deep pit if you like into light, I could feel the difference there.
531 The isolation I experienced before did not exist any longer. I could hear my wife's
532 soft northern accent and my little granddaughter...and heard the birds singing in the
533 trees and things – and hearing my own voice – I felt as though I were dreaming, if you
534 like. I got onto the beach and listened to the sea gulls and the lashing of the waves and
535 just tried to eavesdrop on people's conversation if you like just to hear the difference
536 and the tone and using less muscles in my face and with that it was just like – it's a
537 new world." (Participant 021)

538 Participants reported feelings of joy and elation when they realised they could take part
539 successfully in social interaction. The restored sense of social connectedness experienced
540 after implantation was suggested to lead to improvements in individuals' well-being and

541 quality of life. Participants reported feelings of contentment, happiness and optimism.

542 Confidence was restored and self-esteem improved.

543 When asked about listening effort after implantation, the participants confirmed a

544 continued requirement to invest listening effort. All viewed cochlear implantation positively

545 and experienced benefit from their devices. However, even with a CI, they acknowledged

546 “there will [always] be [listening] effort and there is not a magic cure” (Participant 004).

547 Interestingly, for a few participants, listening effort reportedly increased generally after CI.

548 They attributed their perception of increased listening effort to greater social participation

549 and “doing more” (Participants 004, 018). These recipients stopped switching off and

550 increased participation led them to judge their listening effort to be higher after implantation.

551 While most participants could identify occasional listening situations when effort was

552 increased, the requirement for listening effort was generally moderated by the CI. Moderated

553 effort and increased social connectedness appeared sufficient to restore a perceived effort-

554 reward balance such that participants no longer regarded listening effort as problematic.

555 Whereas listening effort was described as overwhelming before implantation, it was

556 described after implantation as a “chore” (Participant 018). Participants now considered the

557 need for listening effort a tolerable aspect of using a CI, accepting they “will always have to

558 make a considerable effort to communicate with others.” (Participant 007)

559 **Core Category: The Active Doing of Listening**

560 The core category of seeking connectedness highlights the relationship between the

561 constructs of social connectedness and effort-reward balance and the role of cochlear

562 implantation in the subjective experience of effortful listening in severe-profound SNHL. In a

563 second core category labelled “the active doing of listening”, the GT describes the qualities

564 of listening effort experienced in everyday listening. The participant accounts suggest

565 listening effort is a complex, multi-dimensional and active process. It appears to comprise: 1)

566 the mental effort associated with *attending* to and 2) *processing* the auditory signal and 3) the
567 effort invested in *adapting* to and *compensating* for the hearing loss (Figure 2).

568 All the participants associated attention and concentration with listening effort. The
569 GT describes the category of attending as the process by which the participants focussed their
570 mental energy on an auditory stimulus. Three sub-categories of attending were identified: 1)
571 *scanning*, 2) *focussing*, and 3) *filtering*. The experience of attending varied, depending on the
572 type of hearing device used. Before implantation, participants were mostly scanning and
573 focussing. Scanning refers to maintaining a state of vigilance with participants monitoring the
574 auditory environment to detect auditory information. When participants were scanning, they
575 were in a state of “hyperarousal” (Participant 054) and heightened awareness, described as
576 stretching, straining, and “being at 55,000 feet” (Participant 005).

577 “Hyper-aroused feels like you are extending. On the roof you know, like on the
578 ceiling, all your antennas going. You’ve got hundreds of antennas and they are all
579 reaching out, reaching out, reaching out”. (Participant 054)

580 For participants, scanning involved tension and was the opposite of being relaxed, which they
581 related to being in a “flow state” (Participant 007) when “listening just happened”
582 (Participant 012). Scanning meant being in a constant state of readiness that participants
583 found exhausting. It was a style of listening that could not be sustained for long periods of
584 time.

585 Focussing was the other form of attending particularly prevalent before implantation.
586 Focussing is the opposite of scanning and refers to listening for discrete aspects of the speech
587 signal such as specific phonemes or words. Participants considered it unlikely that they
588 would understand a spoken message in its entirety. To compensate, many adopted the
589 strategy of listening carefully to part of the speech signal (focussing) rather than employ a
590 more gestalt approach. However, although most participants utilised focussing, there was a

591 consensus agreement that focussing is an ineffective form of listening effort. All participants
592 shared experiences of struggling to follow conversational speech because they are “focussing
593 so much on the individual words” (Participant 048). Like scanning, focussing is time-limited,
594 intense, tiring and cannot be sustained for long periods.

595 Receiving a CI was suggested to change the participants’ style of attending. Focussing
596 and scanning were forms of attending made necessary by the badly degraded auditory signal.
597 A CI provided participants with superior auditory stimulation compared to their hearing aids.
598 Participant accounts suggested recipients were no longer required to invest effort in detecting
599 auditory information. Instead, listening effort was directed at interpreting the auditory
600 stimulation. Their style of attending shifted from focussing and scanning to a process of
601 *filtering*. Filtering is the mental effort directed at analyzing sounds in an individual’s
602 soundscape.

603 “You are working quite hard finding out what sounds belong, constantly all day
604 putting stuff in the right slots all the time”. (Participant 054)

605 Filtering was most prevalent immediately after switch-on. It eased over time but even with
606 several years of CI experience, participants continued to view filtering as a necessary
607 component of listening.

608 *Processing*, as a form of listening effort, refers to the interplay between cognition and
609 audition as experienced by the focus group participants. It refers particularly to the cognitive
610 and linguistic strategies deployed to decode an auditory message. Processing was suggested
611 to have implications for working memory. Participants appeared to rely on context, prior
612 experience and linguistic knowledge to support their listening and considered these strategies
613 to be a dimension of listening effort. Specifically, they suggested processing involved the
614 *piecing together* of information and *listening for key words*. Listening was often uncertain
615 and involved “guesswork” (Participant 048). Knowing the topic of conversation and having

616 written material or other visual media to support understanding appeared to ease the
617 requirement for processing as a dimension of listening effort.

618 The effort of listening with severe-profound SNHL meant that spoken messages were
619 decoded slowly, presumably due to the increased requirement for cognitive processing to
620 offset the badly degraded auditory signal. The time lag between hearing and understanding
621 was often significant enough to limit social participation. The increased time requirement was
622 particularly distressing in group conversations and in the workplace.

623 “I feel isolated in group situations because I am unable to follow rapid dialogue
624 (normal speech!). And listening effort means I always seem to mean being "behind"
625 the group. Just tagging along, harder to contribute because of "listening and
626 assimilating" time, the moment passes and someone else is speaking.” (Participant
627 001)

628 Both the HA users and CI recipients suggested listening effort as processing also impacted
629 working memory by limiting ability to remember and recall conversational content.
630 Difficulty *remembering and recalling* was linked with a perceived need to focus on specific
631 aspects of the speech signal and a reliance on cognition to decode the spoken message.

632 “I’d say what was that conversation about, what do I have to remember? I would not
633 even pick out the main part of it because I’ve concentrated so much on listening to
634 that first bit I’ve forgotten what they’ve said because I just can’t hold on to what I have
635 to... remember-, remembering is dreadful.” (Participant 030)

636 Participants also reported difficulty “multi-tasking” (Participant 016), which they described
637 as the ability to perform another activity (e.g., taking notes, driving) while listening. *Multi-*
638 *tasking* was most compromised before implantation. The associated effort required to decode
639 the poor-quality speech signal meant listening became all-consuming, suggesting maximum

640 resource allocation to the listening task. It imposed social limitations and was noted to have a
641 negative effect on performance in the workplace.

642 “Sometimes we're talking about technical subjects and sometimes we might be
643 speaking to someone who we've never met before and they might mumble and the
644 effort of trying to understand them and write the notes and then, hang on, what did
645 they just say? Because my concentration is split and it seems to affect my memory
646 because you were talking about previous subjects. Somebody may have been talking
647 about a previous subject which is also relevant to what is happening now, and all that
648 mental juggling seems to affect my memory because I am trying to listen to you and
649 trying to make some notes, I am trying to think what I want to say, and also remember
650 what is going on. That listening effort is a big thing.” (Participant 018)

651 The ability to listen and simultaneously perform a second task was suggested to improve after
652 cochlear implantation. These were moments of significance for recipients, highlighting a
653 benefit of cochlear implantation and a positive change in their listening abilities.

654 Processing was influenced by the acoustic environment. More challenging listening
655 conditions (e.g., the presence of background noise) were suggested to impact negatively on
656 participants' ability to perform a concurrent task while listening, irrespective of the hearing
657 device being used. Processing was also suggested to affect participants' well-being.
658 Processing affected participants' self-efficacy leading them to question their ability to be
659 successful in social gatherings and in the workplace. Reduced self-efficacy, self-confidence
660 and self-esteem, associated with their ability to decode, recall and understand a spoken
661 message was particularly evident in the preimplant phases of validating and disconnecting.

662 “I go in thinking ‘Is that person thinking I'm very thick? Should I be doing the job
663 that I'm doing?’ Because this person has told me something I really should have

664 understood and I'm giving this blank face, I couldn't quickly respond so I have that
665 feeling of lower ability I suppose.” (Participant 016)

666 *Adapting and compensating* is the third dimension of listening effort mined from the
667 participants' accounts. The participants suggested that they utilize specific strategies to adapt
668 to and compensate for their hearing loss that require special mental effort. They associated
669 the mental energy required to appraise the environment and the decision-making associated
670 with the deployment of appropriate strategies to ensure successful communication to be a
671 form of listening effort:

672 “What’s the room going to be like? Will I have the light behind you? Will I be
673 sitting in the dark? Will I be at the bottom of the table and I won’t be able to hear?
674 There are lots of considerations going on. To me that is part of the listening effort that
675 a hearing person maybe won’t even think about.” (Participant 004)

676 Adapting and compensating involved *planning* when and how to listen and efforts directed at
677 *engineering the environment* for optimal listening (e.g., sitting close to the speaker,
678 evaluating the room layout). The effort invested in adapting and compensating appeared to be
679 influenced by participants' perceived self-efficacy and anxieties about their ability to manage
680 the listening and communication demands of a given situation. Additionally, the data
681 suggested that the necessity for listening effort required HA users and CI recipients to
682 monitor and carefully manage their mental and physical energy resources. Resource
683 monitoring and the identification of opportunities for rest and recovery from listening were
684 important aspects of adapting and compensating, considered necessary for participants to
685 maintain their well-being.

686 **DISCUSSION**

687 In this GT study, focus groups provided personal accounts of the experiences and
688 understanding of everyday listening effort before and after cochlear implantation. From these

689 narratives, common themes and processes were constructed to establish the content validity
690 for a new patient reported outcome measure (PROM) to evaluate perceived listening effort in
691 adult CI recipients. The study's findings suggest that listening effort is a multi-dimensional
692 construct that significantly influences how individuals' experience and make sense of living
693 with severe-profound sensorineural hearing loss. The participants considered listening effort
694 to mean the mental work required to attend to and to process an auditory signal and the
695 mental effort needed to plan for and deploy adaptive strategies to manage a listening
696 situation. An individual's experience of listening effort and their motivation to invest future
697 listening effort was informed by their perceived social connectedness, or sense of belonging,
698 as a key reward of their effort investment. When efforts and rewards were in a state of
699 imbalance individuals were less motivated to invest listening effort. Receiving a CI provided
700 sufficient auditory stimulation that, when combined with listening effort, recipients
701 experienced greater social connectedness. Increased social connectedness restored the effort-
702 reward balance and listening effort was perceived to be an acceptable cost of having a CI.

703 Several studies have explored the role of motivation in the specific context of
704 listening effort and the associated concept of listening-related fatigue (Hornsby et al. 2013;
705 Picou & Ricketts 2014; Earle et al. 2015). The new GT adds to this literature and provides
706 support for the role of motivation in effortful listening. It offers confirmatory evidence of the
707 FUEL (Pichora-Fuller et al. 2016), a heuristic for understanding the complex relationship
708 between the demands of the listening task, an individual's cognitive capacity, and the
709 motivation to expend the necessary cognitive resources to listen optimally. The findings are
710 also compatible with the well-established literature on the psychosocial impact of hearing
711 loss (Hetu et al. 1988; Hallberg & Carlsson 1991; Hogan 1997; Hallberg et al. 2000; Hogan
712 et al. 2011), psychological theories of motivation and belongingness (Baumeister & Leary
713 1995; Lee & Robbins 1995; Lee & Robbins 1998; Townsend & McWhirter 2005), effort-

714 reward imbalance (Siegrist 1996; van Vegchel et al. 2005), attention and vigilance
715 (Kahneman 1973; Kuchinsky et al. 2016), and the growing body of literature on listening
716 effort in hearing loss (see (Klink et al. 2012; McGarrigle et al. 2014; Ohlenforst & Zekveld
717 2017 for reviews). The findings, in particular the importance of maintaining an effort-reward
718 balance, may also be compared to recent reports of how motivation affects compliance with
719 certain interventions such as auditory training (Tye-Murray et al. 2012; Henshaw et al. 2015).

720 The core constructs identified in the model are consistent with psychological theories
721 belongingness (Baumeister & Leary 1995; Hockey 2011), in particular social connectedness.
722 Social connectedness is defined as the subjective awareness of being in touch with the social
723 world (Lee & Robbins 1998). It is considered a fundamental and pervasive human motivation
724 that drives individuals to invest effort in the pursuit of meaningful social interaction
725 (Baumeister & Leary). The process of seeking connectedness identified in this study supports
726 previous research that has established when social connectedness is threatened or disrupted,
727 individuals experience social isolation, self-alienation, anxiety and poor mental and
728 emotional well-being (Lee & Robbins 1995; Lee & Robbins 1998; Lee et al. 2001; Townsend
729 & McWhirter 2005; Crisp 2010). The GT adds to previous qualitative studies that have
730 shown social connectedness to be affected by hearing loss and to be a benefit of CI (Hogan
731 1997; Hallberg & Ringdahl 2004; Ramage-Morin 2016). For example, resonant with the
732 participants' descriptions of being a burden before implantation and doing more after having
733 a CI, Hallberg & Ringdahl (2004) identified a decreased dependency on others and increased
734 social participation as central themes of a grounded theory study exploring individuals'
735 experiences of living with a cochlear implant. Additionally, several of the constructs
736 associated with the disconnecting phase of seeking connectedness (e.g., anxiety, low self-
737 esteem, social isolation) are consistent with previous qualitative studies describing the impact
738 of hearing loss on psychosocial well-being (Hetu et al. 1988; Hallberg & Carlsson 1991;

739 Hallberg et al. 2000; Hawthorne et al. 2004; Engelund 2006; Hogan et al. 2011). This GT
740 study extends these earlier findings by associating perceived listening effort with social
741 participation and psychosocial health in the case of cochlear implantation.

742 The findings in this study, in particular the concepts of effort-reward balance and the
743 negative consequences of effort-reward imbalance, are compatible with the effort-reward
744 imbalance (ERI) model of stressful experiences in work (Siegrist 1996). The ERI model of
745 occupational health claims that lack of reciprocity between ‘costs’ and ‘gains’ (i.e., high
746 effort/low reward conditions) causes a state of emotional distress and increases the risk of
747 poor health (van Vegchel et al. 2005) with negative effects on occupational role status (as a
748 type of social role). According to the ERI model, maintenance of social roles is considered
749 crucial for the safeguarding of self-efficacy and self-esteem (Siegrist, 2000). The finding that
750 the participants in this study attributed low self-esteem to an inequity between their sense of
751 social connectedness and the listening effort they invested to maintain their social roles is
752 similar to this model.

753 Complementary to the ERI model, the concept of effort-reward balance in evaluating
754 the requirement for listening effort also resonates with Brehm and Self ‘s (1989) model of
755 motivational intensity. This model suggests that cost-benefit evaluation of required effort is
756 undertaken in the context of task demands and task success importance. When task demands
757 are proportional to the importance of success then effort is expended. However, if task
758 success is impossible, despite importance, then effort is withheld. During the disconnecting
759 phase it appears that the task demands of listening become so great that continued investment
760 of effort cannot guarantee listening success, so effort is withdrawn. The findings also support
761 previous qualitative studies exploring help-seeking behaviour in hearing healthcare (Carson
762 2005) and hearing aid use in mild-moderate hearing loss (Lockey et al. 2010). Carson (2005)
763 suggested women’s decision-making in relation to their hearing health was informed by an

764 analysis of “cost v benefits” where costs were defined as the “cognitive, physical and
765 emotional effort of persevering” (p. 192) and benefits included improved understanding,
766 leading to opportunity for increased participation. Lockey et al.’s (2010) phenomenological
767 study related hearing aid use with the ability of the devices to enhance opportunities for
768 social participation.

769 The GT conceptualizes listening effort as the mental work undertaken in attending to
770 the auditory signal, processing auditory information and adapting to and compensating for
771 hearing loss. The participant accounts of attending as scanning resonate with published
772 studies of vigilance. Vigilance, the ability of humans to remain alert to stimuli over
773 prolonged periods of time (Warm et al. 2008), is described in the focus group accounts as the
774 need for “heightened awareness” when attending to auditory stimuli. Kuchinsky et al. (2016)
775 studied vigilant listening using pupilometry and fMRI to ascertain that increased listening
776 effort is associated with vigilant attention, consistent with the participants’ accounts. The GT
777 is further supported by previous studies of vigilance decrement. Kahneman (1973) described
778 vigilance decrement as the decline of an individual’s stimuli detection performance over
779 time. In some instances, vigilance decrement occurs rapidly, a finding consistent with this GT
780 in which participants, particularly the HA users, described their ability to attend to an
781 auditory signal as time-limited. The reports of heightened arousal and vigilance are also
782 consistent with findings that adults with hearing loss have an increased autonomic nervous
783 system stress response in noisy environments, as evidenced with skin conductance and heart
784 rate variability measures. Focussing, the effort invested by individuals to decode speech at
785 the level of the phoneme, is a finding compatible with theories of auditory speech perception
786 as a primary account of bottom-up processing (McClelland & Elman 1986; Marslen-Wilson
787 1987; Luce & Pisoni 1998; Edwards 2007; Stenfelt & Rönnberg 2009). Finally, the findings
788 adds to previous research that has established the need for individual’s to recruit additional

789 cognitive processes to segregate target stimuli from background information (Shinn-
790 Cunningham & Best 2008). Filtering, the mental effort associated with attending to and
791 discriminating salient auditory stimuli, resonates with studies using pupillometry to measure
792 listening effort in dynamic auditory environments (Koelewijn et al. 2015).

793 Participants' experiences of processing suggested they associated listening effort with
794 a reduced ability to remember and recall auditory information and a reduced ability to
795 participate in conversations, particularly in challenging listening conditions. The findings
796 share similarities with studies of listening effort and working memory (McCoy et al. 2005;
797 Ng et al. 2013; Rönnberg et al. 2013). For example, McCoy et al. (2005) reported findings of
798 increased listening effort and poorer word recall in mild hearing loss. Using a running
799 memory span task, participants with hearing loss recalled significantly fewer words than a
800 normal-hearing control group. Interpreted in the context of Kahneman's (1973) Capacity
801 Model, the Ease of Language Understanding Model (Rönnberg 2003; Stenfelt & Rönnberg
802 2009; Rönnberg et al. 2013) and the FUEL (Pichora-Fuller et al. 2016), the GT lends support
803 to the proposition that the allocation of additional attentional and cognitive resources to
804 enable speech recognition has consequences for the downstream encoding processes needed
805 for information storage and retrieval.

806 Participants described perceived listening effort as a difficulty with multi-tasking that
807 they defined as listening and performing a second task simultaneously. Accounts of multi-
808 tasking are consistent with published studies utilising dual task paradigms to measure
809 listening effort. Similar to dual task paradigms where increased listening effort is assumed to
810 be represented by a decrease in performance on a secondary, concurrent task (Gagné et al.
811 2017), the focus group participants reported more effortful listening when they were
812 performing activities of daily living at the same time as listening, for example, having a
813 conversation while driving.

814 Adapting to and compensating for the hearing loss as a form of mental effort
815 associated with listening is consistent with previous qualitative studies describing the coping
816 strategies utilised by individuals with a hearing loss to manage their listening (Hallberg &
817 Carlsson 1991; Jaworski & Stephens 1998). The GT extends these findings by suggesting
818 adults with severe-profound SNHL consider their use of strategies and communication tactics
819 to be a form of listening effort. Deployment of compensatory strategies was suggested to be
820 greater before implantation. Before implantation, the degraded auditory signal rendered the
821 listening effort dimensions of attending and processing largely irrelevant. Participants' effort
822 expenditure focussed on compensating for the lack of auditory input, a finding supported by
823 Kahneman (1973, p. 10) who stated, "sometimes there are signals so faint that no amount of
824 attention can make them plain".

825 The qualitative findings presented in this study contribute a description of listening
826 effort before and after cochlear implantation as experienced by the studied sample.
827 Importantly, the results of this study also clearly highlight the complexity of the psychosocial
828 difficulties that exist with hearing loss despite the fitting of devices. The themes and
829 processes that emerged in this study will underpin the conceptual framework that will inform
830 item generation and the measurement model for a new PROM designed specifically to
831 measure listening effort in daily life. The GT contributes to the new instrument's content
832 validity by providing insights into listening effort collected directly from the target
833 population.

834 PROMs are used widely (Devlin & Appleby 2010) to measure both individual
835 symptoms and general well-being. The use of self-assessment measures is already well-
836 established in the audiology and it is possible foresee several potential applications for a
837 PROM of listening effort. A PROM has the potential to inform candidate counselling or be
838 utilised to assess the efficacy of postimplantation rehabilitation (e.g., auditory training,

839 psychosocial interventions) for ameliorating the burden of high listening effort. It could be
840 utilized to support patient counselling and, importantly, to inform decisions relating to CI
841 candidacy. Speech recognition tests (e.g., Boothroyd, 1968; Bench et al. 1979) are
842 established CI candidacy measures (NICE 2009). However, previous research suggests
843 performance (i.e., percentage correct score) on speech perception tasks is weakly correlated
844 with listening effort (see Ohlenforst & Zekveld 2017 for a review). Moreover, candidates
845 often describe the speech perception measures used in the clinic as unrepresentative of their
846 real world listening experiences. A PROM of listening effort referenced to the unique
847 communication situations a potential CI recipient experiences in daily life could supplement
848 the speech perception tasks used currently to evaluate CI candidacy. A PROM of listening
849 effort could also be utilized as an outcome measure to document CI benefit.

850 The study has several limitations that deserve discussion. First, the data were
851 potentially subject to recall bias as the CI recipients were asked to contrast their experiences
852 of listening effort before and after cochlear implantation. It is possible that some focus group
853 members over-reported their listening effort before implantation and under-reported their
854 requirement for listening effort after implantation. Significant others were under-represented
855 in the focus groups therefore accounts of listening effort from the perspective of loved ones
856 are limited. Also, the GT was developed through co-construction, a process of negotiation
857 between the participants and the lead researcher to establish the GT's concepts and
858 explanatory relationships. Co-construction renders the data unique to the study population;
859 therefore, these findings are limited and may not be applicable in other populations or
860 different researchers may interpret the data differently. A postal questionnaire developed
861 from the study findings is planned as a future study with the aim of verifying the grounded
862 theory in a larger population of CI recipients. Finally, per principles of qualitative inquiry,
863 this study is not intended to provide objective truths but offers an interpretation of the

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